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END OF DECADE NOTES ON EDUCATION FOR ALL

EFA Goal
5

Gender Equality

ASIA-PACIFIC

EFA Goal 5

Gender Equality

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Acronyms

ANAR	Adjusted Net Attendance Rate
ANER	Adjusted Net Enrolment Rate
ASPBAE	Asia South Pacific Association for Basic and Adult Education
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
DEB	District Education Board (Lao PDR)
ECCE	early childhood care and education
EDNs	End of Decade Notes *(Asia-Pacific End of Decade Notes on Education for All)*
EFA	Education for All
GAR	Gross Attendance Ratio
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
GPI	Gender Parity Index
IAE	International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement
ILO	International Labour Organization
JWN	Joint Women's Network (Sri Lanka and Nepal)
Lao PDR	Lao People's Democratic Republic
MDA	Mid-Decade Assessment (EFA)
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MOE	Ministry of Education
MOECS	Ministry of Education, Culture and Science (Mongolia)
MOES	Ministry of Education and Science (Kazakhstan)
MOES	Ministry of Education and Sports (Lao PDR and Nepal)
MOESC	Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture (Samoa)
MOET	Ministry of Education and Training (Viet Nam)
MOEYS	Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport (Cambodia)
NEFAC	National Education for All Commission (Cambodia)
NGO	Non-Government Organization
NUOL	National University of Laos
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PES	Provincial Education Sectorate (Lao PDR)
PIRLS	Progress in International Reading Literacy Study
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
SPN	Sistem Pendidikan Negara (Brunei Darussalam)
TIMSS	Trends in International Student Assessment
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UN-HABITAT	United Nations Human Settlements Programme
UNGEI	United Nations Girls' Education Initiative
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNICEF EAPRO	UNICEF East Asia and Pacific Regional Office
UNICEF ROSA	UNICEF Regional Office for South Asia
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WHO	World Health Organization

Preface

"The equation is simple: education is the most basic insurance against poverty. Education represents opportunity. At all ages, it empowers people with the knowledge, skills and confidence they need to shape a better future."

Irina Bokova, Director-General, UNESCO

Article 26 of the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights states that "everyone has the right to education". Not only is education a basic human right, it both equips individuals with the skills and knowledge to lead better lives and underpins human development. But education is still not a right recognized by all, and many who miss out on education miss out on the opportunity to improve their lives.

In recognition of this, governments, United Nations (UN) agencies, donors, NGOs and civil society groups made a joint commitment to provide Education for All (EFA) in March 1990 at the World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien, Thailand. The pledge was made by 155 countries and representatives of 160 government and non-government agencies. The World Declaration on Education for All and the Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs adopted by the World Conference on EFA in Jomtien reaffirmed education as a fundamental human right and urged countries to intensify efforts to address the basic learning needs of all by 2000.

The global assessment of EFA progress in 2000 showed that the commitment made in Jomtien was not delivered. Thus in April 2000 at the World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal, the international community reaffirmed its commitment to achieve Education for All this time by 2015.

The Dakar Framework for Action specifies the following six goals:

1. Expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children.

2. Ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality.

3. Ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programmes.

4. Achieving a 50 per cent improvement in the levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults.

5. Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality.

6. Improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence of all, so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills.

Some of these goals were later reiterated in September 2000 when 189 nations came together at the United Nations Millennium Summit and endorsed the Millennium Declaration. The Declaration set out the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) to be achieved by 2015, including achieving universal primary education (MDG 2) and promoting gender equality and empowering women (MDG 3). There is clear consensus that the achievement of EFA contributes to the attainment of the other MDGs as well.

The End of Decade Notes

At the close of the 2000s, the Asia-Pacific region reviewed regional and national progress toward the EFA goals and targets. The resulting *Asia-Pacific End of Decade Notes on Education for All* take stock of the progress, persisting issues and remaining challenges in achieving each EFA goal.

The End of Decade Notes, or EDNs, highlight examples of innovative policy reforms and strategies, particularly those aimed at reducing disparities in access to and quality of education. They also emphasize the policy, capacity and governance gaps to be addressed in order to achieve EFA in the region.

The EDNs consist of six reports, one for each EFA goal, that build on the findings of the Asia-Pacific EFA Mid-Decade Assessment (2006–2008), which examined EFA progress and gaps at the mid-way point of the 2000–2010 decade.

The first section of each EDN report provides an overview of progress towards the respective EFA goal. The second section discusses the remaining challenges and priority issues. Each report concludes with recommendations on what needs to be done to accelerate progress towards the 2015 targets.

While each EDN covers the Asia-Pacific region, it also highlights issues and challenges specific to subregional groupings, as per the *Education for All Global Monitoring Report*. The EDNs thus cover the subregions of Central Asia, South and West Asia, East Asia and the Pacific. Details on which countries are included in the subregional groupings are found in the Statistical Annex at the end of this EDN.

Foreword

In 1990, a World Declaration on Education for All was adopted in Jomtien, Thailand reaffirming the notion that education was a fundamental human right.

With less than four years remaining for the EFA goals to be achieved, it is now an opportune moment to take stock in Asia and the Pacific of both achievements and shortcomings to draw lessons and move forward. Understanding and sharing the information on how much has been accomplished during the past decade and the main hurdles to attaining the goals by 2015 will help countries and EFA partners in the region identify options and strategies for achieving the goals. Success in Education for All is critical to meeting the Millennium Development Goals, including in areas related to poverty reduction, nutrition, child survival and maternal health.

Within this context, the *Asia-Pacific End of Decade Notes on Education for All* examine what the region has attained between 2000-2010. The Notes highlight policy reforms and strategies implemented by countries, especially addressing disparities in education, as potential models and provide the latest thinking on ways forward.

The Asia-Pacific region has experienced strong economic growth, substantially reduced poverty and ensured more children are enrolled in school. This progress, however, has been skewed; rising income inequality and inequalities in access to basic human services continue to plague the region, presenting significant challenges and long-term consequences.

Progress in meeting the six goals has been uneven with some groups of children left out, such as ethnic minorities, migrant children, children with disabilities and in South Asia, girls. Slow progress has been especially noted in the expansion of early childhood care and education, in reducing out-of-school numbers, and in improving the quality of education.

To ensure regional stability and prosperity, we must address these inequities and we must ensure the provision of quality education for all learners. Many countries in the region have endeavoured to 'reach the unreached' and ensure that education is truly for all. The End of Decade Notes aim to support and strengthen this momentum, energy and commitment to EFA in the region.

With less than four years remaining before 2015, we are racing against time. We need renewed vigour and concerted action to guarantee equitable access to quality education and to ensure that children are not missing out on schooling and learning opportunities because of their sex, geographic location, ethnicity, disability, socio-economic status or other causes of marginalization.

UNESCO and UNICEF are committed to supporting countries and working with partners to speed up progress in meeting the EFA targets by 2015. The End of Decade Notes, created under the auspices of the Regional Thematic Working Group on EFA, which UNESCO and UNICEF co-chair, is one way of extending our support and advocacy for EFA.

We hope the End of Decade Notes will serve to guide actions and interventions and ultimately accelerate the progress towards the EFA goals.

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[*] Website of the Regional TWG on EFA: http://www.unescobkk.org/education/efa/efa-network/east-and-south-east-asia/twg-on-efa

[**] For more information on UNGEI, please see: http://www.ungei.org/infobycountry/2253.html

Executive summary

The End of Decade Note on Education for All Goal 5 shows that while significant progress has been accomplished towards gender parity in primary education, large disparities remain, especially at the secondary level. As the data show, boys and girls are disadvantaged in their enrolment in secondary education in a number of countries in the region. Findings from the region further underline the need to pay closer attention to hidden disparities, such as the variation in female enrolment rates in urban and rural areas and the role that ethnicity and socio-economic status play in girls' education.

To ensure that boys and girls stay in and equally benefit from education, increased attention must be paid to learning processes and content. Regarding learning processes, the link between education quality and gender equality must be taken into account. The quality of education can be measured by its capacity to promote the value of gender equality in and through education in the wider society. Quality education demands that teaching processes, curricula and learning materials allow for boys and girls to engage in and benefit from learning equally. Yet, the evidence presented shows that boys in a number of countries are disadvantaged in learning outcomes and that girls encounter gender stereotypic learning materials and treatment from teachers. Hence, hurdles remain towards achieving gender equality in education and gender equality through education.

At the regional level, a number of priority areas demand urgent attention, such as the value dimension in education and the underperformance of boys in secondary education. This End of Decade Note highlights the need for interventions to address the underlying values and norms that foster gender inequality and that are conveyed and reinforced in learning processes. This will require exposing forms of gender stereotyping and gender discrimination in education processes and curricula through refined monitoring and evaluation mechanisms. Evidence from the region on the existence of gender-based violence in education raises the question: to what extent is gender equality a shared value in education and to what extent is it realized in the daily lives of girls and women? At the same time, the educational outcomes of boys in a number of countries fall behind those of girls, and boys' enrolment in upper secondary education lags behind that of girls.

The attainment of the two Education for All (EFA) Goal 5 targets of gender parity and gender equality by 2015 depends on the ability of education policy and other initiatives to eradicate the barriers that keep girls and boys out of education as well as the teaching practices, curricula and learning materials that reinforce gender stereotypes and lead to gendered learning outcomes. Teachers will need to take on a stronger role in assuring gender equality in their teaching practices and ensuring that it becomes a guiding imperative for learning. One priority area will therefore be the scaling up of gender mainstreaming into the teaching workforce. More gender-sensitive teaching and the provision of a learning environment in which boys and girls are encouraged to challenge the confining notions of masculinity and femininity are prerequisites for ensuring more equitable educational outcomes. As well, the gender sensitivity of education must address gender norms because education reproduces gendered patterns in the labour market.

Finally, the recommendation is made to increase efforts to institutionalize gender mainstreaming at all levels of education, including in policy-making, research, curriculum review, learning materials development and teacher training.

1 Introduction

The international community, including governments and development partners, reaffirmed the commitment to achieve Education for All (EFA) by 2015 at the World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal in April 2000. The Dakar Framework for Action specifies six goals and 12 strategies to achieve EFA.

With the close of the 2000–2010 decade, there is a need to assess where Asia-Pacific as a region and where countries in the region stand in terms of the EFA goals. Understanding and sharing the information on how much progress has been achieved during the decade and the main obstacles to attaining the goals will help countries in the region develop strategies to accelerate the achievement of education for all.

The *Asia-Pacific End of Decade Notes on Education for All* take stock of what has been done over the past decade and the lingering issues for each EFA goal. The End of Decade Notes, or EDNs, highlight innovative approaches of policy reforms and strategies, especially towards reducing disparities in education, as well as existing policy, capacity and finance gaps to achieve EFA and the education-related Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

The EDNs build on the findings of the Asia-Pacific EFA Mid-Decade Assessment (MDA) (2006–2008), which examined EFA progress and gaps at the midway point of the 2000–2010 decade. The EDNs aim to maintain the momentum, energy and commitment to EFA in the region, including the focus on "reaching the unreached in education" and "EFA with equity."

The End of Decade Note on Gender Equality

This End of Decade Note on the EFA Goal 5 on gender equality in learning provides an overview of current progress towards achieving the targets of gender parity and gender equality in education as well as to point out remaining challenges and priority areas that require attention.

2 Understanding the EFA gender goal

This section provides the background on the EFA Goal 5 in the Asia-Pacific region that has come to define its scope and meaning. It summarizes the development of EFA Goal 5 since 2000 in the region and distinguishes between the two goals' targets of gender parity and gender equality.

2.1 Background of Goal 5 on gender equality

Goal 5: **Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality.**

The targets of gender parity in access to education and gender equality in education trace back to the start of Education for All, but they did not attain their current configuration until the 2000 Dakar Framework for Action.

All of the following have shaped the regional initiatives and objectives towards gender parity and gender equality as part of EFA:

• 1990 World Declaration on Education for All (UNESCO, 1990)

• 2000 Education for All Assessment (UNESCO, 2000b)

• draft of a Regional Framework for Action for Achieving Education for All by 2015 in January 2000 (UNESCO, 2000a)

• six EFA Goals.[1]

The 1990 World Declaration on Education for All (UNESCO, 1990) stated that the most urgent priority in universalizing access and promoting equity is to ensure that girls and women have access to quality education. However, in its section on goals and targets, the framework for action did not address gender equality in education specifically. Instead, explicit reference to gender was limited to female literacy as part of a reduction in adult illiteracy as a subset of one of the six target dimensions. It was only in 2000 with the introduction of the Dakar EFA goals that the promotion of gender equality in education became an integral part of the initiative in the form of EFA Goal 5.

The regional synthesis of the 2000 EFA Assessment (UNESCO Bangkok, 2000) was instrumental in refining the EFA objectives in the Asia-Pacific region. The assessment, which followed up on the commitment to the 1990 World Declaration on Education for All (UNESCO, 1990), indicated that while progress towards the universalization of primary education had been made, significant gaps remained. The regional assessment (UNESCO Bangkok, 2000) revealed that the goal of universal access to primary education had been missed. The findings indicated that insufficient attention to persistent gender gaps, in particular in South Asia, was a key factor contributing to the failure to achieve universal primary education (figure 1).

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1   See: http://www.unesco.org/new/en/education/themes/leading-the-international-agenda/education-for-all/efa-goals

Figure 1: The gender gap in primary net enrolment rate in percentage points difference between males and females of primary school age, 1990 and 1998

Chart showing percentage points difference for 1990 and 1998:
- World: 8 (1990), 7 (1998)
- South and West Asia: 16 (1990), 12 (1998)
- East Asia and the Pacific: 2 (1990), 1 (1998)
- Central Asia: -2 (1990), -1 (1998)
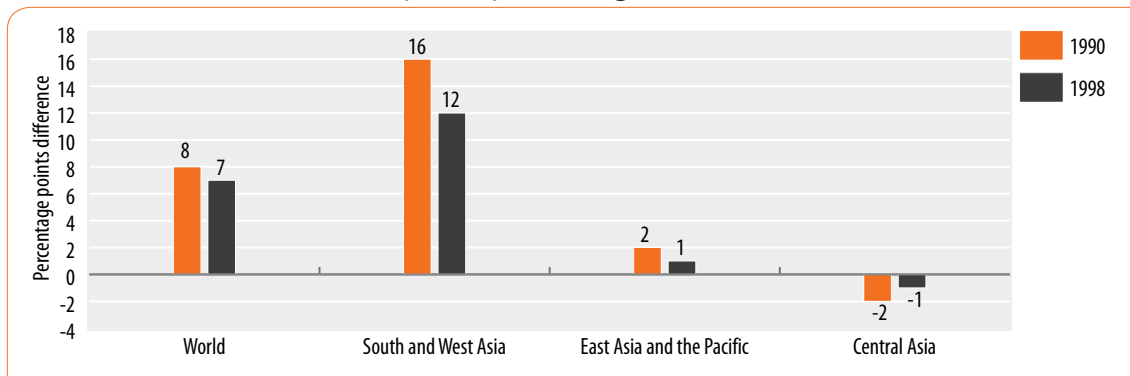
Source: UNESCO, 2000c.

The data also revealed that significant differences within countries existed, with gender disparities more prevalent in remote and rural areas. The 2000 EFA Assessment also identified existing regional challenges. For the Asia-Pacific region, these were growing disparities within countries in the form of urban-rural gaps and a lack of attention to school retention and students' chances to complete their education. However, the rapid increases in educational enrolment, particularly in pre-primary education in East Asia, had been accomplished (UNESCO Bangkok, 2000).[2]

The Assessment concluded that for the next decade it would be important to eliminate remaining gender gaps in enrolment, achievement, completion, teacher training and career development. In the context of curriculum reforms, the assessment findings stressed *the need to move beyond access* and to illustrate how curricula, learning practices and processes influence the achievement of gender equality in education and the empowerment of women and girls. The assessment established a direct link between the issue of moving beyond access and educational quality. This link was made by highlighting how curricula and teaching practices have to increase their relevance in order to meet the needs of students and provide them with competencies in more complex and interconnected societies. The gender issue in education was interpreted in the 2000 EFA Assessment report as one that deals with the individual student's possibility of using her/his education, thereby clearly moving beyond defining gender in terms of access to education.

In response to the 2000 EFA Assessment, national representatives from the region met in January 2000 in Bangkok, Thailand to draft a regional framework for action for achieving Education for All by 2015. Although this meeting preceded the Dakar Framework, which was ratified in April 2000 at the World Education Forum, the regional framework for action that was agreed upon in Bangkok identified the issues and dynamics specific to the region, which were to shape the approaches towards the promotion of gender parity and equality in education. The regional framework reaffirmed the challenges identified in the regional synthesis of the 2000 EFA Assessment and highlighted the importance of *access*, *learning processes*, *learning outcomes*, *teacher competencies* and the role of education in *promoting gender equality*. These dimensions were also partially captured in the gender-related Dakar EFA Goals 2, 4 and 5, which were ratified in April 2000.

The issue of persisting gender disparities is addressed in three of the six Dakar Framework EFA Goals:

Goal 2: Ensuring that by 2015 all children, *particularly girls* … have access to, and complete, free and compulsory education of good quality.

Goal 4: Achieving a 50 per cent improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, *especially for women*.

Goal 5: Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality by 2015, with a focus on girls' full and equal access to, and achievement, in basic education.

2   The increase in the GER for ECCE as noted in the report underlines how significant regional differences exist, and that national data on enrolment ratios in ECCE from around 1990 are often lacking or incomplete.

Goal 5 is the only two-stage goal among the EFA goals, since it calls for gender parity by 2005 and gender equality by 2015. The distinction between the two targets has also been highlighted in the regional interpretation of the goal. The dimension of access has been captured both as part of EFA Goal 2 and specifically as the first target of EFA Goal 5. Learning processes and outcomes have been addressed in the second target of EFA Goal 5 in the objective for equal achievement in basic education by 2015. Increased focus on the second target of EFA Goal 5 is required now to realize the target of gender equality by 2015.

2.2 Defining the scope of Goal 5

2.2.1 Clarifying the gender equality target

Although the two distinct concepts of gender parity and gender equality are occasionally treated as synonymous in education policy within the region, it is important to recognize that gender parity, achieved at various levels of the education system, does not necessarily translate into gender equality within these corresponding levels.

Although gender parity in education is a prerequisite for gender equality in education, the latter moves beyond issues of access. Gender parity concerns the equal right of boys and girls to access and participate in education. The concept of gender equality is much broader, including issues such as the learning environment, learning and teaching processes, learning achievements and the link between the individual development of the student and broader social development. Gender equality means ensuring an equal status or relationship, fair treatment and non-discrimination and equal valuing of differences and similarities between boys and girls in learning processes and outcomes. The degree to which gender equality is realized in education can only be measured by analysing the learning environment, learning and teaching processes and learning outcomes.

Progress towards gender equality in education must, in one way or another, deal with broader structures in society that initially prevented either boys or girls from participating in education in the first place. In other words, the promotion of gender equality *in* education aims at changes in broader social and cultural issues and structures *through* education. Therefore gender equality *in* education is inevitably linked to gender equality *through* education. Fairness to and non-discrimination of girls in education requires that education contributes to the eradication of unfair and unequal structures beyond its strict purview. As such, the remaining challenge for EFA Goal 5, "is not merely a question of access and learning, but much more broadly, of challenging gender ideologies in both education and society" (UIS, 2010).

What gender equality *in* education and *through* education means is that progress towards the former cannot solely be confined to changes within the education system but must be paralleled by changes within broader society. From this perspective, the national ambitions of realizing Goal 5 need to address the interactions between schooling, culture, economy and gender roles. It is *in* education that ideologies and practices are challenged and through which unequal structures in society are reconstructed.

In this context, the common focus on achieving parity in enrolment should be shifted towards a comprehensive focus on realizing gender equality *in* education as a prerequisite for achieving gender equality *through* education. Some countries within the region have acknowledged at a policy level that the promotion of gender equality in education, or as part of the EFA Goal 5 in particular, has to be interpreted as an endeavour that moves beyond reformation of education systems.

- The 1986 Indian National Policy on Education (Government of India, 1986) highlighted how education can also be used as a medium for transforming social systems, and as a means for social change. Educational policy must acknowledge the existence of barriers for women and girls to education and broader participation in society.

- Lao PDR's National Policy on Inclusive Education issued in 2010 acknowledges that two different types of barriers exist, since it aims to "address barriers to and within education by considering the characteristics and diverse needs of all learners" (Ministry of Education and Sports, Lao PDR, 2011, p.11). According to the policy, barriers exist in access to education and in students' opportunities to benefit and participate from education. The Lao PDR policy demonstrates how, in order to dissolve such barriers, it is necessary to change educational processes and to adapt teaching and learning processes to the individual needs and background of students. Inclusion of the marginalized in education, in contrast to integration, calls for a change in the values, attitudes and practices of those that traditionally create the inner group of teachers and students already in education. Existing values in the education system have to adapt to and acknowledge the values, experiences and needs that previously excluded groups, such as girls, bring with them once they are enrolled.

The successful enrolment of girls in education does not necessarily lead to the eradication of social inequalities and disparities, or to inclusion. As the case of Lao PDR acknowledges, education must adapt to the needs of students, otherwise it risks reproducing values, norms and perspectives that are counterproductive to gender equality goals. Because education as an institution is characterized by tradition and is influenced by broader societal formations, the reproduction of gender roles in education can be seen as the *norm* rather than as the exception (Arnot, 2002). Consider, for example, gender stereotyping in education. An important aspect that is often overlooked is how practices that imply stereotyping, for example the teacher's expressed opinion that girls should not be as lively as boys, are often not perceived as stereotyping but instead as the norm.

Identifying instances of stereotyping requires critical reflection. The Summary Report for Brunei Darussalam for the eleventh Regional Meeting of National EFA Coordinators noted that parents and teachers generally believe that stereotyping and gender imbalances in the curriculum still exist and that education should address gendered perceptions among students, parents and the broader public (Ministry of Education, Brunei Darussalam, 2010). This observation from a country that, based on 2009 data (UIS), has achieved gender parity in gross enrolment ratios in primary education (GPI 1.01), pre-primary (GPI 1.03) and secondary education (GPI 1.02) suggests that achieving gender parity does not necessarily entail the elimination of gender stereotyping in education.

