



UNESCO Bangkok  
Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau  
for Education



# Gender, Jobs and Education

Prospects and Realities  
in the Asia-Pacific

UNESCO Bangkok



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Research  
Report 8-1





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UNESCO Bangkok

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## Foreword

Gender equality is one of the six Education for All (EFA) goals, and is also one of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) set by the international community. Gender equality in education is a basic human right and also a powerful tool for development. The opportunity to be educated should be equally available to both men and women, and this includes girls and boys becoming equitably equipped with life skills and attitudes to achieve their full potential.

This report examines how socio-cultural factors, education policies and practices and labour market trends each impact upon the career choices of female and male students in five countries of the Asia-Pacific region. Although current efforts have helped narrow the gender gap in recent years, more needs to be done to ensure that educational opportunities and outcomes are equitable. The policy recommendations from this report are designed to help inform changes that may need to be made to the status quo.

This study is part of a joint research project between UNESCO Bangkok and the Korean Women's Development Institute (KWDI), which is timely and relevant to countries not just in the Asia-Pacific region, but also in other parts of the world. It is hoped that this research project will provide much needed evidence to inform decision making by policy makers and educators. Academics may also wish to expand on this research to draw further findings and uncover additional lessons that can be learnt from current practice.

We believe that work in this area is critical to enriching the lives of all people, whether female or male, and that through commitment of our Members States in the Asia-Pacific, great strides will be made to achieve true gender equality for all.



Gwang-Jo Kim  
Director  
UNESCO Bangkok



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President  
Korean Women's Development Institute

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## Executive Summary

Over the last 50 years, the role of women in society has changed dramatically. Women today make an increasingly important contribution to social, economic and political discourse (World Bank, 2012:1). In ever increasing numbers, women are finding their equal place alongside men in shaping important decisions that will affect the fates of peoples today and the lives of so many yet to come. Nonetheless, norms and attitudes regarding the roles of women and men in society and the workplace continue to limit the contribution that women can make to social progress and economic development through decent and productive work (UNGEL, 2012a:15).

This report investigates the impact of sociocultural influences, labour market trends and education systems on the career choices and perspectives of young men and women in the Asia-Pacific and places particular focus on five study countries: Cambodia, Indonesia, Mongolia, Nepal and Viet Nam. The report clearly shows that multiple factors can, and do, influence the career choices of young men and women in each of the five selected countries and reveals that career choices are socially imbricated. That is, they are both constituted within and impact upon existing social relations. This creates a continuous feedback loop whereby existing gender roles are perpetuated by existing social structures.

Despite the influence of sociocultural factors, existing labour market trends and educational practices on the career choices of young men and women, the perpetuation of traditional gender roles is by no means inevitable. Indeed, the findings of this report indicate that changes to education and employment policies and practices will help improve gender equality in all five countries, a principle also applicable to all countries of the Asia-Pacific region and beyond.

Recommendations in this report are presented in two main parts: 1) Overarching policy recommendations for the Asia-Pacific region pertaining to a) national policies, frameworks and initiatives, and b) educational factors and practices, and 2) country specific recommendations.

A summary of overarching policy recommendations for the Asia-Pacific region is as follows:

**National education and labour policies:** There is need to further explore and strengthen dedicated policies to promote gender equality in education, which should be accompanied by careful implementation and close monitoring and evaluation. Policy research, together with the collection of gender-disaggregated statistics would serve the change process and help governments craft a gender sensitive action plan on the transition from school to work. Intersectoral coordination between various

Ministries and Departments, and the development of employability schemes for both female and male students to enter the labour market could play a big part in this process.

**Educational factors and practices:** In addition to the review of curriculum and instructional materials to ensure an unbiased gender perspective, the provision of both pre- and in-service teacher training on gender-sensitive pedagogies would have considerable impact in shaping gender perceptions among female and male students. Further recommendations to guide students to make informed decisions in their careers include the establishment of formal career guidance programmes with professional counselors who are sensitive to the needs of both girls and boys, investments in school infrastructure, resources and materials, and the involvement of parents in career related initiatives in education.

Despite the limitations of this study, findings of this report provide an overall picture of the current situation and indicate emerging trends and patterns in career choices of young men and women of the Asia-Pacific. These findings should be viewed as illustrative examples that may help inform policy formulation in areas relevant to gender, education and jobs across countries of the region and in doing, help enrich the lives of all people, male and female, and build better, more equitable communities.

# 1. Introduction

*“Gender equality benefits everyone, not just women. It is an accelerator of political, economic and social transformations.”*

– Irina Bokova, UNESCO Director-General

Gender equality is a fundamental human right acknowledged by international convention. The Education for All (EFA) goals and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) both explicitly call for gender equality by 2015, generating great progress in girls’ access to and advancement in education in recent years; between 1999 and 2009, the number of out of school girls at primary level decreased from 61 million to 35 million girls (UNESCO, 2011). In some countries, enrolment rates for girls are now higher than for boys; this is seen at the secondary level in Malaysia, Mongolia, the Philippines and Thailand (UNGEI, 2012a), a trend that then continues into tertiary education, sparking the emergence of a reverse ‘gender gap’ (Ibid). This disadvantage does not, however, translate into an advantage for girls, just as women’s improved educational outcomes do not always translate into stronger labour market outcomes. Studies indicate that women face more vulnerable employment circumstances, have higher rates of part-time work, and receive lower wages even in comparable roles (UNGEI, 2012a).

In the developing world (including in the Asia-Pacific region), women often constitute the majority of the informal labour market, which comes with attendant implications for labour standards including access to social protection and employment status (UNESCAP, 2010). Gender segregation in employment worldwide remains stark, and recent analysis by the OECD and partner countries suggest that the historical distinctions between ‘masculine’ and ‘feminine’ roles are also visible in the career aspirations of 15 year olds; while girls tend to be more ‘ambitious’ than boys (in terms of aspirations for high-status professions), their career expectations mimic the overarching gender segregation of the labour market (OECD, 2013:52). These traditional distinctions and roles are often culturally specific as significant differences between cultures can be observed with regard to career aspirations.

In the Asia-Pacific region, the implications of these trends are many. It is estimated that the region is losing between USD42 billion to USD47 billion annually due to the limited access of women to employment opportunities, while another USD16 billion to USD30 billion is said to be lost annually due to gender gaps in education (ILO & ADB, 2011). Despite women in this region having a higher than average employment growth rate and employment-to-population ratio for the 2000–2007 period than their male counterparts, many gender-based inequities persist in the labour market. The ILO and ADB (2011, p.5) conclude that in the transition from school to work, female youth face more challenges.

Research indicates that in almost all countries participating in the 2006 Programme of International Student Assessment (PISA), girls led boys in terms of their interest in non-manual, high-status professional occupations (OECD, 2013:3). At the same time, the research also revealed that students differed by gender in selecting particular fields of employment. Though girls and boys indicated interest in science-related careers in roughly equal proportions, girls were more attracted to careers in the health services whereas boys preferred employment in computing and engineering. In other domains, girls were more drawn to professions such as teaching, nursing and services. This is referred to as “horizontal segregation” and is important to consider, in addition to the “vertical” dimension of career status and income (Charles & Grusky, 2004).

While this provides important clues as to the ways in which gender roles still influence the educational and professional opportunities of so many, the linkages between career aspirations and interests, labour market outcomes and educational factors are still not particularly well understood since little research has been undertaken on this topic in the Asia-Pacific region. To help fill this void, a three-year research project between UNESCO Bangkok and the Korean Women’s Development Institute (KWDI) aims to examine the gendered dimensions of learning achievement and the underlying differences among girls and boys in terms of classroom performance, transition to higher levels of education, career orientation and the job market. This involves comparative studies on: 1) the role of gender in shaping career interests, perspectives and choices in the Asia-Pacific region, 2) learning achievement and programmes for girls and boys in the domains of mathematics and science, and 3) skills and job training programmes that are available in the region. The focus on this report is: 1) the role of gender in shaping career interests, perspectives and choices in the Asia-Pacific region.

## **Report Structure**

Following the introduction, the research framework for the study is presented in Chapter two before an in-depth look at the wider economic, social and cultural factors at play in the Asia-Pacific region is taken. Chapter four then looks at labour market structures regionally and within those countries under analysis. Chapter five focuses on education systems, policies and initiatives while Chapter six looks more closely at educational factors and practices including curriculum, pedagogy, teachers, school infrastructure and career counseling. In Chapter seven, information from primary data gathered in the five countries is presented, including the perspectives of 15-year-old girls and boys. Finally, Chapter eight reflects on the interplay between sociocultural influences, education and labour market trends on the career choices and perspectives of 15 year olds surveyed before providing both overarching and country specific policy implications and suggested actions.

## 2. Research Framework

An initial literature review was conducted by UNESCO Bangkok staff to examine global, regional and thematic publications, policy documents and reports related to the impact of gender roles on education and jobs. Countries for more focused analysis were initially selected by KWDI (Cambodia, Indonesia, and Viet Nam). In order to provide a broader regional spread, UNESCO Bangkok selected Mongolia (Central Asia) and Nepal (South Asia). Each of these five countries displays varying degrees of gender parity in employment and education and collectively, they present a broad spectrum for analysis.

National consultants then carried out a detailed analysis in these five selected countries: Cambodia, Indonesia, Mongolia, Nepal and Viet Nam. In each of these five countries, country reports were drafted based on: 1) a literature review of national publications and policy documents, and 2) primary data collected from gender and labour experts, government officials, as well as teachers, parents and 15-year-old students.

The central areas of focus of these country reports were based on the following:

- ( 1 ) **The sociocultural context** and in particular the norms and attitudes regarding the role of men and women in the workplace, including types of careers and professions generally considered appropriate to women and men;
- ( 2 ) The overall structure of the **labour market**, looking at key indicators on women's participation to the labour force, status in employment, and remuneration;
- ( 3 ) The **education system context and policies** including gender policies in education and enrolment rates;
- ( 4 ) **Education factors and practices**, including school curricula and textbooks, pedagogy, teachers, as well as extracurricular activities, school infrastructure and career counseling in schools;
- ( 5 ) The **views of 15-year-old students** including their plans to enter the labour market or pursue tertiary education, perspectives on what types of jobs they expect to have at 30 years of age and on whether certain professions are perceived as better suited to women or men;
- ( 6 ) **Reflections** on the interactions between career choice, gender and education, and;
- ( 7 ) **Policy recommendations** for the country

This report presents a synthesis of the five country report findings so as to identify trends, patterns and linkages in the relationship between gender, jobs and education within these countries. The research framework is thus designed to obtain both quantitative and qualitative information around these themes. The figure below illustrates the conceptual framework for this study.

**Figure 1:** Conceptual framework of the study



## Methodology

In order to better understand labour market trends and educational structures in the selected countries, national data and policy frameworks were analysed. Most of the information presented in this report is drawn from national sources as provided by national consultants in an attempt to obtain the most recent figures.

To obtain the views of 15-year-old girls and boys, a questionnaire was adapted to suit each country context. In all cases, care was taken to ensure an equal representation of girls and boys in the data collection. Using their relevant networks, each consultant aimed to represent different geographical areas and socioeconomic groupings in their primary data collection. This involved selecting people from both urban and rural locations, or within urban and peri-urban districts ensuring that both privileged and disadvantaged communities and different ethnicities were represented. Additional detail is available in Annex 4.

To supplement this data, interviews and focus group discussions were conducted with students to confirm these perceptions and choices as well as influential factors such as the role of the family, community and educational factors in forming these views. In

the case of Cambodia and Nepal, students involved in focus group discussions were able to express different views on career choice and perceptions of professions better suited to women or men.

Interviews and focus group discussions were also conducted with teachers, school directors, officials from the Ministry of Education and Ministry of Labour as well as experts in gender studies, education and employment. In Mongolia, the focus groups enabled the consultant to expand on the survey questions so as to obtain the perspectives of teachers on more technical aspects related to the study. In Indonesia, Mongolia and Nepal, these interviews primarily focused on gaining greater insight from government officials on relevant aspects of national policies and frameworks.

The divergence in sample was due to differences in local context, resources, and time. In Viet Nam for instance, where there was already pre-existing data conducted in a national study among adolescents, very little primary data collection was conducted for the purpose of this study.

### **Limitations**

Due to limited resources, data collection was generally restricted to small samples both in terms of geographic location and the number of key representatives engaged. Therefore, this report does not intend to represent the perspectives of stakeholders at a national level, but instead the views of those representatives at locations where data collection took place. It is also important to note that sample sizes varied greatly between countries. In Nepal for instance, a total of 319 stakeholders were engaged in both the survey and focus group discussions, whereas in Viet Nam, a total of 22 students participated in both the survey and interviews.

While sample size does not affect the validity of the data due to the qualitative nature of the methods used, the report cautions that statistics cited from primary data not be compared across countries. In addition, while an interpretivist approach to the analysis would have been best suited to the study, available resources only allowed for a positivist approach. Despite these limitations, the country cases were used to provide an overview of the current situation and facilitate the reflection on emerging trends and patterns for the development of policy recommendations. As such, this report does not claim to present findings representative of conditions across the Asia-Pacific region.

### 3. Sociocultural Influences on Gender

Over the last 50 years, the role of women in society, particularly in certain parts of the world, has changed dramatically. Women today make an increasingly important contribution across social, economic and political realms (World Bank, 2012:1). Nonetheless, norms and attitudes regarding to the roles of women and men in society and the workplace continue to limit the contribution that women can make to social progress and economic development through decent and productive work (UNGEI, 2012a:15). Before looking closer at the way gender, labour market and education shape career perceptions and choices, it is therefore important to look more closely at current sociocultural influences on gender roles across global and regional levels.

Although sociocultural norms and attitudes regarding women in the workplace vary depending on the country context, these norms influence pay, promotion into senior roles and the role of women working in traditionally male-dominated sectors. Indeed, preconceptions of women as primary caregivers including as wives and mothers can affect attitudes and perceptions, leading to views that they lack leadership skills and may not be competent to take up positions in senior management (UNESCO, 2011:2). According to a recent study (True et al, 2013), a number of sociocultural norms and perceptions with regard to gender roles prevent women's political participation despite high levels of economic growth and advances in gender quotas. This demonstrates the prevailing view that women should not engage in public life. 'Cultural, customary and religious discourse is frequently used to moralize that the "rightful place of women is NOT in politics"' (True et al, 2013:2).

