

DROPOUT AND SECOND CHANCE EDUCATION WITH A GENDER PERSPECTIVE IN CHILE

METHODOLOGY, GOOD PRACTICES, AND RECOMMENDATIONS





Acknowledgements

In the framework of this study, we thank María Noel Vaeza, Regional Director of UN Women for the Americas and the Caribbean, and María Inés Salamanca, Coordinator of UN Women in Chile and Partnerships and Resource Mobilization Specialist for Latin America and the Caribbean

In addition, we appreciate the collaboration of the following subject matter experts: Georgina Villablanca, Supervisor of Youth and Adult Education (EPJA) from the eastern Santiago Provincial Department (DEPROV); Katherine Peñaloza, former head of the Pedagogical Technical Unit (UTP) from Fundación Súmate; María Paz Gómez, Ph.D. in Special Education; Valentina Errázuriz, Ph.D. in Education (Social Sciences); Mery Rodríguez, Ph.D. in Educational Sciences; Consuelo Navarro, Head of the Fundación Santa Ana Project Department; Jessica González, Director of the Comunidad Mujer Leadership Center; Nicolás Morovic, Metropolitan Regional Director for the Training of the Populace Institute (INFOCAP).

The development of this study was in charge of the externa consultant Andrea López Barraza, together with the technica support of UN Women Chile, by Javiera Vergara and Marice Sauterel

This document was made possible thanks to the support of Fundación BHP in the context of the *Tu Oportunidad*— Second Chance Education and Vocational Training Program.

The opinions expressed in this publication are those of the people involved in the conduct of this study. They do not necessarily represent the views of UN Women, the United Nations, or any of its member organizations.

Design by aid arte i diseño - www.arteidiseno.com

© 2021 ONU Mujeres / UN Women

DROPOUT AND SECOND CHANCE EDUCATION WITH A GENDER PERSPECTIVE IN CHILE

METHODOLOGY, GOOD PRACTICES, AND RECOMMENDATIONS



ONU MUJERES / UN WOMEN 2021



FOREWORD

Education is essential for women to attain gender equality and become leaders of change. A girl or a woman who attends school is exercising her fundamental human right to education. She also has a great chance of reaching her full potential throughout life, as she will be better prepared for a decent, well-paid job.

Although Chile is a country with high schooling rates compared to the regional and worldwide numbers, inequalities can still be observed in access to education for girls and young women from socio-economically vulnerable contexts. These women see their rights limited mainly because of teenage pregnancy and caring reasons. There is ample international evidence on the more significant risks faced by girls and young women in social risk situations aggravated by poverty, disability, and rurality. Added to this, the crisis caused by Covid-19 can exacerbate existing inequalities in education, which may imply that some girls never return to school.

For this reason, it is necessary to consider a gender perspective in the analysis of school dropout and second chance education to provide practical tools that allow avoiding dropouts and enable a successful reintegration of girls, young and adult women who have seen their educational careers interrupted. This need starts from the generation of knowledge products based on evidence, which allows contributing to the multisectoral public discussion on the actions, programs, and policies necessary for universal access to education in all its domains, and always focusing on gender.

Consequently, UN Women Chile is developing the study "School Dropout and Second Chance Education with a Gender Perspective" to make visible the specific situation in which girls, adolescents, and young women are in the country. The study reviews the national context in education regarding regulations, programs, and policies to address school dropout and reintegration. Likewise, it addresses this problem from a social, pedagogical, and public policy perspective with a gender approach to finally provide recommendations at different levels to develop an effective second chance education according to the social and economic reality of the country.

This study is part of the *Tu Oportunidad* – Second Chance Education (SCE) Program, a pioneering and global initiative of UN Women implemented in 6 countries: Australia, Cameroon, Chile, Jordan, India, and Mexico. This program began to be developed in 2018 and will reach more than 66,000 women worldwide who have access to tools to help them on their path of economic empowerment. The global program has partnerships between the Government, civil society, and the private sector to create a sustainable education and economic empowerment strategy for women.

María Inés Salamanca

Partnerships and Resource Mobilization Specialist for Latin America and the Caribbean

Coordinator of the UN Women Office in Chile (i.a.)

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS	9
LIST OF TABLES	10
LIST OF FIGURES	11
NOTE ON COVID-19 AND OUT-OF-SCHOOLING	13
INTRODUCTION	15
PART 1: SECOND CHANCE EDUCATION IN CHILE: LEGAL FRAMEWORK, POPULATION, PROGRAMS, AND GOOD PRACTICES	19
I. Conceptual Framework	20
I.A. Relevant Concepts	20
I.A.1. "Dropout" versus "Out-of-Schooling"	20
I.A.2. Out-of-Schooling as Process versus Action	20
I.A.3. Early School Leaving	21
I.A.4. Inclusive Education	21
I.A.5. Lifelong Learning	22
I.A.6. Youth Cultures and the Postmodern Context	22
I.A.7. The Concept of Trajectory	24
I.A.8. Intersectionality	26
I.A.9. Women's Empowerment	26
II. Legal Framework and the Chilean Context	27
II.A. International Treaties	27
II.B. National Laws	30
II.B.1. Historical Development	30
II.B.2. Child Labor	31
II.B.3. Pregnant Students	32
II.B.4. School Coexistence	32
II.B.5. Second Chance Education Laws	32

II.C. The Status of the Right to Education in Chile	34
II.C.1. Preschool Education in Chile	34
II.C.2. Primary and Secondary Education in Chile	35
II.C.3. Higher Education in Chile	36
II.C.4. Out-of-Schooling in Chile	38
II.C.5. Education for Indigenous Groups and Immigrants in Chile	41
II.C.6. Gender and Education	43
II.D. Work and Gender in Chile	49
II.D.1. Women's Entrepreneurship	51
II.D.2. Skills for Work	53
II.E. Gender-Based Violence	55
III. Second Chance Education in Chile	55
III.A. Extracurricular and Intracurricular Factors of Out-of-Schooling among	
the SCE Population in Chile	55
III.A.1. Extracurricular Factors	57
III.A.2. Intracurricular Factors	62
III.B. Trajectories of Students who Drop Out of School in Chile	66
III.C. Second Chance Education Programs in Chile	67
III.C.1. General Aspects	67
III.C.2. Types of Programs	69
IV. Good Practices in Second Chance Education	90
IV.A. Good International Practices	90
IV.A.1. Good Practices in the Psychosocial Domain	90
IV.A.2. Good Practices in the Pedagogical Domain	92
IV.A.3. Good Practices that Work with the Family and the Community	93
IV.A.4. Good Management Practices	94
IV.A.5. Good Practices that Articulate Training for Employment	96
IV.A.6. Good Practices that Consider Gender	101
IV.A.7. Summary	103
IV.B. Good National Practices	108
IV.B.1. Good Practices in the Psychosocial Domain	108
IV.B.2. Good Practices in the Pedagogical Domain	112
IV.B.3. Good Practices that Work with the Family and the Community	113
IV.B.4. Good Management Practices	113
IV.B.5. Summary	114

PART 2: EXPERTS' PERSPECTIVES ON SECOND CHANCE EDUCATION, GENDER AND EDUCATION, JOB TRAINING, AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP TO CONTEMPLATE A REINTEGRATION EDUCATION WITH A GENDER-BASED APPROACH IN CHILE	117
I. Analysis of the Interviews with Experts in Second Chance Education, Gender and Education, Job Training and Entrepreneurship	118
I. A. Teachers I.A.1. Multidisciplinary Teams I.A.2. Teacher Training I.A.3. Teacher-Student Bond	121 122 123 125
I.B. School Officials	128
I.C. Characteristics of the Students	130
I.D. Linkage between the Psychosocial and Pedagogical Fields I.D.1. Psychosocial Field: Empowerment and School Coexistence I.D.2. Pedagogical Strategies I.D.3. Program Evaluation	132 132 137 139
I.E. The Traditional Education System	139
I.F. Gender Barriers	143
I.G. Higher Education	152
I.H. Job Training and Entrepreneurship	153
I.I. Networks, Territory, and Family I.I.1. Territorial Networks I.I.2. Working with the Families	157 157 159
I.J. Management and Financing: The Linkage Between State and Civil Society	160
PART 3: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR A SECOND CHANCE EDUCATION WITH A GENDER PERSPECTIVE IN CHILE	163
I. Conclusions: The State of Second Chance Education in Chile and the Challenges of Second Chance Education with a Gender Perspective	164
II. Recommendations for a Second Chance Education with a Gender Perspective	170
II.A. Recommendations for Public Policies in Second Chance Education II.A.1. Recognizing the Need for Additional Resources and Flexibility for	170
Second Chance Education	170

REFERENCES	187
	103
II.E.6. Disseminate Knowledge to Impact Public Policies	185
II.E.5. Improve the Evaluations of Second Chance Education Programs and Include Different Indicators	185
II.E.4. Promote Gender Mainstreaming in Research	185
II.E.3. Investigate the Factors that Influence Out-of-Schooling	185
and other Research Organizations	184
II.E.2. Foster Partnerships between Second Chance Education, Universities,	40:
Education Schools	184
II.E.1. Promote Participatory Action-Research within Second Chance	
II.E. Recommendations for the Academe	184
Benefit the Community	184
II.D.4. Undertake Learning-Service Activities with the Students that	104
in the Territory	184
II.D.3. Foster Partnerships with the Organizations that Work with Women	40.
II.D.2. Promote School Openness to the Community and Encourage Volunteerism	184
II.D.1. Foster Partnerships between the State, Companies, and Foundations	183
Second Chance Education	183
II.D. Recommendations for the Linkage of Civil Society in	
motor meeneved	103
II.C.5. Incentives	183
II.C.4. Partnerships with Companies	183
II.C.2. Information and Communication Technologies II.C.3. Vocational Guidance	183
II.C.1. Granting Support to Entrepreneurship and Job Placement	182
II.C. Recommendations for Job Training and Entrepreneurship	182
II C. December detical for lob Training and Entrementary	182
II.B.7. Recommendations or the Continuation of Higher Education	181
II.B.6. Recommendations in the Psychosocial Sphere	180
II.B.5. Recommendations in the Educational Sphere	179
II.B.4. Recommendations for Working with Families	178
II.B.3. Recommendations for Second Chance Education Teams and Teachers	175
II.B.2. Recommendations for School Management	174
II.B.1. Recommendations for Gender Mainstreaming	172
II.B. Recommendations for Second Chance Education Programs	172
II.A.8. Providing Technical-Pedagogical References for Schools	171
II.A.7. Data Disaggregated by Sex	171
II.A.6. Valuing Diversity in Public Policies for Second Chance Education	171
II.A.5. Balancing the Meritocratic Perspective with the Critical Perspective	171
II.A.4. Participatory Public Policies	171
for Out-of-schooling	170
II.A.2. Developing Advocacy within Public Policy from Second Chance Education II.A.3. Incorporating the Gender and Intersectional Perspectives into Solutions	170
II A 2 Developing Advocacy within Public Policy from Second Chance Education	170

ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

Encuesta de Caracterización Socioeconómica Nacional [Chile National Social and Economic Survey]	CASEN
Centros de Educación Integrada de Adultos [Integrated Adult Education Centers]	CEIA
Centro de Salud Familiar [Family Health Center]	CESFAM
Centro de Políticas Comparadas de Educación [Center for Comparative Educational Policies]	CPCE
Programa de Protección Infanto Juvenil [Childhood and Youth Protection Program]	CEPIJ
Científico-Humanista [Scientific-Humanist]	СН
Centros de Formación Técnica [Technical Training Centers]	CFT
Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean	ECLAC
Consejo de Rectores de las Universidades Chilenas [Council of Rectors of the Chilean Universities]	CRUCH
Departamento Provincial [Provincial Department]	DEPROV
Second Chance Education	ESO
Educación para Jóvenes y Adultos [Youth and Adult Education – YAE]	EPJA
Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas [National Statistics Institute]	INE
Instituto Nacional de la Juventud [National Institute of Youth]	INJUV
Institutos Profesionales [Professional Institutes]	IPs
Mercado Común del Sur [Southern Cone Common Market]	ERCOSUR
Ministerio de Educación [Chilean Ministry of Education]	MINEDUC
Non-governmental Organizations	NGOs
Niños, niñas y adolescentes [Children and adolescents]	NNA
Objetivos de Desarrollo Sostenible [Sustainable Development Goals]	SDG
Office of the High Commissioner of Human Rights	OHCHR
Oficina Regional de Educación para América Latina y el Caribe	OREALC
[UNESCO Regional Bureau of Education for Latin America and the Caribbean]	
United Nations	UN
Organizaciones No Gubernamentales [Non-governmental Organizations – NGOs]	ONGs
Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development	OECD
Programa de Integración Escolar [Chilean School Integration Program]	PIE
Gross Domestic Product	GDP
Program for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies	PIAAC
Servicio Nacional de Menores [Chilean National Service for Minors]	SENAME
Servicio Nacional de Capacitación y Empleo [Chilean National Training and Employment Service]	SENCE
Sistema de Medición de la Calidad de la Educación	SIMCE
[Chilean System for Measuring the Quality of Education]	
Science, Technology, Engineering and Math	STEM
Technical-Vocational	TP
United Nations Children's Fund	UNICEF
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization	UNESCO
Unidad Técnico Pedagógica [Pedagogical Technical Unit]	UTP
Youth and Adult Education – YAE	YAE

LIST OF TABLES

Part 1		Part 2	
Table 1:		Table 1:	
International Treaties	27	General Elements of the Discourse Context	120
Table 2:		Table 2:	
Individuals who Consider themselves to Belong to		Issues Identified on Teachers in Second	
an Indigenous or Native People by Sex,		Chance Education and Job Training	128
according to Peoples	41		
		Table 3:	
Table 3:		Issues Identified on School Officials in	
School Absenteeism by Region	63	Second Chance Education	130
Table 4:		Table 4:	
School Absenteeism by Sex	64	Issues Identified in the Psychosocial Domain	
·		in Second Chance Education and	
Table 5:		Job Training Programs	137
Types of Second Chance Programs	70		
		Table 5:	
Table 6:		Issues Identified on the Regular Education System	142
Levels and Modalities for YAE in Chile	81	,	
		Table 6:	
Table 7:		Issues Identified on Gender Barriers in	
Primary Enrollment for Regular YAE,		Education and Employment	151
by Administrative Unit, Region and Sex	82		
27 Nammistrative Sint, Neglish and Sex	02		
Table 8:			
Secondary Enrollment for Regular YAE,			
by Administrative Unit, Region and Sex	84		
Table 9:			
Good International Practices in Second			
Chance Education	103		
Table 10:			
Good National Practices in Second			
Chance Education	114		

LIST OF FIGURES

Introduction		Figure 10:	
Figure 1.		Initiatives from the Chilean Ministry of	48
Figure 1:	1.0	Education for a Non-Sexist Curriculum	48
Dropout Incidence Rate by Sex	16	Figure 11.	
Part 1		Figure 11: Labor Participation and Gender Gap Rate,	
		by Income Decile	49
Figure 1:		.,	
School Trajectories (Terigi)	24	Figure 12:	
		Dimensions of Work with Children and	
Figure 2:		Adolescents on the Reintegration Programs	68
Possible Education Trajectories	25		
		Figure 13:	
Figure 3:		Stages of the Education Process in the	
Policy Options to Address Out-of-Schooling	33	Reintegration Programs	75
Figure 4:		Figure 14:	
Percentage of Educational Establishments		YAE Enrollment Distribution by Sex	78
Offering Scientific-Humanist and Technical-Vocation	nal		
Education, by Administrative Unit	36	Figure 15:	
		YAE Enrollment Distribution	
Figure 5:		by Sex – Flexible Modality	78
Distribution of Higher Education Enrollment	37		
		Figure 16:	
Figure 6:		Types of Curricula in Flexible Modality	
Distribution by Sex according to Study Areas	37	Youth and Adult Education	86
Figure 7:		Figure 17:	
Dropout Prevalence Rate by Age Category and Sex	39	European Networks of Second Chance Schools	89
Figure 8:		Figure 18:	
Dropout Prevalence Rate by Country Region	39	EDUCARE's YouthReach Program Curriculum	99
Figure 9:		Figure 19:	
Percentage Performing Domestic Chores		Action Lines for the "Mi Espacio	
in their Households, by Sex	40	de Aprendizaje" Project	109
•			
		Figure 20:	
		Educational Model of the Fundación	
		Súmate Schools	111

NOTE ON COVID-19 AND OUT-OF-SCHOOLING

Policies and programs in second-chance education must consider COVID-19 mitigation measures, which included the suspension of face-to-face classes in 2020 in all establishments in the country as of March 16, after only eight days of classes during the entire school year (Chilean Ministry of Education - MINEDUC, 2020l). This situation, which makes it challenging to maintain the bond between schools and students, increases the risk of out-of-schooling, especially among students with a lower socioeconomic level due to the precarious economic situation of families. These students may be subjected to higher stress or have to work to contribute to the family income, apart from more significant difficulties accessing the use of virtual tools for their education. It also mainly affects female students (especially those living in poverty, with disabilities, or in rural areas), who are primarily responsible for domestic work and care at home, hampering to continue their studies, in the modality of distance education, during quarantine (MINEDUC, 2020l; 2020m).

Furthermore, there is a previous context of increased out-of-schooling during the second semester of 2019 when the scenario of social and student movements in Chile as of October of that year implied the suspension of classes in several educational establishments. Although the incidence rate of dropout in Chile had decreased between 2012 and 2019, in 2020, it rose 0.2 percentage points, from 1.4% to 1.6%. The projection made on the incidence rate of school dropout between the sixth year of primary

school and the last year of secondary school, considering a reduction in attendance between 5 and 50 percentage points, ranges between 2.8% and 5%, respectively (MINEDUC, 2020I). Among the 5% of students at the highest risk of out-of-schooling, identified by the early warning systems (concerning a total of 12,058), 67% are in the first two quintiles of greatest socioeconomic vulnerability. 37% of the girls and adolescents have benefited from a SENAME program, and 7,826 of them could be more likely to be potential caregivers in their homes (MINEDUC, 2020m).

Thus, the need to urgently develop measures to address the educational reintegration of out-of-school students is emphasized due to the importance of completing their studies. The abovementioned is added to close monitoring of those who present conditions of most significant risk for out-of-schooling, a complex challenge if there is no return to face-to-face classes. For second-chance educational programs, making efforts to attract students, making the returns to education visible, and considering the difficulties that those students with fewer economic resources may have for distance education modalities generate props to counteract this. Additionally, these must consider strengthening the support channels for students in adolescent pregnancy and motherhood situations in a context in which there may be more significant barriers to accessing the health system or childcare support.

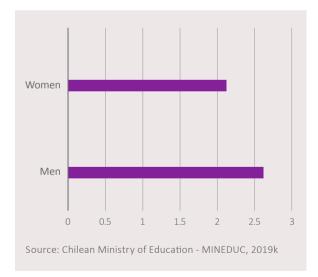
INTRODUCTION

There are 258 million children and adolescents (NNAs) and young people outside the school system worldwide, which includes 58 million boys and girls in primary education and 200 million adolescents and young people in secondary education (UNESCO, 2018).

Second Chance Education (SCE), educational reintegration or reinsertion, seeks to take charge of children and adolescents, young people, and adults who have left the school system and have not completed their compulsory primary and secondary education. The structure and dynamics of this formal school system are exclusive and hinder the universal exercise of the right to education. This issue perpetuates inequities by limiting the deployment of human potential and the possibilities of access to decent jobs, good quality of life, and social and political participation.

In Chile, although out-of-schooling has decreased considerably in recent years, it continues to be a problem that must be addressed, with dropout incidence rates (proportion of students who leave the school system in a year) from the regular school system of 2.4%, being 2.1% women, and 2.6% men (MINEDUC, 2019k).

Figure 1: Dropout Incidence Rate by Sex



In 2020, 186,723 children and adolescents between 5 and 21 had not completed their education and were not enrolled in any school establishment (MINEDUC, 2020l). The problem of out-of-schooling is especially prevalent among the most vulnerable students, contributing to the cycle of poverty. Some of the consequences of being out-of-school identified in studies include lower access to working life or unemployment; increased likelihood of vulnerability or social exclusion situations such as drug addiction; lack of participation in civil society and commission of criminal acts; intergenerational replication of educational inequality; and cost impacts to the immediate environment and society in general (UNESCO, 2009b; CPCE, 2016).

The first thing to keep in mind when addressing the outof-schooling phenomenon is its complexity. As a multicausal phenomenon, to understand it, we must read the individual level and know the stories of those who have dropped out and have returned to study. In addition, we must recognize the structural level and the need for broader social, economic, and labor reforms that aim to greater social justice, together with possible reforms at the educational level, to contribute to opportunity generation more equitably. In the case of women, additional factors to consider include gender socialization, adolescent pregnancy, and early motherhood as reasons for being out of school, unequal opportunities for labor participation, and salary gaps (Chile National Social and Economic Survey CASEN, 2017). For this reason, SCE must incorporate a gender perspective that makes visible and takes charge of these historical inequalities.

It is precisely because of this complexity that out-of-schooling raises countless metaphors in its theoretical approach. Researchers resort to poetic language to empathize with the harsh experiences that usually characterize those who leave the school system, often in high-risk vulnerability conditions that, despite all these difficulties, wish to return to school. They talk about the paths, trajectories, itineraries, meanderings, milestones, interruptions, maps, and timelines to weaving the narratives of these lives. It also turns to this language

when describing how an SCE should be in charge of helping their educational, social, and work reintegration: repair, heal, reconnect, show paths. The poetic sense also appears in the dichotomies: inside or outside the system, included or excluded, schooled or out-of-school, distancing from the system like transiting on the margin. Moreover, the action verbs for the exit: falling, dropping out, expelling, pulling from outside, which assign the responsibility for school failure to different factors.

In the context of the work performed by UN Women, the first part of the study. "Methodology, Good Practices." and Recommendations in Second Chance Education with a Gender Perspective," seeks to provide relevant information to implement education and job training programs for women marginalized from formal education. For this purpose, the concepts used to talk about out-ofschooling and the ideologies they reflect are identified. A review of the current legislation and the state of implementation regarding education and employment is presented to place SCE with a gender perspective within this framework, identifying the differences between men and women on the possible causes of out-of-schooling and how it affects each group; and the different employability opportunities for women and men. The educational policies and existing programs in our country that address out-of-schooling at different levels are described, from prevention to educational and labor reintegration. Lastly, good international and national practices are reviewed to suggest paths for SCE with a gender perspective and the development of public policies in second-chance education.

In the second part of the study, the views of experts in SCE, Job Training, and Entrepreneurship, and Education and Gender are analyzed to articulate these perspectives to think about an SCE with a women-oriented employment focus.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with eight experts, with predefined topics on the programs they supervise or execute or their topics of expertise, respectively. In the case of the interviewees linked to educational reintegration or job training programs, the

topics included: perceived characteristics of principals, teachers, and students, strategies used in the pedagogical and psychosocial domains, the establishment of networks, challenges and achievements of the programs, educational policy, a view of the regular education system, perceived gender barriers, financing of the programs, linkage between the State and civil society, and suggestions for SCE. In the case of gender and education experts, they were asked how gender inequality manifests itself at the different levels and actors involved in the educational process, how it can be addressed in each of them, and their suggestions for an SCE from a gender perspective.

For the analysis of answers, elements of Critical Discourse Analysis (Anderson & Grinberg, 1998; Fairclough, 2003) were used, which considers discourse as a mode of action and representation. From this model, discursive practice contributes to replicating social identities and relationships, knowledge and belief systems, and transforming society. Discourse is analyzed as a power struggle site, where discursive practice feeds on conventions that naturalize power relations and particular ideologies (Anderson & Grinberg, 1998).

This method addresses three different levels (Fairclough, 2003):

- The context of the discourse (historical, political, cultural, and economic) or social practice: includes ideology (constructions of reality that contribute to the production, replication, or transformation of relations of domination) and hegemony (power over the society of a particular class in partnership with other social classes).
- The conditions of production, distribution, and consumption of the discourse, or discursive practice: include the speech acts that the discourse performs, their genre, coherence, intertextuality, metatextuality, and irony. It analyzes the situational context and how the participants produce and interpret texts; if they use their resources in normative or creative ways, how the listener or

reader is addressed (sincere, manipulative, controversial, meta-discourses, the irony).

 The text: textual analysis (verbal, images) of the form and meaning. It covers themes, vocabulary, grammar, cohesion, structure, verbal modes, metaphors, passive and active voice, transitivity, modalities and polarities, thematic structure, focus, and the temper of mind.

In the third part of the report, conclusions are presented about the state of SCE in Chile and the main challenges for an SCE with a gender perspective, providing recommendations that include the contributions of the review of international and national good practices and

the opinions of the different experts interviewed. These recommendations are proposed to build an SCE from a gender perspective, which considers the additional barriers women experience in education and work, and the particularities linked to their out-of-schooling and educational reintegration processes, which allow more efficient interventions to contribute to their psychosocial and economic empowerment.

In this journey through SCE, we seek to identify how it can constitute, following the metaphors, a kind of Ariadne's thread in the labyrinth¹, which shows the possibility of reintegrating educationally, socially, and professionally, learning and transforming ourselves is always present.

^{1.} In the Greek myth of Theseus and the Minotaur, Theseus offers himself as a tribute to save Athens, as part of those to be delivered each year to the Minotaur, a monster in the city's labyrinth. Theseus was in love with Ariadne, who decided to help him even if he killed the Minotaur. Getting out of the labyrinth was impossible, so she gave him a ball of golden yarn, which Theseus unrolled as he entered the labyrinth to find the exit, which he achieved to do successfully after defeating the Minotaur.

SECOND CHANCE EDUCATION IN CHILE: LEGAL FRAMEWORK, POPULATION, PROGRAMS, AND GOOD PRACTICES

In this first part, the concepts used to talk about out-ofschooling and the ideologies they reflect are identified. A review of the current legislation and implementation regarding education and work is presented to place SCE within this framework. Also, the educational policies and existing programs in Chile that address out-ofschooling at its different levels are identified, from prevention to educational and labor reintegration. Lastly, good international and national practices in SCE are reviewed to suggest paths for SCE for women and public policies in this regard.

I. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

LA **Relevant Concepts**

I.A.1.

"Dropout" versus "Out-of-Schooling"

Although these terms are often used interchangeably in the literature to refer to the disconnect between the educational system and children and adolescents, they have different symbolic burdens that point to two contrasting ways of understanding the phenomenon:

On the one hand, "dropout" brings a negative and military burden. In this area, the deserter takes a voluntary action to leave the institution, with social punishment for committing this act and being labeled as cowards or incompetents. This approach places the problem in the individual. It emphasizes his/her personal, social, and family characteristics as explanatory factors of the inability to respond to educational demands, blaming him/her for school failure. The above is inconsistent with school dropout. Strictly speaking, dropout is the temporary or permanent withdrawal from the school system. Research shows that, to a large extent, its causes are related to the school system itself, which has an expelling nature as it operates with a typology of students that sets up filters and demands, to which not all of them can adapt. That is why the use of the term "out-of-school" is proposed, with a more neutral burden, and that recognizes the responsibility of the school and the importance of knowing the school experiences of students (Espíndola & León, 2012; Espinoza et al., 2012, 2019; Dussaillant, 2017; SENAME, 2016).

In the English language, this debate revolves around the notion of "dropout," which places the responsibility on the individual who abandons or "falls" from the system and that of "pushout," which recognizes the school pushes out or expels students who do not adapt (Bradley & Renzulli, 2011).

However, regardless of the term used, the important thing is recognizing the complexity of the out-ofschooling phenomenon and the multiple factors involved, which will be explored in-depth in the following sections. The above aims to make a paradigmatic shift that does not stigmatize children and adolescents and sees them as the sole responsible parties. Interventions must include the different actors and levels involved.

Despite the nuances that may exist to understand the out-of-schooling phenomenon, UNICEF provides a more precise and neutral definition: "A process of distancing and gradual abandonment of a daily space -such as school-, which also implies the abandonment of certain personal, family and school practices that influence the development of identity and personal projection of a child or adolescent" (UNICEF, 2000, p. 13, in SENAME, 2016).

I.A.2.

"Out-of-Schooling" as Process versus Action

From a non-stigmatizing perspective of individuals, outof-schooling has started to be considered a lack of adjustment between the student and the school system, which is not qualified, in structure and interactional dynamics, for taking charge of the students' differences. Out-of-schooling is thus understood as an action and as a process where multiple actors intervene. It implies that the student and his/her environment develop identity constructions based on negative features (irresponsibility, exercise of violence, lack of respect for the rules, lack of capabilities, and intellectual abilities). It is also seen as a framework of stages and actions that does not occur from one moment to another but is gradual and begins with behaviors such as intermittent school attendance, which could lead to the loss of the school year, lagging, and subsequent educational disengagement. The trajectory involved in this out-ofschooling process interrupts learning processes and impacts the future of children and adolescents, hindering processes of integration and social development (peer relations, socialization, the establishment of networks, work projections, among others), thus accentuating the exclusion and marginalization of opportunities and capacity development (Espíndola & León, 2012; Espinoza et al., 2012, 2019; Dussaillant, 2017; SENAME, 2016).

This view makes a call on schools to recognize their responsibility to replicating social inequality by being unable to take charge of the diversity of students, social and cultural inequality. The above is in addition to generating student withdrawal from the system as a result of school failure: poor academic performance, repetition, school delay, normative-cultural conflicts, discrimination, stigmatization, which can culminate in being out-of-school when the educational establishment does not take into account the signs of possible dropout (UNESCO, 2009b).

I.A.3. Early School Leaving

This is another term that used as a synonym for "out-of-school," "out-of-schooling," or "school dropout". However, it has been used to distinguish between different forms of out-of-schooling, where dropout is

understood as the temporary withdrawal of students from the educational system. In contrast, dropout considers leaving the school system a situation with a certain permanence in time (CPCE, 2016). Although the Chilean Ministry of Education - MINEDUC adopted this nomenclature, its use was discontinued, and internationally this temporary criterion is not used regularly either.

I.A.4. Inclusive Education

For UNESCO (2009, in CPCE, 2016), inclusive education is defined as "a process aimed at responding to the diversity of students by increasing their participation and reducing exclusion in and from education" (p. 24). It focuses on students' access, permanence, participation, and achievements and solving gaps between them, emphasizing those who, for different reasons, are excluded or at risk of being marginalized from some of the phases of the educational system (CPCE, 2016).

Incorporating inclusive education in the national and international agendas transformed the paradigm with which out-of-schooling is read, evolving from being conceived as an individual school failure to deepening the educational and social factors that lead to an exit from the system, analyzing the impact of social inequality in it. Exclusion is not only not having accessed or having dropped out of school. It also encompasses discrimination or segregation based on ethnicity, gender, social origin, personal characteristics, or life situations; low-quality or irrelevant education that does not result in learning and limits inclusion in society (UNESCO, 2009a).

Inclusion requires rethinking the educational model and schools to welcome different students, taking personalized rather than homogeneous actions. From inclusive education, the causes of out-of-schooling do not lie in the individual but mainly in the educational system.

According to the UNESCO Regional Bureau of Education for Latin America and the Caribbean OREALC (2007, in UNESCO 2009a), to be inclusive, quality education implies relevance: meanings, purposes, content; and to what degree it satisfies the needs of all groups in society, pertinence: that education is significant for people from different social contexts and cultures, with different capabilities and interests; and equity: democratization in the access and appropriation of knowledge.

I.A.5. Lifelong Learning

This concept refers to a model that SCE programs have adopted to emphasize that education, as a human right and a path to employment, health, and political participation, and a pillar of democracy, sustainable development, and fairer societies, must be accessible to all people throughout life, without excluding anyone. This proposal implies moving from rigid and linear systems towards more flexible and diversified educational systems, with multiple and varied educational opportunities throughout the life cycle, including SCE. In this sense, we should not speak of "second chance" but rather understand multiple learning opportunities throughout life (UNESCO, 2009a).

These alternative opportunities must be equivalent in quality, with different modalities, trajectories, and learning spaces. They must respond to the different needs of people and contexts, whether to access or complete studies at all educational levels or to enable improvement, updating of skills and work-related technical training, obtaining employment and professional promotion, increasing the links between education and the world of work (UNESCO, 2009a).

Also, from this paradigm, it is understood that, just as learning can occur in different life stages, there are multiple instances and spaces for personal learning and development, not the only one being the school. We can learn from formal education, such as the family, the

community, cultural, recreational, and sports institutions, the information and communication media, and the world of work, so it is essential to promote greater interdependence between these different areas (UNESCO, 2009a).

I.A.6. Youth Cultures and the Postmodern Context

Another perspective that has illuminated the understanding of the out-of-schooling phenomenon is cultural studies and postmodernity, which explain how identities and cultures of youth come into processes of disconnect with the school's proposal. The above is intensified by a historical moment where the promises of modernity have fallen. These gave schools a fundamental role in achieving social mobility, a meritocratic ideal that is strongly questioned nowadays. In turn, Bauman (2003, in UNESCO, 2009a) argues that in the new modernity, what was considered work to be carried out by States was fragmented and assigned to individuals, placing new responsibilities on them.

In Latin America, for many children and adolescents from the lowest socioeconomic levels, given the low expectations for the future and situations of low social integration, the street becomes the place of socialization with peers. At the same time, the school is seen as the place of failure (Espíndola and León, 2002 in López, Opertti & Vargas, 2017). These spaces can be related to developing a culture of violence as a mechanism for conflict management.

Behavioral problems within the school, which are seen in the system as deviant practices against school norms, on the other hand, can be adjusted to normative frameworks of particular forms of youth association. Furthermore, attitudes that can be considered violent at school may be necessary to survive in adverse environments and, therefore, functional (SENAME, 2011). Added to this, current phenomena such as the use of technology and a more significant class and rights awareness thanks to social movements can accentuate the mismatch with the

authoritarian and segregating aspects of the school. This mismatch prevents young people from finding their place in a school that they see as alien, unprepared for them, and whose learning seems not to connect with their context, which contributes to losing the sense of learning and willingness to learn. Furthermore, in more socially excluded sectors, this difficulty of practical adaptation to the educational system is related to the generational reproduction of family patterns of educational exclusion (UNESCO, 2009b).

Bourdieu (1997) explains that the school is a conservative institution that alienates culturally, guaranteeing more robust domination than based solely on economic capital. The same intrinsic characteristics of schools: rigidity and low adaptability, curricular decontextualization, authoritarianism, among others, would reinforce unequal access to it, making it difficult for the most impoverished students to continue their studies and safeguarding the privileges of upper classes.

Then, the proposal is to stop pathologizing students who offer resistance to this institution, understanding that they have their own identities, ways of being, thinking, and living together. The problem arises when their culture is considered inferior to the school culture in general. The mechanisms of exclusion are manifested in codes and rules of behavior that students must internalize and rigorously follow if they want to succeed within the system. These rules define the relationships with teachers and between students, the expected behaviors, and how to express their knowledge and abilities. If they fail to reproduce these behaviors, they will be considered incapable or maladjusted, resulting in low grades, punitive measures, repetition, and school dropout or expulsion (González, 2010).

Based on the research by Kennedy-Lewis (2015), it is possible to visualize the debates that have taken place in the United States around violence at schools and the "zero-tolerance" policies that have proliferated in recent decades and stipulate the use of exclusionary discipline. This term describes school

disciplinary actions that remove or exclude students from their regular education environment, including suspensions, expulsions, and relocations to respond to challenging behavior, despite that evidence shows the ineffectiveness of these practices and, worse, that they lead to out-of-schooling and the transition from school to prison. Adopting these practices as a result of globalization could extend this type of problem to other countries. According to the author, the evidence from second-chance schools does not show that they effectively offer a second chance to students, at the risk of stigmatizing and criminalizing them. Kennedy-Lewis points out that development perspectives continue to be faced, which seek to modify educational environments to rehabilitate students, and traditionalist perspectives, which dominate the discourse and aim to reform student behavior, promoting compliance with the rules and structures of schools. The removal of defiant students relieves the pressure and does not question the basic structure of schools. In this sense, second-chance schools act as safety valves. They can also be safety nets that provide an environment that responds effectively to the social and academic needs of non-traditional students and prevents them from dropping out of education.

In contrast to exclusive punitive measures, positive behavior interventions extended to the entire school, where behavior expectations are disseminated and a common language is used in this regard, have been seen to improve the school environment. They reduce failure to comply with standards and improve attendance and academic performance, which prevents out-of-schooling. Some of the strategies that have been successfully implemented along these lines include: maximizing structure in the classroom; posting, teaching, reinforcing, and monitoring a small number of positively raised desired expectations; establishing a continuum of strategies to recognize appropriate behaviors and respond to inappropriate behaviors (Freeman et al., 2015).

I.A.7.

The Concept of Trajectory

The concept of school trajectory allows addressing the disconnect between the ideal projected itinerary and the paths followed by children and adolescents in the system. Theoretical school trajectories are those "routes that follow the linear progression foreseen by the system in the times marked by a standard periodization" (Terigi, 2014, p. 73, in CPCE, 2016), which does not necessarily account for the educational path of each one, while the actual or non-channeled trajectories, on the other hand, are those "itineraries that do not follow the channel designed by the system" (Terigi, 2014, p. 74, in CPCE, 2016).

The figure below shows the possible trajectories proposed by Terigi in the school system, where the students can start school if they have the minimum age, or enter later, or not enter the educational system at all. Then, some can stay in it among those who enter the system, advancing one level per year or repeating one or more years, learning the expected content or not learning what was taught. Lastly, it is also possible to temporarily leave the educational system, drop out for an extended period, or finish studies.

Figure 1: School Trajectories (Terigi)



Source: CPCE, 2016

The interruption of the educational trajectory is a complex and multi-causal phenomenon, where it is necessary to read the signs before dropping out of schools, such as learning and participation difficulties. The situations that alter the course of the desirable educational trajectory begin to generate increasing and profound processes of exclusion (CPCE, 2016).

From the concept of trajectory, it is possible to narratively approach the experience lived in the school, out-of-schooling, and reintegration of the students.

The CPCE study (2016), in its trajectory mapping of outof-school children and adolescents, identified different types of educational trajectories:

Figure 2:

Possible Education Trajectories (Source: CPCE, 2016)

a) Continuous Education Trajectories

- **Typology 1:** Stagnation Milestone: Repetition: Possible causes include priorities other than education or lack of support from families. Half of these students have begun to work in parallel with their studies, and the same number are involved in drug use (which they perceive in a naturalized and unproblematic way), and a third report having committed a crime. Many times they have affective disorders. They tend to enroll in regular schools when the gap disappears, although, for the most part, they do not visualize the importance of education.

b) Intermittent Education Trajectories

- **Typology 2:** Financial Responsibility: Possible causes include a family project of their own (adolescent maternity or paternity) or the need to support the family of origin financially, usually associated with accident, illness, or death of the household breadwinner. There are not necessarily stories of poor academic performance, and they reflect on the need for continuity of studies and individual job prospects. This typology is more common in women, who usually shoulder the responsibility for the care of the children or the care of others in their families.
- **Typology 3:** Disinterest in School: It is usually associated with bad relationships at school (physical or psychological violence, bullying) and the logic of the traditional school. It is often associated with academic failure and low self-esteem and self-efficacy.
- **Typology 4:** Immigration: Territorial mobility associated with precarious resources. They have a considerable lag, previous educational experiences that do not always coincide with the Chilean ones. It is usually an involuntary abandonment. They generally live with their parents in vulnerable conditions.

Duperé et al. (2015) state that it is crucial to consider the trajectories of progressive and announced withdrawal from the school system and those cases where school dropout occurs in response to acute stressful events that emerge later in school progress. These include rejection of peers or bullying, health problems, immigration problems, separations, or conflicts with a teacher. The authors point out that, although the previous literature has focused on those longer processes that account for long-term vulnerabilities, it also happens that many of the students with a history of difficulties persevere in school when their circumstances improve. However,

there are more difficult-to-predict cases involving proximal and disruptive events. Moreover, both types of populations require different interventions. About 40% of dropouts in the United States would not have clear signs of dropping out, such as academic or behavioral problems, in the years before dropping out of school. Several students with a solid academic record who transition from primary to secondary education decline rapidly, putting themselves at risk of out-of-schooling, especially when these factors interact with stressors or opportunities incompatible with school, such as full-time jobs. This second group, who does not have a history of

poor performance, can suddenly be involved in risky behaviors such as teenage pregnancy, addictions, accidents, or deprivation of liberty, which can interfere with schooling. A model that considers all these possible trajectories, including a gender perspective that recognizes the different acute stressors that most affect men and women (teenage pregnancy), could develop protective factors that mitigate the impact of the acute stressors while taking charge of vulnerabilities and strengths early on. It is also possible to conceive positive events that allow students to redirect their lives as a counterpart to stressful events.

I.A.8. Intersectionality

The best way to read the out-of-schooling phenomenon from a gender perspective is to understand the discriminatory and exclusive characteristics of the school and society. The above must consider intersectionality, that is, the combined impact of the plurality of social exclusion forms based on categories such as gender, class, race, disability, or sexual orientation, taking into account the diversity of identities (UN Women, 2019). For instance, it is necessary to read adolescent pregnancy at least from the interaction of gender dynamics, which puts women in a subordinate position regarding their exercise of sexual rights. This adds to social class dynamics where, in poor sectors, motherhood can appear as culturally desirable at an early age, as the possibility of alternative life projects is not visualized.

I.A.9. Women's Empowerment

The concept of women's empowerment points to an ideal state, where "the incorporation of talents, skills, experiences, and energies of women can be guaranteed" (UN, 2011, p. 4). The United Nations

developed, in a 2010 agreement, seven principles to contribute to the empowerment of women, from the framework of gender equality: establishing high-level corporate or business leadership that stands for gender equality; treating all women and men fairly at work, respecting human rights and the principle of nondiscrimination; ensuring the health, safety, and wellbeing of all workers; promoting education, training and professional development for women: implementing development, distribution, and marketing practices that empower women; promoting equality through community initiatives and activism: measuring and publicly reporting progress towards gender equality (UN Women, 2020). The above is the model targeted by women's entrepreneurship programs, which seek to break down the barriers that prevent equal labor participation for women.

On the other hand, it is essential to consider some ideological implications of the notion of women's empowerment, applied mainly in job training and entrepreneurship programs, which are analyzed by Dubet (2014), who points out that this view implies that: "We deserve support and opportunities when we agree to mobilize, act, have projects when submitting to the demands of empowerment. In the opportunities model, no one should be a passive victim" (p. 62). The responsibility for their success is placed on the individuals and their self-management skills once the access barriers are solved, which can build a myth that contrasts with the real possibilities of financial success.

II. LEGAL FRAMEWORK AND THE CHILEAN CONTEXT

II.A. International Treaties

Chile signed a series of international treaties, instruments through which countries commit themselves to respect people's rights. These treaties are monitored through a group of independent experts from around the world, who work in committees collecting information from different sources, including the Government, Civil Society Organizations, and individuals, evaluate them, establish recommendations for action, and address cases where people have suffered violations of these rights (OHCHR, 2020a).

The general framework from which education is understood in this report, and to which Chile has

affiliated through its ratification of related international treaties, conceives Education as a Human Right under the provisions of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948):

Article 26

Everyone has the right to education. Education shall be free, at least in the elementary and fundamental stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory. Technical and professional education shall be made generally available and higher education shall be equally accessible to all on the basis of merit.

The primary international obligations to which Chile subscribes, which derive from this conception of Human Rights, and are relevant to education, include:

Table 1: International Treaties

Instrument	Date of Ratification
International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination	1971
UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education (1960)	1971
International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights Optional Protocol to the International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966)	1972 1992
Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) (1979) The Optional Protocol to CEDAW	1989
The Optional Protocol to CEDAW Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989)	1990
American Convention on Human Rights (Pact of San José, Costa Rica)	1991

Instrument	Date of Ratification
Inter-American Convention on the Prevention, Punishment and Eradication of Violence against Women	1998
International Labour Organization (ILO) Minimum Age Convention (Convention No. 138) (1973)	1999
International Labour Organization (ILO) Convention No. 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labor	2000
International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (1990)	2005
Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities and its Optional Protocol	2008 2008
International Labour Organization (ILO) Convention concerning Indigenous and Tribal Peoples in Independent Countries (No. 169)	2008

Source: Chilean Ministry of Justice and Human Rights, 2020

The Right to Education is developed in Article 13 of the Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (1989), which specifies the commitments for the different educational levels.

Education is also explicitly addressed in the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), in its Articles 28 and 29, paying particular attention to aspects related to promoting equity, preventing out-of-schooling, and not establishing an exclusive discipline in schools, from an educational perspective that considers all aspects of the person. Moreover, this Convention protects the child from risk factors that could be related to out-of-schooling. These include separation from their families, child labor; discrimination based on nationality, religion, race, culture, or language; criminal offenses; the use of narcotic drugs, physical or psychological abuse, and forms of sexual exploitation and abuse.

Especially relevant to some aspects of the school experience that affect out-of-schooling is the UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education (1960), which seeks to eliminate all forms of discrimination, understanding it as:

Any distinction, exclusion, limitation or preference which, being based on race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, economic condition or birth, has the purpose or effect of nullifying or impairing equality of treatment in education.

As migration increases in the country, it is crucial to consider these groups of students, who may be at greater risk of out-of-schooling due to linguistic and cultural adaptation difficulties. The International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (1990), in its Article 30, stipulates that:

Each child of a migrant worker shall have the basic right of access to education on the basis of equality of treatment with nationals of the State concerned. Access to public pre-school educational institutions or schools shall not be refused or limited by reason of the irregular situation with respect to stay or employment of either parent or by reason of the irregularity of the child's stay in the State of employment.

Although it is not an aspect in which research has deepened in Chile from an out-of-schooling perspective, belonging to indigenous groups is a factor that can generate cultural disengagement between one's cultural values and practices with those of the school. That is why it is relevant to consider the provisions of Convention 169 of the International Labor Organization concerning Indigenous and Tribal Peoples in Independent Countries (2008) for culturally inclusive education and where the right to education of the members of indigenous peoples is ensured on an equal footing with the rest of the national community. This implies teaching the children of the peoples concerned to read and write in their indigenous language and promote its practice while ensuring these peoples can master the national language or one of the country's official languages. It also includes imparting general knowledge and skills to help them participate fully and equitably in the life of their community and that of the national community. Finally, it also implies adopting educational measures in every national community, especially those in more direct contact with indigenous peoples, to eliminate the prejudices they may have concerning these peoples.

As the hypothesis of early entry into the world of work is usually offered to explain out-of-schooling, after a cost-benefit calculation for students who do not see the continuation of studies as an alternative, it is essential to review the international obligations that regulate child and adolescent labor. Article 1 of the Minimum Age Convention (Convention No. 138) (Labor Department, 2020) stipulates the spirit of promoting the focus on education for minors and delaying the entry to work until their complete physical and mental development, establishing a minimum age of 18 years. However, it accepts certain exceptions that allow minors of that age to work. Thus, this age can be lowered to 16, ensuring that it does not involve work that is dangerous for minors' health, safety, or morality and that they have received adequate instruction and professional training. Activities carried out as part of vocational training, or orientation programs are also excluded. Light work is authorized for minors between the ages of thirteen and fifteen, as long as it does not affect their attendance at school.

Convention No. 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labor (1989) seeks to protect minors from forms of slavery or similar practices. These include the sale and trafficking of children, use for prostitution or pornography, carrying out illicit activities, particularly the production and trafficking of narcotics or jobs that by their nature or conditions damage children's health, safety, or morality.

Regarding aspects related to gender, education, and work, it is relevant to consider Articles 10 and 11 of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1979), which promote gender equality in education and work, respectively. These articles are aimed at taking measures to ensure equal rights with men regarding access to studies from preschool to higher education and professional training, elimination of gender stereotypes in teaching, equal opportunities to obtain scholarships and subsidies, access to information, access to the same employment opportunities, right to freely choose the profession and employment, right to promotion, stability, benefits, and equal remuneration, right to social security and protection of health and safety in the working conditions. Measures are also set out to prevent discrimination against women based on maternity, prohibiting dismissal for this reason, introducing paid maternity leave, and encouraging the provision of supportive social services for parents. Other articles address specific issues related to gender and employment, such as equal access to loans and credits, and particular issues faced by rural women.

Additionally, the Inter-American Convention on the Prevention, Punishment and Eradication of Violence against Women (1994), also known as Belém do Pará establishes, in Article 6b, "The right of women to be valued and educated free of stereotyped patterns of behavior and social and cultural practices based on concepts of inferiority or subordination." This aspect is

particularly relevant. As shown in the following sections, gender stereotypes and roles play an important part in socialization, impacting the school experience of boys and girls, their self-esteem and self-efficacy, academic performance in the different subjects, standardized tests, and career choice, among others.

The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) for 2030 developed by the UN (2015), and which constitute a framework for action in favor of people and the planet, specifically address the importance of inclusive education and gender equality, adopting a lifelong learning perspective:

Goal 4

Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all. It includes ensuring that all boys and girls complete primary and secondary education; equal access to higher education; improvement of skills for employment and entrepreneurship; elimination of disparities by gender, class, culture, or disability in education; and an orientation towards sustainable development.

Goal 5

Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls. It includes ending all forms of discrimination, violence, and harmful practices against women (trafficking, sexual exploitation, child marriage, female genital mutilation); recognizing unpaid care and domestic work (through infrastructure, public services, and social protection policies, as well as the promotion of shared responsibility in the home and family); ensuring the full participation of women in leadership in decision-making, in political, economic, and public life. Also, guaranteeing universal access to sexual and reproductive health and reproductive rights; undertaking reforms that give women the right to economic resources under conditions of equality, access to ownership and control of land and other assets, financial services,

inheritance, and natural resources; empowering women through information and communication technologies; and approving and strengthening policies and laws to promote gender equality and empowerment of girls and women.

Regarding SDG 4, which includes access to education, graduation, and fundamental learning achievements, the global participation of children and adolescents in primary and basic secondary education has increased considerably since 1990, with global agreements in pursuit of education for everyone. In Latin America, there is a 91% graduation rate for primary education and 76% for basic secondary education, which is above the global indicators. The rate of achievement of basic mathematics learning in second and third grade of primary school, meanwhile, reaches 57% in Latin America, compared to 42% worldwide; and in reading, 61% in Latin America, compared to 47% worldwide (UNESCO, 2019).

Regarding SDG 5, more girls are going to school than 15 years ago, and most regions have achieved gender parity in primary education. However, in the labor market, and despite the increased participation of women, inequalities persist, including labor rights, wages, working conditions, reproductive and sexual health, violence and sexual exploitation, and discrimination in employment and decision-making in the public sphere (UNDP, 2020).

II.B. National Laws

II.B.1. Historical Development

In addition to international frameworks, which propose ideals to guide policies and action in education and work, it is necessary to review how they have been implemented in national legislation relevant to SCE.

The State in Chile has played an essential role in social and educational policies. In 1920, the Mandatory Primary Instruction Law was enacted, which sought to increase literacy, in a context in which illiteracy was around 35% (while today, it is around 3-4%) (CASEN, 2017). Subsequently, progress was made in the coverage of secondary education. In 1965 a reform was implemented that established the levels that are maintained until today for kindergarten, primary and secondary education, with scientific-humanist (CH) and technical-vocational (TP) modalities (Memoria Chilena, 2020a). In the 80s and 90s, the freedom of choice in the educational aspect for students and their families was emphasized. In addition, the State intervened to support families that cannot pay for their children's education themselves. (Centro de Estudios de la Niñez, 2014). These principles were reflected in the Constitution of the Republic of Chile (1980) and the Organic Constitutional Law of Education (LOCE) (1990). The first states that it corresponds to the State to finance preschool, primary and secondary education. As mandatory, secondary and preschool education were modifications to the Constitution, implemented in 2003 and 2013, respectively.

Between 1996 and 2002, one of the most important educational reforms in the country was carried out, beginning for Primary Education, in 1996, and for Secondary Education, in 1998, with new study programs developed by the Chilean Ministry of Education - MINEDUC. Whether it was TP or CH, specialized education was reduced to the last two years of school, establishing a standard curriculum until the second year of secondary school. In addition, in 1996, the school day was extended from 6 teaching hours (45 minutes) to 8, which required a significant investment in infrastructure and resources to hire additional teachers (OECD, 2004). Generally speaking, this is the curriculum that is also applied in SCE in Chile.

The General Education Law (LGE, 2009) replaced the Constitutional Organic Law on Education (LOCE), established in 1990.

The General Education Law provided a new framework for primary and secondary education in Chile, maintaining the standards that regulate higher education. The LGE is inspired by the principles of universality and permanent education, gratuity in establishments subsidized by the State, quality of education, equity, participation, flexibility (adapting to a diversity of realities, ensuring freedom of teaching, and the possibility of diverse educational projects). It is also inspired by the principles of transparency, integration, and inclusion (eliminating forms of discrimination), sustainability, interculturality, the dignity of the human being, and comprehensive education (physical, social, moral, aesthetic, creative, and spiritual aspects) (Library of the National Congress of Chile BCN, 2020).

Law No. 20845/2015 on School Inclusion regulated the admission of students (prohibiting selection), eliminated shared financing or co-payment, and profit in educational establishments that receive State support. It also prohibited all forms of arbitrary discrimination, limited disciplinary sanctions to those contained in the internal regulations, established a plan to support inclusion to promote good coexistence, and recognized the right to associate freely.

In 2016, the progressive implementation of university gratuity was established, which allows family members corresponding to the 60% with the lowest income of the population not to pay the fee during the formal duration of their career, based on the Gratuity Law (2016). According to this law, universities, professional institutes, and technical training centers, which meet the indicated requirements, can apply to access institutional funding for the free admission of the students mentioned.

II.B.2. Child Labor

Child labor in Chile is regulated by Law No. 20189/2007. Following the recommendations of international treaties, it specifies that adolescents of both sexes between the ages of 15 and 18 can only perform light

work that does not harm their health and development. In order to be able to work, it is a requirement to prove the completion of Secondary Education or to be in Primary or Secondary Education and have the express authorization of the father or mother.

II.B.3.

Pregnant Students

An essential measure concerning the prevention of outof-schooling has been the recognition of the right of pregnant students to continue their education. Before 1990, these students were expelled from the educational system. As of 1990, it was ordered that public establishments maintain the enrollment of pregnant adolescents, respecting the schedule and regime they were studying. This provision was extended to private education in 2004 (Méndez, 2009).

The General Education Law (2009) states that education in Chile is a right for all children and adolescents in Chile. In cases of pregnancy or maternity, the establishments (whether public, subsidized, private or confessional) must facilitate academic and administrative access to schoolgirls so that they continue attending classes, finish their schooling, and do not drop out. This law is above the internal regulations of educational establishments.

Law No. 20609 or Anti-Discrimination Law (2012) also protects pregnant students and mothers, establishing measures against discrimination, allowing them to file a legal action if they deem it necessary.

II.B.4. School Coexistence

From an understanding of the student as a subject of law and seeing coexistence as a condition for learning, the "National Policy for School Coexistence" was enacted in 2002 (MINEDUC, 2020a), which sought to

provide an ethical horizon for school environments and relationships.

Law No. 20536/2011 on school violence was enacted to address coexistence in the country's educational establishments by designing strategies to promote good school coexistence and prevention of school violence, developing a Management Plan and Action Protocols in violence situations. This law also implemented the "School Coexistence Manager" figure and delivered new tasks to the School Councils. It aims to achieve a harmonious coexistence of the educational community members, preventing situations of school bullying (aggression or repeated harassment, including acts outside the school and through the use of technologies).

It is essential to emphasize the seriousness with which this law considers acts of violence on the part of teachers and school administrators towards students, which is a phenomenon that is frequently mentioned by children and adolescents who leave school. It is also stated that the staff of the educational establishment will receive training on good school coexistence and handling of conflict situations.

Also, in this area, Law No. 21128 or Safe Classroom Law (2018) established specific grounds for expulsion and cancellation of enrollment in schools. These include the use, ownership, possession, and storage of weapons; assaults of a sexual nature; physical assaults that cause injury to teachers, educational assistants, and food handlers; and attacks on school infrastructure.

II.B.5. Second Chance Education Laws

Theoretically speaking, the laws that regulate SCE in Chile are framed at different levels of intervention for the problem. Dussaillant (2017) describes a tripartite classification:

Figure 3:

Policy Options to Address Out-of-Schooling (Source: Dussaillant, 2017)

Prevention Policies: These include access to quality early education - which is particularly effective for children and adolescents from vulnerable strata -, developing a relevant and engaging curriculum, and the existence of flexible educational trajectories (that any premature decision the student must make is reversible). Prevention policies also include support efforts for integrating migrants, a gradual transition between educational cycles (in Chile, the transition from primary to secondary education), and the availability of high-quality, engaging, and varied technical education. Other high-impact preventive policies seek to increase the participation of parents in schools and involve them in the educational process of their children, the continuous education of the team, and teaching approaches that emphasize the importance of positive, supportive, and warm relationships between teachers and students. Another preventive policy that has shown promising results is early-career planning systems, where students are provided with the information they need to plan their higher studies and counseling services.

Intervention Policies: These policies identify students' emerging needs and provide the necessary support such that these do not lead to out-of-schooling. Examples include early detection systems, the development of support networks within schools, practices focused on individual student needs, extra-curricular activities, teacher support, family empowerment, and family education about the implications of out-of-schooling.

Compensatory Policies: These focus on children and adolescents who have suspended their studies and include accessible alternatives for adult education and acknowledging competencies or certification.

SCE programs and schools created from national legislation consider these varied levels of approach. The above happens because, although the idea is that students do not drop out of school before graduating, it is necessary to offer options that allow those outside the system to reintegrate and have equal opportunities.

In Chile, the various second chance programs are generally regulated by Decree No. 26 (2005), which establishes projects to strengthen the 12-Year Schooling Plan (K-12) to ensure primary and secondary education access.

Among these, the different modalities of Adult Education are regulated by Decree No. 211 (2009) which modified

Decree No. 131 of 2003, which, in turn, modified Decree No. 683 of 2000. This decree indicates that the Ministry of Education carries out actions designed to enable adults to access programs for completion of studies to finish primary and secondary education, including flexible options for those who cannot attend classes daily or live in isolated locations.

Educational reintegration programs and second chance schools, in turn, are governed by the Technical Requirements, Administrative Bases, and Annexes for the Bidding Process on Educational Reintegration Projects and Second Chance Classrooms (2019). These seek to comply with the Explanatory Note No. 12 of LGE No. 20370/2009, which allocates financial resources to

pedagogical proposals aimed at the reintegration and continuity of the educational trajectory of the school population up to 21 years who do not attend the regular education system or present interrupted trajectories.

Second-chance or re-entry schools were included in this law since 2016. Their incorporation is based on the fact that the School Reintegration Program implemented since 2005, with its systematization and learning, has indicated the need to advance towards the generation of formal educational spaces that allow students outside the regular education system to join it. Educational institutions with an institutional consolidation to sustain this intervention, and a strategy for articulating with the educational system, can participate in this tender.

