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

MEKONG SUB-REGION

Synthesis Report

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

Mekong Sub-Region Synthesis Report

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Acronyms

ADB	:	Asian Development Bank
CCT	:	Conditional Cash Transfer [Cambodia]
CEDAW	:	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women
CFS	:	Child-Friendly School
CLC	:	Community Learning Centre
CLWA	:	Children Living with AIDS
CPI	:	Committee for Planning and Investment [Lao PDR]
CRC	:	Convention on the Rights of the Child
CSN	:	Children with Special Needs
CWD	:	Children with Disabilities
DAC	:	Disability Action Council
DBEs	:	Departments of Basic Education 1, 2, and 3 (MOE) [Myanmar]
DCI	:	Department of Cottage Industries [Myanmar]
DEPT	:	Department of Education Planning and Training (MOE) [Myanmar]
DK	:	Democratic Kampuchea
DMERB	:	Department of Myanmar Educational Research Bureau [Myanmar]
DPT	:	Diphtheria, Pertussis, Tetanus [vaccine]
DSW	:	Department of Social Welfare (under MSW) [Myanmar]
DTVE	:	Department of Technical and Vocational Education [Myanmar]
ECCD	:	Early Childhood Care and Development
ECCE	:	Early Childhood Care and Education
ECE	:	Early Childhood Education
EDP2	:	Second Education Development Project [Lao PDR]
EFA	:	Education for All
EFA NAP	:	Education for All National Action Plan
EMIS	:	Education Management Information System
ERW	:	Explosive Remnants of War
ESITC	:	Education Statistics and Information Technology Centre [Lao PDR, MOE]
EXCEL	:	Extended and Continuous Education and Learning [Myanmar]
ESAO	:	Educational Service Area Office [Thailand]
FSQL	:	Fundamental School Quality Level [Viet Nam]
FY	:	Fiscal Year
GDP	:	Gross Domestic Product
GER	:	Gross Enrolment Rate
GIR	:	Gross Intake Rate
GMS	:	Greater Mekong Sub-Region covering Cambodia, Lao PDR, Thailand, Myanmar, Viet Nam and Yunnan Province of China
GPI	:	Gender Parity Index
GSO	:	General Statistics Office [Viet Nam]
GTC	:	Government Technical College [Myanmar]
GTI	:	Governmental Technical Institute [Myanmar]
ICT	:	Information and Communication Technology
IDD	:	Iodine Deficiency Disorder
IDP	:	Internally Displaced Persons
IE	:	Inclusive Education
IEC	:	Information, Education and Communication
ILO	:	International Labour Organization
INGO	:	International Non-Governmental Organization
ISCED	:	International Standard Classification of Education
IVETS	:	Integrated Vocational Education and Training System
KG	:	Kindergarten

LAO	:	Local Administration Organization [Thailand]
LNLS	:	Lao National Literacy Survey (2001)
LTEDP	:	Long-Term Education Development Plan [Myanmar]
MC	:	Mothers' Circle [Myanmar]
MCHC	:	Mother and Child Health Centres [MOH, Lao PDR]
MDA	:	[EFA] Mid-Decade Assessment
MDG	:	Millennium Development Goals
MERB	:	Myanmar Education Research Bureau (Became DMERB in 2004)
MICS	:	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
MMCWA	:	Myanmar Maternal and Child Welfare Association
MOE	:	Ministry of Education [Lao PDR, Myanmar, Thailand]
MOET	:	Ministry of Education and Training [Viet Nam]
MOEYS	:	Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports [Cambodia]
MOF	:	Ministry of Finance
MOH	:	Ministry of Health
MOIC	:	Ministry of Industry and Commerce [Lao PDR]
MOP	:	Ministry of Planning [Cambodia]
MOPH	:	Ministry of Public Health [Thailand]
MPBND	:	Ministry of Progress of Border Area Development and National Races and Development Affairs [Myanmar]
MSDHS	:	Ministry of Social Development and Human Security [Thailand]
MSW	:	Ministry of Social Welfare, Relief, and Resettlement [Myanmar]
MTEF	:	Medium Term Expenditure Framework
MWAF	:	Myanmar Women Affairs Federation
NAP	:	National Action Plan (Also widely cited as National Plan of Action, NPA)
n.d.	:	No date
NEA	:	National Education Act [Thailand]
NER	:	Net Enrolment Ratio
NFE	:	Non-Formal Education
NFPE	:	Non-Formal Primary Education [Myanmar]
NGO	:	Non-Governmental Organization
NGPES	:	National Growth and Poverty Eradication Strategy [Lao PDR]
NIETS	:	National Institute of Educational Testing Service [Thailand]
NIR	:	Net Intake Rate
NIS	:	National Institute of Statistics [Cambodia]
NPA	:	National Plan of Action (also widely cited as National Action Plan, NAP)
NSO	:	1. National Statistical Office [Thailand] 2. National statistical office [generic]
NSC	:	National Statistical Centre [Lao PDR]
NSEDP	:	National Socio-Economical Development Plan [Lao PDR]
NTC	:	National Training Council [Lao PDR]
OBEC	:	Office of the Basic Education Commission, Ministry of Education [Thailand]
ODA	:	Official Development Assistance (often used, as in this report, to refer generally to externally financed development support)
ONESQA	:	Office for National Education Standards and Quality Assessment [Thailand]
ONFEC	:	Office of the Non-Formal Education Commission [Thailand]
OPEC	:	Office of the Private Education Commission (Permanent Secretary's Office, Ministry of Education) [Thailand]
PAP	:	Priority Action Programme [Cambodia]
PDR	:	People's Democratic Republic
PEM	:	Protein Energy Malnutrition
PISA	:	Programme for International Student Assessment
PLAR	:	Prior Learning Assessment and Recognition
ppm	:	Parts per million

PTA	:	Parent-Teacher Association
PTR	:	Pupil/Teacher Ratio
RLG	:	Royal Lao Government (1947-1975)
SBM	:	School-Based Management
SCCPH	:	Steering Committee for Census of Population and Housing [Lao PDR]
Sida	:	Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
SR	:	Survival Rate
STH	:	Soil-Transmitted Helminthiasis
SWAp	:	Sector Wide Approach
TIMSS	:	Third International Mathematics and Science Study
TTEST	:	Teacher Training Enhancement and Status of Teachers (project with external financing by Sida)
TVET	:	Technical Vocational Education and Training
UBE	:	Universal Basic Education
UIS	:	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UDNR	:	University for the Development of National Races [Myanmar]
UNESCO	:	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	:	United Nations Children's Fund
UNPD	:	United Nations Population Division
UXO	:	Unexploded Ordinance
WHO	:	World Health Organization
WWII	:	Second World War

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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 (UIS) 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 UIS-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 examines progress and gaps in the achievement of national and global EFA targets. The MDA also aims 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

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 policies 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 Support 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 of 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 Support Groups, the UIS-AIMS Unit also developed the *Guidelines for 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 countless 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 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

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 uses mainly country provided data.

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

Data on pupils, students, 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 (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 Mekong 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 had 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 (MDA) 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. 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, socioeconomic 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 the Mekong Sub-Region with particular attention to Cambodia, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Thailand and Viet Nam which all participated in the EFA Mid-Decade Assessment.

1.2 Overview of the Report Structure and Content

Organization. This Report is divided into three parts. Part I provides an overview of the historical context in which the education systems of today have evolved. After a general overview of the demographic, social, and economic context, a brief history of the development of the education systems is presented. The historical development is divided into three periods – traditional or "pre-modern", the colonial period, and the post-colonial or "modern" period. The current systems are then described briefly, including financing, identification of the "unreached" populations, and the identification of the major cross-cutting issues. A careful reading of the history in Part I will support a better understanding of the evidence presented in Parts II and III.

Part II provides a regional comparative analysis of progress toward the EFA goals at the half-way point of the current decade. The analysis is presented goal-by-goal, with one chapter for each of the six EFA goals. Part III provides an analysis of progress toward the EFA goals for each country, with one chapter for each country.

Data Sources, Part II. In the regional comparative tables presented in Part II, there are two data sources. The data source for the qualitative data is the responses to the EFA MDA questionnaire distributed by UNESCO Bangkok. The source for the numerical data is the UNESCO Institute for Statistics data set prepared especially for this Report. These figures are based on data supplied by the authoritative sources of the respective governments, in most cases the education management information system (EMIS). In some cases, the data supplied do not conform completely to the year indicated in the table; in such cases, notes at the bottom of the table indicate the year to which the data refer. In other cases, the available data do not conform exactly to the definitions used in the table, and the figures given are either national estimates or estimates by UIS, as indicated in the table notes. In still other cases, no relevant data are available, which is indicated by "…".

Data Sources, Part III. Part III presents country tables, rather than comparative tables. For these data sets, the respective governments, typically ministries of education, are solely responsible. For ease of identification, the captions for all national data tables contain the name of the country. In national tables given below, the national data source is indicated. Sources are given without reference to country.

Apparent Differences between Data Sets. In some cases, the alert reader may observe apparent differences between the figures given in the comparative tables in Part II and corresponding figures given in the country tables in Part III. These apparent differences are generally due to slight differences in definition of the variables in question. In the country data sets, the specific definitions may differ somewhat from country to country, in accordance with the structure of the system, the policies, etc. In preparing the comparative tables, UIS standardizes the data sets submitted by each country in accordance with the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED).

The reader should interpret the figures given in Part II as most meaningful in the comparative context, and the figures given in Part III as most meaningful in the specific country context. Explication of the apparent discrepancies is limited to brief notes associated with the comparative tables in Part II.

Bibliographic References. For convenience, bibliographic references in the text are often given in abbreviated form, such as MOE for Ministry of Education. The abbreviation MOE, however, could represent the Ministry of Education in either Lao PDR, Myanmar, or Thailand. In most cases, the context renders the abbreviation unambiguous; where there could be ambiguity, the country is indicated.

In Part II of this Report, comparative data tables are provided. The source of all such tables is the UIS Data Centre. The full bibliographical reference is UNESCO Institute for Statistics Data Centre (www.uis.unesco.org, accessed February 2008). For the sake of brevity in the text and table references, abbreviations will generally be used, and in this case the general reference will be "UISDC, February 2008".

2. Overview of the Sub-Region

2.1 Background of Sub-Region

Cultural Geography. The Mekong Sub-Region, comprising Cambodia, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar, Thailand, and Viet Nam, is rich in socio-cultural, ethno-linguistic, economic, and political diversity. Before the delineation of political borders beginning in the 19th century, coastal, lowland, and alluvial areas were populated by the ethnically predominant Tai, Lao, Khmer, Viet, and Burman peoples, who were the first to establish powerful kingdoms and city-states in the region. The peripheries of these lowland empires and the mountainous uplands and heavily forested regions were populated by semi-autonomous tribal groups, including Khmu, Lue, Lahu, Lisu, Karen, Kachin, Hmong, Akha, Lawa, Haw, Phu Tai, Kor, Katu, Mien, Padong, Palaung, Lamet, Pwo Karen, Mlabri and Pa-O. In addition, indigenous peoples, such as the Bru, Cham, Chong, Kui, and Mon inhabited pockets in the central lowlands, while ethnic Malay and Moken seafaring peoples inhabited the southern coastal regions.

Despite the diversity, certain common patterns unified the region. In the central flood plains and coastal areas, lowland states were deeply influenced by the civilisations of neighbouring China and India. They were traditionally based on wet rice agriculture. By contrast, in the northern upland areas, semi-autonomous, animist, tribal societies relied on swidden agriculture or shifting cultivation. These upland and lowland populations were brought together periodically through trade, ritual, and warfare. Although upland populations maintained relative political autonomy vis-à-vis the lowland states, the symbolic authority of the lowland states over the upland tribal populations was maintained through ritual practices and the regular payment of tribute.

Colonialization and Conflict. Colonial expansion into the region transformed traditional modes of statecraft and led to the delineation of fixed political boundaries. The introduction of rubber and oil palm plantations, mining, and commercial logging also spurred major transformations in the environment and economy. While a large proportion of the population was still engaged in

subsistence production, a small sector of the local population benefited from the export earnings from rice, rubber, and tin. Colonialism also introduced other social and political changes, including a secular education system. Though never directly colonized, Thailand also underwent these socio-economic and political transformations.

National independence in the Mekong Sub-Region came after the Second World War (WW II) and was quickly followed by several decades of armed conflict during the Cold War. The countries which suffered the impacts of the conflict most acutely were Viet Nam, Lao PDR, and Cambodia. Although Myanmar was not drawn into the major international conflicts in the region, it nonetheless endured chronic internal struggles between the government and autonomy-seeking ethnic groups. As a free market, pro-American ally, Thailand was the only country in the region to escape the most devastating impacts of the conflicts during the Cold War era.

By the mid-1970s, with the exception of Thailand, all countries in the Sub-Region were either communist or socialist states. While these political regimes varied significantly in their interpretation of socialist ideologies, they shared several common features, including the collectivization of agriculture and nationalization of industries. The Democratic Republic of Kampuchea was the most extreme case, as the Khmer Rouge under Pol Pot sought to completely restructure Cambodian society by abolishing social hierarchy and religion, collectivizing agriculture, abandoning much of the industrial base, and abandoning currency and the banking system. It is estimated that between 1975 and 1979 during the Khmer Rouge regime some 50,000-100,000 persons were executed and 1.2 million died from starvation, illness, hard labour, and other related causes.

Post-Conflict Development. As conflict in the Sub-Region subsided in the late 1980s and early 1990s, several states began the transition from highly centralized command economies to open market economies. In 1986, Viet Nam introduced the Doi Moi (renovation) reforms, and Lao PDR introduced the New Economic Mechanism. In Cambodia, the shift took place after the 1991 Paris Agreements and UN-sponsored elections in 1993. All countries in the region eventually became members of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN).

A further initiative, with the assistance of the Asian Development Bank (ADB), was the establishment of the Greater Mekong Sub-Region (GMS) to enhance the Sub-Region's economic integration by supporting projects in a variety of sectors. By 2006, GMS countries had implemented sub-regional projects worth more than USD 6.5 billion, including upgrading of the East-West Corridor connecting Lao PDR, north-eastern Thailand, and central Viet Nam, and the Kunming-Chiang Rai road via Lao PDR. Other projects include the promotion of the Greater Mekong Sub-Region as a tourist destination, the Cross-Border Transport Agreement, and the development of a Strategic Environmental Framework.

Economic Development. After decades of armed conflict, the Mekong Sub-Region has shown unprecedented economic growth in the past decade. Relative peace in the region has spurred economic liberalisation, foreign investment, and inter-governmental cooperation in regional infrastructure development, leading to freer sub-regional flows of goods, labour, and information. As a result the low-income, transitional economies of Cambodia, Lao PDR, and Viet Nam have been growing at a rate of 6%-10% annually since 2001 (World Bank, 2007a), while the middle income economy of Thailand has witnessed steady growth between 4%-5% per year, following the 1997-1998 Asian financial crisis. Economic growth in the Sub-Region has led to rising living standards and falling poverty rates. For example, in Lao PDR, the poverty rate dropped from 46% in 1993 to 31% in 2005, and in Viet Nam, the population living below the USD 2 a day poverty level fell from 62% in 2001 to 36% in 2006 (World Bank, 2007b).

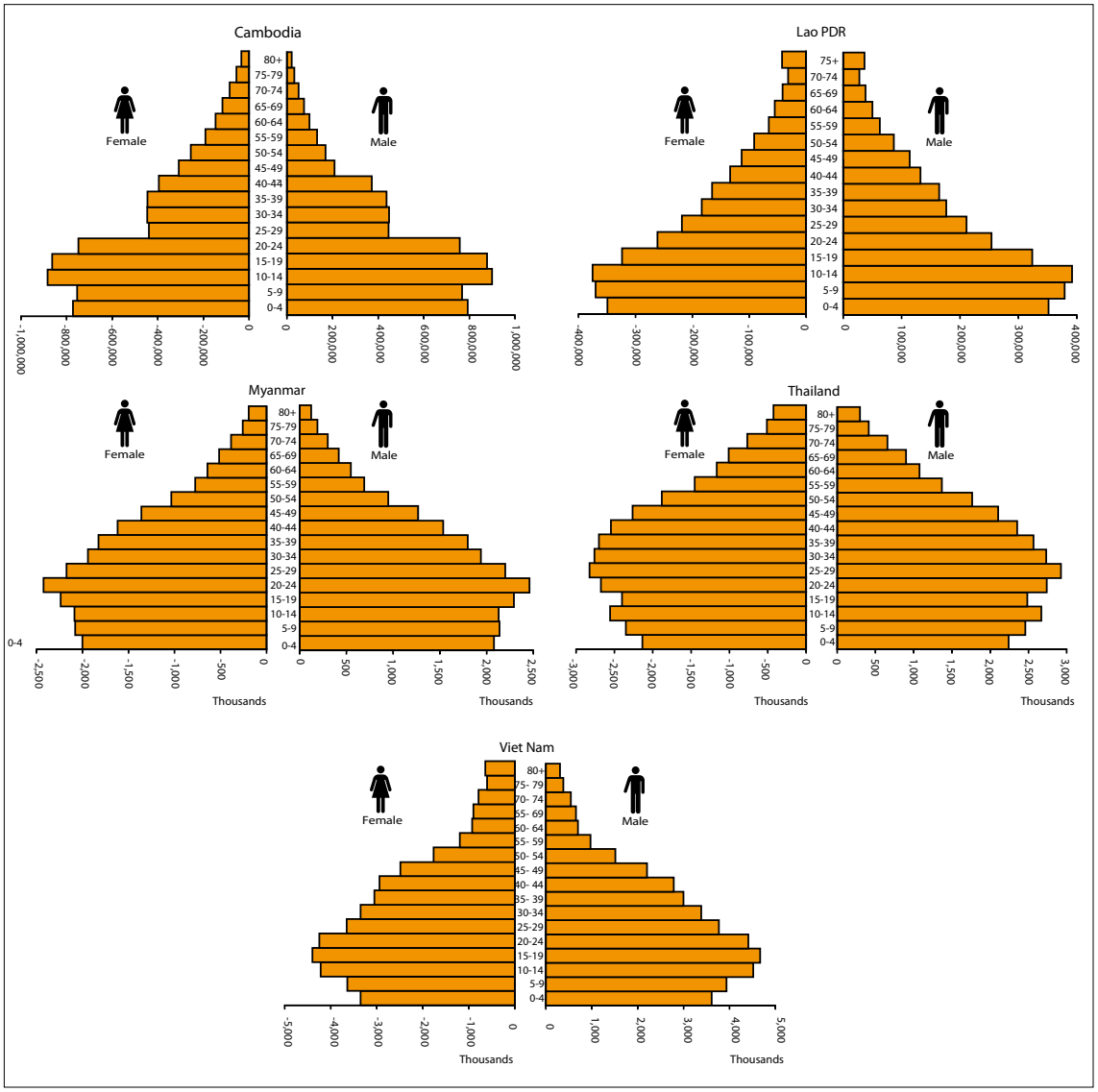
The benefits of economic growth in the Sub-Region have been uneven and have given rise to increasing levels of inequality, with living standards rising more slowly among rural populations (World Bank, 2007c). Rapid economic growth in the Sub-Region has also raised concerns about health, social and environmental impacts. Plans to develop the Mekong River as a source of

energy and a transport route are threatening to destroy fisheries that local populations have long depended upon for their livelihoods, while infrastructure development to support sub-regional trade is impacting areas that were once remote and forested, leading to loss of habitat and bio-diversity which has been the mainstay of upland ethnic populations' livelihood.

One significant outcome of unequal economic development in the Sub-Region has been the unprecedented movement of people within and across national borders, including economic migrants seeking employment opportunities, child labourers, and victims of human trafficking. Thailand's status as a middle-income country has made it a main destination country for both labour migrants and victims of trafficking from neighbouring low-income countries, particularly Cambodia, Lao PDR, and Myanmar. In 2005, there were 1.285 million registered workers and dependents and an estimated 200,000 unregistered workers from these three countries, working in Thailand (IOM, 2005).

2.2 General Level of Development of the Mekong Sub-Region

Figure 1: Population Pyramids in the Mekong Sub-Region



Sources: SCCPH, 2006; U.S. Census Bureau, 2008.

