



MAKING EDUCATION WORK

THE GENDER DIMENSION OF THE SCHOOL TO WORK TRANSITION





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The United Nations Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI) is the Education For All flagship for girls' education and the principal movement to narrow the gender gap in primary and secondary education, and to ensure that by 2015, all children everywhere will be able to complete primary schooling, and that by then, girls and boys will have equal access to all levels of education.

UNGEI works through partnerships with organizations committed to these goals at global, regional, and country levels. To learn more about UNGEI, visit www.ungei.org.

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Acronyms

EFA	Education For All
GDI	Gender Development Index
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GPI	Gender Parity Index
HDI	Human Development Index
ILC	International Labour Conference
ILO	International Labour Organization/Office
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
KILM	Key Indicators of the Labour Market
LFPR	Labour Force Participation Rate
MDGs	United Nations Millennium Development Goals
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Fund

Introduction

The intrinsic worth of education has been duly recognized in the international arena through several instruments.¹ In addition to the rights-based argument, education is often considered a critical factor in facilitating a smooth transition from school-to-work and creating better opportunities in the labour market afterwards. Nonetheless, in many developing countries,² there continues to be a lack of education available to large numbers of children and youth, and when education is available, sometimes it does not translate into higher employment due to mismatches between skills and labour market demand or further political, social and economic constraints. There still exist disparities between females and males in the opportunities for quality education at the basic level and beyond, as well as in subsequent opportunities for employment.

This report examines some of the existing disparities by comparing and contrasting the situation of males and females in the East Asia and Pacific region at different levels of education – including in technical and vocational education and training – and in the labour market. During the course of the analysis, and with the help of three case studies from Indonesia, the Philippines and Viet Nam, this report examines an essential question: how does parity in education, or lack thereof, translate into labour market outcomes for women? In attempting to answer this overarching question with both quantitative and qualitative information, the study overviews how countries in the region fare in terms of gender parity in the enrolment rates of females and males in primary, secondary and tertiary education. It examines the extent to which boys and girls opt for technical and vocational education and training and ultimately how females and males are represented in different occupations and whether certain patterns can be observed in terms of ‘masculine’ and ‘feminine’ professions. In examining the aforementioned issues, a picture of the divergent paths that females and males undertake in their transition from school-to-work emerges.

This report consists of four sections. Following the introduction (Part I), the second section analyzes existing data that depict the scenario of females and males in education and in the labour force, tracing evolution and trends at the regional and, when possible, national levels. Part III takes a closer look at Indonesia, the Philippines and Viet Nam, with the availability of data being the key criterion for their selection. The fourth section briefly overviews the main findings of the report, highlighting the pertinent issues and potential challenges in the school-to-work transition for girls relative to boys and to subsequent employment outcomes. It also illuminates existing knowledge gaps and provides recommendations for future action and research.

Though descriptive and based on secondary data, this report provides evidence to substantiate discussions on the gender dimensions of education and the transition into work in East Asia and the Pacific. Addressing this issue is a key step towards harnessing the productive capacity of young women, in addition to that of young men, towards the long-term and sustainable dynamism and progress of the region. This report makes a contribution towards explaining the links between girls’ education and the subsequent employment outcomes.

A Methodological Note

Although the aggregate regional analysis refers to both the developed (such as Australia, New Zealand and Japan) and less-developed countries (Indonesia, the Philippines and Viet Nam) in the region, the intended focus of this report is the less-developed and emerging countries. The combination of countries included in the ‘East Asia and the Pacific’ category varies between the World Bank’s compilation of education statistics (based on data from the UNESCO Institute of Statistics) and the International Labour Organization’s Global Employment Trends Model and Key Indicators of the Labour Market that was used for the labour market data presented in this report. The World Bank data is sub-divided based on income levels, and when not looking at the aggregate ‘East Asia and the Pacific’ indicator, this report only examines those countries included in the low income, low middle income and upper middle income categories (24 countries in all). The analysis of labour market indicators includes all countries for which there are data. The section on ‘Gender Representation in the Labour Market’ also distinguishes between ‘East Asia’ and ‘Southeast Asia and the Pacific’. Refer to Appendices I and II for the classification of countries.

¹ Among others: Universal Declaration of Human Rights; The ILO Minimum Age Convention; the Millennium Development Goals of achieving universal primary school education by the year 2015 (MDG 2, target 3) and promoting gender equality and empowering women, with the target of eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and at all levels by 2015 (MDG 3, target 4); and the Dakar Framework for Action, Education For All

² Developing countries also broadly refers to the emerging economies in the East Asia and Pacific Region.





WHAT DO THE DATA SHOW?



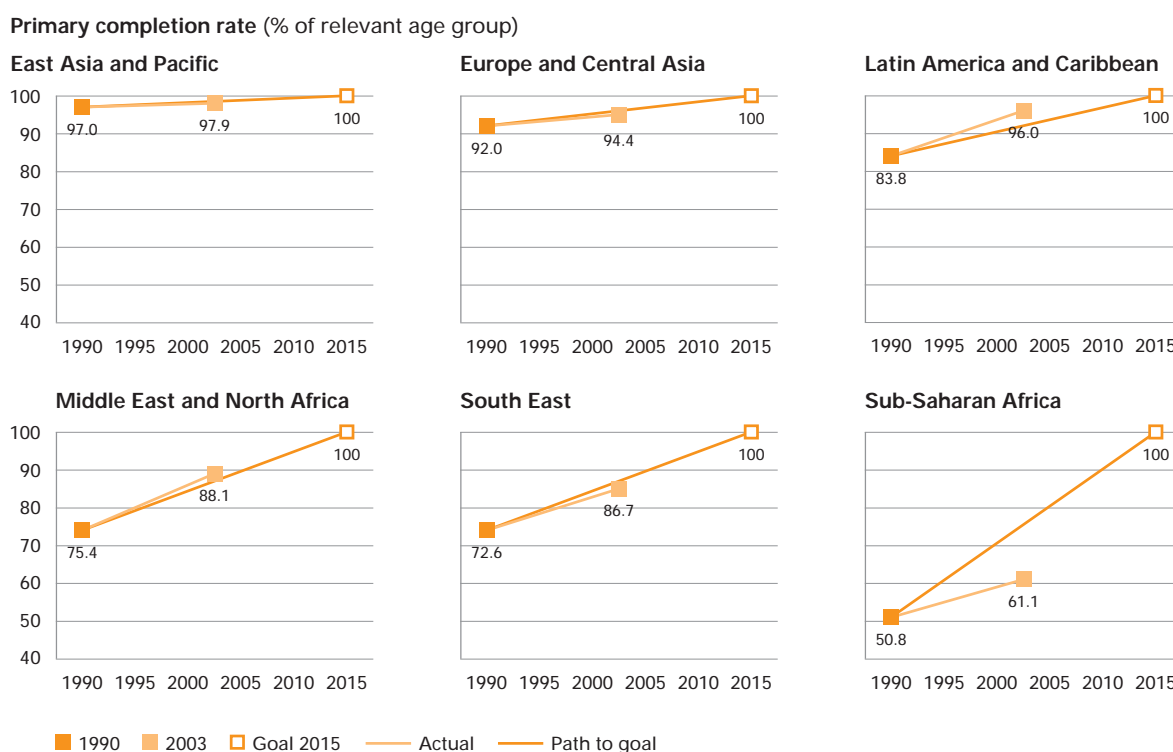
Economic, political and social barriers have historically marred the participation of women in education and in the labour market. In some developing countries, the cost of educating a female child who will eventually 'marry-away' may not be considered a worthy investment. In other societies, stringent gender roles mean that females are expected to tend to household chores while men assume the role of the bread-earner. While such barriers are manifold, there are equally as many, and more, reasons for investing in girls' education, including better maternal and child health, income growth and higher productivity, to name just a few.¹ A World Bank study of 100 countries found that a 1 per cent increase in the share of women with secondary education boosts annual per capita income growth by 0.3 percentage points.² These facts make a strong case for investing in girls' education, and indeed, the recognition of these benefits has fuelled the international push to achieve parity in education. With certain benefits, however, such as income growth and productivity, increases can only be had if education is accompanied by more and better opportunities for women in the labour market. In an effort to investigate the link between education and labour market outcomes of women, this section first overviews the regional and national progress towards achieving parity in education, including technical and vocational education and training. It then examines how men and women fare in the labour market and finally concludes by highlighting the linkages, or lack thereof, between girls' education and the ensuing employment opportunities.

A. Educational Attainment³

i. The Region's Progress Towards the MDGs and EFA

The last decade brought significant growth for the East Asia and Pacific region, driven by China to a large extent and accompanied by a significant decline in the shares of the working poor (those who earn US\$1/day or less).⁴ Concomitantly, the region's expenditure on public education as a percentage of GDP rose from 2 per cent in 2000 to 3 per cent in 2002. In compliance with the MDGs and the Dakar Framework for Action EFA initiative, the East Asia and Pacific region as a whole is on track towards achieving universal primary education by 2015 (*Figure 1*),⁵ although high regional averages conceal some countries that lag behind.

Figure 1: Universal Primary Education by 2015: Progress by Region



Source: U.N.; World Bank staff estimates.

ii. Gender Parity in Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Enrolment

A simplified picture of the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED)⁶ would depict educational systems as consisting of:⁷

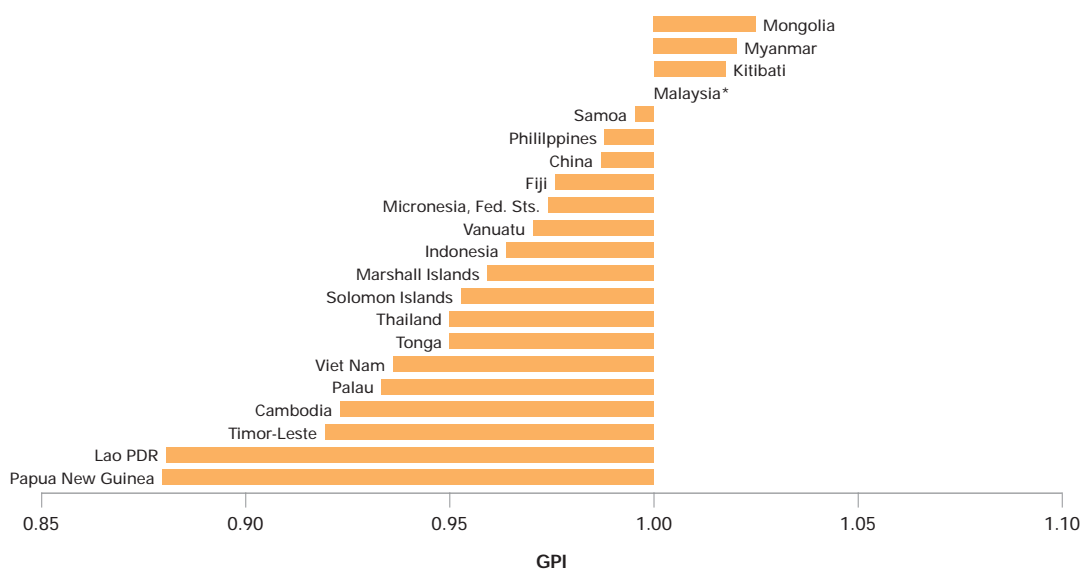
- Primary education that has a duration of six to eight years,
- Lower secondary with a duration of three or four years,
- Upper secondary with a duration of two to three years and
- Tertiary education with an average duration of four years.

Of the 689 million children enrolled in primary school worldwide and the 512 million enrolled in secondary education worldwide, 27 per cent and 29 per cent respectively are in East Asia and the Pacific.⁸ While the total gross enrolment rates in tertiary education are low in all regions of the world, East Asia and the Pacific saw an increase of 12 percentage points between 1996 and 2005 from 8 per cent to 20 per cent. In 2005, at the regional level, the gross enrolment rate of females was at par with males for secondary and upper secondary levels of education but was slightly lower at the primary and tertiary levels (*See Appendix IV*).

The regional numbers nonetheless obscure the lack of gender parity in education at the national and sub-national levels. While this report unveils a number of gender disparities at the national level, a disaggregated analysis of gender disparities at the sub-national level, such as those among rural populations, migrant children, working children and ethnic minorities, is beyond the scope of this paper, not least because of the lack of data. Nonetheless, note must be taken that such disparities do exist and should be accounted for in policy prescriptions.

For several low and middle-income countries in the region, the gross primary school enrolment rate for females for the most recent year between 2000 and 2005 for which data is available was lower than that of males with the exceptions of Kiribati, Malaysia, Mongolia, Myanmar and Samoa. At the secondary and tertiary levels, however, there are several countries in which the gross enrolment rate of females exceeds that of males. These include Mongolia, Fiji, the Marshall Islands, the Philippines, Thailand, Tonga, Malaysia and Palau (*See Appendix V*). Although the enrolment rates for both females and males have been rising in several countries in the region over the past decade, the lower primary enrolment rate for females in some countries may point to an initial reluctance on the part of parents to educate their daughters. It seems likely, however, that as sons become older and are able to lend a hand in helping to raise household income, they tend to drop-out of school, and female enrolment rates gain parity or exceed those of males. This notion is bolstered by the higher primary school drop-out rates of males in countries like Fiji, the Philippines and Tonga, for example.