2.2.2 Gender equality and education quality

To assure progress towards gender equality through good-quality education for girls and boys, there needs to be a focus on educational processes and outcomes. There are two links between gender equality and education that concern values and equal opportunities to benefit from education, which are shaped by the existing learning environment at schools.

As already argued, gender equality is closely related to education quality. In terms of education quality, there are two distinct dimensions, as exemplified by Brunei Darussalam's educational policy, the *Sistem Pendidikan Negara Abad Ke-21* (SPN 21) from 2007. This policy notes that educational quality consists of a knowledge and skills dimension and a value dimension. The SPN 21 defines education quality by its capacity to equip students with what they need to know to enable them to do certain things. It also defines quality by the capacity of education to convey desired values. Thus educational quality can be assessed based on the capacity of teaching to impart knowledge and skills and to promote desired values and norms. The value dimension relates to the transformative nature of education, which plays a central role in challenging value systems that lie at the heart of social inequalities. Quality education needs to ensure that equality among boys and girls and fair treatment and appreciation of both sexes are guiding principles in teaching and a tangible result in learning outcomes.

The second link relates to opportunities to benefit from learning processes and has been captured in the definition of EFA Goals 2 and 5. Goals 2 and 5 highlight the link between *gender equality* and *educational quality;* the former calls for girls' access to good-quality education and the latter for their

full educational achievement in basic education. Access to quality education and full educational achievement require the eradication of barriers to school enrolment and in teaching modes and methodologies that prevent true gender equality. High-quality teaching is needed to ensure gender sensitivity in learning opportunities. Hence, while it is important to ensure that buildings, classrooms and school facilities are accessible and safe for students of both sexes, significant attention has to be paid to the interaction between teachers and students. In their interaction with students, teachers need to ensure that boys and girls feel secure and appreciated, by them and by fellow students. Further, quality education needs to take the individual and gendered needs of learners into account.

These two links stress the need to address values and equity in the context of education and the learning/teaching processes at the classroom level. It is also important to ensure the gender sensitivity of learning materials, curricula and methodologies in all interventions aimed at promoting gender equality in learning and teaching.

Box 1: Capabilities: Indicators of gender equality

A central question for educational policy makers and practitioners is how progress towards gender equality can be conceptualized in measurable ways. When is gender equality realized in education or in society at large? While there is a diverse spectrum of perspectives and opinions, which often underline the cross-cutting and holistic aspects of gender equality, a capabilities perspective can provide one entry point to conceptualize minimum standards as concrete qualitative indicators for the realization of gender equality in education and in society. Based on Amartya Sen's (1992) work on capabilities – referring to the freedom to achieve valuable functioning – Martha Nussbaum (2000) developed a list of ten essential capabilities:

1. Life
2. Bodily health
3. Bodily integrity
4. Senses, imagination and thought
5. Emotion

6. Practical reason
7. Affiliation
8. Other species
9. Play
10. Control over one's environment

Although abstract, it is possible to see how these capabilities can translate into educational contexts and relate to gender equality in education. Education should develop a student's freedom to carry out the functioning that the listed capabilities entail. For example, it should allow both boys and girls to engage in play and develop their ability for practical reasoning through critical reflection.

The capability approach has substantially fed into the development of the Millennium Development Goals. Sen's and Nussbaum's work has further inspired researchers within the field of education to adapt their work to the particularities of gender in education. The research on gender in education from a capabilities perspective can provide decision-makers with analytical perspectives that allow for measuring progress towards gender equality in education. In the Asia-Pacific region, the capabilities approach has been used in Australia to evaluate the curriculum's capacity to spur development of students' capabilities.

For further information see: Reid, 2005; Sen, 1992; Nussbaum, 2000; Unterhalter, 2005; Walker and Unterhalter, 2007.

3 Progress and remaining challenges towards achieving Goal 5

3.1 Review of the gender parity target status and trends

A review of the girls-to-boy ratio of the gross enrolment ratios for the most recent year available (table 1) found significant progress towards gender parity,[3] in particular in primary education. National data since 2004 show that most countries in the region have achieved gender parity in educational enrolment in primary education. Of 44 countries with data available, only 18 still show gender disparities at the primary level, with most of the disparity in favour of boys. Meanwhile, at the secondary level, out of 42 countries with data, 30 countries, including those that are close to the goal, exhibit gender disparities.

Table 1: Gender parity index (GPI) for the gross enrolment ratios in primary and secondary education

In favour of boys/men			Parity	In favour of girls/women	
Far from the goal (GPI below 0.80)	Intermediate (GPI 0.80 to 0.94)	Close to goal (GPI 0.95 to 0.96)	Goal achieved (GPI 0.97 to 1.03)	Close to the goal (GPI 1.04 to 1.05)	Intermediate (GPI 1.06 to 1.21)
Primary education (gender parity index for gross enrolment ratio (adjusted))					
Afghanistan (2009)	Cambodia (2009), Lao PDR (2008), Niue (2005), Papua New Guinea (2005), Pakistan (2009)	India (2005), Macao, China (2009), Maldives (2009), Tajikistan (2006), Timor-Leste (2009), Tuvalu (2005), Vanuatu (2009)	Australia (2009), Bhutan (2009), Brunei Darussalam (2009), Cook Islands (2010), Fiji (2008), Hong Kong, China (2009), Indonesia (2009), Islamic Republic of Iran (2009), Japan (2009), Kazakhstan (2010), Kyrgyzstan (2009), Malaysia (2008), Marshall Islands (2009), Micronesia (2007), Mongolia (2009), Myanmar (2009), New Zealand (2009), Palau (2007), Philippines (2008), Republic of Korea (2009), Samoa (2009), Solomon Islands (2007), Sri Lanka (2009), Tonga (2005), Thailand (2006), Uzbekistan (2009)	Bangladesh (2009), China (2009), Kiribati (2008)	Nauru (2008)
Secondary education (gender parity index for gross enrolment ratio)					
Afghanistan (2009), Cambodia (2006), Pakistan (2009)	India (2008), Lao PDR (2008), Nepal (2005), Solomon Islands (2007), Tajikistan (2008)	Australia (2009), Islamic Republic of Iran (2009), Macao, China (2009), Republic of Korea (2009)	Bhutan (2009), Brunei Darussalam (2009), Hong Kong, China (2009), Indonesia (2009), Japan (2009), Kazakhstan (2010), Kyrgyzstan (2009), Myanmar (2009), Palau (2007), Sri Lanka (2004), Timor-Leste (2005), Uzbekistan (2009)	Bangladesh (2005), New Zealand (2009), Marshall Islands (2009)	China (2009), Cook Islands (2010), Fiji (2008), Kiribati (2008), Malaysia (2008), Mongolia (2009), Maldives (2004), Micronesia (2005), Nauru (2007), Niue (2005), Philippines (2008), Thailand (2010), Samoa (2009), Tonga (2004), Vanuatu (2009)

Source: Statistical Annex, UIS, 2011.

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3 Gender parity is achieved when the gender parity index (GPI) is between 0.97 and 1.03.

Table 1 also shows that gender disparities in enrolment are greater at the secondary than at the primary level of education. In Afghanistan, Cambodia, India, Lao PDR, Nepal, Pakistan, Solomon Islands and Tajikistan, girls are disadvantaged in enrolment in secondary education (GPI lower than 0.90) while boys are mostly disadvantaged in small islands of the Pacific and Maldives (GPI higher than 1.10).

3.1.1 Subregional trends in enrolment ratios

A subregional comparison of the gender parity index (GPI) for the gross enrolment ratio (GER) in primary education (figure 2) shows that South and West Asia made significant progress between 2000 and 2005, while Central Asia and East Asia and the Pacific maintained parity at the subregional level between 2000 and 2009.

Figure 2: Trends in GPI for subregional average GER in primary education, 2000–2009
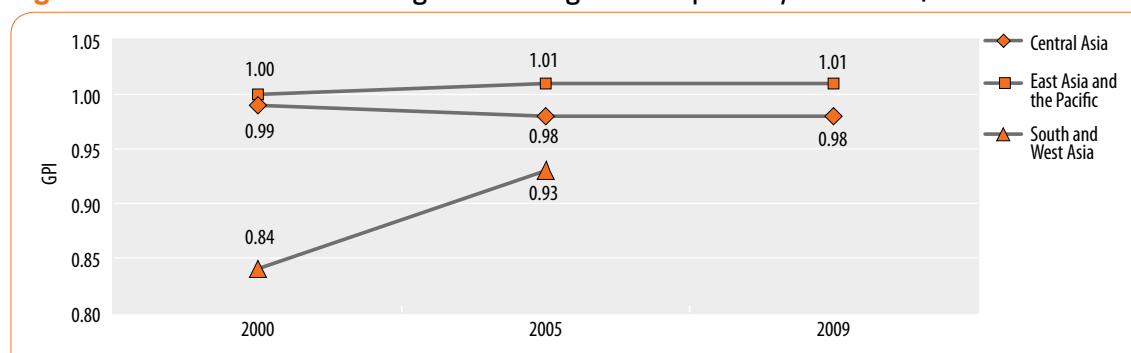
Source: Statistical Annex, UIS, 2011.

The subregional average GPI for the GER in secondary education (figure 3), meanwhile, shows that while South and West Asia made progress in girls' enrolment, significant disparities persist within the subregion, to the disadvantage of girls.

Figure 3: Trends in GPI for subregional average GER for secondary education, 2000–2009
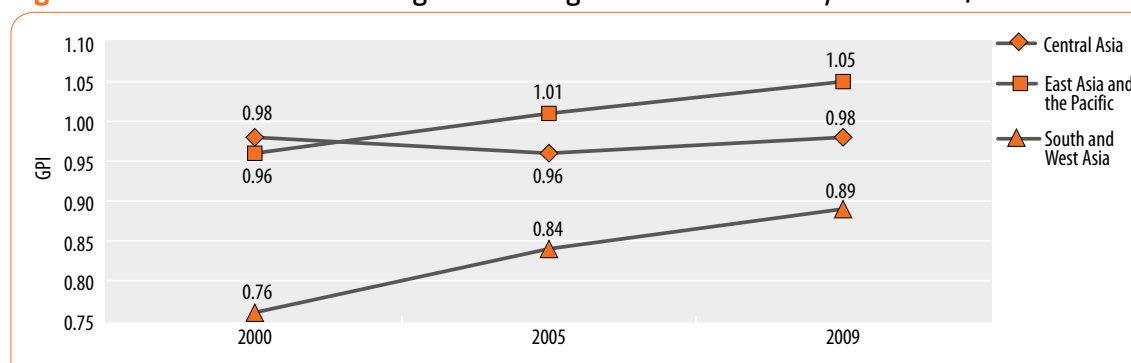
Source: Statistical Annex, UIS, 2011.

The average GPI for the GER in secondary education in Central Asia (figure 3) has been almost constant, staying within the defined parity range of 0.97 to 1.03. The subregional average GPI for the GER in secondary education for East Asia and the Pacific went from a slight disadvantage for girls (GPI of 0.96 in 2000) to a disadvantage for boys over the decade (GPI of 1.05 in 2009).

3.2 Review of the gender equality target

3.2.1 Learning outcomes: Gender equality through education

Learning outcomes must be judged by the capacity of education to realize a prior set of objectives, typically in the form of curricula or policies, towards providing educational programmes to boys and girls. Gender equality, as earlier defined, refers to the equal status and relationship, the fair treatment and non-discrimination and the equal valuing of differences and similarities between boys and girls in the education process and in the outcomes. The quality of education can be judged by its capacity to achieve an equal status in and equal valuing of education outcomes. Comprehensive assessments of learning outcomes, both national and international, focus for the most part, however, on the *content* dimension by measuring and comparing learning outcomes (measured in students' capacities to use skills and reproduce knowledge), repetition rates or educational survival rates – in other words, defining common reference points against which outcomes can be judged. The value dimension is often not addressed in assessments of learning outcomes.

The GPI for the survival rate to the last grade of primary education and the sex-specific percentage of repeaters for boys and girls are limited indicators to measure how effective education systems are in educating both boys and girls. Survival rates and the proportion of repeaters can thus indicate gendered differences in boys' and girls' chances of remaining in education through primary school completion.

Table 2: GPI for the survival rates to the last grade of primary education

Higher survival rate for boys (2 countries)			Gender parity achieved in survival rate to the last grade of primary (19 countries/ territories)			Higher survival rate for girls (5 countries)		
Country	Year	GPI	Country	Year	GPI	Country	Year	GPI
Marshall Islands	2008	0.91	Bangladesh	2008	0.98*	Bhutan	2008	1.12
Vanuatu	2008	0.94	Brunei Darussalam	2007	1.00	Cambodia	2007	1.10
			Hong Kong (China)	2007	1.00	Indonesia	2007	1.07
			India	2005	0.99	Nepal	2007	1.07
			Islamic Republic of Iran	2008	1.00	Philippines	2007	1.13
			Japan	2008	1.00			
			Kazakhstan	2009	1.01			
			Kyrgyzstan	2008	1.01			
			Lao PDR	2007	1.02			
			Macao (China)	2008	1.01			
			Malaysia	2007	1.01			
			Mongolia	2007	1.01			
			Myanmar	2008	0.99			
			Pakistan	2008	0.98			
			Republic of Korea	2008	1.00			
			Singapore	2008	1.00			
			Sri Lanka	2005	1.00**			
			Tonga	2005	1.02			
			Uzbekistan	2008	1.01			

Notes: * National estimation. ** UIS estimation.
Source: Statistical Annex, UIS, 2011.

In 19 of 26 countries providing relatively recent data on gender, parity exists in survival rates to the last grade of primary education while in the seven remaining countries there are gender disparities in survival rates. In two countries – the Marshall Islands and Vanuatu – girls are more likely to drop out of primary education; in five countries, boys are more likely to drop out of primary education before reaching the last grade. The regional overview of survival rates indicates that once girls are enrolled in education they tend to stay put at an equal level to boys.

In terms of the national percentage of repeaters, figure 4 indicates that boys are overrepresented among repeaters in primary education. In Hong Kong (China), India, Iran (Islamic Rep. of), Nepal Pakistan, Samoa and Sri Lanka, there are no significant differences observed between male and female repeaters in primary education, but in all other countries, boys are more prone to repeat than girls. In some countries, such as Thailand, the gender disparity among repeaters (approximately 6 percentage points) in primary education is striking.

Figure 4: Percentage of male and female repeaters in primary education, 2009 or most recent year available
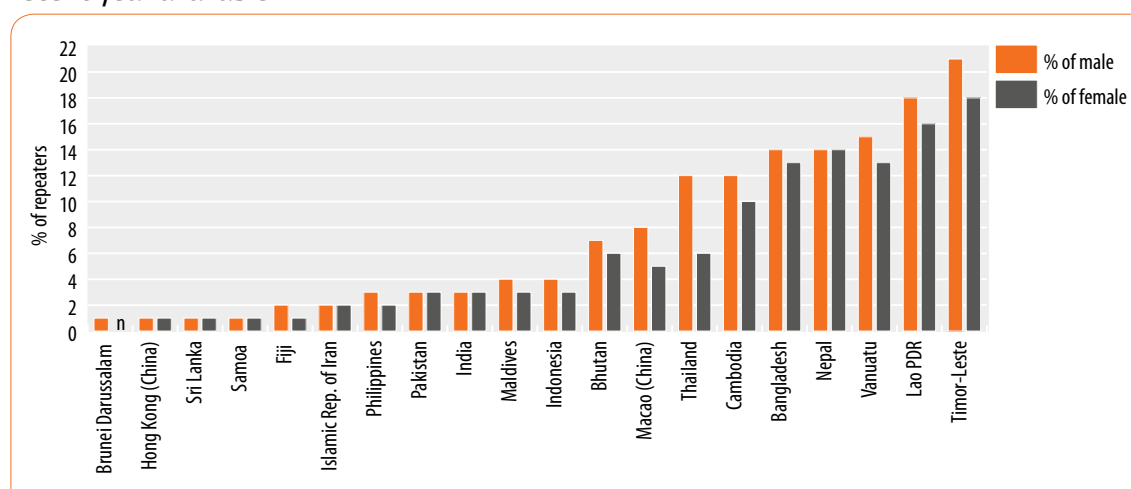
Notes: Countries where the percentage of repeaters is negligible (n) or not applicable are not presented.
Source: EDN Goal 2, Statistical Annex, UIS, 2011.

A glance at the percentages for repeaters in secondary education reveals that in all countries for which data are available, boys repeat more than girls or the percentage is the same (figure 5). This seems to suggest that overall, once girls are enrolled in education their academic performances in primary and secondary education are equal to or higher than those of boys. Yet, the percentage of repeaters alone cannot give a clear indication of academic performance, because other non-learning related factors can contribute to repetition, for example indirect costs in the context of transition to the next grade. Nevertheless, grade repetition is likely to make it more difficult for students to stay in school and to graduate, in particular for families with limited financial resources who may be more inclined to take children who perform poorly out of school.

Figure 5: Percentage of male and female repeaters in secondary education, 2009 or most recent year available
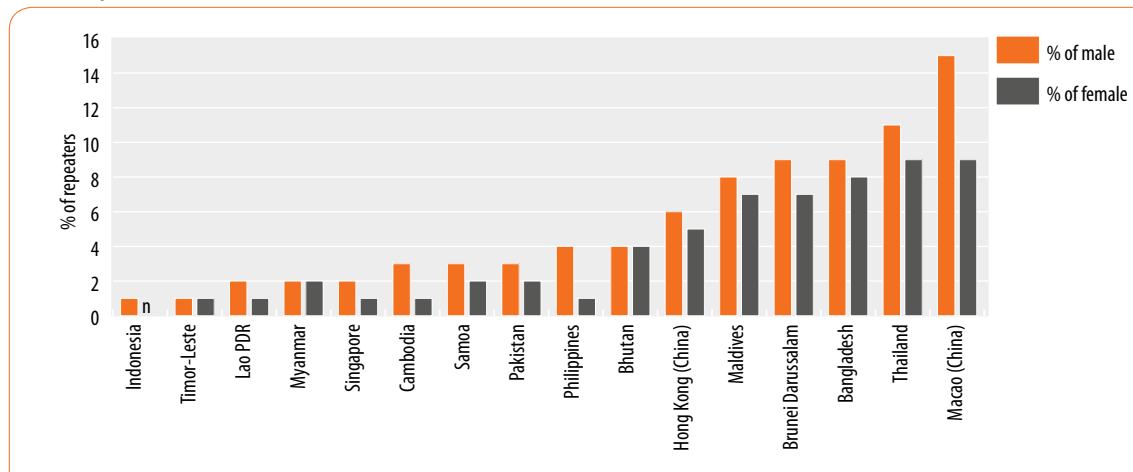
Note: Countries where the percentage of repeaters is negligible (n) or not applicable are not presented.
Source: UIS, 2011.

3.2.2 Processes: Gender equality in education

Although indicators such as the percentage of repeaters and survival rates provide some information on education outcomes, they do not give insight into teaching and learning processes and their success in fostering gender equality.

From this perspective, the quality of education is also determined by the opportunities that exist to challenge gender stereotypes, forms of gender discrimination and/or gender-based violence. Are students given the chance to learn about and discuss gender as an expression of cultural value systems? Such opportunities constitute the value dimension in education quality.

An assessment of educational quality based on teaching/learning practices requires scrutiny of textbooks, curricula and teaching practices – all of which influence students' gender roles and behaviour, in short their 'socialization'. Teaching/learning processes involve the transfer and reproduction of values and norms, potentially contributing to the reinforcement of the status quo, including gender inequality. At the same time, socialization through education can also be used to realize transformative political goals, such as gender equality, by encouraging students to challenge existing structures and question norms and values that uphold the status quo.

Findings from the region suggest that the gender sensitivity of such socialization is in most cases still lacking, with the result that education often reinforces and reproduces gender stereotypes. An example of this is found in the EFA Mid-Decade Assessment from Bangladesh. The *Bangladesh EFA MDA National Report 2001–2005* (UNICEF Bangladesh, 2008, p. 181) states that a knowledge gap exists on gender perspectives in the curriculum and that learning materials in a number of cases are presenting males as "strong" and "involved in public spheres", while females are portrayed as "dependants, active within the private sphere." The report also notes that such stereotyping is quantifiable because the number of males and females presented can differ and learning materials in a number of cases portray significantly more male examples than female ones. The Bangladesh case shows that education, even though available for girls, can nevertheless also disadvantage them through stereotyping and male preference, thus perpetuating girls' roles as dependents associated with care giving at home.

As well as textbooks, teaching can be gender biased. The *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2008* (UNESCO, 2007, p. 87) points out that in many countries "boys enjoy more challenging interactions with teachers, dominate classroom activities and receive more attention" than girls. If this is so, how is it that girls in the majority of countries outperform male students in international comparative tests

on student competencies, especially in literacy skills? Additional research from the region is needed regarding the observation that boys largely dominate classroom interaction. Such dominance, however, does not necessarily imply a positive interaction with teachers and other pupils. Findings from Australia (House of Representatives of Australia, 2002) highlight the negative attitude some boys show in class, which prevents them from benefiting from learning.

The *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2008* (UNESCO, 2007) also shows how teachers' expectations on educational outcomes and students' demeanour differ depending on the sex of the student. The differential treatment of boys and girls shown by teachers can affect students' learning outcomes and opportunities through expectations and self-fulfilling prophecies. For example, a teacher who is convinced that female students in general are worse at mathematics will probably be swayed by this conviction in his/her interactions with such students and in the assessment of female and male students' performances. Because teachers are influenced by broader cultural value systems, this can contribute to gender-blind teaching that reinforces stereotypical perceptions of gender roles, while marginalizing other interpretations of such roles. In terms of the educational underperformance of boys (see section 3.3.3), additional research is needed to clarify to what extent teachers and learning materials are providing space for male students to express alternative forms of masculinity, for example for boys who like to read or talk about their experiences and feelings. In summary, the teacher's interaction with female and male students affects how they participate in classroom learning processes.