II.C. The Status of the Right to Education Chile

According to data from the Chile National Social and Economic Survey CASEN (2017), access to education in Chile is almost universal, with enrollment in Primary Education of 99.7% of boys and girls between 6 and 14; and in Secondary Education, 87.7% of adolescents between 15 and 18.

Around 39% of the population aged 25-64 have completed secondary education, and 21% have completed higher or tertiary education. Although the population with a university degree is considerably lower than the OECD average (34%), the population with secondary education is comparable to the average for these countries (OECD, 2018).

Public expenditure on education in Chile was 5.4% of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in 2018, representing a significant increase in expenditure of 2.4% in 1990 (World Bank, 2020). There has been a steady increase in total public expenditure on primary and secondary schools: between 2005 and 2012, expenditure per student rose 56% (versus 21% on average among OECD countries).

However, public expenditure per student remains low among OECD countries, being the only country in this group whose public financing for these institutions is below 80%, against the average 91% of these countries (OECD, 2018).

Public expenditure on education in Chile is concentrated in tertiary education, with one of the highest enrollment percentages in private institutions: only 16% of higher education students enter public institutions, compared with the 69% average across OECD countries (OECD, 2018).

Chilean Ministry of Education - MINEDUC's total budget for 2020 is \$11,649,845 million, which corresponds to 1.95% more than in 2019 (\$211 billion more) and represents the portfolio with the highest percentage of the national total. This increase is concentrated in the following areas: Preschool or Nursery Education, Infrastructure and Equipment for School Establishments, and Extension of the Teaching Career and the Inclusion Law. Resources allocated to the operation of the Local Education Services also increased (DIPRES, 2020; Acción Educar, 2019).

II.C.1. Preschool Education in Chile

Regarding preschool education, according to data from the 2017 CASEN Survey, coverage from 0 to 5 years does not show significant differences between girls and boys and has almost tripled in recent decades. Net attendance rates for boys and girls between 0 and 5 years are around 50%, this being slightly higher in the case of the highest deciles (CASEN, 2017). In preschool, enrollment reached a total of 271,016 students in 2017 (MINEDUC, 2019b). Enrollment for 4-year-old boys and girls has increased, reaching 83% in 2013. The average enrollment rate for this age among OECD countries is 88%. Likewise, enrollment rates at three years also showed a substantial increase, from 23% in 2005 to 45% in 2013, although it remains far below the OECD average of 72% (OECD, 2018).

II.C.2.

Primary and Secondary Education in Chile

School enrollment by type of establishment in Chile in 2017 was as follows (MINEDUC, 2019b): Out of a total of 3,558,142 students, Public high schools² had 1,272,392 (35.8%); subsidized private establishments, 1,943,412 (54.6%); Private schools, 296,735 (8.3%); and Delegated Administration Corporations, 45,063 (1.3%). Regarding the distribution by sex, enrollment in 2018 in primary education was 1,988,726, 51.3% corresponding to men and 48.7% to women (MINEDUC, 2019b). The net attendance rate to Primary Education does not present substantial differences by sex or significant changes during the last 25 years since at the beginning of the 90s, it was already at a level close to 90% (CASEN, 2017).

Enrollment in Scientific-Humanist secondary education was 71.4%, with 640,067 students, and the Technical-vocational enrollment of 256,688 students or 28.6% of the total enrollment. The percentage of men enrolled in secondary school in both modalities is 49.9%, and women, 50.1%. In the differentiated cycle of Technical-vocational education, the percentage of men corresponds to 52.6% and women to 47.4% (MINEDUC, 2019b). In Secondary Education, whose compulsory nature was established in 2003, a growing attendance rate has been

2. In the Chilean school system, it is possible to find four types of educational establishments according to ownership, financing, and administration. In this context, this classification is called Administrative Unit.

- Public Establishments: These are public educational centers belonging to a municipality that receives a subsidy from the State for their operation. Public establishments can be administered by the Municipal Education Administration Department (DAEM, in its Spanish acronym) or by an entity created by the same municipality (Municipal Corporation).
- Delegated Administration Establishments: These are stateowned educational centers administered by non-profit private legal entities (Decree-Law No. 3166).
- Subsidized Private Establishments: They are private educational centers owned by a private individual or legal entity that receives financing from the State, through a subsidy, for their operation.
- Private Establishments: They are private educational centers owned by a natural or legal person, without public financing for their operation.

(Chilean Ministry of Education - MINEDUC, 2016)

observed in the last two decades, going from 60% in 1990 to 73.4% in 2017 (CASEN, 2017).

With 23 students per teacher in primary school and 25 students per teacher in secondary school, the student-teacher ratio in Chile is the second-highest among OECD countries with available information, second only to Mexico (OECD, 2018).

Under the current curriculum, students do the first two years of secondary studies in general education. They can choose to have the last two years in the Technical-Vocational (TP) or Scientific-Humanist (CH) modality. However, in practice, the choice of these modalities occurs when entering secondary school as almost no establishment offers both modalities simultaneously (Larrañaga, Cabezas, and Dussaillant, 2013).

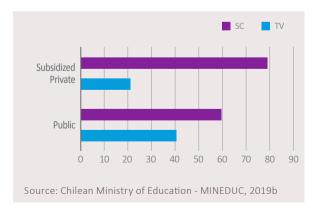
Scientific-humanist (vocational) secondary education is aimed at deepening general education areas of interest to students. The schools offer alternatives to their students considering three different plans: "Humanist," oriented to Literature and History; "Mathematical," focused on Mathematics and Physics, and "Scientific," with an emphasis on Biology and Chemistry (MINEDUC, 2020h).

Technical-vocational secondary education offers the possibility of acquiring knowledge in a field of specialization that facilitates access to a first paid job, considering the students' interests, skills, and vocational readiness. Thus, the goal of technical-vocational secondary education is to train in skills for work and should, on the one hand, be an essential pillar of the country's human capital formation, and on the other, contribute to social mobility, given the socioeconomic composition of its students. Technical-vocational secondary education comprises 46 specialization options in 15 economic sectors (MINEDUC, 2020h). The "Medium-Level Technician" certificate is awarded to graduates who complete a professional practice in a company. Technicalvocational education is proposed to allow a successful transition from the educational system to the world of work and the continuity of technical or academic tertiary studies (Larrañaga, Cabezas, and Dussaillant, 2013).

Technical-vocational education mainly attracts students from lower-income families, while, in the higher-income segment, the vast majority attend scientific-humanist education. Thus, more than 50% of the students whose household has an average monthly income of less than \$250,000 are enrolled in the technical-vocational modality (Arroyo & Pacheco, 2018). Larrañaga, Cabezas, and Dussaillant (2013) show that in the choice of secondary education, technical-vocational or scientific-humanist plays a critical role in the socioeconomic level of the adolescent's family, academic performance, and the expectations that parents have about the educational achievements that their children will achieve. The authors note that if parents expect their sons and daughters to continue university studies, they enroll them in scientific-humanist education. At the same time, students whose parents assume that they will not continue higher education or will do so in Professional Institutes or Technical Training Centers are enrolled in technical-vocational education.

Of the total number of public establishments that provide education to young people in years 11 and 12 of secondary school, 40.6% offer the technical-vocational modality as an education alternative, compared to the 21% of subsidized private establishments. Thus, most young people who study in the technical-vocational modality do so in public education, unlike the young people who study in the scientific-humanist modality, who do it mainly in subsidized private education (MINEDUC, 2019b).

Figure 4:
Percentage of Educational Establishments Offering
Scientific-Humanist and Technical-Vocational
Education, by Administrative Unit



Of the students enrolled in technical-vocational secondary education in 2018, 80% chose a specialty from the Administration and Commerce area or the Technical area, while only 15% chose the Industrial area. Women showed higher participation in the Technical area, concerning the total number of students enrolled, representing 79%. They concentrate mainly on Social Programs and Projects (approximately one in four women who study the technical-vocational modality are enrolled in a specialty of this sector). Specifically, the specialty of Nursery Care is taught almost exclusively to women, concentrating 13% of the technicalvocational enrollment of women. Something similar occurs in the Industrial area, where there are economic sectors almost exclusively made up of men. The above is the case of the Metalworking sector, where 92% of the enrollment are male students (one in five men who study the technical-vocational modality chooses a specialty in that sector). The same occurs with the Electricity sector, where 20% of the enrollment of male students of technical-vocational secondary education is concentrated (MINEDUC, 2019b).

II.C.3. Higher Education in Chile

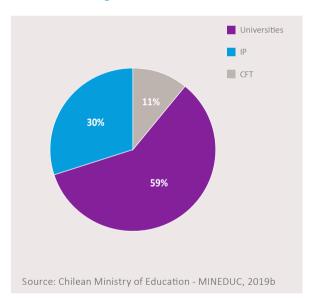
Higher Education enrollment in 2018, of a total of 1,247,746 students, was distributed as follows: Universities: 733,603 (58.8%); Professional Institutes: 377,354 (30.2%); Technical Training Centers: 136,789 (11%) (MINEDUC, 2019b). Regarding public expenditure on higher education, the most important allocations are those related to gratuity, although credits (State-Sponsored Credit or CAE), scholarships, and direct fiscal contribution also stand out (DIPRES, 2020; Acción Educar, 2019).

Higher or Tertiary Education in Chile develops mainly through three types of institutions: Universities, Professional Institutes (IP), and Technical Training Centers (CFT). Concerning undergraduate programs, the courses' duration differs in each institution. On average, study programs at universities last ten semesters; at professional institutes, eight semesters; whereas, at technical training centers, they reach five semesters. Postgraduate diplomas have a duration of

one to two semesters. Regarding postgraduate courses, their duration varies between 2 to 4 semesters for Master's degrees and four years for a doctorate, on average (MINEDUC, 2019b). The essential requirement to enter Higher Education in Chile is the certificate awarded after completing Secondary Education: the Secondary Education degree certificate for scientifichumanist education, and the medium-level technician certificate, for technical-vocational education. While the degree is necessary for all Higher Education institutions, it is sufficient only for technical training centers and professional institutes. At the universities belonging to the CRUCH and several others, applicants must take the University Selection Test (PSU, in its Spanish acronym), and admission is limited to those who have achieved a minimum score (MINEDUC, 2019b).

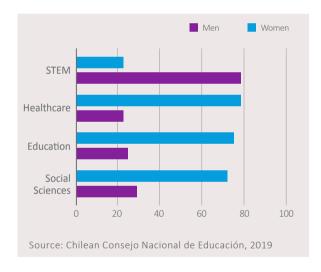
1990, there were 250,000 higher education students, and 44.8% were women. Today, enrollment has increased fivefold, and 53% are women (MINEDUC, 2019b). However, at state-owned universities and private universities belonging to CRUCH, men outnumber women, while in private universities not belonging to CRUCH, this is reversed (CASEN, 2017). On the other hand, they do not choose the same courses as them (Comunidad Mujer, 2018), as it can be seen in the rates of women in STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics) careers, corresponding to 22% of all students, below the 30% average in OECD countries (OECD, 2019). They participate mainly in Healthcare (77.9%), Education (75%), and Social Sciences (71.5 %) (Consejo Nacional de Educación, 2019).

Figure 5:
Distribution of Higher Education Enrollment



Chile has one of the lowest levels of adults aged 25-64 with higher studies among OECD countries: only 25% have a higher education degree than the OECD average of 39% (OECD, 2019). However, coverage in higher education has increased in recent decades, extending to the lowest socioeconomic groups and women. In

Figure 6:
Distribution by Sex according to Study Areas



These factors contribute to wage gaps. Thus, even though in Chile women are more likely to complete higher education than men, there are significant differences in their earnings: women with a higher education degree earn only 68% of the earnings of their male colleagues, seven percentage points below the OECD average, being one of the countries with the most significant gender wage gap (OECD, 2019).

Despite expanding access, students entering higher education for the first time are less likely to complete their studies in Chile than in most OECD countries with available data. Only 16% of the students who enter a professional career in Chile manage to graduate within the theoretical duration of the career, which is the lowest rate among the countries with available data. After three additional years, the exit rate increases to 54%, still below the 67% average. A large part of the professional career students in Chile attends private institutions. In 2017, about 80% of professional career students attended private higher education institutions, in contrast to most OECD countries, where, on average, less than a third of students did. Chile has implemented necessary reforms to its system, allowing access to totally free higher education for low- and middle-income students. These reforms have increased the number of higher education students receiving State credits and scholarships, from 17% in 2007 to 58% in 2017 (OECD, 2019).

The policies implemented in recent years have favored an increase in coverage in technical professional higher education (technical careers and professional careers without a degree taught in CFTs, IPs, and Universities). Almost half of the people who enter higher education for the first time in Chile do so in higher-level technical programs (45%), compared with the average 17% in OECD countries (OECD, 2019). Like technical-vocational secondary education, technical-vocational higher education concentrates a high proportion of students from lower-income households, with 40% of the enrollment of the first quintile and 40% of the enrollment of the second quintile (SIES, 2018). In this type of institutions, 64% of students enrolled come from the first three income guintiles, which contrasts with the case of the Universities, where 52% of the students come from these quintiles (CASEN, 2017).

When considering the background of higher education students, it is observed that 45% of the students enrolled in technical-vocational institutions attended the same modality in secondary education.

This result is very different from that presented in universities, where only 17% comes from this education

modality. The above sheds light on the educational trajectories that technical-vocational education students follow, who are inclined to continue this modality in higher education (Arroyo & Pacheco, 2018).

Among the students who enrolled in an IP in 2016, most of those who opted for technical careers were women, accounting for 54% of the total enrollment in this type of program. This is a recent phenomenon considering that, a few years ago, these types of careers had a majority male participation (Arroyo & Pacheco, 2018).

A graduate student from a CFT and IP coming from percentiles with the highest monthly income (70 and over) obtains on average a higher income than a graduate student from a university in a lower percentile of that distribution (25 or less). This difference implies that the profitability of obtaining a higher technical degree is greater than a university degree for a significant part of the student population, given that there is high heterogeneity of salaries according to higher education institutions and careers (Comisión Nacional de Productividad, 2018).

II.C.4. Out-of-Schooling in Chile

According to the CASEN Survey (2017), the prevalence rate of school dropout³ is 3.6% or 138,572 children and adolescents between 6 and 21 years old, 55.9% men and 44.1% women. This rate is one of the lowest compared to other countries in the region; however, it is a problem that requires attention and a decrease (OECD, 2019). Furthermore, 10.9% of this educationally excluded population (according to the prevalence rate) corresponds to the migrant population, the prevalence rate being higher for those who have been in Chile for fewer years (MINEDUC, 2020); and 12.1% belong to some indigenous

^{3.} Proportion of individuals of a specific age range who, without having graduated from the Fourth or last year of secondary school, do not attend an educational establishment at any given time, excluding those who have never attended formal education. The original nomenclature is maintained.

people (10.2% are *Mapuche*). Thus, most of the population (97%) is in the age group between 14 and 21 (CASEN, 2017). Nevertheless, there are difficulties for an exact estimate, and there are calculations based on samples and the total population, in different age ranges, and using different indicators.

Another estimate, based on data from the 2017 CASEN Survey of the MINEDUC Center for Studies (2020k), suggests there are 186,723 children and adolescents between 5 and 21 years in Chile who are excluded from the education system. This number amounts to 257,507 if the 5-24 year range is considered, with a dropout prevalence rate of 5.1%, being higher in the case of men (5.9%) than of women (4.3%). There is an agreement regarding the downward trend of this phenomenon (Hogar de Cristo, 2019), although the recent increase in out-of-schooling due to suspension of classes before social movements in 2019 and to COVID-19 mitigation measures in 2020 must be considered.

The MINEDUC Center for Studies (2020k) estimated the dropout prevalence rates according to age group, sex, and geographic region, which are shown in the following graphs:

Figure 7:
Dropout Prevalence Rate by Age Category and Sex

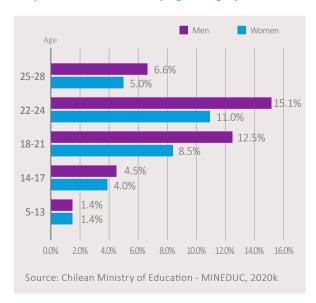
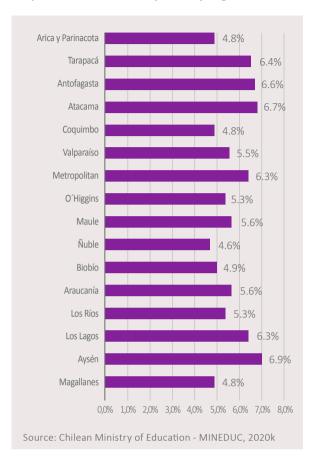


Figure 8:
Dropout Prevalence Rate by Country Region



According to the CASEN Survey (2017) estimates, 62.5% of those out-of-school come from the two lowest income quintiles. Among out-of-school women between the ages of 12 and 21, 55.6% have had children. This contrasts with those who stay in school, where this indicator reaches 6.5%. In addition, differences can be observed between quintiles within the potential population, not only in the percentage of students who have become fathers or mothers but also in the number of children they have had. The entire out-of-school group declared that they had not worked for at least one hour in the week before data collection. However, 18% state that they are actively looking for a paid job, a rate that exceeds 4.6% of the total population in the same age range. Lastly, the percentage that reports some permanent or long-term health condition is similar to the rest of the school-age population (around 2.5%) (CASEN, 2017).

Concerning determining the critical point for dropout, this frequently occurs in the transition between primary and secondary education, reflected in the rate corresponding to first grade. The above is related to change of school and new demands in terms of studies. Additionally, it is observed that the third year of secondary education also represents another high dropout point, but with a more significant transfer to the adult education system (CASEN, 2017).

Regarding the administrative unit of the establishments, school dropout has the highest incidence rates in public establishments, while private schools have the lowest rates. Of the total number of students who attend a public establishment, 22.1% end up outside the system, compared to 13.9% in subsidized private schools and 7.4% in private schools (CASEN, 2017).

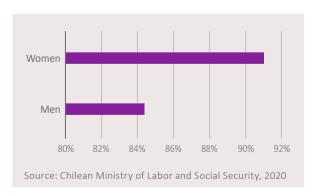
The highest concentration of population outside the school system is found in the country's most populated regions (Metropolitana, Biobío, and Valparaíso), although the percentages are similar in all regions of the country (CASEN, 2017; MINEDUC, 2020k). The percentage of students who drop out of school in rural areas (22.2%) is higher than in urban areas (16.7%) (CASEN, 2017). In Chile, the illiteracy rate in rural areas for people over 15 years of age reaches 8.3%, while in urban areas, it is 2.9% (CASEN, 2017).

One of the phenomena that can negatively affect learning processes in rural areas, although it has improved considerably in recent years, is the limited connectivity and access to the internet, compared with urban regions, in increasing the digitalization of education and work. A report by the Chilean Telecommunications Undersecretariat (2017) shows that 87.4% of households declare that they have their own and paid access to the internet, which positions Chile as one of the countries in the region with the most outstanding progress in this area. In rural areas, it is 76.7%, while in urban areas, it is 89.1%. It is 91.5% in the fifth quintile and 84.5% in the first quintile (if analyzed by quintile).

In Chile, 219,624 children and adolescents between the ages of 5 and 17 are in child labor, with 90% of them doing dangerous work. Among the working children and adolescents, 69% are men, and 31% are women (10% of the male and 4% of the female children and adolescents work). School attendance drops from 98% to 89% among working children and adolescents. Around 41% of children and adolescents in child labor have deficient, low, and regular performance, while only 27% of non-working children have this performance. The highest concentration of child labor is found in the South macrozone: Araucanía, Los Ríos and Los Lagos (9.6%), followed by the Metropolitan Region (6.7%), the Central macrozone: Coquimbo and Valparaíso (5.8%), and the North macrozone: Arica and Parinacota, Tarapacá, Antofagasta and Atacama (5.2%). Of these working children and adolescents, 70% belong to the first two quintiles (Ministry of Labor and Social Security, 2020).

In addition to this, 87.8% of the child population performs domestic chores in their own home, with girls mainly performing these chores (91%, compared to 84.4% in boys). Girls and female adolescents are the ones who, in a more significant proportion, dedicate 21 hours or more a week to carrying out these tasks (19% between 5 and 17 years old; and 33% between 15 and 17 years old) (Chilean Ministry of Labor and Social Security, 2020).

Figure 9:
Percentage Performing Domestic Chores in their
Households, by Sex



II.C.5. Education for Indigenous Groups and Immigrants in Chile

According to the 2017 Census (Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas, 2018), in Chile, 12.8% of the population identifies as indigenous or native people (1,078,111 or 49.3% are men 1,107,681 or 50.7% are women). The population of indigenous students in the school system is 223.087.

The *Mapuche* are the majority indigenous group in Chile, representing 79.8% of the indigenous population (50.65% of them are women); followed by the *Aymara*, who

represent 7.17% of this population (51.65% are women); the *Diaguita*, with 4.05% (50.99% are women); the Quechua, with 1.55% (52.34% are women); the *Lican Antai*, with 1.39% (51.03% are women). In smaller proportions, the *Colla* (49.72% of them are women), *Rapa Nui* (53.1% are women), *Kawésqar* (with 47.3% women), and *Yagán* or *Yámana* (with 46% women). Lastly, 4.39% of the indigenous population self-declared in the "Other" category (48.75% of them are women) (2017 Census, Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas, 2018).

Table 2: Individuals who Consider themselves to Belong to an Indigenous or Native People by Sex, according to Peoples

		Men		Women	
Indigenous or Native People	Total	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Total	2.185.792	1.078.111	49.32%	1.107.681	50.68%
Mapuche	1.745.147	861.241	49.35%	883.906	50.65%
Aymara	156.754	75.785	48.35%	80.969	51.65%
Rapa Nui	9.399	4.408	46.90%	4.991	53.10%
Lican Antai	30.369	14.873	48.97%	15.496	51.03%
Quechua	33.868	16.140	47.66%	17.728	52.34%
Colla	20.744	10.430	50.28%	10.314	49.72%
Diaguita	88.474	43.360	49.01%	45.114	50.99%
Kawésqar	3.448	1.820	52.88%	1.628	47.30%
Yagán or Yamana	1.600	864	54.00%	736	46.00%
Other	95.989	49.190	51.25%	46.799	48.75%

Source: Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas, 2018

Regarding the country's indigenous population distribution by region, a higher concentration of indigenous population is observed in numerical terms in the Metropolitan Region. However, when considering the proportion to the region's total population, the highest proportion of the indigenous population is located in the La Araucanía region (where 32.8% of the census population is self-declared Mapuche). Arica and Parinacota (where the Aymara population is prevalent, they correspond to 26.29% of the regional population, followed by the Quechua), and Aysén (with a high proportion of the Mapuche population) (2017 Census).

According to MINEDUC (2020i), the lines of work in education are oriented towards a significance of the principle of interculturality, from a rights perspective, understanding that interculturality enriches the curriculum, contributing to training integral students and citizenship with intercultural skills and practices that value diversity. For this, Bilingual Intercultural Education is integrated into schools, where the Indigenous Language subject is implemented. The elaboration of Owned Plans and Programs that incorporate the uniqueness of native peoples is also encouraged. The linguistic aspect is essential, considering that, in rural contexts, 18% of the Mapuche use their native Mapudungún language daily.

Although there are intercultural and bilingual education programs, systematic enforcement has not been achieved, also encountering implementation challenges such as teacher preparation, lack of educational resources, and prejudice and discrimination on the part of teachers (Riedemann, 2008).

The average schooling of the population aged 15 years and over is 10.3 years for the indigenous population and 11.2 years for the non-indigenous population (CASEN, 2017). Therefore, the probability that an indigenous student drops out of the educational system at some point corresponds to 18.3%, while for non-indigenous students, this probability is 14.6% (González, 2010).

In the out-of-schooling phenomenon, another group that must be considered are migrants. Chile has gone from being a migrant-sending society in the late 90s to a receiving one, with 750 thousand migrants residing in the country, according to the 2017 Census, and most of these in the Metropolitan Region (Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas, 2018). Between 2015 and 2017, the number of migrant students went from 30,625 to 77.608 in the entire school system. Compared with the distribution of national students, where the number of students in the subsidized private sector has grown, in the case of migrants, there has been a growing concentration in public educational establishments, corresponding to 3.5% of the students in these schools (MINEDUC, 2019b).

MINEDUC approved the 2018-2022 National Policy for Foreign Students (2018), which describes the set of normative and institutional tools available to the Chilean school system to address the schooling process of migrant students. This policy seeks to favor access, permanence, and educational trajectories of this particular protection group (Castillo, Santa Cruz & Vega, 2018). Furthermore, this policy proposes actions at different levels:

- Institutional and Intersectoral Linkage: Work with various ministries (Ministry of Social Development, Department of Immigration and Migration, Ministry of the Interior) to guarantee permanence and progress in the educational path, establishment of bonds with civil society, academe, territories, and educational communities, in addition to early warning monitoring.
- Educational Management Strengthening: Generate support devices in the classroom to promote a school coexistence that values diversity, provide technical-pedagogical guidelines for comprehensive training, and provide management tools that favor the inclusion of international students in educational communities.

- Territorial Linkage for the Design of Educational Policies: Have effective channels to reach the most significant number of people, collect qualitative and quantitative data about international students in the Chilean educational system, promote various forms of participation for dialogue around the inclusion of international students, dissemination of data and learning in the networks for each territory.

One of the recurring topics in the debate about interculturality and school is the tension between the consolidation of prejudices and stereotypes and the capacity of the school institution to moderate them. Cárdenas (2006, in Castillo, Santa Cruz & Vega, 2018) detected in a sample of secondary school students in Chile that openly hostile prejudices had led to other more subtle or covert ones, but they had not disappeared. In 2011, Cohen (in FONIDE, 2016) noted that adolescent students evaluated their similar classmates more positively than different ones (immigrants). The FONIDE study (2016) applied the Scale of Attitudes towards Multiculturalism, finding that 23% of the children surveyed state that it is not suitable for children from different countries to attend their schools, and 37% think these negatively affect their class performance.

Regarding teachers, subtle prejudice was detected in Pedagogy students in Chile, with less intensity in women and people who had experienced previous interactions with immigrants (Navas and Sánchez, 2010 in Castillo, Santa Cruz & Vega, 2018). Peña (2011, in FONIDE, 2016) noted that teachers from the *Araucanía* Region had prejudices towards their Mapuche students, both at a cognitive, affective, and behavioral level and were unaware of these prejudices. The FONIDE study (2016) showed that teachers who were closer to the immigration phenomenon had a worse attitude towards it, finding that between 13% and 25% of teachers negatively valued immigrant students' ethnic variety and presence in the classroom.

II.C.6.

Gender and Education

Chile shows significant gender gaps that are evident when compared with its OECD counterparts (2018; 2019) and where inequalities starting in early childhood education are linked to those in the world of work, generating trajectories of permanent disadvantage for women throughout their lives.

Women are in a historical subordinate status explained from a sex/gender system that builds differences of domination and subordination between men and women, attributed to biological differences. The educational system tends to be a space that reproduces these unequal gender relations (Lillo, 2016).

Despite the above, there are aspects in which gender parity has been reached in the educational field: the participation rate in organized learning from the age of 5 years, the achievement of the minimum level of competencies in math and reading in the second and third grades of secondary school, and the achievement of the minimum level of competencies in math and language at the end of primary education (Ministry of Social Development, 2018).

II.C.6.i. Gender Socialization: Gender socialization refers to the reproduction of stereotypes and prejudices that define male and female roles, perpetuating gender inequalities. Its presence in educational institutions can lead to a diminished perception of women's capabilities, which can interfere with academic performance, self-esteem, and choice of career or work. It is observed that already at the preschool level, differences are established in the emphasis that is stimulated in each one: in girls, the maternal, caregiving, and domestic work roles, aesthetic appeal, assuming traits such as emotion, intuition, submission, fickleness, weakness, insecurity, agreeableness, passivity, and tenderness; in boys, boldness, ambition, and a gift for command, assuming traits such as firmness, tranquility, intelligence,

scientific and theoretical capacity, courage, adventure, need for power, success, and prestige, competitiveness and activity (Comunidad Mujer, 2016).

One way in which this early gender socialization occurs is through aspects such as the colors that are assigned to both sexes, the play space and toys that are used, and semantics and discourse, which includes how boys and girls are spoken, sung and told stories (Hormazábal & Hormazábal, 2016).

Pateti (2007) verifies that in the school system, different limitations are imposed on the gross motor skills of girls, which then turns out to be paradoxical when results are required from Physical Education with a sports bias. On the other hand, feminine corporeality and gestures are imposed, emphasizing graceful and elegant traits, which teaches that what girls should do as women are to contain themselves. At the same time, men are allowed to dabble in vigorous game.

Gender stereotypes are present in the daily life of educational processes, generating gaps in academic results and inequality in the comprehensive training of the subjects. These lead to disadvantages for women, for example, in math, science, and physical education. In the case of men, they experience disadvantages in reading comprehension and see their possibilities of expressing emotions limited, with the consequences that this may have on their personal lives. Furthermore, gender is articulated with differences in class, ethnicity, race, age, and religion. Thus, new relationships of hierarchy and inequality arise between men and women, within each group and other gender identities and sexual orientations (MINEDUC, 2015a). The impact of gender socialization on the emotional development of boys and girls is also evident: Flores (in González, 2016) points out that "a low global self-esteem would be largely explained by a low perception in the functioning of the areas that, by tradition, have been assigned to each sex" (p. 72).

Even within the 2015 student movement, a space that would be supposedly more progressive in terms of gender equality, high school students have evidenced the

prevailing *machismo* on their fellow activists, expressed in shouting and slogans that insulted women (Azúa, 2016).

II.C.6.ii. Teenage Pregnancy and Motherhood: The Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas (2017) showed the increased contribution of adolescent fertility (15 to 19 years) to total fertility, going from 8.7% in 1950 to 11.3% in 2015, even though the average age to have the first child has increased by 2.26 years between 1972 and 2015. As a result, the total number of live births from teenage mothers in 2015 was 26,165 (25,448 in the 15-19 age range, and 717 in the age range 10 to 14 years). Births linked to teenage parents were 10,927. Thus, 6% of adolescents between 12 and 19 years old are mothers (Ministry of Social Development, 2018).

The teenage motherhood phenomenon shows a higher prevalence in the lowest quintiles. Among the 20% households with the lowest income, 31.4% of women aged 12 years and over have been teenage mothers, while only 10.6% belong to the fifth quintile (CASEN, 2017). Likewise, teenage motherhood incidence varies according to the educational level of women, being significantly lower among women with a higher educational level, especially among those with higher education. This number is also higher than in the general population in women from rural areas and belonging to indigenous peoples. According to the country's economic development indicators, teenage motherhood rates have not decreased as expected (Ministry of Social Development, 2018).

It should also be noted that teenage motherhood is also a reflection of the lack of empowerment of women. According to the INJUV Survey (2018), the percentage of young people who used a contraceptive method in their last sexual relationship is 92.6 for the high socioeconomic level and 81.2% for the low socioeconomic level. Among the young people who do not use contraceptive methods, 27.3% stated that they did not use contraception because they did not like them, and 18.6% wanted to have a child. Although lower, a percentage indicates not having used contraception because they did not dare to propose and

even less impose the alternative on their partner. In contrast, another percentage reports that the couple decided not to use any method of contraception. The proportion of women of childbearing age (15 to 49 years old) who practice family planning with modern methods is 64.9% (Ministry of Social Development, 2018), which speaks of the potential to strengthen women's empowerment in sexual and reproductive matters.

A high percentage of teenage mothers interrupt their education, this being one of the mechanisms through which adolescent pregnancy operates as a reproductive factor of poverty (Comunidad Mujer, 2016). For example, in 2017, of 1,030 pregnant students, only 595 (58%) continued their studies (Ministry of Social Development, 2018).

Concerning mothers and fathers under 15 years of age, it is observed that practically all of them correspond to the inactive population, that is, who do not work or seek employment, presenting differences associated with the reason for such inactivity. While all inactive fathers are students, among inactive mothers, 82.8% study and 17.2% were in the category of "housewife" (Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas, 2017).

Data collected by the CASEN Survey (2017) shows that 7.9% of men and 17.5% of women among the young population (between 15 and 29 years old) are not registered in an educational establishment and are not employed. These are young people known as "NINI" ("neither study nor work"), who are in a situation of institutional disaffiliation since they are not integrated into the traditional mechanisms of social inclusion. Motherhood or pregnancy is the primary reason adolescents are in this category. The main reason for not working is that they do not have someone to leave their children with (33.8%), followed by the responsibilities that domestic chores imply in them (30.2%). These factors are more prevalent in the first socioeconomic quintile. Among men, these motivations account for only 1.2% and 3.3% of NINI, respectively.

The aforementioned shows that not studying or working is not synonymous with inactivity among women. They are mainly doing unpaid domestic chores and caregiving, making it impossible for them to continue their studies or join the labor market. It should be noted that this domestic work is scarcely valued in Chilean society and that it does not generate recognition of any kind, including labor rights or social benefits (González, 2016).

II.C.6.iii. Academic Results: Women have higher approval rates and lower dropout levels in primary and secondary education than their male peers. In addition, women finish school with a better grade point average. The secondary education score (NEM, in its Spanish acronym), assigned by the Secondary Education Grades, is 547 for girls and 522 for men. However, there are significant gaps in performance by gender in the Mathematics tests of the Chilean System for Measuring the Quality of Education (SIMCE), with a clear disadvantage for women. In the case of Language and Communication, the situation is reversed (MINEDUC, 2019b).

Internationally, this is also evidenced by the PISA test applied to 15-year-old students in all OECD nations. In Reading, Chilean women, like all women evaluated, have an advantage, in this case, 12 points, but it is the smallest among all OECD countries. In Mathematics, the difference in the results of Chilean adolescents is 18 points in favor of men, being one of the widest in the OECD (whose average gap is 8 points); and in Sciences, with an advantage of 15 points, being the average gap of the OECD of 4 points (OECD, 2017). Verifying that there are countries that do not present gender gaps at the Mathematics level or that these are even in favor of women is indicative that the poor performance of women in these areas is not inherent to their sex. It also shows the importance of being proactive in breaking down sexist stereotypes, with educational policies that promote all students' development, regardless of their sex (Comunidad Mujer, 2016).

Women also perform worse on the Chile University Selection Tests (PSU, in its Spanish acronym). Men obtained better scores in the Mathematics test, 17 points above women, and in Science, where they obtained 18 points more; while women surpassed them in Language and Communication by 5 points. In addition, 78.9% of the maximum scores were obtained by men (Department of Evaluation, Measurement and Educational Registry DEMRE, 2019).

This advantage in the university admission tests means that, although 54% of those selected to enroll in higher education in 2019 are women, men are the majority in Universities of a higher quality and tradition. This situation applies among the five best universities in the country and universities belonging to the CRUCH. In contrast, in the remaining 35 non-traditional, private universities, most are women (Consejo Nacional de Educación, 2019). These differences in PSU scores also induce gender patterns in career selection, with biases towards certain areas of knowledge depending on sex (with the majority of men in Electronic, Mechanical and Telecommunications Engineering careers, and the majority of women in of Pedagogy, Social Sciences, and Nursing) (Consejo Nacional de Educación, 2019), giving rise to the future segmentation in the labor market.

The university degrees with the highest selection of women in the 2016 process are related to health, design, and social sciences, while the most masculinized correspond to science and mathematics, computing and informatics, and careers in which working with gross motor skills is required, such as Physical Education and Kinesiology. In Technical-vocational Education, women make up more than 80% of the specializations in secretarial areas, early childhood education, nursing, and social service. On the other hand, men are concentrated in construction, surveying, systems analysis, electronics, and automotive (MINEDUC, 2015a).

According to Guerrero (2014), girls who opt for a technical-vocational secondary education are marked by gender stereotypes. Since they develop in services, they

access poorly paid jobs in precarious conditions and a shortage of opportunities. The tendency to prefer professions, trades, or activities related to the traditional role that women have played in society (teachers, nurses) and discard or not consider careers related to science and technology places them in subordinate positions in the labor market.

II.C.6.iv. Teachers: The presence of male teachers in the school system has decreased steadily, reaching 27% in 2014. The most masculinized teaching duties in 2014 were General Inspection (57%) and Management (44%). while the most feminized ones were classroom teachers (74%) and technical-pedagogical team (74%). The above shows how management and higher authority tasks within the establishments are primarily assigned to men, despite the high presence of women in the teaching profession. The most feminized teaching levels are nursery education (99.5% women) and special education (95%), while the most masculinized are technical-vocational secondary (50% men) and scientific-humanist secondary education (42% men). The male teaching staff is usually higher in physical mathematics, science, education, mechanics, and electricity. At the same time, language, orientation, social programs and projects, and clothing are mostly feminized areas (MINEDUC, 2015a).

Mizala, Martínez, and Martínez (2015) found that teachers' expectations regarding school performance differ significantly depending on the sex of the student. In particular, they would consider that boys will perform better in mathematics than girls. As identity development depends on others, the personal narratives created by women based on others' expectations may be characterized by lower self-confidence in certain areas of knowledge, thus developing a "learned inability," that is to say, a conscious or unconscious belief, implicit or explicit, about the impossibility of carrying out a task, or a presumption, deliberate and groundless, that they will show poor performance in a specific matter or area. The above is opposite to the male self-confidence

narrative and leads to lower performance in the task, which in the school system translates into lower learning and worse results in standardized tests (Guerrero et al., 2007; González, 2016).

According to MINEDUC (2015), to address these aspects in teachers, the following initiatives have been implemented: Promotion of inclusive language, detection of stereotypes, identity development, among others, in updating the curricular bases, pedagogical programs, pedagogical materials, and guiding frameworks for educational teams; Strengthening the capacities of the teams that design current policies and technical teams of the service-providing institutions (Junji and Integra); An instrument and training manual has been developed for the detection of gender biases in the classroom for application in the review of teaching videos, (they are part of module II of the Teacher Evaluation Portfolio).

II.C.6.v. School Curriculum: Another aspect in which gender inequalities are observed is in the school curriculum. Guerrero et al. (2007) point out that the school curriculum is a social and historical construction that acquires a cultural reference of the truth. Materials as essential for teaching as school textbooks show "male characters assuming roles linked to the exercise of leadership, taking risks, being self-sufficient or ambitious. In turn, female characters assume roles focused on emotional, caregiving and protection elements, within the private sphere, and are excluded from the political and scientific domains "(Covacevich and Quintela, 2014, in Comunidad Mujer, 2016, p. 50). In this construction of the division of roles, women appear as mothers, homemakers, linked to caring for the sick, children, their husbands, and their families. At the same time, men take roles related to economic production, public and political opinion, physical strength, adventure trips and discoveries, recreational and sports activities, and leadership, among others (Palestro, 2016).

Additionally, women appear underrepresented in Language, Mathematics, and Social Science school

textbooks (for example, in a second-year high school textbook, 13 images of women were registered in the category "main protagonist," compared to 61 images of men) (Guerrero et al., 2007). A review of 28 school textbooks of Language and Communication, History and Social Sciences, and Biology distributed in 2012 to public primary and secondary schools, carried out by the Chilean Network against Violence towards Women, showed aspects of androcentrism. elitism. heteronormativity, and discrimination of the native peoples and Afro-descendant population. In authorship, supplementary references or recommendations for deepening, plots and leading roles, and illustrations, women appeared in the minority concerning men. In Language textbooks, the production of cultural elements is presented as a male affair. In History textbooks, the presence of women is markedly lower, and their appearance is usually in the roles of companions of men, victims, feminized, in insignificant events, or subordinates. However, the political demands from the last centuries start to be included but disconnected from the rest of the events. In Biology textbooks, women included in scientific research are exceptions, and their contributions are minimized (Palestro, 2016).

Lillo (2016) verifies the low proportion of women in the readings suggested by the Language and Communication Study Programs (not exceeding 18% in the Lyric, Narrative, Drama, and Essay categories). This omission reveals the low valuation of the female experience, knowledge, and culture.

On the other hand, there is a hidden gender curriculum, with elements internalized and not visible to the conscious level, constructions of thought, valuations, meanings, and beliefs that determine the social relations and practices between men and women. This hidden gender curriculum is also manifested in language, gender imaginaries, the forms of expression, action, and participation accepted for men and women, and the interaction and unequal attention by teachers (Guerrero et al., 2007). Azúa (2019) turns the

attention towards what happens in the classroom or schoolyard, where women receive a more severe punishment when transgressing the same norm as men regarding behavior. In particular, when swearing, fighting, or hitting: use of the physical space of the schoolyard dominated by men, who are those who play soccer, while women tend to talk to their friends or encourage the players (with the possible exception of a woman who may be playing, who is branded as masculine); stigmatization of men who perform activities recognized as feminine; and hypervigilance of libido and sexuality, for example, through strict control over the way of dressing and makeup. Students from "Liceo No. 1" high school also wrote about the

homophobic practices present in the female high schools of the Providencia district of Santiago, especially by women and men inspectors.

These discriminatory behaviors are found in the school environment, begin in family socialization, and are reinforced by the close environment and other socializing agents, such as the media (Palestro, 2016).

Given the importance of the curriculum in perpetuating or breaking gender stereotypes, MINEDUC (2015) has made efforts to improve through different initiatives:

Figure 10:

Initiatives from the Chilean Ministry of Education for a Non-Sexist Curriculum (Source: MINEDUC, 2015a)

In terms of curricular instruments and their implementation, greater visibility of women has been achieved in the curriculum and the educational resources distributed to students, both in content and images; better balance in bibliographies and reference to authors in school textbooks recommended in study programs.

The criterion of inclusion and absence of gender bias has been incorporated in the evaluation of curricular instruments applied by the Consejo Nacional de Educación (National Board of Education) to the proposals presented by the Ministry of Education (study plans and programs, performance indicator standards, learning standards, personal and social development standards, and school management methodology).

Technical, pedagogical guidelines with a gender perspective for young people and adult education. For this educational modality, guidelines have also been formulated with specific indications on homemaker female students, oriented to the implementing agencies.

In the new School Coexistence Policy (2015), the gender perspective is one of the founding principles and highlights equal relationships and recognition, including gender equality.

A National Strategy on Affectivity, Sexuality, and Gender is developed. This strategy articulates and promotes the Ministries of Education, Health, Women, and Gender Equity intervention. In addition, the MINEDUC Plan includes technical support, methodological guidelines, and pedagogical tools for the establishments. Teachers, students, and officials have been trained. The Retention Protocol in the school system for pregnant students, mothers, and adolescent parents has been updated; A manual has been prepared for facilitators of awareness and prevention of homophobic and transsexual bullying in educational establishments.

II.D. Work and Gender in Chile

Unemployment rates in Chile have remained between 5 and 7% during the 2015-2019 period (Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas, 2019). The unemployment rate of adults (25-64 years of age) with tertiary education was 4.9%, slightly lower than that of adults with secondary education (5.6%) and those with an educational level less than secondary education (5.2%). The corresponding OECD averages were 5.1%, 7.7%, and 12.8% in 2015, respectively (OECD, 2015).

In Chile, people with higher education have a much higher income level than those with upper secondary education (they earn more than 2.6 times more). It is the highest incentive of all OECD countries with available information. People with a master's, doctorate, or equivalent degree earn more than five times more than secondary education. Chile has significant income disparities in contrast to other OECD countries, where an average of 43% of workers with tertiary education earn more than 1.5 times the average (OECD, 2015).

On the other hand, the last 25 years show a sustained increase in the labor force participation of adult women (25-59 years): from 40% in 1990 to 66% in 2014. Despite this fact, this rate is equivalent to an of the lowest shares within OECD countries, placing Chile even below the average for Latin American countries. For their part, men of the same age group have maintained a relatively constant labor participation rate over time, which, on average, stands at 93% (OECD, 2015). According to the CASEN Survey (2017), the total labor participation rate for women over 15 years is 48.9%, while that of men is 71.6%. One in three women of working age does not have an autonomous income (32.8%), and one in ten men (12.9%) (Chilean Ministry of Social Development, 2018).

According to social class, women's labor force participation is not homogeneous: in the first decile, it is 26.7%, compared to the tenth decile, 72.1%. Decile breakdown, together with the gap compared to men, can be found in the following graph:

Figure 11:
Labor Participation and Gender Gap Rate, by Income Decile



For the first decile, the unemployment rate for women is 28.9%; for the fifth decile, 8.2%; and for the tenth decile, 2.8%. The population outside the workforce due to caregiving or domestic chores is 19.4% for women and 0.6% for men. The highest percentage of women who argue this reason can be found in the first quintile, where it accounts for 27.7%, compared to 9.8% in the fifth quintile (CASEN, 2017).

In recent years, waged work has increased both for men and women, reaching 71.4% in 2017. An increase in remuneration for men and women, who have doubled their income compared to 1990, has also been seen. However, the gender gap has increased (CASEN, 2017). These indicators make Chile one of the countries with the most significant gender wage gaps globally, ranking 126 out of 131 countries in the sub-index of "equal pay for similar work" in the 2017 Global Gender Gap Index of the World Economic Forum (2020).

In the case of men, the average income is 574,424 CLP, while for women, it is 441,691 CLP (CASEN, 2017).

Although the income poverty rate has decreased for both men and women, there are significant differences in favor of men (Chilean Ministry of Social Development, 2018). The CASEN Survey (2017) reveals a Femininity Index of income poverty of 109.8 women for every 100 men. Women aged 15 or over who do not receive self-employment income (excluding those studying) are 32.8%, while, in the case of men, they are 12.9%. Thus, women constitute 74.8% of this category (CASEN, 2017). When looking at the percentage distribution of autonomous income for people aged 15 years or over, men account for 60.9% of it, and women 39.1% in 2017 (Chilean Ministry of Social Development, 2018).

Households with a man as head have a total poverty incidence of 6.4%, while in households with female heads, the poverty incidence is 9.2% (CASEN, 2017).

Among people who provide help to a functionally dependent household member, 68.2% of caregivers

correspond to women, and 31.8% are in the first quintile (CASEN, 2017).

The proportion of time spent on domestic chores and unpaid caregiving is 6 hours a day, in the case of women (20.4% of daily time use), and 2.7 hours a day, in the case of men (9.7% of daily time use) (Chilean Ministry of Social Development, 2018).

Women's precarious employment is also linked to sexist education. Contribution factors such as differing expectations at school, subordination in the labor market, low qualification levels, wage penalties in feminized occupations, allocation to unpaid domestic chores, and caregiving for third parties place women in a situation where they must accept jobs with precarious conditions (González, 2016).

There are two types of gender-based segregation. On the one hand, there is the "horizontal" one, which means that women do not work indistinctly in any branch of activity but are concentrated in some of them, such as Teaching, Domestic Service, Social and Health Services, Commerce, Manufacturing, and Agriculture. On the other hand, the "vertical" segmentation, referring to access differentiated by sex to the different jobs according to their hierarchy, with a concentration of women in middle or low positions within companies and organizations (INE, 2016). These phenomena are analyzed by Dubet (2014), who states the following:

Women's places are not the same as men's. Little by little, progressively, two mechanisms of inequality were revealed. The first is that of the glass ceilings. When women enter areas that, until then, were reserved for men, they less easily access the most prestigious and better-paid positions of responsibility. Maternity and family responsibilities function as obstacles that lead to delays in tasks and fewer total commitments at work. When a couple must sacrifice their career, it is generally the woman who "sacrifices herself." Only the elite

of the elite can escape these mechanisms because they have domestic staff. Even in those cases, women do not fully overcome their disadvantages (...). The second mechanism is related to separate development, which is a form of social apartheid (...) Despite the progress of equality, the worlds of production and power continue to be the worlds of men, while the world of services and social relations, the world of care, continues to be that of women. (pp. 47-48)

Women are absent from their jobs with each pregnancy and have shorter working hours when they are back from maternity leave (until their children reach two years of age, due to the right to breastfeeding break). Some even withdraw from the labor market or choose part-time or more flexible jobs when they are mothers. In some cases, they place restrictions for trips out of town or extend their working hours beyond the agreed because family responsibilities prevent them from being absent from their homes; women who work outside the home spend more hours per day than men on unpaid domestic work. Men, on the other hand, behave much more freely in their workspaces. Unlike women, they tend not to spend time away from work for family reasons. Men travel for professional purposes, take training courses after work or at weekends to improve their performance, place no restrictions on their promotion, and are more likely to accept all the challenges that arise. In general, it is the mother who assumes parenting responsibilities, allowing them to freely dispose of their time and make decisions that enhance their careers (Selamé, 2004; Perticará & Bueno, 2009; Yannoulas, 2005).

On the other hand, the Chilean Labor Code places responsibility on women for the care of children, imposing some obligations only on employers of women. For example, article 203 of the Labor Code (Law No. 19408/1995) stipulates that establishments that employ 20 or more workers of any age or marital status must provide nursery services. Thus, women may receive lower wages in anticipation of the possible cost

the employer will have to face during the pre-and postnatal period, the maternity rights, the right to breastfeeding breaks, the nursery, and absences in case of illnesses of young children (Comunidad Mujer, 2016).

Regarding the average monthly income for old-age pensions and retirements, a significant gender gap is also observed, with an average of 276,937 CLP for men and 198,716 CLP for women (CASEN Survey, 2017). The prevalence of functional dependence is significantly high among women aged 60 years and over, which accounts for a more significant functional wear and tear in women in the last stages of their life cycle (Chilean Ministry of Social Development, 2018).

II.D.1.Women's Entrepreneurship

According to the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor Report (GEM, 2018), in Chile, the participation of women in entrepreneurship is lower than that of men, with seven women entrepreneurs for every ten men. In 2017, 39.2% of micro-enterprises were led by women, with 19.6% of them being entrepreneurs in initial stages -a percentage representing an increase of 90.3% in the last ten years- and 7.1% were established entrepreneurs (more than 42 months) (GEM, 2017).

Although men and women equally have a favorable opinion of entrepreneurship and consider it a career option to a similar extent (GEM, 2017), different factors have been identified that operate as barriers to women's entrepreneurial activity: 1. Deficiencies in management skills (inadequate training in bureaucratic aspects, they feel more vulnerable to corrupt officials) 2. Barriers to accessing the financial system (difficulty in accessing credit due to demands for guarantees and high-interest rates; greater aversion to risk or fear of taking loans; less familiarity and satisfaction with the primary credit instruments; their assets are considerably less valuable than those owned by men, and they have to put more collateral than men in accessing credit) 3. Difficulties in

participating in productive and commercial linkages (networks and market for products) and 4. The persistence of social attitudes limiting women's opportunities (gender roles that continue to assign domestic and family responsibilities disproportionately) (Bentancor et al., 2015 in Comunidad Mujer, 2018). For their part, Guerra and Pizarro (2011 in Comunidad Mujer, 2016) identify that, in the Chilean society, cultural factors are the main obstacles to women's entrepreneurship, such as lack of partner's support and the tension between their professional development and family responsibilities.

It is observed that women have a lower perception of skills for business and entrepreneurship than men, with 55% responding affirmatively, compared to 68% of men; however, the perception of women in Chile exceeds the OECD percentage of 38%. The same scenario is seen with the fear of failure, where women indicate it in 38% (being the OECD average of 43%), while in men, it appears in 28% (GEM, 2017).

It has been reported that women entrepreneurs do not present preferences by sex when hiring. In contrast, male entrepreneurs mainly hire men, in a proportion of 71.4% of the total number hired (Chilean Ministry of Social Development, 2018).

It is essential to distinguish between two types of undertakings: "high impact," which tend to respond to the identification of suitable business opportunities and the ability to create new companies and quality jobs; open markets that promote growth and innovation, boosting industries; of those "self-employment" strategies that respond, instead, to contexts of need due to difficulties in employability, with precariousness from the income, working hours, regulation and social security perspectives, which is the situation for most of the Chilean entrepreneurs (Guerra and Pizarro, 2011). In Chile, there is a difference of 12 percentage points between men and women who start their entrepreneurship out of necessity. The family income

level of entrepreneurs is less than 400,000 CLP, representing 30% of the cases (GEM, 2017).

Most women start their entrepreneurship projects not because they have found a good opportunity in the market but mainly out of necessity. They seek to generate or supplement their income, either because they were fired from their previous job, cannot find work as salaried employees, or look for a higher income and flexible job. Meanwhile, men are more likely to undertake based on the recognition of economic opportunities. High motivation is prevalent in women to find higher levels of labor flexibility, which shows a reconciliation strategy between access to monetary goods and domestic and caregiving tasks, as these ventures are usually an extension of the goods and services produced from their homes (Comunidad Mujer, 2018).

In this way, the analysis of informal employment rates (which includes people who are self-employed and salaried workers who do not have access to health or social security from employment) provides information that adds to that of unemployment: in the first quarter of 2018, 2,437,215 people had an informal occupation, which constitutes 29.1% of the employed people in the country. The informal employment rate for women was 30.5%, and for men, 28.1%. In this type of employment, a high feminization of domestic service (91.8%), health (84.8%), accommodation and food services (65.3%), and education (61.3%) is observed (Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas, 2018b).

Among women, enterprises oriented to private consumers are prioritized (retail sales, personal services, among others), which, in general, are associated more with trades than with a professional activity. At the same time, men are the majority in activities oriented towards extraction or transformation of goods and business services. Moreover, women concentrate their undertakings in low productivity sectors, which generally imply low levels of innovation and

differentiation and little use of technology. The above leads to women being overrepresented in microenterprises and underrepresented in large companies. Thus, although women in Latin America start enterprises in a high proportion, with a smaller gap with men than in other regions of the world, this activity may be revealing the limited options they have in the salaried labor market or the need to supplement family income (Comunidad Mujer, 2018).

The government has promoted different programs aimed at women from the most vulnerable contexts to promote their autonomy, labor competencies, and employment through entrepreneurship, among which the following stand out (names are translated into English): Development of Labor Competencies for Women of the Ethical Family Income (2005), "They Seek Work" (2012), Women's Work Bonus (2012), Ethical Family Income (2012), Learning to Entrepreneurship (2014), More Capable (SENCE-MINTRAB) (2014), Woman, Associativity and Entrepreneurship (SERNAM) (2015), and Improving my Business (PRODEMU) (2016) (Comunidad Mujer, 2016).

Developed by the Chilean Ministry of Social Development (2018), the "Yo Emprendo" ("I Undertake") program had a budget of 9,234,000 BCLP in 2018. It is intended to support people living in poverty and extreme poverty who are developing economic activities independently and have problems accessing financing and training. This ministry also offers other social programs with a gender focus, which identify the caregiving tasks traditionally performed by women through unpaid work and seek to contribute to co-responsibility in care. In this way, women can increase their labor participation.

II.D.2. Skills for Work

According to the Comisión Nacional de Productividad (2018), a job skills training system can be defined as:

The set of instruments, policies, and programs leading to defining, delivering, and certifying the skills required to develop a particular career or trade. The existence of these systems is considered a necessary condition for the countries' economic development, the well-being of their citizens, and the sustained growth of productivity in the long term. (p. 15)

The evaluation of the Comisión Nacional de Productividad (2018) indicates that Chile would not have an integrated skills system, lacking a strategic vision of the country's development to meet the needs and requirements of the productive sector. Companies' incidence in training is low, with a mismatch between the skills demanded and those provided by the system. Nor would the training offer anticipate future requirements in terms of skills: 61% of workers today are employed in occupations at risk of becoming automated, and 24% in jobs at a high risk of being affected by the technology change. Training programs would not be connected, neither with the formal secondary or higher education system nor with the certification mechanisms. The vast majority of programs in Chile have less than 40 hours of duration, while international evidence points towards courses of 200 hours and more to have a significant impact.

The 2015 PIAAC Adult Competencies Assessment — Program for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies— (in the Comisión Nacional de Productividad, 2018) results also place Chile among the countries with the most significant mismatch in the OECD. A third of workers are over-qualified or underskilled concerning the educational level required for their job, and half work in a different study area. Regarding technology competencies, a third could not take the assessment due to deficiencies in handling a computer, surfing the Internet, or because they decided to take the paper version.

During the last twenty years, the budgets for MINEDUC and SENCE have increased six and almost forty times, respectively. As a result, years of schooling and education and training coverage have increased. However, quality continues to be a challenge, evidenced by international skills measurements, reflecting poor results in young people and adults (Comisión Nacional de Productividad, 2018).

In 2016, the State invested 0.2% of GDP (USD 570 million) in training programs and remedial education, which benefited 1,116,000 people. SENCE is the leading training agency, responsible for 69% of the resources invested and 78% of the training beneficiaries. The main four training programs correspond to three SENCE programs: Impulsa Personas, with 28% of spending and 65% of beneficiaries (it served 740,000 in 2016); Más Capaz, with 25% of the expenditure and 9% of the beneficiaries; and Becas Laborales, with 11% of the expenditure and 3% of the beneficiaries - and the MINEDUC program, Education for Young People and Adults, with 26% of the expenditure and 17% of the beneficiaries (Comisión Nacional de Productividad, 2018).

Training sessions can be focused on:

- Primary education leveling course (formal adult education, job readiness, minimum literacy/numeracy skills);
- Participation and reintegration (development of a trade or occupation for groups with low job skills);
- Continuous training (programs that seek to expand skills or improve the existing, in beneficiaries who typically have a job and actively participate in the labor market. These can be vertical mobility programs to move up in the company or sector, or horizontal mobility, for a job conversion in another sector);
- Business competencies (programs that seek to promote skills for micro or small entrepreneurs)

However, among the beneficiaries, only 15% concentrated on participation and reintegration. In comparison, the bulk did so in continuous training (around 65%), 17% in primary education, and less than 3% in business competencies (Comisión Nacional de Productividad, 2018).

Training programs have a high potential to contribute to gender equality in the labor market, expand the areas in which women are trained, facilitating their access to sectors where they are a minority or are absent (Comunidad Mujer, 2018).

There are training programs specifically aimed at women who seek to facilitate their integration into the labor market. One of them is PRODEMU's "Development of Labor Competencies" Program, which seeks to resolve women's low levels of employability, developing their personal and work skills through technical training (Chilean Ministry of Social Development, 2018).

Concerning the promotion of citizenship, it has been seen that, although women have greater participation than men in social organizations, they still do not have equal access to sports or recreational clubs, political parties, corporate associations, trade, and professional associations. The Program "Mujer, Ciudadanía y Participación" of the Chilean Ministry of Women and Gender Equity seeks to increase the participation and incidence of women in the territory, both at the local, regional, and national decision-making level. The above includes conducting leadership programs for women, workshops to promote rights and strengthen associations among women, starting with women who participate in civil society organizations (Chilean Ministry of Social Development, 2018).

In connection with the use of information and communication technologies, parity is observed between men and women concerning the proportion of mobile phones (Chilean Ministry of Social Development, 2018).

It has been noted that there is a potential for closer linkage between job training policies and programs and the school system. This includes both the regular school system (mainly through technical education, which can establish new and better partnerships with the labor market) and reintegration education (emphasizing its orientation towards job training, entrepreneurship training, and linkage with companies).