Figure 2: Gender Parity Index, Gross Enrollment Ratio in Primary Education



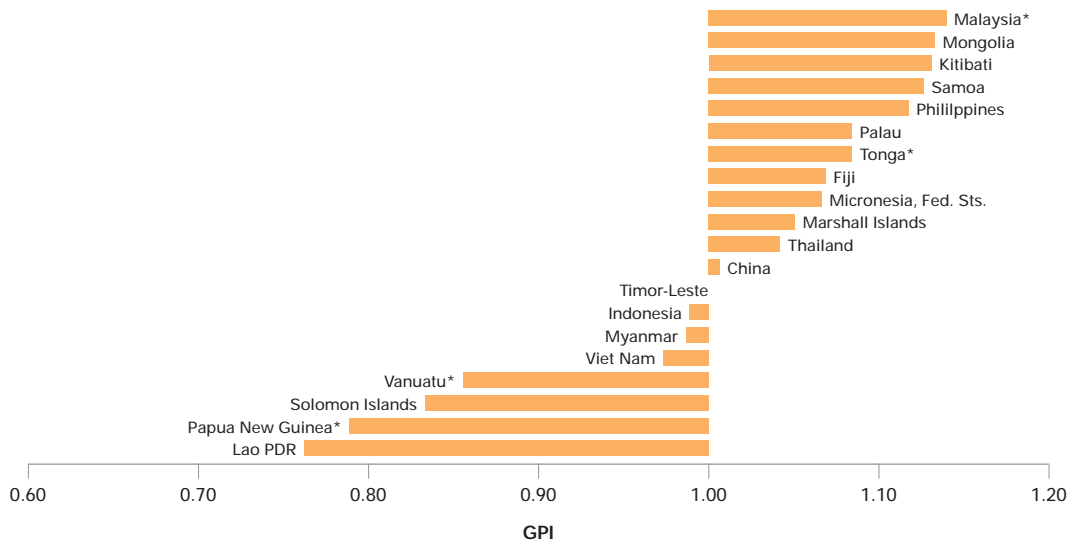
Source: <http://www.worldbank.org/education/edstats> Based on data from the UNESCO Institute of Statistics.

The Gender Parity Index (GPI),¹² based on gross enrolment in primary/secondary/tertiary education, is the ratio of the female-to-male values of the gross enrolment ratio in primary/secondary/tertiary education. A GPI between the range of 0.97 - 1.03 indicates parity between the sexes. A GPI below 0.97 indicates a lack of parity to the disadvantage of females, and a value above 1.03 indicates a lack of parity to the disadvantage of males. In either case, a lack of parity is undesirable.

Based on the GPI and gross enrolment ratio in primary education, Figure 2 illustrates that several countries in the region have not achieved gender parity in primary education. Only Mongolia, Myanmar, Kiribati and Malaysia have an index of 1 or higher, indicating gender parity or a higher propensity for females to be enrolled in primary education than males.

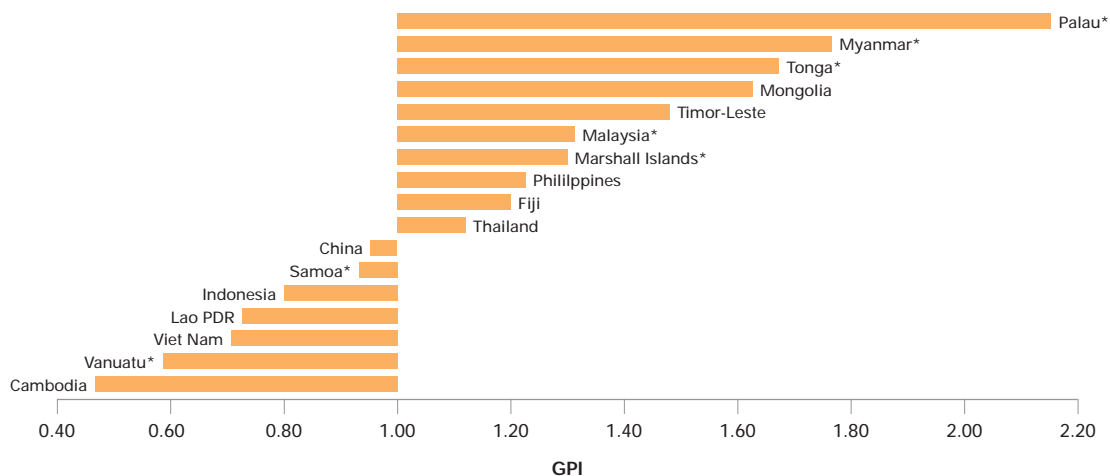
Females fair better when looking at the GPI based on the gross enrolment ratio in secondary education rather than in primary education. Based on data that is available for 20 countries in the region, females have a higher propensity than males to be enrolled in secondary education in 13 out of the 20 countries for which there is data and a lower propensity in 7 out of the 20 countries, including Indonesia, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Papua New Guinea, the Solomon Islands Vanuatu, and Viet Nam (Figure 3). Indonesia, Myanmar and Viet Nam, however, are very close to achieving parity.

Figure 3: Gender Parity Index, Gross Enrollment Ratio in Secondary Education



Source: <http://www.worldbank.org/education/edstats> Based on data from the UNESCO Institute of Statistics.

Figure 4: Gender Parity Index, Gross Enrollment Ratio in Tertiary Education



Source: <http://www.worldbank.org/education/edstats> Based on data from the UNESCO Institute of Statistics.

Based on the GPI and gross enrolment ratio in tertiary education, Figure 4 illustrates that females have a higher propensity to be enrolled in tertiary education than males in 10 out of the 17 countries in the region for which such data are available. Countries with a score of less than 1, meaning women have yet to achieve parity in terms of the gross enrolment ratio in tertiary education, are Cambodia, China, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Samoa, Vanuatu and Viet Nam.

Data on the female share of graduates in a particular field (as a percentage of total graduates from tertiary education) for any year between 2000 and 2005 is only available for a small group of countries in the region. Based on this limited data, it appears that females tend to favour the areas of health and education – areas commonly perceived as ‘nurturing’. The share of female graduates in engineering, manufacturing and construction, however, is low in all countries for which there is data, strengthening the notion that these areas are conventionally male.

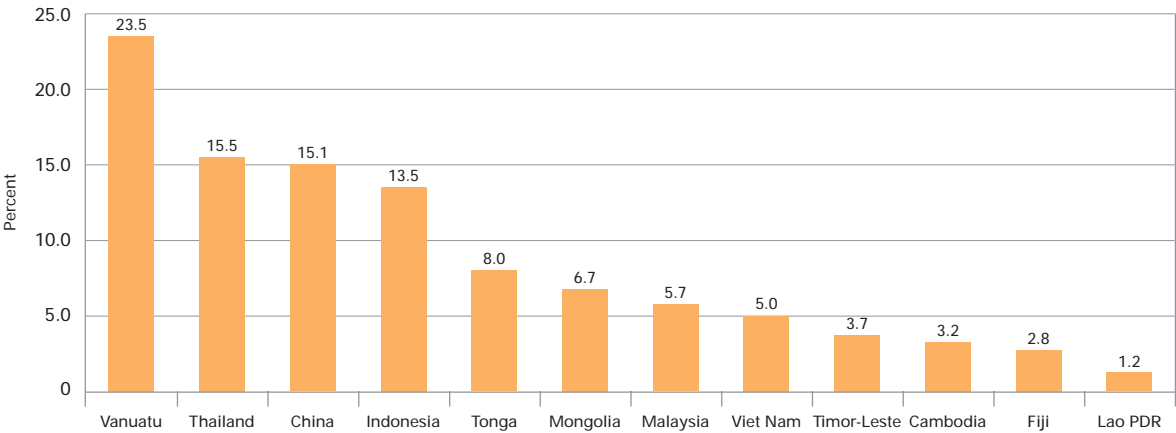
Girls have traditionally faced a number of barriers to their education, such as physical or social distance, relevant curricula sensitive to their needs, the availability of separate school facilities for girls or female teachers, and child labour. The latter data on the gross enrolment ratios in primary, secondary and tertiary education between females and males confirm that significant progress is being made with regards to girls’ education in the East Asia and Pacific region. Additionally, however, based on the limited evidence available, it appears that females and males tend to opt for different occupations. The different tracks that females and males pursue can be investigated further by looking at their respective participation in public technical and vocational education and training (TVET).

iii. Public Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET)

In developing countries, large shares of poor people are compelled to engage in some form of economic activity to make ends meet.¹⁰ As such, the long-term prospects of an academic education that may or may not ultimately lead to a well paying job is at times less appealing than the alternative of a shorter-term investment, such as in TVET, that offers the practical potential for finding employment more quickly.

According to the 2001 UNESCO and ILO Revised Recommendation, Technical and Vocational Education is defined as “a comprehensive term referring to those aspects of the education process involving, in addition to general education, the study of technologies and related sciences, and the acquisition of practical skills, attitudes, understanding and knowledge relating to occupations in various sectors of economic and social life.”¹¹ Such education may be “provided either in educational institutions or under their authority, by public authorities, the private sector or through other forms of organized education, formal or non-formal, aiming to ensure that all members of the community have access to the pathways of lifelong learning.”¹²

Figure 5: Vocational and Technical Enrollment as a Percentage of Total Secondary Enrollment



Source: <http://www.worldbank.org/education/edstats> Based on data from the UNESCO Institute of Statistics.

While considered an essential ingredient in development strategies, TVET's multifaceted and complex structure make it difficult to measure. There is also a dearth of national statistics that, when available, cause the quality of TVET to vary considerably[a2]. Data on non-formal or informal TVET¹³ is hard to quantify and therefore is not readily available. Furthermore, there are challenges associated with classifying vocational programmes according to the ISCED levels (See Appendix III), due to their greater heterogeneity, shorter duration and higher specificity.¹⁴ In general, the ISCED levels that are most relevant for ISCED are 2, 3, 4, and 5, of which 2, 3 and 4 are further sub-divided into three types of programme orientation: general, pre-vocational, and vocational or technical (See Appendix III).

Based on the countries for which there is data for the most recent year between 2004 and 2006, TVET enrolment as a share of total secondary enrolment varies across countries with Vanuatu (2004) at 23.5 per cent and Lao PDR (2006) at 1.2 per cent (*Figure 5*). These data give an indication of the extent to which girls and boys are transitioning on to TVET through formal channels, as opposed to pursuing the academic track by enrolling only in type 3A, meaning a general education that provides a strong academic foundation to prepare students for entry into ISCED 5A tertiary courses.¹⁵ It is important to note, however, that sometimes the type 3A curriculum may also include pre-vocational courses.

Table 1: Percentage of Female Students Enrolled in Technical/Vocational Programmes At Secondary Level

Country	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Cambodia	39	39	34	34	34
China	48	51
Fiji	40	37	29	34	28	28	...
Indonesia	43	...	43	43	43	42	...
Lao People's Democratic Republic	36	33	34	40	35	37	...
Malaysia	41	43	42	42	42
Mongolia	51	51	51	50	49	50	46
Papua New Guinea	26	27	27	27
Thailand	...	48	41	41	45	44	45
Timor-Leste	-	-	-	-	39	40	...
Tonga	41	40	32
Vanuatu	41	35	37	28	30
Viet Nam	51	53	51	51	52	55	...

Source: UNESCO Institute of Statistics; Download on March 26, 2008

If there is already a scarcity of data on TVET in general, then disaggregated data for females and males at the various ISCED levels, further divided by type A, B or C, is even more problematic. The upper secondary level is perhaps the most common level for initial TVET to commence.¹⁶ Appendix VI shows the vocational enrolments for upper secondary level (ISCED 3) in the countries for which data is available.

Table 1 illustrates female students as a percentage of those enrolled in TVET programmes at the secondary level of education. Accordingly, looking at the most recent year for which data is available, one sees that, with the exception of China and Viet Nam, females generally constitute a smaller share of the enrolment in technical and vocational programmes than males. Additionally, in Fiji, Mongolia, Tonga and Vanuatu, the female shares have declined more than 5 percentage points over time.

Based on the latter data, it becomes evident that there are not only variations in enrolment in TVET programmes as a percentage of total secondary enrolment across countries in the East Asia and Pacific region, but there are also differences in the extent to which females and males opt for TVET. Though information on the TVET fields that females and males opt for is lacking, anecdotal evidence suggests that they tend to favour different subject areas – a point that is teased out further in the case studies presented in Part III of this report.

B. Gender Representation in the Labour Market: Labour Force Participation Rate, Employment and Unemployment¹⁷

With a growth rate over twice the global average, Asia today is touted as the most economically dynamic region in the world.¹⁸ Growth in East Asia and Southeast Asia has been accompanied by large relative shifts in production away from agriculture towards industry. Flows of foreign direct investment (FDI), competitive integration into global markets and the exceptional export performance for a wide range of labour and capital intensive goods have fuelled this growth and dynamism. East Asia, in particular, is characterized by a growing middle class and rapid urbanization. The question emerging from this discussion is how females and males have fared in the labour market in the face of all these changes.