While we can see the impacts of gender stereotypes at a global level, in the Asia-Pacific, norms and attitudes vary across countries. As a region composed of countries at various levels of economic development, and with a multitude of religions, cultures, and ethnicities, the role of women and men in society continues to evolve. In fact, Asia's burgeoning economic growth has meant that with a growing demand for both skilled and unskilled labour, women are contributing to economic growth more than ever before (ILO & ADB, 2011:1). At a political level, both national governments and international organizations in the Asia-Pacific region have worked to prioritize gender and girls' education through gender equality policy frameworks and initiatives as will be examined in the countries selected for this study.

#### Country Cases

As the country report on Cambodia suggests, the status of Cambodian women may be connected to the traditionally hierarchical structure of society. The position of women may therefore also be defined by a number of factors: age, wealth, marital

status, whether they have children, status of the family, political position, education, employment status and religion (Ledgerwood, 1990).

In Indonesia, the country report suggests that gender roles in society may be seen to be directly reflected in educational and labour outcomes, consequently leading to lower participation of women in formal education and leadership roles in the workplace (Ace, 2004). Such gender stereotypes were shown to strongly influence the subjects chosen by girls and boys for study at tertiary level as girls opt for fields of study related to ‘domestic’ function whereas boys generally opt for courses connected to science, technology and industry.

The perceptions of ‘gender characteristics’ in shaping career perspectives and choices are also reflected in the country report on Viet Nam. Here, traditional labour division by gender reflects the fact that women are perceived as suitable for working only in certain jobs (CEDAW, 2011). In particular, women are generally considered as more suited to professions related to the traits of ‘gentleness’ and ‘delicateness’ such as light industry, health, education and social work.

In Mongolia however, the country’s transition from a socialist regime to a market-oriented economy generated both opportunities and challenges for women. In the past, women have been guaranteed childcare provision by the state, releasing them from domestic responsibilities so as to maximize their economic contribution to the country. However, the country report for Mongolia suggests that there exists a general reluctance to hire women due to fears that they would take extended leave or simply drop out of the labour force when they decide to have children.

In Nepal, the issue of caste is another influencing factor on gender equality in education and in the workplace. Such cultural norms are evidenced in the tradition of early marriage, which continues to limit girls’ and women’s educational opportunities as well as their participation in the workforce. Indeed, among females between the ages of 15 and 49 years old in 2011, the average age for marriage was 17 (Ministry of Health and Population, 2012). In the primary data collected for the Nepal country report, Nepali students identified marriage as the primary reason for girls dropping out of school.

### **Policy structures and frameworks**

As part of understanding the sociocultural factors that influence norms and attitudes, it is worth examining the policy structures and frameworks relating to gender in each of the five countries. This serves to inform the different approaches taken by different governments in policies and programmes on gender and girls’ education.

Table 1 indicates how gender is reflected in institutional structures, whether it is through a dedicated Ministry or Government Department, specific laws relating to gender in a range of sectors, and also whether there are national policies on gender or if gender is mainstreamed through other national policies e.g. labour laws and education policies among others.

**Table 1:** Representation of gender in national policy structures and frameworks

| Country   | Relevant Government Body for Gender | National Policies           |  |
|-----------|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------|--|
|           |                                     | National Policies on Gender | Gender Equality Reflected in National Policies |
| Cambodia  | Specialised Ministry                | ✓                           | ✓  |
| Indonesia | Specialised Ministry                | ✓                           | ✓  |
| Mongolia  | N/A                                 | ✗                           | ✓  |
| Nepal     | Specialised Ministry                | ✓                           | ✓  |
| Viet Nam  | Department of a Ministry            | ✓                           | ✓  |

**Source:** Compiled from country reports

While this table demonstrates the progress towards gender equality, policies that may restrict women’s participation in the labour market were also identified in the research findings. For instance, Indonesia’s National Marriage Act (Law No. 1/1974 articles 31 and 34) promotes standardized gender roles whereby the husband is the head of the household with the obligation to provide for their family whereas the wife has the responsibility of managing household affairs and child-rearing.

While it is true that the role of women in society has improved over time, there is evidence that social norms and attitudes continue to hold women back from contributing to society even more fully. Indeed, much improvement could be made to strengthen gender parity across both developed and developing countries and much of this effort should be directed towards addressing social norms and attitudes across countries. Just as changing social norms and attitudes is critical, it is also important to understanding the ways in which education system and labour markets trends perpetuate gender disparities and thus generate a continuous feedback loop which serves to strengthen the preexisting norms and attitudes about gender roles in society.

## 4. Overall Structure of the Labour Market

The Economist Intelligence Unit's indicator on Women's Economic Opportunity aims to provide a "comprehensive assessment of the enabling environment for women's economic participation". The report presents interesting findings for the countries included in this research, with all but Nepal included. Here, Mongolia scored highest at 50.0%, followed by Indonesia at 47.5%, Viet Nam at 47.1% and Cambodia at 44.6%. Cambodia's score in terms of women's economic opportunity was shown to increase by 6.9 percentage points between 2011 and 2012 as a result of its Gender Mainstreaming Action plan and government promotion of policies relating to gender quality and wages (Economist Intelligence Unit, 2012:16). Countries in South Asia generally scored lowest in the Index at a regional level (Ibid). The findings show that although gender equality is clearly recognized in national policy frameworks such as the Constitution, labour and education laws, gaps in labour participation, wages and educational outcomes persist.

### Labour Market Indicators

Taking a broader look at the structures of labour markets in the region, and in particular in the selected countries, statistics indicate that women's participation in the labour market has been uneven in recent years. Global and sub-regional figures for labour participation rates shown in Table 2 below demonstrate a decreasing pattern for both female and male, with the gender gap slightly decreasing globally and in South-East Asia and the Pacific, yet slightly increasing in East Asia and South Asia. However, these rates can vary by country as seen in Table 3. The working age population and unemployment rate also differ across the five countries included in this research and can be found in Annex 3.

**Table 2:** Gender gaps in labour participation rates by region, 1992, 2002 and 2012

|  | Male labour force participation rate (%) |      |       | Female labour force participation rate (%) |      |       | Gap (Male % - Female %) |      |       |
|--|--|------|-------|--|------|-------|-------------------------|------|-------|
|  | 1992                                     | 2002 | 2012p | 1992                                       | 2002 | 2012p | 1992                    | 2002 | 2012p |
| <b>World</b>                             | 80.2                                     | 78.1 | 77.1  | 52.4                                       | 52.1 | 51.1  | 27.9                    | 26.1 | 26.0  |
| <b>East Asia</b>                         | 84.2                                     | 81.4 | 79.4  | 71.4                                       | 69.1 | 66.4  | 12.8                    | 12.4 | 13.0  |
| <b>South-East Asia &amp; the Pacific</b> | 82.6                                     | 82.8 | 81.8  | 58.4                                       | 58.4 | 58.8  | 24.2                    | 24.4 | 23.1  |
| <b>South Asia</b>                        | 84.8                                     | 83.3 | 81.3  | 36.1                                       | 35.8 | 31.8  | 48.6                    | 47.5 | 49.5  |

**Note:** 2012 are preliminary estimates. **Source:** Adapted from ILO, 2012

**Table 3:** Labour force participation rate in the five study countries

|                  | Male (%) | Female (%) | Gap (Male % - Female %) |
|------------------|----------|------------|-------------------------|
| <b>Cambodia</b>  | 86.6     | 79.3       | 7.3                     |
| <b>Indonesia</b> | 84.2     | 51.0       | 33.2                    |
| <b>Mongolia</b>  | 68.7     | 56.8       | 11.9                    |
| <b>Nepal</b>     | 87.7     | 80.3       | 7.4                     |
| <b>Viet Nam</b>  | 81.7     | 72.6       | 9.1                     |

**Sources:** Cambodia (ILO, 2010); Indonesia (ILO, 2010); Mongolia (ILO, 2010); Nepal (ILO, 2010); Viet Nam (ILSSA, 2012)

### Employment Status and Sectors

The status of women and men in employment across the five study countries is illustrated in Table 4. Looking at the proportion of employers as a share of total employment, it can be observed that in all the five countries, the proportion of male employers is at least double that of female employers. In Indonesia and Viet Nam for example, 10.9% and 30.7% of women are employers, compared to 23.8% and 69.3% of men respectively.

**Table 4:** Female and male status of employment as share of total employment (% by gender)

|               | Waged and salaried workers | Employers | Own account workers | Vulnerable employment |
|---------------|----------------------------|-----------|---------------------|-----------------------|
| <b>Female</b> |                            |           |                     |                       |
| Cambodia      | 14.0                       | 0.1       | 25.3                | 85.9                  |
| Indonesia     | 12.6                       | 10.9      | 5.0                 | 14.2                  |
| Mongolia      | 47.0                       | 1.0       | 18.0                | 10.0                  |
| Nepal         | 8.3                        | 0.3       | 26.8                | No data               |
| Viet Nam      | 21.2                       | 0.7       | 31.3                | 69.1                  |
| <b>Male</b>   |                            |           |                     |                       |
| Cambodia      | 20.7                       | 0.2       | 54.5                | 79.0                  |
| Indonesia     | 23.8                       | 26.2      | 15.5                | 12.3                  |

|          | Waged and salaried workers | Employers | Own account workers | Vulnerable employment |
|----------|----------------------------|-----------|---------------------|-----------------------|
| Mongolia | 41.0                       | 2.0       | 26.0                | 3.0                   |
| Nepal    | 25.6                       | 1.8       | 46.8                | No data               |
| Viet Nam | 29.8                       | 0.3       | 50.7                | 54.4                  |

**Source:** Cambodia (NIS, 2008); Indonesia (National Labour Force Survey, 2012); Mongolia (NSO, 2011); Nepal (CBS, 2009); Viet Nam (ILO 2004, 2011)

When looking at these figures above, it is important to then consider the sectors in which women and men are working. Table 5 presents this information for the countries involved in the research.

**Table 5:** Employment by sector

|                  | Distribution of Employment by Sector (% female employment) |          |          | Distribution of Employment by Sector (% male employment) |          |          |
|------------------|--|----------|----------|--|----------|----------|
|                  | Agriculture  | Industry | Services | Agriculture  | Industry | Services |
| <b>Cambodia</b>  | 57   | 18       | 26       | 55   | 16       | 29       |
| <b>Indonesia</b> | 35   | 15       | 50       | 37   | 24       | 40       |
| <b>Mongolia</b>  | 39   | 11       | 50       | 41   | 19       | 40       |
| <b>Nepal</b>     | 84   | No data  | No data  | 62   | No data  | No data  |
| <b>Viet Nam</b>  | 51   | 16.6     | 32       | 46   | 26       | 29       |

**Source:** Cambodia (World Bank, 2011); Indonesia (World Bank, 2011); Mongolia (ILO, 2009), Nepal (CBS, 2009); Viet Nam (ILSSA, 2012)

Across the region the data shows that gender roles explored in Chapter three are directly reflected in the sectors in which women and men are working. A study by ILO/ADB in 2011 showed the sectors in which women are employed in the Asia-Pacific, with most working in domestic work in private households and the least in ‘physically demanding’ occupations such as construction.

In Indonesia, the country report indicates that there has been a growing trend of unmarried women employed due to labour demand in the manufacturing sectors, meaning that more women are participating in the labour force. However, despite

increases in the educational attainment of women, as gender discrimination and disparity persist in this sector, the majority of women continue to be concentrated in low-skilled jobs with lower wages and minimal benefits.

In Mongolia, detailed information on employment by sector as presented in the country report shows very interesting trends. Agriculture presents the country's most dominant economic sector employing 32.5% of women and 33.5% of men, showing near equality as is the case with the professional, scientific and technical sectors employing 1.1% of men and women respectively. On the other hand, gender disparity persists in other sectors, where 12.6% of women are employed in education compared to 4.4% of men, and 7.2% of employed men work in construction compared to 2.6% of employed women (NSO, 2011).

### Vulnerable Employability

Given the impact of sociocultural factors explored in the previous chapter, many of the sectors in which women work are often less formal, less visible and therefore form part of what is defined as 'vulnerable employment'. Table 6 demonstrates the extent to which women are working in vulnerable employment at global and sub-regional levels, as well as the proportion of employed females working in this sector.

**Table 6:** Percentage of vulnerable employment, Asia, by gender (1999 & 2009, % of total employment)

|  | 1999 | 2009 |
|--|------|------|
| <b>World</b>                           | 53.5 | 50.1 |
| Male                                   | 51.8 | 48.9 |
| Female                                 | 56.1 | 51.9 |
| <b>East Asia</b>                       | 60.2 | 50.8 |
| Male                                   | 55.7 | 47.8 |
| Female                                 | 65.7 | 54.6 |
| <b>South-East Asia and the Pacific</b> | 66.2 | 61.8 |
| Male                                   | 62.5 | 58.9 |
| Female                                 | 71.3 | 65.7 |
| <b>South Asia</b>                      | 81.1 | 78.5 |
| Male                                   | 78.1 | 75.8 |
| Female                                 | 88.5 | 84.5 |

Source: ILO. 2011.

From the data collected for this study, vulnerable employment was found to be prevalent in all five countries. In Mongolia, a large number of women began working in occupations categorized as vulnerable employment as a direct result of the fall of the socialist model in the early 1990s especially as they began working in black market trade. In Viet Nam, gendered stereotypes whereby women are perceived as 'having a silver tongue', or the ability to persuade, has meant that they are often seen working in vulnerable environments such as small trade and sales in markets and small shops. In Nepal however, this phenomenon is mostly seen in young women migrating from rural areas to large cities as a result of poverty. This results in many young women working in entertainment and commercial sex industries, including in restaurants, bars and massage parlors (Maiti, 2010).