Box 2: Republic of Korea: Boys dominate the classroom

A study on teacher-student interaction in classrooms at elementary and junior high schools in the Republic of Korea reconfirmed findings from previous research that interaction was centred on male students. According to the study, male students had more opportunities for interaction with teachers than female students. It also found almost no instances in which teachers encouraged female students to participate in lessons.

The findings show that teachers used different disciplinary methods for similar issues for male and female students in the same class. Males were commonly given physical punishment, and females received verbal reprimands. The teachers indicated that this differential treatment was based on the belief that different attitudes and responses towards discipline require a gender-differentiated approach.

Source: Jung and Chung, 2006.

3.3 Remaining challenges and prospects for achieving Goal 5

3.3.1 Summary of the main challenges

The specific roadblocks towards realizing the two targets will of course differ from country to country. However, there are some common challenges shared by the majority of countries in the region.

As table 1 highlights, the target of gender parity in primary education enrolment has not yet been achieved region-wide. In 13 countries, girls remain disadvantaged in enrolment and in four (Bangladesh, China, Kiribati and Nauru), the bias is against boys. Gender parity in secondary education enrolment is an even greater challenge, with 30 countries according to the latest available data, missing the target. In the secondary context, girls encounter barriers towards enrolment in 12 countries, and boys in 18 countries.

Parity in enrolment at the national level does not necessarily mean that no disparities exist at the provincial and local levels. Hidden disparities often remain. 'Hidden' refers to the inability of findings generated by monitoring and evaluation mechanisms to capture subnational, local variation and other nuances that negatively affect boys' and girls' enrolment, learning outcomes and learning processes. One remaining challenge is thus to improve monitoring and evaluation mechanisms, based on a more refined picture to address hidden gender disparities and inequalities in both EFA Goal 5 targets. Girls from marginalized groups, for example, ethnic minorities, certain religious communities, and those residing in rural and remote areas, often encounter barriers towards their enrolment in education.

A remaining challenge for the promotion of gender equality is the implementing of gender policies in education. While many countries within the region have integrated the equal right to education and abolished discrimination against girls and women in their constitutions, education policies and ratified conventions such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), there is often a gap between these policies, their implementation and the realities of education in the classroom.

> ### Box 3: Cambodia: Equal rights to education
>
> "States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in order to ensure them equal rights with men in the field of education and in particular to ensure a basis of equality between men and women."
>
> "The elimination of any stereotyped concept of the roles of men and women at all levels and in all forms of education by encouraging coeducation and other types of education, which will help to achieve this aim and, in particular, by the revision of textbooks and school programmes and the adaptation of teaching methods."
>
> *Source:* Initial, Second and Third Report on the Implementation of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women in Cambodia, Royal Government of Cambodia, 2004, pp. 43-44.

While policies and legal commitments are important to establish gender equality through institutional values and norms, it is imperative to ensure that these norms and values then translate into concrete practices in the classroom – one of the remaining challenges within the region. Lessons from the South Asian subregion (Subrahmanian, 2006) highlight that gender policies in education can lead to better education for girls if they include improving educators' understanding of gender equality, encouraging schools to become more responsive to local needs, constant monitoring of progress, the empowerment of teachers and the provision of targeted resources. To bring about gender equality in education, it is also important to increase the number of women in decision-making positions in the education sector.

Another major challenge is the need to address gender stereotyping in teaching/learning materials and teaching methodologies through education reform (UNESCO Almaty, 2008). Learning processes can lead to the reinforcement of gender stereotypes and the discrimination of girls in their right to participate in learning. Thus, a reform of teaching methodologies, curricula and learning materials to rid them of gender stereotyping and discrimination is pivotal. Given that monitoring progress towards the achievement of Goal 5 is mostly focused on quantitative aspects of achieving gender parity, qualitative issues in learning processes are often overlooked. In this vein, it is important to increase the capacity of monitoring and evaluation mechanisms to address qualitative issues in teaching and learning.

In summary, the challenges to achieving EFA Goal 5 are:

- gender disparities in enrolment (especially in secondary education)

- hidden disparities at the national level

- shortcomings in translating policy on gender equality in education into concrete actions in the classroom

- the lack of gender sensitized teaching methodologies, curricula and learning materials.

3.3.2 Girls are still disadvantaged

The remaining challenges specifically relating to girls entail subregional issues, hidden disparities in girls´ enrolment and the need to address the low enrolment ratio of girls in technical and vocational education and training (TVET).

Specific subregional challenges for achieving gender parity in education

The following summarizes the subregional challenges for achieving gender parity (see the statistical annex at the end of this EDN).

Central Asia

- Gender disparities in enrolment persist to the disadvantage of girls in Tajikistan at the pre-primary, primary and secondary level.

- Low enrolment of girls and women in technical and vocational education and training (TVET) in Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan.

East Asia

- Disadvantages for girls in transition rates from primary to secondary education and enrolment rates in secondary education are reported in Lao PDR.

- Gender disparities in enrolment in secondary education, to the disadvantage of girls, persist in Cambodia.

- Gender disparities remain prevalent among certain marginalized groups, particularly female students belonging to ethnic minorities (UNESCO Bangkok, 2010b).

Pacific

- Preconditions for monitoring and evaluation of progress towards gender parity and gender equality in education are limited from a subregional perspective, while sex-disaggregated data are often outdated and based on estimates. Due to lack of recent data, progress towards gender equity in enrolment in primary and secondary education is difficult to assess from a subregional perspective.

- According to the latest available data, girls are disadvantaged in enrolment in secondary education in Solomon Islands.

- Latest available data from Kiribati, Marshall Islands and Vanuatu show that survival rates for girls to the last grade of primary education are lower than for boys.

South and West Asia

- Gender disparities in enrolment in primary education persist, to the disadvantage of girls in Afghanistan, India, Maldives and Pakistan.

- In Afghanistan, India, Islamic Republic of Iran, Nepal and Pakistan, girls remain disadvantaged in the gender parity index of the GER in secondary education.

- Data show that the enrolment ratio of girls in upper secondary education is substantially lower than that of the boys in Afghanistan, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal and Pakistan (see the statistical annex of EDN Goal 3).

- Socially and economically disadvantaged women and girls encounter significant barriers to enrolment in education; factors such as location of residence, religion, caste, ethnicity, language and socio-economic status significantly affect female chances for enrolment in education (UNESCO Bangkok, 2009).

Hidden disparities: Subnational variation in enrolment ratios

While national averages in male/female enrolment ratios provide insight into progress towards gender parity at the national level, they can hide subnational disparities. Data in most countries indicate a certain variation in female and male participation ratios at the provincial and local levels. For example, in one province boys might be significantly disadvantaged, while in a neighbouring province the bias might be against girls. In the *Education for All Mid-Decade Assessment: Gender Equality in Education* (UNICEF, 2009), many examples of subnational disparities are provided, especially in countries that report gender parity at the national level. For example, Viet Nam still had high levels of disparity against girls in the North-East and against boys in the southern highlands, despite reportedly achieving parity in primary education (Ministry of Education and Training, Viet Nam, 2007).

Another pattern that is commonly observed at the subnational level is a gender gap in urban and rural enrolment ratios.

Although Pakistan reported a GPI of 0.84 for the adjusted net enrolment rate (ANER) in primary education and a GPI of 0.79 for the net enrolment rate (NER) in secondary education for 2009, figure 6 illustrates a gap in rural and urban female enrolment rates in both the primary and secondary levels of education. It also shows that only a small variation exists in female enrolment in primary and secondary education in urban areas; yet, in rural areas, girls' enrolment in secondary education is significantly lower than in primary school. The trend also reveals that while the enrolment of girls in primary education in rural areas has seen significant increases, progress in rural enrolment rates for girls in secondary education seems to have stalled. As Pakistan's case highlights, it is important for policy-makers to identify and determine the underlying causes of disparities at the subnational level to develop intervention strategies adapted to the particular local conditions, which may disadvantage either girls or boys. It might thus be beneficial to involve local communities in the identification of the mechanisms and barriers that keep girls out of school and to involve community representatives, affected girls and their families in the development of strategies that aim to overcome difficulties towards enrolment in education.

Figure 6: Gender gap in rural–urban net enrolment rate in Pakistan, 2002, 2004 and 2006
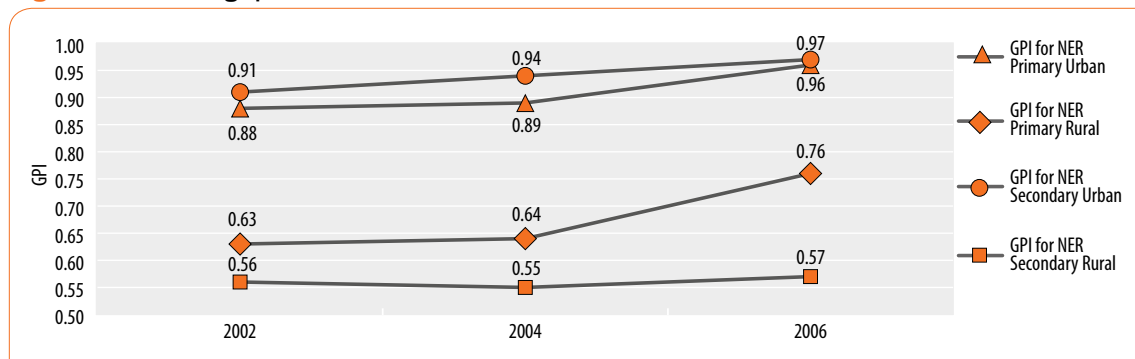
Source: Ministry of Education, Pakistan, 2008.

Box 4: Child marriage and education

Child marriage remains a serious threat to girls' and women's education and well-being. Research shows that girls who marry before the age of 18 are more likely to experience domestic violence and to have lower educational attainment levels than their non-married peers (UNICEF, 2005). It also substantiates that child marriage is more common among the poorest sectors of society and in rural areas. Data from 2000 to 2009 reflect significant differences in the prevalence of child marriage within the region (UNICEF, 2011). In Bangladesh, 66 per cent of all 20- to 24-year-old females were married before the age of 18, while in Kazakhstan only 7 per cent of females of that age group were married. Child marriage and the related increased chances of leaving school early also hamper opportunities for girls to learn about reproductive health issues, thereby increasing their risk of HIV infection.

In some societies, parents regard marriage as the most important objective of their daughters' future life. This view, rooted in tradition and custom, of marriage being essential to a woman's status in society reinforces the perspective that educating an unmarried daughter is an unnecessary financial burden. It also encourages early marriage and a subsequent dropping out of school (UNICEF, 2001). Fear of possible sexual activity, pregnancy or sexual harassment at school, in dormitories or on the way to class discourages some parents from sending their daughters to school. Because of this, educators need to integrate issues of sexual harassment and sexuality into their work and, more broadly, promote the importance of girls' education with parents, communities and society at large.

Legal enforcement of a minimum age for marriage and the creation of multiple forms of employment opportunities for women provide incentives to delay marriage to an age at which the ability to make well-founded life choices has been fully developed.

Hidden disparities: Socio-economic status and enrolment of girls

As the previous section highlighted, issues of gender in education are often inter-related with other social disparities.

• In Nepal, for example, national data show that significant differences in the GPI for the gross attendance ratios (GAR) in primary and secondary education exist if the socio-economic status of parents is linked with the gender of students. The data from Nepal underscore how socio-economic status affects the attendance of girls in education. Although the poorest girls are severely disadvantaged in primary and secondary education, these disparities are non-existent within the richest quintiles of Nepalese society. These links between gender and socio-economic status are further intertwined with the dimensions of ethnicity and caste, according to the *Nepal EFA Mid-Decade Assessment Report* from 2007 (Ministry of Education and Sport). Yet, privileged women can also be handicapped by existing gender roles, which might also explain the lower female attendance ratio that becomes evident when comparing the GPI for the GAR among students in the fourth quintile with students from the richest households in Nepal (figure 7).

Figure 7: GPI for the gross attendance ratio in Nepal, by level of education and wealth quintile, 2004
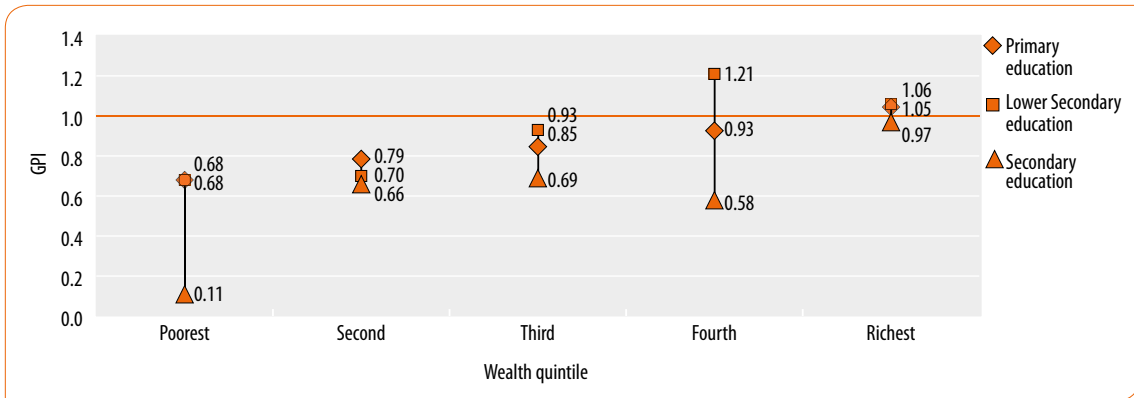
• In some countries, even though socio-economic status has relatively small effects on the attendance of girls and boys in primary school, its effects are strong in the secondary level. In Myanmar, (figure 8), the poorest girls are severely disadvantaged in secondary enrolment despite enjoying relative parity in primary enrolment. Interestingly, the disadvantage transfers to boys in the third and fourth wealth quintiles, while in the richest quintile, it is girls who are again severely disadvantaged rather than boys. This pattern of girl disadvantage in the richest quintile is similar to the case of Nepalese girls in primary schools, suggesting the possibility of existing gender roles having an impact on differential expectations of education for girls and boys.

Figure 8: GPI for the net attendance rate in Myanmar, by level of education and by wealth quintile, 2009
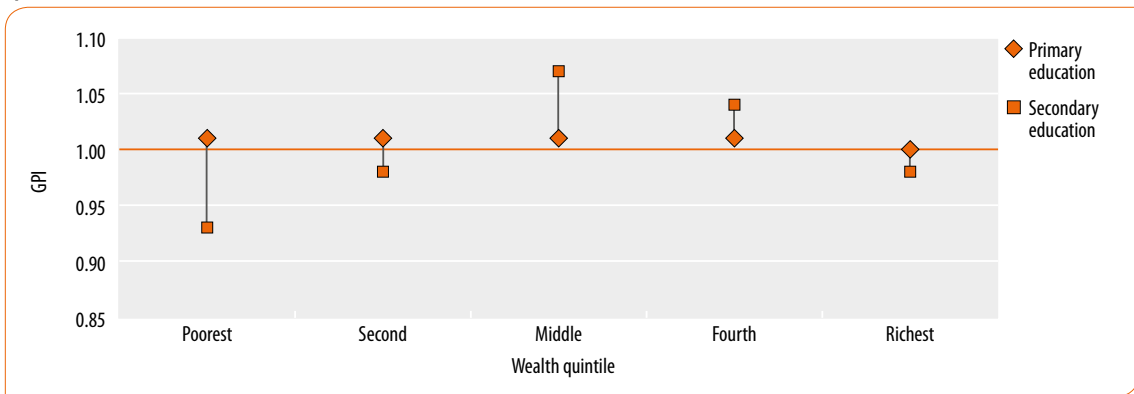
- A study on the links between gender, ethnicity and enrolment in education in China (Hannum, 2002), which also takes geographic and economic factors into account, shows that the gender gap in enrolment[4] is wider among ethnic minorities and narrower within the ethnic majority. According to the study, ethnic minority girls are less likely to be enrolled in education than boys from an ethnic minority and from the Han ethnic majority. Poverty puts girls from ethnic minority groups at a disadvantage because, according to the findings, they are more likely to leave school for economic reasons. Although the results provide no indication of the current state of gender parity in China because the data are from the 1990s, the links between ethnicity, poverty, gender and school enrolment are relevant in underlining how girls' enrolment is affected by a multiplicity of factors.

The gender gap in attendance rates is linked with the urban-rural divide, which in many countries is also characterized by a socio-economic gap that sees a concentration of better-off populations in urban areas and poorer households in rural areas.

- A comparison of the GPI for the primary school adjusted net attendance rate (ANAR) for urban and rural areas between 2000 and 2008 in 43 national surveys from all over the world (UIS, 2010, p. 47), including Bangladesh, Cambodia, India, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Thailand and Uzbekistan, shows that the average GPI for rural areas (0.94) documents a disadvantage to girls, while it is within parity range in urban areas (0.99).

- An issue that has only recently attracted more attention is gender disparities in education among students living in slums. An estimated 554 million people in Asia (excluding China) lived in slums in 2001 (UN-HABITAT, 2003), representing 42.1 per cent of the total urban population although country estimates differ significantly.

- In Nepal and Afghanistan, the slum population is estimated to represent more than 90 per cent of the urban population. With the accelerating pace of migration from rural to urban areas in a number of countries in the region, providing access to education for the poorest children in urban areas is critical, requiring better monitoring and documentation of slum populations, migrating parents and their children.

Census data on slum populations are often limited and based on estimates, thus there are no comprehensive data from a regional perspective on school attendance and attainment for children living in slum households. However, there are a few case studies.

- In a study on children in Delhi (Tsujita, 2009), survey responses suggested that there is no significant gender disparity in the attendance of girls in education, with 91.3 per cent of girls and 89.5 per cent of boys indicating that they attend school. This stands in contrast to the national average attendance rate of 84.7 per cent for boys and 79.2 per cent for girls. Even so, the study indicates that the ratio of slum children who said they had never attended school was slightly higher for girls (32.9 per cent) than for boys (30.5 per cent).

Other findings from Asia point to significant barriers to continued school attendance among the urban poor.

- In a section on street children in urban centres, the 2007 EFA Mid-Decade Assessment report for Tajikistan Ministry of Education notes that children of the urban poor, especially those who have recently migrated from the countryside, are prone to drop out of school due to a lack of financial resources. According to a national survey, 86.2 per cent of Tajikistan's street children are boys. Of the street children who were surveyed, 49.2 per cent of the boys and 76.6 per cent of the girls said they did not attend school. Research from Bangladesh (Conticini and Hulme, 2007) highlights the central role that violence and abuse at home and in the local community are (apart from poverty) reasons why children take to the streets.

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4   In the study, 'enrolment' refers to enrolment to education among 7- to 14-year-olds. Enrolment in education must therefore be interpreted to both enrolment in primary and lower secondary education.

Given the regional trend towards urbanization, achieving gender parity in education will require better monitoring of formal education attainment among the urban poor, slum dwellers and migrants. Educational programmes also need to target vulnerable and marginalized groups, including those suffering from commercial sexual exploitation, trafficking and physical and mental abuse, to ensure that they stay in school as a protective barrier against exploitation. This requires comprehensive approaches based on multiparty cooperation to produce sustainable and tangible results.

Female enrolment ratios in technical and vocational education and training

Greater emphasis has been put on TVET in national education policies due to expanding economic development in the region as well as changes in labour markets. Several countries have accepted TVET as a means to equip students with the skills and knowledge they need to meet the demands of a rapidly changing economy. However, in many countries enrolment in TVET is limited to a small group. Women in particular often lack opportunities to enter TVET.

Figure 9: Percentage of female enrolment in TVET, 2009
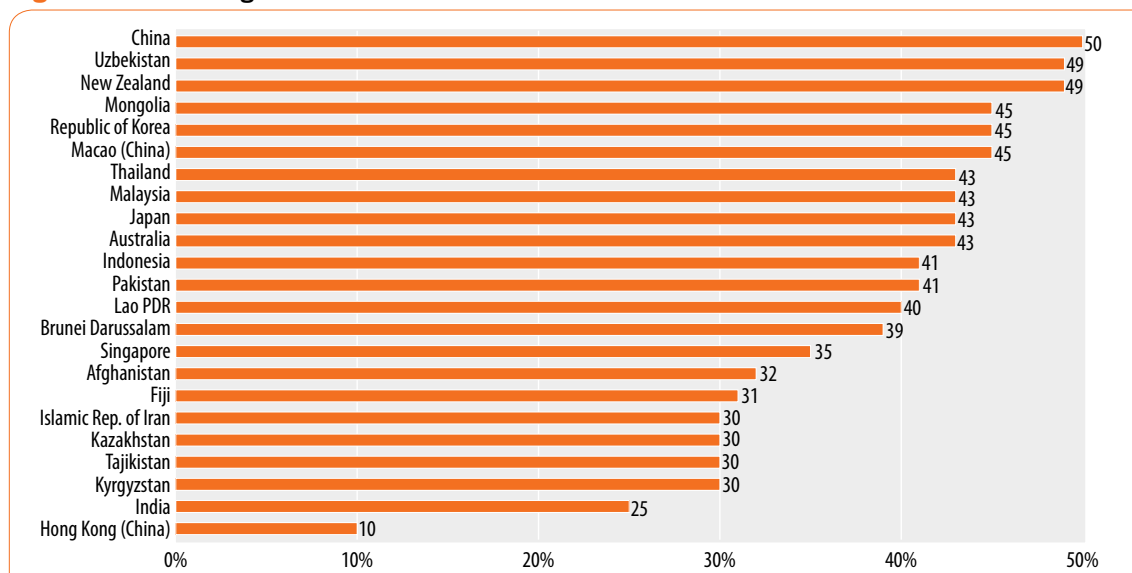
Note: Data for 2009 or latest available data.
Source: Statistical Annex, UIS, 2011.

Although data on female enrolment in TVET are often limited, available data from the region show that in most countries girls are underrepresented and encounter barriers to accessing technical and vocational training. The disadvantages are striking when set against the global average percentage of female in TVET of 45 per cent in 2009. The exclusion of girls from TVET hampers their chances of finding gainful employment and equipping themselves with the necessary life skills that will give them financial independence and equal opportunities for professional development.