II.E. Gender-Based Violence in Chile

In Chile, 11.7% of women between the ages of 15 and 65 experienced violence by their partner or ex-partner in the last 12 months, the most frequent type of violence being psychological, followed by physical and sexual violence. On the other hand, 4% of women in this age group report having suffered sexual violence

in the last 12 months by others. Women victims of gender violence in the family reaches 87% (Chilean Ministry of Social Development, 2018). Although legal progress has been made in recent years in the face of gender-based violence allegations, cultural changes are necessary to eradicate these violent practices, incorporating this problem explicitly in formal and non-formal educational programs (Chilean Ministry of Social Development, 2018).

Regarding discrimination or unfair treatment, it is seen this is reported to a greater extent in households headed by women (17.4%) than by men (12.4%). The level of discrimination is higher when female heads of household belong to the first income quintile, declare themselves belonging to indigenous peoples, or are migrants, representing the intersectionality involved in discriminatory phenomena (Chilean Ministry of Social Development, 2018).

III. SECOND CHANCE EDUCATION

III.A.

Extracurricular and Intracurricular Factors of Out-of-Schooling among the SCE Population in Chile

This section provides studies that have performed characterizations of the population that attends different reintegration programs in Chile, intending to identify how the different factors that literature has associated with out-of-schooling are presented.

In general, distinctions have been established between the extracurricular and extracurricular factors behind out-of-schooling (Espíndola and León, 2002 in CPCE, 2016):

The extracurricular or exogenous factors to the educational system are related to the socio-economic situation and the family context of the student, where poverty, marginalization, early work allocation, family dysfunction, and low value of education generate a greater risk of out-of-schooling. Among others, these factors involve the family and the market, the communities, and the State.

The socio-economic context is one of the most critical extracurricular factors of out-of-schooling, and influences through the family structure (with greater risk in single-parent families), the social and housing aspects (with insufficient facilities, overcrowding, and rurality situations

increasing the risk), economic aspects, the cultural capital of the parents (schooling, expectations and attitudes and support of the parents towards the study of their sons and daughters), and the life projects of the students themselves (Román, 2013; Lenos & Krasenberg, 2017; Boniolo & Najmias, 2019).

It may also happen that children and adolescents are integrated into socializing groups that, due to their cultural patterns and devaluation of education, reinforce risky behaviors (Centro de Estudios de la Niñez, 2014).

The early search for job alternatives is another factor pointed out as critical. However, this must be put into context, since in many cases, the option of work comes after the disengagement from the system and, on the other hand, there are many cases where the student works and studies, with the time allocated to work being a more apparent factor associated with out-of-schooling (Román, 2013). Most of those who identify work as a reason for dropping out of school are men. In contrast, in the case of women, the main reasons are maternal responsibilities and associated domestic chores (López, Opertti & Vargas, 2017).

Regarding couple and motherhood/fatherhood relationships, it has been seen that the complexities associated with adolescent pregnancy impact young women to a greater extent than their male counterparts. Relationships can also constitute a risk for the permanence of children and adolescents in the formal educational system, especially if they are linked to a greater probability of becoming pregnant or getting their partner pregnant in adolescence (Centro de Estudios de la Niñez, 2014). Some factors that have been related to the probability of pregnancy: cultural attitudes that promote motherhood, availability of contraceptive methods in the neighborhood, and perception of job opportunities in the neighborhood, which could tip the balance towards motherhood by not seeing that their older peers have achieved social mobility, in such a way that motherhood appears as a reasonable option that gives meaning and purpose, allows defining identity and having a status (Lenos and Krasenberg, 2017; Hernández, 2003 in López, Opertti & Vargas, 2017).

Intracurricular or endogenous factors to the educational system refer to the educational system conditions that can make the permanence of students in school conflictual. These factors include the structure of the school system and disciplinary norms, school size, the ratio of teachers/students, pedagogical practices, and the behavior and capacities of the schools' teams and teachers. These can lead to grade repetition and lag as a prelude to out-of-schooling, and where it has been seen that students who are more behind in school are less likely to complete their studies, this being one of the most reliable predictors (UNESCO, 2009).

Rigid and authoritarian organizational structures and schools' resistance to accepting the socializing codes typical of youth culture would generate frustration, disillusionment, and detachment from the system among students (Centro de Estudios de la Niñez, 2014; Bellei and Contreras, 2000 in UNESCO, 2009b). On the other hand, a school offer that tends to be homogeneous discourages students since they fail to value or find usefulness and relevance in school (Román, 2013).

The transition between primary and secondary levels appears as a complex life milestone difficult for the most vulnerable students to process and assimilate. More than continuity or a spontaneous process, this transition is experienced as a break or radical change in the school trajectory (Román, 2013).

The type of interaction that students and teachers establish is a substantial factor of retention or expulsion. In this sense, the fact of having teachers who, in addition to a stimulating pedagogical dynamic, are interested in their students and hold positive expectations and opinions about them, works as an incentive to improve the motivation of children and adolescents in the school space (Centro de Estudios de la Niñez, 2014). Teachers' low expectations and stigmatization of students who

present more significant difficulties in learning, behavior, or discipline build tense and distrustful relationships, with loss of motivation and confidence in the students' abilities, which become self-fulfilling prophecies (Román, 2013).

Torres (2005 in UNESCO, 2009) emphasizes the need for a comprehensive look at these factors. It becomes irrelevant to determine precisely what portion of the inadequate educational offering and low learning is attributable to the "outside" of the school (socioeconomic conditions, family, and community), and what portion is attributable to the "inside" of the school (teachers, school climate, management, infrastructure, content, teaching methodologies). The author calls for action from both educational and social-economic policies. Research shows that the dropout phenomenon is multifactorial, and it is only possible to point out that, statistically, it tends to occur in individuals who accumulate more risk factors (Espinoza et al., 2020a).

III.A.1. Extracurricular Factors

As a summary of who would be the group of out-ofschool students, Román (2013) indicates that out-ofschooling occurs more frequently among men who are in the first years of high school (between 12 and 14 years old), and especially in those who are parents and are living without a mother, or with low income and looking for work. To a greater extent, these processes also occur among women in early motherhood and living as a couple and among students from rural areas. There are also family and social causes, such as belonging to lower-incomes quintiles, belonging to single-parent families, lower supply and coverage of secondary education in the immediate environment, and living with mothers with a lower level of education. Low confidence that their children will make it to higher education, absenteeism or low interest and motivation towards school, and the lack of parental support in the school process, are also among these causes.

In the CPCE study (2016), a panel analysis of two cohorts of children was carried out using available information systems. Socio-economic differences were observed when schoolchildren are approximately nine years old: about 30% of schoolchildren who have not yet reached the last year of secondary school in 2015 had a mother who had not finished school while they were in the fourth year of primary school. Regarding schoolchildren who do reach the last year of secondary school on time, this percentage is close to 15%. Schoolchildren who do not reach the last year of secondary school by 2015, compared to those who have, live in a household where the family's primary income is provided, with greater probability, by an unskilled worker, with lower family income levels and reduced availability of books. They are more likely to have attended public schools during their primary education and to have parents who think they will not make it to higher education.

The Characterization Study on the Educational Reintegration Programs from SENAME and MINEDUC, with a sample of 511 children and adolescents (233 belonging to the SENAME programs and 288 to those of MINEDUC), analyzed the characteristics of its population. The study shows that 62.6 % are male, their average age is 16 years old, 12.1% are mothers or fathers (excluding pregnant women), 17.4% are in active employment, have 4.2 years of average school lagging, and 1.4 repeated courses on average (SENAME, 2016).

Learning difficulties are present in 33.6% of them. The most frequent problems are reading difficulties, the most frequent problems being reading difficulties (dyslexia), followed by calculation difficulties (dyscalculia), and writing difficulties (dysgraphia). 4 out of 10 of the participants present three types of disorders simultaneously. A third present two of these. Also, 89.5% do not present any special educational needs, neither intellectual nor physical. Among those who show some of these needs, the highest prevalence is the intellectual type (8.9%); 66.2% have previously experienced violations of rights (38.3% psychological abuse, 36.8% domestic violence, 26.3% physical abuse, 8.5% child labor, and 6.1% sexual abuse); 39.1% of them have been in conflict with

the law, the most frequent type of offense being robbery or theft (SENAME: 33.2% versus MINEDUC: 21.9%); 40.4% have a diagnosis of a mental health disorder, the most frequently reported disorders being behavioral (24.1%), followed by attention-deficit (20.0%), mood disorders (15.8%), and among the least frequent are suicide risk (4.3%) and psychotic disorders (2.0%). 60.7% use drugs. The most used drug among the participants of both programs is marijuana, where about half of the participants use it. It is followed, in a downward trend, by the use of alcohol (26.9%), cocaine (12.6%), and other drugs (11.9%).

Their parenting rates are higher than those of the population in this age group (7.8%): 13.4%, in the case of MINEDUC programs, and 10.8%, in SENAME programs. Moreover, the proportion of women who report having children is higher than that of men: in this case, women have a rate equivalent to 8 times the parenting rate of men. Men, meanwhile, are twice as likely as women to be employed. In general, the most frequently mentioned jobs are customer assistance or sales in commercial premises (15.1%), fairground (14%), construction (11.6%), and the performance of some trades such as mechanics, confectionery, or product manufacturing (9.3%).

Regarding family-related data, the person responsible for the children and adolescents, in most cases, is one of the parents (72.5%), followed by a relative (11.9%), while 12.5% are in another care situation and 4.2% indicate not having a responsible person in their care.

Among those responsible for children and adolescents, the average age is 44 years, and only a quarter of these (27.7%) have completed 12 or more years of schooling. Out of the total number of responsible persons, 63.3% are employed, of which 65.2% work full-time and 22.6% part-time. In addition, 22.2% of the children and adolescents are looked after by an adult with a mental health disorder. While the presence of adult family members (predominantly one of the parents) is noted, and this is beneficial—as the literature shows that the absence of parents usually increases the risk of school

dropout, this must be tempered by the fact that only a quarter of them have completed their secondary education.

The "24 Hours" Program is an intersectoral program dependent upon the Subsecretaría de Prevención del Delito, which provides psychosocial care to children and adolescents who have been arrested. It aims to overcome situations of violation of rights and stop disruptive behaviors. These youngsters overlap with those who participate in the SENAME Educational Reintegration Program, although they have not dropped out of school in all cases. A characterization study discovered gender differences essential to highlight since they can be helpful in SCE programs that address a population with similar characteristics. For example, it was found that girls and female adolescents respond differently than boys and male adolescents to intervention and treatment programs as there are problems that affect them differently. These problems include sexual, physical, and emotional abuse (in many cases by close relatives, causing young women to leave their homes, difficulties with emotional adjustment and sexuality, and many assuming responsibility for this abuse to some extent, leading to low self-esteem and self-harm). In addition, substance abuse, female crime, and gang participation (less frequently involved in organized groups to commit crimes against women), reproductive health, pregnancy, and sexually transmitted diseases are also included in this list. Women have experienced more bullying and sexual violence experiences at school than men and have a higher prevalence of mental disorders. In girls and female adolescents from the lower classes, the pressures of gender scripts are particularly acute, and in many cases, they are single heads of households. Female adolescents would be involved in more complex relationships, characterized by offending behaviors from their partners, with situations of control over their behaviors (jealousy, intimidation), becoming risk factors, while, in the case of men, their partners tend to be a protective factor, taking a motivator role to redirect the life path. It has also been identified that women present more capabilities than men. For example, women give more importance to attending school, have a much lower rate of expulsion as a reason for dropping out, and do not express "laziness" to explain school dropout (which is mentioned by some men as a cause). Also, they report a greater desire to return to school if they have dropped out and less use of drugs other than tobacco and alcohol. For their part, the professionals who work with these children and adolescents perceive that the primary motivations in men to commit crimes would be the validation of their peers and obtaining money to buy things. Among girls, the motivations would be economic needs and family problems, or a desire to accompany their partners, reproducing an image of women as "a being for others" (Subsecretaría de Prevención del Delito, 2016).

The study conducted by Centro de Estudios de la Niñez (2014), which included 284 children and adolescents from the Metropolitan Region who have left the formal school system and attend second chance schools from the Hogar de Cristo's Fundación Súmate, identified the following profile of its participants:

- 40.1% of the interviewees live with 1 to 4 people.
- 39.1% reside in groups made up of 5 to 7 members.
- 19.4% live with eight people or more.

Two-parent homes represent 46.6% of the total, while families with brothers and sisters reach 44.4%, 29% of children and adolescents report they live only with their mother. In addition, 10.4% mention living only with the father; that is, almost 40% of the interviewees would not have both parents between the household, a figure well above the national 27.4%. However, in most cases, the family configuration of children and adolescents belonging to second-chance schools does not show obvious signs of a predominant dysfunctional structure that could have a decisive influence attributed to the dynamics of school dropout and reintegration. Regarding the family climate, two significant matrices were identified: one in which

conflictual relationships prevail and another in which harmonious relationships prevail.

The study above shows the active labor participation of adults living with children and adolescents, especially father and mother figures. The father is mentioned mainly as an extra-domestic worker in 48.6% of the cases, followed by the mother in 42.5%. Only 8.4% of the fathers would not be working outside the home, and 33.1% of the mothers, verifying the national trend regarding the occupational gap between men and women, the latter being relegated to housework and caregiving: family, invisible and unpaid work. Concerning the responsible adult's working day, in 86.5% of the cases, the adult who supports them in their educative process works outside the home. Among these, 45% indicate the adult has a full-time job, of more than 8 hours a day, with differences according to sex and age: this type of workday occurs to a greater extent in men than in women (47.7% and 39.5%, respectively).

Regarding their peer group, more than 60% of the students have siblings under 18 years of age, with almost 70% attending school. In turn, they report that, among their peer networks, at least their two closest friends are studying, 70%. Therefore, siblings or close friends would not be considered triggering factors to the temporary school system's dropout. In addition, alcohol consumption on the neighborhood streets where they live reaches 56.4%; the presence of gangs, 54.6%; the sale of drugs, 54.3%; robberies or assaults, 26.1%; and prostitution, 14.6%. Again, however, children and adolescents interviewed do not seem to be significantly permeated by the complexities of the social setting where they live, positioning themselves as witnesses of these practices.

Concerning family support, 90% of the students who attend second-chance schools and who live with their families have the support of an adult with whom they live. Furthermore, 88.9% indicate that this figure maintains a continuing concern for their punctual attendance at school; 83.9% indicate that this adult expresses interest in

the learning and performing the school duties that the student has been assigned; and in 72.9% of the cases, the adult establishes rules and time limits. This last condition is imposed to a greater extent on women, which shows a social construction of gender that would imply a greater vulnerability of women in the public space, related to their physical integrity. No climate that encourages out-of-schooling is observed, but there is a highly stressed family context due to poverty conditions, which sometimes translates into little parental control over out-of-schooling processes, frustration, and lack of disciplinary tools.

The most referred-to supportive figure at the school level is the mother, in 65.2% of the cases, compared to the father, referred in 12% of the cases. The above follows the traditional construction of gender roles. It is noted that the monitoring of the mother in the student's learning process implies putting intense pressure on them to finish their education. The completion of both school levels (primary and secondary) is considered a sign of improvement individually and as a family accomplishment.

Regarding the educational level of responsible adults, 29.6% have completed secondary education, followed by incomplete secondary education (13.9%), those who have completed primary education (13.5%), and those who have not—completed it (13.5%). Only 10.5% of the parents have completed technical or university studies.

Of the interviewees, 93.3% indicated that this adult motivates them to finish their education and that at the same time is concerned about their grades, 88% say that the adult is informed about the student's behavior through school. In addition, 84.7% states that the adult attends parents/guardian's meetings. However, the degree of support in specific topics related to study and schoolwork decreases to 66.6%, compared to the normative, value-based monitoring (which can be explained by the time implied or the required schooling level). Another critical element in adult monitoring dynamics is the gap between age and the educational level in which the student is, which could generate

shyness when requesting help. On the other hand, the home does not provide a suitable environment for the student to focus on school duties.

Regarding children and adolescents, 75% of them do not work. However, among the children and adolescents population who do it, work is more frequent among men and in the 15-year-old group. There are fewer women in paid work as they are usually assigned tasks in the domestic setting, delaying or preventing them from joining the world of work. In terms of paid work, there is a trend towards cooperation in a family member's duties (40.8%), followed by activities as an independent worker (22.5%) and being employed in a company or factory (12.7%). Jobs occupying between 5 to 10 hours of their weekly time (50.7%) are more frequent, and in the second instance, those that require less than 5 hours a week (28.2%). Among the main reasons that lead them to have a paid job while studying are having their own money (46.5%) and contributing to the family income (39.4%). As a means to achieve economic autonomy, work occurs more frequently in women (52.6%) between 16 and 17 years of age (53.6%), while those who mention contributing to the family income are frequently men (40.4%) between 12 and 14 (46.7%). Therefore, entry into the labor market is not a sufficient condition for the suspension of studies.

Regarding relationships and motherhood/fatherhood, 65.1% do not currently have a love relationship, with differences by sex and age in this trend: more women than men mention that they currently have a romantic relationship (40.4% and 31.9%, respectively). This situation increases as the age of the students increases. The quantitative incidence of adolescent motherhood/fatherhood is much lower among these children and adolescents, reaching 2.8%, below the national 3.7%.

Dussaillant (2017), based on the 2015 Survey of Instituto Nacional de la Juventud (National Institute of Youth - INJUV) and the 2015 CASEN Survey, identified differentiated attitudes in students who drop out of school: in general, out-of-school students seem to have a value structure different from that of the non-out-of-

school, which is observed in their perceptions regarding the traditional division of roles between men and women, where the woman is the one who raises children, and the man is the provider. Out-of-school women are more in favor than out-of-school men of statements such as "In a relationship, the woman should be responsible for using a preventive or contraceptive method" or "Caring for children is mainly a woman's task" to their gender roles. On the other hand, out-ofschool men also tend to have more extreme positions regarding the role of their gender. They agree more than out-of-school women with statements such as "Financially supporting the family is primarily a man's job" and "It is normal for men to earn more money than women because they have a family to support." These results reveal convictions that would exacerbate the motivation to drop out of school, especially among women (mostly when faced with pregnancy). This conservative perspective regarding gender issues is maintained even after controlling on demographic and sociocultural factors.

Another factor identified by Duissaillant (2017) is sexual initiation: while 64% of out-of-school youths between 15 and 19 years of age have started having sex, in the non-out-of-school group, only 46% have. Likewise, 9% of out-of-school students report intimate partner violence, a figure that drops to 3% in the case of non-out-of-school students between the ages of 15 and 19.

The author observed a significantly higher consumption of marijuana and cigarettes among out-of-school than non-out-of-school students concerning substance use. Out-of-school students are also more likely than non-out-of-school students to have used cocaine, coca paste, or over-the-counter pain relievers at some point in their life.

Espinoza et al. (2014) took a sample of 523 students from Youth and Adult Education (EPJA) programs of regular and flexible modality and school reintegration projects, identifying that the beneficiaries were

preferably men, minors, and unemployed, while women tended to be of legal age. Around a quarter of the Integrated Adult Education Centers (CEIA) Regular Modality students are minors, even though it is intended for adults, and minors should only be accepted in exceptional cases. Similarly, 8% of those enrolled in reintegration projects are of legal age (even students over 30 years old), although this modality was designed to help minors. Two-thirds of the surveyed students state that they do not work. Only in the flexible modality, designed expressly for workers, more than half of the respondents (58%) declare that they are working. They have, to a greater extent, full-time jobs and enjoy the security of having an employment contract (62.5%), above the CEIA Regular Modality (44%) and Reintegration Projects (28.6 %). The participants of the Reintegration Projects are those who have the worst working conditions, with 60% working without a contract. In the regular modalities, women mostly have children and not men, while, in the flexible mode, the trend is towards parity. Among the women who report having children, less than half indicate that they work, while among the men who say they are fathers, over 80% indicate that they have a job.

Thus, a wide variety of student profiles is observed among the different types of re-schooling. The flexible modality tends to bring together primarily female population, preferably between 30 and 45 years old, and with dependent children. In contrast, the reintegration projects receive students with higher formal levels of vulnerability, primarily men and minors, who dropped out or were expelled by the educational system without reintegrating into it. The vast majority are unemployed, and the small percentage of them who work do so under precarious conditions, without a work contract and for some hours or part-time. For the most part, they do not have children or families in their care and usually have problems with or are offenders of the law. Regular modalities are between these extremes, receiving a population that, although it tends to resemble the one that attends the flexible modality, assists people the reintegration projects could have recruited.

From a sample of 1,112 students (498 women and 614 men) from second-chance schools, Espinoza et al. (2020b) noted that 34.4% had repeated a grade twice, and 10.1% had repeated four or more times. Repetitions, for both sexes, started mainly at the age of 13, which coincides with the transition from primary to secondary school, but in the case of women, they were more likely than men to fail in school for the first time, only after turning 15 years old. In addition, 16.5% of the women had never repeated a grade, compared to 7.5% of the men; 84.6% lived with one or both parents (34% with both parents, 42% only with the mother, and 10% only with the father). Less than 20% of their parents or guardians had tertiary education. No significant relations were observed between the characteristics of the families or households and school failure or repetition. Most of the students in the sample were between 17 and 18 years old, with no gender differences in their age distribution. Of the interviewees, 17% declared that they belonged to an indigenous people, mostly Mapuche, and 44% of the sample reported one or more special educational needs. Less than half reported that the economic situation in their household was good or very good. Also, 20% of the sample reported being employed, with older women more likely to be working. It was observed greater participation in organizations in men, more frequently, sports-related; meanwhile, women participated mainly in religious groups. Women often tended to hang out with their friends at home, while men, on the streets. Both in men and women who tended to hang out more on the streets, the frequency of repetition was higher. Regarding their expectations for the future, women considered a more significant number of options than men, in terms of work and money, and education (for example, obtaining a technical certification, but not in terms of leaving home or other. In this perspective, 62% of men expected to work after finishing their studies, and women, 54%; while 61% of women expected to continue studying, compared to 49% of men. Students reported a low frequency of problematic situations in their households, with greater use of drugs (own) reported by men (15%) than women (8%), and greater frequency of problems with siblings in women (19.3%) than in men (12.1%).

III.A.2. Intracurricular Factors

In Chile, among all the causes of out-of-schooling, the main one is due to specific aspects of the school experience: academic performance, behavior, and coexistence problems, which explain 30% of chronic absenteeism and, in the second place, aspects such as teenage pregnancy and economic reasons (CASEN, 2017).

The grade in which disengagement from the school system occurs most frequently is the eighth year of primary school, indicated in 28.5% of the cases as the last course approved by the children and adolescents participating in the reintegration programs of MINEDUC and SENAME. The above also coincides with the average age of disengagement from the educational system, which is close to 14 years (SENAME, 2016). In a study on these reintegration programs, although 8 out of 10 children and adolescents indicate that they are interested in finishing the last year of secondary school (twelfth year), as the number of repeated courses increases, the number of those uninterested in continuing their studies is higher. In this way, those who have not repeated any grade or have only done it once state in approximately 80% of the cases that they will continue their studies until the fourth -and last year- of secondary school (without gender differences). In contrast, among those who have repeated three or four courses, this percentage drops by 10%. These numbers confirm the findings of the 2006 CIDE Survey (in Román, 2013): as the time spent by young people outside the system increases, their preferences for working increase, even if they are not employed or work under precarious conditions.

Regarding chronic absenteeism, which corresponds to missing 10% or more of the school year, it is present in one out of every three school-age students in Chile, representing 900,000 chronically absent children (MINEDUC, 2020j). Moreover, this trend has been growing strongly, going from 26% ten years ago to 39.7% in municipal establishments in 2014 (Muñoz, 2020). It is

a problem that has severe consequences for the development of children, both in learning and in psychosocial development, with consequences such as grade repetition, difficulty in relating to their peers, or school dropout (MINEDUC, 2020j).

Using the Outstanding Attendance (97% or more); Regular Attendance (between 90% and 97%), Repeated Absenteeism (between 85% and 90%); and Severe Absenteeism (85% or lower) categories —the last two constituting Chronic Absenteeism—, there is the following distribution by region (MINEDUC, 2018b):

Table 3: School Absenteeism by Region

Region	Oustanding Attendance	Regular Attendance	Repeated Absenteeism	Severe Absenteeism
Arica y Parinacota	34.0%	38.0%	16.9%	11.1%
Tarapacá	25.6%	39.2%	18.5%	16.7%
Antofagasta	29.7%	41.3%	15.9%	13.1%
Atacama	22.7%	38.9%	17.4%	20.9%
Coquimbo	32.4%	40.2%	14.8%	12.6%
Valparaíso	31.3%	39.2%	14.9%	14.5%
Metropolitana	27.9%	40.5%	15.5%	16.1%
O'Higgins	40.0%	37.7%	12.0%	10.3%
Maule	39.9%	37.6%	12.6%	9.9%
Ñuble	41.9%	37.2%	12.2%	8.7%
Biobío	33.7%	39.5%	14.7%	12.1%
La Araucanía	41.0%	37.2%	12.3%	9.5%
Los Ríos	35.4%	38.8%	15.1%	10.7%
Los Lagos	28.9%	40.8%	16.3%	13.9%
Aysén	24.9%	40.7%	16.9%	17.5%
Magallanes	22.6%	42.5%	20.9%	14.1%
Total	31.6%	39.6%	14.9%	13.8%

Source: Chilean Ministry of Education - MINEDUC, 2018b

The *Atacama* and *Aysén* Regions have the highest percentages of students with Severe Absenteeism.

Interms of absentee is maccording to school establishment dependency, in 2018, 33.9% of the students from municipal establishments had a repeated or severe absentee is m, 26.3% in the case of subsidized private, 18.5% in private, 41.9% in delegated administration establishments, and 37.2% in Local Education Services (MINEDUC, 2018b).

Meanwhile, the gender distribution of absenteeism is as follows (MINEDUC, 2018b):

Table 4: School Absenteeism by Sex

Category	Men	Women	Total
Outstanding Attendance	31.7%	31.5%	31.6%
Regular Attendance	39.4%	39.8%	39.6%
Repeated Absence	14.8%	15.0%	14.9%
Severe Absence	14.0%	13.6%	13.8%
Total	100%	100%	100%

Source: Chilean Ministry of Education - MINEDUC, 2018b

The 2004 evaluation from Centro de Estudios de la Niñez (Centro de Estudios de la Niñez) found that, among the main reasons reported by children and adolescents for leaving their previous educational establishment were their behavioral problems in the classroom (27.1%), followed by grade repetition (19.4%) and poor grades (12.3%). All these elements are confined within the educational system. On the other hand, problems within the household occur to a lesser extent (10.2%), changes of residence (9.2%), lack of family support (3.2%), and pregnancy (1,8%). Illness of self or a family member, and children and adolescents having to take care of their younger siblings also occur

to a lesser extent. Behavioral maladjustments appear more frequently among male students (29.2%), while grade repetition is more prevalent in girls and adolescents (23.2%). Given that poor grades are more frequent in men, the higher repetition of women could be associated with low attendance rather than low performance.

Physical violence is the most frequent form of behavioral maladjustment referred to by children and adolescents, which would have justified their expulsion. They describe that the use of violent practices was not an exclusive action of the students but that the teachers also committed such actions. A testimonial that reflects this phenomenon: "There were teachers who beat the little kids, and girls. First they put entries in the class book, and when they misbehaved, they also beat them... And the teacher was mean, really" (Centro de Estudios de la Niñez, 2014, p. 52).

It is observed that, during the school period, women present better academic performance than their male counterparts, have better attendance rate and better behavior, fulfilling specific gender roles where obedience, order, and discipline have particular relevance. In addition, 69.5% of women are classified by their peers as "not at all or little confrontational," a label that, in the case of men, drops to 55.5% (Centro de Estudios de la Niñez, 2014).

Both the grade point average, as well as the Chilean System for Measuring the Quality of Education - SIMCE scores in Math, Language, and Social Studies subjects (when they were in the fourth year of primary school), are lower for schoolchildren who drop out, compared to those who graduate (SENAME, 2016).

Usually, academic difficulties are not mentioned as the most determining aspect of interpersonal relationships within the school space. Instead, 29.5% refers to the tension with the teachers, 27.9% to aesthetic impositions; 25.1% to the discouraging dynamics of the lessons; and 23% to conflicts with classmates (Centro de Estudios de la Niñez, 2014).

Among the experiences in previous schools, difficulties in the relationship with teachers are more frequent in students between 12 and 14 years of age (37.9%), while conflicts with classmates prevail in students aged 16 and 17 years (28.6%). Thus, the opposition to the adult world resulting from personal identity construction could be a factor in the first group; meanwhile, older children and adolescents focus their attention on the peer group, increasing the probability of entering into conflict (Centro de Estudios de la Niñez, 2014). Román (2013) also reports as causes mentioned by children and adolescents, stigmatization and tense relationship between students and teachers.

Negative opinions about teachers are frequent and intense, highlighting traits such as violence, disregard, and authoritarianism. Few opinions refer to events in their school trajectories where bonds with the teachers are created. Such positive episodes constitute a break in the imposed and rigid dynamics with which most schools operate. Interest in their students, effective communication, focus on the possibility of them learning, and positive feedback are the aspects most referred to by the interviewees (Centro de Estudios de la Niñez, 2014).

The study carried out by Julio (2010), which synthesizes the reasons given by children and adolescents for dropping out of school, identified six primary causes, where those related to the school experience stand out: boredom, demotivation, lack of interest, and dissatisfaction with an element of the establishment (reasons that appear indistinctly in men and women); expulsion from the establishment due to bad behavior, "negative" entries or poor grades (more frequent in men, regardless of the educational level at which they leave school, a question related to difficulties in interpersonal relationships); perception of failure due to a history of poor performance and the absence of establishments that receive them (primarily in men); They do not like studying (a reason given mainly by children and adolescents who dropped out of school in the first grade of primary school, with a greater tendency in men). As for extracurricular reasons, work or job search appears due to hardship or family economic crisis or due to the young man's position in the family group (in men, primarily at all levels). Motherhood, parenthood, or adolescent pregnancy (although the situation occurs in both sexes, the one who usually drops out of school is the woman) can also be added.

The study also shows that men and women have differences in the amount of time spent out of school, the educational levels achieved, school repetition and school failure experiences, school-based and non-formal education achieved, and learning skills and strategies developed inside and outside the school. These are added to family background and relations with social institutions (family, school, and justice), levels of drug use (when applicable), law violation levels (when applicable), and development of intrapersonal and interpersonal skills. These differences require educational processes with differentiated supports.

In a study carried out by the Southern Cone Common Market - MERCOSUR (2006) in a school retention program in Chile, "Liceo para Todos," more than half of the respondents indicated "pedagogical and didactic proposals inappropriate to the reality of the students," as the primary cause of school failure. However, this explanation of the problem does not correlate with the set of actions taken because the most widespread are those that directly intervene on the factors associated with children and adolescents, making "more school from outside the school."

In another MERCOSUR study (UNESCO, 2009b) on reintegration projects in Chile, participants constantly referred to physical and psychological abuse by teachers and discrimination in the classrooms during their previous experiences. All this leads to the refusal of school as an educational space and a resistance to reintegration. Furthermore, educational establishments show reluctance to work with children from second-chance education projects. As a result, many children return to the same school from which they dropped out, where they are already known and are often stigmatized. These institutions do not believe in their possible change or that they reintegrate after an effective educational process.

According to the study carried out by Román (2013), most students report feeling delegitimized as subjects of the law and subjected to a relational culture that is imposed on them in the establishment without considering their interests and distinctive realities. The above leads to forms of resistance among young people, such as indiscipline and demotivation. Furthermore, on the part of the institution, control practices, distrust, and surveillance are identified, impacting performance, discouragement, and, ultimately, school dropout.

III.A.2.i. The Schools' Perspective: The Centre for Research and Development of Education - CIDE survey on the different educational actors at the primary and secondary school levels (2008 in Román, 2013) explores the perception of principals and teachers about the factors that would affect performance and appear associated with school failure (dropout, low performance, and repetition). The above proves every year the historical trend that shifts responsibility towards the family and the students themselves. Thus, the main school-related factors (reported by principals and teachers) that explain school failure include:

- Lack of family support (especially from parents);
- The students' lack of interest in their education, associated with deficient intellectual capabilities and violent behaviors;
- Social inequalities and vulnerable contexts (drug use, crime, and alcoholism).

In other words, for principals and teachers, the causes of school failure lie mainly in the students themselves and their families. Factors inherent and internal to the establishment appear, in the case of teachers, only in the seventh place, with a low 1.5% adherence. In comparison, 14% of directors identify it as the third most important factor. In both cases, they refer to conceptual weaknesses and methodologies of the teachers. This view from the educational actors is highly problematic, as research has shown the impact of intracurricular factors on students' learning, being a perspective that can immobilize teaching groups for change.

III.B.

Trajectories of Students who Drop Out of School in Chile

Studies such as that of UNESCO (2009b) and that of Egaña, Solar, and Wormal (2007) examine accounts of young people between 12 and 19 years old who dropped out of school. Both studies found common characteristics, such as experiencing their school life and developing their identity around exclusion and defending against others, blaming themselves for school dropout on their aggressiveness or learning difficulties, and having experienced stigmatization in the school system, as seen in the following testimonial of a 13-year-old:

"They expelled me. I'm expelled from all the schools. I was doing the sixth grade, and they kicked me out. Because I misbehave. I also repeated sixth grade once but did not enroll in the same school. It was in another, and they also kicked me out. I... I like fighting, I like punching people. Anywhere. I fight because I'm angry. If there is no reason, I create fights with my classmates". (UNESCO, 2009b, p. 63)

In a way that could be surprising, it is also observed that most of them value education and see it as a tool to develop and find a job. They try to stay in the system fighting against different forms of adversity, and go back to school, although sometimes the steps to achieve it are unclear. The experiences that remind them of their time at school are conflicting and even violent relationships with their teachers. They state they have been expelled due to relational issues or dropped out of school to support their family group.

A research carried out by Centro de Estudios de la Niñez (2014) also delved into the trajectories of the second-chance schools' participants: they are adolescents who, for the most part, have been faced with constant repetition and expulsion, developing a vision of their educational establishments of origin as characterized by tension, threat, intolerance, and exclusion, distant and hostile, lacking connection with their lives. Mobility between establishments is another

characteristic feature, with 52.8% having experienced a turnover of two or three schools before enrolling in the second chance school they attend. Among the reasons that explain this, change of residence, school performance, and behavioral problems emphasized. Of the 284 students interviewed, 268 (94.4%) have repeated a year; of them, 85.8% have done it two or more times, concentrating the rate in two and three repetitions (36.6% and 35.4 %, respectively). Also, 38.4% of the students were outside the school system for a year, which implied distancing from school life and a delay in their educational progress, which can add to that caused by repetition. Although most interviewees have spent some time without attending school, 22.2% state they have never dropped out of school, so repetitions mark their disagreements with the formal educational system. Men tend to report more extended latency periods than women and report having used their free time to engage in paid work. Women, on the other hand, more frequently report having stayed at home or meeting with friends. A finding that also appears in the UNESCO (2009b) study is that these students value education and give it a guiding role in their lives, despite their history of exclusion. The desire to learn (38.9%) and the desire to continue studying after graduating from school (36.7%) are the motivations most referred to by the children and adolescents to return to school.

From a gender perspective, the investigation of Centro de Estudios de la Niñez (2014), which included 284 children and adolescents from the Metropolitan Region who have dropped out of the formal school system and attend second-chance schools of Fundación Súmate, from Hogar de Cristo, found differences between men and women in their reasons for going back to school: continue studying after finishing school is a reason that is more present in women than men (57.9% versus 25.5%, respectively). Concerning the motivations guided by economic rationality, where 20.4% consider that continuing their education will have a future impact on the quality of life and the achievement of personal aspirations, 24.1% of men mention it, well above

women, who represent 13.2%. This male orientation to material achievement is linked to their connection with the world of work and gender roles that position them as the primary providers of the household.

The trajectories of students who drop out of school in Chile find their parallel in those revealed by international studies, such as that of Caine et al. (2013), who observed that students are resentful about the fact that the school system overlooks their interests and abilities. In addition, students report episodes of discrimination and aggression by their teachers. They responded to these with different forms of resistance, a feeling of not belonging, and circumstances such as living on the streets and becoming young parents. Nevertheless, they rejected the "dropouts" label and had expectations of going back to school in the future.

Morin et al. (2013) studied the self-esteem trajectories of students who drop out of school, identifying that secondary education generally brings a decrease in overall self-esteem and that schools that support the expression and autonomy of students in an environment of security promote self-esteem.

III.C. Second Chance Education Programs in Chile

III.C.1. General Aspects

In general, SCE programs recognize that they must address psychosocial skills development -focusing on amending the negative meanings associated with the school- and the academic, pedagogical, or knowledge standardization aspects, developing teaching relevant to the students' context, re-inspiring them with the learning process. SCE programs also seek to adopt more flexible models that meet the needs of the different groups they serve and establish networks with the community in which they are located.

Academically, the focus is placed on the standardization of students' knowledge and skills through curriculum flexibility and the use of dynamic teaching methods in an environment that has the necessary elements to promote learning, from infrastructure to the role of teachers. Furthermore, it is recognized that students are diverse, and thus the times, methods, and evaluations required are different from those used in a regular context. On the other hand, to address psychosocial skills, these schools are oriented to develop behaviors, language, values, and attitudes to promote better relationships. In this way, it is sought to rectify the experience of failure and improve mechanisms to face the conflicts that have characterized their life trajectories (Centro de Estudios de la Niñez, 2014).

Most of the second-chance models see the family as crucial support in the school reintegration process, and thus they encourage their involvement. In some schools, it is a requirement for participation in the program to have at least one significant adult who supports the student in their participation, acknowledging that school success (learning, attendance, and graduation) is more significant if the student has the support of a family

member or other significant reference (Espinoza et al., 2014; Palacios, 2003 in Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

Second-chance programs also seek to develop a close liaison with civil society, establishing territorial networks with other organizations and neighborhood residents. For this, they organize open days and joint projects (for example, using learning-service models or intergenerational exchanges with older adults in the neighborhood) to encourage more young people to go back to school and contribute to their civic role (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

When the territorial perspective is included, it must be noted that the territory does not refer only to the geographical or spatial aspect but must be understood as the place where culture, intersubjectivity, and worldview are built (Stratta & Barrera, 2009).

A model that summarizes the essential aspects to consider in any SCE modality is the one used by reintegration programs in Chile (SENAME, 2016), which identifies four main dimensions of work with children and adolescents:

Figure 12:
Dimensions of Work with Children and Adolescents on the Reintegration Programs (Source: SENAME, 2016)

- Cultural and Contextual Aspects: Evaluations and social representations that children and adolescents, their family group, and peers who make up their reference group have about education and school. It refers to whether education is seen as an instrument of social mobility and self-training or not and what meaning is given to it.
- Psychosocial and Affective Aspects: Attitudes related to learning achievements, such as self-esteem and perception of self-efficacy, will also be affected by external achievement expectations. These attitudes are crucial to motivation and performance.
- Cognitive Aspects: Skills and essential curricular content that children and adolescents must have
 integrated according to their educational level. This domain encompasses the pedagogical methods,
 which must make the content relevant and appropriate for the students to achieve authentic learning,
 where concepts are connected with the experience.
- Behavioral Aspects: Habits, routines, scheduling of study time, use of free time, and forms of relationship with peers and other actors (family members or members of the school community).

III.C.2.

Types of Programs

This section presents the legal framework and structure in which the different second chance or educational reintegration programs are set in Chile from a public policy perspective. However, there is an insufficient linkage between them in this regard, and they lack long-term projection, with some programs overlapping each other. Moreover, other programs are carried out based on annual tenders that fail to meet their objectives or be evaluated. Finally, they lack a definition regarding the paradigms and models that support their practice (Subsecretaría de Educación, 2016b).

Civil society or third sector organizations also develop educational reintegration initiatives in Chile through second-chance schools and as reintegration project-executing entities (where financing is shared between the fund received from the State and the entity). On the other hand, these organizations develop community programs (physical and mental health, recreational programs, legal support, among others) articulated in a network with educational reintegration projects.

This sector includes Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs), which, unlike companies, work for social or nonprofit purposes and independently of the State or public sector. NGOs receive donations from individuals or companies or apply for public funds and, in many cases, use the volunteer model to carry out their work. One of the characteristics of these social-purpose organizations is that their scale is smaller, usually don't encourage other entities that replicate their work, and do not have guaranteed financial stability. Hence, they fail to achieve a social change that leads to a new and superior balance (Martin & Osberg, 2007). However, a new type of initiative, social entrepreneurship, seeks to solve these same social problems, but on a larger scale, and consider the lessons learned from the business world. The generation of economic profits is part of the solution (Martin & Osberg, 2007). There are models in secondchance education that fall in this category, as is the case of Youthbuild, to be addressed Good International

Practices section. Since 1994, it has been extended from the United States to 21 countries and reached 179,000 youth (Youthbuild, 2020).

As of 2000, it was sought to transform the Education for Young People and Adults (EPJA, in its Spanish acronym). This was the only format that SCE adopted until that period from the public policy perspective to follow the principles of lifelong education and cease to be seen as a response to primary and secondary education deficiencies. The EPJA, YAE, or Youth and Adult Education reform aimed to improve the quality of learning, increase coverage and reduce the high out-of-schooling rates. For this, it implemented a new pedagogical and administrative model based educational management on decentralization. This new model transferred a set of pedagogical and curricular decisions from central-level organizations to educational establishments and teachers. As a result, establishments were provided with autonomy to generate pedagogical solutions appropriate to the reality and interests of their students (Acuña, 2016).

Following the principle of differentiation of the offer based on the different publics' needs and characteristics, a flexible modality was developed apart from the regular YAE modality. The flexible modality was implemented as of 2003, primarily aimed at workers to reconcile their schedules. Moreover, as of 2005, reintegration programs for school-age students who have dropped out were added. These programs seek to be an intermediate space to reintegrate students into the regular or alternative system or take equivalency exams. As of 2016, Second Chance Schools for children and adolescents, based on the European experience, were also added.

The Regulatory Framework for these programs is in Decree 26/2005 of the Chilean Ministry of Education - MINEDUC, emphasizing educational reintegration, including the 12-Year Schooling Plan, which finances reintegration projects (Subsecretaría de Educación, 2016b).

The different types of SCE programs that have been developed in Chile and their target groups are described below:

Table 5:
Types of Second Chance Programs

Types of Second Chance Education Programs					
Dropout Prevention Programs ⁴ (for students who attend regular schools)	Alternative Educational Spaces (for under 18-year olds)	Second Chance Schools (for students over 15 years old in Primary; over 18 years old in Secondary; and in the Flexible Modality)			
- Allowances and Scholarships:		- Youth and Adult Education (YAE)/ Completion of Schooling (since 2003, in its current format and modalities)			
School Attendance Allowance (2012),		It is developed in different spaces: • Integrated Adult Education Centers (CEIA), in			
School Retention Support Scholarship (BARE, in its Spanish acronym) (2002), School Retention Support Program (2009),	- Competitive Grant Fund for Educational Reintegration Projects (Reintegration Component) (2005))	three shifts Third shifts for Schools and High Schools Educational Centers in Military and Prison Facilities			
Pro-School Retention Subsidy (2003), Preferential School Subsidy (2008)		It has different modalities: Regular (Primary -3 years-; Scientific-Humanist Secondary -2 years-; and Technical-Vocational Secondary -3 years-) Flexible (Primary and Secondary)			
- Competitive Grant Fund for Educational Reintegration Projects (Retention Component) (2005)		- Second-Chance or Educational Reintegration Schools (2016)			

(*) Validation of Studies (Equivalency Exams): Primary (3 levels), Secondary (2 levels) and Certificate of Equivalency for Employment Purposes (does not allow to continue undergraduate studies)

Source: Compiled by the authors.

International experiences such as that of the United States also present these different levels of intervention and types of programs, such as programs for preventing out-of-schooling within schools. In this regard, an innovative program is the Career Academies, organized in smaller workgroups and a personalized climate, where students maintain the same teachers throughout the years. This modality also includes academic and technical courses and partnerships with the world of

work to provide job opportunities. Alternative options include the GED Program, which is a set of equivalency exams that provides a certification to continue tertiary studies; and Second Chance Schools, such as Transfer Schools -which tend to be smaller and more personalized- with flexible hours and additional services (Tyler & Lofstrom, 2009).

4. The official classification is maintained.

III.C.2.i. Dropout Prevention Programs: Their aim is to prevent children and adolescents from interrupting their educational trajectory. They are developed within educational centers or in coordination with them, addressing the different factors that could cause withdrawal from school: problems associated with school performance or social relations within the school, socio-economic and psychosocial aspects. The strategies implemented are varied: pedagogical support systems, tutoring, psychosocial care, scholarships, or subsidies, among others (UNESCO, 2009b).

III.C.2.i.a. Allowances and Scholarships

III.C.2.i.a.1. Pro-Retention School Subsidy: One of the key measures taken in the Complete Schooling Plan was allocating additional resources to the State subsidy to the establishments. These additional resources, called the Pro-Retention Subsidy Law, as of 2004, seek to strengthen the access, permanence, and graduation of secondary education among lower-income students, and to strengthen equal opportunities within primary and secondary schools, especially for children and adolescents at greater social risk (González, 2010).

It consists of a monetary grant for the most socioeconomically vulnerable school population belonging to the Chilean Social Protection System, between the seventh grade of primary school and the last year of secondary school (in 2016, a target population of 255,036, achieving coverage for 229,788). It is a resource delivered ex-post, provided that the school's patron has carried out a pro-retention activity or spent on pro-retention (Subsecretaría de Educación, 2016b).

The evaluation from MINEDUC (2018a) shows that the dropout rates of the beneficiary establishments decreased from 2014 to 2015 and that these are relatively low concerning the national dropout rate. However, this cannot be attributed to subsidy-related actions. Municipal establishments show the highest dropout rate, although it is observed that this gap decreased from 2014 to 2015.

The evaluation shows higher dropout rates in men, rural areas, and municipal establishments regarding the students benefited by the subsidy. Regarding the beneficiary population, there is no significant variation by sex in 2014-2016 (MINEDUC, 2018a).

III.C.2.i.a.2. Preferential School Subsidy Law (SEP, in its Spanish acronym): Since 2008, it has sought to address the need to promote and protect students in economic situations of poverty and vulnerability of rights who have historically been disadvantaged. Through this law, educational establishments receive a monetary subsidy higher than the average amount per enrolled student who lives in poverty, generating educational plans and projects for them that foster their inclusion and permanence within the school system (MINEDUC, 2020b).

III.C.2.i.a.3. School Retention Support Scholarship (BARE, in its Spanish acronym): Since 2002, this is a discretionary monetary contribution paid in up to four installments. It aims at fostering the permanence of high school students with higher levels of socioeducational vulnerability, classified as highly vulnerable due to their condition of mothers, fathers, pregnant women, and participants of the Chile Seguridades y Oportunidades program. It is perceived that the permanence or graduation in 2017 is 92% of the scholarship beneficiaries. This figure is lower than the total permanence of secondary school students in the regular education system (MINEDUC, 2018c).

III.C.2.i.a.4. School Attendance Allowance: Since 2012, it is a non-applicable benefit that consists of a fixed monthly amount for families whose sons and daughters are studying in an educational institution recognized by the State, in primary or secondary education, and who comply with a monthly school attendance that is equal or higher than 85% (Law 20595).

III.C.2.i.a.5. School Retention Support Program (PARE, in its Spanish acronym): Since 2009, it consists of non-applicable pedagogical and psychosocial support for vulnerable students (it was initially focused on students

who were fathers, mothers, or pregnant women, but since 2017 it includes all those in a situation of socio-educational vulnerability), in institutions that receive the BARE. In addition, it encompasses actions to promote positive behaviors, workshops to promote gender equity and responsible sexuality, and drug use prevention. Between 2014 and 2016, the ratio of female/male beneficiaries was 60/40. However, as the potential population expanded, this gap narrowed, matching it in 2017 (MINEDUC, 2018d).

III.C.2.i.b. Competitive Grant Fund for Educational Reintegration Projects (Retention Component): This fund was implemented as of 2005 and has a component designed to work on school retention in the face of outof-schooling risk factors. In 2019, this fund was awarded to 63 retention projects (Muñoz, 2020). However, its relevance is less than its Reintegration component. It addresses a population currently enrolled in educational establishments and at risk of out-of-schooling. There are other government programs with much greater coverage, such as conditional cash transfers (School retention support scholarship or BARE, Attendance allowance, Single Family Subsidy), the Psychosocial Support Program for School Retention (PARE), and the subsidies: Preferential school subsidy and Pro-retention subsidy (Subsecretaría de Educación, 2016).

As of 2016, the Competitive Fund established two autonomous bidding processes with their own technical and administrative bases for retention and reintegration. Regarding the Retention component, 67% of the 2014 beneficiaries enrolled and had a 75% attendance rate the year following their participation. Therefore, the above could be considered an actual reduction in their out-of-schooling probability. However, the beneficiary population receives other interventions with the same objective. Thus, it is impossible to estimate how much of this change is generated by the program (Subsecretaría de Educación, 2016).

Chile's Budget Office - DIPRES (Subsecretaría de Educación, 2016b) evaluated the Competitive Fund for Educational Reintegration Projects (Retention Component) programs,

finding that no attempt has been made to quantify or characterize the target population. However, taking the National School and Scholarship Assistance Council (JUNAEB, in its Spanish acronym) data for the BARE scholarship, it can be estimated that it would be a population of 42,055 in Primary Education and 35,260 in Secondary Education. The program's public budget in 2016 (for its Retention and Reintegration components) was B\$ 1.667. The activities implemented in 2015 include:

- Academic tutoring workshops in language and mathematics.
- Social skills and conflict resolution workshops.
- Cognitive stimulation activities.
- Sports workshops.

There is no clear relationship between the projects that received the most funding and the country's regions with the most significant retention problems, so the allocation of resources should improve.

The study on experiences of Civil Society Organizations to prevent school failure (MERCOSUR, 2006) documented 134 experiences (20 of them in Chile) that develop an articulated set of actions for school or pedagogical support, integration, or recreation activities (sports, games, arts), and teacher training actions. Within these, there are local, neighborhood, community, or grassroots organizations, established by the residents, intermediate organizations at the local government level (mayoralty, municipality, intendancy), and other organizations at the city or region level. Half of these entities received resources from the State and substantially from voluntary work and international organizations, and private donations. In Chile, state funding for these organizations was higher than in the rest of the countries, with 70%. Most of the experiences analyzed are characterized by being circumscribed to a minimal territorial space, with a coverage that does not exceed one hundred cases. Their work is determined by scarce resources, both material and professional, which forces them to generate selfmanagement strategies. In general, they do not establish networks with similar organizations or with local and national public entities. Therefore, the possibility of generating educational proposals that can influence the creation or strengthening of public policies at the local or national level is limited. The actions of school or pedagogical support are the predominant ones and, in that sense, with the risk of repeating logic and work strategies from the educational system. Although they achieve results, this is only recorded in the life of a group of people, without generating sufficient changes on the deficiencies of the educational system.

As can be seen, these programs do not fully achieve their objective of preventing out-of-schooling, either due to the inability to recognize early warnings or because of the pedagogical models they use, which are not motivating for the students. On the other hand, no evaluations have been carried out to isolate the effect of the programs from those achieved by other interventions. The above explains the current attempts to prioritize reintegration projects over retention projects when evaluating the applications for the Competitive Grant Fund (Subsecretaría de Educación, 2016b).

III.C.2.ii. Alternative Educational Spaces: They are developed to generate a bridging space for the return of students to the formal educational system in any of its modalities to complete their compulsory schooling; therefore, they constitute spaces for transit and preparation. In general, they are executed by NGOs that work in collaboration and with State resources. They are characterized by flexible educational spaces, which respond to the characteristics and educational needs of those who participate in them, who have multiprofessional teams, with tutoring systems and personalized support, and with solid rooting in local communities (UNESCO, 2009b).

III.C.2.ii.a. Competitive Grant Fund for Educational Reintegration Projects (Reintegration Component): In Chile, it is the only public initiative to reintegrate children and adolescents in a situation of social vulnerability into the regular system. It has been operating in the form of

an annual tender since 2005. It is framed in Decree No. 32/2011, which establishes that the public budget must consider funds for school reintegration activities. Therefore, it is allocated to social-educational work projects for children and adolescents between 11 and 17 years old who are outside the formal school system or are at risk of dropping out due to the intermittency of their educational trajectory (MINEDUC, 2015 in CPCE, 2016). It is part of the 12-year Schooling Strengthening Plan resulting from the Constitutional Reform, which sets compulsory complete secondary education (Law 19876/2003), and whose objective is "to ensure that all children and adolescents living in a situation of vulnerability or marginality can exercise their right to receive free education. For this, strategies are that promote access, retention, and reintegration to educational establishments are established."

In its first year (2005), this Intersectoral Fund financed 24 projects throughout the country, achieving a total coverage of 1,353 children and adolescents (CIRE, 2006 in González, 2010), keeping the number of annual participants stable in this component since then. In 2019, 29 reintegration projects were awarded, which served 2,170 children and adolescents (Muñoz, 2020).

In addition, an Intersectoral Commission for Educational Reintegration (CIRE) was created in 2006, made up of the institutions that coordinate the Intersectoral Program through the Intersectoral Committee. Its mission is to generate the bases for the design of a comprehensive policy aimed at guaranteeing the right to complete 12 years of schooling for children and adolescents who are outside the school system or at risk of dropping out through an educational offer relevant to this target group (CIRE, 2006 in González, 2010). Furthermore, in 2009, the Ministry of the Interior and Public Security, through the Citizen Security and Participation Program and the Ministry of Education, adapted its legal name to "Intersectoral Program to Support Re-schooling Initiatives Oriented to the Population with High Social Vulnerability." It aims to develop crime prevention measures that improve the quality of life of the country's poorest sectors (González, 2010).

The specific work carried out by the Educational Reintegration Programs includes promoting and favoring educational reintegration through reincorporation to the formal educational system, alternative schools, or advancing from one grade to the next through equivalency exams. They seek to carry out pedagogical and psychosocial interventions to recover their educational trajectory, generating monitoring and support strategies for those who live the educational reintegration process, enhancing basic learning skills, specifically in the areas of mathematics and language and communication. They provide greater flexibility and diversity of opportunities than the ones existing in the school system. They also aspire to establish interdisciplinary professional teams and systematize the experiences that each educational reintegration initiative develops to contribute to the design and management of public policies in this area (SENAME, 2016).

Executing institutions made up of educational establishments and public and private educational institutions with verifiable experience in working with children and adolescents at risk of dropping out of school or who have already dropped out of the system can apply to the competitive grant fund. In addition, the competitive grant fund includes the possibility of considering contributions from its executors. The contribution declared by the projects has become practically half of the total budgeted resources, which is considered a positive and relevant aspect of resource management. However, the program does not control or supervise the actual existence and use of these resources (Subsecretaría de Educación, 2016).

Most of the institutions that execute the Program are private (NGOs, Corporations, or Foundations), followed by the municipalities, although they are relatively few. These institutions have 14 years of experience working with a vulnerable population and just over five years of experience working with remedial education and reschooling. Thus, the start of the Program means a new source of financing for them. In addition, these institutions have a robust community insertion, which allows them to be close to children and adolescents'

daily lives and be valid in the territory in which they are located. They can also articulate with institutional networks at the local and sectoral level and work with consolidated multidisciplinary teams in the psychosocial and educational field, made up of teachers, educational monitors, social workers, psychologists, and educational psychologists (González, 2010).

On the other hand, both MINEDUC and the National Service for Minors (SENAME) have implemented Educational Reintegration Programs for those disconnected from the educational system (SENAME. 2016). Through the Intersectoral, or 24-hour Program, SENAME started in 2010 with a presence in 8 districts of the Metropolitan Region (La Pintana, La Granja, La Florida, Lo Espejo, Recoleta, Peñalolén, Puente Alto and Pudahuel), where it implemented the Educational Reintegration Programs, along with offering other services and programs to minors, to then expand to 36 districts in 2018, covering different territories of the country (including Alto Hospicio, Arica, Antofagasta, Calama, Coguimbo, Valparaíso, Los Ángeles, Iguique, Viña del Mar, Rancagua, Puerto Montt, Temuco, Copiapó and Talca) (SENAME, 2019). The importance of addressing the educational aspect within the population served by SENAME is pointed out since there is a significant incidence of the population out of school or with a high educational gap among adolescents deprived of liberty under the adolescent responsibility system. Additionally, it has been seen that education can be a protective factor against the recidivism of transgressive practices (SENAME, 2019).

Below are some of the evaluation efforts around educational reintegration projects:

The Study of Characterization of SENAME and MINEDUC Educational Reintegration Programs (SENAME, 2016) evaluated what was done by these "bridge" programs, identifying common elements between them during the different stages of the educational process:

Figure 13:

Stages of the Education Process in the Reintegration Programs (Source: SENAME, 2016)

Involvement and Entry into the Project: In this phase, children and adolescents are invited to participate in the program. The executing teams point out that it is necessary to consider that these are children and adolescents who have been excluded from the educational system and are resentful about its hierarchical and expulsion logic, having an attitude of apathy, disinterest, or hostility. Moreover, their self-esteem and self-efficacy have diminished to the cultural construct around their drop out due to their personal inability to learn and adapt. Hence, the emphasis on the generation of bonds of trust and horizontal relationships gives rise to resignifying schooling. Therefore, the invitation must be perceived as legitimate and attractive to children and adolescents.

Analysis: In this period, it is sought to know the participant's situation, resources, and needs. It is crucial to identify the representations of the school and education of children and adolescents and their families or references. Recurring absences and delays usually characterize it. It is necessary to incorporate both educational and psychosocial aspects.

Intervention Plan Design and Execution: In this phase, an intervention plan with objectives, teaching, motivational and extracurricular activities, and evaluation forms is designed and executed. The sequence should incorporate the characteristics and paces of the different participants in a flexible way. Difficulties pointed out by the teams include the heterogeneity of the participants in their educational lag, the lack of teaching expertise among teachers, the high turnover of work teams, and the link with the establishments for reintegration and equivalency exams.

Exit Path: The exit paths for these projects include:

School Reintegration: Reincorporation to formal education once the child or adolescent has managed, with the help of the Educational Reintegration Project, to redefine the school effort, achieve better skills and knowledge, and have a stronger self-image. This reincorporation can occur at the primary, secondary, or adult education school levels, depending on the school lag and age. However, the teams report some difficulties for educational establishments to receive these students, sometimes choosing schools that require more significant transit time, making reintegration difficult. The greatest challenge encountered is achieving participants' resignification of the educational experience and their identity as learning subjects and preparing them to face the transition from the personalized and democratic environment generated in the reintegration programs to the traditional system and seeking support from their families for this process.

Validation of Studies: In this case, the project seeks to validate studies to shorten the educational gap and promote re-engagement with the school in better conditions. For those who take equivalency exams, the difficulties are their annual occurrence and generalist logic, which does not consider the characteristics of the children and adolescents who take them. As a summative assessment, it is more complex than that faced by the students of formal education.