## Wages

Disparity in average monthly wages between women and men also persist in four countries as demonstrated in Table 7. The data was not available for Cambodia.

**Table 7:** Average monthly wages (USD) by gender

|                  | Female | Male   | Female & Male | Difference in wages |
|------------------|--------|--------|---------------|---------------------|
| <b>Indonesia</b> | USD124 | USD154 | USD144        | USD30               |
| <b>Mongolia</b>  | USD138 | USD151 | USD144        | USD13               |
| <b>Nepal</b>     | USD35  | USD58  | USD47         | USD24               |
| <b>Viet Nam</b>  | USD134 | USD155 | USD147        | USD21               |

**Sources:** Indonesia (National Labour Force Survey, 2012); Mongolia (World Bank, 2012); Nepal (CBS, 2009); Viet Nam (ILSSA, 2012)

Taking into consideration these labour market structures and indicators, a lack of gender equality in employment clearly exists across global, regional and sub-regional levels. Women are also more likely to work in informal occupations, be prone to vulnerable employment and receive lower wages. These trends indicate that women and men are not receiving equal opportunities in the labour market, a trend that may only serve to perpetuate existing norms and attitudes about gender roles in society and a trend that needs combating. Ensuring education systems themselves both promote and exemplify gender equality among future generations is most undoubtedly an important part of the solution.

## 5. Education System Context and Policies

Examining policies impacting upon gender in education systems allows insights into different ways governments approach the issue of gender equality in education. At the same time, a closer look at enrolment rates reveals specific concerns in terms of gender disparity. Together, these provide the context for the subsequent discussion on educational factors and practices, with a focus on school and classroom factors.

### Policy Frameworks

The emphasis placed on gender equality in recent decades has been reflected in new policy and institutional frameworks emerging on gender issues in education throughout the Asia-Pacific region.

Among the countries selected for this study, Cambodia has a dedicated Ministry of Women's Affairs (MoWA), created in 1997 that is working specifically on gender, as well as a number of policies relating to girls education.

In Viet Nam, the Nation Action Plan on Education for All (2003–2015) has set gender quality in education as a priority by aiming to obtain gender equality in education in 2015" with a special focus on ensuring that all girls have full and equal access to quality education. Under the Law on Gender Equality, the Government of Viet Nam also made specific provisions for women and girls' access to education.

Nepal has also followed a similar path, with policies promoting girls education through its national plans, and its most recent Three Year Interim Plan (2010–2013) has identified gender equity development and inclusive education as priorities. Two specific policies: the Gender Mainstreaming Education Strategy (2007) and the Girls Education Strategy for Gender Equity Development (2007) are directly relevant to gender and education. In addition, the Gender Equity and Girls Education Network bring together a range of stakeholders from the Department of Education, international organizations, and non-governmental organisations with its overall action strategy having been adopted by the Ministry of Education.

In Indonesia, the Ministry of Education has developed Guidelines for Gender Mainstreaming in Education, whereby each educational unit working on the planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of all policies and programmes are required to integrate gender mainstreaming in education.

In Mongolia however, while there are no specific programmes for gender and education, a Strategy for Gender Equality was adopted in July 2013 to mainstream gender issues into educational factors and practices which will be examined in the next chapter.

## Access to Education

Looking at the gender parity index at secondary education as a whole across the region, the Asia-Pacific End of Decade Notes on EFA: Gender Equality, shows that the gender gap has improved in the last decade (UNESCO & UNICEF, 2012). In the latest figures on the Gender Parity Index (GPI) for the five countries in this study, Cambodia shows the lowest rate of gender parity at 0.9 with more boys enrolled in schools while Viet Nam demonstrates the highest rates at 1.09 with more girls enrolled in schools, as seen in Table 8.

**Table 8:** Gross enrolment ratio by gender and gender parity index in Secondary education

|                  | Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) |          |            | GPI  |
|------------------|-----------------------------|----------|------------|------|
|                  | Total (%)                   | Male (%) | Female (%) |      |
| <b>Cambodia</b>  | 46                          | 49       | 44         | 0.90 |
| <b>Indonesia</b> | 77                          | 77       | 77         | 1.00 |
| <b>Mongolia</b>  | 89                          | 86       | 92         | 1.07 |
| <b>Nepal*</b>    | 52                          | 50       | 53         | 1.05 |
| <b>Viet Nam</b>  | 77                          | 74       | 81         | 1.09 |

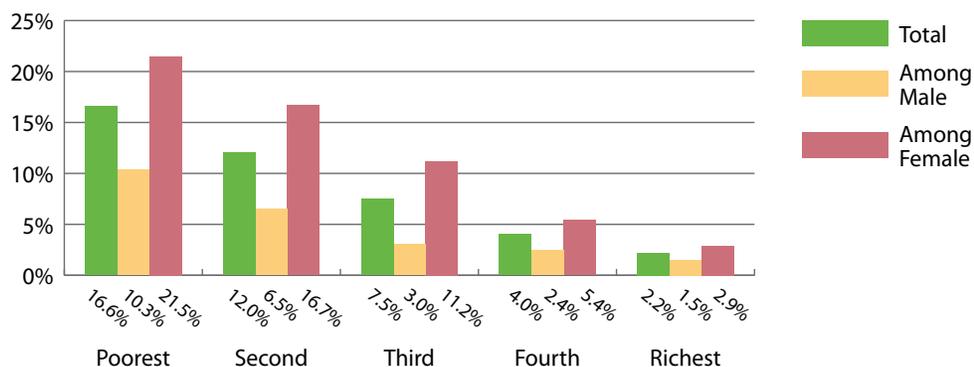
*Note: Statistics are for the school year ending in 2010*

**Source:** Global Monitoring Report on Education for All, UNESCO (2012)

\* Nepal: Department of Education (2012)

Despite current regional indicators showing progress in enrolment rates and in the gender parity index at the secondary level, a closer look at the influence of socioeconomic factors in Nepal presents a different story. Figure 2 shows that a high proportion of children and youth in Nepal have never attended school. Looking at the data by gender, it is clear that girls are at a significant disadvantage, particularly those from the lowest wealth quintiles. For instance, of the poorest girls, 21.5% had never attended school compared to 10.3% of boys as of 2010.

**Figure 2:** 6–24 years population who have never attended school in Nepal by wealth quintile (%)



**Source:** Adapted from CBS (2011)

Comparing this figure with enrolment rates, it appears that there is a discrepancy between near parity in the gross enrolment ratio at the secondary level, with the gaps between male and female in those who have never been to school among the five wealth quintiles. This indicates the need for further research to assess where these discrepancies lie.

When broken down in terms of wealth, the GPI for the class attendance ratio in Nepal shows that girls from all wealth quintiles are the most disadvantaged when it comes to secondary education. This suggests that there are different expectations of education for girls and boys fuelled by wider sociocultural factors (UNESCO & UNICEF, 2012: 1718).

### Transition from school to work

When considering the transition from school to work in the five countries involved in the study, two topics have emerged as case studies worth exploring. As countries of the Asia-Pacific look to strengthen their economies in an ever changing world, and as we move towards knowledge-based societies, it is important for both female and male students to develop requisite skills, especially in key areas of technical and vocational education and training (TVET) and information and communication technology (ICT). TVET provides both female and male students with a specialized trade (Box 1); secondly, the acquisition of ICT skills has become crucial to the employability of young graduates (Box 2).

### **Box 1: Case Study: Technical and Vocational Education and Training**

With the changing demands of the labour market and skills gap in certain sectors, technical and vocational education and training (TVET) can equip students with skills that are in demand and facilitate their transition from school to work (UNGEI, 2012:12).

Taking into account the gender dimension, the data collected for this study shows that in entering the vocational track, subjects chosen by female and male students differ and reflect the gender roles examined in the previous chapter.

#### **Enrolment in technical and vocational education for the school year ending 2010 (%)**

|           | Female | Male |
|-----------|--------|------|
| Indonesia | 42     | 58   |
| Mongolia  | 47     | 53   |
| Viet Nam  | 54     | 46   |

**Source:** Global Monitoring Report on Education for All, 2012

In Viet Nam, vocational training is included as a compulsory subject to be chosen by students in an effort to support career orientation of students. Based on the student survey, while male students were inclined to choose vocational subjects such as electrical engineering, mechanics and informatics, female students were more oriented towards weaving, tailoring and nutrition. A similar trend was also observed in Indonesia, where male students opted for scientific subjects related to agriculture and industry, and female students opted for arts and tourism. This demonstrates that while TVET draws the interests of both female and male students, it is within the trade and subject specialization where one can see gender imbalance.

However, gender imbalance seems to occur when looking at apprenticeships in Cambodia. According to the Department of Labour Market Information, out of 5,569 apprentices in 92 enterprises in 2010, 92 per cent were women which indicates that the majority of formal apprenticeship training takes place in the garment industry (UNESCO, 2013).

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#### **Formal apprenticeships in Cambodia, by gender, 2010**

|               | No. of Apprentices | % of Apprentices |
|---------------|--------------------|------------------|
| <b>Female</b> | 5,123              | 92%              |
| <b>Male</b>   | 446                | 8%               |
| <b>Total</b>  | 5,569              | 100%             |

**Source:** Adapted from Cambodia TVET Policy Review, UNESCO, 2013

## Box 2: Case Study: Gender and the Demand for Specialized ICT Skills

With labour markets becoming increasingly complex worldwide, the demand for specialized skills, especially in the field of ICT has continued to rise. Nonetheless, according to a recent report commissioned by the Broadband Commission Working Group on broadband and gender, women account for only 20% of ICT specialists in OECD countries, with even less representation in other regions (ITU, 2013:13).

In the Asia-Pacific, a study conducted by the International Data Corporation (IDC) shows that among eight selected countries in the region, the proportion of female professionals who are able to work with networking technologies as a percentage of all the professionals in the sector averaged 9%. The study indicated particularly positive developments in Southeast Asia, where 34% of companies surveyed in Malaysia and 68% of companies surveyed in Malaysia reported an increase in female staff with networking skills (IDC, 2013).

The Cisco Networking Academy Program, a 15-year global social investment initiative of Cisco Systems, aims to address the global shortage of ICT skills through a Public Private Partnership model. The Academy program utilises an e-learning platform to deliver globally recognised courses in over 166 countries, reaching in excess of 1 million students per year. The table below details the number of students in the five focus countries who are currently enrolled, the number of cumulative students since program inception and the number of qualified instructors, desegregated by gender.

### Statistics on CISCO Networking Academy Programme

| Country   | Students |          | Cumulative Students Since Inception |          | Instructors |          | Academies |
|-----------|----------|----------|-------------------------------------|----------|-------------|----------|-----------|
|           | Total    | % Female | Total                               | % Female | Total       | % Female | Total     |
| Cambodia  | 4,759    | 30%      | 13,659                              | 34%      | 60          | 2%       | 15        |
| Indonesia | 30,898   | 27%      | 107,578                             | 27%      | 405         | 10%      | 160       |
| Mongolia  | 790      | 31%      | 3729                                | 28%      | 16          | 44%      | 5         |
| Nepal     | 323      | 6%       | 2,905                               | 19%      | 6           | 0%       | 6         |
| Viet Nam  | 5,120    | 12%      | 24,263                              | 13%      | 65          | 11%      | 19        |

Source: Data as of July 2013, Cisco Systems, Asia-Pacific.

The statistics show that female students and instructors remain underrepresented in the field of ICT, with less female students choosing this field of study in higher education, and less female teachers likely to teach ICT-related subjects as was examined in the data collected for this report. This applies to all five countries but to a lesser extent in Mongolia with 44% female instructors. These trends are reflected in the country reports. In Cambodia, for instance, of the total number of students enrolled in tertiary education for the academic year of 2010–11, only 1.2% of female students were studying information technology compared to 11.6% of male students (NEA, 2013). Nonetheless, this did not seem to be reflected in Mongolia, where students enrolled in computing as an optional subject at primary and secondary were 42.8% female and 52.8% male (MECS, 2012).

## 6. Educational Factors and Practices

Teaching and learning practices have an undeniable impact on learning outcomes and the career choices of female and male students. This chapter will look at issues relating to curriculum and textbooks, teachers, pedagogy, student participation in extracurricular activities as well as school infrastructure. Finally, it will examine the availability of career counselling services in education based on the findings of the country reports. All of these factors and practices have been identified as essential in assessing quality education and influential in shaping student perceptions of gender roles (UNESCO & UNICEF, 2012:12).

### Curriculum and textbooks

Gender stereotyping through curricula and textbooks can have an important influence on both education and labour outcomes for girls and boys. For instance, teaching and learning materials continue in many cases to emphasize the ‘domestic role’ of women while men are presented as possessing traits related to more technical professions, leading students to learn within an environment where gender roles have been reinforced (UNESCO & UNICEF, 2012:28). Such reinforcement of gender stereotypes in these materials leads to gendered perceptions, which can then influence the type of profession in which girls and boys choose to work in the future.

Across the Asia-Pacific, the extent to which curricula and textbooks have been developed with gender sensitivity vary across countries. In Cambodia, gender equality and a gender perspective are introduced in the national curriculum through moral and civic subjects. The following quote from a 15-year-old student in Takeo province gives a first-hand account of a student’s experience:

***“We used to learn about gender equality and gender perspectives from the moral and civic courses when we were in grade 7. Our teachers explained gender equality to us in our classes. For example, they taught us that women and men can work and will get a job based on their skills”.***

– 15-year-old female student, Takeo Province, Cambodia

This is similar in Viet Nam where the Ministry of Education and Training adopted a gender perspective in the development of the curriculum and textbooks, in accordance with the Gender Equality Law. Nonetheless, it was found that gender prejudice persisted with a lower frequency of female characters in stories and illustrations contained within textbooks (Kim Van Chien, 2004). Furthermore, the prevalence of male characters was found to increase with the level of education,

which indicates that as students continue with further study, increase in gender disparity and stereotyping in instructional material may increasingly influence attitudes and gender bias among students as they become more mature (Tran Huu Quang, 2011).

In Indonesia, the country report indicates that the majority of textbook authors are male, particularly for social studies, civics lessons, physical education, religious studies and Indonesian literature.