• According to Salehi-Isfahani and Egel's (2007) research on unemployment in the Islamic Republic of Iran, female school attendance does not always translate into employment. The study suggests that unemployment is most common among women who have completed upper secondary education (56.8 per cent in 2004), compared with women who have completed primary education (7.5 per cent in 2004) and males who completed upper secondary education (23.6 per cent in 2004).

These findings suggest that gender parity in upper secondary education or even GPIs to the disadvantage of men in tertiary education[5] do not necessarily mean that women are advantaged in their entrance to the labour market.

5   According to the data published in the UIS, 2010, *Global Education Digest*, in 2008 the Iranian GPI for the GER in upper secondary education was 1.02 and the GER in tertiary education was 1.14.

- A similar trend is found in Australia where, according to research (Collins, et al., 2000), the higher attainment rates and academic performances of girls and women in the national context are not reflected in proportional full-time employment. Such findings point to the need for closer scrutiny to understand the gender implications of labour market participation in the broad context of educational, cultural and labour market conditions. These effects are discussed in greater detail in section 4.4.

3.3.3 Boys also need attention

The latest available data show that boys face barriers to enrolment in secondary education and are out-performed by girls in literacy-related skills. This section focuses on the subregional challenges confronting boys and their enrolment in secondary education as well as the differences in the educational performance of boys and girls (see the statistical annex).

Specific subregional challenges for achieving gender parity

Central Asia

- Uzbekistan, the southern provinces of Kazakhstan and Kyrgyzstan report early drop-out of boys (UNESCO Almaty, 2008).

- In Mongolia, boys are reportedly disadvantaged in enrolment at pre-primary and secondary levels of education.[6]

East Asia

- Boys are disadvantaged in pre-primary enrolment in Cambodia, Lao PDR, Malaysia and Timor-Leste.

- Boys are disadvantaged in secondary enrolment in China, Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand.

- Less boys are making the transition from primary to secondary in Macao (China), Singapore and Thailand.

Pacific

- The latest available data show that enrolment ratios for boys in secondary education are lower than those for girls in the Cook Islands, Fiji, Kiribati, Marshall Islands, Micronesia, Niue, Nauru, Samoa and Tonga.

- In the Cook Islands, Fiji and Samoa observers suggest that the incidence of boys dropping out of secondary education has grown in recent years while repetition rates for boys in primary and secondary education are rising.[7]

South and West Asia

- In Bangladesh, boys are disadvantaged in primary and secondary enrolment. In the Maldives they are disadvantaged in secondary enrolment and in Bhutan they are disadvantaged in pre-primary enrolment. However data suggest that in the Maldives, the enrolment rate for girls in upper secondary is lower than that for boys' (Statistical Annex of EDN Goal 3).

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6   In the UIS data set, Mongolia is included in the Central Asia subregion but in the End of Decade Notes it is included in the East Asia subregion.
7   See the national EFA MDA reports from the Cook Islands (Ministry of Education, 2008), Fiji (Ministry of Education, National Heritage, Culture and Arts, 2008) and Samoa (Ministry of Education, Sports & Culture, 2007).

Drop-outs in primary education and transition to secondary

Of growing concern is the large number of boys who drop out of primary education in several countries of the region and low male enrolment ratios in upper secondary education. Available data on survival rates to the last grade of primary school show that in a selected number of countries the boys are primarily dropping out during primary education.

- Data for Bhutan, Cambodia, Indonesia, Nepal and Philippines show a lack of gender parity in survival rates to the last grade of primary education, with significantly more boys than girls dropping out. Data for Marshall Islands and Vanuatu, however, indicate that more girls than boys drop out during primary education (table 2).

Box 5: Philippines: Education of boys is a major concern

The underperformance and high drop-out rate of boys in Philippines is one of the country's challenges towards achieving gender equality by 2015 and gender parity in school enrolment. One major reason behind the high drop-out rate is child labour. According to national data, most child workers in Philippines are males from rural areas. While child labour does not necessarily entail a complete halt to education, national data indicate that two out of five working children between the ages of 5 and 17 years completely abandon school. UIS data from 2007 show that in Philippines, boys mostly drop out of primary school (the GPI for the survival rate to the last grade of primary education is 1.13) and that gender parity in enrolment is missed in both lower (GPI of 1.07 in GER for 2008) and upper secondary education (GPI of 1.20 in GER for 2008).

Source: EFA Secretariat, Philippines, 2010.
Quoted data are from the Statistical Annex of this EDN and EDN on Goal 3, Statistical Annex, UIS, 2011.

Table 3: GPI for the transition rate from primary to secondary education

GPI <0.97		GPI = 0.97-1.03		GPI >1.03	
Lao PDR (2007)	0.96	Brunei Darussalam (2008)	0.99	Bangladesh (2005)	1.06
		Cambodia (2007)	0.99	Bhutan (2008)	1.05
		Fiji (2007)	1.00	Macao (China) (2008)	1.05
		Hong Kong (China) (2008)	1.00*	Maldives (2008)	1.07
		India (2007)	1.00	Singapore (2008)	1.07
		Indonesia (2008)	1.02	Thailand (2006)	1.05
		Islamic Republic of Iran (2008)	1.01		
		Kazakhstan (2009)	1.00		
		Kyrgyzstan (2008)	1.00		
		Malaysia (2007)	0.98**		
		Marshall Islands (2008)	0.97		
		Mongolia (2008)	1.03		
		Myanmar (2008)	0.98		
		Nepal (2007)	1.00		
		Pakistan (2008)	0.99		
		Philippines (2007)	0.99		
		Republic of Korea (2008)	1.00		
		Sri Lanka (2008)	1.02		
		Tajikistan (2006)	0.99**		
		Timor-Leste (2008)	1.02		
		Tonga (2005)	0.97		
		Uzbekistan (2008)	0.99		
		Vanuatu (2005)	1.02		

Notes: * National estimation. ** UIS estimation.
Source: Statistical Annex, UIS, 2011. Data from 2008 or latest available, data since 2005.

Data on the transition rates from primary to secondary education reveal that girls are disadvantaged (GPI < 0.97) in Lao PDR and boys (GPI > 1.03) in Bangladesh, Bhutan, Macao (China), Maldives, Singapore and Thailand. In Bangladesh and Bhutan, the enrolment of boys in lower secondary education is lower than it is for girls (figure 10).

Figure 10: GPI for GER in lower and upper secondary education, 2009
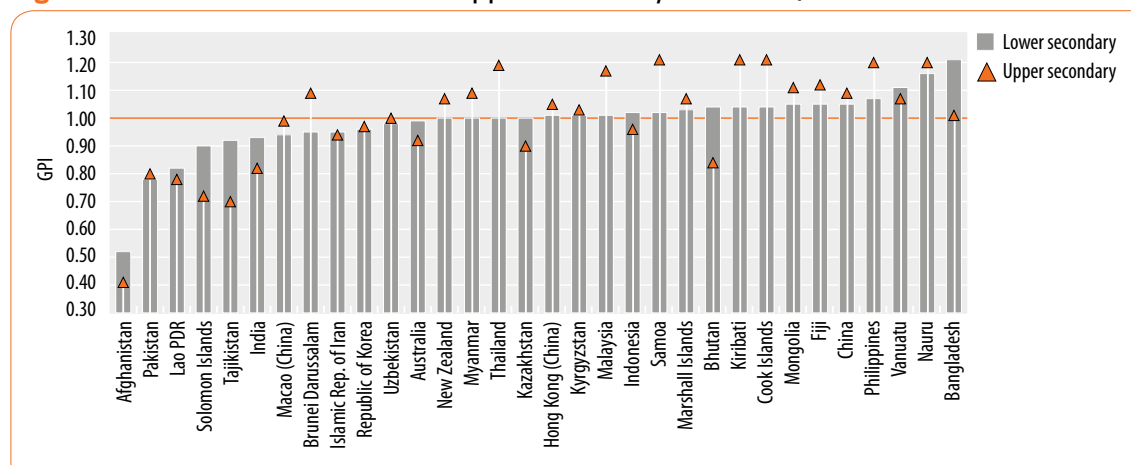
In 20 of the 33 countries for which 2009 data on enrolment in lower and upper secondary education are available, the GPI for the GER in upper secondary education is higher than that in lower secondary education and most of the time above the gender parity range (> 1.03). This indicates that in these countries, boys are less likely than girls to be enrolled in upper secondary school. Further, the gender parity target is missed in most of these 20 countries in upper secondary education due to the lower enrolment ratios for boys.

In 10 of the 33 countries, the GPI for the GER in upper secondary is lower than it is in lower secondary education and below gender parity range (< 0.97). In these countries, girls are less likely than boys to be enrolled in upper secondary education. As well, the gender parity target is missed in upper secondary education due to the lower enrolment ratios for girls. In the remaining two countries, the GPI for the GER in upper secondary is lower than the GPI for lower secondary, but at parity (Bangladesh) or with a disadvantage for boys (Vanuatu).

A closer look at the GPIs for enrolment ratios at various levels of education in several countries where boys are disadvantaged confirms the observation that fewer boys than girls are enrolled in secondary education, and especially in the upper secondary tier.

Table 4: GPI for enrolment at various levels of education in selected countries

Country	Adjusted NER Primary	GER lower secondary	GER upper secondary
Bangladesh (2008)	1.08* (2009)	1.21	1.01
Bhutan (2009)	1.03	1.04	0.84
Brunei Darussalam (2009)	1.02	0.95	1.09
Fiji (2008)	1.00	1.05	1.12
Malaysia (2008)	1.00**	1.01	1.17
Mongolia (2009)	1.02 (2006)	1.05	1.11
New Zealand (2009)	1.01	1.00	1.07
Philippines (2008)	1.02	1.07	1.20
Thailand (2010)	0.98 (2006)	1.00	1.19

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Table 4 shows how the participation of boys in education seems to increase or decrease at certain stages in the seven listed countries. In Mongolia and Philippines, for example, boys seem to experience particular hurdles to participation in primary, lower and upper secondary education.

A comparison of the GPI for enrolment in lower and upper secondary education suggests that boys seem to be less likely than girls to be enrolled in the latter, except in Bangladesh and Bhutan where the picture is different. Data from these two countries indicate that boys encounter difficulties to enrolling and staying in school at the primary level. While the GPI for the adjusted NER (ANER) in primary education in Bhutan remains within parity range, the GPI for the ANER in Bangladesh as well as survival rates for primary, transition rates to secondary and the GPI for the GER in lower secondary education in both countries can be seen to disadvantage boys. In Bhutan, a reversal of this pattern occurs in upper secondary education. Fewer girls than boys are enrolled in upper secondary education, as reflected in the GPI for the GER, which indicates that a disadvantage for boys in lower secondary education shifts to a disadvantage for girls at the upper secondary level. In Bangladesh, the GPI for the GER in upper secondary is at parity.

While the variation in the GPI for the GER in lower and upper secondary education can provide a picture of the gender gap in enrolment, it is not capable of capturing the boy's potential for dropping out during that time.

Educational performance

A number of countries have recognized the underachievement of boys in secondary education as a major challenge towards gender equality in education. The *Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2006* (UNESCO, 2005) highlights the trend that boys perform worse than girls in countries where equal access to education exists as well as a tendency for girls to perform better than boys in reading skills. Yet international assessments, such as Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS)[8] and the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA),[9] provide a very limited picture of the gendered performances of students in the Asia-Pacific region due to only a few countries participating.

The Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS)[10] from 2006 (IEA, 2007), which measures and compares reading and literacy performances of students in grade 4, found that boys in the participating countries from the region were outperformed by girls in literacy-related skills (table 5).

Table 5: Average literacy achievements in grade 4, by sex, 2006

Country	Average scale score for students in the fourth grade		Difference in average achievement
	Girls	Boys	
Hong Kong (China)	569	559	10
Taiwan Province of China	542	529	13
Islamic Republic of Iran	429	414	15
Singapore	567	550	17
Indonesia	415	395	20
New Zealand	544	520	24
International average	509	492	17

Source: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), 2007.

8   TIMSS studies math and science achievement at the fourth and eighth grade levels. In the fourth grade study, eight countries/territories (or economies) from the region participated: Australia, Chinese Taipei, Hong Kong (China), Islamic Republic of Iran, Japan, Kazakhstan, New Zealand and Singapore. In the eighth grade study ten countries from the region participated: Australia, Chinese Taipei, Hong Kong (China), Indonesia, Islamic Republic of Iran, Japan, Malaysia, Republic of Korea, Singapore and Thailand.

9   Asian and Pacific countries and economies that participated in the 2009 PISA study are: Australia, Taiwan Province of China, Hong Kong (China), Indonesia, Japan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Macao (China), New Zealand, Republic of Korea, Shanghai (China), Singapore and Thailand.

10 The Asian and Pacific countries and economies that participated in the 2006 PIRLS are: Taiwan Province of China, Hong Kong (China), Indonesia, Islamic Republic of Iran, New Zealand and Singapore.

However, average literacy scores from the PIRLS undertaken in 2001 and 2006 found a narrowing of the gender gap in the participating Asian countries/economies in the five-year period.

Table 6: Trends in average literacy achievements in grade 4, by sex, 2001 and 2006

Country	Girls		Boys	
	2006 average scale score	2001 to 2006 difference	2006 average scale score	2001 to 2006 difference
Hong Kong (China)	569	32	559	40
Islamic Republic of Iran	429	2	414	15
Singapore	567	27	550	34
International average	526	1	510	5

Source: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), 2007.

While average score results rose for both boys and girls, the increase for boys was higher than that for girls in the three countries/economies that participated in the 2001 and 2006 PIRLS. Although these three countries/economies cannot be representative of the region as a whole, the closing gender gap in the international average score for boys and girls might hint at a possible narrowing of the gap in literacy performance between boys and girls in primary education.

In terms of mathematics, the most recent TIMSS data from 2007 (table 7) show that in the regional context, the gender gap in performance for students in grade 4 varies significantly by country/economy.

Table 7: Trends in average mathematics achievements in grade 4 by sex, 1995, 2003 and 2007

Country	Girls			Boys		
	2007 average scale score	2003 to 2007 difference	1995 to 2007 difference	2007 average scale score	2003 to 2007 difference	1995 to 2007 difference
Australia	513	16	20	519	19	23
Taiwan Province of China	575	11	…	577	13	…
Hong Kong (China)	605	30	47	609	34	52
Kazakhstan	553	…	…	545	…	…
Islamic Republic of Iran	409	15	30	396	10	2
Japan	568	5	5	568	2	-3
New Zealand	492	-3	19	493	-3	28
Singapore	603	4	8	596	6	10
International average	473	…	…	473	…	…

Note: … No data available.

Source: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA), 2008.

According to the 2007 TIMSS, the average math scores of boys in the fourth grade are about the same as those for girls in four of eight participating countries/economies from the region.[11] In Singapore, Kazakhstan and Islamic Republic of Iran girls' average scores are slightly higher than those of boys. In grade 8 (IEA, 2008) girls had higher average scores in five of ten participating countries (Islamic Republic of Iran, Hong Kong (China), Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand), while Australia reported higher achievements for boys (the only country in the region to do so). The gap in average math scores between boys and girls was smaller at the grade 8 level than at grade 4.

11 'About the same' refers to an average score within a four-point margin.

The 2007 TIMSS, notably, also measured self-confidence levels in mathematics. More boys than girls in both grades reported being self-confident in mathematics. In grade 4, more boys than girls showed higher levels of confidence in six of the eight participating countries/territories or economies, with the reverse true only in Kazakhstan. While boys overall are more confident than girls in their mathematical abilities, interestingly, girls in grade 8 actually performed better, according to the TIMSS results (IEA, 2008).

Data from the 2009 PISA (OECD, 2010, p. 137) tell a different story, showing that 15-year-old boys on average outperformed 15-year-old girls in mathematics. In nine of 13 participating countries/territories or economies in the region, boys scored higher in math than girls, while girls did better in four countries/territories or economies (Indonesia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and Shanghai). In terms of literacy, results from PISA were similar to those of PIRLS. In all 13 participating countries/territories or economies from the region, girls on average outperformed boys in reading skills in the 2009 PISA.

PISA and TIMSS use different methodologies and designs, which may explain differences in their findings. TIMSS is curriculum focused while PISA assesses students' capacity to apply knowledge to real-life situations. However, as TIMSS offers, if their average math scores show that girls in grade 8 are likely to be benefiting from curricula-based opportunities, it remains unclear why they are, according to the results of PISA, less capable of applying such knowledge to real-life problems. This discrepancy in the findings, a result of different assessment perspectives, calls for more thinking on the issue of what knowledge should provide. From a gender perspective, the question is, how can curriculum-based knowledge equip both girls and boys with the competencies to master problems outside of constructed learning environments. The findings of PISA and TIMSS suggest that links between gender equality, educational quality and life skills exist, since problem-solving skills are commonly seen as part of overall life skills. For more details on educational performance, see the EDN on Goal 6 on quality education.

Box 6: Bangladesh: Lucky Thirteen

Room to Read's Girls' Education programme provides holistic support that includes life skills education, parental advocacy and intensive academic tutoring to girls in eight countries, including those on the sandbar islands of rural Bangladesh. The programme's provision of tutoring demonstrates how additional, targeted help can make a big difference in preventing girls from dropping out of school. Late in the 2009 school year, Room to Read started its education programme in Sirajganj district with 232 girls, many of whom were just two months shy of taking their grade 5 exam for lower secondary school. Thirteen of the girls failed the exam. Their parents, not believing their daughters would be successful at their second exam attempt, were on the verge of discontinuing their education. Local Room to Read programme staff assessed the girls' academic needs and found that most were struggling with basic mathematics and English. Using this information, the Girls' Education team designed an intensive, year-round tutoring programme that supplemented the girls' formal education and prepared them for the exam one year later. The girls received tutoring in the afternoons and during weekends. When the next exams took place, all the girls passed to grade 6 – one even passed in the first division. The targeted academic support offered by Room to Read in Bangladesh underscores the fact that equality in learning outcomes does not simply mean that all students should receive the same education. Instead, boys and girls often require additional support, adapted to their particular needs, to achieve academic success. This was a small victory, but one that was considered 'lucky' because in Bangladesh 'luck' means a combination of preparation and opportunity.

Source: Room to Read, "Bangladesh Hits Lucky Number 13," http://blog.roomtoread.org/room-to-read/2011/05/bangladesh-hits-lucky_number_13.html.

4 Priority areas

This section highlights four priority areas that greatly affect the enrolment of boys and girls and their opportunities to benefit from education. These priorities arose from discussions at the eleventh Regional Meeting of National EFA Coordinators in Bangkok in November 2010 in which discussions highlighted the need to move from a focus on gender parity to gender equality in education.

The meeting's message was that countries in the Asia-Pacific region are ready to fully engage in the promotion of gender equality in education. In this spirit, this End of Decade Note argues that it is necessary to address gender equality in value education in order to assure progress towards gender equality in education. Thus one priority area that needs to be addressed in the national EFA context are the values and norms of education content – in curricula, learning materials, and teaching practices (section 4.1).

Section 4.2 addresses the second priority area, covering boys dropping out of school, their low enrolment ratios in secondary and low achievement in education – all of which must be understood in relation to gender-influenced behaviour in education.

The third priority area is the need to address gender equality in the teaching profession. Regional representatives at the EFA Coordinators Meeting highlighted the need to improve the status of teaching to address the lack of male teachers and to promote female leadership in education. Section 4.3 details the need to mainstream gender issues into the teaching corps to address the 'feminization' of the teaching workforce at the primary level and the lack of female decision-makers in the education sector.

Section 4.4 briefly addresses the fourth priority area related to the extent to which education outcomes provide a basis for gender equality in employment and if they reinforce divisions in the labour market and society.

4.1 Content of education: The role of values

Meeting the targets of EFA Goal 5 (gender equality by 2015) will necessitate the elimination of all educational practices that discriminate against both boys and girls. As argued in the previous chapter, this will entail moving beyond the issue of access to embrace changes in underlying institutional values as well as educational practices and processes.

Although most countries in the region constitutionally stipulate equality between men and women, the incidence of rape, sexual exploitation of mainly women and girls, and unequal pay among men and women for the same work affirm that gender inequality is still a daily reality. The same holds true in education, where the reproduction of gender stereotypes, gendered perceptions and gender discrimination continues.

Gender stereotyping and reproduction of gendered perceptions in education

As discussed earlier, the interaction between teachers and students is influenced to a significant extent by gendered perceptions.

Findings from Tajikistan (Magno et al., 2003) stress that certain behaviours that are acceptable for boys might not be so for girls. According to the report, teachers are often stricter with girls than with boys. In Bangladesh, focus group discussions with teachers (USAID, 2002) revealed that teachers did not want their own daughters to work after finishing their education. These observations suggest that teachers express values that systematically differentiate expectations for the treatment of boys and girls in education, which can build on and reinforce gender stereotyping. Because of the lack of studies on gender stereotyping in education in the Asia-Pacific region, more research is needed on gendered patterns in teacher-student interaction in different national contexts.

Gender stereotyping in teaching and learning materials is another way in which value systems can negatively affect education processes. A review of learning materials in Pakistan (UNESCO Islamabad, 2010) for example, found that while women are actively participating in the formal economic sector, learning materials still often portray women in stereotypical ways, such as domestic workers. As well, 'good women' are often portrayed as subservient and devoted to their domestic duties. Some learning materials even portray women as manipulative, jealous, weak and irrational. Men and boys are also depicted in stereotypical ways in which they are commonly associated with traits and forms of employment that have higher societal value. In this way, learning materials help to reinforce gender stereotypes and students learn to associate themselves and others with these gender roles.