Educational Training that Prepares for Employability: In this exit option, the participants are not able/do not want to return to school due to the number of years out of school and their age. They require training in soft skills for employability and in trades, along with possible remedial studies that qualify them for the world of work. Regarding the linkage with job training organizations, the difficulties observed have to do with the scarce supply in the local territories. The participants have not clearly defined their vocational options, which diminishes their interest in training.

Maintenance of Follow-up: If it is considered that the expected results have not been achieved and it is necessary to redesign the plan, extending the permanence periods of children and adolescents, having to postpone the other possible paths, and reaching new participation agreements.

Follow-up: Once the child or adolescent has chosen a path, follow-up should be done preferably by the person who served as a tutor during the Project. Thus, the child or adolescent can be provided guidance to persevere in the choice made and agree on decisions that strengthen their integration in an educational or work trajectory as appropriate. This phase should be extended for at least one year, evaluating whether additional support measures or re-entry into an Educational Reintegration Project is required.

Management challenges for the educational reintegration projects were also identified. The main difficulty encountered was the temporality of the projects, which are homogeneously set with a one-year duration, not enough to achieve a good involvement and analysis, perform psychosocial work and school skills' development before the learning phase, and address the lag in terms of curricular knowledge. In addition, there are needs for technical follow-up of the projects and training of the teams on these topics and a high professional turnover, since in general, these teams work under conditions of temporary hiring, low salaries, and high professional and emotional demands. (SENAME, 2016).

DIPRES (Subsecretaría de Educación, 2016a; 2016b) conducted an evaluation of these reintegration projects, which illustrate a low overall result: the coverage achieved concerning the potential population is low: in Reintegration, the coverage concerning the potential population increases by 2% to 5% in the 2012-2013

period, to decrease to 3.3% in 2015; the age range of the programs, only up to 17 years old, is exclusive of the older youth; the percentage of participants who enrolled in an educational establishment the year after being in the program was 71% for 2015. However, when evaluating those with more than 50% attendance, the figure is around 27%, a more effective indicator to infer permanence in the educational system; when the persistence program's effect over time (3 years) is considered, this 27% drops to 15%. The percentage of executing institutions that declare 100% achievement of their proposed goals or objectives in their respective projects is an average of 35% in the 2014-2015 period. The teams indicate that the least achieved component regarding their goals is articulating between the pedagogical and the psychosocial. Lastly, there is no shared vision among the different programs about their nature. Some teams consider them a transitional space that seeks to reintegrate into formal education after strengthening specific skills and knowledge. Others see

them as an educational alternative in international Second Chance Schools, different from formal education, and with a participatory and horizontal pedagogy. Among the activities carried out in these projects are technical-vocational training workshops (electricity, gastronomy, orchard), workshops on social skills and training for work, artistic and sports workshops, computing workshops, and pedagogical tutoring in the different academic areas (language, mathematics, science, social sciences). Weaknesses in management are observed within the program, considering that "the lack of a monitoring, evaluation." and knowledge management system, prevents the program from systematizing the lessons learned in each contest and incorporating this knowledge in the following contests" (Subsecretaría de Educación, 2016a, p. 6). In short, the available evidence does not allow us to conclude that the program contributes to solving the problem for which it was created.

González (2010) also reports the results of these reintegration projects, finding that 26% of the participants do not finish the process in the program. Among the most common reasons given is "non-adaptation" to the process, exceeding 66% of the options, followed far below by family dynamics (12.1%) and employment (8,1%) options. Regarding the continuity plans among the youth belonging to the program for the following year, the lack of plans for the future (with almost 43%) stands out, followed by continuity in the project (14.7 %), plans for reintegration into regular secondary education (13.6%), regular primary education (11.2%) and Adult Education (11.8%).

III.C.2.iii. Second Chance Schools

III.C.2.iii.a. Youth and Adult Education:

III.C.2.iii.a.1. YAE in Latin America: In Latin America, valuable experiences of alternative adult education or popular education have been developed for decades, particularly those promoted by civil society organizations that emerged as rebellious alternatives during authoritarian

regimes. Later, with the advent of democracies, some were subsumed under governmental programs, and others lost continuity and validity. Traditionally, adult education has developed in the region as a parallel and marginal system to regular education (UNESCO, 2009a).

Although adulthood is the most prolonged phase in a person's life, it has not been analyzed in educational terms under the assumption that childhood is the best (if not the only) age to learn. For this reason, the community linked to the YAE has had to defend it from the lifelong learning perspective. The tradition of popular education highlights its impact from the personal to the political, in aspects such as awareness and empowerment, participation and community organization, emancipation, and social transformation (Torres, 2005, in UNESCO, 2009a).

The Regional Action Framework for Youth and Adult Education (YAE) for Latin America and the Caribbean (2000-2010) included the following areas of action: literacy, education and work, education and citizenship, education with indigenous and peasants peoples, education and youth, education and gender, education and sustainable local development (UNESCO, 2009a).

Although the awareness of the importance of YAE in Latin America has increased, in most countries, these are offers with low coverage. In many cases, they acquire the characteristics of "pilot projects," designed to be developed at the micro-level, with certain conditions and resources that are not implementable on a massive scale. Therefore, relevant and sufficient offers are lacking to meet the different educational needs of these groups. On the other hand, a significant part of its educators does not have initial training. There are people with very diverse characteristics among adult educators: from qualified teachers to volunteer or solidarity personnel with schooling around secondary education, popular educators, and professionals from careers other than education. Policies for the training of adult educators are absent in university programs, where the initiatives identified have originated more

from individuals or groups of adult educators and field researchers than from institutional initiatives (UNESCO, 2005). Spending on adult education is low. UNESCO recommends spending three percent of the national education budget on literacy and adult education programs and recognizes that very few countries carry out this recommendation (Méndez, 2019).

III.C.2.iii.a.2. Youth and Adult Education in Chile:

Until a couple of decades ago, adult education focused mainly on the population over 18 years of age, with a literacy purpose. However, at present, the students who attend adult education programs are predominantly young. In fact, on a national scale, just over 50% of the population that currently attends YAE centers are under 18 years of age, and 77% of the total are under 23 years of age, showing a process of "juvenilization" of an education that was traditionally thought to provide literacy to adults (Espinoza et al., 2019)

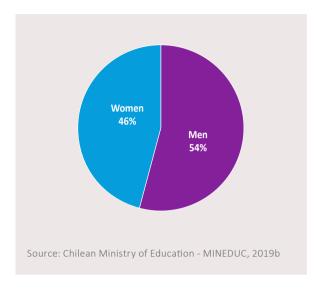
YAE in Chile was reinforced with Law 19876/2003, which made 12 years of schooling compulsory. With it, the State is obliged to offer the conditions for its fulfillment. But, on the other hand, the 2009 General Law of Education, establishes in article 24:

Adult Education is the educational modality aimed at young people and adults who wish to start or complete schooling, according to the specific curricular bases determined under this law. This modality seeks to guarantee compliance with the Constitution's compulsory education and provide possibilities for lifelong education.

YAE is closely linked to the fields of production and labor. The curriculum also includes gender equality, active citizenship, and cultural diversity (MINEDUC, 2008).

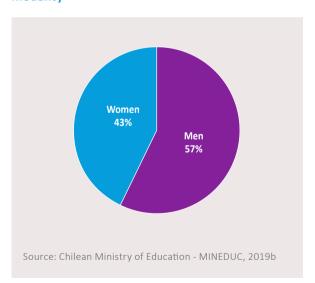
The total enrollment of YAE in 2018 was 180,000; of them, 54% men and 46% women, including the regular and flexible modalities (MINEDUC, 2019b).

Figure 14: **YAE Enrollment Distribution by Sex**



Of these, 120,696 students are enrolled in the regular modality and 59,304 in the flexible modality. In the latter, men represent 56.6% and women 43.4% (MINEDUC, 2019b).

Figure 15: YAE Enrollment Distribution by Sex – Flexible Modality



Another impetus given to YAE was through the Chile Califica Program (UNESCO, 2005), which sought to establish the foundations of an articulated system of training and permanent education. The above, by improving the general training and employability skills of the country's workforce with the lowest levels of literacy, offering opportunities for the remedial of primary and secondary studies, and training, including the strengthening of technical education by implementing mechanisms that allow evaluating and certifying labor competencies and progressing flexibly in technical training, following varied training itineraries or trajectories according to development demands and people's aspirations and vocations. On the other hand, the program benefits private companies, especially the small and medium-sized business segments, as it supports the training of their human resources. Hence, the private sector is seen as an active participant in the development of the program, through advisory councils and by establishing competitiveness and employability criteria.

It is an intersectoral program where the Ministries of Education, Economics, and Labor and Social Welfare (through SENCE) participate. From their expertise, these ministries contribute to shaping the program, cooperation that requires flexibility and adaptability from these organs that allows them to articulate. The program is also characterized by administrative decentralization, which means it operates based on a national and a regional structure, focusing on the decision-making capacity at the regional level. Decentralization seeks that permanent education is consistent with the socio-economic realities of each area.

Currently, reformulations to YAE are being carried out, aimed at a closer approach with the secondary education curriculum, measuring content and skills associated with it. The challenge for the new curriculum is to incorporate the necessary contents that allow to pursue higher studies and adapt them, in turn, with the times and the heterogeneity of its students, adopting more flexible modalities (Acuña, 2016).

Figures indicate that the YAE is lagging in the educational landscape, with the invisibility of Integrated Adult Education Centers (CEIA). The above is added to the lack of teacher training and specialized professionalization, an inadequate infrastructure, and low school subsidies. Moreover, in recent years, a decrease in the population that participates in YAE is observed in the regular and flexible modalities (Acuña, 2016).

YAE does not have the option of applying for the Preferential School Subsidy (SEP) law, even though almost all its students are young. Low-level schooling in regular education causes, in a concise time, the migration of these youth to YAE as many of them need to obtain a certification that qualifies them for working life, allows them access to higher education, or, due to the demands of the workplace or justice, in the case of those who have broken the law (Acuña, 2016).

Fifteen years ago, it was observed that the impact of YAE on working conditions and wages and in access to new jobs was low. However, it achieved incidence in awareness of rights, ability to communicate better, personal satisfaction, or greater security in various performances. These aspects facilitate and enhance better job performance and the search for advantageous development opportunities and represent an essential aspect of citizen training (UNESCO, 2005). Unfortunately, in more recent studies, this trend is maintained, showing that more than 50% of the students who attend the different YAE modalities do not finish the school year (MINEDUC, 2015a).

Among the pending challenges of YAE in Chile, five priority areas that require special attention are observed: the heterogeneity of the target population, high dropout rates, lack of adequate materials, poor working conditions, and lack of training opportunities for teachers; and funding. Regarding teacher-based information, teacher's extensive experience is noted, the majority having more than ten years of service in the adult modality. Except for the CEIA teachers, it is primarily observed that adult education is not the main

activity of these educators. For the moment, there are very few isolated cases of innovative teaching practices, which are not the usual practice of YAE (Espinoza et al., 2014; UNESCO, 2005).

III.C.2.iii.a.2.(i). Regular Modality: It is offered at Integrated Adult Education Centers (CEIA), in third shifts of primary and secondary schools (which serve children and adolescents during the day), and in educational centers at military and prison facilities. Some short-time literacy programs (5 months) are also carried out for specific groups, such as the elderly and indigenous communities. It is governed by the law of subsidies (Legislative Decree N 2/1998), paying municipal and subsidized establishments for the average attendance of the students. It is aimed at young dropouts who can attend an establishment daily, older than 15 years for Primary Education, and older than 18 years for Scientific-Humanist or Technical-Vocational Secondary Education.

The primary purposes of this educational modality are to ensure compliance with compulsory schooling established by the Political Constitution of the Republic of Chile, to offer possibilities of lifelong learning, and to seek answers to specific learning requirements, personal or contextual, aimed to guarantee equality in the right to education to those who, due to various circumstances, could not start or complete their studies in a manner (MINEDUC, 2020c).

This modality is offered at educational establishments officially recognized by the respective Regional Ministerial Secretary of Education. The study plans and programs of this educational modality are based on the provisions of the Supreme Decree of Education 257/2009, which approves the Fundamental Objectives and Minimum Compulsory Contents for adolescents and adult education (MINEDUC, 2020d).

Below is a summary of its various levels and modalities:

Table 6: YAE Levels and Modalities in Chile

Primary Education (Education Exempt Decree 584/07)	Secondary Education (Education Exempt Decree 1000/09) Scientific-Humanist (300 hours per year)	Secondary Education (Education Exempt Decree 1000/09) Technical-Vocational (600 hours per year)
First Level: It includes the Spanish Language and Communication and Mathematics Education subsectors, with learning equivalent to those to be achieved between the 1st and 4th year of regular Primary Education and a minimum workload of 10 hours per week and 360 hours per year.	First Level: Equivalent to the 1st and 2nd years of regular Secondary Education.	First Level: Equivalent to the General Education of the 1st and 2nd years of regular Secondary Education. It initiates the Technical-Vocational Differentiated Education.
Second Level: It includes learning equivalent to the 5th and 6th year of regular Primary Education, with a minimum workload of 16 weekly classes and 576 hours per year.	Second Level: Equivalent to the 3rd and 4th years of regular Secondary Education.	Second Level: Equivalent to the General Education of the 3rd year of regular Secondary Education and it continues the Technical-Vocational Differentiated Education.
Third Level: It addresses the learning equivalent to 7th and 8th years of regular Primary Education and considers 16 hours of classes per week and 576 hours per year.		Third Level: Equivalent to the General Education of the 4th year of Secondary School and completes the Technical-Vocational Differentiated Education.
(*) In the last two levels, the subsectors of Natural Sciences and Social Studies are incorporated. Optionally, both for the establishment and the student, the Trades Training area is added.		

Fuente: MINEDUC, 2020d

The centers offering this modality develop their own assessments based on the evaluation procedures established by the Education Exempt 2169/2007, which approves the evaluation and school promotion rules for Primary and Secondary Education for Adults. In this standard, evaluation is considered a pedagogical instrument to verify progress and difficulties that occur during students' learning process and allows the corresponding decisions to be made to improve their quality, ensuring access to the Fundamental Objectives

and Minimum Compulsory Contents established in the curriculum framework. Regarding promotion, it sets out two essential criteria: attendance and performance. Regarding attendance, it requires a minimum of 80%. However, it empowers the principal to authorize the promotion with lower percentages for duly justified reasons. In terms of performance, those who pass all learning sectors will be promoted. Nevertheless, from the second level of primary education, those who fail in a learning sector will be promoted as long as their general

grade point average, including the failed subject, is equal to or greater than 4.5. If the subject failed is Spanish Language and Communication, or Mathematics Education, the grade point average must be equal to or greater than 5.5. In the Scientific-Humanistic and Technical-Vocational modalities, in this case, the grade point average must be equal to or greater than 5.0. In this last modality, if the learning subsector, module, or subject failed corresponds to the technical specialty, even if the student has the required grade point average, the principal must authorize their promotion (MINEDUC, 2020e).

Chronic absenteeism (school attendance of 90% or less) in Regular YAE is high: in the scientific-humanistic modality, it is 59%; while in the technical-vocational YAE, 65% (MINEDUC, 2018b).

The distribution by region and gender of the primary and secondary students of YAE (regular modality) is shown below, where the predominance of men is identified, especially at the primary level, and a concentration of students in the Metropolitan Region:

Table 7:
Primary Enrollment for Regular YAE, by Administrative Unit, Region and Sex

	Administrative Unit						
Region	Sex	Municipal	Subsidized Private	Private	Delegated Administration Corporation	Local Education Service	Total
	Men	443	38	0	0	0	481
Arica y Parinacota	Women	177	33	0	0	0	210
raimacota	Total	620	71	0	0	0	691
	Men	111	267	0	0	0	378
Tarapacá	Women	202	59	0	0	0	261
	Total	313	326	0	0	0	639
	Men	298	180	0	0	0	478
Antofagasta	Women	195	0	0	0	0	195
	Total	493	180	0	0	0	673
	Men	134	0	0	26	0	160
Atacama	Women	65	0	0	7	0	72
	Total	199	0	0	33	0	232
	Men	150	464	0	21	0	635
Coquimbo	Women	114	234	0	14	0	362
	Total	264	698	0	35	0	997
	Men	795	620	16	0	0	1.431
Valparaíso	Women	439	385	7	0	0	831
	Total	1.234	1.005	23	0	0	2.262

	Administrative Unit						
Region	Sex	Municipal	Subsidized Private	Private	Delegated Administration Corporation	Local Education Service	Total
	Men	3.135	1.249	14	0	0	4.525
Metropolitan	Women	1.682	910	1	0	127	2.755
	Total	4.817	2.159	15	0	162	7.280
	Men	387	290	0	0	289	677
O´Higgins	Women	171	100	0	0	0	271
	Total	558	390	0	0	0	948
	Men	494	151	0	0	0	645
Maule	Women	139	146	0	0	0	285
	Total	633	297	0	0	0	930
	Men	612	293	0	0	0	905
Biobío	Women	490	156	0	0	0	646
	Total	1.102	449	0	0	0	1.551
	Men	267	299	0	30	0	596
La Araucanía	Women	61	274	0	1	0	336
	Total	328	573	0	31	0	932
	Men	66	220	0	0	0	286
Los Ríos	Women	42	95	0	0	0	137
	Total	108	315	0	0	0	423
	Men	190	368	0	0	0	558
Los Lagos	Women	134	350	0	0	0	484
	Total	324	718	0	0	0	1.042
	Men	33	60	0	0	0	93
Aysén	Women	18	36	0	0	0	54
	Total	51	96	0	0	0	147
	Men	77	10	0	0	0	87
Magallanes	Women	43	8	0	0	0	51
	Total	120	18	0	0	0	138
	Men	7.192	4.509	30	77	127	11.935
Total	Women	3.972	2.786	8	22	162	6.950
	Total	11.164	7.295	38	99	289	18.885

Source: Chilean Ministry of Education - MINEDUC, 2019b

Table 8: Secondary Enrollment for Regular YAE, by Administrative Unit, Region and Sex

	Administrative Unit							
Region	Sex	Municipal	Subsidized Private	Private	Delegated Administration Corporation	Local Education Service	Total	
Autom	Men	468	638	0	0	0	1.106	
Arica y Parinacota	Women	428	237	0	0	0	665	
	Total	896	875	0	0	0	1.771	
	Men	753	930	0	0	0	1.683	
Tarapacá	Women	898	891	0	0	0	1.789	
	Total	1.651	1.821	0	0	0	3.472	
	Men	2.384	244	256	0	0	2.884	
Antofagasta	Women	1.904	0	178	0	0	2.082	
	Total	4.288	244	434	0	0	4.966	
	Men	659	24	0	0	205	888	
Atacama	Women	621	21	0	0	185	827	
	Total	1.280	45	0	0	390	1.715	
	Men	1.007	2.375	41	0	70	3.493	
Coquimbo	Women	803	2.119	28	0	79	3.029	
	Total	1.810	4.494	69	0	149	6.522	
	Men	3.331	4.869	315	0	0	8.515	
Valparaíso	Women	2.576	4.085	225	0	0	6.886	
	Total	5.907	8.954	540	0	0	15.401	
	Men	10.342	12.454	1.092	0	698	24.586	
Metropolitan	Women	8.124	11.605	789	0	850	21.368	
	Total	18.466	24.059	1.881	0	1.548	45.954	
	Men	2.342	1.274	0	0	0	3.616	
O'Higgins	Women	1.726	765	0	0	0	2.491	
	Total	4.068	2.039	0	0	0	6.107	

	Administrative Unit							
Region	Sex	Municipal	Subsidized Private	Private	Delegated Administration Corporation	Local Education Service	Total	
	Men	1.429	1.738	23	0	0	3.190	
Maule	Women	930	1.238	14	0	0	2.182	
	Total	2.359	2.976	37	0	0	5.372	
	Men	2.530	3.235	107	0	0	5.872	
Biobío	Women	2.280	2.222	57	0	0	4.559	
	Total	4.810	5.457	164	0	0	10.431	
	Men	1.159	2.442	28	0	103	3.732	
Araucanía	Women	810	2.162	10	0	74	3.056	
	Total	1.969	4.604	38	0	177	6.788	
	Men	488	845	0	0	0	1.333	
Los Ríos	Women	505	808	0	0	0	1.313	
	Total	993	1.653	0	0	0	2.646	
	Men	971	2.829	0	0	0	3.800	
Los Lagos	Women	908	2.675	0	0	0	3.583	
	Total	1.879	5.504	0	0	0	7.383	
	Men	129	436	0	0	0	565	
Aysén	Women	154	447	0	0	0	601	
	Total	283	883	0	0	0	1.166	
	Men	358	196	0	0	0	554	
Magallanes	Women	273	175	0	0	0	448	
	Total	631	371	0	0	0	1.002	
	Men	28.350	34.529	1.862	0	1.076	65.817	
Total	Women	22.940	29.450	1.301	0	1.188	54.879	
	Total	51.290	63.979	3.163	0	2.264	120.696	

Source: Chilean Ministry of Education - MINEDUC, 2019b

III.C.2.iii.a.2.(ii). Flexible Modality: It was implemented in 2003, aimed at people who cannot regularly attend school for various reasons related to their work and daily activities. It is offered at different shifts, with different frequencies and duration of lessons, being semi-face-to-face. The minimum age for entry is 18 years, both for Primary Education and Secondary Education. The flexible modality, regulated by Supreme Decree 131/2003, is paid for the student's results, evaluated through the National Evaluation System, which depends on the Ministry of Education (MINEDUC, 2020f).

This modality was reinforced with resources from the Chile Califica Program and is taught in different places near the participants' homes or work, such as community centers, churches, schools, unions, and companies for both the primary and secondary education levels. In addition, the educational process is administered by Executing Entities that must be part of the Free Entry Registry. These entities can be educational establishments recognized by the State, such as municipal primary and secondary, subsidized private, or private schools. Also, they include other entities with legal status developing educational activities, general or professional training, such as Technical Training Centers, Vocational Institutes, Universities, Non-Governmental,

and Technical Skills Organizations. The regulatory framework for this modality comprises the Supreme Decrees of Education 31/2003 and 330/2001 and the Supreme Decree of the Ministry of Labor 265/2002, in their corresponding articles (Acuña, 2016).

The evaluation of learning is external to the educational service and is the responsibility of the Ministry of Education. It is carried out by educational establishments recognized by the State and designated as Examining Bodies by the Regional Ministerial Secretaries of Education (SECREDUC). These examining entities are in charge of applying diagnostic tests and final exams, which evaluate the learning achieved by the students in each area of Primary and Secondary Education. They are conducted simultaneously in all country regions, according to a schedule set by the Central Level of the Ministry of Education. The only valid grade to pass is the one obtained in the final exam applied by the corresponding assessment body. Students have up to three examination opportunities and are recognized for approval by learning sector (MINEDUC, 2020g).

The following flexible curricula have been implemented: (UNESCO, 2005):

Figure 16:

Types of Curricula in Flexible Modality Youth and Adult Education (YAE) (UNESCO, 2005; MINEDUC, 2020f)

- **a.** Primary and Secondary Education Remediation Program: Traditional. It started in 2003 and continues to be implemented today)
- **b.** Job Skills Remediation Program: Combined general education with job training. It began in 1999, when the impact of the Asian crisis became evident in Chile, within the government programs for job protection and with an agreement between the Secretariats of Education and Labor, Social Security, and the Solidarity and Social Investment Fund. It was implemented until 2008.
- c. Primary and Intermediate Education Remediation Programs with Tax Concession: Through the tax exemption, they finance workers, partners, and business owners who wish to complete their primary and intermediate studies. In this model, education remediation is part of a program that has been designed exclusively for job training, understanding that each training program needs basic knowledge. In coordination with the Ministry of Labor, the National Training and Employment Service (SENCE) assumes the costs of these educational services. It was given further impetus since 2009 and continues to be implemented today.

IV.C.2.iii.b. Second Chance Schools (based on the European experience): In 2016, the Chilean Ministry of Education included a new competitive modality, with its own technical and administrative bases for creating reintegration-focused Second Chance Schools (Exempt Resolution 3033/2016). The above is covered by the provision included in articles 22 and 35 of the General Law of Education (2009), which state that the MINEDUC can propose the creation of new educational modalities to the National Education Council, which complement regular education or deepen specific areas of it, to guarantee equality in the right to education.

Second Chance Schools are starting as a pilot initiative, which seeks to transform into a modality that offers a stable and relevant alternative for this population in the future. They are aimed at children, adolescents, and youth populations, in contrast with YAE. This fund was born from recognizing the need to move towards formal educational spaces based on educational reintegration projects (Muñoz, 2020; Exempt Res. 3033/2016). Officially, these spaces are constituted as CEIAs, within Youth and Adult Education (Espinoza et al., 2020a).

Although this public fund for Second Chance Schools began in 2016, there were previous projects from civil society organizations implementing the modality with private and state financing, as is the case of Second Chance Schools belonging to Fundación Súmate, from Hogar de Cristo. These schools have been receiving children and adolescents between 11 and 24 years old since 1989 (Fundación Súmate, 2020; Espinoza et al., 2020a). Their model is analyzed in the following section Good Practices in SCE. In addition, some of these schools have been awarded this public fund to continue their work.

It is difficult to determine precisely how many second chance schools exist in the country. Some authors (Espinoza et al., 2020a, 2020b; Espinoza, González & McGinn, 2019) include the different CEIAs in their count, although initially intended for the adult population. With this method, in 2016, there were 452 second-chance schools or centers in Chile. The government opened 134 second-chance schools, at least one in each of the 15 regions of the country (32.5% of them were

opened in the Metropolitan Region) that year. Their population in 2016 was 30,261 students (43% female and 57% male). Other registries only include specialized second-chance schools awarded the reintegration school fund, not considered part of the YAE and specifically aimed at the young population or those under 18 years of age. In 2019, 13 of these schools (5 administered by Fundación Súmate, Hogar de Cristo) received 1,500 students (Cortés, Portales & Peters, 2019). In 2018, 11 organizations or schools were awarded the competitive fund, for a total of CLP 828,598,000, with a capacity to serve 1,730 beneficiaries (MINEDUC, 2018c).

The technical bases of this competitive fund state that the initiatives will be evaluated on the changes they propose in pedagogical practice, with a practical, contextualized, and relevant approach that considers the communities' ancestral practices and promotes active participation of the students and on the teacher-student bond, fostering a bond of emotional support and promoting self-esteem, and that also includes recreational and cultural activities. Furthermore, the bases indicate these must be small schools that become centers opens to the community to carry out personalized work with the students (Espinoza et al., 2020a).

A sample of these schools (which included the YAE's CEIAs) revealed that they had between 215 and 976 students, with a teacher-student ratio of 1:15.5 or less in half of them. The teachers showed an equitable gender distribution, and 67% of them worked in a single school (Espinoza et al., 2020a, 2020b; Espinoza, González & McGinn, 2019). In addition, assessments have shown low graduation rates at these schools (Espinoza et al., 2016).

An evaluation by Espinoza et al. (2020a) on the factors that promote the involvement of out-of-school students in second-chance schools at the secondary education level revealed that about half of male and female students were satisfied with their experience at the second chance school. No significant gender differences were found, but the existing differences occurred depending on the activities included in the programs that most motivated them (with women being more

involved in academic activities, psychosocial and trade workshops; while men, in sports activities). When asked why they might drop out of their current school, men most frequently pointed out being expelled (23%, compared to 15% women), having to work (21%, compared to 16% women), or because they do not like to study (11%, compared to 5% women); meanwhile, women reported most frequently family issues, including childcare and conflicts with parents (21%, compared to 12% men), or problems with their peers (11%, compared to 7% men).

Espinoza, González, and McGinn (2019) investigated the teachers in these schools with a sample of 617 teachers (50% men and 50% women) from 40 schools. On average, male teachers had a work experience of 19 years, and women 14 years. Furthermore, 60.6% of the teachers had a fixed-term contract, and 38% an open-ended contract. In addition to this, 91% of male teachers and 97% of female teachers had a university degree as pedagogues. Regarding their reasons for working in second-chance education, the majority answered "by vocation," without significant gender differences. Familiarity with the curriculum depended primarily on whether they had taken further training rather than their teaching experience. For the most part, they felt that the curriculum was not relevant to the needs of the students, that it was not suitable for their ambitions, that it was challenging to address in its entirety, and that the methodologies were not dynamic or attractive.

Second chance schools in Chile are inspired by the international experience, in an initiative developed by the European Community since 1995 which sought to address school failure and social exclusion and promote the notion of lifelong learning. Participants outside the regular education system between 15 and 29 years old who did not have the skills and qualifications to continue studying or enter the labor market were included in the initiative. Twenty years later, it is relevant to review its outcomes in light of the current boost that Chile wants to give to this format. In addition to Chile, several Latin American countries adopted this European model,

integrating aspects of the experience of schools in the United States and the United Kingdom, which maintained the same curriculum but used other pedagogical methods (Espinoza et al., 2020a).

Common features of these schools included: partnership with local authorities, social services, and the private sector —to offer potential training and job sites to participants—; pedagogy and counseling focused on the needs, desires, and abilities of each participant, promoting active learning on their part and developing personal attitudes and meta-reflective skills; flexible teaching modules that allow combining the development of basic skills with practical training in and by companies; a central role in the acquisition of information and communication technology skills; and comprehensive support in psychosocial terms (European Commission, 2001).

The Directorate-General for Education, Youth, Sport, and Culture from the European Economic Community promoted the initiative to address the growing number of young people who drop out of school. In general, Second Chance Schools are characterized by being experimental initiatives focused on employment. One of the ideological tensions around these Second Chance Schools is the challenging nature of job training as a notion, particularly when schooling is limited to employability and productivity and not understood as part of an education that contributes to human development, the freedom to build their life projects, and citizen participation (European Commission, 2001).

In its first year, the pilot project featured thirteen second-chance schools in eleven European countries. Four thousand young people were included, with a retention rate of 94% (55% were still enrolled, 27% had found a job, 11% had continued in other educational programs). They managed to establish successful local partnerships, especially with employers. They showed that investing in schools was cost-effective, even though the student: personalized tutor ratio requires higher spending per student than in the traditional system. The

connection with employers made the students see the school as a bridge to the labor market and understand that a job requires skills and qualifications that the school can help them obtain. Employers, meanwhile, have a role in keeping schools up-to-date on the most frequent niches in the local economy. As a result, students reported feeling valued and important, described relationships with teachers as one of mutual respect and found jobs in the service sector (28%), technical trades (16%), sales (11%), health (9%) and technology (6%) (European Commission, 2001).

Among the difficulties they faced, it is noted that they did not have stable financing due to the project's pilot nature, being subject to periodic reviews and decisions. Gender inequities were also observed, with higher participation of men in schools and a career choice framed by gender stereotypes. Some schools also mention that pregnancy makes it difficult for adolescents to stay in school. Furthermore, most participants have been victims of sexual abuse or engaged or were engaged in prostitution. Additionally, the participants belonging to some more conservative cultures, such as Arab migrants, had more difficulty breaking free from family pressures and stereotypes (European Commission, 2001).

Second Chance Schools have continued to develop in Europe since then, spreading the good practices of their schools using different communication and information tools and making the problem of unschooling visible. Some of the networks that have been built are as follows:

Figure 17:

European Networks of Second Chance Schools

Mediterranean New Chance regional project, which has a network of 100 schools in 9 countries (Algeria, Egypt, Spain, France, Morocco, Tunisia, Italy, Lebanon, and Portugal), focused on employability, with a practical approach, and from a gender perspective that promotes women's labor insertion (UFM Secretariat, 2020).

Réseau E2C France (Réseau E2C France, 2020), with 133 schools in France, establishes individualized attention, the establishment of local networks, support in the development of skills, and linkage with the world of work as its four principles. In addition, they highlight as their main pedagogical innovation to follow a model of competencies for work, focusing on know-how and attitudes.

Spanish Association of Second Chance Schools (E2O Spain, 2020), founded in 2016, which established an accreditation process for its schools, having accredited 41 centers, in what they describe as an inclusive and demanding process. As in France, it focuses on professional integration, developing social and professional skills, and working in collaboration with companies facilitating Corporate Social Responsibility methods and promoting corporate volunteering, incorporating them in the design of educational and training proposals for young people, and making internships with companies an essential element in training. Currently, they have 740 professionals in their schools who assist 7,994 young people (E2O Spain, 2020b).

Regarding the purpose of Second Chance Schools, the European Commission (2001) initially stated that students should not be sent back to the place of failure. Therefore, schools should be thought of in job creation, job training, and social support. However, they later concluded, based on the educational success obtained by students in SCE, that they should not have left the school system initially, and in this sense, the focus should be on prevention. Beyond this debate, there is

agreement on the benefits of strengthening vocational training in SCE for students who primarily need to be employed quickly. They must be active participants in their decision. The phenomenon of early tracking or early segmentation mustn't occur, as they prevent social mobility and closes specific educational opportunities to students, such as access to higher education, without them having enough information about it.

IV. GOOD PRACTICES IN SECOND CHANCE EDUCATION

The study of good practices has been increasing as identifying them implies knowing "what works" (Armijo, 2004). The above enables the dissemination of activities that have had good results, recognition of the teams that carry them out, and the possibility of replicating these practices to continue improving them.

Good practices would be a set or sequence of processes, actions, interactions, or techniques that have obtained good results in a given context, that are innovative and stand out compared to other practices on the same topic. They would generate two types of results, which are usually related: process results and effect results. A good practice must meet specific criteria: address previously identified substantive needs, innovation (differing from pre-existing, common or recurring practices), effectiveness (achieve objectives, with results verifiable through indicators), allow comparability (a record of the way it is structured and applied is needed), replicability (have an operating logic that allows it to be applied in the circumstances other than those in which it was created),

sustainability (achieving the proposed objectives and sustaining them over time), and having institutional effects for the project's operational dynamics (SENAME, 2016).

To develop future second-chance schools and programs that achieve effective academic and social reintegration, some good practices that have been developed both in the international and local contexts are presented, highlighting the domains in which they carry out their main innovation:

IV.A. Good International Practices

IV.A.1.

Good Practices in the Psychosocial Domain

IV.A.1.i. Teacher-Student Bond: Numerous studies show the importance of this aspect in education, such as Lee and Burkam's (2003 in Vadeboncoeur & Vellos, 2016). They analyzed 190 secondary schools in the United States and found that students remain in school

when the social relations with their teachers are positive. In Australia, a study conducted by De Jong (2005 in Vadeboncoeur & Vellos, 2016) in 52 schools showed that positive relationships were critical to achieving learning outcomes. In Canada, the Québec Longitudinal Study of Child Development (1998-2010, in Vadeboncoeur & Vellos, 2016) revealed the need to intervene in the student-teacher relationship from the beginning of schooling. These results have also been verified in the case of second-chance programs, which can be seen in the following examples:

IV.A.1.i.a. Latin America: The MERCOSUR study (UNESCO, 2009b) on different reintegration programs in Latin America emphasized the bond between teachers and students as central when identifying the strategies that worked: a bond with children and adolescents based on mutual respect, understanding that this teaching work is a difficult job, based on the emotional as the axis of the relationship and on the respect and authority legitimately granted by the students, which allows reestablishing mutual trust for the activation of the pedagogical process.

IV.A.1.i.b. Europe: For its part, the evaluation of the European Commission's Second Chance Schools pilot (2001) identified some central aspects identified in these schools around the teaching role: The central role of the Teacher: most teachers have training and qualifications in special needs, psychology, or pedagogy. In addition to these formal requirements, the importance of social skills, such as empathy and compassion, to establish deep and highly committed relationships with the participants was evidenced. Furthermore, the need to consider the training of teachers, which had not been systematic and is being addressed through annual teacher meetings from the Association of European Second Chance Schools E2C-Europe was recognized, seeking that they can develop social skills and also transmit their knowledge to employers who receive students in their internships. Guidance monitoring: these aspects are integrated

with academic aspects, through tutors or mentors, or teachers who perform this dual role, addressing issues such as learning difficulties, job search, housing issues, health, money, attitudes, relations with the law, civil education, relationships, hygiene, nutrition, substance abuse, sexual intercourse, emotions, childhood experiences, among others. In case of major psychological problems, they establish networks for professional help.

IV.A.1.i.c. Canada and Australia: The "Accept and Build" principle: these programs are characterized by a teacher-student relationship based on the dialectical principle of accepting and building, where both the teacher and the student accept what the other offers in the present moment, building new social futures, and the students imagine themselves in new relations, which allow them to participate in the world in new ways. It involves helping students overcome complex educational stories and re-engage in school. In Australia, at a flexible learning center in Queensland, the teacher-student relationship was studied for three years. In Canada, an alternative program was studied for four months. Both studies revealed three central aspects that students highlight as positive: feeling recognized and seen by their teachers, coming from previous school environments in which they felt invisible and not treated as individuals, which is related to more personalized assistance; recognition of the capacity for growth, by teachers and students, who see this quality in the other, achieving an experience of themselves free from labels and low previous expectations on the part of students, who indicate that they are heard with the benefit of the doubt, which did not happen in their previous school environments with authoritarian disciplinary sanctions; and co-creation of social futures, which implies new learning opportunities, relationships with the family and community, and employment experiences, promoting that students do not feel alienated from the system and helping them navigate it (Vadeboncoeur & Vellos, 2016).

IV.A.2.

Good Practices in the Pedagogical Domain

IV.A.2.i. Contextual Relevance

IV.A.2.i.a. Latin America: The MERCOSUR study (UNESCO, 2009b) on different reintegration programs in Latin America emphasized this aspect as central when identifying the strategies that worked: those that are closest and most significant for them (for example: religious or sports ties), which it implies a high knowledge of the individuality of children and adolescents, and their families and environment; work based on the children and adolescents' prior knowledge, with a personalized dialogue, where they have the confidence to talk about themselves and what they know; the revaluation of its sociocultural environment as a valid knowledge space; and enhancing the dignity of their educational trajectories. In addition, this pedagogical option needs, to be compelling, a strong, close and trusting relationship with the students. Thus, the type of relational bond promoted in the strategy is synergistic with the pedagogical orientation.

IV.A.2.i.b. Peasant's Movement of Santiago del Estero (MOCASE, in its Spanish acronym): Santiago del Estero is one of the poorest provinces in Argentina: during the first semester of 2008, 31% of its population was in poverty, a figure much higher than the national average, of 17.8% for the same period. In the different workshops of this program, there is a transversal topic: recognizing, promoting, and defending rights understood in a broad sense. Workshops for pedagogical support are included as well as productive undertakings, such as the school garden and rabbit farming, which recovers ancestral and practical knowledge of the community, allowing meaningful learning and articulating contents from the different subjects. These also include a radio workshop where students learn language and technical skills, computer workshops, study trips, sex education workshops (given the high rate of adolescent pregnancies and HIV cases in the sector), workshops for the defense of rights, guardians' meetings, and recreational sports and cultural activities (UNESCO, 2009).

IV.A.2.ii. Digital Skills

IV.A.2.ii.a. Compuinformática: Distance Education School and Occupational Training Center (Quito, Ecuador): Its beneficiary population is 500 students per year, who have interrupted their educational trajectories, as people who do not adapt to the face-toface system, who need to certify their positions, who revalidate degrees, domestic workers, among others. The school was founded in 1994 with a distance modality that catered almost exclusively to adults. However, starting in 2000, it expanded its educational offerings to the eighth, ninth, and tenth years of Primary Education and High School, with specialties in Accounting, Computer Science, Physics-Mathematics, Chemistry-Biology, and Social Sciences, thus opening the doors to youth education. It also functions as an Occupational Training Center (UNESCO, 2009).

The center's curricular design focuses on the students' interests and the demands of the productive sector and the universities. The distance study system has selflearning as one of its pillars. The above requires study habits from the students, for which a tutoring system has been developed for individual and group assistance of students, in a flexible shift. On Saturdays, meetings are held to address the problems, concerns, and interests of young people at risk. In addition, monitoring and support are provided, including in the family nucleus. Periodic evaluations are applied with teachers' participation to know the students' progress and determine follow-up and recovery mechanisms. The theory is highly integrated into the demonstration classes, practices, and internships. The self-instructional printed material for content learning has been developed at the institution. The teachers receive permanent support for the preparation and updating of the textbooks. They participate in permanent updating processes, and most exercise the specialty they teach (UNESCO, 2009).

IV.A.2.ii.b. The Netherlands: HackYourFuture: The evaluation of the European Commission's Second Chance Schools pilot (2001) identified the need to consider new technologies as a central feature as computers, multimedia, and the internet allow students to acquire skills for the world of work. It is taught as a separate subject and as a tool for learning in the other subjects. One of the concerns in Adult Education in Europe is that 43% of the European adult population does not have basic digital skills, where jobs requiring these skills will increase by 12% by 2024. Therefore it is an essential focus within training. A good practice incorporating digital education is HackYourFuture, which helps refugees in the Netherlands learn to program and become web designers, quickly teaching them the skills required for the job market and connecting them with companies that hire programmers. The model used is project-based learning, and most of the teaching is done online (EAEA, 2019a).

IV.A.2.iii. Civic Training

IV.A.2.iii.a. United Kingdom: Citizens' Curriculum:

One of the recommendations of the Report on Adult Education in Europe (EAEA, 2019b) points to an aspect that is not usually relieved from the focus on psychosocial reparation or labor insertion of SCE participants: the need to relieve active citizenship, that is, that they recognize their role in society and make their voice heard, expanding the scope of empowerment. Preston (2004 in EAEA, 2019b) highlights the role that education plays in civic engagement, the desire to have a positive role in public life, the probabilities of voting, the construction and maintenance of social networks, and training of values such as tolerance, understanding, and respect. An example of this is the Citizens' Curriculum in the UK. It articulates personal and interpersonal skills' development (self-monitoring, self-esteem, empathy, decision-making, problem-solving, communication and conflict management) with basic language skills, reading and mathematics, digital, financial, environmental, health and civic education, in a way that is relevant to the context and participatory according to the students' interests. In this way, it aims to realize the student's potential, active participation in society, empowerment, development of autonomy and self-efficacy, impact on their families and communities, motivation to continue learning, and participation in the labor market.

IV.A.3.

Good Practices that Work with the Family and the Community

IV.A.3.i. Uruguay: Aulas Comunitarias Program: Puente Educativo: In Uruguay, although nine years of education is mandatory, the system faces significant difficulties in Secondary Education to meet this objective due to the combined effect of high repetition rates, high dropout rates, and lag accumulation. In urban areas, 7 out of 10 students drop out of Secondary Education. Still, it is possible to observe significant gaps between what happens in peripheral neighborhoods, where 9 out of 10 young residents do not complete Secondary Education, and in central neighborhoods, where 9 out of 10 young people finish it. Given this situation, the programs mainly seek to address this transition between primary and secondary school to generate support that prevents out-of-schooling (UNESCO, 2009a).

The Community Classrooms Program (PAC, in its Spanish acronym), implemented in 2006, consists of installing "bridge" spaces with the reference high schools, with different intervention modalities, for the reintegration of adolescents between 13 and 17 years old who have been left out of the formal education system. The "Puente Educativo" (Educational Bridge) project was developed in Paso Carrasco, within the framework of this program, between September 2007 and June 2008. The project tried to respond to the identified problem of dropping out of secondary education in the transition between primary and secondary school in a context of high vulnerability. It was approached through three foci: children, teachers, and families (UNESCO, 2009a).

In the first stage, actions aimed at children seek to facilitate and accompany the decision-making process towards educational continuity through a cycle of

workshops aimed at the vocational inquiry, identification of strengths and weaknesses, and guidance on the different options that the educational system offers them. The teachers seek to transfer the methodology of experiences from civil society to work with children and adolescents in exclusion processes. With the families, the construction of the "pedagogical ally" figure is sought. It is a methodology developed in the family home itself, where agreements are established to strengthen the role of the adult as the primary guarantor of the right to education of their children. In the second stage, children are accompanied in their integration into the secondary education system. In this phase, actions are established to strengthen their integration capacities to the new educational scenario. Teachers are supported by transferring methodological keys and constructing inclusive strategies for the school retention of students. The family is provided with monitoring and emotional support tools that can sustain the child in the secondary education system. The intervention strategy used recreational techniques and resources, which combined moments of information, reflection, exchanges, and production of materials (UNESCO, 2009a).

Good results were observed in the subjective aspects in students, their families, and the understanding of their social reality. This allowed aligning the expectations between children and adolescents, their families, and the educational institution. Also, it was crucial to include families in the process and build collaborative partnerships with the formal educational system (schools, municipalities, and governorates) and with community social organizations that support and protect rights (UNESCO, 2009a).

One of the limitations observed impacted the most critical situations of vulnerability and social exclusion. This mechanism had a limited scope in terms of retention because the complexity of these cases would require a more profound and continuous approach (UNESCO, 2009a).

A subsequent evaluation of the Aulas Comunitarias program group (Hogar de Cristo, 2019) shows that, in 2013, two-thirds of those who enrolled at the beginning of the year passed the course. Still, that relinking to traditional schools continues to be difficult, with less than 50% of students who manage to pass the second year of the first cycle in a high school or technological institute.

In 2016, the program was canceled and replaced by the "2016 Proposal", which works with second chance classrooms within the same high schools the students will be reintegrated after one year, following the pedagogical model used in Community Classrooms.

IV.A.3.ii. Guatemala: "Pares Positivos" (Positive Peers), in the Grupo Ceiba's Educational Programs: These programs have taken place since 1989 and have helped 50,000 young people. They work at the primary and secondary levels, with digital literacy, education for work, support, and monitoring for reintegration into the educational system. The relevant aspect of its comprehensive community intervention model that is relevant to highlight has to do with its focus on groups in marginalized conditions. Its work has recovered participants from gang groups and drug addictions or has prevented their incorporation into illegal activities. It establishes a Positive Peer training strategy, with young leaders who have gone through the same experiences and can now show alternative paths to their peers. Awareness of co-responsibility is developed through dynamics of mutual support that lead each member to live constructive responsibility for the other. Monitoring programs are also developed in the streets, articulating community networks (UNESCO, 2009a).

IV.A.4. Good Management Practices

IV.A.4.i. Brazil: Linkage between the State and the Civil Society: Literacy Programs: the focus of YAE in Brazil has been on literacy, with the Solidarity Literacy Program founded in 1996 by the Council of the

Community Solidarity Program, a social development association made up of the federal government, the private sector, and civil society. It is currently managed by an NGO: the SILP Support Association (Solidarity in Literacy Program) (UNESCO, 2005).

The program developed a national movement to increase literacy rates between youth and adults, through a simple, innovative, and low-cost literacy model, based on partnerships between various sectors of society, institutions, and authorities of the town. In 2002, 3.6 million students were enrolled, with 170,000 qualified teachers, in 2,010 Brazilian municipalities. The same associative model was extended to private citizens. While companies adopt municipal districts with high illiteracy rates, citizens adopt students, financing 130,000 students until 2005 and increasing enrollment by 250% between 2000 and 2002 (UNESCO, 2005).

Beyond literacy, 99% of the municipal districts in which the program operates saw improvements in the areas surrounding the schools and public services in aspects such as lighting, transport, and sanitation. In low-income places, the program helped increase the income of literacy teachers and promoted a 234% growth in the number of cooperatives. The success of SILP in Brazil was distinguished through United Nations and UNESCO awards, being recognized as one of the top five literacy programs in the world, extending the model to other countries (UNESCO, 2005).

Another form of cooperation between the State and civil society regarding YAE involves community and religious organizations in the so-called Literacy Movements (MOVA, in its Spanish acronym). In general, in this cooperation, public power pays, often symbolically, and enables the training of popular educators who work in literacy centers installed in the headquarters of civil society organizations, small businesses, and companies. The MOVA was implemented when Paulo Freire was the Secretariat of Education (1989-1992), following the principles of the education and popular culture movements, from which it

corresponds to civil society organizations to mobilize students, recommend educators linked to communities and organize literacy circles, while the municipal government subsidizes the program and coordinates the training activities for educators. Social movements organize autonomously in their forum, from which they dialogue collectively with the municipal government. As a result, after becoming literate, young people and adults have guaranteed entry into fundamental education courses (primary and secondary's first cycle) for youth and adults of the municipal education network (UNESCO, 2005).

The cooperation established between the State and civil society organizations transfer responsibility for the guarantee of universal rights to civil society and, on the other hand, broaden the channels of participation and social control over the actions of the State (UNESCO, 2005).

Despite advances in coverage and overcoming the gender gap in literacy in Brazil, generational, racial, territorial, and economic gaps remain. The illiteracy rate among black people is still twice that of white people, just as rural illiteracy rates are still three times higher than in urban areas. In addition, income differences continue to impact access to education, with the highest illiteracy rates found in the lowest-income families (UNESCO, 2005).

IV.A.4.i. Finland: Linkage between Primary and Secondary Education: Finland went from secondary education with low coverage in the 1970s to almost full coverage, with high graduation rates. Secondary education includes the compulsory lower grades (7th to 9th, which end when pupils are 16 years old) and the non-compulsory upper grades —which can be in general or technical modality— (10th to 12th). Only 5% of students do not immediately continue with upper secondary education. In Finland, the participation of the third sector through NGOs and volunteers has played an essential role in creating a secondary education that better responds to the needs and interests of all students. Youth groups participated in reforms and the

development of public policies, and community organizations aligned their work with that of schools, successfully involving parents and other adults in youth education. At technical schools, innovative solutions have been developed for students who have learning styles oriented to a practical curriculum, which has made it more attractive to them, reducing out-ofschooling. Emphasis has also been placed on providing a good quality primary education for all. There is an investment in initial teacher training, where teachers graduate with a Master's degree and enjoy social respect and professional freedom. In addition, the students stay with the same teacher during the first six years of school. Another crucial mechanism to promote retention is an early intervention and counseling system in primary and secondary schools, which helps with the transition between primary and secondary education, supports decision-making, and intervenes in learning difficulties—, with a multidisciplinary approach that includes different professionals. Additionally, students with SEN receive specialized services early. There is flexibility for horizontal mobility between general and technical modalities in upper secondary education, and they can also take courses in the other modality. Lastly, alternative second-chance pathways, such as voluntary tenth grade, allow students to improve their grades to be accepted into the upper secondary school of their choice and where counseling is emphasized (Sahlberg, 2006).

IV.A.4.ii.Bangladesh: Financial Incentives Schooling: Reaching Out-of-School Children (ROSCII): Although school coverage rates in Bangladesh are almost universal in primary education, and there is gender parity in access to primary and secondary education, this program seeks to address those children and adolescents from the most impoverished families who do not enroll or drop out of school due to poverty conditions, especially in rural districts. Pedagogically, it takes the experiences of the formal system and NGOs to allow completing the fifth grade and transition to secondary education, also offering technical skills training. Stipends are given to the students' families,

books, school supplies, and uniforms to prevent children and adolescents from working to help their families and attend school. The schools allow students with years behind in school (between 8 and 14 years) to attend through flexible shifts and a teacher who stays with the students until they are ready to take their fifth-grade exam to move on to high school. Adolescents with the most backwardness, over 15 years of age, receive an additional stipend from participating in programs to develop skills for employment, and their job placement is sought. Currently, there are 690,000 children and adolescents (half of them women) in 20,400 schools of this type in the most disadvantaged sectors of the country, with an attendance rate of 86%. In addition, 12,277 teachers and 4,000 managers have been trained (World Bank, 2019).

IV.A.5.

Good Practices that Articulate Training for **Employment**

IV.A.5.i. Mexico: Education for Life and Work Model (MEVYT): It incorporated a comprehensive second chance curriculum, emphasizing applicability to everyday life and work, and has a modular structure that allows flexibility. The contents promote the strengthening of the dignity of the person, harmonious coexistence with the environment and with other people, within a framework of respect for diversity and plurality of ideas, the importance of actively and critically participating in decision-making, and a strong link between education and work. In some of its modules, it seeks to converge informal knowledge and know-how, a product of daily life and previous work experiences of people, with information, procedures, and formal knowledge of the workplace. For example, in the Produce and preserve the countryside module, the student develops or strengthens reading, writing, and math skills and, simultaneously, recognizes and applies various technical procedures to improve agricultural production and preserve the environment. In the My Business, Youth and Work and Being Better at Work modules, topics related to the formal and

informal sectors, the search for employment, conservation or improvement of the same, and the creation of a small business are addressed. Gender equity is conceived as a transversal axis of the model, where care has been taken for all the modules' contents to pose a position of respect for the sexual, cultural, historical, and social differences existing between men and women, at the same time as it seeks to generate similar opportunities for the full development of women and men (UNESCO, 2005).

IV.A.5.ii. Spain: E20 Transversal Skills: This program. aimed to identify and implement good practices in SCE, was developed with the sponsorship of J. P. Morgan, an example of linkage between the State and private companies. It revealed that companies value the transversal skills learned in second-chance schools much more highly (such as teamwork, self-knowledge, interpersonal skills, responsibility, and emotional management) than vocational training or work experience. It has been seen that it is necessary to train these skills in an individualized, systematic, and flexible way so that they become tools for socio-labor insertion. The centers that obtain good results develop an active, varied, and collaborative methodology, use the students' didactic materials, and include students' selfassessments (E2O Spain, 2020a; 2020b).

IV.A.5.iii. Morocco: "The Personal Project": In Morocco, 300,000 adolescents a year drop out of secondary school. Of the young people who neither study nor work, 75% correspond to women. This program seeks to empower young people to participate in the economy and public life, implementing vocational guidance and training at school to prevent unschooling. It consists of 10 activities that begin in primary education, in year 6, where students can learn about different work paths. In secondary education, they develop a portfolio with a vocational project linked to the market's needs. The methodology is project-based learning. In addition, the community is involved, making visits to different work contexts and inviting

professionals to deliver lectures at the school. In 2019, this large-scale pilot was implemented in 300 schools, reaching 36,000 students. Its results show it improved learning, including acquiring critical skills such as communication, collaboration, problem-solving and decision making, promoting active involvement, and making the school more relevant to the students' lives and projects (UNICEF, 2019).

IV.A.5.iv. United States: YouthBuild: With an educational-labor pedagogical concept, its objectives are to grant students the certificate of Secondary Education, improve their academic education, facilitate their social rehabilitation and foster their connection to the labor market. Furthermore, it is a permanent program where young people learn from construction work and get involved in the social commitment by building houses for vulnerable people, thus reinforcing the link with civil society (YouthBuild, 2020).

The program involves volunteers from the civil community within its team, who function as personal tutors that, as they do not come from an educational institution, can teach the adolescent another perspective on life (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

It was founded in 1978 in New York and currently has 260 programs (16,000 participants) in 46 federal states. In addition, YouthBuild International operates in 21 countries around the world. It is a non-profit organization, partially funded by private and public resources, mainly from the US Department of Labor (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

The program participants are young people between the ages of 16 and 24 who are neither studying nor working and who come from families with a low socioeconomic level. Of these, 65% are men, mostly of Latino or Afro-American origin. Approximately 30% have children, and 32% have a criminal record. In addition, 93% of them left secondary education without a diploma (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

The duration of the program is ten months. Before starting, a workshop that lasts from one day to a week is offered to promote teamwork - which has a crucial role within the system - and filtering those young people who are considered to approve the methodology used for the program called Adaptation of Mental Tenacity. Once students pass this workshop and enter the program, they spend 50% of their time in the classroom and at least 40% working in a company, mainly in the construction area, manufacturing social housing. The students get a salary, a scholarship, or free accommodation. Some programs guarantee them a contract in a company once they have successfully graduated (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

Regarding the pedagogical aspect, learning in small groups (student-teacher ratio of less than 5: 1) is applied following Erikson's psychosocial model, which distinguishes different stages in psychosocial development. According to this model, students have to pass the various stages. First, to overcome the conflict of trust vs. mistrust, to overcome the uncertainty of knowing if they will be more successful in this program than in their previous school career. Second, learn to respect their rules and, at the same time, develop some autonomy in their decisions and behavior (autonomy vs. doubt conflict). The third step is the conflict of initiative vs. guilt, when students begin to collaborate with others, recovering their feeling of rejection or isolation that - for the most part - have experienced many times before. The fourth stage refers to both academic and work learning (competence vs. inferiority conflict). Finally, in the fifth step, it is proposed to develop a positive identity (identity conflict vs. confusion) to leave the program with the self-confidence necessary to succeed in the world of work (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

The team includes teachers, administrators, technical instructors, and tutors. Among them, the tutor's role stands out, who is in charge of personally supporting the students during their time in the program (four hours a month) and a few months after graduation (at least 15 months in total). Tutors are AmeriCorpsMembers

volunteers rigorously selected and trained by the *Youth-Build* program, which requires their participation for at least 15 months to avoid rotations and build a trusting relationship with the student (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

An evaluation of the program by the *What Works Clearing House of the U.S. Department of Education Sciences* (U.S. Department of Education and Science Clearing House) showed positive results: high graduation rates - depending on the program, from 67% to 79% -; 60% manages to continue studying in higher education or enter the world of work; decrease in the criminality rate of graduates to 9%, compared to 30% at the time of entering the program; increased self-confidence, more awareness about their future career and a positive change in students' behavior (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

IV.A.5.v.Ireland: Youthreach Program: It aims to reduce school exclusion, ensure full participation in society, and promote students' social and personal development. It offers academic labor training, grants a certificate, and works as an alternative to the traditional educational system. It was founded in 1989 by the Republic of Ireland Department of Education and Science and restructured in 2000 after detailed evaluation. The State grants the financing, and the annual payments are automatically renewed, which has allowed them a stable development since their implementation. Annual costs per participant are calculated at € 20,000 (15,287,400 Chilean pesos) in 2015 (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

Currently, there are more than 100 centers nationwide assisting 6,000 young people. The number of students per classroom does not exceed 25. Their population is young people between the ages of 16 and 20 who have been out of school for at least six months, don't have a junior cycle certificate, and have been unemployed for a minimum of three months. Also, young people at risk of school exclusion from highly vulnerable groups such as single parents, young people who have been in prison, immigrants or drug treatment program

participants. Program duration is two full-time years on average, with the possibility of adaptation according to the needs of the students. They have 35 hours of classes per week and the possibility of doing practical training. In addition, students have just four weeks of vacation a year - eight less than a traditional school in Ireland - to prepare them for working life. Because of this, those over 16 years receive a weekly payment for their participation: € 40 (30,577 Chilean pesos) per week for young people aged 16 to 17 and € 160 (122,307 Chilean pesos) for those over 17. The program awards different certificates to students: the Junior Certificate, the Leaving Certificate, and the Post Leaving Certificate. The latter allows them access to the university. In addition to those certificates that

require the entire program's approval, there is a possibility of granting the accreditation of some modules (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

The pedagogical design follows the idea of EDUCARE (education and caring), which focuses not only on academic learning but also on the social development of youth. The program has a curriculum characterized by flexibility, depending on the students' academic level, and individualized learning with few students, both at school and in the classroom. The didactic concept is quite varied and includes various elements of interaction and participation, such as group learning, to avoid traditional school methods. The social intervention follows four stages (Hogar de Cristo, 2019):

Figure 18: EDUCARE's Youthreach Program Curriculum

- 1. The commitment phase lasts from two to three months and is offered on a half-time basis to bring young people closer to school. The objective of this stage is to generate a learning plan in conjunction with a teacher. Particularly in this phase, close cooperation with families plays a key role.
- 2. The fundamentals phase focuses on social and individual development (self-confidence and self-esteem) as well as the academic skills of the students. The curriculum foresees 60 hours for each subject: literacy, personal development, numeracy, art, manual techniques, computer science, communication, sports, and other additional subjects (such as health, woodworking, etc.).
- **3.** In the progression stage, students dedicate themselves to developing labor competencies and carrying out internships. Upon completion of this phase, it is possible to achieve the Leaving Certified Applied certificate.
- **4.** Lastly, the transition phase focuses on the educational or work trajectory that follows after leaving the program and consists of tutoring, academic support, and presenting yourself for a job interview.