In Nepal, a number of stakeholders have been involved in reviewing and analyzing curricula and textbooks from a gender perspective. The frequent revisions of instructional material has resulted more gender responsive teaching materials.

## Teachers

Across the Asia-Pacific region, teaching has often been considered a predominantly female profession. The relationship between female dominance in the teaching profession and access to and quality in learning may require further research. Even if there may be a higher percentage of female teachers in primary education for most countries, this does not necessarily hold true for higher levels of education as the proportion of female teachers tends to drop (see Table 9).

**Table 9:** Female teachers by level of education (% of total teachers by level)

|                   | Primary <sup>^</sup> | Lower Secondary | Upper Secondary | Higher Education | TVET |
|-------------------|----------------------|-----------------|-----------------|------------------|------|
| <b>Cambodia</b>   | 48                   | 36.3            | 32.3            | -                | -    |
| <b>Indonesia*</b> | 64                   | 54.0            |                 | 41.0             |      |
| <b>Mongolia</b>   | 96                   | 84.4            | 74.1            | 59.6             | 61.9 |
| <b>Nepal</b>      | 42                   | 27.4            | 16.7            | 8.6              | -    |
| <b>Viet Nam</b>   | 77                   | 68.3            | 61.3            | 47.0             | -    |

*\*No data desegregated by level of secondary education available.*

*^All data for female teachers at the primary level are from UIS, 2011.*

**Source:** Cambodia (NEA, 2011); Indonesia (World Bank, 2011); Mongolia (MECS, 2012); Nepal (Department of Education, 2012); Viet Nam (MoET, 2012)

In Nepal, the education system has a small proportion of female teachers, especially at the upper secondary level. As the country report suggests, this may be problematic in creating a ‘girl-friendly’ learning environment for adolescent female students and was noted to cause increased emotional and psychological stress. This applies in particular to adolescent girls as they go through biological changes and the report found that they lacked a dependable female adult in school to talk to about their thoughts and fears (CERID, 2009).

## **Pedagogy**

Teaching practices have been acknowledged as a priority area when it comes to mainstreaming gender through education, particularly because of the potential for teaching and learning practices to influence gender perceptions (UNESCO & UNICEF, 2012:27). In order for girls and boys to fully benefit from education, a number of pedagogical issues must be addressed. This includes sensitizing teachers to the needs of both girls and boys in terms of learning, ensuring teachers are trained in gender responsiveness, and promoting teaching practices that promote empowerment of both girls and boys (FAWE, 2005:1).

In Viet Nam, specialized trainings are available for in-service teachers and in 2010, a training programme on the promotion of gender equality for all teachers was developed as a result of cooperation between the Government of Viet Nam and UNESCO. This gender training programme for education managers and officials aims to cover four important aspects, namely:

- ( 1 ) Basic definitions related to gender and gender equality
- ( 2 ) Teacher obligation and competency to maintain a gender perspective in education, including in the preparation of lesson plans and in their interpretation of curricula and textbooks to ensure avoiding ‘gender stereotypes’ and consider creating a gender-sensitive learning environment
- ( 3 ) Enabling teachers and schools to bring together stakeholders (families, community and social organizations) to work together on gender issues and promote gender equality
- ( 4 ) Implementation of gender equality policies and assurance of quality education at all levels (UNESCO and MoET, 2010)

For other countries, country report findings showed that teachers have not always participated in specialized training on gender-sensitive pedagogies. In the case of Indonesia, there is a perception that mainstreaming gender issues in teacher training opportunities is not important, and teachers wishing to learn more are likely to seek external training opportunities through NGOs and other organizations. In Mongolia

however, although no official training opportunities specialized in gender exist so far, the Strategy for Gender Equality adopted in July 2013 puts a number of relevant points on the agenda, including education standards for pre-service teacher trainings.

### Extracurricular activities

In addition to subjects taught in the classroom, extracurricular activities are also very important in preparing girls and boys for further study and the world of work by enabling them to develop crucial life skills, communication skills and critical thinking. Many have argued that encouraging life-skills education in schools can help to tackle these gender stereotypes by enabling students to think critically and build their decision-making capacity, which would improve gender responsiveness among learners (UNESCO & UNICEF 2012:29).

In Mongolia, students at secondary level are enrolled in 14 different fields of ‘specialized trainings’ which aim to provide more in-depth knowledge and competencies for students than the regular school curriculum. The data show that female students have a preference for Mongolian language, foreign languages, chemistry and the social sciences, whereas higher numbers of boys opt for mathematics and physics.

In Nepal, extracurricular activities are considered to be important for the overall development of children. Teachers are directly involved in selecting students for certain activities based on an assessment of each student’s aptitude and skills. As demonstrated in Table 10, findings show that while girls generally participate more in activities related to the arts such as singing, dancing, drama, quiz and debate, boys are predominantly involved in sports such as football, volleyball and cricket. A similar trend was found in Indonesia.

**Table 10:** Choice of extracurricular activities of male and female students in Nepal as reported by head-teachers and teachers

| Activities | Male students | Female students |
|------------|---------------|-----------------|
| Quiz       | 50            | 66              |
| Debate     | 24            | 33              |
| Dictation  | 13            | 26              |
| Singing    | 19            | 48              |
| Dance      | 19            | 52              |
| Drama      | 9             | 23              |

| Activities                       | Male students | Female students |
|----------------------------------|---------------|-----------------|
| Literary activities              | 33            | 32              |
| Volleyball                       | 40            | 12              |
| Basketball                       | 4             | 2               |
| Football                         | 42            | 3               |
| Tables Tennis                    | 6             | 6               |
| Athletics                        | 28            | 18              |
| Other Games                      | 18            | 20              |
| Arts and craft                   | 10            | 16              |
| Cricket                          | 17            | 0               |
| Skipping                         | 1             | 2               |
| Educational tour                 | 1             | 0               |
| <b>Total number of responses</b> | <b>334</b>    | <b>359</b>      |

These findings show that across the countries involved in this study, gendered choices are reflected in extracurricular activities chosen by students and/or their teachers. In the case of Nepal, respondents indicated that their choices were based on a combination of factors including:

- ( 1 ) the physical differences between boys and girls;
- ( 2 ) social, family and peer influences, especially in terms of deterring girls from participating in non-traditional activities;
- ( 3 ) girls' dress/uniform perceived as preventing girls from participating in sports; and
- ( 4 ) the shy nature of girls preventing them to participate in 'physical' activities.

Based on these observations, it can be argued that the reinforcement of gender roles through education and in this case, extracurricular activities, is linked to sociocultural norms examined earlier in this report.

### **School Infrastructure**

Ensuring that schools have adequate infrastructure to meet the needs of both girls and boys is another important aspect of educational factors and practices. In this report, this refers mainly to school design and facilities such as gender-specific

toilets. In the Asia-Pacific region, although countries have made efforts to improve physical facilities in schools, schools still lack separate toilets for girls and boys, and those in poorer rural and urban areas tend to have fewer resources, which are shown to have more of an effect on the educational prospects of girls than of boys (UNGEI, 2009:22).

Across the countries that participated in this study, it was found that efforts have been made to address the needs of girls and boys when it comes to school infrastructure. The findings suggest that these vary across educational levels and between rural and urban areas.

In Viet Nam, only two specific facilities are designed differently for girls and boys – boarding rooms and toilets. Designed according to national standards, schools with boarding students are required to arrange boarding rooms by grade, age groups and gender. Toilets for female students are also located separately from male toilets.

In Mongolia however, there are no specific gender considerations when it comes to the provision of facilities and infrastructure in schools at the policy level and only toilets and washing facilities are gender-specific.

In Indonesia, there is a disparity in development of school infrastructure and resources between rural and urban areas, with some rural facilities having less than satisfactory conditions. The findings also showed that the number of toilets is usually the same for girls and boys, and that there are still schools with common toilets.

In Nepal, numerous research studies point towards the lack of gender-segregated toilets and running water for girls as one of the major gender issues in the Nepali education system. Statistics from the Department of Information show that in 2010, 78.9% of community schools had toilets and of these 54% had common toilets and 46% had separate toilet provisions for boys and girls (DOE, 2011).

### **Approaches to Career Counseling**

When looking at support and guidance for career choice, it is interesting to note that although teachers are considered influential in guiding the career and other future life choices of girls and boys, there seems to be little official career counseling structures in schools within the region. According to a policy brief produced by UNESCO, “adolescents in this stage of education in most countries are frequently looking for guidance and both emotional and psychological support in not only career choices, but also the psycho-emotional dynamic surrounding their career choices” (UNESCO, 2009b:14).

In Viet Nam, the National Law on Education stipulates career orientation as part of comprehensive education in upper secondary schools. This was implemented in 2003 to better prepare students for further education and future employment, by supporting students in the following:

- ( 1 ) educate students on appropriate attitudes and develop a sense of responsibility towards their future careers;
- ( 2 ) help students familiarize themselves with popular careers and traditional industries in their local area;
- ( 3 ) assess ability and career orientation amongst students and prepare students for their careers; and
- ( 4 ) encourage students to pursue careers which are in need of workers.

Table 11 highlights this career-orientated content, including gender in career choice, in more detail.

**Table 11:** Content of high school career orientation programme in Viet Nam

| Content  | Grade |    |    |    |
|--|-------|----|----|----|
|  | 9     | 10 | 11 | 12 |
| The significance of scientific choice of career                      | *     | *  |    |    |
| National and local orientation of socio-economic development         | *     |    |    | *  |
| Labour market information  | *     |    | *  |    |
| Learning about personal ability and family career orientation        | *     | *  |    |    |
| Gender in career choice  |       | *  |    |    |
| Learning about some specific sectors and careers in society          | *     | *  | *  |    |
| Different orientation after finishing high school education          | *     |    |    |    |
| Orienting future career  |       | *  | *  |    |
| Conditions to be successful in career                                |       |    |    | *  |
| Development orientation of young people                              |       |    |    | *  |
| Learning about industrial, agricultural and service production       |       | *  |    |    |
| Learning about universities and colleges in locality                 |       |    | *  |    |
| Study tour or extra activities relating to career-oriented education |       |    |    | *  |

| Content                                   | Grade |    |    |    |
|---|-------|----|----|----|
|   | 9     | 10 | 11 | 12 |
| Training information                      | *     |    |    | *  |
| Preparing vocational training application |       |    |    | *  |
| Consulting career choice                  | *     |    |    | *  |

*Note: The symbol \* indicates the contents which are included in the syllabus of each grade level*

However, according to data gathered from students in Viet Nam, the career orientation programme in high school contained only general information regarding the current demands of the labour market, which is insufficient for students to make decisions on their future careers.

In Cambodia, there is no official structure for teachers to provide career counseling to students. The only official form of advice available to students is through the government career centres as well as career fairs which are not always frequented by secondary school students.

In Mongolia, schools generally do not offer career orientation and student counseling services at upper secondary level, which can limit the opportunity for students to acquire information that might potentially reshape their post-secondary goals and opportunities. Instead, Mongolian teachers and students who participated in focus group discussions for this study noted that when students have questions, teachers will try to answer as best as they can. In addition, it was found that students have no resources, books or materials on career orientation.

In Indonesia, career counseling is available in upper secondary, albeit with some limitations. It is interesting to note that such counseling seems to be more prevalent in vocational schools where students are geared towards entering a specific trade and occupation. It was also found that gender bias persists in career counseling in some cases as teachers providing career guidance to female students stressed appearance and ‘beauty’ as well as the importance of ‘being well dressed’.

Contrastingly, in Nepal it was found that the most important element for teachers providing career advice was the academic ability of the student. For instance, students scoring above 90% in their Grade 10 exam were usually advised to become medical doctors or engineers irrespective of their gender. Nonetheless, focus group discussions with 15-year-old students showed that while male students spoke of the importance of succeeding in their exams and continuing further study before they work, girls often raised the issue of marriage.

From data gathered from 15-year-old female and male students in Cambodia, it is interesting to note that the influence of their peers and teachers on their career choice was rated rather low at 13.9%, whereas the most influential factor was ‘themselves’. In the survey, students also identified their family as the next most influential factor and this will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter. When reflecting on the fact that teachers were listed as the least influential factor, the following quotations from students shed some light on why this could be so:

***“Even though teachers provide a lot of good advice and strongly motivate students to study hard so they can get a good job in the future, it is I myself who must decide what kind of profession I would like to have.”***

– 15-year-old male student, Phnom Penh, Cambodia

***“Teachers only advise me to study hard, but they rarely talk about our career plan”***

– 15-year-old female student, Takeo Province, Cambodia

## 7. Career Choices and Perspectives

This chapter will examine the perspectives of 15-year-olds in the region on the careers and professions they find most suitable for women and men, as well as the perspectives and choices of students themselves in regard to their own future careers. Information for this section has been drawn almost exclusively from primary data collected across the five countries. The detailed findings are available in Annex 5.

### Careers and occupations perceived to be suitable for women and men

As part of the survey, students were asked to indicate if they felt that certain careers/occupations were better suited to females or males. In addition, they were requested to list careers suited to men, and careers suited to women.

In Cambodia, the types of professions perceived as better suited to males and females were similar for both female and male students as per Table 12.

**Table 12:** Perspectives of 15-year-old Cambodian students on careers suited to women and men

| Careers/occupations are better suited to women   | Careers/occupations are better suited to men   |
|--|--|
| Accountant, tailor, market vendor, beautician, housekeeper, babysitter, embroiderer, weaver, public officer, clothes washer, and chef. | Palm climber, construction worker, motorbike or car taxi driver, freight handler, soldier, fisherman, farmer, mechanic and boxer |

**Source:** NEA's survey on girls' and women's career perspectives and choices, August 2013

All five country reports had similar findings, with professions requiring physical strength mostly perceived as better suited to men, whereas those involving traditional domestic roles were perceived as better suited to women. Among 15 year olds in Viet Nam, most felt that professions in mechanics, construction and the police force were better suited to men because they were 'heavy occupations' requiring 'strength and good health'. On the other hand, professions in teaching, tailoring and small trade were perceived as better suited to women due to their suitability in 'delicate' and 'people-oriented' occupations. In Indonesia, both female and male students strongly felt that certain professions were better suited to each gender, with this perception particularly pronounced among female students at 85% and at 72.7% among male students.

