Asia and the Pacific Education for All (EFA) Mid-Decade Assessment

INSULAR SOUTH-EAST ASIA

Synthesis Report

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Acronyms

ABIM:	Angkatan Belia Islam or Malaysian Youth Islamic Movement
ADB:	Asian Development Bank
ADM:	Alternative Delivery Modes (of formal education)
AFTA:	ASEAN Free Trade Agreement
ALS:	Alternative Learning System
APIS:	Annual Poverty Indicators Survey (Philippines)
APPES:	Accreditation Programme for Public Elementary Schools (Philippines)
ARMM:	Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao (Philippines)
ASEAN:	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
A&E:	Accreditation and Equivalency (Philippines)
BALS:	Bureau of Alternative Learning System (Philippines)
BA:	Bustanul Athfal or Islamic Kindergartens (Indonesia)
BAN:	National Board of School Accreditation (Indonesia)
BEE:	Bureau of Elementary Education (Philippines)
BESRA:	Basic Education Sector Reform Agenda (Philippines)
BKB:	Infants' Family Development (Indonesia)
BSNP:	Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan or Board of National Education Standards (Indonesia)
BOS:	Bantuan Operasional Sekolah or Operational Aid to School Programme (Indonesia)
BPS:	Badan Pusat Statistik or National Bureau of Statistics (Board of Central Statistics) (Indonesia)
BSE:	Bureau of Secondary Education (Philippines)
CEDAW:	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CFSS:	Child-Friendly School System
CHED:	Commission on Higher Education (Philippines)
CRC:	Convention on the Rights of the Child
CWC:	Commission on the Welfare of Children (Philippines)
DECS:	Department of Education, Culture and Sports (Philippines)
DepEd:	Department of Education (Philippines)
DOH:	Department of Health (Philippines)
DOS:	Department of Statistics (Malaysia)
DSWD:	Department of Social Welfare and Development (Philippines)
EASE:	Easy and Affordable Secondary Education (Philippines)
ECCD:	Early Childhood Care and Development
ECCE:	Early Childhood Care and Education
ECOP:	Employers' Confederation of the Philippines
EDCOM:	The Congressional Commission on Education (Philippines)
EDMP:	Education Development Master Plan (Malaysia)
EDPITAF:	Educational Development Projects Implementing Task Force (Philippines)
EMIS:	Education Management and Information System –MOE (Malaysia)
EPRD:	Educational Planning and Research Division – MOE (Malaysia)
EFA:	Education for All

ETEEAP:	Expanded Tertiary Education Equivalency and Accreditation Programme (Philippines)	
EVS:	Education Voucher System (Philippines)	
FLEMMS:	Functional Literacy, Education and Mass Media Survey (Philippines)	
Forkonaspus:	Forum Koordinasi Nasional-Pendidikan Untuk Semua or EFA Coordination Forum (Indonesia)	
GAD:	Gender and Development (Philippines)	
GDP:	Gross Domestic Product	
GER:	Gross Enrolment Rate	
GIR:	Gross Intake Rate	
GNI:	Gross National Income	
GPI:	Gender Parity Index	
HDI:	Human Development Index	
HIV/AIDS:	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/ Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome	
HNC:	Health and Nutrition Centre (Philippines)	
IACES:	Inter-agency Committee on Education Statistics (Philippines)	
ICT:	Information and Communication Technology	
ILO:	International Labour Organization	
IMC:	Instructional Materials Council (Philippines)	
IMCS:	Instructional Materials Council Secretariat (Philippines)	
IMPACT:	Project Instructional Management by Parents, Community and Teachers (Philippines)	
IPEC:	International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour	
ISCED:	International Standard Classification of Education	
ISSC:	Integrated Secondary School Curriculum (Malaysia)	
JAIN:	Jabatan Agama Islam Negeri or Islamic State Religious Department - MOE (Malaysia)	
JBIC:	Japan Bank for International Cooperation	
JFIT:	Japanese Funds-In-Trust	
JHOEA:	Department of Orang Asli Affairs (Malaysia)	
JICA:	Japan International Cooperation Agency	
JPNIN:	Jabatan Perpaduan Negara & Integrasi Nasional or Department of National Unity and Integration (Malaysia)	
JPS:	Jabatan Pendidikan Swasta or Private Education Division – MOE (Malaysia)	
KEMAS:	Department of Regional and Rural Development – MRRD (Malaysia)	
KIA2M:	Kelas Intervensi Asas Membaca dan Menulis or Early Intervention Class for Reading and Writing (Malaysia)	
KWAPM:	Poor Students' Trust Fund (Malaysia)	
LCC:	Literacy Coordinating Council (Philippines)	
LET:	Licensure Examination for Teachers (Philippines)	
LFS:	Labour Force Survey (Philippines)	
LGUs:	Local Government Units	
MA:	Madrasah Aliyah or Islamic Senior High School (Indonesia)	
MDA:	[EFA] Mid-Decade Assessment	
MWFCD:	Ministry of Women, Family and Community Development (Indonesia)	

MDG:	Millennium Development Goals
MECD:	Ministry of Entrepreneur and Cooperative Development (Malaysia)
MHR:	Ministry of Human Resources (Malaysia)
MI:	Madrasah Ibtidaiyah or Islamic Primary Schools (Indonesia)
MISOSA:	Modified In-School, Out-of-School Approach (Philippines)
MLFS:	Malaysia Labour Force Survey
MOE:	Ministry of Education (Malaysia)
MOH:	Ministry of Health (Indonesia, Malaysia)
MOHE:	Ministry of Higher Education (Malaysia)
MOHR:	Ministry of Human Resources (Malaysia)
MRRD:	Ministry of Regional and Rural Development (Malaysia)
MONE:	Ministry of National Education (Indonesia)
MOOE:	Maintenance and Other Operating Expenses
MORA:	Ministry of Religious Affairs (Indonesia)
MRRD:	Ministry of Regional and Rural Development (Malaysia)
MT:	Madrasah Tsanawiyah or Islamic Junior Secondary Schools (Indonesia)
MTPDP:	Medium-Term Philippine Development Plan (Philippines)
MWFCD:	Ministry of Women, Family and Community Development (Malaysia)
NACEWFCL:	National Action Committee for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour (Indonesia)
NAT:	National Achievement Test (Philippines)
NCBTS:	National Competency-Based Teachers Standard (Philippines)
NCCE:	National Coordinating Council for Education (Philippines)
NCP:	National Commission on Indigenous Peoples (Philippines)
NCRFW:	National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (Philippines)
NDT:	National Diagnostic Test (Philippines)
NEAP:	National Educators Academy of the Philippines
NEC:	National EFA Committee (Philippines)
NETRC:	National Education Testing and Research Centre (Philippines)
NER:	Net Enrolment Rate
NFE:	Non-Formal Education
NGOs:	Non-Governmental Organizations
NIR:	Net Intake Rate
NOSS:	National Occupational Skills Standards (Malaysia)
NPE:	National Philosophy of Education (Malaysia)
NPSC:	New Primary School Curriculum (Malaysia)
NPW:	National Policy for Women (Malaysia)
NSO:	National Statistics Office
NSTIC:	National Science Teaching Instrumentation Centre (Philippines)
ODA:	Official Development Assistance
OPP:	Outline Perspective Plan (Malaysia)
OSEC:	Office of the Secretary (Philippines)
OSY:	Out-of-School Youth
PACOS Trust:	Partners of Community Organizations Trust (Malaysia)

Phil-IRI:	Philippines - Informal Reading Inventory	
PKBM:	Pusat Kegiatan Belajar Masyarakat or Community Learning Centre (Indonesia)	
PMR:	Penilaian Menengah Rendah or Lower Secondary Assessment (Malaysia)	
Posyandu:	Integrated Health Services Centre (Indonesia)	
POSPAUD:	Integrated Services for Health and Education (Indonesia)	
PPGD:	Philippine Plan for Gender-Responsive Development	
PTAI:	Perguruan Tinggi Agama Islam or Islamic Higher Education (Indonesia)	
PTCA:	Parents, Teachers and Community Associations	
PTR:	Pupil/Teacher Ratio	
RA:	Republic Act (Philippines)	
RA:	Raudhatul Athfal or Islamic Kindergarten (Indonesia)	
Renstra KL:	Rencana Strategis - Kementerian/lembaga or Ministry and Agency Medium-Term Strategic Plan (Indonesia)	
SBM:	School-Based Management	
SBT	Tuition Voucher Scheme (Malaysia)	
SD:	Sekolah Dasar or Elementary School (Indonesia)	
SDC:	Social Development Committee (Philippines)	
SEDs:	State Education Departments (Malaysia)	
SEF:	Special Education Fund – LGUs (Philippines)	
SENs:	Special Education National Schools (Malaysia)	
SFI:	School First Initiative (Philippines)	
SIP:	School Improvement Plan	
SITC:	Sultan Idris Teachers' College (Malaysia)	
SKK:	Surat Kompetensi Keaksaraan or Standard Competencies (Indonesia)	
SMA:	Sekolah Menengah Atas or Senior High School (Indonesia)	
SMP:	Sekolah Menengah Pertama or Junior High School (Indonesia)	
SOCCSKSARGEN:	South Cotabato, Cotabato, Sultan Kudarat, Sarangani and General Santos City (Region XII, Mindanao, Philippines)	
SPED	Special Education	
SPM:	Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia or Malaysia Certificate of Education	
SQEM:	Standard for Quality Education in Malaysia	
STAM:	Sijil Tinggi Agama Malaysia or Malaysia Higher Certificate for Religious Education	
STPM:	Sijil Tinggi Persekolahan Malaysia or Malaysia Higher School Certificate Examination	
SUKMA:	Surat Keterangan Melek Aksara or Literacy Certificate (Indonesia)	
TECS:	Teacher Education Council (Philippines)	
TEDP:	Teacher Education and Development Programme (Philippines)	
TESDA:	Technical Education and Skills Development Authority (Philippines)	
TK:	Taman Kanak-kanak or Kindergarten (Indonesia)	
TVET:	Technical-Vocational Education and Training	
TWG:	Thematic Working Group	
UIS:	UNESCO Institute for Statistics	
UIS-AIMS:	UNESCO Institute for Statistics – Assessment, Information Systems, Monitoring and Statistics (Office of the UIS Regional Advisor – Asia and the Pacific)	
UISDC:	UNESCO Institute for Statistics Data Centre	

UNDP:	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCAP:	United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
UNESCO:	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNGEI:	United Nations Girls' Education Initiative
UNICEF:	United Nations Children's Fund
UPSI:	Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris (Malaysia)
UPSR:	Ujian Penilaian Sekolah Rendah or Primary School Assessment Test (Malaysia)
WEF:	World Education Forum
WEI:	World Education Indicators

Acknowledgement

Foreword

As the 2015 target of meeting the Education for All (EFA) goals approaches, it is imperative for all concerned to focus efforts and resources on reaching the unreached and the disadvantaged in education. Identifying who these groups are, where they are, and why existing policies are not effective and/ or continue to leave them excluded is, thus, equally as important as assessing the overall national progress in meeting the EFA goals.

In the first decade of EFA implementation (1990-2000), most of the monitoring and assessments were done by external agencies and consultants, except for countries in sub-Saharan Africa. These reports focused mostly on national achievements and did not delve much on sub-national disparities in education, an analysis of which is crucial for targeted strategic programming.

Working with members of the Regional Thematic Working Group (TWG) on EFA, UNESCO Bangkok in particular the Assessment, Information Systems, Monitoring and Statistics (AIMS) Unit, which is the office of the UNESCO Institute for Statistics Regional Advisor for Asia-Pacific, assisted countries in carrying out the EFA Mid-Decade Assessment (MDA). Advised and supported by the Regional TWG on EFA, the AIMS programme developed the strategy, methods and tools for the MDA and oriented the country leadership, trained the national teams and mobilized the participation of country teams, organizations and institutions across the region.

The assessment came at the mid-way point of the 2000-2010 decade. It examined progress and gaps in the achievement of national and global EFA targets. The MDA also aimed to identify and locate the remaining gaps in terms of quality and equity sub-nationally, with a focus on disadvantaged and excluded populations.

As part of the Asia-Pacific EFA Mid-Decade Assessment process, countries carried out their national assessments with technical advice and support from EFA partner organizations at the national, sub-regional and regional levels.

Thus, the Asia-Pacific region is unique with regard to the active role of country-led EFA coordination, monitoring and evaluation in the process of the EFA Mid-Decade Assessment and Mid-Term Policy Review. The Asia-Pacific approach to the assessment became a model for other regions around the world.

This sub-regional report is a compilation of the national reports specific to the sub-region, supported by sub-regional and regional studies and use UIS data for international comparison. It is hoped that this report will be used to sharpen the focus and update policies and strategies for attaining the EFA goals and the related Millennium Development Goals by 2015.

Sheldon Shaeffer
Chair, Regional Thematic Working Group on EFA
Director UNESCO Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau for Education
December 2008

Preface

Since its creation in 2003, the Office of the UIS Regional Advisor - Assessment, Information Systems, Monitoring and Statistics (UIS-AIMS) Unit has focused on developing regional and national capacity for monitoring, evaluation and assessment in support of evidence-based policy and strategies.

In response to the need for information on EFA progress beyond the national achievements and the importance of carrying out a country-led assessment, the UIS-AIMS Unit developed the strategy, methods and tools for the Asia-Pacific EFA Mid-Decade Assessment: Reaching the Unreached in Education. This was carried out in collaboration with other Education Units within the UNESCO Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau for Education and in coordination with members of the Regional Thematic Working Group on EFA.

The Asia-Pacific MDA encouraged country ownership and the institutionalization of EFA monitoring, evaluation and assessment in the Ministries of Education. Technical working groups that focused on each EFA goal were also formed at the regional and national levels as part of the assessment. Collection of data and information on the unreached groups and analysis of sub-national disparities in education was the main focus on the whole assessment as well as identifying critical factors and obstacles to achieving the EFA goals.

Working together with the TWG on EFA and the regional technical working groups, the UIS-AIMS Unit also developed the *Guidelines of the Asia-Pacific EFA Mid-Decade Assessment: Identifying and Reaching the Unreached*, which became the main reference for countries undertaking the assessment.

After nearly three years of capacity building trainings, technical consultations, data collection and analysis, and regional, national and sub-national consultative meetings, countries in Asia-Pacific have produced their respective national EFA MDA reports. Nearly 40 countries in the region, spanning from Central Asia, South and West Asia, East Asia, South-East Asia to the Pacific Island States have rigorously prepared national assessment reports focusing on the unreached in education.

Acknowledging, however, the vast and various differences within the region, it was decided to prepare sub-regional reports to synthesize the national reports. Thus came about the sub-regional reports for:

- **The Mekong Sub-Region** covering Viet Nam, Thailand, Lao PDR, Cambodia and Myanmar
- **The Insular South-East Asia Sub-Region** covering the Philippines, Malaysia and Indonesia
- **The South Asia Sub-Region** covering Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Sri Lanka and Pakistan
- **The Central Asia Sub-Region** covering Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan

China and Mongolia for East Asia, several Pacific Island States (Fiji, Kiribati, Marshall Islands, Micronesia, Papua New Guinea, Tonga, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Palau, Tuvalu, Vanuatu) and the Islamic Republic of Iran are also in various stages of finalizing their national reports.

The sub-regional synthesis reports are designed to provide a comparative assessment of progress towards EFA in each of the sub-regions, focusing on successes and remaining challenges in reaching the unreached. The sub-regional reports have also been reviewed and validated by the concerned countries and EFA partner agencies, organizations and civil society education coalitions. It is hoped that by highlighting the contextual background of education in each of the sub-regions, the synthesis reports can provide a framework for developing targeted policies and strategies that specifically address the unique challenges of each sub-region.

Ko-Chih R. Tung
UNESCO Institute for Statistics Regional Advisor for Asia-Pacific
Head, UIS-AIMS Programme Unit, UNESCO Bangkok
December 2008

Data used in this report come mainly from two sources, the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) and the country-provided data, mostly from the Ministry of Education.

In observance of international standards, UIS data is used when making cross-national, comparisons hence Part II of this report uses mainly UIS data. When making sub-national analysis, data provided by the countries are used. Part III of this report mainly uses country provided data.

However, gaps may be observed in some cases between the UIS and national data.

Data on pupils, teachers and expenditure used by UIS are based on survey results reported to and processed by the UIS. Most countries report their data directly to the UIS using standard questionnaires issued by the Institute or via surveys carried out under the World Education Indicators Programme (WEI), or are provided by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and the Statistical Office of the European Communities.

Population Data

In calculating indicators on access and participation (e.g. enrolment rates), the UIS uses population estimates produced by the United Nations Population Division (UNPD), which is updated on the basis of the population-related information reported by the respective National Statistical Offices (NSO) of Member States. In this report as in the 2008 EFA Global Monitoring Report, the 2004 revision of population estimates by the UNPD was used for most countries.

On the other hand, Ministries of Education may calculate indicators on access and participation using population estimates from sources other than the NSO, and a different reference year; hence MOE-calculated indicators may have different values as those calculated by the UIS. If the discrepancies are too large and remain unresolved, the UIS will not calculate or publish related indicators.

ISCED Classification

Education systems differ from country to country to a varying degree; hence it is difficult to compare data between countries. To harmonize data and minimize these differences, the UIS calculate education indicators based on school data submitted by the MOE and UNPD population estimates using a standardized taxonomy called the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED, 1997).

Some differences between nationally and internationally reported enrollment ratios may be due, therefore, to the use of these nationally defined education levels rather than the ISCED standard, in addition to the population issue noted above.

This report uses UIS data based on ISCED standards when making cross-country comparisons. This is confined to Part II of the report. Part III, however, examines progress in EFA within the country and hence uses mainly country-provided data.

PART I:

BACKGROUND OF SUB-REGION AND OVERVIEW OF THEMATIC ISSUES

1. Introduction to the EFA MDA Insular South-East Asia Sub-Regional Report

1.1 Rationale for the EFA MDA Sub-Regional Reports

At the World Conference on Education for All (EFA) in Jomtien, Thailand (5-9 March 1990), delegates from 155 countries and representatives from over 150 organizations reaffirmed their collective commitment to education as a human right and pledged to work towards the universalization of primary education and the reduction of illiteracy by the end of the decade. Targets and strategies for providing universal access and improving equity and learning were enshrined in the Jomtien Framework for Action. By the year 2000, however, national assessments showed that the goals have not yet been achieved.

Thus at the World Education Forum (Dakar, Senegal, April 2000), 1,100 participants reaffirmed their commitment to achieving Education for All by the year 2015, specifically six major goals and 12 major strategies identified in the Dakar Framework for Action. Moreover, the framework placed the main responsibility for achieving the EFA goals on Member States, which were encouraged and supported in their development of national plans of action.

In Asia and the Pacific, UNESCO Bangkok, UNICEF and the Regional Thematic Working Group (TWG) on EFA have been working together to assist countries in their monitoring and assessment of progress towards EFA and identifying remaining gaps in reaching the unreached. Thus, the EFA Mid-Decade Assessment called for the implementation of national and regional assessments to identify problems, issues, policies and strategies to ensure that education will reach underserved groups. Where relevant data are available, statistical analysis for national EFA MDA reports focused on the gaps in access to various levels of quality education across the diverse strata and groups in society.

During the third quarter of 2007, in the context of the EFA Mid-Decade Assessment and the mid-term review of education policies and reforms aimed at expanding the provision of education across various strata and groups in society, UNESCO Bangkok, in collaboration and consultation with Member States and the TWG on EFA, began the process of drafting the sub-regional synthesis EFA MDA reports for four sub-regions in Asia and the Pacific:

- The Mekong Sub-Region covering Viet Nam, Thailand, Lao PDR, Cambodia and Myanmar

- The Insular South-East Asia Sub-Region covering the Philippines, Malaysia and Indonesia

- The South Asia Sub-Region covering Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Sri Lanka and Pakistan

- The Central Asia Sub-Region covering Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan

China and Mongolia for East Asia, several Pacific Island States (Fiji, Kiribati, Marshall Islands, Micronesia, Papua New Guinea, Tonga, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Palau, Tuvalu, Vanuatu), and the Islamic Republic of Iran are also in various stages of finalizing their national reports.

The overall objective of the sub-regional synthesis reports is to undertake a comparative assessment of progress towards EFA in each of the sub-regions, focusing on successes and remaining challenges in reaching the unreached. The sub-regional synthesis reports will serve four main purposes:

a) provide a framework for developing targeted policies and strategies that specifically address the unique challenges of each sub-region in achieving the goals of EFA by 2015 by highlighting the contextual background of education in each sub-region, as well as their distinctive historical, socio-economic and cultural contexts;

b) provide an opportunity for comparative analysis of progress towards EFA within the sub-regions using statistical data and country examples;

c) raise the profiles of the sub-regions amongst UN agencies and donors; and

d) contribute to the Mid-term Review of National Education Policy and the regional synthesis report on EFA MDA in Asia-Pacific.

The Sub-Regional Synthesis Reports are divided into three sections with inputs from three different sources. The first section (Part I) presents the background and overview of the sub-region and key thematic and cross-cutting issues, based on the findings from thematic reports and studies submitted by EFA partners, development agencies, and members of the TWG on EFA; the second section (Part II) summarizes achievements and challenges in attaining the six EFA goals for the sub-region using internationally standardized data from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) complemented with information from national reports and summary questionnaires; the third section (Part III) consists of country summaries of progress for the six EFA goals focusing on sub-national analysis, based on the national reports. Moreover, Part II includes a sub-regional statistical profile (MDA core indicators, tables and graphs, and thematic maps). The Annex also includes country statistical profiles and statistical tables. These statistical inputs were provided by the UIS.
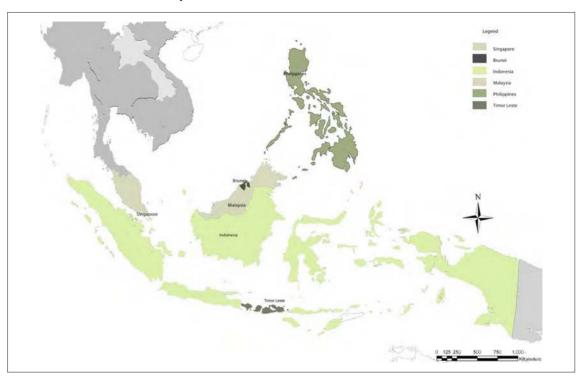
This report focuses on Insular South-East Asia with particular attention to Indonesia, Malaysia and the Philippines which all participated in the EFA Mid-Decade Assessment.

2. Overview of the Sub-Region

South-East Asia is generally divided into two geographical sub-regions: (a) the Mainland South-East Asia; and (b) Insular South-East Asia. The mainland consists of Thailand, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Cambodia and Viet Nam while the insular half comprises the islands or peninsular countries of Brunei Darussalam, Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore and Timor Leste.

As a whole, South-East Asia covers a total of 4,500,000 square km. with Insular South-East Asia comprising 58.46% (2,630,610 sq. km.) of this land area. The largest country in the sub-region is Indonesia, which straddles the equator with around 13,500 islands, ranging from atolls to the huge island of Sumatra that encompasses 1,919,440 sq. km. The next largest is Malaysia, which is geographically divided into Peninsular Malaysia on the mainland and East Malaysia on Borneo, the largest island not only in Insular South-East Asia but in the entire South-East Asian region. Often considered an archipelagic nation, Malaysia has a total land area of 329,750 sq. km. The Philippines archipelago, generally delineated into three major island/island groups (i.e., Luzon, Visayas, and Mindanao), consists of about 7,100 islands with a total land area of 300,000 sq. km. Brunei Darussalam is a small state of 5,765 sq. km. located at the northeast part of the island of Borneo. At the foot of the Malay Peninsula, the smallest among the sub-region's countries is the city-state of Singapore with a land area of 648 sq. km. The youngest among the South-East Asian countries and located in the island of Timor in the eastern part of Indonesia, Timor Leste has a land area of 15,007 sq. km. (Lim, 2004).

Map 1: Insular South-East Asian Countries

Source: Culture Unit, UNESCO Bangkok 2008.

2.1 Historical and Political Background

The early pre-colonial socio-political development in Insular South-East Asia is largely shaped by its geographical attributes. As with the rest of South-East Asia, it is within the humid tropics since it is located on the equator. It consists of varied landscapes of South-East Sumatra's extensive mangrove swamps; Bali, Java and Central Luzon's fertile plains; interior Borneo's rainforest; and eastern Indonesia's tiny coral islands. As early as six thousand years ago, the people of Insular South-East Asia subsisted through nomadic hunting and gathering, semi-sedentary fishing and gathering or semi-sedentary cultivation of wild plant species such as yams and coconuts, and then domestication of forest trees like durian, breadfruit and banana. From such practices, human communities thrived across the varied landscapes and different ecological zones characterized by small independent settlements scattered throughout the sub-region. There was no political centralization nor natural affinity towards the formation of a state. Within the settlements, however, moral and religious entities function as the central authority (Andaya, 1997).

The development of settlements was characterized by the control of power and wealth, shaped by access to the sea. Insular South-East Asia is strategically located along the great trading routes stretching from China to India. Trading ships sailed between China and South-East Asia and between South-East Asia and India. To reach China, however, traders had to negotiate the Straits of Malacca with Malaysia to the east and the Indonesian island of Sumatra to the west. The centres of state power and sources of wealth thrived through the control of resources and manpower, trade, shipping routes, commodities and markets. The first dominant power to arise in the archipelago was Srivijaya based in Sumatra. From the fifth century, the capital, Palembang, became a major seaport and functioned as an entry to the Spice Route between India and China. Srivijaya was succeeded by the power centres of Samudra, Pasai, Aceh, Palembang and Riau-Ligga (Reid, 2005). Other kingdoms within the sub-region were that of the Javanese Majapahit which flourished from the 12th to 15th century, Bugis-Makassar on the islands of Sulawesi and the Taosug on the Sulu archipelago as well as Brunei on the side of Borneo facing the South China Sea (Talib, 1997).

Western colonization dates back to the 16th century, mainly for economic reasons. The Europeans initially entered through the Atlantic Ocean as trade partners. The emerging European powers needed more raw materials as a result of the industrial revolution and targeted South-East Asia's rich natural resources. Also by colonizing the region, especially Insular South-East Asia, European manufactured goods had a ready market and the strategic trade route between India and China was secured (Lim, 2004). South-East Asia's diverse ecosystem boasts of rich natural resources both from its land and waters including fossil fuel, nickel, iron coal, tin, pearls, rubber, and wood, as well as the sub-region's rich flora and fauna. Its waters are home to thousands of species of fish and other marine source of food. Insular South-East Asia, especially the Indonesian archipelago, was also a source of much-sought spices, medicines and other tropical products.

The first European to venture to the Insular South-East Asia trade route and establish a base in Malacca and Timor were the Portuguese. Decades later (1560s), Spanish colonizers came to the Philippines. By the beginning of the 17th century, however, the power of Catholic Portugal and Spain began to decline as the Protestant nations of England and the Netherlands were rising. The Dutch and the British came to the sub-region in the form of the Dutch East India Company and the British East India Company, respectively. They became archrivals in conquering the trade route and naturally rich Insular South-East Asia. The Dutch came to Asia seeking its produce and riches. Among the major targets were the spice-rich islands of the present day Sulawesi and Maluku in Indonesia. Engaging first in trade with local kingdoms, the Dutch later monopolized the spice trade to Europe by ejecting the Portuguese, later destroying the local kingdoms and founding the city of Batavia, the present day Jakarta as a trading base. The Dutch then extended its colony into Java and surrounding islands. On the other hand, the British started in Penang and then established its trading base in Singapore.

In 1824, the British and the Dutch divided the Malay-Indonesian archipelago between themselves. The British gained the Malay Peninsula, Singapore and the offshore islands in the South China Sea, as well as the areas formerly under the Sultan of Brunei that included North Borneo, Brunei and Sarawak. By the Early 1900s (1919), all the areas under the British colonies were called British Malaya. Under Dutch rule were the areas in the southern part of the sub-region. Independent settlements were guaranteed the right to retain control over their realms in return for acceptance of the Dutch authority. Independent kingdoms in South Bali and Southwest Sulawesi which refused to comply were given a more forceful treatment and were later subjugated. Thus the areas under the present day Indonesia, except for Portuguese Timor, became known as Netherlands India. British Malaya and the Netherlands India created an administrative unit which became the basis for the independent nation states of Malaysia and Indonesia.

On the other hand, the Philippines was created as a single nation-state from the multiplicity of centres throughout the archipelago. Although the Spaniards never succeeded in bringing the south under its control, they nevertheless regarded it as part of their colonized territories. The Americans took over the Philippines from the Spaniards in 1898, extending control to the southern islands, bringing them under one administrative control. The American colonial authority provided the framework for the formation of the independent Filipino nation-state. With the collapse of colonial regime after World War II, the newly independent governments of Indonesia, Malaysia and the Philippines inherited the geographic areas which had been thrown together for administrative convenience (Andaya, 1997).

It should also be noted that between 1942 and 1945, the Japanese occupied Insular South-East Asia together with the rest of South-East Asia in the context of the Greater Asian Co-Prosperity Sphere (Hirschman and Edwards, 2007). The occupation was so short that no significant influence distinctly affected the socio-cultural make-up of the sub-region. The Japanese, however, left a crucial imprint in the history of not only the countries of Insular South-East Asia, but on the whole of South-East Asia.

Colonial rule had a profound effect on Insular South-East Asia, especially on its demographic and racial composition. The mines and rubber plantations of Malaysia and Indonesia needed large numbers of workers, more than the local population could fill, that the colonial powers had to import labour from the countries of India and China (Lim, 2004).

Similarly, colonial influence on the social and cultural framework of the sub-region is most evident in the Philippines. The Spanish colonists found the population living in scattered and largely independent villages which did not necessarily share the same language and culture. As Laya (2001:155) noted, some groups in Mindanao and in other places such as Manila were Islamic, and the rest of the population were animists. As with the rest of the Insular South-East Asia settlements, there were no central authority, and relationships among the various settlements were influenced by kinship and economic ties. The Spanish began a programme of religious conversion, eventually bringing in the peoples of Luzon, the Visayas and some part of Mindanao into Christianity. The population was also resettled in the towns that were governed from Manila by both civil and religious authorities.

While the colonial powers profited much from the region's vast resources and large market, the sub-region grew to some extent. Commercial agriculture, mining and an export-based economy developed rapidly during this period. Critical institutions such as bureaucracy, courts of law, and the education system served as preparation for the development of independent nation states and greatly influenced the initial nationalist stirrings in the colonial territories. In 1945, Indonesia gained independence from the Dutch. The Philippines declared independence from the Spaniards in 1898 but was recolonized by the Americans from which independence was gained in 1946. Malaysia gained independence from the British in 1957, and Brunei was the last to achieve independence from its British colonizer in 1984. Singapore was separated from Malaysia in 1965 and Timor Leste from Indonesia in 2002.

Due to its social and racial make-up, and to a great extent, geographical characteristics, the newly established Insular South-East Asia states' path towards forging their respective national culture was a long and difficult task. In Malaysia, there existed a large minority of Chinese and a smaller minority of Indians as well as a sizeable number of non-Malay indigenous groups from Borneo. It was only in the early 1970s that the national government was able to define Malaysian identity as one based on the culture of a Malay ethno-nation. The situation for post-independent Indonesia was complicated by the existence of hundreds of ethnic groups with at least a dozen major groups of which the Javanese were the largest and had always played a dominant role in Indonesian history. The major leaders of the nation-state were also predominantly Javanese. However, this situation was resolved by the use of the Indonesian language and identity (Andaya, 1997). Similarly, the independent Philippines had numerous ethnolinguistic groups. The language of the elite had been Spanish until 1898, then English, while regional languages continued to be spoken. In order to establish a national identity, the Tagalog-based national language, Filipino, was declared as the national language in the Constitution.

In 1967, recognizing the need to foster unity, peace and stability within the region, Indonesia, Malaysia and the Philippines together with Thailand and Singapore formed the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) and gradually built a sense of common interest and regional identity among the members. The ASEAN was successful after a few failed attempts to form a regional group. The first was the Association of South-East Asia (Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand) in 1961 and then the MAPHILINDO which stood for Malaysia, Philippines and Indonesia (Lim, 2004).

Brunei joined ASEAN in 1984, Viet Nam in 1995, Myanmar and Lao PDR in 1997, and Cambodia in 1999. ASEAN has become the key institution in South-East Asia, not only because of its success in developing a sense of community among its very disparate members, but in finding a road for them to closer economic cooperation. ASEAN embarked on the development of the ASEAN Free Trade Agreement (AFTA) which aims to give preferential trade arrangement among members. ASEAN has also become the region's collective frontline for dialogues with the main world powers on a

wide range of matters such as the economy and security. To date, countries of Insular South-East Asia continue to face several challenges amidst economic development. Lim (2004:12) noted that among these major challenges is how to take advantage of the increasingly globalized economy to fully develop the sub-region's human resources. This necessitates not only the provision of education and training, but also the proper management of population size and growth.

2.2 Socio-Cultural Background

As with the rest of the South-East Asian region, the diversity of culture, language, and religion as well as the varied colonial experiences and political evolutions seem daunting for generalization. But the connection becomes clear with a close analysis of pre-colonial history and social practices. The people of the present Indonesia (except in its easternmost extremity), Malaysia, the Philippines, Brunei Darussalam, and Timor Leste share a common Austronesian cultural and linguistic heritage. These Austronesian languages include, among others, the Malayo-Polenesian languages of Malay, Tagalog, Batak, Javanese and Balinese. Also included are Ilokano, Cebuano, Minangkabau, Acehnese, Sundanese, Javanese, Buginese, Makasarese, and Malagasy (Reid 1988, Hill 2002).

As varied as its geographical and socio-cultural characteristics, the people of Insular South-East Asia is immensely diverse. In Indonesia alone, there are around 1,000 ethnic and sub-ethnic groups with varying population sizes. The eight largest groups are Javanese, Sundanese, Madurese, Minangkabu, Betawi, Buginese, Bantanese and Benjarese. There are about 700 languages spoken in Indonesia. The mother tongue of the majority are regional languages such as Javanese, Balinese, and Acehnese, although the official language is Bahasa Indonesia which is also the medium of instruction at all levels of education. As such, most Indonesians learn the national language when they begin school (Suryadanita et.al., 2003, UNESCO, 2005).

The Malaysian society consists of indigenous Malays and immigrant Chinese and Indians. Overall, there are more than 60 ethnic or culturally differentiated groups making up the Malaysian population generally divided into Bumiputera[1] and non-Bumiputera people. The Bumiputeras are those with cultural affinities indigenous to Peninsular and Bornean Malaysia and the immediate region (Crouch, 2001). They constitute 65.9% of Malaysia's population. Non-Bumiputeras are mainly the people of Chinese (5.3%) and Indian descent (7.5%) and others (1.3%).[2] The official language is Bahasa Malaysia but there are about 140 languages spoken in Malaysia including Chinese and Tamil (UNESCO, 2005).

The Philippines has around 78 ethnic groups speaking around 170 different languages and dialects. About 87% of the population belong to mainstream groups consisting of the Tagalog, Ilocano, Pampango, Pangasinan and Bicol of Luzon, and the Cebuano, Waray and Ilongo of the Visayas and Mindanao. About 6% belong to Islamic groups such as the Maguindanao, Maranaw, Tausug, Samal, Bajao while about 6.5% make up the other indigenous groups (Laya 2001, UNESCO 2005).

The pre-colonial Chinese, Arabic and Indian traders brought, along with their goods, cultural influences such as religion, particularly Islam, Hinduism and Buddhism. The European colonists also brought to the sub-region immense socio-cultural influences. The Spaniards introduced Christianity (Roman Catholic) to the Islamic and animist peoples of the Philippines. Islam eventually became the dominant religion in Indonesia and Malaysia. Muslims constitute 88.22% of the present day Indonesian population. The rest are Christians (8.92%), Hindus (1.81%), Buddhists (0.84%) and others that include the 0.20% Confucians (Suryadanita et.al. 2003). In Malaysia, most Malays are Muslim, most Chinese are Buddhist, most Indians are Hindu, with some Chinese and Indian Christians. Most indigenous peoples in Malaysia are animists. On the other hand, Muslims have become a minority group in the Philippines constituting around 6% of the population.

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[1] Bumiputera means sons of earth, referring to the ethnic Malays and indigenous peoples of Malaysia.

[2] Malaysia EFA MDA Report (Draft 12 February 2008).

2.3 Economic Background

Recovering from the Asian Financial Crisis of 1997, the commitment of the countries in Insular South-East Asia to economic development based on relatively open markets, private ownership and competition resulted in varying degrees of economic growth. The sub-region's average aggregate gross domestic product (GDP) growth rate for the period 2001-2006 has been 4.3%. Indonesia and Malaysia saw an average of 4.9% annual GDP growth rate from 2001 to 2006. The Philippines had 4.6%, Singapore, 4.7% and Brunei, 2.4% average annual growth rates for the same period (ADB, 2007). According to the Business Forecast Reports (Fourth quarter 2007), Indonesia's GDP per capita was at US$1,268, Malaysia's, US$6,053 and Philippines', US$1,396 in 2006.

As a measure of the total output of a country, the gross national income (GNI) is also an indicator of its capacity to provide for the well-being of its people. Countries with less than $10,725 GNI per capita (average income) are considered as low to middle-income countries or developing countries.

Indonesia, Malaysia and the Philippines fell under this category in 2005. Malaysia (US$4,960) belongs to the upper middle income countries while the more populous Indonesia (US$1,280) and Philippines (US$1,300) fell under the lower middle-income countries. The smaller states of Brunei and Singapore (US$27,490) belong to upper income countries (World Bank, 2007). To illustrate how widely distributed the countries in the sub-region are along the GNI spectrum, Singapore's GNI per capita is 21 times that of Indonesia and the Philippines, and almost six times that of Malaysia's (World Bank 2007). Indonesia and Malaysia have been experiencing higher growth in industry with 5.1% and 7.3%, respectively, from 1990 to 2005. Their economies are becoming more dependent on industry and lesser on services and much lesser on agriculture. The Philippines' services sector, on the other hand, has been growing faster at the average rate of 4.4% compared to its agriculture and industry sectors for the same period (ADB, 2007).

As value added to GDP, the services sector is still the leading sector for Indonesia (45%) and the Philippines (53%) in 2005, followed by industry (41% for Indonesia and 33% for the Philippines) and agriculture (14% for both). Malaysia's industry sector constitutes 50% of GDP followed by services (40%) and the agriculture (9%) according to World Bank (2006).

2.4 General Level of Development in Insular South-East Asia

Ideally, economic growth should translate to the improvement of the people's well-being as measured by development indicators. However, economic growth may not always bring palpable reductions in poverty. Even within countries experiencing rapid economic growth, poor people may not experience the same improvement as with the already well-off portion of the population. In such an unequal situation, the gap between the poorest segment of the population and the richest becomes wider. Poverty reduction will be harder to achieve when the level of inequality worsens as a result of severely uneven distribution of income even within the context of considerable economic growth (World Bank, 2007). Take for example the case of the Philippines as compared with Indonesia and Malaysia in the following discussion.

2.5 Inequality and Poverty Level

The commonly used measure of inequality is the Gini coefficient with a 0 (perfect equality) to 100 (perfect inequality)[3] range value. According to ADB (2007b) Key Development Indicators, Indonesia's Gini coefficient was 34.30 (2002), Malaysia's 40.33 (2004), and Philippines' 43.97 (2003). Indonesia's Gini coefficient was approaching zero at an average of -0.02% (1993 to 2002) while Malaysia recorded

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[3] Gini coefficient can also be expressed in values from 0 to 1.

an average annual reduction of -0.20% (1993 to 2004). On the other hand, the Philippines' Gini coefficient has been increasing at an average of 0.28% which implies increasing inequality among its population. The percentage of the Philippines' poor has come down to 30% in 2003 from 36.8% in 1997. This reduction, however, is slower than that of Malaysia and Indonesia. In 2004, the population of Indonesia's poor stood at 16.7%, a significant reduction from 27.1% recorded in 1999. Malaysia demonstrated the most dramatic reduction of population percentage living below the poverty line. From 15.5% in 1989, it was reduced to 5.1% in 2002.

However, all three countries have exhibited great intracountry variations in terms of poverty. For example, the urban-rural divide in Malaysia is so wide that the proportion of rural poor (11.4%) is almost six times than that of the urban poor (2%). The proportion of Indonesia's rural poor is almost double than the number of their urban counterpart (World Bank, 2006 and ADB, 2007b). The percentage of poor in the Philippines' rural areas is 48.8% while those in urban areas is 18.6%. This shows that more urban population is able to benefit from economic growth than the rural people.

2.6 Millennium Development Goals

The achievements of Insular South-East Asian countries in terms of their commitment to the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) also vary. Table 1 shows that achievements under Goal 2 (primary education) indicate a general 'early achievement' trend for Brunei Darussalam, Indonesia and Malaysia. The Philippines, on the other hand, recorded a 'no improvement/regressing' trend in two of the three indicators. Goal 3 shows an overall 'early achievement' countries across the sub-region. Goal 5 (Improved Maternal Health), however, is difficult to measure accurately, whether through vital registration data or through sample surveys, and only a few countries have sufficient data to indicate trends (ESCAP/ADB/UNDP, 2007). However, the ADB Key Indicators of Developing Asian and Pacific Countries (2007) has reported that maternal mortality rate (per 100,000 live births) has decreased significantly from 1990 to 2000 and that the proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel has been increasing during the same period.

Table 1: MDG Progress in Insular South-East Asia

MDG Goals	Indicators	Brunei Darussalam	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines	Singapore	Timor Leste
Goal 1	$1/day poverty		●	●	■		
	Underweight children		▼	●	■		
Goal 2	Primary enrolment	●	●	●	▼		
	Reaching Grade 5	●	■	●	▼		
	Primary Completion Rate	●	●	■	●		
Goal 3	Gender Primary	●	●	●	●	●	
	Gender Secondary	●	●	●	●	●	
	Gender tertiary	●	■	●	●		
Goal 4	Under-5 mortality	●	▲	●	▲	●	●
	Infant Mortality	●	▲	●	▲	●	▲
Goal 6	TB prevalence rate	▲	▲	▲	▲	▲	
	TB prevalence rate	●	●	●	●	●	●
	TB death rate	●	●	●	●	●	●
Goal 7	Forest cover	▼	▼	▼	▼	▲	▼
	Protected area	●	●	●	●	●	▲
	CO^2 emissions	▼	▼	▼	▼	●	
	ODP CFC consumption	●	●	●	●	●	
	Water urban		▼	●	▼	●	
	Water rural		■	●	■		
	Sanitation Urban		■	●	▲	●	
	Sanitation Rural		■		■		

● early achiever   ▲ on track   ■ slow   ▼ no progress/regressing

Source: Based on Table A. p 33, The Millennium Development Goals: Progress in Asia and the Pacific (Asia-Pacific MDG Study Series 2007).

2.7 Human Development Index

The Human Development Index (HDI) is a composite measure of human development (HD) based on life expectancy, education (literacy and school enrolment) and income. The sub-region demonstrates a general pattern of improvement in terms of HD from 2000 to 2005 (Table 2). The latest Human Development Report (HDR) revealed that the Insular South-East Asian countries belong to either high or medium HD group in 2005. Brunei and Singapore remained in the high HD group together with Malaysia, which joined this category in 2004. Indonesia, the Philippines and Timor Leste were in the medium HD group. All countries have shown improved HDI values at considerably varying levels. For instance, Brunei Darussalam's HDI has risen by 0.023, closer to 1 from 2004 to 2005 while Timor Leste improved by 0.002. Indonesia recorded the next highest improvement of 0.017. Brunei Darussalam and Indonesia have consistently been improving in ranking. Singapore maintained its standing while rankings of Malaysia, the Philippines and Timor Leste have fallen. The wide difference (0.408) in HDI values between Singapore and Timor Leste illustrates the disparity of human development within the sub-region.

**Table 2: Human Development Index of
Insular South-East Asian Countries, Value and Rank, 2000-2005**

Human Development Index	2005		2004		2003		2002		2001		2000	
	Value	Rank	Value	Rank	Value	Rank	Value	Rank	Value	Rank	Value	Rank
Brunei Darussalam	0.894	30	0.871	34	0.866	33	0.867	33	0.872	31	0.856	32
Indonesia	0.728	107	0.711	108	0.697	110	0.692	111	0.682	112	0.684	110
Malaysia	0.811	63	0.805	61	0.796	61	0.793	59	0.790	58	0.782	59
Philippines	0.771	90	0.763	84	0.755	84	0.753	83	0.751	85	0.754	77
Singapore	0.922	25	0.916	25	0.907	25	0.902	25	0.884	28	0.885	25
Timor Leste	0.514	150	0.512	142	0.513	140	0.436	158	...	...	...	...

High HD   Med HD   Low HD

Source: Human Development Reports 2007/2008, 2006, 2005, 2004, 2003, 2002.
Notes: Timor Leste gained independence only in 2002; "..." indicates no data available.

3. Background of Educational Development in the Sub-Region

The current education systems in Insular South-East Asia are, to a large extent, influenced by centuries of western occupation. Bessel (2001) emphasized that these systems are products of the socio-political contexts in each country. Generally, educational systems are comprised of basic education and tertiary education. Education has featured prominently in the sub-region's development and economic plans. The following is a discussion on the educational systems of Indonesia, Malaysia and the Philippines.

3.1 Indonesia

History of the Indonesian Education System

Indonesia's colonial education system for the local population during the Dutch occupation was for the privileged. After its independence, the country liberalized the education system and aimed to provide every Indonesian with at least six years of primary schooling. Recognizing certain obstacles to achieve universal primary education such as a high population growth rate, critical policies and strategies were put in place.

The 1945 Constitution provided that each and every citizen of Indonesia shall have the fundamental right to education (Article 31, Section 1). Compulsory primary education for 7-12 year old children was made a national policy in 1985 through presidential instruction (Decree No.10). This directive was backed with financial support that resulted in the construction or repair of tens of thousands of primary school facilities, among others, by the late 1980s. In 1994, Indonesia launched the Nine-Year Basic Education Programme, extending compulsory education to lower secondary level (13-15 year old population). The Nine-Year Compulsory Basic Education Programme aims to provide basic education for every Indonesian in the 7 to 15 age group.

The National Education System (Law No. 2) was enacted in 1989 with the primary objective of developing the abilities and advance the standard of living and dignity of Indonesian people

towards the achievement of the national development goals. The Law defined the national education system based on terms of units, paths, types, and levels of education. In 2002, the 1945 Constitution was amended to stipulate that it is the obligation of the State to fund compulsory education and to provide for a minimum allocation of 20% for education from both the national and regional budgets. Law 2 of 1989 was also updated by Law 20 of 2003 which defines the present Indonesian education system.

Structure of the Indonesian Education System

The current education system is based on the 1945 Constitution and Pancasila. Instruction in the Pancasila involves learning its five principles and applying their meanings in daily life: (a) belief in one God; (b) humanitarianism; (c) national unity; (d) democracy; and (e) social justice. Classroom instruction is provided in the national language, Bahasa Indonesia. Education Law 20/2003 established the structure of the Indonesian education system (Chart 1).

The formal or in-school education system under the MONE consists of six years primary education with official entry age of seven years old, three years junior secondary and two to three years senior secondary education (general or vocational tracks). Parallel Islamic schools are under the responsibility of the MORA. The Islamic Primary Schools equivalent to primary schools are called Madrasah Ibtidaiyah and the Islamic Junior Secondary Schools are called Madrasah Tsanawiyah. There are also the Islamic General Senior Secondary School (Madrasah Aliyah) and the Islamic Vocational Senior Secondary School. Equivalent Islamic education institutions also exist at the higher education level (graduate and post-graduate).

At the end of compulsory education, students take an exam before entering senior high school. Senior secondary education continues for a maximum of three years where students either prepare for university or undertake vocational training for those interested in technical work. Those who complete the courses necessary to attend university (public or private) must take an entrance examination where only a few students pass each year. Candidates who fail may take the examination again the following year.

A special teaching programme called Class III is also implemented at the senior secondary level usually selected by pupils based on their abilities and interests since its objective is to prepare students for higher education in the academic or professional field such as managers and teachers. Class I and II are foundation classes.

Higher education is considered an extension of secondary education, consisting of academic and professional education. Academic education is mainly aimed at mastering science, technology, and research, whereas professional education is more aimed at developing practical skills. Institutions involved in higher education include the following types: academics, polytechnics, schools of higher learning, institutes, and universities. The length of higher education is three years for the diploma programme and four years for the graduate programme. After the graduate programme, students can enroll in a master's programme for two years and proceed to doctorate programmes. The University of Indonesia, founded in Jakarta in the 1930s, is the nation's oldest university. Other major universities include Gadjah Mada University (Indonesia's oldest post-independence university, founded in 1946) in Yogyakarta.

Primary, junior secondary and senior secondary education are also provided through the non-formal or out-of-school modality called Paket systems. The non-formal primary education is called Paket A while the non-formal junior secondary education is Paket B. Senior non-formal secondary education called Paket C may take the path of general education, religious education, service-related education, or vocational education. The delivery of education services through the non-formal subsystem are usually held outside schools in venues provided by the government or non-government agencies such as the private sector and the community.

Early childhood care and education is also provided to 3-6 year olds with the aim of stimulating

physical and mental growth of children outside the family circle before they enter primary education. Among the types of pre-school education available are Kindergarten for the 5-6 year olds in formal school, and Play Groups and Daycare Centres for 3 year olds in the non-formal or out-of-school modality. Bustanul Athfal or Islamic Kindergartens are under the Ministry of Religious Affairs (MORA).

Chart 1: Structure of the Indonesian Education System

Source: National EFA MDA Report 2007, Indonesia.

Notes: SD - Sekolah Dasar or Elementary School; SMP - Sekolah Menengah Pertama or Junior High School; SMA - Sekolah Menengah Atas or Senior High School; BA - Bustanul Athfal or Islamic Kindergartens; MI - Madrasah Ibtidaiyah or Islamic Primary Schools; MT - Madrasah Tsanawiyah or Islamic Junior Secondary Schools; MA - Madrasah Aliyah or Islamic Senior High School; and PTAI - Perguruan Tinggi Agama Islam or Islamic Higher Education.

The Indonesian education system also incorporates distance learning approaches with increasing emphasis on ICT, both as an aid to learning and as a focus of separate skills development. The system also provides for learners with special needs (students with learning disabilities/constraints and gifted students) as an integral part of service delivery.

Organization and Management of the Education System in Indonesia

The education services are primarily delivered through and managed by the Ministry of National Education (MONE) and Ministry of Religious Affairs (MORA).[4] The latter is responsible for Islamic schools and institutes.

The MONE regulates both public and private education providers as well as the public and private universities which exercises autonomy at a varying degree. It is also responsible for the formulation and execution of education development plans. At the central level, the organizational structure of the MONE consists of the following units: the Secretariat General; the National Institute for Educational Research and Development; the Inspectorate General; the Directorate General of Basic and Secondary Education; the Directorate General of Higher Education; the Directorate General of Non-Formal and Informal Education (formerly Directorate of Out-of-School Education); ………………………………………..

[4] Enrolments in MORA schools constitute around 9% of total enrolment in primary education and 16.6% of secondary education.

and the Directorate General of Culture. At the lower, the MONE is represented by a Provincial Office of Education in each of the provinces, and by a District Office in each of the districts within the provinces. The major tasks of the provincial and district offices are to operationalize, manage, adapt and implement ministerial policies on education and culture with respect to each of their distinctive features and local and environmental needs. Provision of higher education is managed by the MONE through the Directorate General of Higher Education.

Development since the 1990 Jomtien Conference and the EFA 2000 Assessment

In 1993, three years after the first EFA campaign was launched, Indonesia joined the E-9 Initiative, together with Bangladesh, Brazil, China, Egypt, India, Mexico, Nigeria and Pakistan, during the EFA Summit of the Nine High Population Countries held in New Delhi, India. The 'E' stands for education and the '9' stands for the nine countries, home to half the world's population and to more than 40% of the world's out-of-school children and to 70% of the world's illiterate adults.[5] The high population growth rate in these countries serves as a major barrier for attaining the EFA goals. As such, the nine countries commit to improve their basic education as well as to reduce population growth rate. The E-9 Initiative serves as a venue to meet regularly to reconfirm commitment to achieving the EFA Goals, to mobilize support and resources for primary education and literacy programmes, to share best practices and strategies, and to track progress.

A year after the launching of the E-9 Initiative, Indonesia implemented the Nine-Year Basic Education Programme. By mandating compulsory basic education to 7-15 year old children, the Indonesian government also intended to alleviate the problem of child labour through Indonesia's expansion of their participation in basic education.

Since Jomtien (1990) and Dakar (2000), a number of key policy and strategic milestones in education development have been attained in Indonesia. These include: (a) formulation of the National Plan of Action for Education for All in 2002 (updated in 2005) to expand access to high quality basic education; (b) introduction of legislation and regulations for the decentralization of education service management which started in 1999 through the original Law on Regional Autonomy (Law 22/1999), now Local Government Law 32 of 2004 (Law 32/2004); (c) amendment to Article 31 of the 1945 Constitution in 2002 to provide for a minimum of 20% allocation for education from the national and regional budgets; (d) enactment of the National Education Law 20 of 2003 (Law 20/2003); and (e) formulation of a revised education reform strategy through the Ministry and Agency Medium-Term Strategic Plan (Rencana Strategis Kementerian/Lembaga) or Renstra KL 2005-2009. These initiatives set out a legislative and regulatory framework for expanding education opportunities, defining standards and measures for improving education service governance and accountability.

The updating of Indonesia's National Action Plan for EFA in 2005 has marked the harmonization of the government's education reform programmes. While the vision, mission and goals of education in the context of national development are set out in the Renstra 2005-2009, the basis of the current structure and management of the Indonesian education system is provided by the Education Law 20/2003, as well as by Local Government Law 32/2004. These strategic plans and legislations provide the unified platform by which MONE and MORA aim to address the education needs of the unreached or disadvantaged groups towards the achievement of the EFA Goals, as well as the achievement of MDG targets.

To further illustrate, the Renstra and National Action Plan for EFA have been likewise harmonized through three main strategic pillars: (a) ensuring expanded access and equity; (b) improving quality and relevance; and (c) strengthening governance, accountability and public image. Based on these, the government designed specific strategies and programmes to implement the education policy, legislation and regulations with greater focus on institutional, organizational and financing reforms as a way of achieving their goals and targets.

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[5] Nine questions about the nine high-population countries (unesco.org/education).

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In order to adopt an efficient and effective management and delivery of education services, a comprehensive legislative and regulatory framework for decentralization, outlining the roles, responsibilities and obligations of central/district authorities and community-level stakeholders for education services was developed. Sector development planning remains at the national level as outlined in the 1945 Constitution (Article 31-Education), as well as the Law 20/2003 on the National Education System and Law 25/2004 on the National Development Planning System, among others.

Decentralization is mandated to be implemented through Law 32/2004 on Local Government in two stages: (a) devolution of authority from central to the local governments in managing the education service delivery and (b) devolution of a significant authority to the school level as represented by the implementation of school-based management. In addition, Law 33/2004 on Fiscal Balance between Central and Local Governments promotes a greater role for the community such as its involvement in the education council at the district and school levels.

For improvement of quality and relevance of education, the independent Board of National Education Standards or Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan (BSNP) was established through Government Regulation No.19 in 2005. It has developed: (a) the Standard on Contents which was issued through Regulations 22/2006; and (b) the Standard on Competence through Regulations 23/2006. Regulation 24/2006, moreover, was issued to clarify the roles of the different levels of government in the enforcement of these regulations. Another measure to improve education standards was a new legislation on teachers (Law 14) passed in 2005. It provides for increased functional, professional and special areas incentives for teachers in public and private schools under the MONE and MORA.

Indonesia's EFA Coordination Mechanisms

To ensure the achievement of EFA goals, a coordination mechanism was established by virtue of a decree issued by the Ministry for Peoples Welfare in 2002. This decree established an EFA Coordination Forum or the Forum Koordinasi Nasional-Pendidikan Untuk Semua (FORKONAS-PUS) chaired by the Deputy Minister for Peoples Welfare and assisted by an EFA Secretariat lodged at Directorate General of Non-Formal and Informal Education of MONE. The forum membership includes Director Generals from the various Ministries and selected representatives of non-government organizations and other key stakeholders. An advisory board for EFA at the ministerial level was also established with representatives from Ministries of Peoples Welfare, National Education, Religious Affairs, Home Affairs, Finance, Social Affairs, Health, Planning and Women's Empowerment.

Under the coordination of the EFA Secretariat, six working groups corresponding to the six EFA goals have been established to initially prepare the updated National Plan of Action for EFA in November 2005. The same arrangement has been used to prepare the EFA Mid-Decade Assessment, with task force members being appointed by the EFA secretariat.

Equivalent forums at the provincial and district levels have been created with generally the same representations appointed by the provincial and district directors of education. This network is instrumental in ensuring accurate and timely information flow for planning and monitoring purposes. Regional meetings of provincial/district education forums are held annually as part of communication and awareness campaigns. Findings from the EFA Mid-Decade Assessment will also be disseminated through this set-up.

3.2 Malaysia

History of the Malaysian Education System

The development of the education system in Malaysia happened alongside its quest for national development. This pursuit has undergone five phases: (a) Pre-Independence (prior to 1957) Era; (b) Post-Independence (1957-1970) Era; (c) New Economic Policy (1971-1990) Era; (d) National Development Policy (1991-2000) Era; and (e) National Vision Policy (2001-2010) Era.

One of the British occupation's enduring influences in Malaysia is the educational system, which was initially based on their model, using English as the language of instruction at all levels. The colonial education system allowed for each ethnic group to establish its own school. Malay, English, Chinese and Tamil schools used their respective medium of instruction, curricula, books and teachers. English schools could, however, accommodate children of different races. Even during this period, it was already recognized that there is a need to establish a more uniform education system. Several committees were created to study the school system but it was the Razak Report (1956) that laid the foundation for the National Education System of post independent Malaysia.

After independence in 1957, the Education Ordinance was formulated in the same year, embodying the National Education Policy based on the recommendations of the Razak Report. The recommendations of the Razak Report were reviewed by the Rahman Talib Committee in 1960 giving rise to the formulation of the Education Act of 1961, which provided for the Bahasa Malaysia language as the primary language of instruction at all levels of education, as well as the adoption of a national curriculum and a common examination system for all schools. This move was part of the strategy to establish the Malaysian identity amidst the multiracial society that includes large Chinese minorities and a smaller Indian population. At present, there is an increasing use of a combination of Bahasa Malaysia and English in most higher education institutions.

In 1962, free education was provided in public schools at primary education level. Compulsory education was introduced at the primary level in 2003, in line with the policy to provide universal primary education for a period of six years.

The years 1971 to 1990 was the period of the New Economic Policy, which aimed at strengthening national unity through poverty eradication among all populations. Education played a critical role as a means to remedy social imbalances through the policy of equal education opportunities to all. It was also during this period that the Malaysian government was able to successfully improve access to education by giving emphasis on expansion of infrastructural facilities, particularly in the rural areas. Equity was likewise given attention to narrow the opportunity gap between the rich and the poor through educational support programmes such as the Textbook Loan Scheme, Educational TV, fully residential schools, rural and day hostels, scholarships, Supplementary Food Plan and health programmes. To improve the quality of basic education, the New Primary School Curriculum (NPSC) and the Integrated Secondary School Curriculum (ISSC) were formulated in 1983 and 1989, respectively.

Structure of the Malaysian Education System

The Malaysian basic education structure comprises 11 years of primary and secondary schooling. Primary education consists of Standards 1- 6 (equivalent to Grades 1-6), at the end of which pupils take primary school assessment. Most primary education graduates continue to secondary education level for five years. However, those who graduate from Chinese or Tamil primary schools have to undergo a transition year (removal class) before moving on to secondary level. Lower secondary level consists of Forms 1-3 (equivalent to Years 1-3) and upper secondary level consists of Forms 4-5 (equivalent to Years 4-5). Post-secondary level consists of one to two years, which may be pursued as Form 6, which is a preparatory year for college, as a matriculation programme, or as a college and polytechnic programme. Upon completion of post-secondary education, students may continue their study in a university or enter the job market (Chart 2).

Prior to primary education, pre-schools cater to most children aged 4-6 years. Pre-schools are operated throughout the country by government, non-government agencies and the private sector. Children enter primary school at the age of six.

Students take four public examinations, namely: (a) the Primary School Assessment Test (UPSR) at the end of Grade 6; (b) Lower Secondary Assessment (PMR), at the end of Year/Form 3; (c) the Malaysian Certificate of Education (SPM), equivalent to GCE O level, at the end of Year/Form 5 at the upper secondary level; and (d) the Malaysia Higher School Certificate Examination (STPM), equivalent to GCE A level, or the Malaysia Higher Certificate for Religious Education (STAM) at the end of Form 6.
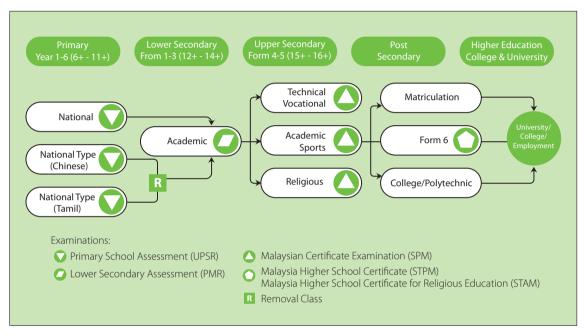
Chart 2: Structure of the Malaysian Education System

Source: Malaysia EFA MDA Report (Draft, 12 February 2008).

Application for positions at the best schools and universities as well as for federal and corporate scholarships is very competitive and is done through a nationwide examination process that is required for all students. Students who excel on their examinations may attend the best secondary schools after completing primary education, and are eligible for full scholarships to attend selected overseas universities in the United States or Great Britain, after completing Form 5 or Form 6. Other students, through self-funding methods, may apply to a local, private or public college or university.

In its 'Vision 2020', Malaysia set the goal to be a developed country by 2020, and widening access to quality higher education is considered to be one of the key strategies, not only for socio-economic advancement, but also for preserving unity and social cohesion. As such, Malaysia aims to develop a strong system of private higher education institutions through national legislations such as the Private Higher Education Institution Act of 1996.

Organization and Management of the Education System in Malaysia

The management of Malaysia's education system is organized in the following four hierarchical levels: federal, state, district and school. The institutions responsible for each of the four levels are the Ministry of Education, the State Education Departments, the District/Division Education Offices and schools.

At the Federal or national level, the MOE is headed by the Minister of Education who is a member of the Cabinet. It is responsible for formulating policy guidelines, as well as translating education policies into plans, programmes, projects and activities and coordinating its implementation. In addition, the MOE prescribes the curricula, syllabi and examinations to be used in all schools. The Minister is assisted by two Deputy Ministers and a Parliamentary Secretary who are also political appointees. Administration is carried out through the executive officials who belong to the administrative service and professional officials who belong to the education service. The administrative service is headed by the Secretary-General, and the education service is headed by the Director-General. Both the Secretary-General and Director-General are directly responsible to the Minister. The Secretary-General is primarily responsible for administrative affairs and is assisted by two deputies. The Director-General is responsible for professional matters and is assisted by five deputies.

Planning and decision-making at the MOE is performed through a system of committees. Six steering committees are established to facilitate interdivision and intradivision decision-making. These are: (a) Central Curriculum Committee; (b) Development Committee; (c) Finance Committee; (d) Teaching and Learning Committee; (e) Scholarship Committee; and (f) Staff Development and Training Committee. The Education Planning Committee (EPC) chaired by the Minister, is the highest decision-making body at the federal level. The Education Planning and Research Division serves as the Secretariat to this committee. However, the ultimate authority on education is Parliament. Policy issues that have wider implications are elevated to the Cabinet before final decisions are issued.

Educational administration at the state level is the responsibility of the 15 State Education Departments (SEDs) which serve as the regional arm of the MOE. SEDs carry out educational policies and plans made at the federal level, as well as coordinate and monitor the implementation of national education programmes, projects and activities at the state level, besides providing feedback to the central agency for overall planning. The SED is headed by the State Director of Education.

The District Education Offices serve as an effective management link between the school and the State Education Department. At the school level, administration is the responsibility of the principal or headmaster who functions as both administrative and instructional leader assisted by a Senior Assistant and Head of Student Affairs. The Senior Assistant usually assists in administrative matters (e.g., management of school funds and planning of work schemes for teachers, among others).

The Head of Student Affairs assists in matters concerned with student welfare (e.g., textbooks loans, discipline, student health and nutrition). The principal or headmaster is also responsible for effective linkage between the school and the community, especially the parents in promoting the well-being of the students. Parent-Teacher Associations are established in all schools. For each subject taught, a senior teacher is appointed as coordinator or key resource teacher.

In recognition that availability of updated and reliable data is crucial to the success of national education development plans, strategies and programmes, the Malaysian government has strengthened its agencies and entities responsible for information management such as the Department of Statistics (DOS) which is the main source of socio-economic data. The Educational Planning and Research Division (EPRD) under MOE is the principal agency for data collection, analysis, and dissemination of education information and statistics through the Education Management Information System (EMIS). These agencies have been strengthened through increased use of information technology, reorganization of its programmes, work procedures and capacity building, as well as the adoption of international statistical methodologies and quality standards in its data collection, processing and reporting. In addition, compliance with international frameworks for education statistics has greatly facilitated Malaysia's active participation in international studies such as the World Education Indicators (WEI).

Developments since the 1990 Jomtien Conference and the EFA 2000 Assessment

The Malaysian National Development Policy (1991-2000) coincided with the EFA 2000 period. It was during this era that the education policy in Malaysia underwent rapid changes. Several policy reforms were put in place. The Education Act of 1996 replaced the Education Act of 1961, particularly the provisions on the powers of the Minister of Education and pre-school institutionalization. The current era belongs to the Malaysian National Vision Policy (2001-2010) which aims to respond to the challenges of globalization, liberalization, internationalization and the development of ICT. Within the sectoral framework of the Education Development Plan (2001-2010), the MOE provides educational development programmes that aim to produce citizens who are knowledgeable, ICT literate, skilled and possess good moral values.

To support an enabling policy environment for the implementation of the Education Development Plan (2001-2010), the Education Act 1996 was again amended in 2002, making primary education compulsory and mandatory. To kick-off the implementation of the compulsory primary education policy, assistance programmes were put in place. Among these was the one-time RM120 (US$35) given to primary school pupils from poor families in 2002-2003, which was replaced by the Poor Students' Trust Fund (KWAPM) in 2004. The Tuition Voucher Scheme (SBT) was set up in the same year to provide tuition assistance to poor primary school pupils of Grades 4 to 6 who are weak in Malay, English, Science and Mathematics. All educational programmes and projects are constantly reviewed, reinforced or reformulated to support the goals of the Education Plan.

To improve the quality of education and responsiveness to the challenge of global competitiveness, the teaching and learning of science and mathematics in English was implemented in 2003. The qualifications of teachers were upgraded from certificate to diploma level. Remedial programmes were also enhanced with the provision of remedial teachers. The Graduate Teachers Programme was initiated to meet the policy of providing primary schools with 50% of trained graduate teachers and secondary schools with 100% trained graduate teachers by 2010. Teachers are given the flexibility to pursue degree programmes through a number of approaches including distance education. Vocational subjects were also introduced in regular secondary schools in 2004 based on the World Bank-sponsored School to Work Programme (1998-2003).

The j-QAF Programme[6] was introduced in 2005 and expanded in 2006 to ensure Muslim students master Jawi, Al-Quran, Arabic and Fardu'Ain upon completion of their primary education. In 2005, people's religious schools (Sekolah Agama Rakyat) and state religious schools (Sekolah Agama Negeri) were registered as government-aided religious schools. This period also witnessed the increasing attention given to higher education as the growing Malaysian economy demands larger and better quality manpower. The Private Higher Education Institution Act of 1996 aimed to make Malaysia the centre of educational excellence while the National Council on Higher Education Act of 1996 established a council to determine the policy and coordinate the development of higher education. To increase access to higher education through the provision of student loans and funding schemes, the National Higher Education Fund Corporation Act of 1996 was passed. In the same year, the Universities and University Colleges Act (Amendment) 1996 provided for greater autonomy to public universities in management and finances, as well as in determining programmes for educational excellence. The National Accreditation Council Act ensured high academic standards, high quality assurance and education quality control in the provision of private higher education. Also established were matriculation colleges, community colleges, and the Sultan Idris Teachers' College (SITC), which was upgraded to Universiti Pendidikan Sultan Idris (UPSI). Moreover, vocational secondary schools were upgraded to technical secondary schools.

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[6] The letter "j" stands for Jawi (Malay Language/Heritage), "Q" for the Holy Quran, the "A" for Arabic Language and the "F" or Fardu'Ain (Islamic personal responsibilities).

Another significant development in the country's education history was the establishment of the Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE) in 2004. The MOE is now focused on the development of pre-school, primary school, secondary school and matriculation as well as teacher education. Joint efforts between the MOE and the MOHE are closely coordinated in the aspects of training and supply of teachers, among others. Overall, the reforms created greater access, not only at basic education level but also at the tertiary level.

Malaysia's EFA Coordination Mechanisms

To set policy and programme direction, oversee progress and ensure the achievement of the EFA goals, the EFA Steering Committee was established in 2006. The Committee also served as oversight in conducting national activities related to Malaysia's participation in the EFA Mid-Decade Assessment. It is composed of senior official representatives from concerned line ministries and co-chaired by the Secretary General and Director General of Education of the MOE. Other members of the Committee are representatives from UNICEF Malaysia, UNESCO Jakarta and NGOs.