Box 7: Philippines: Uncovering the gender bias in history textbooks

History textbooks used in secondary schools in the Philippines depict women for the most part as bystanders in the process of males making history, according to an analysis. History books often sharply delineate between the public and private spheres in which women are depicted as housekeepers, wives and mothers and men as soldiers, leaders and citizens. Not one book described the active role of Filipino women in nation-building, acknowledging only their accidental role as national leaders when their husbands or fathers were assassinated. This study and other qualitative research on learning materials point to how the portrayal of boys and girls is often normative and reproduces discriminatory social structures. The textbook authors, as the analysis underlines, were almost certainly unaware of these biases in their portrayal of female and male roles. Qualitative research is therefore crucial to increasing the gender sensitivity of learning materials by highlighting how books reinforce stereotyped and biased conceptions of the role of men and women in society.

Source: "Why Women Are Invisible in History." Paper delivered during the seminar-workshop, History Makes Women, Women Make History, Fernandez, 1998.

Representation of stereotypical gender roles and associated norms are not restricted to educational materials. All students are bombarded with media and advertising that is full of gender stereotypes. Teachers need to work in the classroom to negate the gender stereotypes that students encounter outside it – in magazines, television and advertisements.

Box 8: Thailand: Only girls can score

The dominance of boys in educational activities – where boys set the agenda and girls follow their lead – is often hard to change. To alter these patterns and create a level playing field, the NGO Right To Play introduced the 'Only Girls Can Score' rule into their mixed-team football tournaments in Thailand. The result was a more equal engagement by girls and boys in the matches. These tournaments showcase girls' skills, enhance self-esteem and foster a sense of empowerment. They also facilitate social inclusion and integration, challenge gender norms and provide girls and young women with leadership and achievement opportunities. This innovative rule is an example of how the teacher has a central role in creating empowering environments for both sexes.

Source: Right to Play Thailand. Two notable football-for-development initiatives. www.righttoplay.com.

Gender-based violence and discrimination in education

According to the United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women (UN, 1993, Article 1), gender-based violence is:

> "any act […] that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual, or psychological harm or suffering to women, including threats of such acts, coercion or arbitrary deprivations of liberty, whether occurring in public or private life."

While gender-based violence in education is not new, the problem has not received sufficient attention at the regional level. Gender-based violence is a sensitive issue in education because when used against girls it often takes the form of sexual violence. It is frequently a taboo subject that is met with silence because it entails critical engagement with issues of sexuality and gendered sexual normativity. Thus, research and comprehensive data on the prevalence of gender-based violence in the form of sexual and physical abuse are thin. However, case studies (WHO, 2002, 2005 and 2009) point to a common phenomenon in a number of countries.[12] A UNICEF report on child abuse in the Pacific (UNICEF Pacific, 2006, p. 56) described how gendered cultural value systems significantly contribute to the expectation that girls and women should be submissive to male discipline and control, thus increasing their vulnerability to sexual abuse.

Gender-based violence, including sexual abuse, in education needs to be addressed from two perspectives. The first is within the school environment where acts of gender-based violence are prevalent, both in and outside of the classroom. It must involve the victims as well as the perpetrators of violence who are enrolled or employed in education. From this perspective, education has to create a safe learning environment, preventing acts of gender-based violence from occurring on the premises. Second, the norms and values that lie at the root of interactions between boys and girls have to be tackled to change value systems that allow for physical and sexual violence against women and girls and, in some cases, also against boys and men. This will involve looking at sensitive issues of sexuality.

Importantly, gender-based violence can take a multiplicity of forms that vary according to specific cultural value systems and contexts. In addition to coercive sex, it can include physical punishment, bullying and verbal abuse, carried out by both fellow students and teachers. Their one common attribute is that they contribute to diminishing the status of women and girls and subordinate female gender identity to that of males. In Mongolia, a 2007 study (Ministry of Education, Culture and Science, 2007, p. 14) showed that at least three quarters of all students in secondary education had experienced some form of violence. The prevalence of violence in Mongolia, especially by teachers, was reported (Mongolian Education Alliance, 2005) to be a contributing factor to the high drop-out rate of boys.

Life skills-based education: A strategy for addressing values in education

In the effort to address values that are at the heart of gender stereotyping and gender discrimination in education, a suggested strategy is to promote gender-responsive, life skills-based education. A link exists between gender-sensitive education and life skills-based education: both need to ensure that students from disadvantaged backgrounds are equipped with skills that enable them to think critically, analyse opportunities and develop their capacities for independent decision-making. Life skills-based education promotes learning strategies that build on exploration, curiosity and discussion. Such an approach aims to ensure that skills are made equally available to and are used by both female and male students. In striving to provide equality in learning outcomes through adaptation to individual needs, life skills-based education approaches can increase the gender responsiveness of education. Because these approaches are focused on an individual's attainment of skills, they can help to prevent gender stereotyping.

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12   Including findings from Bangladesh, Japan, Samoa and Thailand.

> **Box 9:** India: Men talking about sexuality and gender norms
>
> Findings from a pilot intervention in Mumbai, India, that involved formative work with issues of gender, sexuality, masculinity and educational activities with 126 young men during a six-month period shows how open discussion in educational settings can effectively contribute to learning. The participating young men, who often engaged in sexually coercive and derogatory behaviour towards girls, were encouraged to engage in critical thinking about gender norms and were supported in establishing alternative perspectives and images of themselves as men. Their activities included role-playing, games and discussions, all centering around themes of gender equality and normativity. The intervention was able to document significant changes in attitudes and norms. Participants described their involvement as an eye-opener, which helped them to critically reflect on their views about sexuality, women and what it means to be a man. The process began with a denial of the existence of gender-related values but led to an acknowledgement of the existence of differences and culminated in an exploration of alternative norms, behaviours and images of masculinity.
>
> ***Source:*** Verma et al., 2006.

Strategies (see also UNESCO Bangkok, 2008) that aim to promote gender-responsive, life skills-based education, should contribute towards:

- Enhancing the curriculum and learning processes:

  - Enhance the curriculum by demanding that learning outcomes are relevant to everyday activities in a child's life.
  - Ensure the gender sensitivity of the curriculum and content to prevent gender bias and exclusion of marginalized experiences and needs.
  - Refine the curriculum with a local perspective by applying life skills-based education teaching strategies, such as the use of focus groups, role-playing and discussions on gender stereotyping in curricula and learning materials.

- Empowering through the provision of gender role alternatives for boys and girls:

  - Encourage students to think about their personal gendered behaviours and expectations and critically engage with broader gender norms and underlying value systems.
  - Discuss and reassess personal views and opinions and together reflect on how common expectations push male and female students to behave in certain ways and to prefer certain subjects and life options over others.

- Increasing young people's participation by providing space for self-expression and open discussion of learning processes:

  - Focus on student-centred learning.
  - Implement participatory teaching and learning methods that ensure that students have the opportunity to learn from other students and their experiences and perspectives.
  - Create and maintain learning environments in which all students, irrespective of sex or sexual orientation, have the opportunity to participate and share their personal experiences and opinions without fear of discrimination.

- Increasing gender-responsiveness in teacher training:

Encourage teachers to reflect upon:

  - How often and in what manner he/she calls on boys and girls in the classroom.
  - Whether he/she assigns different tasks to boys and girls.
  - Whether he/she is more likely to reward or scold students of a particular sex in their classroom interaction.
  - Whether he/she assures that students of both sexes are equally involved in classroom decision-making processes.

Although gender-based violence and discrimination necessitate immediate and targeted responses, life skills-based education can assist educators to create a safe learning environment as a pre-emptive measure against the latter. More detailed analysis of life skills-based education, including vocational skills and secondary, can be found in the EDN on Goal 3.

Box 10: Nepal: Addressing 'eve-teasing' through life skills-based education

In Nepal, where gender-based violence or 'eve-teasing' causes many fearful parents to keep their daughters away from school, the project Safe Space for Girls in the Surkhet district used life skills-based education to address such violence. Community members and educators analysed how they could make the community and local schools a safer place for girls, which would enable them to enrol and stay in school without fear of being harassed. In the planning and implementing phases, girls were involved in the mapping and identification of unsafe places as well as community dynamics that needed to change to create a safer space for them. As part of the project, teachers were made aware of their gendered classroom practices and in particular how they showed boys and girls different levels of respect. As a result of the project, teachers changed their practices. Additionally, boys responsible for initially teasing girls were involved in the project and subsequently became advocates against gender-based violence.

Source: Devine and Jensen, 2003.

4.2 Learning outcomes: Bringing attention to boys

As pointed out in the previous chapter, in a number of countries in the region, significantly fewer boys than girls are enrolled in secondary education. While external factors, for example poverty and/or child labour, are partly responsible, the limited research from the region on the link between boys' enrolment, achievement and the quality of education offered shows that *education itself* is one of the factors that leads boys to disengage from and drop out of school. However, as the research stresses, lumping 'boys' together into one category and the blanket statement that a 'reversed gender gap' exists fail to capture the dynamics and complexities that are occurring.

Which boys?

- In New Zealand, a Ministry of Education report on the achievement of boys (Ministry of Education, New Zealand, 2007) looked at the drop in their enrolment and underachievement at higher levels of education. The report showed that enrolment for boys and girls was equal until the age of 10, but that from the age of 11 boys left school at a faster rate than girls. Not only did girls, on average, stay longer in school, they also left the education system with higher academic results. The report singles out ethnicity as an important factor, with males from Maori and Pasifika ethnic backgrounds more likely to leave school early.

- In Australia, a detailed report on the factors that influence educational performance of males and females (Collins et al., 2000) showed similarly that differences between gender groups, as well as within gender groups, existed. The report aimed to define 'which boys' and 'which girls' were dropping out. Looking at school performance and choice of subjects, it explained that socio-economic status, mirrored also in the rural/urban gap, had a greater influence on school participation and results than the gender variable until the twelfth year. From that point onwards, gender became the strongest variable. The report identified several disadvantages that negatively fed into students' (both male and female) educational performance and retention rates. These included the pressure to identify and align with traditional and narrow gender identities, being associated with groups that are culturally marginalized and stigmatized as well as ill health or various forms of abuse, including substance abuse.

> **Box 11:** Boys and academic achievement in East Asia and the Pacific

In the East Asia and Pacific region, a multicountry study conducted in Malaysia, Mongolia, Philippines and Thailand is ongoing to explore how the social construction and attribution of differences between males and females influence the educational experience of boys and their academic performance in these countries. The preliminary findings reveal that when gender dynamics, such as stereotypical beliefs and discrimination, underlie poor academic performance, the development of both boys and girls can be negatively impacted. On the supply side, educational system factors often act as unintended push factors, compounded by limited resources, resulting in boys' leaving school at points of transition. Families are also key, with their involvement in their sons' schooling having a primary role in academic achievement, and principal caregivers in the family act as crucial decision-makers in a region in which many boys leave school to work.

Furthermore, the nature of the school environment itself is not gender-neutral. Stereotypes pertaining to boys' abilities impede boys' potential and achievements, and such notions appear to be reinforced by inadequate positive male role models and guidance processes. Interactions within classrooms are also gender biased, with boys more likely to experience gender-based violence in the form of physical corporal punishment.

Source: UNGEI, 2012.

Another report from Australia (Lingard et al., 2002) that focused on the educational needs of boys found that they were subject to more negative peer pressure than girls and as a group were more likely to adopt anti-school attitudes.

What both reports capture is the difficulties many boys have in expressing their own gender identities in school. Male students face significant male peer pressure to act according to a certain narrow definition of masculinity, which increasingly distances 'real boys' (such as stereotypical figures of masculinity) from the norms and values promoted in education. Boys that are high achievers and committed to their studies are, as the Lingard study showed, often labelled 'nerds', defining them as deviant from the *norm* of masculinity – how 'real boys' behave. It is this *active* aspect of male education, the practices that support an acceptable, standardized form of masculinity, that several studies have identified as a contributing factor to the underperformance of male students.

Comparative research (Jah and Kelleher, 2006) supports the notion that gender identity has a strong influence on male underachievement and dropping out of school. Gender identity deals with the qualities, values and norms commonly ascribed to the different gender roles of males and females. In both cases, there is often tension between the desire to express personal identity and the demands for conformity, upheld by boundary-setting norms. These boundaries can deter an individual from expressing her/his identity. Further, masculinity is often defined by dichotomies and the need to preserve them; for example, being male stands in contrast to being female (Connell, 2002). From this perspective, the underperformance of boys can be interpreted as a disengagement from the norms and values that education stands for, which some male students see as feminine. The New Zealand report on the enrolment and educational performance of boys backs up this association with its findings that the disengagement of boys from educational norms and values contributes to their low achievement and dropping out of school (Ministry of Education, New Zealand, 2007). Of course, while there are some common global points about masculinity, the particular forms it takes vary among and within different cultural contexts.

Further investigation to identify 'which boys' and 'which girls' are specifically disadvantaged must include the groups that are excluded from or feel alienated from education. It is also important to review the issue of boys' substandard educational performance and dropout rates in a broader national context in which girls and women often still experience forms of structural discrimination.

Additional research and student-centred learning

Given that only limited research on this issue is available from the region, there is a need to strengthen the evidence base from which strategies can be developed. The East Asia and Pacific Regional UNGEI has commissioned four country studies (Malaysia, Mongolia, Philippines and Thailand) that are examining why boys do poorly in education. These reports, along with a regional synthesis report, will be finalized in 2012 and should shine further light on this issue and its underlying causes. It is important that policy-makers commission additional studies on the learning outcomes of boys.

Such research will need to:

- Engage in qualitative research at the school level, which takes into account the interaction between teachers, male students and female students.

- Analyse and identify which gender roles teachers, parents and students expect of boys in and outside of education.

- Identify which groups of boys are performing poorly and dropping out.

- Identify good practices in schools and general factors that help boys to stay in education and engage in learning.

- Summarize what support and additional resources schools require to keep boys in school; for example, which forms of training, special activities or tutoring.

- Highlight that gender roles in learning contribute to or hinder boys and girls from engaging in opportunities to learn and stay in formal education.

Strategies for improving boys' educational performance must address the values, norms and biases that exist in teaching, learning materials and curricula, using life skills-based education, which aims to:

- Increase the relevance of the curriculum for all students, including boys.

- Encourage students, including boys, to think about their own gendered behaviours and expectations and critically engage with broader gender norms and underlying value systems.

- Discuss and reflect on how common expectations push male students to behave in certain ways and to prefer certain subjects and life options over others.

- Increase the gender responsiveness of teachers by encouraging them to reflect on how they interact with boys and what image they hold of them.

Box 12: Making education relevant: Empowerment and space for self-determination

Making education relevant to the needs and objectives of the individual student is a major challenge. Inflexible and gender-biased education can hamper the empowerment of girls and women and their chances of using education to achieve personal goals.

To empower, education needs to provide students with resources and guidance so that they can discover for themselves what their personal development goals and overall ambitions are. These choices might not be optimal, potentially reaffirming existing gender norms, yet self-determination, as a measure and form of empowerment, offers the potential to break with norms and social structures that keep girls and women from fulfilling their needs.

Promoting gender equality in and through education will entail deep reflection on how the quality of education is defined and measured. In practical terms, it means identifying critical areas of governance in education and to what extent male and female students can influence educational goals, accountability mechanisms and the curriculum.

Source: Based on input received from L. Ruprecht, UNESCO Paris.

4.3 Teachers: Mainstreaming gender issues into the teacher workforce

Gender equality in education calls not only for the elimination of gender disparities in access but also for those who deliver education – teachers – to believe in it as a shared value. Male and female educators and educational managers are not immune to gender stereotyping, which is interwoven with existing value systems. To achieve the target of gender equality *in* education by 2015, it is vital to ensure that gender equality is held in high esteem by the educational workforce.

The eleventh EFA Coordinators Meeting in Bangkok debated whether a feminization of the teaching corps is taking place or if the lack of female teachers still holds sway in the Asia-Pacific region – until recently, the feminization issue featured mainly on the agendas of Western countries. Data from the region reveal there is a need to address a feminization or a lack of female teachers.

Feminization of the teacher workforce

- Regional data for 2009 show that female teachers predominate in pre-primary and primary education in Central Asia.

Figure 11: Subregional average proportions of female teachers in pre-primary, primary and secondary education, 2009
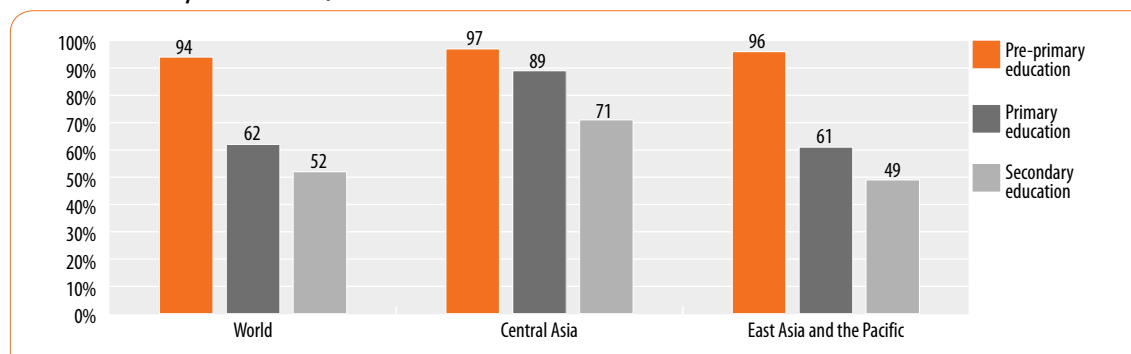
Note: No data available for South and West Asia.
Source: Statistical Annex, UIS, 2011.

The subregional averages show that Central Asia has the highest percentage of female teachers, followed by East Asia and the Pacific. While the average percentage of females in the Central Asia teaching corps is above the world average, percentages in East Asia and the Pacific come close to it. The teaching workforce in pre-primary is highly feminized in all subregions. In 18 of 22 countries providing data since 2008, the proportion of female teachers in pre-primary is between 97 and 100 per cent (see the statistical annex).

Figure 12: Trends in the average percentage of female teachers in primary education per subregion, 1990–2009
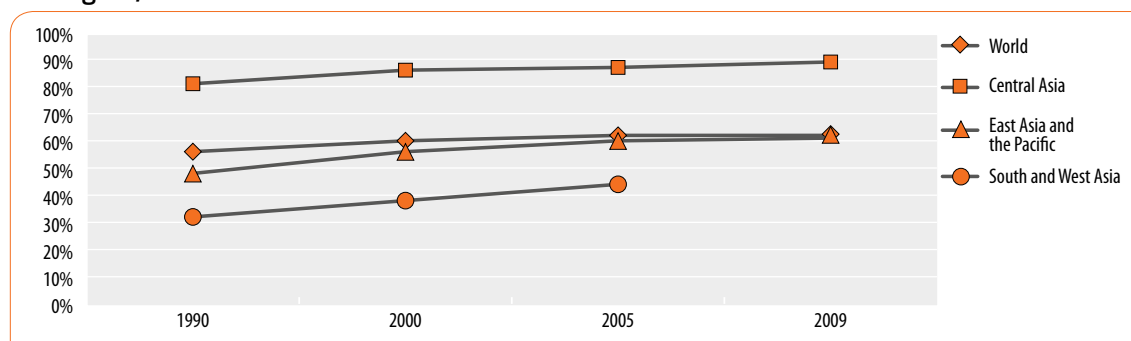
Source: Statistical Annex, UIS, 2011.

To talk about feminization as a trend, it is necessary to look closely at the changes in the proportion of female teachers as part of the total teacher workforce over a longer period. The subregional data on female teachers in primary education (figure 12) show a slight increase (8 percentage points) in Central Asia in the proportion of female teachers between 1990 and 2009. In East Asia and the Pacific, the proportion also increased, from 48 per cent to 61 per cent, during the same period. In South and West Asia, the proportion of female teachers rose significantly (12 percentage points) between 1990 and 2005. Despite the steady increase in the number of females in the primary education teacher workforce, though, in South and West Asia, female teachers still only represented less than half of the teacher workforce in 2005.

Figure 13: Trends in the average percentage of female teachers in secondary education per subregion, 1990–2009
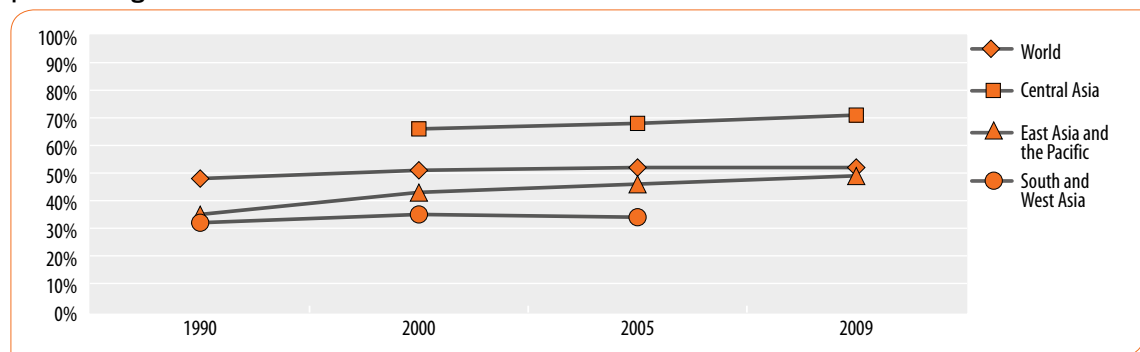
A different trend is observed for female teachers in secondary education (figure 13). In South and West Asia, their proportion rose only slightly in the 1990–2005 period, from 32 per cent to 34 per cent of the total teaching workforce. Central Asia reported a 5 percentage point increase of female teachers in secondary education between 2000 and 2009 and East Asia and the Pacific had a 14 percentage point rise between 1990 and 2009.

National data from across the region show that the proportion of female teachers is commonly the highest at pre-primary levels and the lowest in secondary education.[13] Women dominate the teaching workforce at the pre-primary level. Countries where female teachers are underrepresented in the primary education workforce include Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Cambodia, Nepal, Papua New Guinea[14] and Timor-Leste. In 2009, the same observation can be made at the secondary level for Bhutan, China, Indonesia, Kiribati, Lao PDR and Tajikistan. Interestingly, Bhutan seems to be an exception to the rule because, in comparison with other countries, it has a smaller female teacher representation in primary than in secondary education. However, national averages can mask significant subnational differences.