2.2.1 Demography

A distinguishing feature of the demographic structure of the Mekong Sub-Region is the relatively sharp decline in fertility rates in recent decades, as shown in Figure 1 (SCCPH, 2006; U.S. Census Bureau, 2008). Declining fertility rates can have major implications for educational planning, since the changes in the stock of teachers and schools often lags the changes in the school age population. It can be one factor supporting rising enrolment rates.

Fertility rates do not necessarily decline uniformly across the population, however, especially in countries marked by large regional and ethnic disparities in social and economic development. In urban areas, fertility rates tend to decline with economic growth and development, but the populations "unreached" by the education system are typically "unreached" by other social services, and the fertility rates are less likely to decline. As a consequence, the "unreached" populations can grow more rapidly than the population at large. This in turn can exacerbate the problems to reaching the EFA goals because the marginal cost of reaching the "unreached" is higher than the marginal cost of reaching the populations already reached.

2.2.2 Human Development Indicators

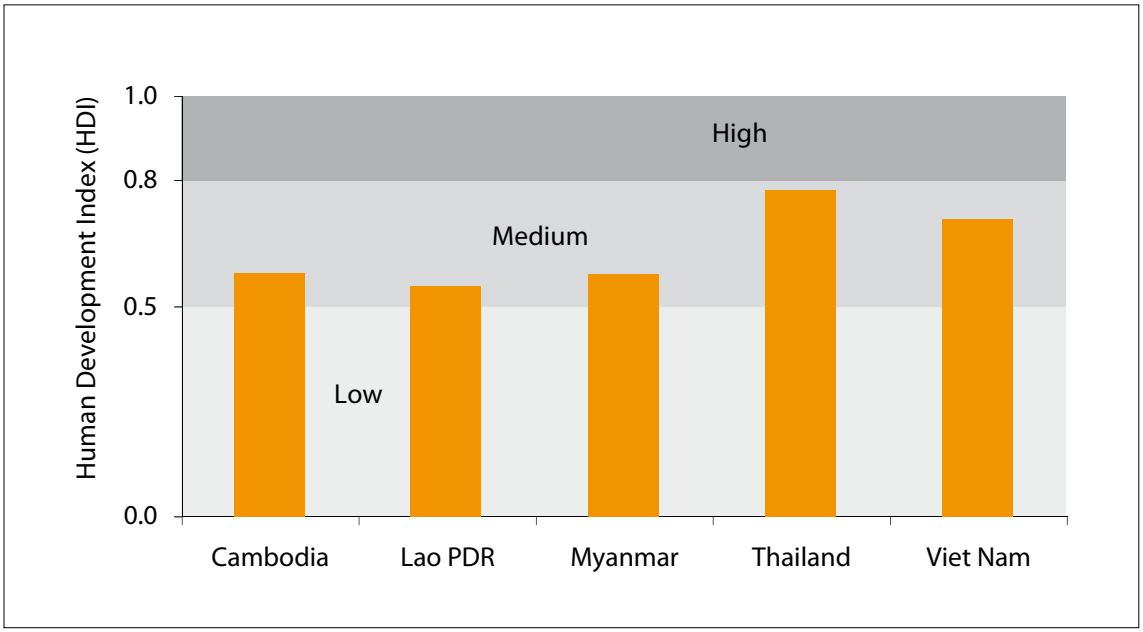
The overall level of human development as measured by the UN Human Development Index (HDI) indicates that the five countries in the Mekong Sub-Region fall within the range of medium human development. The HDI provides a composite measure of human development based on indicators of life expectancy, education (adult literacy, enrolment in primary, secondary, and tertiary levels), and the gross domestic product per capita (UNDP, 2006), as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Human Development Index Rank in the Mekong Sub-Region, 2004

	World Boundaries			Mekong Sub-Region				
	Low	Medium	High	Cambodia	Lao PDR	Myanmar	Thailand	Viet Nam
HDI Rank *	147-177	64-146	1-63	129	133	130	74	109
HDI Value	0.00-0.49	0.50-0.80	0.80-1.00	0.58	0.55	0.58	0.78	0.71

Source: UNDP Human Development Report (2006).
Note: * Rank among 177 countries for which the HDI was calculated.

Figure 2: Human Development Index in the Mekong Sub-Region, 2004



Source: UNDP Human Development Report (2006).

2.2.3 Poverty

Economic growth in the sub-region has led to a reduction in poverty rates and an improvement in living standards. In Thailand, 13% of the population are living below the national poverty line, and in Viet Nam 29%. Poverty rates are significantly higher in Cambodia and Lao PDR, where 35% and 33%, respectively, live below the national poverty line.

Dramatic improvements have been achieved in poverty reduction in some countries in the sub-region during the past decade. In Cambodia, the proportion of people under the poverty line fell from 47% in 1994 to 35% in 2004 (World Bank, 2007d). In Lao PDR, the proportion of the population under the poverty line fell from 46% in 1992 to 33% in 2002. Nonetheless, poverty rates are significantly higher in rural areas, in areas not accessible by roads, in the southern part of the country, and in areas populated by disadvantaged ethnic groups (World Bank, 2007b). In Viet Nam, the proportion of the population below the poverty line fell from 37% in 1998 to 29% in 2002, but poverty rates continue to be significantly higher in rural areas (36%) than in urban areas (7%) (World Bank, 2007e).

2.2.4 Inequality

Despite the strong economic growth and poverty reduction in the Mekong, inequality of income and consumption has increased in several countries, especially between urban and rural populations. The Gini Index measures the inequality of the income distribution in a country. A value of 0 implies perfect equality and a value of 100 signifies perfect inequality. Thailand is the most unequal in the Mekong region with a value of 42, while Lao PDR and Viet Nam are the most equitable with values around 34, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Gini Index, 1992-97 and 2002-04, Sub-Region

Period	Cambodia	Lao PDR	Myanmar	Thailand	Viet Nam
2002-2004	42	35	…	42	34
1992-1997	35	30	…	46	36

Source: World Bank, World Development Indicators Database.
Note: "…" indicates no data available.

Over the past decade, income inequality, as measured by the Gini Index, has decreased in Thailand and Viet Nam, but in Cambodia and Lao PDR, inequality has increased (World Bank, 2007d). Economic inequality is directly linked to equitable access to basic services and human development outcomes.

3. Educational Development in the Sub-Region

3.1 Traditional Education in the Pre-Modern Context

With the exception of Viet Nam, traditional education in the Mekong region centred on the Theravada Buddhist monastery. Monastic education seems to have become widespread in the Mekong region between 11th-15th centuries, the period when Theravada Buddhism spread from Sri Lanka into mainland South-East Asia. Among the Mekong countries, Myanmar has the earliest record of Theravada Buddhist monastic education. Historical evidence suggests that monastic schooling in the Irrawaddy Basin began as early as the 11th century A.D., and perhaps even as early as the Mon civilisation in the 9th-12th centuries (Cheesman, 2003:48).

Apart from those areas populated by non-Buddhist ethnic groups, almost every village in the region had a monastery which served as the social, religious, and educational centre of the community. In addition to offering males the opportunity to pursue a life of renunciation in the monkhood, the

monastery also provided boys and young men the opportunity to acquire basic literacy, numeracy, and the principles of Buddhism. It has been estimated that more than half of the males in Burma, Cambodia, and Siam in the 18th century achieved basic literacy from the monasteries (Steinberg, 1987:40).

In the larger monasteries under royal patronage, males with exceptional talent or ambition could seek advanced instruction with monks in a range of subjects derived from India, including math, astronomy, medicine, and poetry. Such monasteries could support paid teachers, and could also offer incentives such as ecclesiastical advancement for the best trained monk-teachers (Steinberg, 1987:40). Monastic education was itself free, but with the exception of those under royal patronage, monasteries were constructed and maintained by the local community, and donations to the monastery were a means of accumulating a store of "merit." (Cheesman, 2003:49).

The curriculum imparted a body of knowledge and values drawn from Theravada Buddhist doctrine focusing on discipline and respect for the social hierarchy. Through monastic education, rural communities learned the core Theravada Buddhist concepts of karma and merit. By studying Buddhist texts, male villagers learned the meaning of merit through stories about Buddhist kings and princes (Keyes, 1991: 95).

Although Pali (the liturgical language of Theravada Buddhism) was the formal language of instruction in the monastery, vernacular languages were also used in monastic education. Outside the monastery, Buddhist teachings were transmitted orally by lay specialists through the local vernacular. It was largely through these oral traditions that Buddhist teachings reached the non-literate populace, including girls and women (Keyes, 1991: 91).

Upon completing a basic course of study, males had a number of options for using their skills, one of which was to pursue further education and advancement within the ecclesiastical system. This path offered the greatest social mobility, as the ecclesiastical hierarchy of monks and abbots extended all the way from the village to the king, and traditionally the monarchs of Myanmar and Siam observed the examinations given to the most advanced religious scholars in their realms (Steinberg, 1987: 41). Men who chose to leave the monkhood to re-enter society were accorded a higher status on account of their monastic education, and often assumed positions of authority in the community (Keyes, 1995).

Although the Theravada Buddhist scriptures did not explicitly bar women from pursuing a religious education, culturally prescribed gender roles in the Mekong region generally prevented females from attending monastic schools (Keyes, 1991:94). Non-Buddhist ethnic groups were also generally excluded from monastic education, due primarily to their geographic distance from monasteries as well as their religious beliefs. Monastic education was seen as a means of "civilizing" non-Buddhist groups living on the periphery of kingdoms (Cheesman, 2003). Similarly, people with disabilities were excluded from education, on the grounds that they would be a burden to the monastery (DeGraff, 2002).

The major exception to this traditional system of monastic education in the Mekong region was Viet Nam. In Vietnamese villages, there were no religious institutions of learning; rather, traditional schools offering an education in Chinese language and Confucian classical literature were established by households or by individual teachers (Woodside, 1991:171). The curriculum covered the Confucian classics, dynastic histories, and Chinese literature, with an emphasis on memorisation of texts. Classrooms at the village level were not divided by levels of study; instead, male students of all ages and aptitudes would study different texts under the guidance of the teacher. The ultimate goal of this education was to prepare students for the state exams based on Confucian classics. Students who passed the examinations were eligible for enrolment in government-sponsored schools at the district, prefect, and provincial schools, and led to positions in the civil service for those select few who passed the final stage of examinations.

As in the case of the Buddhist monastic education, the examination system in Viet Nam presented opportunities for social mobility. It has been estimated that 30%-40% of those who passed the civil servant exams in the 19th century were originally from poor rural families (Woodside, 1991:180). However, whereas a high proportion of those who received a Buddhist monastic education stayed in their villages and returned to the life of agricultural production, those who received a Confucian education in Viet Nam tended to leave their communities and become part of an elite bureaucrat class who tended to look down on manual labour (Pham & Fry, 2005). The Vietnamese examination system also produced a surplus of unemployed literati who, after failing the exams, could not be reabsorbed into the village economy (Woodside, 1995:193).

Excluded from the traditional educational system in Viet Nam were girls and women, ethnic groups in remote regions, and those who could not afford the costs associated with private schooling at the village level.

In summary, in the Mekong Sub-Region, education was highly valued in the pre-modern context. Although traditional education imparted important life skills, such as literacy and numeracy, its fundamental function was to inculcate social norms, religious beliefs, and cultural worldviews. In the Theravada Buddhist countries of Burma, Cambodia, Lao PDR, and Siam, the monastery taught Buddhist beliefs and values that underpinned the structure of traditional society, including the concept of merit and the institution of kingship. In pre-colonial Viet Nam, the Confucian examination system inculcated knowledge and values which supported the hierarchical political system of the mandarinate. Females, disadvantaged ethnic groups, and people with disabilities were almost entirely excluded from the educational system.

3.2 Education in the Colonial Period

Colonialism introduced major changes to the traditional educational systems in the Mekong Sub-Region. The first impact of colonialism on traditional education came through the Christian missionary schools. While the main objective of the missionary schools was to spread the gospel of the Christian faith, the curriculum of many of these schools also included courses in nature, anatomy, mathematics, and science. This was particularly true among the 19th century Protestant missionaries, who saw the natural world and the laws of physics as the work of an all powerful creator (Keyes, 1991:4). Another major change introduced by missionary schools was the inclusion of girls and disadvantaged ethnic groups. For example, by the mid-19th century in Burma, Christian schools specifically targeting Burma's ethnic Karen provided primary education in both English and the Karen language. Missionaries were also the first to introduce printing presses using indigenous languages, thus instigating a culture of literacy among ethnic populations (Keyes, 1991:4).

As colonial bureaucracies in the Mekong region expanded in the late 19th century, so too, did the demand for education, as the British in Burma and French in Indochina sought to fulfil their "civilizing mission" and develop the capacities of local populations to fill administrative posts (Steinberg, 1987). Although never directly colonized, Siamese leaders in the late 19th century also recognized the need to introduce educational reforms to produce a more western-oriented generation of skilled workers in the wake of administrative and economic changes. While the colonial-era reforms aimed at the creation of a unitary educational system, in reality, they produced a bifurcated system of colonial, elite education for urban populations and indigenous, vernacular education for rural populations.

1. Burma

In British Burma (1824-1948), the first non-monastic schools to be established were American Baptist missionary schools (est. 1826-1827) and Anglo-vernacular schools (est. 1833-1844). These schools emphasized the English language and an English-centred curriculum which provided instruction in mathematics and science (Keyes, 1991). Seeking to train a segment of the local population for

government posts and inculcate secular values, the British actively encouraged urban populations to enrol in Anglo-vernacular schools.

As native graduates of these colonial schools acquired prestigious jobs in the government service, monastic schools in urban centres began to lose their traditional status as the stronghold of learning and social advancement, leading to tensions between the Buddhist monasteries and the British state. In 1866, the British regime established the Department of Public Instruction, whose primary mandate was to provide government grants to schools in the territory of lower Burma. While monastic schools were eligible for these grants-in-aid, most rejected the support out of suspicion towards the British, and because it would have required the introduction of a secular curriculum. Monastic schools continued to resist the colonial regime's implementation of a secular curriculum well into the 20th century (Cheesman, 2003:51).

Statistical indicators from 1930-1940 clearly demonstrate a divide between the Anglo-vernacular schools, which primarily served an urban elite, and monastic schools, which continued to serve the rural populace. In 1930, there were some 6,000 government schools and some 17,000 monastic schools outside state control (Cheesman, 2003). It was estimated in the 1930s, that only 4% of the school-age population of Burma was enrolled in "recognized" schools (Furnivall, 1943:111). In 1939-1940, the Education Department estimated that there were 18,000 monastic schools with 200,000 students (Cheesman, 2003:53). This bifurcated system produced students with vastly different cultural orientations and opportunities for social advancement. Whereas Burmese graduates from English schools entered the colonial bureaucracy and participated in the growth of modern economic enterprise, the majority of the population still retained a traditional worldview grounded in Buddhist teachings (Keyes, 1991:101).

Education during the colonial period offered some opportunities to groups that were historically left out of monastic education. Before the British annexation of Burma, the region comprised various Buddhist kingdoms in lowland areas, and tribal groups in upland areas were governed by local chieftains. Classified as living in "Frontier Areas," these non-Burman ethnic groups largely retained their autonomy during British rule. Through promotion of education and creation of written scripts for pre-literate peoples, such as the Karen, Chin, and Kachin, Christian missionaries laid the foundations for a sense of collective identity among these groups who had formerly been politically and geographically dispersed.

2. Cambodia

During the 19th century, the French relied on the indigenous monastic system to provide basic literacy. Rather than educating an indigenous elite, the French imported educated Vietnamese to serve in the colonial civil service. The first modern Franco-Cambodian school to open in Phnom Penh was the French Language School of the Protectorate in 1873, and in 1885, the French established three French language primary schools in provincial capitals and a college for interpreters in Phnom Penh (Clayton, 1995). By 1902, the School of the Protectorate enrolled 250 students, while three Franco-Cambodian primary schools in provincial towns enrolled an additional 40 students (Clayton, 1995).

Upon completing their studies, most of these men served in the colonial civil service as interpreters (Vickery, 1991). It is also important to note many students in the Franco-Cambodian schools were Vietnamese; in 1883, only eight out of the approximately 100 students at the School of the Protectorate were Cambodian (Clayton, 1995). Most Khmer chose to continue to send their children to traditional monastic schools rather than Franco-Cambodian institutions (Clayton, 1995:5). By 1940, 80,000 Cambodians were attending primary schools, but of these only approximately 500 students per year completed a primary certificate (Clayton, 1995). As late as 1953 there were still only 2,700 students enrolled in eight high schools (Clayton, 1995).

The educational policies of 1918 and 1924 divided the Franco-Cambodian schools into two types. The écoles élémentaires, or the elementary school, offered a three-year course of education intended for the majority of children. By 1921, there were 43 elementary schools and by 1939, there were 103 (Bilodeau, 1955:18-19). For the first year, instruction was in Khmer, and French was introduced in the second year. The curriculum covered basic math, the metric system, and common knowledge (Clayton, 1995).

The école de plein exercice, or the full-course schools, provided a three-year elementary cycle followed by a three-year complementary cycle. French was the medium of instruction in the complementary cycle, and the curriculum included writing, arithmetic, reading, local history, geography, and geometry (Clayton, 1995). In 1921, there were 14 such schools, and by 1939 there were 18 (Bilodeau, 1955:19). Graduates of the complementary schools were eligible to continue their education at the College of the Protectorate in Phnom Penh, renamed Collège Sisowath in 1905 (Clayton, 1995). At Collège Sisowath, they were trained for jobs in the French administration, while promising students were encouraged to pursue a higher education in Viet Nam or France. By 1930, however, only six Cambodians had graduated from French schools in Viet Nam, and 12 had completed an education in France (Chandler, 1993).

Recognizing the Cambodians' continued resistance to the colonial educational system, the French decided in 1908 to emulate the successful Siamese system of providing a modern educational curriculum through the monastic schools. The monastic schools offering a modern, secular curriculum came to be known as khum, or communal schools (Clayton, 1995). Teachers in the khum schools were Cambodian graduates of the French educational system, but the medium of instruction was in Khmer, and the khum schools relied on participation of the local community for construction and maintenance. These schools also served as a bridge for rural populations to enrol in Franco-Cambodian schools (Clayton, 1995:10). The popularity of the khum schools among local Cambodians is evidenced by their rapid growth in number. By 1931, there were 203 khum schools, and by 1939 there were 268 (Clayton, 1956).

In 1923, in order to improve the quality of teaching, the French opened a four-year teacher training course at Collège Sisowath. In 1925, a shorter course was opened for assistant teachers (Clayton, 1995). With the improvement of Cambodian teachers' pedagogical skills, there was less need to import Vietnamese teachers – a factor which also contributed to the increased enrolments in both the French schools and the *khum* schools.

After the success with the *khum* schools, the French decided to bring all monastic schools into accordance with the modern curriculum, and in 1924, they initiated a nine-month pilot training programme covering the new curriculum for monks from Kompot province (Bilodeau, 1955:21). By 1930, 58 monks had completed this programme and returned to teach at their schools, which were then known as modernized *wat* (temple) schools (Bilodeau, 1955:21). Demonstration schools were established in every province to train monk teachers, and the traditional monastic schools rapidly modernized. In 1931, there were 101 modernized *wat* schools, and by 1939 there were 908 (Bilodeau, 1955:21-22).

The curriculum of the modern *wat* schools was comparable to that in Franco-Cambodian primary schools which taught basic reading, writing, and mathematics, except that the medium of instruction was Khmer rather than French. These schools also served as bridge schools, since students who passed the elementary leaving examination were eligible to enter Franco-Cambodian complementary schools if they first enrolled in required French language courses. Nonetheless, relatively few students from the modern monastic schools completed the complementary cycle (Bilodeau, 1955:21). By 1944, 15%-20% of school-aged boys were enrolled in some form of French schooling, either Franco-Cambodian schools, modernized *wat* schools or *khum* schools (Clayton, 1995).

In summary, French colonial education reached only a small proportion of the population in Cambodia. Moreover, although in principle the new "modern" education was open to girls, few actually enrolled. Other groups unreached by modern education during this period were the disadvantaged ethnic groups, particularly those living in remote and mountainous areas.