Among the Committee's primary functions are to oversee and assist the six Technical Working Groups (TWGs) corresponding to the six EFA goals, which are responsible for the implementation of EFA programmes and another TWG mandated to manage EFA indicators and data. The TWGs are comprised of relevant ministries and agencies directly and indirectly implementing EFA programmes and are chaired by key agencies concerned with EFA. These TWGs were also directly involved in the conduct of the EFA Mid-Decade Assessment guided by the 9th Malaysia Plan (2006-2010), Economic Development Plan (2001-2010), and Education Development Master Plan (2006-2010) and other documents from relevant ministries and agencies.

As the national EFA coordinator for Malaysia, the EPRD of the MOE also serves as the Secretariat to the EFA Steering Committee.

3.3 Philippines

History of the Philippine Education System

Before the Spaniards arrived in the Philippine archipelago, children's education was based on practical community activities. The teachers were either the parents or tribal tutors. Although education was informal and unstructured with more focus on vocational training and less on the reading, writing and numerical skills, the Europeans observed when they came in the 16th century, that the people in South-East Asia had a high level of literacy, especially in the Philippines. Reid (1988:216) noted that both men and women are generally able to write the 17 symbols used in Philippines writing on bamboo or strips of palm leaf.

The system of education practiced during the pre-colonial era was significantly altered during the Spanish occupation. The Spanish missionaries took the place of the tribal tutors and education became religion-oriented and catered more to the elite. Later on, however, education was liberalized to a limited degree through the enactment of the Educational Decree of 1863 which provided for at least one primary school for boys and girls in each town under the responsibility of the municipal government. Although primary education was free, it was limiting to a certain degree since the language of instruction was Spanish, the language of the elite during that period.

Upon declaring independence from the Spaniards, the Filipino revolutionaries established the Malolos Constitution which provided for a free and compulsory elementary education system. When the Americans took over from the Spaniards, the three-century old school system maintained by Spain was replaced by a secularized and free public school system. With English as the medium of instruction, chaplains and non-commissioned officers were assigned to teach in the schools. In 1901, the Philippine Commission (American government in the Philippine), through Act No. 74, established a more centralized public school system under the Department of Public Instruction

with English as the medium of instruction and with the same curriculum, textbooks and teaching materials for all schools (Laya, 2001). This created a heavy shortage of teachers prompting the Commission to authorize the Department to bring to the Philippines 600 teachers[7] from the United States of America, called the Thomasites.

A high school system supported by provincial governments, special educational institutions, school of arts and trades, agricultural schools, and commerce and marine institutes were also established in 1902 by the Philippine Commission. In 1908, the Philippine Legislature approved Act No. 1870 which created the University of the Philippines. The Department of Public Instruction's leadership was the last to be transferred to a Filipino. For the period 1942 to 1945, the Philippines was briefly occupied by the Japanese whose educational policies were embodied in Military Order No. 2 of 1942. The Japanese-sponsored Republic then created the Ministry of Education. Love for work and dignity of labour were emphasized in the instruction.

The Philippines officially attained full independence from its colonizers in 1946. By 1947, the Department of Instruction was changed to the Department of Education which was responsible for the delivery of service and governance of basic education (primary and secondary level), technical-vocational education and training, and higher education. The regulation and supervision of public and private schools then belonged to the Bureau of Public and Private Schools. Around two decades later, the Department became the Department of Education and Culture. During the Philippines short experimental stint with a parliamentary government in the 1970s, the Department became a Ministry during which 13 regional offices were created and major organizational changes were effected. The Education Act of 1982 created the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports which later became the Department of Education, Culture and Sports (DECS).

The structure and mandate of DECS have practically remained unchanged until the trifocalization of the education system as recommended by the 1990 Congressional Commission on Educational Reforms (EDCOM). The subsequent creation of the Commission on Higher Education (CHED) in 1994 and of the Technical Education and Skills Development Authority (TESDA) the following year allowed the DECS to focus on basic education which covers elementary, secondary and non-formal education, including culture and sports. TESDA administered the post-secondary, middle-level manpower training and development while CHED was responsible for higher education.

In 2001, RA 9155 or the Governance of Basic Education Act was passed by Congress. The Law renamed the DECS as Department of Education (DepEd) and became the basis for the current administrative set-up for basic education by redefining the role of field offices (regional offices, division offices, district offices and schools). It aims to improve the delivery of public basic education services through a new governance framework that is built on decentralization. Such policy reform was based on the widely accepted observation that the centralized system of managing basic education delivery is unable to respond immediately and flexibly to the particular needs of the localities. The law enables the schools to take a more active role in initiating and undertaking cost-effective innovations at the local level based on the premise that decision-making at the lowest level will result in greater efficiency, accountability and manageability.[8]

Structure of the Philippine Education System

The Philippine education system can be generally divided into basic and tertiary education levels. Basic education is comprised of: (a) one to three years of early childcare and education (ECCE); (b) six years of elementary or primary education; and (c) four years of high school or secondary education. Although part of basic education, it is not yet mandatory to take up ECCE in order to

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[7] These teachers are historically known as 'Thomasites' from the name of the ship (U.S. Army Transport *Thomas*) by which they came to the Philippines.

[8] Towards Better Government: Developing Indicators of Good Governance for Local Government, NEDA and UNDP, 1999.

enter elementary education. All schools follow the standard Revised Basic Education Curriculum. The 1986 Philippine Constitution mandates that primary education is compulsory and free in public schools while the RA 6655 or the Free Secondary Education Act of 1988 provides for free education in public high schools. The official entry age to elementary education is six.

For those who are unable to attend formal schools or have dropped out and unable to complete basic education, an alternative path has been instituted in the DepEd through RA 9155 the Alternative Learning System (ALS) Act. The clientele of ALS consists of out-of-school youths and adult learners. In the two-tracked tertiary education, one can either go to six months to three years of non-degree technical-vocational training or pursue higher education (college degree). There also exists an A&E programme in tertiary education called the Expanded Tertiary Education Equivalency and Accreditation Programme (ETEEAP) that certifies prior learning obtained from work or from informal means. The certification and accreditation may be used for employment or towards acquiring a degree or pursuing further education.

Chart 3: Structure of the Philippine Education System

Age	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	and above	
Grade / Year				1	2	3	4	5	6	I	II	III	IV								
	Basic Education													Technical, Vocational and Higher Education							
Level	Pre-school	Elementary (Compulsory)						Secondary (Free but not compulsory)					Tertiary			Graduate Postgraduate					
		Alternative Learning System Centre										2-3 Yr. Technical or Technician			Masteral Courses			Doctoral Courses			
		Age				Level															
		15-24 Out-of-School Youth 25 - Above Adults				Basic Literacy Level Elementary Level Secondary Level															

Source: National EFA MDA Report 2007, Philippines (Draft, 31 August 2007).

The Philippine education system implements a bilingual policy of instruction. Filipino, the national language, is used in Makabayan (i.e., history and social studies, among others) while English is used in Math, Science and English language subjects. The government adheres to the policy of prioritizing basic education and allowing the private sector to take the lead in providing tertiaryeducation services.

Organization and Management of the Basic Education System in the Philippines

As mentioned earlier, the DepEd is the agency responsible for basic education service delivery and governance. To carry out its mandates and objectives, it is organized into a Central Office and Field Offices. The Central Office provides policy directions and standards and maintains overall administration of basic education at the national level while the Field Offices coordinate and administer the Department's mandate at the regional and local levels. These offices are also accountable for the actual delivery of education services. The DepEd is headed by a Department Secretary assisted by five Undersecretaries in the areas of Programmes and Projects, Regional Operations, Mindanao Affairs, Finance and Administration, and Legal Affairs as well as four Assistant Secretaries in the areas of Programmes and Projects, Planning and Development, Budget and Financial Affairs, and Legal Affairs.

Assisting the Office of the Secretary at the Central Office are the different services, bureaus and centres. The five services are: the (a) Administrative Service; (b) Financial and Management Service; (c) Human Resource Development Service; (d) Planning Service; and (e) Technical Service. Three

staff bureaus assist in formulating policies, standards, and programmes related to curriculum and staff development. These are the: (a) Bureau of Elementary Education (BEE); (b) Bureau of Secondary Education (BSE); and the (c) Bureau of Alternative Learning System (BALS).

Six centres or units attached to the Department similarly provide technical and administrative support to realize the Department's mandate and functions. These are: (a) the National Education Testing and Research Centre (NETRC); (b) the Health and Nutrition Centre (HNC); (c) the National Educators Academy of the Philippines (NEAP); (d) the Educational Development Projects Implementing Task Force (EDPITAF); (e) the National Science Teaching Instrumentation Centre (NSTIC); and (f) the Instructional Materials Council Secretariat (IMCS). There are four special offices under OSEC focusing on special programmes: (a) the Adopt-a-School Programme Secretariat; (b) the Centre for Students and Co-curricular Affairs; (c) the Educational Technology Unit; and (d) the Task Force Engineering Assessment and Monitoring. Other attached and support agencies to the Department are the Teacher Education Council (TEC), Philippines High School for the Arts, Literacy Coordinating Council (LCC), and the Instructional Materials Council (IMC).

Corresponding to the administrative system and political sub-units of the country, the DepEd field offices are comprised of 16 Regional Offices, including the Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao (ARMM), with Regional Directors as head. The director of the ARMM DepEd has a title of Secretary of Education for ARMM but has the rank of a regional director. The Regional Offices oversee the Provincial and City Schools Divisions[9] headed by Division Superintendents. Assisting the Division Offices are District Offices headed by District Supervisors. Under the District offices are the frontline of basic education service delivery, the public schools located per barangay or village. The schools are headed by the principal who also chairs the Parents, Teachers and Community Associations (PTCA) organized in all schools. For private elementary and secondary schools, there is a system of government recognition and accreditation based on a set of standards.

As earlier mentioned, since 1995, post-secondary or tertiary education is under the responsibility of two other agencies. The technical education and skills development is under TESDA while higher education is under CHED.

Developments since the 1990 Jomtien Conference and the EFA 2000 Assessment

The most critical reform since the Jomtien Conference in the 1990 was the trifocalization of the Philippine education system which relieved the DECS of the responsibilities concerning technical-vocational training and higher education, thus was able to concentrate on basic education. Having three separate major education agencies necessitated an entity that would coordinate the three education agencies. As such, EDCOM further recommended the creation of a National Coordinating Council for Education (NCCE). It has, however, never become fully established and operational. Coordination of education planning and reforms are done through the Social Development Committee (SDC) and various ad-hoc bodies convened for specific reasons or activities.

The crafting and formulation of RA 9155 in 2001 took off from the findings and recommendations of various studies such as the Decentralization of Basic Education Management study sponsored by the Asian Development Bank (ADB) in 1999-2000 and results of piloting school-based management (SBM) by major projects such as the Third Elementary Education Project (1998-2006) sponsored by the World Bank and Japan Bank for International Cooperation (JBIC), the Secondary Education Development and Improvement Project (2000-2006) sponsored by ADB and JBIC and the Basic Education Assistance for Mindanao Phase 1-2 (2002-2008) sponsored by Australian Agency for International Development (AusAID).

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[9] A city within a province is considered a separate division and a very big province with large enrolment may be divided into two divisions.

With the objective to accelerate and support the implementation and operationalization of a decentralized basic education management, the DepEd launched the School First Initiative (SFI) for 2005-2010. The SFI seeks to empower schools and make them more accountable to learning outcomes (e.g., enrolment, completion and achievement rates) and other indicators of educational results based on the national curriculum. It also sets the areas of cooperation and collaboration among parents, teachers, principals, and local government officials, among others. The SFI policy is founded on the SBM approach, the basic thrust of which is the reduction of bureaucratic restrictions allowing schools to deliver results while the higher level offices can concentrate on supportive and facilitative functions such as provision of technical assistance. As defined in RA 9155, the central office shall focus on policy, strategic direction, national standards and goal setting. The functions of the regional office shall be to oversee the enforcement of standards and quality among the divisions which, in turn, shall focus on resources and information management.

Consistently, the current Medium-Term Philippine Development Plan (MTPDP) 2004-2010 explicitly provides that the goals of Philippine basic education are anchored on the Education for All goals. The MTPDP outlines the country's key strategies towards achieving the main goal of poverty reduction, economic development and education, which is among the key strategic focus. In the chapter on education, it emphasizes the role of education, from ECCE to elementary and secondary education, to technical-vocational education and training, and to higher education in national development. The chapter also outlines strategies and programmes in delivering quality basic education, increasing resources to schools and improving management of operations of the public school system.

In February 2006, the Philippine National Action Plan for EFA 2015 Goals was adopted by the government as the official master plan for basic education. It provides an overarching policy framework with a vision that all Filipinos should acquire basic competencies outlined in the new functional literacy definition adopted by the government in 1998 through the Literacy Coordinating Council. The new definition is aligned with UNESCO's concept of 'life skills' based on the four pillars of learning, namely: (a) learning to do; (b) learning to learn; (c) learning to be; and (d) learning to live together (UNESCO, 1996).

The latest initiative introduced in the Philippines is the Basic Education Sector Reform Agenda (BESRA) formulated in 2006 based on a sector-wide approach to programming. The BESRA is the road map of policy reforms towards the achievement of the EFA 2015 goals. It is designed to attain and sustain better performance of public schools by supporting the School First Initiative movement. As a financing strategy, it aims to direct donors and assistance from the private sectors to support the planned changes in basic education management and service delivery through the following key results areas: (a) continuous school improvement facilitated by active involvement of stakeholders; (b) better learning outcomes achieved by improved teacher standards; (c) desired learning outcomes enhanced by national learning strategies, multi-sector coordination, and quality assurance; (d) improved impact on outcomes resulting from complementary ECCD, Alternative Learning System and private sector participation; and (e) institutional culture change in DepEd to facilitate school initiatives and assuring quality.

The Philippines' EFA Coordination Mechanism

To coordinate the implementation of the Philippine EFA 2015 Plan, the country established the National EFA Committee (NEC) chaired by the Secretary of Education and co-chaired by a representative from the civil society organization. The NEC has the following functions: (a) national coordination; (b) policy-making; (c) social mobilization and advocacy; (d) resource mobilization; (e) preparation/updating of annual national targets; (f) monitoring and evaluation; and (g) overseeing the creation and operation of sub-national committees. Its representation includes local government units, non-government organizations and civil society organization which are considered major partners in achieving the EFA goals.

4. Education Financing and Budget in the Sub-Region

Education Spending as Percentage of GDP and Total Government Expenditure

There is a mixed pattern in the trend of spending for education in Insular South-East Asia as shown in the Table 3. Indonesia's public expenditure on education as a percentage of its total government expenditure decreased from 9.80% in 2000 to 9.03%. As a percentage of GDP, education expenditure also decreased from 1.36% in 2000 to 0.96%. As part of its commitment to EFA and as a member of E-9, Indonesia commits to spend 20% of its National Budget on education by 2009 as mandated by the State Constitution.

A breakdown of Indonesia's expenditure on education (2006) reflects the priority given to basic education: 1.25% for ECCE; 29.9% for Primary Education; 11.76% for Secondary Education; 5.20% for Tertiary Education; and 2.45% for Non-formal Education. Spending in education at both national and provincial levels has increasingly focused on development areas such as school infrastructure, scholarships, and textbooks.

Malaysia, the most economically robust among the three countries, aims to be a developed country by 2020. Among its strategies is to boost spending in education such that expenditure on education will be the biggest sector as a percentage of total government expenditure. Public expenditure on education was 26.65% in 2000, decreasing slightly to 25.21% in 2004. As a percentage of GDP, Malaysia's education expenditure was at 6.20% in 2000. It increased to 6.24% in 2004.

The Philippines, for its part, saw an increase in spending for education as a percentage of the total government expenditure, from 13.95% in 2000 to 16.35% in 2004. As percentage of GDP, however, education expenditure decreased from 3.49% to 2.71% in the same period. Primary education received the bulk of the budget as reflected in the following breakdown of 2005 education spending: 0.033% for ECCE; 59.3% for Primary Education; 24.9% for Secondary Education; 0.024% for Alternative Learning System which includes Non-formal Education; 1.8% for Technical Vocational Education; and 13.4% for Higher Education. These figures include budgetary allocations to other government agencies implementing education/literacy-related projects (e.g., ECCE includes spending by the Department of Social Welfare and Development or DSWD and the LGUs, among others).

Consistent with the first two indicators, public expenditure on educational institutions and educational administration as a proportion of GDP showed that Malaysia recorded the highest percentage of spending in the primary, secondary, and post-secondary non-tertiary levels, followed by the Philippines and Indonesia.

Table 3: Percentage of Education Expenditure, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	Public Expenditure on Education as a % of Total Government Expenditure		Public Expenditure on Education as a % of GDP		Public Expenditure on Educational Institutions and Educational Administration as a % of GDP (2005)		
	2000	2005	2000	2005	Pre-Primary	Primary	Secondary and Post-Secondary Non-Tertiary
Indonesia	9.80^{+1}	9.03$^{**,-3}$	1.36	0.96^{-2}	…	0.30^{-2}	0.40^{-2}
Malaysia	26.65	25.21^{-1}	6.20	6.24^{-1}	0.10^{-1}	1.80^{-1}	2.20^{-1}
Philippines	13.95	16.35^{-1}	3.49	2.71^{-1}	…	1.30	0.70

Source: UIS Data Centre, February 2008.
Notes: "…" indicates no data available. "**" indicates UIS estimation. "+n" indicates data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods after the reference year or period. "-n" indicates data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods before the reference year or period.

Financing Education

The bulk of funds for education in the sub-region comes from the national government mostly in the form of recurrent costs. This is usually supplemented by the local governments and externally funded projects such as loans or grants. In Indonesia, for example, although the decentralization policy has relegated budgeting and spending to the local levels, most of the funds still come from the national government transferred to the local governments and supplemented mostly by parental contributions. In 2003, 92% of primary school budgets were funded by district governments with parents contributing 4% in the form of school fees and other contributions. For junior and secondary levels, parental contribution is estimated to be at 13% to 17%.

Education financing in the Philippines in 2005 came from: (a) national government funds covering provision for Early Childhood Education, formal basic education and those for the alternative learning system/non-formal education for out-of-school youths and adults only (89.32%); (b) Official Development Assistance (ODA) from donors which include only the loan proceeds and grant assistance for the DepEd and for the ECCD Project under DSWD (1.69%); (c) LGU Special Education Fund (SEF) generated from 1% of Property Tax (7.87%); and (d) private sector constituting total contribution in cash and in-kind by private individuals, multinational corporations, philanthropists and other donors (1.11%).

While there are ongoing programmes and projects for the disadvantaged groups, there is no solid data on their composite financing in Indonesia and the Philippines. Malaysia, on the other hand, estimates that around USD$42.2 million was spent for two programmes: Child Support Assistance and Poor Students' Trust Fund programmes in 2005 (Malaysia, 2007). These programmes are designed to increase participation in education of children from the marginalized and disadvantaged population.

It is also recognized that geographical disparities in education financing exist in all three countries. However, data to support and pinpoint the exact gaps are not also readily available. For example, in the decentralized education system in Indonesia, most provinces fund their own education expenditures and local governments are given funds by the national government on a need basis such as for rehabilitation of school infrastructure. Disparities are mainly due to local government policies and population size.

Geographical disparities in education financing exist in the Philippines as well. The current basis for allocating the national government resources to schools (Maintenance and Other Operating Expenses or MOOE and school-building construction) is the Republic Act of 7880 (An Act Providing for the Fair and Equitable Allocation of DepEd Budget for Capital Outlay) which factors in the population and enrolment in the localities. Disparities emerge when schools in rich Local Government Units get the same percentage of the national government budget as those in very poor Local Government Units where the need for assistance is greater. The amendment of this law is included in the national legislative agenda.

Scholarship and Incentives

The policy and implementation of the compulsory and free primary education to increase participation in education of the marginalized segment of the population are not enough to achieve the EFA goals. As such, the governments in Insular South-East Asia have provided various scholarship and financial assistance schemes as incentives to poor and indigent families that could not send their children to schools.

Provision of scholarships is seen as the most conventional measure to promote equity in the sub-region. These included scholarships for poor but deserving secondary education students in Malaysia; scholarships and incentives for students with disability in Indonesia; and the Education Voucher System (EVS) for poor elementary graduates to enroll in private high schools when they cannot be accommodated in overcrowded public secondary schools in the Philippines.

The percentage of parental contributions increase as students go up the education ladder. This percentage still serves as a significant barrier to access to students from poor families. Hence, countries in Insular South-East Asia implement additional approaches to address this barrier in order to increase access and equity in education. For example, in Indonesia, parental contribution is at an estimated 13% and 17% for junior and senior secondary school, respectively. Recognizing these constraints, the government introduced a new primary and junior secondary school funding mechanism designed to offset parental school fee contributions through the Operational Aid to School Programme or Bantuan Operational Sekolah (BOS). Likewise, Malaysia provides a comprehensive education support system to help ensure regular attendance to schools. Among these are the Textbook Loan Scheme, School Supplementary Food Scheme and Poor Students' Trust Fund. The Philippines also extends scholarships to indigenous peoples and partners with the private sector in implementing scholarship programmes such as the Adopt-a-School scheme.

Table 4: Scholarship and Other Financial Incentive Programmes in the Sub-Region

Country	Scholarship/Incentives In Basic Education	Year	Coverage
Indonesia	Operational Aid to School Programme or Bantuan Operational Sekolah (BOS) – including Block Grant to Street Children by Equivalency Programme	2005	Primary and Junior Secondary and Paket A, B and C
	Operational Aid to School Programme or Bantuan Operational Sekolah Textbooks (BOS-Buku)	2006	Primary and Junior Secondary and Paket A, B and C
	Block Grant to Pupil in Remote Areas through Life Skill Programmes	2006	CLC- Adult Learners
Malaysia	Scholarship for Secondary Education Students	2006	Secondary
	Textbook Loan Scheme	2006	Primary and Secondary
	School Supplementary Food Scheme (breakfast)	2006	Primary
	Poor Students' Trust Fund	2005	Primary and Secondary
	School Milk Programme	2006	Primary
	Tuition Voucher Scheme –extra tuition for key subjects (children with low achievement and those from poor families	2006	Primary
	Child Support Assistance (Bantuan Kanak-kanak)	2005	Primary and Secondary
	Schooling Assistance (Bantuan Sekolah)	2006	Primary and Secondary
Philippines	Scholarships Grants for Indigenous People	1998	Primary and Secondary
	Education Voucher System	2006	Secondary
	Scholarship funded by the Priority Development Assistance Fund of Congressmen	1993	Primary and Secondary
	Adopt a Child Programme in partnership with the Local Government Units and Private Sector	1980	Primary and Secondary
	Non-government Scholarships	1980	Primary and Secondary
	Private Sector Scholarship Programmes	1980	Primary and Secondary

Sources: Indonesia EFA MDA Report; Ministry of National Education, Jakarta; Malaysia EFA MDA Report (Draft, 12 February 2008), Ministry of Education, Kuala Lumpur; and Philippine EFA MDA Report (Draft, 31 August 2007), Department of Education, Pasig City, Metro Manila.

5. Identifying the Unreached and Underserved Population in the Sub-Region

The following are identified as the general major unreached and underserved groups in the sub-region: (a) street children and working children; (b) religious, linguistic and ethnic minorities as well as indigenous peoples; (c) persons/children with disabilities or with special needs; (d) children of very poor families; (e) populations in remote areas; and (f) children 'in difficult circumstances' (e.g., areas affected by armed conflict).

Defining the Unreached and Disadvantaged Groups

The terms unreached and underserved imply that service may be available but specific groups cannot participate fully because of factors such as poverty and poverty-related issues as well as other barriers at the target groups' end. Children may be participating, but their optimal and significant learning is hampered and their achievement is characteristically low. The word underserved connotes unavailability of, insufficient or inadequate and irrelevant or inappropriate education services, usually in the remote areas (mountainous and remote islands), indigenous people communities and 'in difficult circumstances' (e.g., in armed conflict zones), among others. These groups are also broadly referred to as disadvantaged or marginalized.

Inasmuch as there is a trend of general progress in Insular South-East Asia towards the goals of EFA, there are groups that need special attention if equity is to be achieved. These groups constitute the last percentages of the population who have either been historically and culturally excluded or have been pushed to difficult circumstances due to recent economic and political trends. Their participation is critical if the 2015 EFA goals are to be met.

The number of specific groups officially considered to be at a disadvantage varies in each country. For example, Malaysia has identified the children of families residing in remote areas and indigenous peoples. These groups are also among Indonesia's marginalized groups, plus street children and working children, as well as children with disabilities. In the Philippines, these are the Muslim minority, indigenous groups, persons with disabilities and those with special needs, children affected by armed conflict, street children and working children, children using illegal drugs and youth offenders, children of poorest families, those living in remote areas, and displaced children due to calamities and disasters.

Barriers to Education for the Unreached and Disadvantaged Groups

Because of the geographical characteristics of Insular South-East Asia, delivery of education services to the marginalized population residing in remote areas, such as small islands, are adversely affected. More often than not, these groups are among the poorest of the population. This is true in certain areas in Indonesia and the Philippines where, despite the presence of school facilities, parents are still not sending their children to school. It is also recognized that extreme poverty may deter families from availing of these facilities as they still have to pay for the school supplies and materials, school projects, transportation and other related expenses. Rather than send children to school, parents send them to work to help boost the family's meager income, leading to child labour.

Social exclusion, especially in terms of availing public goods such as basic education, is commonly caused by poverty (Sen, 2000). Such financial barrier is easier to mitigate. However, there are deeper and more difficult to solve issues related to this kind of exclusion. As reported by Indonesia and the Philippines, these include the lack of appreciation of the importance of education which is linked to the socio-economic situation of families. For example, parents from the lowest income quintile are often not educated and sometimes do not see the value of education.

Indonesia has also identified certain cultural factors and practices that affect school attendance. For example, young boys taught fishing skills in fishing communities end up missing school. Other barriers identified are peace and order problems. For example, in the Philippines, armed conflict in some areas of the country, especially in the southern part where Muslim minorities reside also affect the delivery of basic education services. Worse, children are also recruited into the armed movement. Weak coordination and collaboration within the local government units and frequent occurrence of typhoons and floods in some areas in the country are also some of the factors that adversely affect the marginalized groups' participation in basic education.

Another barrier is the lack of specialized programmes and materials for learners and training for teachers to address the special needs of the unreached or underserved groups. For example, there has been a lack of proper curriculum that include teaching modules using local language for indigenous peoples, ethnic and religious minorities and self-learning modules for children engaged in labour and/or are in different/difficult circumstances. As a result, the official language of instruction used in schools sometimes pose as a barrier since not all ethnolinguistic groups, especially the minorities, have sufficient knowledge of such language, threatening their chances of access, retention and achievement, if not being totally unprivileged in terms of access (UNESCO, 2005).

A common and fundamental challenge in the sub-region is identifying or mapping exactly who and where the marginalized and unreached groups are. Policies and plans identify the group in general and provided broad-stroke strategies. But for programming and estimating investments for effective and cost-efficient specific interventions, the information on the number, location, and socio-economic profiles of target groups must be accurate. Also crucial to the effectiveness of programmes is its relevance to the target beneficiaries, which can be enhanced by understanding their specific cultural contexts and particular needs.

Current Policies, Strategies and Programmes to Reach Target Groups

The common general strategy adopted in Insular South-East Asia to reach the marginalized population is to empower field offices and the schools through the policy of decentralization. Such policy has parallel financial support in the form of 'block grants' in Indonesia and school Maintenance and Other Operating Expenses (MOOE) in the Philippines. The 'block grants' are given by the national government directly to institutions or a group of people running private schools upon submission of qualified proposals (e.g., funding English laboratories for schools in remote areas, community-based school infrastructure, subsidy for school operational budget to public and private schools to reduce cost barriers to schools such as school fees and textbooks). The Philippines, for its part, has been providing MOOE to selected public schools in support of the School Improvement Plan (SIP).

Non-formal education is being increasingly harnessed to expand education services. One popular strategy to reach marginalized groups in the remote areas is Mobile Education. Indonesia has implemented the "Mobile Class" which included the "Boating School" to serve populations in riverside areas. Other schemes are the Bus Classroom and the Motorcycle Learning Service. The Philippines has a similar programme called "Mobile Teacher". Both the Indonesian and the Philippine mobile education models enable the learners to avail of assessment and equivalency programmes which provide them with options to enter or re-enter the formal education system or undertake livelihood programmes. Livelihood trainings and other forms of education are conducted as part of the progressive scheme in non-formal education and also to serve as incentives to enhance living conditions of the target groups.

In addition, Indonesia provides scholarships for both non-formal and formal education, recognizing that the nine years of compulsory education is 'not really free' as there are still some costs exacted from the family depending on income. As part of reforming its education funding scheme, most funds are directly channeled to schools for flexibility in implementing innovative touch-based

approach to reach the marginalized groups. It may also be noted that Indonesia has been relatively successful in promoting partnerships with NGOs and civil society organizations in the delivery of basic education services. To cite one, 99% of ECCE services in 2005 are provided by the private sector and the government's role is to continue encouraging such partnerships.

Several programmes and projects are implemented in the Philippines as well, targeting various disadvantaged groups. Among these are: (a) Child-Friendly School System Programme in partnership with UNICEF, supporting a rights-based education for every learner, focusing on areas with low social economic indicators; (b) Public and Private Home-Based and Centre-Based ECCD/ECCE programmes for children of very poor families; (c) Special educational centres and programmes for children and persons with various forms of disabilities; and (d) Easy and Affordable Secondary Education (EASE) and Open High School for students who have difficulty attending regular classes because they are working (children of poor families). On top of these are other locally-initiated education projects that cater to the disadvantaged.

In Malaysia, the high rates of participation and gender parity has presented a new challenge of identifying the exact 'who' and 'where' of the marginalized and unreached in the quest for 100% achievement. Effort would include new approaches to measurements that can help identify the exact population and location of target groups that require particular attention. This would aid the MOE to formulate new policies to address the particular needs identified.

By policy, children belonging to the minority group or the indigenous children in Malaysia have the right to enjoy his or her own culture, to profess and practise his or her own religion, or to use his or her own language. In response to this, curriculum of the native languages such as Iban, Kadazan-Dusun and Semai have been formulated and offered as subjects in schools in the native communities. In ECCD, for example, Malaysia's National Education Act of 1996 upholds the rights of its people with regards to mother tongues. Consistently, pre-schools can be conducted in the various languages used by the people in Malaysia, which are Malay, English, Chinese and Tamil. Providing a balance with the government policy to promote and maintain a national identity and social cohesion, the Act also requires that any pre-school programme include at least two hours per week of formal instruction in Bahasa Malaysia. The Education Development Master Plan 2006 - 2010 calls for the establishment of an additional 100 pre-school classrooms prepared for the integration of children aged 5 and 6 with single disabilities (usually learning disabled).

Several strategies have been put in place to reach the disadvantaged groups. These include: (a) financial assistance to the households of poor children; (b) expanding pre-school places for children with special needs, as well as access to pre-school for children residing in rural and remote areas, (b) strengthening public support for early childhood care and education to indigenous communities; (c) customizing approaches to better incorporate unreached children; (d) ensuring that children and young people with special needs or living in remote areas have opportunities to continue to develop life skills and to improve their livelihoods; (e) improving continuously the physical conditions in schools – especially in regards to eliminating rural – urban differences; (f) supporting a holistic concept of quality with appropriate school level inputs and diverse programmes for different types of learners in schools; and (g) expanding the variety of programmes and institutions in the system to reach more children and youth.

These strategies are implemented through programmes and projects such as the Child Support Assistance given to low income families with children to support living expenses, and Schooling Assistance where child support assistance is given to school children from low income families for school fees, school uniform, bus fare, among others, for ECCE. A National Pre-school Curriculum package for the visually impaired, the hearing impaired and learning disabled has been developed and a modified ECCD and Integrated Primary School curricula for indigenous children are being formulated utilizing indigenous cultural content to promote learning. The MOE also provides a remedial year of schooling between Grades 2 and 3 for Orang Asli children who need additional tutoring to improve their chances of completing primary school in Peninsular

Malaysia. Special education services are likewise provided to students who have visual or hearing impairment or learning disabilities. For students who can function in a regular school, the Integrated Special Education Programme is made available in mainstream primary and secondary schools as well as in technical-vocational secondary schools, which adopt inclusive teaching and learning approaches.

The strategy to increase private-public partnership to reach education goals is also a proven approach. Increasing collaboration with the business sector and other civil society groups is also an effective measure that brings in stakeholders. In Malaysia, for example, NGOs have made important contributions to expanding access to quality ECCE for children from indigenous communities, particularly in the difficult-to-reach areas.

Overall, there exists a generally favourable policy environment that encourages innovative programmes in the countries within the sub-region. However, questions remain on the efficiency and the effectiveness by which the programmes and projects are being implemented as well as the scope of their coverage and impact in reaching out to the disadvantaged and marginalized segments of the populations.

6. Cross-Cutting and Thematic Issues in the Sub-Region

Ethnic, Linguistic, Religious Minorities, and Indigenous Peoples

As discussed earlier, Insular South-East Asia consists of immensely diverse ethnolinguistic groups, linguistically and culturally connected by a common Austronesian heritage. Within each country, however, the dominant and minority groups vary according to population size, ethnic, religious and language backgrounds. For example, Suryadanita, et al. (2003) noted that among the 1,000 ethnic and subethnic groups in Indonesia, only around 15 groups have populations of more than one million, the Javanese being the largest group. Other ethnic groups are so small that they are identified as 'other groups' when classifying population composition.

Indonesia is the most linguistically diverse country in Asia with its estimated 700 languages. The vast majority are Austronesian-based while among the minorities are Papuan, found in parts of Timor, Irian Jaya, and Halmahera (Suryadanita, et. al. 2003, UNESCO 2005). Indonesian indigenous groups are generally called "adat" communities. They live in many parts of Indonesia's forests, mountains and coasts with some nomadic and some, sedentary. These groups include the Toraja of Sulawesi, Dayak of Southern Kalimantan, Weyewa of western highlands of Sumba in Nusa Tenggara Timur Province, Asmat in Irian Jaya, and Tanimbarese of the South-Eastern part of Maluku Province (ADB, 2002). As with the other indigenous peoples in the sub-region, their plight stems mainly from the threat to their habitats and lack of access to proper basic services such as education.

The indigenous peoples in Malaysia are located throughout the country. For example, the indigenous peoples in Peninsular Malaysia are called Orang Asli, 140,000 of whom can be found living in or near the forests. Around 81% of the Orang Asli live below the poverty line and are disadvantaged in terms of schooling. The indigenous peoples of Sabah are called Kadazan-Dusun. Studies show that the relative poverty of forest peoples and poor nutrition and health are mainly in areas where forests have been depleted by logging (Colchester and Fay, 2007).

Indonesia has five officially recognized religions. These are Islam, Protestantism, Catholicism, Buddhism and Hinduism. Indonesians are predominantly Muslims and the largest minority are Christians (Catholics and Protestants) while the smaller proportions are Hindus and Buddhist. Other religious minorities include those practicing Confucianism located mostly in East Tenggara and West Kalimantan (Suryadanita et. al. 2003). Communities are encouraged to convert from their traditional beliefs to the officially recognized religions (ADB, 2002:3). The "adat" communities which tend to reside in secluded and less-populated islands of the archipelago are usually animist.

Malaysians are also dominantly Muslims. The Chinese are Buddhists while Indians are generally of the Hindu religion. Still in Malaysia, some Chinese and Indian residents belong to Christian communities.

While Islam is the dominant religion in Indonesia and Malaysia, it is a religious minority in the Philippines with Muslims comprising only around 6% of the total population. The Muslims in the Philippines are largely concentrated in Mindanao and spread along at least 13 indigenous ethnolinguistic groups including the Maranaw, Maguindanao, Tausug, and Badjao. Indigenous groups in Mindanao that are neither Muslims nor Christians are called Lumads. There are around 18 Lumad groups such as the Bagobo, Subanen, Tiboli, Tiruray and the Manobo tribes, among others. Other indigenous peoples in the Philippines are in the Cordilleras such as the Ifugao, Bontoc, Ibaloi and Kankanaey, among others. In the northern part of Luzon are the Itawes and Ibanag. Island indigenous peoples are the Mangyans of Mindoro, Ati and Sulod of Panay (ADB, 2002b). These indigenous groups include some of the poorest Filipinos. According to the National Commission for Indigenous Peoples (NCIP), about 12 million of them reside in different parts of the Philippine archipelago as of 1998. Around 61% of them are in Mindanao, 33% are in Luzon, while about 6% are scattered among the Visayan islands. Around 2.5 million of them are of school age.

According to Education Network (ENet Philippines/GCE/ASPBAE, 2007), an umbrella organization of NGOs in the Philippines involved in education and literacy work, the indigenous peoples represent one of the significant groups in the population that are most likely disadvantaged in terms of access to schools and basic services. This is largely attributed to their geographic location as they live in remote, isolated and upland communities in regions and provinces that have higher poverty incidents, lower performance in education, and affected by armed conflict. Children of indigenous people have lower educational attainment, lower enrolment rates, higher repetition rates, and higher school drop-out rate, as schools are usually located in barangay centres and are not easily accessible to them. Teachers who come from the lowland usually spend only three days in a week to teach in these schools. Moreover, the mainstream curriculum does not integrate and link the education modules to the values and cultures of the community. The indigenous peoples of the Philippines are constantly confronted with problems brought about by illegal logging, mining and armed conflicts. Armed confrontations (for example, between the Armed Forces of the Philippines and the separatist Moro Islamic Liberation Front or the communist New Peoples Army) mostly occur in the forests and mountains where the indigenous people live. As a result, they are adversely affected and sometimes have to leave their communities (ADB, 2002b). These groups are also susceptible to calamities. The1991 eruption of Mt. Pinatubo in Zambales Province, for example, destroyed one of the main habitats of the Aetas.

A factor that hampers children of marginalized or excluded social groups from fully benefiting from available education services is the language of instruction. Since most population groups in Insular South-East Asia speak local languages as their medium of communication, only a small portion of children have sufficient knowledge of the languages used as medium of instruction thereby depriving them of full participation and greater chances for retention and achievement. As a result, their own language becomes a barrier to their right to education (Kosonen, 2005). Most of their children are less likely to complete, or in some cases even begin, primary school, let alone secondary schools. When they do enter the formal education system, the values, social norms and historical interpretations taught often bear little relationship to their own realities (Bessel, 2001). In effect they are being marginalized even within the classroom.

The issue on language of instruction has been increasingly recognized in Insular South-East Asia and various initiatives are being introduced to some extent. For example, the Malaysian National Education Act of 1996 also upholds the rights of its people with regard to mother tongue in ECCE. Consistently, pre-schools can be conducted in the various languages used by the people in Malaysia. At the same time, the Act requires that any pre-school programme include at least two hours per week of formal instruction in Bahasa Malaysia.

In national-type primary schools where the official language, Bahasa Malaysia, is used as the medium of instruction, the initial move is to allow national-type primary schools to use Mandarin or Tamil for the Chinese and Indian minorities. In Malay-medium schools, however, Kosonen (2005) noted that Mandarin, Tamil and indigenous languages can be studied as subjects provided that parents request for it and there are at least 15 students in such classes. Malaysia's policy for indigenous children is to use their own language in education. Curriculum of the native languages such as Iban, Kadazan-Dusun and Semai have also been formulated and offered as subjects in schools in the native communities. An Orang Asli language called Semai is likewise being used in some Orang Asli schools in Peninsular Malaysia. Studying one's native language is, however, different from using it to facilitate one's learning.

Researches show that mother tongue is an essential foundation for learning. It is important for all children, especially those from ethnolinguistic minority, to use their mother tongue when they enter school for the first time. Otherwise, children are doubly confronted with difficulties in understanding the language of instruction and grapple with the concepts being taught (Thomas and Collier, 1997). Acquiring proficiency in the national language is also essential for linguistic minorities since this broadens the learners' communication outside the immediate community and provides greater opportunities for further education and future employment. Education and literacy in a small minority language alone is inadequate in the world today. People speaking in a minority language should also be provided opportunities to learn at least the national language of a given country (Kosonen, 2005b). Learning achievement and proficiency of minority children in the national language, therefore, depends heavily on the language of instruction that maximizes learning and on the teaching-learning strategy adopted during their first years in school.

The adoption of inclusive language policies within the education system is also central to enhancing social cohesion. Dual-language policies or the use of vernacular language in the early years of primary school before moving to a common language can be useful in both practical and symbolic terms. The task is markedly more difficult when there are multiple languages which characterizes Indonesia, Malaysia and the Philippines. This can be eased when decisions about language are inclusive and are developed within an 'inclusive policy framework' (Bessel, 2001).

Another factor that can marginalize ethnic minorities in formal schooling or even in non-formal education programmes is the curriculum itself. Inside the classrooms, students receive the same lessons despite living in different situations and environments (ADB, 2002b). Insular South-East Asia countries implement a standard national curriculum which allow certain levels of flexibilities and special curricula. In the Philippines, for example, the basic education system recognizes the diversity of learners across the regions, especially of minority groups like Muslim Filipinos. To address the unique educational needs of Filipino Muslims, an enriched elementary education curriculum for all public schools for Muslims was developed and adopted alongside a standard curriculum for private madaris. For public schools with Muslim pupils, the curriculum integrates subjects on Arabic Language and Islamic Values. On the other hand, the madrasah curriculum integrates core subjects such as English, Filipino and Math. This curriculum enhancement is part of the madrasah accreditation programme that enables accredited madaris to avail of government assistance and allows their graduates to transfer to regular public schools.

Attention has also been given to the education of the indigenous peoples. In collaboration among national agencies such as NCIP and DepEd-BALS, an ALS-based Indigenous Peoples Core Curriculum responsive to the present needs and situation of the indigenous people was developed. It was a product of consultations at the grassroot level with civil society groups and indigenous people communities. Although very few indigenous peoples were able to complete formal basic education and earn college degrees, most of them are unserved and minimally reached by ALS. Schools are not conducive to education of indigenous people, especially when teachers are not sensitive to their particular needs and where school management is not responsive. The developed curriculum uses the same competencies but puts stress on what is considered essential to them.

It is considered a general curriculum that can be adopted by different indigenous people groups with modifications according to their respective needs and culture. Its content is expressed as core areas or units: Communication Skills; Critical Thinking and Problem Solving; Development of Self and a Sense of Community; Practice of Ecological and Sustainable Development; and Expanding One's World Vision. The curriculum is complemented by a qualitative assessment although there is no certification and equivalency system yet that would allow them to be integrated into the main stream formal education. The appropriateness of this mechanism is still being studied. Similarly, a reliable data system on the services provided to the indigenous peoples and the number of beneficiaries reached is still lacking.

Learners with Disabilities

According to the ESCAP Population Datasheet (ESCAP, 2007), the proportion of persons with disabilities in Indonesia and Malaysia is around 1%. It is slightly higher in the Philippines at 1.2%.

Those whose disabilities are not so severe that they can be mainstreamed in regular classes are provided with special attention and a different approach as part of the inclusive education framework. For others, a special education programme is provided. It is intended for students with physical, mental, and/or behavioural disabilities and usually provided by the agency responsible for education in public schools, private providers and civil society groups.

In Indonesia, Malaysia and the Philippines, development plans and policies to address special educational and welfare needs of children with disabilities have been put in place. The Malaysian Education Development Master Plan 2006-2010, for instance, enunciates strategies to increase the capacity of learning institutions to address the needs of special children. Specifically, the Plan is committed to establish additional pre-school classrooms for five to six-year old children with single disabilities. It also calls for the Amendment of the Special Education Regulations Act of 1997 to accept students with two disabilities. Legislation like the Philippine Magna Carta for Disabled Persons (RA 7277) and the Indonesian Law Number 4 of 1997 contains specific provisions for the education of children with disabilities.

Education services to children with disabilities are provided in conjunction with other national agencies, such as those responsible for health and social welfare. However, facilities and special programmes for the education of children with disabilities remain limited (JICA, 2002). Majority of special children in the Philippines, for example, are not receiving educational support and are unable to go to school. Some who are able to attend school but are not classified as children with disabilities are not given the appropriate educational facilities and services.

Child Labour

The problem of child labour is another challenge the sub-region must address in the course of working towards the EFA Goals. Many factors contribute to the occurrence of child labour in a country. Most countries have child protection laws to prevent child labour. However, these laws face problems in terms of enforcement and the absence of enabling policies and programmes.

In most instances, the reason behind child labour is poverty. Although education is free in public schools, other direct costs such as transportation, food and school supplies are still a burden to very poor families. Children end up not attending schools at all and engage in unprotected and hazardous employments to help their parents. On the other hand, economic growth gives rise to activities that entice children and parents, especially those from poor families, to postpone or forgo schooling for more immediate returns. Individuals and enterprises take advantage of the cheaper labour provided by children who are less likely to demand for decent worker's rights and protection.

While poverty remains a determining factor, patterns of child labour reflect factors other than the economic situation of a country. The influence of tradition and culture, as well as the parents' experience and view on education impact greatly on household decisions whether a child should be sent to school. Other factors such as armed conflict or natural disaster also contribute to children's vulnerability to exploitation. Considered most vulnerable to discrimination and exclusion are children who are girls, indigenous people, persons with disabilities, displaced persons, lower income groups, and those living in remote areas. In effect, they are subjected to several layers of disadvantages and marginalization (ILO, 2005 and 2006). A correlation exists in terms of drop-out rates and participation in economic activities, as well as drop-out rates and income levels. In Indonesia, for instance, net enrolment rates of low income against high income groups vary by 17% and 52% at the primary level and secondary levels, respectively (ILO-IPEC, 2006).

There are two binding international instruments relevant to child labour. First is the ILO Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No.138) which defines the details of child labour. It enjoins participating countries to set a minimum working age. Its accompanying Recommendation No. 146 provides a general set of guidelines to protect young persons at work. The second instrument is the ILO Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No.182) which defines the work that can be done by children. It prohibits and calls for the immediate and urgent elimination of the worst forms[10] of child labour which covers all children under 18 years old (ILO, 2006). Under these declarations, international commitment towards elimination of child labour practices is strengthened and promulgated.

In addition, the 1989 UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) makes it one of the basic rights of children to be protected from child labour. Article 32 underscores the role of education in preparing a child for a future of a productive, healthy and happy life. Moreover, the specific provision of the ILO Convention No.182 on the worst forms of child labour was reaffirmed by the two Optional Protocols to the CRC (2002) namely: the commercial abuse of children in prostitution and pornography; and the exploitation of children in armed conflicts.

The Insular South-East Asia countries of Indonesia, Malaysia and the Philippines are signatories to the International Labour Organization's conventions. Indonesia has ratified Convention 138 in 1999, Malaysia in 1997 and the Philippines in 1998. All three countries ratified Convention 182 in 2000 (ILO, 2005). National policies and programmes have since been implemented in the sub-region and the governments have worked closely with ILO to combat and eliminate worst forms of child labour. In Indonesia, for example, the National Action Plan for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour was established in 2002. This Plan set priorities and strategies to eliminate the worst forms of child labour in the areas of drug trafficking, prostitution, off-shore fishing, footwear production and mining in 20 years. Furthermore, the Indonesian labour laws set 15 years old as the minimum age fit for employment. The Indonesian Manpower Act 13/2003 integrates provisions of ILO Convention No. 182 and prohibits engaging children in the worst forms of child labour. It provides that children aged 13 to 15 can engage in light work for a maximum of three hours per day as long as it is guaranteed that such work does not adversely affect their physical, mental and social development.

As previously mentioned, one of the objectives of Indonesia's nine years of compulsory education is to eliminate child labour. Indonesia's medium-term education development plan, RENSTRA 2005-2009, seeks to widen access to education and fully implement the nine-year basic education policy, taking into consideration the need to address barriers (e.g., poverty and geographical obstacles)

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[10] Article 3 of Convention No.182 defines the worst forms of child labour as: a) all forms of slavery or practices similar to slavery, such as the sale and trafficking of children, debt bondage and serfdom, as well as forced or compulsory labour, including forced or compulsory recruitment of children for use in armed conflict; b) the use, procuring or offering of a child for prostitution, for the production of pornography or for pornographic performances; c) the use, procurement or offering of a child for illicit activities, in particular for the production and trafficking of drugs as defined in relevant international treaties; and d) work which, by its nature or the circumstances in which it is carried out, is likely to harm the health, safety or morals of children, such harmful work to be determined by national authorities. Items a, b, c are 'unconditional' and completely prohibited.

that prevent the disadvantaged from fully participating in education. The relative increase in the 2005 education budget, above all other sectors, reflects the government's commitment to improve the quality and access to basic education (ILO, 2006b).

Aside from closely collaborating with ILO, Indonesia has been able to forge partnerships with various segments of the society in combating child labour. Key strategies include the promotion of partnerships with local authorities to consolidate efforts to eliminate worst forms of child labour and implement basic education and skills development programmes to help alleviate poverty (ILO, 2005b). Other stakeholders have been drawn into the campaign. For instance, trade unions in Kalimantan are conducting a survey on the education expenditures of their members, the results of which will be used to rationalize education costs alongside their provincial partners. Moreover, the Kalimantan teachers' trade union is currently implementing a project that provides educational assistance to schoolchildren at risk of dropping out. In North Sumatra, transport trade union has embarked on information campaigns among fishing villages on the dangers of allowing underaged children to work at sea (ILO, 2005b). The government of Indonesia also set up the National Action Committee for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour (NACEWFCL) to oversee the implementation of ILO Convention No.182 under a Presidential Decree in January 2001.

Pursuant to the CRC (Article 19, 20 and 22), the Malaysian Child Act of 2001 (Act 611) or the National Child Protection Policy provides that every child is entitled to protection and assistance in all circumstances without regard to distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, social origin or physical, mental or emotional disabilities. Consistent with this provision, a number of entities have been established, including the Court for Children, Child Protection Teams, Child Activity Centres, Orphanages, and Rehabilitation Centres/Schools. The Department of Social Welfare immediately investigates any report on maltreatment of children.

In the Philippines, RA 9231 (An Act Providing for the Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour and Affording Stronger Protection for the Working Child) was enacted in 2003. This law also mandates the Department of Education to ensure that working children are able to access both the formal or non-formal education. Moreover, the country's National Programme Against Child Labour targets a 75% reduction in child labour practices by 2015 (ILO, 2005b). The elimination of the worst forms of child labour is a national priority concern stipulated in the Medium-Term Philippine Development Plan 2004-2010.

Collaboration with ILO is also complemented by efforts to reach local communities and districts through networks of development partners including relevant ministries, teachers' unions and civil society by using education as a tool in eliminating child labour practices at the national level (ILO, 2005b). The Employers' Confederation of the Philippines (ECOP) is one of the most active sectors of Philippine society strongly opposed to the exploitation of children and campaigns through advocacy, awareness-raising, documentation and recognition of best practices of companies against child labour. The ILO (2005b) noted the ECOP's action programme (as part of its overall Corporate Social Responsibility programme), which aims to build the capacity of its Child-Friendly Committee in monitoring child labour within the institution. Likewise, the ECOP has crafted pilot interventions that will directly benefit child labourers in selected industries including sugar cane plantations, mining, pyrotechnics, and hotel and restaurant industries.

Despite the above policies, plans and programmes, the child labour problem in Insular South-East Asia remains daunting. In 2005, the ILO reported that child labour in the Philippines is prevalent in the areas of domestic labour, drug trafficking, deep sea fishing, mining and quarrying, pyrotechnics/fireworks, sugarcane plantations, sex trade and armed conflict. Indonesia's child labour problems occur, on the other hand, in child domestic labour, drug trafficking, footwear production, deep sea fishing, mining and quarrying, offshore fishing and the sex trade, among others.

A crucial factor in combating child labour is the availability of updated data and other relevant information. Data is crucial not only in trend analysis but also to provide the bases for priority

setting, policy formulation, and legislation both at the sectoral and country levels. National child labour surveys, on the other hand, provide information on the child labour situation, including the profiles on the needs of respondent children and the challenges they face. The systematic collection of reliable data on child labour in recent years have been very useful in the formulation of plans to eliminate child labour, and the development of child-related policies.

According to the National Socio-economic Survey (2003)[11] in Indonesia, about 1.50 million children aged 10–14 were in the labour force and not attending school. Another 1.62 million were not attending school and have been described as helping at home or doing other things. The survey also reported that about 4.18 million children of junior secondary school (13-15 years old), representing 19% of the age group, were not attending school. Relatively, the incidence of child labour and non-attendance in school is significantly higher in rural areas. Notably, the ILO estimates that in 1999, 1.44 million children between the ages of 5 and 14, and 3.44 million between the ages of 15 and 17 were engaged in child labour. Some of the worst forms of child labour incidences in Indonesia incidences include commercial sexual exploitation and hazardous labour practices in mining and fishing. A large part of the child labour is concentrated in rural areas where children work not only in agricultural lands and industries, but also inside homes (domestic work).

Information on child labour in the Philippines is generated from three sources: the Survey on Children; the Labour Force Survey (LFS); and the Annual Poverty Indicators Survey (APIS) all conducted by the National Statistics Office (NSO). In October 2004, the LFS revealed that around 2.12 million children (9.1% of young persons aged 5-17) are working. Children aged 15–17 were more likely to be employed than younger age groups. More young boys than girls are employed. However, a greater proportion of girls worked more than eight hours a day. Nearly 60% of working children were employed in agriculture, hunting and forestry. Similarly, more than half of working children were unpaid. The APIS provides information linking child labour to poverty levels. Likewise, the 2004 APIS pointed out that poor families (the lowest 30% of the income strata) are more likely to have working children aged 5–17, with 23% compared with 8% among the non-poor families (higher 70% of the income strata).

On the other hand, Malaysia has managed to drastically reduce poverty incidence and inequalities in income and education, thereby attaining rapid economic growth and racial harmony. To bridge the racial and economic divide, its development plans highlighted rural development with actionprogrammes targeted at the poor. In the early 1960s, free primary education was introduced and by the 1980s, universal primary education was achieved with gender parity. Likewise, there was a marked increase in the secondary level enrolment starting in the mid-1990s, reaching 70% in 2002 (ILO, 2006). Malaysia's successful poverty reduction strategy, coupled with the expansion of educational opportunities, had immense positive impact on child labour.

Quality of education through both formal and non-formal means is of utmost importance. The attractiveness of education to children as an alternative to child labour is vital to current efforts to eliminate child labour, and in the long run, prepare them for successful entry into the labour market (ILO, 2006). Equally important is the role and quality of teachers who are in direct contact with the children. Proper and adequate trainings enable them to ensure an environment conducive and responsive to the situation of working and at-risk children, as well as to their education needs. These minimize discriminatory attitudes likely to push children at risk to drop out and engage in unprotected labour.

Geographical and Geophysical Factors

The geographical and geophysical characteristics of the sub-region pose barriers to access to education for some groups. In the Philippines, for instance, distribution of textbooks and other

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[11] 2003 Survei Sosial Ekonomi Nasional (Susenas), Indonesia.

instructional materials and also the deployment of teachers to the far flung villages in the hinterlands and remote islands are difficult. In the urban areas, rainy months mean frequent flooding which disrupts classes in most schools. Indonesia's population is similarly distributed unevenly across its islands. For example, Java is so heavily populated while the large island of Kalimantan is much less inhabited, causing significant variation in the delivery of education service (Suryadanita et.al. 2003, UNESCO, 2005). Typhoons and other calamities, such as the earthquake that caused the tsunami in 2004, leave devastating effects that include destruction of school facilities and prolonged class disruptions.

Urban-Rural Disparities in Education

Children in urban schools generally have increased access to ECCE and formal basic education compared with those in rural communities. To address this, the deployment of more national government resources to rural schools has been undertaken to achieve targets of universal access and completion of basic education. The Medium-Term-Philippine Development Plan 2004-2010 reported a net enrolment rate of 75.6% in rural schools and 89.3% in urban schools in 2004.

Persons Affected by HIV/AIDS

Although the prevalence of HIV/AIDS in the sub-region is considered low, this is not a cause for complacency. It was reported that in the Philippines as of August 2005, there were around 2,333 HIV infections, including 697 AIDS cases and 273 HIV/AIDS-related deaths. The first case was reported in 1984 and as of 2005, about 11,200 people were believed to be living with HIV. This translates to a 0.03% prevalence rate for the population aged 15-49 years. For Indonesia, the HIV prevalence for adults ages 15 - 49 is estimated to be 0.10% in the same year. This figure, however, continues to rise but remains concentrated among populations at risk such as those engaged in sex work and injecting drug users. In 2002, it was estimated that people living with HIV/AIDS in Indonesia was around 90,000 to 130,000. Malaysia's HIV/AIDS prevalence, on the other hand, was at 0.5%. There were 70,559 cases of infection, of which 10,663 were AIDS cases (WHO, 2006). Available data on HIV/AIDS in these countries do not reveal the proportion of children among these cases.

Street Children

The prevalence of street children is another problem in Insular South-East Asia. Street children in the Philippines is defined as children (5-18 years old) who either live or work on the streets, spending a significant amount of time engaged in different occupations, with or without the care and protection of responsible adults. The latest figure from the Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD) estimates around 222,417 street children across the country (1998), usually in urban areas. Indonesia, for its part, has around 50,761 street children nationwide in 2003 according to the Department of Welfare. These children are mainly those who live outside their homes and do economic activities in the streets such as hawking and begging with some forced into prostitution.

Gender Disparities in Education

Historically, women are accorded a high status in Insular South-East Asia according to Reid (1988). Women are traditionally active in economic and political affairs. It has been also noted that there is no strong sex preference for children (Hirschman and Edwards, 2007) and that boys and girls are equally valued. Thus, there is no particular gender bias in sending children to schools. Indonesia, Malaysia and the Philippines have generally achieved gender parity in education. However, a slow growing, but alarming, trend has been noted in the education performance indicators: boys are at a disadvantage in terms of participation and achievement. Malaysia and the Philippines, for example, may have already achieved gender parity in primary education in 2005, but are categorized by the 2008 EFA Global Monitoring Report as less likely to achieve gender parity in

secondary education in 2015, and not even in 2025, as boys continue to be at a great disadvantage in almost all education indicators. Indonesia, on the other hand, has achieved or is likely to achieve gender parity in both levels (UNESCO, 2007).

Gender disparities in primary school enrolment remain an issue at the heart of the MDGs and the EFA goals. Gender equality means equality at all levels of education and into all areas of work. This involves promoting equality over resources and equal representation in public and political life. The countries of the sub-region have supported gender equality through various legislations and development plans. Indonesia, for example, has ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) through the passing of Law No. 7 of 1984. Presidential Decree No. 9 issued in 2000 assigned all government agencies, both at national and local levels, to mainstream gender into planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of all policies and programmes. Law 20/2003 (National Education System Act) also stipulates that education shall be provided for all citizens and that girls and boys as well as men and women have the same right to quality education. Annual and medium-term development plans in all development fields and activities include gender as one of the mainstream issues.

For Malaysia, gender issues were first embodied in the Third Malaysia Plan (1976–1980) and then the Sixth Malaysia Plan (1991–1995). The former encouraged the active participation of women in socio-economic development while the latter highlighted gender issues in a full chapter. The 1989 National Policy for Women (NPW) has its primary goal the equitable sharing in the acquisition of resources and information, opportunities and benefits of development for men and women. It also called for the integration of women in all sectors of national development in accordance with their capabilities and needs in order to eradicate poverty, ignorance and illiteracy, and ensure a peaceful, harmonious, and prosperous nation. The provisions in the NPW were later incorporated into the Sixth Malaysia Plan and subsequent development policies and programmes, as well as in the Malaysian National Education System. Malaysia ratified the CEDAW in 1995.

The 1987 Philippine Constitution declares as a policy of the state for women to participate in and benefit from development on an equal basis with men. Consistent with this, RA 7192 or the Women in Development and Nation Building Act was passed in 1992. Other laws supporting gender and development (GAD) include: the Science and Technology (S&T) Scholarship Act of 1997 that expands educational opportunities for women and men to pursue careers in S&T; and the National Service Training Programme Act of 2001 which provides three options on military, civil service and literacy training to female and male students at the tertiary level. The Philippines also adopted the Philippine Plan for Gender-Responsive Development (PPGD) 1995-2025. To implement this plan, the Philippine GAD budget policy mandates all government offices to allocate 5% of their annual budget to finance their respective agency-based GAD plans. The Philippines has also ratified the CEDAW which resulted in the installation of various means to protect Filipino women from inequalities and discrimination in the civil, economic, social, political and cultural concerns.

Despite the prominence given to gender issues during the past decades, challenges continue to confront efforts to achieve gender equality. The latest trends reveal that gender gaps increasingly put boys at a disadvantage in some major indicators of education performance. There is also a need to re-examine closely related issues such as child labour, conduciveness of school environment to learning for both boys and girls, as well as traditional and cultural factors that impact on gender. The perceived performance of girls should not result in complacency in the light of existing regional variations across each country.

Children in Particularly Disadvantaged Areas

The worsening problem of armed conflict has caused the loss of lives and livelihoods in some of the poorest areas in the Philippines. It has likewise contributed to human insecurity, displacement of families, damaged infrastructure, and has disrupted health, education and other basic services.

About 20,000 to 50,000 children are placed at a great disadvantage annually for the past three years. There are reports of children being recruited by armed groups as combatants (e.g., the Moro Islamic Liberation Front recruited children as young as 10 years old and the New Peoples' Army's regular troop strength is 3% children), but studies reveal that most join voluntarily and often with the support of their own families. Schoolchildren become direct and indirect victims, specifically in instances when classes are interrupted by armed encounters or when schools are being used as evacuation centres for displaced families (UNICEF, 2007).

Conflicts also exist in Indonesia. Among these are in Aceh and Papua (Irian Jaya) which demand independence from Indonesia. Movements also exist in Riau province and other areas where the main causes are struggles for economic justice and greater autonomy from the central government control (Crouch, 2004). Political conflict customarily has some economic ramifications on Indonesia. For years, the government has been burdened with regional conflicts as provinces struggle for statehood such as Aceh, Papua and Timor Leste. The third has recently gained independence. In 2004, Aceh and the government forged a peace agreement after 30 years of strife. But in Papua, the special autonomy granted in 2001 remains unimplemented. Overall, insecurity and terrorism have become deterring factors, costing the nation reduced earnings, especially from tourism (UNGEI, 2007).

Box 1: Empowering Working Girls Through Partnerships in Education

Child domestic work in Indonesia and the Philippines is one of the major obstacles to achieving EFA Goals 2 and 5: ensuring universal primary education, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, respectively. Hundreds of thousands of under-15 children who are mostly girls are being exploited as household helps or domestic workers in both countries.

The ILO estimates that as of 2006 about 700,000 children are working in households in Jakarta and in other cities of Indonesia. This figure does not take into account the thousands of children sent abroad by their families or trafficked by international recruiters. In the Philippines, the Visayan Forum, an NGO advocating the rights of domestic workers, estimates child labourers to number close to a million, although the latest National Statistics Office's survey (2001) recorded only 230,000 children employed in households. The overwhelming majority of these children are girls who migrate to urban centres such as Metro Manila, Batangas, and cities in Mindanao. These children often end up working under abusive conditions and, in many cases, are physically and sexually abused. These dire working conditions also prevent them from attending school, thereby ruining their chances for a better future.

Some creative and effective ways to tackle this issue are illustrated in the East Asia and Pacific Regional United Nations Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI) publication Towards Equal Opportunities for All: Empowering Girls through Partnership in Education (2007). The report includes case studies from Indonesia and the Philippines that highlight education as a crucial empowering tool for domestic child workers, coupled with concerted political, social and cultural actions. Two projects in Indonesia are featured: Preventing and Eliminating Exploitative Child Domestic Work through Education and Training (Karawang and Bekasi districts), and the Regional Project to Combat Trafficking in Children for Labour and Sexual Exploitation (Indramayu district). For the Philippines, the report features the Kasambahay Programme established by local advocacy organization Visayan Forum to provide legal protection and assistance to child domestic labourers.

The core of these programmes consists of non-formal education classes on Sundays and weekday nights to girls working as domestic help. The project proponents also visit the employers to convince them to allow these children to attend school. For girls younger than 15, the legal age for entering the job market both in Indonesia and the Philippines, measures are taken for them to stop working, and their reintegration to their families and the public school system are facilitated. Alternative learning systems are also designed and implemented in NGO-run non-formal education centres, taking into account the difficulties that working girls face in studying given work-related strain. Links with the local industrial enterprises (e.g. the garment industry in Indramayu, Indonesia) are established to provide the students with concrete job opportunities after completion of their education.

These education programmes use a holistic approach to protect and empower girls engaged in domestic labour. For the formal school system, for example, all programmes include a dialogue with local, district and provincial education departments to provide working children with a bridge from non-formal education programmes into the state school system (e.g. via equivalency exams). Classes for girls doing domestic work are conducted in the public schools as much as possible, and at least part of the non-formal education programmes are developed by state teachers. Agreements are also made with the Department of Education's decentralized offices for them to subsidize educational programmes for child domestics both in state schools and in NGO learning centres. Partnerships are established with local religious councils and organizations as well. International organizations such as UNICEF, ILO, and USAID are also involved at various levels.

Another important component is lobbying national and local governments to pass laws protecting domestic labourers. The projects featured in the Report did succeed in designing local laws and getting them approved at the provincial level and are constantly pushing the central governments to introduce specific pro-working children measures in national legislation. The programmes in Indonesia also integrated successful community awareness projects, mainly through local radio broadcasts.

Sources: UNICEF-UNGEI (2007). Towards Equal Opportunities for All. Empowering Girls through Partnerships in Education. Part I: Overcoming Girls' Exploitation, pp. 61-103. East Asia and Pacific Regional UNGEI.

PART II:
INSULAR SOUTH-EAST ASIA SUB-REGIONAL PROGRESS AND CHALLENGES

7. Introduction to the Data and the Maps

Goal by Goal Summary of National Reports

Part II focuses on the countries participating in the MDA, namely, Indonesia, Malaysia and the Philippines the combined population of which constitutes 98% of Insular South-East Asia's total population. It provides an overview of progress and challenges in achieving the six EFA goals in the sub-region and highlights common issues and situations. Although a goal-by-goal narrative of common trends and patterns in the sub-region is highlighted, based mainly on the data provided by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics, achievements and challenges peculiar to each country are also noted based on the MDA national reports.

Discussion of each EFA goal follows a general outline that starts with a background that underscores definition of the goal theme (i.e., Early Childhood Care and Education, Primary Education, Life Skills, Literacy, Gender Equality and Quality of Education) and pertinent national policies and legislations, as well as strategies and programmes for the disadvantaged children. The background is followed by discussion on progress achieved for selected EFA MDA core indicators that essentially compares baseline (2000) and latest data (2005, or in some cases, 2006). This section includes an analysis of gender parity using sex-disaggregated data and highlights achievements in quality relevant to the goal. Geographical and other in-country disparities are discussed in Part III. Cross-cutting issues and barriers in addressing the needs of the unreached and the disadvantaged are also presented in this section. This is followed by discussion of overall progress and best practices in the sub-region. The last part presents the remaining challenges and issues that each country in the sub-region must address. Internationally comparative data and indicators used in this section came from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics Data Centre (UISDC) accessed on February 2008, unless otherwise indicated.

8. Goal One: Early Childhood Care and Education

The first of the six EFA goals agreed on at the World Conference on Education for All in 1990 and reaffirmed in the Dakar Framework for Action adopted by the World Education Forum in Senegal, in April 2000, concerns the fundamental protection and development of children prior to primary school age with special emphasis on those in disadvantaged and difficult circumstances and with special needs.

The signatories commit themselves to the provision of a nurturing and caring environment conducive to children growing healthy, alert and secure, as well as able to learn. Children should be provided with care and early education that would increase their chance of survival and enable them to reach full development and realize their learning potential.

The governments of participating nations are, therefore, enjoined to formulate and implement policies and plans for Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE) that involve all stakeholders such as the parents, caregivers, Local Government Units, and the community, among others. These policies and plans should be reinforced by appropriate and adaptable programmes and projects depending on the unique needs and particular contexts of pre-primary children.

8.1 Background and Development of ECCE in Insular South-East Asia

8.1.1 Definition of ECCE

The general operational meaning of ECCE in the sub-region is the organized effort targeting young children through activities that stimulate and facilitate their physical, psychosocial, emotional, spiritual and mental growth and development in preparation for further education, especially

formal education. ECCE is an integral part of the education systems in the Insular countries and is provided for by various education policies and development plans.

ECCE, based on EFA and UNESCO definitions, covers the ages zero to eight which includes the first three years of primary education. However, the age when the guidance and instruction becomes increasingly structured and formal in preparation for primary education varies depending on the country. For Indonesia, it covers 5-7 year olds, Malaysia, 5-6 year olds and the Philippines, 5-6 year olds. This stage is usually called kindergarten or pre-school or pre-primary level. The term pre-school sometimes refers to that final year prior to entering primary education. Daycare centres usually cater to children before this final year with focus on their psychomotor and emotional development while pre-schools emphasize cognitive and psychosocial strengthening in children.

8.1.2 National Policy and Legislation for Provision and Coordination of ECCE

Ensuring that every child has access to quality ECCE is stipulated in various national education laws in the sub-region. The emerging approach to ECCE provision is founded on the principle that total protection and development of children requires convergence of efforts from various relevant agencies of the government in partnership with local governments, the community and the civil society, as well as with private providers. ECCE provision is based on a holistic framework that encompasses nutrition, health, learning environment, cognitive development, care and protection, and quality of child minders or teachers.

The National Education System Law of 2003 (Law 20/2003) of Indonesia provides for the definition and modes of provision of ECCE (Part 7/Article 28). Early childhood education is organized prior to basic education and is provided through formal (kindergarten or *taman kanak-kanak*, *raudatul athfal*, among others), non-formal (including playgroups or *kelompok bermain*, child centres or *taman penitipan anak*), and/or informal education (includes family education or education in the surroundings). Informal education complements the formal and the non-formal education approaches.