Table 2: Labour Force Participation Rates, Employment to Population Ratios and Unemployment Rates: East Asia and Southeast Asia & the Pacific

	Labour Force Participation Rate		Employment to Population Ratio		Unemployment Rate	
	1996	2006*	1996	2006*	1996	2006*
(%) – both sexes						
East Asia	78.0	74.6	75.0	71.9	3.8	3.6
South East Asia & the Pacific	70.1	70.7	67.5	66.3	3.7	6.2
Males (%)						
East Asia	84.6	81.5	81.0	78.2	4.3	4.1
South East Asia & the Pacific	83.0	82.8	80.0	78.0	3.5	5.7
Females (%)						
East Asia	71.1	67.4	68.8	65.3	3.2	3.0
South East Asia & the Pacific	57.6	58.9	55.3	54.8	4.0	6.9

Source: ILO Global Employment Trends Model, KILM (2007) 5th Edition (* 2006 preliminary estimates).

i. Labour Force Participation

The labour force participation rate measures the proportion of a country's working age population (15+) that actively engages in the labour market by working or by searching for employment. It is a gauge of the relative supply of labour available for production in a given country. The 2006 estimates in Table 2 illustrate that significant differences in the rate at which males and females participate in the labour force remain in both sub-regions. This difference is more pronounced in South East Asia and the Pacific (24 percentage points) than East Asia (15 percentage points). The decline in the labour force participation rates between 1996 and 2006 (and employment to population ratios) may partly be attributed to the fact that youth are remaining in school longer.

ii. Employment

The employment-to-population ratio (employment rate) is the proportion of the working-age population (15+) that is employed. When disaggregated by gender, employment-to-population ratios provide information on existing gender differences in labour market activity in a given country. Nonetheless, this indicator is susceptible to a gender bias since at times there is a tendency towards undercounting females whose work as caretakers or homemakers is not considered to be 'employment'.¹⁹ The international standards on employment statistics make explicit references to groups such as 'unpaid family workers', also referred to as 'contributing family workers', and 'persons engaged in non-market production';²⁰ however, sometimes these delineations are too specific and are excluded from national labour force surveys.²¹ As such, the undercounting of caretakers or homemakers in employment statistics can be due to the limitations of the labour force survey, because the women themselves do not consider their daily chores to be 'employment', and /or because the interviewer is not aware that such delineations are possible.

Table 3: Distribution of Countries According to the Ratio of Male to Female Employment Rates (15-24 Age Group)

Below 1.0	Equal to 1.0	Above 1.0 but less than 1.3	1.3 or Above
Cambodia	Papua New Guinea	East Timor*	Brunei
China	Singapore	Fiji	Indonesia
Hong Kong*, China	Viet Nam	Korea DPR	Malaysia
Republic of Korea		Lao PDR	Mongolia
Macau, China		Solomon Islands	Myanmar
Taiwan, China			Philippines
			Thailand*

* HK, China: 1.0 in 2000

* East Timor: 1.3 in 2006

* Thailand: 1.2 in 2000

Table 2 shows that the employment rate for females is lower than that of males in both sub-regions. In 1996 and 2006, this difference was almost twice as large in Southeast Asia and the Pacific as in East Asia.

Similar to the Gender Parity Index (GPI) in education²², the ratio of male-to-female employment-to-population rates provides an indicator of gender representation in employment, with a ratio of 1 indicating equal representation.²³ Having a gender representation ratio of less than 1 indicates a higher propensity for females than males to be employed, while a score greater than 1 indicates a higher employment propensity for males than females. Such data for the years between 2000-2006 are available for 21 countries in the region.²⁴ Table 3, based on the ratio of male-to-female employment rates for the 15-24 age group,²⁵ shows the distribution of countries on this indicator of gender representation in youth employment.

Table 3 highlights the fact that in several countries in the region, male and female youth are more or less represented equally in employment ('Equal to 1.0' and 'Above 1.0 but less than 1.3'). In Cambodia and China (including Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan), young women have a higher propensity to be employed than males. Additionally, based on Figure 4, presented earlier in the report, in these two countries females also have a lower gross enrolment ratio than males in tertiary education. This implies that a higher proportion of young females tend to leave education to start full-time work.

In the countries listed in the '1.3 or above' column, females have a lower propensity to be employed than males do; additionally, Figures 3 and 4 presented earlier suggest that females have achieved parity and in some countries, such as Malaysia, Mongolia, the Philippines, and Thailand, have even exceeded males in terms of the gross enrolment ratios in secondary and tertiary education. This implies that young females tend to remain in the education system longer rather than becoming employed.

These data, nevertheless, do not say much about whether an education ultimately helps females secure employment. Does education improve the employment prospects of females? Furthermore, it is not only a question of more employment but also of whether education facilitates better employment. Based on employment data alone, these questions remain unanswered.

iii. Unemployment

According to internationally recommended standards, the unemployment rate is the proportion of the labour force that does not have a job but is available and actively looking for work. Nonetheless, it is important to note that changes in the unemployment rate alone do not serve as an accurate proxy for labour market slack or for the composition of good and bad quality jobs in the labour market.²⁶

The unemployment rate may be used as an indicator to assess gender differences in labour force behaviour and outcomes. Female unemployment rates generally tend to be higher than those of males, and in 2006 this was the case for the majority of regions in the world with the exception of East Asia, where the male unemployment rate was 1.1 percentage points higher than that of females (*Table 2*).²⁷ On the other hand, in 1996 the unemployment rate for females in South East Asia and the Pacific was .5 percentage points higher than that of males. By 2006 the gap had grown to 1.2 percentage points.

Data on youth unemployment rates disaggregated by sex is only available for 10 countries in East Asia and the Pacific and then only inconsistently between the 2000-2005 period. Caution is warranted when conducting inter-country comparisons for youth unemployment rates (and unemployment rates in general), as there is variation in the definitions of unemployment across countries. Still, based on the existing data for 10 countries²⁸ in the region, the ratio of male-to-female youth unemployment rates can serve an indicator of gender representation in unemployment, with a ratio of 1 indicating equal representation. Having a gender representation ratio of less than 1 indicates a higher propensity for females than males to be unemployed. A score of greater than 1 indicates a higher propensity for males than females to be unemployed. Table 4 illustrates the distribution of countries on this indicator of gender representation in youth unemployment.

Table 4: Distribution of Countries According to the Ratio of Male to Female Unemployment Rates (15-24 Age Group)

Below 1.0	Equal to 1.0	Above 1.0 but less than 1.3	1.3 or Above
Indonesia*	Malaysia*	Thailand	Hong Kong, China*
Mongolia*			Macau, China
Philippines			Republic of Korea
Singapore			
Viet Nam*			

* Indonesia: Data only available for 2005 = .7

* Mongolia: Data only available for 2000 and 2003, 1.0 and .9 respectively

* Viet Nam: 1.1 in 2000

* Malaysia: Data only available for 2000 = 1.0

* Hong Kong, China: 1.1 for 2000

Data on unemployment by educational attainment that is further disaggregated by gender is available for 9 countries²⁹ in the region (*Appendix VII*). This indicator focuses on unemployment among workers as categorized by their level of educational attainment, and it is the percentage distribution of a country's total unemployed, according to the levels of schooling. When persons with a low education level are at a higher risk of being unemployed, the policy prescription might be to increase education levels or to create more low-skill occupations within a given country. On the other hand, when a higher share of unemployment exists among persons with a higher level of education, this indicates a lack of sufficient professional and high-level jobs.

Unemployment for males and females is highest for those with only a primary level of education in Brunei Darussalam (2003), Indonesia (2001) and Macau, China (2005). In Hong Kong and China (2005), unemployment is highest for males with only a primary level of education, whereas it is highest for females that have a secondary level of education. In the Republic of Korea (2005) and Malaysia (2003), unemployment is highest among those with a secondary education. In the Philippines (2005), unemployment for males is highest at the secondary level whereas for females the highest percentage of those unemployed is at the tertiary level. Singapore is the only country where the highest percentage of unemployed males and females have a tertiary level education. Finally, in Thailand (2005), the highest percentage of unemployed males have only a primary education, whereas the highest percentage of unemployed females have a secondary level education.

Caution is warranted when drawing conclusions based solely on unemployment rate, particularly when studying the linkage between education and unemployment. Research appears to suggest that women with higher levels of education ultimately have better employment opportunities. Nonetheless, it may be that unemployment rates are high because females are being more selective when choosing a job. Perhaps relying upon their male counterpart's income allows them time to secure an appropriate and desirable position. On the other hand, in some countries, such as the Philippines and Thailand for example, data about more females with high levels of education being unemployed may suggest that there are simply fewer higher-level jobs available for females. Additional research is required to adequately discern and capture the nuances of the relationship between educational attainment and unemployment for females. It is likely that this relationship will vary from country to country and even within a country between rural and urban areas, for example.

iv. Self Employment

Due to the limited data available on the informal economy, the analysis of gender differentials among the self-employed is unfortunately beyond the scope of this study but should be considered in future research. It can be noted, nonetheless, that in developing Asia and the Pacific, the gender gap can be significant in terms of differences in income and in women's access to productive resources, credit and business or livelihoods, as compared to men. While their participation in economic activities is growing, young women still take on a disproportionate share of unpaid work, including household responsibilities and childcare.

v. Child Labour

Child labour³⁰ and premature entry into the labour market are major causes of school drop-out and prevent young women and men from making a smooth transition from school to work. Often, when faced with limited resources and many financial demands, parents prefer to invest in the education of their sons and not lose their daughters' vital contribution to the household economy. Their work, such as household chores, domestic servitude, agricultural work and home-based work, is largely hidden and unvalued. Early marriage also encourages this kind of hidden and unvalued work by females in the household. Other clandestine forms of work, including trafficking into labour and commercial sexual exploitation, are not sufficiently captured by available statistics. At the same time, it is important to recognize that the proportion of boys as compared to girls in hazardous work increases with age.

C. Linking Education and Labour Market Outcomes

Perhaps this report's most significant contribution is to highlight the fact that, despite the acknowledgement of the importance of (i) gender parity in education and in the labour market, and (ii) making the link between the education of girls and the subsequent employment outcomes, it is still difficult to make these assessments adequately on the basis of existing data. There is a stringent need to design and implement additional empirical studies that sufficiently capture the nuances of these relationships.

As such, the latter data and accompanying analysis address only partial aspects of the initial question raised in this report: how does parity in education, or lack thereof, translate into labour market outcomes for women? The latter data on education suggests that women in the region are making headway in achieving parity in education. Beyond parity, are women making progress, and are higher proportions of girls in secondary and tertiary education translating into better employment outcomes for these women?

On the one hand, evidence seems to suggest that when young women stay in education longer, they tend to postpone employment. On the other, female unemployment rates tend to be higher than males', and in some countries, more women are unemployed at higher levels of education, whereas more males are unemployed at lower levels of education. This could suggest one of two possibilities: first, there are fewer professional/technical jobs available for women; or second, women with higher levels of education tend to be more selective in their job search. Which of these two possibilities reflects reality needs to be assessed on a case-by-case basis, as with the country studies in the Part III.

There are a number of indices cited above that assess gender parity in education and in employment/unemployment. On the basis of these indices, there are times when there is parity between men and women, and there are times when one or the other fares better. This perhaps leads to the question of whether a disadvantage for males necessarily implies an advantage for females. This seemingly simple question does not have a simple answer. One argument suggests that educational systems and the labour market have a certain capacity to set males and females in competition for the same seat in school or the same job in the labour market. Nonetheless, when it comes to developing countries, this argument is tenuous at best. While there is undoubtedly interaction between wage rates and gender, for example, the observed disparity between females and males in most developing countries is often more a result of engendered bias and stereotyping than the simple notion that a disadvantage for males implies an advantage for females. Indeed, based on the limited information available, men and women tend to opt for different subjects in higher education and in technical and vocational education and training programmes. Additionally females and males tend to be employed in different professions. It is therefore imperative to note that a lack of parity, even when it points to an advantage for females, is undesirable. In fact, the lower gross enrolment rates of boys for some countries in the region are a matter of concern.

It is important to capitalize on the dynamism of the East Asia and Pacific region in order to create more and better jobs for females and males. Emphasis should not only be placed on achieving parity in education but also on overcoming any economic, social and political barriers that may prevent females from finding work that allows them to make use of their education and skills – implying both supply and demand side measures. On the supply side, females should not be limited to certain subject areas in their training and education by any constraint other than their own choice, while on the demand side, more emphasis should be placed on creating jobs, particularly those of the calibre that allow women to make the most of their education and skills.