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13   Source: Statistical Annex data for 2009 or latest data available.
14   Data for Papua New Guinea is based on UIS estimates for 2005.

Figure 14: Percentage of female teachers in primary education at the provincial level in Cambodia, 2005–2006
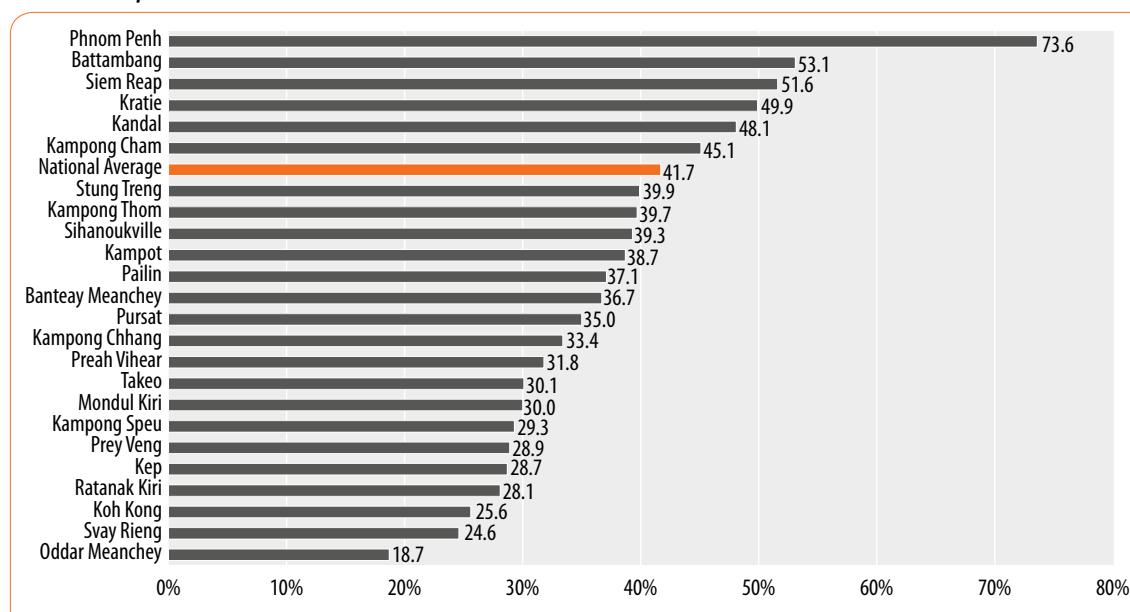
In Cambodia, provincial-level data on female teachers in primary education show that the proportion of female teachers can vary significantly depending on the province. For example, in the province of Oddar Meanchey, female teachers in primary education represent only 18.7 per cent of the total teacher workforce in that province whereas in the capital province of Phnom Penh they account for as much as 73.6 per cent. The case of Cambodia highlights a common regional phenomenon: female teachers are overrepresented in urban centres but are lacking in rural and remote areas.

The question of whether a feminization of the teacher workforce is underway or if there is a lack of female teachers thus cannot be answered from a regional perspective because of substantial differences among and within countries. In some countries, female teachers are underrepresented, indicating a lack of women teachers, yet in Central Asia, teaching has become a profession drawing mostly women.

Strategies for addressing subnational variations in the presence of female teachers at the provincial and local levels

The phenomenon of a lack of female teachers in rural, mountainous and remote areas and high numbers in urban areas and capitals has geographical, socio-economic and ethnic dimensions. Many remote and mountainous areas are predominantly inhabited by ethnic minority groups and characterized by widespread poverty.

In this context, policy-makers need to shape and implement strategies that make it more attractive for women teachers to work in remote areas, which will require more resources, and in particular better financial compensation and more teaching/learning materials. In short, incentives are needed that outweigh the advantages for women teaching in urban areas. Incentives must include permanent teaching contracts – findings from Nepal suggest that teachers with temporary contracts quit teaching (Bista, 2006).

Research on the impact of interventions aimed at increasing the number of female teachers in Africa (Mulkeen, 2005) provides a critical perspective on a number of common approaches within the Asian context. The provision of housing has been identified as one way to increase the attractiveness of teaching in remote and rural schools. In South Africa, forced deployment of female

teachers to rural areas did not work because a number of female teachers who taught subject areas, such as science and math, decided to leave the profession (Garson, 1998). Targeted recruitment from specific regions and localities, especially of female teachers from ethnic minorities, on the basis that they teach in their home areas, has shown mixed results. In some cases, newly qualified teachers from ethnic minorities showed little desire to return to their communities (Azam, 2001). Less conventional approaches that have met with success are the posting of newly qualified female teachers in pairs (Hedges, 2002) and linking the deployment of women with a teacher education outreach programme aimed at making them feel secure and ensuring that they have some degree of control over their deployment (Hedges, 2000).

Developing strategies that raise awareness of gender issues in teaching is necessary, both to address an absence of female teachers in the profession and a scarcity of male teachers in some countries and at specific education levels. Teachers as well as students and the wider community may have different expectations about male and female teachers. As a form of gender stereotyping, these expectations can keep male teachers from working in pre-primary education and female teachers from being promoted to decision-making levels. It is vital therefore to raise the gender sensitivity of decision-makers within education as well as educators through the provision of gender training.

Gender equality in the teacher workforce

The percentage of female teachers in the teaching corps does not, however, provide information on the status of teaching, common male attitudes towards female teachers and how they are treated. These need to be understood before female teachers can truly function as role models for girls and represent liberated women in society.

A study on the status of female teachers in Nepal (Bista, 2006) revealed that they are treated unequally and do not enjoy the same opportunities as male teachers. The study found that more female teachers had temporary teaching positions and faced a double burden, having to combine their job with household work. The majority of those interviewed (64 per cent) said it was not easy for a woman to be employed as a teacher. According to the findings, male professionals had more opportunities to upgrade their qualifications and for promotion. Alarmingly, a small number of teachers (7 per cent) indicated they had been exposed to sexual harassment during their career. The actual percentage of women subjected to sexual aggression might be higher, due to the cultural taboos of talking about harassment and the fear of reprisals for airing their grievances publicly.

A study on the status and qualifications of female teachers in Lao PDR (Ministry of Education and Sports, Lao PDR, 2010), which was modelled on the Nepalese study, found that around 40 per cent of male teachers thought their female counterparts were lazier than them. The study showed how attitudes towards male and female teachers varied enormously, with men enjoying an elevated status and women playing a subordinated role. These differences, the Lao PDR study points out, are largely based on societal beliefs about how men and women *are* and what is 'natural' for them. Two separate, gendered teacher roles exist: The male role that is associated with authority in the classroom and the female one associated with caregiving.

The Lao PDR study demonstrates that within the teaching profession, cultural perspectives on gender intersect with labour market structures. Fields dominated by women are often assigned a lower status in comparison with those dominated by men. Kazakhstan's EFA Mid-Decade Assessment (Ministry of Education and Science) report from 2008 observed that the increase in the number of women teachers had resulted in reduced resource allocations for pre-service and in-service professional development, a reduction in the creative dimension of teachers' work and an overall lowering of the status of teaching.

Research from outside the region shows that a feminization of the teaching corps, especially at lower grades, reinforces the notion that teaching is a field for women, thus deterring men from pursuing a career in this field. Findings from one study (Drudy et al., 2005) showed that the perception that primary teaching is a 'woman's job' linked to a caregiver role was a common reason

for the limited number of male teachers working at the primary level. Teaching is often seen as a last resort for men in the absence of alternative employment opportunities. According to research from Europe (Thornton and Bricheno, 2009) more men are inclined to become teachers during periods of economic recession, highlighting how traditional gender roles shape labour market divisions and expectations about male and female teachers. The inequalities that women confront in their work as teachers tend to be reinforced by gendered value systems that position them as 'natural' caregivers and men as leaders and decision-makers in society at large.

Strategies for mainstreaming gender into the teaching workforce

Interventions aimed at mainstreaming gender into the teaching workforce as part of efforts to promote gender equality among teachers should seek to:

- Develop and distribute legal guidelines detailing the practices that constitute gender discrimination in education.

- Develop specific strategies as part of an overall gender mainstreaming plan for the education sector.
  - identify what the barriers are to gender equality within the teacher workforce;
  - identify which stakeholders in the education sector need to be involved in the implementation of a gender mainstreaming action plan;
  - create an action plan based on a shared overall vision;
  - assign responsibilities and define follow-up routines.

- Develop strategies to increase the number of male teacher training students.

- Improve the gender sensitivity of monitoring and evaluation by regularly carrying out studies on the status of female teachers.

- Increase teacher salaries and/or expand incentive systems.

- Enforce existing legal rights to maternity and paternity leave.

- Increase access to child care to increase the mobility of female teachers and improve their working conditions.

- Develop and carry out in-service and pre-service gender training programmes for male and female teachers.

Female leadership in education

- Findings from the research on female teachers from Lao PDR and Nepal also described how female teachers face significant obstacles to promotion and were often underrepresented at decision-making levels in the education sector. To ensure fairer treatment for women teachers, it will be necessary to address these imbalances.

Affirmative action and official quotas to increase the number of female staff do not necessarily lead to changes in management structures, a study on women's employment in higher education in Australia found (Noble and Mears, 2000). Another study (Cubillo and Brown, 2003) found that women in various national contexts often encounter 'glass ceilings and walls' in pursuit of leadership positions in education, for example in the form of gender stereotypes in which male teacher performance was valued more highly than that of females. Another factor that often hampers women's chances for promotion and professional development is the additional burden they have to assume of combining teaching and family-related work (Ministry of Education and Sports, Lao PDR, 2010), especially in instances where local child care and pre-primary education are lacking.

- Lao PDR is an example of how parity in the percentage of female-to-male teachers in education does not necessarily equate to equal representation at decision-making levels.

Table 8 shows that in Lao PDR the representation of women in decision-making and non-decision-making levels of the education system varies markedly. Given the lack of comprehensive data on the representation of females at higher decision-making levels, in most countries, there is a need for further research on female leadership in education and subsequent targeted interventions. As the findings from Australia suggest, strategies will also need to look at value systems and preferences in management structures to ensure fair treatment of women in the education sector.

Table 8: Representation of women at decision-making levels in the education system in Lao PDR

Level	Position description	Total	
		Number	% Female
I.	Vice minister, rector of university	3	33.00%
II.	Director general of department, deputy rector of university, dean of faculty	38	2.65%
III.	Deputy director of department, head of provincial education sectorate (PES), director of Teacher Training Centres, vice dean of faculty, head of office/department, NUOL	141	9.92%
IV.	Head of division, deputy head of PES	280	12.50%
V.	Deputy head of division, deputy head of departments, director of upper/complete secondary school, head of division of PES, heads of division of NUOL, head of District Education Board (DEB), director of technical school	895	8.93%
VI.	Deputy of division, deputy head of DEB, director of lower secondary school	2,081	8.72%
VII.	Headmaster of primary school, head of units of DEB	5,755	8.58%
VIII.	Personnel (no titles), technical staff, teachers	44,738	51.43%

Source: Ministry of Education and Sports, Lao PDR, 2010.

Box 13: Promoting empowerment and leadership: Separate forums for female educators

Providing a space for female teachers to share dialogue can help foster women's leadership and empower them to raise gender issues in decision-making processes. The Sri Lankan Joint Women's Network (JWN), consisting of the members of five teacher's unions, provides such a space. It has contributed to the recruitment of female teachers and their promotion to positions of leadership. The network has carried out a number of activities, such as arranging special seminars for young teachers, mass seminars, leadership training and the production of study materials on recruitment and organization. The Nepalese JWN has similarly advocated for better maternity benefits, highlighting the particular needs of female teachers. These kinds of networks and forums have been instrumental for making the opinions of female educators heard, for encouraging them to address gender-based violence and making decision-makers more aware of their particular needs.

Source: South Asian Women's Network, 10, 2010.

Strategies for increasing the number of female decision-makers in education

The priority is to address hurdles that female educators face regarding promotion to leadership and decision-making positions in the education system.

Strategies should include:

• targeted training for female educators on leadership and management

• transparent promotion and advancement processes and criteria for promotion

• all-female mentoring programmes for female leadership

• government minimum quotas for recruitment to decision-making positions.

4.4 Looking beyond education: Gender equality in educational outcomes

One of the main goals of education is to prepare students for gainful employment. In today's fiercely competitive labour market, higher-skilled jobs, which are often the most highly paid, require further education, including TVET and tertiary education. The inability to climb the education ladder increasingly translates into poor job prospects. This section will further explore the issue of gender equality in learning outcomes, paying particular attention to existing gendered patterns in access to employment, compensation for labour and choices of profession.

Employment, unemployment, education and gender

Data from 2008 (ILO, 2010) show that women in the Asia-Pacific region are more likely than men to be unemployed, excluded from the labour force and active in vulnerable employment (table 9). Such employment largely entails informal work arrangements and zero social security benefits, and is often characterized by inadequate earnings, low productivity and difficult working conditions that undermine workers' fundamental rights. In East Asia, although female unemployment is lower than for males, women's participation rate in the formal labour force is smaller and their chance of being engaged in vulnerable employment is greater than for males.

Table 9: Employment status, by sex and subregion, 2008

Region	Unemployment rate (%)		Labour force participation rate (%)		Vulnerable employment shares (estimates %)	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
East Asia	4.9	3.6	79.3	66.6	49.5	57.8
South-East Asia and the Pacific	5.2	5.5	81.7	57.4	57.6	65.1
South Asia	4.5	5.6	81.5	35.1	73.8	84.7
World	5.6	6.1	77.7	51.7	48.3	51.3

Source: ILO, 2010.

The strength of the link between education and employment depends on the national labour market context, which can differ significantly among countries. A case study from Sri Lanka (Riboud, Savchenko and Tan, 2007) showed that students with post-primary qualifications found employment faster than those with only primary education. However, those holding a university degree found jobs at a similar pace to those who completed only upper secondary education. The report further highlighted the gender dimension: men found jobs faster than women, whose temporary withdrawal from the labour market due to marriage was identified as a contributing factor to the slower pace at which they were hired.

A comparison of national data from four South Asian countries (Riboud, Savchnko and Tan, 2007) illustrates that employability does not necessarily increase for those with higher academic credentials (table 10).

Table 10: Unemployment rates, by level of education in selected countries in South Asia

Education level	India (2004)	Bangladesh (2004)	Pakistan (2003–2004)	Sri Lanka (2003–2004)
Illiterate	2.74	0.65	1.83	1.16
Literate, less than primary	3.15	1.00	3.37	2.07
Primary	4.29	1.97	3.57	3.85
Middle	6.03		5.43	10.67
Secondary	7.81	3.11	8.80	13.40
Higher secondary	9.20	1.48	9.86	18.47
Tertiary	11.86	3.79	8.21	8.82
Total	5.07	1.51	4.29	8.96

Source: Riboud, Savchnko and Tan, 2007.

A point to note here is that the employment/unemployment rates often do not indicate whether they refer to full-time employment. In addition, employment rates do not necessarily refer to employment matching the qualifications of the employee that he/she attained through education.

From a gender perspective, the overrepresentation of women in vulnerable employment is especially alarming. As the ILO (2009) *Global Employment Report on Women* states, throughout the Asia-Pacific region, the prevalence of the working poor is a major challenge, particularly affecting women due to gender disparities in employment. The working poor refers to populations in regular employment that remain in relative poverty. In the context of South Asia, the report underscores that gendered differences partially result from the disadvantages that women and girls encounter in terms of access to education, "which limits their chances for decent and productive work" (ILO, 2009, p. 19).

Gender wage gap and education

The gender wage gap is linked to gender inequalities in the labour market. A case study from Bangladesh (Kapsos, 2008) demonstrated the connection between the gender wage gap and educational attainment. A key finding was that the more education a woman received, the narrower the male-female wage gap. However, the findings stressed that improving access to education needed to be complemented by a reduction of gender stratification in the labour market. The study revealed that even after accounting for factors such as differences in age, education, industry, type of occupation and location, women in Bangladesh earned on average 15.9 per cent less per hour than men. Furthermore, women tended to be grouped in lower-paying sectors of the economy and lacked access to the same types of jobs as men. An alternative calculation of wage differences, which takes into account this 'segregation effect', estimates that on average men are paid 23.1 per cent more per hour than women.

Gendered patterns in the choices of educational programmes in tertiary education

A comparison of male/female subject choices in tertiary education shows that gendered patterns emerge at the national level (table 11). Although the percentage of females graduating in a particular subject varies widely between countries, some similarities exist. In industrialized countries, such as Australia, Japan, New Zealand and Republic of Korea, the number of female graduates in science, engineering and manufacturing is significantly smaller than male graduates, while it is larger in education, humanities and the arts. In areas such as agriculture and services, intercountry differences can be large.

- In Mongolia, 61 per cent of students graduating in agriculture are female, compared with 29 per cent in Kyrgyzstan. Meanwhile, both countries report lower graduation ratios for men in tertiary education, as shown by the GPI for the gross graduation ratios in tertiary education in 2009: Mongolia at 1.7 and Kyrgyzstan at 1.5 (UIS, 2011). The differences in male/female graduates

appear to illustrate that the selection of study areas is influenced to some degree by gendered perceptions of professions that portray, for example, education, health and welfare as fields for (care-giving) women.

Table 11: Percentage of female graduates in tertiary education, by field, 2009

Country	Science	Engineering, manufacturing	Education	Humanities and arts	Social science, business and law	Agriculture	Health and welfare	Services
Kyrgyzstan	51	38	87	69	55	29	79	29
Mongolia	49	43	79	74	65	61	84	35
Uzbekistan	58	11	58	67	25	15	51	32
Australia (2008)	36	24	74	63	54	49	77	53
Brunei Darussalam	57	44	73	60	64	na	77	na
Cambodia (2008)	11	5	24	31	31	20	23	56
Japan	25	12	73	69	38	38	62	78
Macao (China)	17	15	61	75	42	na	75	67
Malaysia (2008)	58	32	72	66	68	58	76	64
Myanmar (2007)	70	na	84	70	68	na	na	na
New Zealand	38	28	82	64	58	58	79	55
Republic of Korea	37	24	76	67	46	40	71	46
Viet Nam	na	24	52	47	54	40	39	18
Islamic Republic of Iran	68	28	72	69	57	39	73	57

Note: na means not applicable.

Source: UIS, 2011, Statistical Table 13.

To address the persisting gender disparities in the employment sector, the gendered patterns with respect to choice of subject in secondary, TVET and tertiary education need to be analysed and the underlying reasons for the stratifications identified. Using a wider evidence base, education policy must ensure gender parity in terms of access to education at these levels. Altering gendered perceptions of professions among students, teachers, parents and the labour sector as a whole is contingent upon eliminating gender stereotyping and questioning normative gender roles at the earliest stages of education. Only through this process can gender equality *in* education become a means for achieving gender equality *through* education, including in the labour market.

Strategies to promote gender equality in school outcomes

A number of strategies have been developed to work towards eradicating gender disparities in the transition from school to work. The UNGEI (2008) desk review on East Asia and the Pacific, *Making Education Work: The Gender Dimension of School to Work Transition*, drawing conclusions from case studies on Indonesia, Philippines and Viet Nam, makes the following recommendations for improving opportunities for girls and boys:

• Provide educational and career counselling for girls and boys, encouraging them to pursue interests and career choices irrespective of social norms and gendered expectations.

- Provide women access to adult education, and allow them to attain required secondary education qualifications.

- Design and implement specific higher education policies that target the most vulnerable and disadvantaged and address persistent gender inequalities among the poor, minority groups and those residing in rural areas, through minimum quotas, scholarships and affirmative action.

- Fund and conduct research on the links between gender disparities in education and employment.

- Fund and conduct qualitative studies on gendered patterns in choices of education, career and occupation.

- Refine data collection and the management of quantitative data on gendered divisions in employment and enrolment in TVET.

5 Recommendations and strategies

This End of Decade Note has articulated that significant progress towards gender parity in education has been accomplished in the Asia-Pacific region but that gender disparities still exist at all levels of education. At the same time, research shows that gender equality, in terms of fair treatment and equal opportunities to engage in and benefit from education, is not fully realized. To overcome remaining disparities and assure progress towards gender equality, it is recommended that current efforts to mainstream gender issues into education be intensified and, in particular, that closer attention be paid to gender in learning processes and outcomes.

This requires first that gender mainstreaming is institutionalized in education systems across the region. The right to gender equality needs to be a key plank in education policy, development plans and programmes. Powerful statements committing to equality among men and women – and female and male learners – in policy and legal frameworks will have a formidable influence in raising awareness of gender equality and transforming it into a central institutional value. Gender equality and the empowerment of women should not only be confined to specific policies on gender issues in education but be mainstreamed throughout policies and guaranteed within general education laws.

Box 14: Education, a change agent for women

"Education will be used as an agent of basic change in the status of women. In order to neutralize the accumulated distortions of the past there will be a well-conceived edge in favour of women …. This will be an act of faith and social engineering…."

Source: Government of India (1986) National Policy on Education. Chapter IV, p.6

Legislative and policy frameworks need to be translated into specific education policies, action plans and programmes, and demands. This means, for example, that granting girls and women the constitutional right to participate in public without discrimination must entail defining which practices in education are to be interpreted as discriminatory and stereotyping. An important function of education policy, curricula and teacher guidelines will be to create links to legal documents and to specify how constitutional rights and laws on gender equality relate to the context of schools and every day classroom practices. Failure to carry through risks making gender policies in education a little more than detached principles, with little guidance for educators and their work.

Another quid pro quo to ensuring that gender mainstreaming becomes institutionalized is the sufficient and targeted allocation of resources. The recommendation here is for greater gender sensitivity in education budgeting. This requires that separate allocations for gender equality be specified in the overall education budget and programmes. This 'gender budgeting' will ensure that a certain portion of education funding is spent on gender issues and that the commitment to gender equality is backed up by the allocation of resources.[15]

The recommendations that follow specifically address areas of concern at the level of policy-making, research, curriculum review, teaching materials and teacher training. They aim to increase the gender sensitivity of the education system as a whole and thereby enable progress to be made towards the two EFA Goal 5 targets of gender parity and gender equality in education.