The Childcare Centres Act of 1984 (amended 2007) of Malaysia was enacted to standardize and ensure quality of ECCE services provided across the country. The law sets minimum quality requirements for all childcare centres and nurseries based on an integrated approach encompassing proper nutrition, healthy environments, cognitive development and the quality of child minders. Under this law, all child minders are required to complete a standard training course formulated by the Ministry of Women, Family and Community Development (MWFCD) and obtain a basic childcare certificate. All ECCE centres are also mandated to register with the Department of Social Welfare of the MWFCD. The National Education Act of 1996 (Act 550) formally integrates pre-school education into the national education system with MOE as the main regulatory agency. All primary schools will integrate pre-school classes by 2010. In addition, this Act allows pre-schools to use various vernacular languages in Malaysia in addition to two hours per week of formal instruction in Bahasa Malaysia. To further ensure standards and quality of services from both public and private providers, the MOE implemented a formal curriculum for ECCE in 2003. To reinforce the national ECCE curriculum, programmes that seek to include additional content in the curriculum must acquire prior approval from the Ministry.

The Philippines has three existing laws directly related to ECCE. The first law, RA 6972 or the Daycare Act of 1990, provides for the establishment of at least one daycare centre in every barangay in the country. Ten years after, RA 8980 or the Early Childhood Education and Development (ECCD) Act of 2000 was enacted to institutionalize an integrated and comprehensive national ECCE system. In addition, RA 9155 or the Governance of Basic Education Act of 2001 mandates that early childhood education be a part of basic education.

The implementation and coordination of ECCE in the sub-region is a multiagency and multisector concern involving government entities responsible for education, health, family welfare, community

development, as well as private and civil society groups, among others. In Indonesia, collaboration depends on the form of ECCE service delivered. For example, the supervision of kindergarten for 4-6 year olds is done by the government through the MONE and its provincial and district/municipal offices. The MONE coordinates with representatives from professional associations and the society/community. For the *raudhatul athfal*, a form of Islamic kindergarten where religion is the centre of overall teaching and learning process, supervision is done by the MORA. The Infants' Family Development, on the other hand, is a community-based activity that provides and enhances knowledge and skills of parents and other family members on the promotion of optimal infant growth and development. It organizes parents with children aged 0-6 years into the Infants' Family Development groups usually aligned with the Integrated Health Services Centre (Posyandu). The overall policy for the programme is formulated by the Ministry of Women Empowerment while the coordination of its operations rests with the National Coordinating Body for Family Planning.

Through the National Education Act that integrates pre-school education into the national education system in 1996, the MOE in Malaysia implements pre-school classes for children 5-6 years old as an extension service of existing primary schools, especially in rural areas. The Department of Regional and Rural Development (KEMAS) under the Ministry of Regional and Rural Development (MRRD) was the first government entity to provide pre-school education in Malaysia since 1972. KEMAS today is still the largest public provider of pre-school education. The Department of National Unity and Integration (PERPADUAN) under the Prime Minister's Department also provides ECCE services focusing on urban and suburban multiethnic neighbourhood with special attention given to the promotion of harmony, unity and nationality among the children from the different ethnic communities and their parents. The MWFCD established the Workplace Childcare Centres in response to the increasing participation of women in its economic activities and the Community Childcare Centres to provide quality childcare to 0-4 year olds to low income families in urban and rural areas. The Ministry of Health (MOH) coordinates with the agencies in monitoring and evaluation of children's health and nutritional status.

The coordination of the ECCD Law in the Philippines is being carried out by the Council for the Welfare of Children (CWC) under the Office of the President. It also serves as the National ECCD Coordinating Council that coordinates efforts from the national to the local levels among the Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD), the DepEd, Department of Health (DOH), Local Government Units, NGOs and other concerned entities. The implementation of the law at the local level is cost-shared between the CWC and the local governments (provincial/city) through their local ECCD Coordinating Committees. Under the current overall coordinative set-up, the DepEd and the DSWD act as the lead implementing agencies in ECCE. The DepEd sets the standards for the curriculum, staff requirements and physical facilities for the operation of pre-schools within the public elementary schools that cater to 5-year olds only while DSWD takes care of accreditation and standard setting for ECCD Centres and daycare workers, programmes and services catering to children 4 years old and below. Under the Daycare Law of 1990, the establishment of a daycare centre in every barangay in the country by the local governments should be coordinated with the DSWD.

8.1.3 Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Children

Among the key approaches adopted in the sub-region to provide equitable access to ECCE, especially among disadvantaged children, is the involvement of the community in the provision of services and strengthening of public awareness on the importance of early childhood care and education through social marketing.

Poverty is the usual barrier for non-participation in ECCE services. In Indonesia, for example, where most of the ECCE service providers are private and often expensive, the poor are automatically at a disadvantage. To mitigate cost barriers, Indonesia's strategy is to provide ECCE services closer to home and give financial support to poorer households. Increased public support in the provision

of ECCE is done by tapping existing public facilities and infrastructure and by making ECCE institutions more accessible to children, particularly in rural or remote areas. In addition, Indonesia has implemented programmes to intensify equal distribution and expansion of care and education services for young children. These include the integration of ECCE with Health Service Centres (Posyandu) and religious centres (Mosque, Church and Vihara). Likewise, through these institutions, ECCE data collected has been completed in 2006 in cooperation with the MORA. Previously, beneficiaries of ECCE services in the religious centres were not counted. Another programme, the Infants' Family Development (BKB), also served as a venue to bring ECCE to the community where parents with ECCE-aged children are organized and given educational orientations on the proper care of their very young children.

Other initiatives include further integration of health care with children's day care and the 'one roof' school programme combining kindergarten and primary education to allow younger students to start kindergarten classes integrated in public schools. The 'one roof' school programme was implemented in response to the prevalence of skipping pre-school by children from poorer families to evade the cost of attending ECCE before Grade 1. All these are part of Indonesia's strategies to achieve its target of covering 75% of ECCE children by 2015 (Indonesia, 2007:35).

Malaysia also implements financial assistance to the households of poor children through two programmes: (a) Child Support Assistance (Bantuan Kanak-kanak) to poor families with very young children to support living expenses; and (b) Schooling Assistance (Bantuan Sekolah) to school-going children from poor households for school fees, school uniforms and transportation, among others. Similarly, Malaysia aims to expand ECCE services to children in rural and remote areas by providing a total of 3,143 pre-school classes from 2006 to 2010, of which 80% or 2,436 classes will be in rural areas. The government also plans to raise the per capita grant for pre-schools. Specifically targeting marginalized children with contextualized ECCE programmes is crucial in increasing their participation.

For children with special needs, special education is provided in MOE schools for children with single disabilities. Children with multiple disabilities are referred to the MWFCD. To increase the access of these children, the Education Development Master Plan 2006 – 2010 aims to establish an additional 100 pre-school classrooms for the integration of children aged 5 and 6 with single disabilities in addition to the pre-school classes established in the special schools (28) and integration classes that existed before 2006 (32). Pre-school teachers and teachers' assistants will be further trained for this purpose. The MOE has also developed an adapted National Pre-school Curriculum package for the visually impaired, the hearing-impaired and learning-disabled.

To implement ECCE in indigenous communities, both the Department of Orang Asli Affairs and KEMAS have expanded public-supported care and education for children 0-4 years old. The Women Motivator (Penggerak Wanita) initiative trains and supports women motivators to promote awareness among mothers in the indigenous communities on the importance of education. The initiative has increased from six sites and 80 children in 2000, to 28 sites and 529 participating children in 2006. KEMAS also provided support for programmes for children under 5 in indigenous communities in 2005 with 226 children. In 2006, the KEMAS childcare programme was supporting 317 children in the indigenous communities in peninsular Malaysia. The Penggerak Wanita initiative also represents the application of an approach specifically developed for the conditions and culture of indigenous communities.

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NGOs have also made important contributions to expand access to quality ECCE for children from indigenous communities, including those in difficult-to-reach areas. Many of these NGOs support ECCE as a component of more comprehensive community-based support programmes. As one of the largest providers of ECCE in indigenous communities, PACOS Trust has been working with the Association of Kindergartens of Sabah to provide basic training to pre-school teachers on a yearly basis. PACOS pre-schools are mostly built through sponsorships from international bodies and companies with joint effort of the local communities. The programme has also increased awareness among parents and local communities on the importance of community health, childcare and education.

In the Philippines, Parent-Teachers and Community Associations (PTCAs) are tapped to provide pre-school classes and daycare centres. Pilot community-based and home-based ECCE programmes have been provided to cover children in difficult/different situations. For primary education entrants without ECCE experience, an eight-week Early Childhood Education Curriculum has been integrated in Grade 1 to provide for ECE intervention before formal Grade 1 lessons start. The Pre-school Service Contracting Scheme, which taps the resources/ services of the private sector, is also in place (in the 5th and 6th class municipalities nationwide)[12] to prioritize marginalized learners.

....

[12] Municipalities in the Philippines are classified according to their income and population. The 5th and 6th class municipalities are at the bottom.

8.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in ECCE

To expand and improve ECCE, the Indonesian government's operational target is to achieve 75% pre-primary GER in 2015. To reach this target, an incremental four percentage point should be attained annually. In Malaysia, although no specific quantitative target has been set, the Ninth Malaysia Plan aims to provide ECCE service to all children by 2010. The Plan also stipulates that ECCE services shall be expanded among the underserved and unreached. The Philippines' 2015 goal for ECCE is enunciated in the National EFA Action Plan that aims for all Grade 1 entrants to be ready for primary education and able to learn the competencies prescribed especially for the first three years of primary education. It further provides that the expansion and improvement of ECCE services would give particular attention to children in difficult circumstances such as those belonging to ethnic minorities, among others.

As shown in the graph below, participation in ECCE among young children has improved across the sub-region. The GER for pre-primary education for Indonesia was 24.6% in 2000, rising to 33.4% in 2005. The Philippines posted a 9.8 percentage points improvement with a pre-primary GER reading of 40% in 2005.
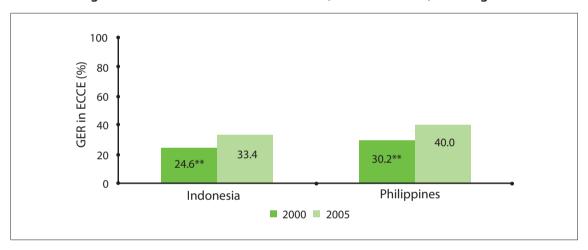
Figure 1: Gross Enrolment Ratio in ECCE, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "**" indicates UIS estimation; Due to differences in enrolment and population data used by the Ministry of Education and the UIS, this indicator cannot be published for Malaysia.

ECCE service providers from the private sector are crucial partners in achieving EFA Goal 1. The table below shows the privately dominated ECCE services in Indonesia, constituting 99.2% in 2000 and slightly decreasing to 99% in 2005. It should be noted that in 2000, Indonesia did not count young children engaged in non-formal ECCE activities that forms part of the public ECCE services. It was only in 2002 that the contribution from non-formal ECCE was considered. This may explain the slight decrease in the private ECCE enrolment in 2005. Public provision of ECCE is relatively broader in Malaysia and the Philippines. The table below also shows that public provision has increased for both countries as reflected by a slight decrease in private ECCE enrolment.

Table 5: Percentage of Pre-Primary Private Centre Enrolment, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region
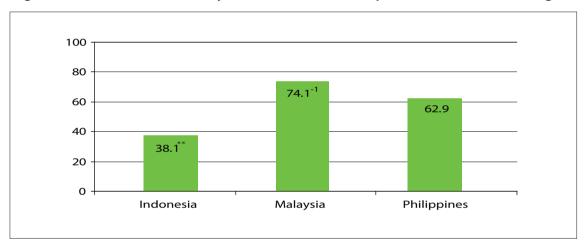
Country	Enrolment in Private Institutions (Pre-Primary) as % of Total	
	2000	2005
Indonesia	99.2**	99
Malaysia	48.1	44.9[-1]
Philippines	47.9**	44.9

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "**" indicates UIS estimation. "-n" indicates data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods before the reference year or period.

The increasing participation of children in ECCE should increase the percentage of primary education entrants with prior ECCE experience. As of 2005, the percentage of Grade 1 entrants with some form of ECCE experience in the Philippines stood at 62.9% while that of Malaysia was 74.1%. Indonesia posted the lowest at 38.1%. Such low coverage is attributed in part to the fact that many families have chosen to skip pre-school or any form of ECCE service and, instead, enroll their children straight to primary school. This practice is done in order to save on the costly ECCE services dominated by the private sector.

Figure 2: New Entrants to Primary Education with ECCE Experience (%), 2005, Sub-Region

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "**" indicates UIS estimation. "-n" indicates data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods before the reference year or period.

8.2.1 Gender Equality in ECCE

Examining sex disaggregated data in ECCE show girls are doing better than boys in Insular South-East Asia. Table 6 shows that although the GER for both sexes improved across the sub-region, girls' participation continued to be higher and the performance gap has not improved in 2005. Indonesia's pre-primary GER went up from 24.1% to 32.9% for boys and 25.1% to 34% for girls from 2000 to 2005. Likewise, the Philippines' GER for boys improved from 29.5% to 39.3% and the rate for girls improved from 30.9% to 40.7% during the same period. Malaysia registered the widest gap with girls' pre-primary GER increasing from 54.7% to 65.5% and that of boys' from 52.7% to 59.7%.

Table 6: Gross Enrolment Ratio in ECCE, by Sex, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000		2005	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Indonesia	24.1**	25.1**	32.9**	34.0**
Malaysia	§	§	§	§
Philippines	29.5**	30.9**	39.3	40.7

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "**" indicates UIS estimation. "§" indicates that due to differences in enrolment and population data used by the Ministry of Education and the UIS, this indicator cannot be published for Malaysia.

Consistently, the proportion of girls with ECCE experience entering primary education is slightly higher than that of boys as shown in Table 7. In Indonesia, the percentage of girls entering primary education with ECCE experience stood at 38.8% while that of boys was at 37.5% in 2005. The case is the same in the Philippines and Malaysia where the proportion of girls with ECCE experience is greater than that of boys. Malaysia, however, shows a much wider gap in favour of girls.

Table 7: New Entrants to Primary Education with ECCE Experience (%), by Sex, 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2005	
	Male	Female
Indonesia	37.5**	38.8**
Malaysia	70.7[-1]	77.7[-1]
Philippines	62.6	63.2

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "**" indicates UIS estimation. "-n" indicates data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods before the reference year or period.

Although improvement in ECCE coverage may be evident in the pre-primary GER and the percentage of new entrants to Grade 1 with ECCE experience shown by national aggregates, there is a need to specifically examine how the disadvantaged and underserved segment of the population situate within these figures. Progress in achieving equity across all segments of the population has been achieved at a measured pace. However, determining the accurate and complete picture of improvement within all the groups identified as unreached and underserved in the sub-region is difficult at present. Comprehensive regular monitoring schemes continue to be lacking alongside a database that can capture enough information on the number, location, situation and the particular kind of obstacles that hamper full participation in ECCE. Information that is available now is limited, usually group-based (i.e., concerns only with children in child labour or children with disabilities), and derived from special or non-regular surveys or studies.

8.2.2 Progress in Achieving Quality of ECCE

In Malaysia, progress in ensuring quality of ECCE has been achieved through regular planning and review processes aided by sound integrative monitoring and evaluation instruments. Among these is the surveillance of nutritional status and childhood disease and mortality led by the MOH tracking of the expansion of pre-school accessibility through the Annual School Survey and data from the private education, and monitoring of the quality of teaching and learning led by the School Inspectorate Division of the MOE.

As a rallying and unifying vision for an integrated ECCE programme, the Philippines adopted the "Bright Child" concept through EO 286 in 2006. An ECCD Checklist for monitoring child development in seven domains (gross motor, fine motor, self-help, receptive language, cognitive, social and emotional) was developed under the Early Child Development Project sponsored by ADB and World Bank for the various ECCE service providers. The Guidelines for Selecting Early Childhood Care and Development Learning Materials for Children (0-6 years old) was also developed for selecting appropriate materials such as books, toys and other learning materials according to the child's age and cultural contexts.

8.2.3 Cross-Cutting Issues in Addressing the Unreached and the Underserved

Several barriers to the provision of ECCE for the disadvantaged groups within the Insular South-East Asian Sub-region include (a) parents' lack of awareness and appreciation of the importance of ECCD/ECCE as foundation for lifelong learning; (b) unavailability/ inadequacy of services and facilities in remote and even in densely-populated areas; (c) limited number of centres and qualified teachers who can be deployed in ECCD centres, especially in remote areas; (d) poverty which prevents poor families from availing ECCE services since majority of ECCE providers come from the private sector; and (e) lack of adequate and updated data on the numbers and location of these groups.

A particular challenge in Indonesia is the enforcement of the official primary school entry age of seven years old. More and more children are starting at six years to cut costs on ECCE, particularly in urban areas.

In Malaysia, a high proportion of children not participating in ECCE have been observed both in the rural areas as well as in the more urbanized state such as Selangor. This may be due, in part, to the fact that children are attending unregistered private ECCE centres that do not report their enrolment to the government. Another reason may be that a substantial number of children in Selangor do not have legal status to enrol in Malaysian schools.

8.2.4 Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving Goal One

Generally, progress in terms of expanding and improving access to ECCE has been achieved in the sub-region. However, assessment of the extent of reach of ECCE services with respect to the unreached and disadvantaged population is hampered by incomplete data and information on the demand and actual delivery of services to these groups. The Philippines, for example, reported that the increase in pre-primary and in the proportion of primary level entrants with ECCE experience is mainly attributed to the implementation of the ECCD Law. However, the absence of supporting data makes it difficult to segregate the proportion of the special target groups (marginalized and disadvantaged).

Nevertheless, the ECCD Law has gained the commitment and support of the Local Government Units and ECCE has been mainstreamed in local development and investment plans. Moreover, collaborative partnership among different agencies was strategically forged, involving local NGOs and the private sector. The Philippines (2007) reported that integrated services promoted alongside ECCE include health, nutrition, education, social welfare, among others. The ECCD Law has been adopted in 77 provinces (97% coverage) and 29 cities (96% coverage) in various levels of 'ECCD processes', namely, preplanning (data gathering and social preparation), planning and implementing. The process involves putting in place an ECCD system which takes three to four months.

In Indonesia, provision of integrative ECCE services (e.g., in conjunction with nutrition and health services) closer to homes as well as giving financial support to poorer households to mitigate the cost of attending privately-run ECCE significantly contributed to raising GER. Similarly, direct financial assistance to poor families in Malaysia to cover school fees, school uniform and

transportation, among others, was also pursued. An important initiative in the Malaysian ECCE system is the development and adoption of the National Pre-school Curriculum package for children with special needs, including those with visual and hearing impairment. ECCE services were also expanded to cover the 0-4 year old children from indigenous communities by both the Department of Orang Asli Affairs and KEMAS. This is supported by the Women Motivator (Penggerak Wanita) initiative which provides information, training and assistance to mothers in the indigenous communities about the importance of education. Collaboration with NGOs, such as the PACOS Trust in Sabah, has also contributed substantially in expanding access of indigenous communities to ECCE. Moreover, the incorporation of ECCE (covering 4-6 year olds) into the national education system has resulted in a standard curriculum, systematic and purposive training for teachers and child minders for ECCE, and the establishment of standards for private providers.

Tapping the Parents, Teachers and Community Associations (PTCAs) in providing pre-school classes and daycare centres have worked in the Philippines. Expanding access to children in difficult situations is being done through experimental community-based and home-based ECCE programmes. For those primary education entrants unable to obtain any kind of ECCE experience, an integral Early Childhood Education Curriculum for the first eight weeks in Grade 1 has been institutionalized. The pre-school Service Contracting Scheme which taps the services of the private sector was also implemented covering the poorest municipalities, prioritizing marginalized learners.

8.3 Remaining Challenges and Issues in Achieving Goal One

Next to getting children to participate in ECCE, another major challenge is sustaining their attendance. This is difficult when children are undernourished and may be too weak or sick to continue going to ECCE centres. From 1996 to 2005, the average proportion of children under 5 who were underweight was 11% for Malaysia and 28% for both Indonesia and the Philippines (UNESCO Bangkok-UIS). This is expected to be addressed by the convergent services approach, especially with health and nutrition.

As previously mentioned, lack of data and information on the location, number and situation of the unreached and disadvantaged groups is a major obstacle in determining the exact quantity and quality of ECCE services they need. Similarly, determining the number of children from these groups for purposes of monitoring the progress in their participation in ECCE has been hindered.

Specifically, Indonesia is facing challenges with providing ECCE services in the following areas: (a) measuring the sustainability of ECCE models and playgroups; (b) developing a clear ECCE teacher career path and certification system; (c) stimulating demand for families to use these ECCE centres; and (d) addressing cost barriers in accessing ECCE. An ongoing study supported by UNICEF and the National Planning Department is looking into a clearer definition of ECCE, mapping, standards and guidelines, among others.

In Malaysia, the current policy of accepting only children with a single disability limits the participation of other children with special needs. Such policy need is currently being examined for purposes of accommodating more children whether in the regular MOE schools (inclusive education approach) or through special education classes for ECCE.

For the Philippines, challenges in ECCE include: (a) ensuring that the poorest and most disadvantaged children have access to quality ECCD/ECCE; (b) institutionalizing an ECCD system that is comprehensive, integrative and sustainable; (c) increasing appreciation on the importance of ECCD as a foundation for human development; (d) increasing access to quality ECCD services through home-based and centre-based ECE; (e) increasing partnership at local level [family, community and other local institutions]; (f) strengthening local governance in managing ECCD services and ensuring functionality of ECCD coordinating mechanism; (g) establishing a user-friendly ECCD monitoring system; and (h) building the capacity of programme managers, service providers and their supervisors.

Achieving Goal 1 bears heavily on Goal 2 (universal primary/basic education) as ECCE prepares children for formal schooling mentally, emotionally and physically, thereby increasing the chance of children surviving and completing formal schooling, reducing drop-out incidence, and helping to assure better performance in primary education, among others.

9. Goal Two: Universal Primary/Basic Education

9.1 Background and Development in Universal Primary/Basic Education in Insular South-East Asia

Primary education is compulsory in the sub-region and constitutes the basic education or forms part of it. However, there are varying legal interpretations of basic education among the countries in the sub-region. The definition of primary education and basic education, as well as its provision and coordination, is embodied in the various national education laws of the countries in the sub-region. Basic education for Indonesia, Malaysia and the Philippines extends beyond primary education. But while Indonesia's basic education is compulsory, Malaysia and the Philippines' compulsory education covers only the primary education phase.

9.1.1 Definition of Primary/Basic Education

As stipulated in the National Education System Law of 2003 (Law 20/2003), primary education in Indonesia covers six years and forms part of the nine-year compulsory basic education. The second phase of the compulsory basic education is the three-year junior secondary education. Operationally, Article 17 of this law defines basic education as the compulsory foundation education that includes primary schools or other schools of the same level (six years for 7-12 year olds) and junior secondary schools or other schools of the same level (three years for 13-15 year olds). Until 1994, Indonesia's compulsory education was limited to primary education, a policy that started in 1985. The nine-year Compulsory Basic Education Programme was launched in 1994 and was reinforced by Law 20 in 2003. It seeks to provide an education for every Indonesian in the 7-15 age group.

In Malaysia, basic education comprises of primary education that is free and compulsory and secondary education which is also free in public secondary schools. The Education Act of 1996 (Act 550) defines primary education as a course of study at primary level designed for a duration of six years (6-11 years old) but which may be completed within five to seven years.

In the Philippines, the 1987 Constitution states that every Filipino has the right to free and compulsory primary education and that it is the duty of the state to provide it for free. Secondary education is not compulsory but nonetheless free in public high schools by virtue of the Free Secondary Education Act of 1988 (RA 6655). In 2001, however, RA 9155 defined basic education as encompassing early childhood development and education for 3-5 year olds (three years), elementary or primary education for 6-11 year olds (six years) and high school education for 12-15 year olds (four years) as well as the less structured alternative learning system for out-of-school youth (beyond 15 years old) and adult learners, and education for those with special needs. For purposes of comparison within the sub-region, however, this report refers to basic education as comprising primary and secondary education.

Table 8: Composition of Basic Education and Compulsory Education, Sub-Region

	Indonesia	Malaysia	Philippines
Basic Education Coverage	• Primary Education (6 years) 7-12 years old • Junior Secondary (3 years) 13-15 years old	• Primary Education (6 years) 6-11 years old • Secondary education (5 years) 12-16 years old	• Primary Education (6 years) 6-11 years old • Secondary Education (4 years) 12-15 years old
Compulsory Education Coverage	• Primary Education • Junior Secondary (total of 9 years)	• Primary Education (6 years)	• Primary Education (6 years)

Sources: Indonesia EFA MDA Report 2007; Malaysia EFA MDA Report (Draft, 12 February 2008); and Philippine EFA MDA Report 2007 (Draft, 31 August 2007).

9.1.2 National Policy and Legislation for Goal Two Provision and Coordination of UPE/UBE

Indonesia interprets the second goal of the Dakar Framework through the following provisions in Article 34 of Law 20/2003: (a) each citizen, aged six years old, has to follow compulsory education; (b) the national and local government guarantee the operations of the compulsory basic education and the minimum cost shall be borne by the government; and (c) compulsory education is the responsibility of the state, provided by state and local government institutions and the community. Article 6 further provides that every 7-15 year old citizen shall have the right to receive basic education. The Presidential Instruction 5/2006 sets out regulatory guidelines for the National Movement to Accelerate Compulsory Nine-Year Basic Education Achievement, as well as the Fight Against Illiteracy.

Since every stage of the education system in Indonesia has an equivalent Islamic education structure, the MONE and the MORA share responsibilities in delivering education services and in regulating both public and private schools. The formal schooling system and its equivalent non-formal education modalities are under the responsibility of MONE while the equivalent religious education programmes are under the MORA. The MONE is responsible for the planning and execution of education with its central office, provincial and district offices and the schools. The provincial and district offices are mandated to operationalize and manage education policies and programmes as appropriate, given the distinct features and unique needs of each province and district.

While Act 550 stipulates that it is the duty of the MOE to provide primary education through government and government-aided primary schools, it also oversees the four levels of the Malaysian education management system, namely: federal (MOE); state (State Education Departments); district (District/Division Education Offices); and school. The MOE formulates policies and their implementation guidelines, plans, programmes and projects, as well as coordinates their implementation. Educational policies and plans made at the federal level are carried out at the state level as well as the coordination and monitoring of the implementation of national education programmes and projects, besides providing feedback to the central agency for overall planning. The District Education Offices serve as the MOE's direct link to the schools. The Malaysian government commits to achieving universal quality primary education by 2015 with accompanying financial priority.

In the Philippines, on the other hand, the implementation of the provisions of the 1987 Constitution on basic education and RA 9155 is the responsibility of the DepEd which also oversees basic education service delivery and governance. The DepEd is organized into a Central Office and Field Offices. The Central Office maintains the overall administration of basic education at the national level while the Field Offices (Regional Offices, Provincial and City Schools Divisions,

District Offices and the schools) coordinate and administer the DepEd's mandate at the local levels. An Alternative Learning System (ALS) for basic education is also provided under the DepEd for out-of-school youth and adult learners. An Accreditation and Equivalency (A&E) system serves to certify the level of learners' (15 years old and above) competencies/equivalency within the formal basic education level.

9.1.3 Strategies and Programmes Specific for the Unreached and Underserved Groups

The Indonesian basic education system, as part of its services, incorporates strategies to provide for learners with special needs (e.g., students with learning disabilities/constraints and gifted students). The Malaysian Act 550 mandates the MOE to provide special education in special schools, suitable to the needs of a pupil requiring special education and through methods appropriate for the education of pupils in each category of special schools.

The implementation of various Indonesian policies and legislations concerning basic education is laid out in the RENSTRA 2005-2009 and the National EFA Action Plan. These plans contain the strategies and targets for basic education under the overarching framework focused on attaining universal access to nine years of compulsory basic education. Three main strategies have been identified: (a) increase access and equity for all children of basic education age through formal and non-formal education approaches, including specific targeting of poor communities or those living in isolated or remote places; (b) increase the quality and relevance of basic education so that every graduate has the basic competence required for effective contribution to the community, economy or for further education; and (c) increase governance and accountability of educational resource management and sector and programme performance, including improved public image of the education services. To do this, improvement of the quality of basic education, particularly in the aspects of sufficiency of facilities and infrastructures and relevance of curricula and the learning process are being implemented. The Indonesian government commits to achieving 98% NER in primary education and 98% GER in junior secondary education by 2009; and 100% NER for primary and 100% GER for junior secondary in 2015.

Several programmes have been implemented by the Indonesian government to deliver basic education service to disadvantaged children. Basic education services are provided among the children of poor families in isolated and remote communities through two main programmes: (a) integration of primary/junior secondary under the 'one roof' school programme to ensure access and progression from primary to junior secondary; and (b) non-formal education programmes (Packets A and B). Other related programmes include distance learning and home schooling. Compulsory basic education is accompanied by efforts to ensure an enabling environment at the local level by granting full authority, implementation responsibilities and support to districts (regency/cities) from the central and provincial governments through decentralization. Indonesia has also implemented the schools operational fund (BOS) computed on per student basis to address the challenges brought about by indirect costs to education such as school lunches, uniforms and transportation.

In Malaysia, strategies and programmes to reach children from marginalized and underserved groups are guided by the Ninth Malaysia Plan and the Education Development Master Plan 2006–2010 (EDMP). The Ninth Malaysia Plan is the overall blueprint for continued socio-economic development that aims to address inequalities in the country. It ensures that all citizens are assured of fair and equal educational opportunities regardless of location, race, ability or ethnic background. The EDMP supports the elimination of all inequalities by ensuring that all students attain the mastery and competencies required in reading, writing and arithmetic and that no student drops out because of poverty or location. The Malaysian government targets a 100% NER and completion of primary and secondary education cycle by 2010.

The Philippines' strategies and targets in relation to Goal 2 are embodied under the Medium-Term

Philippine Development Plan (MTPDP) 2005-2010 and the Philippine National EFA 2015 Action Plan. The latter serves as the basic education master plan for the country. The MTPDP, for its part, aims to raise human capital through investments in education and training to support economic growth over the long term and to help break the vicious cycle of poverty among poor families. It seeks to improve efficiency of the basic education system and to enhance teaching-learning processes and skills for competitiveness by expanding access to primary and secondary education, particularly for hard-to-reach population groups and improving school holding capacity and quality of education.

The Philippines' basic strategy is to increase access to basic education, including establishing schools in all barangays and purchasing services from partner private schools through contracting schemes, particularly in overpopulated areas where public schools can no longer accommodate additional students. Aside from special education programmes for children with various forms of disabilities, alternative delivery modes (ADM) of formal basic education use innovative programmes to reach the disadvantaged and marginalized children. Among these are: (a) Project EASE or Effective Alternative Secondary Education for students who cannot attend class regularly due to personal, economic or financial reasons; (b) the Open High School Programme for children with physical or financial difficulties and for those living in remote areas and areas of conflict; (c) Project IMPACT for the primary level which is a combination of self-learning materials and an in-school-off-school mode of reaching the hard-to-reach students and circumventing limited school resources; and (d) Modified In-School, Out-of-School Approach (MISOSA) which is being piloted in schools with very high enrolments. These programmes intend to cover schoolchildren who are in difficult and different circumstances that limit their school attendance and performance. To further help address the high costs of education, the Philippine DepEd issued in 2001, a "no school contributions collection" policy upon enrolment. This prohibits collection of any kind of contribution from parents for their children to enroll and attend school.

9.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in UPE/UBE

To attain EFA Goal 2, it is crucial that all children of official entry age to primary education be engaged on time. A less than 50% NIR suggests that more than half of the children of official primary entry age do not participate and the wide gap between NIR and GIR suggests that children enter primary school at a younger or older age (UNESCO 2006). The table below indicates that Indonesia's GIR improved 7 percentage points from 2000 to 2005. Its NIR, however, remained at 40.8% during the same period. The huge gap between the primary GIR and NIR in Indonesia indicate that a number of children enter primary education for the first time, either younger or older than the official primary entry age. The same applies for the Philippines where GIR is even higher at 132.3% in 2005. The country's modest improvement in NIR is overshadowed by a much greater increase in GIR from 2000 to 2005 which suggests a widening gap between the two indicators. This can mean that a growing proportion of 6-year old children are entering Grade 1 earlier or later than the official entry age of 6 years old.

Table 9: Gross and Net Intake Rates in Primary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	GIR Primary		NIR Primary	
	2000	2005	2000	2005
Indonesia	111.3**	118.3**	40.8**	40.8**
Malaysia	100.1	101.2^{-1}	…	…
Philippines	128.6^{+1}	132.3	46.7**,$^{+1}$	48.6**

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "**" indicates UIS estimation. "+n" data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods before the reference year or period. "-n" data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods before the reference year or period. "…" indicates no data available.
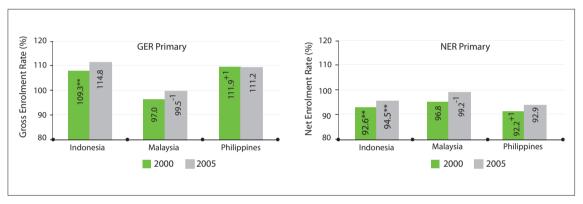
Trends in primary level enrolment rates vary across the sub-region. Comparing performance in 2000 and in 2005, Figure 3 shows that Indonesia's GER increased from 109.3% to 114.8%.The Philippines' GER remained relatively stable during the same period. Malaysia's GER improved from 97% in 2000 to 99.5% in 2005.

Malaysia's primary NER also stood at 99.2% in 2004, indicating lesser prevalence of over or under-age enrolment in primary education. The Phillipines' primary NER stood at 92.2% in 2000, improving slightly in 2005 to 92.9%. Indonesia also showed an improvement in NER from 92.6% to 94.5% during the same period. Relatively high primary GERs and NERs of over 90% indicate that countries in the sub-region have been successful in getting children to school. The challenge is how to get the remaining unreachable children to school.

In magnitude, however, Malaysia's 2005 NER accounts for an estimated 125,000 children of primary school age not participating in primary schools. Expectedly, the numbers in Indonesia and the Philippines are bigger at 1.2 million and 2 million children, respectively, given their population sizes.

Figure 3: Gross and Net Enrolment Rates in Primary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region
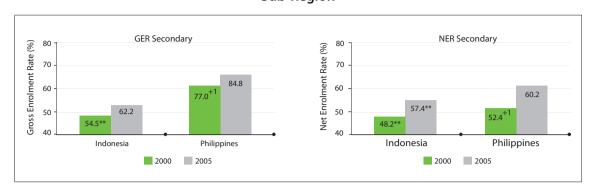
Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "**" indicates UIS estimation. "+n" indicates data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods before the reference year or period. "-n" indicates data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods before the reference year or period.

At the secondary education level, improvements have also been recorded in both GER and NER. Secondary level NER for Indonesia increased 9.2 percentage points while NER for the Philippines improved 7.8 percentage points over the period 2000-2005. Indonesia's substantial achievement in secondary education NER may be attributed to its implementation of the nine-year compulsory education that included junior secondary education starting in 2003. Likewise, the Philippines struggle to achieve equity in basic education through the provision of public secondary schools in every municipality and the implementation of innovative alternative modes of delivering secondary education are starting to pay off. However, the wide gap between its GER and NER suggests that many children beyond secondary education age are still in high school due to late entry to formal schooling exacerbated by a possible repetition of grades at the primary level (national repetition rate was at 1.8% in 2005). If this pattern of improvement continues until 2015, Indonesia's secondary education NER will be at 77.7% and the Philippines at 76.5%.

Figure 4: Gross and Net Enrolment Rates in Secondary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Source: UISDC, February 2008

Notes: "**" indicates UIS estimation. "+n" indicates data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods after the reference year or period; Differences in UIS' and Malaysia's calculation of this indicator has led to significant data discrepancies, hence this indicator cannot be published. The UIS calculations are based on classifying national educational programmes according to ISCED to ensure cross-national comparability. The definition of ISCED 3 (secondary education) would include lower and upper secondary, and pre-university in the Malaysia context, whereas the national calculation covers only lower and upper secondary. Thus UIS calculates Secondary Education GER and NER for Malaysia as 76.4% and 76% in 2005, respectively, whereas Malaysia's calculations show secondary GER and NER at 85.6% in 2005.

9.2.1 Gender Equality in Primary/Basic Education

With respect to achieving gender equality in relation to UPE/UBE, Table 10 shows that the GER for girls at the primary level is generally slightly lower across the sub-region. Malaysia and Indonesia recorded improvements for both sexes but indicators for boys showed marginal advantage in improvement over girls.

While improvement in primary level NER is posted by both sexes in Indonesia, male NER is consistently better than the rate for females. On the other hand, the slight advantage recorded by Malaysia's girls in 2000 was reversed in 2005. The Philippines also showed modest improvement in both sexes with girls having a higher NER in 2000 and the difference was observed to widen in 2005.

Table 10: Gross and Net Enrolment Rates in Primary Education, by Sex, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	GER in Primary Education				NER in Primary Education			
	2000		2005		2000		2005	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Indonesia	111.2**	107.4**	116.7**	112.7**	94.1**	90.9**	96.2**	92.9
Malaysia	97.0	97.1	99.7^{-1}	99.3^{-1}	96.7	96.9	99.3^{-1}	99.0^{-1}
Philippines	112.0^{+1}	111.9^{+1}	111.9	110.5	91.6^{+1}	92.8^{+1}	91.9	94.0

Source: UISDC, February 2008.

Notes: "**" indicates UIS estimation. "+n" indicates data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods before the reference year or period. "-n" indicates data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods before the reference year or period.

At the secondary level, GER for girls in Indonesia was slightly lower than that of boys in 2000 and in 2005. On the other hand, the Philippines' GER for girls was significantly higher in 2000. The difference became bigger in 2005. The pattern is the same in NER. Indonesia showed a lower NER for girls in 2000 as well as in 2005, but the gap has significantly narrowed.

Table 11: Gross and Net Enrolment Rates in Secondary Education, by Sex, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	GER in Secondary Education				NER in Secondary Education			
	2000		2005		2000		2005	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Indonesia	55.9**	53.1**	62.6**	61.9**	49.4**	47.0**	57.7**	57.1**
Malaysia	‡	‡	‡	‡	‡	‡	‡	‡
Philippines	73.5+1	80.6+1	80.3	89.5	48.1+1	56.9+1	54.7	65.9

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "**" indicates UIS estimation. "+n" indicates data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods after the reference year or period. "‡" indicates that differences in UIS' and Malaysia's calculation of this indicator has led to significant data discrepancies, hence this indicator cannot be published. The UIS calculations are based on classifying national educational programmes according to ISCED to ensure cross national comparability. The definition of ISCED 3 (secondary education) would include lower and upper secondary and pre-university in the Malaysia context, whereas, the national calculation covers only lower and upper secondary. Thus, UIS calculates secondary education GER and NER for Malaysia as 76.4% and 76% in 2005, respectively, whereas Malaysia's calculations show secondary GER and NER at 85.6% in 2005.

9.2.2 Progress in Achieving Quality in Primary/Basic Education

Across the sub-region, quality is measured in terms of education inputs or critical resources (e.g., facilities, teachers, learning materials, etc.), as well as internal efficiency and achievement which are, in turn, measured by indicators such as survival rate and results of assessments and tests, respectively. A more extensive discussion on quality can be found under Goal 6.

Various strategies and programmes have been put in place to improve quality in relation to EFA Goal 2. Indonesia sought to improve quality and relevance of basic education through competence-based curriculum that focuses on minimum basic skills, mastery learning, and attitudes, among others. This is accompanied by reforms in the assessment system, as well as in teachers' qualifications and competence. Programmes such as revision of textbook contents, textbook block grants and improved distribution lines have resulted in a 1:1 student-textbook ratio for every subject. The government has also continued to expand the teaching force for non-formal education based on established qualification and competency requirements.

Improving internal efficiency to increase the survival chances of students is also a top priority of the Indonesian education system to ensure full transition to, and completion of the basic education cycle. This is attained by: (a) regulating the age of entry into various levels by, for example, enforcing official entry-age policy in primary education; (b) promoting organizational models that facilitate transition and survival such as integrated facilities; (c) reducing the direct and indirect costs for attendance through different financing assistance; (d) advocacy on the value of education and other measures (e.g. good condition of facilities, qualified teachers); and (e) strengthening coordination between the MONE and the MORA to ensure provision of quality and relevant education services based on actual public needs.

Malaysia has also continued to improve quality of education by investing in the promotion of higher standards of quality such as upgrading teacher qualifications, enhancing learning environments, implementing remedial interventions for children with learning difficulties, and expansion of programme for children with special needs (e.g., children with disabilities and children from indigenous communities). Assuring and monitoring quality is done through outcomes measurement such as the national Primary School Achievement Test (UPSR), a summative assessment that determines achievement in literacy, numeracy and scientific skills. A similar centralized exit examination is conducted at the end of lower secondary level.

In the case of the Philippines, various strategies and programmes have been introduced in the areas of curriculum, testing and assessment, teacher development, school improvement and alternative delivery modes to improve the quality of basic education. Among these are: (a) restructuring of the elementary and secondary education curriculum that allows for indigenization and development of localized curriculum materials taking local culture into account; (b) introduction of the use of information and communication technology in every learning; (c) implementation of diagnostic tests to determine learning gaps and measurement of the achievement levels; (d) introduction of a new grading system; (e) launching of the Philippines Informal Reading Inventory (Phil-IRI) to assess and evaluate reading proficiency level of elementary pupils; and (f) introduction of Every Child a Reader programme. Another important initiative targeted at Muslim minorities is the adoption of the national standard curriculum for Muslim education. Arabic Language and Islamic Values are offered as optional subjects in public schools and tool subjects such as English, science and mathematics in private Muslim schools or madaris.

9.2.3 Cross-Cutting Issues in Addressing the Unreached and Underserved

Participation of children from the unreached and marginalized groups in the sub-region continued to be hampered by the following common challenges: (a) geographical barriers which increase indirect costs (e.g., transportation and food) of attending schools; (b) insufficient capacity to implement alternative delivery modes for formal basic education and other programmes for children with special needs; and (c) difficulty in recruiting qualified teachers to work in schools in remote areas. With the commitment of the Indonesian government to ensure equitable access for special needs groups, enrolment of children with disabilities has increased from 43,000 in 2004 to 48,600 in 2005 (Indonesia, 2007). As a gross percentage of enrolment, this comprises 5% and 2% of primary and junior secondary enrolment, respectively. These figures were, however, drawn from special schools enrolment and exclude children with disabilities enrolled in regular schools as part of the inclusive education programmes. The majority of current provision of special needs education is provided by the private sector (80%). Major constraints to equitable access for the special needs groups include cost barrier for the poor since private special education is expensive, and substantial variation in the provision of special education across provinces. The government strategy is to strengthen the inclusive education programme by increasingly mainstreaming special needs students within general primary and junior secondary schools through modified school infrastructure and deploying trained teachers for special needs students. Between 2002 and 2005, the number of children with special needs attending an integrated class in a regular primary school in Malaysia has increased by about 2,400 students (Malaysia, 2007). The absence of a population base cohort makes it difficult to calculate the exact proportion of these children participating in primary education. Moreover, regular classes may be accommodating children with special needs without proper assessment, leaving them unaccounted for and possibly not receiving appropriate support. In this regard, the Malaysian government is continuing its efforts to establish a better mechanism to estimate the number of children requiring special support.

The Malaysian education programmes for targeting the unreached and disadvantaged are focused in isolated rural areas including children in indigenous communities and children with special needs. There are at least 28 special education national schools (SENS), two special education secondary schools, two vocational special education secondary schools and 973 Special Integrated Education Programmes. Only children with a single disability are currently accepted into regular schools. Amending the Special Education Regulations Act of 1997 to allow schools to accept children with two disabilities is a priority legislative agenda under the EDMP 2006-2010. Provision of transport for students with special needs with the collaboration of the government ministries (MOE, MOH, MHR, and MWFCD) is also included in the plan.

The Philippines has identified the following specific barriers to reaching marginalized and disadvantaged children: (a) underinvestment in basic education, particularly for disadvantaged areas/groups; (b) lack of coordination between school and community in the systematic implementation

of programmes for disadvantaged groups; (c) weak linkage with the LGUs and limited influence on how the LGUs address the specific needs of their constituencies, especially on the use of the Special Education Fund (SEF) in reaching the underserved populations; (d) national curriculum is "perceived" to not be culturally sensitive to the needs of children from indigenous peoples hence some of these children do not want to go to school; (e) high poverty incidence in some areas compelling parents to send their children to work instead of attending schools; (f) poor families have unhealthy children who could not stand the rigors of schooling; (g) lack of appreciation of the value of basic education, especially by parents with low or no educational achievement; (h) dearth of specialized programmes and materials for learners and trainings for teachers to address the special needs of the unreached and underserved groups (e.g., special education classes for the gifted and differently-abled learners, localized/indigenized curriculum for children of indigenous peoples, national curriculum for Muslim education, and self-learning modules of children engaged in labour and/or in different/difficult circumstances); (i) geographical (e.g., distance or remoteness of some areas) and geophysical difficulties (e.g., areas frequently visited by typhoons and flooding); and (j) incidence of armed conflict in some areas across the country deter children from regularly attending schools for security reasons.

The Philippines has also emphasized the absence of an explicit articulation of "Inclusive Education" for basic education as the over-arching policy of EFA as a significant barrier. A clear inclusive education policy will enable the country to implement a curriculum that is relevant to the needs of every learner. This policy will provide the basis for planning and budgeting, development and implementation of programmes and projects at different levels addressing the specific needs of every learner. The regular programmes in schools are insufficient to address the needs of special learners such as ethnic children and working children, among others.

9.2.4 Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goal Two

Generally, there has been an improvement in the sub-region towards attaining Goal 2. In Indonesia, attainment of the targets in terms of access and equity hinges mainly on: (a) successfully addressing the socio-economic barrier through the schools operational fund (BOS) which is computed on per student basis; (b) expanding of school infrastructure though school rehabilitation and community based infrastructure programme; (c) strengthening of the school management system; (d) expanding of innovative non-formal approaches such as alternative education, including home schooling; and (e) strengthening provincial and district planning system and their coordination with central government (as part of decentralization).

The BOS which aims to abolish school fees is based on an annual allocation of Rp 235,000 (US$26) and Rp 324,500 (US$36) per primary and junior secondary student, respectively. Positive signs of immediate impact have been noticed with the growing enrolment rates in previously underperforming provinces. Effective and enforced fee abolition at the school level however is among the emerging challenges in implementing BOS.

Box 3: Bantuan Operasional Sekolah (Operational Aid to Schools Programme)

The Indonesian Government introduced the Operational Aid to Schools or Bantuan Operasional Sekolah (BOS) Programme to provide operational budgets for schools to offset loss of revenue after fees were abolished pursuant to the nine-year free compulsory basic education policy. The scheme covers all primary and junior secondary schools under the Ministry of National Education (MONE) and the Ministry of Religious Affairs (MORA). It allocates an annual per student subsidy given in lump sum to primary and junior secondary schools. The BOS constitutes a key financing mechanism to reduce some of the direct cost barriers to basic education among poor families. Aside from defraying expenses for school services, it also covers the costs of textbooks on the three subjects included in the national examination. The programme is implemented through provincial education offices in coordination with partner banks and mail offices acting as distribution posts. BOS is distributed in Java and Bali every two months, whereas in other regions, it is distributed every three months.

The positive impact of the BOS is demonstrated by the growing enrolment rates in many previously underperforming provinces. To ensure its effectiveness, two priorities have been identified. The first is to guarantee that the operational guidelines are followed and that current funding levels are reviewed vis-à-vis ongoing performance review and audit. The second is to examine whether additional or alternative financing mechanisms are needed, and possibly directed to households (e.g. conditional cash transfer to parents).

Source: Indonesia National EFA MDA, 2007.

Malaysia's substantial progress in providing access to quality education stems from consistent strong political commitment for education, accompanied by significant expansion of required resources for the children to achieve 100% completion of quality basic education by 2015. The percentage of children of primary school age who remain outside the education system is relatively small. However, the fact that these children have not been reached despite the expansion and support for education suggests that successfully incorporating them into the education system will require more resources, greater innovation and more targeted approach.

Crucial to children's participation, survival and performance in primary education is their preparation for formal schooling. Although pre-school education is not compulsory in Malaysia, the government commits to ensure that all children aged five and six years have access to quality ECCE services. Programmes to support disadvantaged students from poor households, especially those from remote areas, to increase their participation and performance in primary education include the Text Book Loan Scheme, School Supplementary Food Scheme, School Milk Programme and Poor Students' Trust Fund.

Programmes designed for children from indigenous communities are concentrated in Sabah and Sarawak with their large population of indigenous people. Remedial year of schooling is also provided for Grades 2 and 3 *Orang Asli* children requiring additional tutoring in Peninsular Malaysia to improve their primary education completion rate. An Integrated Primary School Curriculum for Orang Asli students is also currently being developed by the MOE. The Department of Orang Asli (JHOEA) also provides financial support for school uniforms, transportation, food, allowances and scholarships, among others. Malaysia is also seeking to increase capacity of schools for children with special needs under its regular schools integration programme. Children with more than one disability are served by special schools.

The KIA2M (Early Intervention Class for Reading and Writing) programme, introduced in Malaysia in 2006, aims to prevent possible early abandonment of children from primary school through

the early identification of children experiencing difficulties and provision of additional intensive tutoring from specially trained teachers. A Tuition Voucher Scheme ensures that the economic situation of the household does not keep children out of school by providing financial assistance required. The scheme provides for funds for extra tuition in mathematics, science, national language and English for children in Grades 4, 5 and 6 who demonstrate low achievement and come from households that fall below the poverty line. In 2006, about 467 primary students received vouchers totaling nearly US$52 million.

On the other hand, although the Philippines was not able to achieve its 2005 targets in all key outcome indicators, several noteworthy programmes were put in place to improve access and equity. These include the adoption of different ADM programmes for formal basic education to cover learners in difficult and different circumstances such as Project Instructional Management by Parents, Community and Teachers (IMPACT), Distance Education, *Balik-Paaralan* (Back to School) Programme and Multigrade Programme. Moreover, the Philippines government was able to establish elementary and secondary schools in almost all barangays and municipalities, respectively.

To improve student retention, a pupil tracking service was introduced under the CFSS programme. Through early identification of pupils at risk of dropping out (through signs such as frequent absences and low academic performance), proper interventions can be implemented to help them stay and catch up with lessons. Direct financial assistance to the children is also currently being explored to mitigate the adverse effect of poverty to participation in basic education.

Also considered as a good practice across the sub-region is consensus planning and implementation involving basic education stakeholders. At the national level, members of national EFA committees include representatives from civil society, league of local government executives and other government agencies. The challenge is how this EFA networks can be expanded and replicated at the subnational or local levels.

9.3 Remaining Challenges and Issues in Achieving Goal Two

Across Insular South-East Asia, the common challenge that remains seems to focus on geographical issues. Indonesia, for example, identified the following challenges: (a) reaching remote areas even through alternative learning approaches and adoption of more innovative models to reach the unreached; and (b) medium-term expansion of non-formal approaches (alternative learning approaches). Other challenges identified include improving internal efficiency and student survival rates and ensuring effective basic education financing mechanisms.

EFA targets can be achieved if there is a match between demand and supply of necessary basic education resources. According to the Indonesia MDA report, direct and opportunity cost factors affect access and perceived value of basic education. Parents can be convinced to send their children to school when poorly conditioned schools are repaired, and by making examination results available to them. While more students may go to public schools due to free education, the sub-region still has to address equity and quality issues.

A challenge common to both Indonesia and the Philippines is keeping the costs of education down. While basic education may be free or subsidized as provided by the Constitution or other various laws, it only refers to tuition fees. Other costs such as uniforms, school supplies and materials, school projects, transportation expenses, allowances and other school contributions will still have to be borne by the pupils and their families. As a result, children from many very poor families are not in school because of such costs.

The Philippines, for its part, sees the need to: (a) establish complete primary schools in every *barangay* including multigrade schools; and (b) explicitly articulate "Inclusive Education" as the overall policy and planning framework of EFA; (c) increase investment in basic education by the

national government and the LGUs (d) expand proven effective innovations for children in difficult and different circumstances; (e) upgrade teacher competence to handle learners with different needs; (f) strengthen quality assurance and accountability mechanism; and (g) systematic improvement in system governance and management.

The increasing size of the school-age population (24% of the total population) requires the government to effectively and efficiently implement fiscal reforms as these will have major implications on attaining the goal of Education for All. Moreover, mobilization of resources from the LGUs, private/business sector and other partners will also help the country finance the increasing budgetary requirements of EFA. Increasing public and private investment on basic education and providing more resources to depressed, disadvantaged, and underserved need to be pursued. The SEF of the Local Government Units and the resources of the private/business sector through the Adopt-A-School Programme are a making difference in terms of improving learning outcomes in selected schools. But overall, there is still much to be desired in the appropriate utilization of said resources, particularly the SEF, as a big portion of this fund is allocated to support non-academic activities.

To improve the quality of formal basic education services, the Philippines basic education system needs to pursue the following: (a) further "decongesting" the curriculum to focus on developing life skills coupled with effective and efficient national testing and assessment system; (b) implement "Mother Tongue/Child's Language" as medium of instruction in ECE and Grades 1 to 2 levels; (c) expand and strengthen the implementation of Child-Friendly School System which promotes rights-based education (should not be considered as just a programme nor a strategy but a culture that every school should nurture); (d) scale-up and strengthen the implementation of Every Child A Reader Programme in all public elementary schools nationwide; (e) rationalize the implementation of INSET programmes by different levels – should be competency-based and demand-driven (start from school level); and (f) institutionalize the Accreditation Programmes of elementary and secondary education.

The decentralization thrust of the national government and the DepEd paved the way for the operationalization of School-Based Management in a critical number of schools nationwide as well as strengthening basic education management system in selected divisions. But to attain full decentralization, the approach is systemic so that the whole Department, including the regional and central offices will be supportive of the reforms. Currently, the capacity of the entire DepEd system to support full decentralization is perceived to be weak as it still lacks human, material and financial resources to push the implementation of SBM in a larger scale and eventually to cover all public schools nationwide.

The government of Malaysia has recognized that provision of schools and teachers alone does not ensure full access and participation in quality education. Further provision of direct financial assistance and other support programmes have to be implemented to sustain the country's achievements related to Goal 2. Malaysia has a high participation rate, but there are still around 125,000 primary school age children and about 375,000 children of secondary school-age were not enrolled in school in 2005.

Malaysia is also looking into enhancing its education and monitoring systems as the conventional method of tracking participation is no longer sensitive enough to provide guidance for policies and programmes to reach the remaining children and youth. The high GERs as reported, for example, do not provide sufficient information about the specific barriers that keep the remaining children from school. Simple disaggregation of data such as by state and by sex may not provide relevant insight into location. The use of live birth by district in estimating participation in basic education may no longer be reliable as the child or young person may actually be born in one place and migrate to another place where they may eventually attend school. Live birth data may be useful for estimating aggregate GER. On the other hand, children may be counted as out-of-school when their names are not recorded as enrolled in schools of their birthplaces.

Malaysia's promotion of economic and social development lies on continually upgrading human capital. Human capital development, depends, to a large degree, on evaluating, refining and modifying programmes, and other programmes and policies based on the results they produce. Although the increase and development of required resources raised the number of enrolees, as in the case of indigenous communities, the goal is still to encourage attendance and progress in schools. It has been reported, however, that even with interventions and increase in enrolment, absences are high and achievement tests are low. The challenges, among others, are: (a) to assess if the location of schools for indigenous communities were located in places that facilitates attendance; (b) to determine the effectiveness of outreach activities to parents and communities in promoting school attendance; and (c) to gauge the expectations of the teachers for these children.

10. Goal Three: Life Skills and Lifelong Learning

10.1 Background and Development in Life Skills and Lifelong Learning in Insular South-East Asia

The third EFA goal enjoins countries to equip their citizens with skills that would enable them to participate productively in socio-economic development. Fundamental skills such as literacy and numeracy which enable individuals to know, protect and assert their rights and to enable further learning for acquisition of more practical or professional skills will be separately discussed under Goal 4.

10.1.1 Definition of Life Skills and Lifelong Learning

Life skills are defined across the sub-region as comprising basic and practical skills. Basic skills consist of literacy and numeracy while practical skills concerned with livelihood (employment or entrepreneurship) and even advance academic skills. Acquisition of life skills is considered a lifelong process that starts with literacy and numeracy at the primary level as enabling skills for further learning. With this common general life skills concept in the sub-region at the backdrop, it is also worthwhile to elaborate the national official meanings of life skills in each country.

The Indonesian EFA Action Plan defines life skills as "the skills or capability that must be owned by each individual in order to be able to adapt and to act positively, which make someone, effectively, be able to face various life claims and challenges of daily life, and be able to act in its future life." Generic skills (psychosocial) include social and personal skills (healthy life behaviour, cooperation skills, communication skills, critical skills) and values and attitudes (disciplines, responsibility, and respect towards other people) while specific skills are academic and vocational skills. Life skills are intended to create educated citizens with various skills and basic attitudes closely linked to physical and mental health, social relationships and entrepreneurship. Since life skills are capabilities that every individual must possess, the general target population for life skills programmes are those encompassing pre-school, elementary and the secondary school age groups. Life skills may be acquired through formal, non-formal and informal education.

Primary education in Indonesia aims to impart generic life skills while secondary education focuses on specific life skills such as vocational and academic skills for those who will proceed to higher education. The out-of-school education programme focuses on practical and productive skills, building of a positive attitude and behaviour, and health-related knowledge such as protection from HIV/AIDS and drug abuse, as well as early pregnancy. Vocational education and training are aimed at the populations within the productive age of 15 years and above, especially the youth, drop-outs and the unemployed.

Malaysia considers life skills to comprise: (a) literacy, numeracy and information and communication technology; (b) psycho-social skills which encompass reflective, personal and interpersonal skills, including problem solving, critical thinking, and communication; (c) practical or contextual skills which consist of technical or vocational, income generation, health, gender, family, environment, and civics; and (d) living skills like orientation and mobility, manipulative skills, behaviour management, self management, self-care, home living and leisure. Life skills programmes focus on people between the ages of 15-24 who are not enrolled in higher education.

The Philippines for its part, equates life skills with its adopted new functional literacy definition: "a range of skills and competencies – cognitive, affective and behavioural – that enables individuals to live and work as human persons; develop their potential; make critical and informed decisions; and function effectively in society within the context of their environment and that of the wider community (local, regional, national, global) in order to improve the quality of their life" (IACES 2006:19).

Life skills may be acquired through formal, non-formal and informal means. Work experience, independent reading, observation of natural phenomena, attendance at community centres, interaction with the mass media, and casual use of libraries, museums, and galleries are all examples of informal learning. Special target groups are the out-of-school youth and adults (starting from 15 years old) who have not completed nor have access to basic education services, particularly those in the remote parts of the country.

> ### Box 4: An Expanded Meaning of Functional Literacy for Filipinos
>
> In May 2002, the Literacy Coordinating Council (LCC) adopted a new and expanded meaning of functional literacy to take into account developments and advances in both the national and global setting. The Philippine government's national development agenda depends, to a large extent, on developing its human capital, making them productive, competitive and, at the least, functionally literate. It was decided that the old meaning of functional literacy, "A significantly higher level of literacy which includes not only reading and writing skills but also numeracy skills. The skills must be sufficiently advanced to enable the individual to participate fully and efficiently in activities commonly occurring in his life situation that require a reasonable capability of communicating by written language" (NSO, 2003:2), was no longer responsive to the development aspirations of the Philippines as a nation.
>
> What is the new meaning of Functional Literacy?
>
> FUNCTIONAL LITERACY refers to a range of skills and competencies – cognitive, affective and behavioral – that enables individuals to live and work as human persons; develop their potentials; make critical and informed decisions; and function effectively in society within the context of their environment and that of the wider community (local, regional, national and global) in order to improve the quality of their life and that of society.
>
> The Major Indicators of Functional Literacy are:
>
> Communication Skills
>
> - Ability to clearly express one's ideas and feelings orally and non-verbally
> - Ability to listen
> - Ability to read, comprehend and respond to ideas presented
> - Ability to write clearly one's ideas and feelings
> - Ability to access and utilize available basic and multimedia information

Critical Thinking and Problem Solving

- Numeracy skills
- To be open to change
- To be aware of options
- Ability to make critical and informed decisions
- Innovativeness and creativity
- Scientific thinking
- Future orientation

Sustainable Use of Resources/Productivity

- Ability to earn a living
- Sustainable use of resources (including time) and appropriate technology
- Entrepreneurship Productivity

Development of Self and a Sense of Community*

- Self-development (self-awareness, self-discipline, sense of responsibility, self-worth)
- Self-realization: *may paninindigan* (principled), *pagbabagong-loob* (open-minded, open to ideas and change)
- *Pakikipagkapwa* (fellowship), *pakikilahok* (participation), *pakikiisa/kapatiran* (unity, cooperation, camaraderie)
- A sense of personal and national identity: *makatao* (humane), *makabayan* (nationalist/patriotic), *makakalikasan* (environment/nature-friendly), *maka-Diyos* (Godly, pious)
- Knowledge of one's history, pride in one's culture and respect for those of others

Expanding One's World Vision

- Knowledge, acceptance, respect and appreciation of diversity
- Peace
- Non-violent resolution of conflicts
- Global awareness, interdependence and solidarity

Since the new meaning of functional literacy is broadly stated and more conceptual rather than operational, translating it into instruments (e.g., questionnaire) to be used in the literacy survey that the Philippines regularly conducts is a challenge for both the LCC and the National Statistics Office (NSO).

To address this concern, a multi-agency and multi-disciplinary task force was convened by the LCC in cooperation with the NSO under the Inter-agency Committee on Education Statistics (IACES) to formulate an operational definition based on the conceptual meaning adopted in 2002. The task force will also draft the questionnaire to be used in the 2008 Functional Literacy, Education and Mass Media Survey (FLEMMS).

Note: In italics are Filipino words with loose translation or related approximate English words as used in The Philippine Country Case Study (Country Profiled prepared for the Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2008, UNESCO, Paris) prepared by Rhona B. Caoli-Rodriguez (2007).

Sources: The Philippines (2006). Functionally Literate Filipinos: An Educated Nation (Philippine Education for All 2015 National Action Plan), pp. 3 and 80. Manila; Philippine National Statistical Coordination Board (2006). Glossary of Commonly Used Terms in Education Statistics formulated by the Inter-Agency Committee on Education Statistics, p. 19. Manila.

10.1.2 National Policy and Legislation for Provision and Coordination of Goal Three

The entire stretch of the formal education system is equated with the progressive acquisition of acquired skills. However, for those who are unable to benefit from the formal education system, specific policies and strategies and targeted programmes on life skills development are provided by the governments and partners in education, usually through non-formal modality.

Indonesia's Law 20/2003 (Article 26) defines non-formal education as learning that replaces, complements and/or supplements formal education within the context of supporting lifelong education. It aims to develop learners' potentials with emphasis on the acquisition of knowledge, competencies, attitudes to develop their personality, professionalism, working ethics, entrepreneurship, and/or further education. Non-formal education comprises education for life skills, early childhood, youth, women empowerment, literacy, as well as vocational training and internship, equivalency programme, and other kinds of education aimed at developing abilities of learners. A non-formal education unit may take the form of training centres and colleges, study groups, community learning centres, *majelis taklim* (Islamic learning groups), and other similar education units.

The same law also defines vocational and technical education as a type of education alongside general, academic, professional, vocational and technical, religious, and special education (Article 15) as distinguished from levels of education which are basic, secondary, and higher education (Article 14).

Technical education in Malaysia is provided by the MOE in national secondary schools and other educational institutions as stipulated by Act 550 (Chapter 7) and the MOHR in post secondary institutions. It includes the provision of skills training, specialized training related to a specific job, training for the upgrading of existing skills, and such other technical or vocational training approved by the MOE. To ensure the quality of life skills and skills training programmes made available by various providers, the National Occupational Skills Standards (NOSS) was established that regulates skills training programmes and qualifications.

In the Philippines, RA 9155 stipulates that the State shall also include alternative learning systems for the out-of-school youth and adult learners. It shall be the goal of basic education to provide them with the skills, knowledge and values needed to become caring, self-reliant, productive and patriotic citizens through informal and non-formal education. To strengthen ALS, the President issued Executive Order 356 to officially include informal education with the existing non-formal education.

To infuse more practical skills in the current senior high school curriculum, Indonesia is exploring possible reforms by integrating vocational subjects (around 50% of the senior high school curriculum will be vocational and technical) that will equip students with useful skills since not many of them proceed to tertiary education. For the same reason, the Philippines is also considering the revitalization of technical and vocational education subjects within basic education in the regular secondary schools. As an initial activity, the National Career and Aptitude Examination was administered in 2006 to all fourth year high school students to measure their vocational aptitude along with their general scholastic and technical aptitude. It should be noted that the Philippine education system also includes post-secondary or post-basic education occupation-oriented Technical-Vocational Education and Training (TVET) as part of the tertiary education within the responsibility of TESDA.

10.1.3 Strategies and Programmes for the Unreached and the Underserved

As mentioned earlier, the common strategies and programmes adopted within the sub-region often involve non-formal education courses through the community in the form of learning activity centres, youth and out-of-school education development centres and community integrated

development institutions, among others. Indonesia and the Philippines have established an accreditation and equivalency mechanism for learners who opt to obtain certification for re-entry to either academic or technical vocation tracks. Coordination has been improved to standardize quality of life skills delivered as support or rider services for programmes of other agencies such as agriculture and health, as well as by the LGUs, NGOs and universities (extension services). These institutions also played a key role in reaching the disadvantaged including street children and child labourers.

The Indonesian EFA National Action Plan broadly outlines the following national goals in relation to life skills programmes: (a) to produce quality graduates ready to enter the world of work and who are able to access the domestic and international job market or become independent entrepreneurs; (b) to develop the productivity at the community level focusing on goods and services responsive to market demands; (c) to develop local small- to medium-scale industries that generate employment and contribute to economic development; (d) to improve the community health and prevent cases of HIV/AIDS and drug abuse; and (e) to reduce the number of unemployed and improve economic status of poor communities through income generating activities.

These national goals will be attained through the following strategies: (a) ensure the expansion and even distribution of quality education services to all Indonesian people; (b) improve the quality and relevance of life skills education; (c) develop the efficiency of educational implementation management through empowerment and development of education institutions in terms of delivering in school or off-school education services by facility and infrastructure, as well as promotion of family and community participation; (d) implement integrated efforts to accelerate the process of poverty reduction within the community and mitigate impact of economic crisis such as unemployment; and (e) promote an integrative partnership between the education system and the community in responding to the demands of the job market.

The Directorate General of Non-Formal and Informal Education in Indonesia has implemented educational innovations among difficult-to-reach communities (e.g., ethnic minorities, tribal groups, remote families, island communities and urban street children). These include home schooling, door-to-door schooling, mobile schools, e-schools and setting up community village lifelong learning centres staffed by volunteers. These programmes have integral accreditation and equivalency schemes for students who opt to return to regular schools. Specific target groups have included the Wamena and Yahukimo Tribes in Papua, the Bajo Tribe in Sulawesi, rural farmers in central Java, border area groups and street children in the urban areas.

In Malaysia, the development of a trained and motivated workforce with proper values and life skills vital to individual development and the development of the country is the key factor in achieving the goals of the Third Outline Perspective Plan (OPP). This plan supports the country's vision to achieve the status of a developed nation by 2020. It is important to note that the concept of quality in education adopted and implemented in Malaysian schools puts emphasis on developing literacy and numeracy skills within a more holistic view of human capital development.

Among the strategies adopted by Malaysia in relation to EFA Goal 3 is the provision of quality holistic basic education to all that includes interventions such as intensive extra tutoring for children having difficulties in literacy in all schools. A more targeted strategy implemented by Malaysia is ensuring that children and young people with special needs or living in remote areas have opportunities to continue developing life skills and improving their livelihoods. Additional academic support is also provided for children from indigenous communities to ensure that they acquire basic competencies in relation to life skills. Comprehensive material support is also provided to poor students to mitigate barriers to school participation. This is based on the broader policy to provide the best education possible to all children regardless of their ethnic and religious background and location.

The Philippine EFA 2015 Plan adopts the goal of Functional Literacy or Life Skills for All by 2015. The MTPDP 2005-2010 provides for the expansion of opportunities that support and allow flexible

entry and re-entry of learners between formal and non-formal/informal streams of basic education to ensure upward social mobility. The Philippine government banks on ALS to prove the potential and feasibility of non-school-based learning modalities in terms of efficiency and effectiveness, as well as social acceptability. It substantially relies on partnerships with NGOs to deliver community-based non-formal literacy programmes through subcontracting schemes. Alternative financing sources such as contributions from the LGUs and the private sector are increasingly being tapped for teacher/facilitators trainings, instructional materials, and facilities, among others. The institutional thrust of the DepEd for a more effective and efficient delivery of ALS services at the local levels is to make overall basic education pro-poor by primarily strengthening of the linkages among its various units (i.e., district, division, regional and central offices).

Among the key strategies to achieve the EFA goal on life skills, is to transform non-formal and informal interventions under the framework of ALS into yielding more EFA benefits. The most urgent task under this strategy is to make the core population of out-of-school youth and adults who have not completed schooling functionally literate through: (a) increased national financing for the expansion of ALS reach to target communities, especially those categorized as disadvantaged, marginalized and unserved; and (b) closer collaboration with organizations (e.g., NGO, sectarian groups, etc.) already involved in community development and poverty alleviation activities. Target areas are selected through: (a) school data showing schools at risk based on drop-out rates, participation rates, and retention rates; (b) 'Strong Republic Schools' prioritizing 500 most needy schools; and (c) schools belonging to 5th and 6th class municipalities as categorized by the Department of Interior and Local Government (DILG). The country aims to make all Filipinos above 15 years of age functionally literate in the official languages, Filipino and English.