Endnotes

- 1 Herz, B. and G.B. Sperling (2004) *What Works in Girls' Education*. New York: Council on Foreign Relations.
- 2 Dollar, D. and R. Gatti (1999) *Gender Inequality, Income, and Growth: Are Good Times Good for Women?* World Bank Policy Research Report on Gender and Development, Working Paper Series No. 1. Washington, D.C.: World Bank.
- 3 Unless otherwise specified, the data for this section comes from: <http://www.worldbank.org/education/edstats>, downloaded March 26, 2008. Based on data from the UNESCO Institute of Statistics. See Appendix I for the classification of countries according to the World Bank.
- 4 ILO (2007) "Chapter 1: Table A1 – Indicators for Measuring Progress Towards Full and Productive Employment and Decent Work for All" In *Key Indicators of the Labour Market: 5th Edition*. Geneva: ILO.
- 5 The World Bank Group (2007) <http://ddpext.worldbank.org/ext/GMIS/gdmis.do?siteId=2&goalId=6&targetId=17&menuId=LNAV01GOAL2SUB1>
- 6 UNESCO (1997) *International Standard Classification of Education 1997*. Paris: UNESCO.
- 7 UNEVOC and UIS (2006) *Participation in Formal Technical and Vocational Education and Training Programmes Worldwide: An Initial Statistical Study*. Montreal: UNESCO. See *Appendix III* for a more detailed description.
- 8 <http://www.worldbank.org/education/edstats> Based on data from the UNESCO Institute of Statistics. The gross enrolment rate for primary education is the number of pupils (total, male, female) enrolled in primary, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population (total, male, female) in the theoretical age group for primary education. The same definition applies to the gross enrolment rates for secondary and tertiary education. See *Appendix I* for the classification of countries according to the World Bank.
- 9 Figures 2, 3 and 4 are based on the GPI scores of countries in the region for the most recent year between 2001 and 2005 for which data is available. Countries for which the GPI score is older than 2005 are noted with a '*'.
- 10 Dewan, S. and P. Peek, *Beyond the Employment/Unemployment Dichotomy: Measuring the Quality of Employment in Low Income Countries*. Geneva: ILO.
- 11 UNESCO and ILO (2002) *Technical and Vocational Education for the 21st Century: UNESCO and ILO Recommendations*. Paris/Geneva: UNESCO/ILO (p. 1).
- 12 Ibid UNESCO and ILO (2002)
- 13 Various definitions of what constitutes non-formal versus informal education and learning exist. For a deeper discussion of this issue, see 'Table 1: An overview of different conceptions of "formal", "non-formal" and "informal" as applied to education and learning' in UNEVOC and UIS (2006) *Participation in Formal Technical and Vocational Education and Training Programmes Worldwide: An Initial Statistical Study*. Montreal: UNESCO.
- 14 Ibid UNEVOC and UIS (2006)
- 15 UNEVOC and UIS (2006) *Participation in Formal Technical and Vocational Education and Training Programmes Worldwide: An Initial Statistical Study*. Montreal: UNESCO.
- 16 Ibid UNEVOC and UIS (2006)
- 17 Unless otherwise specified, the data for this section comes from ILO (2007) *Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 5th Edition*. Geneva: ILO; note that 2006 estimates are preliminary.
- 18 Kucera D. and A. Chataigner (2006) *Labour Developments in Dynamic Asia: What do the Data Show?* Geneva: ILO.
- 19 ILO (2007) *Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 5th Edition*. Geneva: ILO.

- 20 Unpaid family workers are those who work without pay in an economic enterprise operated by a related person living in the same household; however, in the case of a young person, the 'living in the same household' condition may be disregarded. The 'persons engaged in non market production' refers to those persons that are engaged in the production of goods and services for own and household consumption, but unlike unpaid family workers, they do not participate in the activities of an economic enterprise. For more detail, see Hussmanns, Ralf, F. Mehran and V. Verma. 1990. *Surveys of Economically Active Population, Employment, Unemployment and Underemployment: An ILO Manual on Concepts and Methods*. Geneva: ILO.
- 21 Hussmanns, Ralf, F. Mehran and V. Verma. 1990. *Surveys of Economically Active Population, Employment, Unemployment and Underemployment: An ILO Manual on Concepts and Methods*. Geneva: ILO.
- 22 However, GPI is the ratio of female-to-male values of a given indicator, so the interpretation of employment rate tables and GPI would be opposite. A GPI of above 1 indicates a disparity to the disadvantage of boys, while a GPI of below 1 indicates a disparity to the disadvantage of girls.
- 23 While these indicators are similar in function, the ratios are calculated in reverse: GPI in education is a female to male ratio, while in employment it is a male to female ratio. The reader should note the appropriate interpretation, as outlined in the text.
- 24 Counting Hong Kong, China; Macau, China; and Taiwan, China separately
- 25 The youth employment-to-population rate is the proportion of the youth population (persons aged 15-24 years) that is employed.
- 26 Dewan S. and P. Peek (2007) *Beyond the Employment/Unemployment Dichotomy: Measuring the Quality of Employment in Low Income Countries*. Geneva: ILO
- 27 ILO (2007) *Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 5th Edition*. Geneva: ILO.
- 28 Counting Hong Kong, China and Macau, China separately
- 29 Counting Hong Kong, China and Macau, China separately
- 30 Child labour is performed under the minimum working age and is likely to impede the child's education and full development. The worst forms of child labour covers children up to 18 years of age and includes hazardous labour (domestic work of girls can be considered WFCL if conditions are hazardous, involve trafficking or physical/sexual abuse) and the unconditional WFCL (slavery, debt bondage and other forms of forced labour, forced recruitment of children for use in armed conflict, prostitution and pornography, and illicit activities). Child labour does not include light work which does not affect children's health and personal development or interfere with their schooling. See <http://www.ilo.org/ipeclang—en/index.htm> and UNICEF/UNESCO, *Girls Out of Work and Into School* (Bangkok 2006).





**CASE STUDIES ON INDONESIA,
PHILIPPINES AND VIET NAM**

The previous sections make evident that there is variation both across and within countries in the East Asia and Pacific region with regards to gender parity in education and in the labour market. The political, economic and social climate in a given country influences both gender parity and the extent to which education translates into more and better employment opportunities for female youth. It is therefore necessary to examine the differences in experiences between females and males during the school-to-work transition on a case-by-case basis. The information presented in the following case studies is based on country-level data as well as anecdotal evidence gathered from country reports. The tables and figures in this section will follow the format presented in Part II (but will be country-specific, as well), but the information will be additionally disaggregated by rural/urban when possible and appropriate.

Examining the school-to-work transition on a country-by-country basis also sheds light on the fact that, while the conditions that challenge and constrain young girls in their transition may vary, it is possible to discern similarities across countries in the constraints and challenges themselves. As such, much can be learned from studying the 'best practices' that countries employ to further gender parity in education and labour market and to ease the school-to-work transition of young females in their respective countries.

A. Indonesia

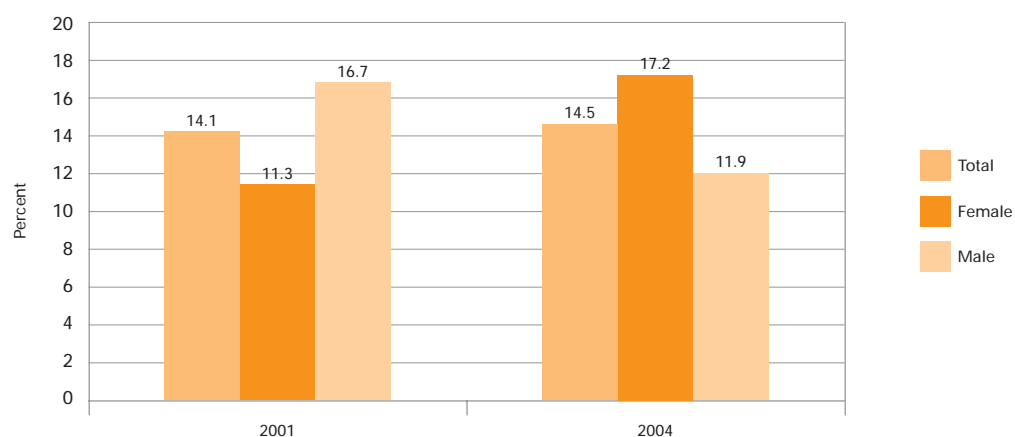
Towards gender equality: steady progress, but gaps remain

With a population of approximately 226 million – half of which are women – Indonesia is the fourth most populous country in the world.¹ In 2005, Indonesia ranked 93rd according to the Gender Development Index (GDI)² – a composite index similar to the Human Development Index (HDI). GDI measures average achievement in terms of three basic aspects of human development – namely a long and healthy life, knowledge, and a decent standard of living – but adjusts its measurements to reflect inequalities between males and females. Indonesia's rank changed on the HDI (recalculated for the 157 countries for which there is a GDI value) from 94 to 93, indicating a positive shift in 'development' after accounting for gender inequality.³ The GDI does not, however, provide a complete picture of the position of women in a given society because it excludes certain aspects of that position, such as mobility in public spheres and decision-making power, as well as intra-household inequalities.⁴ As such, the GDI may be seen as accounting for differences in gender parity, i.e. numbers and proportions, but not in terms of gender equality applied to a broader context.

With regards to gender parity in education, Indonesia is on its way towards meeting the targets set forth by MDG 3, target 4. Indonesian girls are almost at par with boys in terms of the gross enrolment in primary and secondary education (GPI of .96 and .99, respectively). Although girls' share of enrolment in tertiary education was 44 per cent in 2005, the female gross enrolment rate in tertiary education increased from 12.5 per cent in 2001 to 15 per cent in 2005.⁵ The literacy rate among those females aged between ages 15-24 stood at 98.5 per cent in 2005.⁶ There has hence been a gradual decrease in the gender gap in educational achievement in Indonesia over the past decades, and this trend is further confirmed in the population census and the labour force survey of 2002.⁷

Despite progress, however, high drop-out rates, particularly among females, are a matter of concern. Between 2001 and 2004, the male drop-out rate at the primary level of education in Indonesia dropped from 16.7 per cent to 11.9 per cent, while the drop-out rate for females increased from 11.3 to 17.2 per cent.

Figure 6: Indonesia: Drop-out Rates (%) at the Primary Level



Source: <http://www.worldbank.org/education/edstats> Based on data from the UNESCO Institute of Statistics.

The impact of early marriage

One factor potentially contributing to the female drop-out rate at the primary and secondary levels of education is early marriage. Traditional arranged marriages ensure that a girl is married young in order to guarantee her virginity on the wedding day. These marriages are also an opportunity to establish family alliances; earn a bride price; reduce a family's burden, with one less mouth to feed; and add a set of hands to the new family's workforce.⁸ In light of today's gradually changing norms in Indonesia, it is not likely that girls of primary school age get married and pregnant. Still, it is plausible that the high drop-out rate for females at the primary level suggests that they (most likely encouraged by their families) are preparing to do so. In 2002, almost 15 per cent of females in rural areas and almost 10 per cent of those in urban areas were below the age of 15 at the time of their first marriage.⁹ The implications of early marriage are manifold, such as a higher incidence of maternal mortality. Also, schools customarily prohibit girls who are married and those who are pregnant from continuing their education,¹⁰ which hinders the future economic opportunities available to them. The age of first marriage has been increasing in both rural and urban areas in Indonesia over the last couple of decades. The legal age of marriage per the Marriage Law 1/1974 is 21 years, although with parental consent it is possible to marry at a younger age with the female being at least 16 years old.¹¹ Exceptions are also made to accommodate the practices prescribed by different religions.¹²

Quality and relevance of the curriculum

In addition to the problem of child labour, the quality of education is an additional culprit in the high drop-out rates. An ILO report on the school-to-work transition in Indonesia confirms that many students drop out of the education system because they are dissatisfied with the curriculum and do not feel that the skills they are acquiring match the needs of the labour market.¹³ Parents and children's lack of faith in the education system also contributes to the problem of premature entry into the labour force. Entering the labour market with a low level of education has specific implications for females in terms of low quality jobs and recurrent unemployment. The problem of poor quality in education is further exasperated by decentralization. Indonesia consists of 17,000 different islands and 300 local language groups, creating a heterogeneity that propelled the government to decentralize several of its responsibilities. Responsibilities related to education are among those transferred to district level governments. This, however, raises concerns over whether regional establishments have the resources and capacity for the provision of quality education and to stem the drop-out rates.¹⁴ While decentralization offers opportunities for improved service delivery and participation that caters to local needs, these are only possible with a clear delineation of the roles of the central and local governments and with the establishment of minimum nation-wide standards.¹⁵ It is imperative that efforts be made to stem drop-out rates since entering the labour force at an early age with only a low level of education rarely pays-off in terms of acquiring 'decent work';¹⁶ many simply end up in the informal economy or are forced to deal with recurrent unemployment, something particularly true for young women.¹⁷

Technical and vocational education: a male world

Technical and vocational enrolment constitutes almost 14 per cent of total secondary enrolment in Indonesia and the percentage of female students enrolled in technical/vocational programmes at the secondary level was 42 per cent in 2005. The GPI for enrolment in technical and vocational programmes as a percentage of upper secondary was .84 in 2005, indicating a lower propensity for women to enrol in such programmes compared to males. Vocational secondary schools or vocational high schools in Indonesia (for example, Sekolah Menengah Kejuruan) generally follow a national competence-based curriculum in which the government provides modules for each subject, although individual schools are at liberty to develop and modify the modules to meet needs. The compulsory subjects fall into three categories: (a) normative, including religious education and Indonesian language; (b) adaptive, including mathematics; and (c) productive, covering programme-specific subjects, such as housekeeping.¹⁸ Although data on the enrolment of males and females within these categories is not available, this could constitute an interesting exercise for the future in order to assess whether there are tendencies in the areas that females and males choose.