Each center consists of a multidisciplinary team: a center coordinator (management tasks and a minimum of 15 hours of teaching per week); a resource manager (administrative tasks); teachers; psychologists; and social workers. Most of them work part-time. The teacher position does not require explicit teacher training but rather experience in working with young people and teaching, and high social competence and motivation to work with vulnerable people (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

The evaluation of the program shows positive results: a level of learning similar to that of students in traditional schools; more than 70% of the students are employed or attending an educational institution after one year of graduation; and reduction of the youth unemployment rate. As areas for improvement, they see the possibility of implementing the same curriculum but in fewer hours per week and weeks per year (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

IV.A.5.vi. Germany: Produktives Lernen (Productive Learning): The program seeks to grant the certificate of general secondary education and facilitate enrollment in technical specialization through academic-labor training and works as an alternative to the school system recognized as a type of school by the German State. It was founded in 1991 by two pedagogues and is part of the "International Network of Productive Learning Projects and Schools" (INEPS). Despite being a private initiative, it is financed by public resources from the German State and the European Social Fund (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

Its population includes young people excluded from the school system, young people at risk of school exclusion, and general secondary school students who prefer more hands-on learning. The idea of opening the program to all youth who want to learn differently from traditional schools aims to avoid the stigma of being a specific school for students with learning or behavioral difficulties. It comprises 84 schools in Germany, spread over seven federal states of the country (14 of them in Berlin). Since its inception until now, more than 10,000

students have participated. The average duration of the program is two years (grades 9 and 10 of secondary education) (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

The team consists of a director, teachers, psychologists, and social workers. Apart from regular teacher training, they participate in special courses for three years, training by the Institute for Productive Learning in Europe and regular meetings with colleagues from the same and other schools within the program. Teachers call themselves learning companions and not teachers, underscoring their different roles compared to traditional schools. The tutor has a crucial role because it accompanies students during their time in school and upon graduation (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

Interested students apply to schools, and the acceptance criterion is their motivation. Those young people who are at risk of school exclusion (or already excluded) have priority. Once accepted, they go through a six-week orientation phase in which they can learn about the functioning and pedagogical methods to decide if they want to stay in the institution. During that phase, their term at their previous school (if they have one) is reserved if they prefer to return. The pedagogical concept is based on individualized learning, for which each group consists of a maximum of 20 students who work with two teachers. The functioning of the schools is a combination of academic learning (13 hours per week) with practical learning (18 hours per week). Practical teaching takes place within certain companies or social and cultural institutions. The curriculum and the selection of practical areas depend on youth's interests and are based on a study plan prepared by the student and a tutor. Both meet in weekly sessions to see the progress and difficulties. Despite this flexibility, academic learning follows the framework of the German curriculum, with a particular focus on German, English, and mathematics. The teaching of these subjects is often coordinated with students' practical experiences (for example, in English class, they review the vocabulary used at the workplace). In addition, they have to present their practical experiences in the classroom and develop new questions and projects through individual and group work (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

The self-evaluation system and external evaluations ensure the quality of the school. Internal evaluations (by INEPS) and external evaluations (by the University of Rostock) show positive results:

- Attendance and graduation rates of 80%;
- Good learning outcomes;
- Personal and social development of students in group work, learning, self-confidence, proactivity, and behavior in general;
- Relatively low costs. More than 50% of the time the students spend in practice (which implies fewer professionals, despite the low teacher-student ratio);
- Suitable preparation for technical training;
- Professional contacts network that they can already build during their time at school.

One of the biggest challenges identified is finding employers willing to receive interns (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

IV.A.6.

Good Practices that Consider Gender

IV.A.6.i. Ecuador: PROCALMUC (Education and Training for Improving the Quality of Life of Rural Women in Ecuador): This program explicitly adopted a gender approach, along with an entrepreneurial orientation. It was born as a UNESCO proposal on literacy, post-literacy, and training for three Latin American countries, where Ecuador was included. The proposal is based on recognizing the right of all individuals to education throughout their lives and creating conditions so that all population groups can have quality primary education, reducing the effects of social, economic, ethnic, cultural, and gender inequality. It is part of the Rural Education Program, aimed at the

adult population, and in the National Directorate for Women (UNESCO, 2005).

From the project design phase, the crosscutting issue of gender was considered as the primary strategy to improve women's access to written culture and achieve their economic and political empowerment. Therefore it is sought to impact their quality of life in this way, within an educational context in Ecuador that is historically elitist and discriminatory in social, gender, and racial terms. Significant changes occurred with the emergence of liberalism, which established public schools and teacher training institutes and opened the door to the educational system to the popular strata and women. However, rural education, in particular, has maintained social, generic, ethnic, and geographic inequalities. Rural peasant and indigenous women are the groups that have had access to educational culture to a lesser extent, having a deficit in minimal literacy skills (UNESCO, 2005).

PROCALMUC intervened in an area with a high risk of natural disasters, with the following objectives: 1) To improve the local offer of adult education with a flexible and permanent nature and with a gender perspective, offering a variety of primary education programs, occupational and productive training, education in health and nutrition and child development. 2) Streamline the management of local community health and nutrition services, child care, production, and socio-organizational development to achieve better satisfaction of the population's basic needs, taking into account gender specificities. 3) Encourage participation, preferably of peasant women, in educational and local development actions, facilitate their access, reduce work overload, and raise their position within the family and the community. 4) Support national policies in the areas that concern the project, promoting a communication and information system that systematizes and disseminates the results of the actions carried out (UNESCO, 2005).

During the execution of the project, teachers received training, and governmental organizations and specialized NGOs provided productive and micro-

entrepreneurial training. The gender component permeates all the actions carried out by PROCALMUC: access to written culture free from sexist stereotypes, empowerment, relief in their reproductive and productive tasks, access and control over resources, prevention of violence, community and labor leadership, and modification of the subordinate position, among others (UNESCO, 2005).

The methodology used is "learning-by-doing," focusing on skills that facilitate proper management of productive projects and micro-enterprises by providing basic micro-enterprise management techniques from a gender perspective. The project also grants microcredits from \$ 300 to \$ 15,500 upon signing an agreement with the communities. The agreement states the community's contribution as a counterparty, where recovery is achieved after one year (UNESCO, 2005).

Among the goals accomplished between 1993 and 2003, it is worth noting the access achieved, especially for the female population, to written culture and information; the improvement of the educational level of women; significant retention levels, with which the majority of participants finished primary school. On the other hand, female leaderships were developed and strengthened, women's distrust and insecurity have decreased, their self-esteem increased. They have been promoted socially, and their economic empowerment was promoted by starting a process of micro-business development or joining the labor market as salaried labor. The goals also include reducing domestic, gender, and social violence and the improvement of the nutritional diet of the participants and their families (UNESCO, 2005).

Literacy was achieved by 90% of the people participating in the CEPs (Primary Education Centers) in the communities targeted (3,409 became literate, with a retention rate of 90%, and 1,707 primary education certificates issued). Furthermore, women's access to education generated a virtuous effect as they cared about sending their children to school and sustaining

their educational process (which showed 98% retention). In occupational training, 1,249 participants were registered. Concerning productive training, ambitious goals were reached, such as having 16,855 women and men trained in different production areas: agricultural, livestock, craft, administration, marketing, business management (UNESCO, 2005).

Thirty workshops were held, and 18 adult education centers were equipped with pedagogical and technological material for occupational training. As a result, the economic initiatives implemented reached 499 (10 micro-enterprises, five productive projects, 284 family orchards, 100 family farms, 100 family businesses), generating a total of 2,545 sources of employment (UNESCO, 2005).

Despite the goals achieved, limitations were also observed during the execution of the project, such as insufficient economic resources, both from the State and from the cooperating agencies; weak monitoring of project actions; insufficient teacher training; and the discontinuity in the formation of economic undertakings (UNESCO, 2005).

IV.A.6.ii. PROVE Project for Social Reintegration of Ex-Women Prisoners (USA): Case, Fasenfest, Sarri, and Phillips (2005) documented a reintegration program exclusively for women previously deprived of liberty. Although it is a population with particular characteristics and circumstances, its focus on labor reintegration sheds some light on approaching this aspect in second-chance education, where there are also participants who have had conflicts with the law and have been deprived of liberty. On the other hand, the discriminatory barriers faced by ex-women prisoners are related to those faced by women who have dropped out of the school system or have become teenage mothers.

The program's execution framework implies a step from the punitive vision of deprivation of liberty to rehabilitation, including education, university, and technical courses, to obtain or improve employability skills while allowing socializing, improving self-esteem, and social functioning. In the program, it is observed that women have special needs that are not present in their male counterparts: reduced self-esteem, greater social stigma associated with their confinement, fractured families, where many are single mothers and are reunited with their children upon release, having to re-establish that relationship. In addition, they tend to have a high prevalence of physical and sexual abuse in childhood and substance abuse (Case et al., 2005).

The support for labor reintegration, in this case, includes enrollment in technical programs and universities, assistance with the housing situation, with family relationships, care and custody of children, and employment discrimination, as well as addressing personal barriers such as illness and substance use. Additionally, the program's flexibility allows them to resume their studies and provides them with psychosocial assistance through monthly meetings with peers, psychological counseling, community and housing resources, parenting classes, and job search assistance. It also provides tutoring, grade tracking, and support with scholarship-related bureaucracy. Finally, the participants point out that it is a source of support and motivation and that it provides them with a safe space where there are only women who understand the challenges they face (Case et al., 2005).

IV.A.7. Summary

A synthesis of the highlights for each of the programs reviewed is presented below:

Table 9:
Good International Practices in Second Chance Education

Key/Innovative Feature	Country	Year (the practice took place)	Iniciative/ Program	Model Type
Psychosocial Domain: The importance of the affective bond between teacher and student, essential to repair proximity from mistrust to the educational due to previous experiences.	Europe	2001	Teacher-student Bond	Second Chance Schools
Psychosocial Domain: The importance of the affective bond between teacher and student, essential to repair proximity from mistrust to the educational due to previous experiences.	Canada and Australia	2016	Teacher-student Bond	Second Chance Schools

Key/Innovative Feature	Country	Year (the practice took place)	Iniciative/ Program	Model Type
Psychosocial Domain: The importance of the affective bond between teacher and student, essential to repair proximity from mistrust to the educational due to previous experiences.	Latin America	2009	Teacher-student Bond	Reintegration Programs (MERCOSUR) and Second Chance Schools
Pedagogical Domain: Among these experiences, the importance of starting from the student's previous knowledge and interests was identified.	Latin America	2009	Initiatives that emphasize the contextual relevance of learning	Reintegration Programs (MERCOSUR)
Pedagogical Domain: Contextual relevance: Integrates the rights perspective with productive enterprises that generate significant learning (orchard, radio).	Argentina	2009	Peasant's Movement of Santiago del Estero (MOCASE)	Second Chance Schools
Pedagogical Domain: Digital Competencies: It uses distance self-learning with a practical approach through internships.	Ecuador	2009	Compuinformática: Distance Education School and Occupational Training Center	School and Occupational Training Center
Pedagogical Domain: Digital Competencies: Aimed at refugees taught programming and web design, developing skills for the labor market and connecting them with companies.	The Netherlands	2019	Hackyourfuture	Reintegration Programs

Key/Innovative Feature	Country	Year (the practice took place)	Iniciative/ Program	Model Type
Pedagogical Domain: Citizen Training: Develops personal and interpersonal skills, basic language and math skills, and digital, financial, environmental, health, and civic education for active participation in society.	United Kingdom	2019	Citizens′ Curriculum	Second Chance School
Work with the Family and the Community: It seeks to address out-of-schooling in the transition from Primary to Secondary Education, working with families as pedagogical allies, generating workshops, and providing tools to the family.	Uruguay	2009	Community Classrooms Programs: Educational Bridge	Reintegration Program
Work with the Family and Community: Community model focused on population in marginalized situations, developing gang recovery work and drug abuse rehabilitation. Young leaders with similar experiences act as tutors. Monitoring programs are carried out in the street.	Guatemala	2009	Positive Peers Grupo Ceiba Educational Programs	Reintegration Program
Program Management Domain: Linkage between State and Civil Society: Associative model in which companies adopt districts with high illiteracy rates and citizens adopt students to bear the costs of literacy programs. It also incorporates community and religious organizations with its popular educators.	Brazil	2005	Literacy Program	Second Chance School

Key/Innovative Feature	Country	Year (the practice took place)	Iniciative/ Program	Model Type
Program Management Domain: Development of technical schools with a practical curriculum and remediation of primary education, with an early vocational counseling system. Flexibility in the school system for mobility between the different educational modalities.	Finland	2006	Linkage between Primary and Secondary Education	Out-of- Schooling Prevention Program
Program Management Domain: Monetary Incentives for Schooling: It targets the most impoverished families in rural areas, with stipends and school supplies to prevent children from working. The students with the most lags receive a stipend from participating in job training programs.	Bangladesh	2019	ROSC II	Second Chance Schools
Linkage of Training for Employment: Modular curriculum that integrates students' informal know-how and previous work experiences with information and formal knowledge of the workplace.	Mexico	2005	Education for Life and Work Model	Second Chance Schools
Linkage of Training for Employment: They develop teamwork, self-knowledge, interpersonal skills, responsibility, and emotional management, individually and flexibly for job placement.	Spain	2020	E2O Transversal Skills	Second Chance Schools

Key/Innovative Feature	Country	Year (the practice took place)	Iniciative/ Program	Model Type
Linkage of Training for Employment: Activities for developing a vocational project and practical learning of different professions through a Project- Based Learning model.	Morocco	2019	The Personal Project	Out-of- Schooling Prevention Program
Linkage of Training for Employment: Academic and labor approach where students obtain the high school certificate and learn to work in construction, building houses for vulnerable people. It has spread to several countries.	United States	2020	YouthBuild	Second Chance Schools
Linkage of Training for Employment: Academic and labor approach with stable funding from the State. Students do internships and are paid for participating in the program.	Ireland	2019	Youthreach Program	Second Chance Schools
Linkage of Training for Employment: Academic and labor focus. It awards a high school certificate and facilitates entry to a technical specialization. It is an option for students who have left the school system or prefer more hands-on learning. It offers practical experiences in companies and social and cultural institutions.	Germany	2019	Produktives Lernen (Productive Learning)	Second Chance Schools

Key/Innovative Feature	Country	Year (the practice took place)	Iniciative/ Program	Model Type
Consideration of Gender: It uses the "learning-by-doing" methodology, focusing on developing productive projects and micro-enterprises from a gender perspective. The project also grants microcredits from \$ 300 to \$ 15,500.	Ecuador	2005	PROCALMUC (Education and Training for Improving the Quality of Life of Rural Women in Ecuador)	Job Training Program
Consideration of Gender: Support participants with enrollment in technical programs and universities, assistance with their housing situation, family relationships, care and custody of children, and employment discrimination, as well as addressing personal barriers such as illness and substance use. Psychosocial assistance through psychological counseling and academic tutoring.	United States	2005	PROVE Project for the Social Reintegration of ex-Women Prisoners	Social and Educational Reintegration Program

Source: Compiled by the authors.

IV.B. **Good National Practices**

IV.B.1.

Good Practices in the Psychosocial Domain

IV.B.1.i. Teacher-Student Bond: Espinoza et al. (2019), in interviews with different actors from eight educational communities of second chance schools in Chile, identified the following positive aspects:

The support given by teachers to their students, with more personalized monitoring to respond to academic demands;

- The variety of assessment methods used by teachers;
- The patience expressed in the teaching monitoring (they repeat until everyone understands) and emotional and affective levels.

In addition, students positively perceive that the school is welcoming and not authoritarian but has a specific structure and rules.

IV.B.1.ii. Developing a Personal Intervention Tool: **Electrocardiogram:** This practice is one of the experiences from the Educational Reintegration Programs implemented by SENAME (SENAME, 2016). A tool that seeks to facilitate the diagnosis and monitoring of the

intervention progress was created. Children or adolescents can graph, together with their tutor, the key moments or milestones of their history, starting from a central line, placing dots that can later connect with lines, similar to the graphic record of an electrocardiogram. This instrument allows them to rethink their biographical trajectory and see how the meaning keeps changing. It allows them to make sense of adverse events, changing cognitive and emotional patterns, and thus favor personal growth with new perspectives, skills, and goals, making achievements visible. On the other hand, the concrete material, which resembles the heartbeat, facilitates reflection on their process, identifying both the intensities of the positive and negative events, the emotions that aroused, aspects that remain and have changed, and the consequences of actions and decisions. In addition, it allows them to evaluate their participation in the project and set goals meta-reflectively. Therefore, the instrument should ideally be applied at the beginning and end of the processes, linking disengagement from school and reschooling. A similar format of this instrument has been used in the United Nations Foundation's global Rise Up program (2019), which trains adolescent women in leadership and activism in their communities.

IV.B.1.iii. Linkage of the Psychosocial with the Pedgogical: *Mi Espacio de Aprendizaje*: An Instance of Re-enchantment: This project was carried out from 2005 to 2008 in Colina and Peñalolén, with teams of professionals from SENAME (UNESCO, 2009b). Participating children and adolescents between 7 and 17 years old, who have dropped out of the school system more than two years ago, face serious risks associated with poverty and lack of social support. Their educational context is usually threatening or violating their fundamental rights. Both districts, especially in the intervention areas, present very low health, education, income, and habitability (UNESCO, 2009b).

The project is organized along three lines of action:

Figure 19: Action Lines for the "Mi Espacio de Aprendizaje" Project

Educational Process: Building an alternative educational space, based on the Integrative Interactional Methodology (MII, in its Spanish acronym) from author Nolfa Ibáñez and the Rights Approach. These orientations imply participatory learning spaces in which boys, girls, and young people are protagonists of their school trajectories. In addition, the MII considers students as a whole, views cognitive processes in an integrated way, emphasizes emotional relationships, joint action, and reflection, and respects the sociocultural context of learning, using simple teaching materials.

Psychosocial Process: Develop psychosocial competencies and skills in children and adolescents to reaffirm them as persons and subjects with rights and the real possibility of exercising them. Develop a sensitization process to families and significant adults regarding the meaning of education and the role they play in the process of their children. Additionally, the community is involved (establishing territorial networks with neighborhood councils, local government, educational, health, and other institutions for comprehensive work) to develop initiatives that aim to improve the conditions and quality of life of children and adolescents as part of an ongoing task.

Strengthening and Expectancy for the Future: Motivate the children and adolescents to rebuild their school trajectories and seek the most appropriate forms of educational continuity, either through the remediation of their studies - equivalency exams for primary education, supporting their process of reintegration and maintenance in the formal educational system, or integration into specific study programs and job training, such as Comprehensive Adult Education Centers (CEIA) and Infocap, among others.

The program is characterized by a pedagogical approach that emphasizes: a respectful and affective bond between students and teachers; a pedagogical didactics that uses knowledge, resources, skills, and sociocultural characteristics as a means of learning; and the permanent incorporation of the family of participating students as collaborators in the process (UNESCO, 2009b). The evaluation of the program participants highlights the positive impression of the project teachers, identifying characteristics such as their patience, the understanding they show, and the adoption of a slower pace of lessons according to their schedules. A revaluation of abilities and expectations of themselves and their environment is activated in the students. Regarding quantitative indicators, the strategy has significant achievements in the enrollment of students in the formal school system. The majority of students who reach the final stage of proficiency exams satisfactorily pass the level taken in this new modality. Of the thirty children and adolescents from Peñalolén, 28 completed the 2005 Educational Project. Of them, 23 took proficiency exams for remediating their primary education studies, with all the students passing the exams. In 2006, 66 children and adolescents participated, of which 27 satisfactorily completed their equivalency exams, 20 carried out a process of pedagogical support for their successful formal education, and 19 left the project. In 2007, 60 children and adolescents participated, of which 52 finished their learning processes in this modality, 50 of them enrolled in formal education institutions (UNESCO, 2009b).

As for weaknesses, the precarious networking with other organizations in the territory is identified. As a result of this situation, the professional team's feeling of loneliness and overwhelm is evidenced, as they do

not have collaborations that allow a smooth and permanent reintegration process. In turn, teachers of the program indicate that they need more theoretical-technical inputs to update their knowledge in MII, which could reduce teachers' burnout and generate an exchange of teaching experiences in adverse contexts (UNESCO, 2009b).

IV.B.1.iv. Second Chance Schools of Fundación **Súmate:** The schools of Fundación Súmate from Hogar de Cristo belong to a group of educational establishments that define themselves as second chance schools in their institutional mission and their curricular and pedagogical project. In their operation, they have the exact requirements as any other educational establishment, which results in limitations because they must comply with regulations, evaluation standards, and criteria for curricular implementation that are not adequate for their population and functioning conditions. Besides, they are financed with the same subsidy as the rest of the system, that is, by average attendance, in circumstances in which the complexity of the cases they serve implies a more significant investment for the restitution of violated rights and that low attendance is the starting point in the case of these students (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

Below, some findings regarding what works in the processes, from the experiences of the different schools of this Foundation, are presented (Centro de Estudios de la Niñez, 2014). They have been placed in this section as they reveal the centrality of the bonding aspect, school climate, and the strengthening of their self-image, which can be understood within the psychosocial domain, in addition to favoring pedagogical processes.

Figure 20:

Educational Model of the Fundación Súmate Schools (Source: Centro de Estudios de la Niñez, 2014).

School Climate as a Retention Element: The social climate in schools is positively evaluated. The interviewees state that they build harmonious coexistence relationships with their classmates (87%), form friendships (85.2%), enjoy lessons (74.3%), and establish cooperative relationships with others in their studies (63.7%). However, it is necessary to consider that the bond between them is not without conflict. Practices learned in other interaction environments, such as aggressive behavior to deal with conflict, do not disappear completely. Situations involving conflict include the expression of insults or teasing between classmates (82.7%), followed by discussions (78.9%). To a lesser extent, physical assaults (65.5%), threats between classmates (57.7%), and robbery or theft (40.5%). Situations of physical assaults between teachers and students are much less common (14.4%). However, it raises concern that 35.6% of students report insults or teasing between teachers and children or adolescents (35.6%). It is noted that conflict situations that involve violent physical actions are more frequent in men, evidencing gender constructions that promote the use of force and aggression among men as a sign of masculinity. On the contrary, in adolescent girls, verbal disputes expressed in insults or teasing are more prevalent, adjusting to the expected configuration of the female role. The retention of students occurs through the creation of spaces where interests, youth culture, and intergenerational dialogue are expressed. The fact that 84.2% mention that they are allowed to wear their hair according to their aesthetic definitions and 82% point out that they have no restrictions to listen to the type of music they prefer inside the establishment speaks of an inclusive and integrating management modality that the students appreciate.

Bond with Teachers: These favorable relations are crucial for learning. The predominant factor in schools is teachers' focus on the students' needs and a sound organization within the classroom. Of the children and adolescents who attend second chance schools, 85% are happy with their current teachers. This experience differs significantly from previous school experiences, where tension and conflict with the teaching staff were frequent. The main reason for the satisfaction of the interviewees with their teachers is related to the latter's concern about their study and learning (66.1%). Secondly, there is the teacher's concern for teaching content until all students learn (39.7%), emphasized mainly by women, with 51.2%, markedly above 33.3% of men. Although the percentage of students who indicate that they are not satisfied with their teachers is low (14.4%), the main reasons for their dissatisfaction relate to teachers' episodes of anger and that lessons do not arouse the interest of the student body. The narration that emerges from the children and adolescents shows that the teacher becomes significant emotional support. In turn, to avoid school absenteeism, the teachers take the initiative to visit the students at their homes to find out the reasons for their absence, deepening their knowledge of the socio-cultural reality in which children and adolescents develop daily.

Strengthening the Participants' Self-image: Children and adolescents who try to reintegrate into an educational system that has been hostile to them on previous occasions question their intellectual and social skills to face this task. For this reason, it is necessary to strengthen the psychological resources that allow them to face this challenge in favorable conditions to persist in this goal. The primary tool that their current school has given them is linked to the ability to learn, which represents 20.4% of the

answers. Experiencing their learning capacity is more significant in women than in men, with 26.3% and 17.3%, respectively. The students report having changed their mentality, focusing again on their studies and project themselves into the future in academic terms, recovering aspirations and expectations, and reconnecting with the necessary confidence in themselves to carry out their plans. They speak of greater self-control, which has allowed them to put aside violent reactions that in other stages of their life cycle have been part of their habitual behavioral repertoire. They highlight the academic and motivational aspects, but also the appreciation of the school as a nourishing space for socialization. The intervention model of second chance schools is aimed at strengthening the self-esteem of the students. The figures obtained in the study show that the participants feel capable of learning (82%) and building good relationships with their teachers (80.3%) and with their classmates (76.4%). In this new socialization scenario, students report feeling capable of advancing not only with their primary education studies (29.9%) and finishing secondary education (13.7%), but they even visualize a later educational cycle upon graduation from secondary school, motivating themselves to enter a university (29.9%). The figures indicate that 46.9% of those interviewed rate their school performance as "good," and 28.5% consider it "very good."

The educational model of these Second Chance Schools seeks to ensure that the student develops both academic and interpersonal skills and promotes active participation of the family in the educational process of the students. It assumes that the retaining factors to the school system are found not only in the students nor in their respective families but also within the educational establishments. From this perspective, the school is assumed as a space for children and adolescents to expand their trust networks, exploit their potential, learn to work as a team, practice collaboration and conflict resolution dynamics, and strengthen their interest in learning. To make up for the learning deficiencies generated in regular schools from which the students come, this model defines a smaller number of students per classroom, contemplates the recruitment of teachers who have the specific competencies and skills to work with this type of children and adolescents and adapts the curriculum to lagging students (Centro de Estudios de la Niñez, 2014).

The evaluation conducted by Centro de Estudios de la Niñez (2014) found that, although the importance of surveying the psychosocial component of these schools is recognized, the excessive focus on the students' psychosocial strengthening became a weakness at the expense of the academic aspect, which in some cases would translate into low academic achievement.

IV.B.2. Good Practices in the Pedagogical Domain

IV.B.2.i. Pedagogical Walks: This practice is one of the experiences of the Educational Reintegration Programs implemented by the Chilean National Minors' Service - SENAME (SENAME, 2016). This experience sought to improve the teaching-learning process by solving one of the usual problems students point out from their formal school experience: that school did not cover the contents relevant or applicable to their daily reality. Instead, the contents were brought closer to the students based on their interests and adopting a local, territorial perspective. In the Pedagogical Walks, students take guided visits to iconic cultural places in their neighborhood to rekindle their motivation and

cognitive engagement through an active interest in learning. Participants can appropriate the territory, opening possibilities for taking action in that space, see it as a rights, enjoyment, and shared care place. Guides accompany the activity so students can explore on a targeted basis, learn the fundamental concepts, and relate them to their experiences. Combining the educational with the recreational aspects strengthens the bonds between them and generates collective identity, which improves adherence to the project. The experience is easily replicable following the logic: identifying iconic places with cultural significance/ preparing of relevant curricular content/structuring groups of participants from the learning levels and topics perspective/preparing assessment tools/ preparing logistics/ conducting the visit/developing assessment activities (summative, formative and procedural).

IV.B.3.

Good Practices that Work with the Family and the Community

IV.B.3.i. "Yo me sumo al PDE" ("I Join the PDE"):

Connecting with Responsible Adults: This practice is one of the experiences of the Educational Reintegration Programs implemented by MINEDUC (SENAME, 2016), which sought to strengthen family ties and the role of a responsible adult and involve them in the process of children and adolescents, for which workshops were held to present the project, and educate in aspects of childhood and adolescence development, based on the evidence that reveals the positive role that tutors can have and their forecast on the valuing of education. This program was implemented by Fundación Súmate, which belongs to Hogar de Cristo. The need to generate this involvement is because the team observes that, in general, the project participants have parental relationships that are weak and show little commitment to the educational process and the integral development of their children. In many cases, the participants have a significant figure; however, this does not translate into responsible and active participation of this adult in the

student's education. On the contrary, as described by professionals, they often perceive their parents as a figure that is "distant and unaware" of the process they are experiencing. Therefore, four sessions with dynamic and recreational activities were held, information on support networks was delivered, the issue of problem alcohol or drug use and adolescence was examined indepth, and parents' commitment was strengthened through a certificate of recognition. It is noted as a prerequisite for this type of intervention to generate a climate of trust in which professionals and adults in the family work together to ensure that participants can resume their educational trajectory. This may be difficult to achieve when the participants' families have gone through frequent intervention processes, which often generates exhaustion and rejection of professionals (SENAME, 2016).

IV.B.4. Good Management Practices

IV.B.4.i. Early Warning System: This practice is one of the experiences that are part of the Educational Reintegration Programs implemented by MINEDUC. Risk indicators are reviewed, such as over-age, absenteeism, low grades, and behavior problems, which may increase the probability of disengagement, taking action through tutoring support and strengthening in schools. The above requires coordinated work of the monitoring teams with the schools of the district. Intra-school and extra-school strategies are set, as well as relations with local organizations. The "Escuela Libre" ("Free School") was also created for children and adolescents who left school to attend formal classes or tutoring that take place in the students' homes or on the street, so they can return to school or take equivalency exams. This system recognizes the contextual characteristics of children and adolescents' vulnerability, including domestic, neighborhood, and police violence. Based on these conditions, the programs propose that alternatives such as Escuela Libre have the same status as formal schools (SENAME, 2016).

IV.B.4.ii. Escuela SS Juan XIII (SS Juan XXIII School) (San Joaquín District): This school developed an information team in charge of collecting the students' data and systematizing that information to build profiles of their educational trajectories and get to know the community they work. This system has given them more significant inputs to understand the problems and experiences of the students fully. In this school, a working modality is also included. A tutor teacher goes to the student's home to bridge the school and the families and build a meaningful bond around integrating the students into the school system (CPCE, 2016).

IV.B.5. Summary

A synthesis of the highlights for each of the programs reviewed is presented below:

Table 10: **Good National Practices in Second Chance Education**

Key/Innovative Feature	Year (the practice took place)	Iniciative/Program	Model Type
Psychosocial Domain: Specific tool to work with students on rethinking their biographical trajectories, important milestones, and their meaning, make achievements visible, and set goals.	2015	Developing a personal intervention tool: Electrocardiogram (SENAME)	Educational Reintegration Program
Psychosocial Domain: Linkage of the Psychosocial with the Pedagogical: The program combines psychosocial skills development and strengthening and raising expectations with the Integrative Interactional Methodology and the Pedagogical Rights approach.	2015	My Learning Space: An Instance of Re-enchantment (SENAME)	Educational Reintegration Program
Psychosocial Domain: Seeks to promote a good school climate as an element of retention, the bond between students and teachers, and strengthening the students' self-image.	2013	Second Chance Schools (Fundación Súmate)	Second Chance Schools
Pedagogical Domain: Contextual relevance: Guided visits to iconic places in the neighborhood, generating a link with the community and territory and promoting meaningful learning.	2015	Pedagogical Walks (SENAME)	Educational Reintegration Program

Key/Innovative Feature	Year (the practice took place)	Iniciative/Program	Model Type
Work with the Family and the Community: Seeks to strengthen the role of responsible adults, conducting recreational workshops and providing information on development stages.	2015	Yo me sumo al PDE: Connecting with Responsible Adults (MINEDUC)	Educational Reintegration Program
Program Management Domain: Reviews risk indicators to carry out early interventions in schools with tutoring support and strengthening. It also develops a "Free School" for children and adolescents who have left the school system to help their reintegration.	2015	Early Warning System (MINEDUC)	Out-of-Schooling Prevention and Educational Reintegration Program
Program Management Domain: Prepares profiles of the students' educational trajectories from the available information and makes home visits to strengthen bonds with them.	2015	Escuela SS Juan XXIII (San Joaquín District)	Second Chance School

Source: Compiled by the authors.

EXPERTS' PERSPECTIVES ON SECOND CHANCE EDUCATION, GENDER AND EDUCATION, JOB TRAINING, AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP TO CONTEMPLATE A REINTEGRATION EDUCATION WITH A GENDER-BASED APPROACH IN CHILE

The second part of this study examines the views of experts in the fields of Second Chance Education (SCE), Job Training and Entrepreneurship, and Education and Gender to link these perspectives to think of a labor-oriented SCE aimed at women.

I. ANALYSIS OF THE INTERVIEWS WITH EXPERTS IN SECOND CHANCE EDUCATION, GENDER AND EDUCATION, JOB TRAINING, AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP

It is possible to identify ideas about out-of-schooling and students who drop out, which respond to contrasting views of the phenomenon and account for different underlying ideologies to explain it. On the one hand, a more traditional view appears that positions those who have dropped out as problem-subjects, focusing on what they cannot do and their difficulties when facing learning processes and school socialization. On the other hand, the speeches of the interviewees show an empathetic look at the structural situation that has led these youth to leave the regular system, and they focus on their resources and resilience capability. Sometimes, even in the speech of the same person, these contrasts appear as polyphonic voices, which can be understood from the out-of-schooling phenomenon's complexity and the strength of the deficit models⁵, with which social problems have historically been seen. However, resource models are integrated into the programmatic statements of reintegration and job training projects.

Below there are some examples from a Deficit Model perspective:

Many have learning problems such as dyslalia, dyslexia, or a limited IQ, so how to help them move on anyway? It usually happens that they have very little perseverance, they are not resilient, with very little get disappointed in the system and leave. They end up validating the "I am not capable" perception, then how to take them out of that vicious circle and put them into a virtuous one? (...) Every student who enters adult education has strong emotional problems because they have not finished their studies. On the other hand, we receive youth who do not adapt to regular education. They all enter with problems. (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

We were thinking from the logic of children and adolescents who had educational needs of all kinds, not just a deficiency or within the ranges that the Educational Integration Program has (...). But, still, very generally speaking, one worked under the logic of remediating. (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

^{5.} According to Ainscow (1995), the deficit model is a therapeutic and individual view of deficiencies grounded in the medical-psychological model. It labels, classifies, and hierarchizes people, having a segregating and homogenizing character. From this model, students with some difficulty are considered as a problem. On the other hand, a resource or asset model emphasizes the person and the group's capabilities and solutions.

At the level of textual analysis, the terms that account for this social practice include: "learning problems," "dyslalia," "dyslexia," "limited," "little perseverance," "emotional problems," "educational needs," "deficiency." On the other hand, it is possible to identify verbal constructions that add the action capacity to the reintegration programs ("how to get them out of that vicious circle?", ("one worked under the logic of remediating"), which would act as the "youth saviors" from a superiority position, rather than youth as protagonists of their lives.

On the other hand, examples from a Resource Model perspective are presented below:

We work with women of legal age, 18 years and up, and a percentage, especially those older, have not finished school. In the beginning, we had a minimum requirement of schooling, but later we realized that it did not matter a bit, because we provide a close follow-up, we have worked with women who reached the third year of primary school, and they can make a business plan (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago)

More and more adolescents enter university and manage to study careers in Professional Institutes, many related to gastronomy, aesthetics, or beauty in some cases. I think this has to do with the fact that those workshops were very good at the Foundation. They studied in more informal but institutes anyway, and others were thinking of entering Engineering. Several students were thinking of Mining and Mechanics. There is an increasing expectation of "I can break this, and I can continue studying." (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

At the level of textual analysis, the verbs that indicate capability or action account for this view from the resource model: "they can make a business plan," "enter university," "manage to study," "I can break this," "I can continue studying." From here, one can view the SCE and job training programs supporting youth to develop their potential, where their action to develop their life projects is recognized.

The literature on out-of-schooling has recorded these opposing views, noting that many of the public policies to avoid out-of-schooling have focused on the deficiencies or problems of students, such as their conditions of poverty, drug use, and criminality, understood as factors causing the dropout. Instead, as a contrasting model, these public policies could be guided by the notion of boys and girls as subjects with full rights, which would imply the development of a preventive policy that considers academic factors, frequency of attendance, behavioral and motivational factors of boys and girls. In addition, that emphasizes how to improve intra-school factors that push children and adolescents out of school (Centro de Estudios de la Niñez, 2014).

In the field of entrepreneurship, it is enlightening to carry out a discourse analysis based on social practice, as two opposing ideological views appear: the meritocratic one, which proposes women entrepreneurs that by making an effort, they will be able to achieve their dreams and expand their employment possibilities; and one that follows the critical perspective, which recognizes that structural inequalities impose significant barriers for women entrepreneurs, from their intersectional positionality, can improve their socioeconomic conditions. Job training and entrepreneurship programs acknowledge, in part, this dilemma. They have started to promote dependent employment over entrepreneurship. This is because, in many cases, entrepreneurship training turned into a false promise considering realities such as the fact that most women develop precarious enterprises and out of necessity rather than taking advantage of an opportunity and the difficulties they face when reconciling work with caregiving and family responsibilities. However, the investment made by the state and NGOs in this type of women's entrepreneurship programs, accompanied by an empowering discursive practice, raises high expectations regarding their ability to generate social mobility. These ideological tensions are identified in the following statements by people who work in entrepreneurship programs:

Women entrepreneurs' profile shows they enroll in everything as there are many opportunities aimed at entrepreneurs. Still, they have a low attendance rate as they cannot be everywhere. They yearn for it, but they cannot attend because sometimes the business is themselves; thus, attending a training session means stop producing, considering that they must reconcile caregiving, family life, etc. They are in everything at once. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago)

In general, women entrepreneurs who are more affluent can support themselves without making profits because someone else provides enough to the household for daily support. They have more support networks, and they do not have as much difficulty in sorting out childcare. The women we work with don't have any of that. They always need money. In general, in the districts where we work, there is profound mistrust associated with childcare institutions. They are terrified of sending their children to kindergarten. On the other hand, the offer of the Integra Foundation or the JUNJI's kindergartens is still limited (...) We use our networks often to facilitate all they do not have access to as female entrepreneurship is concentrated in the two quintiles, the poorest and the richest. In the wealthiest quintile, there are certain backs that the women we work with do not have. In general, there is a very romantic idea of entrepreneurship. As far as

possible, I think they should try dependent employment because it is safer, more stable if you ask me. We work with women in a situation where it seems that entrepreneurship is almost the only alternative, in the sense that they have childcare responsibilities or such low education that the jobs they could access are very much precarious. I would implement one more line of dependent job placement, especially if you have women participating who do not have children. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago)

At the discursive practice level, the entry into a moment of meta-reflection about the own limitations on the part of the entrepreneurship programs implies recognizing class and gender barriers, among others, and how they interact, hindering the progress of women's ventures. Furthermore, this questioning on the romanticization of entrepreneurship indicates the need to link the ideological views of individual empowerment and critical perspectives about social injustice. This aims to help, from the job training programs, generate the conditions for entrepreneurship to be a decent work alternative and offer a broader range of options that includes training for dependent employment.

The following table summarizes some of the general findings in terms of contrasting ideologies emerging at the social practice level in the speeches of the interviewees:

Table 1:
General Elements of the Discourse Context

View on the out-of-school individual	Deficit or problem-subject model	Resource, asset or capability model
Relevant factors in out-of-schooling	Focus on extracurricular factors (poverty, drug addiction, criminality)	Focus on intracurricular factors and on the prevention of out-of-schooling
Entrepreneurship models	Individual empowerment and meritocratic perspective	Critical perspective or structural view

I.A. Teachers

Concerning teachers, some ideas reflect contrasting historical imaginary: teachers as a traditionalist union, closed to change, reproducing stereotypes, resisting the help that other disciplines can give education; versus a vision of these as work and emotionally overburdened, under precarious working conditions, in the case of second chance education, performing psychological counseling and social assistance tasks in addition to being in charge of the pedagogical aspect, and subject to interventionism "from above," exercised by professionals in other domains who are not familiar with what happens in the classroom:

"... and the world of teachers is a very complex world to enter if coming from another field. There is an underestimation of the contributions that other disciplines can make. It continues to reproduce some issues very much "stored in the hard drive," that cost a lot to change because the teacher's discourse has been installed since their initial training. When there is a dropout, nowadays, the fault of reproducing all these issues is of the adults (...) I finished school in 98. It was a girls' school where you couldn't wear sportswear because doing so was for men. We were not allowed to do anything, and that was the adults' discourse of that time. Young adults have been able to break that stereotype, but schools are still full of very old teachers who continue to reproduce the adult-centric discourse (...) That need to hide something as simple as new forms of relationships that, when looked at from the teachers' perspective, have a double talk: on the one hand, "Yes, I accept you, because you are a human being just like every human being, like a drug addict, like a criminal," but if you are going to have a love-affective-sexual bond with a person of the same gender or gender identity, you have to do it in your private sphere, at home, locked within four walls, where no one sees you because it is like an offense to society. And that discourse was very much present in the teachers' heads when I did the research. (Education and Gender Specialist)

Many teachers realize the requirements and what is needed; for example, that teacher evaluation is based more on anthropological and ethnographic methodologies than on the types of evaluation we have today. The problem is that the teaching career is profoundly devalued, and the teacher's figure, in general, is not asked much about how to improve the conditions of the schools. (Education and Gender Specialist)

Teachers bring their own life experiences to the classroom, and we have all been educated under gender biases and stereotypes, so they replicate and reproduce the same thing. They built pedagogical tools to include in the different subjects daily, from Mechanics to History, Citizen Training, etc. Still, it was a collaborative process that they modified continuously and managed to prepare a manual themselves. They went to other schools, gave talks. and presented it to their colleagues from other establishments. It has a different value for the teachers when they generate it themselves and when it is taught or socialized by a colleague. What has happened in education in the last decades is that teachers have been ignored and mistreated. We have engineers intervening in schools with engineering solutions, so teachers must empower themselves on this issue. If you give the space, it goes pretty well. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago)

Specialists in job training programs and academic experts in Education and Gender highlight the importance of recognizing teachers' autonomy and knowledge as many times, the imposition of interventions from above generates reluctance. This aspect is central when thinking about improving the school system as a whole through teachers to contribute to the prevention of out-of-schooling.

It is clear from these discursive tensions that considering the pressures to which students and teachers are subjected systemically, the resistance and challenging attitudes that can be generated and escalated (especially in contexts of greater socioeconomic vulnerability), and developing educational policies that consider these aspects and invest in teacher training instead of being punitive, can be strategies that allow overcoming dichotomous views concerning teachers and valuing the role they play in SCE.

Regarding the overarching issues that emerge among teachers and second chance education, the relevance of having a multidisciplinary team that allows addressing the needs of students comprehensively, teacher training, both in pedagogical and psychosocial domains, in addition to non-sexist education, and fostering a close teacher-student bond with personalized support during their participation in the programs is highlighted.

I.A.1. Multidisciplinary Teams

The analyzes from various international and national educational reintegration initiatives (Hogar de Cristo, 2019) show that second chance school teams must be multidisciplinary and consist of a principal, teachers, and a psychosocial team (psychologists, social workers, special education teachers, occupational therapists, among others). This aims to promote a good school climate, support students in their educational trajectory, manage conflicts in the relationship between teachers and students, develop a cohesive work team, intervene with families and establish links between them and different services and organizations in areas such as health and work, among others. In addition, a multidisciplinary team allows a look at the phenomenon of school dropout as a multidimensional and dynamic process.

As the educational reintegration efforts require working on the psychosocial field apart from the pedagogical field, there must be multidisciplinary teams in the

schools or programs, with good communication between the different professionals. Still, it is also crucial to train the teachers in these aspects, as the pedagogical work in the classroom will have to include this area. Although this is present in any teaching-learning process, it is intensified in second-chance education or job training in vulnerable contexts, as the following examples show. It is also an essential factor to consider when professionals who are not trained work as teachers.

Teachers do what they can in the psychosocial aspect because they are not experts on this subject: they foster them, understand their issues. If they cannot attend due to a problem, they tell them not to worry and send them worksheets, ask them how they are doing, what problems they have, but this is very basic. Students need a psychologist, a social worker, a special educator. These professionals are critical in an adult school. They can access the PIE program, but they are not required, so not everybody has it. (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

In general, psychosocial monitoring is conducted by psychologists, so it is thematized in group terms, which I think is highly important because some manage to say this with significant discomfort. The mere fact of carrying on the conversation and that similar stories appear already provides relief to say, "I am not the only one; I am not alone in this." And the other thing is that, as a result of those more group conversations, the same people who coordinate these spaces for conversation and psychosocial support conduct follow-up, contact the other monitors, and tell them that a student is suffering during the entrepreneurship workshop because something is happening. Thus, this also alerts this other monitor who is not a psychologist, who usually are commercial engineers, who may have a different sensitivity to that, to implement different strategies with that woman in particular. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago)

In the training structure of the program, within the technical component, they include the teacher who spends the most time with them, who is a specialist in the trade, for example, the gastronomy teacher is someone who knew gastronomy, and that's why we hired him. We trained him to become an instructor, with some peculiarities of the public with whom we work and methodologies we have identified through experience and literature in adult training. In the cross-sectional aspect, we have many teachers: volunteer and professional teachers from different areas who give one or two lessons a week with that group of students. For example, the Law lesson is given by teachers who are lawyers and don't give lessons regularly, so we also accompany them. This allows students to look at different ways of giving a lesson. These teachers consider the development of the class not only as a job and, because of the intrinsic motivation of volunteering, want to teach something they know (...) And also to reinforce teachers who, without having the training to serve as teachers, can transmit specific methodological tools and the institutional nature of developing a good lesson. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago)

It is also stated in the literature (Hogar de Cristo, 2019) as by the interviewees, the importance of the team meeting regularly, where topics related to pedagogical strategies, difficulties and good practices, and student-specific issues that allow fostering their school trajectory are addressed.

It is essential in our intervention experience that this multidisciplinary team has frequent instances for meetings. We meet once a week, where different topics are brought up from different areas: from trades, where the difficulty of learning or having courage may appear. Then, the psychologist working with the group can interpret and make some sense of it to produce a strategy with the whole team to address that situation. It is a view that moves all the time from the group to the

individual because the spaces where they meet are collective, and the idea is that support networks can be built from that group. That is why we do not work with each one individually - besides the fact that it would be a waste of resources and impossible - because we believe that sometimes the solutions come from the women themselves. So, methodologically, if the spaces are shared, but you also have mechanisms to generate individual spaces, it allows you to address the issues that may arise. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil. Santiago).

In this case, the importance of an articulated work of the multidisciplinary team is also shown. Thus, for example, the psychologist can recognize aspects such as low levels of self-esteem in the program participants, which may explain the difficulties in facing new challenges in the classroom, and work together with the teachers to establish pedagogical strategies that consider the psychosocial aspects.

I.A.2. Teacher Training

The literature emphasizes the central role of teachers in second-chance schools, which makes it essential to invest in their training and ensure good working conditions (better salaries, adjustment of the number of teaching hours, workload according to international standards, personalized support from a mentor, psychological support, adequate infrastructure), to ensure their permanence, avoid labor turnover and thus give continuity to the relationship established with the students. On the other hand, the team's professional training is critical as working with out-of-school youth requires, in addition to academic training, social and emotional skills, since they are young people who have had a biographical experience of rights violations, including access to education. Therefore, these teams require professionals with psychosocial knowledge, experience working with the child-adolescent population, familiarity with the socio-cultural situation

of children and adolescents from vulnerable sectors, and pedagogical capacity to re-enchant participants with the educational experience, in addition to the necessary disciplinary knowledge (Hogar de Cristo, 2019; SENAME, 2016).

In the case of the second-chance schools from a civil society foundation, the emphasis on comprehensive teacher training has proven to be successful, both in terms of reducing turnover and professionalizing their staff:

I think the advantage is that most of the foundation's teachers have a high level of training. The concept of the foundation is to have a whole type of teacher, but it also invests in that, in the teacher's training. So, a recent graduate woman may join. Still, when she graduates after 4, 5, or 6 years, she is generally a person who has already acquired knowledge, both in the formative area to have more socioemotional tools and in the technical area. There is coaching in the management team, but also with teachers and employees, and workshops. I think there is a significant investment there, especially if you propose a type of pedagogical innovation. There has to be a work with the teacher, a teacher's level of expertise. The teachers have this model that works with skills or competencies' development. In general, the turnover is not very high. You can find people who have been working for 5, 6, 10, 20 years. (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

Considering that the level of pedagogical innovation in second-chance schools is higher than in the regular education system, applying these alternative methodologies requires appropriate training, especially considering that these models are not usually present, at least in a comprehensive manner, in initial teacher training.

Another critical area of teacher training is education from a gender perspective, starting from initial training to combat the effects of gender socialization and deconstruct heteronormative and patriarchal views. This aspect is crucial as the harmful effects of gender differences can be seen as early as preschool:

In the 2018 Gender Guidelines for Kindergarten Education, there are some elements for kindergarten educators, who have also been feminized and continue to reproduce a logic of care and motherhood. They also enhance the type of interaction and the quality of interactions differently with boys and girls. On the other hand, it may sound simple, but it has future effects: how they enhance elements that have to do with motor development. which also conditions whether you manage to do some things or not. Therefore, they tend to promote motor development in boys: running, jumping, and fine motor skills in girls and then, if you make measurements, as some Physical Education students I had last year in a thesis made, on children in the second year of primary school, applying a test where they had to throw a ball, raise their hands and other movements, there were differences between boys and girls. (Education and Gender Specialist)

It has been studied how teachers' appraisals regarding "Women are good for humanities, and men are good for math and science" impact how students participate in class. There are figures regarding the number of times teachers call on a female student to participate in math and science versus a male. (Education and Gender Specialist)

The suggestion would be that they will have to train male teachers somehow, if there are going to be male teachers, either in feminist pedagogy or education with a gender approach, because education is not only the delivery of disciplinary knowledge, but there is a socio-affective or socio-emotional relationship linked to the concept of caring for the other, understanding that, when you educate, you are also concerned, occupied and linked to that other, not seeing it as care with the negative connotation that it has to be done by a woman. On the contrary, that element must be

present, but it has to be shared by male teachers. Therefore, one thing to consider would be to make them understand the logic behind the training project that is being put together, the fundamental educational project. It is not only "We want you to go and teach this group of women who dropped out (or were expelled, because there is a discussion about whether it is the society that excludes them) mathematics and language," but there has to be a project with a line and an approach behind, which they have to define if it is going to be from a feminist pedagogy or a critical pedagogy. And that must be at the core. (Education and Gender Specialist)

The different experiences and opinions of the interviewees reveal the importance of considering, as stated in the literature, gender equity in the training process of students of the pedagogy courses to make biases visible, make them aware and reverse them. When they become teachers, they will balance their manners and expectations of their students' performance and future possibilities. Also, considering that there are older teachers who will not have had this learning in their initial training and will be marked by a sexist national culture, it is necessary to examine these issues in the continuous training of teachers. The examples of areas in which gender inequality is manifested mentioned by the subject experts show the different aspects of teachers' discourse and actions that have a concrete effect on their students: differences in how gross versus fine motor skills are fostered, attributions of different abilities to boys and girls for the different disciplines, how they encourage the participation of one sex or the other in classes, among others, and which show a social practice with sexist ideologies, where an implicit hierarchy is established where men are above women and have. Therefore, they have greater rights to move expansively, to speak in classes, or to develop in the fields of Science and Mathematics.

I.A.3.

Teacher-Student Bond

In line with what the literature states about the importance of the teacher's bond with the students (Vadeboncoeur & Vellos, 2016; UNESCO, 2009; European Commission, 2001), the interviewees emphasize this aspect. They consider there is a strong potential among teachers for repairing negative perceptions about education and breaking gender stereotypes that negatively determine the school experience of girls and young women and the possibility of perpetuating these aspects when there is no awareness of them. Furthermore, the interviewees' testimonies show the emotional burden of the role, which involves an aspect of care, closeness, and empathy in difficult situations of the students, which requires an intersectional approach to understand the structural injustices they experience.

They are teachers who have a more social outlook. They take on other characteristics because it requires another management, another sensitivity, and another way to implement strategies. When students cannot attend because of their work, they send them worksheets and tutor them constantly. Schools usually have contingency plans that allow them to complement their absence from classes. Adult teachers have a lot of emotional burdens concerning the social problems that students have. (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

It is essential to be in the schoolyard with the students. It is very complex in regular formal education, the schoolyard shift, not understood as I stand and stay there, but as a strategy that allows you to reach the student differently. In such an instance, you probably have a different type of conversation. The girls talk to you about the house, the boyfriend, the party, and you get to interact differently. In general, the male teachers tended to go to the pitch, they played ball with the students, tournaments were organized, we had table soccer,

ping-pong tables, and there were different places where you could talk. The teachers sometimes would sit on a bench with about six students and started knitting and talking with the girls, and there were even teachers who played volleyball with other groups. The space for recess is transformed, we called it playful recess, and it was a space where you establish a relationship with the student in a different way, so when you get in the classroom, you at some point teach them. The validation of the students is different because you achieve a different relationship with them. We tried to call the students by their name, and I think that one of the biggest problems of the teachers, especially the new, was to learn their names quickly because it was essential for us to tell them their name and "You can't misbehave" or "What happened to you today, did you arrive safely?". (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

At the textual level, the vocabulary used to describe the psychosocial work of SCE teachers reinforces its close and empathetic nature, as well as its difference concerning the regular education system: "a more social outlook," "another management," "another sensitivity," "being in the schoolyard with the students," "interacting differently," "they started knitting and talking," "you establish a relationship with the student in a different way." This type of discourse alludes to a conception of the teaching profession as a job done "by vocation," which is not problematic until it translates into demands that exceed the position or the assumption that teachers must accept precarious working conditions as part of the profession. Although the interviewees do not explicitly mention burnout or physical problems, emotional and mental exhaustion in the face of demands, this corresponds to one of the aspects to be prevented that has been noted in the literature in SCE (UNESCO, 2009b). The description they make of the demanding teaching role in the programs shows that this could lead to an overload if spaces for care and adequate working conditions are not considered.

The literature in SCE recommends implementing a personalized support and follow-up system that ensures each student the support of a counselor who accompanies them during their stay in school and upon graduation, and who becomes a significant person for the student (in schools in Chile, the teachers themselves often exercise this role). To guarantee this personalized attention, the student-teacher ratio per school should not exceed 6:1 (Hogar de Cristo, 2019). Along the same lines are the suggestions of one of the experts in Education and Gender to think about a second-chance school:

I believe that there is also the issue of monitoring. They not only have to be trained in the subject matter and know how to teach the contents. It has been found that women benefit more from a closer monitoring, one on one, the well-known role model, both feminine and masculine. Feminine, because they can have models of women who could get ahead, overcome obstacles, which is a potent example and can have a much more intimate component, closer from the socioemotional perspective, not only from the contents. On the other hand, men must be trained and prepared to provide this type of support and not reproduce the same patriarchal logic that we already know. (Education and Gender Specialist)

Research has also described the importance of these role models having a similar trajectory to the students, with experience of overcoming different adversities and showing inclusive trajectories and positive life experiences (Hogar de Cristo, 2019). This is practiced in job training programs, where in some cases they incorporate former students as monitors, as they have seen that role models close to students allow them to identify and envision better alternative life projects:

A group of teachers, who are also volunteers, are former students. After graduating, they take a course called Monitor Training School, where they attend every day from Monday to Thursday for three

months. They learn different techniques to facilitate a workspace based on specific topics, where the Human Development subject deals more in-depth with these soft skills, considering the context. The fact that they are former students is significant because they have similar life experiences. Suppose they are going to talk, for example, about resilience. It is different when a person like me, with university studies and who has had a privileged life within the average, tells people, "Yes, you have to overcome the difficult moments in life," than when a former student who probably lives in the same neighborhood and has had a close history comes and teaches them. Then, when talking about the difficult moments in life, there is a greater identification. This group of volunteer teachers helps us a lot with the closeness in the training process, recognizing ourselves in others, having a reference, and saying, "You can do it; it is something we can develop." (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

And concerning women, to have another female role model, and not only women who are an exception to the rule, the superstar, the wonder woman, because wonder woman is unattainable; she is there, but she is outside of any rule. Thus, having a similar woman as a role model who speaks to her peer from her experience, from her learning, from her mistakes,

from her own trajectory, and from what it can be done. I think that is fundamental because you can identify with her, she is a mirror, a model, but she is close to you. It is like saying, "She was the neighbor, and look what the neighbor achieved, and she learned this way." And it's not like just a great woman who had a story of privilege telling you about what it's like to be an entrepreneur, that the realities are clearly not the same. So I think that the close, empathetic, emotional role model, with emotional ties that allow her to identify and dream of being like that, is crucial, that a close person talks to her. Because you ground it too, she did it, and it worked for her, and she also has stories of grief, she failed in this, in the other she did well. Because you learn from failure, and that is important, that bad experience is not only a bad experience, but it is also learning; I am from my own life history, and that can be resignified, because today they are women who are very different from when they left the school system or saw their life project frustrated, thus, from what they are today they can read their own past and rewrite it. Now they may have other tools to write a different future. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

The following table presents a summary of the interviewees' perspectives on SCE teachers and job training:

Table 2: Issues Identified on Teachers in Second Chance Education and Job Training

Ideologies about the teaching role	Contrasting imaginaries: Teachers as a body resistant to change and help from other disciplines vs. recognition of their work overload, poor working conditions and interventionism from above and outside, capable of collaborative work to overcome biases and stereotypes.
Multidisciplinary teams	Importance of articulated work between teachers and professionals in the psychosocial field (psychologists, social workers, special educators, occupational therapists), with smooth and frequent communication. Importance of training teachers in the psychosocial domain.
Teacher training	Importance of teacher training to understand the violation of this population's rights and re-enchant them with the educational experience, in the different models of pedagogical innovation, and in the gender perspective.
Teacher-student bond	A close and empathetic relationship with the students differs from the regular education system, where teachers care about the students and understand their particular situations. Personalized monitoring. Close role models with whom students can identify.

I.B. **School Officials**

The literature on SCE indicates that the principal is a crucial figure within the school. Therefore, a rigorous selection and evaluation are recommended since they must promote a healthy and enriching school climate and safeguard the team's integrity. Furthermore, their position consists of administrative, representative, and management tasks and class hours to maintain contact with the students (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

Leadership has been shown to affect, albeit indirectly, school failure. To avoid this, the leader must set a direction and vision for the school, set clear, challenging, but achievable goals focused on student achievement, and effectively communicated to the educational community. Also, align school resources to those goals, build capacity in the school, including teacher training, and protect time for teaching and learning from other distractions. The most effective approach is the collective, distributed, or participatory (OECD, 2012).