In Nepal, both female and male students were asked to rank from one to five which occupations were better suited to women and men. It is interesting to note that most female and male students chose ‘Engineer’ as the most suitable profession for men. As for perceptions of professions best suited for women, female students ranked ‘Nurse’ as most suitable, whereas male students felt that ‘Teacher’ was the most suitable occupation for women.

In Mongolia however, perspectives differed between female and male students. Of all 15-year-old female students surveyed, only 31% felt that certain occupations were better suited to either women or men compared to 50% of male respondents.

### Student plans to enter the labour market

All female and male students who participated in this study reported that they planned to enter the world of work. Students elaborated on their reasons for wanting to do so, as illustrated in the following tables. Table 13 shows the different views of female and male students in Nepal and Viet Nam <sup>1</sup>.

**Table 13:** Reasons for why female and male students plan to enter the labour market in Nepal and Viet Nam

|              |   |
|--------------|---|
| <b>Nepal</b> | <p>Female students:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Gain independence</li> <li>• Improve security in life</li> <li>• Fulfill basic needs</li> <li>• Gain respect from future spouse as an ‘earning wife’</li> <li>• Meet country’s human resource needs for development</li> </ul> <p>Male students:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ensure a good life</li> <li>• Meet family’s needs</li> <li>• Raise living standard of oneself and family</li> <li>• Gain social respect</li> <li>• Create a good environment for the next generation</li> <li>• Society and country’s development</li> </ul> |
|--------------|---|

<sup>1</sup> Views of students in Cambodia, Indonesia and Mongolia are not disaggregated by gender.

|                 |  |
|-----------------|--|
| <b>Viet Nam</b> | <p>Female students:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Provide for self and family</li> </ul> <p>Male students:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Provide for self and family</li> <li>• Benefit and contribute to society</li> </ul> |
|-----------------|--|

### Student plans to pursue tertiary education

Across all countries, the vast majority of 15-year-old students surveyed reported that they planned to pursue tertiary education in the future, as seen in Table 14. Among the reasons stated for this, many felt that further study would enable them to obtain a better job and gain a higher income for themselves and their families.

**Table 14:** Percentage of 15-year-old students planning to pursue tertiary education (%)

| Cambodia | Indonesia | Mongolia | Nepal | Viet Nam* |
|----------|-----------|----------|-------|-----------|
| 97       | 98        | 100      | 99    | 88        |

**Source:** Data collected from this survey. \* Data for Viet Nam derived from national data

In Mongolia, this was particularly high. In fact, 100% of participants suggested that continuing studies at the tertiary level was the only option.

In Nepal however, there was uncertainty among students as to how far they would be able to pursue further study. Among male students, many felt that they may have obligations to provide for the household. Female students however, reported four major factors influencing what level of education they would eventually complete: 1) exam score for the school leaving certificate, 2) family's financial capacity, 3) wish of parents and family, 4) marital status and post-marital situation.

In Viet Nam, there was no major gender differential in the views of students on their educational attainment. Here, 49.8% of students surveyed felt they would be able to reach the level of education desired, compared to the 26.6% who were certain that they would achieve the expected level.

In Cambodia, there seemed to be differing perspectives coming from students in rural and urban areas, with female students surveyed in Takeo province less likely

to plan to pursue tertiary education than those in Phnom Penh, as illustrated by the following quotation:

***“After Grade 12, I think that I will have enough basic knowledge to run a clothes store at the market. My parents will support me financially to have my own stall”.***

– 15-year-old female student, Takeo Province, Cambodia

For students in Indonesia, the proportion of students wishing to continue further study was also particularly high at 98%. Students felt strongly that education would determine whether they would obtain their desired profession in the future. They also felt that education was the key to entering the labour market irrespective of whether the major subjects were related to the profession in which they may hope to eventually work.

The survey findings show that both female and male students feel strongly that tertiary education is very important, if not essential to their future careers. However, expectations differed with students in rural areas generally reporting lower expectations of their educational outcomes.

### **Career expectations**

When looking at careers that students expect to have by 30 years of age, there appears a strong correlation between their choices and the factors explored in previous chapters.

In Mongolia, most students felt unsure of the field of study to pursue at tertiary level or what profession they would eventually work in. Nonetheless, most female students surveyed expressed a preference for working in professions such as teaching, writing, own-account work and medicine. On the other hand, male students reported that they preferred to become engineers, lawyers, construction managers and miners. Similar career expectations were found in Indonesia, with female students seeing themselves as entrepreneurs, doctors, teachers, secretaries, or housewives. Male students saw themselves working in the technology sector as well as in architecture, academia and public service. In contrast, both male and female students surveyed in Cambodia chose teaching as their preferred profession, with a higher rate among male students at 33.3% compared to 27.8% for female students. Looking more closely at Viet Nam, a survey on Hanoi adolescents and youth conducted in 2006 shows detailed data on professions in which students wish to work in the future as displayed in Table 15.

**Table 15:** Future occupations desired by teenagers in Hanoi, 2006 (%)

| Professions   | Male       | Female     |
|---|------------|------------|
| Military/ Police  | 15.7       | 3.8        |
| Managerial/Leaders  | 6.2        | 6.3        |
| Professional: Engineers, scientists, designers              | 39.5       | 52.2       |
| Technical   | 9.6        | 0.6        |
| Writers, artists, musicians                                 | 6.2        | 10.8       |
| Service oriented  | 4.6        | 7.6        |
| Clerk   | 0.3        | 3.5        |
| Self-employed/shop or restaurant own                        | 2.8        | 3.5        |
| Precision production, craft, repair, mechanic, construction | 1.5        | 0.3        |
| Operators and fabricators                                   | 5.2        | 2.8        |
| Unskilled labour  | 0          | 0.3        |
| Do not know   | 8.3        | 8.2        |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>324</b> | <b>316</b> |

Source: Survey on Hanoi adolescents and young people 2006

It is interesting to note that in Viet Nam, professional fields such as engineering, science and design were a more popular choice among female youth at 52.2% compared to 39.5% among males. In line with findings from other countries, professions within the military and police force were more highly desired by male youth at 15.7% compared to 3.8% for female youth.

## 8. Reflections and Recommendations

In understanding the relationship between gender, jobs and education, it is clear that multiple factors can and do influence the career choices of young men and women in the five selected countries. By creating a research framework focusing on the impacts of labour market trends, education system context and policies and education practices and factors, this study has revealed that career choices are socially imbricated. That is, they are both constituted within and impact upon existing social relations. This creates a continuous feedback loop whereby existing gender roles are perpetuated by existing social structures.

One study of OECD countries, for example, reveals that the choice of optional subjects at secondary level or field of study in higher education is largely influenced by one's gender and thus, gender continues to influence the kinds of jobs in which girls and boys will eventually work, with gender segregation in career expectation identified from age 15 (OECD, 2013:30). This pattern may be reflected in the fact that women remain under-represented in senior leadership positions with only 25% of senior management positions held by women globally (United Nations, 2013). Gender-specific indicators in the table below present an overview of the global picture and trends over the last two decades.

**Table 16:** Global Gender Indicators (1990 and 2011)

|  | 1990   |      | 2011   |      |
|--|--------|------|--------|------|
|  | Female | Male | Female | Male |
| <b>Economic structure, participation and access to resources</b> |        |      |        |      |
| Labour force participation rate<br>(% of population ages 15+)    | 52     | 81   | 51     | 77   |
| Employment to population ratio, total<br>(% ages 15+)            | 49     | 76   | 48     | 73   |
| Employment to population ratio, youth<br>(% ages 15-24)          | 45     | 59   | 35     | 49   |
| <b>Education</b>   |        |      |        |      |
| Gross primary enrollment ration<br>(% of relevant age group)     | 93     | 106  | 105    | 108  |
| Gross secondary enrollment ratio<br>(% of relevant age group)    | 45     | 54   | 69     | 71   |

|  | 1990   |      | 2011   |      |
|--|--------|------|--------|------|
|  | Female | Male | Female | Male |
| Gross tertiary enrollment ratio<br>(% of relevant age group) | 13     | 14   | 30     | 28   |
| Primary completion rate                                      | 76     | 85   | 89     | 91   |
| Youth literacy rate (% of population ages 15–24)             | 79     | 88   | 87     | 92   |
| <b>Public life and decision making</b>                       |        |      |        |      |
| Seats held in national parliament (%)                        | 13     | 87   | 21     | 79   |

**Source:** Adapted from the World Bank Little Data Book on Gender (2013a)

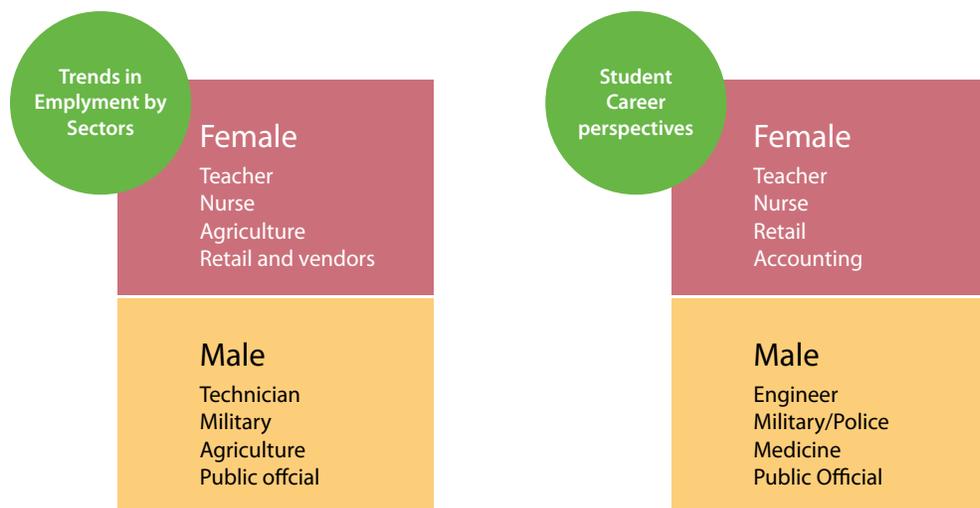
With regard to the five countries under analysis, the impact of these constituting elements (labour market trends, education system context and policies and education practices and factors) is no different – the perspectives on career choices of 15-year-old males and females in Cambodia, Indonesia, Mongolia, Nepal, Viet Nam clearly do reflect an inherent gender bias, albeit a bias operating at different levels and in different ways across countries.

In Mongolia for example, 42% of all rural school dropouts reportedly left the education system to assist their families in livestock herding. The dropout rate was twice as high for boys than girls due to labour distribution in herding families (ADB & World Bank, 2005). As chapter six also indicated, curriculum resources including textbooks can also perpetuate gender stereotypes through the portrayal of males and females carrying out traditional gender roles.

Despite the establishment of the Gender Equality Law in Viet Nam and national efforts to implement a gender perspective in the development of curriculum and textbooks, there was found to be a lower frequency of female characters in stories and illustrations (Kim Van Chien, 2004). In Indonesia, the country report also indicated that the majority of textbook authors are male. Given the subtle, gender bias implicit in textbooks and learning materials, it is also possible that such bias extends to pedagogy, particularly given the limited opportunity for training in gender-sensitive pedagogy across the five countries surveyed.

At the same time, the high proportion of female teachers at the primary level across most countries may influence the perception of gender roles in young males and females and which may in turn affect their perception of possible career options. Indeed, this may be reflected in the responses received by the 15-year-old students when asked to identify their most desirable career paths (see Figure 3 below).

**Figure 3:** Trends in employment by sector and student career perspectives (in all countries)



But barriers to gender balance in the labour market may exist not only in the social fabric of educational settings; they may also extend to unequal opportunities for recruitment and promotion, as the below recruitment notice in Box 3 serves to demonstrate.

**Box 3: Recruitment Notices in National Newspapers, Viet Nam**

*ATM Technician, National Bank*

Position required: ATM technician.

Number of maximum applicants in shortlist: 5 (preferred male)

***Ha Noi Moi, 5 November 2012***

*Coordinator, Ministry-affiliated News Centre*

Main tasks: liaising with partners, implementing economic information activities

Requirements:

- ( 1 ) Male or female below 45 years old (preferred male)
- ( 2 ) Bachelor's degree in marketing or English language
- ( 3 ) Sense of responsibility, self-motivated, good interpersonal communication

***Ha Noi Moi, 6 January 2011***

**Source:** Information provided by the Institute for Family and Gender Studies

The findings presented in this report indicate that labour market trends, educational policies, educational factors and practices, and the career choices and perspectives of female and male students all drive gender roles in education and jobs. Despite the impact of these multiple constituting elements, this report may help provide general policy recommendations to improve gender equality in education and employment. Given that this review has focused on five countries of the Asia-Pacific region, these recommendations are specific in focus though may be applicable beyond the Asia-Pacific region.

Recommendations in this report are presented in two main parts: 1) Overarching policy recommendations for the Asia-Pacific region in a) national policies, frameworks and initiatives, and b) educational factors and practices; and 2) Country specific recommendations, which include the key actions outlined in the country reports.

## Overarching Recommendations – the Asia-Pacific region

### ( a ) National policies, frameworks and initiatives

- ➔ There is need to explore and develop **dedicated policies to promote gender equality in education**, with care taken to better address sociocultural attitudes of girls and boys on gender roles and their potential effect on enrollment rates and future career path.
- ➔ The **implementation** of gender policies, frameworks and initiatives need to be **carefully planned, continually monitored and regularly evaluated**. Both quantitative and qualitative data need to be collected for the purpose of monitoring and evaluation.
- ➔ With close and regular monitoring and evaluation, gaps and challenges in policy and programmes can be identified. Therefore, **policy research** is necessary to inform reviews of policies and implementation strategies of gender policies, frameworks and initiatives.
- ➔ **National statistics and indicators must be disaggregated by gender** for both labour and education sectors in order to better inform future research and guide policymaking.
- ➔ National governments should strategize and create an **action plan on the transition from school to work** while taking gender into consideration. This should help ensure all students have a chance to enter the labour market sectors they desire.
- ➔ Initiate **employability schemes** for female and male students to enter the labour market in sectors that have traditionally been gender segregated such as science, engineering and technology or teaching, nursing and accountancy.
- ➔ **Intersectoral coordination** between various Ministries and Departments should be enhanced to ensure alignment of policies within the government, and also to mobilize technical and financial resources needed to support career orientation and gender equality.