Transitioning to the workplace: Persistent gender bias against women

Over the three decades between 1971 and 2000, the youth population in Indonesia expanded from 19-38 million.¹⁹ The inability of the labour market to absorb this expansion fuelled the growth of the informal economy.²⁰ It therefore follows that the labour force participation rate for females aged 15-24 decreased from 43 per cent in 2000 to 40 per cent in 2006.²¹ The female youth employment-to-population ratios also declined from almost 34 per cent in 2000 to almost 26 per cent according to 2006 estimates.²² The male cohort of 15-24 year olds also experienced declines of a similar magnitude in their LFPR and the employment-to-population ratio.²³ Nonetheless, the ratio of male-to-female employment rates for youth in Indonesia is 1.8, indicating a significantly higher propensity for men to be employed than women.

Concomitantly, the female unemployment rate went up from 13 per cent in 2003 to 14 per cent in 2005, while the male unemployment rate remained flat at 8 per cent during the same period.²⁴ The ratio of male-to-female youth unemployment rate was .61 in Indonesia, indicating a significantly higher propensity for females to be unemployed than males. Unemployment is highest among those with only a primary education, and this is true for females and males alike (*Appendix VII*), indicating that a lack of education plays a role in being unemployed. Nevertheless, research indicates that young women who enter the labour market with a low level of education are particularly susceptible to recurrent unemployment as compared to their male counterparts.²⁵

Women in Indonesia find it especially difficult to enter the formal labour market, and when they do, they tend to occupy low-paying and low skilled occupations.²⁶ The school-to-work transition survey findings from Indonesia clearly show that engendered perceptions of appropriate gender roles and of the division of responsibilities between men and women continue to influence the position and opportunities available to young women in the workforce.²⁷ Such perceptions appear to be strong even among youth.²⁸ In practice, opportunities to plan a career are severely limited when young women are expected to quit their work after marriage or after the birth of their first child. Historic gender biases in the community and at home fuel the view that 'domestic work' is 'women's work', and as such, female domestic child labour is a pressing concern in Indonesia.²⁹ When engaged in manufacturing activities, women are overrepresented in the textile, garment and footwear industries – all lower value-added activities.³⁰ Though when asked their preferences, women favoured public sector employment,³¹ they are underrepresented in the civil service.³² The approximately 1.9 million women that are in the civil service tend to be employed as teachers and nurses, again pointing to the traditional stereotyping of women as caregivers and caretakers.³³ Furthermore, the informalization of the labour market in Indonesia attracts an increasing number of females, particularly those of lower education, that tend to find it difficult to penetrate the formal labour market.

In 2005, the estimated earned income (PPP US\$) for females was \$2,410, whereas for males it was estimated to be \$5,280.³⁴ Furthermore, in accordance with the challenges women face, only low percentages of them make it into high managerial or political positions. The percentage of women in managerial positions was 17 per cent in 2002.³⁵ With regards to the representation of women in politics in Indonesia, of those in government at the ministerial level, women constitute almost 11 per cent. The percentage of seats in the lower house or single house held by women decreased slightly from 12 per cent in 1990 to 11 per cent in 2007.

It is therefore evident that while Indonesia is making gains in gender parity in education, these gains are not yet translating into better labour market outcomes for young women. Gender discrimination is prevalent from the homes to the labour market in recruitment process, in access to enterprise-based training and promotion, and in the low level of wages that women earn as compared to men.³⁶ Young women already face serious disadvantages at the onset of their transition to the workforce. These disadvantages must be overcome if women are to gain parity and broader equality in Indonesia.

B. Philippines

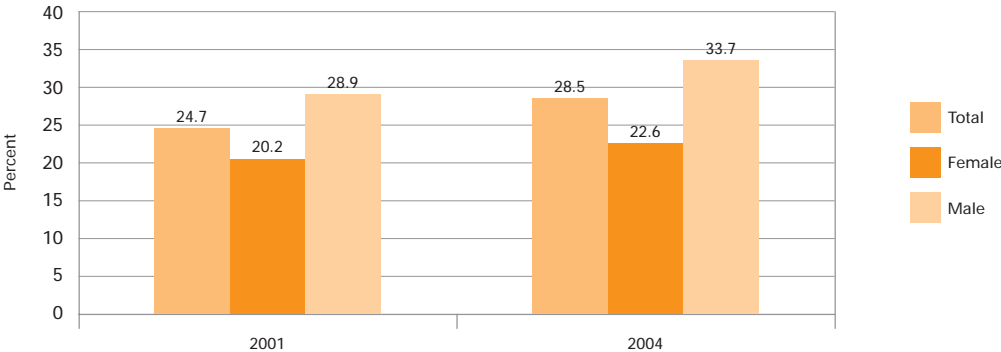
Moving forward with gender mainstreaming

With a population of over 84 million in 2005, of which almost 42 million are females,³⁷ the Philippines is the 13th most populous country in the world.³⁸ Since the introduction of its 1987 Constitution, in which the Philippine government affirmed that women are equal with men, there have been significant efforts both to mainstream gender in government policies and programmes in order to capitalize on the productive potential of women and to address concerns related to gender in order to make development more responsive.³⁹ The National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women drafted a Framework Plan for Women highlighting three priority areas to meet gender equality and women’s empowerment objectives: the economic empowerment of women; protection and fulfilling of the human rights of women; and gender responsive governance.⁴⁰ In 2005, the country ranked 76th according to the GDI.⁴¹ In accordance with the government’s efforts, the difference between the HDI (recalculated for the 157 countries for which there is a GDI value) and GDI in 2005 was 4, indicating that the Philippines improved its rank by 4 when adjusted for gender inequalities. Nonetheless, as cautioned earlier, the GDI cannot be taken as an absolute indicator of gender parity.

Gender gap in education for boys

At the national level, the Philippines appears to be well on its way to achieving the targets set forth by the MDGs in terms of universal primary education and gender parity.⁴² With a score of .99 on the GPI, Filipino girls are almost at par with boys in terms of the gross enrolment in primary education. They do, however, exceed males in enrolment in secondary and tertiary education. A GPI of 1.1 in secondary education and 1.2 in tertiary education points to a slightly higher propensity for females to be enrolled in secondary and tertiary education than males.⁴³ In 2005, the female youth literacy rate as a share of those aged 15-24 years was 96.6 per cent.⁴⁴

Figure 7: Philippines: Drop-out Rates (%) at the Primary Level



Source: <http://www.worldbank.org/education/edstats> Based on data from the UNESCO Institute of Statistics.

The primary drop-out rates in the Philippines are high and have risen even more between 2001 and 2005. Unlike in Indonesia, however, the female primary drop-out rate in the Philippines is not higher than that of males. On the contrary, at almost 29 per cent in 2001 and almost 34 per cent in 2004, not only was the male drop-out rate higher than that of females, but the increase in the drop-out rate of males was almost 5 percentage points, while that of females was just under a 3 percentage point increase.

Filipino women tend to marry at a later age as compared with women from other Southeast Asian countries. The postponing of the age at which marriage occurs appears to support an acceptance of education as an important source of self-worth and agency for women prior to starting a family.⁴⁵ On the other hand, within the confines of tradition, males are expected to lend a helping hand in raising family income as soon as they are able. This is a possible explanation for why the drop-out rates of females are lower than those of Filipino males. Still, women's progress once they are married is frequently marred by their inability to control and decide freely matters related to their fertility and the low prevalence of contraceptives.⁴⁶ The Philippines not only has one of the highest population growth rates in Southeast Asia but also the second highest number of total annual births (1995-2000).⁴⁷ As such, women are not only subject to health risks pertaining to pregnancy, but their opportunities to participate in the labour market are also adversely effected.⁴⁸ This role of nurturer into which women are cast becomes an important factor in the professional choices that females make, either of their own accord or as a result of societal influence.

“Feminine” and “masculine” fields of training

Data on TVET in the Philippines is particularly hard to come by. Enrolment in post secondary non-tertiary (ISCED 4) is estimated to be 28,891, and the GPI score based on the vocational gross enrolment ratio is .88, indicating a lower propensity for females to be enrolled in TVET programmes than males.⁴⁹ A study mapping the youth labour market and available training opportunities for those in the 15-17 age bracket in the Philippines found that there are several technical and vocational training programmes available to youth in the country.⁵⁰ The top five most frequently provided trainings across the provinces are: (i) food processing technology (e.g. meat processing, baking); (ii) information-computer technology (e.g. basic computer, computer maintenance and servicing); (iii) handicrafts (e.g. bamboo craft); (iv) automotive (e.g. motor control, auto/gas/diesel machine repair); and (v) garment making (e.g. dressmaking, high-speed sewing).⁵¹ There is also a clear differential pattern in the types of TVET programmes males opt for and those that females opt for, pointing to the socially ascribed gender roles to which both women and men are subject in the Philippines. Automotive training, welding, training pertaining to livestock, electrical technology, civil technology, electronics, refrigeration and air-conditioning courses were primarily offered to and attended by males. Conversely, courses such as garment making, food processing technology, personal wellness, embroidery and cosmetology were solely given to and attended by females.⁵²

Higher education, lower pay

The LFPR of females aged 15 to 25 increased from 38 per cent in 2000 to 42 per cent in 2006.⁵³ Similarly, the female youth employment-to-population ratio also increased from 29 per cent in 2000 to 34 per cent in 2006.⁵⁴ As in Indonesia, the male cohort also saw increases in their LFPR and employment rates during this period.⁵⁵ Nonetheless, the ratio of male-to-female employment rates for youth in the Philippines based on the 2006 estimates is 1.6, indicating a significantly higher propensity for men to be employed than women. This corroborates with the earlier finding that females are often expected to tend to their young, but the postponing of the age at which the first marriage takes place is perhaps enabling more and more women to enter the labour force.

In 2005, 50 per cent of the employed females above the age of 15 were wage and salaried workers, 32 per cent were self-employed and 19 per cent were contributing family workers; the corresponding figures for males aged over 15 were 51 per cent, 40 per cent and 9 per cent, respectively.⁵⁶ ‘Contributing family workers’ refers to those who work without pay in an economic enterprise operated by a related person living in the same household; however, in the case of a young person, the ‘living in the same household’ condition may be disregarded.⁵⁷ A significantly larger share of males is self-employed, while as expected, a significantly larger share of females is contributing family workers.

In 2005, the differences in the sectors in which Filipino females and males were employed were large. Employment in services constitutes the biggest share of female employment (64 per cent) followed by agriculture (25 per cent) and industry (12 per cent).⁵⁸ For males, on the other hand, the biggest share of employment is in agriculture (45 per cent), followed by services (39 per cent) and industry (17 per cent).⁵⁹ The difference of 25 percentage points between female and male employment in the services sector is particularly noteworthy.

The increase in the LFPR and employment rate of females along with the high share of female employment in services may partly be attributed to the government's more open trade policy and to the associated rise of the service industry in which female employment has traditionally been significant in the Philippines.⁶⁰ Commonly, female employment appeared to be an extension of their social reproduction functions at home, meaning that they were more predisposed to employment in nurturing functions, such as in private households as housekeepers, in education and in health and social work.⁹³ Additionally, a competitive advantage in cheap labour has led developing countries like the Philippines to specialize in low value added, labour intensive activities that do not have significant educational requirements nor capitalize on the education that one might already have. As such, trade liberalization in the Philippines has led to the feminization of certain industries, such as the garment and electronics industries. Nevertheless, in the electronics sector, female workers are primarily hired as production operators, while technicians and engineers almost always tend to be male.⁹⁴ Although there is variation in the types of jobs that fall within the rubric of the services sector, the latter evidence seems to suggest that females tend to be somewhat constrained to the low-value added, labour intensive and therefore lower paying positions, as compared to males. This is corroborated by the difference in the estimated earned income (PPP US\$) of Filipino females, which in 2005 was \$3,883, and that of Filipino males, which was estimated to be \$6,375.⁹⁵

The female youth unemployment rate in the Philippines dropped from 24 per cent in 2000 to 19 per cent in 2005; while the decrease for men was 5 percentage points from 20 per cent in 2000 to 15 per cent in 2005.⁶⁴ The ratio of the male-to-female youth unemployment rate was .79, indicating a higher propensity for females to be unemployed than males. Of the unemployed females, 44 per cent had a tertiary education, indicating pointing that a lack of education is not the likely barrier in finding employment for females. Instead, since girls are often confined to particular jobs in the labour market that are deemed to be appropriate for females, the range of opportunities available to them are fewer, and an increasing number of young women leave the country in search of work abroad.⁶⁵

Leadership positions for women: some progress

Although there is a ways to go, Filipino females are gradually making progress in terms of occupying more empowering professions. Indeed, the government's efforts, along with girls' education, are yielding results. Between 1999 and 2005, 58 per cent of legislators, senior officials and managers were female.⁶⁶ Additionally, 61 per cent of professional and technical workers were female, although most likely in particular areas, such as health, social work and education.⁶⁷ In 2005, women constituted 25 per cent of government ministerial level positions.⁶⁸ The percentage of seats in the lower or single house held by women increased from 9 per cent in 1990 to almost 23 per cent in 2007.⁶⁹ Furthermore, the percentage of seats in the upper house or senate held by women in 2007 was 18 per cent.⁷⁰ These numbers indicate that females in the Philippines are gradually overcoming social barriers to occupy increasingly better positions in the labour market for which education is imperative. Yet, the predominant reality is that when females do enter the labour market, they are often cast into particular professions that reinforce the social perception of females as nurturers or they are limited to professions that do not make sufficient use of their education and skills. The challenge in the Philippines, moving forward, is to open a wider range of employment possibilities and opportunities for upward mobility that are available for Filipino women.