Learning materials and resources for the ALS in print or non-print and prototype and supplementary materials are continuously provided by DepEd based on the ALS/NFE Curriculum. These have been appropriately customized according to the needs and cultural contexts of the target users and produced in either bilingual or trilingual (i.e., mother tongue or vernacular; Filipino and English) versions. Community Learning Centres are the usual venues for delivering ALS services through various approaches such as face-to-face group learning, family or household approach, and individual tutorials.

10.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Goal Three

Literacy for youth aged 15-24 in Insular South-East Asia has been improving since 1990. Indonesia's youth literacy rose from 96.2% in 1990, to 98.7% in 2004. Similarly, Malaysia's youth literacy situation improved from 95.6% in 1991 to 98.3% in 2005. On the other hand, the Philippines recorded a slight decline in youth literacy rate from 96.6% in 1990 to 95.1% in 2003.

Table 12: Youth Literacy Rate, (Age 15-24), Before 1995 and After 2000, Sub-Region

Country	Before 1995		After 2000	
	Year	%	Year	%
Indonesia	1990	96.2	2004	98.7
Malaysia	1991	95.6	2007	98.3**
Philippines	1990	96.6	2003	95.1

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Note: "**" indicates UIS estimation.

To ensure the attainment of life skills for children who have participated in the formal education system, transition from primary to secondary level must be guaranteed. Malaysia's transition rate was already at 99% in 2000, increasing to 99.6% in 2004. Indonesia attained a modest increase from 2001 to 2004 with its transition rate gaining 0.5 percentage points from an earlier 78%. The Indonesian government expects its transition rate to continue improving thereby increasing the number of senior secondary graduates who will proceed to higher education and other forms of further training. The Philippines, on the other hand, showed a significant reduction in the proportion of children who proceed to secondary education. Its transition rate went down from 97.8% to 91.8% as some primary level graduates deferred entering secondary education for various reasons including poverty. Many of them are expected to enroll in first year high school after a year or more while a few may never re-enter school and simply join the world of work. A very small percentage of the latter may opt to engage in alternative learning when they have reached past the school-going age (beyond 15 years old) and undergo equivalency assessment for secondary education.

Secondary education in Indonesia and Malaysia have integrated programmes for practical skills acquisition with 13.5% and 5.7%, respectively, of secondary education students enrolled in TVET in 2005 and 2004. On the other hand, the provision of TVET in the Philippines is part of post secondary education. Livelihood skills imparted in non-formal education programmes as continuing activities and application of skills acquired in functional literacy programmes are, however, considered part of basic education under the ALS.

**Table 13: Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Level and
Percentage of Enrolment in TVET at Secondary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region**

Country	Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Level		% of Enrolment in Technical-Vocational Education and Training (TVET) at Secondary Level	
	2000	2005	2000	2005
Indonesia	78.0**,+1	78.5**,-1	14.4**	13.5
Malaysia	99.0	99.6**,-1	6.0	5.7-1
Philippines	97.8+1	91.8-1	.	.

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "." indicates not applicable. "**" indicates UIS estimation. "+n" indicates data refer to school or financial year (or period) n years or periods after the reference year or period. "-n" indicates data refer to school or financial year (or period) n years or periods after the reference year or period.

The DepEd implements non-formal literacy and skills development programmes through its Bureau of Alternative Learning System, which as of 2003, covered only 3% of the estimated 9.4 million out-of-school youth. But this accounts for the DepEd programmes alone. There is lack of reliable data on out-of-school youth attending other types of ALS programmes implemented by other service providers such as local governments, NGOs and other government agencies.

10.2.1 Gender Equality in Goal Three

Gender parity in youth literacy is almost achieved in Insular South-East Asia. Table 14 shows that latest data reflect minimal differences in youth literacy rates in Indonesia and Malaysia by sex. The Philippines recorded a higher literacy rate for females in 1990. The disparity increased in 2003.

Table 14: Youth Literacy Rates (Age 15-24), by Sex, 1990 and 1991, Sub-Region

Country	Youth Literacy Rate (Age 15-24)					
	Base Year	Male	Female	Latest	Male	Female
Indonesia	1990	97.4	95.1	2004	98.9	98.5
Malaysia	1991	95.9	95.2	2007	98.2**	98.4**
Philippines	1990	96.3	96.9	2003	93.6	96.6

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Note: "**" indicates UIS estimation.

For the transition rate from primary to secondary education, gender parity was achieved by Indonesia in 2005. Malaysia and the Philippines had a GPI of 1.01, which although is considered as within the range indicating parity, may be showing signs of a bias for girls.

10.2.2 Progress in Improving Quality in Life Skills and Lifelong Learning

Indonesia has implemented competency-based standards to recognize and certify skills based on sound labour and work analysis that link learning, education and training programmes with the work or employment requirements and systems. This framework guides the continuous development and adaptation of training and skills upgrading programmes for sustained employability over an individual's productive lifespan. The competency-based training and skills upgrading also ensures qualifications and labour quality that are competitive domestically and internationally.

Malaysia, on the other hand, assures quality of life skills programmes by providing quality teachers, among others. More than 29,000 professionally active technical-vocational education teachers and administrators in Malaysia received new skills between 2000 and 2005. Vocational skills in Special Education are incorporated even in pre-school and through primary and secondary education. Special needs students have been admitted to secondary level technical-vocational training and education programmes and polytechnics, albeit in a limited scale. Around 90 formal secondary level technical schools are distributed nationwide to widen access for rural youth for acquiring life skills (Malaysia, 2007).

In the Philippines, contents of life skills programmes provided through ALS are based on a curriculum that contains five learning areas or strands: (a) communication skills; (b) problem solving and critical thinking; (c) sustainable use of resources; (d) development of self and a sense of community; and (e) expanding one's world vision. An accompanying testing and assessment system monitors and profiles the progress and achievement of learners to determine appropriate level and learning interventions. A certificate is granted to the learners who have completed Basic Literacy Programme. Learners may then proceed to undertake the Accreditation and Equivalency (A&E) Test which offer an alternative pathway for out-of-school youths and adults to earn an educational qualification comparable to the formal primary and secondary school system. Administered once a year, learners who pass the test have the option to be mainstreamed into the formal basic education system, be it to any technical-vocational school or to higher education or to use the certificate as credential for finding employment.

Other measures to ensure quality of life skills programmes include the establishment of a core group of trainers at the national and field levels. The skills and competencies of these trainors are regularly upgraded to keep up with the demands of the target clientele and the developments in education innovations through partnership with training institutions which can provide training courses for continuous upgrading of ALS. An ALS Service Provider Accreditation System was also established to ensure the quality of services provided by partner NGOs and other private entities under the ALS Service Contracting Scheme.

10.2.3 Cross-cutting Issues in Addressing the Unreached and Underserved

Three major barriers were identified in the provision of life skills programmes to the unreached and underserved in the sub-region. These are: (a) limited budget for life skills programmes, especially at the non-formal level; (b) lack of data on population who might need life skills intervention programmes (for example, there is a need for literacy mapping at the community level); and (c) weak coordination among service providers (local governments, NGOs other government agencies) to expand service, improve quality of programmes delivered, and consolidation of data and other information.

In Indonesia, limited opportunities for training to produce a skilled workforce exist. To address this, the government requires vocational students to undertake internships in some companies to gain experience. Another limitation are geographical and demographical constraints, mainly the uneven distribution of the population.

Malaysia, for its part, has put in place policies and strategies to expand life skills and skills training opportunities to young people, especially those with low academic achievement. A small segment of Malaysians, however, perceives mere skills training as inadequate to secure a decent job and sufficient income because of lack of appreciation and understanding.

In the Philippines, barriers include the absence of a methodology that would incorporate basic and functional literacy in community development programmes among other government agencies, the LGUs and NGOs; the mismatch of TVET programmes and market demands in some areas; and the lack of data on illiteracy at the community level. A study conducted by UNESCO-IIEP (2002) in the Philippines also notes that establishing and maintaining TVET schools or centres are relatively expensive due to high overhead cost, especially when training requires special equipment and other consumable training materials (e.g., welding, carpentry and butchery).

10.2.4 Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving Goal Three

In order to achieve Goal 3, it must be ensured that young people aged 15-24 years acquire literacy for further life skills learning. In 2000-2005, youth literacy rate in the sub-region has improved on the average. Enrolment in non-formal literacy and life-skills programmes has grown significantly over the past two years. The governments provide small block grants to community groups to implement life skills activities according to their needs. At the same time, senior secondary vocational schools have also been expanding income generating activities through small-scale production units and expansion of afternoon and evening classes for adults.

Significant increases in non-formal life-skills programmes enrolment have been recorded in the past two years. Programmes offer community level life-skills contents such as income generating activities (e.g., literacy-cum-livelihood programmes). Schools are also strengthening partnerships with other sectors, including health, environment, industry and trade in the provision of life skills programmes, sometimes tapping school funds to promote these activities within the regular programmes. Indonesia's achievements are partly attributed to the following life skills and entrepreneurship programmes: (a) professional development courses; (b) reaching the unreached; (c) equivalency education through formal education; (d) prioritizing income-generating programmes for non-formal and formal life skills programmes; and (e) incorporation of other social and environmental issues (HIV and AIDS), etc. Schools are encouraged to incorporate these topics in their local curriculum.

In Malaysia, the number of secondary TVET students and secondary school completers pursuing additional skills training (MECD, MOHR) has increased by more than 50% since 2000. This figure includes secondary school completers who are enrolled in training programmes of the Ministry of Entrepreneur and Cooperative Development (MECD) and the Ministry of Human Resources (MOHR), as well as the private sector training participants who register for the Malaysia Skills Certificate and students in secondary technical-vocational schools.

The Philippines has implemented programmes promoted by both the government through the DepEd and partner NGOs. The ALS programmes managed by DepEd generally target out-of-school youth and adults and all other disadvantaged school-aged groups not reached by the formal school system. The NGOs, people's organizations, and other civil society groups focus more on street children, child labourers, indigenous peoples, small farmers, solo parents, children in conflict areas not reached by the formal school system, rebel returnees, and prison inmates.

Multistakeholder participation in the delivery of basic and functional literacy programmes for out-of-school youths and adults is considered as one of the good practices of the country. These stakeholders include government agencies, local government units, and NGOs. However, a database or a management information system that will include information on the different programmes and services delivered by various entities has yet to be established in order to coordinate activities and programmes and to monitor and evaluate operations as well.

The DepEd considers the establishment of the following systems as initial gains in ALS: (a) ALS Service Provider Accreditation System; (b) Non-Formal Education A&E System; and (c) Human Resource Development/Capacity-Building/In-Service Training for NFE Mobile Teachers, Literacy Facilitators and Instructional Managers. These provide the implementers of the ALS programmes with adequate training on adult education and on special approaches to effectively facilitate learning and manage learners' development through alternative modes.

10.3 Remaining Challenges and Issues in Achieving Goal Three

The countries in Insular South-East Asia have policy environments supportive of the equitable provision of quality non-formal education and TVET for all, including those marginalized and disadvantaged.

On the part of Indonesia, the definition of life skills under the new law is very broad and non-formal life skills programmes are more focused on income-generating activities, entrepreneurship trainings and micro financing. Its formal vocational schools, on the other hand, aim at improving skills of students for specific jobs while the lower secondary schools on life skills focus more on improving cognitive abilities.

The Philippines, on the other hand, needs to reform its policy on financing non-formal life skills programmes, which receive less that one percent of the budget of the DepEd. The country also needs to adopt strategic targeting and to ensure the quality of non-formal education programmes implemented by the DepEd, other government organizations, the LGUs and NGOs.

With Malaysia's vision to be a developed country in 2020, appropriate life skills and knowledge are vital for the development and preparation of its children and young people to contribute to a productive and competitive economy. The government ensured substantial investment in the provision of skills training programmes which are delivered through various ministries and agencies. As such, data and information on life skills training programmes are kept within these ministries and agencies. The challenge is the need to establish a system that would harmonize and integrate these databases towards a more strategic and holistic planning and programming with respect to access, equity, relevance and quality. A harmonized and structured system would enable the government to systematically respond to the current requirement demand in the job market. Another challenge for Malaysia is the need to promote skills training programmes and to create awareness of the benefits of skills qualification among those who perceive them to be inadequate and inferior in securing employment and sufficient income, especially among groups and youth with less inclination towards academic achievement (Malaysia 2007:48).

Indonesia further identified challenges in the following areas: (a) life skills education mapping and strategy development; (b) expansion of formal and non-formal lifelong learning opportunities; (c)

strengthening institutional responsiveness to the workforce skill needs matching; (d) expanding and improving in-company training; (e) providing continuing education and training (f) mainstreaming entrepreneurship skills in technical and vocational education and training; and (g) developing competency standards and recognition and certification of skills grants as part of life skills training.

For the Philippines, there is a need to: (a) increase national government and LGU budgets for NFE through tapping the SEF; (b) introduce a methodology/scheme that will incorporate basic and functional literacy programmes in existing community development programmes of other government organizations, the LGUs and NGOs; (c) ensure Quality Assurance for ALS programmes; (d) strengthen/institutionalize ALS programmes delivered through different modes such as the school-on-the-air, web-based, home-based, virtual and work-based to provide options to various groups of learners in difficult/different situations; and (e) establish coordinating mechanisms to clarify roles, functions and responsibilities of service providers to establish efficient accountability and quality assurance systems.

11. Goal Four: Literacy

Closely related to Goal 3, literacy is one of the fundamental tools crucial to further learning. The rationale for the provision of free compulsory primary education among countries is founded on the principle that all citizens should at least possess this most basic life skill.

11.1 Background and Development of Literacy in Insular South-East Asia

11.1.1 Definition of Literacy

The definition of literacy across the sub-region varies primarily according to the means by which literacy is measured. In Indonesia, for instance, literacy is defined as having three levels of competencies: (a) Level 1 pertains to basic reading and writing, and numeracy skills; (b) Functional Level which is level 1 plus life skills; and (c) Advanced Level which is Level 1 plus academic and professional skills. Literacy is measured through equivalency tests for certification. A certificate of literacy is given by the government to the learners who have successfully participated in and completed the literacy programme and fulfilled the competency requirements in reading, writing, numeracy, communication (oral) according to standards prescribed in the literacy Standard Competencies. Literacy equivalency tests are given to those not in the formal education system, since those who have completed formal education are automatically assumed to have acquired literacy skills. It should be noted that literacy refers only to the official language, Bahasa Indonesia.

Malaysia's definition of adult literacy rate is the percentage of the population aged 10 years and above, who can read and write with understanding a short simple statement related to everyday life. For purposes of determining this percentage, the Department of Statistics during the 2000 census defined the literacy rate as the percentage of the population aged 10 years and over who were currently attending or had attended school. The Malaysia Labour Force Survey (MLFS) conducted in 2005 adopted the definition of literate persons used in the 2000 Census but age coverage was raised to 15 years old and above.

The Philippines uses two levels of literacy for statistical measurement: (a) Basic Literacy, which consist of reading and writing with comprehension; and (b) Functional Literacy, which include basic literacy plus numeracy skills. Literacy is measured in the eight major languages in the Philipines (e.g., Cebuano, Hiligaynon, Ilocano, Waray, Bicolano, etc.) in addition to the official languages, Filipino and English. Literacy status of Filipinos is measured through the Census of Population (conducted

every 10 years) and the Functional Literacy, Education and Mass Media Survey (FLEMMS) which is conducted every five years. Both Census and the FLEMMS use self-administered questionnaires. The Census yields basic literacy rate from the national, regional, and the provincial level, while the FLEMMS generates both basic and functional literacy rates at the national and regional level.

11.1.2 National Policy and Legislation for Provision and Coordination in Goal Four

As stipulated in the 1945 Constitution, every citizen in Indonesia has the right to education. The Law 20/2003 mandates that the National Education System should provide equal educational opportunities to all citizens. Such major policies serve as impetus for the government to provide for the learning needs of multiethnic communities which are, in turn, encouraged to benefit from education and training and other programmes that impart life skills continuously through lifelong learning.

Literacy-related initiatives in Malaysia focus on expanded functional critical skills consistent with the thrusts of the Ninth Malaysia Plan (2006–2010). These goals include: (a) moving the economy up the value chain; (b) raising capacity for knowledge and innovation and nurturing a "first class" mentality; (c) addressing persistent socio-economic inequalities; (d) improving the standard and sustainability of the quality of life; and (e) strengthening institutional and implementation capacity.

The Education Development Plan supports these goals through the following strategies: (a) offering greater opportunities and access to quality education, training and lifelong learning; (b) strengthening national unity and developing a society that is progressive and possessing exemplary values systems; (c) increasing incomes for the lowest 40% of households by improving productivity through human capital development; and (d) bridging the rural–urban divide among states and territories through sustainable income generation and improved access to basic needs, including education.

The overall strategy of the Malaysian government is to enforce a free and compulsory basic education to achieve literacy in the most widespread manner. Attaining universal adult literacy is best achieved by ensuring that all children have access to a quality basic education, combined with substantial investments in achieving quality and equity, to ensure maximum opportunity for all children to achieve literacy. Children participating in the formal education system having difficulties with reading in Year 1 are provided with extra tutoring through the KIA2M programme. Other literacy-related activities include the "Reading Habit is the Key to Knowledge" programme designed to encourage reading through a system of reporting on books and competitions where several schools participate, and researches on literacy. A research agenda on literacy is also in the pipeline in order to better target literacy initiatives and establish appropriate benchmarks for measuring progress. This framework and agenda will also facilitate comparative analysis involving Malaysia and other countries as well as the exchange of information and practices.

The Philippines' national goal in relation to EFA Goal 4 is outlined in the Philippine EFA National Action Plan. It aims to achieve universal functional literacy for all Filipinos by 2015. In 1998, however, a new expanded and comprehensive definition of functional literacy was set into operational meaning for purposes of measurement and statistical studies.

Whereas the EFA goal is to reduce the number of illiterates by 50% by 2015, the Indonesian government aims to achieve this target by 2009. Reducing the actual number of adult illiterates (approximately 15.4 million in 2003) by 2009 will require Indonesia to make literate approximately 7.7 million people within a six-year period through aggressive and effective literacy programmes (Indonesia 2007). The Philippines has the next biggest number of adult illiterates at 3.8 million as of 2003 (Philippines, 2007). Malaysia, for its part, had 1.4 million adult illiterates as of 2005 (Malaysia, 2007).

11.1.3 Strategies and Programmes for the Unreached and Underserved Children

Common strategies and programmes to improve the literacy status of disadvantaged groups include: (a) increasing the number of community reading centres in identified locations as well as increased resources; (b) strengthening intersectoral cooperation among communities, universities, and international institutions, including NGOs for the implementation and monitoring of literacy programmes; (c) expanding the publication of bulletins for exchanging information among various stakeholders about the quality of services available; (d) integration of interesting and meaningful approaches with income-generating programmes, family planning, health, cooperatives, gender, and legal guidance; (e) providing grants to community learning centres with viable proposals to undertake programmes for adult literacy and other life skills programme; (f) establishing "reading corners" in the regions; and (g) promoting partnerships with religious institutions.

For Indonesia, the key strategies to serve the disadvantaged groups with literacy programmes are focused on specific target groups, namely: (a) mother tongue and other communication language groups; (b) transmigratory regions and migrant groups; (c) the rural poor, including in island regions and border areas; (d) unreached groups, especially the urban poor; (e) traditional Islamic boarding school students in *diniyah (formal modality) and salafiyahs (Non-formal modality)*; and (f) various tribal groups, especially Jambi, Sulawesi and Banten.

While it is important for all Malaysians of various educational attainment to continue acquiring and upgrading skills and knowledge, literacy-related initiatives for persons outside the regular formal academic education system are pursued mainly to raise the capacity for knowledge and innovation and addressing socio-economic inequalities. For children from indigenous communities who may experience added difficulties in becoming literate in Bahasa Malaysia, an option for additional year of study focusing on language and literacy between Years 2 and 3 is offered. The same transition year is available for students who complete study in a primary school where Bahasa Malaysia is not the main language of instruction. This aims to strengthen the literacy skills of students before they begin lower secondary school education. The MOE has also developed a new primary school syllabus for indigenous children incorporating indigenous culture to better prepare them for primary school.

Malaysia has given special attention to remote rural areas, especially in the states of Sabah and Sarawak and the indigenous communities of peninsular Malaysia. The Action Plan for Educational Development for Indigenous People 2001-2010 (Cabinet Paper 2/2001) targets to increase the literacy rate among indigenous communities from 51% in 2001 to 70% by 2010. Both the Department of Orang Asli Affairs and KEMAS are involved in providing opportunities to poor rural communities and indigenous groups.

On the part of the Philippines, specific projects to eradicate illiteracy and raise the level of functional literacy of the people, particularly the disadvantaged groups, include: (a) Each-One-Teach-One (or More) where a volunteer literate teaches reading, writing and simple numeracy skills to an illiterate or semiliterate member of a family/barangay; (b) Family Literacy Drive wherein a literate family member acts as literacy facilitator to the illiterate family members; and (c) Learning "*Barkada* (Peer)" where a student or a literate out-of-school youth tutors a friend who has dropped out of school to prepare this friend's return to the formal school system or to quality for employment by passing the appropriate accreditation test.

Although Bahasa is the standard for literacy in Indonesia, local languages are used in some few areas in delivering non-formal literacy programmes. For example, Bugis is used in South Sulawesi, Sundanese in Banten and West Java provinces, Central Javanese in Central Java and Jogjakarta, East Javanese language in Surabaya, and Maduranese for the Maduras in East Java. Similarly, basic literacy learning modules in the Philippines, including instructional materials that are used in non-formal literacy programmes, are prepared in seven regional languages: Ilocano, Hilgaynon, Cebuano, Bicolano, Waray, Maguindanao and Tausug, as well as in Filipino and English. In addition,

the Philippines has developed a prototype ALS Indigenous Peoples Curriculum delivered in the people's native languages and supported by equally relevant modules. This has been piloted in a few indigenous peoples' communities.

11.2 Progress Achieved in EFA MDA Core Indicators

The figure below illustrates the noteworthy achievements of Indonesia and Malaysia with respect to the improvement of the adult literacy situation. This is largely due to the intensive illiteracy eradication campaign launched in conjunction with the nine-year compulsory education policy. Similarly, Malaysia has elevated its literacy situation from 82.9% in 1991 to 91.9% in 2007. The Philippines continues to have the highest adult literacy rates among the three countries, but saw a slight decrease in its literacy rate from 93.6% in 1990 to 92.6% in 2003.

Figure 5: Adult Literacy Rate (Age 15+), Base and Latest Years, Sub-Region

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Note: "**" indicates UIS estimation.

11.2.1 Gender Equality in Literacy

Figure 6 shows variation in gender performance in adult literacy rate based on the latest data (note the different years). Males have higher literacy rate in Indonesia and Malaysia, with the former having the widest gap between male (94%) and female (86.8%) literacy rates. Indonesia's female literacy is 7.2 percentage points behind that of males. Malaysia's female literacy rate is 4.6 percentage points behind that of the male rate. The Philippines showed the narrowest gender disparity with the female literacy rate showing a 2 percentage points advantage over the male literacy rate.

Figure 6: Adult Literacy Rate, by Sex, Latest Year, Sub-Region

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Note: "**" indicates UIS estimation.

11.2.2 Progress in Achieving Quality in Literacy

In Indonesia, the implementation of programmes towards reaching the EFA goal on literacy is based on three strategic pillars: (a) equity and expansion of literacy educations services; (b) improved quality and relevance of literacy programmes, and (c) strengthened governance and accountability. Improving efficiency of basic education delivery is also considered crucial to the prevention of illiteracy, including services for those who have dropped out and through increasing the number of community reading centres in priority locations.

Collaboration among the communities, universities, NGOs and international institutions have also been strengthened for the implementation and monitoring of literacy programmes. Literacy bulletins are published to facilitate information dissemination among stakeholders. To improve quality of literacy, the design and implementation of literacy programmes are aimed to be contextually relevant to the target clientele based on the age group, location, sex and income groups. The same quality assurance is applied on follow-up programmes to maintain literacy skills acquired by the learners. Finally, to improve programme management and coordination, capacity of implementers from the national down to the local level, district leaders are encouraged to include and prioritize literacy as part of regional development activities through capability planning and budgeting, improvement of the role of out-of-school education committees, and the use of Community Learning Centres (PKBM) as the place of programme implementation.

To recognize the achievements of learners who join the literacy education programme, an assessment on learning is undertaken through the Standard of Literacy Competence (SLC) and Standard of Literacy Assessment (SLA). This assessment yields different information on outcomes achieved by the programme and its analysis serves as feedback to revise and continue upgrading its quality.

One of Malaysia's strategies to improve quality in relation to Goal 4 is the provision of specific literacy training programmes linked to the specific needs of the community. The family-based "Women Motivator" programme of the Department of Orang Asli or JHEOA , for instance, imparts skills to parents of young children by raising their awareness and skills in promoting reading for their children and increasing knowledge about health practices, community life and development. Another example is the KEMAS' specifically designed functional literacy programme for indigenous groups. The functional literacy programmes include income generating components which capitalizes on skills relevant to particular communities such as sewing, crafts and agricultural skills. These programmes are implemented from six months to one year with financial support from the government.

11.2.3 Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the Unreached and Underserved

In Indonesia and the Philippines, barriers identified are: (a) lack of incentives to ensure sustainable demand and the need to promote a strong sense of value among adults in becoming and staying literate; and (b) infrastructure problems, including poor road networks which limit access to remote areas. Indonesia, however, reported that limited access is becoming less of a problem and applies only to the remotest areas and islands. However, it is still very expensive to finance adult literacy and life skills programmes given the country's geographical profile. The cost to make one person literate is estimated at $500.

For the Philippines, the additional barriers include: (a) unavailability of ALS services, including non-formal education programmes and facilities such as reading centres in remote areas; (b) lack of interest in attending literacy programmes among learners who do not want to be labeled as "illiterate"; and (c) lack of data on illiterates at the community level.

In Malaysia, children from indigenous communities and other children whose main language is not the official language may experience difficulties in becoming literate in Bahasa Malay. These are, however, being addressed through programmes such as transition year from primary to lower secondary education levels and extra tutorials.

11.2.4 Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving Goal Four

In Indonesia, it is interesting to note that some districts require certification for passing literacy level 1 to get a marriage license. Over the past five years, the Ministry of National Education has formed a strong partnership with the National Bureau of Statistics (BPS) in the design and use of literacy survey data to ensure effective planning and targeting of resources. A special study on literacy is also being conducted concentrating on 10 provinces covering 65 districts with high illiteracy rates.

In Malaysia, a more recent data source on literacy following the last census (2000) is the Malaysia Labour Force Survey (MLFS). The MLFS adopted the definition of literate persons used in the 2000 Census as those who have a attended or are currently attending school. The results indicate that the number of persons aged 15 and above who were considered illiterate had fallen by about 8% in 2005.

11.3 Remaining Challenges and Issues in Achieving Goal Four

In Indonesia, the remaining challenges and issues to be addressed under this goal are: (a) providing incentives to ensure sustainable demand and promote a strong sense of value for adults in becoming and staying literate; (b) promoting the value of the literacy certification within the community and advocating its use as a credential for various forms of advancement; (c) setting up communication, information and education networks to the village level and remote areas to promote the importance of literacy education; and (d) setting up and sustaining support systems for special literacy programmes for adults. Challenges remain as well in strengthening literacy networks and partnerships for effective delivery of adult literacy services, especially in small and remote villages. Development of mechanisms and incentives, for example, to establish and sustain networks and partnerships among government agencies, NGOs, women's organizations, tribal groups and other community groups may be desirable. This will require flexible financing schemes and sustained technical support to build up network capacity.

Despite the high adult literacy and the availability of various literacy programmes in Malaysia, a challenge is the identification of children and youth who are not fully participating in the formal primary and lower secondary systems and are, thus, at risk of becoming illiterate. A more sensitive measure and more innovative and creative means for identifying these children and youth is

necessary. One approach being explored is equipping the schools with the right mechanisms to enable them to also function as "child-seeking" institutions.

The Philippines, for its part, needs to: (a) address the limited national government budget for ALS programmes/projects which are allocated less than 1% of the DepEd budget; (b) introduce a methodology that incorporates basic and functional literacy in the community development programmes of other government agencies, the LGUs and NGOs; (c) intensify coordination work with other ALS service providers (the LGUs and NGOs) to expand coverage; and (d) conduct literacy mapping at the community level for more strategic programming and targeting. Moreover, the adoption of the new definition of functional literacy in 1998 necessitated the restructuring of the FLEMMS questionnaire. An operational definition was derived from the broad conceptual definition upon which the new questionnaire for use in the 2008 FLEMMS was based. A group of experts in various fields of social science statistical measurement was convened in 2006 for this purpose.

12. Goal Five: Gender Parity and Equality in Education

The Dakar Framework enjoins countries to work towards the following targets related to gender equality: (a) assure that all children by year 2015, particularly girls, children under difficult conditions and those belonging to indigenous groups have access to, and complete the non-compulsory and compulsory basic education with a good quality (Goal 2); (b) reduce adult illiteracy by 50% by 2015, mainly for women, and provide fair access in the basic and continuous education of all adults (Goal 4); and (c) eliminate gender gaps in primary and secondary education levels by 2005, and achieve gender equality in education by 2015 (Goal 5).

12.1 Background and Development of Gender Equality in Basic Education in Insular South-East Asia

12.1.1 Definition of Gender Equality

Gender refers to "the roles and responsibilities of men and women that are created in our families, our societies and our cultures. The concept of gender also includes the expectations held about characteristics, aptitudes and likely behaviours of both women and men" while gender equality means "women and men have equal conditions for realizing their full human rights and for contributing to, and benefiting from, economic, social, cultural, and political development" (UNESCO).

12.1.2 National Policy and Legislation for Provision and Coordination

Countries in the Insular South-East Asia have supported gender equality through various legislations and development plans. Indonesia, for instance, has adopted the following policies: (a) expansion of quality education access with gender perspective to all girls and boys; (b) improvement of the quality and relevance of education, as well as reduction of the illiteracy levels within the adult population, mainly among females, by improving performance in either formal or non-formal streams in each level of education, in equivalency education programme, and in functional literacy education for adults; and (c) promotion of effective governance and accountability by developing capability in educational management and gender perspective among educational institution.

These policies are to be carried out through five key strategies: (a) provision of a quality education access, mainly the even distribution of basic education to girls and boys, both through formal and non-formal education streams; (b) provision of equal access to education among adults who cannot afford it; (c) improvement of functional literacy education for the adult population mainly for females; (d) improvement of the information and data system in order to mainstream

the gender perspective; and (e) enhancement of the institutional development of educational institutions, in the national and local levels regarding gender perspective.

Concerns on gender equality in education activities such as planning, programme management and implementation of strategies and programmes are coordinated by the Gender Unit of the Directorate General of Non-formal and Informal Education in MONE. The gender unit works closely with the Coordinating Ministry of Women's Empowerment, which is mandated to ensure gender mainstreaming of government policies and strategies, including for education.

Indonesia has ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) through Law 7 of 1984. Presidential Decree (Inpres) No. 9, issued in 2000, assigned all government agencies, both at national and local levels, to mainstream gender into planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of all policies and programmes. Moreover, Law 20/2003 (National Education System Act) stipulates that education shall be provided for all citizens and that girls and boys as well as men and women have the same right to accessing quality education. Annual and medium-term development plans in all development fields and activities thus incorporate gender as one of the mainstreamed issues.

In Malaysia, gender and development policies and strategies are embodied in the National Policy for Women (NPW) of 1989. Its objectives centre on ensuring equitable access to resources and information, opportunities and benefits arising from socio-economic development. It also aims to integrate gender equality in all national development programmes based on capabilities and needs, particularly those related to eradication of poverty, ignorance and illiteracy, and attainment of national cohesion and prosperity. The NPW's contents were incorporated into the Sixth Malaysia Plan and have formed the basis for many of the subsequent policies relating to women in development.

The 1987 Philippine Constitution stipulates as a policy of the Government for women to participate in and benefit from development on an equal basis with men. Consistent with this, RA 7192 or the Women in Development and Nation Building Act was passed in 1992. Other laws supporting gender and development (GAD) include the Science and Technology Scholarship Act of 1997 that expands educational opportunities for women and men to pursue careers in science and technology, and the National Service Training Programme Act of 2001 which provides three options in military, civil service and literacy training to female and male students at the tertiary level.

The Philippines also adopted the Philippine Plan for Gender-Responsive Development (PPGD) 1995-2025. To support the implementation of this plan, the Philippine GAD budget policy mandates all government offices to allocate 5% of their annual outlays to finance the implementation of their respective agency-based GAD plans. The Philippines has also ratified the CEDAW which resulted in the installation of various means to protect Filipino women from inequalities and discrimination in the civil, economic, social, political and cultural domains.

12.1.3 Strategies and Programmes for Achieving Gender Equality in Basic Education

As earlier mentioned, the Gender Unit of the Directorate General of Non-Formal and Informal Education is responsible for ensuring gender mainstreaming, planning, management and implementation of gender equity strategies in education. The overall strategy is to ensure that education policies, strategies and programmes and the number of beneficiaries are screened and monitored to ensure gender equity in both access to and benefits from education.

The Malaysian NPW is incorporated in the country's development plans including sectoral plans such as education. Thus, the Malaysian National Education System seeks to provide equitable primary, secondary and tertiary education for all segments of the population, specially focusing on the disadvantaged groups, to extend support of gender equality concerns.

To achieve gender equality in the Philippines education, the following measures were put in place: (a) mainstreaming of GAD as a cross-cutting agenda in development plans, programmes, projects and activities of the DepEd; (b) integration of gender-related topics, modules and teaching aids into school curricula; (c) evaluation of textbooks and teaching materials to ensure gender-sensitivity, e.g., balance in treatment of roles, occupations and contributions in the text and illustrations; (d) training of public school teachers, guidance counselors, administrators, and supervisors on maintaining a gender-sensitive and child-friendly school; (e) provision of equal opportunity for scholarship programmes and training in various fields to government workers and academe; (f) establishment of a Gender and Development Resource Centre; and (g) launching of a technology-based education and training for women by the National Vocational Training and Development Centre for Women.

To promote gender equity in education among the disadvantaged groups, Indonesia worked to: (a) improve capacity and competence in planning and budgeting with gender perspective in education for poor families; (b) develop current information systems and programme-recording processes to ensure sufficient coverage of gender equity issues, including the mapping and the improvement of data on families; and (c) and improve family education with gender perspective for poor families at several selected urban and rural areas. Trainings are also conducted by the Department of Gender under the Ministry of Women Empowerment. The programme "Family Education and Gender Awareness Raising" has been implemented to raise the awareness of community groups, including schools, on the importance of educating girls and how this will improve family life. It includes socio-economic profiling of the target area, training facilitators and running participatory workshops. The primary target groups are the rural and urban poor, relocated and isolated families and other vulnerable groups. Various models of this programme correspond to needs of different communities in Papua, West Java, Tenggara, East Java and Central Java. Capacity building and materials development in gender mainstreaming are done in collaboration with universities and institutions.

The key strategy of Malaysia and the Philippines is to duly integrate gender and development into all institutional capacity-building and sectoral development plans, including those focusing on the underserved and marginalized. The Philippines also promotes partnerships with several NGOs and the LGUs in implementing programmes that promote gender equality among disadvantaged groups.

Early Childhood Care and Education. Gender disparity in core ECCE indicators show boys at a disadvantage both in 2000 and 2005. The table below shows that the gender gap for pre-primary GER has narrowed only marginally. As to the percentage of primary level entrants with ECCE experience, Malaysia recorded the biggest difference between boys and girls in 2000 that continued to widen in 2005. Indonesia and the Philippines, on the other hand, showed a much narrower difference in both indicators.

12.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Gender Equality in Basic Education

Table 15: Gender Parity Index in Pre-Primary GER and % of New Entrants to Primary Education with ECCE Experience, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	GPI for Gross Enrolment Ratio for Pre-Primary		GPI for % of New Entrants to Primary Education with ECCE Experience	
	2000	2005	2000	2005
Indonesia	1.04**	1.03**	…	1.03**
Malaysia	1.04[+1]	1.10	1.06[+2]	1.10[-1]
Philippines	1.05**	1.04	1.03[+2]	1.01

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "**" indicates UIS estimation. "+n" indicates data refer to school or financial year (or period) n years or periods after the reference year or period. "-n" indicates data refer to school or financial year (or period) n years or periods after the reference year or period. "…" indicates data not available.

Primary/Basic Education. Gender parity trends across the three countries widely vary. In Indonesia, the GPI in GIR, NIR, GER and NER in primary education has moved towards parity. This pattern is more apparent at the secondary level where parity in GER and NER was achieved in 2005. For Malaysia, gender parity has been achieved in primary level GIR, GER and NER. In the Philippines, girls are at a disadvantage in primary GIR and Ner while there is parity in GER and NER at primary level. For the rest of the indicators, primary education NIR and all indicators for the secondary level, GPI favours girls. The Philippines recorded the biggest gap in boys and girls performance in secondary education that continued to widen from 2000 to 2005 (Table 16).

Table 16: Gender Parity Index for Key Indicators in Primary and Secondary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	Primary Education								Secondary Education			
	GPI for GIR		GPI for NIR		GPI for GER		GPI for NER		GPI for GER		GPI for NER	
	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005
Indonesia	0.93**	0.97**	0.95**	0.97**	0.97**	0.97**	0.97**	0.97**	0.95**	0.99**	0.95**	0.99**
Malaysia	1.01	0.99^{-1}	…	…	1.00	1.00^{-1}	1.00	1.00^{-1}	§	§	§	§
Philippines	0.94^{+1}	0.94	1.06^{+1}	1.13**	1.00^{+1}	0.99	1.01^{+1}	1.02	1.10^{+1}	1.12	1.18^{+1}	1.20

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "**" indicates UIS estimation. "+n" indicates data refer to school or financial year (or period) n years or periods after the reference year or period. "-n" indicates data refer to school or financial year (or period) n years or periods after the reference year or period. "..." indicates no data available. "§" indicates that due to differences in enrolment and population used by the Ministry of Education and the UIS, this indicator cannot be published for Malaysia.

Life Skills and Lifelong Learning. The patterns in youth literacy rate showed that gender parity has been achieved in Indonesia, Malaysia, and the Philippines after 2000. However, the rate in the Philippines is moving towards a bias for girls.

Table 17: Gender Parity Index for Youth Literacy Rates (Age 15-24), Before1995 and After 2000, Sub-Region

Country	Before 1995		After 2000	
	Year	GPI	Year	GPI
Indonesia	1990	0.98	2004	1.00
Malaysia	1991	0.99	2007	1.00**
Philippines	1990	1.01	2003	1.03

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Note: "**" indicates UIS estimation.

Enrolment in vocational and technical education in Indonesia and Malaysia showed less than 50% participation among girls. The percentage has not changed much from 2000 to 2005. GPI in transition rate from primary to secondary level was at 1.02 for Indonesia in 2001. Parity was achieved by Indonesia in 2004. For the Philippines, it was 0.99 in 2001 and 1.01 in 2004.

Literacy. As shown in Table 18, base data (before 1995) in adult literacy across the sub-region gender parity generally favoured males and females comprised a higher proportion of illiterates. After 2000, Indonesia showed movement towards parity, from 0.86 in 1990 to 0.92 in 2004, while adult literacy of the Philippines of remained at the parity level.

Table 18: Gender Parity Index for Adult Literacy Rates (Age 15+), Before 1995 and After 2000, Sub-Region

Country	Before 1995		After 2000	
	Year	GPI	Year	GPI
Indonesia	1990	0.86	2004	0.92
Malaysia	1991	0.87	2007	0.95
Philippines	1990	0.99	2003	1.02

Source: UISDC, February 2008.

Quality. Trends in gender parity in quality indicators vary across the sub-region. For example, disparity in Indonesia' survival rate in 2000 favoured girls at 1.10, but was reversed in 2005 with 0.94 GPI. Malaysia achieved parity in 2000, but latest data indicate a slight disadvantage against boys at 1.01 GPI. In the Philippines, there were less boys reaching Grade 5 than girls as indicated by 1.10 GPI in 2001, which worsened to 1.13 in 2004.

Females constitute the majority of teachers in primary education in Indonesia. At the secondary level, however, they make up less than 50% of the teaching personnel. The percentage gets lower with respect to female teachers in vocational or technical education. Nevertheless, it is noteworthy that the male-female ratio for Indonesia's teaching personnel increased from 2000 to 2005 in favour of females at all levels. Malaysia's female teachers at the secondary level also increased from 62% to 63.6%. The Philippines has the highest percentage of female teachers in both primary and secondary levels (Table 19).

Table 19: Percentage of Female Teachers in Primary and Secondary Education Levels and Vocational or Technical Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	% of Female Teachers in Primary Education		% of Female Teachers in Secondary Education		% of Female Teachers in Vocational or Technical Education	
	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005
Indonesia	53.7**	61.0**	41.6**	43.5**	32.4	39.2
Malaysia	66.2**	66.9[-1]	62.0**	63.6**,[-1]	…	…
Philippines	87.3[+1]	87.3	76.4[+1]	76.4	†	†

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "**" indicates UIS estimation. "+n" indicates data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods after the reference year or period. "-n" indicates data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods before the reference year or period. "…" indicates data not available. "†" indicates data included under another category.

In summary, gender parity across the sub-region shows mixed patterns as reflected in the summary table below.

Table 20: GPI for Selected EFA Indicators, Summary Table, Sub-Region

Indicators	Indonesia		Malaysia		Philippines	
	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005
GPI for GER in Pre-Primary	1.04**	1.03**	1.04^{+1}	1.10	1.05**	1.04
GPI for % of New Entrants to Primary Education with ECCE Experience	0.97**	1.03**	1.06^{+2}	1.10^{-1}	1.03^{+2}	1.01
GPI for GIR in Primary Education	0.93**	0.97**	1.01	0.99^{-1}	0.94^{+1}	0.94
GPI for NIR in Primary Education	0.95**	0.97**	…	…	1.06^{+1}	1.13**
GPI for GER in Primary Education	0.97**	0.97**	1.00	1.00^{-1}	1.00^{+1}	0.99
GPI for NER in Primary Education	0.97**	0.97**	1.00	1.00^{-1}	1.01^{+1}	1.02
GPI for GER in Secondary Education	0.95**	0.99**	§	§	1.10^{+1}	1.12
GPI for NER in Secondary Education	0.95**	0.99**	§	§	1.18^{+1}	1.20
GPI for Youth Literacy (Age 15-24)	0.98 (1990)	1.00 (2004)	0.99 (1991)	1.00 (2007)**	1.01 (1990)	1.03 (2003)
GPI for Transition Rate from Primary to Lower Secondary	1.02**$^{,+1}$	1.00**$^{,-1}$	1.02^{-1}	1.01**$^{,-2}$	0.99^{+1}	1.01^{-1}
GPI for Adult Literacy (Age 15+)	0.86 (1990)	0.92 (2004)	0.87 (1991)	0.95 (2007)	0.99 (1990)	1.02 (2003)
GPI for Survival Rate to Grade 5	1.10**	0.94^{-1}	1.00^{+1}	1.01^{-2}	1.10^{+1}	1.13^{-1}

Sources: UISDC, February 2008; Global Education Digest 2007, p.82; EFA Global Monitoring Report 2007, p.287; and EFA Global Monitoring Report 2007, p.311.

Notes: "**" indicates UIS estimation. "+n" indicates data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods after the reference year or period. "-n" indicates data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods before the reference year or period. "..." indicates data not available. "§" indicates that due to differences in enrolment and population data used by the Ministry of Education and the UIS, this indicator cannot be published for Malaysia.

12.3 Issues Affecting Gender Equality in Basic Education

In Indonesia, barriers to promoting gender equality in access to education and in educational outcomes include: (a) poverty; (b) understanding and awareness of gender issues among parents; and (c) disaggregation of data by sex which is not yet regularly done, especially for non-formal education. In the Philippines, poverty is also a barrier as more boys are engaged in child labour. According to a national survey, a growing lack of interest among boys in education has emerged as one of the major reasons of their low NER.

In Malaysia, gender parity indicators show favourable participation and outcomes for both girls and boys. However, under-representation of women among top decision makers in both the private and public sector is apparent. Cultural influences are still a big factor in individual decisions concerning career paths. As a result, Malaysian society may not be benefiting at the optimum level from the talents women have to offer.

In the Philippines, almost all key outcome indicators show girls are performing better than boys. The GPIs for secondary enrolment, elementary and secondary completion and achievement rates exceed 1.00 meaning boys are disadvantaged. The DepEd is thus studying the possible causes of low performance among boys and how to arrest and correct them.

Another significant reform implemented in the sub-region is the review of textbooks as well as other instructional materials to correct erroneous content such as stereotyping of gender roles. Gender sensitivity and responsiveness have also been incorporated in the textbook evaluation process.

12.4 Remaining Challenges in Achieving Gender Equality in Basic Education

For Indonesia, the following challenges towards promoting gender equality in education remain: (a) assuring gender parity in secondary and higher education; (b) improving data collection at the senior secondary level and data disaggregation in higher education; and (c) assuring gender sensitive school development planning and instructional materials, education staff development and strategic and programme planning. The strategies, as secondary and higher education opportunities expand, will be to: (a) improve and sustain gender equity in access through location and design of new schools; (b) ensure equitable access, taking account water/sanitation requirements for females and security/safety issues for girls having to travel some distance to school; (c) strengthen campaign to raise gender sensitivity in relation to the value of school/university attendance for both males and females; and (d) undertake measures to eradicate gender stereotyping on subject choices in secondary school and university for females (e.g. more technology) and males (e.g. more teacher education, social sciences).

The challenges in mainstreaming gender equity into school development planning and design of school textbooks and other materials include: (a) use of sex disaggregated school performance data (e.g. enrolment, examination results) by school principals and committees to ensure that development activities address any specific constraints facing boys or girls; (b) ensuring that women are equitably represented and heard on school committees, alongside possible school governance training for women; and (c) ensuring that school textbooks are screened and selected on the basis of zero gender stereotyping and positive affirmation of female role models.

The challenge for Malaysia is how to determine how best the education sector can contribute to enable the country to utilize and maximize benefits from the talents of Malaysian women within the framework of Malaysian cultural values. Broadening the field of choices for women in terms of career paths that are not necessarily limited by cultural setting is another challenge.

For the Philippines, the remaining challenges are: (a) increasing resources and expanding the government programmes for out-of-school youth, literacy programmes and appropriate adult education especially for those in the rural, indigenous communities, hard-to-reach places and in areas where high a percentage of school-age children are not in school; (b) expanding the review of other instructional materials in both private and public schools to eliminate stereotypes and include gender-sensitive ideas such as joint parenting, reproductive rights and non-violent forms of handling conflict, among others; (c) further training for teachers, school administrators in all levels for a more gender sensitive approach to basic education; (d) full implementation of tried and tested frameworks and tools in gender mainstreaming in terms of contents, methodologies and practices in basic education. Setting teacher indicators on gender-fairness and building teachers' competencies will be key components; and (e) mapping education gaps to locate girls and women who are still denied access to quality education and to identify appropriate and sustainable education interventions. This includes studying the declining performance of boys in school in most key education outcome indicators through more empirical examination of possible reasons for proper intervention.

13. Goal Six: Quality of Education

13.1 Background and Development of Quality of Basic Education in Insular South-East Asia

The Dakar Framework concerning quality focuses on: (a) the improvement of outcomes of education, including student and school performance; (b) improvement of the availability of

quality-oriented critical resources, especially textbooks and other instructional materials, teachers and facilities, among others; (c) improvement of quality assurance systems, including curriculum and standards, monitoring and evaluation of outputs and controlling outcomes.

13.1.1 Definition of Quality in Basic Education

In Indonesia, quality of education pertains to improvement of input, process, and outputs of education, including student and school performance according to national standard of education by eight elements as embodied in law and overseen by the National Education Standards Board. These eight elements are: (a) standard of contents; (b) standard of process; (c) competencies of graduates; (d) teacher and educational staff; (e) facility and infrastructure; (f) operational management; (g) budgeting; and (h) educational evaluation. These are measured through national examinations to show learning achievement. These examinations (in Bahasa, English and Math) are given at the 9th and 12th years as a prerequisite for higher education. Provinces and districts can set standards that should not be lower than the minimum standards.

Malaysia's notion of quality of education is founded on its National Philosophy of Education (NPE) which prescribes the desirable attributes (intellectually, spiritually, emotionally and physically balanced, among others) of the products of its education system. These characteristics are the foundation of a knowledgeable and competent Malaysian citizen, responsible and capable of high-level of personal well-being and able to contribute to the harmony and development of the entire nation. The strategies for the realization of the NPE aspirations are outlined in the Education Development Plan (2001-2010) that aims to ensure that all citizens have the opportunity to complete 12 years of quality education at the minimum to beef up a globally competitive workforce in support of the country's vision to be a developed nation by 2020.

In the Philippines, RA 9155, defines "quality education" as the appropriateness, relevance and excellence of the education that meet the needs and aspirations of an individual and the society. Operationally, quality of education is gauged by the results of the following: (a) ECCE by the Grade 1 readiness test; (b) formal basic education by reading proficiency/reading tests administered at different levels to measure the proficiency level of students aimed at making all Grade 3 students independent readers; and (c) ALS through accreditation and equivalency exams. National achievement tests are administered to Grade 6 and Year 4 (first year high school) students.

Quality of basic education in the Philippines is measured through performance indicators categorized as input, process and outcome. At the input level, among the indicators used are: (a) class size of 50 pupils for elementary schools and 45 for secondary schools (target for 2010 is class size of 35); (b) textbook-pupil ratio of 1:1 for core subjects; and (c) sufficient science laboratory rooms, library, and water and sanitation facilities. At the process level, the following measures of quality are adopted: (a) Child-Friendly School indicators; (b) School-Based Management Standards performance indicators; (c) School Accreditation Standards; and (d) National Competency-Based Teacher Standards. The outcome indicators are: (a) the Functional Literacy Skills of 10-64 year olds; (b) Grade 1 Readiness Test; (c) Reading Proficiency of all Grade 3 Pupils; (d) Achievement level of Grade 6 pupils and Year 4 students (National Achievement Test); and (e) Non-Formal Education Accreditation and Equivalency Test.

On top of the traditional measurements of quality of basic education through examinations and other learning achievement indicators, attention is needed for standards for quality learning environments.

13.1.2 Strategies and Programmes in Place for the Provision of Quality Basic Education

Consistent with its Dakar commitments, the provision and improvement of educational quality and relevance in Indonesia is stipulated in Law 20/2003 on National Education System. These stipulations are detailed at a more operational level by Government Regulation No.19/2005

on National Standard of Education. The Indonesian government has adopted a number of key strategies for quality improvement in terms of student and school performance. These include: (a) strengthening student examination systems and school accreditation systems; (b) setting up institutional arrangements for standards and governance through legislative, regulatory and organizational reform; and (c) strengthening central, provincial and district capacity to implement these performance monitoring systems.

Availability of key quality-oriented inputs is improved by: (a) setting minimum standards for inputs, including infrastructure, instructional materials and qualified teachers; and (b) developing financial and management guidelines for the provision of these inputs and related resource management at school levels. Similarly, quality assurance systems and capacity building were strengthened through: (a) revision of roles and responsibilities for education standards setting and monitoring, including increasing of standards monitoring organizations' autonomy; (b) revision of the roles of teachers and education personnel in quality assurance, including new organizational arrangements at central levels; and (c) increasing the autonomy of school managers and committees for management of resources and reporting on student and school performance. In addition, schools and the community/society (e.g., PTAs) are also involved in overseeing the quality of education at the school level. Every province has institutionalized school-based management to improve quality.

The government of Indonesia also recognizes the importance of setting and monitoring well-defined education standards for student performance, curriculum, textbooks and infrastructure by establishing the Board of National Education Standards (BSNP) in 2005. This Board provides independent oversight of national examinations and other standards monitoring processes. The BSNP is an independent body consisting of highly respected national experts from the academe, professional organizations and community groups who work mainly on a voluntary basis to help uphold Indonesian education standards. A National Board of School Accreditation (BAN) was also established to oversee standards for formal, non-formal and higher education.

Malaysia, for its part, adopted a holistic approach to quality improvement that include: (a) improving of physical learning conditions through classroom construction and provision of electricity, clean water and sanitation in all schools; (b) ensuring adequate and appropriate school-level inputs such as qualified teachers, extra tutorials for pupils having difficulties in reading, provision of learning materials and facilities especially concerning ICT, enhanced curriculum with incorporated values formation, co-curricular activities and practical skills; (c) monitoring results and strengthening management systems and capacity through examinations and regular inspections of educational institutions; and (d) providing adequate financial resources. It aims to improve classroom/pupil ratio from 31 to 30 at primary and from 32 to 30 at the secondary levels by 2010 through construction of more that 13,000 classrooms. Consistent with these strategies, the Education Development Plan was updated in 2006 to be the National Blueprint for Education (2006-2010) focused on six thrusts: (a) nation building; (b) developing human capital; (c) strengthening national schools; (d) reducing educational disparities, (e) enhancing teaching as a noble profession; and (f) accelerating excellence in educational institutions.

In the Philippines, various strategies and programmes have been introduced in the areas of curriculum, testing and assessment, teacher development, school improvement and alternative delivery modes to improve the quality of basic education. Among these are: (a) restructuring of the elementary and secondary education curriculum to allow for the indigenization and development of localized curriculum materials taking into account local culture; (b) introduction of the use of information and communication technology in every learning; (c) adoption of the national standard curriculum for Muslim education where Arabic Language and Islamic Values are offered as optional subjects in public schools as well as English, science and mathematics as tool subjects in private Muslim schools or madaris; (d) measuring the achievement levels of Grade 6 pupils and Year 4 students through testing and assessment [National Achievement Test]; (e) administration of Diagnostic Test to Grade 4 pupils to determine learning gaps; (f) introduction of a new Performance-Based Grading to replace the transmutation method that convert raw test

scores to grades; and (g) launching of the Philippine Informal Reading Inventory (Phil-IRI) to assess and evaluate reading proficiency level of elementary pupils; and (h) introduction of Every Child a Reader Programme.

Quality improvement through SBM was also implemented to empower schools in managing their own affairs for the attainment of desired educational outcomes. The Accreditation Programme for Public Elementary Schools (APPES) in 2003 and the Project Sterling Silver for secondary education were also introduced as voluntary evaluation schemes to challenge all public schools to improve their effectiveness and efficiency and raise quality standards. Quality improvement activities for teachers such as the Teacher Education and Development Programme (TEDP) were initiated by DepEd in partnership with other basic education stakeholders focused on both pre-service and in-service education and training. The National Competency-Based Teachers Standard (NCBTS) was also piloted to serve as the basis for reforms in pre-service education, licensing, hiring, promotion and continuous personal and professional development of teachers. Provision of school resources was also identified to improve the delivery of basic education and to make teaching-learning more effective. This consists of facilities (classrooms, desks/armchairs, ICT), and instructional materials (textbooks, supplementary reading materials) to facilitate and enrich teaching-learning.

13.1.3 Specific Strategies and Programmes for the Provision of Quality Basic Education Among the Unreached and Underserved Groups

Indonesia's strategies to improve access to education, especially in districts with low enrollments included the construction of new junior secondary school and combining two levels in one school under the 'one roof' school programme (kindergarten-primary, primary-secondary). These strategies seek to address problems of house-to-school distances and class sizes both of which affect teaching-learning quality. For street children, improving the quality of equivalency programmes has been undertaken.

As mentioned earlier, Malaysia aims to address the needs of the disadvantaged mainly through reduction of disparities in the provision of education services, both in access and quality. For example, the bulk of classroom construction until 2010 is destined for the rural areas, alongside the effort to improve classroom-pupil ratio and also to address urban-rural disparity in access. Among the strategies adopted by Malaysia in relation to quality improvement is to expand the variety of programmes and institutions in the education system to reach more children and youth who may be experiencing barriers to full availment of regular basic education services. An inclusive or consolidated technical-vocational programme was also incorporated in the secondary schools provided by the National Vocational Training Board to address inadequate practical skills training for students with special needs.

The Philippines has implemented strategies and programmes for disadvantaged groups including: (a) Project IMPACT to benefit children in congested schools with inadequate basic resources such as teachers, classrooms, textbooks; (b) Modified In-School Off-School Project piloted in areas with overcongested classes and in areas with high incidence of child labour; (d) Project EASE (Easy and Affordable Secondary Education); (e) Open High School; (f) Child-Friendly School System in disadvantaged areas with low HDI and education indicators; (g) Muslim Education adopting the national standard curriculum for Muslim education; and (h) localization of the curriculum to respond to the needs of learners (70-30 Curriculum).

13.2 Progress in Achieving Quality in Basic Education

To adopt a more uniform set of quality indicators based on commonly available data from the participating countries, the following are used for assessing progress in quality: Pupil/Teacher Ratio (PTR); Survival Rate to Grade 5; Total public expenditure on education as percentage of total government expenditure; and total public expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP, among others.

The PTR reflects the supply of teachers against the pupil/student population. A high PTR usually implies fewer teachers than needed and that teachers are likely to teach large classes thereby adversely affecting teaching and learning quality (UNESCO 2007-GMR 2008). Overall, the availability of teachers appear to have improved from 2000 to 2005 in all levels of basic education, except for upper secondary education level in the Philippines (Table 21). The Philippines has the highest PTR at all levels, from primary to upper secondary education.

Table 21: Pupil/Teacher Ratio in Primary, Lower Secondary and Upper Secondary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region
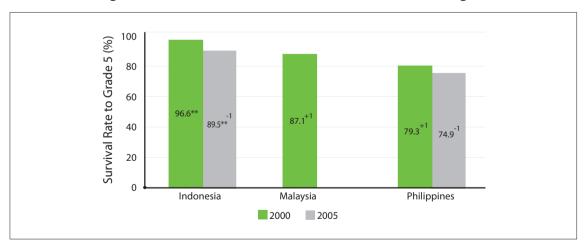
Country	Pupil/Teacher Ratio (PTR) for Primary Education		Pupil/Teacher Ratio (PTR) for Lower Secondary Education		Pupil/Teacher Ratio (PTR) for Upper Secondary Education	
	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005
Indonesia	22.4**	20.4	17.2**	12.9	13.8**	10.5
Malaysia	19.6	17.5^{-1}	18.4**	17.2**,$^{-1}$	18.4**	17.6**,$^{-1}$
Philippines	35.2^{+1}	35.1	43.4^{+1}	42.0	22.4^{+1}	28.3

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "**" indicates UIS estimation. "+n" indicates data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods after the reference year or period. "-n" indicates data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods before the reference year or period.

A general trend of decline in the survival rate to Grade 5 in basic education has been noted in Indonesia and the Philippines. The Indonesian survival rate significantly went down from 96.6% in 2000 to 89.5% in 2005. The Philippines demonstrated a similar decline from 79.3% to 74.9%. It may be useful to look at the annual rate of decline and to examine whether interventions had some effect or not. Malaysia, on the other hand, reported that its relatively high survival rate (87.1% in 2000) is mainly due to the fact that majority of Malaysian children who enter primary school have some form of ECCE experience (74.1% in 2005) which prepared them for formal primary schooling. A large majority of primary education completers also continue on to secondary school as evident in its 99.6% transition rate.

Figure 7: Survival Rate to Grade 5, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "**" indicates UIS estimation. "+n" indicates data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods after the reference year or period. "-n" indicates data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods before the reference year or period; No available data on survival rate to Grade 5 for Malaysia in 2005.

A possible explanation for Indonesia's experience is the increasing demand and enrolment in non-formal education programmes (Packet A for primary and B for secondary). Enrolment in Packet A increased from 6,000 in 2002 to 46,000 in 2005. For Packet B, enrolment increased seven-fold from 35,000 to 390,000 over the same period (Indonesia, 2007). Majority of these students are drop-outs who eventually use the equivalency programme to re-enter mainstream education. While the non-formal system may have been originally intended to remedy some inadequacies in the formal system, students may have considered this alternative more attractive than the formal system itself. In this regard, ensuring the quality and comparativeness of the non-formal system vis-à-vis the established competences is worth looking into as an area of further investment. In the Philippines, where a similar but less structured alternative learning system is offered, this issue is also an area for review and study as DepEd reported more and more Accreditation and Equivalency walk-in examinees use the system to circumvent completion of formal basic education.

Trends in public expenditure on education as percentage of total government expenditure vary across the sub-region from 2000 to 2005 as earlier discussed in Part I. For example, Indonesia and Malaysia's allocation for education decreased, albeit marginally from 9.80% to 9.03% and from 26.65% to 25.21%, respectively. On the other hand, levels in the Philippines' increased from 13.95% to 16.35%.

As a percentage of GDP, Malaysia has slightly increased its education expenditure from 6.20% in 2000 to 6.24% in 2005. On the other hand, Indonesia and the Philippines had declining shares from 1.36% to 0.96% and from 3.49% to 2.71%, respectively. As a share of total government expenditure and GDP, Malaysia posted the highest percentage of education expenditure. Consistently, Malaysia had the highest expenditure at all levels of basic education as percentage of GDP in 2005, followed by the Philippines and Indonesia. (Please refer to Table 3).

13.2.1 Best Practices for Goal Six

As earlier mentioned, an improvement in the sub-regions' PTR has been noted. In particular, Indonesia has started to increase the qualification requirement of teachers through a legislation-initiated standard for teachers who should have at least four years of higher education. This is part of the country's plan to improve the quality of its basic education teachers. Similarly, Malaysia is investing on its teachers to complete university degrees with a goal of having 50% degree-holder teachers for primary and 100% for secondary levels by 2010.

In the case of the Philippines, it is mandatory for teachers to obtain a college degree and pass a board examination. However, its high PTR may indicate that fewer teachers qualify to teach in public schools, or opt not to teach in public schools, compared with Indonesia and Malaysia. Moreover, there is a lack of teachers specialized in the subjects they are teaching at the secondary level. In 2005, for instance, only 20% of teachers teaching physics were actually trained in this subject.

In Indonesia, the overall student performance in examinations has improved significantly in both junior and senior secondary. Moreover, 53% of all institutions have been formally accredited although there are provincial variations, especially in rural areas where access is still a problem. Progress in quality is attributed to: (a) improved School Based Management System; (b) stronger national examination instrument; (c) implementation of 'one roof' school programme in primary and secondary school; d) provision of block-grant for school operational budget and school textbooks; (e) upgrading of teacher qualification by undergraduate minimum (bachelor degree) and certifying teacher competency; (f) intensified mobile classrooms programme (buses) for street children in Surabaya; (g) stronger collaboration with the Ministry for Housing to give subsidy on housing for teachers in remote areas to encourage them to stay in these areas even after their required period to stay in the place; and (h) collaboration with the military and religious organizations in providing teachers in remote areas.

Although the Philippines reported to have failed in achieving most of its EFA targets in 2005, there were good and best practices that contributed to improved learning outcomes. Noteworthy

programmes include: (a) Every Child A Reader Programme, which improved the reading proficiency of elementary pupils in selected schools; (b) Child-Friendly School System (CFSS) Programme which promotes child's rights-based education; and the (c) Student Tracking System introduced in the UNICEF-sponsored Country Programme for Children (CPC) areas. As earlier mentioned under Goal 2, this system is one of the proven effective innovations of CFSS which regularly track the condition of each learner and his/her family (in terms of health and socio-economic status). The CFSS programme has expanded to cover more schools including a small number of secondary schools. The DepEd is now focusing on supporting a good number of schools in strengthening and deepening CFSS practices and strengthening the capacity of the basic education system to support the programme. As the programme is eventually institutionalized, DepEd is promoting CFSS not as a programme or a strategy but a culture or value system that every school should develop and nurture.

13.2.2 Gender Equality in Achieving Quality of Basic Education

Trends in sex-disaggregated survival rates from 2000 to 2005 vary across the sub-region. Survival rates to Grade 5 for both boys and girls have improved significantly in Malaysia by more than 20 percentage points, with girls performing slightly better than boys. In Indonesia, on the other hand, survival rate declined for both boys and girls. It is remarkable, however, that while boys' survival rate has declined marginally (0.3 percentage point), that of girls' has sufferred substantially (14.5 percentage points) such that the trend in GPI was reversed. The Philippines' survival rates also declined for both sexes with the rate for girls showing smaller decline than boys.

Girls' survival rate has remained higher than that of boys in the Philippines during the assessment period. The DepEd is currently looking at the teaching practices of female teachers, who dominate the teaching force in basic education, whether they affect the learning processes and outcomes (performance), as well as the staying power (high drop-out) of boys in schools.

13.2.3 Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the Unreached and Underserved Groups

Providing quality education to disadvantaged groups in the sub-region are hampered by the following factors: (a) poor teacher quality caused by ineffective pre-service and in-service training; (b) substantial gaps/disparities among provinces and between urban and rural areas; (c) underinvestment in education inputs such as textbooks and other instructional materials against the increasing demand and population; and (d) weak monitoring, evaluation and reporting.

Table 22: Survival Rate to Grade 5, by Sex, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000		2005	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Indonesia	92.3**	101.4**	92.0**,-1	86.9**,-1
Malaysia	86.9+1	87.3+1	…	…
Philippines	75.8+1	83.1+1	70.6-1	79.8-1

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: ""**" indicates UIS estimation. "+n" indicates data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods after the reference year or period. "-n" indicates data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods before the reference year or period. "..." indicates data not available.

Indonesia also identified its large number of school buildings in poor condition and development as an additional barrier alongside the difficulties encountered in the implementation of the Education National Standard at the provincial and district levels in conjunction with its decentralization efforts.

The Philippines identified the following as additional barriers: (a) inadequate supply and deployment of effective and efficient basic inputs (classrooms, supplementary instructional materials, libraries, science laboratories, ICT facilities); (b) absence of full-fledged school heads to manage every school/school cluster; and (c) extra-curricular assignments given to teachers that affect their teaching tasks. Moreover, national aggregates for PTR cannot reflect the efficiency of deployment of teachers, especially in the remote and difficult-to-reach areas or in areas in difficult circumstances.

13.3 Remaining Challenges in Achieving Goal Six

Challenges faced by Indonesia towards achieving the goal of quality education include: (a) enabling implementation of Teachers Law and Regulations; (b) ensuring effective implementation of school textbook operational budget programmes; and (c) strengthening quality-oriented governance and accountability mechanisms. Public accountability is also considered an effective strategy to improve quality of education, especially when schools are required to submit reports. Such reports would put pressure on schools to perform better.

Since monitoring and evaluation are difficult and expensive given the geographical characteristics of Indonesia and the rest of the sub-region, another challenge is to build the monitoring, evaluation and reporting capacity at all levels (down to the districts and schools). Such monitoring and evaluation mechanism should also look at other factors such as school-age population size and actual amount allocated to basic education to determine whether actual investment is sufficient. Analysis of investment should also factor in contributions from the private sector and other partners to present a more accurate picture of basic education investment in each country.

Malaysia, for its part, emphasizes the need for more in-depth studies and analyses of reasons behind current trends, as well as additional and more disaggregated collection and presentation of data. A more thorough assessment of exam results, for example, is necessary for purposes of refining policies and practice and analysis of drop-out rates per school that may yield more accurate reasons. These studies and improvements in data collection and processes are expected to supplement regular indicators to guide better education planning and investment programming.

In the Philippines, consultations were undertaken while drafting the EFA MDA. These revealed an emerging perception and concern that the present basic education curriculum is 'overloaded' leading to the recommendation to review and decongest the curriculum. The expected curriculum as refined is expected to focus on developing life skills coupled with an effective testing and assessment mechanism that goes beyond written tests. Other challenges faced by the Philippines basic education are: (a) the need to enhance the mother tongue/child's language as medium of instruction for ECE and Grades 1 to 2; (b) full and effective implementation of the policy on indigenization of the curriculum and national standard curriculum for Muslim education; (c) availability and appropriate utilization of basic education resources in every school; (d) improved quality of pre-service and in-service teacher training; and (e) weak quality assurance (conducting monitoring and evaluation and providing technical assistance) and accountability mechanisms at the different levels. Specific needs related to monitoring and evaluation are: (a) monitoring and evaluation of the entire system; (b) supervision and provision of instructional support to teachers by the school heads and supervisors; (c) feedback of the monitoring and evaluation results to concerned stakeholders; (d) adoption of incentives and sanctions to improved/declining performance; and (e) improving capabilities of the division, region and central office to provide technical/instructional support to schools and teachers.

While adequate policies and legislation are in place in Indonesia, the problem concerns their implementation at the local level. Similarly, programmes have been implemented in the Philippines but they seem to have negligible or no impact on education outcomes. As a result, the DepEd plans to assess selected programmes to determine their effectiveness and efficiency. Improving teacher

quality can be affected by mindset or perception of the importance of the teaching profession and prestige attached to it. This perception is linked partly to salary and incentives for teachers. Governments must therefore exert efforts to promote this mindset by providing greater incentives and an attractive career path for teachers. A new area that is worth studying concerns the meaning of quality from the perspective of students.

14. Summary of Progress in Selected EFA MDA Indicators

Available data for selected indicators show that the Insular South-East Asia countries participating in the MDA posted varying trends in progress made towards the attainment of the EFA Goals. Table 23 shows the progress of Indonesia, Malaysia and the Philippines in selected EFA indicators.

For Goal 1, GER has improved across the sub-region. However, the GER for Indonesia and the Philippines was still below 50% in 2005. Malaysia registered the highest GER in 2000 and in 2005. With respect to the percentage of Grade 1 entrants with some ECCE experience, the figure for Indonesia was 38.1% while that of Malaysia and Philippines were 74.1% and 62.9%, respectively, in the same year.

Overall, the sub-region has generally made progress in Goal 2. However, there are still indicators that show slow progress. For example, Indonesia and the Philippines continued to have NIR below 50%, indicating that more than half of the children do not enter primary education on time. The Philippines recorded declines in GIR and GER in primary education.

Expansion of opportunities for life skills development has improved the already high level of youth literacy in the sub-region. The Philippines, however, recorded a decline of 1.5 percentage points in youth literacy and six percentage points for transition rate from primary to secondary education levels. Similarly, adult literacy rate has improved for Indonesia and Malaysia, but declined for the Philippines.