### ( b ) Educational Practices

- ➔ A thorough **review of the school curriculum** should be carried out so as to mainstream the values of gender equality through subjects such as life skills, and also to determine relevant learning outcomes which would equip both girls and boys for the labour market.

- A thorough **analysis of textbooks** should be conducted at a national level to assess representation of gender roles and levels of gender stereotyping, and work towards revision of textbooks in order to ensure that both genders are equally represented for students to develop balanced gender perspectives.
- Care should be taken to ensure that both **pre and in-service teacher training** is provided on **gender-sensitive pedagogies** in order to address the different needs of female and male students, while considering the potential impact of pedagogy on shaping gender perceptions among female and male students.
- **Formal career guidance programmes** for girls and boys in schools should be established e.g. schools should have dedicated sections/committees to advise on and facilitate students' transition from school to work, organizing visits to job centers and employment seminars, etc.
- **School counselors** need to be trained in the concept of gender equality to enable them to provide girls and boys with relevant career guidance based on the student's passion and areas of strength regardless of gender.
- **Careers guidance services and support should be made more accessible and efficient** for students in order for them to consider their options to pursue their desired career before continuing their studies at tertiary level.
- Enhance **parental involvement in career related initiatives in education**, in order to ensure that students are supported in making informed career choices based on their abilities, and have access to relevant information on potential occupations and professions.
- Invest in **school resources and materials** that can further guide students and ensure they are better informed on issues associated with career orientation for girls and boys.

In addition to the general recommendations, the country reports also identified a number of actions that could be considered at a national level. Table 17 outlines some of these recommendations by country.

**Table 17:** Recommendations by country

| Country   | Policy Recommendations  |
|-----------|---|
| Cambodia  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Thorough <b>review and monitoring of media campaigns</b> to ensure that gender roles are fairly represented.</li> <li>• <b>Cooperation</b> between schools and the National Employment Agency should be enhanced.</li> </ul>   |
| Indonesia | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Monitoring and evaluation mechanisms</b> should be run by all educational institutions to assess how the educational programme has been implemented in line with key gender indicators in terms of participation, access, and benefits.</li> <li>• <b>Eliminate discriminatory practices in education</b> that may prevent students from participating in the national exam or from continuing education.</li> </ul>  |
| Mongolia  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>General public awareness</b> on gender equity should be strengthened.</li> <li>• The <b>provision of legal assistance</b> for women to report discriminatory practices should be strengthened.</li> </ul>   |
| Nepal     | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Strengthen collaboration</b> between Council for Technical Education and Vocational Training, Curriculum Development Centre and Department of Education to successfully deliver skill-based curricula and courses at school level.</li> <li>• Encourage teachers to proactively build on the current curriculum and textbooks by <b>promoting examples of women working in non-traditional trades through teaching and learning processes</b>.</li> <li>• Encourage <b>regular sharing sessions for teachers</b> to reflect and discuss good practice. This should be linked to action research in order to strengthen future practices.</li> </ul> |
| Viet Nam  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>Specific training, education and vocational programmes</b> should be implemented for women in order to further implement policies and measures on gender equality in education, provide better schooling opportunities for girls and boys and further the prospects and choices for female workers.</li> </ul>  |

## Conclusion

Gender equality is more than a powerful tool for economic development. In schools, gender equality presents opportunities for girls and boys to become better equipped with the life skills, attitudes and social intelligence needed to live full, productive and meaningful lives. Because of this, gender equality in education is recognized as a basic human right and its significance is reflected in both the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the Education for All (EFA) goals.

As this report has demonstrated however, gender equality is far from universal. It is clear, for instance, that segregation along gender lines is reflected in employment trends worldwide and that traditional gender roles are commonly perpetuated by existed social structures, a trend that may bring significant social and economic cost. As this report has revealed, sociocultural factors, existing labour market trends and educational practices continue to influence the career choices of young men and women in the five countries here surveyed.

This does not, however, imply the inevitable perpetuation of traditional gender roles through the career choices of young men and women. Much can be done at the policy level to ensure that both boys and girls are given greater opportunity to make decisions about their own futures based not on their gender or perceived role in society, but rather on their own unique skills and talents and on how best they can contribute to society. Changes to education policies and practices and employment structures, as per the recommendations in this report, are designed to help improve gender equality in all five countries involved in this research: Cambodia, Indonesia, Malaysia, Nepal and Viet Nam.

Given the universal need to improve gender equality, the overarching recommendations from this report can also be applied to countries of the Asia-Pacific region and beyond. To this end, findings in this report serve as illustrative examples, which may help inform policy formulation in areas relevant to gender, education and jobs across all countries. These recommendations also provide the basis for future research projects into gender, jobs and education, and the continued partnership between UNESCO and KWDI in this important area.

As strides are made to close the information gap, and exemplary policy changes follow suit, it is hoped the lives of all people, both female and male, can be enriched through increased access to equal opportunity.

# Annexes

## Annex 1. Glossary

**Adolescents:** Although the term ‘adolescents’ refers to a phase in the development of a person, this report defines adolescents as those aged between 14 and 17.

**Employment-to-population ratio:** Persons in employment divided by the population (OECD, 2013).

**Gender equality:** This means that women and men have equal conditions, treatment and opportunities for realizing their full potential, human rights and dignity, and for contributing to (and benefiting from) economic, social, cultural and political development. Gender equality is, therefore, the equal valuing by society of the similarities and the differences of men and women, and the roles they play (UNESCO, 2009b).

**Gender equity:** This is the process of being fair to men and women. To ensure fairness, measures must often be put in place to compensate for the disadvantages that prevent women and men from operating on an even playing field (UNESCO, 2009b).

**Gender parity:** Gender parity is a numerical concept, which implies that the same number of boys and girls receive educational services at different levels and in diverse forms (UNESCO, 2009b).

**Gender Parity Index (GPI):** GPI is a ratio of female-to-male values of a given indicator. A GPI of 1 indicates parity between sexes; a GPI above or below 1 indicates a disparity in favour of one sex over the other (UNESCO, 2009b).

**Labour force participation rate:** This is a measure of the proportion of a country’s working-age population that engages actively in the labour market. It is calculated by expressing the number of persons in the labour force as a percentage of the working-age population. (ILO, 2011c).

**Vulnerable employment:** Vulnerable statuses of employment refer to own-account workers and contributing family members. (ILO, 2009).

**Vulnerable Employment Rate:** The vulnerable employment rate is calculated as the sum of own-account and contributing family workers as a proportion of total employment (ILO, 2009).

## Annex 2. List of Abbreviations

|                |   |
|----------------|---|
| <b>ADB</b>     | Asian Development Bank  |
| <b>BPS RI</b>  | Badan Pusat Statistik Republik Indonesia (Statistics Indonesia)           |
| <b>CBS</b>     | Central Bureau of Statistics, Nepal                                       |
| <b>CEDAW</b>   | Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women              |
| <b>CERID</b>   | Research Centre for Educational Innovation and Development                |
| <b>EFA</b>     | Education for All   |
| <b>EMIS</b>    | Education Management Information System                                   |
| <b>FGD</b>     | Focus Group Discussion  |
| <b>FAWE</b>    | Forum for African Women Educationalists                                   |
| <b>GADC</b>    | Gender and Development for Cambodia                                       |
| <b>GER</b>     | Gross Enrolment Ratio   |
| <b>GPI</b>     | Gender Parity Index   |
| <b>ICT</b>     | Information and Communication Technology                                  |
| <b>IDC</b>     | International Data Corporation  |
| <b>ILO</b>     | International Labour Organization   |
| <b>ILSSA</b>   | Institute of Labour, Science and Social Affairs                           |
| <b>ITU</b>     | International Telecommunication Union                                     |
| <b>KWDI</b>    | Korean Women's Development Institute                                      |
| <b>MECS</b>    | Ministry for Education, Culture and Science, Mongolia (now known as MEDS) |
| <b>MoET</b>    | Ministry of Education and Training, Viet Nam                              |
| <b>MoWA</b>    | Ministry of Women's Affairs, Cambodia                                     |
| <b>NEA</b>     | National Employment Agency, Cambodia                                      |
| <b>NGO</b>     | Non-Governmental Organization   |
| <b>NSO</b>     | National Statistics Office, Mongolia                                      |
| <b>OECD</b>    | Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development                    |
| <b>PISA</b>    | Programme for International Student Assessment                            |
| <b>TVET</b>    | Technical and Vocational Education and Training                           |
| <b>UN</b>      | United Nations  |
| <b>UNESCAP</b> | United Nations Economic and Social Commission for the Asia-Pacific        |
| <b>UNESCO</b>  | United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization          |
| <b>UNGEI</b>   | United Nations Girls' Education Initiative                                |
| <b>UNICEF</b>  | United Nations Children's Fund  |
| <b>USD</b>     | United States Dollar  |

### Annex 3. Labour Market Data

**Table A1:** Working age population

|                  | Female (%) | Male (%) |
|------------------|------------|----------|
| <b>Cambodia</b>  | 68.0       | 64.5     |
| <b>Indonesia</b> | 36.7       | 36.5     |
| <b>Mongolia</b>  | 51.8       | 48.2     |
| <b>Nepal</b>     | 55.8       | 44.1     |
| <b>Viet Nam</b>  | 48.5       | 51.5     |

**Sources:** Cambodia (General Population Census of Cambodia, 2008); Indonesia (National Labour Force Survey, 2012); Mongolia (National Statistics Office labour Force Survey, 2011); Nepal (CBS, 2009); Viet Nam (National Survey on Labour and Employment, 2011)

**Table A2:** Unemployment Rate (%)

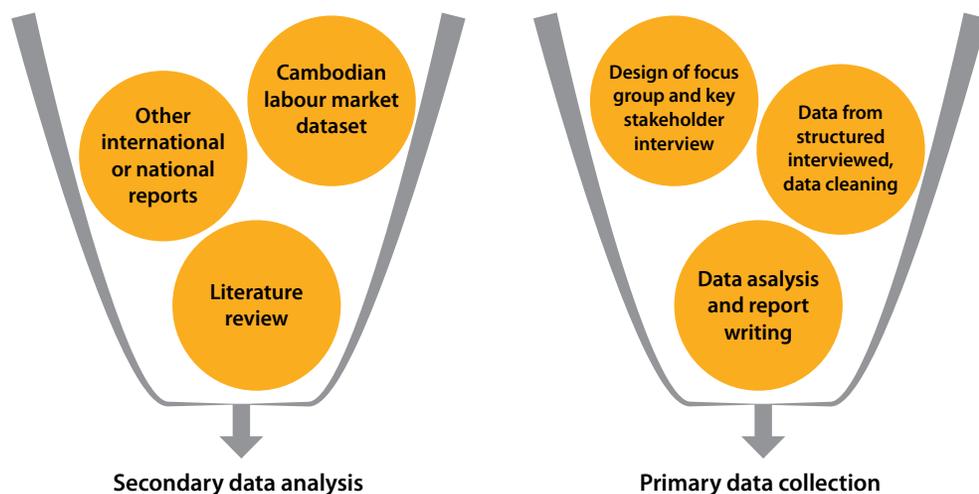
|                  | Female | Male | Total |
|------------------|--------|------|-------|
| <b>Cambodia</b>  | 1.4    | 1.2  | 1.2   |
| <b>Indonesia</b> | 7.6    | 5.9  | 6.6   |
| <b>Mongolia</b>  | 7.4    | 8.1  | 7.7   |
| <b>Nepal</b>     | 2.9    | 4.2  | 3.5   |
| <b>Viet Nam</b>  | 2.4    | 1.7  | 2.1   |

**Source:** Cambodia (General Population Census, 2008); Indonesia (National Labour Force Survey, 2012); Mongolia (National Statistics Office Labour Force Survey, 2011); Nepal (CBS, 2009); Viet Nam (National Survey on Labour and Employment, 2011)

## Annex 4. Detailed research methodology by country

### Annex 4.1 Cambodia

Figure A1: Data collection framework



Source: Adapted from UN (2009)

Table A3: Distribution of sample by gender and location

|              | Takeo province |      | Phnom Penh |      | Total |       |
|--------------|----------------|------|------------|------|-------|-------|
|              | No.            | %    | No.        | %    | No.   | %     |
| Female       | 9              | 25.0 | 9          | 25.0 | 18    | 50.0  |
| Male         | 9              | 25.0 | 9          | 25.0 | 18    | 50.0  |
| <b>Total</b> | 18             | 50.0 | 18         | 50.0 | 36    | 100.0 |

Source: NEA's survey on girls' and women's career perspectives and choices, August 2013

**Table A4:** Focus Group Discussions (FGD)

|                       | Male | Female | Total |
|-----------------------|------|--------|-------|
| <b>Phnom Penh</b>     |      |        |       |
| <b>Group 1</b>        | 3    | 3      | 6     |
| <b>Group 2</b>        | 6    | 0      | 6     |
| <b>Group 3</b>        | 0    | 6      | 6     |
| <b>Total</b>          | 9    | 9      | 18    |
| <b>Takeo province</b> |      |        |       |
| <b>Group 1</b>        | 3    | 3      | 6     |
| <b>Group 2</b>        | 6    | 0      | 6     |
| <b>Group 3</b>        | 0    | 6      | 6     |
| <b>Total</b>          | 9    | 9      | 18    |

**Source:** NEA’s survey on girls’ and women’s career perspectives and choices, August 2013

## *Annex 4.2 Indonesia*

### **Methods used:**

#### ( 1 ) Literature Study/Desk Analysis

Desk analysis of country-specific policy documents and statistics on gender equality in education and work from relevant national ministries (Ministry of Education and Culture, Ministry of Labor) and NGOs

#### ( 2 ) Interviews

Face to face interviews were conducted with students and teachers in junior high school, senior high school, and vocational schools, as well as relevant government officials (Ministry of Women’s Empowerment and Child Protection). A short questionnaire for students (15 years old), teachers and governments was developed.