3. Lao PDR

In Lao PDR, as in Cambodia, the French created a bifurcated system of French schools in the urban centres and vernacular schools in rural areas. In Lao PDR, however, even fewer people were educated in the French system. Even though the French had established Laos as a protectorate in 1863, education was not part of the colonial budget until 1905. Even then, French policy in Laos was to limit expenditures on education by supporting traditional monastic schools, which were to provide a basic education including literacy and numeracy. Franco-Lao primary schools were established in a few provincial capitals, but most of the students were the children of expatriate Vietnamese working in the French bureaucracy. By 1907, there were still only four French teachers in all of Laos (Stuart-Fox, 1997:43).

Educational opportunities increased somewhat over the next 20 years. By 1917, a six-year primary education was available in French in the larger urban centres, and in 1921, a junior secondary school called Collège Pavie was established in Vientiane. To pursue higher education, Lao students had to go to Hanoi. In 1923, a technical training school was opened to teach vocational skills such as bricklaying and carpentry, and in 1928, a Pali school was established, with the aim of supporting Buddhist studies in the monasteries. By 1930, there were 82 schools, 208 teachers (21 of whom were French), and 6,500 students. The Depression led to budget cuts, and by the end of 1930, the enrolment rate had dropped to fewer than 5% of school-age children. Enrolment in the four-year programme at the Collège Pavie was 120, but less than half of these students were Lao, and only 17 were girls. Only a handful of these secondary graduates advanced to tertiary institutions in Viet Nam (Stuart Fox, 1997:43-44). At the end of WW II, only an estimated 1% of the Lao population of 1.1 million persons was receiving elementary education, and only 200 were enrolled in secondary education (Keyes, 1991:101).

4. Siam

Although Siam was never directly colonized, the educational system nonetheless underwent a series of major transformations beginning in the late 19th century. Along with the monastic schools that continued to operate throughout the country, three new types of schools developed. First, missionary schools were established in both urban and rural areas and served different communities. For example, Catholic and Protestant schools were established in Bangkok, and missionary schools were also established in remote regions to serve the various ethnic communities which had historically been excluded from monastic education (Keyes, 1991:7). Second were the Chinese schools, established by Chinese immigrants who modelled the curriculum on schools in China and employed teachers from there (Keyes, 1991:7). Third was the palace school, which was established expressly for the education of the royal family and the nobles. In these schools, students were taught new western subjects, particularly the sciences and English, in preparation for study in Europe.

By the end of the 19th century, a western education was fast becoming a requirement for entry into the upper echelons of the government bureaucracy, which led members of the ruling elite and noble families to quit the monastic schools. The curriculum of the elite schools in Siam resembled European colonial schools in the neighbouring South-East Asian countries. Unlike in other Mekong countries, where elites spoke the languages of the colonizer, the medium of instruction in the elite schools in Siam was Thai (Keyes, 1991:7).

Although the medium of instruction was Thai, Siam was a multi-ethnic state. The mountainous region of northern Thailand had long been home to some 20 hill tribes, including the Karen, the Akha, the Lahu, the Hmong, the Yao, and the Lisu, each of which has its own distinctive culture and language. Historically, Thailand's southern provinces were also part of the Kingdom of Pattani, a semi-autonomous Malay region which adopted Islam in the 13th century. The region was annexed by Thailand in 1902, and in the subsequent decades, the central government launched efforts to assimilate these populations into the nation-state. Nevertheless, Muslim Malays retained their distinctive cultural and religious practices, including the Yawi language and Islamic beliefs and practices.

Recognizing the role of modern education for promoting development and establishing a rationalized bureaucracy, King Chulalongkorn (r. 1868-1910) established the Department of Education in 1887, which became the Ministry of Education in 1892. He introduced a state-wide policy mandating basic education in Thai for all citizens regardless of gender, ethnicity, or class. At the outset of the educational reforms, King Chulalongkorn employed the institutional structure of monastic schools to teach the new national curriculum. Unlike in Burma, where the monasteries resisted colonial educational reforms, the monasteries in Siam fully cooperated with the transition to a national curriculum. This is because the reforms in Siam were initiated by a Thai-speaking Buddhist king with legitimacy among the Siamese monasteries, rather than an English-speaking non-Buddhist colonial power (Wyatt, 1969). By the 1930s, the monastic schools in Thailand had been successfully incorporated into the educational system (Cheesman, 2003:52).

The reforms also required missionary and Chinese schools to adopt the new state curriculum. In comparison to other colonial governments in the region, which had only extended state-supported education to a small proportion of the population, by WW II, compulsory education had filtered down to a large proportion of villages. Moreover, unlike other countries in the region, where a bifurcated educational system still persisted, Siam had succeeded in bridging elite and popular education through the common national curriculum and Thai language medium of instruction (Keyes, 1991:102).

5. Viet Nam

In the French Protectorate of Viet Nam (1862-1945), the French initially established an educational system to serve the children of local French colonists and to train a small proportion of elite Vietnamese to work in the colonial bureaucracy. While many Vietnamese were eager to acquire an education in the French system to obtain lucrative positions in the colonial bureaucracy, others joined in an anti-colonial resistance movement organized by teachers of Chinese characters who used the traditional school system as their base (Kelly, 1982:176). Faced with this threat, the French sought to replace the traditional Confucian system with one that privileged French culture and language (Pham & Fry, 2005). The educational reforms of 1917 centralized education under the Office of Public Instruction, whose main objective was to establish a nationwide, unified educational system conducted in French (Kelly, 1982:179). These Franco-Vietnamese schools initially offered five years of primary schooling conducted in French, followed by a five-year primary superior course. Along with science, history, geography, moral education, and hygiene, these schools also taught the Romanised Vietnamese alphabet (quoc ngu) as a subject and included some content about Vietnamese culture and society (Kelly, 1982:179).

By the 1920s, it was clear that the implementation of a unified educational system had failed (Kelly, 1982:187). Instead of creating an integrated system, the educational system had split along class and regional lines into French-medium and Vietnamese-medium schools. In the 1920s, the chronic shortage of teachers coupled with a monetary crisis led the government to sanction the opening of three-year primary schools taught by teachers with a five-year primary certificate (Kelly, 1982:187). Because of the poor quality of French language instruction in many of these schools, however, the colonial administration amended the Code of Public Instruction of 1924, allowing teachers who

did not possess an adequate mastery of French to teach in Vietnamese. This reform essentially created two separate educational systems: one taught in Vietnamese for rural populations; and one taught in French for urban populations (Kelly, 1982:187). Adding to this lack of uniformity, ethnic hill tribes attended schools that were taught either in French or tribal languages, but not in Vietnamese (Keyes, 1991:6).

Another factor impeding the development of a uniform system was the persistence of the Chinese script in some regions. In the southern protectorate of Cochin China, a region which was historically less influenced by Chinese culture, the French succeeded in introducing the Franco-Vietnamese curriculum and in substituting quoc ngu for Chinese characters. In the central protectorate of Annam and the northern protectorate of Tonkin, however, the deep historical and cultural roots of Confucian education and Chinese language were more difficult to expunge, and an indigenous educational system teaching Chinese characters alongside quoc ngu persisted (Kelly, 1982:188).

Yet another outcome of the period was the reduction of overall school enrolments. Although enrolments in the Franco-Vietnamese schools increased significantly between 1920 and 1938, total enrolments were probably lower than in the pre-colonial period (Kelly, 1982). This is because Franco-Vietnamese schools had failed to replace indigenous schools that were forcibly shut down as a result of the 1917 reforms. For example, in 1924 alone, more than 1,800 schools were closed in Annam and Tonkin (Kelly, 1982:186).

6. Regional Summary

In the Mekong region, during the colonial period as a whole, colonialism introduced a new system of government-funded Western education focused on producing skilled workers to fill the ranks of a rationalized bureaucracy and a growing economy. For the indigenous elites, the colonial educational system was initially perceived as a conduit to acquiring much sought-after bureaucratic positions within the civil service. In spite of the opportunities that education provided for a select few, the system as a whole was characterized by deep structural inequalities. First, despite the colonial mandate to establish a uniform educational system, the urban elites attended schools that were far superior to those in rural areas, where the majority of the population resided. Second, although urban colonial schools offered a degree of mobility, they did not succeed in eroding the class barriers between Europeans and Asians. This was most evident in the colonial government bureaucracies of Indochina and Burma, where Europeans held top positions and Asians comprised the lower echelons of the civil service. Third, given the colonial curriculum's orientation toward Europe and the non-native medium of instruction, colonial education had the effect of widening the economic and social gulf between local elites and indigenous populations. Fourth, large sectors of the population, including girls, disadvantaged ethnic groups, and people with disabilities, were excluded from the new educational systems. These intrinsic inequalities would eventually lead to the call for major educational reforms during the post-colonial or "modern" period.

3.3 Modern Education

As countries in the region gained independence after WW II, governments sought to introduce educational policies to replace colonial education with a national curriculum. Whereas the objectives of establishing a uniform educational system extending to all sectors of the populace were similar across the region, this process of decolonisation and educational reform unfolded at a different pace and went through different stages in different countries. This section discusses educational systems in the Mekong Sub-Region from the period of independence until the present, focusing on how modern education has sought to reach traditionally vulnerable and disadvantaged groups.

3.3.1 Burma / Myanmar

Although education fared better under the British than under other colonial regimes in the Mekong Sub-Region, the Burmese government that assumed power in 1948 was faced with a host of challenges in the educational sector, largely inherited from the colonial period. Secular primary education had not been effectively extended to the populace, and most of those who were receiving education were attending monastic schools. Some schools in more remote regions served only ethnic groups, such as the Karen and Kachin, and elite education was still English in its orientation (Keyes, 1995:294).

In 1948, the Government of Myanmar introduced educational policy aimed to centralize schooling, standardise the curricula, and provide government funding for basic education (Cheesman, 2003:54). The new curricula were designed to provide functional instruction related to the civil and occupational environments and to offer an education that was relevant to Myanmar's predominantly agricultural economy (Thein Lwin, 2000). Although the new policy recognized a role for religious instruction in the curriculum, the government's goal was to replace monastic-based schools with a national network of schools run by the state. The only field in which the state expressed continuing support for monastic education was literacy. In 1954, a report written by educational policy-makers acknowledged that monasteries were responsible for developing the literacy of over 4 million people (mostly male), out of a total population of 17 million (Cheesman, 2003:54).

Monastic schools had historically relied almost wholly on the support of local community; the Education Ministry did not have responsibility for monastic schools. Many of the social and political troubles of the 1950s have been attributed to the inadequacy of secular schools and the continuing erosion of the monastic schools (Cheesman, 2003:55).

When the Revolutionary Government assumed power in 1962, the education system was still characterized by inequalities between urban and rural areas. In 1963, a programme to supervise monastic schools was implemented. In 1964-1965, most private schools were nationalized. The only non-government schools allowed were monastic schools, where government schools had not been established (Keyes, 1995). In 1965, primary education was made compulsory, and in 1966 the Basic Education Law imposed closer management and supervision of schools, including monastic schools (Cheesman, 2003:56).

During this period, significant strides were made in literacy. Following the inauguration of UNESCO's World Literacy Programme in 1964, Myanmar launched a mass literacy campaign targeting entire townships in selected states and divisions. Through the recruitment of tens of thousands of students from the country's universities and colleges, notable improvements were made in the literacy rate. In recognition of these successes, UNESCO awarded Myanmar the Mohammed Reza Phalavi Prize in 1971 and the Noma Prize in 1983. By 1988, 297 out of a total 318 townships had achieved literacy.

The Myanmar Education Committee was established in 1991 as a national-level coordinating decision-making body on education to draw up an education policy that is equitable and in keeping with the traditional cultural and social values.

As a signatory to the World Declaration on Education for All in 1990, Myanmar joined other Member States in the global commitment to achieving the six goals of EFA by 2015. To support its EFA initiatives, the government adopted a number of international conventions and legal frameworks. In 1991, Myanmar attended the World Summit for Children and adopted the Declaration on the Survival, Protection, and Development of Children. Soon after, it became a signatory to the Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC), and passed a legislation upholding the rights of every child to acquire a basic education. In 1993, the government ratified the Child Law, which stipulates that every child shall have the opportunity to acquire a free primary education provided by the state, and that the education ministry shall implement a system of free and compulsory primary

education, with measures to increase regular attendance and reduce drop-out rates. The state must also make special arrangements to offer literacy classes to those children who are unable to attend state schools. In collaboration with UN agencies and NGOs, in 1993 Myanmar drafted its first EFA National Plan of Action (NPA).

In the early 1990s, Buddhist teachings were incorporated into the school curriculum as Moral and Civic Education. After 1999/2000, the state curriculum was introduced into monastic education, and by 2001, approximately 1,000 monastic schools were registered, with a total enrolment of 146,000 students out of a total of approximately 5 million (Ministry of Religious Affairs, 2001). In addition to the registered monasteries receiving state support, there are hundreds of community-supported monasteries providing education to an undocumented number of students. At first, monastic schools were only permitted to teach up to primary level but later were allowed to teach through lower secondary level. Monastic school students can join state schools. Monastic schools of certain "national races" also offer their students the opportunity to study in their own languages (Cheesman, 2003: 58).

Like other developing countries, while significant strides have been made in educational policy, Myanmar also faces some challenges in meeting its educational sector goals. First, the limitation on expansion of education budget delays improvement in the quality of education. The monastic schools in rural areas attract the children from poor families to pursue education, and through these schools, education reaches the populace even in poor and remote communities.

A second challenge is to reach disadvantaged ethnic groups, particularly those living in remote regions and areas of armed conflict. In 1999, of the 750,000 children who dropped out of primary education cycle, 630,000 were rural students, and the lowest enrolments for primary level age groups were in states where high proportions of the population are national groups (UNICEF, 1999). Moreover, some children of the national groups in the areas of armed conflict had difficulty in accessing schools because of the unfavourable security situation. Myanmar is now implementing border area development programmes, including in the education sector. Another barrier to education for national groups is language. However, languages of the "national races" are sometimes used in non-formal educational settings although "Myanmar language" (Burmese) is the language of instruction in state schools. Recruitment of teachers from national groups for assignment in their locality and implementation of the Myanmar Language Enrichment Programme for children of national groups lessen the language difficulty.

The third challenge is to overcome gender disparities, although significant progress has been made. The 1983 census showed literacy rates of 82% for men and 71% for women, but by 2004, according to UIS estimates, the literacy rate for adults (15+) was 94% for males and 86% for females; for youths (15-24) the rate was 96% for males and 93% for females. National statistics should be able to indicate any significance of sub-national variations in girl's and women's educational attainment. For example, the 1983 census showed literacy rates of 86% for males and 77% for females in the predominantly ethnically Burman divisions, compared to 65% and 50%, respectively, in the states of the "national races".

3.3.2 Cambodia

One of the legacies of the colonial period in Cambodia was a fragmented educational system comprising Franco-Cambodian schools serving a small segment of the urban population and monastery schools serving the rural majority. In addition, separate schools for Vietnamese and Chinese communities were still operating. In order to unify the educational system after independence in 1954, Sihanouk (then King, later Prime Minister) began to develop a national educational policy. One of his primary goals was to train Cambodian nationals to fill posts in the civil service previously occupied by the French (Clayton, 1998). All schools were brought under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education, which developed syllabi, provided funding for teacher salaries and supplies, and undertook school inspections (Ross, 1987).

To facilitate the transition, the monastic schools were initially incorporated into the national system, but during the 1950s and 1960s they were gradually replaced by secular state schools. By 1967, monastic schools constituted only 10% of all schools in Cambodia. During this period, enrolments increased rapidly, and by 1966, primary education was available to the majority of the school-age population (Keyes, 1995:293). By 1969, there were 5,275 primary schools, 146 secondary schools, and nine institutes of higher education (Clayton, 1998:5), as compared to the 107 elementary schools, 19 full course schools, and one college operating under the French in 1939 (Bilodeau, 1955: 19). Drop out rates were high, and approximately one quarter of the students enrolled in primary school dropped out after one year (Keyes, 1995: 293).

In the 1960s, the government began to provide basic education to the indigenous peoples with the objectives of spreading literacy, stimulating development, and promoting fuller integration into the nation-state. However, many factors, including poverty, language barriers, lack of teaching and learning materials, and distance to schools, discouraged children from attending the schools (Sokhom, 2004).

Even though the Government of Cambodia made significant advancements with the expansion of primary education, there continued to be a cultural rift between urban and rural populations because secondary and higher education were still oriented toward the French system. Progress in education was further stalled by the civil war which began in 1970 with Lon Nol's overthrow of Sihanouk and the creation of the Khmer Republic. Schools in areas controlled by forces loyal to Lon Nol were most severely affected, and by 1975 most primary schools were closed. Schools in the rest of the country were being run by the National United Front of Cambodia, which had modelled its educational system on the Vietnamese system (Keyes, 1995: 294).

Before the 1960s, the only institution of higher education was the National Institute of Legal, Political, and Economic studies. A small proportion of the population pursued university education abroad. By 1970, there was a total enrolment of 9,000 students in universities across the country. The University of Phnom Penh, which was the largest, had an enrolment of 4,570 male students and 730 female students in eight departments (Ross, 1987).

Lon Nol was in turn overthrown in 1975 by the Khmer Rouge, and Democratic Kampuchea (DK) was created. During the Khmer Rouge regime (1975-1979), the foundations laid in primary education and literacy during the two decades following independence were completely destroyed. Under the Khmer Rouge, all schools were closed, and educated people were targeted as enemies of the revolution. At the beginning of the 1970s, there were more than 20,000 teachers in Cambodia, but after ten years only about 5,000 of these teachers remained. Of the 725 university instructors, only 50 were left, and of the 2,300 secondary teachers, only 207 survived. Of the 21,311 primary school teachers only 2,717 survived (Ross, 1987). According to the records of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports (MOEYS), 75% of teachers, 96% of tertiary students, and 67% of all elementary and secondary students died during the Khmer Rouge era, 90% of the schools were demolished, and books from libraries were burned (Clayton, 1998:5-8).

The educational policies of Democratic Kamphuchea were laid out in the *1976 Four-Year Plan to Build Socialism in All Fields*. The plan proposed that three years of primary education would be provided by the regime. Rather than taking place in schools, however, basic education would be provided in "factories, cooperatives, and revolutionary establishments" (Clayton, 1998:9). In reality, there was little uniformity to the DK educational system, and while some parts of the country offered one or two hours of schooling per day, in other regions none was available (Clayton, 1998:9). Although children during this period did receive some education, it was centred on revolutionary rhetoric at the expense of other subjects, and literacy was neglected. By the time the Khmer Rouge were ousted in 1979, the educational system had to be completely rebuilt. Most people under the age of 14 lacked any basic education, and the illiteracy rate was more than 40% (Ross, 1987).

Following the establishment of the People's Republic of Kampuchea (PRK) in 1979, the education system gradually began to improve. During this period of reconstruction, the PRK government's strategy was to persuade those with any level of education to join in the campaign to teach others. Once potential teachers were identified, they were enrolled in a short-term teacher training course ranging between two weeks to one month, after which they were assigned teaching positions. Because most school buildings had been destroyed during the Khmer Rouge era, classes were held in makeshift temporary structures and under the shade of trees (Ledgerwood, n.d.).

In the early 1980s, all levels of schooling (from pre-primary to higher education) were once again offered, and the total student enrolment was estimated at one million. In addition, more teachers were professionally trained, leading to better quality of education (Dy & Ninomiya, 2003). One of the more visible effects of the war during this period was the high proportion of students who were missing one or both of their parents. Anecdotal evidence suggests that in primary schools, some 10% of students had lost their mother, 30% had lost their father, and some 5%-10% were orphans (Postlethwaite, 1988).

While significant improvements were made under the PRK during the 1980s, efforts to rebuild the educational infrastructure were slowed by the ongoing civil war with the Khmer Rouge resistance and a severe shortage of human and financial resources. In order to limit government expenditures in education and ensure a steady pool of young recruits to serve in the army, the government limited the number of available positions for upper secondary and tertiary education. This led to widespread corruption in the educational system as many families used their wealth and influence to guarantee positions for their children, (Ledgerwood: n.d.). Another constraint to equitable educational access in this period was the informal school fees. Under the PRK, the structure and content of the education system was based largely on the Vietnamese model (4+3+3). Textbooks emphasized socialist society and culture.