Trends for Goal 5 show mixed patterns based on GPI computed for various EFA indicators. There are indicators that favour girls, particularly for Goal 1. Indonesia has significantly improved girls' performance in education outcome indicators, achieving parity in most indicators. Malaysia has generally managed to sustain a balanced improvement between the sexes. However, in secondary education, there is a growing trend of deterioration in boys' performance in GER. The Philippines, on the other hand, showed a widening gap in performance between the sexes that favours girls. Females dominate the teaching force in primary and secondary education, though on a lesser proportion at the secondary level.

For Goal 6, the proportion of pupils per number of teachers and classes improved across the sub-region. The total expenditure in education as a proportion of GDP decreased for Indonesia and the Philippines, while Malaysia has managed a marginal increase. Survival rate to Grade 5 has declined for Indonesia and the Philippines.

Table 23: Progress in Selected Core EFA MDA Indicators, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Goal	Indicators	Insular South-East Asia Countries					
		Indonesia		Malaysia		Philippines	
		2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005
Goal 1	GER in ECCE	24.6**	33.4	§	§	30.2**	40.0
	New Entrants to Primary Education with ECCE Experience	…	38.1**	…	74.1^{-1}	…	62.9
Goal 2	GIR - Primary	111.3**	118.3**	100.1	101.2^{-1}	128.6^{+1}	132.3
	NIR - Primary	40.8**	40.8**	…	…	46.7**,$^{+1}$	48.6**
	GER - Primary	109.3**	114.8	97.0	99.5^{-1}	111.9^{+1}	111.2
	NER - Primary	92.6**	94.5**	96.8	99.2^{-1}	92.2^{+1}	92.9
	GER - Secondary	54.5**	62.2	‡	‡	77.0^{+1}	84.8
	NER - Secondary	48.2**	57.4**	‡	‡	52.4^{+1}	60.2
Goal 3	Youth Literacy Rate	96.2 (1990)	98.7 (2004)	95.6 (1991)	98.3** (2007)	96.6 (1990)	95.1(2003)
	Enrolment in TVET in Secondary Level	14.4**	13.5	6.0	5.7^{-1}	.	.
	Transition Rate (Primary to Secondary)	78.0**,$^{+1}$	78.5**,$^{-1}$	99.0	99.6**,$^{-1}$	97.8^{+1}	91.8^{-1}
Goal 4	Adult Literacy Rate	81.5 (1990)	90.4 (2004)	82.9 (1991)	91.9** (2007)	93.6 (1990)	92.6 (2003)
Goal 5	GPI - Youth Literacy Rate	0.98 (1990)	1.00 (2004)	0.99 (1991)	1.00** (2007)	1.01 (1990)	1.03 (2003)
	GPI - Adult Literacy Rate	0.86 (1990)	0.92 (2004)	0.87 (1991)	0.95 (2007)	0.99 (1990)	1.02 (2003)
	GPI for GER - Pre-Primary	1.04**	1.03**	1.04^{+1}	1.10	1.05**	1.04
	GPI for % of New Entrants to Primary Education with ECCE Experience	0.97**	1.03**	1.06^{+2}	1.10^{-1}	1.03^{+2}	1.01
	GPI for GIR - Primary	0.93**	0.97**	1.01	0.99^{-1}	0.94^{+1}	0.94
	GPI for NIR - Primary	0.95**	0.97**	…	…	1.06^{+1}	1.13**
	GPI for GER - Primary	0.97**	0.97	1.00	1.00^{-1}	1.00^{+1}	0.99
	GPI for NER - Primary	0.97**	0.97**	1.00	1.00^{-1}	1.01^{+1}	1.02
	GPI for GER - Secondary	0.95**	0.99**	§	§	1.10^{+1}	1.12
	GPI for NER - Secondary	0.95**	0.99**	§	§	1.18^{+1}	1.20
	GPI - Survival Rate to Grade 5	1.10**	0.94^{-1}	1.00^{+1}	1.01^{-2}	1.10^{+1}	1.13^{-1}
	% Female Enrolment in Primary	48.3**	48.3**	48.7	48.6^{-1}	48.9^{+1}	48.6
	% Female Enrolment in Secondary	48.1**	49.0**	51.2	51.9^{-1}	51.3^{+1}	51.7
	% Female Enrolment in TVET	42.7**	42.4	41.2	41.9^{-1}	…	…
	% of Female Teachers in Primary	53.7**	61.0**	66.2**	66.9^{-1}	87.3^{+1}	87.3
	% of Female Teachers in Secondary	41.6**	43.5**	62.0**	63.6**,$^{-1}$	76.4^{+1}	76.4
	% of Female Teachers in TVET	32.4	39.2	…	…	†	†
Goal 6	PTR for Primary	22.4**	20.4	19.6	17.5^{-1}	35.2^{+1}	35.1
	PTR for Lower Secondary	17.2**	12.9	18.4**	17.2**,$^{-1}$	43.4^{+1}	42.0
	PTR for Upper Secondary	13.8**	10.5	18.4**	17.6**,$^{-1}$	22.4^{+1}	28.3
	Education Expenditure - % of Total Government Expenditure	9.80^{+1}	9.03**,$^{-3}$	26.65	25.21^{-1}	13.95	16.35^{-1}
	Public Expenditure on Education as a % of GDP	1.36	0.96^{-2}	6.20	6.24^{-1}	3.49	2.71^{-1}
	Survival Rate to Grade 5	96.6**	89.5**$^{-1}$	87.1^{+1}	…	79.3^{+1}	74.9^{-1}

Source: UISDC, February 2008.

Notes: "**" indicates UIS estimation. "+n" indicates data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods after the reference year or period. "-n" indicates data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods before the reference year or period. "…" indicates data not available. "†" indicates data included under another category. "." indicates not applicable. "‡" indicates that differences in UIS' and Malaysia's calculation of this indicator has led to significant data discrepancies, hence this indicator cannot be published. The UIS calculations are based on classifying national educational programmes according to ISCED to ensure cross-national comparability. The definition of ISCED 3 (secondary education) would include lower and upper secondary, and pre-university in the Malaysian context, whereas the national calculation covers only lower and upper secondary. "§" indicates that due to differences in enrolment and population data used by the Ministry of Education and the UIS, this indicator cannot be published for Malaysia.

PART III:
PROGRESS IN ACHIEVING THE EFA GOALS IN THE INSULAR SOUTH-EAST ASIA SUB-REGION

Part III summarizes the progress achieved by the participating countries for the six EFA goals. The information and data used in this section are derived from the National MDA Reports, the MDA Summary Questionnaires and additional dataset provided by the participating countries, unless specified otherwise. Discussions per country reiterate the related policies, focus on the overall progress achieved using the selected EFA MDA indicators, emphasize best practices in addressing the issues, highlight key strategies and programmes for the unreached and disadvantaged, and summarize remaining challenges and issues for each goal. This part also includes analysis of disparities between urban and rural areas, geographical/spatial (by province for Indonesia, state for Malaysia and region for the Philippines), per income quintile and by target groups (e.g., ethnic groups, children with disabilities, etc.), among others.

15. Indonesia

Indonesia comprises 33 provinces. In the island of Sumatra or Sumatera are Aceh (1), Riau (2), Lampung (3), Sumatera Utara (4), Sumatera Barat (5), Sumatera Selatan (6), Jambi (7), and Bengkulu (8). In Java or Jawa are Jawa Barat (9), Jawa Tengah (10), Jawa Timur (11), Banten (12), Yogyakarta (13) and Jakarta (14). In the island of Kalimantan are the provinces of Kalimantan Barat (15), Kalimantan Timur (16), Kalimantan Tengah (17) and Kalimantan Selatan (18). Sulawesi island is home to Sulawesi Barat (Sulbar) (19), Sulawesi Utara (20), Sulawesi Tengah (21), Sulawesi Selatan (22), Sulawesi Tenggara (23) and Gorontalo (24). In the island of Papua are the provinces of Irian Jaya Barat (25) and Papua (26). The smaller island provinces are Nusa Tenggara Barat (27), Nusa Tenggara Timur (28), Banka-Belitung (Babel) (29), Kepulauan Riau (Kepri) (30), Maluku (31), Maluku (32) and Bali (33).

Map 2: Indonesia

Source: Culture Unit, UNESCO Bangkok 2008.

Indonesia has a total population of 213 million people, composed of more than 300 distinct ethnic groups speaking about 583 local languages and dialects. According to UNESCAP (2006), 48.1% of the country's population live in urban areas in 2005 (42% in 2000). But as diverse as its geographical features, population distribution varies greatly across the provinces. For example, Java and Bali islands are home to 60% of the total population despite occupying only 7% of the country's total land area while the Mollucas and Papua are home to 21% while occupying 69% of the country's land area. This diversity presents a great challenge for the Indonesian government in managing and delivering basic education services across the country.

As a large and diverse nation, Indonesia's education reform planning seeks to respond to its unique geographical and population distribution patterns. In particular, the government seeks to implement cost-effective and efficient means of providing high quality education across the country. With still a relatively high poverty rate, the Indonesian government is also determined to balance economic and social development. Education is at the forefront of national strategies in poverty reduction. By providing quality basic education as a foundation of expanded post-basic education opportunities, Indonesia is poised to create a well-trained and motivated workforce that would ensure the country's competitiveness in the regional and international economies.

Since the Dakar Conference, Indonesia has carried out crucial policy reforms and formulated strategies to achieve its education goals. Among these are the National EFA Action Plan to expand access to high quality basic education, the National Education Law 20 of 2003, the Local Government Law 32 of 2004 to help introduce decentralization of education service management, and the MONE's Medium-Term Strategic Plan (Rencana Strategis Departemen Pendidikan Nasional or RENSTRA) 2005-2009. These policies and plans define the parameters for expanding education opportunities, setting standards and improving education service governance and accountability. In addition, Indonesia implemented the Nine-Year Basic Education Programme of 1994 mandating compulsory basic education (primary and junior secondary) among 7-15 year olds. The government then issued Presidential Instruction No. 5/2006 on the National Movement to Hasten Compulsory Nine-Year Basic Education Accomplishment and the Fight against Illiteracy. This National Movement targets to reduce illiteracy rate from 10.2% in 2003 to 5% in 2009 among those aged 15 years and above.

Based on the above polices and plans, Indonesia's education development agenda are harmonized through three main strategic pillars: (a) ensuring expanded access and equity; (b) improving quality and relevance; and (c) strengthening governance, accountability and public image. Concomitantly, these allowed the government to craft programmes and projects with greater emphasis on organizational and financing reforms to set a more enabling environment in the achievement of EFA goals.

Integral to Indonesia's commitment is the establishment of the EFA Coordination Forum or the Forum Koordinasi Nasional-Pendidikan Untuk Semua (Forkonaspus) in 2002. The forum is composed of high-level representations from various Ministries and selected non-government organizations and other key stakeholders and chaired by the Deputy Minister for Peoples Welfare. This structure is replicated at the provincial and district levels with generally the same representations appointed. The resulting network is crucial in ensuring accurate and timely information flow for planning and monitoring purposes including activities such as the EFA Mid-Decade Assessment. A ministerial-level advisory board for EFA was also put in place composed of Ministries of Peoples Welfare, National Education, Religious Affairs, Home Affairs, Finance, Social Affairs, Health, Planning and Women's Empowerment.

The Forum is supported by the EFA Secretariat established within the Directorate General of the Out-of-School Education under MONE. Under this Secretariat, six inter-ministerial working groups corresponding to the six EFA Goals were established to initially prepare EFA action plans for each of the six main goals.
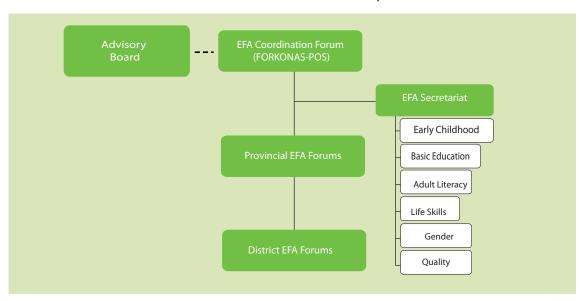
Chart 4: EFA Coordination Mechanism, Indonesia

Source: Indonesia EFA MDA Report 2007.

The following are the goal by goal highlights of Indonesia's key polices, strategies and programmes pertinent to EFA, accomplishment and progress, as well as the remaining challenges and issues the country faces halfway towards 2015.

15.1 Goal One: Early Childhood Care and Education in Indonesia

15.1.1. Background and Development of ECCE in Indonesia

a. Definition of ECCE

Indonesia defines ECCE as the developed systematic effort targeting children 0-6 years old through care and education stimuli to facilitate physical and mental growth in preparation for further education. This definition of ECCE and its modes of provision are enunciated in Part 7/Article 28 of Law 20/2003. The country aims to achieve 75% ECCE service coverage of children aged 0-6 years by 2015.

b. Key Strategies and Programmes

The government of Indonesia seeks to achieve its EFA Goal 1 targets by expanding ECCE services through integrative approach and by improving good governance and accountability. Key strategies to reach the disadvantaged and marginalized include the involvement of the community in the provision of ECCE services and strengthening of public awareness on its importance through social marketing.

ECCE services in Indonesia are dominated by the private sector and are often costly. As of 2005, 98.6% of children availing ECCE services are in the private centres. To expand access for the poor, care and education services for young children are implemented through the integration of ECCE with health services and religious centres, as well as organization of parents with 0-6 years old children into strategic groupings.

Services related to ECCE are organized and delivered through formal, non-formal, and/or informal channels (including family education or education in the surroundings). The informal ECCE usually complements both the formal and the non-formal modalities. Table 24 describes the various ECCE programmes in Indonesia.

Table 24: ECCE Services and Programmes in Indonesia

Formal	
Kindergarten or TK (Taman Kanak-kanak)	• helps establish the foundation for the development of attitude, behavior, knowledge, skills and creativity of children for further development and growth, as well as in preparation for primary education • priority targets are 4-6 year-old children grouped into two: Group A for 4-5 year olds; and Group B for 5-6 years olds • supervised by MONE and professional associations such as the Association of Kindergarten Organizer • currently, 99.4% of kindergarten classes are organized by the private sector and only 0.6% by the government
Raudahatul Athfal (RA)	• objective is the same with kindergarten, but RA gives more attention to religion • Islam is the center of overall teaching and learning process • target age group is the same with kindergarten • supervised by the MORA
Non-Formal	
Playgroup (Kelompok Bermain)	• develops the children's potential to the optimum through playing while learning and learning while playing activities • targets are 3-6 year old children grouped into three: (a) 3-4; (b) 4-5; and (c) 5-6 years • has two categories of learning activities according to objective: (1) to instill basic values such as religiousness and good conduct; and (2) to develop language skills, refine motor skills, develop socialization skills and creativity, among others • generally organized by NGOs with only a few organized by the government • supervised by MONE (education development aspects) and the Ministry of Social Affairs (development of welfare aspects)
Children Day Care Centres (Taman Penitipan Anak)	• a social welfare programme which serves as a substitute family for children whose parents need to be away from home for the day, usually to work • caters to children aged 3 months up to 6 years, but sometimes extends to 7-8 years • children stay for 8-10 hours a day and 5-6 days a week • activities include socialization and pre-school education, as well as health services • parents are also given counseling on the importance of care and development for children and the importance of education, among others • generally organized by an institution or an NGO with only a small number organized by the government • supervised by MONE (education aspects) and the Ministry of Social Affairs (welfare aspects)

Informal	
Infants' Family Development (Bina Keluarga Balita)	• provides the needed knowledge and skills to parents and other family members in promoting optimal infant growth and in monitoring child development • targets are families with children 0-6 years old • parents are organized into groups managed by cadres • parents with children 5-6 years old are given counseling through the "Infants' Family Development Programmes for Schooling Readiness" • Ministry of Women Empowerment is responsible for the BKB programmes while the National Coordinating Body for Family Planning is responsible for operational aspects
POSPAUD (Integrated Services for Health and Education)	• a community welfare facility for mothers and children that also functions as health and nutrition service centre supervised by medical personnel • aims to improve the health and nutrition of children under 5 years old • priority target groups are expecting mothers and children aged 0-5 years old • BKB cadre is usually also the cadre for Integrated Posyandu and PAUD (integrated services for health and ECE) • supervised by the Department of Home Affairs and Department of Health in cooperation with the Family Empowerment and Welfare Motivational Team at different levels, and Ministry of National Education (national to local)

Source: Indonesia EFA MDA Report 2007.

15.1.2 Progress Achieved in ECCE and Best Practices

Indonesia's convergent and integrated approach in delivering ECCE services brought about substantial improvement in GER for ECCE. From 2000 to 2006, GER for ECCE increased from 12.6% to 47% at an average of almost 6 percentage points per year. The figure below also shows that dramatic improvement occurred during the period 2005 to 2006. This is due to MORA's adoption of the ECCE concept in their programmes. Children attending MORA's programmes with ECCE were accounted for starting 2006. If this rate of improvement will be sustained, Indonesia will reach its national 2015 target of 75% ECCE coverage for 0-6 year olds by 2011.

Figure 8: Gross Enrolment Rate for ECCE, 2000-2006, Indonesia

Sources: Statistics of Kindergarten, MONE and Indonesia EFA MDA Report 2007.

Although an impressive improvement from the 2000 figure of 17.7%, the percentage of Grade 1 entrants with ECCE experience is still less than half at 37.7% in 2006 (Figure 9). This low percentage may be explained by many families' choice to bypass the costly and predominantly private ECCE and enroll their children straight in Grade 1. In 2004, 2.7 million or 60% of the 4.5 million enrolled in Grade 1 were aged 5-6 years, the stage when these children should still be in pre-school. It is, however, expected that the proportion of Grade 1 with ECCE experience will continue to increase as Indonesia pursues expansion of provision and improvement of services related to ECCE. For example, integrative ECCE services within the community include child immunization and provision of micro-nutrient supplements, as safe water and sanitation well campaign. Financial assistance to mitigate high cost of ECCE services are also made available to the poorest families. There is also an indication that families are increasingly availing of the more accessible, flexible and less expensive non-formal and informal ECCE services.

Figure 9: Percentage of Grade 1 Students with ECCE Experience, MONE Schools only, 2000 and 2006, Indonesia

Sources: MONE and Indonesia EFA MDA Report 2007.

15.1.3 Disparities/Variations in Performance

Disparities in ECCE provision across the country were noted in 2006. For example, net enrolment for 3-6 year olds in urban areas was 25.4% while that of rural areas was 15.4%. Net enrolment by the richest and poorest quintiles also registered significant disparities at 24.8% and 15.8%, respectively.

Significant variations likewise exist across the provinces. The figure below showed that in 2005 the province of Yogyakarta had the highest ECCE GER of 60.3% while the provinces of Sumatera Utara, Kalimantan Barat and Banten have the lowest at 7.2%. Two other provinces, Jawa Barat and Sumatera Selatan, also registered net enrolment rates net enrolment of 8.1% and 7.4%, respectively. An even wider gap is noted with respect to the proportion of Grade 1 with ECCE experience with Yogyakarta still posting the highest percentage at 91.1% and Papua, the lowest at 7.3% (Figure 10).

Figure 10: ECCE GER and Percentage of Grade 1 Students with ECCE Experience, by Province, Lowest to Highest, 2005, Indonesia

ECCE GER		Percentage of Grade 1 Students with ECCE Experience	
Banten	7.2	Papua	7.3
Kalimantan Barat	7.2	Maluku Utara	12.9
Sumatera Utara	7.2	Nusa Tenggara Timur	17.1
Sumatera Selatan	7.4	Kalimantan Barat	18.2
Jawa Barat	8.1	Sulbar	18.9
Riau	11.7	Sumatera Selatan	20.3
Bengkulu	11.9	Sumatera Utara	22.4
Maluku	12.3	Babel	22.8
Nusa Tenggara Timur	13.1	Nusa Tenggara Barat	23.3
DI Aceh	14.2	Sulawesi Tenggara	24.9
Maluku Utara	14.3	DI Aceh	25.2
Papua	15.0	Banten	26.3
Nusa Tenggara Barat	15.2	Maluku	26.3
Jambi	15.6	Irian Jaya Barat	27.5
Kalimantan Tengah	16.8	Jambi	28.0
Lampung	17.0	Bengkulu	31.3
Sulawesi Selatan	19.2	Sulawesi Selatan	32.5
Sulawesi Tenggara	19.5	Jawa Barat	33.7
Sulawesi Tengah	20.1	Kalimantan Tengah	37.2
Sumatera Barat	20.2	Lampung	38.2
Babel	20.4	Riau	39.7
Irian Jaya Barat	23.6	Sumatera Barat	41.0
DKI Jakarta	24.1	Sulawesi Tengah	41.7
Sulbar	24.7	Kepri	45.1
Kalimantan Timur	25.2	Kalimantan Timur	46.1
Sulawesi Utara	27.8	Kalimantan Selatan	51.1
Bali	29.2	Gorontalo	51.7
Jawa Tengah	31.7	Sulawesi Utara	53.9
Gorontalo	34.9	Bali	62.7
Kalimantan Selatan	36.3	Jawa Tengah	65.8
Kepri	44.4	DKI Jakarta	71.9
Jawa Timur	55.2	Jawa Timur	72.2
DI Yogyakarta	60.3	DI Yogyakarta	91.1

Percent / Percent

Source: Statistics of Kindergarten, MONE.

These disparities are attributable to the following: (a) lack of awareness and appreciation among parents of the importance of ECCE as a foundation for lifelong learning; (b) unavailability/ inadequacy of services and facilities in remote and even in densely populated areas; (c) limited number of centres and qualified teachers who can be deployed to ECCE centres, especially in remote areas in largely rural provinces; and (d) socio-economic barriers which prevent poor families from availing ECCE services since the majority of ECCE service providers come from the private sector. Gaps of 53 percentage points for ECCE GER and almost 84 for the percentage of Grade 1 students with ECCE experience suggest that efforts need to be intensified to address these issues and help even out inequalities across the country with respect to EFA Goal 1.

15.1.4 Remaining Challenges and Issues

Among the challenges that confront Indonesia in relation to ECCE is measuring the sustainability of ECCE models such as playgroups. This challenge is expected to be addressed by an ongoing study by UNICEF and the National Planning Department which aims to formulate a clearer definition of ECCE, conduct mapping of ECCE institutions and programmes, and create standards and guidelines, among others. Another challenge is developing a clear ECCE teacher career path and certification

system, as well as improving the quality of the entire ECCE teaching force. National figures reflect that only around 28% of ECCE teachers have graduate qualification and less than 50% have ECCE professional training. Stimulating demand for families to use ECCE centres is another challenge that is closely related to the enforcement of the official primary school entry age of seven years old. Children often skip costly ECCE and enter Grade 1 at an earlier age. To address this problem, Indonesia needs to continue and intensify programmes that alleviate cost barriers in accessing ECCE.

Indonesia is also confronted with a high percentage of under-five children suffering from stunting. The figure was 20.9% in 2000 and rose to 28.2% in 2003 (Figure 11). A minimal decrease was achieved in 2005. Stunting is largely caused by malnutrition which in turn can significantly affect attendance and performance in pre-primary education.

Figure 11: Children Under Five Suffering from Stunting (%), 2000-2005, Indonesia

Sources: Badan Pusak Statistik (BPS) or Board of Central Statistics in the National Level and Indonesia EFA MDA Report 2007.

Another challenge that Indonesia faces is the low participation of children with special needs or with disabilities in ECCE at 2% GER in 2005, according to the Statistics of Kindergarten, of the MONE (Table 25). The table also shows that boys with special needs have a higher participation rate than girls.

Table 25: GER in ECCE for Children with Special Needs, 2005, Indonesia

Special Needs/Disabilities	Male	Female	National
Blind	1.5	1.2	1.3
Deaf	2.2	1.7	1.9
Mentally Retarded	2.8	2.3	2.6
Physically Handicapped	0.7	0.8	0.7
Mal-Adjustment	0.4	0.4	0.4
Multiple Handicapped	0.3	0.3	0.3
Autism	1.5	1.7	1.6
Mix of Handicaps	2.3	1.8	2.0
Total	2.2	1.7	2.0

Source: Statistics of Kindergarten, MONE.

It is, however, noteworthy that the proportion of children with disabilities who enter primary education with ECCE experience is higher than the national average at 42.6% in 2005. This implies that children belonging to this group who availed of ECCE services are likely to proceed to primary education.

15.2 Goal Two: Universal Primary/Basic Education in Indonesia

15.2.1 Background and Development of Universal Primary/Basic Education in Indonesia

a. Definition of UPE/UBE

Indonesia's compulsory education was previously limited to six years primary education. It was extended to include three-year junior secondary education starting in 1994 through the Nine-Year Compulsory Education Programme for children aged 7-15 years.

b. National Policy and Legislation for UPE/UBE: Provision and Coordination

The Nine-Year Compulsory Education Programme was reinforced by Law 20/2003 (Article 6) which provides that every citizen 7 to 15 years shall have the right to receive basic education. Article 34 of the same law also stipulates the official entry age to compulsory education of seven years and that all children should start primary education upon reaching this age. The Law also provides that compulsory education is the responsibility of the state and that the national and local governments guarantee the operations of the compulsory basic education and that its minimum costs shall be borne by the government. In 2006, the government launched the National Movement to Hasten Compulsory Nine Years Basic Education Accomplishment and the Fight Against Illiteracy (Presidential Instruction No. 5/2006). The national target for Compulsory Nine Years Basic Education GER is 98% by 2009.

c. Key Strategies and Programmes

Through the RENSTRA and its National EFA Action Plan, several strategies have been implemented by the Indonesian government to deliver basic education services to disadvantaged children. One of these is to ensure access of the children to education and increase their transition rate through the integrated primary and junior secondary under the 'one roof' school programme, especially for those residing in remote areas. Another is the provision of non-formal basic education services. Distance learning and home schooling are provided for those who cannot participate in regular schooling. Another strategy is to improve the quality and relevance of basic education to strengthen its holding power and increase the students' survival rate. Finally, improving accountability and governance as well as resources management is expected to make the education system more efficient and effective.

15.2.2 Progress Achieved and Best Practices

Overall, Indonesia exhibited progress with respect to Goal 2. While primary NIR declined from 58% to 51% from 2000 to 2006, a rise in GIR was recorded from 120% in 2000 to 135% over the same period (Figure 12). The wider gap between GIR and NIR can be dovetailed to the costly private sector-dominated ECCE services that have forced many parents to enroll their children straight in Grade 1 at the age of 5 or 6 years. Consequently, the 7 year-old cohort yields low intake rate because most of them may already be in Grade 2 or Grade 3. Such practice appears to be increasing over the period 2000-2006. The most likely repercussion of this practice is poor preparedness of pupils for primary education that can result in low achievement and increased drop-out incidents in the early grades.

Figure 12: Gross and Net Intake Rates, Primary Education, 2000-2006, Indonesia

Sources: MONE; MORA; and Indonesia EFA MDA Report 2007.

Indonesia's GER and NER for primary education improved from 111% to 114% and from 93% to 94.5%, respectively, over the period 2000-2006. Although both GER and NER have shown improvement, the gap between the two indicators slightly widened from 18 to 19 percentage points. Consistent with issues discussed above, a higher GER implies an increased number of pupils entering primary education before or beyond the official entry age.

Of the total enrolment in primary education in 2006, 93% are in public schools while 7% are enrolled in private schools. It is also estimated that around 2% of the total primary enrolment are served through non-formal education programmes. Furthermore, around 87% of the pupils are in schools under the jurisdiction of the MONE while 13% are under the supervision of the MORA.
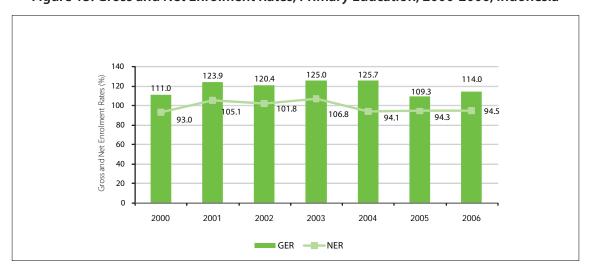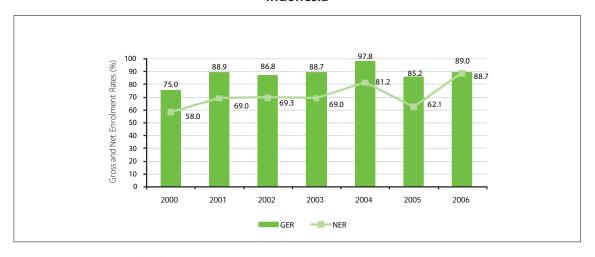
Figure 13: Gross and Net Enrolment Rates, Primary Education, 2000-2006, Indonesia

Sources: MONE; MORA; and Indonesia EFA MDA Report 2007.

GER and NER for junior secondary level also increased from 75% to 89% and from 58% to 88.7%, respectively. The gap between GER and NER in junior secondary level has grown wider from 17 to 22.5 percentage points. This wide gap is still an offshoot of underage entry in primary education. Unless compliance with the primary education official entry age (7 years old) is improved, the disparity between GER and NER will remain.
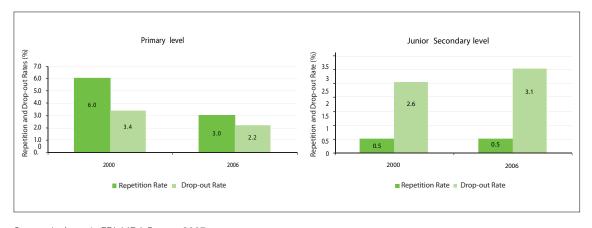
Figure 14: Gross and Net Enrolment Rates, Junior Secondary Education, 2000-2006, Indonesia

Sources: MONE; MORA; and Indonesia EFA MDA Report 2007.

Another significant achievement by Indonesia is the reduction of percentage of repeaters in primary education from 6% to 3%. The drop-out rate has also fallen from 3.4% to 2.2% over the same period. On the other hand, repetition at the junior secondary level remained at 0.5% while drop-out rate worsened from 2.6% to 3.1%. A possible explanation of the higher drop-out rate is the implementation of the National Examination by National Board of Educational Standard (Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan or BSNP) since 2004. In particular, junior and senior secondary students have to pass an average minimum score of 5.25 across the three main subjects (Bahasa Indonesia, English and Mathematics) without getting a score lower than 4.25 in any subject. These passing rates determine graduation for the students. Those junior secondary students who cannot achieve the passing rates usually opt to drop out of schools.

Figure 15: Primary and Junior Secondary Repetition and Drop-out Rates, 2000 and 2006, Indonesia

Source: Indonesia EFA MDA Report 2007.

The RENSTRA aims to achieve 98% NER in primary and 98% GER in junior secondary by 2009. The country aims to achieve universal primary education (100% NER) by 2015 and 100% GER for junior secondary by 2015. Given the rate of growth, Indonesia will come close to its targets for 2009. With intensified and more aggressive efforts towards achieving UPE, relevant to Goal 2, Indonesia has a high probability of achieving its target by 2015.

Indonesia attributes its relative success with respect to access and equity to several programmes.

Among these is the successful provision of the schools operational fund (BOS) in addressing socioeconomic barriers. The BOS is an annual school grant computed on per student basis that aims to eventually abolish the fees required from students. Another programme is the expansion of school infrastructure through the rehabilitation of schools and the community-based school building programme. Expansion of innovative non-formal approaches such as alternative education including home schooling and distance learning also contribute to improvement of NER, as well as the strengthening of the school management system and coordination of planning among the central, provincial and district planning systems.

The non-formal education programme of Indonesia also seeks to expand access to basic education. It serves as an alternative for children unable to attend or continue formal schooling. From 2002 to 2006, dramatic increase in enrolment for both Packet A (primary) and Packet B (junior secondary) was registered from 6,000 to 46,000 and from 35,000 to 390,000, respectively. Most of these students are drop-outs who intend to go back to mainstream education through the equivalency programme.

15.2.3 Disparities/Variations in Performance

In 2000, urban NER for formal primary education stood at 92.5% which was slightly higher than that of rural NER at 92.1%.However, by 2006, rural NER at 93.9% became slightly higher than urban NER of 93.1%. The faster improvement of rural primary NER may be partly attributed to a rise in migration from rural to urban areas and the increasing number of urban poor. At the junior secondary level, urban NER has remained higher than that of rural NER. From 70.5% in 2000, urban NER rose to 73.6% in 2006.

Nevertheless, the rural NER recorded a more significant improvement from 53.3% to 61.8% during the same period. The Indonesian government seeks to address this rural-urban disparities through more flexible approaches in delivering formal education and through expansion of non-formal education services.
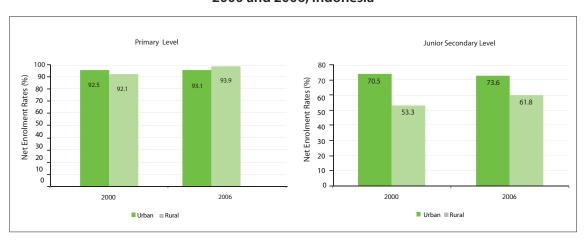
Figure 16: Net Enrolment Rate, Urban-Rural, Primary and Junior Secondary, 2000 and 2006, Indonesia

Source: Indonesia EFA MDA Report 2007.

National averages show improvements in access to formal primary and secondary levels.[13] However, significant variations across the provinces continued to exist. In 2005, Sumatera Barat (61.9%) and Papua (60.9%) registered the highest primary NIR while DKI Jakarta (22.7%) and Sulawesi Utara (22.6%) recorded the lowest. With respect to GIR, Maluku (188.9%) and Jambi (181%) registered the highest GIR and Kepri (109.2%) and Sumatera Selatan (105.4%) posted the lowest.

....

[13] Children engaged in non-formal primary and junior secondary would constitute an additional 2% in net enrolment.

Figure 17: Gross and Net Intake Rates, Primary Education, by Province, 2005, Indonesia

Gross Intake Rate	
Sumatera Selatan	105.4
Kepri	109.2
Riau	110.2
Banten	111.5
Sulawesi Tenggara	115.9
Sumatera Utara	117.0
Kalimantan Tengah	117.8
DKI Jakarta	118.4
Jawa Barat	119.8
Nusa Tenggara Barat	119.8
Kalimantan Barat	121.6
Sulawesi Tengah	123.8
Sulawesi Utara	124.7
Nusa Tengara Timur	127.2
Babel	128.3
Bengkulu	128.6
Kalimantan Timur	129.4
Papua	130.0
DI Yogyakarta	130.5
Bali	131.5
Irian Jaya Barat	131.7
Lampung	131.7
Jawa Tengah	132.4
Sulawesi Selatan	134.3
Sumatera Barat	136.9
Sulbar	137.1
Kalimantan Selatan	139.0
Jawa Timur	146.1
DI Aceh	147.6
Maluku Utara	166.8
Gorontalo	170.6
Jambi	181.0
Maluku	188.9

Net Intake Rate	
Sulawesi Utara	22.6
DKI Jakarta	22.7
Sumatera Selatan	27.2
Kalimantan Timur	28.3
Sumatera Utara	30.2
Kalimantan Tengah	30.4
Babel	30.6
Kepri	30.7
Jawa Tengah	31.3
Sulawesi Tengah	33.5
Sulawesi Tenggara	33.6
Sulawesi Selatan	34.3
Kalimantan Selatan	35.6
Kalimantan Barat	36.2
Bali	37.3
Maluku	38.2
Riau	39.8
DI Yogyakarta	40.3
Banten	41.4
Jambi	42.3
Jawa Barat	43.1
Irian Jaya Barat	43.6
DI Aceh	44.7
Lampung	45.0
Nusa Tenggara Barat	45.8
Jawa Timur	45.9
Bengkulu	45.9
Nusa Tenggara Timur	53.4
Maluku Utara	53.9
Sulbar	54.4
Gorontalo	55.6
Papua	60.9
Sumatera Barat	61.9

Sources: MONE and MORA.

Note: For NIR, MONE Schools only (87% of total enrolment in Grade 1).

Similarly, provincial performance showed significant variations in GER and NER in both primary and secondary levels in 2005 (Figure 18). Both indicators registered around 30 percentage points gap between the highest and lowest performing province at the primary education level. The figure shows that the highest provincial GER is 115.2% (Kalimantan Timur) and the lowest is 83.6% (Papua). For NER, the highest is 98.3% (Lampung) and the lowest is 70.1% (Papua). On the other hand, the gap between the highest and lowest performing provinces is wider at the junior secondary level in both indicators (around 45 percentage points). The highest GER is 105.8% (DI Yogyakarta) and the lowest is 59.1% Nusa Tenggara Timur). The highest provincial NER is 78.3% (Nusa Tenggara Barat) and the lowest is 32.9% (Maluku Utara).

Figure 18: Gross and Net Enrolment Rates, Primary and Junior Secondary Education, Highest to Lowest, by Province, 2005, Indonesia

Sources: MONE and MORA.

15.2.4 Remaining Challenges and Issues

A major challenge in Indonesia is still the big number of children dropping out and staying out of schools. According to the Directorate of Out-of-School Education of MONE, children aged 7-12 years who dropped out of school and not attending schools at all were estimated to be at 203,599 and 360,692, respectively, as of 2006. Among the 13-15 year-olds, a higher drop out rate of 3.1% (2.6% in 2000) brought the number of junior secondary education drop outs to 737,575. There were also around 2 million 13-15 year olds not attending school. The table below shows that lack of financial capacity is still the leading reason for not attending school among children 7-18 years old.

Table 26: Reasons for Not Attending School among 7-18 Year Old Children, 2003, Indonesia

Reasons	Rural	Urban	National
Financial (Not Having Money)	71	65.1	67.7
Fearful/Do not like school	3.7	5.1	4.7
Need to Work	9.2	8.5	6.7
Married	1.8	2.9	2.6
Not Accepted in School	0.6	0.3	0.4
School Distance	0.3	3.2	2.3
Think his/her Current Education Level is Adequate	3.8	3.8	3.8
Disabled	1.3	1.1	1.2
Others	8.5	10	9.6

Source: Survei Sosial Ekonomai Nasional or Susenas (National Socio-economic Survey) 2003 in Indonesia EFA MDA Report 2007 (Table 11, page 79).

Another challenge Indonesia is facing with respect to EFA Goal 2 is the provision of basic education among the unreached, especially those in the remote areas, using alternative learning approaches and adoption of more innovative models. Indonesia's geographic characteristics increase indirect costs (e.g., transportation and food) of going to school. A related difficulty is the recruitment of enough qualified teachers to work in remote schools. Sustaining and expanding the gains in non-

formal education and increasing capability to implement alternative delivery modes for basic education and other programmes for children with special needs are also among areas that the country needs to give more attention. Likewise, Indonesia has to address quality issues alongside the increasing enrolment in public schools resulting from its compulsory basic education campaign. Finally, the rate of compliance with the primary education official entry age of seven years old must be improved. This may be done by ensuring that pre-primary-aged children have access to less expensive but good quality ECCE services that provide adequate and appropriate preparation for primary education.

15.3 Goal Three: Life Skills Development Opportunities in Indonesia

15.3.1 Background of Life Skills Development Opportunities in Indonesia

a. Definition of Life Skills

The Indonesian EFA Action Plan defines life skills as "the skills or capability that must be owned by each individual in order to be able to adapt and to act positively and, be able to face various life claims and challenges of daily life, and be able to act in its future life." Life skills include generic skills that pertain to social and personal skills, such as healthy life behaviour, cooperation skills, communication skills and critical skills, and values and attitudes such as discipline, responsibility, and respect towards other people. It also includes specific skills which may be acquired through academic and/or vocational training.

b. National Policy and Legislation for Life Skills: Provision and Coordination

Targeted life skills development programmes are usually delivered through non-formal means, especially for those who are unable to fully benefit from formal education. Law 20/2003 (Article 26) stipulates that non-formal education aims to impart knowledge and competencies, develop attitudes, professionalism, working ethics, entrepreneurship, and/or for further education. Non-formal education seeks to supplement or complement formal education as a means to deliver early childhood education, youth education, women empowerment education, literacy education, vocational training and internship, equivalency programme, and other kinds of activities aimed at developing life skills.

Vocational education and training in Indonesia are aimed at populations at the productive age of 15 years and above, especially the youth, drop-outs and the unemployed. Law 20/2003 defines vocational and technical education as a type of education alongside general education, academic education, professional education, religious education, and special education as distinguished from levels of education which are basic, secondary, and higher education (Articles 14-15).

c. Key Strategies and Programmes

To develop life skills among all Indonesian citizens, the National EFA Action Plan has the following strategies: (a) expand and equitably distribute quality education to all; (b) improve quality and relevance of life skills programmes; (c) develop efficiency of education implementation management; (d) implement efforts to hasten poverty reduction within the community through development of skills for employment; and (e) promote partnership between the education system and the community in responding to the needs in the job market.

Programmes targeted for marginalized groups such as ethnic minorities, families in remote areas, island communities, and street children in urban areas, among others, include home schooling, mobile schools and community village lifelong learning centres manned by volunteers. Indonesia has also taken steps to strengthen life skills orientation of its primary and secondary education. Environment, health (including HIV/AIDS) and civic aspects are being incorporated in the curricula. In addition, schools are strongly encouraged to integrate local components in the curriculum to

make learning relevant and responsive to local contexts.

15.3.2 Progress Achieved and Best Practices

Indonesia was able to maintain a high level of literacy among its young people aged 15-24 years. Youth literacy stood at 98.4% in 2000, improving to 98.8% in 2005.

Figure 19: Youth Literacy Rate (Age 15-24), 2000-2005, Indonesia

Source: Survei Sosial Ekonomai Nasional or Susenas (National Socio-economic Survey).

With respect to the transition rate from primary to junior secondary levels, Indonesia recorded a substantial improvement from 83% in 2000 to 91% in 2006. An even more remarkable improvement has been observed in the transition rate from junior secondary to senior secondary levels rising from 47.3% to 81% over the same period. The objectives of Indonesian secondary education is to expand knowledge, develop skills, prepare students for higher level of education or for the world of work, and enhance their professional attitude.
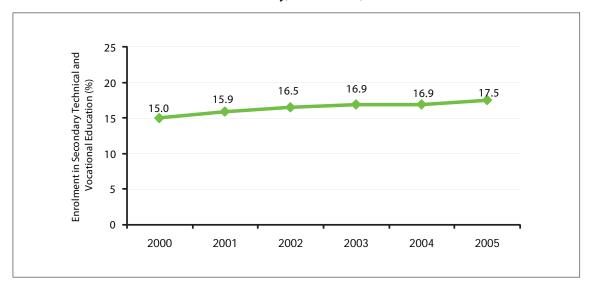
Figure 20: Transition Rate from Primary to Junior Secondary Education and from Junior Secondary to Senior Secondary, 2000-2006, Indonesia

Sources: MONE and MORA.

To ensure sustained access to life skills training, the proportion of senior secondary institutions offering technical and vocational education and training increased from 30% in 2002 to 39% in 2006. The share in enrolment of technical and vocational schools has also increased steadily from 2000 to 2005 (Figure 21). Indonesia is also currently exploring possible integration of vocational subjects into senior high school to constitute around 50% of the curriculum to equip students with useful skills since most of them do not pursue tertiary education.

Figure 21: Percentage of Enrolment in Secondary Technical and Vocational Education, MONE Schools only, 2000-2005, Indonesia

Source: MONE.

Indonesia's achievements under Goal 3 are partly attributed to the implementation of relevant life skills and entrepreneurship programmes. Most notable interventions are integration of practical life skills and livelihood components in literacy programmes, government provision of small block grants to community groups to implement life skills activities according to their needs, and provision of equivalency and accreditation systems for acquired skills.

One of the objectives of Indonesia's adoption of a nine-year compulsory education is to solve the problem of child labour which usually affects children aged 10-14 years old. The number of working children has declined from 670,000 in 2004 to 516,000 in 2005, partly due to the increasing learning opportunities provided through both formal and non-formal modalities complemented by strong advocacy and more effective information dissemination on the importance of acquiring life skills through completion of basic education. For adults, secondary vocational schools offer afternoon and evening classes.

15.3.3 Disparities/Variations in Performance

Youth literacy rate in urban areas in Indonesia has been higher than in rural areas. This is due to relatively high absenteeism and drop-out rates in rural areas. It is, however, worthy to note that significant progress in the literacy rate in rural areas have been reported mainly due to intensified expansion of access to formal and non-formal basic education and other lifelong learning opportunities. Furthermore, the gap between urban and rural youth literacy rate has also narrowed from 1.8 to 1.3 percentage points.

Figure 22: Youth Literacy Rate (Age 15-24), Urban-Rural, 2000-2005, Indonesia

Source: Survei Sosial Ekonomai Nasional or Susenas (National Socio-economic Survey).

Variation in youth literacy across the provinces also exist but to a lesser degree. The province of DI Yogyakarta has the highest at 99.8% and, out of the 33 provinces, only three are below 95%. These are Sulawesi Barat with its 94.7% youth literacy rate, Irian Jaya Barat with 94.3% and Papua which has the lowest at 79.5% (Figure 23).
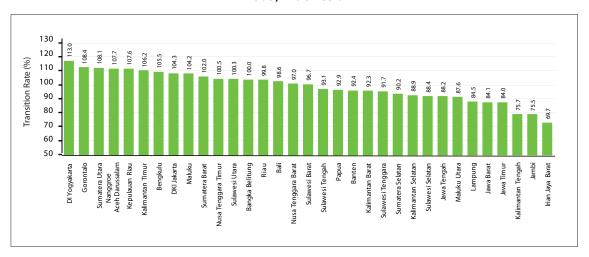
Figure 23: Youth Literacy Rate (15-24 years old), by Province, 2006, Indonesia

Source: Survei Sosial Ekonomai Nasional or Susenas (National Socio-economic Survey).

There are also significant differences in transition rates from primary to secondary level across the provinces, varying from 113% in DI Yogyakarta to 69.7% in Irian Jaya Barat in 2005. These provincial variations are attributed, in part, to the uneven distribution of lifelong learning opportunities at the provincial level, including those offered by private training institutions, formal and on-the-job training, government-provided skills training programmes, and those provided by community groups, NGOs and donor agencies.
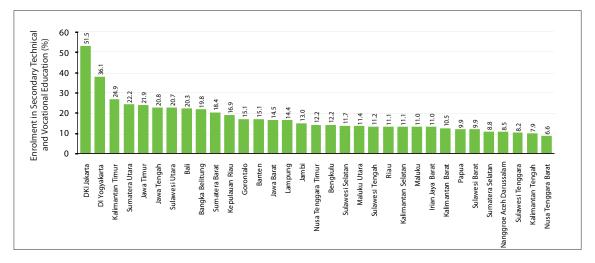
Figure 24: Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education, by Province, 2005, Indonesia

Sources: MONE and MORA.

The percentage of secondary education students enrolling in technical vocational education likewise varies across the provinces. The figure below shows that DKI Jakarta has the highest enrolment at 51.5% and Nusa Tenggara Barat, the lowest at 6.6%.

Figure 25: Percentage of Enrolment in Secondary Technical and Vocational Education, MONE Schools only, By Province, 2005, Indonesia

Source: MONE.

Other factors that affect variation in provincial performance related to Goal 3 include: (a) differences in availability of senior secondary infrastructure and teachers; (b) other access difficulties related to geography, especially significant in both remote and rural areas; (c) willingness or ability to pay school fees; and (d) variations in the perception of the value of senior secondary education against real or perceived direct or opportunity costs.

15.3.4 Remaining Challenges and Issues

To further expand and improve opportunities for life skills acquisition and lifelong learning, Indonesia needs to undertake life skills education mapping to guide strategy development and programming. This initiative can also help strengthen institutional responsiveness to the needs of

the workforce, expand and improve in-company training, and mainstream entrepreneurship skills in technical and vocational education and training. Moreover, it could also develop competency standards and recognition and certification of skills.

To aid policy development and the constructive role of government, Indonesia may undertake studies to analyze more deeply the diverse range of lifelong opportunities available across the provinces, and operational meanings of life skills and lifelong learning in relation to formal and non-formal modalities.

15.4 Goal Four: Adult Literacy and Continuing Education in Indonesia

15.4.1 Background and Development of Adult Literacy and Continuing Education in Indonesia

a. Definition of Literacy

Literacy in Indonesia is categorized into three levels of competencies: (a) Level 1 – basic reading and writing in Bahasa, and numeracy skills; (b) Functional - Level 1 plus life skills; and (c) Advanced Level – academic and professional.

b. National Policy and Legislation for Literacy: Provision and Coordination

Pursuant to the 1945 Constitution which specifies that all Indonesian citizens have the right to education, and in conjunction with its national movement to accelerate the achievement of universal nine-year compulsory basic education, Indonesia seeks to hasten eradication of illiteracy per Presidential Instruction 5/2006. Literacy programmes are provided through non-formal means for those who are unable to participate in formal education (Article 26 of Law 20/2003) Indonesia targets to reduce the percentage of the country's illiterates belonging to the 15 year-old and above age group to 5% by 2009, from the 9.6% illiteracy rate recorded in 2005.

c. Key Strategies and Programmes

To improve the literacy status of disadvantaged groups, Indonesia seeks to: (a) disseminate information widely among various stakeholders about the availability and quality of available literacy services; (b) integrate into literacy programmes other meaningful components such as income generation, family planning, health, forming cooperatives, gender, and legal guidance; (c) provide grants to community learning centres to undertake programmes for adult literacy along other life skills programmes; (d) increase the number of community reading and resource centres in identified locations; and (e) strengthen cooperation and partnership among religious institutions, local governments, community and other institutions such as NGOs, in implementing and monitoring literacy programmes.

Among the specific programmes initiated by Indonesia to improve adult literacy are:

- *Special Literacy Programmes for Older Adults.* Literacy services for elderly adults need to be relevant to their learning needs and interests. For example, the learning process is phased by first teaching how to write using local language as medium of instruction. The Indonesian language is then introduced in functional education. Support programmes are also put in place to sustain the literacy skills gained so that relapsing to illiteracy is prevented. An example of this support initiative is the Business Learning Groups, and Community Reading Centres (CRC);

- *Expanding Literacy Socialization Programmes.* Social marketing on the importance of literacy skills needs to be aggressively conducted among all community groups and education providers. Activities undertaken include forging collaboration across various sectors, including the community, civil society groups, universities and international institutions;

- *Strengthening Monitoring and Evaluation Systems.* Restructuring the Management Information System was crucial to the success of Indonesian literacy programmes. Activities included mapping of literacy programmes and illiterate population, and collection of data on literacy education service providers. The MONE has collaborated with the National Bureau of Statistics (BPS) in the design and use of literacy survey data to aid targeting, investment programming and implementation of literacy initiatives; and

- *Literacy Certificate.* A certificate (Surat Keterangan Melek Aksara or SUKMA) is given by Directorate General for Non-Formal Education to learners who have successfully completed a literacy programme, and evaluated to have satisfied competency requirements in reading, writing, numeracy, and communication (oral) in Bahasa Indonesia based on the literacy Standard Competencies (Surat Kompetensi Keaksaraan or SKK). Priority groups for literacy programmes are ethnolinguistic minorities, migrant groups, rural poor (in island regions and border areas), urban poor, and tribal/indigenous groups (especially in Jambi, Sulawesi and Banten).

15.4.2 Progress Achieved Achieved and Best Practices

Indonesia achieved a significant increase in its adult literacy rate from 88.6% in 2000 to 91.5% in 2006. Going by this accomplishment rate, the country is set to attain its target to reduce its illiteracy rate by half (from 9.6% in 2005 to 5% in 2009) six years ahead of the EFA 2015. This accomplishment is largely due to improved access to basic education and targeted literacy interventions for illiterate adults.

Figure 26: Adult Literacy Rate (Age 15+), 2000-2005, Indonesia

Source: Survei Sosial Ekonomai Nasional or Susenas (National Socio-economic Survey).

Although Bahasa is the standard for literacy in Indonesia, local languages are used in some areas in delivering non-formal literacy programmes. Bugis, for example, is used in South Sulawesi, Sundanese in Banten and West Java provinces, Central Javanese language in Central Java and Jogjakarta, East Javanese language in Surabaya, and Maduranese for the Maduras in East Java.

In some districts, certification for passing literacy Level 1 is required to get a marriage license. This is an interesting example of how illiterate individuals could be motivated to participate in literacy programmes. The MONE is currently collaborating with the National Bureau of Statistics (BPS) in designing and using literacy survey data for more effective targeting of beneficiaries and implementation of programmes.

15.4.3 Disparities/Variations in Performance

A disparity between urban and rural adult literacy rates in 2005 is noted at 88.4% and 95.3%, respectively. Although the gap has been reduced from 9.6 to 6.9 percentage points from 2000 to 2005, the rural poor remains to be disadvantaged. This disparity is due largely to the previous disadvantaged situation in terms of access to basic education in the rural areas, and high non-attendance and drop-out rates from school.

Figure 27: Adult Literacy Rate (Age 15+), Urban-Rural, 2000-2005, Indonesia

Source: Survei Sosial Ekonomai Nasional or Susenas (National Socio-economic Survey).

Indonesia also reported that adult literacy rates have improved across all poverty quintiles in the country and the disparities have narrowed as well since 2000. The literacy rate of the poorest quintile has risen from 83.4% to 87.2% while that of the richest quintile's improved from 92.4% to 95%.
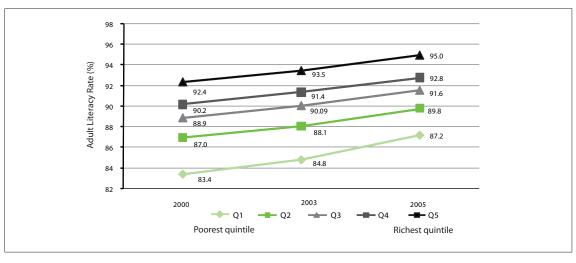
Figure 28: Adult Literacy Rate, by Income Quintile, 2000-2005, Indonesia

Source: Survei Sosial Ekonomai Nasional or Susenas (National Socio-economic Survey).

Disparities across Indonesian provinces are illustrated by the 30 percentage-point difference between Sulawesi Utara which had the highest adult literacy rate of 99% in 2006 and Papua, which had the lowest rate at 69% (Figure 29).
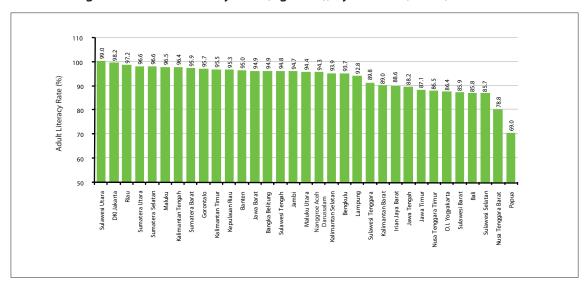
Figure 29: Adult Literacy Rate (Age 15+), by Province, 2006, Indonesia

Adult Literacy Rate (%)

Province	Rate
Sulawesi Utara	99.0
DKI Jakarta	98.2
Riau	97.2
Sumatera Utara	96.6
Sumatera Selatan	96.6
Maluku	96.5
Kalimantan Tengah	96.4
Sumatera Barat	95.9
Gorontalo	95.7
Kalimantan Timur	95.5
Kepulauan Riau	95.3
Banten	95.0
Jawa Barat	94.9
Bangka Belitung	94.9
Sulawesi Tengah	94.8
Jambi	94.7
Maluku Utara	94.4
Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam	94.3
Kalimantan Selatan	93.9
Bengkulu	93.7
Lampung	92.8
Sulawesi Tenggara	89.8
Kalimantan Barat	89.0
Irian Jaya Barat	88.6
Jawa Tengah	88.2
Jawa Timur	87.1
Nusa Tenggara Timur	86.5
D.I. Yogyakarta	86.4
Sulawesi Barat	85.9
Bali	85.8
Sulawesi Selatan	85.7
Nusa Tenggara Barat	78.8
Papua	69.0

Source: Survei Sosial Ekonomai Nasional or Susenas (National Socio-economic Survey).

To reduce such disparities, Indonesia focuses on the magnitude or the actual number of illiterates within the provinces. Due to differences in population sizes, provinces with the lowest adult literacy rates do not always have the most number of illiterates. The government identified Banten, Jawa Barat, Jawa Tengah, Jawa Timur, Kalimantan Barat, Nusa Tenggara Barat, Nusa Tenggara Timur, Papua and Sulawesi Selatan as the provinces having the most numbers of adult illiterates and therefore are the focus of most literacy interventions. Intra-province variations also occur across districts such as in Papua, East Java, Bali, Nusa Tenggara Barat, Nusa Tenggara Timur and Sulawesi Selatan. Illiterates in some districts comprise more than 30% of the adult population.

15.4.4 Remaining Challenges and Issues in Adult Literacy

Indonesia reports that its adult illiterates number 15.41 million in 2003. In order to attain its target to halve the number of illiterates in 2009, some remaining challenges and issues need to be addressed. Among these is sustaining the demand and sense of value in becoming and staying literate among adult learners. Incentives such as literacy certification that can be used as credential for various forms of advancement are thus provided. To support and promote the importance of literacy education, communication, information and education networks need to be set up at the village level and in remote areas. Finally, there is a need to adopt cost-efficient and effective literacy programme models in remote areas since it is expensive to finance adult literacy and life skills programmes given the country's geographical profile.

Specifically, literacy networks and partnerships among government agencies, civil society, tribal groups and local communities need to be strengthened to facilitate the delivery of programmes and services amid diverse situations. Innovative and effective approaches have to be put in place to reach even the smallest and remotest communities.

Likewise, demand for literacy need to be stimulated and sustained especially among the older adults who perceive attending literacy sessions to be unimportant and has opportunity costs (i.e., time for doing household chores and working will be affected). This has to be addressed by innovative and efficient methods such as the use of multimedia. Identifying literacy champions within the community who can influence illiterates and their families to support literacy initiatives is also deemed a big plus factor.

Innovative and relevant models in implementing literacy programmes need to be introduced with greater focus on promoting the benefits to be gained from acquiring literacy skills. Among such

schemes and approaches include engaging literate primary and secondary students as tutors for their families with the possibility of providing small incentives when illiterate family members become literate.

Provision of social and financial incentives to sustain these approaches may include prize competitions and publication of success stories. Strengthening knowledge management systems is also vital in recording successful innovations and successes to serve as inputs to future strategies and programmes.

15.5 Goal Five: Gender Equality in Basic Education in Indonesia

15.5.1 Background and Development of Gender Equality in Basic Education in Indonesia

a. National Policy and Legislation for Gender Equality in Basic Education: Provision and Coordination

Law 20/2003 of Indonesia mandates that all citizens have the same right to quality education. To implement this provision, a Gender Unit under the Directorate General of Non-Formal and Informal Education of MONE was established. The Government agencies, as well as the local governments in Indonesia are mandated to incorporate gender dimensions into planning, implementation and monitoring of policies and programmes.

b. Key Strategies and Programmes

To promote gender equity in education among the disadvantaged groups, Indonesia adopted the following strategies: (a) incorporation of gender perspectives in planning and budgeting in the education of poor families; (b) improvement of the current information systems to reflect gender equity issues, including improvement of data on poor families; and (c) improvement of family education to integrate gender perspective for poor families at several selected urban and rural areas.

Trainings on gender and development are provided by the Department of Gender under the Ministry of Women Empowerment. Among these is the programme "Family Education and Gender Awareness Raising" that targets relocated and isolated families and other vulnerable groups in rural and urban areas alike. The programme aims to raise the awareness of community groups, including schools, on the importance of educating girls and its impact on improving family life. It also includes socio-economic profiling of the target area, training facilitators and conducting participatory workshops to better respond to the needs of different beneficiary communities in Papua, West Java, Tenggara, East Java and Central Java.

15.5.2 Progress Achieved and Best Practices

ECCE. The table below shows that for the period 2000-2003, there were more boys availing of ECCE services than girls. The trend was, however, sharply reversed in 2004 and continued on to 2005. On the other hand, there has been a bigger proportion of girls in Grade 1 with ECCE experience than boys from 2000 to 2002. Gender parity was achieved in 2003. But the balance was short-lived as girls again outperformed boys from 2004 to 2005.

Table 27: GPI for GER ECCE and Percentage of Grade 1 Students with ECCE Experience, 2000-2005, Indonesia

Year	GER for ECCE	% of Grade 1 Students with ECCE
2000	0.99	1.04
2001	0.96	1.04
2002	0.96	1.01
2003	0.97	1.00
2004	1.06	1.05
2005	1.07	1.05

Source: Statistics of Kindergarten, MONE.

Primary and Secondary Education. Gender parity in primary GER was already achieved in 2000 and was sustained up to 2006. Primary NER was within the parity range at 0.99 in 2006. At the junior secondary level, GER and NER had a GPI of 1.02 to reflect a slight advantage in favour of girls, although this is within the parity range of 0.97 to 1.03. This trend is reversed at the senior secondary level where 2006 GER and NER favoured boys with GPI of 0.97 and 0.98, respectively. Indonesia reported that girls tend to be disadvantaged by constraints such as limited number and location (distance from residences) of schools.

Table 28: GPI for GER and NER for Primary and Secondary Education, 2000-2006, Indonesia

Year	Primary		Junior Secondary		Senior Secondary	
	GER	NER	GER	NER	GER	NER
2000	0.99	0.99	1.00	1.01	…	…
2003	1.00	1.00	1.03	1.03	0.98	1.00
2006	1.00	0.99	1.02	1.02	0.97	0.98
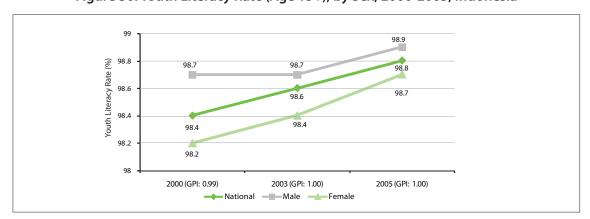
Sources: MONE and MORA.
Note: "… " indicates no data available.

In 2000, females in primary and secondary education constituted 48.5% and 48.3% of total enrolment, respectively. In 2005, the percentage slightly declined to 48.3% in primary while that of secondary increased to 49.5%.

Youth Literacy. Both male and female youth literacy rates recorded slight improvements from 2000 to 2005. Although female youth literacy rate remained slightly lower than that of male, the gap continued to narrow down such that in 2003, a GPI of 1.00 was achieved and sustained up to 2005.

Figure 30: Youth Literacy Rate (Age 15+), by Sex, 2000-2005, Indonesia

Source: Survei Sosial Ekonomai Nasional or Susenas (National Socio-economic Survey).

Life Skills. Gross enrolment in TVET in secondary education has remained favourable for boys from 2000 to 2005. Girl's participation remained below 15% while that of boys is almost 20%. The GPI for these indicators stood at an average of 0.76 for the same period.
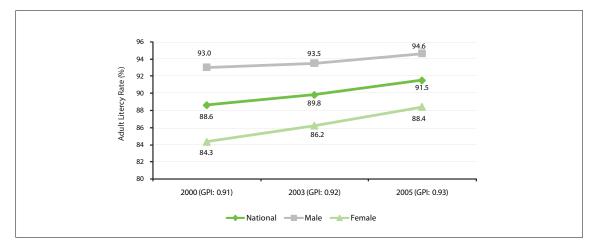
Table 29: TVET Gross Enrolment, by Sex and GPI, MONE Schools, 2000-2005, Indonesia

Year	National	Male	Female	GPI
2000	15.1	17.1	13.0	0.76
2001	15.9	18.0	13.7	0.76
2002	16.5	18.5	14.4	0.78
2003	16.9	19.4	14.2	0.73
2004	16.9	19.1	14.6	0.76
2005	17.4	19.9	14.9	0.75

Source: MONE.

Adult Literacy. A wider gender gap is noted with respect to adult literacy in Indonesia. Although both male and female adult literacy have improved from 2000 to 2005 and while GPI shows movement towards parity from 0.91 to 0.93, female adult literacy remained below 90%.

Figure 31: Adult Literacy Rate (Age 15+), by Sex, 2000-2005, Indonesia

Source: Survei Sosial Ekonomai Nasional or Susenas (National Socio-economic Survey).

Quality. In the 2003 National Secondary Examination, GPI for aggregate scores for junior secondary, senior secondary general and vocational, show gender parity has been achieved.

Table 30: GPI in National Secondary Exam Results, 2003, Indonesia

Level	Bahasa	English	Math	Total
Junior Secondary	1.04	1.02	1.00	1.02
Senior Secondary General	1.02	1.00	1.01	1.01
Senior Secondary Vocational	1.00	0.99	0.98	0.99

Source: Indonesia EFA MDA Report 2007.

With respect to the teaching force, female teachers comprised the majority in 2005 at the MONE schools. They constitute 62.8% of the total number of teachers in primary and 55.1% in the secondary level.

To effectively address gender issues, the gender focal unit of the MONE has been working with other ministries. An important move undertaken was the review of curricula and textbooks as well as other instructional materials to correct and/or eliminate gender stereotyping contents. Gender sensitivity and responsiveness were then incorporated in the process of textbook evaluation.

While gender parity is achieved at the primary level, disparities continued to be noted at the ECCE and junior secondary in favour of girls and at the senior secondary level in favour of boys.

Problems that are economic in nature rather than gender bias have been cited as the main causes of gender disparities in education outcome indicators. Gender stereotyping, moreover, does not influence family decision on who will be sent to school.

15.5.3 Disparities in Gender Equality

In 2006, the gender parity index for primary education in urban areas stood at 0.99 for GER and 1.00 for NER. For rural areas, the pattern was reversed with 1.00 GPI for GER and 0.99 for NER. Both primary GER and NER GPI for urban and rural and areas fall within the gender parity range of 0.97 to 1.03. At the junior secondary level, GPIs for GER for urban and rural areas were both at 1.01 and was also the same for GPIs for NER in rural and urban areas at 1.02. At the senior secondary level, GPI for GER and NER for urban areas stood at 0.99 and 0.97, respectively and 0.98 for both GER and NER in the rural areas. The indicators in Table 31 show now urban-rural disparities in GERs and NERs for primary, junior secondary and senior secondary levels.

Table 31: GPI for Primary and Secondary Education GER and NER, Urban-Rural, 2006, Indonesia

Area	Primary		Junior Secondary		Senior Secondary	
	GER	NER	GER	NER	GER	NER
Urban	0.99	1.00	1.01	1.02	0.99	0.97
Rural	1.00	0.99	1.01	1.02	0.98	0.98

Sources: MONE and MORA.

The table below shows that women have lower literacy across the country with greater disadvantage in the rural areas. As such, women, especially in the rural areas, remain one of the government's priority groups with respect to literacy programmes.

Table 32: GPI for Adult Literacy, Urban-Rural, 2000-2005, Indonesia

Year	National	Urban	Rural
2000	0.91	0.94	0.88
2003	0.92	0.95	0.90
2005	0.93	0.96	0.91

Source: Survei Sosial Ekonomai Nasional or Susenas (National Socio-economic Survey).

With respect to socioeconomic status of families, Indonesia reported that there is generally gender parity in primary NER across the income quintiles. GPI for the junior secondary NER in the poorest quintile is 1.04 while the richest quintile was 0.99. At the senior secondary level, GPI is 0.98 for the poorest and 0.91 for the richest quintile. This suggests a tendency for poor families to invest in the education of their girl children.

The table below shows the estimated GPIs for selected indicators by province. For ECCE GER, gender parity has been achieved in five provinces while more girls were enrolled in ECCE in 17

provinces. Gender parity was also achieved in 15 provinces in terms of percentage of Grade 1 pupils with ECCE experience.

For youth literacy, parity has been achieved across all provinces. Parity in GPI for primary NER has also been achieved across all provinces, except in DKI Jakarta, although it is also close to achieving parity at 0.96 GPI. It should be noted however, that even the degrees of disparities vary across the provinces and among indicators from 1.48 for junior secondary NER in Gorontalo to 0.57 in primary NIR in Sulawesi Utara.