Among the interviewees, opinions about the best leadership for second-chance schools are aligned with the views of a service⁶ or pedagogical⁷ leadership, more horizontal and participative or distributed, where there is a break with the vertical and authoritarian logics that would be prevalent in the regular school system, and with a linkage between soft skills and technical aspects:

Regarding principals, my perception is that not necessarily the one with the highest degrees is the best principal, because there are soft skills that are much needed to address the teaching-learning process, to have the ability to create teams, to lead, to contain, to understand, to accept constructive criticism, to make decisions together, to understand that one's decision may not be the most appropriate and it would improve if others are involved. The curriculum is not everything. Even a professional who hopefully has a teaching degree and one or two courses, but who can put together teams that provide him/her with strategies, practices, and knowledge, ends up being the best leader. (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

During my time at the school, I went through four principals (...) One principal was there for a couple of years and did not manage to adjust because she came with a view that was too much of regular education. Today, when you go to a municipal or subsidized school, the principal is the last person you get to know. The principal is usually a person with little access, not very visible, who sometimes is not much in the school. If you think about your own educational history, it was a lot if you had a single conversation with the principal. That is the figure that, in my opinion, should not exist in education nowadays. It is a principal that you don't know where he/she is, that you don't see, that you

don't even remember, because they hold the position but don't lead the processes. Another director lasted a couple of years longer than the previous one, and she had a mix between being a more social and technical person with committed leadership. The one who did better had a strong leadership profile, but he was also super technical. He used to work a lot on training; he was constantly challenging you to develop your knowledge. In management positions, you earn respect based on your presence, so he was a person who went out to the schoolyard a lot, who was out of his office, shared with the students, and you could see him in the dining room talking. Not only in the professionals but also in the students, principals generate a different empathy. They are no longer people who are hidden in the office back there. In my opinion, leadership gets involved; I believe that the presence among the students is the most successful aspect (...) I talk a lot about leadership that gets involved, the person who is present and becomes part of the process. The only way to improve school coexistence is to observe, to be there, in the schoolvard (...) I hope the school principal will stop to talk to the girls, ask them how they are doing, and receive them in the morning or the afternoon, who creates presence. (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

The discursive practice of these testimonies shows an intention to overthrow conceptions of how things are done in terms of leadership in the regular school system, where, on the one hand, there is a "curriculumcentered" approach that does not place sufficient emphasis on soft skills ("containing," "understanding," "accepting criticism") and, on the other hand, a tradition of authoritarian and absent leadership that does not involve itself with what happens in the daily life of the school and that coincides with the model of administrative-bureaucratic leadership, which is limited to complying with the bureaucratic requirements of the system and is not concerned with the practices that influence the development and improvement of the organization (Bolívar, 2013). Moreover, it is essential that principals, apart from having good soft skills, develop the technical aspect, which involves knowledge of the factors involved in the learning processes and an emphasis on teacher training in these matters.

^{6.} Greenleaf (2020) proposes a model of Servant Leadership, where the most influential leaders would be those at the service of their community and obtain results by giving full attention to the needs of their followers. Motivation must come from a desire to serve others better and not to gain more power.

Pedagogical leadership is understood as a group of people who learn and work together in a school with joint purposes and goals, striving to achieve them and living the school as a community, where leadership and decision-making are shared (Bolívar, 2013).

The following table presents a summary of the interviewees' perspectives on school officials in SCE:

Table 3: **Issues Identified on School Officials in Second Chance Education**

Ideologies about the directive role	A servant and pedagogical leadership, more horizontal and involved in the school's daily life, is proposed, in contrast to the traditional administrative-bureaucratic model, which is more vertical and absent.
Integration of soft skills and technical aspects	It is proposed that both soft skills and the ability to establish a close relationship with the professional team and the students, as well as the technical or pedagogical aspect, are relevant for successful second-chance schools.

L.C. **Characteristics of the Students**

One of the characteristics most emphasized by the literature on students in second-chance programs and schools is their heterogeneity, with diverse educational and psychosocial needs requiring flexible programs and curricula. According to Luk and Loren (2010, in SENAME, 2016), it is possible to allow for more flexibility in the curriculum, maintaining basic and essential learning, but adopting different forms depending on the specific requirements of each student (schedules, place of residence, work, economic situation, among others), thus overcoming the homogenizing trend of the school system, which obscures the students' social, cultural and individual differences and influences out-of-schooling. In the national SCE system, this flexibility can be implemented through a more open regulatory framework in terms of evaluation, certification and promotion systems, and school time management, with the possibility of a modular curriculum, with contextualized plans and programs that value the students' knowledge (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

The interviewees recognize student heterogeneity and program flexibility aspects in educational reintegration, job training, and entrepreneurship. Students'

heterogeneity is evidenced in their level of competencies, school trajectories, psychosocial resources, and life histories. As strategies to address this diversity, the interviewees emphasized the importance of proper initial diagnosis and close monitoring:

When a child entered the school, the first thing was to evaluate his level, without the intention of eliminating him or telling him that he did not fit here, but to know at which level of the school you could place him. Because in the foundation's schools, there is an internal leveling of studies beyond what the Ministry of Education says. Then, we could receive a child promoted to eighth grade of elementary school. Still, the Special Educator would evaluate him and do a short interview. If she saw a great difficulty, the child was then evaluated by the psychologist, who could apply a WISC and find out something more complex. But in general terms, after that evaluation, the special educator would say: "Well, this child comes for seventh grade, from a municipal school, but in reality, he is not ready for seventh and eighth grade, but for fifth and sixth grade, because he comes with deficient level, has low reading skills, and has difficulties in Mathematics." It gave us a picture of what was the child's weakest area. What we did was to place the

student according to his needs, even if that implied a decrease during the first semester, in terms of the grade he wanted to achieve; then, we evaluated that leveling throughout the year. It was evaluated three times a year. If the child had managed to level and adapt to the system, we would promote him to the corresponding grade; if not, he could spend the whole first year in that level. But what was the purpose: to make sure that when the child left primary school, he would leave with the necessary conditions to be able to face secondary education, either in the regular system, or if the gae was high. in Adult Education or Evening Education or some other system, but basically not having to feel that he had just passed by the place, but to make sure that the essential learning was there. (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

This testimony reflects the importance of accompanying the student in SCE to monitor the student's placement according to the level defined in the initial appraisal and its progression and the participation of the different professionals required in each case. Moreover, no reliance on a bureaucratic report is observed to define the level at which to place the student (which could be a shortcut in terms of time and effort). Still, there is a concern for the student to achieve the learning to continue advancing in their educational process in the medium term.

Women entrepreneurs are very diverse, from the entrepreneurship itself, from whether it is a product or a service, what that product or service is, their level of schooling, experience, years of trajectory, etc. There are several factors to consider, so there is an issue with how you form these groups when you do training. After all, very diverse groups can leave those who are at the extremes outside, detached, because for those who already have an advanced trajectory, this will be like going backward; those who are starting will be left far behind, so you must

have criteria to define how you are going to form groups. If you don't group well, you have a high probability of dropout. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

The courses are aimed at adults who do not necessarily know the trade. They start at a very initial level of skills with an appraisal. Then we develop a training process of skills development, a lot of practical activity, many hours of workshop, and cross-cutting lessons on employability skills, computing, and others (...) The requirement for entry is to know how to read and write and to have basic mathematical skills. We have had students with very initial literacy, or some who do not know how to read and write, and we try to strengthen them during the process. Now, there are fewer and fewer in that group. We focus on people in a situation of economic vulnerability and who have not had access to other training opportunities before. The average schooling of our students is 10-10.5 years. And it has been increasing in recent times because the average age has been decreasing, so younger people are entering, with complete secondary education. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago)

It is stated that, on occasions, the preparedness of those who participate as students in job training programs does not correspond to secondary education. Therefore, it is necessary to consider possible ways of linking educational reintegration and job training to prepare for the labor market, including a foundation of essential knowledge and skills.

The testimonies of the job training programs also reveal the importance of generating flexible conditions that allow them to adapt to new developments in the labor market as well as to the needs and interests of the different students: And something we are trying to develop has to do with giving adequate answers to each of the people or groups we are working with. This means not having such a closed, fixed, and prearranged plan for a group of people who may have very varied needs. Then, how to develop programs as movable or flexible as possible to adapt them according to the person's needs. Perhaps some people are more interested in technological subjects and spend more hours on computers or are much more practical and concrete so, attending a computing or mathematics class will be more complex. So, defining a general basis where everyone has to have specific competencies, and from there to be able to complement them according to the needs or preferences of each person. We can all do something well. The point is that we have to identify what, and then opening up more options allows people to do it. A program that allows you to move and define the entry and exit points according to people's needs. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

The interviewees do not provide a single formula for this flexibility and articulation between essential educational and labor competencies. Still, instead, they show the need to test alternatives for student segmentation and modular formats for the programs.

LD. Linkage Between the Psychosocial and **Pedagogical Domains**

I.D.1.

Psychosocial Area: Empowerment and School Coexistence

The experts interviewed, from reintegration education to job and entrepreneurship training, point out the importance of the psychosocial aspect as part of the educational process, which involves remedying histories of school failure and the consequent distrust of educational institutions and actors by students, with psychological processes that have caused a deterioration of self-esteem and self-efficacy, particularly in relation to the areas of education and work. In the case of women, this aspect is intensified by gender socialization with stereotypes that position them as less capable than men (in areas such as mathematics, science, technology, and business), and gender barriers to educational and job placement, including the implicit association that puts women in charge of childcare and household chores.

have instances: training, WP two entrepreneurship, so that from the knowledge of the trade, they could transform it into a business. But there was also an instance that has had several names. First, it was called Personal Development, then Reflection Groups, then Psychosocial Monitoring, which is a space for adjusting or shuffling the difficulties of the learning and entrepreneurship process, at all levels: On a personal level, such as the school ghost that appears to some who had poor academic performance or have very traumatic experiences, then you see issues ranging from collapsing because they have to solve additions, to issues that have to do with the trade itself, for example, those of design who sew and unsew a thousand times until they get it right, or those of hairdressing who are terrified of screwing up someone's hair. Also, to be able to address family difficulties, social and economic difficulties. And there are group spaces for conversation and a lot of more personalized monitoring because we have had all sorts of situations: while they are in the training process, there is domestic violence, physical violence, psychological violence, problems with their children. And here, the network that can be created in the territory you live in is critical. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

The issue of leadership, of empowerment, is important because we have to look at this thoroughly. Because a woman who left the school system at some point, which is mainly due to teenage pregnancy, having to take care of a son or daughter who was born at an early age, leaving him or her in the care of a family member, even having to start paid work at an early age to be able to generate income (...) It is a scenario of high vulnerability and sometimes of significant lack, so it is also important to be able to work in a more personal sphere, of confidence, of self-esteem, as empowerment, to say "you can," "you can build an alternative project," because on many occasions, and I do not want to generalize, but personal projects have been limited, so it is to allow them, to allow them to build or dream of a personal project. And that requires a component that is not accounting or business, but a more personal and interpersonal sphere (...) You can teach them about the added value of their product, vou can teach them how to make a Canvas or a business model, but you have to work on another component that has to do with self-confidence, with believing in themselves, with empowerment, to strengthen her, to support her when the business goes down, because entrepreneurship is a history of failure. Failure is also a learning process, so you need to work on those aspects with her. Because it is likely that they have stories of pain, of frustration, that nobody believed them, nobody told them, "Yes, I believe in you, you can do it," and that is vital when you are dreaming, when you are undertaking something to make the dream come true, not just stay in the imagination. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

In these two testimonies from entrepreneurship training programs, the two components of the program are identified as essential: knowledge of the trade or about entrepreneurship and business; and the psychosocial aspect, of empowerment, strengthening of self-esteem and remedy of experiences of educational failure, where elements of the family and socioeconomic context must

also be considered, and help must be provided through other professionals when required.

I went to a graduation ceremony, and it is what has impacted me the most. A boy had to make the speech, and he cried, cried, cried and made us all cry because he was in night detention for murder, and in that period he became a dad, it changed his whole pattern of life, and he had already applied to a Professional Institute. He wanted to study Automotive Mechanics because he liked it and understood that it was his way to move forward and not forget because you cannot forget, but to overcome his past. It was extreme. It is changing that "I am not capable," (I cannot" paradigm, to say "I can, I was capable." (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

The recourse to this anecdote at the level of discursive practice reflects the highly emotional nature of SCE work and the range of positive and negative experiences present in the trajectories of these students.

All these testimonies highlight the importance of the work that teachers or tutors can carry out, as stated in the literature, to reverse the students' devalued selfimage, offering them satisfactory learning and participation experiences that allow them to prove that they are capable repeatedly (UNESCO, 2009a). Other important aspects of working on the psychosocial domain include autonomy, self-discipline, proactivity, responsibility, and conflict resolution, which will enable the student to later develop in the world of work and life in general (Hogar de Cristo, 2019). The interviewees report a process of gradual empowerment that allows students to dream of new life projects and redefine their perception of themselves and their capabilities.

One of the strategies repeated among the interviewees is to work with short-term, concrete goals and celebrate their achievement, recognizing progress and not focusing on the negative aspects of the students, because this repeats the school logic:

For example, trekking had to do with a philosophy of climbing the mountain or climbing the hill, and what it means to reach the top. So when you managed to take all the kids to the top, the idea was to be able to see, apart from the fact that there were higher hills, which were the other peaks that you will reach in your life, in this one, we managed to get to the top. Also, that every action brought about in Súmate had a meaning. It was not like "Let's do the end of the year walk," no, it had a meaning, to be able to create a closing, to look at what we had advanced, and working with the question of recognition again. Everything had that feeling of saying, "We have completed a stage, and we will go for another one." Because these are kids who have dropped out of the system, come with memories of the educators who maltreated them, many with the discourse of "I don't know, I'm unable, I'm stupid." And you start to think at what point the system itself did so much damage to this child because the child does not say he is stupid because he is stupid, it is because someone told him so; the child does not say he is unable because he is, it is because someone told him he was. All these aspects are also worked on a lot with the children, and the issue of overcoming, setting short term goals, and trying to make it visible every time they achieve one because we have to work a lot on self-esteem with the children who have left the school system or have dropped out. So it is important that every time they are working, we recognize their progress. It is important when you work with children who have failed in the system or have dropped out of it to understand that they are victims of the system, and we have to take care of that. Children do not fail in school because they have a dysfunctional family or live in a vulnerable neighborhood. They also fail because the professionals who received them did not do their job as they should have done. (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

This applies to all adult education experiences: being very concrete in what is sought, and establishing

goals or milestones during the training process, which are achievable, helps a lot. For example, a maxim of the courses is that they leave having learned something concrete on the first day. For example, "I entered Gastronomy today, and I made bread" or "I entered Beauty Specialist, and today I learned hair braiding." Something concrete, especially at the beginning, because that way you can engage them and try to break the "Studying is so difficult," "I will not learn," "It's difficult," "I don't know," "I am not capable," perception from the beginning. Something that challenges them from the first day that we do a practical activity but also allows them to achieve goals and feel progress. It is something key for adult education, and it has to do with these milestones of closing stages or moving forward. They must learn something concrete in the short term so that they do not get discouraged. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

The use of analogies and metaphors in trekking activities to work on psychosocial aspects accounts for a strategy repeated in SCE work, which incorporates more concrete elements to talk about abstract and complex concepts. Another example in the literature is the use of graphic representations ("Electrocardiogram") for vital milestones as a support tool for students to signify their trajectories (SENAME, 2016). Also, through these activities (field trips, recreational and cultural activities), the feeling of belonging to the school is fostered. They are a strategy that allows establishing a connection with the territory and the community beyond the school.

In the second-chance schools from a civil society foundation, one interviewee recounts how, based on the generation of bonds of trust, rules were progressively established among students for better school coexistence and future adjustment to the labor system, maintaining certain flexibility in the application of these rules. This allowed communicating empathy for their past school history and building a bond of trust while at the same time establishing healthy routines and habits:

The school has a Comprehensive Training Plan (Plan de Formación Integral, PFI), adapted according to the schedules and provides you with strategies as an educator to work on other elements that have to do with what is currently in vogue: the socio-emotional. For example, we knew that many of our students were drug users or cigarette smokers, and we knew that sometimes they smoked in the morning and could not smoke inside the school, and there was a whole issue to be able to generate strategies so that the kids would not do it. I can tell you that sometimes the social worker or the psychologist had to take a child out for a shopping walk because he was in a state of anguish and withdrawal syndrome, so you made those small concessions that had to do with empathy with the student. And you also set rules, and you made a routine in the morning when they arrived to wait for them at the door; the Principal was always there, and those who accompanied them took turns. And at a certain point, the kids understood that they could not come to the door to smoke a cigarette while the teacher was making the others come in. So we started to work on certain things that had to do with the norm and their understanding. We told them: "Kids, you will get to the real world, and when you get to the real world, you will have to respect what the boss says, follow a schedule, have lunch at the time they tell you, you will not be able to get up and go smoke a cigarette whenever you want, so think that this is for life."

There is an intention in this type of language: communicate to students what the world of work is like and the need to adjust. Then, at the discursive practice level, convince them to internalize these norms, seeing them as something positive contributing to constructing a new self with new long-term goals. In this process, the panoptic mechanism described by Foucault (1995) operates: at the beginning, the figure of the Principal at the door imposes the vigilance that motivates compliance with the rules, and the students expect the adults to be there every day, but in a second stage, the interviewee describes how the students integrate these habits, "normalizing" themselves but not by imposing

them (which is usually how the out-of-school students describe their past experiences in the regular school system), but from an understanding of the reasons behind the norms and from wanting to respond to the bonds formed with significant adults at school:

And somehow, this gets established, and rules become so clear that the kids adapt and acquire this normalization, which was not that extreme either. Still, there were certain elements and certain routines that the kids had to respect, with flexibility in some cases, especially when they were cases derived from the programs. For example, we knew that the child came with a problematic use and was brought by a program that supported him in that aspect. We knew that he was going to have some reactions or that he was going to decompensate more quickly, or that he was not going to resist the number of hours they have in the classroom, so we had to be attentive to some cases, but not all of them. It is also to have the information of who you need to approach differently because their situations are different.

The same interviewee refers to how school coexistence was addressed from an approach that took elements of distributive justice⁸, where sanctions had a remedial aspect (for example, cleaning the schoolyard). In addition, teachers discussed the disruptive event with all the students. It also states the importance of safe spaces, where students felt comfortable to have conversations about school coexistence.

In terms of coexistence, we had all sorts of cases: from kids who came the first day saying that they had beaten five teachers, which also has to do with validation because I think that many of the kids come with the logic of bullying, and "I have to validate myself." Then they realize that, in reality,

^{8.} Rawls (1971) states that the ideal of justice must be distributive, that is, based on the fair distribution of resources, and where there is a perceived justice in the distribution of costs and rewards. This includes the principles of equality, equity, and proportionality when establishing sanctions for offenses that harm others.

the system within the school is very different. We tried to generate spaces that were super nurturing and accompanied. The kids were with the teacher in the classroom, and situations could still occur, but in general, not many things happened in the classroom, and we always intervened. We generally used the circle strategy, and the inspector, the headteacher, arrived. On many occasions, if they were not with the headteacher, the Principal was coming, and we set a frame. The two or three who fought were taken out, they went to the inspector's office, and where vou could approach them and work: one with the psychologist, another one with the inspector, and with those who were left in the room, we made this circle and identified what happened. There was usually a normative sanction, which could range from ending the recess and staying cleaning the schoolyard, picking up the papers, to sending you home for a day with a reflection if there was a more complex situation.

School coexistence is an aspect essential to emphasize in SCE, since many out-of-school students may have developed a culture of violence as a mechanism for conflict management, with attitudes and behaviors that may be considered violent at school, but be necessary to survive in adverse environments (López, Opertti & Vargas, 2017). This is observed in the description of "validation through bullying" mentioned by the interviewee as an initial attitude of some students. However, she states that this is possible to modify by establishing positive bonds and a school with a nonviolent climate.

From the testimony on these second-chance schools, it is observed that another strategy used was the construction of safe and nurturing spaces. These became rituals within the school and allowed for close interaction between teachers and students, as opposed to the more detached rituals, such as training students in the schoolyard, which is common in the regular school system:

There were also routines. From the PFI, it was imperative to know how the kids arrived, so on

Mondays and Fridays, we started doing the circle, which was like when you train the kids. Maybe it will not happen in a school with many students, but the second chance schools in numerical terms have much fewer students, so these are strategies that you can use. We started by doing a circle because the circle allows you to look each other in the face. There are other things involved in this strategy. And then you started by greeting them on Monday, you welcomed them, and that could take 30 minutes. You ended the week in the same way. That day you did somethina called "congratulations." a recognition: as a teacher, you recognized something in the student, and you could recognize something that had happened in the schoolyard or the classroom. It was not always related to the pedagogical aspect of getting an A. Sometimes the teacher would say: "Today, I want to recognize Luis because he was very supportive of his classmate." He handed out a little sheet that said, "I recognize you for...". We did that religiously every Friday. Another strategy was earning points: the kids could evaluate themselves during the month and exchange those points at the store, including merchandise and toiletries. (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

This testimony on SCE shows the importance of recovering the criticism raised in the literature regarding educational policies: that tend to address these aspects that make up the school ethos as complementary elements rather than as an essential part of academic development. The evidence shows the relevance of the social, affective, and ethical domains in the learning and development of students (UNESCO, 2009a). Thus, the fact that students receive congratulations or recognition, that they have rituals every week, that they can exchange their points for good behavior for prizes, that they cannot smoke at the school entrance, that there is a conversation that accompanies the sanction for misbehavior, are all elements that shape the school culture and foster a sense of belonging to it, while strengthening the identity of children and adolescents as students capable of achieving educational and psychosocial progress.

The following table presents a summary of the interviewees' perspectives on the psychosocial domain:

Table 4:
Issues Identified Around the Psychosocial Domain in SCE and Job Training Programs

Empowerment and self-image	Training programs should incorporate this aspect along with technical and business training. Addressing past traumatic school experiences, providing support for psychosocial problems. Personalized monitoring and support in building new life projects. Strengthening self-esteem and self-image from a focus on capabilities.
Short-term, concrete goals	Using metaphors and analogies to work on more abstract issues and re-signify one's own experience. Using milestones and making achievements visible.
School coexistence	Progressively setting rules flexibly, explaining the reasons behind the rules, and generating bonds of trust. Applying sanctions from a distributive versus punitive justice model, with safe spaces for conversation. Establishing rituals focused on recognizing positive aspects of the students.

I.D.2. Pedagogical Strategies

In terms of pedagogy, or ways of approaching or methods of instruction and evaluation, and curriculum, it has been seen that the latter can have the most significant effect on the prevention of school failure. The curriculum should be relevant concerning daily life so that students are involved in learning, allowing topics of interest to emerge from the student's own experience, which can then be linked to academic content to achieve meaningful learning. The style should be direct or directed (focused on problems with clear answers and quick learning) and student-centered (they can reach solutions independently). It also demonstrates the need for instruction, assessment, and curriculum to be systematically integrated, which implies individualizing programs according to the students' characteristics (OECD, 2012; Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

Interviewees' testimonies reveal strategies that work at a more concrete level, especially when skills are more basic or when there are livelihood needs to prioritize.

The strategies are not different. Instead, they use some strategies more frequently, such as the use of worksheets, a lot of practical work, because they do not have study habits. So their concentration is significantly affected. They have to start from very elementary content to be able to go deeper. Because adult students enter secondary school but finished their primary education a long time ago, there is a lot of time lag. (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

In the case of initiatives linked to competencies, it also has to do with the level of schooling and the type of entrepreneurship. If you are at a stage far down the pyramid, where the enterprises are for economic survival, they are informal enterprises. Let's remember that women's entrepreneurship is mainly informal and subsistence. One day they are queuing at the street market, the next day, they are making food for offering in the community, and there is much of this entrepreneurship that will be seasonal and change. So when you train entrepreneurs in the livelihood system, you have to mix the skills with other things that are much more concrete to make sense of them. Because, of course, they need security, need to grow, but there are also financial needs that they have to solve, so they must combine those things. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

Although reviews of international second chance schools (Hogar de Cristo, 2019) show the use of project-based learning and personalized learning, there does not seem to be a single orientation in Chile. Instead, the importance of close accompaniment is emphasized in job training and an approach that adapts to the different educational needs of students in both educational reintegration and job training. As can be seen in the case of the second chance schools from a civil society foundation:

And, on the other hand, you had the whole curricular issue, where you had strategies that had to do with leveling the kids' studies and other strategies associated with neuroscience. At the foundation, we went from the Singapore Method and Reading Comprehension Skills; neurosciences and independent thinking; then, intense classroom work and thematic rooms; and, finally, Project-Based Learning. That has been the methodological path. (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

The fact that different pedagogical philosophies have been tested in this foundation shows that the essential aspect has to do with psychosocial aspects, where the idea of a close and empathetic relationship between teacher and student is maintained. On the other hand, it reflects the importance of flexibility in program management, where different pedagogical methodologies can be tested to meet the needs of the students, without the rigidity that prevails in the regular school system to carry out this experimentation.

One aspect mentioned in women's entrepreneurship programs is the tendency of women entrepreneurs to form networks among themselves. This aspect can also be applied when thinking about reintegration education with a gender perspective aimed at women, appealing to concepts such as sorority, which implies peer support networks to generate solutions to different gender oppressions. In this case, the formation of networks would be a tool in the empowerment work, where they can recognize in stories similar to their own the gender-related barriers and difficulties and discuss how to combat them:

When thinking about reintegration education, some strategies have helped us that could be used: first, to build bonds of trust. In entrepreneurship, for example, there is a lot on offer: from training at the municipal level to NGOs or civil society organizations. And if they have had these experiences, probably they have been varied, some positive and others negative, then build bonds of trust with them and between them, because entrepreneurs also have that in general: they have a high ability to build collaboration networks. I remember all the experiences, and the women entrepreneurs immediately shared information between them. They immediately generate networks, and in this, they are very supportive, and these networks must be sustained, promoted, and strengthened. They must be built with bonds of trust, either among themselves or with the institutions, and build bridges because we have to look at the ecosystem. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

I.D.3.

Program Evaluation

In the literature on SCE, there are different ways of measuring the success of the programs, such as attendance, permanence, graduation, and labor or educational integration rates of program graduates. In addition, aspects such as satisfaction with the operation of the project or with learning are measured. To measure long-term success, some models, such as YouthBuild, compare crime rates, drug use, or teenage parenting before entering the program and after graduation. Additionally, qualitative evaluations (often internal) and quantitative evaluations (in several cases by ministries or external institutions) are often combined. Concerning psychosocial development, the evaluations measure aspects such as students' self-confidence and behavior (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

Although the interviewees acknowledge the positive results of the programs in the psychosocial area through the testimonies of students and teachers, they recognize that this aspect is more challenging to measure and, therefore, justify funding. For example, in a job training program, one interviewee goes into this issue in greater depth:

We try to measure the impact of what we do, and it is costly. Generally, we do it with university students, and there we have traceability of the last years. Every two years, we conduct impact studies with different groups. We consider the labor income, the household income, the non-labor income or subsidies they are receiving, and the rate of job placement or employment after the training. We measure these variables, and then we see if we are having an impact or not. We are impacting increasing income, increasing the employment rate, allowing more people to be employed, and reducing dependence on the subsidies they receive or on other members of the family group. We have measured this well, but other impacts have been more difficult for us to measure. We have not found

the right formula yet, which we recognize as an essential part of our model: soft skills. For example, the perceived self-efficacy after training is higher. They know and feel the confidence to develop a business, look for a job, go to an interview and say, "I know how to do this," or "I am qualified in such area." So this is difficult for us to measure, it is based on perceptions, but we believe that this is an integral part of our impact: in how people after training consider their role and, rather than feeling like an object of what happens to them, they assume a leading role or a role as subjects in their history, in their life project, so that they can expand their possibilities. We live in a context of many deficiencies, of much vulnerability, where all that discourse "Where there's a will there's a way" not only sounds false, it is false. Many social determinants play against us, but we have seen that we can make changes with this context. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

I.E. The Traditional Education System

The literature describes a poor perception of the regular education system in SCE due to its rigidity, the scarcity of teachers prepared to integrate the diversity of students, and the lack of quality and equity in learning (UNESCO, 2009).

The interviewees concur on showing the experiences of educational reintegration, job training, and entrepreneurship as characterized by a logic different from those of the regular education system and which must somehow take care of or remedy the negative experiences brought by the students, addressing the psychosocial aspects concerning self-esteem and self-efficacy, and providing teachers and school officials concerned about the students, close and involved.

On the other hand, a reintegration program with a gender perspective should also explicitly combat the gender stereotypes that characterize schools in Chile. According to the education and gender experts interviewed, there are different ways in which gender socialization manifests itself during the school period, which negatively affect women and determine that a high percentage of girls and women drop out of school due to teenage pregnancy. In addition, these students tend not to return to school after having children because of notions that associate femininity with childcare and housework. On the other hand, gender socialization also impacts women's lower academic and work expectations, influencing the out-of-schooling process.

This is why the interviewees suggest putting a focus on teacher training to change teaching attitudes and behaviors that perpetuate stereotype and that may also influence career decisions (that would explain, for example, the low participation of women in STEM and the high feminization of careers such as education, where salaries tend to be lower), academic results (with men having better results in standardized tests), the low relevance attributed to sexuality education (which results in the visualization of motherhood as the only feasible life project in contexts of socioeconomic precariousness), and the negative school experience in the face of the expectations and stereotypes of teachers and parents.

The interviewees' perception about gender socialization in schools shows that, although progress has been made in recent years through milestones such as the Feminist Student Movement and increased openness of the institutional system to explicitly mainstream gender into teacher training, curricular bases, and textbooks, there is still a long way to go for girls and boys to have equal opportunities at the school level, and for men and women to have equal opportunities at the employment level. This progression and its limitations are reflected in the following testimony:

We have worked with schools, teachers, and management teams. Management teams must be involved because a teacher can generate changes in their pedagogical practices in the classroom. Still, the idea is that these changes become institutionalized, that they become part of the structure of the school establishment. Otherwise, the teacher leaves, and this disappears. The experience of working with teachers through the schools is paramount and complex, not because there is no interest; nowadays, there is more and more interest in the subject. The social context in the country is very different from what it was five years ago. Five or six years ago, when we started the campaign "Girls can do it," we knocked on the door of many civil society organizations working on education. The truth is that we had no positive response, they told us that gender was not the discussion, that the discussion was the social gap, and of course, it was, but the gender gap was also significant, and it took years to establish the issue. We went to many schools. Some opened the doors; others did not consider us. After the feminist student movement, there is a before and after in the history of Chile. Obviously, it was necessary. It evidences this outburst, something that they had not addressed. So, today, going to a school to talk about the issue is a more open initiative. Most civil society organizations that work in education bring the issue into discussion or ask us about our experience. There is a very different openness to the subject. (Education and Gender Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago)

The experiences in the second-chance schools also shed light on the need for earlier interventions, including all students in the regular school system, and a system reformulation emphasizing quality early education. Based on her experience working at schools from a civil society foundation, an interviewee pointed out that she and many of her peers left their work in second-chance schools after realizing a broken school system that needs to be fixed. In this sense, the very existence of second-chance schools would not be necessary, which motivates them to work at that stage.

In the regular education system, to eliminate school dropout, one has to do a good job, from my point of view, in the first cycle. I am not saying this because I thought of it, but because there are studies that show that if you get the children to develop skills associated with the reading process and with mathematics in the first years, the gap or the school trajectory should be more successful. What happens: I think it is incredibly frustrating —I experienced it myself— when you have a child in the sixth, seventh or eighth year of primary school with poor reading skills or does not understand. And if after that he goes out into the world or goes to an ordinary high school, not even with a very high pedagogical demand, he will most likely fail, the numbers say so, between the first and second year of high school. So the work is in the first years, and I am convinced that it can be done. We obtained good results with the children in standardized tests such as the SIMCE. If we give them tools during the first years, the child won't reach fifth grade with the teachers telling you, "He can barely read." Then the child doesn't want to enter the classroom, gets bored. I believe that in regular education, we must try to create the conditions. The school where I work is located in La Legua; I know that there is substance use, shootings, and one could say, "The territory is very vulnerable." The issue is: If I know that I already have these conditions, I am probably not going to change them, and I am not going to modify them throughout the student's educational trajectory, so what do I do differently so that in school, children develop what they need, knowing that I have all these other variables—so being convinced that even though they are vulnerable children living in violent family conditions, drug addiction, etc., what can I do to work with the variables I have? the child, the school, and the teachers. So that's where we must take action. (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

This testimony refers to another recommendation found in the literature on SCE (SENAME, 2016): the need to prevent out-of-schooling through appraisal

mechanisms that recognize the signs that indicate a probability of risk, implemented institutionally in the functional dynamics of the school, with systematic data collection, and with the subsequent planning of school work that is supported by the existing resources in the educational establishment, considering the teaching staff, the children themselves, the families, and the resources provided by the Preferential School Subsidy Law, among others.

Concerning the management of coexistence and school climate, a training program specialist emphasizes the importance of not replicating the punitive logic of the regular school system and promoting self-regulation by students so as not to infantilize them:

There are many negative experiences among the students, their experiences in the schools have not been so good. And part of the institutional focus is that people are at the center. That has to do with institutional mysticism, respect, considering that each person deserves dignity as a human being. So we deal with students horizontally, develop the lessons, and ask them for autonomy in their activities. There, the logic of the teacher who commands, who orders, of the groups inside the classroom, of disturbing, are issues that come back to life when you put together 25 people, even if they are an average of 35 years old.

I started when I was 27 years old, and I told the students, "You could be my parents, I can't be coming here to tell you off to behave," which is something that I had to do sometimes, go and scold a class as if it was a school. This should not be the logic, waiting for someone to scold you to change your behavior. Here we want them to identify as a community the desired behaviors that we want to shape and validate internally, and from there, we all have to work. And sometimes, when the previous experience did not allow the person to develop in the broadest possible way, they come with the disposition that the formative process

they will undergo will be the same as that (...) One of our main challenges is not to infantilize them again, not to return to the classroom setting, and that the experience they bring with them can be incorporated into the training process so that it becomes a contribution. Thus, the students are the ones who build learning together with the teacher, going beyond the old logic of the teacher who knows everything and delivers the knowledge. (Labor Training Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

At the level of textual analysis, taking both the vocabulary with which the interviewees refer to teachers and school officials of the regular system, and

aspects such as discipline and school climate, it is possible to identify the description of two different "logics": one of the regular school system characterized by "negative experiences," where students "expect to be told off to change their behavior," with an authoritarian teacher; and one of the second chance schools and training programs, where there is an "engaged," "empathetic", "present" and "horizontal" leadership, and where "autonomy" is encouraged in the students, learning is built together with them and they are not infantilized.

The following table presents a summary of the interviewees' perspectives on the regular education system:

Table 5:
Issues Identified on the Regular Education System

Gender perspective	The interviewees see progress in explicitly incorporating gender issues and perspectives in work carried out in education by the State and civil society organizations. Importance of reviewing the stereotypes of trainee teachers to avoid gender socialization in the school system.
Early school education	Inequality in terms of learning and school achievement is already evident in the primary school cycle, which shows the need to intervene to ensure essential competencies in reading, writing, and mathematics. Importance of preventing school dropout.
School coexistence	They describe the regular school system as characterized by a punitive logic in terms of discipline that infantilizes students, while in SCE and job training programs, the aim is to promote self-regulation by students, with horizontal models that recognize their knowledge to co-construct learning.

I.F. Gender Barriers

From a gender perspective, different aspects need to be considered regarding educational reintegration programs and second chance schools. We have already referred to one of them in the Teachers section of this report since these important actors in the educational process require training in these issues to play an empowering role with their female students and not perpetuate gender stereotypes.

On the other hand, gender-related elements need to be worked on in the school system in general. These may be contributing to hostile school experiences of women, to their lower performance in standardized tests (especially in science and mathematics), to their career decisions, and to the high rate of teenage pregnancy, which is one of the leading causes of female dropout in the country (CASEN, 2017).

Gender hierarchies are established through more subtle aspects that are part of both the explicit and hidden curricula of the school system, such as through school textbooks, where the representation of women is low and limited in its characterization:

The school is a critical socializing agent in gender stereotypes. It is necessary that the institutional framework, which is the MINEDUC and the different agencies it has, work more deeply on this issue because although they have implemented actions to mainstream the gender perspective, MINEDUC is a vast institution. It advances at a pace that one would like to see more accelerated. It is necessary, for example, to review the textbooks: when the textbooks are put out to tender, there is an indicator where it is requested that they have a gender perspective, so progress has been made in terms of the indicator, but who reads the indicator, who is capable of reviewing those texts to check if they have it, and although many of the school textbooks have advanced, and you will no longer find "My mother is kneading the bread" and "My father is smoking a pipe," where you not only learned the "M" and the "P," but what you internalized was the gender role: that the father was smoking sitting down, and reading the newspaper, while the mother with her apron and the handkerchief on her head was kneading the bread, which was the role that corresponded to her. However, textbooks continue to show mainly names of male characters, the great inventors, the areat scientists, history is built from the masculine, the hero, the father of the nation, and female characters and role models are absent, that allow you to dream and imagine yourself in that place. Also, how women are represented: they are still primarily associated with fragility, family, and caregiving, so the messages have to do with that, versus men, who have to do with the active, the public, the strength. Thus, it continues to reproduce very traditional models. (Education and Gender Specialist)

The interviewees report that the forms of interaction and expression that are permitted and valued for boys and girls in the school environment are very different, both in the classroom and in the playground:

There is research on the use of space during recess, along the same lines, men versus women. All that is expansive, for example, soccer and gross motor skills, in boys; and girls, games that take up less space and movement, such as finger plays or French skipping. So the use of space is also along these more physical lines. And how fathers also promote exploration behaviors in girls versus boys: "Jumped head first" versus "Don't touch anything." (Education and Gender Specialist)

I had the chance to see a space that is disappearing, the single-gender schools or high schools in my ethnography. In this high school, since there were no men, the girls did everything: they skateboarded, played soccer, some sat down to paint their nails and comb their hair, but there was no type of association between these activities. It was just a way to have fun. I will say something that is not

very popular, but I believe that separate spaces for women are necessary. There is not much resolution in the debate about which option is better for educating children, but one of the things that have been identified is that all-male schools are wrong in terms of the reproduction of gender stereotypes and oppressive behaviors. It is recommended to eliminate them, but there is much debate about allfemale schools because separate spaces benefit greater freedom and greater expression. Men tend to take all the acoustic space. There is a study conducted in Harvard on the minutes men speak in class, so here there is more space for women to express themselves. It is not a long-term solution, but I think specific spaces are good to have in the current conditions. And when I say separatist, I mean all people who identify as women, even if they are not biologically born women or those who identify as gender non-conforming. In this high school, there were trans children, and these spaces are safer than if they were moved to an all-male school, so from that point of view, I think they still have their value in the conditions we are currently in. (Education and Gender Specialist)

Gender socialization implies attributions regarding the capabilities of men and women: in sports, in different academic fields, among others, which build self-image and self-esteem:

The sports thing is also seen in the Physical Education course. Many more men study Physical Education, and when there are women, they are also stereotyped as more masculine. It's funny to see how they continue reproducing the myth of the superhero in the male, and that also limits you a lot as a woman because "You're a man, you can do everything, you're the Hulk." And if you're a girl, it's like, "You will have certain limitations, and you won't be able to do it." And suppose you take that to the academic field. In that case, if you are a man and you do poorly in a test, you think, "I can do everything, I will be able to pass this difficult

subject.", but if I am a woman, I say, "I'm no good." Then you start to form this image of yourself and your self-esteem, and that somehow affects you, and there comes a time when you say, "I don't want to study anymore" or "I'm not good for this." And that is crossed by other things, such as social class, which is very important here, I think, because if you look at the dropout in figures, it is not the upper class that drops out the most, so there is a correlation with social class because it is associated with other elements, which are also very important to look at, from an intersectional gender perspective, with class, ethnicity, religion, sexual identity, etc. (Education and Gender Specialist)

When asked about how the gender perspective was considered, one of the interviewees who worked in second-chance schools revealed that, despite the trend towards making efforts so that women could participate equally in sports, there was no explicit institutional consideration of these aspects at the curricular or teaching level:

We tried to generate educational spaces for balance. For example, if we were going to organize a soccer tournament, it was for men and women. Sometimes we had tournaments for girls only, and the boys had to cheerlead. Sometimes we had mixed teams, and the teachers also played. Perhaps today, with everything that has to do with gender identity, these actions are still insufficient. A lot was missing, but there was a good intention. Perhaps in terms of balance, educational spaces are more designed for children and are expected at schools. For example, the playground of the school where I work is only for men and last year was the first year that we divided the pitch into three, and one of those spaces was for the girls to play soccer, and some of them played very well, but that wasn't there before. You begin to realize that there is no space for girls in general in any school, where you can say, "This area belongs to the girls or that they have taken it over. Nowadays, maybe because we

see more girls basketball players, soccer players, they tend to take more space, but if you ask me, I don't think we were so used to dealing with this issue of equality at the foundation. It occurred because the girls liked to play ball, and we tried to create spaces, not to discriminate, because there weren't many girls, so we kind of included them, but we could not say, "We are working on gender equality." The idea was to do activities where everyone could participate. Trekking and camping were already settled, and boys and girls participated. But there were activities for everyone, intended for everyone. I don't know if it was from the logic of thinking about women. (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

These testimonies show that both at the level of the regular education system and in second-chance schools, there is room for mainstreaming the gender perspective and initiatives that promote greater equality more explicitly in terms of the modes of action and expression allowed and encouraged, including the revision of the materials used for teaching. However, the delay in including this perspective in a more cross-cutting manner is of concern when considering the gender specificities associated with out-of-schooling, which require SCE curricula that explicitly incorporate sexuality education and gender empowerment.

The gender distinctions perpetuated by school culture, teachers, and parents have an impact on aspects such as self-perception regarding intelligence, academic results, and career decisions, as explained by the experts interviewed, which settle at an early age:

There are studies on younger children's perceptions that explain to whom they attribute being intelligent. The break is seen between the last year of preschool and the first year of primary school: they are presented with stories. They are asked who is the leader, the most intelligent in the story, and boys and girls tend to make these associations towards the masculine. There are many differences in how talent and creativity are manifested in men

and women and what is socially valued about intellectual capacity has always been very maledominated. I participate in a FONDECYT (National Fund for Scientific and Technological Development) project that focuses on the second, third, and fourth years of high school, analyzing how women make decisions, whether in terms of electives or university career decisions. And what we have seen is that women always feel very strongly about making a social contribution. So, the "hard courses" do not attract them because they do not see their social contribution so clearly. It is also seen that many early experiences tend to favor men, for example, from computer disassembly, how the family favors these explorations versus girls, who are not promoted as much. Also, in the school context, some teachers may or may not be supportive, and much of the interaction in the classroom tends to be very stereotypical. In highly competitive environments such as talent programs, girls tend to lower their self-concept and become even more stereotyped, which we found peculiar and problematic as college is also a competitive environment, which could affect how they perform at the university level. (Education and Gender Specialist)

There are the differences in STEM and what happens in courses such as Education, which if you do the math, in general terms, the last time I looked at it, 79% of those who studied were women; but of the men who studied careers in education, the majority did not work in the classroom, but were part of the management teams: Directors, Technical Heads (...) In addition, there are specific courses within education that are also linked to one gender or the other. For example, more men study History and Physical Education; and in Early Childhood Education and Primary Education, there are many more women. The care, the children, the maternal instinct, and all those things are still reproduced. (Education and Gender Specialist)

And it is a coincidence that those careers that are primarily feminized are the lowest paid. The composition of teachers is 70% women and 30% men, and in positions of power in schools, it is 90% men and 10% women. (Valentina Errázuriz, academic expert in Education and Gender) (Education and Gender Specialist)

The feminization of some areas and the masculinization of others is also manifested in job training programs, influenced by traditional gender roles:

Although we open all our courses to both genders, there is a reasonably well-defined preference of applicants: in the construction area, 8 out of 10 students are men and, on the other hand, in the gastronomy area, 8 out of 10 students are women. Our overall enrollment is 50-50, but this is because we have a well-balanced number of courses by trades, rather than because there are half men and half women in each course. There is a clear preference for women in the areas of beauty, gastronomy, and care. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

Based on these testimonies, it is necessary to improve vocational orientation programs in the regular school system and in second-chance schools, showing women a more comprehensive range of course alternatives, with greater prestige, better working conditions, and higher salaries, emphasizing the limitations of the more traditional options, and presenting them with role models with which the students can identify. In addition, current efforts to incorporate more women into the areas of Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM) knowledge can also be strengthened, with particular emphasis on Technical Vocational Education (TF), where gender segregation is evident.

Also, from the literature on gender inequality in Chile (Comunidad Mujer, 2016), it is suggested to establish concrete actions in public and private spheres so that

unpaid domestic and care tasks stop being placed systematically on women.

This issue also affects girls from an early age, as made visible by the interviewees:

The other day we talked about the differentiated impact of the pandemic on women and men, the difficulties of boys and girls in having to be virtually connected to the school system, thinking that not everyone has Internet at home, not everyone has a computer. There is the possibility that airls have to do more housework than they already do compared to boys and greater possibilities of falling further behind in the learning process and even dropping out or leaving when the system is more adverse. Girls do better in school, perform better, are better students, and make the most of opportunities. With all the adversities, they get ahead, but it is also essential to generate, facilitate and promote alternative projects for them, role models that are different to imagine themselves in other spaces. (Education and Gender Specialist)

I worked on an ethnography in a girls' high school, and there was the issue of care, especially among those who were older sisters. Even though they had older brothers, they had to take care of them, cook for them, clean the house, spend a lot of time they could have used to study or being interested in something, in housework that is not paid, that is not valued, and that took up a lot of their time. And the fathers and mothers themselves strengthened this division of labor within the families. (Education and Gender Specialist)

According to the literature (Dussaillant, 2017), it is also recommended to point out the continued high level of teenage pregnancy as a social problem and drive actions in different areas, including early education in schools that promotes responsible sex life. Additionally, improve access to birth control pills and emergency contraception in the public health system and provide exceptional

support to teenage mothers to continue studying or join the labor market. These initiatives aim to foster attractive future alternatives for the most vulnerable sectors so young women can draw up different life projects by becoming mothers prematurely.

Besides providing practical help to address the barrier to entry to studies and employment that pregnancy and childcare represent for women, it is necessary to discuss this issue from the earliest stages, combating the idea of motherhood as the only project for women, which is based on gender stereotypes. As stated by gender experts, various factors influence this problem:

 Teenage motherhood as a culturally validated project and lack of alternative projects in vulnerable contexts:

Due to the overvaluation of motherhood as the main project in a woman's life, many young women choose to be mothers as a life project in highly vulnerable social groups, where project alternatives are limited, and motherhood is hugely valued. They experience pregnancy in adolescence due to ignorance of contraceptive methods, but some studies indicate that it also has to do with a life project around motherhood. The other time they talked about the gender gap in dreams: there is a gap in dreaming and how you imagine yourself. So there is a lot to do and to encourage in the school. (Education and Gender Specialist)

 Naturalized association of women with caregiving, motherhood, and social punishment if this role is not fulfilled:

School dropout among female students is mainly for care reasons. They drop out of school because they have to take care of a child, sibling, parent, grandparent, etc. And sometimes it's not automatic. It is not that they go to school every day, and suddenly, they stop going. They go to school a few times, take care of others, go more frequently, and

retake the care duties. This way, concerning this care issue, the idea of care is normalized or naturalized in women. It becomes something that should come from within you naturally to be a caregiver, take care of your family, friends, children, etc. I do see a connection with school dropout because this is strengthened by interactions within the school that are very negative if you say, identifying yourself as a woman, or being identified as a woman, that this is not your thing. It is penalized socially and sometimes even physically, penalizing women as "bad women." I am part of the Chilean Network against Violence against Women, and I see there is a lot of physical violence punishment related to being a "bad woman" who does not want to take care of others. My first recommendation is to put an end to the association of the feminine with care and be very careful here. Offer the necessary help to realize that there are these pressures on people identified as women, but put an end to the naturalization of this because I believe this is an essential driver of inequality for women. (Education and Gender Specialist)

There is a social punishment associated with getting pregnant, having a baby, and not taking care of the baby. What is never done is the consideration of the father's role. So there is a social and legal punishing burden that pushes you to make certain decisions. So you, out of obligation because you should naturally feel the need and the desire to take care of your child, leave school to get it right. And that has to do with many norms associated with motherhood. In one of these, to generate a second chance school, it would be good not to socially penalize the characteristics that are considered as "bad mothers": to be "fed up" with the children, without condoning violence of course, but to say "sometimes I hate being a mother" is not something that everyone says: "How terrible!" (Education and Gender Specialist)

- Gender inequality in the responsibility and consequences of early sexual initiation. The taboo around sexuality and lack of sex education at school:

When men become sexually active, this is still encouraged by other men and valued. They start having an active sexual life without caring about the consequences, which can be fatherhood and a sexually transmitted disease. Paternity is not an issue for them either. When we look at the figures, the percentage of men who have dropped out because they have become fathers is minimal. compared to the number of women who drop out because they have become mothers. So it is associated with the issue of care and the taboo of sexuality because these issues happen when not being able to talk about responsible sexuality. If many adolescents had more access to information, it was not so prohibitive, and they had greater right to make a well-informed decision, they would not have unwanted children. Perhaps they would plan them or take more care of themselves. I believe that gender and sexuality education has to start from early childhood. Many people end up getting pregnant because of rape. Many things come together: social class, domestic violence (...) So those elements that are part of your education from the beginning are essential for what can happen later. (Education and Gender Specialist)

 Lack of institutional support for the process of motherhood:

Then came the whole issue of the National Policy on Sexuality Education in 1992, which was later reformulated. Between 1995 and 1998, when the JOCAS began, the issue of mothers staying in school started to be addressed. Still, it was not until 2003 that the guidelines for Coexistence and Inclusion were created, and there within the area of Youth Cultures was the Support for the Process of Motherhood. But if we look back, forget about it. If you were pregnant, you did not even have a

certain level of support. From then on, yes, students who became pregnant are supported to finish their educational process for that year, but from then on, the support for the process of being a mother does not exist. So, the decision is: if I have the support of my grandmother, of my mother, who can take care of my child, I can go to school, but if not, I can't because it is also socially frowned upon for you to carry your child everywhere, you will be less able to take your child to school. (Education and Gender Specialist)

Non-normative sexualities and gender nonconforming expressions can also be a significant cause of out-of-schooling that is not made visible. As one of the gender experts put it:

And the other thing is that there is also a high school dropout rate among students who identify themselves as gender non-conforming or nonheterosexual. The reasons for this have to do with violence, constant bullving by teachers, classmates. and many times school dropouts may be associated with problems within the family. Lastly, a high percentage of children living on the street corresponds to being expelled from their homes because their parents found that being a lesbian or having a boyfriend if you were a man is very wrong. The suicide rate is also very high. And among the same classmates, it is no longer an issue as it was before, and it is much more accepted than one thinks. Even the same LBGTQI labels that one uses are obsolete. It is "Now I have a girlfriend, I have had a boyfriend, and it makes no difference," but teachers continue to harass students who are identified as unfeminine or who walk hand in hand with others. (Education and Gender Specialist)

In the second chance education system and employment and entrepreneurship training programs, there are practical considerations to be taken into account given the scenario presented so far for gender barriers, especially in childcare and housework.

This is why institutions such as the CEIAs and foundations with job training programs have childcare services. The interviewees also observed a certain reluctance among women to leave their children alone for long hours or to leave aside the domestic chores to which they and their families are accustomed. It is also vital to support them in this process and work on guilt for changing their role. These factors interact so that women have less self-confidence when developing as students and workers, so it is necessary to strengthen the work in the psychological area.

From discursive practice, in the following testimony, we recognize a call to adopt a position of "reformist reforms," that is, working within the existing structure, given the recognition of the difficulty of achieving transformations at the cultural level concerning the existing male chauvinism in our society. From here, solutions such as providing childcare services to help women manage their time, given that they are already tacitly assigned to childcare, can be contemplated.

The fact that schools could have a nursery, implement CEIA, centers with more than one shift (morning, afternoon, and evening) because we are still a country with male chauvinist culture, which is more intense in vulnerable communities. What does this mean? It means that the woman is at home during the day. When the man arrives at seven in the evening, the woman has to be at home and take care of him, so for the woman to be able to study, ideally she should be able to leave the children at school in the morning, and while they are at school, she studies. For these reasons, these facilities should exist. There should be more CEIA. It is a reality, so the issue is how to improve it. As we improve women's expectations, we can also change that mentality. (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

In a job training program from a civil society foundation, three main barriers affecting women were identified: caring for children when they are younger; housework, even when there are no young children, with a

prevalence of the "housewife" role, especially when they are older women who historically have not left their homes; and having difficulties in daring and feeling capable, which reflects lower self-esteem than men:

One of the barriers to entry that we have detected and that we try to overcome in a certain way is the issue of childcare. There is a social and cultural issue that associates women with carina for the children at home. We operate within contexts where this is the primary occupation of our students, which is unpaid. Thus, aoing out to study means that their children are already at an age when they can stay alone at home for some hours or have a network where they can leave their children in the care of others. The family is the first network, neighbors, which is more or less unstable, and institutional networks. Here in Santiago, we have a daycare center financed by a company that is a partner of ours and provides child care services while the students are attending school, so the entry barrier to studying and carina for their children is solved here. In Concepción, we don't have this because we have neither the resources nor the physical space, so you have to solve it by one of these other formulas: kindergarten or school institution or the students' networks: relatives or relatives or neighbors. And it becomes a problem, both there and here, to take care of the children during work time. We can solve it when they are studying, but not when they are working. Other barriers that have to do with cultural issues, especially in older women, include housework. Their occupation is working at home, so many have not gone out to work or have only worked at home for a long time. And they are open to the possibility of studying and starting to work once the children are already raised, and that is when mother's time begins. We saw this with students who start studying at the age of 50 because they no longer have children to take care of and have their own projects.

In some cases, children could be alone at home, but the mother "has" to be at home and cook for them and cook for her husband. There is a compelling role of housewife that becomes a barrier, and sometimes with very dramatic situations. Some students are going out of the house for the first time regularly, apart from going shopping. So leaving the house involves several conditions that have to be met in the family nucleus for this to happen. On the other hand, there is an issue of selfperception of their capacity or potential to develop to study or work, believing that they are capable of developing their life project, of having a plan where study and work are one of the possibilities, also requires a basis of self-knowledge, self-esteem, recognizing my talents or where I can develop. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

Women's life history, which in many cases involves teenage pregnancy and school failure they now want to repair through a new life project, which often includes becoming mothers again, carries an emotional burden that must be contemplated in the programs:

In general, women entrepreneurs who are more affluent can support themselves without making profits because someone else provides enough to the household for daily support. They have more support networks, and they do not have as much difficulty in sorting out childcare. The women we work with don't have any of that. They always need money. In general, in the districts where we work, there is profound mistrust associated with childcare institutions. They are terrified of sending their children to kindergarten.

On the other hand, the Integra Foundation or the JUNJI's kindergartens offer is still limited, and virtually someone has to leave the district for a place to open up. So, we implemented a nursery for training and work, and many times, after the experience of the nursery, they dare to send their

children to kindergarten. During this process, the trajectory of these children is very hard. They do not want anything and cry for everything. The women suffer in these spaces, be it classes, training, or work because they hear them cry. After a while, the children feel that the foundation is their home, they don't want to leave, so in these group spaces, we also point this out so that we do not forget how children started and how impressive it is to see how they are now. In La Pintana, the main reason for exclusion from work is pregnancy, so you have women who are 30 years old with a 16-year-old son. and it also happens a lot that she raised the older son with the help of the grandmother. Then they start a new relationship and have young children, so it is pretty common for women to have an 18-yearold son and a two-year-old son. And it happens that, with the 2-year-old, she wants to be another kind of mother, which limits her a lot to authorize sending the child to kindergarten. When the child is forced to ao to school, it is very traumatic because the mother has been there all the time. It is as if they are trying to repair what they could not do with the younger child or feel they could not do well with the older child. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Civil Society Foundation, Santiago).

One way of working on the aspects relating to empowerment could be to help participants make the study and training spaces their own. This contributes to their empowerment and makes visible the importance of developing aspects of identity that are not linked to motherhood and domestic work, as was done in a civil society foundation:

So we refurbished the sewing workshop so that each one of them can work in that place. The idea of our program is that they can go to a place and feel part of it, so we offer them a space where they have everything they need to work: the machines, the cutting tables, the different things they need to develop the trade. We believe it is essential to generate this space because they come with the

idea of starting a business from home, like "I am going to start a business so as not to leave home." When they go through the training, they realize that it is good to leave the house, to have a space outside, which is very important on a subjective level, besides fostering the ability to partner and carrying out these collective projects. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

The following table presents a summary of the interviewees' perspectives on gender barriers in education and employment:

Table 6: Issues Identified on Gender Barriers in Education and Employment

Explicit and hidden school curriculum	 Textbooks have a low and limited representation of women, with traditional role models, where women are associated with fragility, passivity, and care. In contrast, men are associated with the public sphere, strength, and heroism. The forms of interaction and expression promoted and valued by parents and teachers are different for each sex: exploration, expansive movement, and sports are promoted in boys, while fine motor skills, restraint, and calmness are promoted in girls. Class participation tends to be higher in boys than in girls, with the former tending to take over the auditory space at both school and university levels.
Effects of gender socialization	 Upon entering primary school, intelligence is more attributed to boys than to girls. In career decisions, women are more likely to want to make a social contribution, which distances them from STEM careers, choosing lower-paying careers. There is a high feminization of trades such as gastronomy, beauty, and care in training programs, while there is a high masculinization of areas such as construction. The division of household chores is not very equitable between men and women, affecting girls from an early age, as they have to spend more hours in these activities than boys.
Teenage pregnancy	 It is one of the leading causes of girls and adolescents dropping out of school, so it is important to point it out as a social problem, improve sex education, facilitate access to contraception, support pregnant adolescents, and promote alternative projects to early motherhood. Women take care of their children to a greater extent than men, with social punishment if they do not want to do so. This acts as an entry barrier to returning to school and joining job training programs. Little support from the school institution once she is a mother.

Non-normative sexualities and gender expressions

- Those who manifest non-normative or non-conforming sexualities or gender expressions suffer school bullying, drop out of school at higher rates, have high suicide rates, and are often kicked out from their houses, becoming homeless.
- Although students are more open to accepting these expressions, teachers continue to discriminate against students because of their gender or sexual orientation.

Support for addressing gender barriers in the school and labor system

- It is proposed to incorporate daycare centers or nurseries in both second-chance schools and job training programs.
- It is essential to provide psychological support to reduce women's presence in domestic work and childcare.
- Support in strengthening self-image to be able to assume new roles as a student or worker.