The research was conducted over three months (July–September 2013) across two provinces: (1) DKI Jakarta Province (South Jakarta area and East Jakarta area); (2) West Java Province (Bekasi Regency and Bogor Regency/ Municipality).

**There are three stakeholder groups in this research:**

- ( 1 ) Students aged 15 (male and female), teachers, and head of school/vice head of school in junior high school, senior high school, and vocational school.
- ( 2 ) Representatives from relevant government offices in regency/municipality; education offices in Bekasi regency and Bogor municipality
- ( 3 ) Representatives from central government offices; Ministry of Women Empowerment and Child Protection.

**Table A5:** Interviews with 65 respondents

| No           | Stakeholder   | Respondent   | Amount    |
|--------------|---|--|-----------|
| 1            | Schools (junior high school, senior high school, and vocational school)     | Students aged 15                                   | 43        |
|              |   | Teachers   | 12        |
|              |   | Head of school/vice head of school                 | 6         |
| 2            | Representatives from relevant government officials in regency/ municipality | Education offices in Bekasi Regency                | 2         |
|              |   | Education office in Bogor Municipality             | 1         |
| 3            | Representatives from government officials in central level                  | Ministry of Women Empowerment and Child Protection | 1         |
| <b>TOTAL</b> |   |  | <b>65</b> |

**Table A6:** Research respondents (schools) by gender

| No | Regency/ Municipality | Schools               | Respondent          | Sex  |        |
|----|-----------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|------|--------|
|    |                       |                       |                     | Male | Female |
| 1  | East Jakarta Area     | SMPN 139 East Jakarta | Students            | 3    | 3      |
|    |                       |                       | Vice head of school | 1    |        |
|    |                       |                       | Teachers            |      | 1      |

| No                           | Regency/<br>Municipality | Schools                   | Respondent                     | Sex                                  |           |
|------------------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------------|-----------|
|                              |                          |                           |                                | Male                                 | Female    |
| 2                            | South Jakarta Area       | SMPN 155 South Jakarta    | Students                       | 3                                    | 3         |
|                              |                          |                           | Vice head of school            |                                      | 1         |
|                              |                          |                           | Teachers                       | 2                                    |           |
|                              |                          | SMAN 26 South Jakarta     | Students                       | 4                                    | 3         |
|                              |                          |                           | Vice head of school            | 1                                    |           |
|                              |                          |                           | Teachers                       |                                      | 1         |
| 3                            | Bekasi Regency           | SMPN 2 Bekasi             | Students                       | 2                                    | 4         |
|                              |                          |                           | Teachers                       |                                      | 2         |
|                              |                          | SMK 1 Muhammadiyah Bekasi | Students                       | 3                                    | 3         |
|                              |                          |                           | Head of School                 | 1                                    |           |
|                              |                          |                           | Teachers                       | 1                                    | 1         |
|                              |                          | 4                         | Bogor Regency/<br>Municipality | SMK Al Azhar Plus Bogor Municipality | Students  |
| Head of School               |                          |                           |                                |                                      | 1         |
| Teachers                     |                          |                           |                                |                                      | 2         |
| SMPN 1 Dramaga Bogor Regency | Students                 |                           |                                | 3                                    | 3         |
|                              | Vice head of school      |                           |                                | 1                                    |           |
|                              | Teachers                 |                           |                                |                                      | 2         |
| <b>SUB TOTAL</b>             |                          |                           |                                | <b>28</b>                            | <b>33</b> |
| <b>TOTAL</b>                 |                          |                           |                                | <b>61</b>                            |           |

## Annex 4.3 *Mongolia*

### Research Methodology

The following stakeholder groups took part in the study:

Teachers from three schools, 69 ninth grade students from three secondary schools, one school principal, and one ministry official.

### Timeframe

- ( 1 ) Desk study – May
- ( 2 ) Field survey to rural province and local school – June
- ( 3 ) Data analysis – June
- ( 4 ) Report writing – May – June

### Geographic representation (State/Province/City)

The study covered one rural province, Uvurkhngai aimag, located 400km from Ulaanbaatar and one school in Ulaanbaatar located in Bayanzurkh district. Ten teachers from secondary schools took part in focus group discussions and 69 students took part in the survey.

## Annex 4.4 *Nepal*

**Table A7:** Type and number of research participants by location

| Region  | Central Tarai | Eastern Hill | Valley    |           |          | Eastern Mountain | Western Hill | Far Western Tarai | Total |
|---|---------------|--------------|-----------|-----------|----------|------------------|--------------|-------------------|-------|
| Districts   | Dhanusa       | Ilam         | Kathmandu | Bhaktapur | Lalitpur | Solukhumbu       | Baglung      | Kailali           |       |
| Grade 10 students who participated in 5 point rating & FGDs | 43            | 40           | 40        | 40        | 36       | 40               | 40           | 40                | 319   |
| Survey  |               |              |           |           |          |                  |              |                   |       |
| Bachelor level non-working women                            | 13            | 15           | XX        | XX        | 7        | 10               | XX           | 15                | 60    |
| Bachelor level non-working men                              | 11            | 15           | XX        | XX        | 6        | 10               | XX           | 15                | 57    |

| Region   | Central Tarai | Eastern Hill | Valley    |           |          | Eastern Mountain | Western Hill | Far Western Tarai | Total      |
|--|---------------|--------------|-----------|-----------|----------|------------------|--------------|-------------------|------------|
| Districts  | Dhanusa       | Ilam         | Kathmandu | Bhaktapur | Lalitpur | Solukhumbu       | Baglung      | Kailali           |            |
| Female school teachers   | 11            | 9            | 8         | 6         | 9        | 3                | XX           | 20                | 66         |
| Male school teachers   | 9             | 7            | 8         | 7         | 7        | 9                | XX           | XX                | 47         |
| Head teacher survey  | 6             | 2            | 2         | 2         | 2        | 2                | XX           | 2                 | 17         |
| Working women  | 9             | 2            | 33        | 15        | XX       | 3                | XX           | XX                | 62         |
| Working men  | 6             | 4            | 25        | XX        | XX       | 4                | XX           | XX                | 39         |
| Nurses   | 20            | XX           | 28        | 18        | XX       | XX               | XX           | XX                | 66         |
| Female flight attendants   | XX            | XX           | 18        | XX        | XX       | XX               | XX           | XX                | 18         |
| <b>Total survey respondents</b>  |               |              |           |           |          |                  |              |                   | <b>751</b> |
| FGDs with grade 10 male and female students                                  | 4             | 4            | 4         | 4         | 4        | 4                | 4            | 4                 | 32         |
| Group discussion:  |               |              |           |           |          |                  |              |                   |            |
| Higher Secondary School and Teacher representatives                          |               |              |           |           |          |                  |              |                   | 9          |
| Teachers' Union Nepal & representatives of different Teachers' Organizations |               |              |           |           |          |                  |              |                   | 14         |
| Female teacher society   |               |              |           |           |          |                  |              |                   | 15         |
| <b>Total discussion participants</b>   |               |              |           |           |          |                  |              |                   | <b>38</b>  |

**Table A8:** Selected Schools

| SN. | Districts | School names                            | Total |
|-----|-----------|---|-------|
| 1.  | Baglung   | Tribhuvan Higher Secondary School (HSS) | 2     |
| 2.  | Bhaktapur | Bageshwori HSS                          | 2     |

| SN.                  | Districts  | School names          | Total                                    |   |
|----------------------|------------|-----------------------|--|---|
| 3.                   | Dhanusa    | Sankat Mochan HSS     | Shree Madhyamik Vidhyalaya (High School) | 2 |
| 4.                   | Ilam       | Bhagawati HSS         | Adarsha HSS                              | 2 |
| 5.                   | Kailali    | Sarada HSS            | Shree Panchodaya HSS                     | 2 |
| 6.                   | Kathmandu  | Janasewa HSS          | Mangal HSS                               | 2 |
| 7.                   | Lalitpur   | Mahalaxmi HSS         | Luvun High School                        | 2 |
| 8.                   | Solukhumbu | Shree Janajagriti HSS | Garma High School                        | 2 |
| <b>Total schools</b> |            |                       | <b>16</b>                                |   |

## ***Annex 4.5 Viet Nam***

### **Method for analysis and data sources**

A desk review and analysis of statistical data, as well as a survey have been the key methods used in this report. In addition, in order to collect greater input for the report, the authors have collected information from relevant target groups such as students aged 15 years old and students who have completed upper secondary education (Grade 12).

### **Data and materials used for this report include:**

- (1) Legal documents and policies on gender equality in work and labour issues, education and training in Viet Nam
- (2) Relevant research on gender, labour, employment, education and training.

### **Statistical data analysed in this report includes:**

- (1) National survey data on labour by Viet Nam General Statistical Office in 2010–2012;
- (2) Data of the Census on Population and Housing, Viet Nam, 2009;
- (3) Statistics on education by Ministry of Education and Training, 2007–2012.

### **Study results used for the analyses in the report include:**

- ( 1 ) Baseline survey on gender equality and the impacts of policies on women and men in serving policy making in Viet Nam (2005–2006) (hereafter, Baseline Survey on Gender Equality). The survey was conducted in 2005 with 4,176 questionnaire respondents in 13 provinces and cities (4,176 women and men in 13 provinces and cities).
- ( 2 ) National survey on Vietnamese Families in 2006 with the sample of 9,300 households. There were 2,452 adolescents aged 15–17 years participating in the questionnaire survey.
- ( 3 ) National survey on adolescents and young people in Viet Nam (SAVY), the second round in 2009 with the participation of 10,044 young people aged 14–25 years old, including 1,301 respondents of 15 years of age.
- ( 4 ) Survey on Hanoi-based adolescents and young people in 2006 with a sample of 6,363 young people aged 15–24 years, including 640 adolescents of 15 years of age.

### **Methods used to collect information from pupils:**

- Questionnaires have been used to interview 20 pupils at the age of 15 years in Hanoi, of which 10 pupils (five male and five female) were in urban areas and 10 pupils (five male and five female) were in suburban areas. The questionnaire served to identify boys' and girls' job selection (see Annex 6).
- Phone interviews with two pupils (one male and one female) who have completed upper secondary education on career activities performed by their schools. The contents of the interviews included: forms and content of career orientation activities by their schools and their own assessment on the usefulness of these activities.

## Annex 5. Detailed findings from data collection by country

### Annex 5.1 Cambodia

**Table A9:** Highest education qualification of parents by number of children

| No of children | Highest education qualification of parents |                    |                      |                             |                 |
|----------------|--|--------------------|----------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------|
|                | Can read and write (%)                     | Primary school (%) | Secondary School (%) | Beyond secondary School (%) | Grand Total (%) |
| 1–2            | -  | 25.0               | 28.6                 | 100.0                       | 25.0            |
| 3–4            | 66.7                                       | 75.0               | 61.9                 | -                           | 61.1            |
| 5+             | 33.3                                       | -                  | 9.5                  | -                           | 13.9            |
| <b>Total</b>   | <b>100.0</b>                               | <b>100.0</b>       | <b>100.0</b>         | <b>100.0</b>                | <b>100.0</b>    |

Source: NEA's survey on girls' and women's career perspectives and choices, August 2013

**Table A10:** Youth perceptions of influences on their career choices

|                     | No Influence<br>f(%) |        |        |        |            |        |       |        |       |        |
|---------------------|----------------------|--------|--------|--------|------------|--------|-------|--------|-------|--------|
|                     | Male                 |        | Female |        | Phnom Penh |        | Takeo |        | Total |        |
|                     | n=18                 |        | n=18   |        | n=18       |        | n=18  |        | n=36  |        |
| Self                | 0                    | (0.0)  | 0      | (0.0)  | 0          | (0.0)  | 0     | (0.0)  | 0     | (0.0)  |
| Father              | 1                    | (5.6)  | 4      | (22.2) | 5          | (27.8) | 0     | (0.0)  | 5     | (13.9) |
| Mother              | 2                    | (11.1) | 2      | (11.1) | 4          | (22.2) | 0     | (0.0)  | 4     | (11.1) |
| Other family member | 3                    | (16.7) | 4      | (22.2) | 6          | (33.3) | 1     | (5.6)  | 7     | (19.4) |
| Family <sup>b</sup> | 1                    | (5.6)  | 1      | (5.6)  | 2          | (11.1) | 0     | (0.0)  | 2     | (5.6)  |
| Teacher             | 5                    | (27.8) | 9      | (50.0) | 11         | (61.1) | 3     | (16.7) | 14    | (38.9) |
| Friend              | 9                    | (50.0) | 6      | (33.3) | 9          | (50.0) | 6     | (33.3) | 15    | (41.7) |
| Career Guidance     | 9                    | (50.0) | 9      | (50.0) | 13         | (72.2) | 5     | (27.8) | 18    | (50.0) |

| No Influence<br>f(%)                               |      |         |        |        |            |        |       |         |       |        |
|--|------|---------|--------|--------|------------|--------|-------|---------|-------|--------|
|  | Male |         | Female |        | Phnom Penh |        | Takeo |         | Total |        |
|  | n=18 |         | n=18   |        | n=18       |        | n=18  |         | n=36  |        |
| <b>Media</b>                                       | 7    | (38.9)  | 4      | (22.2) | 7          | (38.9) | 4     | (22.2)  | 11    | (30.6) |
| <b>Gender</b>                                      | 11   | (61.1)  | 9      | (50.0) | 11         | (61.1) | 9     | (50.0)  | 20    | (55.6) |
| More or most important rating <sup>a</sup><br>f(%) |      |         |        |        |            |        |       |         |       |        |
|  | Male |         | Female |        | Phnom Penh |        | Takeo |         | Total |        |
|  | n=18 |         | n=18   |        | n=18       |        | n=18  |         | n=36  |        |
| <b>Self</b>  | 18   | (100.0) | 17     | (94.4) | 17         | (94.4) | 18    | (100.0) | 35    | (97.2) |
| <b>Father</b>                                      | 5    | (27.8)  | 2      | (11.1) | 1          | (5.6)  | 6     | (33.3)  | 7     | (19.4) |
| <b>Mother</b>                                      | 6    | (33.3)  | 5      | (27.8) | 3          | (16.7) | 8     | (44.4)  | 11    | (30.6) |
| <b>Other family member</b>                         | 4    | (22.2)  | 5      | (27.8) | 2          | (11.1) | 7     | (38.9)  | 9     | (25.0) |
| <b>Family <sup>b</sup></b>                         | 9    | (50.0)  | 9      | (50.0) | 5          | (27.8) | 13    | (72.2)  | 18    | (50.0) |
| <b>Teacher</b>                                     | 4    | (22.2)  | 1      | (5.6)  | 2          | (11.1) | 3     | (16.7)  | 5     | (13.9) |
| <b>Friend</b>                                      | 1    | (5.6)   | 4      | (22.2) | 2          | (11.1) | 3     | (16.7)  | 5     | (13.9) |
| <b>Career Guidance</b>                             | 2    | (11.1)  | 2      | (11.1) | 2          | (11.1) | 2     | (11.1)  | 4     | (11.1) |
| <b>Media</b>                                       | 0    | (0.0)   | 1      | (5.6)  | 0          | (0.0)  | 1     | (5.6)   | 1     | (2.8)  |
| <b>Gender</b>                                      | 0    | (0.0)   | 5      | (27.8) | 2          | (11.1) | 3     | (16.7)  | 5     | (13.9) |

<sup>a</sup> These columns refers to the frequency (and percentage) of students who rated each influence as a “more important influence” or “most important influence”.