C. Viet Nam

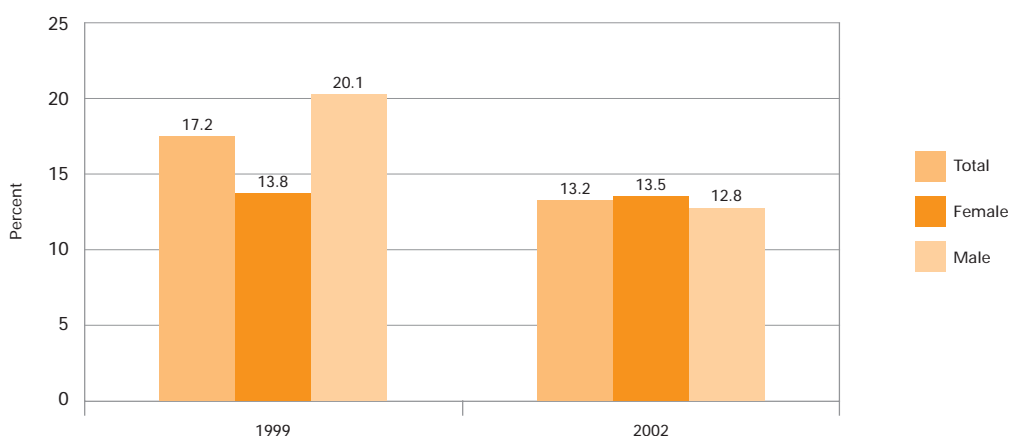
Closing the gender gap

With its population of 85 million – of which half are women – Viet Nam stands out within East Asia for its success in reducing gender disparities over the last 20 years. Facilitated by its growing economy, Viet Nam has managed to close gender gaps in areas such as education, healthcare and certain aspects of employment.⁷¹ The National Committee for the Advancement of Women is the government structure responsible for promoting gender equality; the Viet Nam Women's Union is also an active player to this end.⁷² In 2005, the country ranked 90th according to the Gender Development Index.⁷³ The difference between the HDI (recalculated for the 157 countries for which there is a GDI value) and GDI was 3, indicating that Viet Nam improved its rank when adjusted for gender inequalities by 3. Nevertheless, while much progress has been made, young women in Viet Nam continue to face challenges in the form of discrimination against ethnic minorities and gender stereotypes that ultimately lead to uneven employment outcomes between females and males.

Females and ethnic minorities still disadvantaged in education

The government of Viet Nam maintains education as a critical priority and an area for investment. Spending on education in the country is fairly high relative to the country's income, with 17 per cent spent in 2002 and 18 per cent in 2005.⁷⁴ This is at par with the amount spent in more developed countries,⁷⁵ but females have not yet achieved parity in all educational spheres. In 2005, Viet Nam scored .94 on the Gender Parity Index for gross enrolment in primary education, indicating that females have a lower propensity to be enrolled than males.⁷⁶ The country is fairly close to achieving parity in secondary enrolment as is reflected in its GPI of .97.⁷⁷ In terms of gross enrolment in tertiary education, however, Viet Nam has a score of .71, indicating that females have a significantly lower propensity to be enrolled in tertiary education than males. Therefore, significant work is needed to address this issue. Providing equal access to quality education for girls belonging to ethnic minorities in Viet Nam has proven to be a specific challenge and may account for the lack of parity in primary education. In terms of the social hierarchy and the associated access to services such as education, girls belonging to ethnic minorities not only lag behind ethnic minority men but also behind Kinh and Chinese women.⁷⁸

Figure 8: Viet Nam: Drop-out Rates (%) at the Primary Level



Source: <http://www.worldbank.org/education/edstats> Based on data from the UNESCO Institute of Statistics.

Due to the lack of data disaggregated by gender for the years 2001 and 2004, the change in drop-out rates for Viet Nam is examined for the years 1999 in comparison with 2002. Figure 8 reflects a 4 percentage point decline in total drop-out rates at the primary level from 17 per cent in 1999 to 13 per cent in 2002. While the female drop-out rate remained almost the same, the male drop-out rate declined significantly from 20 per cent in 1999 to 12.8 per cent in 2002 – a level lower than that of females. This may suggest that the government's efforts to promote education are yielding high paying offs in terms of stemming the drop-out rates among male children in primary school but are perhaps less successful among females. It is possible that additional programmes specifically aimed at minority females are needed.

Unlike in Indonesia and the Philippines, early marriage and bearing children are not the likely culprits for the female drop-out rates and a lack of gender parity at the primary and tertiary levels of education in Viet Nam. The mean age of first marriage for Vietnamese girls has been increasing in the last years and in 2005 was reported to be 23.1 years.⁷⁹ Additionally, Viet Nam has a two-child policy. More likely explanations are the high percentage of females that are involved in agricultural work; as such, girls are expected to contribute to family income from a young age making them vulnerable to child labour, leading to child labour as well as the rural-to-urban migration that has arisen because of increasing employment opportunities in manufacturing and domestic work.

Gaining skills for work: Women at a disadvantage

Technical and vocational education and training constitutes 5 per cent of total secondary enrolment in Viet Nam. The percentage of female students enrolled in technical and vocational programmes at the secondary level increased from 51 per cent in 2000 to 55 per cent in 2005. Taking the ratio between the female and male enrolment rates in technical and vocational programmes, we obtain a score of 1.15, indicating that, along with China and Papua New Guinea, Viet Nam is one of the few countries in which females have a slightly higher propensity to be enrolled in such programmes than males. It is, however, important to emphasize that these figures only pertain to public TVET programmes that constitute only 5 per cent of the total secondary enrolment. A number of studies that take informal and private forms of training into account, not just the publicly provided opportunities, actually indicate that women in Viet Nam are at a disadvantage when it comes to skills acquisition, and this limits their employment possibilities.⁸⁰

Low-skilled work for low pay

Viet Nam has one of the highest LFPRs for both men and women in the region. The labour force participation rate of female youth, however, declined from 74 per cent in 2000 to 71 per cent in 2006, and the male youth LFPR also declined from 71 per cent to 67 per cent in 2006. These declines in the youth LFPR suggest that more children and youth are availing themselves of the educational opportunities available to them.⁸¹ The fact that the female youth LFPR was higher than that of their male counterpart in 2006 corroborates with the earlier finding that Vietnamese females have yet to achieve parity in both primary and tertiary education. They appear to leave education in order to enter the workforce.

The employment rate for females aged 15-24 also declined from 71 per cent in 2000 to 68 per cent in 2006, but in 2006 it was again higher than that of males (65 per cent).⁸² As such, taking the ratio of male and female youth employment rates in 2006 gives us a value of .96 indicating that Vietnamese females are slightly more likely to be employed than males.⁸³ With regards to status in employment, in 2004, 47 per cent of women were contributing family workers, followed by 32 per cent that were self-employed and 21 per cent that were wage and salaried workers. In 2004 the share of agriculture in female employment was 60 per cent followed by 26 per cent in services and 14 per cent in industry. The corresponding data for males was 56 per cent in agriculture, 23 per cent in services and 21 per cent in industry.⁸⁴ As such, the slightly higher propensity of females to be employed as compared to males in 2006 may be attributed to the fact women's work as contributing family workers is accounted for as well as the fact that more women are employed in agriculture. In Viet Nam, agricultural production depends more and more on the labour of women.⁸⁵ In rural areas, 62 per cent of women work in agriculture and 87 per cent of ethnic women work in agriculture.⁸⁶

In light of Vietnam's shift towards a more open market economy, the nature of the labour market has also changed. Although agriculture is still a major force in the economy, recent years have seen a shift towards manufacturing and a concomitant demand for labour in non-farm employment.⁸⁷ This has also contributed to the greater labour mobility from rural to urban areas, and especially to that of women in search of higher paying opportunities in urban areas.⁸⁸ The reality however, is that women frequently find themselves over-represented in low-skilled occupations along the production line with poor pay, and in the informal sector.⁸⁹ Those unable to find manufacturing work, seek work as domestic workers, or are subject to unemployment. The youth unemployment rate for females remained 5 per cent in 2000 and 2004, but it declined by 1 percentage point from 5 to 4 during this period for males.⁹⁰ The ratio of the male to female unemployment rate in 2004 was .8 indicating a slightly higher propensity for Vietnamese females to be unemployed than males.

Given these patterns with women overrepresented in low-skilled occupations, it is not surprising that the estimated earned income (PPP US\$) for Vietnamese females in 2005 was \$2,540, whereas for males, it was estimated to be \$3,604.⁹¹ This gap, however, is smaller than that found in some of the other countries in the region, suggesting that government policies have thus far helped close the gap in the estimated earned income of females and males.⁹² Additionally, between 1999 and 2005, 22 per cent of legislators, senior officials and managers were female. Between 1994 and 2005, 51 per cent of professional and technical workers were female. In 2005, females occupied 12 per cent of government ministerial level positions. The percentage of seats in the lower or single house held by women increased from 18 per cent in 1990 to almost 26 per cent in 2007.⁹³ These figures provide further evidence of the government's efforts.

Multiple levels of discrimination in the workplace

Yet, while progress has been made it is critical to acknowledge that benefits do not always make their way to all segments of the population. Factors such as ethnicity and differences between rural and urban areas still contribute to gender differences. Vietnamese girls leave agricultural work in search of better employment opportunities in urban areas, only to find themselves subject to social norms and perceptions that confine them to low-skill and low paying occupations, including hazardous work. The ability of girls to compete equally with men in the private sector is limited by open discrimination in recruitment and in many girls' lower education and skill.⁹⁴ Measures must be undertaken to ensure that policies are designed and effectively implemented to avoid such discrimination.

Endnotes

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CHALLENGES AND RECOMMENDATIONS



A. Outlining the Challenges

There is consensus within development circles today that “public policies and investments that promote the development of women have economic payoffs in terms of higher economic growth rates, improved productivity, reduced health and welfare costs, lower fertility, reduced infant and maternal mortality and increased life expectancy.”¹ Education and vocational and technical training are such investments that can, among other things, lead to better labour market outcomes for women. Nonetheless, this report confirms that the intuitive linkage between education and better labour market outcomes for women does not always play out in reality because of multiple cultural and social factors, such as girls/women in some developing countries still being susceptible to social constraints that cast them into the more traditional roles of homemaker, wife, mother and nurturer, roles that can limit their possibilities in terms of professional occupations and opportunities for upward mobility in the labour market.

The East Asia and Pacific region as a whole appears to be on track with achieving universal primary education by 2015, although there is variation at the national and sub-national levels. In terms of gender parity in gross enrolment rates, women in the region tend to fare better in secondary and tertiary education. High drop-out rates at the primary level are a problem in some countries and are closely linked with problematic issues such as child labour, early marriage and pregnancy. The school-to-work transition is very important for young women and men. How easily and effectively they make that leap depends on how well prepared they are for the labour market. If nothing is done, child labourers can become youth with poor employment prospects who cannot lift their families out of a poverty trap, cannot be parents who give their children a better life, and cannot effectively contribute to national development.²

Although parity in education and more education do not always appear to translate into more and better employment opportunities for women, it is imperative to recognize two points. First, education is one of many factors that influence the employment outcomes of women. Socio-economic status, whether one belongs to a minority group, whether one’s residence is in a rural or urban area, and whether one enters the labour market during times of economic prosperity or crisis are also factors that influence the transition and employment experience of girls. Second, investing in the education of girls delivers high returns on many levels, “not only for female educational attainment, but also for maternal and children’s health, more sustainable families, women’s empowerment, democracy, income growth and productivity.”³ More and better education is arguably the strongest means of altering engendered social attitudes that hold women back and for making the shift from parity to progress in the long run.