Table 33: GPI for Selected Indicators, by Province, Indonesia

Province	GER ECCE 2005	% of Grade 1 Students with ECCE 2005	NIR Primary 2006	GER Primary 2006	NER Primary 2006	GER Junior Secondary 2006	NER Junior Secondary 2006	Youth Literacy (Age 15-24)
Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam	1.08	1.04	1.01	1.08	1.00	0.99	0.99	1.00
Sumatera Utara	1.05	1.06	1.01	0.98	0.99	1.04	1.01	1.00
Sumatera Barat	1.07	1.05	0.99	1.07	0.99	1.11	1.09	1.00
Riau	1.04	1.04	0.95	0.87	1.00	0.95	0.99	1.01
Jambi	1.15	1.02	0.92	0.92	0.99	1.07	1.03	0.99
Sumatera Selatan	1.02	1.04	1.15	1.13	1.00	1.10	1.09	1.00
Bengkulu	1.12	1.03	0.72	0.81	1.00	0.94	0.97	1.00
Lampung	1.05	1.02	0.88	0.98	0.99	1.10	1.06	1.00
Bangka Belitung (Babel)	1.06	1.05	1.00	1.45	0.99	1.04	0.98	1.00
Kepulauan Riau (Kepri)	1.00	1.03	1.02	1.09	1.00	1.03	1.01	1.01
DKI. Jakarta	1.01	1.03	0.94	0.95	0.96	0.97	0.91	1.00
Jawa Barat	1.08	1.05	0.98	1.09	1.01	0.93	0.94	1.00
Jawa Tengah	1.00	1.03	0.87	0.85	0.98	1.09	1.03	1.00
DI. Yogyakarta	1.02	1.01	0.77	1.10	0.98	0.97	1.04	1.00
Jawa Timur	1.01	1.02	0.91	0.96	0.99	1.02	1.01	1.00
Banten	1.00	1.04	1.05	1.19	0.99	0.97	0.95	1.00
Bali	0.97	0.99	1.13	0.88	0.99	0.94	0.89	0.99
Nusa Tenggara Barat	1.14	1.06	0.94	0.93	1.01	0.94	0.96	0.98
Nusa Tenggara Timur	1.02	1.02	0.97	1.02	1.00	1.09	1.11	1.01
Kalimantan Barat	1.02	0.99	0.97	0.94	1.01	0.99	0.99	1.00
Kalimantan Tengah	1.03	1.02	0.98	0.90	1.00	1.03	1.02	1.00
Kalimantan Selatan	1.02	1.05	0.88	0.99	1.00	0.97	0.98	1.00
Kalimantan Timur	1.03	1.02	0.84	0.95	0.98	1.00	1.00	1.00
Sulawesi Utara	1.03	1.03	0.57	0.93	0.99	1.13	1.10	1.00
Sulawesi Tengah	1.10	1.02	1.01	0.92	1.00	1.06	1.05	1.00
Sulawesi Selatan	1.11	1.05	1.07	1.00	1.00	0.99	0.98	1.01
Sulawesi Tenggara	1.18	1.08	0.83	0.93	0.99	1.05	1.02	1.00
Gorontalo	1.15	1.03	0.70	0.74	1.01	1.49	1.48	1.02

Sulawesi Barat (Sulbar)	1.10	1.09	0.90	1.04	1.01	1.08	1.11	1.01
Maluku	0.96	1.08	0.94	1.20	1.00	0.96	0.95	0.99
Maluku Utara	1.18	1.11	1.03	1.07	0.97	0.95	0.88	1.00
Irian Jaya Barat	1.13	1.06	0.91	0.96	0.99	0.96	1.02	0.97
Papua	0.99	1.31	0.92	0.87	0.98	0.89	0.88	0.88
Irian Jaya Barat	1.13	1.06	0.91	0.96	0.99	0.96	1.02	0.97
Papua	0.99	1.31	0.92	0.87	0.98	0.89	0.88	0.88

Sources: Statistics for Kindergarten, MONE; MORA; Survei Sosial Ekonomai Nasional or Susenas (National Socio-economic Survey); and Indonesia EFA MDA Report 2007.

Low primary NIR for girls have also been recorded in Sulawesi Utara, Gorontalo, Bengkulu and Yogyakarta, among others. On the other hand, boys' NIR needs to be improved in Sumatera Selatan and Bali.

15.5.4 Remaining Challenges and Issues

Although improvement has been noted with respect to gender equality in education, Indonesia continues to face related challenges. One of these is the need for disaggregation by sex of performance data at all levels in both formal and non-formal education from national down to the school level. Education policy makers and planners need these disaggregated data to ensure that development activities are responsive to specific barriers facing boys or girls. Equitable representation of women in school committees, alongside possible school governance training for women, should be encouraged. Screening of school textbooks and other instructional materials must be sustained to ensure zero gender stereotyping and to promote positive affirmation of the role of females in the family and society.

There is also a need to ensure that gender equity, especially at the senior secondary level and in adult literacy, is improved. With regard to access, location and design of new schools should also take into account water and sanitation requirements for females as well as security/safety issues, especially for those who travel some distance to school. Awareness-raising campaigns on the value of schooling and university attendance for both males and females need to be intensified. Measures should also be undertaken to eliminate gender stereotyping on subject choices in secondary school and in university courses for females and males.

15.6 Goal Six: Quality of Basic Education in Indonesia

15.6.1 Background and Development of Quality of Basic Education in Indonesia

a. Definition of Quality Education

Quality education is defined in terms of inputs, processes, and outputs of education. Operationally, the BNSP prescribes minimum standards with respect to eight elements by which quality of education is measured. These are: (a) standard of contents; (b) standard of processes; (c) competencies of graduates; (d) teacher and educational staff; (e) facility and infrastructure; (f) operational management; (g) budgeting; and (h) educational evaluation. The improvements in these elements should be reflected in the learning achievement or performance of pupils/students in national exams (in Bahasa, English and Math) given at the 9th (compulsory basic education exit exam) and 12th years (prerequisite to higher education).

b. Key Strategies and Programmes

The Indonesian government adopted the following strategies to improve quality of student and school performance: (a) strengthening systems for student examination and school accreditation; (b) setting up institutional arrangements for the setting of standards and governance through legislative, regulatory and organizational reforms; and (c) strengthening central, provincial and district capacity to implement these performance monitoring systems. In addition, setting minimum standards for inputs such as infrastructure, instructional materials and teachers, as well as developing financial and management guidelines for the provision of these inputs and related resource management at school levels were pursued.

The establishment of the Board of National Education Standards (BNSP) in 2005 allowed the government to set and monitor well-defined education standards for student performance, curriculum, textbooks and infrastructure. The BNSP is an independent body consisting of highly respected national experts from universities, professional organizations and community groups who work mainly on a voluntary basis to help uphold Indonesian education standards. A National Board of School Accreditation was also established to oversee standards for formal, non-formal and higher education institutions. Strategies that seek to address problems on house-to-school distances and class sizes that affect teaching-learning quality were adopted alongside the improvement in the quality of non-formal education and equivalency programmes for street children.

15.6.2 Progress Achieved and Best Practices

The percentage of teachers in primary education having the required academic qualifications improved from 9.7% to 15.3%. The proportion of primary school teachers certified to teach also improved from 8.5% to 14.3% from 2000 to 2006. At the secondary level, the proportion of certified teachers registered a more substantial improvement from 41.4% to 54.6% during the same six-year period. The Indonesian government is currently working to accelerate and expand efforts to upgrade the qualifications for teachers with a target that all teachers will be certified as qualified to teach by 2015.
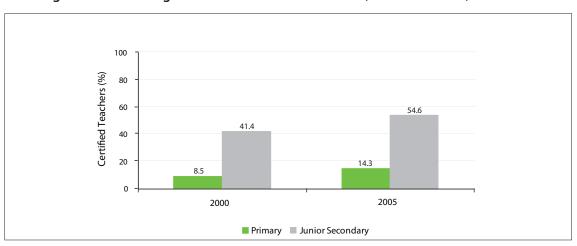
Figure 32: Percentage of Teachers Certified to Teach, 2000 and 2005, Indonesia

Sources: MONE and MORA.

Indonesia was likewise able to maintain a sufficient supply of teachers for basic education as shown by a lower PTR in 2005, compared with that in 2000. For primary education, the PTR was down to 18.8 from 22.2 and for junior secondary, 15.1 to 12.4.

Table 34: Pupil/Teacher Ratio in Primary and Junior Secondary Education, 2000-2005, Indonesia
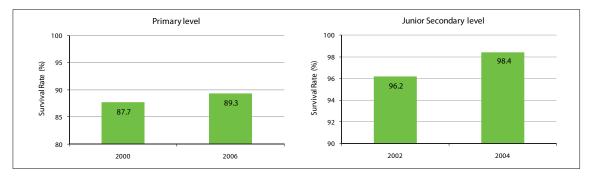
Year	Primary	Junior Secondary
2000	22.2	15.1
2001	20.2	14.1
2002	20.3	14.4
2003	19.9	13.8
2004	18.8	12.7
2005	18.8	12.4

Sources: MONE and MORA.

As a result of its campaign to continuously attain progress in the provision of basic education inputs such as school infrastructure and textbooks, among others, the proportion of classrooms in good conditions reached 50% in 2004. To address the low pupil-textbook ratio of 58% in 2000, Indonesia introduced the textbook school operational budget programme (BOS), as well as a new guideline on the use of funds for textbooks under the BOS. To address quality, a new textbook review and approval process was introduced in line with the BNSP, among others. In 2007, the impact of these interventions was evaluated.

Internal efficiency in primary education has improved with average repetition rate halved from 6% in 2000 to 3% in 2006 and drop-out rate decreased from 3.4% to 2.2%. As a result, the survival rate increased from 87.7% to 89.3% over the same period. Survival rate at the junior secondary level also improved from 96.2% in 2002 to 98.4% in 2004.

Figure 33: Survival Rate, Primary and Junior Secondary, 2000 and 2006, Indonesia

Source: Indonesia EFA MDA Report 2007.

With respect to achievement, average scores in national examination improved from 2004 to 2006 (Table 35). For example, at the junior secondary level, scores in Bahasa rose from 5.8 to 7.4. For English and Mathematics, it was 5.2 to 6.6 and 5.3 to 7.1, respectively. The same improvement has been noted at the senior secondary level.

Table 35: Average Scores in National Examinations, 2004 and 2006, Indonesia

Subjects	Junior Secondary		Senior Secondary	
	2004	2006	2004	2006
Bahasa Indonesia	5.8	7.4	5.6	7.6
English	5.2	6.6	4.0	7.5
Mathematics	5.3	7.1	5.6	7.2

Source: Indonesia EFA MDA National Report 2007.

It is also noteworthy that Indonesia's expenditure for education as a percentage of total government expenditure increased from 12% in 2000 to 16.8% in 2005. Similarly, as a percentage of GDP, the proportion of expenditure for education went up from 2.5% to 3.9% over the same period but still below the UNESCO recommended 6% of GDP.

Figure 34: Public Expenditure on Education, 2000 and 2005, Indonesia

Source: Indonesia EFA MDA Report 2007.

Two noteworthy major interventions were implemented by the country during the past years. One was the upgrading of the qualifications for teachers by requiring them to have at least four years of higher education. In addition, intensive efforts to upgrade the performance and professionalism of the teaching force for which a Directorate of Quality Improvement for Teachers and Education Personnel was established in 2005. The new Directorate oversees the implementation in strategic and gradual phasing of the following programmes to uphold teacher quality: (a) all teachers and school managers must have at least a bachelor's degree and must be certified to teach; (b) provision of in-service teacher upgrading in collaboration with the education departments of accredited universities; (c) use of innovative in-service teacher education delivery schemes such as use of school cluster and district support; and (d) use of performance-based incentives which are linked to academic achievement and professional credentials and willingness to work in more difficult and remote areas.

The other is the decentralization of management and delivery of basic education, adopting school-based management system. This includes the implementation of the Education National Standard at the provincial and district levels and building the capacity of field offices in monitoring and evaluation, among others. The school standards and accreditation system established in 2004 has accredited 54,000 institutions (53% of all institutions) in 2006. Indonesia targets a 100% accreditation by 2009.
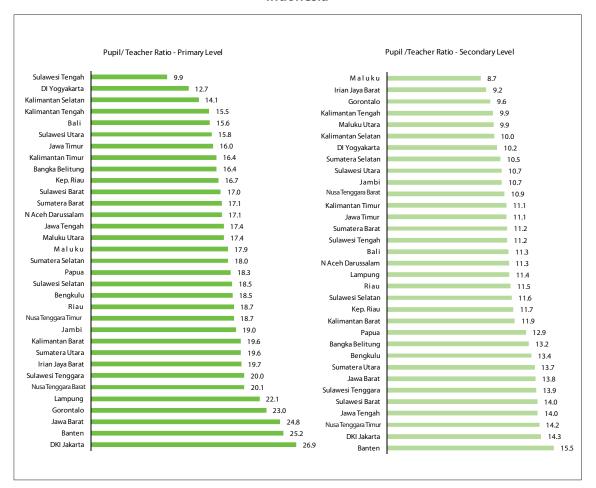
15.6.3 Disparities/Variations of Performance

In the national examinations, girls outperformed boys recording higher test scores in Bahasa, English and Mathematics. And although national aggregates showed overall score improvement in national examinations, wide variations exist across the provinces. For the junior secondary level, for example, Bali had an average total score of 23 while Nusa Tengara Barat had 17.5. Other provinces that recorded scores below 19 include Kalimantan Barat, Maluku Utara, Bengkulu and Papua. Even within provinces with both high and low scores, variations have been observed. The provinces of Jawa Timur, Kalimantan Selatan, Papua and Sumatera Barat registered a gap of five points or more.

With respect to PTR, the province with the lowest PTR in primary education is Sulawesi Tengah at 9.9. The highest is DKI Jakarta at 26.9. At the secondary level, Maluku has the lowest ratio at 8.7 and

Banten the highest at 15.5. There were 11 provinces with PTR higher than the national average and 22 provinces with PTR lower than the national average of 18.8 at the primary level. The figures are the same at the secondary level which has a national average of 12.4. The low PTRs also indicate inefficiency in the system.

Figure 35: Pupil/Teacher Ratio in Primary and Secondary Education, by Province, 2005, Indonesia

Pupil/ Teacher Ratio - Primary Level

Province	PTR
Sulawesi Tengah	9.9
DI Yogyakarta	12.7
Kalimantan Selatan	14.1
Kalimantan Tengah	15.5
Bali	15.6
Sulawesi Utara	15.8
Jawa Timur	16.0
Kalimantan Timur	16.4
Bangka Belitung	16.4
Kep. Riau	16.7
Sulawesi Barat	17.0
Sumatera Barat	17.1
N Aceh Darussalam	17.1
Jawa Tengah	17.4
Maluku Utara	17.4
Maluku	17.9
Sumatera Selatan	18.0
Papua	18.3
Sulawesi Selatan	18.5
Bengkulu	18.5
Riau	18.7
Nusa Tenggara Timur	18.7
Jambi	19.0
Kalimantan Barat	19.6
Sumatera Utara	19.6
Irian Jaya Barat	19.7
Sulawesi Tenggara	20.0
Nusa Tenggara Barat	20.1
Lampung	22.1
Gorontalo	23.0
Jawa Barat	24.8
Banten	25.2
DKI Jakarta	26.9

Pupil /Teacher Ratio - Secondary Level

Province	PTR
Maluku	8.7
Irian Jaya Barat	9.2
Gorontalo	9.6
Kalimantan Tengah	9.9
Maluku Utara	9.9
Kalimantan Selatan	10.0
DI Yogyakarta	10.2
Sumatera Selatan	10.5
Sulawesi Utara	10.7
Jambi	10.7
Nusa Tenggara Barat	10.9
Kalimantan Timur	11.1
Jawa Timur	11.1
Sumatera Barat	11.2
Sulawesi Tengah	11.2
Bali	11.3
N Aceh Darussalam	11.3
Lampung	11.4
Riau	11.5
Sulawesi Selatan	11.6
Kep. Riau	11.7
Kalimantan Barat	11.9
Papua	12.9
Bangka Belitung	13.2
Bengkulu	13.4
Sumatera Utara	13.7
Jawa Barat	13.8
Sulawesi Tenggara	13.9
Sulawesi Barat	14.0
Jawa Tengah	14.0
Nusa Tenggara Timur	14.2
DKI Jakarta	14.3
Banten	15.5

Sources: MONE and MORA.

15.6.4 Remaining Challenges and Issues

To further improve the quality of basic education, Indonesia still needs to strategically address several challenges. Among these is ensuring the effective implementation of the new Teachers Law and Regulations requiring at least four years of higher education for teachers so as not to compromise the adequacy of the teaching force. Another challenge is to effectively implement operational budget programmes for textbooks to ensure their equitable distribution in all schools, especially in the remote areas. Finally, it is crucial to strengthen quality-oriented governance and public accountability mechanisms in order to pressure schools to perform better. This involves capability building in the area of monitoring and evaluation down to the districts and schools, given the geographical characteristics of Indonesia which make it costly to monitor from the national level.

15.7 Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

Indonesia achieved significant improvement in aggregate basic education performance during the assessment period as shown by selected key EFA indicators, except in NIR for primary level, as illustrated in Table 36. However, it can be noted that ECCE indicators registered a wider gender gap in favour of girls, while adult literacy GPI show women at a disadvantage. GPI for NIR for primary registered a different pattern with more boys than girls entering primary education at the official age.

Expenditure for education has also increased both as a percentage of total government expenditure and of GDP. However, Indonesia is yet to achieve the UNESCO recommended 6% of GDP expenditure for education.

Table 36: Selected Indicators per EFA Goal, 2000-2006, Indonesia

EFA GOAL	INDICATORS	Baseline	Accomplishment	
		2000	2005	2006
Goal 1	GER Pre-Primary	12.60%	47.00%	
	% of Grade 1 Students w/ ECCE Experience	17.70%	37.70%	
Goal 2	GIR - Primary	120.00%	127.90%	135.00%
	NIR - Primary	58.00%		51.00%
	GER - Primary	111.00%	109.30%	114.00%
	NER - Primary	93.00%	94.30%	95.00%
	GER - Junior Secondary	75.00%	85.20%	89.00%
	NER - Junior Secondary	58.00%	62.10%	66.50%
Goal 3	Youth Literacy Rate	98.40%	98.80%	
	Enrolment in TVET in Secondary Level	15.00%	17.50%	
	Transition Rate (Primary to Secondary)	83.00%	91.20%	91.00%
Goal 4	Adult Literacy Rate	88.60%	91.50%	
Goal 5	GPI - Youth Literacy Rate	0.99	1.00	
	GPI - Adult Literacy Rate	0.91	0.93	
	GPI - GER ECCE	0.99	1.07	
	GPI - % of Grade 1 Students w/ ECCE Experience	1.04	1.05	
	GPI - NIR Primary	1.00		0.95
	GPI - GER in Primary	0.99		1.00
	GPI - NER in Primary	0.99		0.99
	GPI - GER in Junior Secondary	1.00		1.02
	GPI - NER in Junior Secondary	1.01		1.02
Goal 6	PTR for Primary	22.2	18.8	
	PTR for Junior Secondary	15.1	12.4	
	Education Expenditure - % of Total Gov Exp	12.00%	16.80%	
	Education Expenditure - % of GDP	2.50%	3.90%	

Sources: Statistics for Kindergarten,MONE; MORA; Susenas; and Indonesia EFA MDA Report 2007.

Since 2000, Indonesia has fully incorporated EFA in its development plans and vision. EFA strategies and targets form part of the country's greater poverty reduction agenda. Innovative programmes have been introduced and sustained such as community involvement in ECCE, BOS in primary and secondary education, integrated functional literacy and life skills programmes establishment

of the Board of National Education Standards, gender mainstreaming campaign in schools as well as in the families, and school based-management as part of decentralization policy, among others. As a result, there has been improvements in both access and quality in basic education as evident in the higher enrolment rates and student academic achievements.

Overall, the picture is encouraging, but Indonesia is poised to achieve more by 2015. It is recognized that challenges remain and barriers to children from marginalized and disadvantaged groups exist that prevent them from fully availing of basic education services.

As such, the following recommendations are in order:

Early Child Care and Education

- Pursue the utilization of the results of the study sponsored by UNICEF and the National Planning Department that aims to formulate a clearer definition of ECCE, conduct mapping of ECCE institutions and programmes, and create standards and guidelines, among others. This study is also expected to provide a means for measuring the sustainability and effectiveness of ECCE models such as playgroups.

- Develop a clear ECCE teacher career path and certification system as part of the plan to improve the quality of the entire ECCE teaching force.

- Stimulate demand for families to use ECCE centres by continuing advocacy on the importance of ECCE and intensifying programmes that alleviate cost barriers in accessing ECCE. Special attention should continue to be given to children from disadvantaged groups, in particular, children with disabilities or those with special needs who exhibited very low participation.

- Intensify and expand the community-based integrative ECCE where efforts from health and social welfare, among others, converge to address the high percentage of under-five children suffering from stunting.

Universal Primary/Basic Education

- Intensify implementation of innovative education service delivery models to bring in to school the remaining 5% and 33.5% of 7-12 and 13-15 year olds, respectively, who are mostly among the unreached and disadvantage groups (programmes include the flexible organizational models such as the one-roof facilities, non-formal education and its equivalency system, open schooling).

- Enforce the official entry age to Grade 1 which is 7 years old. This may be done in conjunction with the efforts to ensure that pre-primary aged children have access to affordable quality ECCE services that provide adequate and appropriate preparation for primary education.

- Enhance and strengthen the capacity of provincial and district authorities in planning and customizing these innovative strategies to their specific situation and needs.

- Stimulate influx of resources into these innovative programmes to serve the unreached and disadvantaged children and by promoting and facilitating partnership with civil society groups and the donor community.

Life Skills and Lifelong Learning

- Implement public awareness and community information dissemination programmes, especially in the underserved areas, to stimulate demand for learning opportunities (to be accompanied by a selective incentive scheme to compensate for the perceived opportunity cost of engaging in these programmes).

- Expand non-formal and informal learning opportunities, especially for youth and adult learners, to complement the expansion of formal education together with an enhanced certification and qualification for equivalency system (these alternative approaches should also capitalize on existing promising and proven alternative learning programmes).

- Undertake supply and demand life skills education mapping to guide strategy development and programming. This initiative can also help strengthen institutional responsiveness to the needs of the workforce, expand and improve in-company training, and mainstream entrepreneurship skills in technical and vocational education and training. Moreover, it could also develop competency standards and recognition and certification of skills. This mapping, and other studies, can also provide inputs in developing operational meanings of life skills and lifelong learning in relation to formal and non-formal modalities.

Adult Literacy

- Intensify advocacy and awareness campaign among target groups on the importance of sustaining the demand and sense of value in becoming and staying literate among adult learners through the provision of incentives such as literacy certification that can be used as credential for various forms of advancement. Another activity is setting up of information and education networks at the village level and in remote areas.

- Adopt cost-efficient and effective literacy programme models in remote areas considering distances to target communities.

- Literacy networks and partnerships among government agencies, civil society, tribal groups and local communities need to be strengthened to facilitate the delivery of programmes and services amid diverse situations. Innovative and effective approaches have to be put in place to reach even the smallest and remotest communities.

Gender Equality

- Collect accurate and sex-disaggregated performance data at all levels in both formal and non-formal education from national down to the school level for policy decisions and planning to ensure that development activities are responsive to specific barriers facing boys or girls.

- Promote equitable representation of women in school committees and offer school governance training for women.

- Continue regular screening of school textbooks and other instructional materials to ensure zero gender stereotyping and to promote positive affirmation of the role of females in the family and society.

- Ensure that the location and design of new schools should take into account water and sanitation requirements of female pupils and students, as well as security/safety consideration issues, especially for those who travel some distance to school.

- Undertake measures to eliminate gender stereotyping on subject choices in secondary school and in university courses for females and males through intensified awareness campaigns on the value of schooling and university attendance for both males and females.

Quality of Basic Education
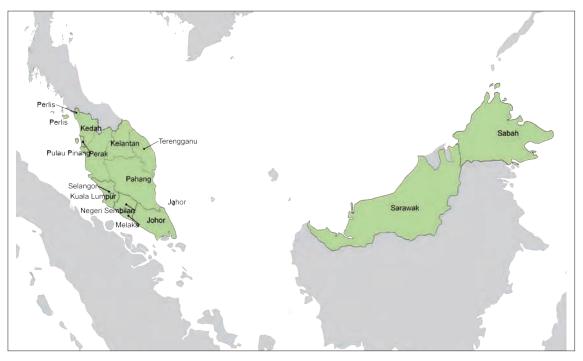
- Sustain the gains achieved in improving access and at the same time continue the intensified efforts and focus given to quality such as improving and monitoring student performance as well as the qualification of teachers and the efficiency of their deployment and utilization.

- Ensure the effective implementation of the new Teachers Law and Regulations requiring at least four years of higher education for teachers, provided the adequacy of the teaching force is not compromised.

- Implement effectively the operational budget programmes for textbooks to ensure their equitable distribution in all schools, especially in remote areas.

Management Capacity of Provinces, Districts and Schools

- Continue focusing on provincial, district and school management capacity building to ensure EFA-related success within a decentralized context and to reduce or eliminate wide variations in provincial and district performances as shown by outcome indicators.

- Strengthen and enhance the capacity of school managers and school committees in more results-based management, building on the most effective and cost-efficient models implemented by the government and by the donor community.

- Establish reliable and accurate monitoring and reporting system at the provincial and district levels on the unreached and underserved groups to effectively aid planning and programming.

- Ensure that national education strategic planning is aligned with international issues that have meaningful implication on national development goals, especially those related to EFA.

16. Malaysia

Malaysia comprises 13 states and three federal territories or wilayah persekutuan (WP). The country can be divided into two parts: Peninsular Malaysia which is connected to the mainland South-East Asia, and the island of Borneo which it shares with Indonesia. The states located at the Peninsular Malaysia are Perlis, Kedah, Kelantan, Terengganu, Pulau Pinang, Perak, Selangor, Pahang, Negeri Sembilan, Melaka, Johor, WP Kuala Lumpur and WP Putrajaya. The states located in Borneo are Sarawak, Sabah and WP Labuan. Putrajaya was split from the state of Selangor and Labuan from Sabah. In the data presented in the graphs and tables in this section, Putrajaya is still incorporated with Selangor while Labuan's 2000 data is part of Sabah.

Map 3: Malaysia

Source: Culture Unit, UNESCO Bangkok 2008.

Malaysia's population was at 26.8 million in 2005. It is expected to reach 29 million in 2010. Its per capita GDP was at US$4,904 in 2005. From 1991 to 2005, its economy grew at an annual average of 6.2%. Its unemployment rate was also at a low annual average of 3.1% during the same period.

The country is successfully charting the path towards being a developed nation as outlined in its Nation Vision Policy 2020 (Vision 2020). Malaysia is on its second and final phase towards attaining its goal. Strategies under this final stage are outlined in the implementation framework, National Mission (2006-2020). The National Mission has five thrusts: (a) improving the value-added economy; (b) enhancing knowledge and innovation capacity of the nation and nurturing a first class mentality; (c) continuously addressing socioeconomic imbalances in a constructive and productive manner; (d) enhancing and sustaining the quality of life; and (e) strengthening institutional capacity and implementation. Under the National Mission, there will be successive medium-term plans, each building on the previous one. The country is now on the Ninth Malaysia Plan or 9MP (2006-2010). To reach the Vision 2020, there will be two more medium-term plans (10MP and 11MP).

Education is considered to have a very critical role in the achievement of Vision 2020, particularly for the National Mission's second and third thrusts. Malaysia's education development agenda is strongly anchored on its quest to be a developed country. Concomitantly, the Ministry of Education (MOE) formulated the Education Development Plan (2001-2010). It was updated and has become the Education Development Master Plan or EDMP (2006-2010), also known as the National Blueprint for Education.

The EDMP essentially aims to produce citizens who are knowledgeable, ICT literate and skilled, as well as possessing high values, morals and ethics based on the National Philosophy of Education and National Integrity Plan. It highlights the following thrusts: (a) development of human capital; (b) strengthening of national schools; (c) reducing educational disparities; (d) enhancement of the teaching profession; and (e) acceleration of educational institutions development. The EDMP also serves as the blueprint of action towards the attainment of quality Education for All (EFA).

Among the strengths of Malaysia's education system is its monitoring and evaluation strategies. Cognizant of the importance of education performance indicators and statistics in making vital policy and programme decisions, the MOE's Educational Planning and Research Division (EPRD) ensures that its Education Management and Information System (EMIS) observes standard international methodologies in protecting the quality, objectivity, utility, and integrity of education information. Moreover, ongoing programmes and projects are constantly reviewed, reinforced or adjusted to ensure that the country is on track in achieving its education development goals.

Malaysia is committed to the EFA 2015 Goals alongside its national targets to provide the best quality basic education to all its people and prepare them for the future of developed Malaysia. The EFA Steering Committee was established in 2006 to monitor and ensure the country's progress towards the EFA Goals. It is composed of senior official representatives from concerned line ministries and representatives from UNICEF Malaysia, UNESCO Jakarta and NGOs (Chart 5). Among the Committee's functions is to serve as oversight in evaluation activities such as the EFA Mid-Decade Assessment.

Chart 5: EFA Coordination Mechanism, Malaysia

EFA MECHANISM and DEVELOPMENT PARTNERS

Steering Committee

Min. of Education	Min. of Defense
EPU	Min. of Information
Treasury	Dept. of Registration
Min. of Higher Education	Dept. of Statistics
Min. of Human Resources	Dept. of Social Welfare
Min. of Entrepreneur Development	National Unity Dept.
Min. of Rural Development	State Religious Dept.
Min. of Youth and Sports	Private Institutions
Min. of Health	Human Right Com., NGO
Min. of Women, Family and Community Dev.	

TWG Goal 1 TWG Goal 2 TWG Goal 3

TWG Goal 4 TWG Goal 5 TWG Goal 6 TWG (Data)

Source: Malaysia EFA MDA Report (Draft, 12 February 2008), Chart II.3, page 12.

The main law concerning education in Malaysia is the Education Act of 1996 (Act 550). It was amended in 2002 to make primary education compulsory. Another significant development in the country's education history was the establishment of the Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE) in 2004. This enables the MOE to focus on the development of pre-school, primary school, secondary school and matriculation as well as teacher education.

The following is a goal by goal discussion of Malaysia's progress towards the EFA 2015 goals.

16.1 Goal One: Early Childhood Care and Education in Malaysia

16.1.1 Background and Development of ECCE in Malaysia

a. Definition of ECCE

ECCE services in Malaysia can be broadly divided into two stages or programmes: (a) pre-school for children aged 4-6 years just prior to primary education; and (b) childcare and nurseries for children 0-4 years old.

b. National Policy and Legislation for ECCE: Provision and Coordination

In 2007, the Childcare Centres Act of 1984 was amended to standardize and establish minimum quality requirements for all childcare centres and nurseries based on a holistic approach encompassing proper nutrition, healthy environments, cognitive development and the quality of child minders.

Pre-school was made an official part of the national education system in Malaysia in 1996 by virtue of Act 550. The regulation of pre-schools is the responsibility of the MOE. A formal standard curriculum for ECCE was implemented by the MOE in 2003 to further ensure quality of services provided by both public and private ECCE institutions for 4 to 6-year olds. To further expand access in ECCE, especially in rural areas, the MOE also provides pre-school classes for 5-year olds as

extension services of existing primary schools. It is targeted that by 2010 all primary schools will also offer pre-school classes by 2010.

The provision of ECCE services is a convergent effort of various agencies in cooperation with MOE. The Ministry of Health (MOH) is responsible for the health growth of young children. The Department of Regional and Rural Development (KEMAS) of the Ministry of Regional and Rural Development (MRRD) is the largest public provider of ECCE while the Department of National Unity and Integration (PERPADUAN) under the Prime Minister's Department focuses on urban and suburban multiethnic young children. The Ministry of Women, Family and Community Development (MWFCD) established childcare centres to assist working women with 0 to 4-year olds from low income families in urban and rural areas.

Enrolment share of private ECCE service providers was at a national aggregate of 43% in 2005 from 60% in 2000. This suggests an increasing participation of the public sector in the provision of ECCE services through the primary schools. Across the states, there is greater private sector provision of ECCE services in the urban states of Selangor and WP Kuala Lumpur, among others, while there is much greater public ECCE in the states of Terengganu and Kelantan.
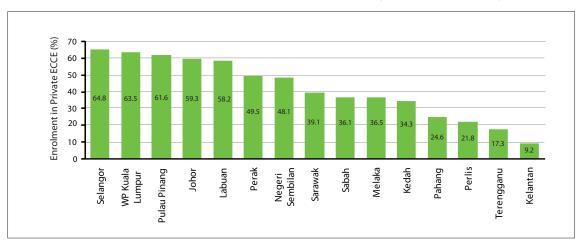
Figure 36: Percentage of Private ECCE Enrolment, by State, 2005, Malaysia

Source: MOE, JPS.

c. Key Strategies and Programmes

The first among Malaysia's main strategies in relation to Goal 1 is to ensure standard quality ECCE throughout the country.

Fundamental to the success of this strategy is making sure that all ECCE-aged children are healthy and that health facilities and services are available and adequate as provided by the following policies:

- Child Health Services Polices per Article 24 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) adopted by Malaysia in 1989 – programmes include routine visits and examination for children, immunization and nutritional status and growth monitoring and evaluation, and health education for parents;

- National Nutrition Policy formulated in 2003 – programmes include breastfeeding campaigns and promotion of healthy and appropriate diet and lifestyle; and

- Childcare Centres Act of 1984 (amended in 2007) providing for the minimum requirements for all childcare centres and nurseries to be registered in the Department of Social Welfare (under MWFCD) – quality standards are focused on nutrition, environments and necessary training and qualifications for all child minders as developed and prescribed by the MWFCD.

Major policies and programmes that served to ensure quality of ECCE service provision are:

- National Pre-school Curriculum intended to ensure quality standards, was officially adopted in 2003 for implementation in all public and private pre-schools for 5 to 6-year olds;

- Act 550 or National Education Act of 1996 officially incorporated pre-school in the national education system of Malaysia and placed the supervision of its service delivery management and quality assurance under the MOE;

- National Policy for Disabled Children per Article 23 of the CRC included programmes such as maintenance of database on special children, establishment of Community Based Rehabilitation Centres for diagnostic services, among others;

- National Policy on Indigenous Child per Article 30 of the CRC had programmes that include the development of a curriculum of the indigenous children's native languages (e.g., Iban, Kadazan-Dusun and Semai) to be included as subject in the community schools; and

- The Aboriginal Peoples Act of 1954 (Act 134) put the welfare and advancement of aboriginal peoples under the Commissioner of Aboriginal Affairs. Programmes under this Law include Woman Motivator (Penggerak Wanita – since 2000) and Orang Asli Pre-school (since 1992).

Another strategy adopted by Malaysia for EFA Goal 1 is to expand access to quality ECCE through the following entities and programmes:

- KEMAS - continued provision of ECCE services for children aged 0-6 by the KEMAS which has been the first and the largest public provider of since 1972;

- MOE - Implementation of pre-school classes for 5 to 6-year old children by the MOE in the existing primary schools per Act 550 (as amended) which integrated pre-school into the national education system;

- PERPADUAN (under the Prime Minister's Department) - gives special attention to young children in the urban and suburban multiethnic neighbourhoods with emphasis on the promotion of harmony, unity and nationality among the children from the different ethnic communities; and

- MWFCD - established the Workplace Childcare Centres to assist working women and the Community Childcare Centres for 0 to 4-year olds from low income families in urban and rural areas.

The government provides special attention to the underserved and disadvantaged (children from poor households, children with special needs, those residing in rural and remote areas and children from indigenous communities) in delivering ECCE services. Financial assistance are provided to poor families including the Child Support Assistance for poor families to support living expenses, and the Schooling Assistance given to school-going children for school fees, school uniform, and transportation, among others.

The government also seeks to expand pre-school classes for children with special needs and those residing in rural and remote areas. Special education is provided for children with single disability in MOE schools while the MWFCD takes care of children with multiple disabilities. ECCE classes have been expanded for the integration of children aged 5 and 6 with single disabilities through construction of additional pre-school classrooms and training of pre-school teachers and teaching assistants. A National Pre-school Curriculum package for the visually impaired, the hearing impaired and those with learning disabilities was also developed and adopted by the MOE. The Department of Orang Asli Affairs or JHEOA (also under the MRRD) and KEMAS have also expanded public support for children aged 0-4 years in indigenous communities. Innovative approaches are implemented to respond to the needs of children from indigenous communities. For example, pre-schools are allowed to use various vernacular languages in ECCE alongside two hours per week of formal instruction in Bahasa Malaysia. The 9MP stipulates that special attention

be given to the underserved and unreached to achieve the target of providing ECCE service to all children by 2010.

To monitor the implementation of the above polices and programmes, several mechanisms were established such as the Surveillance of Nutritional Status and Childhood Disease and Mortality by the MOH and tracking of the expansion of both public and private pre-schools accessibility by the MOE. Likewise, the quality of teaching and learning in pre-school are monitored by the MOE. For example, quality in pre-schools is monitored through a collaboration led by the School Inspectorate Division of the MOE. On the other hand, the quality of childcare centres will be monitored through the Quality Improvement and Accreditation System which is now being developed.

Other programmes include the piloting of the Permata ECCE Centres model for 0-4 year old children based on one centre per state by 2007. The model is based on integrated quality care and early education services relevant to the local community. The centres are envisioned to eventually include parenting courses and health care services, among others. The programme will be evaluated after two years for possible institutionalization.

The MWFCD has also proposed an Early Childhood Care and Development Policy (2007) to the parliament. The policy promotes a comprehensive approach to quality care and education for children aged 0-8 years involving provision of facilities and services. The proposed policy builds on existing laws and programmes and envisions to put in place an equally comprehensive monitoring system for child development.

16.1.2 Progress Achieved and Best Practices

Malaysia's GER for ECCE improved to 67.4% in 2005 from 48.4% in 2000. Similarly, the percentage of new entrants to primary education with ECCE experience in Malaysia was at an impressive 74.6% from 47.0% over the same period.
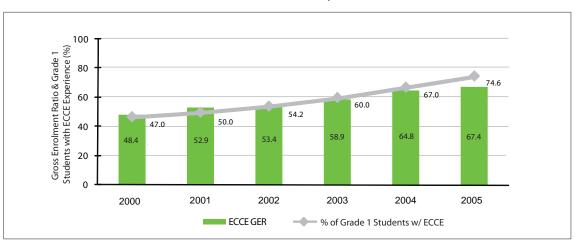
Figure 37: GER for ECCE and Percentage of Grade 1 Students with ECCE Experience, 2000-2005, Malaysia

Sources: MOE, Jabatan Pendidikan Swasta (JPS) or Private Education Division; KEMAS; PERPADUAN; Angkatan Belia Islam Malaysia (ABIM) or Malaysian Youth Islamic Movement; and Jabatan Agama Islam Negeri (JAIN) or Islamic State Religious Department.

Consistently, Malaysia was successful in bringing down the number of non-participation of ECCE-aged children from around 908,000 in 2000 to 474,000 in 2005. Moreover, participation of children from indigenous groups in ECCE almost tripled from 10,726 to 29,723. This is largely attributed to the government's investments in ECCE that prioritized rural communities in Sabah and Sarawak, as well as the indigenous people communities in Peninsular Malaysia.

One of the best practices in the provision of ECCE in Malaysia is the Women Motivator initiative which involves training and supporting women motivators in indigenous communities to promote awareness of mothers of the importance of education. It uses an approach specifically developed for their situation and culture. Another noteworthy programme involves partnership with NGOs for a more community-based support programme. An important NGO partner in ECCE in indigenous communities in Sabah is the PACOS Trust. This group has been working with the Association of Kindergartens of Sabah by providing basic training for ECCE teachers and mobilizing resources including sponsorships from international organizations.

Regular monitoring of progress and review of plans and strategies related to ECCE helped ensure the improvement and expansion of quality services. These processes include monitoring of nutritional status and diseases and mortality in children led by the Ministry of Health. Evaluating the progress in the expansion of access to pre-school is currently done through the Annual School Survey and through data from the ECCE institutions.

The government also substantially increased expenditure on ECCE as a percentage of total expenditure for education from 0.18% in 2000 to 1.06% in 2005, to make sure that the ECCE policies and programmes are adequately financed.

16.1.3 Disparities/Variations in Performance

GER for ECCE varies considerably across states ranging from 82.7% in Terengganu to 37.4% in WP Kuala Lumpur in 2005. Terengganu also registered the highest improvement rate of about 54 percentage points from 2000 to 2005. Sarawak, on the other hand, recorded the lowest improvement rate of about 7 percentage points. It can be noted that WP Kuala Lumpur is the only state where ECCE GER declined (by 6.5 percentage points).

Figure 38: GER for ECCE, by State, Public Schools only, 2005, Malaysia

Sources: MMOE, JPS MOE, KEMAS, PERPADUAN, ABIM, JAIN.

Because of the varied size of population among the states, the magnitude of non-participating ECCE-aged children may not be according to their GER ranks. The highest number of children not participating in ECCE is recorded in Sabah, Kelantan and Sarawak, as well as in the more urbanized state of Selangor. With respect to the percentage of primary school entrants with ECCE experience, the state of Perlis has the highest at 26.1% while WP Kuala Lumpur has the lowest at 5%.

The low achievement of the more urbanized states of WP Kuala Lumpur and Selangor may be because children attend private ECCE institutions or they may not be registered or lack legal status that prevents them from enrolling in government ECCE centres. Some of the children born in one state may also migrate and avail of ECCE services in another state. Other barriers that hamper young children from availing of ECCE services are yet to be identified but, at present, the Malaysian government has poured in significant amount of investment to address the needs of children with special needs.
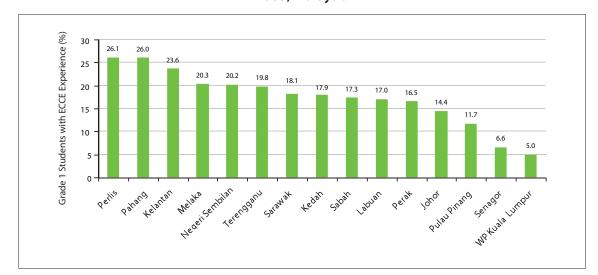
Figure 39: Percentage of Grade 1 Students with ECCE Experience by State, MOE Schools, 2005, Malaysia

Source: MOE.

16.1.4 Remaining Challenges and Issues in ECCE

Like other Insular South-East Asian countries participating in the MDA, limited data and information on the location, number and situation of the unreached and disadvantaged groups is a major challenge for Malaysia that needs to be addressed immediately in order to better plan and implement targeted ECCE programmes, as well as to accurately monitor and evaluate progress.

Modifying the current policy (Special Education Regulation Act of 1997) of admitting only children with a single disability in MOE pre-schools is another challenge that needs to be hurdled in order to accommodate more children in the inclusive mainstreamed schools or in special education classes.

As earlier mentioned, the MWFCD submitted the Early Childhood Care and Development (ECCD) Policy proposal to the parliament for approval in 2007 to further elevate the quality of ECCE provision in Malaysia, particularly the facilities and overall learning environment. The proposed policy seeks to supplement and complement existing policies on ECCE through the preparation of minimum standards for childcare services, provision of more grants and subsidies to establish more childcare centres, intensified awareness campaign to parents, community, childcare providers and operators, and other stakeholders. The proposed policy also aims to establish a comprehensive monitoring system on child development.

16.2 Goal Two: Universal Primary/Basic Education in Malaysia

16.2.1 Background and Development of Universal Primary/Basic Education in Malaysia

a. Definition of Universal Primary/Basic Education

Basic education in Malaysia consists of six years of primary education (6-11 years old) and five years in secondary education (12-16 years old).

b. National Policy and Legislation for Universal Primary/Basic Education: Provision and Coordination

Act 550 defines primary education as a course of study at the primary level designed for six years but which may be completed within five to seven years. Primary education was made free and compulsory by the 2002 amendment of Act 550. Secondary education comprises lower secondary and upper secondary sub-levels. The MOE is the lead agency in the provision of basic education in public and government-aided schools.

c. Key Strategies and Programmes

The primary strategy of Malaysia to achieve targets under EFA Goal 2 is to make basic education free. Through the amendment of Act 550 in 2002, primary and secondary education became free and primary education also became compulsory. Free basic education and compulsory primary education applies to the two types of schools in Malaysia: (a) National Schools where Malay is the medium of instruction; and (b) National-Type Schools where the language of instruction can be Chinese or Tamil.

To ensure the success of the compulsory primary education policy and facilitate its initial implementation, pupils from poor families were given special financial assistance. Among these was the RM120 (US$35) assistance in 2002-2003 which was replaced by the Poor Students' Trust Fund (KWAPM) in 2004. Malaysia also aims to continue expanding access to quality basic education through construction of necessary infrastructure and facilities including the provision of electricity and clean water supply by 2007.

Another strategy adopted by Malaysia is to ensure that all children regardless of their background have opportunities for success in school by providing extra academic support for those having difficulty in primary education. For example, those with reading and writing difficulties during their first year in primary school, especially those without ECCE experience, are provided support through the Early Intervention Class for Reading and Writing or Kelas Intervensi Asas Membaca dan Menulis (KIA2M). For pupils in Grades 4-6 having difficulty in mathematics, science, national language, and English, funds for extra tutoring are also provided through the Tuition Voucher Scheme. In 2006 alone, around 480,000 pupils received vouchers amounting to US$52 million.

Strategies to address the needs of the unreached and underserved are also being pursued by Malaysia in relation to Goal 2. Programmes to reduce rural-urban differences in access to and quality of education are being implemented such as greater attention to the needs in the rural areas. Various scholarships and assistance are provided to poor students in the form of financial and material support such as school fees, food, school uniforms, and transportation. The country is pursuing the development and implementation of customized and contextualized approaches based on the unique situations and needs in delivering basic education services to children from indigenous communities and those from isolated rural areas. Finally, the capacity and capability of public schools are being expanded and improved to accommodate the needs of children with special needs through the expansion of inclusive education classes in public schools for children with disabilities, among others.

Consistent with the 9MP, the EDMP seeks to reach the remaining children from marginalized and underserved groups not participating in basic education. The Plan provides that all citizens are assured equal educational opportunities regardless of location, race, ability or ethnic background. It targets a 100% GER and completion of primary to secondary education cycle by 2010.

It should be noted that the Malaysian basic education system uses only gross indicators in measuring access. The GIR and GER are used synonymous to NIR and NER, respectively. Based on the premise that no child is left unserved, it is assumed that there is no gap between the GER and NER. To ensure that this philosophy is upheld, automatic promotion is implemented where children are placed on the level based on age. If found lacking in competencies required in such

level, he/she will be provided extra tuition and intensive tutoring. Thus, while only the GIR and GER are mentioned in the subsequent discussions, the figures also represent the net data.

16.2.2 Progress Achieved and Best Practices

Malaysia's primary GIR increased from 95.2% in 2000 to 96.7% in 2005. This high GIR still means that around 4% of primary school age children or around 15,000 children are not entering primary education on time. Identifying who and where these children are and the reasons behind their non-participation in primary education in order to provide them with necessary support and assistance remains a challenge.

Primary level GER has also improved from 95.6% to 96.1% over the same period. On the other hand, a slight decrease has been noted at the secondary level. From 86.7% in 2000, the GER slightly went down to 85.6% in 2005.

Figure 40: Primary GIR and GER, and Secondary GER, 2000 and 2005, Malaysia

Sources: MOE, Pendidikan Islam (Islamic Education) and JPS.

To achieve its target of universal primary education by 2010, Malaysia's primary strategy involves sustaining a high percentage of expenditure in education as a share of total government expenditure for education from 2000 to 2005.

Table 37: Expenditure on Primary and Secondary Education as Percentage of Total Public Expenditure on Education, 2000-2005, Malaysia

Expenditure in Primary and Secondary Education as % of Total Public Expenditure on Education		
Year	Primary	Secondary
2000	24.3	21.2
2001	20.0	16.9
2002	20.7	19.4
2003	17.4	16.5
2004	23.4	20.9
2005	33.9	30.2

Source: Finance Division, MOE.

Malaysia's primary consideration to reduce the adverse effect of poverty in basic education, especially among the poor and disadvantaged children through Poor Students' Trust Fund, Textbook Loan Scheme and various scholarships, among others, have been crucial to maintaining the high percentage of participation in basic education.

In addition, to guarantee retention and increase the chance for success in school, Malaysia ensures that all students master reading, writing and arithmetic skills. The KIA2M programme provides extra intensive tutoring for children identified to experience difficulties in learning to read during the first year of primary school. The Malaysian basic education system further aims to ensure that no student drops out of the system due to poverty or geographic location.

16.2.3 Disparities/Variations in Performance

The figure below shows that the federal territory of Labuan has the highest GIR at 136.0% in 2005. This suggests that there are more children in Labuan not entering Grade 1 at age seven, but they still participate later on. Two other states, Selangor and Johor have GIRs greater than 100%. On the other hand, Kelantan and WP Kuala Lumpur recorded the lowest GIR at 80.4% and 78.5%, respectively. In these states, the total number of children entering primary school is far less than their 7-year old population.

Figure 41: GIR for Primary Education, by State, 2005, Malaysia

Sources: MOE, Pendidikan Islam and JPS.

Malaysia also reported that the states of Sabah and Kelantan, as well as WP Kuala Lumpur, have the lowest gross enrolment rates in primary education. Selangor and Labuan have the highest rates of slightly over 100% indicating over- or under-age enrolment. At the secondary education level, the states of Kedah and Sabah have the lowest GER while Selangor and Perlis have the highest, as shown in Figure 42.

It should be noted, however, that Malaysia's estimation of the number of out-of-school children is a simple subtraction of children enrolled in school from the school-age going population based on recorded live births. This method does not account for the migration of children to other states prior to primary education entry age or upon entering secondary education.

Figure 42: GER for Primary and Secondary Education, by State, 2005, Malaysia

Primary

State	Percent
WP Kuala Lumpur	80.4
Sabah	81.2
Kelantan	88.2
Melaka	95.4
Perak	95.5
Terengganu	96.6
Pulau Pinang	97.4
Kedah	97.6
Sarawak	98.1
Perlis	98.2
Pahang	98.3
Johor	103.1
Negeri Sembilan	104.2
Labuan	106.9
Selangor	107.5

Secondary

State	Percent
Kedah	60.6
Sabah	62.8
WP Kuala Lumpur	80.4
Sarawak	86.8
Pahang	87.3
Terengganu	89.0
Perak	89.2
Kelantan	90.6
Pulau Pinang	92.3
Melaka	94.2
Johor	94.6
Negeri Sembilan	103.5
Selangor	104.6
Perlis	124.3

Sources: MOE, Pendidikan Islam and JPS.
Note: Labuan 's Secondary GER was computed as part of Sabah.

Recognizing that income disparities favour urban areas, public education support continues to favour rural children. More than 40% of students in Sabah and Sarawak receive support from the Poor Student's Trust Fund compared with the national availment ratio of about 28%. This pattern is also observable in the Supplementary Food Programme where nearly 50% of the students in Sabah participated in the programme compared with the national availment rate of 22%. In contrast, the urban areas of Selangor and Kuala Lumpur have availment rates of about 7% and 3%, respectively.

The Malaysian government also continues to address rural-urban differences through the construction of classrooms. Out of the total classrooms to be constructed for the period 2006-2010, 68% of the classrooms for primary and 77% for secondary will be built in rural areas.

16.2.4 Remaining Challenges and Issues

Malaysia's progress in relation to Goal 2 is founded on sustained strong political commitment for education supported by significant increase in investment for children to achieve 100% completion of quality basic education by 2015. Providing schools and teachers alone does not guarantee full access and participation. Financial support for needy students through loan programmes for text books, school nutrition supplements, subsidies for extra tuition and a poor students' trust fund had greater impact on the participation of children coming from poor households. Continued investment and intensified efforts are expected to reach those who are not served. As of 2005, an estimated 125,000 primary school age children and about 375,000 children of secondary school age were not enrolled in school.

For planning and targeting, as well as monitoring of progress, data on the unreached and marginalized groups that is more disaggregated is necessary to provide relevant insights into their situation, numbers and location.

Despite the increase in the number of enrollees among the disadvantaged groups such as those from indigenous communities, sustaining attendance and progress in school needs to be encouraged. This could be done through outreach initiatives to parents and communities to

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promote school attendance, among others. It is reported that the rate of absenteeism is high and achievement tests are low among these groups. The causes of this low performance need to be assessed. Also worth looking into is the effect of the location of schools and the expectations of teachers from children from indigenous groups on their attendance and performance.

16.3 Goal Three: Life Skills and Lifelong Learning in Malaysia

16.3.1 Background and Development of Life Skills and Lifelong Learning in Malaysia

The realization of Malaysia's vision to be a developed country by 2020 rests largely on the development of its human capital. The country has substantially invested on education and training opportunities for its young people as well as on mechanisms for advocacy and information dissemination on the existence of these programmes.

a. Definition of Life Skills and Lifelong Learning

Malaysia defines life skills as essentially the skills that encompass the following:

- Basic skills - literacy, numeracy and information and communication technology skills;

- Psychosocial skills – reflective, personal and interpersonal skills including problem-solving, critical thinking and communication;

- Practical or contextual skills – technical or vocational, income generation, and those skills pertaining to health, gender, family, environment and civics; and

- Living skills – manipulative skills, those skills relevant to orientation and mobility, behaviour management, self-management, self-care, home living and leisure.

b. Key Strategies and Programmes

Progressive acquisition of skills is ensured through the completion of the entire stretch of the formal education system. For those who experience barriers to participation in the formal education system, specific strategies and targeted programmes on life skills development are provided by the government with special focus on young people between the ages of 15-24 who are not enrolled in higher education.

To ensure that all Malaysians acquire basic competencies on life skills, the fundamental strategy is to provide quality basic education. Literacy, numeracy and other critical skills must be acquired from basic education. Extra tutoring for children having difficulties in literacy and additional academic support for indigenous children is provided. Other forms of financial support (e.g., for books, transportation, etc.) are also provided to poor students to reduce barriers to school participation.

For children and young people with special needs or living in remote areas, opportunities to continue developing life skills and improving their livelihoods are made available regardless of ethnic and religious backgrounds. In special education, development of life skills is integral to the entire stretch of education, from pre-school up to the secondary education level. Students with special needs are also accommodated in national technical secondary schools and also in Polytechnics as one of the thrusts of 9MP and EDMP.

Various opportunities to improve livelihood skills at the secondary and post-secondary levels are also provided by Malaysia for its citizens. Practical education is provided by the MOE at national secondary schools involving skills training, specialized training related to a specific job, training for the upgrading of existing skills, among others. There are also around 90 technical secondary schools under MOE which combine secondary school certificate with three types of programmes: (a) training in certain technical areas that serves as a preparation for a post-secondary technical programme; (b) vocational training that prepares a student to enter Polytechnics; and (c)

programmes by which the students can qualify for a vocational certification. The development of a trained and motivated workforce with proper values and life skills vital to individual and national development is the key factor in achieving Malaysia's goal to be a developed country by 2020.

The country also pursues a holistic development of the youth with opportunities to continuously develop and improve life skills. This includes promotion of a healthy lifestyle for which the MOH has implemented the Healthy Lifestyle Campaign. Health promotion for children and young people also includes awareness about HIV/AIDS and the health risks linked to smoking.

Malaysia aspires to develop its youth into productive and morally-sound individuals by emphasizing core elements in youth development such as economic and social well-being of youths, capacity building, social integration and political awareness and development of leadership qualities pursuant to the 2004 Malaysian National Youth Development Plan. These core elements also include participation in the Rakan Muda programme which aims to motivate and mold Malaysian youth into citizens of principles and characters ready to live in a developed Malaysia.

16.3.2 Progress Achieved and Best Practices

Malaysia's youth literacy rate was at 95.6% in 1991. The 2005 Malaysia Labour Force Survey (MLFS) showed the youth literacy to have improved to 98.4% in 2005. It should be noted that the MLFS defined youth literacy rate as the proportion of the population aged 15-24 years who are attending schools or have attended schools. With the compulsory education policy and the high percentage of participation among school-aged children and youth in basic education during the past years, youth literacy rate is expected to increase significantly. In magnitude, the number of youth illiterates was brought down from 81,000 in 2000 to 78,000 2005.
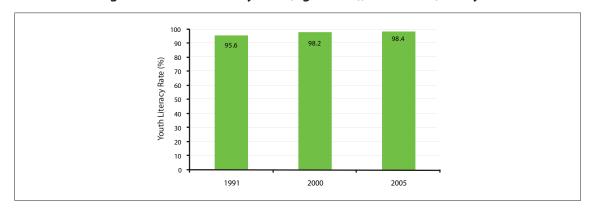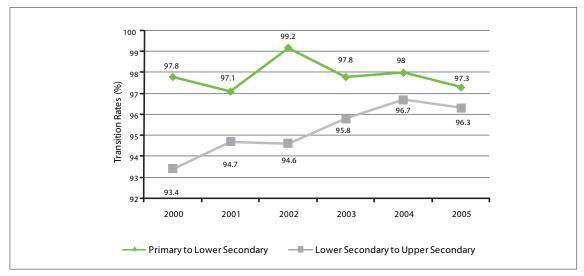
Figure 43: Youth Literacy Rate (Age 15-24), 1991-2005, Malaysia

Sources: Malaysia Country EFA MDA Dataset; 2005 Labour Force Survey (Department of Statistics, Malaysia).

Although the country's primary to secondary transition rate has been relatively high and has not gone down below 97%, Figure 44 reflects a fluctuating trend. The rate reached its highest in 2002 at 99.2%. Comparing 2000 and 2005, transition rate recorded a marginal decline from 97.8% to 97.3%. On the other hand, the transition rate from lower to upper secondary education registered a solid improvement from 93.4% to 96.3%. A high transition rate assures that life skills are attained by most of the children who have participated in the formal education system by progressing from primary to secondary level.
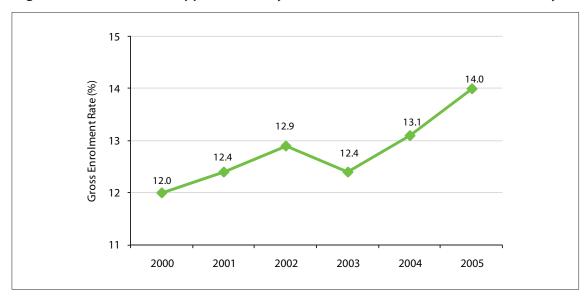
Figure 44: Transition Rate from Primary to Lower Secondary and from Lower to Upper Secondary Education, by State, MOE Schools, 2000-2005, Malaysia

Enrolment in TVET in secondary education also increased from 12% in 2000 to 14% in 2005. This can be attributed, in part, to the multiple opportunities provided by the MOE in technical secondary schools which allow students to choose from various academic and technical-vocational programme combinations.

Figure 45: GER in TVET in Upper Secondary Education, MOE Schools, 2000-2005, Malaysia

Among Malaysia's best practices for Goal 3 include provision of additional support such as: (a) more intensive tutoring for children identified as having difficulty in reading and writing to ensure that everyone acquires literacy skills; (b) financial assistance to poor students to stay in schools and progress through education levels; and (c) provision of relevant life skills programmes for the youth from indigenous communities, as well as programmes for all young Malaysians to develop into productive, moral, principled and motivated individuals. In addition, participation of various stakeholders (government agencies, local government units, and NGOs) in the delivery of basic and functional literacy programmes for out-of-school youths and adults contribute substantially in the progress related to Goal 3.

16.3.3 Disparities/Variations in Performance

Across the states, Perak had the highest transition rate from primary to lower secondary in 2005 at 105.2%. A transition rate of more than 100% may be due to primary education graduates migrating to other states and continuing secondary education in the destination state or simply that primary education graduates enrol in secondary schools in nearby states. Other states with transition rate more than 100% are Pulau Pinang (105.1%), Sarawak (102.1%), Negeri Sembilan (101%) and Johor (101%). Similarly, the lower transition rates of Terengganu (87.4%) and Kelantan (85%) may be due to students enrolling in nearby states or in boarding schools in other states. For lower to upper secondary level transition rate, the gap between the highest (Perlis at 108.4%) and the lowest state (Kedah at 94.0%) is much narrower.

Figure 46: Transition Rate from Primary to Lower Secondary and from Lower to Upper Secondary Education, MOE Schools, by State, 2005, Malaysia

Source: MOE.

Students with special needs have participated in the secondary level technical-vocational training and education programmes. Formal secondary level technical schools are established across Malaysia to ensure wide access for rural youth to acquire practical life skills. However, causes of disparities across states and groups are difficult to establish at present due to lack of sufficient database on the actual demand for and supply of life skills programmes. As of 2005, Perlis posted the highest GER in TVET at the upper secondary education level at 32.5% while Selangor, Sarawak and Sabah had GER of less than 10%. Perlis' relatively higher GERs is due to enrolment from other states.

Figure 47: GER in TVET in Upper Secondary Education by State, MOE Schools, 2005, Malaysia

Source: MOE.

16.3.4 Remaining Challenges and Issues in Life Skills

A challenge Malaysia needs to address is how to encourage the youth to continue engaging in skills training programmes. There is a need to further promote TVET, for example, as a viable option to the academic path. Another major challenge is the need to establish a coordination system that integrates a more reliable database on the existing life skills programmes and the remaining demands from across all segments of the population. Finally, sustained efforts are needed to improve the quality of programmes delivered to further guarantee that Malaysian youth acquire and continue to improve life skills for lifelong learning.

16.4 Goal Four: Adult Literacy in Malaysia

16.4.1 Background and Development of Adult Literacy in Malaysia

a. Definition of Adult Literacy

Conceptually, basic literacy is defined as the ability to read and write in Bahasa Malaysia. Operationally, for purposes of statistical studies such as surveys, it is defined as the proportion of population attending or had attended school. This definition was used by the Department of Statistics in conducting the 2000 Malaysia Census and the 2005 Malaysia Labour Force Survey (MLFS). For the adult literacy rate, the age covered is 15 years old and above. With the strong emphasis Malaysia is putting on the quality of basic education, it is surmised that those who have gone to school or are still attending school and aged 15 years old and above already possess this fundamental skill.

b. Key Strategies and Programmes

The overall strategy adopted by the government to improve the literacy rate of the population is to enforce free and compulsory basic education. The government has likewise invested substantially on programmes to improve quality and equity to ensure maximum opportunity for all children to achieve literacy. Among these are the KIA2M and the "Reading Habit is the Key to Knowledge" programme which consists of various activities that promote and encourage reading.

Greater attention is given to disadvantaged groups through the JHEOA and KEMAS. Special and other opportunities are provided for the rural poor in the states of Sabah and Sarawak and for the indigenous communities in Peninsular Malaysia (e.g., the Women Motivator Programme incorporates promotion of awareness and skills among parents in indigenous communities to encourage reading among their children).

Other key strategies adopted by Malaysia in relation to improving literacy skills include provision of other opportunities for improving literacy skills for income generating activities. The KEMAS has more than 4,800 training facilities nationwide that provide functional literacy and skills training programmes such as Education for Family Well-Being, Functional Literacy Education, Computer Literacy Education, Education for Acquisition of Skills, and Community Resource Centres.

One of the programmes for young people who have not completed secondary education is delivered through the Pusat Giat Mara centres under the Ministry of Entrepreneur and Cooperative Development (MECD). These centres provide skills training on sewing, electronics, business and automotives, among others, to those 15 years old and above who, after graduation, can proceed to MEDC Skills Training Institutes and pursue diploma level technical qualification. The MEDC also provide short-term (1-2 weeks) programmes such as basic business skills and information and communication technology (ICT) for those 18 years old and above.

Finally, Malaysia seeks to provide literacy training relevant to the distinct needs of a community. For example, functional literacy programmes implemented by KEMAS has a component that focuses on agricultural skills for those living in rural areas whose potential is largely on agriculture.

Specific types of support are also given to indigenous communities such as integration of indigenous crafts and other skills to the literacy programmes especially designed for them. Given the high basic literacy rate in the country, Malaysia is increasingly focusing its literacy-related initiatives on developing functional or critical skills in support of the economic development thrusts of the 9MP.

16.4.2 Progress Achieved and Best Practices

Malaysia's adult literacy improved from 88.6% in 1991 to 90% in 2000, as show in Figure 48. The latest MLFS conducted in 2005 showed that adult literacy further increased to 91.6%. Such significant improvement is largely due the high participation rate in basic education. Literacy programmes within the context of community needs are linked with income generating activities that focus on special skills in the community, like crafts and agriculture. An additional year of study focusing on language and literacy between Year 2 and 3 at the primary level is offered for children from indigenous groups and other children whose main language is not Malay, to assist them in becoming literate in the language.
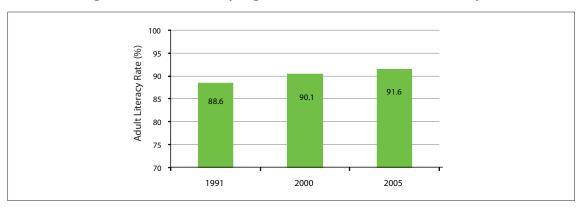
Figure 48: Adult Literacy (Age 15+), 1991, 2000 and 2005, Malaysia

Sources: Malaysia Country EFA MDA Dataset and 2005 Labour Force Survey (Department of Statistics).

Literacy programmes within the context of community needs are linked with income generating activities that focus on special skills in the community, like crafts and agriculture. An additional year of study focusing on language and literacy between Year 2 and 3 at the primary level is offered for children from indigenous groups and other children whose main language is not Malay, to assist them in becoming literate in the national language.

16.4.3 Disparities/Variations in Performance

The literacy rates in the rural areas of Sabah and Sarawak were much lower than the national average at 79% and 72%, respectively, in 2000. The government, however, has intensified efforts to improve literacy in these areas through increased allocation of resources and number of public literacy related programmes. Around 85% of 1,977 new literacy programmes or centres have been delivered and established in these states by 2005.

Based on "A Study on Literacy Among Secondary School Students" conducted by the Data Unit of the Educational Planning and Research Division in 2006, first year secondary school students enrolled in MOE schools were found to have generally high levels of basic literacy (ability to read and write in Bahasa Malaysia) at 95.2%. They, however, exhibited lower levels of critical literacy (skills needed to enter tertiary education or to perform tasks with the level of complexity common to white collar jobs) at 71.2%. The study further showed that variation in literacy and critical literacy skills depend on location and socioeconomic status. First year students in rural schools and disadvantaged students exhibited lower literacy skills.

16.4.4 Remaining Challenges and Issues

As mentioned above, while the aggregate basic literacy rate (reading and writing in Malay) is high among first year secondary school students in public schools, they manifested a lower critical literacy, especially the children from rural areas and disadvantaged students. The main challenge for Malaysia is to sustain the quality of literacy programmes to focus more on functional and critical skills and intensify assistance in the rural areas and among the disadvantaged groups.

To further deliver effective adult literacy programmes, Malaysia needs to strengthen literacy networks and partnerships among government agencies, NGOs, women's organizations, tribal groups and other community groups, and to develop mechanisms and incentives to sustain such networks and partnerships. Likewise, gender parity in adult literacy in Malaysia has yet to be worked out focusing on girls as they continue to constitute the higher portion of illiterates. This will be further discussed under Goal 5.

Another challenge is how to better target literacy initiatives and establish appropriate benchmarks for measuring progress in order to facilitate comparative analysis with other countries, as well as for exchange of information and practices that can be generated through research or study.

Lastly, the 91.6% literacy rate in 2005 still means an estimated 1.48 million adult illiterates (1.55 million in 2000) live in the country. Further bringing this number down is the challenge Malaysia is now addressing in order to achieve Goal 4.

16.5 Goal Five: Gender Equality in Basic Education in Malaysia

16.5.1 Background and Development of Gender Equality in Basic Education in Malaysia

a. Definition of Gender Equality

Malaysia adheres to the UNESCO definition referring to gender as "the roles and responsibilities of men and women that are created in our families, our societies and our cultures". The definition further refers to the concept of gender as also including "the expectations held about characteristics, aptitudes and likely behaviours of both women and men". Gender equality means "women and men have equal conditions for realizing their full human rights and for contributing to, and benefiting from, economic, social, culture, and political development".

b. Strategies and Programmes

Malaysia has included gender and development dimension as early as the Third Malaysia Plan or 3MP (1976-1980) which strongly encouraged active participation of women in economic development.

Subsequently, the country adopted the National Policy for Women (NPW) in 1989. The NPW contain the Malaysian gender and development policies and strategies to be integrated in all national development plans, as well as institutional capacity-building programmes to ensure equitable male and female access to resources and information and opportunities and benefits arising from socioeconomic development, among others. A full chapter on gender consistent with the NWP has been integrated in the subsequent medium-term national plans since the Sixth Malaysia Plan or 6MP (1991-1995).

In accordance with the principle of gender equality, the Malaysian National Education System and the EDMP aim to provide equitable access to primary, secondary and tertiary education for all segments of the population, male and female, with special focus on the disadvantaged groups.

16.5.2 Progress Achieved

Using the Gender Parity Index (GPI) and other indicators, below is a summary of Malaysia's achievement in relation to Goal 5.

ECCE. Gender gaps have persisted in ECCE enrolment with the GPI for GER in 2000 exhibiting a gap in favour of boys at 0.95. The advantage was reversed in 2005 with the GPI recorded at 1.03. However, the 2005 value indicates parity has been achieved with the GPI falling between 0.97 and 1.03. For Grade 1 entrants with ECCE experience, parity was achieved in 2000 and 2001 but girls started to outperform boys in 2002. This gap persisted up to 2005.

Table 38: GER for ECCE and Percentage of Grade 1 Students with ECCE Experience and GPIs, 2000-2005, Malaysia

Year	GER for ECCE			% of Grade 1 Students with ECCE Experience		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
2000	49.6	47.1	0.95	46.9	47.1	1.00
2001	50.8	55.1	1.08	49.8	50.1	1.01
2002	54.8	52	0.95	52.4	56.0	1.07
2003	55.0	63.2	1.15	58.5	61.6	1.05
2004	59.7	70.3	1.18	65.5	68.4	1.04
2005	66.5	68.4	1.03	72.4	76.9	1.06

Sources: MOE and JPS-MOE.

Primary and Secondary Education. Table 39 shows Malaysia has achieved gender parity, both in the GIR and GER for primary education from 2000 to 2005. For secondary level, however, the gender gap was in favour of girls throughout 2000 to 2005. This widening gender gap in favour of girls merits closer attention and analysis so as to prevent possible continued deterioration in the performance of boys with respect to basic education outcomes.
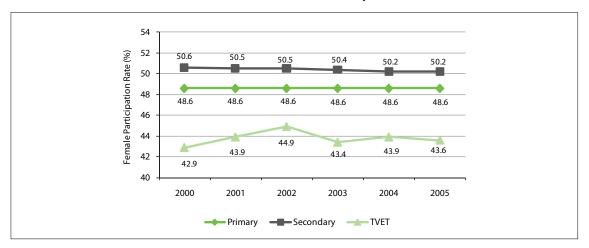
Table 39: Estimated GPI for GIR and GER, Primary and Secondary Education and GPIs, 2000-2005, Malaysia

Year	Primary GIR			Primary GER			Secondary GER		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
2000	94.5	95.9	1.01	95.1	96.2	1.01	83.0	90.7	1.09
2001	95.1	96.2	1.01	94.4	95.7	1.01	82.6	89.3	1.08
2002	96.8	97.7	1.01	93.9	95.1	1.01	82.6	89.5	1.08
2003	95.9	96.9	1.01	94.7	95.9	1.01	83.2	89.8	1.08
2004	96.4	97.4	1.01	94.7	95.9	1.01	84.2	90.2	1.07
2005	96.2	97.2	1.01	95.5	96.8	1.01	82.8	88.7	1.07

Sources: MOE; JPS-MOE; and Pendidikan Islam.