The 1991 Paris agreements and UN-sponsored elections led to major changes in the educational system. In the campaign leading up to the 1993 elections, political parties constructed schools to gain support from their constituencies (Ledgerwood: n.d.). This period also saw the introduction of legislative frameworks supporting education. In 1992, Cambodia ratified the CRC and the Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). The 1993 Constitution guarantees nine years of education to all citizens in public schools.

The 1990s also witnessed a major inflow of international aid geared towards the reconstruction of the country's physical and human infrastructure. Between 1994 and 1998, external assistance to the education sector increased from USD 29 million to USD 48 million (UNESCO, 2004). This period was also the beginning of renewed cooperation with UNESCO, and in 1990, Cambodia joined other Member States in becoming a signatory to the Declaration of Education for All at Jomtien, Thailand. Cambodia reaffirmed its commitment to EFA in 2000 at the World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal, where it adopted the Dakar Framework for Action. Cambodia's mid-decade review of EFA progress (1995) and 2000 EFA Assessment Report outlined the achievements and challenges to EFA.

In spite of the extensive financial and technical support from donors from 1990 to 2000, the outcomes of this decade of investments in the education sector were disappointing (ADB 2003, UNESCO, 2004; MOEYS, 2000). In the EFA 2000 Assessment Report, the MOEYS reported that overall progress towards the EFA goals had been slow, and that the distribution of education was inequitable, particularly among disadvantaged groups living in rural and remote areas, where girls were also more likely to drop out than boys. The report also acknowledged that learning achievements among students were low, and that the quality of basic education was substandard because of poor teacher-training and low teacher salaries. Basic education was beyond reach for many ethnic groups, because of the distance to school, costs of schooling, and language barriers. Literacy programmes and non-formal education were limited in their reach, and opportunities for technical and vocational education were limited to urban areas (MOEYS, 2003).

Many of these issues were addressed at the 2000 World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal, whose primary purpose was to assess progress in achieving the EFA goals. Recognizing that one of the core structural problems in the education sector was a lack of coordination between various stakeholders, particularly international donors, the World Education Forum called for a shift from donor-led to government-led initiatives in the sector. In 2000, Cambodia adopted a Sector-Wide Approach (SWAp) to educational development, the central objective of which was to foster budget coordination and dialogue between the government, donors, and NGOs.

The MOEYS launched a number of reforms to address key problems identified in the EFA 2000 Assessment. First, in 2001 the government abolished school fees for Grades 1-9, which led to significant increases in enrolment at primary and secondary levels. To improve quality and teacher performance, the government provided: (a) In-service training for 60,000 primary and secondary teachers; (b) Construction of several thousand primary classrooms, particularly in under-served regions; and (c) An increase in the availability and quality of primary and lower secondary school textbooks. MOEYS also targeted the expansion of primary and lower secondary educational opportunities in underserved areas and introduced a new life skill curriculum in lower secondary schools, covering a range of social concerns including environmental issues, HIV/AIDS, and civics (MOEYS, 2005).

Despite significant improvements since 1999, Cambodia still faces a host of challenges. First, there continues to be a gender gap in education at all levels (MOEYS, 2005). This reflects the fact that girls are still less likely to enter school and more likely to drop out of school than boys. Female dropout rates generally correspond to the onset of puberty, when girls are expected to assume domestic roles. Another factor contributing to lower female enrolments is the unwillingness of parents to invest in their daughter's education. The national gender gap masks wider gender disparities in remote communities.

Although there have been improvements in recruiting female teachers and the participation of women in educational planning and monitoring, curriculum content at primary and secondary levels continues to reflect gender "blindness". That is, while gender equality is presented in illustrations found in textbooks, the teaching materials used for core subjects such as social science and technology do not include gender equality concepts. Teachers, curriculum developers, and textbook authors lack the understanding and skills to fully integrate gender equity issues into the curriculum (Velasco, 2004: 38).

Persons with disabilities often face limited educational opportunities. According to the Disability Action Council (DAC, n.d.), educational opportunities for persons with disabilities have been implemented primarily by NGOs. While there are some special schools and community-based initiatives, these provide for only a small proportion of the children with disabilities in Cambodia. These services are located mainly in urban areas and focus on children with physical disabilities and sensory impairments (DAC, n.d.). A small number of inclusive school programmes have been launched, but the mainstream school system does not facilitate inclusion.

Cambodia's 2003 EFA National Action Plan (NAP) ensures the provision of basic education up to Grade 9 for all school-age children, but it does not specifically address persons with disabilities. Draft legislation to protect and promote the rights of people with disabilities, currently under preparation, would ensure compliance with international conventions and ensure the right of people with disabilities to study and receive scholarships.

A national policy on inclusive education for children with disabilities has been drafted by the MOEYS in partnership with UNICEF and in consultation with stakeholders. The policy reiterates the right of children with disabilities to an inclusive education with their non-disabled peers and outlines activities and responsibilities in the following areas: (a) Identification of children with disabilities; (b) Early intervention and inclusive schooling; (c) Accessibility; (d) Gender equity; (e) Community participation in disability awareness campaigns; and (f) Teacher training.

The issues of inclusive education and children with disabilities are represented in the Education Sector Support Programme (ESSP) 2004/2008, and DAC has been collaborating with the MOEYS to coordinate national policy and pilot inclusive education programmes for children with disabilities.

Children living with HIV/AIDS are another unreached group. A history of genocide, civil war, and chronic poverty has weakened the country's health infrastructure, leaving Cambodian people more vulnerable to HIV/AIDS. In 1997-1998, the HIV prevalence rate among the adult population was 3.3%. Approximately 12,000 Cambodian children under the age of 15 are living with HIV/AIDS, and UNAIDS estimated that by the end of 2001, as many as 55,000 children had lost one or both parents to AIDS. As a result of the awareness campaigns and policy of 100% condom use in sexual establishments, HIV prevalence had declined by 2003 to 1.9%, or approximately 123,100 persons (UNDP, n.d.).

Despite Cambodia's efforts to combat HIV/AIDS, evidence suggests that the epidemic is now shifting to women who contract HIV/AIDS from their husbands. One third of all new HIV infections are from mother to child (UNAIDS Update, 2005), and youth risk behaviour and increased drug use among labourers could affect prevalence rates (UNDP, n.d.). Children living with HIV/AIDS face social stigma and are often pulled out of schools by the parents of non-infected children (Wijngaarden & Schaeffer, 2005).

3.3.3 Lao PDR

After independence in 1949, the Lao government continued to receive French support for education, largely in the form of administrative staff and personnel for the country's few secondary schools. In 1951, the Royal Lao Government (RLG) promulgated a law stipulating government provision of compulsory primary education. Because of the shortage of trained teachers and facilities, the law could not be fully implemented (Keyes, 1995:293). It was not until the 1960s that a small number of secondary schools were established in urban areas in which Lao was the medium of instruction.

In keeping with the resolution to extend compulsory primary education to the rural population adopted by the Asian member states of UNESCO at the Karachi Meeting in 1959/1960, the Lao Ministry of Education (MOE) began to work in collaboration with UNESCO to support educational development. Under the RLG, USAID supported education provided to lowland Lao as well as upland tribal groups (Halpern & Tinsman, 1966:502).

In 1962, the RLG introduced a new Educational Reform bill, focusing primarily on provision of primary education to rural populations. The reforms included curriculum revisions intended to turn the Lao school into "a system in the service of the country's economic development" (Halpern & Tinsman, 1966:203). Time devoted to practical subjects such as hygiene and agriculture was increased, while time given to other subjects such as French was reduced. Given the shortage of trained teachers, the government relied extensively on Buddhist monks to implement the reforms (Halpern & Tinsman, 1966:503).

One obstacle to the reforms was the lack of primary teachers serving remote ethnic populations. Most teachers for minority regions were recruited from lowland Lao villages where access to education was better, and schools were more likely to offer the complete six-year primary course. Few of these teachers from lowland areas wanted to teach in remote regions, and those who did faced language and cultural barriers (Halpern & Tinsman, 1966:504). By contrast, education in the regions controlled by the communist Pathet Lao was more successful in reaching rural and minority populations. Two key reasons for their success were the development of a simplified Lao script and the use of ethnic vernacular in primary schools (Halpern & Tinsman, 1966:505).

Another obstacle to primary education during this period was the "secret war" between 1966 and 1975, during which time the country experienced some of the heaviest aerial bombings in history.

The costs of the "secret war" included the loss of lives, destruction of infrastructure, and the mass exodus of Lao refugees, many of whom were highly educated (Seel, 2003: 2).

With the defeat and withdrawal of the American forces in Viet Nam in 1975, Pathet Lao assumed control of the government and established the Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR). Apart from rebuilding the country, one of the first challenges facing the administration was to restructure the education system inherited from the RLG and integrate it into the new national system. Although a new Lao curriculum was introduced in former RLG schools, the pace of the reforms was slowed by a lack of teachers and instructional materials (Savada, 1994).

In 1983-1984, the government of Lao PDR launched an adult literacy campaign mobilizing literate people across the country to teach reading and writing skills. It has been estimated that 92% of men and 76% of women aged 15-45 learned basic literacy skills. However, because of the lack of reading materials, particularly in remote and rural areas, many adults lost their new skills after only a few years (Savada, 1994).

A main objective of the new administration was to establish a system of universal primary education by 1985. The government endeavoured to establish a school in every village, but because of the state's limited resources, most schools constructed in rural areas during this period were temporary bamboo shelters, staffed by only one or two teachers who were paid low wages (Savada, 1994). Many of these schools were "incomplete" (that is, do not offer all five primary grades), and instructional materials were often lacking.

Despite these constraints, school enrolment increased, and by 1988, primary school enrolment was estimated at 63% of all school-age children. By 1993, 603,000 students were enrolled in primary school, as compared to 317,000 students in 1976. Because of the lack of resources and capacity, however, the government postponed its target date for reaching universal primary education from 1985 to 2000 (Savada, 1994).

Following the economic liberalisation with the New Economic Mechanism in 1986, the government launched a series of education system reforms aimed at: (a) Making education more relevant to the socio-economic context at the local level; (b) Improving and expanding training in the sciences; (c) Extending education to remote and mountainous regions; (d) Recruiting minority teachers; and (e) Developing cooperation among the various ministries, mass organizations, and communities in development of the education system. One of the major constraints to effective implementation of the reforms was the budget. Education accounted for only 8% of government expenditures in 1988, down from a 10%-15% range during the preceding seven-year period (Savada, 1994).

In 1990, Lao PDR became a signatory to the Jomtien Declaration of Education for All and in 1991, established the National Committee for EFA headed by the Vice-Minister of Education and comprising members from various ministries and departments. Since 1990, the government has put in place a number of laws, conventions, and policies to facilitate implementation of EFA. The Compulsory Education Decree of 1996 stipulates that free primary education must be provided to all Lao citizens regardless of race, religion, gender, ethnicity, and social or economic status. It explicitly recognizes the need to expand education in ethnic group areas, where enrolment and literacy rates are low in comparison to other parts of the country and the need to improve the quality of education through the training of teachers. Lao PDR is a signatory to the CRC. In 2000, the Lao government affirmed its commitment to EFA by promulgating the Education Law, which includes articles on inclusive education and children with special needs.

Other main EFA initiatives since 1990 include the implementation of three levels of salary supplements for teaching location (rural / remote / especially difficult areas) and two increments for multi-grade teaching (two grades / three or more grades).

However, the government faces many challenges in providing primary education. Because teacher salaries are so low, teachers are often forced to seek other sources of income. As a result in many

parts of the country classes are held sporadically, sometimes for only a few hours a day. Dropout rates are high and primary completion rates are low because many of the primary schools are "incomplete" (Seel, 2003:5).

Low enrolment rates in primary education can be attributed to a number of interrelated "supply" and "demand" factors. On the "demand" side, in the poorer and more remote communities, poverty is a major determining factor, as families cannot afford the hidden costs of schooling, such as pens, notebooks and clothing, nor can they afford the loss of children's labour. Another factor is the perceived lack of usefulness and relevance of the education curriculum in remote regions (Seel, 2003). Livelihoods are also an important factor, as agricultural cycles require intensive periods of labour and/or migration that conflict with the school calendar. Finally, girls in many ethnic communities are expected to marry and/or contribute to the household economy (Seel, 2003: 6).

On the "supply" side, enrolment rates are affected by factors such as quality, language of instruction, and curriculum content. In remote, rural areas, teachers are more likely to be unqualified, and many teachers recruited from urban areas to work in remote and rural areas tend to be isolated from the community. This isolation is exacerbated in ethnic group villages where the populations do not speak Lao and there is no tradition of literacy. Due to these combined factors, enrolment rates for some ethnic groups have been significantly lower than that of the culturally and linguistically dominant lowland Lao (Savada, 1994; Seel, 2003).

There continues to be significant disparities in educational achievement linked to ethnicity, gender, and rural-urban location. Because poverty and gender differences tend to be greater among disadvantaged ethnic populations, educational achievement is lowest among these groups. Nevertheless, there have been some marked improvements in educational attainment among these historically disadvantaged populations in recent years.

People with disabilities are another vulnerable group in Lao PDR. Long excluded from the educational system, certain sectors of this population are gaining limited access to education through the Inclusive Education (IE) Project, launched in 1993. In 2001, the IE Project included 147 primary schools reaching 1,627 children with disabilities and special needs (Seel, 2003:4). In 2004, the project had expanded to 400 schools with plans to establish three IE schools for every district in Lao PDR (DKR, n.d.). Nevertheless, as is the case with other vulnerable groups, it is more difficult to implement the IE project for people with disabilities living in rural and remote areas.

Orphans are yet another historically disadvantaged population. While orphans are known to be living in orphanages operated by the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare, there is little information about their numbers or their educational opportunities (Seel, 2003:5). Buddhist monasteries have also traditionally served as orphanages, providing sustenance and education to boys. While monasteries continue to play this role in some regions of Lao PDR today, there is no statistical data about their numbers or enrolments (Seel, 2003:5).

3.3.4 Thailand

Modernisation of the education system in Thailand began during the reign of King Chulalongkorn (Rama V, r. 1868-1910). Faced with the need to fill posts in the growing bureaucracy, King Chulalongkorn established the Department of Education in 1887, which later became the Ministry of Education. In 1898, King Chulalongkorn issued the Education Proclamation, which introduced a new system structure and a modern curriculum. Because of limited financial and human resources, however, the Ministry initially relied on the existing structure of the monastic schools, with monks serving as teachers (Wyatt, 1969).

By 1910, the government realized some of the limitations of monastic schools, particularly the insufficient training of the monk-teachers (Keyes, 1991). In 1921, the Primary Education Act established four years of state-sponsored primary education, compulsory for all citizens, and

mandatory school attendance for all girls and boys. It also established an education system in which teachers would be trained at state-sponsored institutions (Keyes, 1991).

The first government school for girls was established in 1901, and the first training institute for female teachers was established in 1913 (MOE, n.d.). Following the Education Act, the proportion of girls enrolled in primary schools rose from 7% in 1921, to 38% in 1925 (Vella, 1978:159).

Because of budgetary limitations during the period of 1910-1930, initial implementation of the Education Act was slow. Investment in education grew substantially following the revolution of 1932, which replaced the traditional absolute monarchy with a constitutional monarchy. Under the new government, education became the central means of creating a literate populace capable of participating in a popular democracy (Landon, 1939:98). By the start of WWII, the government had made great strides in the centralisation of education and extension of schooling to rural areas.

The Buddhist monks supported the transition from monastic schooling to the reformed school system because of government's willingness to retain Buddhist moral instruction as part of the reformed curriculum (Keyes, 1991). In addition, many of the modern schools were located within monastic complexes, meaning that the pre-modern link between education and the monastery had not been severed. Although it had different objectives, the modern state-sponsored school was regarded by local communities as an extension of the Buddhist monastery. This has been significant for school funding, as local communities saw contributions to the school as a traditional form of merit-making. Despite local communities' support for school construction, rural communities often regarded the modern curriculum as largely irrelevant to their daily lives. Nevertheless, enrolments continued to climb throughout the 1950s and 1960s (Keyes, 1991).

In the 1960s, the government of Thailand launched its plan to accelerate the pace of socio-economic development though education, and with significant public investment together with foreign assistance, the country made major strides in literacy and school enrolments. Basic education was extended to children with disabilities, who had long been excluded from compulsory education. In 1977, the educational system was changed from a 4-3-3-2 structure to a 6-3-3 system (MOE, Thailand, n.d.). In addition to state schools, there were also many private schools in urban centres, including schools run primarily by Chinese organizations or by Christian missionaries. By 1983, 99% of children aged 7-12 years were enrolled in primary schools, and adult literacy was more than 85%, as compared with about 50% in the 1950s. By the late 1980s, almost 80% of the population above the age of 11 had some formal education (LePoer, 1987). In 1990, Thailand became a signatory to the World Declaration on Education for All.

The Asian economic crisis which began in July 1997 exposed the poor quality of the educational system (Gamage & Pacharapimon, 2004). Critical studies of the crisis pointed to the low quality of Thailand's human resource base as one of the factors contributing to the economic collapse. In order to survive the crisis and develop the country's competitiveness in the new global economy, these studies proposed that the government should invest heavily in improving the quality of the education sector (Gamage & Pacharapimon, 2004).

In October 1997, a new constitution was adopted, which included a number of provisions on education. Compulsory education was extended from six to nine years, and equal access to 12 years of basic education free of charge was stipulated. It also mandated the decentralisation of education and the preservation of local knowledge and traditions through the development of local curricula. Several sections of the constitution affirmed the rights of children, youth, women, the underprivileged, and children with disabilities to education.

In 1999, the government promulgated the National Education Act (NEA), which constitutes a comprehensive legal framework for the administration and provision of education. The NEA covers the following topics: (a) Educational rights and duties; (b) Structure of the educational system; (c) National guidelines; (d) Administration and management; (e) Education standards and quality assurance; (f) Resources and investment for education; and (g) Technology for education.

The NEA also specifies a series of educational reforms focusing on learner-centred approaches to education, curriculum reform, and new systems for teacher recruitment and training. A central pillar of the reforms was the introduction of school-based management (SBM), which decentralized management to the community level. Through SBM, decision-making about the school's mission and policies relating to financial, material and human resources is transferred to a local school council (Gamage & Pacharapimon, 2004). A study of the SBM initiative showed broad support among stakeholders and revealed the need for further training in school management to principals and council members (Gamage & Pacharapimon, 2004).

Although Thailand has made noteworthy strides towards reaching the EFA goals, significant quantitative and qualitative challenges remain. The quantitative challenges concern reaching disadvantaged and vulnerable populations, including children with disabilities, disadvantaged ethnic groups, children of migrants, child labourers, children affected by HIV/AIDS, and other vulnerable groups.

Since 1960, the Thai government has provided special education for children with disabilities (visual, hearing, mental, physical, emotional, and learning disabilities). There is a school for the deaf, a school for the blind, and special schools and inclusive schools providing special curricula for children with disabilities. While the government has made notable efforts in establishing both special education and inclusive education, many gaps remain, particularly in poorer and rural areas. It is estimated that 30% of school-aged children with disabilities are not enrolled in school (UNICEF, 2005:22).

Disadvantaged ethnic groups face significant challenges in access to education. The mountainous region of northern Thailand is home to approximately 20 ethnic groups, each of which has its own distinctive culture and language. Because of their swidden agricultural practices and cultivation of opium, historically these hill tribes are often viewed as a threat to both national security and the natural environment (McCaskill & Kampe, 1997). Government policy has focused on eradicating both swidden agriculture and opium production by supporting alternative crop production, promoting development, and increasing access to social services, including education.

Many of the hill tribes are poor and lack citizenship because their births were not registered. The combination of poverty, the lack of schooling in remote areas, and language barriers presents serious obstacles for the education of hill tribe children. To overcome these barriers, the MOE uses community learning centres (CLCs) to provide basic education (pre-school, primary, and secondary), literacy programmes, and informal education programmes which support the transmission of local wisdom and community-based knowledge. The CLC approach also offers distance education through radio and satellite programmes. Self-study is strongly encouraged (FAO, 2002).

Ethnic Malay Muslims also account for approximately 5% of the total population, and are concentrated in the southernmost provinces. This region is poorer than the rest of the country, and access to education, health, and social welfare services has long been lower than the national average (LePoer, 1987). Tensions between the central government and southern Malay separatists escalated in the 1970s. Violence subsided in the 1990s after the government guaranteed better access to social services and political representation, but has escalated again since 2004. The ongoing conflict in the region directly affects education, inasmuch as state schools and teachers are frequent targets of the insurgency.