If employment – or lack of it – in the formal sector for women is not marred by a dearth of education, then it is often marred by engendered discrimination which is apparent in the differentials between the estimated earned income of males and females in countries such as Indonesia, the Philippines and Viet Nam. Furthermore, women tend to be typecast into certain professional roles, such as teachers and caregivers, that limit their possibilities in the labour market. All three of the case studies examined in this report struggle with the issue of female domestic labour, for example. In the Philippines, there are not enough jobs to accommodate the young female population, so young women increasingly seek opportunities in other countries.

¹ Asian Development Bank (1998) *Gender and Development*. Manila: ADB

² U. Sarkar. 2008. *The Youth Employment Challenge in Asia and the Pacific: Asian Decent Work Decade Resource Kit* Bangkok: ILO.

³ Herz, B. and G.B. Sperling (2004) *What Works in Girls’ Education*. New York: Council on Foreign Relations (p.1).

While globalization, with trade liberalization as one of its key instruments, and the concomitant churning have created new opportunities for women, such as in the service sector or certain industrial sectors, women run the risk of being stuck in low value added and labour intensive positions, while men assume positions higher up on along the value chain. All of these challenges are posed by engendered social attitudes that constrain the professional progress of women. A study examining the determinants of gender inequalities influencing the economic participation of women in developing countries finds that social institutions are the most important factor bearing upon women's participation in economic activities outside the household: "If custom forbids outside work for women, the enrolment rate of girls in primary schools can double without entailing an increase in female participation in the labour market. If custom goes against accepting that women can be in a position to exercise authority, the enrolment rate in universities can double without increasing the number of women managers."⁴ Therefore, in addition to striving to achieve parity in education, improving labour market outcomes for women also requires transforming deep-seated social norms that constrain women.

This report explores regional and national-level disparities between females and males in education and in the labour market. Nonetheless, sub-national level disparities such as differences between rural and urban areas and the status of ethnic minorities and migrants exist and are critical in addressing the overall status of females in a given society.

This leads to another critical challenge: the coordination and collection of quality data and studies appropriately disaggregated to address the latter concerns so as to craft appropriate policy interventions.

B. Recommendations for Future Action

Strides towards parity must be accompanied by specific steps to institute equality between women and men in all aspects of political, economic and social life.

- Measures should be implemented to change social perceptions through advocacy; eliminating the perpetuation of gender biases in education via textbooks, for example; and legislating and enforcing anti-discrimination laws in the labour market; with regards to wage differentials, for example.
- Continued progress towards gender parity at different levels of education must be paired with efforts to create more and better paid employment opportunities for women and to enhance their access to productive resources.
- Provide educational and career counselling for girls to better match education and skills with labour market demand. Linking education to labour market outcomes is a critical step in the economic empowerment of women.
- Empower females through positive role models in addition to education. Employment opportunities should not be restricted to fields deemed to be appropriate for females by society at large – the only restrictive factor should be individual choice.
- Design and implement specific policies that target the most vulnerable and disadvantaged and address persistent gender inequalities among the poor, minority groups and those residing in rural areas. As child labour is a major cause of school drop-out for girls across Asia and the Pacific, policies and programmes should be implemented to prevent and combat this problem. While girls are vulnerable to child labour, which is largely hidden and unvalued, it is important to recognize that boys are more exposed to work of a hazardous nature than girls and the differences become more pronounced as they get older
- Provide incentives to encourage the participation and hiring of females in high-level positions, including political positions and encourage their involvement in decision-making processes.
- Gender mainstreaming in curriculum and teacher training should include the promotion of norms which support gender equality

⁴ Morrisson C. and J.P. Jutting (2005) "Women's Discrimination in Developing Countries: A New Data Set for Better Policies." In World Development, V. 33, No. 7. Issy-les-Moulineaux: OECD Development Center (p. 1078).

C. Recommendations for Future Research

There is a need for qualitative and quantitative studies to address the following deficiencies in the data and literature:

- There is a serious lack of household-level poverty data disaggregated by sex, which makes it difficult to identify intra-household resource allocation and poverty by household member. Such poverty data at the household level may well unmask the true extent of poverty among women.
- Studies are needed to address the disparities in education and employment, particularly among segments of the population such as migrant children/youth, ethnic minorities and so on.
- There is a need for more data about the occupations that men and women pursue. This could be supplemented by qualitative studies that explore why females and males make the choices they do in terms of education, career and occupations.
- The statistical examination and evaluation of TVET is confronted by several obstacles that should be dealt with in the future:⁵
 - A lack of data on non-formal and informal TVET
 - Ensuring that all forms of TVET, including those provided at various levels of education and by various actors, are all covered by the analysis
 - Distinguishing TVET appropriately from other forms of education
 - Obtaining an accurate count of enrolments, given the part-time or short duration of some of the programmes, meaning there is a risk of double counting
 - Developing appropriate indicators – taking account of the aforementioned challenges – to monitor TVET over time
- Studies are needed to assess the expectations of females and males with regards to overcoming gender stereotypes and achieving parity.
- Research into the self-employed and the differences between young women and men in access to productive resources, credit and business or livelihoods should be done as well.

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Appendix I

Countries included in 'East Asia and the Pacific', according to World Bank EdStats

Low Income
Cambodia
Korea, Democratic People's Republic of
Lao, People's Democratic Republic of
Mongolia
Myanmar
Papua New Guinea
Solomon Islands
Timor-Leste
Viet Nam
Lower Middle Income
China
Fiji
Indonesia
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Micronesia, Federated States of
Philippines
Samoa
Thailand
Tonga
Vanuatu
Upper Middle Income
American Samoa
Malaysia
Northern Mariana Islands
Palau
High Income: OECD
Australia
Japan
Korea, Republic of
New Zealand
High Income: Non-OECD
Brunei Darussalam
French Polynesia
Guam
Hong Kong, China
Macao, China
New Caledonia
Singapore

Appendix II

Countries included in 'East Asia and the Pacific', according to ILO (2007) *Key Indicators of the Labour Market, 5th Edition*

East Asia
China
Hong Kong, China
Korea, People's Democratic Republic of
Korea, Republic of
Macau, China
Taiwan, China
Pacific Islands
American Samoa
Cook Islands
Fiji
French Polynesia
Guam
Kiribati
Marshall Islands
Nauru
New Caledonia
Niue
Northern Mariana Islands
Pacific Islands (Trust Territory)
Papua New Guinea
Samoa
Solomon Islands
Tokelau
Tonga
Tuvalu
Vanuatu
Wallis and Futana Islands
South East Asia
Brunei Darussalam
Cambodia
Indonesia
Lao PDR
Malaysia
Peninsular Malaysia
Myanmar
Philippines
Singapore
Thailand
Timor-Leste
Viet Nam

Appendix III

ISCED Levels Description¹

In an effort to ensure the comparability of education data, UNESCO developed the ISCED 1997 (or The International Standard Classification of Education) as an integrated and consistent framework to govern the collection and reporting of international education statistics. The framework covers those forms of learning that have 'established aims and curricula' and are designed and executed by an 'educational agency'. Programmes are organized based on level and intended destination, and their orientation is characterized as general education, pre-vocational and vocational education.

ISCED levels go from Level 0-6 where, in general:

- Level 0: Pre-primary
- Level 1: Primary
- Level 2: Lower Secondary
- Level 3: Upper Secondary
- Level 4: Post-secondary, Non-tertiary
- Level 5: First Stage Tertiary
- Level 6: Advanced Research Qualifications

Within Levels 2, 3 and 4, there are three additional types of orientations that a programme can have:

- **Type 1 (general)** refers to types of education that do not prepare students for a specific class of occupations or for entry into additional vocational or technical education programmes. Customarily, less than 25 per cent of the programme content is vocational in nature.
- **Type 2 (pre-vocational)** is intended to introduce students to the world of work and to help them prepare for entry into further vocational and technical education programmes. A pre-vocational programme does not directly lead to a formal vocational qualification and should be comprised of at least 25 per cent vocational or technical content.
- **Type 3 (vocational or technical)** refers to education that provides participants with a market-relevant qualification for direct entry into specific occupations.

ISCED classifications for TVET programmes provide a broad framework and cannot be expected to delineate all the complexities of TVET programmes, such as non-formal programmes and apprenticeships. ISCED classifications provide a general basis for classifying formal TVET programmes to facilitate standardization and comparability.

For more information see:

UNEVOC and UIS (2006) *Participation in Formal Technical and Vocational Education and Training Programmes Worldwide: An Initial Statistical Study – Annex C*. Montreal: UNESCO.

UNESCO (1997) *International Standard Classification of Education, 1997*. Paris: UNESCO.

¹ UNEVOC and UIS (2006) *Participation in Formal Technical and Vocational Education and Training Programmes Worldwide: An Initial Statistical Study*. Montreal: UNESCO.

Appendix IV

Gross Enrolment Rates of Females and Males in Primary, Secondary, Upper Secondary and Tertiary Education (%): East Asia and the Pacific

	1996	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Primary							
Female	116	113	113	112	112	113	110
Male	118	114	114	113	113	115	112
Difference	-2	-1	0	-1	-2	-2	-2
Secondary							
Female	61	61	62	65	67	70	72
Male	67	63	64	66	69	70	72
Difference	-6	-2	-2	-2	-2	0	0
Upper Secondary							
Female	...	40	40	41	43	47	51
Male	...	42	41	43	46	47	51
Difference	...	-2	-2	-2	-3	0	0
Tertiary							
Female	7	...	11	13	16	19	20
Male	10	...	15	17	18	21	21
Difference	-3	...	-4	-5	-1	-2	-1

Source: <http://www.worldbank.org/education/edstats> Based on data from the UNESCO Institute of Statistics.

Appendix V

Female and Male gross Enrolment Rates for Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Education by Country (%), East Asia and the Pacific

Country (alphabetical by income level)	Education level	Total, female and male	Gross enrolment rate (%)					
			2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Low income								
Cambodia	Primary	Total	106.3	116.5	132.4	135.9	136.6	134.1
		Female	98.9	109.4	125.0	129.1	130.5	128.7
		Male	113.5	123.4	139.5	142.5	142.5	139.3
	Secondary	Total	17.0	18.4	21.7	25.6	29.4	...
		Female	12.0	13.3	16.2	19.9	23.9	...
		Male	21.9	23.5	27.1	31.2	34.7	...
	Tertiary	Total	2.2	2.3	2.6	3.1	2.9	3.3
		Female	1.1	1.2	1.5	1.8	1.8	2.1
		Male	3.3	3.3	3.7	4.4	4.0	4.6
Lao PDR	Primary	Total	115.3	113.1	114.9	116.5	116.4	115.8
		Female	106.0	104.4	106.3	108.2	108.8	108.4
		Male	124.3	121.5	123.2	124.5	123.7	123.0
	Secondary	Total	35.6	37.5	40.6	43.7	45.9	46.7
		Female	29.3	31.3	34.1	37.2	39.4	40.4
		Male	41.7	43.6	46.8	50.0	52.2	52.9
	Tertiary	Total	2.8	3.2	4.3	5.1	5.9	7.9
		Female	1.9	2.4	3.1	3.7	4.5	6.6
		Male	3.7	4.1	5.5	6.4	7.2	9.2
Mongolia	Primary	Total	100.0	100.5	99.4	101.7	104.4	93.3
		Female	101.9	102.3	101.0	102.9	105.3	94.4
		Male	98.2	98.7	97.8	100.7	103.7	92.2
	Secondary	Total	62.6	70.4	76.1	84.0	89.5	91.8
		Female	69.2	77.4	83.0	90.2	95.2	97.6
		Male	56.1	63.6	69.4	77.9	83.9	86.2
	Tertiary	Total	28.8	32.6	34.0	36.0	38.9	43.2
		Female	37.1	41.5	43.3	45.3	48.5	53.5
		Male	20.7	23.8	24.8	26.8	29.5	33.0
Myanmar	Primary	Total	89.4	87.9	88.9	93.0	96.5	99.6
		Female	89.1	87.8	89.3	93.5	97.1	100.6
		Male	89.6	88.0	88.5	92.5	95.9	98.7
	Secondary	Total	37.6	37.9	38.5	38.0	40.0	40.3
		Female	38.9	37.1	37.4	37.0	38.8	40.0
		Male	36.4	38.7	39.6	39.0	41.2	40.5
	Tertiary	Total	11.3	11.3	11.3
		Female	...	14.5
		Male	...	8.2S

Female and Male gross Enrolment Rates for Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Education
by Country (%), East Asia and the Pacific (continued)