In terms of actual number of enrolment, girls constitute a little less than half of total enrolment at the primary level at constant 48.6% from 2000 to 2005. The proportion is slightly bigger at the secondary level at 50.6% in 2000. The percentage slightly decreased to 50.2% in 2005. For TVET in the upper secondary level, girls' enrolment has been slightly fluctuating. Nevertheless, there has been an increase in the proportion of female enrolled in TVET at the upper secondary level from 42.9% in 2000 to 43.6% in 2005. This suggests that MOE's efforts to encourage more female enrolment in TVET is gradually paying off.

Figure 49: Percentage of Female Participation in Primary, Secondary and TVET, MOE Schools, 2000-2005, Malaysia

Source: MOE.

Life Skills. Malaysia has achieved gender parity in youth literacy since 2000 which was sustained until 2005. There has been negligible difference in the literacy rates between males and females.

Table 40: Youth Literacy Rate (Age 15-24) Rate and GPI, 2000 and 2005, Malaysia

Year	Youth Literacy		
	Male	Female	GPI
2000	98.3	98.1	1.00
2005	98.4	98.3	1.00

Sources: Malaysia Country EFA MDA Dataset and 2005 Labour Force Survey (Department of Statistics).

Gender parity has been technically achieved in the transition rate from primary to lower secondary from 2000 to 2005, with the GPI falling within the parity level of between 0.97 and 1.03. While boys have consistently recorded slightly higher transition rates from primary to lower secondary than girls, the trend is reversed with respect to the transition rate from lower to upper secondary sub-levels. This indicates that once girls have entered the first level of secondary education, they are more likely to continue to upper secondary level.

Table 41: Transition Rate, MOE Schools, 2000-2005, Malaysia

Year	Transition Rate from Primary to Lower Secondary			Transition Rate from Lower to Upper Secondary		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
2000	98.5	97.0	0.99	91.0	95.8	1.05
2001	97.5	96.5	0.99	92.7	95.7	1.03
2002	100.3	98.1	0.98	92.5	96.7	1.05
2003	98.2	97.4	0.99	93.6	98	1.05
2004	98.8	97.1	0.98	95.1	98.3	1.03
2005	97.7	96.8	0.99	94.8	97.8	1.03

Source: MOE.

Although both male and female GER in TVET in upper secondary schools have improved from 2000 to 2005, the proportion of female enrolment has always been lower than that of males. The increase in female GER was largely due to the MOE's efforts to encourage more female enrolment through the provision of boarding facilities for girls, among others. Prior to 2000, the enrolment proportion was at 70-30 in favor of boys. It has improved to 60-40 and some schools even have 50-50 enrolment.
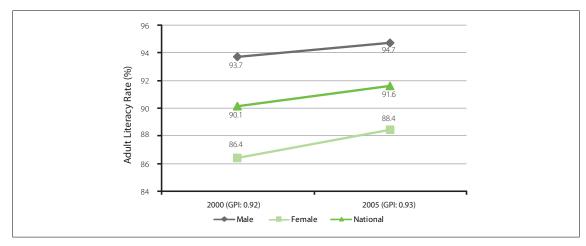
Table 42: GER in TVET in Upper Secondary Education and GPI, MOE Schools, 2000-2005, Malaysia

Year	GER in TVET in Upper Secondary		
	Male	Female	GPI
2000	13.5	10.5	0.78
2001	13.7	11.1	0.81
2002	14.0	11.8	0.84
2003	13.8	11.0	0.80
2004	14.3	11.7	0.82
2005	15.4	12.5	0.81

Source: MOE.

Adult Literacy. Compared with the youth literacy rate in which gender parity has been achieved, the adult literacy rate shows females at a disadvantage. In 2000, the GPI for adult literacy was at 0.92. It improved only slightly to 0.93 in 2005 based on the results of the 2005 MLFS. The figure below still reflects some of the past gender disparity in adult literacy. However, as the current efforts on improving participation in basic education for both boys and girls take effect, parity is expected to further improve in adult literacy.
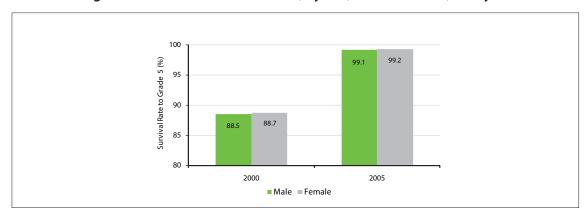
Figure 50: Adult Literacy Rate (Age 15+), Rate and GPI, 2000 and 2005, Malaysia

Sources: Malaysia Country EFA MDA Dataset and 2005 Labour Force Survey (Department of Statistics).

Quality in Basic Education. Both sexes have significantly improved survival rates to Grade 5 on an equal rate such that gender parity was achieved in 2000 and sustained in 2005.

Figure 51: Survival Rate to Grade 5, by Sex, 2000 and 2005, Malaysia

Source: MOE.

With respect to achievement in academic performance, national assessments conducted in 2003 showed that girls perform better than boys from primary to secondary levels. The table below illustrates that a higher percentage of girls get the acceptable standard scores for the subjects Mathematics, English and Malay language.
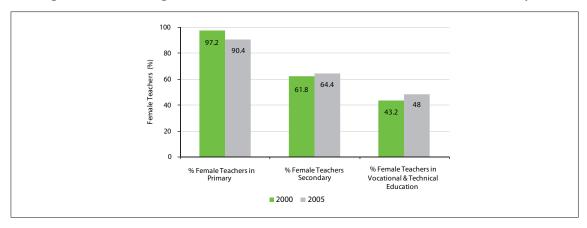
Table 43: Student Learning Achievement, Male-Female, 2003, Malaysia

Subject	Primary Achievement Test		Lower Secondary Assessment		Malaysia Senior Certificate Examination	
	Percent Passing with A, B or C		Percent Passing with A, B, C or D		Percent Passing with A, B or C	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Mathematics	81.0%	89.3%	88.8%	94.0%	65.3%	76.3%
English	58.7%	74.9%	60.5%	75.7%	57.7%	74.0%
Malay Language	81.2%	89.8%	92.4%	97.5%	83.7%	92.0%

Source: Malaysia EFA MDA Report (Draft, 12 February 2008), page 60.

Females form the majority of the teaching force at the primary education level at 97.2% in 2000. This proportion slightly went down to 90.4% in 2005 with more males being attracted to teach at the primary level. And although they still constitute the majority at the secondary level, the percentage of females is lower at 61.8% in 2000 but increased to 64.4% in 2005. Conversely, the percentage of females teaching in vocational and technical education is less than half at 43.2% in 2000. The proportion increased to constitute almost half of the teaching force in 2005.

Figure 52: Percentage of Female Teachers, MOE Schools, 2000 and 2005, Malaysia

Source: MOE.

16.5.3 Disparities/Variations in Performance

The table below reflects a generally greater participation of girls in ECCE and in secondary education across Malaysia. Gender parity has been achieved in primary GER except in Labuan and WP Kuala Lumpur. ECCE GER registered the most varied performance as reflected by Sarawak's GPI of 1.20 and Labuan's 0.80. Although Labuan's boys are most disadvantaged in ECCE GER, the state registered the most advantage for girls in three indicators (percentage of Grade 1 with ECCE, GIR and GER primary). At the secondary level, more bias is seen in favour of girls, with the highest being in Sarawak.

Table 44: GPIs for Selected Indicators, by State, 2005, Malaysia

States	GER ECCE	% of Grade 1 w/ ECCE Experience	GIR Primary	GER Primary	GER Secondary
Johor	1.17	1.04	1.01	1.01	1.07
Kedah	1.07	1.03	1.03	1.02	1.09
Kelantan	1.02	1.01	0.99	1.01	1.09
Melaka	0.99	0.96	1.00	1.02	1.04
Negeri Sembilan	1.09	1.07	1.00	1.02	1.04
Pahang	1.12	1.03	0.99	1.01	1.06
Perak	1.10	0.98	1.01	1.01	1.04
Perlis	0.97	1.00	1.01	1.00	1.02
Pulau Pinang	1.12	1.10	1.01	1.01	1.06
Sabah	1.03	1.03	1.03	1.02	1.10
Sarawak	1.20	0.97	1.01	1.02	1.11
Selangor	1.09	1.05	1.00	1.01	1.06
Terengganu	1.04	1.07	1.01	1.02	1.08
WP Kuala Lumpur	1.18	0.97	1.03	1.04	1.08
Labuan	0.80	1.11	1.04	1.05	-

Sources: MOE; JPS KPM; KEMAS; PERPADUAN; ABIM; JAIN; Malaysia Country EFA MDA Dataset; and the 2005 Labour Force Survey.
Note: "-" indicate that Secondary GER for Labuan was computed as part of Sabah.

16.5.4 Remaining Challenges and Issues on Gender Equality

Although the challenge remains in bringing the last percentage of school children to participate in basic education, more effort needs to be exerted to increase the proportion of boys attending school. Girls also perform better than boys in national examination at all levels in basic education. On the other hand, adult literacy exhibited slower movement towards parity at only 0.92 to 0.93 GPI from 2000 to 2005. Elevating the overall female literacy situation remains a challenge.

Although there is generally gender parity in education in Malaysia based on indicators at the aggregate level, under-representation of women among top decision makers in both the private and public sector can still be observed. Moreover, cultural factors may still be influencing individual decisions concerning career path in relation to male-female traditional choices (e.g., teaching for women and engineering for men).

Malaysian society has recognized the need to optimize benefits from the talents of its women by encouraging and promoting greater representation in decision-making bodies and in university courses that are traditionally identified with males. The challenge lies at determining how the education sector can influence Malaysian society to take full advantage of the potential and talents of its women consistent and within the context of Malaysian culture and values.

16.6 Goal Six: Quality of Basic Education in Malaysia

16.6.1 Background and Development of Quality of Basic Education in Malaysia

a. Definition of Quality Basic Education and National Policy and Legislation: Provision and Coordination

As repeatedly emphasized, Malaysia considers quality of education as crucial to its quest to be a developed nation by 2020. The Malaysian education system aims to ensure that all citizens complete a minimum of 12 years of quality basic education (from pre-school to upper secondary education) to be domestically productive as well as globally competitive. As such, the Malaysian Education system aims to produce graduates who are intellectually, spiritually, emotionally and physically balanced, among others, in accordance with the National Philosophy for Education and the "first class mentality" campaign.

b. Key Strategies and Programmes

Integral to Malaysia's approach to improve the quality of basic education is the continued enhancement of the learning environment through construction of more classrooms, provision of electricity, clean water and sanitation in all schools. The planned construction of more than 13,000 classrooms is expected to improve classroom-pupil ratio from 31 to 30 at the primary level and from 32 to 30 at the secondary level by 2010. Classroom construction is expected to increase the proportion of single-session schools from 90% to 86% for primary schools and from 65% to 70% for secondary schools by 2010.

Amidst the overall strategies to improve quality of education, the Malaysian government also seeks to give special attention to the needs of the disadvantaged by reducing disparities in the quality of education services. One of the programmes that support this is the allocation of the bulk of classroom construction for rural areas to eliminate urban-rural disparity in access and classroom-pupil ratio.

Malaysia supports a holistic and standardized concept of quality which recognizes the need for diverse programmes for different types of learners. This is implemented through the expansion of a variety of innovative programmes and education institutions to better cater to more children and youth experiencing difficulties in fully availing regular basic education services. Technical-vocational programmes have been incorporated in the secondary schools to addresss the needs for practical skills training of students, including those with special needs. For indigenous children, provision of uniforms, school feeding, and material support to families are implemented to increase their participation. The MOE, in cooperation with JHEOA, is also formulating an Integrated Primary School Curriculum that will integrate and utilize indigenous cultural contents to make learning more relevant to these children.

Other important strategies are ensuring: (a) availability of adequate and appropriate school resources that include qualified teachers and other school personnel such as counselors; (b) extra support for pupils experiencing difficulties in reading; (c) learning materials and facilities such as ICT; and (d) enhanced curriculum integrating values, co-curricular activities and practical skills. Provision of a wide variety of co-curricular activites is also considered as an important aspect of complementing and enhancing the quality of children's learning. The MOE recognizes the contribution of these activities in the development of positive values and ethics.

Equally important in ensuring quality in education is enhancing the capability to monitor results of interventions through various examinations conducted at different education levels. At the school level, quality is assured through the School Inspectorates (an independent body with the MOE). The School Inspectorates conduct regular monitoring of the delivery of quality education based on the Standard for Quality Education in Malaysia (SQEM). The SQEM covers four aspects
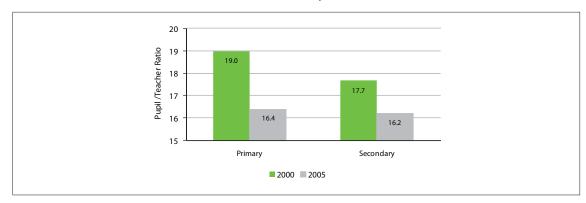
of quality: (a) Leadership Direction; (b) Organizational Management; (c) Educational Programme Management; and (d) Pupils Accomplishment. The equivalent instrument for private schools is the Quality Standards for Private Education Institutions used by the MOE to monitor the quality of education in private schools.

Finally, Malaysia's economic development has enabled it to infuse more financial resources to education. The country recognizes that the strategies outlined in its education plans need to be backed up by sufficient and sustained adequate financial resources.

16.6.2 Progress Achieved and Best Practices

By sustaining an adequate supply of teachers, Malaysia has achieved a PTR of 16.4 in 2005 from 19 in 2000. At the lower and upper secondary levels, the PTRs both improved from 16.7 to 16.2 over the same period.
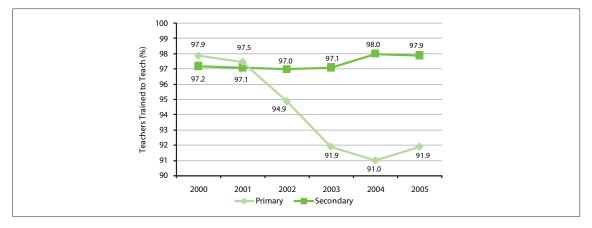
Figure 53: Pupil/Teacher Ratio, Primary and Secondary Education, MOE Schools, 2000 and 2005, Malaysia

Source: MOE.

As of 2005, the percentage of teachers certified to teach according to national standards at the primary level went down to 91.9% from 97.9% in 2000. A possible explanation for this decline is the implementation of higher standards for the teachers such as the acquisition of a university degree. When teachers take leave to pursue university degree, they are temporarily replaced by untrained teachers. Malaysia is investing substantially to improve the quality of its teaching force. The target is for 50% of primary and 100% of secondary education teachers to have acquired a university degree by 2010.

Figure 54: Percentage of Teachers Certified to Teach According to National Standards, MOE Schools, 2000-2005, Malaysia

Source: MOE.

Malaysia reported that its survival rate to Grade 5 substantially improved from 96% in 2000 to 98.4% in 2005. This may be attributed to the fact that the majority of Malaysian children who enter primary school have some form of ECCE background which give them adequate preparation for formal schooling. The intensive assistance and support given to pupils having difficulties in their lessons may also be an important factor in achieving such high survival rate.

Figure 55: Survival Rate to Grade 5, 2000 and 2005, Malaysia

Source: MOE.

Recognizing that a sound financial strategy will help ensure the success of its basic education strategies and programmes, the share of primary education from the total education expenditure was increased from 24.31% to 33.94% while that of secondary education was also increased from 21.22% to 30.25%. As a percentage of total government expenditure, however, the share of total education expenditure for basic education went down by 3.81 percentage points from 2000 to 2005. The lower share is due to the separation of higher education expenditures following the creation of a Ministry on Higher Education.

Figure 56: Percent Share of Basic Education Expenditure from the Total Government Expenditure, 2000-2005, Malaysia

Source: Finance Division - MOE.

According to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), Malaysia's expenditure for education as a percentage of its GDP slightly increased from 6.20% in 2000 to 6.24% in 2005. This figure is consistent with the UNESCO-recommended 6% share of GDP for education expenditure.

With respect to per capita expenditure, Malaysia reported that per pupil expenditure in primary education increased from 8.83% to 11.16% of GNP per capita from 2000 to 2005. At the secondary

level, it increased from 11.48% to 14.61% over the same period.

Table 45: Public Expenditure per Pupil as % of GNP per Capita, 2000-2005, Malaysia

Year	Public Expenditure per Pupil as % of GNP per Capita for Primary Level	Public Expenditure per Pupil as % of GNP per Capita for Secondary Level
2000	8.83	11.48
2001	9.10	11.38
2002	10.75	15.14
2003	10.54	15.04
2004	12.30	16.49
2005	11.16	14.61

Source: Finance Division - MOE.

16.6.3 Disparities/Variations in Performance

Malaysia's current strategies focus on elimination of urban-rural disparities with respect to access by providing more classrooms in the rural areas, as well as by providing additional support to children experiencing difficulties in primary education, particularly in attaining literacy, to address disparities in achievement.

16.6.4 Remaining Challenges in Providing Quality Basic Education

Malaysia reported that girls outperform boys at all levels of examination in the primary, lower secondary and upper secondary. It is yet to be established, however, whether the possible reasons such as the greater number of female teachers and their teaching practices affect the learning process, staying power and performance outcomes of boys in schools.

As such, Malaysia recognizes the need for deeper analysis of reasons behind current trends in education quality indicators, as well as for additional and more disaggregated collection and presentation of data. These studies and data could supplement existing indicators to aid education planning and programming. Specifically, a more thorough assessment of examination results is necessary for purposes of refining policies and practice with respect to teaching learning process.

Improving teacher quality is influenced by the traditional view of the teaching profession. Therefore, the need to positively modify perception on the importance and prestige attached to teaching is also considered a challenge by the Malaysian education system. Such perception is also linked to salary and incentives, as well as better career paths for teachers.

16.7 Summary and Conclusions

Overall, Malaysia has further improved its already high level of participation in basic education with schools exhibiting an equally high level of holding power while generally achieving gender parity at the national level. Selected key indicators in the table below show the country's progress towards the EFA 2015 Goals in 2005 using 2000 as baseline.

Table 46: Selected Indicators per EFA Goal, 2000 and 2005, Malaysia

EFA GOAL	INDICATORS	Baseline 2000	Accomplishment 2005
Goal 1	GER ECCE	48.4%	67.4%
	% of Grade 1 Students w/ ECCE Experience	47.0%	74.5%
Goal 2	GIR/NIR Primary	95.20%	96.70%
	GER/NER Primary	95.60%	96.10%
	GER/NER Junior Secondary	86.70%	85.60%
Goal 3	Youth Literacy Rate	98.20%	98.40%
	Enrolment in TVET at Secondary Level	12.00%	14.00%
	Transition Rate (Primary to Secondary)	97.80%	97.30%
Goal 4	Adult Literacy Rate	90.10%	91.60%
Goal 5	GPI for % of Grade 1 Students w/ ECCE Experience	1.00	1.06
	GPI – GIR Primary	1.01	1.01
	GPI – GER Primary	1.01	1.01
	GPI – GER Junior Secondary	1.09	1.07
	GPI – Survival Rate to Grade 5	1.00	1.00
	GPI – Youth Literacy Rate	1.00	1.00
	GPI – Adult Literacy Rate	0.92	0.93
	% Female Enrolment in Primary	48.6	48.6
	% Female Enrolment in Secondary	50.6	50.2
	% Female Enrolment in TVET	42.9	43.6
	% of Female Teachers in Primary	97.2	90.4
	% of Female Teachers in Secondary	61.8	64.4
	% of Female Teachers in TVET	43.2	48.0
Goal 6	PTR in Primary	19	16.4
	PTR in Junior Secondary	17.7	16.2
	PTR in Senior Secondary	17.7	16.2
	Survival Rate to Grade 5	96.00%	98.40%
	Education Expenditure as % of Total Gov. Expenditure	18.05%	14.24%
	Education Expenditure as % of GNP	4.76%	3.83%

Sources: MOE, Finance Division; JPS MOE, KEMAS, PERPADUAN; ABIM; JAIN; and the 2005 Labour Force Survey.

The country attained significant achievement in bringing more ECCE-aged children to attend ECCE programmes in 2005 from 2000 levels. The participation of children from indigenous groups in ECCE increased by almost three times as a result of the government's intensified efforts and increased investment to broaden access to ECCE services prioritizing rural areas and indigenous people communities. Awareness promotion on the importance of ECCE and community-based programmes that directly involved parents, regular monitoring of programme progress, as well as collaboration with civil society groups further increased the success rates of chosen interventions.

Malaysia was able to maintain a high percentage of participation in basic education. Fundamental to its strategy in increasing access among disadvantaged children is to reduce the adverse effect of poverty in basic education through programmes that provide direct financial assistance such as subsidies, loans and scholarships, among others. It is the objective of the Malaysian basic education system that no student drops out of school due to poverty or geographic location. To reduce or eliminate attrition, schools ensure that all students master reading, writing and arithmetic skills

by providing extra intensive tutoring among children experiencing difficulties in learning to read during the first year of primary school.

By ensuring the quality of basic education and by substantially improving the transition rate from primary to lower secondary, children have greater chances of completing basic education and acquiring literacy and other life skills. For adults and youth outside schools, life skills and literacy programmes are designed and implemented within the context of community needs. Mostly, they are linked with income generating activities that focus on special skills in the community, like crafts and agriculture.

Although there is generally gender parity in education in Malaysia based on indicators at the aggregate level such as youth literacy and survival rate to Grade 5, it can be noted that girls perform better with respect to access and learning achievement. However, with respect to literacy, a higher proportion of illiterates are adult females.

Malaysia's strength rests mostly in its political will, complemented with resources, as well as the capacity to optimize benefits and exact results from its programmes and investments.

Despite the degree of progress achieved towards meeting the EFA 2015 Goals, Malaysia continues to face remaining challenges. The biggest challenge is to finally close the performance gap between the urban and the rural areas. Thus, its programmes and interventions primarily focused on children in remote areas as well as children from indigenous communities. This strategy is expected to help bring in the remaining percentage of children not in school to achieve universal participation. With its significant achievement in access, the country was able to give more attention and equal importance and investment to quality concerns.

16.8 Recommendations

Based on the identified remaining challenges that Malaysia continue to face, the following specific recommendations are outlined:

Early Childhood Care and Development

- Modify current policy of limiting admission to children with single disability in MOE pre-schools (Special Education Regulation Act of 1997) in order to accommodate more children in the inclusive mainstreamed schools or in special education classes.

- Pursue the approval of the Early Childhood Care and Development (ECCD) Policy in Parliament to further elevate the quality of ECCE provision in Malaysia, particularly the learning environment including facilities, overall standards and establishment of a comprehensive monitoring system for child development, among others.

Universal Primary/Basic Education

- Establish a more appropriate and accurate means of generating and monitoring information on the situation of the remaining children not participating in basic education to identify accurately the kinds of barriers and difficulties they are experiencing, their number and location. The traditional measurement of access like GER does not provide sufficient information on the particular needs of these children. Additional detailed and more disaggregated information on the unreached and marginalized will complement the conventional indicators to aid in planning and targeting, as well as in formulating strategies and programmes.

- Continue financial support for needy students through proven and effective interventions such as loan programmes for textbooks, school nutrition supplements, subsidies for extra tuition and a poor students' trust fund that had greater impact on the participation of children coming from poor households to finally bring in the remaining 125,000 primary school age children and 375,000 children of secondary school age who are not enrolled in school.

- Intensify outreach initiatives to parents and communities to encourage and promote school attendance among the disadvantaged groups such as those from indigenous communities whose children are experiencing difficulties in sustaining attendance and low achievement in school. Causes of this low performance need to be assessed at greater length. For example, the location of schools and the expectations of teachers from these children may be putting pressure that adversely affect their attendance and performance.

Life Skills and Lifelong Learning

- Encourage the youth to continue engaging in skills training programmes by, for example, intensifying promotion of TVET as a viable option to the academic path.

- Establish a coordination system that integrates a more reliable database on the existing life skills programmes and the remaining demands from across all segments of the population.

- Intensify efforts to improve the quality of life skills programmes delivered to further guarantee that Malaysian youth acquire and continue to improve life skills for lifelong learning.

Adult Literacy

- Sustain quality of literacy programmes and focus more on developing functional and critical skills. Intensify assistance in the rural areas and among the disadvantaged groups where lower critical literacy is manifested by children.

- Strengthen literacy networks and partnerships among government agencies, NGOs, women's organizations, tribal groups and other community groups, and develop mechanisms and incentives to sustain such networks and partnerships in order to expand delivery of effective adult literacy programmes.

- Establish a better targeting scheme for literacy initiatives and appropriate benchmarks for measuring progress in order to facilitate comparative analysis with other countries, as well as for exchange of information and practices that can be generated through research or study.

- Establish an operational framework that will define the skills that constitute a literate person in the Malaysian context. This framework can serve as the basis for empirical studies such as a survey (using respondent-administered questionnaire) to determine the exact literacy situation in the country and to help identify the desired outcome from literacy and lifelong learning programmes.

Gender Equality

- Intensify efforts to increase the proportion of boys attending schools as they constitute around 65% of out-of-school children.

- Implement strategic measures on improving the overall adult literacy level of females as they continue to constitute the higher portion of illiterates.

- Encourage and promote greater representation of women in decision-making bodies and in university courses that are traditionally identified with males by influencing, through the education sector, Malaysian society to take full advantage of the potential and talents of its women while remaining faithful to the Malaysian culture and values.

Quality

- Identify the reasons behind the lower achievement of boys compared with girls at all levels of examination in the primary and secondary levels. For example, determine if the greater

dominance of female teachers in terms of numbers and their teaching practices affect the learning process, staying power and performance outcomes of boys in schools.

- Establish a deeper and broader framework for determining and analyzing reasons behind current trends in education quality indicators through collection of additional and more disaggregated collection and presentation of data to supplement existing indicators to aid education planning and programming. For example, a more in-depth assessment of examination results may help refine policies and practices concerning the teaching-learning process.

- Continue improving quality of teachers, accompanied by implementing measures to modify traditional perception on the importance and prestige attached to teaching by improving the salary and incentive system, as well as career development, among others.

Children without Proper Documentation

Continue developing productive collaboration among concerned neighbouring countries in the region, bilaterally or within the auspices of ASEAN, to resolve the situation of children without proper documentation (as a result of parents migrating to Malaysia without proper documentation), particularly with respect to the provision of education services.

17. Philippines

The Philippines is an archipelagic country with around 7,107 islands of varying sizes. These islands are clustered into three major groups: Luzon in the north; Visayas in the middle; and Mindanao in the south. The country is divided into 17 regions for purposes of administration. Each region consists of provinces and cities. In Luzon are eight regions: Ilocos Region (Region 1), Cagayan Valley (Region 2), Central Luzon (Region 3), Calabarzon (Region 4-A), Mimaropa (Region 4-B), Bicol Region (Region 5), Cordillera Administrative Region (CAR), and the National Capital Region (NCR) also known as Metro Manila. Among the three clusters, Visayas is the smallest with only three regions: Western Visayas (Region 6), Central Visayas (Region 7), and Eastern Visayas (Region 8). At the southern part of the Philippines are the regions in Mindanao: Zamboanga Peninsula (Region 9), Northern Mindanao (Region 10), Davao Region (Region 11), SOCCSKSARGEN (Region 12), Caraga Region, and the Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao (ARMM) . The map below shows the regional division of the Philippines.

Map 4: Regional Map, Philippines

Cordillera Administrative Region (CAR)

Ilocos Region (Region 1)

Cagayan Valley (Region 2)

Central Luzon (Region 3)

National Capital Region (NCR)

CALABARZON (Region 4 -A)

Bicol Region (Region 5)

MIMAROPA (Region IV -B)

Eastern Visayas (Region 8)

Central Visayas (Region 7)

Western Visayas (Region 6)

Caraga Region

Northern Mindanao (Region 10)

Zamboanga Peninsula (Region 9)

SOCCSKSARGEN (Region 12)

Davao Region (Region 11)

Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao (ARMM)

Source: Culture Unit, UNESCO Bangkok, 2008.

As of 2005, the Philippines had an estimated 85.3 million population. With a growth rate of almost 2.4%, the population is expected to reach more than 102 million in 2015. UNESCAP (2006) estimates that 62.7% of the country's population is in urban areas.

The governance and management service delivery of the country's education system has been 'trifocalized' since the mid-1990s. This means that three agencies are responsible for each level of education: (a) the Department of Education (DepEd) for basic education; (b) the Technical Education and Skills Development Authority (TESDA) for technical vocational education and training; and (c) the Commission on Higher Education (CHED) for higher education.

The Philippines committed to EFA in 1990 (in Jomtien,Thailand) and reaffirmed it in 2000 (in Dakar, Senegal). It has continued to implement strategies and programmes to sustain the gains from EFA 1990-2000. The country has formulated and adopted a national action plan for EFA 2015. This is called the Philippine Education for All 2015 National Action Plan (Philippine EFA 2015 Plan). It now serves as the master plan for basic education providing an overarching policy framework with a vision that all Filipinos should be functionally literate by 2015.

The Philippine EFA 2015 Plan envisions functional literacy for all Filipinos through four component objectives: (a) universal coverage of out-of-school youths (OSYs) and adults in the provision of basic learning needs; (b) universal school participation and elimination of drop-outs and repetition in the first three grades; (c) universal completion of the full cycle of basic education schooling with satisfactory learning achievement levels by all at every grade in the primary or every year in secondary education levels; and (d) total community commitment to attainment of basic education competencies for all.

The first strategic initiative introduced by the Philippines since Dakar was the move towards decentralization. Policies such as the Basic Education Governance Act of 2001 (Republic Act 9155) was passed with the objective to accelerate and support the implementation and operationalization of decentralized basic education management. Programmes such as the School First Initiative (SFI) 2005-2010 built on school-based management approach, were implemented to empower schools and make them more accountable to education outcomes, pertaining to both access and quality.

The country's current major set of policy action to attain EFA 2015 is the DepEd-initiated Basic Education Sector Reform Agenda (BESRA). It is designed to attain and sustain better performance of public schools by supporting school-based management through specific reforms in basic education management and service delivery. The BESRA is a road map that reinforces the country's efforts towards the achievement of the EFA goals through specific reforms in teaching and learning strategies, quality assurance, teacher development and training, sector monitoring and evaluation, among others.

To support the various initiatives implemented in basic education and strengthen the management of information systems, the Basic Education Information System (BEIS), was established in 2002. The BEIS improved the accuracy and efficiency of data collection, consolidation and analysis. The BEIS also aids in decision making, programming and targeting of appropriate interventions.

The implementation of the Philippines EFA 2015 Plan is coordinated by the National EFA Committee (NEC) established in 2006 (Chart 6). It is chaired by the DepEd and co-chaired by the representative from civil society groups. Its members include national government agencies and Local Government Units and the UNESCO National Commission of the Philippines[14] Included in the NEC functions are setting of targets, coordination, social mobilization and advocacy, and monitoring and evaluation.
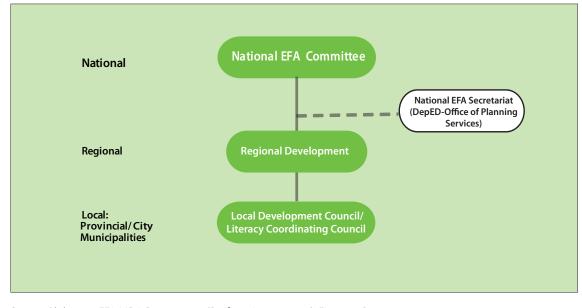
Chart 6: EFA Coordination Mechanism, Philippines

Source: Philippine EFA MDA Report 2007 (Draft 31 August 2007), Flgure 3, Page 25.
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[14] Other members of the NEC are Commission on Higher Education (CHED), Technical Education and Skills Development Authority (TESDA) , Philippine Information Agency (PIA), National Economic and Development Authority (NEDA), Department of Budget and Management (DBM), Council for the Welfare of Children(CWC), Union of Local Authorities in the Philippines (ULAP), Department of Social Welfare and Development (DSWD), Department of Science and Technology (DOST), Department of Agriculture (DA), Department of Health (DOH), Department of Labor and Employment (DOLE), Office of Muslim Affairs (OMA), National Anti-Poverty Council (NAPC), National Youth Council (NYC), Department of Interior and Local Government (DILG), Basic Education Committees of Congress (Senate and House of Reps.), SEAMEO-INNOTECH, UNESCO National Commission of the Philippines.

Below is the goal by goal summary of the Philippines' achievement in EFA from 2000 to 2005.

17.1 Goal One: Early Childhood Care and Education in the Philippines

17.1.1 Background and Development of ECCE in the Philippines

a. Definition of ECCE

The Philippine ECCE system provides services generally categorized into early childhood development (ECD) for 3-4 year olds; and early child education (ECE) or pre-school for 5-year olds. ECCE in the Philippines is officially known as Early Childhood Care and Development (ECCD) pursuant to Republic Act (RA) 8980 or the ECCD Law of 2000.

b. National Policy and Legislation for ECCE: Provision and Coordination

Three laws directly concern ECCE. The first, RA 6972 or the Daycare Law, was enacted in 1990 to establish at least one daycare centre in every barangay (the smallest administrative unit in the Philippines) nationwide to expand access, especially to poor families in remote villages. Ten years after, the ECCD Law was passed to provide a comprehensive policy and a National System for Early Childhood Care and Development. RA 9155 or the Governance of Basic Education Act was enacted the following year stipulating ECCE as part of basic education delivered in preparation for primary education, although it is not officially part of the basic education ladder.

c. Key Strategies and Programmes

To expand access to quality ECCE, the Philippines aims to establish a daycare centre in every barangay. Daycare centres cater to 3-4 year old children with activities including supervised play and group work (such as in arts, music and story-telling), personal hygiene, supplemental feeding, health and nutrition education, socialization and early learning. The percentage of barangays with daycare centres increased from 78% in 2002 to 81% in 2005. Provision of facilities at the local levels is usually co-financed by the national and the local governments. The Department of Social Welfare (DSWD) and the Commission on the Welfare of Children (CWC) collaborate with Local Government Units (LGUs), NGOs and the communities in the provision of daycare centre services, especially for disadvantaged children. Other initiatives to provide ECCE services to 3-4 year old children include child-minding centres in the government and private offices for the children of employees. To reach more children under difficult situations, community-based and home-based ECCE programmes are being piloted. These programmes are complemented by social marketing among the parents to promote the importance of ECCE.

The DepEd, on the other hand, provides pre-school classes for 5-year old children in public primary schools, expanding from 8,265 classes in 2002 to 10,655 in 2005. Alternatively, DepEd pays the services of private and religion-based ECCE institutions through Pre-school Service Contracting Scheme to accommodate pre-school children. This scheme gives priority to the marginalized and disadvantaged children in the poorest municipalities across the country. It also reduces overhead cost through the purchase of a place in non-public service institutions on a per child basis instead of establishing new public facilities.

For primary education entrants without ECCE experience, an Eight-Week Early Childhood Education Curriculum has been integrated in Grade 1 before formal primary education lessons start.

ECCE services have likewise expanded through private institutions but the majority of enrolment share remains public. In 2002, the percentage share of enrolment of private ECCE providers reached 45.6%. A 3.1 percentage points decline from the 2002 figure was, however, recorded in 2005 (Figure 57). This decline may be attributed to fact that private ECCE services are relatively higher in cost so that most parents opt to send their children to public ECCE institutions. Moreover, the increasing

and more aggressive efforts on the part of the government to reach out and provide as many very young children with ECCE services may account for the trend.

Figure 57: Percentage of Private ECCE Enrolment, 2002 and 2005, Philippines

Source: Department of Education-Basic Education Information System (DepEd-BEIS).

Also in 2005, the DepEd started administering the Grade 1 Readiness Test to determine the level of preparedness of pupils for primary education in the social and academic areas, among others. The test is given two weeks before the start of class and at the end of the Eight-Week ECD Curriculum which would focus on the competencies where the child manifested weakness during the first assessment.

17.1.2 Progress Achieved and Best Practices

The Philippines' ECCE GER improved from 16.5% in 2000 to 20.5% in 2005. Significant achievement was also noted in the percentage of Grade 1 entrants with ECCE experience from 56.3% to 60.7% during the same period.

Figure 58: GER for ECCE and Percentage of Grade 1 Pupils with ECCE Experience, 2000 and 2005, Philippines

Sources: DepED-BEIS and the Philippine EFA MDA Report 2007 (Draft 31 August 2007).
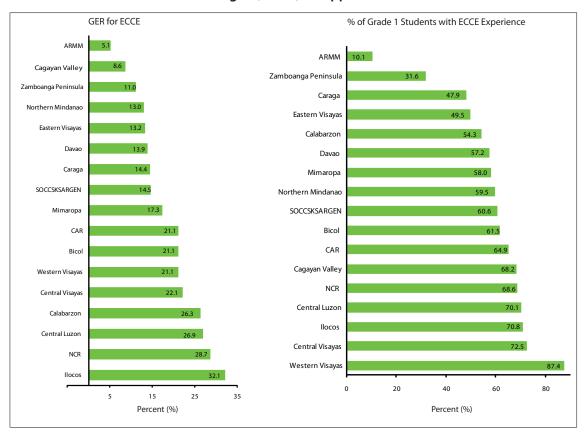
The proliferation of ECCE services created a challenge with respect to the quality of services provided. The DSWD addressed the absence of a standard curriculum by establishing an accreditation scheme based on a set of criteria to ensure quality of services provided by all daycare institutions, public and private. As of 2005, 70.5% of the total number of daycare centres nationwide were accredited, a significant accomplishment from the 39.8% in 2002.

Mainstreaming ECCE at the local level and implementation of targeted programmes such as the Service Contracting Scheme that prioritizes marginalized children can be considered as among the best practices in the Philippines. The eight-week ECCE curriculum is another important programme that lessens difficulties children may experience in Grade 1 due to lack of preparation. The piloting of home and community-based ECCE service delivery is expected to help refine innovative schemes that can be institutionalized to further expand access to and availment of quality ECCE services.

17.1.3 Disparities/Variations of Performance

Regional gaps in ECCE GER exist with the Ilocos Region having the highest rate at 32.1% in 2005 and the lowest rate at 5.1% for the ARMM. With respect to the percentage of Grade 1 entrants with ECCE experience, regional performance is more varied with a wider gap with 87.4% as the highest (Western Visayas) and 10.1% as the lowest (ARMM). The ARMM is one of the poorest regions in the country.

Figure 59: GER for ECCE and Percentage of Grade 1 Pupils with ECCE Experience, by Region, 2005, Philippines

Source: DepEd-BEIS.

17.1.4 Remaining Challenges and Issues in ECCE

The Philippines, despite the expansion of ECCE services nationwide, was unable to meet its 2005 targets of 30% ECCE GER and 67% of Grade 1 pupils with ECCE experience. Despite the availability of ECCE services, poverty and lack of awareness and appreciation of the importance of ECCE continues to be leading barriers.

Provision of quality ECCE services to children from disadvantaged groups, especially those in difficult-to-reach areas and places with armed conflict, remains a challenge in terms of facilities and qualified teachers.

On the other hand, one daycare centre per barangay is sometimes not enough to provide access for all children both in the case of remote areas where houses are located far apart from each other and in extremely populated urban areas.

Other challenges include the full institutionalization of an ECCD System that is comprehensive, integrative and sustainable. A standardized curriculum for ECCD needs to be formulated and adopted as well.

To do this, partnerships at the local level (family, community and other local institutions) need to be strengthened alongside local governance in managing ECCD services and ensuring functionality of ECCD coordinating mechanisms. Similarly, there is a need to build the capacity of programme managers, service providers and their supervisors. Finally, a reliable and comprehensive ECCD monitoring system needs to be established.

17.2 Goal Two: Universal Primary/Basic Education in the Philippines

17.2.1 Background and Development of Universal Primary/Basic Education in the Philippines

a. Definition of Universal Primary/Basic Education

It is in basic education where the foundation for subsequent learning is built by providing the basic learning needs such as literacy and numeracy skills. As such, RA 9155 defines basic education as that encompassing ECCD, elementary or primary and high school education, as well as special education for those with special needs and Alternative Learning System (ALS) for out-of-school youth and adult learners who have not entered or completed elementary and/or secondary education.

b. National Policy and Legislation: Provision and Coordination

The 1987 Philippine Constitution provides that every Filipino has the right to free and compulsory six years of primary education (6-11 years old) to be provided by the state. Secondary education is also free in public high schools as provided by RA 6655 or the Free Secondary Education Act of 1988, but this is not mandatory. The DepEd is the main government agency responsible for the governance, management and provision of free basic education.

c. Key Strategies and Programmes

The Philippines' key strategies in the provision of universal quality basic education are embodied in the Medium-Term Philippine Development Plan (MTPDP) 2004-2010 and in the EFA 2015 Plan. To ensure access for all school-age children, the government targets to establish primary schools in all barangays and secondary schools in all municipalities. It also aims to address gaps in terms of basic learning inputs such as classrooms, teachers, textbooks and other instructional materials, among others.

To reach the marginalized and underserved, various programmes have been implemented including Special Education (SPED) centres/programmes for children and persons with various forms of disabilities. For those school-aged children who cannot attend schools regularly because of difficult and different circumstances, they can still avail of formal basic education services through the Alternative Delivery Modes (ADM). At the primary level, one of the ADM programmes is the Modified In-School Off-School (MISOSA) that involves alternating classroom sessions and self-learning modules. Another ADM piloted in some areas is the Project Instructional Management by Parents, Community and Teachers (Project IMPACT) which is slowly gaining attention. It is also an in-school-off-school that combines self-learning, group learning and classroom instruction. Another approach is the multigrade classes implemented in sparsely populated areas where enrollees are too few to constitute single grade classes. The ADM programmes for secondary education include Open High School for learners who are unable to start or complete secondary education due to problems of time, distance, physical impairment, financial difficulties and social or family problems. Another ADM is the Easy and Affordable Secondary Education (Project EASE) for students in difficult circumstances and advanced students who wanted to study at their own pace.

In addition, the Secondary Education Service Contracting Scheme, with the same principle and objective as that in ECCD, is also implemented at the secondary education level, involving partner private schools.

For those who are already beyond school age but who have not fully availed of basic education services through the formal means, the ALS provides education services especially catering to out-of-school youth and adult learners. Non-formal education programmes include basic literacy and accreditation and equivalency (A&E) programmes. The A&E aims to determine and certify acquired skills comparable to that imparted through formal education. These skills may have been gained through non-formal means and the broader informal modalities (e.g., everyday life experiences, work, and multimedia, among others).

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17.2.2 Progress Achieved and Best Practices

The outcome of most indicators for Goal 2 have declined. The GIR and NIR for primary education, for example, went down from 128.1% to 115.4% and from 41.3% to 36.8%, respectively, from 2002 to 2005. The country's NIR indicates that a decreasing number of children enroll in Grade 1 on time. The resulting high GIR implies that children enter primary education older than the official entry age of six-years old.

Figure 60: Gross and Net Intake Rates in Primary Education, 2002 and 2005, Philippines

Source: DepEd-BEIS.

Similarly, the proportion of the country's 6-11 year-old children not participating in primary education has grown from 2000 to 2005 as indicated by the declining NER from 96.8% in 2000 to 84.4% in 2005.

Figure 61: Net Enrolment Rate in Primary Education, 2000 to 2005, Philippines

Sources: DepEd-BEIS and the Philippine EFA MDA Report 2007 (Draft 31 August 2007).

GER for primary education has also decreased from 108.3% in 2002 to 101.1% in 2005. A declining NER as well as GER moves the country away from its goal to achieve universal primary education in 2015. This major setback means that future efforts need to focus on catching up with respect to access. This situation may present another challenge in sustaining quality while giving more attention to access.
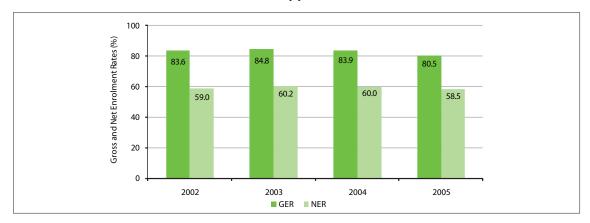
Figure 62: Gross Enrolment Rate in Primary Education, 2002 to 2005, Philippines

Sources: DepEd-BEIS.

In 2002, an estimated 1.2 million primary school aged children were out of school. This number almost doubled reaching an estimated two million in 2005. The DepEd considers that majority of these children come from: (a) remote areas without elementary schools (267 or less than 1% of the barangays nationwide did not have elementary schools in 2005); (b) children with special needs and without access to SPED classes/schools; (c) working and/or street children; and (d) areas where school operations stopped due to armed conflict.

At the secondary level, the GER and NER also declined from 83.6% to 80.5% and from 59% to 58.5%, respectively, from 2002 to 2005. There are an estimated 3.2 million 12-15 year old children who are not attending secondary education in the country. Some of them may have postponed proceeding to secondary education after graduating from the primary level. Some may have permanently left schooling and entered the world of work.

Figure 63: Gross and Net Enrolment Rates in Secondary Education, 2002 to 2005, Philippines

Source: DepEd-BEIS.

A contributory factor in the declining enrolment rates at primary level is the increasing drop-out rate. The table below shows that from 2002 to 2005, primary drop-out rate went up from 6.69% to 7.33%. On the other hand, secondary education registered a significant improvement in drop-out rate from 8.45% to 2.51% during the same period.

The table also reflects increasing repetition rates from 2002 to 2005. For both primary and secondary levels, repetition rate went up to 2.69% from 2.08% and to 3.14% from 2.43%, respectively.

Table 47: Drop-out and Repetition Rates, Primary and Secondary Levels, 2002-2005, Philippines

Year	Drop-out Rate		Repetition rate	
	Primary	Secondary	Primary	Secondary
2002	6.69	8.45	2.08	2.43
2003	6.89	8.16	2.18	2.13
2004	6.98	7.99	2.24	1.75
2005	7.33	2.51	2.69	3.14

Source: DepEd-BEIS.

In monitoring the drop-out rate at the primary level, the DepEd found out that the percentage of children leaving schools was highest in Grade 1 at 14.5%. Consistently, the percentage of repeaters in Grade 1 was also high at 5.6%. The percentage of dropouts and repeaters decreases going up the grade levels. The high drop-out and repetition rates during the first year of primary education may be due to several factors including non-readiness of primary education entrants due to inadequate or lack of ECCE experience. The School Readiness Test conducted among Grade 1 pupils in 2006 revealed that only 35% of the children are prepared for formal primary education. In addition, Grade 1 pupils are faced with language barriers. The use of English as the main language of instruction in Philippine primary schools is a learning barrier for children who are not exposed to English at home. Recognizing this problem, the government is considering

the use of 'mother tongue' or vernacular language as the main medium of instruction for the first three years at the primary level.

Although basic education expenditure increased as a percentage of total expenditure on education from 95.76% to 96.96% from 2000 to 2005, it decreased as a percentage of total government expenditure from 14.72% to 11.63%. Similarly, it slightly declined as a percentage of GDP from 2.80% to 2.10%.

Table 48: Percentage Share of Basic Education Expenditure*, 2000-2005, Philippines

Year	Total National Expenditure	Total Education Expenditure	GDP
2000	14.72	95.76	2.8
2001	15.24	95.31	2.5
2002	13.21	97.25	2.3
2003	12.27	97.02	2.5
2004	11.6	97.11	2.2
2005	11.63	96.96	2.1

Source: Philippine EFA MDA Report 2007 (Draft 31 August 2007).
Note: *Basic Education includes expenditure for primary and secondary education, as well as the pre-school classes offered by the public primary schools.

Despite the Philippines' overall declining performance in Goal 2, several programmes to improve access to quality basic education have been implemented. Noteworthy interventions include ALS initiatives, various ADM programmes, and Service Contracting Schemes. Moreover, the Philippines was able to establish primary schools in around 99% of the barangays in 2005, bringing the number of barangays without primary schools to 267 from 1,054 in 2002.

Another important initiative is the Adopt-a-School Programme which is a collaborative undertaking between DepEd and the private sector (e.g., corporations and private individuals) to give systematic assistance in terms of basic education inputs to schools of choice. Financial assistance to poor students is also extended through this programme, which is part of the corporate social responsibility efforts of several business groups.

17.2.3 Disparities/Variations in Performance

The figure below shows that all regions registered below 50% NIR and above 100% GIR in 2005 indicating that many children across the regions do not enter primary school at the official age. Disparity exists so much that the primary NIR of the lowest region (Central Visayas with 21.8%) is less than half that of the highest region (Calabarzon with 48.7%). The figure also shows that the higher the GIR, the wider the gap with the NIR. This clearly indicates that the education system needs to put in place a more strict measure and more intense advocacy to implement the of ficial primary entry age. Until 1995, the primary entry age was seven years old. It was lowered by one year, but many parents considered six years old to be too young and still enrolled children at the age of seven.
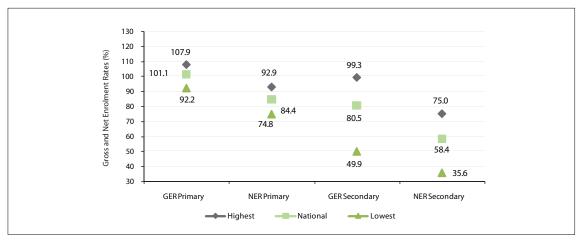
Figure 64: Gross and Net Intake Rates in Primary Education, by Region, 2005, Philippines

With respect to enrolment rates, secondary education shows greater variation in regional performance. The highest NER and GER (recorded in the National Capital Region for both indicators) is almost double that of the lowest region (ARMM in both indicators). There is also greater variation between the accomplishment of the lowest and highest performing regions and the national average. On the other hand, the primary GER (Calabarzon the highest and Cagayan Valley the lowest) and primary NER (Calabarzon the highest and Caraga the lowest) show narrower gaps between the lowest and the highest performing regions and from the national average.

Figure 65: Regional Highest and Lowest GER and NER in Primary and Secondary Education Levels, 2005, Philippines

While rural primary NER improved from 78% in 2002 to 87.1% in 2005, that of urban areas decreased from 85.7% to 77.6%. Intensified efforts to expand access in the rural areas by providing primary schools in every barangay partly explain such pattern. Another reason is the continued rural migration that exacerbated the population situation in the urban areas. Primary schools in the cities can no longer effectively accommodate all pupils, resulting to congested classes of two or even three-shifts a day. This condition adversely affects teaching-learning quality that contributes to high drop-out rates.

Figure 66: Net Enrolment Rate in Primary Education, Urban-Rural, 2002 and 2005, Philippines

Source: Philippine EFA MDA Report 2007 (Draft 31 August 2007).

17.2.4 Remaining Challenges and Issues in UPE/UBE

The Philippines was not able to achieve its 2005 targets for Goal 2. National aggregates showed a declining trend in all indicators. The continuing decline in key indicators such as intake and enrolment rates are caused by various reasons that the government need to address if the declining trends in basic education performance are to be reversed and if the EFA 2015 goals are to be achieved. The 2003 Functional Literacy, Education and Mass Media Survey (FLEMMS) results yielded information on the primary reasons for not attending school among 6-15 year olds (Table 49).

The cost of education comes only second among the reasons for not participating in basic education. It is remarkable that the number one reason, for both primary- and secondary-age children, is the lack of personal interest in schooling. Finding the cause of such lack of interest is worth pursuing on the part of the government in order to introduce appropriate interventions, including the improvement of teaching-learning processes. It is important that the supply of services in basic education is matched by the demand to reduce wastage of investment and resources.

Table 49: Reasons for Not Attending School Among 6-15 year olds, 2003, Philippines

Age Group	6 to 11	12 to 15
Number of Non-attendees	1,196,000	1,000,000
Schools are very far	8.2	1.9
No school within the barangay	1.4	0.7
No regular transportation	0.6	0.5
High cost of education	11	25.3
Illness/Disability	6.1	6.2
Housekeeping	0.2	3
Employment/looking for work	0.8	10
Lack of personal interest	38.4	43.3
Cannot cope with school work	10.9	3.6
Others	22.4	5.5
Total	100%	100%

Source: 2003 FLEMMS, National Statistics Office.

In terms of budget allocation and expenditure, the challenge for the Philippine government is how to rationalize education expenditure and optimize returns to investment. One way to achieve this is to improve the efficiency of programme implementation whether nationally, locally or foreign-funded, as well as improve the effectiveness of institutional arrangements and mechanisms.

Continuing increases in resources infused to basic education according to national priorities is another challenge. At the local level, support and advocacy for the improvement of collection and proper utilization of the Special Education Fund (SEF) of Local Government Units should be given more attention. Another area to be strengthened and expanded is the partnership with the private sector for activities such as the Adopt-a-School Programme.

Addressing the needs of the disadvantaged and marginalized has to be re-examined alongside the formulation of relevant and culturally-sensitive curricula, instructional materials and teachers, and innovative modes of service delivery, among others. Moreover, there is also a need to address the weak coordination between the school and the community to ensure a more strategic implementation of programmes for disadvantaged groups.

The prevalence of unhealthy and undernourished children from poor families is another obstacle to achieving EFA Goals. In 2005, the proportion of undernourished children under 5 years reached 24.6%.[15] School feeding and other related programmes need to be intensified and made efficient and effective.

Mechanisms to mitigate direct and indirect costs of attending school should also be explored. Although primary and secondary education are free in government schools, costs for uniforms, school supplies and materials, school projects, transportation expenses, allowances and other school contributions still pose a barrier to children from very poor families.

Finally, the Philippines has the highest annual population growth rate in Insular South-East Asia at 2.3%. The increasing population of school-age children has to be met with increasing investments in basic education and the scaling up of proven effective innovations in the delivery of basic education services.

17.3 Goal Three: Life Skills and Lifelong Learning in the Philippines

17.3.1 Background and Development of Life Skills in the Philippines

a. Definition of Life Skills

The country adopted an expanded the definition of functional literacy which is associated with the meaning of life skills. Functional literacy is a range of skills and competencies – cognitive, affective and behavioral – which enables individuals to: (a) live and work as human persons; (b) develop their potentials; (c) make critical and informed decisions; and (d) function effectively in society within the context of their environment and that of the wider community (local, regional, national and global) in order to improve the quality of their life and that of society. It has five strands of indicators categorized as: (a) communication skills; (b) critical thinking and problem solving; (c) sustainable use of resources/productivity; (d) development of self and a sense of community; and (e) expanding one's world vision.

The current challenge for the Philippines, however, is translating this new definition into instruments (e.g., questionnaire) for the Functional Literacy, Education and Mass Media Survey (FLEMMS). In the

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[15] Figure 3, p.27. Philippines Midterm Progress Report on the Millennium Development Goals, NEDA and UNDP 2007.

latest FLEMMS conducted in 2003, the old definition[16] of functional literacy was still used. As such, the functional literacy data presented in subsequent discussions still represent the old definition. A survey instrument based on the new definition is currently being formulated to be used in the 2008 FLEMMS.

b. Key Strategies and Programmes

The Philippine EFA 2015 National Action Plan adopted the new definition of functional literacy with the aim of making every Filipino functionally literate by 2015. Functional literacy may be acquired through formal education or ALS which comprise non-formal and informal learning modalities. Informal education takes the forms of work experience, independent reading, observation of natural phenomena, attendance at community centres, interaction with the mass media, and casual use of libraries, museums, and galleries. Basic education seeks to provide learners with the skills, knowledge and values needed to become caring, self-reliant, productive and patriotic citizens.

Since life skills are capabilities that every individual must possess, the general target population for life skills programmes are those belonging to elementary and secondary school age group. Special target groups such as out-of-school youth and adults who have not completed basic education services are the target beneficiaries of non-formal education programmes.

To reach the underserved and marginalized that are not participating in the formal education system, non-formal education programmes are provided in the community through learning activity centres, youth and out-of-school education development centres and community integrated development institutions, among others. The accreditation and equivalency programme serves as an incentive to learners as their acquired skills are given recognition equivalent to skills acquired through the formal system. The certification can be used for re-entry to formal education whether via the academic or the technical vocational track.
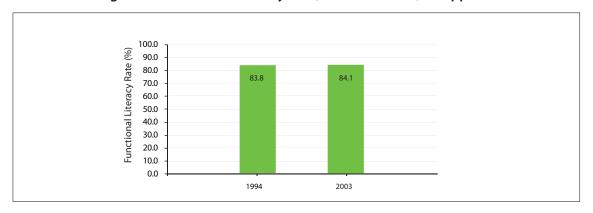
Non-formal education programmes are implemented by the DepEd through its Bureau of Alternative Learning System which partners with LGUs and NGOs to deliver services in the communities and various target groups. These programmes consist of basic literacy progressing to functional and practical skills that can be used for livelihood or income generating activities. Life skills programmes are also delivered by other government agencies concerned with agriculture, health, trade and industry, among others, as rider components of their major projects. Existing networks of partner NGOs and extension services of universities are also tapped to deliver life skills programmes to difficult-to-reach groups such as indigenous peoples, street children and those engaged in child labour.

17.3.2 Progress Achieved and Best Practices

The country's functional literacy has improved slightly from 83.8% in 1994 to 84.1% in 2003, based on the FLEMMS conducted for the respective years. In magnitude, this means that out of the 58 million 10 to 64-year old Filipinos, 49 million were functionally literate in 2003. It should be noted that secondary education graduates are automatically considered functionally literate. With the adoption of the new definition in the 2008 FLEMMS, secondary education graduates will not be automatically considered as functionally literate. All respondents will be subjected to a standard test.

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[16] Old definition of functional literacy refers to a significantly higher level of literacy which includes not only reading and writing skills but also numerical skills. The skills must be sufficiently advanced to enable the individual to participate fully and efficiently in activities commonly occurring in life situation that require a reasonable capability of communicating by written language (2003 FLEMMS Final Report, National Statistics Office, page 2).
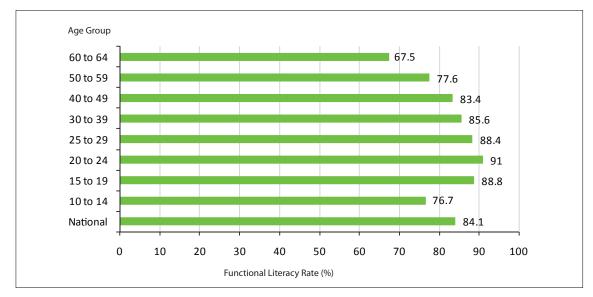
Figure 67: Functional Literacy Rate, 1994 and 2003, Philippines

Source: 1994 and 2004 FLEMMS.

The figure below illustrates that across age groups, the youth (defined as covering the 15-24 years old age range) showed the highest percentage of functional literacy. Within the 15-24 age range, the 20-24 age group had the highest functional literacy rate of 91% followed by the 15-19 years old with 88.8%.
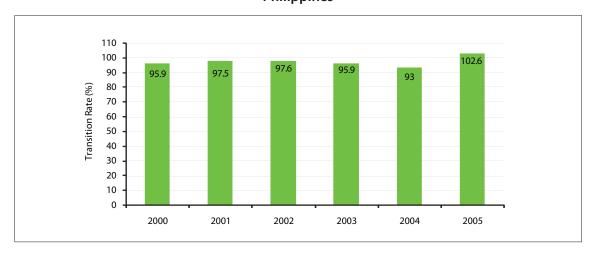
Figure 68. Functional Literacy Rate, by Age Group, 2003, Philippines

Source: 2003 FLEMMS, National Statistics Office, in Philippine EFA MDA Report 2007 (Draft 31 August 2007), Figure 5, p.25.

Ensuring that children complete the basic education cycle is a strategy that more or less guarantee that they acquire life skills. The transition rate from primary to secondary education level increased from 95.9% in 2000 and 102.6% in 2005. An over 100% transition rate suggests inclusion in the count of those who enter secondary education after graduating from primary education one or more years prior to the school year covered.
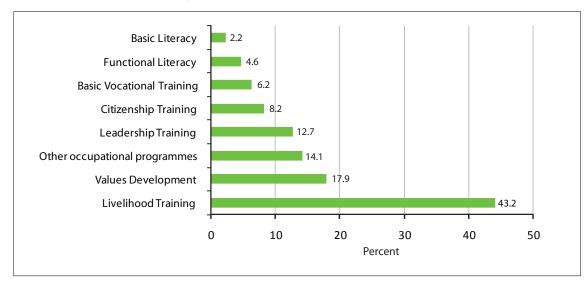
Figure 69: Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education Levels, 2000 to 2005, Philippines

Sources: DepEd-BEIS and the Philippine EFA MDA Report 2007 (Draft 31 August 2007).

Opportunities for continuing education are also provided by the government and its partners from the civil society groups. The 2003 FLEMMS revealed that among the adult literacy and livelihood programmes provided for the out-of-school youth and adult learners, livelihood training is the most popular. Understandably, trainings with income generating potential would be more appealing. Functional literacy programmes come second to the last.

Figure 70: Percentage of 15-year olds and over Who Reported to have Participated in Adult Literacy and Livelihood Programmes, 2003, Philippines

Source: 2003 FLEMMS in the Philippine EFA MDA Report 2007 (Draft 31 August 2007).

Sustaining partnerships with civil society groups which have established extensive networks at the community level is one of the best practices in the Philippines in delivering life skills programmes. The government has been able to tap these groups through subcontracting of services and other forms of collaboration.

17.3.3 Disparities/Variations in Performance

Functional literacy levels vary across the regions. According to the 2003 FLEMMS, the region with the highest functional literacy rate was the National Capital Region (NCR) with 94.6% and the lowest was the ARMM with 62.9%.

Figure 71: Functional Literacy Rate, (Age 10-64), by Region, 2003, Philippines

Source: 2003 FLEMMS, National Statistics Office.

Those who have graduated from primary education are most likely to proceed to secondary level. This is true across the regions in the Philippines where high transition rates can be observed. The region with the highest transition rate is NCR and the lowest is Region 5 (Bicol). The more than 100% transition rate suggests that many students resume formal education after temporarily stopping upon graduation from primary education. Inter-regional migration also significantly contributes to higher transition rates for some regions consistent with the rural to urban migration phenomenon which is likely the case with the highly urbanized NCR.

Figure 72: Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Education, by Region, 2004, Philippines

Source: DepEd-BEIS.

17.3.4 Remaining Challenges and Issues in Life Skills

The formal secondary education curriculum in the Philippines does not incorporate technical vocational subjects. Instead, TVET is a part of tertiary education which is distinct from the practical skills components of non-formal education programmes that primarily seek to provide a progression or immediate application of basic skills (literacy and numeracy) acquired. The DepEd is, however, exploring the possibility of incorporating more practical skills to the secondary education curriculum. The primary objective of this initiative is to strengthen life skills among basic education graduates so that they may be more or less ready for the world of work if unable to proceed to tertiary education.

The policies and strategies to expand life skills development opportunities to all Filipinos, especially those unable to fully benefit from the formal education system are in place. There is, however, a need to accompany these policies and strategies with financial prioritization and appropriate investment programming. Currently, only less than 1% of the DepEd's budget is allocated to ALS.

To ensure that the life skills programmes implemented by various service providers are aligned with the priorities and development thrusts of the government, there is a need to adopt strategic targeting based on reliable supply and demand mapping that should be a component of an information system for ALS. An accreditation system for ALS service providers and their programmes should form part of the efficient accountability and quality assurance system. To assure coherence and harmony of services provided, a coordinating mechanism that clarifies roles, functions and responsibilities also need to be established.

Finally, the new definition of functional literacy still needs to be operationalized to derive sound indicators for use in the 2008 FLEMMS. This survey will determine the suitability of the new definition for statistical measurement. As earlier mentioned, a new set of FLEMMS questionnaire is currently being formulated based on the new definition. Results of the 2008 FLEMMS are expected to reveal a lower functional literacy rate because the new definition is more encompassing.

17.4 Goal Four: Literacy in the Philippines

17.4.1 Background and Development of Literacy in the Philippines

a. Definition of Literacy

The Philippines measures two levels of literacy among its population. The first is basic literacy which is defined as the ability of the population 10-years old and above to read and write with understanding a simple message in any language or dialect. The second is functional literacy which was discussed in the previous section.[17]

b. National Policy and Legislation for Literacy: Provision and Coordination

The literacy status of Filipinos is measured through the Census of Population conducted every 10 years and the Functional Literacy, Education and Mass Media Survey (FLEMMS) conducted every five years. The Census measures basic literacy only and yields information down to the provincial level while the FLEMMS generates both simple and functional literacy with disaggregation down to the regional level only.

The responsibility of coordinating policy formulation and implementation, as well as of monitoring and evaluating the country's literacy situation, lies with the Literacy Coordinating Council (LCC) which is chaired by the DepEd.

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[17] FLEMMS 2003, National Statistics Office.

c. Key Strategies and Programmes

The country's main strategy to improve literacy among its citizens is to expand access to quality basic education based on the proven high correlation of participation in education and the level of literacy in a population. A complementary system of alternative learning is provided to those who cannot participate fully in formal schooling. Programmes such as Mobile Teacher, Each-One-Teach-One (or More), Family Literacy Drive and Learning "Barkada (Peer)" are among the programmes implemented to eradicate illiteracy. The DepEd delivers literacy services through its Mobile Teacher programme and through the Literacy Service Contracting Scheme.

Since the Philippines is a multiethnolinguistic nation, literacy learning modules, including instructional materials, used in non-formal programmes are printed in seven regional languages in addition to the Tagalog-based national language Filipino. These are Ilocano, Hilgaynon, Cebuano, Bicolano, Waray, Maguindanao and Tausug. In addition, a non-formal education curriculum has been developed for the indigenous peoples based on their native languages. This is supported by approaches relevant to their culture and supplemented by equally relevant modules and other learning materials.

17.4.2 Progress Achieved and Best Practices

Based on the latest FLEMMS, the Philippines adult literacy rate (10 years and above) slightly declined to 93.4% in 2003 from 93.9% in 1994. In magnitude, out of the 62 million Filipinos aged 10 years and above, around 58 million are literate according to the definition of simple or basic literacy.

Figure 73: Basic Literacy Rate (Age 10+), 1994 and 2003, Philippines

Sources: 1994 and 2003 FLEMMS.

With respect to the transition rate from primary to secondary level in 2003, the NCR had the highest at 109.1% and the Bicol region the lowest at 94.8% as shown in Figure 72. NCR is the foremost recipient of migration from rural areas which may, in part, explain the more than 100% transition rate.

The regular measurement of the literacy status of Filipinos through the national census and surveys using self-administered questionnaires is considered one of the best practices in the country. In addition, the continuous upgrading of the literacy standards to adjust to the current requirement of domestic industries and international employment opportunities, development in technology, and concept of global competitiveness, among others, is another noteworthy initiative.

17.4.3 Disparities/Variations in Performance

While the NCR again posted a 99% basic literacy rate, the ARMM registered the lowest at 70.2% in 2003. The ARMM has been faced with many socioeconomic problems such as armed conflict and is also the region with the highest poverty incidence.
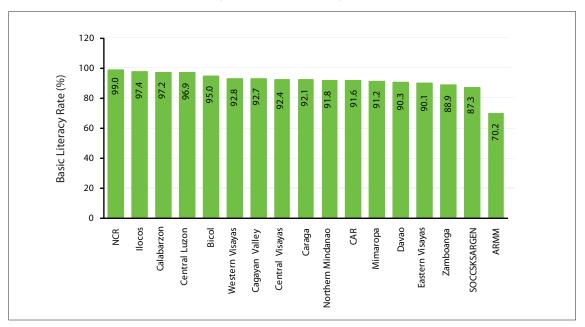
Figure 74. Basic Literacy Rate (Age 10+), by Region, 2003, Philippines

Source: 2003 FLEMMS, National Statistics Office.

17.4.4 Remaining Challenges and Issues in Goal Four

Although the Philippines conducts regular surveys on the literacy status of its citizens, the strategic utilization of their results have yet to be institutionalized for better targeting, planning and investment programming. For example, the DepEd should prioritize provinces with the lowest literacy rates. Literacy mapping should also be conducted in the priority areas to determine the location, socioeconomic status and actual needs of the illiterates. The 2003 basic literacy rate accounts for around 4.1 million illiterate Filipinos. It is fundamental to locate where exactly these illiterates are and how can they be reached by targeted programmes that would give them opportunities to acquire basic literacy skills.

In addition, there is a need to address the limited national government budget for ALS programmes and projects to better complement the formal education system. Similarly, the government needs to address the barriers facing the underserved and marginalized. Among these are insufficiency of ALS programmes and facilities such as reading centres in extremely remote areas and reluctance in attending literacy programmes because of the stigma associated with being illiterate.

17.5 Goal Five: Gender Equality in Education in the Philippines

17.5.1 Background and Development of Gender Equality in the Philippines

a. National Policy and Legislation for Gender Equality in Education

The 1987 Philippine Constitution provides as a policy of the state, for women to participate in and benefit from development on an equal basis with men. Pursuant to this, RA 7192 or the Women in Development and Nation Building Act of 1992 was passed. This law seeks to protect Filipino

women from various forms of inequalities, abuse and discrimination in support of the Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW).

b. Key Strategies and Programmes

To implement its policies on gender equality, the Philippines formulated and adopted the Philippine Plan for Gender-Responsive Development (PPGD) 1995-2025. The Philippines also adopted the Philippines Gender and Development (GAD) budget policy which mandates all government offices to allocate 5% of their annual budget to finance the formulation and implementation of their respective agency GAD plans based on the PPGD.

For the Philippine basic education system, several strategies were adopted by DepEd to achieve gender equality. Among these is the mainstreaming of GAD as a cross-cutting issue in planning, programme and projects design and all other activities. Another strategy is incorporating gender related topics, modules and teaching aids into the school curricula, as well as the evaluation of textbooks and teaching materials to ensure gender-sensitivity, such as balance in the treatment of roles, occupations and contributions in the text and illustrations. Support programmes include conduct of trainings for public school teachers, school heads and other personnel on maintaining a gender-sensitive school as well as the implementation of equal opportunity for scholarship programmes and training in various fields, among others.