The Thai state has historically declined appeals for educational autonomy. Recognizing the need for policy reform, however, the government in 2005 launched several pilot projects for bilingual education, and efforts to promote reconciliation through bilingual education were reaffirmed at the 2006 UNESCO-UNICEF Conference entitled "Education for Peace-Building in Southern Thailand: Reflections on Human Security."

Other categories of persons with limited access to education are migrants, victims of human trafficking, refugees, and displaced persons. The majority of migrants living in Thailand are economic migrants and political asylum seekers from Myanmar. There are also migrants from Lao PDR, Cambodia, and China. Migrant workers tend to live and work in Bangkok as well as in border areas in fisheries, factories, plantations, orchards, the service sector (including entertainment and prostitution), and in households as domestic workers. In an effort to regularize and monitor migration, the government in 2004 launched a foreign worker registration drive. Following this, 1.3 million workers from neighbouring countries registered, including 93,000 children under the age of 15. Although children of registered migrants are legally entitled to enrol in Thai schools, a recent study found that only 13,500 children out of 93,000 (15%) were attending Thai schools, and many of the older children were thought to be working in exploitative situations (IOM, 2005:xiv).

There are also many unregistered illegal migrants residing in Thailand, including child labourers and victims of trafficking. Given their illegal status and the clandestine nature of their entry into Thailand, there is no reliable data about the actual numbers of unregistered migrants (IOM, 2005). In an effort to improve access to education for these vulnerable populations, the government passed a resolution in 2005 mandating that schools accept all children regardless of their legal status.

The poor are another disadvantaged group in Thailand often excluded from education. Despite Thailand's relative wealth when compared to other countries in the region, poverty continues to be a major barrier to education in many regions. Poor children living in urban slums and remote areas of the country are also less likely to attend school (UNICEF, 2005).

Since the early 1990s, Thailand's public policy has been extremely effective in reducing and preventing the spread of HIV. Indeed, Thailand is one of the first countries to have achieved the MDG of reversing the spread of HIV/AIDS well ahead of the target date of 2015 (UNDP, 2004a). Nevertheless, HIV/AIDS continues to affect a significant proportion of the population. In 2005, there were 560,000 persons infected with HIV/AIDS, 16,000 of whom were children (UNAIDS, 2006). Opinion polls suggest that Thailand still faces many challenges in terms of the stigma of HIV/AIDS (UNDP, 2004b). Studies have shown that children infected with HIV/AIDS tend to be stigmatized and withdrawn from school, and in families affected by HIV/AIDS, children are often taken out of school to care for their HIV infected parents (Wijngaarden & Schaeffer, 2005).

In 2006, to reach the unreached, the MOE developed a policy on educational provision for disadvantaged children, which defines disadvantaged children according to the 2002 *Plan for Protection of Children in Especially Difficult Circumstances* and the CRC. Children under the age of 18 in difficult circumstances that require special care and assistance are grouped into six categories: (a.) Abandoned and neglected children; (b) Children physically or sexually abused; (c) Children with undesirable behaviour; (d) Children with physical, mental, emotional, intellectual, and learning deficiencies; (e) Socially deprived or poor children, including migrant children, disadvantaged ethnic groups, and children without legal status; and (f) HIV/AIDS-affected children. The policy aims to provide equitable access to quality education, allocation of resources, efficient delivery of educational services, and strong educational networks.

Finally, despite initiatives to improve quality, an independent assessment of 30,010 Thai schools undertaken between 2001-2005 by the Office for National Education Standards and Quality Assessment (ONESQA) has shown that more than half of the schools failed to meet quality standards. Most of the schools with the lowest quality were in rural areas. Given that Thailand already spends approximately 5% of its GDP and over 27% of the national budget on education (UISDC, 2008), the problem is not solely one of limited budget but also of ensuring equitable distribution of resources to poorer, rural schools, and improving educational management and teacher training.

3.3.5 Viet Nam

In its struggle for independence after WW II, Viet Nam had to contend with a bifurcated educational system inherited from the French, comprising a poorly developed vernacular primary educational system serving the masses and a western system serving the elite. After the partition of Viet Nam following the Geneva Accords in 1954, North and South Viet Nam took fundamentally different approaches to reforming the educational system. Whereas the South left more of its educational system to the private entrepreneurs, the North sought to harness local human and material resources to achieve its centrally determined educational policies (Keyes, 1995).

South Viet Nam. In the South, the government initially focused its efforts on eliminating illiteracy and on providing primary education throughout rural areas. While the government succeeded in extending primary education to much of the population, secondary and higher education was left largely to the private sector. In the early 1970s, 400,000 of the 700,000 or 57% of middle school students in Southern Viet Nam were enrolled in private institutions, which were allowed to operate according to their own standards without government oversight (Woodside, 1991). In this entrepreneurial context, many of the inequities between rural and urban populations during the colonial period persisted, as private schools catered to the demands of the urban elite. Rather than providing an education relevant to contemporary Viet Nam, the most prestigious post-primary institutions were taught by French-educated instructors who continued to provide an education modelled on the French curriculum.

The United States educational policy in South Viet Nam had one main objective, namely to increase access to education and training with the aim of supporting economic development, which, in the context of the Cold War, would "win the hearts and minds of the people" (Pham & Fry 2005). To this aim, the US supported increased budgets for education and expanded higher education, and it also worked towards overcoming the legacy of the colonial period by reforming the system to be less elitist and more practical. One indicator of these reforms was the increase in higher education enrolment rates, which rose from 5,300 in 1957 to 64,000 in 1973 (Pham & Fry, 2005).

North Viet Nam. Development of education in North Viet Nam followed a very different course. After the 1945 Revolution, the government focused on education as a means of nation-building. Central to this objective was the literacy campaign, which was launched with the support of local communities and declared a success in 1958. In the reforms of July 1950, education took a more political turn, as subjects that were considered secondary or irrelevant to the anti-colonial resistance were cut from the curriculum. Subjects such as music, world geography, and classical literature were dropped in favour of citizenship, current events, and economic production. In order to encourage community participation in school reform and management, administrative councils comprising teachers, parents, and students were established at the primary and secondary level (Woodside, 1991).

In 1954, North Viet Nam's leader, Ho Chi Minh, criticized what he called "guerrilla education" as lacking in discipline, and called for stricter standards and planning. In the same year, the government introduced a comprehensive educational system including primary and secondary education, and in 1956, general education was lengthened to 10 years (Woodside, 1991:184). The reformed curriculum focused on vocational education, with the aim of producing a new generation of experts who could oversee the development of the national economy. While the educational system as a whole was managed by the central government, the curricula at the primary and secondary levels were designed to reflect technical, economic, and social needs of local communities. Teachers were encouraged to draw upon local history and culture (including kinship ties and tribal loyalties) as a source of nationalism and to teach in minority languages at the primary level in tribal areas. One outcome of the "localisation" of education in North Viet Nam was the shift from cities to villages as being the source of national identity and culture (Keyes, 1995:297).

Reunification. The reunification of Viet Nam in 1975 brought a host of educational challenges. Thirty years of war had precipitated a social and economic crisis, exacerbated by ongoing border conflicts with neighbouring China and Cambodia. The economic crisis directly affected education, and 30% of teachers left the profession (Pham & Fry, 2005:208). Another major challenge of the reunification was how to integrate the vastly different educational systems of the South and the North. Despite budgetary limitations and shortage of teachers, in 1976, the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) strengthened the authority of the teachers and the school principal, and in 1979 updated the curriculum to reflect the needs and realities of contemporary society. At the same time, general education was extended to 12 years, and for children between 6 and 15 years, education was made compulsory (Woodside, 1991: 185).

Following the Doi Moi reforms in 1986, as GDP increased steadily from the 1990s onwards, so too, did government expenditures on education. The Doi Moi reform also led to a series of major educational reforms. In 1987 and again in 1989, the MOET implemented three reforms with the following objectives: (a) To make the educational system more flexible and capable of responding to changing social demands; (b) To generate revenue and strengthen the financial management of the educational system, in part by shifting from subsidies to tuition-based education at the higher levels of education; and (c) To improve the living conditions of teachers (Pham & Fry, 2005).

After 1990, new educational policies were introduced to strengthen education to support modernization and integration into the global economy. In the same year, the Education Law was adopted, providing a legal framework for developing the educational system and strengthening the role of the state in management and coordination of education (Pham & Fry, 2005).

As a signatory to the Declaration of Education for All, Viet Nam expressed commitment to achieving the six goals of EFA by 2015. To support and facilitate EFA initiatives, the government instituted a number of legal frameworks and international conventions supporting education. In 1991, the Law on Universalization of Primary Education made primary education (Grades 1-5) compulsory. In 1998, the new Education Law contained a number of articles and provisions on components of EFA, including: (a) Government provision of pre-school care and education of children from three months to six years old; (b) Compulsory primary education for Grades 1-5 for all children aged 6-14 years; (c) Specification of age 6 as the "correct" enrolment age for pupils at Grade 1; and (d) Specification of non-formal education as the preferred method for supporting lifelong learning and literacy.

Government expenditures on education increased from 10% of total government budget in 1996, to 17% in 2002, to 18% in 2005, and is projected to rise to 22% by 2010. In addition to government funding, local communities are encouraged to develop sources of funding for education (Pham & Fry, 2005:210).

The size of the education sector in Viet Nam has increased significantly since the 1990s. In 2001/02, there were 23 million students, representing a 24% increase when compared to the student population in 1995-1996. During the same period, the number of secondary and higher education students increased three-fold (Pham & Fry, 2005:211).

Viet Nam has made noteworthy progress in a number of areas. First, Viet Nam has demonstrated its commitment to its educational goals by steadily increasing its budget allocations to this sector, particularly for primary and secondary education. One indicator of these investments is the increase in gross secondary education enrolment rates from 32% in 1991 to 73% in 2004 (UISDC, 2008). Another major achievement has been a relatively equitable distribution of educational opportunities between urban and rural areas. Between 1994 and 2000, lower secondary enrolment rates in poor and rich provinces had converged to around 78% (Holsinger, 2005:302). Viet Nam has also made major strides in closing the gender gap, and parity in education across the sexes has been reached (Holsinger, 2005:302).

In spite of Viet Nam's successful and largely equitable expansion of primary and secondary education, the country still faces a number of challenges. The first of these is reaching ethnic populations, particularly those living in more remote regions of the country. Apart from the Kinh majority, Viet Nam recognizes 53 ethnic groups comprising 13%-14% of the total population (ADB, 2001). A number of policies support education among disadvantaged ethnic groups, including giving priority to ethnic students in the admission process, encouraging more teachers to relocate to remote areas, opening more schools, and providing educational subsidies. Another issue is the language barrier, as many of the ethnic groups do not speak Vietnamese (Pham & Fry, 2004). Within many ethnic communities, educational attainment among girls is lower than among boys (Holsinger, 2005).

4. Education Financing and Budget for the Mekong Sub-Region

Table 3: Public Expenditure on Education as % of Total Public Expenditure and GDP, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	As % of Total Public Exp.		As % of GDP	
	2000	2005	2000	2005
Cambodia	14.65	…	1.67	1.74[-1]
Lao PDR	7.38	11.71	1.50	2.29
Myanmar	8.67	…	0.57	…
Thailand	30.97	24.99	5.41	4.23
Viet Nam	…	…	…	…

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "-n" indicates data refer to n years before the reference year. "…" indicates no data available.

Substantial variation is apparent in patterns of public expenditure on education across the Mekong Sub-Region. As seen in Table 3, there is no clear evidence at the regional level that expenditure levels on education changed over the first half of the decade, either as a proportion of total public expenditure or as a proportion of GDP. The differences between countries are dramatic. For some countries the development is clear: the expenditure level increased substantially in Lao PDR but declined somewhat in Thailand. These figures, however, may not tell the complete story, because private expenditure and community contributions are not included. Where community contributions are significant, as in Myanmar, the figures in Table 3 under-estimate the true expenditure level.

Table 4: Public Expenditure on Primary Education as % of Total Education Expenditure, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000	2005
Cambodia	62.6**	64.6**,-1
Lao PDR	41.4**	62.5
Myanmar	…	…
Thailand	32.2	31.5[-1]
Viet Nam	…	…

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "-n" indicates data refer to n years before the reference year. "**" indicates UIS estimation. "…" indicates no data available.

There is also considerable variation in the expenditure on primary education as a proportion of total education expenditure, as shown in Table 4. At the beginning of the period, Cambodia allocated nearly 63% of the total education budget to primary education, and this figure rose to nearly 65%

in 2004, while Thailand allocated only 32% in 2004, declining slightly from 2000. In Lao PDR, however, expenditure on primary education rose dramatically from 41% of total education expenditure to 62%. This represents a major shift in resource allocation, especially so because it occurred at the same time as the overall allocation to education rose as a proportion of total government budget, as shown in Table 3.

5. Identifying the "Unreached" Population in the Sub-Region

Table 5: Urban/Rural Population Distribution, Latest Year, Sub-Region

Country	% Rural	Source
Cambodia	84	National Census, 1998
Lao PDR	73	National Census, 2005
Myanmar	71	ADB Key Indicators, 2004
Thailand	71	UNESCAP, 2004
Viet Nam	76	National Census, 1999

Rural and Remote Populations. A major common demographic feature of the Mekong Sub-Region is that a large majority of the population live in rural areas, as shown in Table 5. Included in this category are those who live in remote and mountainous areas. Some communities in these areas are difficult to reach in the rainy season, and others can be reached only during the rainy season. Although the policy in all the Mekong countries is to deliver at least minimal education services all over the country, in practice there are still areas which the primary school system does not penetrate.

Ethnic Groups. Common to all countries in the Mekong Sub-Region is their multi-ethnic nature. Ethnicity is complex and related to language, livelihood, culture, religion, and geographic location. Different terms are used to describe the population categories, and there is often no consensus even among linguists and anthropologists about the number of ethnic groups in a given country. Table 6 lists the terms used and the "official" number of "ethnic groups" in each country. The number given is the official government count, as used for example in the most recent census. Academic sources generally list many more groups (e.g., Ethnologue, 2008). Languages know no national boundaries, and many minority languages spoken in one country are also spoken in other countries in the region, although the variants could be somewhat different.

Ethnicity is also related to religion. Most of the population of the countries in the Mekong Sub-Region are Buddhists, either Southern (Theravada) in Cambodia, Lao PDR, Myanmar, and Thailand or East Asian (Mahayana) in Viet Nam. Many of the smaller ethnic groups living in remote areas are animists. There are also significant Muslim populations in the south-central province of Cham in Cambodia, in the western state of Rakhine in Myanmar, and in the southern provinces of Thailand.

Table 6: Ethnicity in the Mekong Sub-Region, Latest Year, Sub-Region

Country	Official Term Used	Number	Source
Cambodia	Indigenous or tribal groups	17	National Census, 1998
Lao PDR	Ethnic groups	49	National Census, 2005
Myanmar	Ethnic races or nationalities	Over 100	EFA Mid-Decade Assessment, 2007
Thailand	Ethnic groups	30	Encyclopedia of the Nations, 2008; Thailand's World, 2008
Viet Nam	Ethnic groups	54	Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2008

All recognized ethnic groups are considered equal by legislation, and therefore there is no discrimination in law. For that reason some governments cannot consider ethnic groups as "unreached" or disadvantaged. In practice, however, some ethnic communities live in rural and remote areas or insecure areas where delivery of social services is difficult and costly. Children in some ethnic groups, therefore, are "unreached" in practice. In addition, language and culture differences can make it difficult to provide qualified teachers who are able and willing to serve in such communities.

Undocumented and Stateless Persons, Refugees, and Internally Displaced Persons. In addition to groups of people who are difficult to reach because of remoteness, culture, and language, there are others who for legal reasons have limited rights and access to educational services. These include some categories of migrants, persons who lack identification documents, stateless persons, refugees, and internally displaced persons. Sometimes such persons are classified as "illegal immigrants", which can block access to schooling and other education services. It is not uncommon that children born into remote ethnic group communities, where their families have lived for many generations, are not registered at birth. This can then block their access to schooling and other social services. These categories of "unreached" persons coincide in many cases with the categories of "remote" and "ethnic group", which can make solutions to problems of access nearly intractable.

Other Categories. The above categories often coincide, but some categories cut across:

- Children affected or infected by HIV/AIDS;
- Children affected by conflict;
- Street children;
- Working children;
- Orphans;
- The extremely poor;
- Women and girls;
- Persons discriminated against on the basis of sexual orientation; and
- Victims of domestic abuse.

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

Historically, some groups have been excluded from education in the Mekong Sub-Region. In the pre-modern context, disadvantaged ethnic groups, girls, and children with disabilities lacked access to Buddhist monastic education and Confucian schools. While the colonial educational system expanded access to some of these previously marginalized groups, the populations who benefited most from colonial education were those living in urban areas. In the modern period, major strides have been made to redress these historical inequities, and many of these formerly excluded groups have gained unprecedented access to the educational system. Nevertheless, historical patterns of urban-rural inequality, gender disparity, and ethnic exclusion persist in some parts of the Sub-Region.

In more recent years, other groups have been marginalized as a result of more recent social, economic and political factors, armed conflict, rapid and uneven economic growth, and the rise of HIV and other sexually transmitted diseases.

Uneven economic growth in the Mekong Sub-Region has expanded urban-rural disparities and contributed to increases in cross-border economic migration, while armed conflict – past and present – led to higher numbers of persons with disabilities and the continued flow of refugees. Together these forces have produced vulnerable populations with limited access to educational opportunities. The aim of this section is to identify remaining barriers to education for these marginalized groups, and to highlight best practices, strategies, and policies for their inclusion.

6.1 Ethnic and Religious Minorities

Studies have shown that even in areas where schooling is available, disadvantaged ethnic groups have far lower enrolment, achievement, and literacy rates than the national standard (ADB, 2001; UNICEF, Viet Nam, 2004). In Lao PDR, for example, testing of functional literacy in Lao revealed that non-Lao ethnic groups had literacy rates that were 20-25 percentage points lower than their ethnic Lao counterparts. The lowest functional literacy rates were among women in some ethnic groups (MOE, UNICEF, UNESCO, 2002, p.56).

While some countries in the region have endorsed the constitutional rights of ethnic groups to preserve their own languages and cultures, in practice, all countries have promoted school instruction in the national language (Kosonen, 2005). In Viet Nam, although official government policy recognizes 54 ethnic groups and supports minority rights to bilingual education, the implementation of minority language instruction in schools is restricted by limited funding, lack of instructional materials, and lack of qualified ethnic group teachers. Similar financial and human resource constraints are frequently cited by governments throughout the region as justification for their national language policy.

In spite of these constraints, recent initiatives have demonstrated that mother-tongue education programmes can greatly improve educational achievements among minority populations. For instance, in Cambodia and Thailand, pilot projects for mother-tongue education among hill tribe populations have shown improved literacy in both mother tongue and the national language, and higher enrolment and retention rates (Chap, 2003; UNESCO, 2007). Similar improvements have also been seen in Lao PDR as a result of initiatives to train teachers from disadvantaged ethnic groups to serve in remote ethnic communities (Bryant, 2003).

If governments in the region are to reach their EFA goals in literacy, universal primary education (UPE), gender, and quality by 2015, "best practices" in multilingual education such as those described here will need to be more widely implemented and adopted as national policy. Some examples of "best practices" from the Mekong Sub-Region are given in Box 1 and Box 2.

Box 1: Bilingual Education – Best Practices #1 (Thailand)

Mother-Tongue Based Literacy Programmes: Case Studies of Good Practice in Asia (UNESCO, 2007).

The Northern Pwo Karen Bilingual Education Project at Omkoi District (NPKOM) was launched in the northern province of Chiang Mai, Thailand, in 2003 with the support of the Thai Ministry of Education, the Office of the Non-Formal Educational Commission (ONFEC), UNESCO, and SIL International. Implemented in two villages of the Northern Pwo Karen ethnic group, the NPKOM project was the first bilingual programme supported by the Thai Ministry of Education.

In the initial phase of the project, two Pwo Karen teachers and two Thai teachers from ONFEC worked with SIL consultants and Pwo Karen community members to develop the orthography, learning materials and lesson plans for Pwo Karen. In the second phase of the workshop (2004-2006), more teaching and learning materials were developed, and ONFEC conducted several in-service training workshops.