Country (alphabetical by income level)	Education level	Total, female and male	Gross enrolment rate (%)					
			2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Low income (continued)								
Papua New Guinea	Primary	Total	78.9	74.1	75.4	75.4
		Female	74.8	70.0	70.4	70.4
		Male	82.6	77.9	80.1	80.1
	Secondary	Total	22.8	24.2	25.7	25.8
		Female	19.9	21.0	22.4	22.6
		Male	25.3	27.1	28.5	28.6
Solomon Islands	Primary	Total	85.6	95.1	95.1	95.1	96.5	96.5
		Female	82.2	92.2	92.2	92.2	94.1	94.1
		Male	88.8	97.9	97.9	97.9	98.7	98.7
	Secondary	Total	19.2	23.0	29.8	29.6	29.5	29.5
		Female	16.8	20.5	26.5	26.3	26.7	26.7
		Male	21.5	25.3	32.8	32.6	32.1	32.1
Timor-Leste	Primary	Total	...	138.0	139.7	146.5	152.5	151.1
		Female	146.7	144.8
		Male	158.0	157.3
	Secondary	Total	...	30.7	34.2	...	50.9	51.8
		Female	50.5	51.8
		Male	51.3	51.8
	Tertiary	Total	10.2
		Female	12.4
Male		8.4	
Viet Nam	Primary	Total	106.6	104.5	102.2	99.9	98.0	94.5
		Female	103.5	101.3	98.9	96.6	94.4	91.3
		Male	109.6	107.5	105.5	103.2	101.4	97.6
	Secondary	Total	64.6	66.6	69.1	71.8	73.5	75.8
		Female	61.6	63.6	66.5	69.1	71.7	74.8
		Male	67.5	69.4	71.7	74.4	75.2	76.7
	Tertiary	Total	9.5	9.5	9.8	10.2	16.0	16.0
		Female	7.9	8.1	8.5	8.8	13.2	13.2
		Male	11.0	10.9	11.1	11.5	18.7	18.7

Female and Male gross Enrolment Rates for Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Education
by Country (%), East Asia and the Pacific (continued)

Country (alphabetical by income level)	Education level	Total, female and male	Gross enrolment rate (%)					
			2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Lower middle income								
China	Primary	Total	...	117.7	116.0	115.0	117.6	112.8
		Female	...	118.4	116.1	114.8	117.4	112.0
		Male	...	117.1	115.9	115.2	117.8	113.5
	Secondary	Total	62.9	65.1	67.2	70.3	72.5	74.3
		Female	...	63.8	...	69.2	72.5	74.5
		Male	...	66.3	...	71.2	72.5	74.2
	Tertiary	Total	7.6	9.8	12.6	15.4	19.1	20.3
		Female	14.1	17.4	19.8
		Male	16.7	20.6	20.8
Fiji	Primary	Total	109.1	109.3	107.8	106.4	106.0	106.0
		Female	108.1	108.9	108.0	105.9	104.7	104.7
		Male	110.0	109.8	107.7	106.9	107.2	107.2
	Secondary	Total	80.8	80.4	82.4	84.6	87.7	87.8
		Female	84.4	83.3	85.6	87.6	90.6	90.7
		Male	77.4	77.7	79.3	81.7	84.9	85.0
	Tertiary	Total	15.3	15.3	15.3
		Female	16.7	16.7	16.7
		Male	13.9	13.9	13.9
Indonesia	Primary	Total	110.9	113.6	115.1	116.2	117.0	117.3
		Female	109.0	112.3	113.9	115.0	115.9	115.1
		Male	112.8	114.8	116.3	117.3	118.0	119.4
	Secondary	Total	54.9	57.2	58.6	61.8	64.1	63.1
		Female	53.5	56.6	58.2	61.4	63.8	62.8
		Male	56.3	57.8	59.0	62.2	64.4	63.5
	Tertiary	Total	...	14.4	15.1	16.2	16.7	17.1
		Female	...	12.5	14.0	14.4	14.7	15.1
		Male	...	16.3	16.1	18.0	18.6	19.0
Kiribati	Primary	Total	109.5	117.4	108.8	113.9	110.6	112.2
		Female	108.9	117.8	108.3	112.5	112.0	113.2
		Male	110.0	117.0	109.3	115.3	109.2	111.3
	Secondary	Total	98.7	87.5	83.8	90.6	90.6	87.1
		Female	122.2	102.1	90.5	98.6	98.4	92.5
		Male	75.7	73.6	77.5	83.0	83.2	81.9

Female and Male gross Enrolment Rates for Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Education by Country (%), East Asia and the Pacific (continued)

Country (alphabetical by income level)	Education level	Total, female and male	Gross enrolment rate (%)					
			2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Lower middle income (continued)								
Marshall Islands	Primary	Total	100.6	111.7	112.7	112.7	102.7	102.7
		Female	98.4	108.6	109.4	109.4	100.5	100.5
		Male	102.7	114.6	115.9	115.9	104.7	104.7
	Secondary	Total	86.6	86.6	77.1	76.5
		Female	88.3	88.3	79.0	78.4
		Male	85.1	85.1	75.3	74.7
	Tertiary	Total	...	16.9	16.9	17.0
		Female	...	19.1	19.1	19.1
		Male	...	14.8	14.8	14.8
Micronesia, Fed. Sts.	Primary	Total	117.1	114.7
		Female	116.4	113.2
		Male	117.7	116.2
	Secondary	Total	83.0	85.1
		Female	84.8	87.9
		Male	81.3	82.5
	Tertiary	Total	14.1
Philippines	Primary	Total	...	112.5	112.1	112.5	112.4	112.5
		Female	...	112.4	111.5	111.7	111.5	111.8
		Male	...	112.6	112.7	113.3	113.2	113.1
	Secondary	Total	...	77.1	81.8	83.9	85.9	85.2
		Female	...	80.7	85.9	88.2	90.3	90.0
		Male	...	73.6	77.9	79.9	81.6	80.7
	Tertiary	Total	...	30.5	30.4	29.4	28.8	28.1
		Female	34.4	33.1	32.4	31.0
		Male	26.6	25.8	25.4	25.3
Samoa	Primary	Total	99.2	100.8	101.3	101.6	99.8	99.8
		Female	99.2	100.9	100.9	101.1	99.5	99.5
		Male	99.2	100.8	101.7	102.0	100.0	100.0
	Secondary	Total	77.9	78.5	80.0	80.5	80.3	80.3
		Female	83.3	83.8	84.9	85.9	85.2	85.2
		Male	73.1	73.7	75.6	75.6	75.8	75.8
	Tertiary	Total	7.4	7.5
		Female	7.1	7.2
		Male	7.7	7.7

Female and Male gross Enrolment Rates for Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Education
by Country (%), East Asia and the Pacific (continued)

Country (alphabetical by income level)	Education level	Total, female and male	Gross enrolment rate (%)					
			2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Lower middle income								
Thailand	Primary	Total	94.7	94.3	95.7	95.7	97.6	97.1
		Female	92.3	92.2	93.6	93.6	95.5	94.6
		Male	96.9	96.4	97.9	97.9	99.6	99.6
	Secondary	Total	...	61.8	63.5	63.5	65.7	70.3
		Female	...	60.5	63.0	63.0	67.4	71.6
		Male	...	63.1	63.9	63.9	63.9	69.0
	Tertiary	Total	34.2	37.9	39.1	40.1	41.0	43.0
		Female	37.3	40.2	41.1	42.8	44.3	45.4
		Male	31.2	35.6	37.2	37.5	37.7	40.7
Tonga	Primary	Total	110.6	112.6	113.2	119.0	114.7	114.7
		Female	108.9	111.6	111.5	116.2	111.7	111.7
		Male	112.1	113.5	114.8	121.5	117.5	117.5
	Secondary	Total	101.1	99.0	102.2	110.2	97.8	...
		Female	105.9	103.8	108.4	...	101.8	...
		Male	96.7	94.7	96.7	...	94.1	...
	Tertiary	Total	4.7	4.0	5.4	6.1	6.1	...
		Female	5.8	5.0	6.8	7.7	7.7	...
		Male	3.6	3.1	4.1	4.6	4.6	...
Vanuatu	Primary	Total	112.9	114.1	115.9	120.6	118.0	118.0
		Female	111.5	113.2	115.2	119.7	116.3	116.3
		Male	114.2	115.0	116.6	121.4	119.7	119.7
	Secondary	Total	33.8	34.5	38.0	38.8	41.3	...
		Female	36.2	32.9	36.9	35.3	38.0	...
		Male	31.5	36.0	39.1	42.2	44.4	...
	Tertiary	Total	4.0	4.0	5.1	5.0	5.0	...
		Female	3.6	3.6	3.6	...
		Male	6.5	6.2	6.3	...

Female and Male gross Enrolment Rates for Primary, Secondary and Tertiary Education
by Country (%), East Asia and the Pacific (continued)

Country (alphabetical by income level)	Education level	Total, female and male	Gross enrolment rate (%)					
			2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Higher middle income								
Malaysia	Primary	Total	97.1	95.5	93.2	93.5	95.8	...
		Female	97.3	95.5	93.2	93.3	95.6	...
		Male	97.0	95.4	93.2	93.6	96.0	...
	Secondary	Total	69.3	69.6	70.3	75.8	76.4	...
		Female	72.9	73.1	74.1	80.9	81.4	...
		Male	65.9	66.3	66.7	70.9	71.6	...
	Tertiary	Total	26.3	26.0	28.8	32.4	32.0	...
		Female	27.5	29.0	32.5	38.0	36.4	...
		Male	25.2	23.3	25.3	27.0	27.9	...
Palau	Primary	Total	113.3	113.3	...	103.9	104.4	104.5
		Female	111.4	91.1	100.9	100.9
		Male	115.1	116.6	107.9	108.0
	Secondary	Total	86.1	88.8	...	110.8	100.2	101.0
		Female	87.7	88.9	...	120.3	104.9	105.2
		Male	84.8	88.6	...	102.0	95.8	97.2
	Tertiary	Total	40.6	40.6	40.2
		Female	57.7	57.8	57.1
		Male	24.5	26.8	26.5

Appendix VI

Vocational Enrolments in Upper Secondary (ISCED 3)

Country	Vocational Education		Enrolment		Enrolment in Technical and Vocational Programmes (%)				Vocational Gross Enrollment Ratio			
	En-trance Age	Dura-tion	All Program-mes	Vocation-al Pro-grammes	MF	M	F	GPI	MF	M	F	GPI
Cambodia	15	3	143,004	14,537	10	10	10	1.01	1	2	1	0.51
China	15	3	28,471,353	11,298,031	40	38	42	1.10	17	17	17	1.02
Indonesia	16	3	5,941,787	2,099,753	35	38	32	0.84	16	18	14	0.78
Lao PDR	14	3	124,061	4,775	4	4	4	0.90	1	2	1	0.63
Malaysia	15	2	949,556	141,242	15	18	12	0.64	15	17	13	0.78
Mongolia	16	2	85,869	16,900	20	22	18	0.79	14	14	14	1.01
Papua New Guinea	17	1	13,913	1,341	10	9	11	1.33	1	1	1	0.94
Rep. of Korea	15	3	1,810,074	580,274	32	32	32	1.02	28	27	28	1.01
Thailand	15	3	2,313,702	610,943	26	30	23	0.79	18	20	17	0.83
Viet Nam	15	3	2,768,253	309,807	11	10	12	1.15	6	6	6	1.08

Source: Annex — Table 2 in UNEVOC and UIS (2006) *Participation in Formal Technical and Vocational Education and Training Programmes Worldwide: An Initial Statistical Study*. Montreal: UNESCO. See source for notes.

Limitations of the Vocational Gross Enrollment Ratio (VGER) as an Indicator

VGER is often looked to as a measure of participation in vocational programmes at the lower and upper secondary levels. Secondary VGERs are problematic, however, because they depend on the proportion of the population that attends secondary school and what proportion of those who attend secondary school do so in vocational rather than general programmes. As such, the differences across regional averages may be because of (i) the total participation in schooling; (ii) the relative weights of general and vocational programmes or (iii) some combination of these two.²

² UNEVOC and UIS (2006) *Participation in Formal Technical and Vocational Education and Training Programmes Worldwide: An Initial Statistical Study*. Montreal: UNESCO.

Appendix VII

Unemployment By Educational Attainment for Selected Countries

Country	Year	Sex	Primary (%)	Secondary (%)	Tertiary (%)
Brunei Darussalam	2003	MF	84.2	4.2	6.8
		M	86.9	5.1	5.8
		F	82.2	3.6	7.6
Hong Kong, China	2005	MF	46.3	39.7	12.6
		M	50.7	36.7	11.3
		F	38.5	44.8	14.9
Indonesia	2001	MF	46.0	36.6	6.7
		M	46.0	40.0	6.2
		F	45.9	33.3	7.3
Korea, Republic of	2005	MF	17.4	53.2	29.4
		M	18.1	53.3	28.6
		F	15.9	53.0	31.1
Macau, China	2005	MF	62.7	15.7	8.8
		M	64.9	15.8	8.8
		F	60.0	15.6	8.9
Malaysia	2003	MF	32.0	48.8	15.6
		M	37.7	45.8	12.6
		F	21.9	54.0	21.0
Philippines	2005	MF	15.2	45.2	38.9
		M	17.7	46.2	35.6
		F	11.2	43.6	44.3
Singapore	2004	MF	20.2	25.7	59.2
		M	23.2	24.1	51.7
		F	16.4	27.6	68.6
Thailand	2005	MF	39.7	46.3	0.2
		M	45.5	41.1	0.0
		F	31.7	53.6	0.4

Source: ILO (2006) Yearbook of Labour Statistics. Geneva:ILO.



BAHA'I INTERNATIONAL COMMUNITY



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