Because of their proximity to the local settings and to specific disadvantaged groups, several NGOs and local governments are tapped to implement programmes that promote gender equality among target groups, including indigenous peoples. Coordinating pertinent policies and their implementation, as well as leading advocacy related to gender equality, is the National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW) established in 1975 (even prior to RA 7192).

17.5.2 Progress Achieved and Best Practices in Gender Equality Related to Other EFA Goals

The following discussion tackles the Philippines' progress in achieving gender equality in relation to other EFA Goals.

ECCE. The table below shows that slightly more girls were enrolled in ECCE from 2002 to 2005, although gender parity has been achieved in 2005 with the GPI for ECCE GER falling within the parity range of 0.97 to 1.03. Similarly, there are slightly more girls among Grade 1 pupils with ECCE experience during the same period. Parity has been achieved for this indicator for the years 2002, 2004 and 2005, as shown in Table 50.

Table 50: GER for ECCE and Percentage of Grade 1 Pupils with ECCE Experience, by Sex and GPI, 2002-2005, Philippines

Year	GER for ECCE			% of Grade 1 Pupils with ECCE Experience		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
2002	17.7	18.6	1.05	54.2	55.1	1.02
2003	18.0	18.8	1.05	53.5	57.0	1.06
2004	18.8	19.6	1.04	59.8	61.3	1.03
2005	20.2	20.8	1.03	59.9	61.6	1.03

Source: DepEd-BEIS.

Primary and Secondary Education. In terms of intake rates to primary education, boys dominated GIR with GPI ranging from 0.93 and 0.94 over the 2002 to 2005 period. On the other hand, gender disparity in NIR is much wider in favour of girls growing to a high of 1.23 GPI in 2005. While GPI in GIR has remained stable, the gender gap in NIR widened since 2002, indicating that more over- or under-age girls than boys are joining primary education for the first time.

With respect to GER and NER, the GPI for both indicators have remained almost the same during the 2002-2005 period, with gender parity achieved in both GER and NER.

Table 51: Intake and Enrolment Rates in Primary Education, by Sex and GPI, 2002 and 2005, Philippines

Year	GIR			NIR			GER			NER		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
2002	132.5	123.6	0.93	38.0	44.6	1.17	109.0	107.5	0.99	89.5	91.1	1.02
2003	128.0	119.8	0.94	38.0	45.5	1.20	106.9	105.3	0.98	87.8	89.7	1.02
2004	126.4	118.8	0.94	37.5	45.3	1.21	104.9	103.5	0.99	86.2	88.1	1.02
2005	119.1	111.2	0.93	33.0	40.5	1.23	101.9	100.3	0.98	83.6	85.4	1.02

Source: DepEd-BEIS.

At the secondary level, GPI for both GER and NER reflected a bias in favour of girls. Gender gap for NER was wider at 1.18 while that of GER was constant at 1.09. These imply that girls are generally performing better than boys in terms of participation in secondary education.

Table 52: Gross and Net Enrolment Rates in Secondary Education, 2002 and 2005, Philippines

Year	GER			NER		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
2002	80.2	87.0	1.09	54.4	63.7	1.17
2003	81.3	88.4	1.09	55.3	65.1	1.18
2004	80.2	87.8	1.09	55.0	65.0	1.18
2005	77.0	84.1	1.09	53.6	63.5	1.18

Source: DepEd-BEIS.

Consistently, the average repetition rate for girls is lower than that of boys in both primary and secondary education level. As of 2005, boys' repetition rate was 3.47% in primary and 4.79% in secondary while that of girls was 1.86% and 1.59%, respectively.

Table 53: Drop-out and Repetition Rates, Primary and Secondary Education, by Sex, 2002-2005, Philippines

Year	Drop-out Rate				Average Repetition Rate			
	Primary		Secondary		Primary		Secondary	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
2002	7.88	5.41	10.53	6.42	2.69	1.44	3.73	1.21
2003	8.18	5.50	10.15	6.22	2.82	1.50	3.33	1.01
2004	8.43	5.41	9.91	6.13	2.87	1.56	2.70	0.86
2005	8.58	5.98	14.99	10.10	3.47	1.86	4.79	1.59

Source: DepEd-BEIS.

Life Skills. With a GPI of 1.05, functional literacy rate for females is higher at 86.3% than that of males with 81.9% in 2003. For the age-groups 15-19 years and 20-24 years, female literacy rates are 91.5% and 93.3%, respectively. Male literacy is lower at 86.1% and 88.7% for the same age groups.

Figure 75: Functional Literacy Rate, by Sex and Age Group, 2003, Philippines

Source: 2003 FLEMMS, National Statistics Office.

Gender parity has been achieved in the transition rate from primary to secondary education over the period 2002 to 2005, as shown in Table 54.
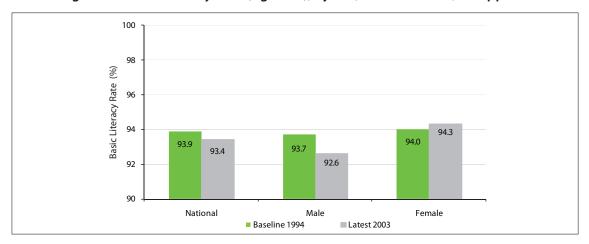
Table 54: Transition Rates from Primary to Secondary Levels, by Sex and GPI, 2002-2005, Philippines

Year	Total	Male	Female	GPI
2002	97.6	98.0	97.2	0.99
2003	95.9	96.2	95.5	0.99
2004	93.0	92.5	93.6	1.01
2005	102.6	103.4	101.7	0.98

Source: DepEd-BEIS.

Adult Literacy. The GPI for adult literacy in 1994 showed parity at 1.00. Parity was maintained in 2003, with a GPI of 1.02, although the female literacy rate at 94.3% was slightly higher than the male literacy rate of 92.6%.

Figure 76: Basic Literacy Rate (Age 10+), by Sex,1994 and 2003, Philippines

Sources: 1994 and 2003 FLEMMS, National Statistics Office.

Gender Equality in Education. With respect to participation in schooling, girls constitute a little less than half of the primary school enrolment at 48.5% in 2005. The percentage share is reversed at the secondary level with girls making up 51.7%, indicating that more boys drop-out or repeat at the primary level and thus, fewer boys than girls successfuly move to the secondary level.

The teaching force in both primary and secondary education levels is predominantly female during the period 2002-2005. The effects of a female-dominated teaching force in the teaching-learning process and its possible link to the poor performance of boys in school compared to girls has yet to be thoroughly studied.

Table 55: Percentage of Female Enrolment and Female Teachers in Primary and Secondary Education, 2002-2005, Philippines

Year	% of Female Enrolment in Primary	% of Female Enrolment in Secondary	% of Female Teachers at Primary Level	% of Female Teachers at Secondary Level
2002	48.6	51.5	89.2	77.3
2003	48.5	51.6	89.6	77.8
2004	48.6	51.7	89.5	77.8
2005	48.5	51.7	89.7	77.5

Source: DepEd-BEIS.

The percentage of girls surviving to the last year of primary education (Grade 6) and secondary education (Year 4) is significantly greater than that of boys with GPI of 1.15 and 1.19, respectively, in 2005. This supports other indicators which show girls tend to perform better in school than boys.

Table 56: Cohort Survival Rate, Primary and Secondary Education, by Sex and GPI, 2002-2005, Philippines

Cohort Survival Rate						
Year	Primary (Grade 6)			Secondary (Grade 10 or Year 4)		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
2002	68.1	77.2	1.13	71.8	82.0	1.14
2003	67.2	77.0	1.14	72.8	82.5	1.13
2004	66.1	77.2	1.17	73.3	82.8	1.13
2005	65.5	75.0	1.15	61.5	73.0	1.19

Source: DepEd-BEIS.

Overall, GPIs for most of the selected access and efficiency indicators favours females and the gap is widening against males from 2000 to 2005. The DepEd is now focusing on studies on the reasons behind the continued deterioration of education performance in male pupils/students so that proper interventions could be implemented to arrest the trend.

The Philippines also included a gender sensitivity and responsiveness component in the criteria for evaluating textbooks and other instructional materials prior to procurement. Review of all textbooks was undertaken to correct erroneous ands stereotyped contents regarding male-female roles.

The institutionalization of GAD in the plans of all government agencies and the strong representation of women in GAD issues through the NCRFW, among others, are considered some of the best practices in the Philippines related to Goal 5.

17.5.3 Disparities/Variations in Performance

Gender disparities across regions in the Philippines exhibit mixed patterns. At the primary education level, for example, GIR in all regions favours boys, except for the ARMM and NCR where parity was achieved in 2005. The lowest GIR was registered in Western Visayas with 0.89 GPI. The pattern is reversed in NIR with girls performing better, again, except in the ARMM where parity was achieved (with 1.00 GPI). The widest gap was recorded in Central Visayas (Region 7) with 1.82 GPI showing a strong bias for girls.

Gender parity in primary GER was achieved in most regions. The ARMM had the highest gender disparity with a 1.10. Gender parity was also achieved in most regions in terms of NER, except for ARMM, Eastern Visayas and SOCCKSARGEN.

At the secondary level, GER registered a wide gap in favour of girls except for NCR which already achieved parity in 2005. ARMM posted the highest gender disparity with a GPI of 1.20. Secondary NER exhibited a wider gap with Western Visayas having the highest at 1.30. Poverty is among the main reasons for the deteriorating performance of boys in almost all educational outcome indicators, as more boys are engaged in child labour than girls. There is also a general lack of interest in schooling among boys as revealed by the 2003 FLEMMS.

With respect to basic literacy (10 years old and above), the highest gender disparity in favour of girls was seen in Eastern Visayas with a GPI of 1.07.

Table 57: Estimated GPI for EFA Selected Indicators, by Region, 2005, Philippines

Regions	GER ECCE	% of Grade 1 Pupils w/ ECCE	Primary				Secondary		Basic Literacy
			GIR	NIR	GER	NER	GER	NER	2003
Reg 1 -Ilocos	1.05	1.03	0.94	1.15	0.97	1.00	1.06	1.12	1.00
Reg 2 -Cagayan Valley	1.00	1.03	0.91	1.13	0.98	1.01	1.14	1.22	1.02
Reg 3 -Central Luzon	1.04	1.03	0.94	1.11	0.98	1.01	1.07	1.13	1.00
Reg 4-A –Calabarzon	1.04	1.05	0.93	1.13	0.99	1.01	1.06	1.14	1.01
Reg 4-B –Mimaropa	1.03	1.04	0.93	1.33	0.98	1.02	1.12	1.20	1.00
Reg 5 –Bicol	1.04	1.03	0.95	1.61	0.98	1.03	1.16	1.28	1.03
Reg 6 -Western Visayas	1.05	1.01	0.89	1.49	0.96	1.02	1.09	1.24	1.03
Reg 7 -Central Visayas	1.04	1.03	0.93	1.82	0.97	1.02	1.10	1.24	1.02
Reg 8 -Eastern Visayas	0.86	1.04	0.93	1.31	1.00	1.05	1.16	1.30	1.07
Reg 9 -Zamboanga Peninsula	1.05	1.05	0.90	1.32	0.98	1.02	1.13	1.24	1.05
Reg 10 -Northern Mindanao	1.04	1.04	0.90	1.29	0.98	1.02	1.12	1.24	1.04
Reg 11 –Davao	1.02	1.04	0.91	1.29	0.99	1.03	1.14	1.25	1.05
Reg 12 – SOCCSKSARGEN	1.07	1.02	0.94	1.34	1.00	1.04	1.11	1.23	1.03
ARMM	1.11	1.02	1.00	1.01	1.10	1.06	1.20	1.25	0.98
CAR	1.05	1.05	0.93	1.19	0.98	1.02	1.17	1.27	0.99
Caraga	1.04	1.07	0.90	1.36	0.97	1.01	1.13	1.25	1.06
NCR	1.02	1.04	0.97	1.11	1.00	1.02	1.00	1.06	1.00

Sources: DepEd-BEIS and 2003, FLEMMS, NSO.

17.5.4 Remaining Challenges and Issues in Goal Five

The remaining challenges for the Philippines to attain gender equality in education include the need to expand and sustain regular review of other instructional materials in both private and public schools to eliminate stereotypes and include gender-sensitive ideas such as joint parenting, reproductive rights and non-violent forms of handling conflict, among others. Further training for teachers, and school administrators in all levels for a more gender sensitive approach to basic education should also be pursued. There is also a need to fully implement tried and tested frameworks and tools in gender mainstreaming in terms of contents, methodologies and practices in basic education that include setting indicators for teachers on gender-fairness and building teachers' competencies. Mapping of education gaps to locate girls and women who are still denied access to quality education and to identify appropriate and sustainable education interventions is also worth pursuing. It would also be worthwhile to focus more attention and examine the reasons behind the declining performance of boys in school.

17.6 Goal Six: Quality of Basic Education in the Philippines

17.6.1 Background and Development of Quality Education in the Philippines

a. Definition of Quality Education

RA 9155 defines quality education as "the appropriateness, relevance and excellence of the education that meet the needs and aspirations of an individual and the society" (Section 4). This definition was adopted by the Philippine EFA 2015 Plan in setting the strategic framework for quality towards the achievement of functional literacy for all Filipinos.

Quality of basic education is measured through performance indicators categorized as input, process and outcome.

At the input level, the current standard is 50 pupils per classroom for elementary schools and 45 for secondary schools. Figure 77 shows that in 2005, the average class size at the primary level was 38.8 and 53.5 at the secondary level. The target for 2010 is 35 per classroom. Other indicators are textbook-pupil ratio of 1:1, PTR of 1:45 and sufficiency of science laboratory rooms, library and water and sanitation facilities, among others.

Process indicators, on the other hand, include the Child-Friendly School Checklist, School-Based Management Standards performance indicators, School Accreditation Standards; and National Competency-Based Teachers Standards (NCBTS).

Quality in ECCE is measured by the results of the Grade 1 readiness test. For formal basic education, reading proficiency tests administered at different levels seek to measure the proficiency level of students aimed at making all Grade 3 pupils independent readers. The National Achievement Test (NAT) is administered to pupils during the final years of primary (Grade 6) and secondary (Year 4) levels. For ALS, A&E examinations are the main mechanisms to measure quality of outcome. The overall indicators of education performance, however, are the basic and functional literacy rates.

b. Key Strategies and Programmes

The main strategy to improve the quality of the country's basic education system is to provide sufficient quality facilities (i.e., classrooms, desks, laboratories, ICT) and instructional materials (e.g., textbooks, supplementary reading materials). This is accompanied by other strategies and programmes in the areas of curriculum, testing and assessment, teacher development, school improvement and alternative delivery modes. Elementary and secondary education curricula have been restructured to allow the indigenization and development of localized curriculum materials taking into account the local culture. The adoption of the national standard curriculum

for Muslim education is an example. Arabic Language and Islamic Values are offered as optional subjects in public schools and tool subjects such as English, science and mathematics in private Muslim schools or madaris. In addition, a new Performance-Based Grading System was introduced to replace the transmutation method (raw test scores are converted into grades) and the use of information and communication technology in everyday learning.

To determine the learning gaps of Grade 4 pupils, the National Diagnostic Test (NDT) is administered. To increase the pupils' survival through the entire primary and basic education cycle, the Philippines Informal Reading Inventory (Phil-IRI) was launched to assess and evaluate reading proficiency level of elementary pupils and to implement necessary interventions or support. This is part of the Every Child a Reader goal/campaign of the DepEd. Moreover, to ensure retention and completion of pupils who enter primary education, they are prepared through adequate ECCE services and given assistance to achieve the basic competencies prescribed for the first three years (Grades 1-3).

Improvement of school quality and efficiency is targeted to be achieved through major reforms and programmes such as the SBM approach, Accreditation Programme for Public Elementary Schools or APPES (2003) and the Project Sterling Silver accreditation system for secondary education. As earlier mentioned, the NCBTS formulated through the Teacher Education and Development Programme (TEDP) was introduced to improve teacher quality. Provision of school resources was also identified to improve the delivery of basic education and to make teaching-learning more effective.

17.6.2 Progress Achieved and Best Practices

The Philippines' average class size at the secondary level was estimated at 55 pupils in 2002. It showed a very slight improvement in 2005 to 54 pupils. At the primary education level, average class size also showed slight improvement from 40 students to 39 students during the same period. The government hopes to reduce the average class size to 35 by 2010.
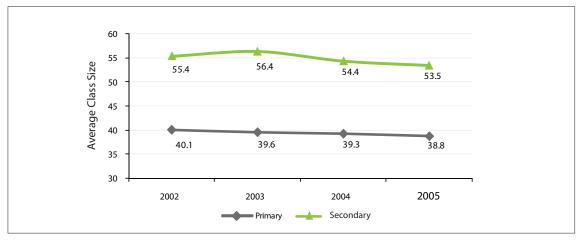
Figure 77: Pupil/Class Ratio, 2002-2005, Philippines

Source: DepEd-BEIS.

The Philippines also reported that pupil/teacher ratios have slightly improved for primary and secondary education levels from 35.8 to 35.1 and from 40.9 to 39.6, respectively, from 2002 to 2005.
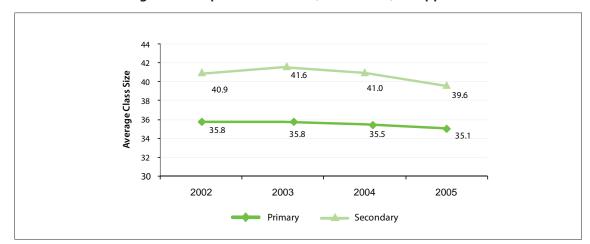
Figure 78: Pupil/Teacher Ratio, 2002-2005, Philippines

Source: DepEd-BEIS.

The cohort survival rate for both primary and secondary education levels declined from 72.4% to 70% and from 77% to 67.3%, respectively, during the period 2002-2005. This implies that the proportion of those who entered Grade 1 and Year 1 secondary education who get to the last year of the respective education levels is decreasing due to high incidence of drop outs and the relatively declining efficiency of the basic education system.

Table 58: Cohort Survival Rate, Primary and Secondary Education, 2002-2005, Philippines

Year	Primary (Survival to Grade 6)	Secondary (Survival to 4th Year)
2002	72.4	77.0
2003	71.8	77.7
2004	71.3	78.1
2005	70.0	67.3

Source: DepEd-BEIS.

With respect to expenditure in education, its percentage share in the total national expenditure went down from 15.37% in 2000 to 12% in 2005. Similarly, as a percentage of GDP, total education expenditure declined from 3.50% to 2.40%, sliding further down from the 6% recommended by UNESCO.

Table 59: Percent Share of Education Expenditure, 2000-2005, Philippines

Expenditure in Education		
Year	% of Total National Expenditure	% of GDP
2000	15.37	3.50
2001	15.99	3.20
2002	13.58	3.20
2003	13.68	3.00
2004	11.95	2.70
2005	12.00	2.40

Source: Philippine EFA MDA Report 2007 (Draft 31 August 2007).

All teachers in both primary and secondary public schools have the required academic qualification and are certified to teach according to national standards. Teaching is a licensed profession in the Philippines where a person with bachelor's degree in education or equivalent academic requirements (i.e., graduates of other courses and possessing the minimum required units in teaching subject) needs to pass the Licensure Examination for Teachers (LET) before being allowed to enter the service.

In order to measure the academic achievement of pupils, the National Achievement Test (NAT) was first conducted among Grade 4 pupils and Year 1 students in 2002 as a diagnostic examination. From 2004, the NAT was conducted among Grade 6 and 4th year high school students. From 2002 to 2005, achievement rates of pupils showed fluctuating trend. The acceptable competency mastery level is between the 75 to 100 percentage range.

Overall, however, the results of the NAT administered to all Grade 6 pupils and Year 4 students showed that their overall achievement is below the acceptable mastery levels. For example, the 2005 NAT for primary level yielded an average of 54.7% mastery level across all core subjects. This is lower than the 58.7% recorded in 2004. From 2002 to 2005, the achievement in NAT of Grade 6 pupils was way below the acceptable mastery level of the required elementary competencies. The performance of high school students was worse as the mean percentage score for high school competency settled at 45.3% in 2004, down from 46.8% recorded in 2004. Only about 20% of Grade 6 students and barely half a percent (0.48%) of high school graduating students had mastery (75-100 percentile score) of the required competencies in their respective level. More than a quarter of elementary students and more than half of high school graduating students were found to have no mastery of basic education competencies. In both levels, the performance level of students was found lowest in science.

Table 60: Achievement Rates from the National Achievement Test (NAT), Primary and Secondary Education, 2002-2005, Philippines

Subjects	2002	2003	2004	2005
Elementary	Grade 4	Grade 4	Grade 6	Grade 6
Mathematics	44.8	59.5	59.1	53.7
Science	44.0	52.6	54.1	46.8
English	41.8	49.9	59.6	54.1
Filipino	-	-	61.8	60.7
Hekasi	-	-	59.6	58.1
Mean Percentage Score (National)	43.5	54.0	58.7	54.7
Secondary	1st Year	4th Year	4th Year	4th Year
Mathematics	32.1	46.2	50.7	47.8
Science	34.7	36.8	39.5	38.0
English	41.5	50.1	51.3	47.7
Filipino	-	-	42.5	40.5
Araling Panlipunan	-	-	50.0	47.6
Mean Percentage Score (National)	36.1	44.4	46.8	44.3

Source: National Education Testing and Research Center (NETRC), DepEd.
Notes: "-" indicates that for 2002 and 2003, the test conducted did not include HEKASI and Filipino. HEKASI is comprised of Geography, History, Social Studies. Araling Panlipunan means Social Studies.

Despite its less-than-satisfactory performance in quality, there are some noteworthy programmes in the Philippine basic education system. Among these is the Every Child a Reader campaign.

The Philippines Informal Reading Inventory (Phil-IRI) was conducted to assess and evaluate the reading proficiency level of elementary pupils to provide necessary assistance. Other innovative programmes include the SBM Approach, Accreditation Programme for Public Elementary Schools or APPES, TEDP and NCBTS.

17.6.3 Disparities in Quality

For indicators in terms of access and efficiency, girls especially from rural areas, are performing better than boys in national standardized tests. Better performance in rural schools is related to low PTRs in these areas. It has not yet been established, however, if the teaching practices of female teachers affected learning process and outcomes (performance) but it might have affected the staying power (high drop out) of boys in schools.

Inadequate supply and distribution of effective and efficient basic inputs (classrooms, supplementary instructional materials, libraries, science laboratories, ICT facilities) and the absence of full-fledged school heads to manage schools have been identified as additional barriers. On top of this, giving extra-curricular assignments to teachers that affect their teaching tasks is another problem that still needs to be addressed.

17.6.4 Remaining Challenges and Issues in Quality of Education

There is a perception which surfaced during consultations in preparation for the National EFA MDA Report that the present basic education curriculum is 'overloaded'. Although there is no formally conducted analysis on this issue, the recommendation is to review and decongest the curriculum. The expected refined curriculum should focus on developing life skills coupled with an effective testing and assessment mechanism that goes beyond written tests.

Other challenges facing the Philippine basic education in relation to Goal 6 include: (a) enhancing of the use of the mother tongue/child's language as medium of instruction for ECE and Grades 1 to 2; (b) full and effective implementation of the policy on indigenization of the curriculum and national standard curriculum for Muslim education; (c) improving the quality of pre-service and in-service teacher training; (d) ensuring the availability and appropriate utilization of basic education resources in every school; and (e) strengthening quality assurance and accountability mechanisms in the basic education bureaucracy.

To further improve the monitoring and evaluation system, the following should be considered: (a) monitoring and evaluation of the entire system; (b) supervision and provision of instructional support to teachers by the school heads and supervisors; (c) institution of mechanism for feedback of monitoring and evaluation results to concerned stakeholders; (d) adoption of incentives and sanctions to improve poor performance; and (e) improving capabilities of the division, region and central offices to provide technical/instructional support to schools and teachers.

Similarly, there is also a need for a study on how to improve the absorptive capacity of the DepEd with respect to innovations that emanated from programmes and projects funded by foreign donors. For this purpose, an evaluation of selected DepEd programmes is to be undertaken with focus on implementation and sustainability.

17.7 Summary and Conclusions

Overall, the Philippines has experienced setbacks in most of the key EFA indicators (Table 61). There has been progress in 2005 as compared to baseline (2000 or 2002) in some indicators such as GER for ECCE and percentage of Grade 1 pupils with ECCE experience, but the national targets have not been achieved. In Goal 2, however, performance indicators showed a declining or worsening trend, except in drop-out rate for secondary education. For Goal 5, the general pattern is movement

away from parity with most indicators showing better performance for girls. Survival rates for both primary and secondary levels have also declined from 2002 to 2005. Public investment in education has also declined as percentage of total government expenditure and of GDP.

While there were considerable investments to improve basic education resources such as teachers, textbooks, classrooms and other facilities, it was not sufficient to ensure that pre-school and school-aged children participate and complete basic education with acceptable achievement results.

And while there were noteworthy education programmes and practices in some areas and in some aspects of basic education such as strong partnership with civil society groups in providing basic education services, ALS and the introduction of ADMs for formal basic education, the basic education system's performance is declining, significant disparities among regions remain and the gap in performance between the sexes continued to widen in favour of girls. Moreover, although, the country was able to define who the disadvantaged and marginalized groups are, the existing basic education monitoring and evaluation system do not regularly capture and present information related to their participation in education.

Table 61: Selected Indicators per EFA Goal, Philippines

EFA GOAL	INDICATOR	Baseline		Accomplishment
		2000	2002	2005
Goal 1	GER ECCE	16.50%		20.50%
	% of Grade 1 Pupils w/ ECCE Experience	56.30%		60.70%
Goal 2	GIR Primary		128.10%	115.40%
	NIR Primary		41.30%	36.80%
	GER Primary		108.30%	101.10%
	NER Primary	96.80%		84.40%
	GER Secondary		83.60%	80.50%
	NER Secondary		59.00%	58.50%
	Drop-out Rate -Primary		6.69%	7.33%
	Repetition Rate -Primary		2.08%	2.69%
	Drop-out Rate -Secondary		8.45%	2.51%
	Repetition Rate -Secondary		2.43%	3.14%
Goal 3	Functional Literacy Rate		83.8% (1994)	84.1% (2003)
	Enrolment in TVET in Secondary Level		n/a	n/a
	Transition Rate (Primary to Secondary)	59.90%		102.60%
Goal 4	Basic Adult Literacy Rate (Age 10 Years+)		93.9% (1994)	93.4 % (2003)
Goal 5	GPI - GER ECCE		1.05	1.03
	GPI - % of Grade 1 Pupils w/ ECCE Experience		1.02	1.03
	GPI - GIR Primary		0.93	0.93
	GPI - NIR Primary		1.17	1.23
	GPI - GER Primary		0.99	0.98
	GPI - NER Primary		1.02	1.02
	GPI - GER Secondary		1.09	1.09
	GPI - NER Secondary		1.17	1.18
	GPI - Survival Rate - Primary (Grade 6)		1.13	1.15
	GPI -Survival Rate - Secondary (4th Year)		1.14	1.19
	GPI - Functional Literacy Rate		1.05 (1994)	1.05 (2003)
	GPI - Basic Adult Literacy Rate		1.00 (1994)	1.02 (2003)
Goal 6	PCR for Primary		30.1	38.8
	PCR for Secondary		55.4	53.5
	PTR for Primary		35.8	35.1
	PTR for Secondary		40.9	39.6
	Cohort Survival Rate - Primary (Grade 6)		72.40%	70.00%
	Cohort Survival Rate - Secondary (4th Year)		77.00%	67.30%
	Educ. Expenditure - % of Total Gov. Expenditure	15.37%		12.00%
	Educ. Expenditure - % of GDP	3.40%		2.40%

Sources: DepEd-BEIS; 1994 and 2003 FLEMMS, NSO; and the Philippine EFA MDA Report 2007 (Draft 31 August 2007).

17.8 General Recommendations

The government should implement an extensive and continuous social marketing programme on the importance of basic education targeting parents, children and communities and prioritizing areas with low enrolment rates. A programme of such should use cost-effective and appropriate multimedia and ICT to complement major nationwide basic education campaign or programmes such as EFA and decentralization. This recommendation takes on the 2003 FLEMMS findings that the leading reason for not attending school among 6-15 year old children is lack of interest in schooling.

The basic education system should implement interventions that are responsive to the differentiated needs of various groups of learners, especially those belonging to the marginalized and disadvantaged groups. The DepEd must look beyond the traditional or conventional interventions (e.g., construction of classrooms, provision of textbooks, etc).

To zero in on the actual barriers that prevent children from the unreached and unserved groups from participating in basic education, accurate, specific and useful information should be gathered regularly as part of an education sector monitoring and evaluation system. It should also be ensured that such information would be part of the bases for making decisions and programming interventions.

Finally, the country should set realistic and achievable EFA targets for 2015 to guide resource allocation and investment programming.

17.9 Specific Recommendations

Early Childhood Care and Education

- Continue increasing public investments and encourage private investments in ECCE to build facilities for the growing 3-5 year old population.

- Implement the institutionalization of an ECCD System that is comprehensive, integrative and sustainable through partnerships at local level (family, community and other local institutions) and strengthen local governance in managing ECCD services and ensure functionality of ECCD coordinating mechanisms.

- Institutionalize proven effective alternative modes of delivering ECCE which may include home or community-based centres.

- Build the capacity of programme managers, service providers and their supervisors.

- Establish a reliable and comprehensive ECCD monitoring system.

- Formulate and implement a standardized curriculum for ECCE.

- Strengthen the registration and accreditation system for ECCE service providers and improve standard curriculum.

- Expand and intensify health and nutrition components of ECCE involving parents and the community.

Formal Primary and Secondary Education

- Enforce the official entry age to primary education through massive information dissemination and through early advocacy among parents with children about to reach 6 years old.

- Implement measures to mitigate other costs of attending schools such as provision of direct support to learners of very poor families (e.g., conditional cash transfer, transportation allowance and other subsidies). The provision of free primary and secondary education in government schools do not guarantee participation as the costs for uniforms, school supplies and materials,

school projects, transportation expenses, allowances and other school contributions still pose a barrier to children from very poor families.

- Establish elementary and secondary schools in un-served and under-served areas and ensure enabling situation (e.g., through social marketing and additional support and assistance) for the children to avail of the education services being provided.

- Re-examine the particular learning needs of the disadvantaged and marginalized such as in the formulation of relevant and culturally-sensitive curricula, instructional materials and teaching process, and innovative modes of service delivery, among others.

- Strengthen coordination between the school and the community to ensure a more strategic implementation of programmes for disadvantaged groups.

- Improve the implementation of Multigrade Scheme through development/procurement of multi-level instructional materials for pupils, establishment of separate Career Path and provision of training programmes and monetary incentives for Multigrade teachers.

- Scale up and enhance proven effective innovations addressing needs of children in difficult or different circumstances (e.g., children engaged in labour, street children, children with special needs, children from indigenous peoples group, Muslim children, children in conflict-affected areas, and children with deviant/risk behavior). These innovations include:

    - ADMs that include MISOSA, Open High School, "Farm High School" concept and distance learning programmes;

    - Combining livelihood and education for street children;

    - Use of basic education curricula enriched with indigenous culture and knowledge;

    - Use of national Muslim Education Curriculum in both public schools where there are significant enrolment of Muslim children and in madaris;

    - Expansion of basic education services of concerned government institutions to reach more children with disabilities, including SPED by DepEd; and

    - Convergence of support to protect children, especially those who are not educated from being vulnerable targets for training and indoctrination as fighters and provision of psycho-social support to teachers and learners directly-affected by armed conflict.

- Continue to increase national resources for basic education according to national priorities. At the local level, implement measures to improve collection and proper utilization of the Special Education Fund (SEF) of Local Government Units. Another area to be strengthened and expanded in order to increase resources for basic education is enhancing partnerships with the private sector for activities such as the Adopt-a-School Programme.

- Rationalize education expenditure and optimize returns to investment by improving efficiency of implementation of programmes whether nationally, locally or foreign-funded, as well as the effectiveness of institutional arrangements and mechanisms.

- Strengthen and enhance strategic partnerships with other government agencies in the provision of basic education within the framework of integrative services to address the prevalence of unhealthy and undernourished children from poor families, among others. Improve efficiency and effectiveness of school feeding and other related programmes.

Alternative Learning System (ALS)

- Increase the budget allocation of the DepEd for ALS to finance policy and standard setting, national coordination and quality assurance, provision of technical support to service providers and for the establishment of ALS monitoring and evaluation systems that include literacy data down to the barangays.

- Fast track the introduction of methodologies to incorporate basic and functional literacy skills development in existing community development programmes of various partners such as other national government agencies and civil society groups.

- Intensify literacy programmes prioritizing areas with high illiteracy rate, including the Parent Education Programme to develop parents' functional literacy skills and to advocate the value of being literate and "educated".

Life Skills and Literacy

- Explore the possibility of incorporating more practical skills to secondary education curriculum to strengthen life skills among basic education graduates so that they may be more or less ready for the world of work if unable to proceed to tertiary education.

- Adopt strategic targeting based on reliable supply and demand mapping that should be a component of an information system for ALS. This is to ensure that life skills programmes implemented by various service providers are relevant and aligned with the priorities and development thrusts of the government.

- Establish a coordinating mechanism that clarifies roles, functions and responsibilities to assure coherence and harmony of services provided. This should form part of an accountability and quality assurance system that also includes a sound accreditation system for ALS service providers and their programmes.

- Operationalize the new definition of functional literacy to derive sound indicators for use in surveys and other statistical studies.

- Institutionalize proper utilization of survey results for better targeting, planning and investment programming. For example, priority must be given to provinces with the lowest literacy rates.

- Conduct literacy mapping in these priority areas to determine the location, socioeconomic status and actual needs of illiterates and how can they be reached by targeted programmes that would give them opportunities to acquire literacy skills.

- Address the limited national government budget for ALS programmes and projects such as basic and functional literacy programmes for youth and adults.

- Intensify efforts to address the barriers experienced by the underserved and marginalized such as provision of relevant and sufficient programmes and facilities, including as reading centres in extremely remote areas. Among these barriers is the reluctance in attending literacy programmes because of the stigma associated with being illiterate.

Gender Equality

- Expand and sustain regular review of other instructional materials in both private and public schools to eliminate stereotyping and include gender-sensitive ideas such as joint parenting, reproductive rights and non-violent forms of handling conflict, among others.

- Conduct further training for teachers, and school administrators in all levels for a more gender sensitive approach to basic education.

- Implement fully tried and tested frameworks and tools in gender mainstreaming in terms of contents, methodologies and practices in basic education that include setting teachers indicators for teachers on gender-fairness and building teachers' competencies.

- Conduct regular mapping of education gaps to locate girls and women who are still denied access to quality education and to identify appropriate and sustainable education interventions.

- Focus more attention to and examine the reasons behind the declining performance of boys in school.

Quality of Basic Education

- "Decongest" curricula to focus on life skills development.
- Implement fully the policy of localization/indigenization of the curriculum (30% of the standard curriculum) within the context of the local culture and needs.
- Improve the quality of pre-service and in-service teacher training.
- Establish an effective and efficient national testing and assessment system.
- Implement "Mother Tongue/Child's Language" as medium of instruction in ECE and Grades 1 to 2.
- Expand and strengthen the implementation of the Child-Friendly School System which promotes rights-based education.
- Scale-up the implementation of Every Child A Reader Programme in all public elementary schools nationwide.
- Utilization of appropriate and cost-effective ICT to deliver the same high quality of basic education services to all schoolchildren.
- Rationalize the implementation of in-service teacher training programmes that are competency-based and demand-driven.
- Institutionalize the Accreditation Programmes for all primary and secondary education institutions.

Governance, Management and Finance

- Increase public investment and encourage private investment in basic education and provide more resources to finance basic education services to depressed, disadvantaged, and underserved areas.
- Implement fully the decentralization policy through school-based management (SBM) which would empower schools in implementing interventions and development programmes responsive to their localities and to specific groups of learners.
- Introduce reforms to restructure financial management systems to fully support SBM (e.g., provision of maintenance and operating expenses direct to the schools).
- Incorporate EFA into regional, provincial, city and municipal development plans.
- Expand or restructure and enhance the functions of the Local School Boards (LSBs) to make it more responsive to the EFA Goals (i.e., it should also cover ECCE and ALS in addition to formal or school-based primary and secondary education).
- Enforce transparency and accountability at different levels of the educational system.
- Institutionalize and make operational the country's EFA Implementation Coordination Machinery in cooperation with other social development-related structures at different levels (national to barangay) such as the Literacy Coordinating Council and the National Nutrition Council, among others.
- Improve the absorptive capacity of the DepEd with respect to innovations that emanated from programmes and projects funded by foreign donors.

ANNEXES

Reader's Guide

The following symbols are used in the Statistical Tables and Country Profiles:

…	No data available
*	National estimation
**	UIS estimation
.	Not applicable
†	Indicates data included under another category
+n	Data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods after the reference year or period
-n	Data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods before the reference year or period
‡	Indicates that differences in UIS' and Malaysia's calculation of this indicator has led to significant data discrepancies, hence this indicator cannot be published. The UIS calculations are based on classifying national educational programmes according to ISCED to ensure cross-national comparability. The definition of ISCED 3 (secondary education) would include lower and upper secondary, and pre-university in the Malaysian context, whereas the national calculation covers only lower and upper secondary.
§	Due to differences in enrolment and population data used by the Ministry of Education and the UIS, this indicator cannot be published for Malaysia.

Note: All the data used in Annex 1: Statistical Tables came from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics Data Centre, accessed on February 2008, unless otherwise indicated.

Annex 1: Statistical Tables

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

Gross Enrolment Ratio in ECCE, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Brunei Darussalam	43.8	43.2	44.5	50.5[+1]	50.5[+1]	50.6[+1]
Indonesia	24.6**	24.1**	25.1**	33.4	32.9**	34.0**
Malaysia	§	§	§	§	§	§
Philippines	30.2**	29.5**	30.9**	40.0	39.3	40.7
Timor-Leste	6.4[+2]	…	…	10.2	9.8	10.6

New Entrants to Primary Education with ECCE Experience (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Brunei Darussalam	94.6	94.0	95.1	100.0	99.9**	100.0**
Indonesia	…	…	…	38.1**	37.5**	38.8**
Malaysia	…	…	…	74.1[-1]	70.7[-1]	77.7[-1]
Philippines	…	…	…	62.9	62.6	63.2
Timor-Leste	…	…	…	…	…	…

Enrolment in Private Institutions as % of Total Enrolment, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000	2005
Brunei Darussalam	60.4	65.9[+1]
Indonesia	99.2 **	99.0
Malaysia	48.1	44.9[-1]
Philippines	47.9 **	44.9
Timor-Leste	…	…

Health and Nutrition Indicators, 1996-2005, Sub-Region

Country	% of Under-Fives (1996-2005) Suffering from:			% of Households Consuming Iodized Salt 1998-2005
	Underweight	Wasting	Stunting	
Brunei Darussalam	…	…	…	…
Indonesia	28.0	…	…	73.0
Malaysia	11.0	…	…	…
Philippines	28.0	6.0	30.0	56.0
Timor-Leste	46.0	12.0	49.0	72.0

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

Gross Intake Rate in Primary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Brunei Darussalam	100.9	99.3	102.5	105.1[+1]	105.2[+1]	104.9[+1]
Indonesia	111.3**	115.0**	107.5**	118.3**	120.3**	116.1**
Malaysia	100.1	99.8	100.3	101.2[-1]	101.6[-1]	100.8[-1]
Philippines	128.6[+1]	132.8[+1]	124.3[+1]	132.3	136.6	127.8
Timor-Leste	…	…	…	111.9	118.0	105.5

Net Intake Rate in Primary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Brunei Darussalam				66.5	67.7	65.3
Indonesia	40.8**	41.7**	39.8**	40.8**	41.5**	40.0**
Malaysia	…	…	…	…	…	…
Philippines	46.7**,[+1]	45.3[+1]	48.2[+1]	48.6**	45.8**	51.6**
Timor-Leste	…	…	…	38.5	39.1	37.9

Gross Enrolment Ratio in Primary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Brunei Darussalam	110.8	111.5	109.9	106.7[+1]	107.4[+1]	106.1[+1]
Indonesia	109.3**	111.2**	107.4**	114.8	116.7**	112.7**
Malaysia	97.0	97.0	97.1	99.5[-1]	99.7[-1]	99.3[-1]
Philippines	111.9[+1]	112.0[+1]	111.9[+1]	111.2	111.9	110.5
Timor-Leste	125.9[+1]	…	…	98.9	102.8	94.8

Net Enrolment Ratio in Primary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Brunei Darussalam				99.5[+1]	99.4[+1]	99.6
Indonesia	92.6**	94.1**	90.9**	94.5**	96.2 **	92.9
Malaysia	96.8	96.7	96.9	99.2[-1]	99.3[-1]	99.0[-1]
Philippines	92.2[+1]	91.6[+1]	92.8[+1]	92.9	91.9	94.0
Timor-Leste	…	…	…	68.1**	69.5 **	66.6 **

Gross Enrolment Ratio in Secondary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Brunei Darussalam	85.5	82.9	88.2	98.2[+1]	96.2[+1]	100.4[+1]
Indonesia	54.5**	55.9**	53.1**	62.2	62.6**	61.9**
Malaysia	‡	‡	‡	‡	‡	‡
Philippines	77.0[+1]	73.5[+1]	80.6[+1]	84.8	80.3	89.5
Timor-Leste	34.7**,[+1]	…	…	53.4	53.4	53.5

Net Enrolment Ratio in Secondary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Brunei Darussalam				90.1[+1]	87.9[+1]	92.4[+1]
Indonesia	48.2**	49.4**	47.0**	57.4**	57.7**	57.1**
Malaysia	‡	‡	‡	‡	‡	‡
Philippines	52.4[+1]	48.1[+1]	56.9[+1]	60.2	54.7	65.9
Timor-Leste	22.8**,[+1]	…	…	…	…	…

Repeaters in Primary Education (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Brunei Darussalam				1.6[+1]	2.2[+1]	0.9[+1]
Indonesia	6.2[+1]	6.2[+1]	6.2[+1]	4.6**	5.5**	3.6**
Malaysia	…	…	…	…	…	…
Philippines	2.0[+1]	2.5[+1]	1.5[+1]	2.2	2.9	1.6
Timor-Leste	…	…	…	…	…	…

Repeaters in Secondary Education (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Brunei Darussalam	…	…	…	9.0[+1]	11.1[+1]	6.8[+1]
Indonesia	0.4**	0.6**	0.2**	0.5**	0.7**	0.3**
Malaysia	0.1**,[-1]	0.1**,[-1]	0.1**,[-1]	…	…	…
Philippines	2.0[+1]	2.9[+1]	1.1[+1]	1.8	2.7	0.9
Timor-Leste	…	…	…	…	…	…

Educational Expenditure in Primary Education as % of Total Educational Expenditure, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000	2005
Brunei Darussalam	…	…
Indonesia	38.2	37.5[-2]
Malaysia	27.2	29.6[-1]
Philippines	60.5	54.3[-1]
Timor-Leste	…	…

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

Youth Literacy Rate (Age 15-24), Before 1995 and After 2000, Sub-Region

Country	Before 1995				Between 1995 and 2000				After 2000			
	Year	Total	Male	Female	Year	Total	Male	Female	Year	Total	Male	Female
Brunei Darussalam	1991	98.1	98.1	98.1		…	…	…	2001	98.9	98.9	98.9
Indonesia	1990	96.2	97.4	95.1		…	…	…	2004	98.7	98.9	98.5
Malaysia	1991	95.6	95.9	95.2	2000	97.2	97.2	97.3	2007	98.3**	98.2**	98.4**
Philippines	1990	96.6	96.3	96.9	2000	95.1	94.5	95.7	2003	95.1	93.6	96.6
Timor-Leste		…	…	…		…	…	…		…	…	…

Enrolment in TVET at Secondary Level and Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary Level, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	% of Enrolment in Technical-Vocational Education and Training (TVET) at Secondary Level		Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary (General) Level					
	2000	2005	2000			2005		
			Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Brunei Darussalam	5.3	7.2[+1]	…	…	…	89.8[-1]	87.5[-1]	92.6[-1]
Indonesia	14.4**	13.5	78.0[**,+1]	77.0[**,+1]	78.9[**,+1]	78.5[**,-1]	78.6[**,-1]	78.3[**,-1]
Malaysia	6.0	5.7[-1]	99.0	…	…	99.6[**-1]	…	…
Philippines	.	.	97.8[+1]	98.2[+1]	97.4[+1]	91.8[-1]	91.3[-1]	92.4[-1]
Timor-Leste	…	3.7	…	…	…	…	…	…

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Goal 4: Reducing adult illiteracy by 50% in all levels by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults.

Adult Literacy Rate (Age 15+), Before 1995, Between 1995 and 2000, and After 2000, Sub-Region

Country	Before 1995				Between 1995 and 2000				After 2000			
	Year	T	M	F	Year	T	M	F	Year	T	M	F
Brunei Darussalam	1991	87.8	92.5	82.5		…	…	…	2001	92.7	95.2	90.2
Indonesia	1990	81.5	88.0	75.3		…	…	…	2004	90.4	94.0	86.8
Malaysia	1991	82.9	88.6	77.3	2000	88.7	92.0	85.4	2007	91.9**	94.2**	89.6**
Philippines	1990	93.6	94.0	93.2	2000	92.6	92.5	92.7	2003	92.6	91.6	93.6
Timor-Leste		…	…	…		…	…	…		…	…	…

Goal 5: Eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieve gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girl's full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality.

GPI in Pre-Primary GER and % of New Entrants to Primary Education with ECCE Experience, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	GPI for Gross Enrolment Ratio for Pre-Primary		GPI for % of New Entrants to Primary Education with ECCE Experience	
	2000	2005	2000	2005
Indonesia	1.04**	1.03**	…	1.03**
Malaysia	1.04+1	1.10	1.06+2	1.10-1
Philippines	1.05**	1.04	1.03+2	1.01

GPI for Primary and Secondary NIR, GER and NER, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	GPI for NIR in Primary Education		GPI for GER in Primary Education		GPI for NER in Primary Education		GPI for GER in Secondary Education		GPI for NER in Secondary Education	
	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005
Brunei Darussalam	…	1.00	1.00	1.00+1	…	1.00+1	1.10	1.00+1	…	1.10+1
Indonesia	0.95**	0.97**	0.97**	0.97**	0.97**	0.97**	0.95**	0.99**	0.95**	0.99**
Malaysia	…	…	1.00	1.00-1	1.00	1.00-1	§	§	§	§
Philippines	1.06+1	1.13**	1.00+1	0.99	1.01+1	1.02	1.10+1	1.12	1.18+1	1.20
Timor-Leste	…	1.00	…	0.90	…	1.00**	…	1.00	…	…

GPI for Youth and Adult Literacy Rates, Before 1995, Between 1995 and 2000, and After 2000, Sub-Region

Country	GPI for Youth Literacy Rate						GPI for Adult Literacy Rate					
	Before 1995		Between 1995 and 2000		After 2000		Before 1995		Between 1995 and 2000		After 2000	
	Year	Data	Year	Data	Year	Data	Year	Data	Year	Data	Year	Data
Brunei Darussalam	1991	1.00		…	2001	1.00	1991	0.89		…	2001	0.95
Indonesia	1990	0.98		…	2004	1.00	1990	0.86		…	2004	0.92
Malaysia	1991	0.99	2000	1.00**	2007	1.00**	1991	0.87	2000	0.93	2007	0.95
Philippines	1990	1.01	2000	1.01	2003	1.03	1990	0.99	2000	1.00	2003	1.02
Timor-Leste		…		…		…		…		…		…

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GPI for Survival Rate to Grade 5, Transition Rate and Female Enrolment (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	GPI for Survival Rate to Grade 5		GPI for Transition Rate from Primary to Lower Secondary Education		% of Female Enrolment in Primary Education		% of Female Enrolment in Secondary Education		% of Female Enrolment in TVET	
	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005
Brunei Darussalam	…	1.00[-1]	…	1.10[-1]	47.4	47.7[+1]	49.9	48.9[+1]	36.1	39.7[+1]
Indonesia	1.10**	0.94[-1]	1.02**,[+1]	1.00**,[-1]	48.3**	48.3**	48.1**	49.0**	42.7**	42.4
Malaysia	1.00[+1]	1.01[-2]	1.02[-1]	1.01**,[-2]	48.7	48.6[-1]	51.2	51.9[-1]	41.2	41.9[-1]
Philippines	1.10[+1]	1.13[-1]	0.99[+1]	1.01[-1]	48.9[+1]	48.6	51.3[+1]	51.7	…	…
Timor-Leste	…	…	…	…	…	46.9	…	48.7	…	39.8

Percentage of Female Teachers in Primary and Secondary Education (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	% of Female Teachers in Primary Education		% of Female Teachers in Secondary Education	
	2000	2005	2000	2005
Brunei Darussalam	67.4*	73.4[+1]	50.0	59.2[+1]
Indonesia	53.7**	61.0**	41.6**	43.5**
Malaysia	66.2**	66.9[-1]	62.0**	63.6**,[-1]
Philippines	87.3[+1]	87.3	76.4[+1]	76.4
Timor-Leste	30.0**,[+1]	31.3	…	25.1**

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

Pupil/Teacher Ratio (PTR) for Primary, Lower Secondary and Upper Secondary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	Pupil/Teacher Ratio (PTR) for Primary Education		Pupil/TeacherRatio (PTR) for Lower Secondary Education		Pupil/Teacher Ratio (PTR) for Upper Secondary Education	
	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005
Brunei Darussalam	13.7*	12.5[+1]	11.9*	10.5*	9.7*	9.7*
Indonesia	22.4**	20.4	17.2**	12.9	13.8**	10.5
Malaysia	19.6	17.5[-1]	18.4**	17.2[**,-1]	18.4**	17.6[**,-1]
Philippines	35.2[+1]	35.1	43.4[+1]	42.0	22.4[+1]	28.3
Timor-Leste	50.8[**,+1]	34.2	27.8[**,+1]	27.6	29.4[**,+1]	18.4

Public Expenditure on Education (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	Public Expenditure on Education as a % of Total Government Expenditure		Public Expenditure on Education as a % of GDP		Public Expenditure on Educational Institutions and Educational Administration as a % of GDP (2005)		
	2000	2005	2000	2005	Pre-Primary	Primary	Secondary and Post-Secondary Non-Tertiary
Brunei Darussalam	9.14**	…	5.15	…	…	…	…
Indonesia	9.80[+1]	9.03[**,-3]	1.36	0.96[-2]	…	0.30[-2]	0.40[-2]
Malaysia	26.65	25.21[-1]	6.20	6.24[-1]	0.10[-1]	1.80[-1]	2.20[-1]
Philippines	13.95	16.35[-1]	3.49	2.71[-1]		1.30	0.70
Timor-Leste	50.8[**,+1]	34.2	27.8[**,+1]	…	…	…	…

Survival Rate to Grade 5, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Brunei Darussalam	…	…	…	100.5[-1]	100.0[-1]	100.9[-1]
Indonesia	96.6**	92.3**	101.4**	89.5[**,-1]	92.0[**,-1]	86.9[**,-1]
Malaysia	87.1[+1]	86.9[+1]	87.3[+1]	…	…	…
Philippines	79.3[+1]	75.8[+1]	83.1[+1]	74.9[-1]	70.6[-1]	79.8[-1]
Timor-Leste	…	…	…	…	…	…

Annex 2: Country Profiles
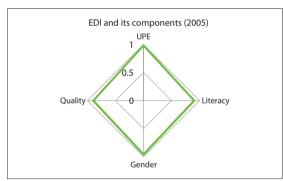
Indonesia - Progress toward achieving EFA Goals (Post Dakar)

Social and Demographic Context (2005)

Total Population (000)	222,782
Annual population growth rate (%)	1.4
Sex ratio (women per 100 men)	100
Life expectancy at birth, total (years)	68
Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 births)	28
HIV prevalence rate % in adults (15-49)	0.1
GDP (US$ million)	286,961.4
Human Development Index	0.7
Population age 0-14 (%)	26.4
School life expectancy ISCED 1-6 (years)	11.7**
Total number of enrolment (Primary)	29,149,746
Total number of teachers (Primary)	1,427,974
% Under-Fives Suffering from Stunting	…
Children immunization rate (% of under 12 months)	
Immunized against DPT	70
Immunized against measles	72

Overall Achievement in EFA (2000-To date)
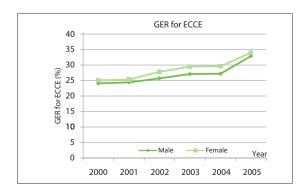
	2000	2005
EFA Development Index	0.923	0.935

EDI and its components (2005)

Goal I: Expansion of ECCE
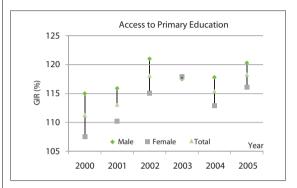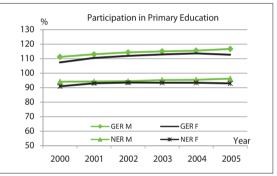
for 2005	T	M	F
Gross Enrolment Ratio	33.4	32.9**	34.0**
Net Enrolment Rate	23.7**	23.3**	24.1**
% of New Entrants with ECCE Exp.	38.1**	37.5**	38.8**

Goal II: Universal Primary Education

Primary education age-range		7-13	

for 2005	T	M	F
Gross Intake Ratio	118**	120**	116**
Net Intake Rate	41**	42**	40**
Gross Enrolment Ratio	115	117**	113**
Net Enrolment Rate	95**	96**	93

Goal III: Learning Needs of All Youth and Adults
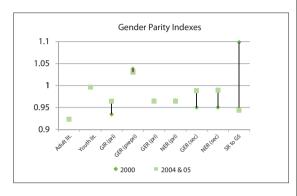
		2000	2005
Transition rate from primary to secondary (general programme)	T	78.0**,+1	78.5**,-1
	M	77.0**,+1	78.6**,-1
	F	78.9**,+1	78.3**,-1
Gross Enrolment Ratio, Total secondary (all programmes)	T	54.5**	62.2
	M	55.9**	62.6**
	F	53.1**	61.9**
Tech / Voc enrolment as % of total enrolment (in ISCED 2 & 3)		14.4**	13.5
Unemployment rate		6.1	10.3

	Earliest	Latest
% Contraceptive use among currently married women 15-49 years old, any method	49.7(91)	60.3(03)
% Condom use to overall contraceptive use among curently married women 15-49 years old	1.6(91)	1.5(03)

Goal IV: Literacy

			T	M	F
Adult Literacy Rate	Indonesia	2004	90	94	87
	East Asia & the Pacific	2005	92	95	88
	World	2005	82	87	77
Youth Literacy Rate	Indonesia	2004	99	99	99
	East Asia & the Pacific	2005	98	98	98
	World	2005	88	91	84

Goal V: Gender

Gender Parity Indexes

◆ 2000   ■ 2004 & 05

Goal VI: Education Quality
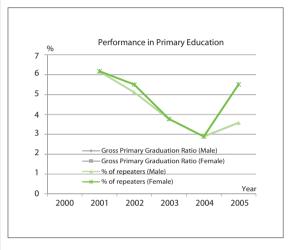
for 2005	T	M	F
Gross Primary Graduation Ratio	…	…	…
Percentage of Repeaters	4.6**	5.5**	3.6**

Goal VI: Education Quality (Cont.)

		2000	2005
Survival Rate to G5	T	96.6**	89.5**,-1
	M	92.3**	92.0**,-1
	F	101.4**	86.9**,-1
Pupil/Teacher Ratio (Pre-Primary)		15.9**,+1	15.6
Pupil/Teacher Ratio (Primary)		22.4**	20.4
Pupil/Teacher Ratio (Secondary)		14.3+1	11.8
% of trained teachers (Pre-Primary)		…	…
% of trained teachers (Primary)		93.5**,+1	…
% of trained teachers (Secondary)		53.0**,+1	…
% of repeaters (Primary)		6.2+1	4.6**
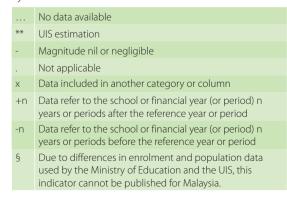
Performance in Primary Education

Financing in EFA

Education expenditure as % of total educational expenditure (2005)
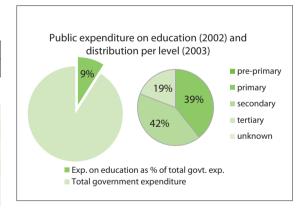
Pre-Primary	0.1-2	Primary	37.5-2
Secondary	39.2-2	Post Secondary	.
Tertiary	23.2-2		

	2000	2005
Total public expenditure on education		
as % of GDP	1.4	1.0-2
as % of total govt. exp.	9.8+1	9.0**,-3
Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil (US$ PPP)	109.3**	83.6**,-2

Symbols used:

…	No data available
**	UIS estimation
-	Magnitude nil or negligible
.	Not applicable
x	Data included in another category or column
+n	Data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods after the reference year or period
-n	Data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods before the reference year or period
§	Due to differences in enrolment and population data used by the Ministry of Education and the UIS, this indicator cannot be published for Malaysia.

Public expenditure on education (2002) and distribution per level (2003)

■ pre-primary
■ primary
■ secondary
■ tertiary
■ unknown

■ Exp. on education as % of total govt. exp.
■ Total government expenditure

‡   indicates that differences in UIS' and Malaysia's calculation of this indicator has led to significant data discrepancies, hence this indicator cannot be published. The UIS calculations are based on classifying national educational programmes according to ISCED to ensure cross-national comparability. The definition of ISCED 3 (secondary education) would include lower and upper secondary, and pre-university in the Malaysian context, whereas the national calculation covers only lower and upper secondary.

Sources: UNESCO Institute for Statistics,
World Bank, International Labour Organization,
UNICEF, UNESCAP

ISCED & Regions : Please refer to ANNEX C and ANNEX D of Global Education Digest 2007
http://www.uis.unesco.org/publications/GED2007

Malaysia - Progress toward achieving EFA Goals (Post Dakar)

Social and Demographic Context (2005)

Total Population (000)	25,347
Annual population growth rate (%)	1.8
Sex ratio (women per 100 men)	97
Life expectancy at birth, total (years)	74
Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 births)	10
HIV prevalence rate % in adults (15-49)	0.5
GDP (US$ million)	130,770.0
Human Development Index	0.8
Population age 0-14 (%)	30.2
School life expectancy ISCED 1-6 (years)	13.1[-1]
Total number of enrolment (Primary)	3,159,376[-1]
Total number of teachers (Primary)	180,682[-1]
% Under-Fives Suffering from Stunting	…
Children immunization rate (% of under 12 months)	
Immunized against DPT3	90
Immunized against measles	90

Overall Achievement in EFA (2000-To date)
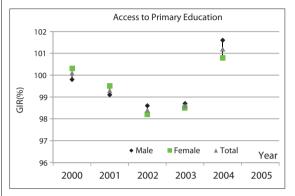
	2000	2005
EFA Development Index	…	0.945

EDI and its components (2005)

Goal I: Expansion of ECCE
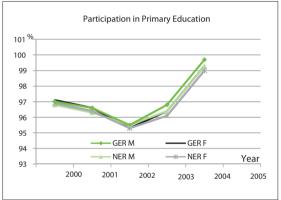
for 2005	T	M	F
Gross Enrolment Ratio	§	§	§
Net Enrolment Rate	73.9[-1]	71.6[-1]	76.4[-1]
% of New Entrants with ECCE Exp.	74.1[-1]	70.7[-1]	77.7[-1]

GER for ECCE

Data not avilable

Goal II: Universal Primary Education

Primary education age-range	6-12

for 2005	T	M	F
Gross Intake Ratio	101[-1]	102[-1]	101[-1]
Net Intake Rate	…	…	…
Gross Enrolment Ratio	100[-1]	100[-1]	99[-1]
Net Enrolment Rate	99[-1]	99[-1]	99[-1]
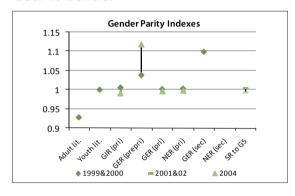
Access to Primary Education

Participation in Primary Education

Goal III: Learning Needs of All Youth and Adults

		2000	2005
Transition rate from primary to secondary (general programme)	T	99.0	99.6**,-1
	M	…	….
	F	….	….
Gross Enrolment Ratio, Total secondary (all programmes)	T	‡	‡
	M	‡	‡
	F	‡	‡
Tech / Voc enrolment as % of total enrolment (in ISCED 2 & 3)		6.0	5.7[-1]
Unemployment rate		3	3.6[-2]

	Earliest	Latest
% Contraceptive use among currently married women 15-49 years old, any method	…	54.5[(94)]
% Condom use to overall contraceptive use among curently married women 15-49 years old	…	9.7[(94)]

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Goal IV: Literacy

			T	M	F
Adult Literacy Rate	Malaysia	2000	89	92	85
	East Asia & the Pacific	2005	92	95	88
	World	2005	82	87	77
Youth Literacy Rate	Malaysia	2000	97	97	97
	East Asia & the Pacific	2005	98	98	98
	World	2005	88	91	84

Goal V: Gender

Gender Parity Indexes

◆ 1999&2000　■ 2001&02　▲ 2004

Goal VI: Education Quality

for 2005	T	M	F
Gross Primary Graduation Ratio	…	…	…
Percentage of repeaters	…	…	…

Goal VI: Education Quality (Cont.)

		2000	2005
Survival Rate to G5	T	87.1^{+1}	…
	M	86.9^{+1}	…
	F	87.3^{+1}	…
Pupil/Teacher Ratio (Pre-Primary)		27.4	22.8^{-1}
Pupil/Teacher Ratio (Primary)		19.6	17.5^{-1}
Pupil/Teacher Ratio (Secondary)		18.4**	17.4**,$^{-1}$
% of trained teachers (Pre-Primary)		…	…
% of trained teachers (Primary)		…	…
% of trained teachers (Secondary)		52.7**	…
% of repeaters (Primary)		…	…

Performance in Primary Education

Data not available

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Financing in EFA

Education expenditure as % of total educational expenditure (2005)

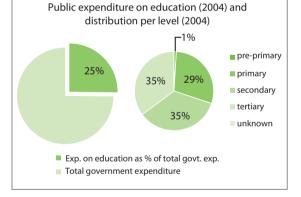|			
Pre-Primary	1.1^{-1}	Primary	29.6^{-1}
Secondary	35.1^{-1}	Post Secondary	0.8^{-1}
Tertiary	33.4^{-1}		

	2000	2005
Total public expenditure on education		
as % of GDP	6.2	6.2^{-1}
as % of total govt. exp.	26.7	25.2^{-1}
Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil (US$ PPP)	903.4**	1292.5^{-1}

Public expenditure on education (2004) and distribution per level (2004)

25%

1%
35% · 29%
35%

■ pre-primary
■ primary
■ secondary
■ tertiary
■ unknown

■ Exp. on education as % of total govt. exp.
■ Total government expenditure

Symbols used :

…	No data available
**	UIS estimation
-	Magnitude nil or negligible
.	Not applicable
x	Data included in another category or column
+n	Data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods after the reference year or period
-n	Data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods before the reference year or period
§	Due to differences in enrolment and population data used by the Ministry of Education and the UIS, this indicator cannot be published for Malaysia.

‡ indicates that differences in UIS' and Malaysia's calculation of this indicator has led to significant data discrepancies, hence this indicator cannot be published. The UIS calculations are based on classifying national educational programmes according to ISCED to ensure cross-national comparability. The definition of ISCED 3 (secondary education) would include lower and upper secondary, and pre-university in the Malaysian context, whereas the national calculation covers only lower and upper secondary.

Sources: UNESCO Institute for Statistics,
World Bank, International Labour Organization,
UNICEF, UNESCAP

ISCED & Regions : Please refer to ANNEX C and ANNEX D of Global Education Digest 2007.
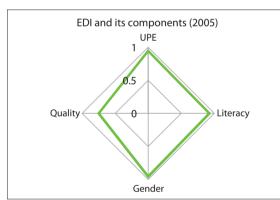http://www.uis.unesco.org/publications/GED2007

Philippines - Progress toward achieving EFA Goals (Post Dakar)

Social and Demographic Context (2005)

Total Population (000)	83,054
Annual population growth rate (%)	1.8
Sex ratio (women per 100 men)	99
Life expectancy at birth, total (years)	71
Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 births)	25
HIV prevalence rate % in adults (15-49)	0.1
GDP (US$ million)	98,366.1
Human Development Index	0.8
Population age 0-14 (%)	32.8
School life expectancy ISCED 1-6 (years)	12.0**
Total number of enrolment (Primary)	13,083,744
Total number of teachers (Primary)	373,035
% Under-Fives Suffering from Stunting	30
Children immunization rate (% of under 12 months)	
Immunized against DPT3	79
Immunized against measles	80

Overall Achievement in EFA (2000-To date)
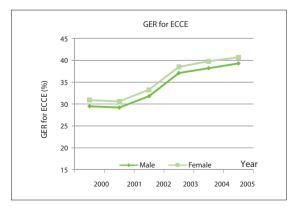
	2000	2005
EFA Development Index	0.885	0.893

EDI and its components (2005)

Goal I: Expansion of ECCE
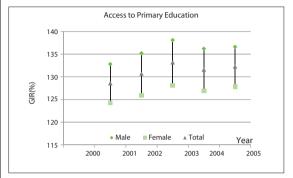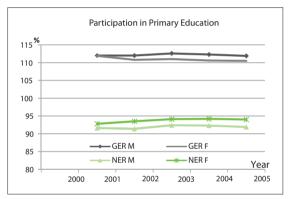
for 2005	T	M	F
Gross Enrolment Ratio	40.0	39.3	40.7
Net Enrolment Rate	32.8	33.3	32.3
% of New Entrants with ECCE Exp.	62.9	62.6	63.2

GER for ECCE

Goal II: Universal Primary Education

Primary education age-range		6-12	

for 2005	T	M	F
Gross Intake Ratio	132	137	128
Net Intake Rate	49**	46**	52**
Gross Enrolment Ratio	111	112	111
Net Enrolment Rate	93	92	94
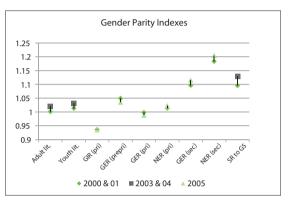
Access to Primary Education

Participation in Primary Education

Goal III: Learning Needs of All Youth and Adults

		2000	2005
Transition rate from primary to secondary (general programme)	T	97.8+1	91.8-1
	M	98.2+1	91.3-1
	F	97.4+1	92.4-1
Gross Enrolment Ratio, Total secondary (all programmes)	T	77.0+1	84.8
	M	73.5+1	80.3
	F	80.6+1	89.5
Tech / Voc enrolment as % of total enrolment (in ISCED 2 & 3)		.	.
Unemployment rate		10.1	7.3+1

	Earliest	Latest
% Contraceptive use among currently married women 15-49 years old, any method	40.0(93)	48.9(03)
% Condom use to overall contraceptive use among curently married women 15-49 years old	2.5(93)	3.9(03)

Goal IV: Literacy

			T	M	F
Adult Literacy Rate	Philippines	2003	93	92	94
	East Asia & the Pacific	2005	92	95	88
	World	2005	82	87	77
Youth Literacy Rate	Philippines	2003	95	94	97
	East Asia & the Pacific	2005	98	98	98
	World	2005	88	91	84

Goal V: Gender

Gender Parity Indexes

◆ 2000 & 01   ■ 2003 & 04   ▲ 2005
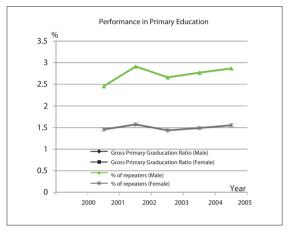
for 2005	T	M	F
Gross Primary Graduation Ratio	…	…	…
Percentage of repeaters	2.2	2.9	1.6

Goal VI: Education Quality (Cont.)

		2000	2005
Survival Rate to G5	T	79.3[+1]	74.9[-1]
	M	75.8[+1]	70.6[-1]
	F	83.1[+1]	79.8[-1]
Pupil/Teacher Ratio (Pre-Primary)		30.1[+1]	33.6
Pupil/Teacher Ratio (Primary)		35.2[+1]	35.1
Pupil/Teacher Ratio (Secondary)		36.4[+1]	37.9
% of trained teachers (Pre-Primary)		100**[,-1]	…
% of trained teachers (Primary)		100**[,-1]	…
% of trained teachers (Secondary)		100**[,-1]	…
% of repeaters (Primary)		2.0[+1]	2.2
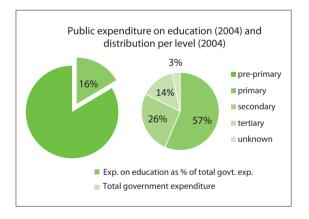
Performance in Primary Education

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Financing in EFA

Education expenditure as % of total educational expenditure (2005)

Pre-Primary	0.1[-2]	Primary	54.3[-1]
Secondary	25.8[-1]	Post Secondary	1.7[-1]
Tertiary	13.4[-1]		

	2000	2005
Total public expenditure on education		
as % of GDP	3.5	2.7[-1]
as % of total govt. exp.	14.0	16.4[-1]
Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil (US$ PPP)	511.4**	413.5[-1]

Public expenditure on education (2004) and distribution per level (2004)

pre-primary, primary, secondary, tertiary, unknown

Exp. on education as % of total govt. exp.
Total government expenditure

Symbols used :

…	No data available
**	UIS estimation
-	Magnitude nil or negligible
.	Not applicable
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+n	Data refer to the school or financial year (or period) n years or periods after the reference year or period
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Sources: UNESCO Institute for Statistics, World Bank, International Labour Organization, UNICEF, UNESCAP

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http://www.uis.unesco.org/publications/GED2007

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