The NPKOM has had a range of positive impacts both in terms of policy and learning achievement. As the first bilingual project in Thailand, NPKOM is regarded by the Ministry of Education as a potential model for future bilingual programmes among other disadvantaged ethnic groups. Students in the NPKOM programme exhibited a high level of participation and engagement in the classroom; by contrast, in the monolingual Thai schools, they tended to be shy and withdrawn. While it is still too early to assess whether participation in NPKOM has enhanced Thai language acquisition, anecdotal accounts indicate that bilingual education has facilitated their learning of Thai.

Box 2: Bilingual Education – Best Practices # 2 (Cambodia)

Mother-Tongue Based Literacy Programmes: Case Studies of Good Practice in Asia (UNESCO, 2007).

Bunong people make up the majority of the population in Mondulkiri province. Bunong children usually do not understand most of the lessons, and consequently tend not to go to school or drop out very early. According to 2003 survey data, Mondulkiri province has only an estimated 4% functional literacy rate in Khmer. In 2006, the Provincial Office of Education Youth and Sport (POEYS) launched a non-formal education project aimed at providing basic literacy skills in both Bunong and Khmer languages to youth and young adults.

The POEYS bilingual non-formal programme aims at providing adult students with both vernacular and Khmer literacy skills. Its curriculum covers at least two years and leads the students first to build literacy foundations in their mother tongue and then to approach Khmer gradually.

Because Bunong was exclusively a spoken language, an orthography using Khmer script was developed by linguists and approved by the Ministry of Education Youth and Sport (MOEYS) in 2003. Learning materials were then produced in Bunong, including three primers specifically created to meet Bunong adults' interests focused on life skills, including agricultural techniques, information about jobs and economic activities in the province, land rights, and health care.

Key persons in the programme are Bunong speaking teachers, who are selected from the community's prominent figures. With their local knowledge, they shape their instruction in order to better meet students' needs. The first year of the bilingual programme is taught by Bunong community teachers and focuses on Bunong literacy and basic numeracy. In the second year, the community teachers pair up with qualified Khmer teachers, who introduce Khmer. The community teachers still maintain a fundamental role, as they are the only ones who can explain the meaning of new Khmer words in the vernacular. The teaching of Khmer increases at the end of the second year and becomes more substantial in the third year of the programme.

Classes are held in private houses in the evening, and the school year calendar is scheduled to take into account the agricultural seasons. The POEYS plans to establish new community learning centres, which would take care of the teaching material production and eventually provide for the community teachers' salary. It is now considering ways to shift the programme to the communities.

6.2 Stateless Populations, Refugees, and Internally Displaced Persons

Numerous historical factors and conditions have given rise to statelessness in the Mekong Sub-Region, including laws relating to marriage and birth registration, racial, religious, or ethnic discrimination, the transfer of territories, as well as political and economic forces leading to cross-border migration and the subsequent loss of citizenship status. In the sub-region, the three major stateless populations or illegal residents are disadvantaged ethnic groups (e.g., some hill tribes and others not legally recognized and/or considered as insurgents), refugees (e.g., Karen refugees in Thailand, Cambodian refugees in Viet Nam), and economic migrants (e.g. children of migrants from Myanmar in Thailand).

6.3 Children of Migrants

Following decades of armed conflict, the Mekong Sub-Region has witnessed unprecedented economic growth in recent years. Relative peace and stability in the region has spurred economic

liberalisation, foreign investment, and inter-governmental cooperation in regional infrastructure development. This in turn has led to freer sub-regional flows of goods, capital, labour, and information. But the benefits of economic growth in the sub-region have been unevenly distributed. Thailand's booming economy and status as a middle-income country has made it the main destination country for labour migrants and victims of trafficking from neighbouring low-income countries, particularly Myanmar, Cambodia, and Lao PDR. In 2005, there were 1.3 million registered foreign workers and dependents from these three countries working in Thailand, and an additional estimated 200,000 undocumented migrant labourers from these countries (IOM, 2005).

Children of migrants often face barriers to education, as discussed in Box 3. Although the children of officially registered migrant workers are entitled to enrol in Thai schools, in practice, few children of registered migrants are actually in government schools (IOM, 2005). In 2004, the Thai government registered almost 1.3 million adult migrants from Myanmar, Lao PDR, and Cambodia, plus their 93,000 children under the age of 15. However, MOE figures showed that in 2004, only 13,500 children under 15 from three countries were attending Thai schools (IOM, 2005:43).

Box 3: Education for Migrant Children – Best Practices and Remaining Challenges (Thailand)

UNESCO mission/official visit to Mae Sot, in Tak Province, 20-26 May 2007

The purpose of the mission to the town of Mae Sot on 20-26 May 2007 was to conduct an EFA case study on the provision of education for migrant children, refugees, internally displaced persons (IDPs), undocumented, and stateless children residing in Thailand. Tak Province is estimated to have 200,000 workers from Myanmar, while in Mae Sot the figures range from 70,000 to 100,000, including both documented and undocumented migrants (Arnold, 2005). According to a 2005 Cabinet Resolution, children of documented and undocumented migrant workers can enrol in government schools and receive the same support for schooling as Thai students. Since the Cabinet Resolution, there has been a sharp increase in the number of migrant children from Myanmar enrolled in government schools.

According to a survey by the Tak Educational Service Area Office (ESAO) in 2006, in the 88 schools surveyed (66% of total), there were some 10,400 non-Thai students including Karen, Burmese, Mon, Shan, Lisu, Lao, and others. Some who were born in Thailand had no birth registration. Others were Myanmar migrants who had come to Thailand to study. The enrolment of migrant students has put a strain on the educational budget, since the government has limited resources to support all the students. Teacher shortage, language barriers, and the irregular attendance of migrant students, led to a decline in the quality of education.

Most of the new migrant students were facing significant language barriers in the Thai schools, and many could not afford the hidden costs of a state education, and therefore sent their children to one of the many migrant schools in Mae Sot. These are funded and managed by NGOs.

Migrant schools (commonly referred to as learning centres) serve a range of ethnic groups. Schools serving Burmese-speaking migrants offer a Burmese curriculum and Burmese language of instruction, while schools serving the Karen migrants use a Karen curriculum and Karen language. All the schools offer English and Thai language classes. Most of the teachers are from Myanmar. There is a shortage of Thai teachers to teach Thai language in the migrant schools. Most of the migrant schools offer a free education, covering textbooks, meals, and in some cases, dormitory lodging.

However, migrant schools do not have legal status, and cannot give official accreditation. As a result, students are not eligible to continue their studies in the Thai school system. The Thai MOE is now preparing a law that would enable the schools to apply for legal status.

Interviews with Thai provincial education officials and NGOS in Tak province in March 2007 indicated that a significant number of migrant children were attending migrant "learning centres." However, because these schools are not recognized by the Thai government, students cannot receive an official certificate of completion. Moreover, because of their illegal status, schools are frequently subject to closure and teachers are subject to fines, imprisonment, and deportation. In order to encourage children of both registered and unregistered migrants to attend government schools, the Thai government passed a Cabinet Resolution mandating that schools accept all children regardless of their legal status.

6.4 Child Labourers and Victims of Trafficking

Uneven development in the Mekong Sub-Region has contributed to an increase in child labour, particularly among the poor and undocumented migrants. In Thailand, there has been a dramatic decrease in the incidence of child labour in recent years. The growing demand for cheap, compliant labour has contributed to the influx of children from neighbouring countries into unregulated sectors. Many of these children had been trafficked or otherwise misled by job brokers (ILO, 2006). The plight of child workers is described in Box 4, Box 5, and child trafficking is described in Box 6.

Box 4: Migrant Child Workers (Thailand)

The Plight of Migrant Child Workers in Mae Sot, Thailand

Tak Province, which is located along the Moei River, across from Karen State, Myanmar, is a destination and crossing point for thousands of migrants from Myanmar seeking employment opportunities in Thailand's booming, export-led economy. Tens of thousands of migrants have moved to the town of Mae Sot to find low-skill, low-waged jobs in a range of sectors, including fisheries and seafood processing, garment factories, domestic work, and plantations and agriculture. Of the 921,000 migrants from Myanmar who registered in 2004, 125,000 were living in Tak Province. Apart from registered workers, there are also an unknown number of unregistered workers, with some estimates as high as 2 million nationwide.

A study for Save the Children/UK found that children make up a large proportion of the migrant workforce on the borders of Myanmar, China, and Thailand. Not only were migrants disproportionately young and female, but they were also vulnerable to exploitation, including "extensive debt-bondage, sexual abuse, illegal confinement, confiscation of documents, arrest and extortion, forced overtime, few basic resources and poor living conditions that were overcrowded, insecure and often violent" (Caouette, 2001).

In an ILO study, 313 child migrant workers were interviewed, 242 (77%) of whom were girls. The youngest was 12 years old and was working eight hours a day, seven days a week in a factory. Seven percent of respondents were 15 years of age, 23% were 16 years old, 48% were 17 years old, and 19% were 18 years old. Even though Thailand is a signatory to the numerous international conventions for the protection of children, the report found that among the 313 children surveyed, more than 80% worked an average of 11-12 hours per day, seven days per week (ILO, 2006).

Box 5: Child Workers (Cambodia)

Children's Work in Cambodia: A Challenge for Growth and Poverty Reduction (World Bank, 2006a).

More than 50% of Cambodian school-aged children are involved in some form of economic activity. Although they are usually paid less than their adult colleagues, by working an average of 22 hours a week, children's work accounts for almost 28% of household income. Many of these children combine their paid work with several non-economic activities, such as cleaning and water fetching, which they carry out to help the family. Overall, these chores take additional eight hours out of children's time in a week.

The study found that: (a) Work duties lead to irregular school attendance and adversely affect their learning attainment; (b) Almost 40% of 17 year-olds are engaged in work which poses serious challenges to children's health and safety; (c) School attendance is adversely affected by child labour; (d) Being engaged in work activities not only causes children to delay their entrance into school, but also increases the probability of early drop out; and (e) Economic activities have negative consequences on learning achievements.

The study identifies both demand-side and supply-side strategies that could facilitate working children's access to school. Demand-side measures could include reduction of household vulnerability to unexpected expenditures (e.g., family emergencies due to health problems) by expanding social protection. Supply-side measures could include: (a) Expansion of school access; (b) Conditional Cash Transfer (CCT) programmes; (c) School attendance incentive schemes, such as monetary transfers to families on a regular basis in return for their children's attendance in school; and (d) School nutrition and food-for-schooling.

In some rural areas, flexible schooling could help working children combine their work with school attendance. Both the daily school schedule and the yearly school calendar can be adapted to farming needs, so that families do not feel obliged to choose between work and school for their children.

Finally, the study recommends the expansion of early childhood education opportunities and investment in "child-friendly" learning and teaching methodologies.

Box 6: Child Trafficking and Exploitation (Cambodia)

Towards Equal Opportunities for All: Empowering Girls through Partnerships in Education (UNICEF, East Asia and Pacific Regional UNGEI, 2007).

Cambodia has witnessed annual growth rates of 7%-8% in recent years, mainly concentrated in and around Phnom Penh, but the majority of the population is still engaged in subsistence agriculture. One outcome of the uneven growth has been a sharp increase in rural to urban migration. While urban-rural migration patterns are common in many countries, because of Cambodia's history of political instability, civil conflict, and extreme poverty, young people are particularly at risk of becoming victims of trafficking and child labour. This is not only a fundamental violation of children's rights; it also hinders children's access to education, contributes to poor health and malnutrition, and weakens Cambodia's human resource base.

The OPTIONS Programme targets "girls at risk" in three provinces with high emigration rates. The objectives include: (a) Increasing access and improving quality of learning for girls at risk and exploited children in formal and non-formal education programmes; (b) Raising community awareness of child trafficking and exploitation; and (c) Increasing effectiveness of district and community working groups to plan, implement, and monitor the full range of interventions offered under the programme.

The formal component offers scholarship support and life skills at lower secondary education to girls in Grades 5-6, with the aim of keeping girls in school. The life skills course offers a combination of traditional skills such as vegetable growing and cooking, and "empowerment" skills such as critical thinking, problem solving, and health and social issues such as HIV/AIDS and trafficking. The non-formal component is an 18-month course for out-of-school illiterate girls and covers life skills, skills training, savings, group training, and continuing education activities.

Even though some of the OPTIONS courses (such as sewing and cooking) might seem to reinforce gender roles, when coupled with other life skills courses such as "small business training," "labour market assessment" and critical thinking, these courses equip young girls to participate actively in their local communities and economies while simultaneously challenging gender perceptions. Moreover, as the case study report emphasizes, supporting the development of girls' "traditional skills" in agriculture contributes to the reconstruction of rural communities which were destroyed during decades of conflict.

6.5 Gender Disparities

In the past 25 to 30 years, the Mekong Sub-Region has made tremendous progress in increasing girls' and women's access to education. A number of "best practices" for overcoming gender disparities stand out. By providing training to more than 400 female teachers from disadvantaged ethnic groups, the Basic Education (Girls) Project (BEGP) in Lao PDR greatly improved the Net Enrolment Rate (NER), particularly for girls in remote ethnic communities (Bryant, 2003). The Highland Children's Education Project (HCEP) in Cambodia's Rattanakiri province addressed gender disparities at every stage of project implementation, first by providing schooling in the village, and second by actively recruiting women to teach in the programme (Middleborg, 2005).

Although statistics show the gender gap closing quantitatively (enrolment rate and retention), analysis of school curricula suggest that there is still some way to go before the goal of comprehensive gender equity is reached. For example, a study of Cambodian textbooks found that curricular content at primary and secondary levels did not include gender equality concepts, and in general there was a lack of understanding of how to teach and address gender issues among school staff of gender representation in texts, of gender equity in school management, and of equal participation in the classroom (Velasco, 2004).

6.6 Persons with Disabilities

While many special educational facilities have been established to meet the needs of persons with disabilities, the lack of reliable statistical data on persons with disabilities, including out-of-school children with disabilities (CWDs) is an indication of the marginalisation of these populations.

The issue of disabilities is of particular importance in the Mekong Sub-Region because of the legacy of decades of war. Every year, hundreds of Cambodians are involved in landmine incidents (DAC, 2003). In Lao PDR, there are some 100 casualties each year from unexploded ordinance, with children making up more than half of the casualties (NRA, 2006). In Myanmar in 2006, there were some 200 victims of landmines, including both civilian and military (ICBL, 2008a). In Thailand, there are some 20-30 casualties each year from explosive remnants of war (ICBL, 2008b). In Viet Nam, there are some 100 casualties each year, mainly from unexloded ordinance, with children making up nearly half (ICBL, 2008c).

While more people with disabilities are gaining access to education through inclusive education projects, there are still gaps in access in remote and rural areas (DKR, n.d.). Special schools and community-based initiatives provide education for only a small proportion of children with

disabilities, and these services are located primarily in urban areas and focus on children with physical disabilities and sensory impairments. Most mainstream schools do not facilitate inclusion (DAC, n.d.).

Research suggests that the region's slowness in developing the capacity to provide education for people with disabilities may be at least partly rooted in the cultural belief that people who are born with disabilities have performed unmeritorious deeds in a past life (Roeder, 2001). Thus in addition to ensuring the rights of people with disabilities to education via national legislation, countries will also have to work harder to overcome the cultural stigma associated with disability.

6.7 Persons Living with HIV/AIDS

All the Mekong countries are confronting an HIV/AIDS epidemic, but Myanmar, Cambodia, and Thailand are facing particularly high infection rates. According to the UNDP, these three countries have the highest infection rates in East Asia and the Pacific, with prevalence rates of more than 1% for youth (UNDP, n.d.). In Myanmar, there were approximately 360,000 HIV cases in 2005 (adults and children), and every year at least 10,000 HIV-positive women become pregnant and give birth to 3,000 to 4,000 children who are infected with HIV (UNICEF, 2005). In Thailand in 2005, there were 560,000 persons infected with HIV/AIDS, 16,000 of whom were children (UNAIDS, 2006), while in Cambodia, there were an estimated 170,000 HIV cases in 2003, and approximately 12,000 children under 15 years of age living with HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS, 2004).

Despite HIV/AIDS awareness and education campaigns and progress in reducing new infections, studies show that children with HIV/AIDS are often withdrawn from school, while children in families affected by HIV/AIDS are often required to leave school to care for their HIV infected parents or family members (Wijngaarden & Schaeffer, 2005).

Experts suggest that given the current migration trends in the Greater Mekong Sub-Region, countries with a relatively low incidence of HIV/AIDS such as Lao PDR may face a higher prevalence as a result of increased exposure to the epidemic in neighbouring countries (UNDP, n.d.). Thus HIV/AIDS education needs to explicitly address sub-regional issues such as migration and trafficking.

PART II:
MEKONG SUB-REGIONAL PROGRESS AND CHALLENGES

7. Introduction to the Data and the Maps

Qualitative Data. There are three main types of data provided in this report. First, in preparation for the EFA Mid-Decade Assessment, UNESCO Bangkok, in collaboration with the Member States, developed a set of standardised questionnaires which were then completed by each of the Member States. These questionnaires were open-ended and were the source of the qualitative data provided in this Report. Many of the individual questions and the associated responses provided by the EFA national committees are given in table form below. Generally, the complete response is given for each country, but in some cases very long responses were edited. In the editing, every effort was made to preserve the complete and unaltered meaning of the full response, minus some of the detail. In some cases, the questionnaire responses were unclear, and every attempt was made to assure that the responses as reported here reflect the intended meaning. Where no response was provided by a country to a given item, the country is deleted from the table.

Quantitative Indicators. The second type of data provided in this report is represented by the indicators used for cross-country comparisons. These indicators are internationally standardized, based on the ISCED 1997 nomenclature and verified by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics. The raw education data are reported by the Member States' ministries of education to the UIS; population data are provided by the national statistical offices (NSOs) to the United Nations Population Division (UNPD). Data used for sub-national analysis is from the ministries of education unless otherwise indicated. The specific education indicators used in this Report are described in Box 7.

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Box 7: Education Indicators and Concepts Used in this Report

Completion Rate. The ratio of the total number of students successfully completing (or graduating from) the last year of primary school in a given year to the total number of children of official graduation age in the population.

Drop-out Rate (DR). The proportion of pupils who leave the system without completing a given grade in a given school year. High drop-out rates imply high input/output ratios and hence lead to low internal efficiency. (Used in MOE annual school census).

Enrolment Rate, Gross (GER). Enrolment at a given level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percent of the population of the official age group for the given level. (Used in MOE annual school census). Note: Compared to the GER, the net attendance rate (NAR) is assessed by asking mothers or care-givers in household sample surveys if the children in the household "attend school". NER, meanwhile, uses data based on the official enrolments at each individual school. (Used in MOE annual school census). Compare with Enrolment Rate, Net.

Continued from p. 40

Enrolment Rate, Net (NER). Enrolment of the official age group for a given level of education, expressed as a percent of the total population in that age group. (Used in MOE annual school census). Note: Compared to the NER, the net attendance rate (NAR) is assessed by asking mothers or care-givers in household sample surveys if the children in the household "attend school". NER meanwhile, uses data based on the official enrolments at each individual school. (Used in MOE annual school census). Compare with Enrolment Rate, Gross.

Gender Ratio (GR). The ratio of the absolute number of females to the absolute number of males for a given variable. For example, the ratio of the number of girls enrolled to the number of boys enrolled. This is sometimes referred to as the "sex ratio". Demographers typically use the term to refer to the ratio of males/females, but in this report the term is used to denote females/males to be consistent with the definition of the GPI.

Gender Parity Index (GPI). The ratio of the value of a given ratio variable for females to the value of the same ratio variable for males, for example GER for females divided by GER for males: GPI=GERfemale/GERmale. Gender parity is indicated by the value 1. Disparity in favour of boys is indicated by a value less than 1, and disparity in favour of girls is indicated by a value greater than 1. The difference between the GR and the GPI is that the former is simply the ratio of the number of females to the number of males, whereas the latter, by comparing enrolment ratios, takes account of the numbers of females and males in the population. In practice it will be said that there is "gender parity" if GPI lies between 0.97 and 1.03 ($0.97 \leq GPI \leq 1.03$).