I.G. Higher Education

According to the interviewees, participants in second-chance schools generally look more towards job training than continuing higher education. However, schools must provide opportunities for youth to contemplate this option for the future, considering that since 2016 they can access higher education for free if they belong to the three lowest quintiles. Moreover, in Chile, having a higher education degree significantly expands the salaries that can be accessed (OECD, 2018).

The SCE specialists give an account of this horizon of students' expectations in second-chance education and how it has expanded recently, as their profile has changed:

In today's labor market, it is required to have completed high school, so most students enter YAE because they need to complete the last year, and the percentage of students who pursue higher education is low. It has increased because, in the past, it was only Adult Education, and the name was changed to Youth and Adult Education. In addition, the profile has changed because now it is possible to receive underage students. (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

The foundation, at least in Santiago, provides secondary education in La Granja and Maipú. And they have networks that not all institutions have, such as the scholarship program, which supported and made contributions to the children who wanted to continue their studies. They made referrals and went to universities. In the beginning, when secondary education started, it was adult education. It was at night, with a different profile, until we began to think that there were children who completed the eighth grade and could not reintegrate because they were too old, or could not adapt to the system, so we thought of having this secondary education as an alternative under the same logic: the children attended regular classes, very similar to adult education, but also their workshops, a reduced school day but in a day shift, and from there Chile's SAT was planned so that they could enter higher education, and it became much easier when the Free Education Law started to come out because something very difficult for us and that could only be achieved through scholarships, started to be achieved by telling them: "Look, today you, more than any other student in Chile, can study for free." Then you start taking them to Professional Institutes or Universities and getting them to take

the SAT, and it becomes much easier for them to continue their studies. As everywhere, some of them had children, so they only reached the last year of high school. In percentage terms, there began to be a high number of students who entered university and managed to study in Professional Institutes. Most courses were related to gastronomy; in some cases, also associated with aesthetics or beauty. I think this is explained by the fact that those workshops were excellent in the foundation. They studied in more informal institutes, but still institutes, and many others were thinking about engineering, mining, and mechanics. There starts to be a high expectation around "I can break this, and I can continue studying," but it also has to do with the facilities that the system itself starts to offer, knowing that they can study for free. You will worry about more minor things, but you can think about pursuing a career in actual terms.

In some cases, students do not enter university or formal institutes but begin to apply for funds for workshops, where they get a certification that allows them to work. For example, I remember that many of them took arc welding courses. So if you are already welding and have been in a workshop on metallic structures, you have some knowledge, which allows you to start working quickly. (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

On the other hand, it is vital to consider the financing aspect in higher education, either through the free higher education system or other scholarship or credit programs, since this is one of the barriers preventing students from visualizing higher education as a life project. These testimonies evidence the essential aspects to consider in SCE programs, including supporting this process by accompanying students in visits to these institutions, navigating the bureaucracy to obtain economic benefits, and offering vocational guidance. This shows the variety of possible careers (with emphasis on overcoming gender roles as the primary determinant in career choice).

Furthermore, although the economic emergency that may determine that students prefer to work instead of continuing higher education is recognized, it is essential to point out this alternative and expand their decision-making opportunities regarding their future. As the interviewees indicate, the number of students who pursue higher education still represents a low percentage of the total number of students in second-chance schools.

I.H. Job Training and Entrepreneurship

International experiences of second-chance schools have included employment training in a relevant position in the curriculum (European Commission, 2001).

In Chile, YAE is characterized by an orientation towards job training, which is manifested in the four instrumental subjects that have to do with "Job Placement." These subjects are taught in the third and fourth year of secondary school and are one semester-long, where each school is free to decide how to teach them at these two levels (SCE Specialist, Santiago). Also, in the educational reintegration schools from civil society foundations, this aspect is included as part of the regular training:

The foundation's schools are very strict about the full-time school day. They offer workshops, some of them associated with very labor-related topics because kids will follow that path and others who will not, but they are well implemented. For example, when you go to a school, you can find a gastronomy workshop with authentic ovens, real utensils. It is not a workshop that hopefully has a room and a tiny little oven. The same happens with hairdressing, metal structures, and workshops more oriented to handiwork. It depended a lot on the school, but I think that also strengthens the educational development of the kids. Workshops that are not necessarily associated with pedagogical matters,

although they are. The cooking teacher saw recipes, and the kids had to write the recipe, and then they worked on reading and writing skills. Or, suddenly, mathematics, because she made them measure the flour and calculate so that you could relate it to the curriculum. (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

This testimony shows the articulation of job training aspects with the basic curriculum, taking elements from the Project-Based Learning method. In this line, the development of authentic products (made with "real ovens" and "real utensils") allows students to learn in a meaningful and contextually relevant way.

Despite the lack of articulation as such between secondary technical-vocational education, second-chance schools that incorporate job training, and training programs for employment and entrepreneurship, one of the interviewees points out that progress has been made upon a framework of common competencies to aspire to:

Chile is trying to create a common framework between secondary technical-vocational education and job training through the National Qualifications Framework. Chile Valora is working on that, the MINEDUC through the professional institutes (IP), the technical-vocational secondary education, to say: "There are certain competencies associated with the performance of a function that we can identify, which are directly related to work." And there, you can put together a chain, a training route, that leads you to specific focal points. So, for example, if we want to train domestic electrical installers, we train adults, and a technical high school trains young people. We can reach the same profile; that is one of the possibilities. In terms of experience, training by competencies is something that both the technical organizations and the high schools and ourselves have been developing. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

UNESCO (2009a) proposes supporting the development of second-chance education models that integrate the continuation and completion of studies with skills for employment and inclusion in the labor market. For those outside the education system and lagging, it is essential to offer training programs that increase their chances of finding employment. The notion of competency combines the qualification acquired through technical and professional training with social behavior, the ability to work in a team, undertake, and continue learning. On the other hand, the regular education system can also enrich the primary and secondary education curriculum with work components that increase the added value of these educational levels and improve their labor competencies.

Regarding training programs for entrepreneurship, the World Bank (World Bank, 2010) points out that social norms around domestic work negatively affect Chilean women in this area. This would explain why, although Chilean women are on average the most educated in Latin America, female labor participation is one of the lowest in the region and why women are less likely to have access to credit than men.

Although there has been an attempt to boost entrepreneurship through competitive funds and seed capital in recent years, it is necessary, especially in the case of women from vulnerable socioeconomic contexts, to provide scaffolding for the start of the business. They do not have the social networks that can help them in this respect, nor do they have the real possibility of risking years of economic losses to develop their business. The literature points out that this is usually the case with entrepreneurship (GEM, 2017). As the type of entrepreneurship they create is precarious, dependent job training or institutional support for entrepreneurship can be considered an alternative. Initiatives may include one of the civil society foundations presented in this study. They put together groups to fulfill particular work assignments, which is also helpful for women to learn about entrepreneurship through experience. In this modality,

it is also possible to promote the association of women entrepreneurs to promote their enterprises further. Interviewees from labor training programs refer to some of the existing tensions concerning job training for dependent versus independent employment or entrepreneurship, which is accentuated by subsidies that require classifying training programs in one way or another at very early stages:

Until two years ago, in our training plans, we had a training course for trades as comprehensive as possible, with a dual modality: a training course for employability, to become a dependent employee; or as an independent, and there we stressed the issue of digital training. For example, in Word, they developed a curriculum vitae and a cover letter, and in Excel, they made a budget. For the last two years, due to the requirements of our main financer, which is SENCE, we have had to opt for one or the other modality, so we reduced the number of transversal hours, and in most of our trades, we have focused on training for dependent work. We have kept some areas in the freelance modality, such as Beauty, which is an independent work in the labor market. Those who apply to these courses are primarily motivated because this is an area where they can develop their work, making it compatible with other obligations, which is one of the main barriers to entry that we see for our female students to enter the labor market. In the independent modality, they learn to develop a business plan with the Canvas methodology. At the end of the course, they receive support through entrepreneurship funds to buy some tools and supplies to start their work.

We have also had some courses in the Gastronomy area that follow this independent line. SENCE included this amount or benefit for purchasing tools within the programs oriented to independent work, which we have not formally evaluated but that we consider not that good because you associate finishing the course with receiving the tools. People often finished the course and said, "You know what,

I don't want to become an entrepreneur." So this association of a training course with a dependent or independent job must happen at a different stage, because you can say, "I want to work as a gastronomy employee, I would like to get paid every month." And then you find out about the shifts they have, the salaries, and you say, "I'd rather sell empanadas [a type of baked or fried turnover consisting of pastry and filling, and part of the typical Chilean cuisine] at home, maybe I'll earn the same, but I'll work less." Or something came up in between, and they can no longer work as a dependent employee (...) These programs say: "We are just going to find 25 people who know that they want to work with a full-time contract, in an area they don't know". How will they know what they want to work in if they don't even know how to cook on day one? So it is an issue that forces you to make decisions that later you will regret. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

This testimony reveals the importance of establishing mechanisms for articulating public policies -in this case, state-funded job training programs and their respective modalities- and their field implementation. This can be done through feedback systems that make it possible to modify policies according to what works and what does not. In another training program, this tension between dependent and independent employment is reiterated, and some of the practical considerations when addressing entrepreneurship for women in contexts of economic precariousness are noted:

- Business Start-up:

I am going to tell you why we are moving to the work model. Entrepreneurship is tough, everything you read about entrepreneurship is that the first two attempts fail, you take years to recover the initial investment and, on the other hand, it also happens that in the segment of women with whom we work, that the enterprises are or have started under precarious conditions, and it isn't easy to scale up because we aspire that the girls have an enterprise that can generate income in a more or less stable way so that they become formalized. But we have to estimate when to formalize this reasonably. As soon as they process their business start-up in the Internal Revenue Service, they stop receiving any type of government aid. For example, with the Fashion Design and Dressmaking section, we had a huge project. They were making masks, 10,000 masks, and this was through a bank that wanted to donate masks to SENAME, so they donated through us so that the airls could make them and we could deliver them to SENAME. So 10,000 masks were still a lot of money, and we had to pay back somehow what the girls were being paid for their work. And then, we entered into this logic of "what if they process their business start-up and issue their invoices." They earned a lot of money this month because they made many masks, but next month they will earn zero, so it is difficult to make the transition. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

Networking and contacts for early-stage customer generation:

That is why we moved to this model of work, where they continue to receive specialized and personalized training or advice concerning product development, scaling up their business, how to have a marketing and sales plan, but at the same time, the idea is that as a foundation we can manage collective projects that allow them to generate income while their business is strengthened. So this is where these types of collective projects arise, such as the mask project: 12 women making masks to give to SENAME. Last year, we had a partnership. An entrepreneur who worked with certain types of fabrics contacted us and wanted some girls from the foundation to make her products. The girls had the advice of the person in charge of the trade to see issues of prototype development and solve technical problems. The entrepreneurial advisor worked with them to sort out costs and calculate how much they could earn. We used our networks to facilitate this, which they do not have access to because female entrepreneurship is concentrated in the two quintiles, the poorest and the richest. In the richest quintile, there are certain backwardnesses that the girls we work with do not have. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

- Consider dependent employment as an alternative:

In general, there is a very romantic idea of entrepreneurship. As far as possible, I think they should try job placement because it is safer, more stable if you ask me. We work with women in a situation where it seems that entrepreneurship is almost the only alternative, in the sense that they have childcare responsibilities or such low education that the jobs they could access are very much precarious. So, if they work with more women, I would implement one more line of dependent employment, especially if you have women participating who do not have children. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago)

One aspect that these two job training programs point out as crucial is the close accompaniment by mentors to promote the success of the businesses:

Another experience in Santiago is seed capital, but it is privately financed. A group of former volunteers saw that at the end of the course, many of these students had good business ideas, they wanted to work, but they lacked that first push, both financially and in terms of support, so they pooled money among their friends, and there is a fund that is larger than FOSIS, \$400,000, plus support for a year with a mentor, who helps them to get organized during that time, and they also apply for it. It is not something associated with passing the course. They create a project and present it to a committee; just

like the seed capital we had in Concepción, they are qualified, and a group of those with the best projects is chosen. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

We work with small groups, so we support each of these women in what they need. For example, what they need the most is mathematics, to be able to calculate costs, or to know how to set prices, so the entrepreneurial advisor sits down with each one and reviews. It is not like we have a math leveling. It has to do with the mission of the foundation. For us, the issue of accompaniment is crucial, and the accompaniment is made from a technical perspective. At the moment, we are working with three trades: Hairdressing, Fashion Design and Dressmaking, and Gastronomy. We have made attempts to get into trades that are not so stereotypically marked, but in the end, they choose them because they are also in a super sexist underworld, where going to do the Gastronomy course is something that they have to defend less than other things, at least in their close environment. That is also why our accompaniment is very close (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

A final aspect, which both the job training literature (Comisión Nacional de Productividad, 2018) and the interviewees identify as an area for improvement, is aligning the training programs offered with market needs:

Ideally, we would like to implement an area of labor research to know where employment is going, detecting needs, but this is quite difficult for us and is one of the unresolved matters of the training system nationwide. Now there is an organization associated with SENCE that does this research work and is collecting data. And what we have done institutionally is that in these areas where we were already working, we have developed profiles and training programs, in which we have become a little trapped, not in the sense that we are developing a

program that no longer has a job opportunity, but that when we decide to offer a course, it involves the whole machinery for developing it, so rather than changing trades or opening new ones, although we are constantly reviewing, we have opted to improve the training proposal of each trade. We add components of higher technology, for example. And if we see that the situation is complex or that it is a trade that should not continue, we close or reduce the entry quotas. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

I.I. Networks, Territory, and Family

I.I.1. Territorial Networks

The literature in SCE points to the importance of networking and maintaining effective communication with the various civil society actors in the territory. This can include carrying out activities open to the community for the neighbors, such as musical events or theater plays; incorporating volunteers in the territory to visualize children and adolescents excluded from the school system to motivate and connect them with the school; and establishing service-learning initiatives where students show their skills to the neighborhood residents (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

On the other hand, the interviewees stress the importance of networking or providing other services in the same program. For example, one of the programs does this through its legal and psychological clinics, at the same headquarters, and with volunteer professionals.

In addition, there is also the referral work done by the second-chance schools and other training programs, which involves close work with the other programs or organizations and their monitors, and not a mere transfer of information.

At the second-chance schools, one of the interviewees highlighted the importance of monitoring or following up on the services received by children and adolescents in other territorial organizations by creating bonds of trust with these monitors.

In terms of networking, the foundation has internal networks, so it was easier to make referrals, but, in general, the training area made good connections with nearby programs. For example, the programs aimed at women tried to establish a proper line of activity with the nearby CESFAM (Family Health Center), a community clinic. So there were good networks to refer the children. However, we were a little disappointed with some programs: a PIE (School Integration Program) that starts in March, visits the child, and then you see him in December coming to get his grade report and knowing if he had attended school or not. Many students have a rights violation issue, and they are always associated with a CEPIJ (Childhood and Youth Protection Program), with a PIE, with programs that are more SENAME. To follow up on the in-school programs, we tried to establish that when the tutors came to ask about the child, we demanded them to monitor the student and gave them all the tools to assist the student at school. Then there comes a time when you already know the tutors, and you asked them how they were doing. We called the child, assigned them an office, the tutor assisted the child, or walked around during recess, talked, and the person became known to the other children. It is essential to establish networks because vou can have many connections to know where to turn and where to refer the quardian or the child, but knowing the impact and the follow-up. Then, based on bad experiences, it is established to be an open space so that the other programs can assist the students in the school. It is helpful to monitor the program and see how well a student is being assisted. (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

The following interviewee also highlights the importance of working to break down preconceptions that may exist

in the surrounding community through activities that involve them:

There was a good relationship with the nearby community networks, the neighborhood resident's committee, participation, going out into the community, sometimes making interventions outside. So, in some way, the school tries to develop a presence. I think it also has to do with eliminating stigmas; how do you make these schools, which perhaps are not so well regarded because of the type of students they have, begin to show themselves positively to the community so that the biased view changes. The foundation does an excellent job in terms of changing that perception, which is inevitable. I will never forget the first time I came to work at the school. I arrived by bus, the school was located Renca, and the cab driver told me: "Ah, you are going to the little school of the little seeds of evil." And of course, that begins to change over the years because the school begins to have a more school-like structure and establish minor rules, basic things. (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

The shocking example ("little seeds of evil") is observed at the level of discursive practice, which synthesizes the community's perception of the students, showing the widespread prejudices in our society. Therefore, this aspect should be considered by the SCE and job training programs to consider implementing activities that promote an opening of the institutions towards the community.

One of the training programs offers in-house services, addressing some of the barriers among their students, especially women, to participate in other social support organizations:

The resources we have to face the entry barriers include the daycare center and the Psychological and Legal Clinic. The clinics are also critical because they help a lot to bring closer the offer of services, which are usually in different places, as in this logic of being a meeting point where you can go and find

different solutions. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago)

One of the entrepreneurship training programs emphasizes the importance of establishing relationships of trust with the other programs so that referrals can be made effectively:

We try to have contact with the family health center, the municipality, the heads of household program, FOSIS (Solidarity and Social Investment Fund), and other foundations working in the district. We are in La Pintana, a district that has been heavily intervened, but the good thing about this is that we manage to address the issues that are beyond us as a foundation through other organizations that work in the area. For example, suppose one of the students is having problems with her son. In that case, we have connections with Chile Crece Contigo, we put her in contact with the program, and we make a referral that is different from just passing them the information. We make sure that a relationship of trust is formed with the monitors who work with them and the institution in general. This makes it possible that referrals are much more effective than just passing on information when recommending someone to go to a specific place to seek help and talk to a specific person. I think articulating actions with other entities is crucial, especially when working in contexts of vulnerability, so it is vital to do territorial work. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago)

I.I.2. Working with the Families

The literature on good national practices in second-chance programs highlights the importance of the relationships established between the school or program and the family, as well as with territorial organizations (SENAME, 2016), as in the case of "Mi espacio de aprendizaje: Una instancia de reencantamiento" [My learning space: An Instance of Re-

enchantment], a project carried out between 2005 and 2008 in the communes of Colina and Peñalolén, with SENAME professional teams, and participants between 7 and 17 years old who have dropped out of the school system more than two years ago, and who are facing severe risks associated with poverty and lack of social support (UNESCO, 2009b). This program considers developing a sensitization process of families and significant adults concerning the meaning of education and their role in their children's process.

The work with families is promoted as parents, or responsible adults are relevant agents that contribute to valuing education and forming academic expectations on the part of the student. This is necessary because many families have had negative experiences with the educational system, so there must be special efforts to encourage commitment, develop expectations, and a positive bond between the family and the school. Furthermore, it is vital to foster permanent dialogue, whether to show progress, challenges, daily situations, as well as in moments of greater complexity or difficulty (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

In the second-chance schools from a civil society foundation, for example, different strategies to maintain communication with parents and involve them in school activities are used:

As for the families, there was everything. We try to work a lot with the families. Family Day in all the schools was something that must happen. The project is presented, the families attend, activities are carried out, and the school is shown. I believe that it happens in many schools, where the parents are not so involved, where one has to make many visits, a lot of fieldwork, visit the family more than the family visits the school. We work not only on the children's learning but also create workshops for adults. When the digitalization issue started, workshops were held at the school, and we invited the parents. The idea is to hold these workshops two or three times a year, where parents can attend. We organized the gastronomy workshop or sent

invitations to some parents to come to a spa day. The girls, the daughters, or sons (because we did not discriminate and men and women participated in the workshops) hosted them. It has to do with strategies because these parents would never attend; they had never been involved, so the school has to find a way. They received a nice invitation card telling them they had an appointment on Tuesday at a specific time. They got a hair wash, a manicure, in some cases, they even got the hair dyed when the kids knew more, and then they all left happy. Still, it had to do with creating opportunities to attract the parents, and those parents generate identity, and when you call them, there is not so much resistance. (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

There is also an emphasis on congratulating students and communicating their progress to their parents, in an explicit effort to combat the logic of focusing only on the student's problems to approach it from the student's resources and capabilities:

Another strategy that we used a lot was calling the parents, not only when something bad happened. The headteachers were asked to try to call the parents and sometimes just to congratulate them. It was not only: "They will call me to tell me that this kid misbehaved," but we also tried to balance a little under the same logic of recognition: "Juanito has behaved so well this month! We want to congratulate him, and hopefully, when he gets home, you congratulate him and make him a nice meal, buy him the hotdog he likes." We were trying to create opportunities in which the students, the parents, and the school could build a bond, but from the recognition of the good things, because in education, we tend to focus on what the student did not do, did not achieve. This logic is deeply rooted in us, so the point is how we turn it around and say: "Let's also look at the glass half full: he did comply, for example, this week he came every day in uniform. He continues to arrive late, but we are going to work on that later. Let's recognize that at least this week, he complied with the school uniform." (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

When it comes to older students - or when contact with the family poses a risk to the student - it is also necessary to respect their autonomy when they do not want to include the family, as can be seen in an entrepreneurship training program:

We often handle the issue of whether they want to involve the family or not because, at certain times of the year, such as September 18 [Chile's National Day], we hold a celebration. So they can invite their families or not because there are some for whom it is a very private space concerning the rest of the family, so they do not want the partner to come to the foundation. But others do, and they love it, and they want to introduce their children to us. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

I.J. Management and Financing: The Linkage between the State and Civil Society

In terms of management and financing, it is vital to establish networks to take the programs forward. These networks often articulate the public and private spheres, the latter including foundations or civil society or nongovernmental organizations, individuals who contribute financially or as volunteers, and companies that contribute to education and employment as part of their Corporate Social Responsibility initiatives.

For example, we can see that one of the job training programs works by involving a large number of volunteer professionals, both in the teaching and in their legal and psychological clinics. Other training programs reveal the importance of having different funding sources. Finally, collaboration experiences with the school system and private enterprise are noted in another civil society foundation.

The foundation is a private family foundation that had a fund, so for a long time, there was this fund,

which began to run out at some point. We work with some partners, who are natural persons that give a monthly contribution. We apply for funds, especially for specific projects, and in this type of collective project where we work with companies, a percentage of that sale goes to the foundation. That is the business model. We have applied for government funds and what has worked best for us is the presidential grants. Each government has certain programmatic lines that it wants to strengthen, and there is a certain amount of money destined to help those organizations. For example, last year and the year before, we applied for a presidential grant to expand a schoolyard and the program's facilities, and we were also awarded a grant, as we moved from the training model for entrepreneurship to the work model, a space for a kind of co-work. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

We worked in a high school in the north, in Antofagasta. This professional technical vocational school sought to encourage girls to make vocational decisions in areas such as Mechanics and Electricity, which the school offered and which were also in demand by companies in the region, a mining region. In addition, we carried out this work with a local mining company aimed at hiring women because it was a highly masculinized company and wanted technical women to work in machinery, electricity, and mechanics. So there was a partnership between the private company, a civil society organization, and this municipal high school. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

Being able to disseminate the work of the secondchance schools and attract students is an essential phase of the educational process, considering that these students have already left the regular educational system and therefore have certain reluctance concerning the institutional framework. Therefore, in the second-chance schools of a civil society foundation, networking with local and other governmental institutions, such as SENAME or DEPROV is noted, which allows for the referral of students to the schools:

In general, the capacity of the schools, although not so high in terms of numbers (Renca, 150; La Granja, 250), usually implies finding a place, so there are moments of dissemination or marketing to keep children in the school and retain them. The Training area was in charge of disseminating using the networks close to the territory, the programs implemented in the territory, and nearby schools because the schools receive children in violation of the law or with a significant lagging, but also, especially in the last years, we receive children with 2 or 3 years of repetition, so they were not necessarily out of the system, but they were within the logic of school failure. Also with the Provincial, with the Municipality. The Provincial, which already knew the program, referred them, and children from other municipalities could enroll. Still, it was because they had attended the Provincial, and there they had been suggested the school. Sometimes they were children who came from far away, but because it was the closest place. (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

In terms of funding, reintegration schools and programs seem to be more vulnerable and unstable than regular education. Hence, interviewees stressed the importance of directing resources to them to provide comprehensive care to students, especially considering that second-chance education requires a multidisciplinary team that can address both special educational needs in terms of pedagogy and psychosocial aspects:

I wish YAE could have all the resources that regular education has. For example, YAE does not have SEP (Preferential School Subsidy). It has few projects. YAE must have a multidisciplinary team. (SCE Specialist, Santiago) As schools, the foundation schools receive all state subsidies. Since 2017, they have had the Integration Program, which they didn't have. They had been awarded it in 2011, then they took it out and then back again. So they receive a subsidy from the State. In addition, they receive a percentage of donations to be able to finance the project. And they also apply to these reintegration programs, which provide resources from the State. So these are the three ways in which the foundation receives resources today. (SCE Specialist, Santiago)

An important aspect is to think about how to institutionalize the work done in the second chance schools and job training programs so that the lessons learned from the different initiatives can contribute to the generation of public policies. For example, in one of the job training programs for women, they point out how they have done this:

The collaboration between the State and Sociedad Civil has processes, stages, sweet and sour. It is vital: in terms of the advancement of women's rights, civil society organizations are the ones who have mainly promoted them, and organizations such as ours do political advocacy. For us, it is indispensable. Some organizations do not have this advocacy, they are not going to dialogue with the State to impact, and it is acknowledged that this is their domain. We are in the debate with the Executive Power, with the Legislative, talking or making proposals. Many things may not come to fruition, and others are moving forward. There is a history, and we have to make our way through it. In 2015-2016, together with the Ministry of Education, we developed a campaign, Eduquemos con Iqualdad.

We developed teaching material to problematize some video capsules they made. It is an achievement for an organization like ours. The MINEDUC is difficult to move as an organization, and it was discussing the Education Reform, so everything it did was focused on that. It was difficult for them to generate activities on other issues in those years. We also participated in the round table convened by the Ministry of Education during feminist student mobilization. We were one of the few civil society organizations that participated—the document included part of the proposals we made. And also. today, we sent a proposal through a bidding process, and we are giving a training course for teachers. We have made a series of proposals on education, primarily focused on breaking down gender stereotypes and promoting scientific and technological vocations in women. Many of those proposals have also been welcomed and named. We are also surprised that our data, studies, and proposals are cited as essential sources of information. (Labor Training Program Specialist, Fundación Sociedad Civil, Santiago).

From social practice, an analysis of these discourses shows that the traditional dichotomies that assigned responsibility for education to the State or the private sector, in an exclusive manner, seem to have been overcome to give way to a collaboration between the State and civil society. This can be seen in financing and active participation in SCE initiatives, job and entrepreneurship training, and the development of public policies.

CONCLUSIONS AND
RECOMMENDATIONS
FOR A SECOND CHANCE
EDUCATION WITH
A GENDER PERSPECTIVE
IN CHILE



The third part of this report presents certain conclusions regarding the current state of SCE in Chile in the most relevant areas and the challenges for incorporating a gender perspective in it. It provides recommendations that include the contributions of the review of

international and national good practices and the experts' opinions to build a gender-sensitive SCE that will enable the women who participate in it to become empowered in educational, psychosocial, and labor terms.

I. CONCLUSIONS: THE STATE OF SECOND CHANCE EDUCATION IN CHILE AND THE CHALLENGES OF SECOND CHANCE EDUCATION WITH A GENDER PERSPECTIVE

In Chile, out-of-schooling is a problem that has decreased in recent years, with a dropout incidence rate of 2.4% in the regular school system, being 2.1% women and 2.6% men (MINEDUC, 2019b). There are 186,723 children and adolescents between 5 and 21 who have not completed their studies and are not enrolled in any school (MINEDUC, 2020l). It is evidenced that out-of-schooling occurs mainly in the transition from primary to secondary education, mainly affecting students from the most vulnerable socio-economic contexts. Its causes tend to be different in men and women.

It is essential to recognize both the intracurricular and extracurricular factors involved in out-of-schooling: what can be done by schools (school climate and coexistence, teachers, disciplinary norms, curricular flexibility, adequacy of assessments), and by students and their contexts (psychosocial resources, valuing education, socioeconomic conditions, family support, peer group, partner and parenting) to prevent out-of-schooling and deliver a context-appropriate SCE.

Regarding the out-of-school population, 62.5% of students come from the two lowest income quintiles. The highest concentration of out-of-school population is found in the most populated regions of the country (Metropolitan, Biobío, and Valparaíso), although the percentages are similar in all regions of the country, with more children and adolescents out of school in rural areas than in urban areas (CASEN, 2017).

Although school dropout rates are lower among women than among men (44.1% and 55.9% of all out-of-school students, respectively), specific reasons that cause women to drop out need to be addressed, such as teenage pregnancy and their domestic role. This is accentuated as the socio-economic level decreases (where 55.6% of women between 12 and 21 years of age who are out of school have had children), which reveals the need to think about sexuality and gender education policies that allow women to develop alternative live plans to teenage motherhood. Meanwhile, in men, work appears as more frequent in

parallel to studies, as a potential reason for dropping out of school (CASEN, 2017). Therefore, an SCE with a gender perspective will have to consider these differences when working with each group on their life plans, generate retention mechanisms, and support them in job placement.

Research on the characteristics of children and adolescents who participate in educational reintegration programs and schools in Chile shows matches with the risk factors for out-of-schooling identified in the literature: in terms of intracurricular factors, there are educational trajectories of school failure (poor performance, grade repetition, chronic absenteeism, lagging), less secondary education available in their environment, behavioral problems, and a tense relationship with and stigmatization by teachers. Related individual factors include learning difficulties, low interest in school, psychological disorders, histories of maltreatment and sexual abuse, and drug use. Extracurricular factors include belonging to the poorest quintiles, single-parent families, mothers with less schooling and lower academic expectations for their children, lack of family support in the school process, less availability of books at home, overcrowding, teenage motherhood or fatherhood, and active work situation (although this last percentage is not very high). These characterizations reinforce the importance of intervening structurally in the problem of out-ofschooling since it is not merely an educational but a social and equality of opportunity problem.

On the other hand, significant resources of out-of-school children and adolescents are also observed when analyzing their trajectories and motivations, such as the intention to resume their studies and valuing education, rejecting the "dropouts" label. In the case of women, intrinsic motivation for this is observed, while, in men, it is more guided by economic rationality (Centro de Estudios de la Niñez, 2014). Children and adolescents also demonstrate resilience in the face of histories characterized by violence and exclusion (UNESCO, 2009b). From here, reintegration programs and schools must consider these resources and capacities of children

and adolescents to build from this base and reinforce their self-esteem, which is often diminished.

SCE programs in Chile are characterized by addressing psychosocial skills development, focusing on remedying the negative meanings associated with the school, and the academic level, developing teaching relevant to the students' context to re-enchant the student with the learning process. They also seek to adopt flexible models that adapt to the needs of the different groups they serve. For example, most second chance models see the family as essential support in school reintegration, encouraging their involvement. The programs also seek to develop a close link with civil society, establishing territorial networks with other organizations and neighborhood residents.

Government spending on education (from preschool to higher education) has increased in recent years (OECD, 2019). However, there are still gaps in SCE funding, which requires multidisciplinary teams and specialized resources to address the needs of children and adolescents.

Programs to prevent out-of-schooling have not been successful, either because of the inability to recognize early warnings or because of the pedagogical models used, which are not motivating for students. On the other hand, no evaluations have been conducted to isolate the effect of each intervention (Subsecretaría de Educación, 2016b).

The educational reintegration projects or alternative educational spaces also illustrate problems according to their evaluation:

- low coverage;
- exclusion of people over 17 years of age;
- low permanence in the educational system after graduation;
- a temporality of the projects (defined with a duration of one year) that is not sufficient to make a good linkage and appraisal, carry out the psychosocial work before the learning phase, and address the lagging in terms of curricular knowledge.

In addition, there are project technical monitoring and team training needs, as well as an increased professional turnover since, in general, these teams work under temporary contracting conditions, low salaries, and high professional and emotional demands (SENAME, 2016; Subsecretaría de Educación, 2016a, 2016b).

Youth and Adult Education (YAE) is also neglected in the educational landscape through the invisibility of the CEIAs, the lack of further teacher training and specialized professionalization, inadequate infrastructure, and low school subsidies. In recent years, the population participating in YAE has decreased, both in the regular and flexible modalities (Acuña, 2016). On the other hand, more than 50% of students who attend the different YAE modalities do not finish the school year (MINEDUC, 2015a).

In this context, the 2016 competitive fund for Educational Reintegration Schools constitutes an alternative that can revitalize the work in SCE and generate more significant opportunities for students. These Second Chance Schools are a pilot initiative that seeks to become a stable and relevant alternative for this population, based on the experience of European schools. They are oriented to children, adolescents, and youth populations, unlike YAE. In 2018, 11 organizations or schools were awarded the competitive fund, for a total of CLP 828,598,000, with a capacity to serve 1,730 beneficiaries (MINEDUC, 2018c). Previous projects from civil society organizations were implementing these types of schools with both private and state funding. This is the case of the Second Chance Schools belonging to Fundación Súmate, from Hogar de Cristo, which have been working since 1989 with children, adolescents, and youth between 11 and 24 years (Fundación Súmate, 2020).

The different programs' population is heterogeneous regarding age, gender, maternity/paternity, and employment status. For this reason, if we want to think of an inclusive reintegration school, it is crucial to generate the conditions that would make it possible to

accommodate these different groups currently distributed in the different reintegration instances.

There are additional challenges for gender mainstreaming in SCE, especially in a context historically characterized by the predominance of a sexist culture. When thinking of a second chance education aimed at women, there is a responsibility to emphasize, from a gender perspective, addressing the attitudes, beliefs, and stereotypes that define gender socialization in schools. This is manifest in various aspects, such as the use of school space, toys, and games, the attitudes encouraged and allowed for each gender, the representation of each gender in the curriculum, including textbooks, and the differentiated expectations of teachers. For this reason, the school must actively combat the effects of this early socialization and promote spaces to criticize and transform these aspects. It is also from this area, and the early inclusion of sexuality education, that teenage pregnancy can be prevented, empowering women to make conscious and informed decisions about their sexuality and motherhood, and thus avoiding dropout for this reason.

It will also be essential to address the students' perception of their abilities as it has been seen that there are gender gaps in performance in standardized tests. The lower performance of women in mathematics and science is explained by reasons related to their self-esteem and self-efficacy rather than cognitive differences (OECD, 2017). This points to the importance of incorporating, both in the regular school system and in SCE, measures to address the self-image of girls and adolescents, which will be more relevant in the case of students with histories marked by violence, which affect their self-esteem. Furthermore, this aspect should also be considered when promoting the participation of women in the labor force as entrepreneurs since it has been observed that they have a lower perception of their business capabilities than men and focus on "out of necessity" and smallerscale ventures (GEM, 2017).

Additionally, it will be necessary to actively combat in SCE the influence of gender stereotypes on the life and career decisions of girls and young women. For example, in secondary education technical specialties and higher education careers, there is a high feminization of social areas and careers involving caring for others, such as pedagogy and health, while a high masculinization of STEM careers (Chile National Council of Education, 2019). This results in lower salaries and social prestige for professional women, even though their enrollment and graduation from higher education are higher than that of men. Thus. Chile has one of the highest gender wage gaps among OECD countries (OECD, 2019). These factors should be considered when thinking of an SCE empowering women, avoiding a curriculum and teaching attitudes that perpetuate gender stereotypes and promoting a wide range of labor and professional options for them.

An intersectional view should also be added, recognizing how gender interacts with other identities, such as poverty, determining life trajectories that may lead to school dropouts, such as early sexual initiation and teenage pregnancy. From an understanding of this intersectionality, concrete support must be provided to overcome the different barriers that female students may face in terms of education and employment.

An SCE sensitive to these issues could incorporate interventions such as early sex education to show alternatives other than naturalized adolescent motherhood in vulnerable contexts. Also, promote the exercise of reproductive and sexual rights; identifying gender stereotypes and barriers to labor participation, which require specific support to prepare women for work, entrepreneurship, and the fight for their rights in a Chilean society that continues to be markedly sexist. Therefore, it is an education that must be flexible and comprehensive enough to meet the academic and psychosocial needs of the participants. However, it must also have the gender perspective as a central axis to empower women to forge new life plans and carry them out.

The experts interviewed favored an SCE specifically aimed at women, considering the need for safe spaces that allow girls, adolescents, and young women to unfold their full potential without the influence of gender stereotypes. In their opinion, gender stereotypes would be highly limiting for academic behaviors and decisions in the regular school system. As long as these differences are not culturally resolved, these compensatory formats would allow girls and young women, for example, not to be restricted by male dominance in the use of outdoor spaces, speaking in the classroom, or more significant presence in STEM-related specialties.

A literature review of specific characteristics of the potential SCE population supports this idea, as it is necessary to do intensive psychosocial work with women who have been excluded from the educational system, strengthening their self-image, which an environment will facilitate, if not exclusively female, that is empathetic to the gender issues that are often directly related to out-of-schooling, such as

- teenage pregnancy;
- the tacit assignment of domestic and caregiving roles;
- a history of violence, abuse, and rights violations; and
- diminished perception of their capabilities.

On the other hand, studies on women who participate in SCE in Chile reveal resources that make them exceptionally resilient. The programs can strengthen these resources, fostering their empowerment, such as greater motivation for study and academic and psychosocial activities, greater expectations of continuing higher education, and a relational approach to learning, which can be managed as a leadership capacity.

The SCE experts' testimonies show that the gender perspective has not been systematically integrated into programs and schools but has been incorporated occasionally, as an afterthought, in the face of certain circumstances that visualize gender. These include

measures to address distribution among highly feminized or masculinized trades or specialties, depending on the domain, or measures to address womens' additional barriers to entry, such as the incorporation of nursery schools to address women's increased childcare responsibilities.

Gender mainstreaming from the conception of a womenoriented SCE means educating women to understand how their intersectional positionality affects their possibilities for employment and financial success. Consciousness-raising empowerment allows them to criticize this system and act to change it, not provide them with a limited or lower quality education only oriented to generate minor or subsistence enterprises. While quality of life indicators can be more easily improved through access to second-chance education, programs must be ambitious in defining themselves as feminist and citizenship education.

Emphasizing the development of psychosocial skills that support empowerment is one of the crucial aspects of second chance programs, especially when working with women who are subjected to symbolic cultural violence, in addition to, in many cases, being subjected to violence in their immediate environments. By strengthening their self-image, self-esteem, self-efficacy, and ability to function in social interactions, women can be empowered to identify this violence and change their living conditions. At the same time, they must recognize the barriers and facilitators in their environment and the limits of individual determination. From this point of view, education with a gender perspective must necessarily take on a collective nature and be based in the territory and local community, where women can, through sisterhood, identify the problems that affect them and organize to develop solutions in a selfmanaged manner, as well as develop activism at different levels to change public policies. Second chance schools can promote this collective and community aspect from their conception, establishing partnerships with other organizations and actors as part of their pedagogical and psychosocial model.

An SCE with an employment focus has the challenge of not generating opportunities for mere survival but rather allowing students to continue learning and developing once they graduate, whether by continuing their studies, entering the labor market, or creating and running their businesses.

A review of international SCE curricula that seek to empower women in different situations of rights violations concludes that they should be sufficiently flexible to address the situations of each particular group of girls and young women. On the other hand, we must be aware that emphasizing citizenship training and collective empowerment of women through SCE implies entering into complex territory. Developing their abilities to question the system, raise their voices, and act to make changes may encounter resistance. At times, these behaviors may conflict with shorter-term individual interests, where it is needed to reach a balance that addresses both their economic well-being and community ideals. A second chance school should then promote metacognition and critical thinking skills to evaluate these dilemmas. It is also necessary to consider the safety conditions that these women may have when implementing different activist actions or advocating for themselves. In situations of domestic violence, institutional abuse, or in neighborhood contexts of criminal insecurity, for example, these actions may put women at greater risk. Therefore, women's empowerment should take different forms according to the circumstances of each student and the conditions of the context.

In addition, the specific cultural variables of each group must be taken into consideration; for example, the situation of *Mapuche* women in the *La Araucanía* region would require an SCE in the region that integrates territorial and cultural demands with those of gender, with an intersectional feminist curriculum. Cultural issues should also be taken into account when working in areas of high poverty and crime. The street socialization that has allowed some of these young women to survive implies attitudes, language, and behaviors incompatible

with the school and labor system. Therefore, it is vital to educate on when to use the informal and formal codes rather than completely eradicate the former.

Indigenous, rural, and low-income women have lower levels of achievement associated with school performance, higher dropout rates, precarious access to the labor market and health, and limited social and political participation. This is why SCE must consider the different groups and identities that participate in thematizing concepts such as opportunity, culture, and intersectionality. These types of conversations are complex and require specific preparation of teachers to help deconstruct stereotypes and develop critical thinking in students.

In order to foster agency and a leading role in their own lives on the part of women participants in SCE, it is essential to validate the knowledge they bring, their culture and include them in decision-making on their educational processes. Especially with women, SCE cannot have an authoritarian or imposing nature, which runs the risk of reproducing gender and class hierarchies and relations that become oppressive for this group, which has already experienced multiple processes of exclusion. In particular, this may take various forms in the programs, such as including methodologies that put students at the center of learning as is the case of Project-Based Learning; incorporating views and activities that consider the territorial and cultural aspects through developing projects and undertakings that serve local communities; fostering bonds between teachers and students that are close and empathetic, where teachers know the particular contexts of their students; and encouraging students to play a leadership and advocacy role in their communities.

The experts' testimonies show the importance of linking women's empowerment with improving the conditions that represent structural barriers to social mobility, overcoming the dichotomies that lead to onedimensional views of the problem. Thus, an SCE with a gender perspective must understand itself from a balance between two points of view: recognizing the need for structural changes or non-reformist reforms involving social and economic policies that equalize opportunities for different groups in society, with emphasis on those most oppressed, such as poor women; and working from the existing structure, which includes strengthening the empowerment of its students, continuous improvement of SCE programs, and an emphasis on generating partnerships that develop the collective and community dimension of the programs, and facilitate the job placement of students after graduating from school.

By understanding the complexity of the out-of-schooling phenomenon and how it affects girls, adolescents, and women, it is essential, when promoting school and labor reintegration, to establish close networks and links that allow for collaborative and multidisciplinary networking: between the State, academe, and civil society; between school, family, community and organizations in the territory; between multidisciplinary professionals within school teams; between teachers and students; between entrepreneurs; and between training organizations and the labor market.

II. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR A SECOND CHANCE EDUCATION WITH A GENDER PERSPECTIVE

This section provides recommendations for an SCE with a gender perspective, based on the review of international and national good practices in SCE and interviews with experts in education and gender, job training and entrepreneurship, and second-chance education. These are presented in five sections: recommendations for public policies, for SCE programs, for job training and entrepreneurship, for the linkage of SCE with civil society, and for the academe.

II.A. Recommendations for Public Policies in Second Chance Education

II.A.1. Recognize the Need for Additional Resources and Flexibility for SCE: Public policies must recognize the additional difficulties of educational reintegration work and that these also work with students who do not attend, with constant follow-up. In this way, to have stable resources, these cannot be subject to attendance, as is currently the case under SCE funding through the school subsidy (SEP Law). Furthermore, second chance schools must be recognized as specialized institutions with an administrative statute that allows them to operate under a particular modality, different from a traditional school due to the particular needs of their population. Second chance schools must also have the resources to implement a psychosocial team to provide students with psychosocial support from a gender perspective. Although there is a specific competitive fund for reintegration programs and schools, they are subject to the exact requirements of regular schools, so policies could make some aspects more flexible to facilitate work with children and adolescents. Nevertheless, there are aspects related to the financing granted by these funds that must be modified. These include the need to consider a longer time horizon for reintegration programs, incorporating a follow-up period of at least two years that could also be extended to second-chance schools after high school graduation, allowing verification of aspects related to continuity of studies and job placement of the participants.

II.A.2. Develop and Advocacy Role in Public Policy from SCE: Transmit the experience of the schools and the needs of the students and work teams to decision-makers to encourage the provision of the required funding and facilities and continually improve the guidelines for SCE. It is also essential for SCE to contribute to modifying public policies that affect educational and labor justice from a gender perspective. This may include modifying the Labor Code and its maternity protection system, extending family care responsibilities to men, equalizing the cost of hiring between men and women together with job opportunities, and closing the gaps in the pension system due to the calculation of longevity; as well as working on regulations around gender violence to provide further protection to girls and women (Muñoz, 2020).

II.A.3. Incorporate the Gender and Intersectional Perspectives into the Solutions for Out-of-schooling: Public policies should

incorporate how gender particularities manifest for girls and young women in the intracurricular (teachers, school climate, curriculum) and extracurricular (socioeconomic context, family, culture) domains to develop effective reintegration solutions. This implies considering both the structural inequalities that, based on their multiple identities, afflict the majority of female students who drop out of school and participate in SCE programs and their resources and capacity for empowerment and agency.

II.A.4. Participatory Public Policies: Considering that public policies in SCE (and in education in general) have been created with a "top-down" approach, the elaboration of these policies should integrate professionals who have been working for years with people from vulnerable contexts and in SCE, community organizations, and students who have left the school system and joined different instances of SCE, especially in a context of youth empowerment originated from the recent student and feminist movements in Chile. Furthermore, including students in an active way in the decision-making about their educational process, valuing them as subjects of knowledge and citizens.

II.A.5. Balancing the Meritocratic Perspective with the Critical Perspective: Maintain a balance in educational programs between promoting competition and meritocracy and recognizing the inequalities that determine different starting points for women with different identities (sexual orientation, identity or expression, social class, race, belonging to indigenous peoples, migrants, among others). In entrepreneurship, it is necessary to have an empowering approach, especially when working on women's entrepreneurship, to combat the historical gender socialization that affects women's self-esteem and self-efficacy. However, it is also necessary to recognize that there are structural barriers and that it is not just a matter of "believing in yourself" to achieve successful entrepreneurship. From here, programs can incorporate more concrete support in the early stages of entrepreneurship. On the other

hand, adhering exclusively to a meritocratic perspective holds the risk of placing all the responsibility for success or failure (school, work) on the individual, which can generate feelings of guilt concerning the previous failure or dropout, without considering the weight of gender and social barriers that girls and young women may have experienced and are experiencing.

II.A.6. Valuing Diversity in Public Policies in SCE: It is of great significance to stress this aspect since the regular school system has tended to exclude groups such indigenous peoples and migrants (overrepresented in the out-of-school population). This exclusion is present in linguistic and cultural terms, or sexual and gender diversity, so SCE must take charge of repairing this by offering an education that values these differences and incorporates them into the curriculum, visualizing the implications of being a woman and belonging to these groups from intersectional perspectives.

II.A.7. Data Disaggregated by Sex: The official information from the government should include sex-disaggregated data that will allow second-chance programs and schools to understand the factors that affect men and women concerning school dropout and make differentiated interventions when appropriate. Likewise, schools and programs working on reintegration must incorporate sex disaggregation when conducting their evaluations and make this information available to the government to form an overall picture regarding SCE.

II.A.8. Provide Technical-pedagogical Reference Points for Schools: Due to the need to strengthen the curricular-pedagogical aspect of SCE projects through innovative and active methodologies, educational policies and SCE quality assurance systems must incorporate support for schools, to which they can resort in case of technical difficulties.

II.B.

Recommendations for Second Chance Education Programs

II.B.1.

Recommendations for Gender Mainstreaming:

II.B.1.i. Mainstreaming the Gender Perspective: Move towards mainstreaming the gender perspective in SCE, understanding that intermediate phases may require that topics such as gender inequality and intersectionality are addressed, in specially targeted spaces, that consider the characteristics of the program's population.

MINEDUC has made efforts to mainstream the gender perspective into education, pointing out that it involves the following areas: curriculum; textbooks and educational resources; pedagogical practices and discourses; promotion of participation; citizenship education; vocational guidance; school coexistence; distribution and use of physical spaces; education in sexuality and affectivity; life skills training; specialization and practices of technical vocational education; motivations for dropout; access and permanence in higher education; and information disaggregated by sex for diagnosis of gaps and inequalities (MINEDUC, 2015a). All these areas can be applied to SCE, where a particular emphasis can be placed on education in sexuality and affectivity, considering that teenage pregnancy is one of the leading causes of school dropout among women. Moreover, in the areas that connect with the elaboration of a future life project, such as vocational guidance, the job specialization they choose, life skills training, job training, and access to higher education.

As for gender mainstreaming into the curriculum, it can be included both in the Learning Objectives (LOs)previously, Fundamental Vertical Objectives, which refer to the development of skills, knowledge, and attitudes within a specific discipline, and in the Crosscutting Learning Objectives-previously, Transversal Fundamental Objectives (TLO). These objectives refer to the students' personal development, moral and social conduct. They must be promoted through the set of educational activities of the school process (rites, norms, symbols, example of adults, dynamics of participation and coexistence), without being associated with a specific subject (MINEDUC, 2015b). The latter include healthy sexual development, self-esteem, and self-confidence, which are relevant in an SCE with a gender perspective due to the gender inequalities observed in them.

The evaluations that have been made of the implementation of Cross-cutting Learning Objectives in our country have revealed several difficulties: since they are not evaluated with the same centrality as the learning objectives of each discipline (especially Language and Mathematics, where standardized tests are used), they are not considered as equally important, especially when incorporating them means limiting the teaching of the discipline itself (Palma, 2013); the scarce research on the subject shows its informality and the lack of reflection about Crosscutting Learning Objectives, which remain as a responsibility "of everyone and no one" (Reyes et al..., p. 222); there is not enough knowledge or experience among teachers to manage and formulate concrete proposals for the incorporation of these objectives, and teachers may come to believe that the gender perspective is mainstreamed, without actually understanding its meaning or changing their practices (Guerrero et al., 2007).

Consequently, it is essential to consider that until the gender perspective is mainstreamed and Cross-cutting Learning Objectives are effectively applied, it is needed to create spaces that allow for the targeted promotion of women's empowerment and the unveiling of gender inequalities in our society so that students can integrate this perspective and apply it in the different areas of their lives. Explicitly including gender issues in the

curriculum can empower SCE participants, especially in rural and impoverished contexts, where women have historically been subjugated to more traditional gender roles and more significant inequalities. In Chile, the curriculum must make visible aspects such as the domestic and caring role attributed to women, which affects labor and salary gaps; feminist demands in different areas, including gender violence and labor laws; and incorporate sexuality education to prevent teenage pregnancy.

A non-sexist education must be eminently feminist and intersectional (Muñoz-García & Lira, 2020). This means that in an SCE with a gender perspective, an education that makes visible the power relations in society and how different groups or identities are affected by these hierarchies and dynamics helps to think about how to question and change them when they are oppressive. This can start by helping to resignify the stories of school failure or dropout, understanding the barriers and obstacles they have faced and still face as female students; mostly in poverty and living in contexts of socioeconomic vulnerability; and in more significant proportion than the rest of the population, belonging to indigenous or migrant peoples. Thus, SCE is a solution to a problem that is strongly marked by socioeconomic class. Therefore, it is necessary to visualize this factor as part of the empowerment process of female students.

Additionally, the interviewed gender experts pointed out the invisibilization of the rejection of homosexuality in the school system (mainly by adults in the school), which could be at the basis of school dropout and related to higher dropout and suicide rates among this population. Thus, SCE should be especially emphatic in generating safe spaces that welcome all sexual identities and orientations, educating in this area as part of the curriculum, recognizing the existing discriminations in society for these reasons, and fostering an awareness of rights.

II.B.1.ii. Gender Mainstreaming into the Different Stages of the SCE Programs: The different phases of the SCE educational process must be inclusive of women and consider interventions to advance gender equality in society. SCE should show girls and adolescents and their families the advantages of educational reintegration to attract them to schools, invest efforts in building trust that fosters the educational process, make a good appraisal that considers both academic and psychosocial aspects, strengthen their expectations for the future, develop strategies to prevent new school dropout processes taking into account the most frequent reasons among women, and implement personalized monitoring that extends to a follow-up after the program, supporting their job placement process.

The population of the national reintegration programs and schools is primarily male, which speaks to the need for an effort in the promotion phase of the programs and pre-entry to attract girls and female adolescents to SCE and show them its advantages. Ways to reach them, such as meeting them in their environment (homes, parks, communities), need to be developed. Although this may be challenging for teachers, it will allow potential students to feel comfortable and be prepared for new learning experiences without barriers or fears (EAEA, 2019a). It is essential to identify and remove barriers such as location, schedule, and how the program is communicated (e.g., not just in writing). Thus, while students must be self-motivated to enroll in a second chance school, it is possible to take charge of strategies to help generate that motivation through how the program is presented and disseminated. In addition, it is important to consider strategies to attract students further away from schooling, such as those involved in gang groups or with street socialization.

Before starting school, girls and adolescents must go through a period of orientation, where they learn about the school's operation and methodology and decide whether they want to commit to studying in that school or program (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

After admission, it is recommended to strengthen the program's appraisal phase as this is the moment when trust is built between the students and the program team. On the other hand, it allows determining the student's level of knowledge and skills to place her in the school according to her needs. This is a crucial aspect due to a significant heterogeneity among the students who enter the educational reintegration programs, including baseline knowledge, psychosocial requirements, and cultural characteristics. Therefore, it is vital to evaluate the student's actual level, not just what is indicated on paper, even if this means repeating a grade to achieve the learning left pending effectively. It will also be essential to invest more effort in building trust in women's SCE since there can often be a reluctance due to psychological, physical, and sexual violence histories.

Once in school, it is vital to help students adapt through constant monitoring by a counselor or mentor. Subsequently, in the phase of academic development and learning progression, the expectations of girls and adolescents about their future and graduation from school should be worked on, which may require combating deteriorated self-esteem and histories of reduced expectations compared to their male peers (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

Strategies must be developed to prevent new processes of out-of-schooling of female students, who are more exposed to it for reasons connected with caregiving and domestic roles.

Finally, the follow-up phase after graduation is critical to support entry into the labor market to ensure the success of these processes in the long term. Therefore, it is recommended to follow up for a minimum of two years, considering that the most significant difficulties are generated in this period, ideally carried out by the same mentor that the student has had during their stay

in school, and involving the families to prevent difficulties (Hogar de Cristo, 2019). Furthermore, in this phase, it is crucial to support women in the face of some of the gender barriers and gaps they may be exposed to in the workplace, strengthening their ability to recognize them and exercise their rights.

II.B.2.Recommendations for School Management

II.B.2.i. Develop Information and Student Monitoring **Systems:** These will allow interdisciplinary teams to work collaboratively and effectively, defining the responsibilities of each professional, thus promoting retention and early action of students at the risk of dropping out through individual and collective interventions. These should focus on the known risk factors for women dropping out of school: domestic work, caregiving, and teenage pregnancy, in addition to indicators of school failure. The system must warn of possible violations of rights and provide access to the institutional history of girls and young women to avoid invisibility, over-interventions, duplication of efforts, or iatrogenic interventions (Hogar de Cristo, 2019). This is vital during the initial appraisal of the students, so these are not processes that will alienate them from education once again. The information included in these systems should consider the context of the school, which determines the opportunities in the territory, including job placement.

II.B.2.ii. Include Internal and External Evaluations for Continuous Improvement: Diversify the forms of evaluation, including students' self-evaluations (together with their tutors), teachers' self-evaluations (together with their mentors, if applicable), and students' evaluations of teachers. It is also necessary to improve the systems for program evaluation and certification from the state institutions.

II.B.2.iii. Horizontal and Close Leaderships: Promote a leadership style in the management and teaching teams

that is horizontal, involved in the school's daily life, and where concern for the students and closeness to the work team is manifested.

II.B.2.iv. Foster the Generation of Learning Communities within the School: These will allow the teams to reflect on their own practice and develop solutions to their problems. In addition, these spaces are essential to reflect on how the gender perspective is being incorporated in the school.

II.B.2.v. Infrastructure: Provide an adequate and enjoyable infrastructure for learning, and consider the use of school spaces from a gender perspective, inviting students to make expansive and active use of them, for example: encouraging the use of the schoolyard and the practice of sports, without being limited by gender stereotypes where the feminine has historically been associated with passivity and containment of expression and movements; likewise, inviting them to participate in subjects such as computing and programming (areas numerically dominated by men) or reading about women leaders in different fields, encouraging the use of areas such as the computer room or library during free periods. As some YAE schools operate in evening hours within traditional schools that have a more significant number of students, much of the building is left unused, causing a feeling of being uninhabited and affecting the well-being of the students. It is necessary to modify these conditions so that the students can appropriate the spaces (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

II.B.2.vi. Flexibility of the Programs: Introduce as much flexibility as possible in the programs to meet the heterogeneous needs and situations of girls and young women in SCE: offer different modalities, schedules, routes, excursions, contents, and pedagogical strategies that allow for flexibility in the use of school time, leave the classroom space and connect with the territory and community, based on projects that consider the diverse interests of the students.

Each school year must start with creating a personalized study plan developed between the teachers/mentors and the student and, if possible, with the student's family. This plan involves reaching agreements regarding schedules, selecting learning areas, the type of internship (if applicable), and a learning proposal to be implemented during the year (Hogar de Cristo, 2019). In this way, each plan is personalized according to the situation and interests of the students, which allows them to be motivated to learn, receive afterschool tutoring in their weakest learning areas, feel recognized and perceive that the educational system can develop training proposals according to their needs and interests, and that diversity is valued in cultural and social terms, as well as the students' particularities. Furthermore, flexibility is crucial for those who work and study or who have children. Tutoring or extra lessons can also be included for those who need special support or more learning time. In addition, subjects passed in previous schools can be validated, allowing for a shorter duration of the programs (Arroyo et al., 2007).

II.B.2.vii. Size of the School and Classes: Preferably, aim for a smaller class and school size, as this decreases the risk of school failure (OECD, 2012) and, on the other hand, will facilitate personalized monitoring, which is suggested for SCE. Furthermore, the ratio of students per teacher should be approximately 6:1, and the ratio of students per psychosocial professional should be approximately 20:1 (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

II.B.3.

Recommendations for Second
Chance Education Teams and Teachers

II.B.3.i. Incorporate an Internal Psychosocial Team in Schools: These teams should have different professionals (psychologists, social workers, special educators, among others) working collaboratively. The psychosocial team within each school is in charge of promoting an adequate school climate, providing support to students in their educational trajectory,

teachers in the relationship they establish with the girls, especially in crises, and school professionals in forming a cohesive team. On the other hand, it should support the interventions with the students and the families, carry out appraisal processes and monitoring plans, and establish a link between them and different services (health, labor). In addition to the teaching staff, the team should include in its training processes and team meetings administrative staff, cleaning staff, maintenance staff, and food handlers, since they share a great deal of time with the students and have valuable information for the team (Hogar de Cristo, 2019). It is necessary to consider training these teams to know how to act in case of crises, make the required referrals, and create conditions for their permanence in the workplace to establish stable relations with the students, including spaces for self-care and co-care to prevent burnout syndrome.