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15   For more information on gender sensitive budgeting in education consult: UNESCO Bangkok, 2010a.

Raising awareness of decision makers about the difference between gender parity and gender equality

Efforts are needed to raise awareness on the fact that access to education, legislation against gender-based discrimination and constitutionally mandated equality among the sexes do not necessarily guarantee that gender equality is realized in education and society at large. While these are absolutely vital components in creating an institutional framework for working with gender equality in education, they are not sufficient on their own to achieve gender equality.

Awareness raising demands that:

- Gender training should be provided to and adapted for different target groups.
- The objective of training should be to provide participants with new perspectives on how gender, as culturally ascribed roles and associated value systems, affects students and constituents in various local contexts, including the classroom.
- Real-life cases, based on life stories of male and female students, should be used to portray the forms that abstract concepts, such as gender inequality, gender stereotyping and gender discrimination take.
- Findings from qualitative research should be used to show how abstract quantitative patterns manifest themselves and affect students' education. Likewise, the results of qualitative research should be used to uncover previous hidden disparities through quantitative studies.

Capacity building in conducting and using qualitative research

While quantitative indicators, such as national and provincial enrolment ratios, are an effective means of indicating broad trends and conditions in the education system, it is more difficult to use them to point out nuances and relationships that characterize actual interactions between students and teachers in schools and the role that gender has in affecting learning outcomes.

In the move towards gender equality, it is also necessary to:

- Strengthen the capacity of decision-makers to use and recognize the advantages of qualitative research.
- Develop existing expertise in qualitative research through the fostering of local and national research networks.
- Complement research and enhance monitoring mechanisms that use quantitative methodologies and theoretical frameworks.
- Use qualitative research to help identify which groups of girls and boys are excluded from education.
- Engage in qualitative studies at the classroom level that are able to provide detailed perspectives on how male students assume their gender roles and how these affect their learning potential.
- Conduct and use qualitative research that is capable of showing how classroom interaction reflects broader structures in society, including value systems, and how these values and norms are reflected in classroom practices.
- Conduct qualitative research on how gender stereotyping by teachers affects their interaction with male and female students.

Reviewing curricula and teaching/learning materials to eradicate gender stereotyping

To ensure that education becomes an agent for change towards gender equality, it is necessary to eradicate practices and structures that feed into the reinforcement of gender disparities. A review of learning materials and curricula to eliminate all forms of gender stereotyping is critical. As well:

- Provide gender training for reviewers of curricula and learning materials to enable them to uncover existing stereotyping and to develop gender-sensitive curricula and learning materials.

- Develop national guidelines for authors of school textbooks and developers of learning materials that clearly address gender stereotyping.

- Provide funding to national research institutions in the area of education and social sciences to identify remaining shortcomings through critical evaluation of curricula and educational materials.

- Request and use qualitative research as evidence for informed decision-making and planning of educational reform.

- Specify in school textbook regulations that new learning materials must provide a diversity of role models for boys and girls.

- Require that teacher training manuals, accompanying textbooks and other learning materials encourage teachers to discuss gender stereotyped roles and practices with their students.

- Evaluate comprehensively curricula and learning materials to address gender stereotyping.

Mainstreaming gender into the training of teachers and principals

In the move from gender parity to gender equality in education, the teacher has a pivotal role because it is ultimately she/he who determines what is learned in the classroom. The teacher's gender sensitivity and competence to deal with gender issues in the classroom are thus critical.

Recommendations are to:

- Ensure that gender courses in pre-service and in-service teacher training are obligatory for attainment of teacher qualifications.

- Provide teachers and principals with theoretical and practical knowledge on issues of gender in society as well as within the classroom.

- Provide funding for capacity development and continuous workshops on gender issues in education at teacher training institutions.

- Encourage teacher training institutions and universities to provide specialization courses on gender in education.

- Financially support the creation of gender networks for teachers who are actively working to address gender in learning and teaching at their school.

- Follow up on training through evaluation reports and, based on these reports, develop necessary strategies.

- Ensure that teacher training encourages teachers to engage in student-centred teaching practices and promoting critical thinking.

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Statistical annex

Annex 1: Subregions and countries covered by the End of Decade Notes on Education for All

- **Central Asia (6 countries):**
  Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Mongolia, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan

- **East Asia (17 countries/territories):**
  Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, China, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Hong Kong (China), Indonesia, Japan, Lao PDR, Macao (China), Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Republic of Korea, Singapore, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Viet Nam

- **Pacific (17 countries/territories):**
  Australia, Cook Islands, Fiji, Kiribati, Marshall Islands, Micronesia (Federated States of), Nauru Papua New Guinea, New Zealand, Niue, Palau, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Tokelau, Tonga, Tuvalu, Vanuatu

- **South and West Asia (9 countries):**
  Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Islamic Republic of Iran, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka

Annex 2: Goal 5: Percentage of female

Region / Country or territory	Reference year	Enrolment						Teaching staff		
		Pre-primary	Primary	Secondary				Pre-primary	Primary	Secondary
				All programmes	TVET - Secondary	TVET - Lower Secondary	TVET - Upper Secondary			
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Central Asia										
Kazakhstan	2009	48	49[+1]	48[+1]	30[+1]	.[+1]	30[+1]	98	98[+1]	86[+1]
	2005	48	49	49	34	.	34	99	98	85
	2000	48[+1]	49	50	36	.	36	98[**,+1]	97[+1]	84[+1]
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	94	…
Kyrgyzstan	2009	49	49	49[*]	30[*]	.	30[*]	99	97	76
	2005	49	49	49	36	.	36	99	96	72
	2000	49	49	50	36	.	36	100	94	69
	1990	50	50	50	50	…	…	…	81	…
Mongolia	2009	50	49	51	45	.	45	98	95	…
	2005	52	50[+1]	52	50	.	50	95	94	72
	2000	50	50	55	51	.	51	99	94	69
	1990	55[+1]	50[+1]	53[+1]	49[+1]	…	…	…	90[+1]	62[+1]
Tajikistan	2009	45[-1]	…	46[-1]	30[-1]	.[-1]	30[-1]	100[-1]	…	49[-1]
	2005	47	48[+1]	45	27	.	27	100[+1]	65[+1]	47[+1]
	2000	45	47[+1]	46	32	.	32	100[+1]	60[+1]	44[+1]
	1990	…	49[+1]	…	…	…	…	…	49[+1]	…
Turkmenistan	2009	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2005	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2000	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Uzbekistan	2009	49	49	49	49	.	49	95	89	63
	2005	48[+1]	49	48	47	.	47	95[+1]	86[+1]	61[+1]
	2000	48	49[+1]	49	44	.	44	96	83	57
	1990	…	49	…	…	…	…	…	78	…
East Asia										
Brunei Darussalam	2009	49	48	49	39	.	39	97	76	63
	2005	49	48	49	41	.	41	96	71	58
	2000	49	47	50	36	.	36	82[*]	67[*]	50
	1990	48[+1]	47[+1]	50[+1]	36[+1]	…	…	90[+1]	57[+1]	45[+1]
Cambodia	2009	51[-1]	47	…	…	.	…	94[-1]	45	…
	2005	51	47[+1]	43[+1]	39[+1]	.[+1]	39[+1]	94[+1]	42[+1]	32[+1]
	2000	51[+1]	46[+1]	35	39	.	39	98[+1]	39[+1]	29[+1]
	1990	47[+1]	…	…	17[+1]	…	…	82[+1]	31[+1]	…
China	2009	45	46	48	50	47	50	97	57	47
	2005	45[+1]	47[+1]	48[+1]	51[+1]	46[+1]	51[+1]	98[+1]	55[+1]	45[**,+1]
	2000	46	48[+1]	47[**,+1]	…	.[+1]	…	94[+1]	53[**,+1]	43[+1]
	1990	46	46	41	36	…	…	95	43	30
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	2009	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2005	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2000	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…

Region / Country or territory	Reference year	Enrolment						Teaching staff		
		Pre-primary	Primary	Secondary				Pre-primary	Primary	Secondary
				All programmes	TVET - Secondary	TVET - Lower Secondary	TVET - Upper Secondary			
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Hong Kong (China)	2009	48	48	49	10	.	10	99	78	...
	2005	48	48	49	15	.	15	99	78	...
	2000	48+1	48+1	48+1	10+1	.+1	10+1	99	78	...
	1990	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Indonesia	2009	50	48	49	41	.	41	97	60	48
	2005	50**	49-1	49**	42	.	42	98**	61**	43**
	2000	50**	49+1	48**	43**	.	43**	98**,+1	52+1	40+1
	1990	...	48	45+1	39+1	...	...	...	50	33
Japan	2009	...	49	49	43	.	43	...	...	...
	2005	...	49	49+1	43+1	.+1	43+1	98	65	...
	2000	49**	49	49	45	.	45	...	65**,+1	...
	1990	49	49	49	47	...	...	89	58	29
Lao People's Democratic Republic	2009	50-1	47-1	44-1	40-1	40-1	40-1	97-1	49-1	44-1
	2005	50	46	42	37	62	34	99	45	42
	2000	52	45	41	36	21	36	100	43	40
	1990	50	43	40	33	...	...	100	37	39
Macao (China)	2009	48	47	49	45	.	45	99	88	59
	2005	48-1	47	49	46	41	51	99	89	58
	2000	48	47	50	45	44	48	100	88	57
	1990	48+1	47	52	5	...	...	...	...	...
Malaysia	2009	50-1	49-1	51-1	43-1	.-1	43-1	95-1	68-1	66-1
	2005	51	49+1	51	43	.	43	96	66	63
	2000	51**,+1	48-1	51	41	.	41	100	66**	62**
	1990	49	49	51	49	...	...	...	57	51
Myanmar	2009	50	49	50	.	.	.	99	84	84
	2005	50+1	50-1	49	.	.	.	99+1	82+1	82+1
	2000	...	49	51	.	.	.	...	75	76
	1990	...	48	48	-	...	...	...	61	71
Philippines	2009	49-1	48-1	51-1	.-1	.-1	.-1	...	...	...
	2005	50	49	52	.	.	.	97	87	76
	2000	50**	49+1	51+1	.+1	.+1	.+1	92**,-1	87-1	76-1
	1990	...	49	50	.	...	...	...	...	...
Republic of Korea	2009	48	48	47	45	.	45	99	78	54
	2005	48	47	47	46	.	46	99	75	51
	2000	47	47-1	48	49	.	49	100	70	44
	1990	48	49	48+1	53+1	...	...	86	49	32
Singapore	2009	...	48	48	35	34	36	...	81	66
	2005	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	1990	...	47	47	24	...	...	...	...	...
Thailand	2009	49+1	...	51+1	43+1	.+1	43+1	...	...	...
	2005	49+1	48+1	51+1	45+1	.+1	45+1	78+1	60+1	55+1
	2000	49	48-1	49**,+1	48+1	.+1	48+1	79	64	...
	1990	49+1	49+1	50	48	...	...	...	...	...

Region / Country or territory	Reference year	Enrolment						Teaching staff		
				Secondary						
		Pre-primary	Primary	All programmes	TVET - Secondary	TVET - Lower Secondary	TVET - Upper Secondary	Pre-primary	Primary	Secondary
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Timor-Leste	2009	…	48	…	…	.	…	…	39	…
	2005	51	47	49	40	…	…	97	31	19**
	2000	…	…	…	.+1	.+1	.+1	…	30**,+1	…
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Viet Nam	2009	48	48	…	…	.	…	98	78	…
	2005	47	47	49	55	.	55	98+1	78+1	64+1
	2000	48	48+1	47	51	.	51	100	78	65
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Pacific										
Australia	2009	48	49	48	43	47	41	…	…	…
	2005	49	49	48	44	48	42	…	…	…
	2000	49+1	49	49	47	49	47	…	…	…
	1990	49	49	…	…	…	…	…	74+1	50+1
Cook Islands	2009	46+1	48+1	50+1	.+1	.+1	.+1	100+1	86+1	56+1
	2005	45	48	49**,-1	.-1	.-1	.-1	91	77	61
	2000	46	46-1	50-1	.-1	.-1	.-1	100	86**	…
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Fiji	2009	…	48-1	50-1	31-1	.-1	31-1	…	55-1	71-1
	2005	50**	48**	50-1	28-1	.-1	28-1	99-1	57-1	50**,-1
	2000	49	48-1	51	40	.	40	99	56	51**
	1990	50	49+1	48+1	30+1	…	…	…	…	…
Kiribati	2009	…	50-1	51-1	.-1	.-1	.-1	…	82-1	48-1
	2005	…	49	52	.	.**	.**	…	79+1	48+1
	2000	…	49+1	61	.	.	.	…	67	49
	1990	…	50	49	16	…	…	…	57	32
Marshall Islands	2009	46	48	50	…	.**	…	…	…	…
	2005	…	48+1	49	.	.	.	…	…	…
	2000	50-1	47**,+1	50-1	.-1	.-1	.-1	…	…	…
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Micronesia (Federated States of)	2009	…	49-2	…	…	.-2	…	…	…	…
	2005	…	48	49	…	.	…	…	…	…
	2000	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Nauru	2009	50-1	50-1	51-2	.-2	.-2	.-2	98-1	93-1	79-2
	2005	49	48	51	.	.	.	100+1	92+1	88+1
	2000	45	53	54	.	…	…	98	92	39
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
New Zealand	2009	50	49	49	49	.	49	98	84	61
	2005	49	49	50	…	.	…	99	83	61
	2000	49	49	50	…	.	…	99	84	59
	1990	49	49+1	49	49	…	…	…	79	…
Niue	2009	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2005	58	51	48	.	…	…	…	100**	68
	2000	53+1	46-1	54-1	.-1	.-1	.-1	100+1	100+1	48+1
	1990	…	…	53+1	.+1	…	…	…	…	…

Region / Country or territory	Reference year	Enrolment						Teaching staff		
		Pre-primary	Primary	Secondary				Pre-primary	Primary	Secondary
				All programmes	TVET - Secondary	TVET - Lower Secondary	TVET - Upper Secondary			
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Palau	2009	...	48**,-2	50**,-2	.-2	.-2	.-2	...	...	...
	2005	53**	48**	50-1	.-1	.-1	.-1	...	...	...
	2000	51	48	48	.	.	.	98	79	59
	1990	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	2009	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2005	...	44	...	...	...	...	...	42**	...
	2000	...	45	...	...	...	...	...	39**	...
	1990	46	44	38	35	...	...	...	32	33**
Samoa	2009	51	48	51	.	.	.	98	...	...
	2005	54*,-1	48-1	51-1	.-1	.-1	.-1	94**,-1	73**,-1	60**,-1
	2000	54	48-1	50	.	.	.	94**	71	59
	1990	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Solomon Islands	2009	...	47-2	44-2	.-2	.-2	.-2	...	...	...
	2005	...	47+1	43+1	.+1	.+1	.+1	...	...	...
	2000	48	46	42	.	.	.	...	41-1	33-1
	1990	47	44	37	.	...	...	...	...	...
Tokelau	2009	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2005	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	42	46+1	49	.	.	.	100	76	64
	1990	48+1	48+1	...	...	...	...	100+1	...	...
Tonga	2009	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2005	56-1	47	49**,-1	32**,-1	38**,-1	31**,-1	...	63-1	...
	2000	53-1	46-1	50-1	41-1	49-1	39-1	99	69	50
	1990	...	48	48	44	...	...	...	69	49
Tuvalu	2009	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2005	48	48	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	50+1	48	46+1	...	.+1	...	100+1	81+1	...
	1990	...	49	47	-	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	2009	48	47	50	.	.	.	91	...	...
	2005	...	48	45-1	30-1	...	...	...	54-1	...
	2000	49+1	48-1	52	41	47	39	99+1	51+1	47+1
	1990	...	47	43+1	38+1	...	...	...	40+1	...
South and West Asia										
Afghanistan	2009	...	39	31	32	.	32	...	29	...
	2005	43*,-1	36	23	10	-	10	...	...	...
	2000	...	-	.+1	.+1	.+1	.+1	...	...	...
	1990	...	34	32+1	.+1	...	...	...	59	44
Bangladesh	2009	49*	50*	...	...	.-1	30-1	...	43	...
	2005	49-1	50	51	30	.	30	...	37	17
	2000	50	...	50	25	.	25	34	...	14
	1990	...	45	33	8	...	...	...	19	10
Bhutan	2009	51-1	50	49	.	.	.	...	35	49
	2005	47	49	47	34	.	34		50+1	41+1
	2000	49	46	45	.	.	.	50	34	34
	1990	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Region / Country or territory	Reference year	Enrolment						Teaching staff		
				Secondary						
		Pre-primary	Primary	All programmes	TVET - Secondary	TVET - Lower Secondary	TVET - Upper Secondary	Pre-primary	Primary	Secondary
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
India	2009	49⁻¹	…	45⁻¹	25⁻¹	.⁻¹	25⁻¹	…	…	…
	2005	49	47	43	15**	.	15**	…	44**,⁻¹	34⁻¹
	2000	49	44	40	20	.	20	…	36*	34
	1990	46	41	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	2009	52	49	47	30	.	30	…	57	…
	2005	51⁺¹	48	48	38	.	38	89	…	…
	2000	50	48	47	38	.	38	97⁺¹	54⁺¹	…
	1990	48	46	40	20	…	…	100⁺¹	53⁺¹	41⁺¹
Maldives	2009	49	48	…	…	.	…	97	74	…
	2005	49⁺¹	48	52**,⁻¹	30**,⁻¹	.⁻¹	30**,⁻¹	95	66	…
	2000	49	49	51	45	.	45	94	60	29
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Nepal	2009	48⁺¹	50⁺¹	…	…	.⁺¹	…	…	40⁺¹	…
	2005	46	45⁻¹	45**	22**	.	22**	41	30	…
	2000	43⁺¹	43	40⁺¹	20⁺¹	.⁺¹	20⁺¹	32**	23**	11
	1990	…	37⁺¹	29	…	…	…	…	14⁺¹	10⁺¹
Pakistan	2009	…	44	43	41*	.	41*	…	46	…
	2005	46	42	42**	42**	.	42**	45**,⁻¹	45⁻¹	51*,⁻¹
	2000	40*	39*,⁺¹	…	…	…	…	…	45**	…
	1990	…	…	28	21	…	…	…	…	32
Sri Lanka	2009	…	49	…	…	.	…	…	85	…
	2005	…	49**	49**,⁻¹	…	.⁻¹	…	…	79**,⁻¹	63**,⁻¹
	2000	…	49⁺¹	…	…	.⁺¹	…	…	…	…
	1990	…	48	51	.	…	…	…	…	…
REGIONAL AVERAGES										
World	2009	48**	47	48**	45	45	45	94**	62**	52**
	2005	48	47	47	45	…	45	94	62**	52**
	2000	48	47	47	45**	…	45**	92	60	51
	1990	…	46	44	43	…	…	93**	56**	48**
Arab States	2009	47**	47	47	39	22	44	91	55	47**
	2005	46	47	47	42**	28	44**	87	55	46**
	2000	43	46	46	43**	34**	45**	78	52	43
	1990	…	44	42	38	…	…	54	50	38**
Central and Eastern Europe	2009	48**	49**	48**	40**	45	40**	99**	82**	73**
	2005	48	48	48	40	44	40	100	83	73**
	2000	48	48	48	39	18	39	100	83**	73**
	1990	…	48	48**	42**	…	…	…	83**	…
Central Asia	2009	49	48	49	48	…	48	97	89	71
	2005	49	49	48	44	…	44	97	87	68
	2000	48	49	49	41	…	41	97	86	66
	1990	…	49**	…	…	…	…	…	81	…
East Asia and the Pacific	2009	47	47	48	48	43	48	96	61	49
	2005	47**	47**	48**	48**	37**	48**	96**	60**	46**
	2000	47	48**	47**	47**	44	47**	94	56**	43
	1990	…	47	44	41	…	…	94	48	35

Region / Country or territory	Reference year	Enrolment						Teaching staff		
		Pre-primary	Primary	Secondary				Pre-primary	Primary	Secondary
				All programmes	TVET - Secondary	TVET - Lower Secondary	TVET - Upper Secondary			
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Latin America and the Caribbean	2009	49**	48**	51**	54**	57	53**	95**	78**	60**
	2005	49	48	51	53	57	51	96	78	66
	2000	49	48	51	54	55	54	96	78	64
	1990	…	49**	51**	52**	…	…	98**	79**	58**
North America and Western Europe	2009	49	49	49	42	41	42	94	83	61
	2005	48	49	49	44	41	44	92	84	60
	2000	49	49	49	46	52	46	93	82	56
	1990	…	49	49	45	…	…	94**	81**	54**
South and West Asia	2009	48**	…	45**	30**	…	30**	…	…	…
	2005	49	46	44	29	…	29	90	44**	34**
	2000	47	44	41	29	…	29	75**	38	35
	1990	…	41	35**	24**	…	…	43**	32**	32**
Sub-Saharan Africa	2009	48	47	44	39	38**	40	76**	42	29
	2005	49	47	44	39**	39**	39**	78**	44	29
	2000	49**	46	44	37**	37**	37**	77**	42	30**
	1990	…	45	43	37**	…	…	82**	40**	33**

Notes: Data extracted from the UIS database on October 2011. Countries included in regional averages are based on UIS categorization of regions. Central Asia includes the following countries or territories: Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Mongolia, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan.