Intake Ratio, Gross (GIR). New entrants to Grade 1 of primary education, regardless of age, expressed as a percent of the population at the official primary school entrance age. (Used in MOE annual school census). Also called "Apparent Intake Rate". Compare with Intake Ratio, Net.

Intake Ratio, Net (NIR). New entrants to the first grade of primary education who are of the official primary-school entrance age, expressed as a percent of the population of that age. (Used in MOE annual school census). Compare with Intake Ratio, Gross.

Intake Ratio, Apparent (AIR). See Intake Ratio, Gross.

New Entrants. Pupils entering a given level of education for the first time; the difference between enrolment and repeaters in the first grade of the level. (Used in MOE annual school census). Sometimes referred to as "New Admissions".

Quintile. In statistics, each of five numerical equal groups into which a population can be divided according to the distribution of values of a particular variable, in this report estimated household consumption.

Repetition Rate. Number of repeaters in a given grade in a given school year, expressed as a percent of enrolment in that grade the previous school year.

Survival Rate. Percent of a cohort of students who enrol in the first grade of an education cycle in a given school year and expected to reach a specified grade, regardless of repetition. Typically used to assess survival to Grade 5.

Note: The terminology and definitions used here are consistent with UNESCO Institute for Statistics, "Education Indicators: Technical Guidelines". http://www.uis.unesco.org/glossary/index.aspx?lang=en. Gender Ratio is not defined there but is used here for convenience.

8. Goal One: Early Childhood Care and Education

8.1 Background and Development of Goal One

8.1.1 Definition of Goal One

Early childhood care and education in the Mekong Sub-Region generally covers the age range 3-5 years, but in some cases can also include day-care and child-rearing services for even younger children, with corresponding programme durations, as reported in Table 7 and Table 8. The emphasis is on care and development, as is well expressed in the Myanmar EFA MDA Report: "Nurturing children younger than five years old physically, socially, mentally, and spiritually." In general, however, the emphasis appears to be more on educational development than on physical and social development.

Table 7: Definitions of ECCE

Country	How is early childhood care and education or pre-school defined in your country?
Cambodia	Programmes designed for children from age 3 to 5 years, including learning activities.
Lao PDR	"Early Childhood Care and Development" refers to pre-primary education comprising crèches and kindergarten for 3-5 year olds. Pre-primary classes attached to primary schools are referred to as "Grade 0". All aim to support the development of children and allow for a smooth transition into primary education.
Myanmar	Nurturing children younger than 5 years physically, socially, mentally and spiritually, referring to both pre-school (ages 3-5) programmes and diverse child rearing practices and day-care programmes for children younger than 3.
Thailand	"Early Childhood Education" refers to education for children between aged 0-5, including those under 6 years, or from age 0 to 5 years and 11 months.
Viet Nam	Care and education for children aged 0-6 years, including crèche for ages 0-3, kindergarten for age 3-5, and special programme for pre-school children (5 years old) to prepare them for Grade 1 of primary school.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Table 8: Duration of ECCE Schooling and Ages Covered under ECCE Programmes

Country	Duration	Years Covered
Cambodia	ECCE: 5 years	ECCE: ages 0-5
	Pre-school: 3 years	Pre-school: ages 3-5 years
Lao PDR	Crèches: 3 years	Crèches: ages 0-2 years
	Kindergarten: 2 years	Kindergarten: ages 3-4 years
	Pre-school: 1 year	Pre-school: age 5 years
Myanmar	ECCE schooling: 3-5 years	Children under 5
Thailand	ECE programmes: 4 years	Children aged 2-6 years
Viet Nam	Early childhood care: 5 years	Early childhood care: 0-5 years old
	Pre-school: 1 year	Pre-school: Age 5 years

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

8.1.2 National Policies and Legislation for Provision and Coordination of ECCE

All countries in the Mekong Sub-Region have legislative bases for ECCE, either in the education law or in other legislation which makes reference to early childhood care and education, as indicated in Table 9. Similarly, all Mekong countries have either established ECCE policies or have policies currently under preparation, as reported in Table 10.

Table 9: Status of National Legislation for the Provision of ECCE

Country	Does national legislation for the provision of ECCE exist?
Cambodia	Education Law issued in 2007
Lao PDR	Included in Education Law
Myanmar	Provisions of the Myanmar Child Law, developed and enacted in 1993 after Myanmar's accession in 1991 to the CRC, are specific about the obligations of the State.
Thailand	There is no specific law at the national level on early childhood education, but there are references to ECCE in the National Education Act of 1999 as amended in 2002. The Child Protection Act of 2003 guarantees children and youth the right to protection against violence and unfair treatment and to receive appropriate care and education from the State.
Viet Nam	Included in the Education Law and the government ECCE programme for 2006-2010

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Table 10: Status of Policy for Provision of ECCE

Country	Does policy for the provision of ECCE exist?
Cambodia	Policy on ECCE aged 3-5 issued in 2000. Policy on ECCE aged 0-5 drafted.
Lao PDR	Currently being developed
Myanmar	Policy for the provision of ECCE exist in the Child Law, special child-focused legislation developed and enacted in 1993 after Myanmar's accession in 1991 to the CRC. The EFA NAP specifically highlights ECCE in "assisting children to develop to their fullest potential."
Thailand	In April 1997, broad government policy was formulated supporting the empowerment of society through initiatives aimed at families, children, youth, women, and the elderly. Education policy emphasizes quality, efficiency, and justice in educational management at all levels, including early education. The National Education Plan (2002-2016) ensures the lifelong and holistic development of the individual and that the State shall be involved in the provision of lifelong learning and development. The plan is targeted at the holistic development of children aged 0-5 years.
Viet Nam	Government issued policy on ECCE development in 2003 and ECCE programme for 2006-2010.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

8.1.3 Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Children

Programmes and strategies for ECCE exist in all Mekong countries, and specific programmes for provision of ECCE services to disadvantaged children either already exist or are under preparation, as reported in Table 11. In practice, however, a variety of constraints hinder the provision of ECCE services to all disadvantaged children, as indicated in Table 12. These generally include limited physical facilities, limited budget, lack of teachers, especially in remote and mountainous areas, and parent's poverty, but sometimes constraints are also related to coordination and planning.

Table 11: Status of Programmes for Provision of ECCE

Country	Do programmes for the provision of ECCE exist?	Do specific strategies and programmes exist for the provision of ECCE for disadvantaged children?
Cambodia	Programmes exist	There are NGO programmes for children with disabilities, community and home-based ECCE (age 0-5) programmes conducted by NGOs and local authorities.
Lao PDR	EFA Programme 1: Access and Participation in ECCD	Currently being developed
Myanmar	(a) Many nursery, day care, pre-primary, parental education programmes, operated by communities, NGO, and private organizations including for orphans, abandoned children, and poor and disabled children; and (b) Nutrition promotion activities, school health programme, de-worming, salt iodization, safe water and sanitation	(a) Target groups include poor children, children from remote, border, and mountainous areas, children with disabilities, children from migrant families, and orphans; and (b) National policies adopted in Myanmar Child Law (1993) encourage the participation of NGOs, communities and families in ECCE activities.
Thailand	The Department of Curriculum and Instruction Development (MOE) has developed an ECCE curriculum for children aged 0-3 years and 3-5 years.	Thailand has adopted an inclusive approach. Strategies and plans for early childhood development are therefore also applicable to disadvantaged children.
Viet Nam	Government established ECCE policy in 2003 and ECCE programme for 2006-2010.	Government has issued a policy for disadvantaged children.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Table 12: Barriers to ECE for Disadvantaged Groups

Country	What are the barriers to ECE education for disadvantaged groups?
Cambodia	Physical facilities constraints, limited budget, lack of teachers, parent's poverty
Lao PDR	Lack of facilities and personnel
Myanmar	(a) For children with disabilities, to provide caring techniques in the families; expand access since most are taken care of at home; and (b) Lack of teachers, especially in remote, border, and mountainous areas.
Thailand	There are programmes for youth and disadvantaged groups, including those with disabilities, but there is still no specific plan for ECCE.
Viet Nam	Low income of family and shortages of facilities of ECCE centres.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

8.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators

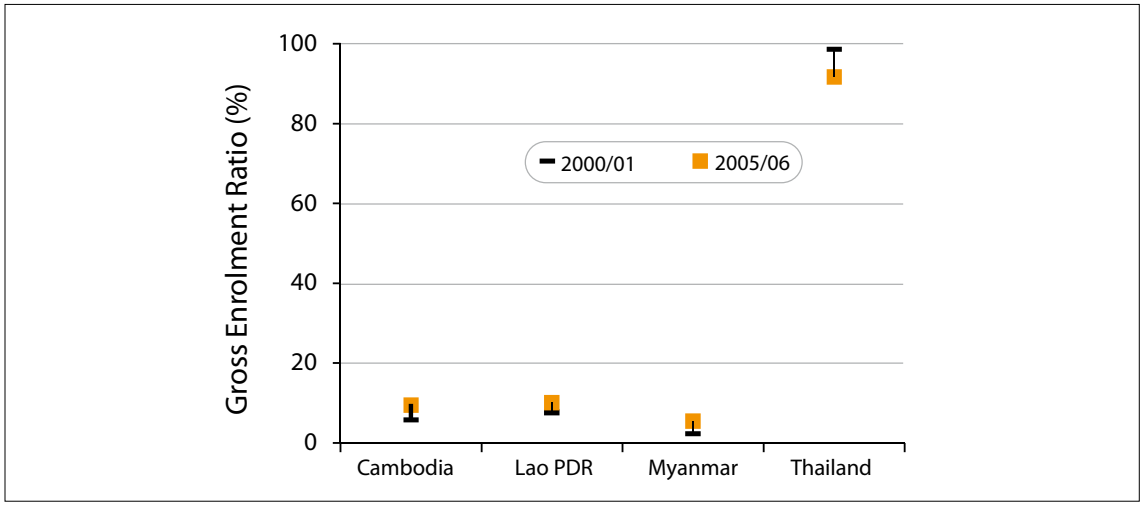
Pre-school Education. Only Thailand has substantial gross enrolment ratio in pre-primary education, as shown in Table 13 and Figure 3 (see also Map 1, page 51). At the beginning of the decade, Thailand had GERs close to 100%, but five years later, the GER dropped significantly. In Cambodia, Lao PDR, and Myanmar, the GER was well below 10% in 2000, but by 2005 the GER had risen significantly. Most countries have only recently begun to collect data on the proportion of children entering Grade 1 who have ECCE experience.

Table 13: Gross Enrolment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	5.8	5.7	6.0	9.5	9.1	10.0
Lao PDR	7.8	7.4	8.2	10.1	9.9	10.4
Myanmar	2.3**	…	…	5.5^{+1}	5.5^{+1}	5.6^{+1}
Thailand	98.6	97.4	99.8	91.7^{+1}	91.1^{+1}	92.4^{+1}
Viet Nam	§	§	§	§	§	§

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "+n" indicates data refer to n years after the reference year. "**" indicates UIS estimation. "…" indicates no data available. "§" indicates that due to differences in population estimates used by the Ministry of Education and the UNPD, the UIS has decided not to publish this indicator.

Figure 3: Gross Enrolment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education, 2000/01 and 2005/06, Sub-Region



Source: UISDC, February 2008.

Table 14: Enrolment in Private Institutions (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000	2005
Cambodia	22.5	24.3
Lao PDR	16.6	26.1
Myanmar	89.9**	49.6^{+1}
Thailand	18.7	20.9^{+1}
Viet Nam	51.1	61.2^{+1}

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "+n" indicates data refer to n years after the reference year. "**" indicates UIS estimation.

Enrolments in non-government institutions, as a proportion of all pre-school enrolment, rose between 2000 and 2005 in all countries except Myanmar, where it declined considerably, as shown in Table 14.

Nutrition. Household consumption of iodized salt varies substantially, from a low of 14% in Cambodia to a high of 83% in Viet Nam, as shown in Table 15 and Figure 4 (see also Map 2, page 52). Malnutrition also varies considerably over the region. In Cambodia, upwards of half of children under five years of age are classified as underweight (low weight/age, see Box 8), and at the lowest level, in Thailand, 18% are classified as underweight. Wasting (low weight/height) ranges from 15% in Cambodia and Lao PDR, to 5% in Thailand. Stunting (low height/age) ranges from a high of over 40% in Cambodia and Lao PDR, to a low of 13% in Thailand.

Box 8: Definitions of Stunting, Underweight, Wasting

Stunting (moderate plus severe): Height/Age 2+ standard deviations below the median of the World Health Organisation (WHO) reference population.

Underweight (moderate plus severe): Weight/Age 2+ standard deviations below the median of the WHO reference population.

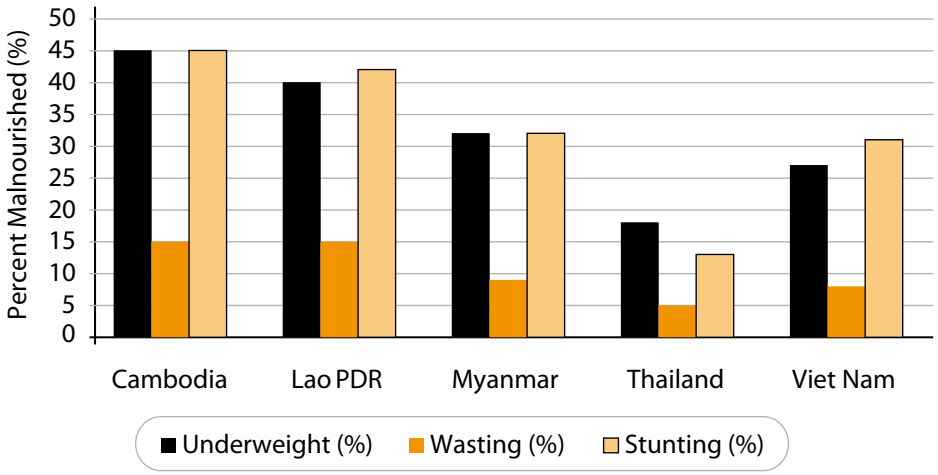
Wasting (moderate plus severe): Weight/Height 2+ standard deviations below the median of the WHO reference population.

Table 15: Health and Nutrition Indicators, 1998-2005, Sub-Region

Country	Households Consuming Iodized Salt (%)	Children Under Five Suffering from Malnutrition		
		Underweight (%)	Wasting (%)	Stunting (%)
Cambodia	14.0	45.0	15.0	45.0
Lao PDR	75.0	40.0	15.0	42.0
Myanmar	60.0	32.0	9.0	32.0
Thailand	63.0	18.0[x]	5.0[x]	13.0[x]
Viet Nam	83.0	27.0	8.0	31.0

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: The data refer to the most recent year available. "x" indicates data differ from the standard definition or refer to only part of a country.

Figure 4: Health and Nutrition Indicators, 1998-2005, Sub-Region



Source: UISDC, February 2008.

Although all Mekong countries have made progress in reaching the ECCE goals, some have reached the 2007 targets and are likely to meet the 2015, while others have not reached their targets. One reason targets have not been met is the difficulty of providing services in remote areas. Another reason is difficulties in coordinating activities and information among various organizations (government agencies, NGOs, etc.) providing services, as indicated in Table 16.

Table 16: Status of Targets for Provision of ECCE, 2007 and 2015

Country	Have the targets set for 2007 for ECCE Core Indicators been met?	Are the targets set for 2015 likely to be achieved?
Cambodia	NER Target: 25% NER Actual: 28.5% in 2005/06	Target: 75%. Expect to achieve target with support of FTI
Lao PDR	Not met, but in the past five years ECCD programmes have attracted more students, reaching a GER of 10.6% in 2005. Lao PDR is falling short of the targets set out in the EFA NPA (17%) for the same year.	If the EFA target for 2015 is to be achieved, MOE will have to pay particular attention to expansion of ECCD programmes in rural and remote areas.
Myanmar	New Grade 1 entrants with ECCE experience: Target of 2005: 10%, achieved 2006: 11%	The GER for ECCE targets of 20% by 2010 and 25% by 2015 set in the EFA-NAP would likely be achieved with the expansion of ECCE programmes in collaboration with ECCE partners.
Thailand	Actions have been taken in line with the requirements of the core indicators, but due to overlapping and differences in the data-recording system between the various agencies and organizations involved, it is difficult to report on actual outcomes.	
Viet Nam	Yes	Yes

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

In general, there has been progress in the quantitative ECCE goals, and in Cambodia, Myanmar, and Viet Nam the targets were exceeded. It is expected that the 2015 targets will be met in those countries. In Lao PDR and Thailand, however, the 2007 targets were not met, and greater efforts will have to be made to reach the 2015 targets.

8.3 Analysis of Disparities in Goal One

8.3.1 Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality in Goal One

In most or all of the Mekong countries, the goal of gender equality in the ECCE enrolment rate was reached, as indicated in Table 17. However, although it is generally accepted by the national education authorities that the policies for the equitable provision of quality ECCE may be adequate, in practice the delivery of ECCE services is not yet equitable. Children of the poor and children living in rural and remote areas are less likely to attend ECCE education than others, as reported in Table 18.

Table 17: Gender Parity Index for Gross Enrolment Ratio in Pre-Primary Education

Country	What is the Gender Parity Index (GPI) for Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) in Pre-Primary Education?
Cambodia	GPI for GER in ECCE (2005/06): 1.00
Lao PDR	GPI for GER in ECCE (2005/06): 1.04
Myanmar	Pre-school students comprised 49.6% girls and 50.4% boys
Thailand	There is no information on this topic. Thai educational policy provides equal opportunities to all with no gender discrimination.
Viet Nam	GPI for GER in ECCE: Nearly 1.00

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Table 18: Current Policies and Programmes for Equitable Provision of ECCE

Country	Have the current policies and programmes been adequate for the equitable provision of quality ECCE?
Cambodia	Not yet
Lao PDR	No, lack of government and donor resources hinder the equitable provision of ECCD. So far, mainly the richest (quintile) sends their children to pre-primary education.
Myanmar	Generally, the current policies and programmes are appropriate for the provision of quality ECCE, but it is necessary to expand ECCE programmes in rural areas to form mobile ECCE groups for home visits, to enact registration procedures for pre-primary schools and day care centres, and to establish a clear policy framework.
Thailand	Thailand has developed sufficient and excellent development plans and policies for early childhood education through the various agencies and organizations involved. However, there is a little progress at the operational level.
Viet Nam	Yes

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

8.3.2 Progress in Improving the Quality of Goal One

Quality standard for the care and development of 3-5 year-olds have generally improved, but two country cases are particularly noteworthy, namely Cambodia and Myanmar. In Cambodia, considerable improvements were made. Quality standards for care and development of 3-5 year-old children were prepared, community pre-school teachers were trained, materials on thematic teaching methodology for 5 year-old children were developed, technical and managerial capacity of education officials, trainers, and school directors were upgraded, a curriculum for pre-school teacher training centre was reviewed, and quality standards for 5 year-old children in the School Readiness Programme were developed.

In Myanmar, the first culturally and developmentally appropriate board books for young children were produced, together with books depicting lives of children with their families and friends, including children with disabilities. To distribute the books, some 21,000 "box libraries" were prepared and placed in pre-schools and lower primary schools for children to access and use as part of their reading, language, and story telling activities.

8.3.3 Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached" and "Under-served"

Cross-cutting issues and issues related to reaching the unreached and the under-served show much commonality across the Mekong Sub-Region:

- Access to ECCE services is still low, especially among disadvantaged populations in poor communities, rural and remote communities, remote and poor ethnic communities, and children with disabilities, especially in remote areas;
- There are no established criteria for identifying disadvantaged children; and
- Data collection on the unreached is weak.

8.3.4 Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving Goal One

Overall there has been significant progress in reaching the ECCE goals, as reported in Table 19. In all of the countries in the Mekong Sub-Region, efforts to reach the unreached and to improve the quality of ECCE have shown some "best practices", as recorded in Table 20.