II.B.3.ii. Strengthen Teacher Training: The critical and intersectional perspectives, the gender perspective, and effective pedagogical methodologies should be incorporated into SCE, inviting teachers to analyze their own biases, recognize their positionality, and combat gender inequalities in both the explicit and hidden curriculum (with particular emphasis on the expectations they transmit to their female students). Faculties of education should develop the adequate capacity of teachers to acquire assertive teaching methodologies and didactics, foster their social skills, knowledge in psychology, and the ability to promote learning in different types of students, with different educational trajectories such as school exclusion. It is vital to introduce the notion of intersectionality, a structural view, and perspectives that promote collective agency and capacity from a territorial and resource-based view of the communities. This will allow teachers to understand the reality of their students, identify those at greater risk of dropping out of school and carry out personalized preventive work. Teachers must guide their students in identifying the structures and dynamics of the systems in which they live to recognize the oppression to which they are subjected, understand it, and challenge it. As a precondition for this, teachers themselves must have become aware of their power, identity, and privileges, identifying their stereotypes and discriminatory practices concerning the students with whom they work. One of the domains that should be incorporated in initial training, which will prevent the alienation of students from the school system because they do not feel identified or involved, is citizenship training. This action will allow understanding girls and young women as active citizens, and not only "in citizenship training," capable of co-constructing their teaching-learning processes and intervening in their communities and society.

In working with the law-breaking population, teachers must understand transgressive behavior in the context of poverty, where it can be a forced integration response through accessing consumer goods or the legitimizing forms of belonging (Subsecretaría de Prevención del Delito, 2016). The importance of combining knowledge of populations in vulnerable contexts with the gender perspective is highlighted to understand such complex dynamics as being a partner of a man who participates in criminal acts and groups.

Gender mainstreaming in teacher training is central to be able to contribute from education to overcoming gender gaps. It must be part of both initial training and in-service training so that teachers can recognize their prejudices in time and not impact the experience of students in school, playing an essential role in making this experience more positive and empowering for students' life projects, and address gender roles that may influence school absenteeism and performance of girls and young women, as well as their probabilities of school dropout and teenage pregnancy.

It is important to show teachers how their preconceptions about gender affect the academic and work expectations they raise about their students. Prejudice has a significant and direct effect on their

outcomes, as self-fulfilling prophecies, and on adolescent girls' decisions about their careers, often limited to traditionally feminized fields, and with less prestige and remuneration. Gender mainstreaming in regular education and SCE will also positively impact male students, contributing to broader expressions of their masculinity and cultural changes regarding gender roles and stereotypes, which require a joint effort. On the other hand, gender mainstreaming from the perspective of reintegration education teachers will allow them to be more aware of the gender barriers for female students to resume their studies and stay in school. Within SCE management teams, it will allow developing mechanisms in the school to overcome these barriers, such as nursery schools for the students' children and work with families for a more equitable distribution of tasks and roles.

Finally, teachers must be trained in pedagogical strategies and curricular adaptations that have been proven to work in SCE. These include incorporating the development of skills with a more practical orientation and applicable to the daily lives of students for effective social development, such as conflict resolution or teamwork; incorporating tasks connected to the "real world" and their culture; and including students, their prior knowledge and interests actively in the educational process (SENAME, 2016).

II.B.3.iii. Teacher Autonomy and Protagonism: Include teachers with an active role in research, training, and disseminating experiences and good practices in SCE. This action will be relevant in an SCE aimed exclusively at women since there are no experiences of this type in Chile. The collaborative work of teachers (who can use digital resources to connect with other schools) will allow identifying what works. It is essential that teacher training is not imposed "from above" without recognizing teachers' needs and prior knowledge. To this end, it is possible to find ways to collect and disseminate the practical knowledge they have developed through their direct experience.

II.B.3.iv. Teachers' Working Conditions: Ensure decent working conditions for teachers (salaries, planning time - with a maximum of 35% of teaching hours- and joint reflection, psychosocial support professionals in the school) and prevent teacher burnout, considering the effort required to work with a population from vulnerable contexts and promote a gender mainstreaming in a sexist society. Although poor working conditions of teachers (low salaries, work overload, punitive evaluation systems) and low social esteem given to the teaching profession also affect teachers in the regular school system, the increased demands on SCE teachers (for example, making home visits when students don't attend classes) highlight this aspect. On the other hand, professional turnover in schools can negatively impact SCE students, breaking their trust. Another suggestion made within international experiences is to have a mentor for teachers, a figure external to the team that enhances their work, reviewing teaching methodologies, giving them feedback, collaborating in solving their issues, questions, and obstacles, and supporting their teamwork (Hogar de Cristo, 2019). When teachers have to work with vulnerable populations from a gender perspective that requires questioning social and standardized practices and their prejudices, it is crucial to consider the overwork that may lead to teacher burnout.

II.B.3.v. Personalized Mentors: Include the role of mentors or tutors, who carry out a personalized monitoring of the students, hopefully, women, and who have a similar history to the latter, to identify with the tutors that motivate them to develop alternative livelihood projects. The tutor's task is to build a relationship of individual trust with the student, beyond the school context, from the personal and emotional domain, becoming a significant figure. They have the challenge of knowing the context and situation of the student, providing support to develop the study plan, and maintaining a link with the family if applicable. Therefore, mentors should not have more than four

students under their charge; during their time at the school, they should meet at least once a week, and after graduation, they should meet with the girls regularly for two years. Ideally, each student should have only one tutor during her entire period at the school and upon graduation (Hogar de Cristo, 2019). Having a "positive peer" who comes from a similar background can help when they are involved in marginalization, gangs, drug addiction, or illicit activities (UNESCO, 2009a).

II.B.3.vi. Teacher-Student Bond: Foster a close bond between teachers and students, understanding that it will favor the teaching-learning processes and make students feel satisfied and motivated. It is essential to understand the work in SCE as affective based, which implies developing a relationship of mutual respect and trust, where the teacher shows empathy and compassion, and the student feels recognized and not stigmatized. Teachers should be provided with strategies to establish trusting relationships that are compensatory for students who have had a history of lousy school experiences and support them in the face of the possible emotional overload implied in their role. Teachers must manage balanced representations of the students they teach and high learning expectations. They should provide a space for activities that foster bonding and allow to know the state of mind of each student and the socio-familial situations they have available for learning.

In working with a law-breaking population or in a situation of violation of rights, it is recommended that programs for girls and young women offer less restrictive and authoritarian environments and focus on relationships.

II.B.4. **Recommendations for Working** with the Families

The literature shows that school success is more significant if the student has the support of a family

member or other significant reference and perceives that someone cares that she attends school. Therefore, it is essential to promote the appreciation of education by families and active involvement of families or responsible adults, fostering a common identity and sense of belonging to the school community. It is recommended:

II.B.4.i. Communication with the Families: Maintain frequent communication with the student's family, focusing on progress and achievements (and not only on the student's problems), seeking to strengthen the figure of responsible adults as pedagogical allies who support the teaching-learning process of the students. These actions will promote an appreciation of education that is aware of and empathetic to the families' situations. This contact sometimes requires that teachers and school officials visit families in their homes to build bonds of trust, work directly with them and empower them in this school support role. It is possible to follow the example of programs such as "Aulas Comunitarias," from Uruguay (UNESCO, 2009a) or "Yo me sumo al PDE," from MINEDUC's educational reintegration programs (SENAME, 2016), which emphasize working with families through the construction of the figure of the "pedagogical ally". This generates closeness to the family home, where agreements strengthen the role of the adult in the education of children and adolescents and their appreciation of education, and tools are provided for their material and emotional support, incorporating dynamic and playful activities. When working with families, it is crucial to visualize the unequal distribution of tasks for boys and girls within the household, which negatively affects the time girls and young women can spend studying.

II.B.4.ii. Open Schools: Generate different open activities in the school, to which parents are invited. In addition, friends from outside the school can also be included in the school environment through open cultural and sporting events.

II.B.4.iii. Case-by-Case Evaluation: Conduct a caseby-case evaluation when fostering involvement. There are situations of violation of children and adolescents' rights where parents are disruptive agents instead of facilitators of learning (they promote employment and do not value children and adolescents' abilities to study). It is also sought to foster the idea of the students as responsible for their actions (CPCE, 2016). Some students live in temporary residences with other tutors, who can also be involved as allies. There are also cases, especially girls and adolescent women, who are in a situation of physical. psychological, or sexual violence within their families, where it is better to promote the students' autonomy or work with other tutors in addition to supporting the processes for their protection.

II.B.5.Recommendations in the Pedagogical Sphere

II.B.5.i. Incorporate Active and Student-Centered Pedagogical Methodologies: These may include Project-Based Learning or Service-Learning, which allow the curriculum to have contextual relevance, creating meaningful learning where products positively impact the community, and developing job skills in the students.

Out-of-schooling is often explained by a disconnection felt by the students with the school system and its curriculum-centered orientation, where the subjects are not related to the "real world." Therefore, establishing connections between the subjects through projects that articulate and apply the contents and allow solutions to concrete problems of the students' communities can be ways to motivate them.

The different reintegration experiences reviewed coincide in proposing for SCE the use of methodologies that put the student at the center of learning, personalized learning, and recognition of their previous knowledge and culture. These should be innovative,

entertaining, inclusive, and empowering methodologies (EAEA, 2014).

The products created as part of the projects can be used as educational materials that can be integrated into the teaching-learning processes and, at the same time, allow the school's work to be disseminated. To encourage concrete products with actual audiences, competitions or exhibitions can be developed inside or outside the school where the community is invited, or publish texts that compile stories written by the students, among other alternatives (MINEDUC, 2018c). In some schools, students participate in national or international conferences to present the results of a project, an innovative teaching method practiced at school, or participate in discussions on different topics.

A good practice identified in the pedagogical area that allows students to connect with their territory is the "pedagogical walks," used by the SENAME's educational reintegration programs. They consist of guided visits to iconic cultural sites in the neighborhood, expanding the knowledge of the community and neighbors, and allowing to relate the concrete experience with more abstract concepts.

Daily work can begin with activities in spaces other than the classroom (yoga, art workshops), which allow the students to meet with themselves and generate better readiness for the rest of the daily work, with openness to the students' interests. It is also recommended to intensify the use of spaces other than the classroom, such as the computer room, or outdoor spaces for cultivation.

When generating contextual relevance of the SCE curriculum, it is necessary to maintain a balance between ensuring access to socially valued knowledge and meeting the educational needs of specific groups, incorporating their interests, but without developing a "ghetto curriculum," but instead including them in the standard curriculum (UNESCO, 2009a).

Another critical aspect in the pedagogical area is developing mental models and patterns of thinking among the students, promoting metacognition to develop autonomy and self-regulation of learning. One way to articulate this is the use of self-assessment.

II.B.5.ii. Foster the Female Students' Civic Role: It is necessary to incorporate the citizenship domain in learning, develop students' critical thinking, encourage their active participation in their community and society, promote awareness of their rights, promote student organization and leadership, and overcome gender stereotypes that give women a secondary role in public life. The curriculum can incorporate values, digital, financial, environmental and health education, and civic skills. Another way to implement citizenship training can be through service-learning initiatives, which allow for meaningful learning in connection with the territory. Recreational strategies, artistic and critical expression of the youth voice can also be incorporated, with the development of projects led by girls and adolescents, which contribute to strengthening their self-esteem, autonomy, and entrepreneurial capacity.

II.B.5.iii. Evaluating Learning: Incorporate an evaluation of academic and psychosocial areas, making students' progress visible, with continuous feedback and inclusion of forms of self-evaluation. Do not focus only on positive characteristics and academic achievements, as is usually done in the regular school system, but consider the students' social skills, innovative ideas, or social engagement. To provide continuous feedback, projects should be carried out in stages, with each stage having interactive feedback of the process. In addition, given the work and family responsibilities of many students in second-chance schools, it is recommended that all school work be done during the school day, without giving them homework to do at home.

One of the problems that have been reported in evaluation is the one pointed out by Acuña (2016):

The systems of evaluation and certification of learning in SCE are not consistent with the learning processes, which generates negative educational experiences among students. Although second chance schools can develop internal evaluation systems, there are educational modalities and programs left to external agencies. By making evaluations more flexible and adjusting them to contribute effectively to the learning process, it will be possible to prevent school dropout, both in the regular school system and reintegration programs.

II.B.6.Recommendations in the Psychosocial Sphere

II.B.6.i. Strengthen Social Skills and Self-esteem as a Core Component of SCE: Second chance schools should include the development of social skills. transversal competencies, and life skills. Some of the skills that should be strengthened in the students are autonomy, critical thinking, self-discipline, proactivity, responsibility, and conflict resolution, which will favor their development in the world of work and life in general (Hogar de Cristo, 2019). It is also necessary to address the stigmatization they carry, reversing the devalued self-image of themselves. It is suggested to provide them with a set of satisfactory learning and participation experiences and allow them to prove again and again that they can (UNESCO, 2009a). This is even more relevant when considering women in SCE, who may often have traumatic histories of psychological, physical, or sexual violence, which affect their selfesteem. Furthermore, it is essential to raise expectations for the future, look for educational continuity or job placement, and foster self-confidence in their entrepreneurial skills, which tends to be lower in women than men. To achieve this, it is crucial to foster a climate that turns the second chance school

into a safe space, where female students can dare to try and make mistakes in the learning process and progressively develop their psychosocial skills.

II.B.6.ii. Future Projects: Helping students develop future projects that are not limited by gender stereotypes or previous histories of school failure. It is possible to incorporate personal intervention tools to support students in re-signifying past negative experiences. These tools help elaborate more abstract concepts in an applied and concrete way, such as the "Electrocardiogram" used in the SENAME educational reinsertion programs, which consists of a graphic representation of the critical milestones of one's history and the intensity of positive and adverse events. These instruments allow focusing on concrete and short-term goals, making the students' achievements visible.

II.B.6.iii. School Coexistence and Discipline: Second chance schools need to consider the behavioral and disciplinary aspects of their educational project. Many students have a history of being labeled "with behavioral problems," and relationships with teachers, school officials, or other students have not always been harmonious. School coexistence includes relationships between students and relationships with teachers and other school staff, where, in many cases, out-of-school students report violence from them (Hogar de Cristo, 2019). This is why it is necessary to develop coexistence policies that generate adequate climates for the learning and participation of all.

Some proposals in this area include developing positive behavior interventions to prevent behavioral problems, where behavior expectations are communicated to students clearly and openly to participate in setting them. Also, developing forms of restorative justice in schools that focus on mediation and consensus, rather than punishment or sanctions that exclude students (expulsion from the classroom, staying after school, suspension, expulsion from

school). In these interventions, students accept responsibility for causing harm to others and develop ways to make amends.

Self-discipline should be promoted progressively, emphasizing the rule's meaning, and without exercising an authoritarian style, but instead emphasizing the relational aspect and incorporating the students in the co-construction of the norms.

It is essential to understand the forms of resistance of the students, for example, concerning the aesthetic impositions of the school, through conversations that make visible the meanings and prejudices in our society about the image, and how personal decisions in this regard have a political component. The school must be able to incorporate the view of youth cultures and identities, integrating students in the reflection around disciplinary rules, and reaching consensus on what are the behavioral expectations from the co-construction, encouraging students to appropriate the educational space as a place that belongs to them and generate a shared identity.

II.B.6.iv. Generate Spaces for Recreation, Expression and Student Participation: Some strategies that can be used include generating spaces for learning, recreation, sports, artistic and creative expression; spaces for student dialogue and debate on problems and issues of interest; spaces for the development of projects and community service; and spaces for organizing as a student government. It is essential not to limit students and combat gender stereotypes in the included activities.

II.B.7.

Recommendations for the Continuation of Higher Education

II.B.7.i. Vocational Guidance with a Gender Perspective: Counteract the effects of gender stereotypes in girls, adolescents, and women's lives

and career decisions, promoting various work and professional options. It is vital that, at this point, joint work is done with the families to show high expectations among the students and do not limit their options. Examples of women leaders (hopefully with similar life stories and experiences) in non-traditional women's fields, such as STEM, can also be shown. In addition, female graduates of the program or school (or similar schools) who have achieved success in their fields of work can be invited to share their experience with the students.

II.B.7.ii. Feature Continuation of Higher Education as an Option: Although schools focus on job training, they mustn't close off possibilities for continuing studies so that students have equal opportunities and are the ones who make informed decisions about what to do once they graduate from high school. In addition, the current context of free education in higher education for students of the first three quintiles may change the perception of students with lower economic resources regarding the possibilities of accessing higher education, so it is essential to communicate this alternative to students.

II.B.7.iii. Support for Navigating the Bureaucracy: Incorporate into vocational orientation programs practical support for students in navigating the institutional bureaucracy for obtaining economic benefits and informing them of the alternatives of higher education institutions, educational programs, and their job prospects. For example, visits to higher education institutions or academic fairs can also be included.

II.C. Recommendations for Job Training and Entrepreneurship

II.C.1. Granting Support to Entrepreneurship and Job Placement: The experts interviewed highlighted the importance of addressing the barriers

for entrepreneurship to become a real job opportunity for participants in training programs. This step includes developing a flexible curriculum to empower them for dependent or independent employment, according to their needs and without forcing a premature decision. Besides, it includes aids to facilitate entrepreneurship, which allows scaling it beyond precarious or subsistence entrepreneurship (especially among women, who face more significant barriers to entrepreneurship), such as networks with organizations that can provide job opportunities after training; and knowing the needs of the market in terms of job skills, integrating companies in the educational process of SCE students. Furthermore, it is also needed to contribute to modifying public policies to promote the integration of women in the world of work, including national laws regarding nursery schools, which hinder the hiring of women; refine the risk assessments of the financial system with a gender approach; allow access to larger-scale financing; enhance access to marketing networks; and strengthen training opportunities in technical aspects, information and production technologies, to advance business (Comunidad Mujer, 2016; GEM, 2017; World Bank, 2010). Additionally, it is crucial to establish coordination with kindergartens in the territory or incorporate childcare centers in the programs, which ideally continue to provide the service during the job placement phase; as well as to strengthen the role of women as students or workers/entrepreneurs, versus their maternal role or the one associated with household chores, as well as to combat possible feelings of guilt associated with leaving their children in the care of others for a few hours, or having to reorganize household chores and share them with other members of the family group.

II.C.2. Information and Communication Technologies: Intensively incorporate ICTs in the curricula, both as tools for learning and as part of labor competencies, especially in programs oriented to entrepreneurship, where aspects such as marketing require the mastery of these skills. In addition, since

technology is one of the most masculinized areas of performance, it is necessary to include it in SCE programs aimed at women, working on the perception of capabilities and self-confidence in this regard.

II.C.3. Vocational Guidance: Include vocational orientation programs that allow students to learn about trades and professions in different areas and the job prospects for each to promote decision-making that is not guided by gender stereotypes. Following the example of "The Personal Project" in Morocco, one initiative that could be incorporated is creating a portfolio with a vocational project, carried out after learning about different career paths through visits to workplaces and talks by professionals, and analyzing market needs (UNICEF, 2019).

II.C.4. Partnerships with Companies: Develop partnerships with companies to create internships for students (which ideally can be extended after the internship period), particularly with traditionally masculinized areas, integrating their professionals in training activities for students, with role models close to them. They will be able to communicate to students in a concrete and specific way what the position entails and allow educational teams to survey market needs to integrate these competencies more intentionally into programs (Réseau E2C France, 2020; E2O Spain, 2020). In the case of internships throughout the school year, the attendance rules should be similar to those of the institution where the student is doing it to prepare them for the world of work (Hogar de Cristo, 2019). To the extent possible, securing a contract in the companies where participants do their internships would be a significant incentive. It would remedy possible discrimination in the search for employment for reasons of gender or social class, among others. Furthermore, it is possible to develop further partnerships with industries and companies seeking to diversify their staff, as they currently represent highly masculinized areas, such as mining or programming.

II.C.5. Incentives: Incorporate incentives for students at different stages of the educational process and in different formats. These may include: bonuses, salaries for internships or community projects, internal competitive funds for entrepreneurship (including mentoring, in addition to monetary funds), partnerships with organizations or clients that facilitate the scaling up of ventures, or the provision of tools, among others. With these incentives, the attractiveness of participating in SCE programs may increase for women, for whom studying implies making the necessary arrangements concerning their domestic and maternal roles. In addition, some of the job training programs in Chile have internal competitive funds for their students to develop their entrepreneurship in the initial stage and develop collective programs that connect entrepreneurs with clients. Both are initiatives that can be incorporated into second-chance schools as a way of generating incentives for students.

II.D. Recommendations for the Linkage of Civil Society in Second Chance Education

II.D.1. Foster Partnerships Between the State, Companies, and Foundations: Actively seek to build partnerships with companies and foundations that can support the work of SCE and the articulation of job placement with the educational process, generating private funding for the schools in addition to the state funding and establishing agreements for talks with professionals, visits and internships in different companies, competitive funds for entrepreneurship, scholarships for continuation of higher education for students, or funding for research and evaluation of reintegration programs. It is suggested to contact companies or foundations primarily motivated by promoting gender equality so that the partnerships allow them to comply with their mission and corporate social responsibility guidelines.

II.D.2. Promote Openness of the School to the Community and Encourage Volunteerism:

Promote different actions that allow the voluntary work of neighbors and the community in the school, such as their visualization and recruitment of new students, their participation as popular educators or telling about their professional experience to the students, or helping in the development of school activities open to the community. Incorporating the knowledge and organizational capacity of the community bases can be an effective strategy for the SCE, which requires working on the students' prejudices when they are in the territory, generating instances open to the community.

with II.D.3. Foster Partnerships the Organizations that Work with Women in the Territory: It is essential to know and strengthen the relationship with legal, physical and mental health, social protection, and cultural institutions, among other areas, to make referrals of students and follow up on them, establishing relationships of trust with the monitors of these organizations. Most of these entities have been working for years on the problems present in the neighborhoods, so they have greater knowledge of them. In contexts of social conflict and violence (drug trafficking, child prostitution, unemployment, malnutrition, organized crime, among others), greater coordination of social networks and support is required to modify the context of vulnerability, so secondchance schools within these contexts should be primarily concerned with working systemically.

II.D.4. Undertake Service-Learning Activities with Students that Benefit the Community and Allow for the School's Territorial Integration: In this area, it is possible to consider the examples of the YouthBuild program, which works on the construction of houses for the neighbors, or the second chance schools in Europe, which develop intergenerational projects in which students teach new technologies to older adults (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

II.E. Recommendations for the Academe

II.E.1. Promote Participatory Action-Research within Second Chance Schools: Considering the pilot nature of second-chance schools in Chile and the innovation implied in creating second-chance schools with a gender perspective, with an employment focus and aimed at women, it is vital to generate and disseminate knowledge in this regard. For this reason, it is indispensable to integrate participatory actionresearch initiatives, led by the students, teachers, or school management teams, into the very design of the schools. The characteristics of this type of research are: to be carried out by the actors of an organization or community themselves and not by a researcher on or about them; to be deliberate and systematic (unlike what could be a spontaneous reflective process on the practice itself); and to be oriented towards some action or cycle of actions to solve a particular problem within the context or among the participants (Herr & Anderson, 2015). In addition to improving their practices, participatory action-research can contribute to a virtuous circle, where schools participate in conferences or competitions with other schools - national and international - to present the results of projects carried out and disseminate good practices. The work teams can choose representatives who will learn to present projects, participate in meetings with other students or teachers, generate a sense of belonging, foster their communication skills, and feel proud of their job and school (Hogar de Cristo, 2019).

II.E.2. Foster Partnerships between Second Chance Education, Universities, and other Research Organizations: This will promote the development of research on second-chance education. However, the work carried out by these academic centers must maintain the participatory guidelines indicated by participatory action research, highlighting the knowledge of the actors in the field instead of imposing research and solutions from above.

II.E.3. Investigate the Factors that Influence Out-of-Schooling: Research on the reasons for educational exclusion should be encouraged to prevent it, considering the intracurricular and extracurricular factors. In this sense, the captive populations found in second-chance schools can provide relevant information for this type of research.

II.E.4. Promote Gender Mainstreaming in Research: It is essential to incorporate it from the conception of the research, disaggregating the data by sex, to make visible the problems that specifically affect women in terms of dropout, educational reintegration, job placement, and the existing gaps.

II.E.5. Improve the Evaluations of Second Chance Education Programs and Include Different Indicators: To evaluate school performance, combine quantitative and qualitative indicators, internal and external evaluations (by ministries or other institutions), and assess the impact on students in the short and long terms. For example, to measure the success of a second-chance school, attendance, retention, and graduation rates can be considered, as well as the program's graduates' labor or educational placement rates.

In addition, aspects such as satisfaction with the functioning of the project (subjective wellbeing) or with learning; self-confidence and behavior of the students; the rate of criminality, teenage pregnancy, problematic drug use, and living conditions at the beginning and end of the program can also be measured. It can also include the satisfaction of teachers and family members.

II.E.6. Disseminate Knowledge to Impact Public Policies: Develop partnerships and advocacy so that the knowledge obtained from the research can impact the development of public policies for SCE, especially disseminating the new knowledge obtained in the experiences of second chance schools from a gender perspective, aimed at women with an employment focus. Research on SCE can help disseminate its potential and raise awareness of its importance among various stakeholders (public policymakers, companies or individuals who can provide funding or support, professionals in various related fields). The knowledge obtained from research must continuously inform public policies and guidelines for SCE from the institutional level.

REFERENCES

Acción Educar (2019). *Proyecto de Ley de Presupuesto 2020*: Distribución del Gasto en Educación. Available online at: https://accioneducar.cl/

Acuña, V. (2016). Situación y Desafíos post 2015 de la Educación de Jóvenes y Adultos en Chile en el marco de las metas del programa mundial de la Educación para Todos. *Revista Educación de Adultos y Procesos Formativos*. Facultad de Educación, Universidad de Playa Ancha.

Agencia de Calidad de la Educación (2020) ¿Qué es el Simce? Gobierno de Chile. Available online at: http://www.simce.cl/

Ainscow, M. (1995). *Necesidades especiales en el aula*. Madrid: Narcea.

Almonacid, C., Luzón, A. & Torres, M. (2008). Cuasi Mercado Educacional en Chile: El Discurso de los Tomadores de Decisión. *Archivos Analíticos de Políticas Educativas*, 16(8).

Anderson, G., & Grinberg, J. (1998). Educational administration as a disciplinary practice: appropriating Foucault's view of power, discourse, and method. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 34(3), 329-353.

Armijo, M. (2004). *Buenas prácticas de gestión pública en América Latina*. IX Congreso Internacional del CLAD sobre la Reforma del Estado y de la Administración Pública, Madrid, Spain.

Arroyo, C. & Pacheco, C. (2018). *Los Resultados de la Educación Técnica en Chile*. Comisión Nacional de Productividad, Santiago, Chile.

Azúa, X. (2016). Aprender a ser mujer, aprender a ser hombre. La escuela como reproductora de estereotipos. En Red Chilena contra la Violencia hacia la Mujer (2016), Educación No Sexista. Hacia una Real Transformación. Santiago, Chile.

Banco Mundial (2020). *Gasto público en educación*. Available online at: https://datos.bancomundial.org/indicator/SE.XPD.TOTL.GD.ZS

Bases administrativas, técnicas y anexos para la licitación de proyectos para el Concurso de Proyectos de Escuelas de Reingreso, año 2016 (23 de Julio, 2016). Ministerio de Educación, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn.cl/1y76v

BCN (2020). *Guía legal sobre: Ley General de Educación.*Available online at: https://www.bcn.cl/leyfacil/recurso/ley-general-de-educacion

Bellei, C. (2011). Presentación ante la Comisión de Educación del Senado acerca del Proyecto de ley que prohíbe aportes estatales a entidades que persigan fines de lucro en la educación. Centro de Investigación Avanzada en Educación, Universidad de Chile.

Bellei, C. & Cabalin, C. (2013). Chilean Student Movements: Sustained Struggle to Transform a Marketoriented Educational System. *Current Issues in Comparative Education*, 15(2), 108-123.

Bolívar, A. (2013). Cambio y liderazgo educativo en tiempos de crisis. *OGE*, 4 (May-June).

Bonder, G. (2013). La equidad de género en las políticas educativas: una mirada reflexiva sobre premisas, experiencias y metas. En Área Género Sociedad y Políticas (Comp.), Educar con/para la igualdad de género: aprendizajes y propuestas transformadoras. Buenos Aires: Ediciones Sinergias.

Boniolo, P. & Najmias, C. (2019). Abandono y rezago escolar en Argentina. Una mirada desde las clases sociales. *Tempo Social*, 30(3), 217-247.

Bourdieu, P. (1997). *Capital cultural, escuela y espacio social*. Mexico: Siglo XXI.

Bowers, A., Sprott, R. & Taff, S. (2013). Do we know who will drop out? A review of the predictors of dropping out of high school: Precision, Sensitivity, and Specificity. *The High School Journal*, 77-100.

Bradley, C. & Renzulli, L. (2011). The complexity of non-completion: Being pushed or pulled to drop out of high school. *Social Forces*, 90(2), 521-545.

Caine, V., Lessard, S., Steeves, P. & Clandinin, J. (2013). Narrative understandings of lives lived in (and out of) schools. En K. Tilleczek & B. Ferguson, *Youth, Education and Marginality*, 197-217.

Castillo, D., Santa Cruz, E. & Vega, A. (2018). Estudiantes migrantes en escuelas públicas chilenas. *Calidad en la Educación*, 49.

CASEN (2017). *Resultados Casen 2017.* Observatorio Social, Ministerio de Desarrollo Social, Chile.

CEAAL (2018). Pronunciamiento sobre la Educación de Personas Jóvenes y Adultas EPJA En el marco de la II Reunión Regional de Ministros de Educación de América Latina y el Caribe Cochabamba, Bolivia, 25 y 26 de julio de 2018. Educación de Adultos y Procesos Formativos, 6.

Centro de Estudios de la Niñez (2014). La reintegración educativa: Los colegios de segunda oportunidad como vía de restauración del derecho a la educación. Resultados de un estudio cuali- cuantitativo. Santiago: Lom.

Comisión Europea (2001). Second Chance Schools. The results of a European pilot project. Italy.

Comisión Nacional de Productividad (2018). Formación de Competencias para el Trabajo en Chile. Santiago, Chile.

Comunidad Mujer (2016). *Género, Educación y Trabajo. La brecha persistente.* Programa Género, Educación y Trabajo, Chile.

Consejo Nacional de Educación (2019). *Tendencias de Matrícula de Pregrado Educación Superior 2019*. Chile.

Constitución política de la República de Chile (1980). Ministerio Secretaría General de la Presidencia, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn.cl/1uva9

UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education (1960). United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families (1990). UN Office of the High Commissioner. Available online at: https://www.ohchr.org/sp/professionalinterest/pages/cmw.aspx

Convención sobre la Eliminación de Todas las Formas de Discriminación contra la Mujer (1979). Oficina del Alto Comisionado, Organización de las Naciones Unidas. Available online at: https://www.ohchr.org/en/ hrbodies/cedaw/pages/cedawindex.aspx

Convención sobre los Derechos del Niño (1990). UNICEF. Available online at: https://www.ohchr.org/sp/ professionalinterest/pages/crc.aspx

Convenio Nº 138 sobre la Edad Mínima (1973). Dirección del Trabajo, Chile. Available online at: https://www.dt.gob.cl/legislacion/1624/w3-article-88330.html

Convenio № 169 sobre Pueblos Indígenas y Tribales en Países Independientes de la Organización Internacional del Trabajo (14 de Octubre, 2008). Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores, Chile. Available online at: https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---americas/---ro-lima/documents/publication/wcms_345065.pdf

Convenio № 182 de la Organización Internacional del Trabajo sobre la prohibición de las peores formas de trabajo infantil y la acción inmediata para su eliminación (17 de Noviembre de 2000). Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn.cl/1vxu8

Cortés, L., Portales, J. & Peters, H. (2019). Desescolarización, exclusión educativa y el desafío del reingreso escolar en Chile. *Saberes Educativos*, 3,143-151.

Covacevich, C. & Quintela-Dávila, G. (2014). *Desigualdad de género, el currículo oculto en los textos escolares chilenos*. Banco Interamericano de Desarrollo, División de Educación.

CPCE (2016). Estudio niños/as, adolescentes y jóvenes fuera de la escuela, caracterización y análisis de la demanda para una modalidad de Escuelas de Segunda Oportunidad. Universidad Diego Portales, Santiago, Chile.

Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948). United Nations. Available online at: https://www.un.org/es/universal-declaration-human-rights/

Decreto con Fuerza de Ley Nº 2 (1998). Sobre subvención del Estado a establecimientos educacionales. MINEDUC, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn.cl/2ezaf

Decreto № 683 (2000). Reglamenta Programa Especial de Nivelación Educación Básica y Media para Adultos. MINEDUC, Chile.

Decreto Nº 265 (2002). Modifica Decreto Nº98, de 1997, que aprobó el reglamento general de la Ley Nº 19.518, que fijó el Estatuto de Capacitación y Empleo. Ministerio del Trabajo y Previsión Social, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn.cl/2ezb0

Decreto Nº 330 (2002). Reglamenta Programa Especial de Educación Básica y Media. MINEDUC; Subsecretaría de Educación, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn.cl/2ezaj

Decreto N° 2169 Exento (2003). Modifica Decreto Supremo N° 683 de 2000. MINEDUC, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn.cl/2ezak

Decreto Nº 26 (2007). Reglamenta programa debominado Proyectos de Fortalecimiento Plan 12 Años de Escolaridad. MINEDUC, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn.cl/2ezav

Decreto Nº 131 Exento (2007). Aprueba reglamento de evaluación y promoción escolar para Educación Básica y Media de adultos. MINEDUC, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn.cl/2ezar

Decreto № 584 Exento (2007). Aprueba plan y programas de estudio para la enseñanza básica de adultos. MINEDUC, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn. cl/2ezb1

Decreto Nº 211 (2009). Modifica Decreto Nº 131, de 2003, que modificó y fijó el texto refundido del Decreto Nº 683, de 2000 en la forma que señala, y fija nuevo texto refundido. MINEDUC; Subsecretaría de Educación, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn.cl/2ezap

Decreto Nº 257 (2009). Establece objetivos fundamentales y contenidos mínimos obligatorios para la Educación de Adultos y fija normas generales para su aplicación. MINEDUC, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn.cl/2ezaz

Decreto № 1000 Exento (2009). Aprueba plan y programas de estudio para la educación media de adultos. MINEDUC, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn. cl/2ezb2

Decreto Nº 32 (2011). Reglamenta Asignación de Apoyo a la Reinserción Escolar. MINEDUC, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn.cl/2ezab

DEMRE (2019). *IDEEM: Informe de Desempeño de los Estudiantes de Enseñanza Secundaria*. Chile.

DIPRES (2020). Proyecto de Ley de Presupuestos para el *Año 2020 Ministerio de Educación*. Chile.

Dubet, F. (2014). *Repensar la Justicia Social. Contra el mito de la igualdad de oportunidades.* Buenos Aires: Siglo Veintiuno Editores.

Duperé, V., Leventhal, T., Dion, E., Crosnoe, R., Archambault, I. & Janosz, M. (2015). Stressors and turning points in high school and dropout: A stress process, life course framework. *Review of Educational Research*, 85(4), 591-629.

Dussaillant, F. (2017). Deserción Escolar en Chile. Propuestas para la Investigación y la Política Pública. *Análisis*. Centro de Políticas Públicas, Universidad del Desarrollo.

E2O España (2020a). *Asociación Española de Escuelas de Segunda Oportunidad*. Available online at: https://www.e2oespana.org/

E2O España (2020b). Competencias Transversales 2020. Informe Ejecutivo sobre Buenas Prácticas de E2O. Asociación Española de Escuelas de Segunda Oportunidad.

EAEA (2019a). Adult Education in Europe 2019. A civil society view. European Association for the Education of Adults.

EAEA (2019b). Manifesto for Adult Learning in the 21st century: The power and joy of learning. European Association for the Education of Adults.

Educación Pública (2020). *El Sistema de Educación Pública*. Available online at: https://educacionpublica.cl/

Egaña, L., Solar, R. & Wormal, G. (2007). Elaboración de Proyecto Educativo, Planes y Programas de Estudio para Adolescentes en Centros Privativos de Libertad de SENAME. Programa Interdisciplinario de Investigaciones en Educación, PIIE, Santiago, Chile.

Espíndola, E. & León, A. (2002). La deserción escolar en América Latina: un tema prioritario para la agenda regional. *Revista Iberoamericana de Educación*, 30, 39-62.

Espinoza, Ó., Castillo, D., Loyola, J. & González, L. (2012). Factores familiares asociados a la deserción escolar en Chile. *Revista de Ciencias Sociales, XVIII*(1), 136-150.

Espinoza, O., Loyola, J., Castillo, D. & González, L. (2014). La educación de adultos en Chile: Experiencias y expectativas de los estudiantes de la modalidad regular. Última década, 40, 159-181.

Espinoza, Ó., Loyola, J., Castillo, D., & González, L. E. (2016). Evaluación de los programas de reescolarización en Chile: la perspectiva de los estudiantes. *Educacao E Pesquisa*, *42*, 969–986.

Espinoza, Ó., González, L. & McGinn, N. (2019). Second opportunity centers in Chile: Are their teachers effective?

Espinoza, Ó., González, L. E., Castillo, D. & Neut, S. (2019). Condicionantes de la retención estudiantil en «escuelas de segunda oportunidad» en Chile. *Revista Latinoamericana de Ciencias Sociales, Niñez y Juventud,* 17(2), 1-27.

Espinoza, Ó., González, L. E., McGinn, N. & Castillo, D. (2020a). What factors predict the engagement of dropouts in alternative secondary high schools in Chile? *Improving Schools*, 23(1), 47–67.

Fairclough, N. (2003). Analysing discourse: textual analysis for social research. Nueva York: Routledge.

FONIDE (2016). Caracterización y prejuicio acerca de los inmigrantes en el sistema escolar. Universidad Diego Portales.

Foucault, M. (1995). *Discipline and Punish. The Birth of the Prison*. New York: Vintage Books.

Freeman, J., Simonsen, B., McCoach, D., Sugai, G., Lombardi, A. & Horner, R. (2015). An Analysis of the Relationship Between Implementation of School-wide Positive Behavior Interventions and Supports and High School Dropout Rates. *The High School Journal*, *98*(4), 290-315.

Fundación Súmate (2020). *Historia*. Available online at: https://www.hogardecristo.cl/sumate/nuestra-obra/historia/

GEM (2017). Mujeres y actividad emprendedora en Chile 2017. Universidad del Desarrollo.

GEM (2018). *Reporte Nacional de Chile 2018*. Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, Universidad del Desarrollo.

González, C. (2010). Programa Intersectorial de Reescolarización: Un análisis sociocultural de experiencias educativas en la Región Metropolitana. Tesis para optar al grado de Licenciado en Antropología. Escuela de Antropología, Universidad Academia de Humanismo Cristiano, Santiago, Chile.

González, E. (2016). Efectos de la educación sexista en la vida de las mujeres. En Red Chilena contra la Violencia hacia la Mujer (2016), Educación No Sexista. Hacia una Real Transformación. Santiago, Chile.

Greenleaf (2020). What is Servant Leadership. Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership. Available online at: https://www.greenleaf.org/what-is-servant-leadership/

Guerra, M. & Pizarro, O. (2011). Mujeres y creación de empresas de alto impacto: Comprendiendo diferencias y su aporte a la economía. Centro de Estudios Empresariales de la Mujer, Universidad del Desarrollo. Santiago, Chile.

Guerrero, E., Hurtado, V., Azua, X. & Provoste, P. (2007). Material de apoyo con perspectiva de género para formadores y formadoras. MINEDUC, Chile. Guerrero, P. (2014). Escuela y género: Una revisión de las prácticas discriminadoras de las mujeres en contexto escolar. Available online at: http://www.biblioteca.org.ar/libros/ge-esc.pdf

Herr, K. & Anderson, G. (2015). *The Action Research Dissertation*. Washington D.C.: Sage Publications.

Hogar de Cristo (2019). *Del dicho al derecho: Modelo de calidad de escuelas de reingreso para Chile.* Santiago,

Hormazábal, R. & Hormazábal, M. (2016). Derribando paradigmas patriarcales en la educación. Experiencia en jardines infantiles de Temuco. En Red Chilena contra la Violencia hacia la Mujer (2016), Educación No Sexista. Hacia una Real Transformación. Santiago, Chile.

INJUV (2018). *9na Encuesta Nacional de Juventud.* Ministerio de Desarrollo Social y Familia, Chile.

Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas (2016). Segmentación horizontal del mercado del trabajo. Caracterización de la ocupación por sexo. Departamento de Estudios Sociales y Departamento de Estudios Laborales, Chile.

Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas (2017). *Estadísticas vitales sobre maternidad y paternidad adolescente.* Chile.

Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas (2018). *Síntesis de Resultados Censo 2017.* Chile.

Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas (2018b). *Enfoque Estadístico: Género e Informalidad Laboral.* Chile.

Instituto Nacional de Estadísticas (2019). *Ocupación y desocupación.* Chile.

Julio, C. (2010). Educandos fuera del sistema escolar: Derecho conculcado y un compromiso pendiente en la Educación Especial Chilena. *Revista Latinoamericana de Educación Inclusiva, 4*(2), 119-135. Kennedy-Lewis, B. (2015). Second chance or no chance? A case study of one urban alternative middle school. *Journal of Education Change, 16,* 145-169.

Larrañaga, O., Cabezas, G. & Dussaillant, F. (2014). Trayectorias educacionales e inserción laboral en la Enseñanza Secundaria Técnico Profesional. *Estudios Públicos*, 134, 7-58.

Lenos, S. & Krasenberg, J. (2017). *Drop-outs and going back to school*. RAN Centre of Excellence, European Commission.

Ley № 19.408 Modifica Artículo 203 del Código del Trabajo (29 de Agosto, 1995). Ministerio del Trabajo y Previsión Social, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn.cl/1vnv1

Ley Nº 19.876 Reforma Constitucional que establece la obligatoriedad y gratuidad de la educación secundaria (22 de Mayo, 2003). Ministerio de Educación, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn.cl/2e0ms

Ley № 20.189 Modifica el Código del Trabajo, en lo relativo a la admisión al empleo de los menores de edad y al cumplimiento de la obligación escolar (12 de Junio, 2007). Ministerio del Trabajo y Previsión Social, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn.cl/1v5yn

Ley Nº 20.356 sobre violencia escolar (17 de Septiembre, 2011). Ministerio de Educación, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn.cl/luvxm

Ley № 20.370 Ley General de Educación (2 de Julio, 2010). Ministerio de Educación, Chile Available online at: http://bcn.cl/1uxh9

Ley № 20.609 Establece medidas contra la discriminación (24 de Julio, 2012). Ministerio Secretaría General de Gobierno, Chile.

Available online at: http://bcn.cl/1uyqt

Ley № 20.595 Crea el ingreso ético familiar que establece bonos y transferencias condicionadas para las familias de pobreza extrema y crea subsidio al empleo de la mujer. Ministerio de Desarrollo Social, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn.cl/2g83j

Ley № 20.845 de Inclusión Escolar (8 de Junio, 2015). Ministerio de Educación, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn.cl/luv1u

Ley № 21.091 Sobre Educación Superior (21 de Noviembre, 2019). Ministerio de Educación, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn.cl/25b7u

Ley № 21.128 Aula Segura (27 Diciembre, 2018). Ministerio de Educación, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn.cl/28adj

Lillo, D. (2016). Patriarcado, educación, literatura. El discurso femenino omitido en los Programas de Estudio de Lenguaje y Comunicación de Enseñanza Media. En Red Chilena contra la Violencia hacia la Mujer (2016), Educación No Sexista. Hacia una Real Transformación. Santiago, Chile.

López, N., Opertti, R. & Vargas, C. (2017). *Youth and changing realities. Rethinking secondary education in Latin America*. UNESCO Education Sector.

Martin, R. & Osberg, S. (2007). *Social Entrepreneurship: The case for definition*. Stanford Social Innovation Review. Graduate School of Business.

Memoria Chilena (2020a). *El Ministerio de Educación y el Estado docente (1927-2006*). Available online at: http://www.memoriachilena.gob.cl/602/w3-article-100612.html

Memoria Chilena (2020b). *Descentralización de la Educación*. Available online at: http://www.memoriachilena.gob.cl/602/w3-article-93243.html

Méndez, E. (2019). Acerca de la Educación de Adultos en Chile. Iberoamérica Social. Available online at: https://iberoamericasocial.com/acerca-de-la-educacion-de-adultos-en-chile/

MERCOSUR (2006). Proyecto Hemisférico "Elaboración de políticas y estrategias para la prevención del fracaso escolar". Prevención del fracaso escolar en el MERCOSUR: las experiencias de las organizaciones de la sociedad civil. Buenos Aires, Argentina.

MINEDUC (2005). La deserción escolar en Chile ¿Prioridad en la agenda educativa? Ministerio de Educación, Chile.

MINEDUC (2015a). *Educación para la Igualdad de Género. Plan 2015-2018*. Unidad de Equidad de Género, Ministerio de Educación, Chile.

MINEDUC (2015b). *Bases Curriculares 7º Básico a 2º Medio*. Ministerio de Educación, Chile.

MINEDUC (2016). Reporte nacional de Chile: Revisión OCDE para mejorar la efectividad de recursos en las escuelas. Centro de Estudios MINEDUC, División de Planificación y Presupuesto, Chile.

MINEDUC (2018a). Informe final de Evaluación: Evaluación Programas Gubernamentales (EPG). Subvención Escolar Pro Retención. Subsecretaría de Educación, Chile.

MINEDUC (2018b). *Caracterización de Asistencia Escolar.* Centro de Estudios MINEDUC, Chile.

MINEDUC (2018c). Resumen Ejecutivo Evaluación Programas Gubernamentales (EPG). Programa de Beca de Apoyo a la Retención Escolar. Junta Nacional de Auxilio Escolar y Becas.

MINEDUC (2018d). Resumen Ejecutivo Evaluación Programas Gubernamentales (EPG). Programa de Apoyo a la Retención Escolar. Junta Nacional de Auxilio Escolar y Becas. MINEDUC (2018e). Propuesta para contribuir al mejoramiento de la calidad y pertinencia de los procesos pedagógicos que se desarrollan en establecimientos educacionales, ubicados al interior de Centros de Internación Provisoria y de Régimen Cerrado de SENAME. Coordinación Nacional de Educación de Personas Jóvenes y Adultas, División de Educación General, Ministerio de Educación, Chile.

MINEDUC (2019a). *Cómo articular los instrumentos de gestión de la Convivencia Escolar.* División de Educación General, MINEDUC, Chile.

MINEDUC (2019b). *Estadísticas de la Educación 2018*. Centro de Estudios MINEDUC, Chile.

MINEDUC (2020a). *Política Nacional de Convivencia Escolar*. Available online at: https://convivenciaescolar.mineduc.cl/wp-content/uploads/2019/09/Politica-%20 Nacional-de-Convivencia-Escolar.pdf

MINEDUC (2020b). Subvenciones destinadas a los alumnos. Available online at: https://www.ayudamineduc.cl/ficha/subvenciones-destinadas-los-alumnos-4

MINEDUC (2020c). EPJA Modalidad Regular: A quién está dirigida. Available online at: https://epja.mineduc.cl/modalidad-regular/informacion-a-instituciones-reg/a-quien-esta-dirigida/

MINEDUC (2020d). *EPJA Modalidad Regular: Planes y Programas de Estudio*. Available online at: https://epja.mineduc.cl/modalidad-regular/informacion-a-instituciones-reg/planes-programas-estudio

MINEDUC (2020e). *EPJA Modalidad Regular: Cómo se evalúa*. Available online at: https://epja.mineduc.cl/modalidad-regular/informacion-a-instituciones-reg/como-se-evalua/

MINEDUC (2020f). *EPJA Modalidad Flexible: A quién está dirigida*. Available online at: https://epja.mineduc.cl/modalidad-flexible/informacion-instituciones-flex/a-quien-esta-dirigida/

MINEDUC (2020g). *EPJA Modalidad Flexible: Cómo se evalúa*. Available online at: https://epja.mineduc.cl/modalidad-flexible/informacion-instituciones-flex/como-se-evalua/

MINEDUC (2020h). *Curriculum Nacional*. Available online at: https://curriculumnacional.mineduc.cl/614/w3-propertyvalue-118605.html#doc_hc

MINEDUC (2020i). *Educación Intercultural*. Available online at: http://peib.mineduc.cl/

MINEDUC (2020j). *Cada día cuenta*. Available online at: http://cadadiacuenta.mineduc.cl/

MINEDUC (2020k). *Documento de Trabajo: Medición de la exclusión escolar en Chile*. Centro de Estudios, MINEDUC, Chile.

MINEDUC (2020I). *Propuestas Mesa Técnica para la prevención de la Deserción Escolar.* División Educación General, Ministerio de Educación, Chile.

MINEDUC (2020m). *Presentación Prevención de la Deserción Escolar*. Ministerio de Educación, Chile.

Ministerio de Desarrollo Social (2018). Informe ODS-Género. Diagnóstico social y análisis de políticas públicas en Chile en materia de avances para la Igualdad de Género. División Observatorio Social-División de Políticas Sociales, Subsecretaría de Evaluación Social, Chile.

Ministerio de Justicia y Derechos Humanos (2020). *Tratados Internacionales*. Available online at: https://www.derechoshumanos.gob.cl/ddhh/sistema-universal-de-ddhh/tratados-internacionales-y-convenciones/tratados-internacionales

Ministerio del Trabajo y Previsión Social (2020). Programa contra el Trabajo Infantil y Protección al Adolescente Trabajador. Available online at: https://www.mintrab.gob.cl/trabajo-infantil/ Mizala, A. & Torche, F. (2012). Bringing the schools back in: the stratification of educational achievement in the Chilean voucher system. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 32, 132-144.

Mizala, A., Martínez, F. & Martínez, S. (2015). Pre-service Elementary School Teachers' Expectations about Student Performance: How their Beliefs are affected by their Mathematics Anxiety and Student's Gender. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 50, 70-78.

Morin, A., Marsh, H., Maiano, C., Nagengast, B & Janosz, M. (2013). School life and adolescents'self-esteem trajectories. *Child Development, 84*(6), 1967-1988.

Muñoz-García, A.L. & Lira, A. (2020). Horizontes y propuestas para transformar el sistema educativo chileno. Santiago: Ediciones Biblioteca del Congreso Nacional de Chile.

Muñoz, M. (2020). Frente a la deserción escolar: Una segunda oportunidad para los jóvenes. Revista Educar. Grupo Educar. Available online at: https://www.grupoeducar.cl/revista/edicion-191/frente-a-la-desercion-escolar-una-segunda-oportunidad-para-los-jovenes/

OAS (2020). Convención Interamericana para prevenir, sancionar y erradicar la violencia contra la mujer.

Available online at: https://www.oas.org/juridico/spanish/tratados/a-61.html

Objetivos y metas de desarrollo sostenible (2015). Organización de las Naciones Unidas. Available online at: https://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/es/ sustainable-development-goals/

OCDE (2004). Revisión de Políticas Nacionales de Educación: Chile. Available online at: http://www.keepeek.com/Digital-Asset-Management/oecd/education/revision-de-politicas-nacionales-de-educacion-chile_9789264021020-es#page3

OCDE (2012). A literature review of school practices to overcome school failure. Directorate for Education, OECD.

OCDE (2015). *Education at a glance: Chile Country Note.* Paris: OECD Publishing.

OCDE (2018). *Education at a glance: Chile Country Note.* Paris: OECD Publishing.

OCDE (2019). *Education at a glance: Chile Country Note.* Paris: OECD Publishing.

OHCHR (2020). *Human rights treaty bodies*. Available online at: https://www.ohchr.org/EN/HRBodies/Pages/TreatyBodies.aspx

Pacto Internacional de los Derechos Económicos, Sociales y Culturales (27 de Mayo, 1989). Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn.cl/1vm47

Palestro, S. (2016). Androcentrismo en los Textos Escolares. En Red Chilena contra la Violencia hacia la Mujer (2016), *Educación No Sexista*. *Hacia una Real Transformación*. Santiago, Chile.

Pateti, Y. (2007). Escuela y corporeidad femenina: La cuestión del género en el desarrollo motor de la mujer. *Educere, 11*(38), 455-460.

Perticará, M., & Bueno, I. (2009). Brechas salariales por género en Chile: un nuevo enfoque. *Revista CEPAL*, 133-149.

Ramírez, T., Díaz, R. & Salcedo, A. (2016). El uso de los términos Abandono y Deserción Estudiantil y sus consecuencias al momento de definir políticas institucionales. Sexta Conferencia Latinoamericana sobre el abandono de la Educación Superior, Escuela Politécnica Nacional.

Rawls, J. (1971). *A Theory of Justice.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Réseau E2C France (2020). Association nationales des Écoles de la 2e chance. Available online at: https://reseau-e2c.fr/

Resolución № 3033 Exenta Aprueba Bases Administrativas, Técnicas y Anecos para la Licitación de Proyectos para el Concurso de Proyectos de Escuelas de Reingreso (2016). Subsecretaría de Educación, Ministerio de Educación, Chile. Available online at: http://bcn.cl/1y76v

Riedemann, A. (2008). La educación intercultural bilingüe en Chile: ¿ampliación de oportunidades para alumnos indígenas? *Indiana*, 25, 169-193.

Rise up (2019). *Girls' Voices Curriculum*. Available online at: https://riseuptogether.org/girls-voices-curriculum-2019/

Román, M. (2013). Factores asociados al abandono y la deserción escolar en América Latina: Una mirada en conjunto. *Revista Iberoamericana sobre Calidad, Eficacia y Cambio en Educación*, 11(2), 33-59.

Sahlberg, P. (2006). Raising the bar: How Finland responds to the twin challenge of secondary education. *Profesorado. Revista de currículum y formación del profesorado, 10*(1).

Scott-Jones, D. (2002). The complexities of gender and other status variables in studies of schooling. *Human Development*, 45, 54-60.

Selamé, T. (2004). *Mujeres, Brechas de Equidad y Mercado de Trabajo*. Santiago de Chile: PNUD.

SENAME (2011). Bases Técnicas Programa de Protección Especializada en Reinserción Educativa. Programa Vida Nueva. Gobierno de Chile.

SENAME (2016). Estudio de Caracterización de los Programas de Reinserción Educativa de SENAME y MINEDUC. Santiago, Chile. SENAME (2019). Orientaciones Técnicas para Concurso de Proyectos. Programa de Protección Especializada en Reinserción Educativa (PDE) Programa 24 Horas. Departamento de Protección de Derechos, Servicio Nacional de Menores, Chile.

SENCE (2020). Sence +Capaz Mujer Emprendedora.

Stratta, F. & Barrera, M. (2009). El tizón encendido. Protesta social, conflicto y territorio en la Argentina de la postdictadura. Buenos Aires: Editorial El Colectivo.

Subsecretaría de Educación (2016a). Resumen Ejecutivo Evaluación Programas Gubernamentales. Programa Reinserción Escolar. MINEDUC, Chile.

Subsecretaría de Educación (2016b). *Informe Final de Evaluación. Programa Reinserción Escolar.* MINEDUC, Chile.

Subsecretaría de Prevención del Delito (2012). *Informe Final de Evaluación Programa Vida Nueva SENAME, Ministerio de Justicia*. Ministerio del Interior y Seguridad Pública, Chile.

Subsecretaría de Prevención del Delito (2016). *Informe Final Estudio de Género y Factores de Riesgo Socio Delictual en el Programa de Atención Integral Familia (PAIF) 24 Horas.* Ministerio del Interior y Seguridad Pública, Chile.

Subsecretaría de Telecomunicaciones de Chile (2017). *IX Encuesta de Acceso y Usos de Internet*. Chile.

Tyler, J. & Lofstrom, M. (2009). Finishing High School: Alternative Pathways and Dropout Recovery. The Future of Children, 19(1), pp. 77-103.

UFM Secretariat (2020). *Mediterranean New Chance* (*MedNC*). Available online at: https://ufmsecretariat.org/project/mednc-new-chance-mediterranean-network/

UNESCO (2005). La educación de jóvenes y adultos en América Latina y el Caribe. Hacia un estado del arte. Informe Regional de América Latina y el Caribe para la Conferencia de Seguimiento a Confintea V, Bangkok, Septiembre de 2003. UNESCO Regional Bureau for Education in Latin America and the Caribbean. Santiago, Chile.

UNESCO (2009a). Experiencias educativas de Segunda Oportunidad. Lecciones desde la práctica innovadora en América Latina. Santiago: SDL.

UNESCO (2009b). Experiencias Educativas de Segunda Oportunidad. Investigación Iluminativa. Plataforma Educativa MERCOSUR Chile-Uruguay. Oficina Regional de educación de la UNESCO para América Latina y el Caribe.

UNESCO (2018). *Out-of-school children and youth.*UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

UNESCO (2019). Combining Data on Out-of-school Children, Completion and Learning to Offer a More Comprehensive View on SDG 4. UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

UNESCO (2020). Convención relativa a la Lucha contra las Discriminaciones en la Esfera de la Enseñanza 1960.

Available online at: http://portal.unesco.org/es/ev.
php-URL_ID=12949&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_
SECTION=201.html

UNICEF (2019). Every Child Learns. UNICEF Education Strategy 2019-2030. Available online at: https://www.unicef.org/media/63036/file/EdStrategy-2019-2030-CountySolutions-Morocco.pdf

UN Women (2019). The value of intersectionality in understanding violence against women and girls (VAWG) July 2019. Women's Programme on Ending Discrimination and Violence against Women, UN Women.

UN Women (2020). *Women's Empowerment Principles (WEPs)*. Available online at: https://www.weps.org/about/

United Nations (2020). When children take the lead: 10 child participation approaches to tackle violence. Office of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General on Violence against Children.

Vadeboncoeur, J. & Vellos, R. (2016). Re-creating social futures: The role of the moral imagination in student-teacher relationships in alternative education. *International Journal of Child, Youth and Family Studies*, 7(2), 307-323.

Valenzuela, J.P. (2008). Evolución de la segregación socioeconómica de los estudiantes chilenos y su relación con el financiamiento compartido. Fondo de Investigación y Desarrollo en Educación, Ministerio de Educación Chile.

World Bank (2010). Women's Economic Opportunities in the Formal Private Sector in Latin America and the Caribbean. A focus on Entrepreneurship. Washington, D.C., United States.

World Bank (2019). A Second Chance to Education. World Bank Group.

World Economic Forum (2020). *Global Gender Gap Report*. Geneve, Switzerland.

Yannoulas, S. (2005). *Perspectivas de género y políticas de formación e inserción laboral en América Latina*. Buenos Aires: Red Etis IIPE: IDES.

Youthbuild (2020). *About Youthbuild*. Available online at: https://www.youthbuild.org/about-youthbuild/

Zamorano, F. (2018). Análisis, diagnóstico y propuesta de mejora del "Programa 24 Horas" de la Subsecretaría de Prevención del Delito de Chile, desde una perspectiva de política pública de prevención del delito. *Revista Estado, Gobierno y Gestión Pública, 32*, 187-264.



www.unwomen.org
www.lac.unwomen.org
@ @onumujereschile
www.tuoportunidad.org