Symbols:

…   No data available

**   For country data: UIS estimation

   For regional averages: Partial imputation due to incomplete country coverage (between 25% to 75% of the population)

*   National estimation

-   Magnitude nil

.   Not applicable

x^{+n} Data refer to the school or financial year n years after the reference year

x^{-n} Data refer to the school or financial year n years prior the reference year

Annex 3: Goal 5: Gender Parity Index (GPI)

Region / Country or territory	Reference year	Gross enrolment ratios			Net enrolment rates			Other Indicators		
		Pre-primary	Primary	Secondary	Pre-primary	Primary (adjusted)	Secondary	Survival rates	Gross intake ratio to the last grade of primary	Transition rates
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(10)	(11)	(12)
Central Asia										
Kazakhstan	2009	0.98	1.01[+1]	0.98[+1]	0.98	…	0.99[+1]	1.01	1.01[+1]	1.00
	2005	0.99	1.00	0.98	0.99	1.01	0.99	1.01	1.00	1.00
	2000	0.98[+1]	1.01	1.02	0.99[+1]	1.02[**]	1.02[**]	0.95[**]	1.01[**]	0.98[**]
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Kyrgyzstan	2009	1.00	1.00	1.01[*]	0.99	1.00	1.01[*]	1.01[-1]	1.01	1.00[-1]
	2005	1.00	0.99	1.01	1.01	1.01	1.01	1.03	1.01	1.00
	2000	0.99	0.99	1.03	0.99	0.99	…	0.98	0.99	0.97
	1990	1.02	1.02	1.00	…	…	…	…	…	…
Mongolia	2009	1.06	0.99	1.07	1.05	…	1.07	1.01[-2]	0.98[-1]	1.03[-1]
	2005	1.10	1.00[+1]	1.11	…	1.02[+1]	1.12	0.97[+1]	1.00[+1]	1.02[+1]
	2000	1.02	1.02	1.22	1.02	1.03	1.22	1.07	1.06	1.03
	1990	1.24[+1]	1.02[+1]	1.14[+1]	…	…	…	…	…	…
Tajikistan	2009	0.86[-1]	…	0.87[-1]	0.87[-1]	…	0.88[-1]	…	0.96[**,-2]	…
	2005	0.91	0.95[+1]	0.83	0.93	0.96[+1]	0.85	…	0.96[**,+1]	0.99[**,+1]
	2000	0.85	0.93[+1]	0.86	…	0.92[+1]	0.87[**]	1.07[**,+1]	0.92[**,+1]	0.99[**,+1]
	1990	…	0.98[+1]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Turkmenistan	2009	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2005	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2000	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Uzbekistan	2009	1.00	0.98	0.99	1.01	0.98	0.98	1.01[-1]	0.98	0.99[-1]
	2005	0.97[+1]	0.98	0.97	…	…	…	1.01	0.98	1.00
	2000	0.95	0.99[+1]	0.97	…	…	…	0.96[+1]	0.99[+1]	1.01[+1]
	1990	…	0.99	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
East Asia										
Brunei Darussalam	2009	1.03	1.01	1.02	1.05	1.02	1.03	1.00[-2]	1.01	0.99[-1]
	2005	1.01	1.00	1.04	1.00	1.01	1.05	1.01	1.08	1.04
	2000	1.03	0.99	1.06	…	…	…	…	0.99	…
	1990	0.96[+1]	0.94[+1]	1.09[+1]	…	0.98[+1]	…	…	…	…
Cambodia	2009	1.07[-1]	0.94	…	1.07[-1]	…	…	1.10[-2]	0.99[-1]	0.99[-2]
	2005	1.09	0.93[+1]	0.79[+1]	1.09	0.98[+1]	0.86[+1]	1.05[+1]	0.99[+1]	0.96[+1]
	2000	1.08[+1]	0.89[+1]	0.55	1.08[+1]	0.93[**,+1]	0.56	0.95[+1]	0.80[+1]	0.91[+1]
	1990	0.91[+1]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
China	2009	1.00	1.04	1.07	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2005	0.99[+1]	1.04[+1]	1.03[+1]	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2000	1.00	1.03[+1]	0.95[**,+1]	…	…	…	…	…	…
	1990	0.93	0.90	0.74	…	…	…	…	…	…
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	2009	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2005	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2000	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Hong Kong (China)	2009	1.03	1.02	1.03	…	1.03[*]	1.03[*]	1.00[-2]	1.01[*]	1.00[*,-1]
	2005	1.01	0.98	1.01	1.01	0.99[*]	1.02[*]	1.01	0.98	1.00
	2000	0.96[+1]	0.95[+1]	0.97[+1]	0.96[**,+1]	0.96[*,+1]	0.98[*,+1]	…	…	…
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…

Asia-Pacific End of Decade Notes on Education for All

Region / Country or territory	Reference year	Gross enrolment ratios			Net enrolment rates			Other Indicators		
		Pre-primary	Primary	Secondary	Pre-primary	Primary (adjusted)	Secondary	Survival rates	Gross intake ratio to the last grade of primary	Transition rates
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(10)	(11)	(12)
Indonesia	2009	1.04	0.97	0.99	1.05[*]	…	0.98	1.07[-2]	1.01	1.02[-1]
	2005	1.03[**]	0.98[-1]	0.99[**]	1.03[**]	…	0.99[**]	0.94[**,-1]	1.01[-1]	1.00[**,-1]
	2000	1.04[**]	0.98[+1]	0.95[**]	…	…	0.95[**]	1.07[+1]	1.01[+1]	1.02[**,+1]
	1990	…	0.96	0.83[+1]	…	…	0.88[+1]	…	…	0.88
Japan	2009	…	1.00	1.00	…	…	1.00	1.00[-1]	1.00	…
	2005	…	1.00	1.00[+1]	…	…	1.00[+1]	…	…	…
	2000	1.02[**]	1.00	1.01	1.02[**]	…	1.01[**]	…	…	…
	1990	1.01	1.00	1.02	…	1.00	…	…	1.00	1.00
Lao People's Democratic Republic	2009	1.06[-1]	0.91[-1]	0.81[-1]	1.06[-1]	0.96[-1]	…	1.02[-2]	0.91[-1]	0.96[-2]
	2005	1.05	0.88	0.76	1.05	0.95	0.85	0.99	0.89	0.95[**]
	2000	1.10	0.85	0.70	1.11	0.92	0.78	1.02	0.84	0.93
	1990	1.02	0.79	0.68	…	…	…	…	…	…
Macao (China)	2009	0.96	0.95	0.96	0.96	0.99	1.00	1.01[-1]	0.93	1.05[-1]
	2005	0.96[-1]	0.92	1.00	0.97[-1]	0.97	1.04	…	1.01	1.07
	2000	0.94	0.95	1.05	0.95	1.00	1.08	…	1.09	0.99
	1990	0.98[+1]	0.95	1.10	…	0.99	1.15	1.01	1.00	1.29
Malaysia	2009	1.07[-1]	0.99[-1]	1.07[-1]	1.06[-1]	1.00[**,-1]	1.07[**,-1]	1.01[-2]	1.00[-1]	0.98[**,-2]
	2005	1.10	0.99[+1]	1.10	1.09	1.00[+1]	1.10	1.00[+1]	1.00[+1]	0.98[**,+1]
	2000	1.08[**,+1]	0.98[-1]	1.08	1.08[**,+1]	0.98[-1]	1.09	…	0.99[-1]	1.02[-1]
	1990	1.02	0.99	1.06	…	…	…	1.01	1.00	…
Myanmar	2009	1.01	0.98	1.02	1.01	…	1.02	0.99[-1]	1.02	0.98[-1]
	2005	1.00[+1]	1.00[-1]	0.97	1.00[+1]	…	0.97	…	0.99[-1]	0.98[**,-1]
	2000	…	0.98	1.06	…	…	1.05	1.00	0.95	0.98
	1990	…	0.94	0.93	…	…	…	…	…	…
Philippines	2009	1.02[-1]	0.98[-1]	1.09[-1]	0.96[-1]	1.02[-1]	1.19[-1]	1.13[-2]	1.06[-1]	0.99[-2]
	2005	1.04	0.99	1.12	0.97	1.02	1.20	1.14	1.08	0.98
	2000	1.05[**]	1.00[+1]	1.10[+1]	0.98[**]	1.01[+1]	1.18[+1]	1.12[+1]	1.10[+1]	0.99[+1]
	1990	…	0.98	1.03	…	0.98	…	…	…	…
Republic of Korea	2009	1.00	0.98	0.96	1.00	0.99[**]	0.96[**]	1.00[-1]	0.99	1.00[-1]
	2005	0.97	0.97	0.98	0.98	0.97	0.98	1.00	0.95	0.99
	2000	0.97	1.00[-1]	0.99	0.97	1.00[-1]	0.99	1.00[-1]	1.02[-1]	1.00[-1]
	1990	0.99	1.01	0.96[+1]	…	…	0.97[+1]	1.01	1.02	…
Singapore	2009	…	…	…	…	…	…	1.00[-1]	…	1.07[-1]
	2005	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2000	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Thailand	2009	1.02[+1]	…	1.08[+1]	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2005	1.01[+1]	0.98[+1]	1.08[+1]	1.02[+1]	0.98[+1]	1.11[+1]	…	…	1.05[+1]
	2000	1.01	0.97[-1]	0.97[**,+1]	…	…	…	…	0.99[**,-1]	…
	1990	1.02[+1]	0.98[+1]	1.06	…	…	…	…	…	…
Timor-Leste	2009	…	0.95	…	…	0.97	…	…	0.98[-1]	1.02[-1]
	2005	1.09	0.92	1.00	…	0.96[**]	…	…	…	…
	2000	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…

Region / Country or territory	Reference year	Gross enrolment ratios			Net enrolment rates			Other Indicators		
		Pre-primary	Primary	Secondary	Pre-primary	Primary (adjusted)	Secondary	Survival rates	Gross intake ratio to the last grade of primary	Transition rates
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(10)	(11)	(12)
Viet Nam	2009	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2005	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2000	0.97	0.95[+1]	0.91	…	0.95[**,+1]	…	0.98[+1]	0.96[+1]	1.00[+1]
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Pacific										
Australia	2009	0.98	1.00	0.96	0.98	1.01	1.02	…	…	…
	2005	1.00	1.00	0.96	1.00	1.01	1.02	…	…	…
	2000	1.00[+1]	1.00	1.00	1.00[+1]	1.01[**]	1.02[**]	…	…	…
	1990	1.00	1.00	…	…	1.01	…	…	…	…
Cook Islands	2009	0.90[*,+1]	1.02[*,+1]	1.10[*,+1]	…	1.02[*,+1]	1.08[*,+1]	…	1.02[*,+1]	…
	2005	0.93[*]	1.03[*]	1.12[**,-1]	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2000	0.96[*]	0.95[*,-1]	1.08[*,-1]	…	0.96[*,-1]	1.07[*,-1]	…	0.96[*,-1]	…
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Fiji	2009	…	0.99[-1]	1.07[-1]	…	1.00[-1]	…	…	0.99[-1]	1.00[-2]
	2005	1.06[**]	0.98[**]	1.07[-1]	1.06[**]	1.00[**]	1.07[**,-1]	…	1.01[**]	1.01[**]
	2000	1.03	0.99[-1]	1.09	…	1.01[**,-1]	1.10[**]	1.00[-1]	1.01[-1]	1.01[-1]
	1990	1.06	1.00[+1]	0.97[+1]	…	…	…	…	…	…
Kiribati	2009	…	1.04[-1]	1.11[-1]	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2005	…	1.02	1.13	…	…	1.10[**]	…	1.00[**]	…
	2000	…	1.03[+1]	1.64	…	…	…	0.94[+1]	1.00[+1]	…
	1990	…	1.02	0.94	…	…	…	…	1.01	0.98
Marshall Islands	2009	0.91	0.99	1.05	…	…	…	0.91[-1]	1.01	0.97[-1]
	2005	…	1.00[+1]	1.01	…	…	…	1.04[+1]	1.02[+1]	1.06[+1]
	2000	1.05[-1]	0.94[**,+1]	1.07[-1]	…	1.00[**,+1]	…	…	…	…
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Micronesia (Federated States of)	2009	…	1.01[-2]	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2005	…	0.98	1.07	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2000	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Nauru	2009	0.97[*,-1]	1.06[*,-1]	1.17[*,-2]	…	…	…	…	1.03[**,-2]	…
	2005	0.88[*]	1.05[*]	1.13[*]	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2000	0.88[*]	1.33[*]	1.17[*]	…	…	…	…	…	…
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
New Zealand	2009	1.03	1.01	1.04	1.03	1.01	1.02	…	…	…
	2005	1.02	1.00	1.07	1.02	1.00[**]	…	…	…	…
	2000	1.00	1.00	1.06	1.01	1.00[**]	…	…	…	…
	1990	1.00	0.99[+1]	1.01	…	1.00[+1]	…	…	…	…
Niue	2009	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2005	0.60[*]	0.89[*]	1.78[*]	…	…	…	…	1.06[**]	…
	2000	1.20[**,+1]	1.00[*,-1]	1.10[*,-1]	…	1.00[*,-1]	1.05[*,-1]	…	0.95[*,-1]	…
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Palau	2009	…	1.03[**,-2]	0.98[**,-2]	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2005	1.21[**]	0.99[**]	1.02[*,-1]	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2000	1.10[*]	0.97[*]	1.03[*]	…	0.96[**]	…	…	0.85[*]	…
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…

Region / Country or territory	Reference year	Gross enrolment ratios			Net enrolment rates			Other Indicators		
		Pre-primary	Primary	Secondary	Pre-primary	Primary (adjusted)	Secondary	Survival rates	Gross intake ratio to the last grade of primary	Transition rates
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(10)	(11)	(12)
Papua New Guinea	2009	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2005	…	0.84	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2000	…	0.86	…	…	…	…	…	0.84	…
	1990	0.92	0.84	0.60	…	0.84**	…	0.93	0.80	…
Samoa	2009	1.13	0.98	1.13	…	…	…	…	0.93	…
	2005	1.26*,-1	0.99-1	1.12-1	…	…	1.13**,-1	…	1.04**,-1	…
	2000	1.25	0.98-1	1.14	1.22*	0.99-1	1.14	1.04*,-1	0.90-1	1.14-1
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Solomon Islands	2009	…	0.97-2	0.84-2	…	0.98-2	0.90-2	…	…	…
	2005	…	0.97+1	0.84+1	…	0.99+1	0.84+1	…	…	…
	2000	1.02	0.94	0.79	…	…	0.82	…	…	0.97**
	1990	0.94	0.86	0.64	…	…	…	…	…	…
Tokelau	2009	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2005	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2000	0.84*	1.13*,+1	1.01*	…	…	…	…	0.90*,+1	1.62+1
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Tonga	2009	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2005	1.39-1	0.98	1.08**,-1	…	…	1.22**,-1	1.02	1.02	0.97
	2000	1.24-1	0.96-1	1.11-1	2.13-1	0.95-1	1.11-1	…	1.05-1	0.93**,-1
	1990	…	0.98	1.00	…	1.01	…	…	0.88	…
Tuvalu	2009	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2005	1.09*	0.96*	…	1.09*	…	…	…	1.08*	…
	2000	1.09**,+1	1.04*	1.10*,+1	…	…	…	…	1.04**	0.74**
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	0.74
Vanuatu	2009	0.96	0.95	1.09	1.01	…	…	0.94-1	1.00	…
	2005	…	0.97	0.86-1	…	0.98	0.87**,-1	…	…	1.02
	2000	1.02+1	0.98-1	1.14	…	0.99**,-1	1.14**	1.06-1	1.00**,-1	1.07**,-1
	1990	…	0.98	0.80+1	…	…	…	…	…	…
South and West Asia										
Afghanistan	2009	…	0.67	0.49	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2005	0.80*,-1	0.59	0.33	…	…	…	…	0.39	…
	2000	…	–	–+1	…	…	…	…	…	…
	1990	…	0.55	0.51+1	…	…	…	…	…	…
Bangladesh	2009	1.00*	1.04*	…	1.01*	1.08*	…	0.98*,-1	1.09*	…
	2005	1.00-1	1.04	1.06	1.00-1	1.05	1.06	1.10	1.07	1.06
	2000	1.02	…	1.02	…	…	1.02	…	1.07	…
	1990	…	0.84	0.51	…	0.85	…	…	…	0.79
Bhutan	2009	1.09-1	1.01	0.99	…	1.03	1.07	1.12-1	1.09	1.05-1
	2005	0.92	0.97	0.88	…	1.00**	1.00**	1.08	0.99	1.03
	2000	0.97	0.87	0.82	1.10	0.90	1.00	1.09	0.87	1.00
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
India	2009	1.02-1	…	0.88-1	…	…	…	…	0.99-1	1.00-2
	2005	1.04	0.96	0.82	…	0.96**	…	0.99	0.94	0.96
	2000	1.06	0.84	0.71	…	0.84**	…	0.99	0.80	0.96
	1990	0.92	0.74	…	…	…	…	…	…	…

Region / Country or territory	Reference year	Gross enrolment ratios			Net enrolment rates			Other Indicators		
		Pre-primary	Primary	Secondary	Pre-primary	Primary (adjusted)	Secondary	Survival rates	Gross intake ratio to the last grade of primary	Transition rates
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(10)	(11)	(12)
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	2009	1.13	0.99	0.95	…	…	…	1.00[-1]	1.00	1.01[-1]
	2005	1.11[+1]	0.98	0.97	…	…	…	…	1.10	0.90
	2000	1.05	0.95	0.93	…	0.97**	…	0.99	0.95	1.01
	1990	0.95	0.88	0.72	…	0.91	0.75	0.90	0.87	0.95
Maldives	2009	1.00	0.95	…	1.01	…	…	…	0.88	1.07[-1]
	2005	0.98[+1]	0.95	1.13**,[-1]	0.98[+1]	0.97**	…	…	0.94	1.12
	2000	0.99	0.99	1.09	0.99	0.99**	1.17**	…	…	…
	1990	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Nepal	2009	…	…	…	…	…	…	1.07[-2]	…	1.00[-2]
	2005	…	…	0.86**	…	…	…	1.17**,[-1]	…	…
	2000	0.79[+1]	0.79	0.72[+1]	…	0.82**	…	1.23	0.77	1.02
	1990	…	0.63[+1]	0.44	…	…	…	…	…	…
Pakistan	2009	…	0.84	0.79	…	0.84*	0.79*	0.98[-1]	0.79	0.99[-1]
	2005	0.90	0.76	0.78**	0.88	0.76**	0.77**	…	0.71	1.08
	2000	0.70*	0.68*,[+1]	…	…	0.68**,[+1]	…	…	…	…
	1990	…	…	0.42	…	…	…	…	…	…
Sri Lanka	2009	…	1.00	…	…	1.01	…	…	1.01	1.02[-1]
	2005	…	1.00**	1.02**,[-1]	…	…	…	1.00**	1.00**	1.01**
	2000	…	0.99[+1]	…	…	…	…	…	0.99[+1]	1.02**,[+1]
	1990	…	0.96	1.08	…	…	…	1.02	1.00	1.03
REGIONAL AVERAGES										
World	2009	0.99**	0.96	0.97**	…	0.98**	0.85**	…	…	…
	2005	0.99	0.95	0.95	…	0.97	0.86**	…	…	…
	2000	0.98	0.92	0.92	…	0.94**	0.85**	…	…	…
	1990	…	0.88	0.84	…	0.91**	…	…	…	…
Arab States	2009	0.93**	0.92	0.92	…	0.94**	0.94**	…	…	…
	2005	0.88	0.91	0.92	…	0.93	0.92**	…	…	…
	2000	0.80	0.88	0.89	…	0.91	0.91**	…	…	…
	1990	…	0.81	0.75	…	0.84**	…	…	…	…
Central and Eastern Europe	2009	0.98**	0.99**	0.96**	…	1.00**	0.99**	…	…	…
	2005	0.96	0.98	0.96	…	0.99	0.97**	…	…	…
	2000	0.96	0.97	0.96	…	0.98**	0.99**	…	…	…
	1990	…	0.98	0.95**	…	…	…	…	…	…
Central Asia	2009	1.01	0.98	0.98	…	0.99	0.98	…	…	…
	2005	0.99	0.98	0.96	…	0.99**	0.97**	…	…	…
	2000	0.96	0.99	0.98	…	0.99**	0.99**	…	…	…
	1990	…	0.99**	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
East Asia and the Pacific	2009	1.01	1.01	1.05	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2005	1.00**	1.01**	1.01**	…	1.02**	1.02**	…	…	…
	2000	1.01	1.00**	0.96**	…	1.01**	0.96**	…	…	…
	1990	…	0.93	0.83	…	0.96**	…	…	…	…
Latin America and the Caribbean	2009	1.00**	0.97**	1.08**	…	1.00**	1.07**	…	…	…
	2005	1.00	0.97	1.08	…	1.01	1.08	…	…	…
	2000	1.01	0.97	1.07	…	0.99**	1.06	…	…	…
	1990	…	0.99**	1.06**	…	0.97**	…	…	…	…

Region / Country or territory	Reference year	Gross enrolment ratios			Net enrolment rates			Other Indicators		
		Pre-primary	Primary	Secondary	Pre-primary	Primary (adjusted)	Secondary	Survival rates	Gross intake ratio to the last grade of primary	Transition rates
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(10)	(11)	(12)
North America and Western Europe	2009	1.00	1.00	1.00	…	1.01	1.02	…	…	…
	2005	0.97	0.99	1.01	…	1.01	1.02	…	…	…
	2000	1.00	0.99	1.01	…	1.00	1.02	…	…	…
	1990	…	0.99	1.01	…	1.01**	…	…	…	…
South and West Asia	2009	1.00**	…	0.89**	…	…	…	…	…	…
	2005	1.02	0.93	0.84	…	0.94	…	…	…	…
	2000	0.97	0.84	0.76	…	0.84	…	…	…	…
	1990	…	0.75	0.59**	…	0.80**	…	…	…	…
Sub-Saharan Africa	2009	0.95	0.92	0.79	…	0.95**	…	…	…	…
	2005	0.98	0.88	0.78	…	0.93	…	…	…	…
	2000	0.96**	0.85	0.80	…	0.89	0.81**	…	…	…
	1990	…	0.83	0.75	…	0.83**	…	…	…	…

Notes: Data extracted from the UIS database on October 2011. Countries included in regional averages are based on UIS categorization of regions. Central Asia includes the following countries or territories: Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Mongolia, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan.

Symbols:

… No data available

** For country data: UIS estimation

For regional averages: Partial imputation due to incomplete country coverage (between 25% to 75% of the population)

* National estimation

- Magnitude nil

. Not applicable

x^{+n} Data refer to the school or financial year n years after the reference year

x^{-n} Data refer to the school or financial year n years prior the reference year