<sup>b</sup> Family factor represents student perception of the highest influence that a family member (including parents) has had on his/her career choice.

## Annex 5.2 Indonesia

**Table A11:** Perceptions of students (14–16 years old) toward careers/occupations based on gender perspective

| Certain occupations are better suited to females and to males | Female |     | Male   |       | Total  |       |
|---|--------|-----|--------|-------|--------|-------|
|   | Number | %   | Number | %     | Number | %     |
| Yes   | 17     | 85% | 16     | 72.7% | 33     | 78.6% |
| No  | 3      | 15% | 6      | 27.3% | 9      | 21.4% |

**Table A12:** The types of careers suited to females, males, and both

|                       | Female  | Male  | Both  |
|-----------------------|---|---|---|
| <b>Type of career</b> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Stewardess</li> <li>• Secretary</li> <li>• Midwives, Nurses</li> <li>• Bank Clerk</li> <li>• Salesclerk/Cashier</li> <li>• Sales Promotion Girl (SPG)</li> <li>• Chef</li> <li>• Employees of</li> <li>• International Relations</li> <li>• Batik entrepreneurs</li> <li>• Lecturer</li> <li>• Administrator</li> <li>• Housewife</li> <li>• Obstetricians</li> <li>• Model</li> <li>• Psychologist</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Police</li> <li>• Army</li> <li>• Pilot</li> <li>• Office employees</li> <li>• Sailor</li> <li>• Hospitality</li> <li>• Employees</li> <li>• Professor</li> <li>• Company Director</li> <li>• Public Servant</li> <li>• Automotive</li> <li>• Entrepreneur</li> <li>• Surveyor</li> <li>• Porters</li> <li>• Manager</li> <li>• Lawyer</li> <li>• Law Enforcement</li> <li>• Construction Workers</li> <li>• Miners</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Doctor</li> <li>• Architect</li> <li>• Teacher</li> <li>• Businessman</li> </ul> |

**Table A13:** Career choices of 14–16 years old students after graduating from school

|                      | Women  | Men  |
|----------------------|--|--|
| <b>Career Choice</b> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Secretary</li> <li>• Midwife</li> <li>• Teacher</li> <li>• Doctor</li> <li>• Entrepreneur/business</li> <li>• Dancer</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Teacher</li> <li>• Public Servant</li> <li>• Chef</li> <li>• Lecturer</li> <li>• Programmer</li> <li>• Animator</li> <li>• Robotics (Robot Maker)</li> <li>• Businessman</li> <li>• Architect</li> <li>• Accounting</li> <li>• Diplomat</li> <li>• Pilot</li> </ul> |

**Table A14:** Career aspirations of 42 students surveyed (14–16 years old) at 30 years of age

|                           | Female  | Male  |
|---------------------------|---|---|
| <b>Career expectation</b> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Entrepreneur</li> <li>• Doctors (Children, General, Specialist, Obstetricians)</li> <li>• Artist</li> <li>• Teacher</li> <li>• Secretary</li> <li>• Housewife</li> <li>• Psychologist</li> <li>• Public Servant</li> <li>• Author</li> <li>• Company Director</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Entrepreneur</li> <li>• Office Employee</li> <li>• Chef</li> <li>• Architect</li> <li>• Sailor</li> <li>• Public Servant</li> <li>• Doctor</li> <li>• Lecturer</li> <li>• Pilot</li> <li>• Company Director</li> <li>• Accountant</li> <li>• Programmer</li> <li>• Animator</li> <li>• Mechanical engineering</li> </ul> |

### *Annex 5.3 Mongolia*

The survey was administered to 69 15-year-old students from rural and urban schools. The questionnaire included questions relating to future career choices. Questions were asked regarding whether they planned to enter the labor market in the future, whether they planned to pursue tertiary education of some form, what sorts of jobs they would expect to be doing when they reach 30 years of age and questions relating to whether they felt like certain occupations are better suited to males and to females. The following provides a summary of the results of the study:

- (1) Interest in entering the labour market  
100% of students from schools in both rural and urban areas replied that they plan to enter the labor market in the future. The students were asked why they think having a job is important in their future life. Most of the students responded by saying they will need to work in order to survive and live in society. It seemed that the current Mongolian living situation gives incentives to work for many young Mongolian students. Students appear to understand how their parents are working hard to survive and from this they also believe that they need to enter the labour market in order to help their parents. It is also interesting to note that 22% of the students that participated mentioned that they want to enter the labor force in order to develop their country.
- (2) Percentage of students pursuing tertiary education  
100% of students from schools in both rural and urban areas replied that they plan to enter tertiary education in the future. There is not much alternative in Mongolia in terms of pursuing higher education. Students believe that getting a higher education qualification will help them find a better job in the future.
- (3) Types of jobs desired at the age of 30  
Most students replied that they were undecided in terms of choosing their major. However, most male students preferred to become engineers, lawyers, defense persons, construction managers and mining workers. Female students preferred becoming teachers, poets/writers, entrepreneurs, carers and doctors.
- (4) Careers suited for women and men

**Table A15:** Gender perceptions of students on professions suited to women and men

| Are certain occupations<br>are better suited to<br>females and to males? | Female |     | Male   |     | Total  |     |
|--|--------|-----|--------|-----|--------|-----|
|  | Number | %   | Number | %   | Number | %   |
| Yes  | 10     | 31% | 13     | 50% | 23     | 38% |
| No   | 23     | 69% | 13     | 50% | 36     | 62% |

According to the above table, 69% of female students do not agree with the idea that professions are gender specific. However, 50% of male students think some professions are suited for only men or women. Those who agreed to this statement mentioned the following professions as suitable only for men: driver, heavy machinist, constructionist, engineer, defense officer, police officer, mechanic, pilot, mining driver, security personnel, family leader, electrician, and welder. Those who agreed also mentioned the following professions were suitable for only women: secretary, office worker, medical nurse, teacher, doctor, cook, accountant, opera singer, dancer, cleaner, housewife, child carer, lawyer, hairdresser, designer, fashion model, sewing, manicurist, and masseuse.

### *Annex 5.4 Nepal*

**Table A16:** Occupations perceived as suitable for boys and girls by grade 10 FGD participants

| Occupation perceived as suitable | Priority rank by girls' FGD |           | Priority rank by boys' FGD |           |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------|----------------------------|-----------|
|                                  | For Boys                    | For Girls | For Boys                   | For Girls |
| Acting                           |                             | 5th       |                            |           |
| Agriculture related technician   |                             |           |                            | 5th       |
| Agriculturist/farmer             | 5th                         |           | 5th                        |           |
| Air Hostess/Flight attendant     |                             | 3rd       |                            | 3rd       |
| Army                             | 4th                         |           | 4th                        |           |
| Beautician                       |                             |           |                            | 3rd       |
| Business                         | 3rd                         |           | 3rd                        |           |
| Dancing/Choreography             |                             |           |                            | 5th       |
| Driving                          |                             |           | 4th                        |           |
| Engineer                         | 1st                         |           | 1st                        | 5th       |

| Occupation perceived as suitable | Priority rank by girls' FGD |           | Priority rank by boys' FGD |           |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------|----------------------------|-----------|
|                                  | For Boys                    | For Girls | For Boys                   | For Girls |
| Medical doctor                   | 2nd                         | 4th       | 2nd                        | 4th       |
| Nurse                            |                             | 1st       |                            | 2nd       |
| Pilot                            | 2nd                         |           | 4th                        |           |
| Police                           |                             |           | 5th                        |           |
| School/College teacher           | 4th                         | 2nd       | 2nd                        | 1st       |
| Singing                          |                             | 5th       |                            |           |
| Sports person                    |                             |           | 5th                        |           |

## *Annex 5.5 Viet Nam*

**Table A17:** Desired level of educational attainment of 15-year-old students (by gender and area of residence, %)

| Education level             | Total      | Inner city |            | Peripheral areas |            |
|-----------------------------|------------|------------|------------|------------------|------------|
|                             |            | Male       | Female     | Male             | Female     |
| Below junior high schooling | 1.9        | 1.4        | 1.5        | 3.5              | 1.8        |
| Senior high schooling       | 6.9        | 3.3        | 2.4        | 16.8             | 11.7       |
| Vocational training         | 3.0        | 2.4        | 2.0        | 7.1              | 1.8        |
| College                     | 4.4        | 3.8        | 2.0        | 7.1              | 7.2        |
| University                  | 49.7       | 51.7       | 47.3       | 51.3             | 48.6       |
| Post graduate               | 34.2       | 37.4       | 44.9       | 14.2             | 28.8       |
| <b>Total</b>                | <b>640</b> | <b>211</b> | <b>205</b> | <b>113</b>       | <b>111</b> |

**Table A18:** Expected education attainment levels by study results

| Education level             | Total | Inner city |        | Peripheral areas |        |
|-----------------------------|-------|------------|--------|------------------|--------|
|                             |       | Male       | Female | Male             | Female |
| Below junior high schooling | 0     | 1.1        | 5.6    | 1.9              | 1.8    |
| Senior high schooling       | 0     | 5.9        | 17.5   | 6.9              | 11.7   |
| Vocational training         | 1.3   | 2.2        | 7.1    | 3.0              | 1.8    |

| Education level | Total      | Inner city |            | Peripheral areas |            |
|-----------------|------------|------------|------------|------------------|------------|
|                 |            | Male       | Female     | Male             | Female     |
| College         | 2.6        | 4.2        | 7.1        | 4.4              | 7.2        |
| University      | 37.3       | 56         | 46.8       | 49.7             | 48.6       |
| Post graduate   | 58.8       | 30.5       | 15.9       | 34.2             | 28.8       |
| <b>Total</b>    | <b>153</b> | <b>357</b> | <b>126</b> | <b>640</b>       | <b>111</b> |

**Table A19:** Perception of teenagers on the occupations suitable for men and women

| Education level | Occupation   | Reason  |
|-----------------|--|---|
| Men             | Mechanic, transporter, builder, porter                                   | These are heavy occupations and only men with good health can handle  |
|                 | Physical exercise teacher, police, doctor                                | These occupations reflect strength and require good health            |
| Women           | Small trade  | Women have "silver tongue"  |
|                 | Teacher, dancing teacher, antenatal doctor, kindergarten teacher, tailor | These are delicate/kid-glove occupations which are suitable for women |

**Table A20:** The jobs teenagers want to do in the future

| The jobs  | Male  | Female |
|---|-------|--------|
| Military/Police   | 15.7% | 3.8%   |
| Managerial/ Leaders   | 6.2%  | 6.3%   |
| Professional: Engineers, scientists, designers              | 39.5% | 52.2%  |
| Technician  | 9.6%  | 0.6%   |
| Writers, artists, musicians                                 | 6.2%  | 10.8%  |
| Service oriented  | 4.6%  | 7.6%   |
| Clerk   | 0.3%  | 3.5%   |
| Self employed/shop or restaurant owner                      | 2.8%  | 3.5%   |
| Precision production, craft, repair, mechanic, construction | 1.5%  | 0.3%   |
| Operators and fabricators                                   | 5.2%  | 2.8%   |

| The jobs                                 | Male       | Female     |
|--|------------|------------|
| Unskilled labor                          | 0%         | 0.3%       |
| Do not know                              | 8.3%       | 8.2%       |
| <b>Total number of students surveyed</b> | <b>324</b> | <b>316</b> |

Source: Survey on Hanoi adolescents and young people 2006

## Annex 6. Sample Questionnaire for 15-year-old Students

*Please answer the following questions.*

1. Do you plan to enter the labour market in the future?  
 Yes  No
  
2. If YES, please write down why do you think working is significant for you?  
-----
  
3. Do you plan to enter tertiary education institution in the future?  
 Yes  No
  
4. If NO, why do you think so?  
-----
  
5. What kind of job do you expect to have when you are about 30 years old?  
-----
  
6. Do you feel that certain careers/occupations are better suited to females and certain ones to males?  
 Yes  No
  
7. If YES, list those suited for men.  
-----
  
8. If YES, list those suited for women.  
-----
  
9. Your age: \_\_\_\_\_
  
10. Your sex: Male: \_\_\_\_\_ Female: \_\_\_\_\_

*Thank you.*

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