Table 19: Progress Achieved in Reaching the ECCE Goal

Country	What progress has been achieved in reaching the goal?
Cambodia	(a) Community pre-school teachers trained; (b) Quality Standards for 5 year-old children on School Readiness Programme has been developed; and (c) Eight-week school readiness programme has been developed for children not attending pre-school.
Lao PDR	(a) GER growth considerable; and (b) Pre-primary class (Grade 0) piloted successfully, ready for nationwide expansion.
Myanmar	Have achieved the 2005 goals and expect to achieve the 2015 goals.
Thailand	The percentage of children between 3-5 years old that can access educational services in both public and private sector has increased, and the development of skills and abilities appropriate to age is increasing.
Viet Nam	Increasing GER to 36% for all 3 groups - crèche, kindergarten, and pre-school.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Table 20: Best Practices in Reaching the ECCE Goal

Country	What are examples of best practices?
Cambodia	School Readiness Programme was found effective in reducing repetition and drop out and increasing promotion rate and school attendance.
Lao PDR	The attachment of a pre-school class referred to as "Grade 0" to primary schools where the remoteness and population density does not allow the establishment of ECCD facilities has been piloted and found to be cost-effective.
Myanmar	(a) Local and international NGOs, churches, monasteries and social organizations active in out-of-centre ECCE have shown great potential; (b) Box Libraries play an important role in disseminating ECCE practices to families, teachers, community, and community leaders and are instrumental in reaching the unreached. A total of 21,000 Box Libraries have been distributed; (c) A key ECCE strategy in reaching the priority target groups and reducing rural-urban gaps has been the innovative development of "mother circles," which represents a hybrid model whereby pre-primary school-based early childhood centres serve as the nucleus of support to home-based satellite programmes; and (d) A special transition curriculum will be applied in selected pilot primary schools.
Thailand	Local government has authority to provide ECCE. It is recommended that all children have ECCE before primary Grade 1. Local authorities get their own financing, and they provide free milk, lunch, and learning materials. This does not include ECCE offered by private institutions. For private schools/centres, parents pay the full cost.
Viet Nam	Engaging the participation of family and communities in ECCE

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

8.4 Remaining Challenges and Issues in the Mekong Sub-Region

Although there has been much progress, many remaining challenges and issues need to be addressed, as reported in Table 21. Many parents from low socio-economic groups are still not aware of the importance of ECCE. In areas of difficult terrain, parents cannot send children to ECCE centres because it takes a long time to reach the facilities or because it is dangerous. Lack of collaboration among service and development sectors, and participation among all people in communities, hinders the identification and provision of appropriate measures for provision of ECCE services, especially to poor and remote communities. Re-organizing the ECCE system based on community participation has been shown to promote participation. Increasing qualification of teaching/nursing staff by providing training appropriate to the care of young children would improve the quality of ECCE. More resources are needed if the 2015 goals are to be reached. Many children attend non-government pre-schools, and the quality of both government and non-government institutions should be monitored.

The remaining challenges in the region are:

- To expand access to disadvantaged population such as poor ethnic groups, and children with disabilities, especially in remote areas, and to expand coverage of home-based programmes;
- To provide quality pre-primary education nationwide, particularly in remote areas, and assuring participation of the poor; and
- To strengthen data collection on ECCE, disaggregated by geographic region, gender, rural-urban disparities, national groups, language, disabilities, economic quintile, and professional qualifications of caregivers and teachers.

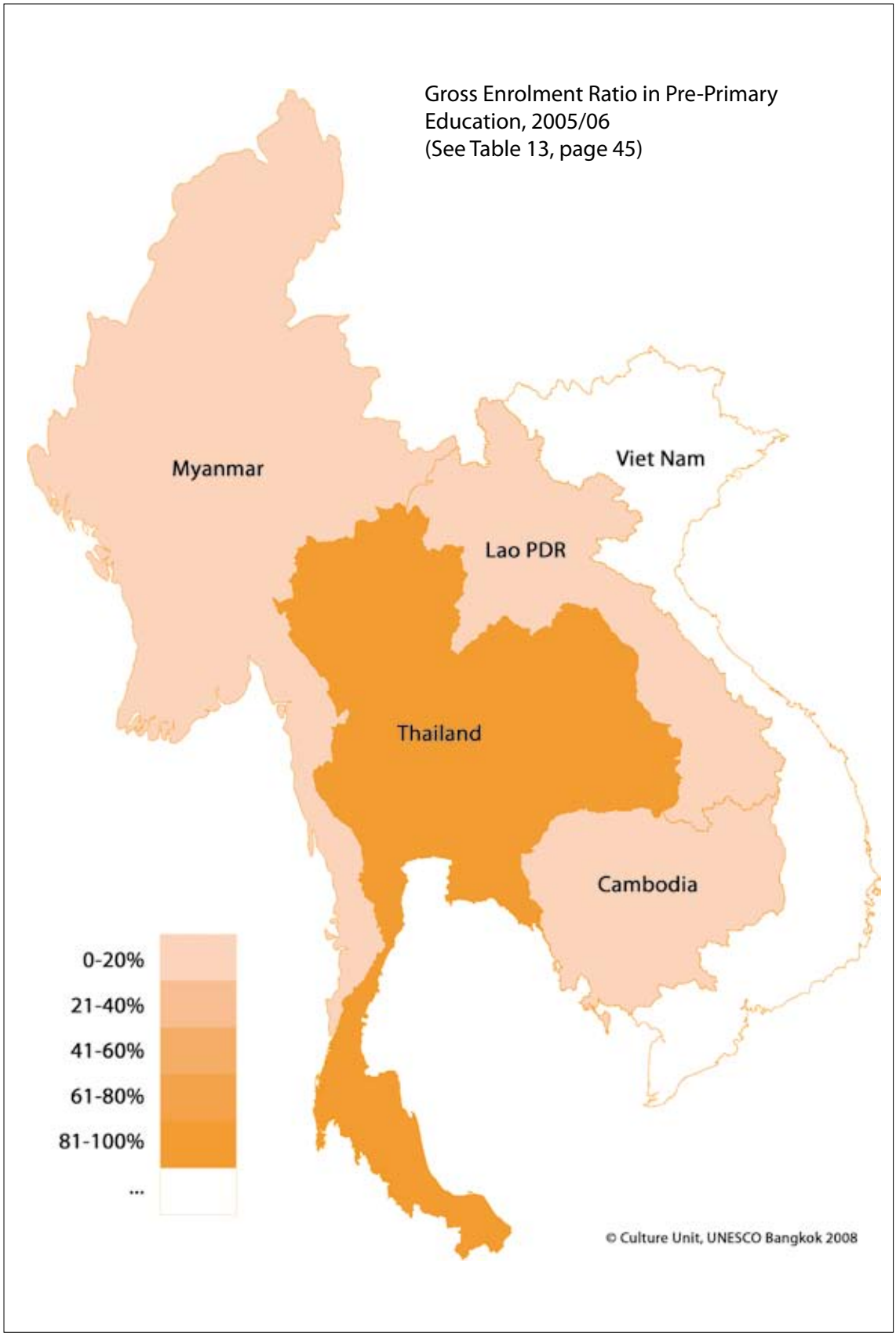
Table 21: Remaining Challenges and Issues to be Addressed

Country	What are remaining challenges and issues to be addressed?
Cambodia	Coverage of home-based programme still limited; insufficient monitoring of private pre-school; ECCE coverage still low among of disadvantaged populations such as poor, disadvantaged ethnic groups, and disabled children, especially in remote areas.
Lao PDR	Providing quality pre-primary education nationwide, particularly in remote areas; assuring participation of the poor.
Myanmar	(a) Data collection on ECCE needs to be strengthened and disaggregated further by geographic region, sex, rural-urban disparities, national groups, language, disabilities, economic quintile, and professional qualifications; (b) Many parents from low socio-economic groups are still not aware of the importance of ECCE; (c) In areas of difficult terrain, parents cannot send children to ECCE centres because it takes a long time to reach the facilities; and (d) Improving access to ECCE among the unreached target population.
Thailand	Lack of collaboration among service/development sectors, participation among all people in communities, lack of resources.
Viet Nam	(a) Re-organizing the ECCE system based on community participation; (b) Increasing qualification of teaching/nursing staff; and (c) Improving facilities of ECCE centres.

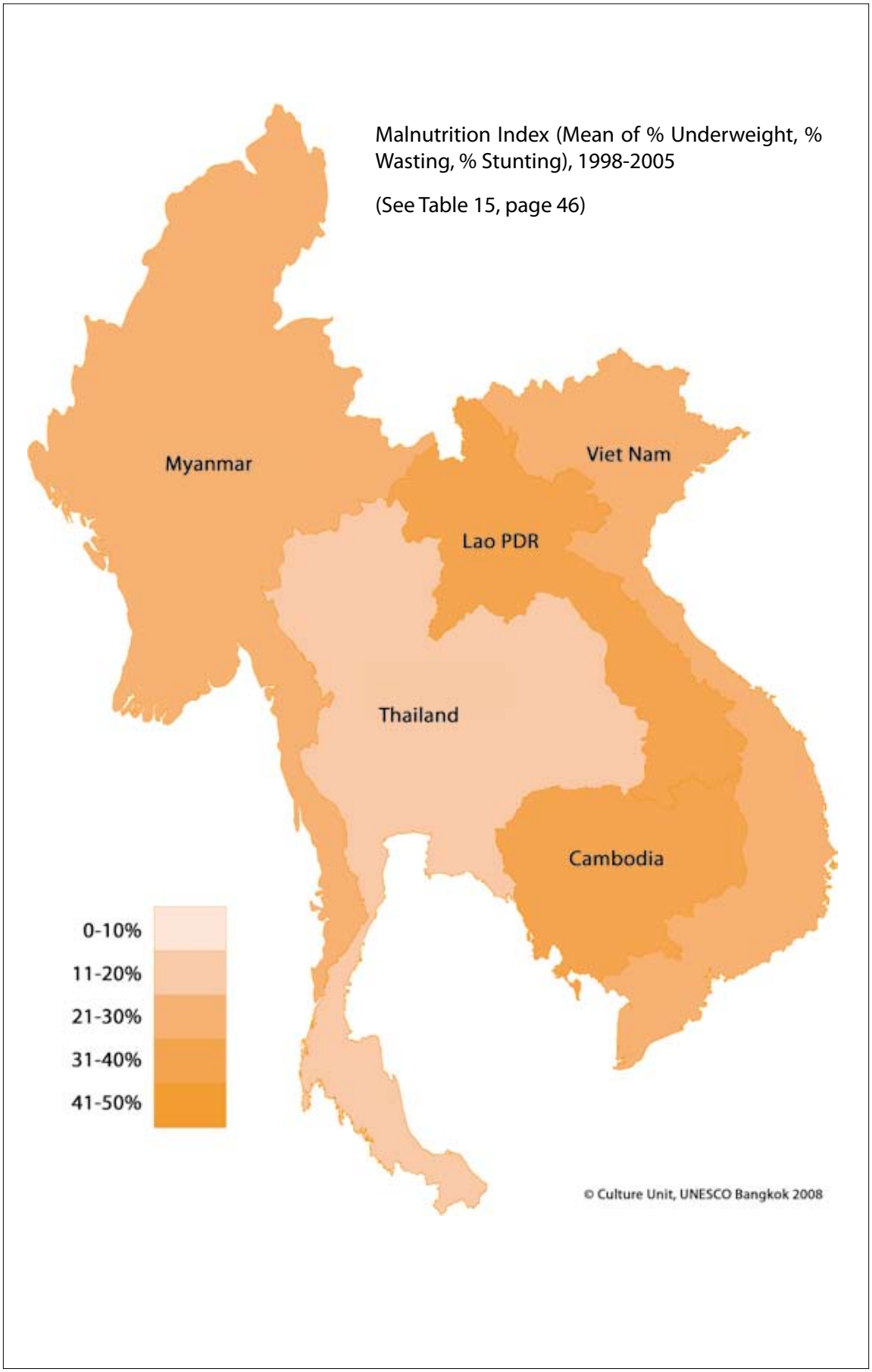
Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

8.5 Mekong Sub-Region Thematic Maps

Map 1: Mekong Sub-Region Map – GER in Pre-Primary Education, 2005/06



Map 2: Mekong Sub-Region Map – Malnutrition Index, 1998-2005



9. Goal Two: Universal Basic Education/Primary Education

9.1 Background and Development of Goal Two

9.1.1 Definition of Goal Two

Country	Structure
Cambodia	6+3+3
Lao PDR	5+3+3 to shift to 5+4+3 by 2010
Myanmar	5+4+2
Thailand	6+3+3
Viet Nam	5+4+3

The concepts of universal primary education (UPE) and universal basic education (UBE) should be seen within the context of the somewhat differing structure of the school system in the Sub-Region, as shown in the inset table. Throughout the region, UPE refers to achieving 100% enrolment in either five or six years of primary education. UBE refers, in all Mekong countries, to primary plus lower secondary. Further elaboration can be seen in Table 22.

Table 22: Definitions of UPE/UBE

Country	How is UPE/UBE defined in your country? What grades and ages are included?
Cambodia	(a) UPE: Grade 1 to 6 full enrolments of all children in primary school age-group, age 6 to 11 years olds; and (b) UBE: Grade 1 to 9 full enrolments of all children in primary and lower-secondary school age-group, age 6 to 14 years old.
Lao PDR	Primary education (from age 6) consists of five years and is compulsory. Lower secondary education consists of three years, as does upper secondary education. MOE will move from the present 5+3+3 system with just 8 years of basic education to the international standard of 9 years of basic schooling through a 5+4+3 structure by 2010.
Myanmar	The Myanmar Basic Education School system consists of five years of primary (Grade 1-5, age 5-9); four years of lower secondary (Grade 6-9, age 10-13) and two years of upper secondary (Grade 10-11, age 14-15), totalling 11 years. In EFA usage, Basic Education includes only the primary and lower secondary levels.
Thailand	UPE refers only to the six years of primary education. Students enter Grade 1 when they are 6 years old and finish on completion of Grade 6 when they are 11 years old. UBE includes six years of primary education, three years of lower secondary education from Grades 7-9 and including students from age 12 and 14, plus three years of high school from Grades 10-12 and including students from age 15 to 17.
Viet Nam	UPE covers primary and lower secondary school, ages 6-10 and 11-15, respectively.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

9.1.2 National Policies and Legislation for Provision and Coordination of Goal Two

In all countries in the Mekong Sub-Region, there is a legislative basis for the provision of education for all, as described in Table 23. Primary education is compulsory in all countries, but in some countries enforcement can be weak, especially in remote communities and other communities where parents do not see the value of education, as reported in Table 24.

Table 23: Status of National Legislation for the Provision of Education for All Children

Country	Has legislation been passed mandating education for all children?
Cambodia	National Constitution, Education Law Drafted
Lao PDR	There is legislation for provision of education for all for primary schooling (Grades 1-5)
Myanmar	Existing basic education laws ensures that every citizen has the right to education, and every citizen shall be given basic education prescribed by law as compulsory.
Thailand	The National Education Act of 1996 expanded the years of compulsory education from 6 to 9 years (Grades 1-9).
Viet Nam	Yes

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Table 24: Status of Programmes for Provision of UPE/UBE

Country	Basic Education Mandatory	Duration	Official Age	Status of Enforcement
Cambodia	Yes	9 years	6 to 14	National constitution, Education Law Drafted
Lao PDR	Yes	5 years	5 or 6	Enforcement is weak because: (a) Some children in remote areas lack access to complete schools (Grades 1-5); and (b) Some families consider it is better for the children to work instead of attending school, especially in remote areas where children often begin school late.
Myanmar	No	5 years	5 to 9	Existing legislation is not enforced.
Thailand	Yes	9 years	6 to 14	Enforced. All children 7 years; 9 years compulsory from 2004/05.
Viet Nam	Yes	5 years	6 to 11	Enforced.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Table 25: Costs of Basic Education

Country	Free and Compulsory?	Hidden Costs
Cambodia	Yes, basic education is free.	Yes, uniform, school lunches and local transportation
Lao PDR	The Education Law of 2000 states that education is free and compulsory.	Hidden direct costs (as opposed to opportunity costs) are not well researched, but survey evidence suggests that cost is usually not a reason for non-participation.
Myanmar	Primary education is free but secondary education is not free, there are minimal monthly school fees prescribed for each grade.	There are hidden costs such as textbooks and uniforms, but textbooks, stationery, and uniforms are often provided to needy children by regional and local authorities, NGOs, communities, and others.
Thailand	Basic education is free from Grades 1-12	There should be no hidden costs that may be a barrier to education since the government has agreed to provide free schooling for 12 years, including free textbooks. School lunches are included for those who are in primary education.
Viet Nam	Primary is free and compulsory; lower secondary is compulsory and there is a small fee.	There are hidden costs but these are not a barrier to education.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

In principle, primary education is free in all countries in the Mekong Sub-Region, but in Myanmar and Viet Nam there are small fees for lower secondary. There are hidden costs, such as school uniforms and transportation costs in all countries. In Thailand, school lunches are free for children in primary school, as reported in Table 25.

9.1.3 Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Children

All countries in the Mekong Sub-Region have specific programmes and strategies for provision of basic education for disadvantaged children, as reported in Table 26. Nevertheless there are barriers, the most common of which are access to suitable physical facilities (especially at lower secondary level), limited budget, lack of teachers, and parent's poverty, as reported in Table 27. The problem is especially acute for ethnic minority children living in remote communities.

Table 26: Strategies and Programmes for Provision of UPE/UBE for Disadvantaged Children

Country	Do specific strategies and special programmes exist for the provision of basic education for disadvantaged children?
Cambodia	(a) Scholarship programme for the poor, especially girl students; (b) Dormitory for girl students in teacher training centres; and (c) School feeding programme.
Lao PDR	The strategies and programmes are included in the EFA NPA.
Myanmar	(a) Providing inclusive education, special care and attention for children with disabilities, the mentally challenged, and other disadvantaged children, use of Braille devices and sign language for the blind and deaf; (b) Opening more schools in border and remote areas and recruiting local teachers; (c) Organizing monastic education; (d) Organizing food for education programmes for poor children; (e) Organizing mobile schools and non-formal primary education programmes; and (f) Providing life skills programmes for out-of-school children (EXCEL).
Thailand	The Ministry of Education has developed a national policy for disadvantaged children. It includes measures to provide equal opportunity for quality education to all dis-advantaged groups, mobilize resources to ensure that all disadvantaged groups can access education, develop effective management systems to support disadvantaged students, and set up and expand networks to strengthen the provision of education to disadvantaged groups.
Viet Nam	Yes

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Table 27: Barriers to UPE/UBE for Disadvantaged Groups

Country	What are the barriers to basic education for disadvantaged groups?
Cambodia	(a) Physical facilities constraints; (b) Limited budget; (c) Lack of teachers; and (d) Parent's poverty.
Lao PDR	(a) Lack of schooling opportunities (distance to school), particularly for lower secondary; and (b) Quality of education (language issues), particularly in primary education.
Myanmar	(a) Schooling costs; (b) Transportation difficulties, especially in remote, border and mountainous areas; (c) Unfavourable conditions for children of migrant families; and (d) Language difficulties.
Thailand	Lack of collaboration among sector and service providers, lack of participation among all people in communities, and lack of resources for instructional materials in small remote schools.
Viet Nam	Language for ethnic groups, low income of families, disease

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

9.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators

In all Mekong Sub-Region countries, the Gross Intake Ratio (GIR) in primary education was greater than 100% in 2000 and increased in 2005 in all countries for which data are available, as can be seen in Table 28.

Table 28: Gross Intake Ratio in Primary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	121.4	125.1	117.6	127.9	131.7	124.1
Lao PDR	117.2	124.2	110.0	120.7	125.4	115.7
Myanmar	133.2	130.6	135.9	137.6^{+1}	139.2^{+1}	135.9^{+1}
Thailand	109.5$^{**,-1}$	111.5$^{**,-1}$	107.4$^{**,-1}$	…	…	…
Viet Nam	§	§	§	§	§	§

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "+n" indicates data refer to n years after the reference year. "-n" indicates data refer to n years before the reference year. "**" indicates UIS estimation. "…" indicates no data available. "§" indicates that due to differences in population estimates used by the Ministry of Education and the UNPD, the UIS has decided not to publish this indicator.

Table 29: Net Intake Rate in Primary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	69.2	70.9	67.4	86.0	85.4	86.6
Lao PDR	55.9	56.5	55.3	62.7	63.4	62.0
Myanmar	96.7	94.8	98.7	…	…	…
Thailand	…	…	…	…	…	…
Viet Nam	§	§	§	§	§	§

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "…" indicates no data available. "§" indicates that due to differences in population estimates used by the Ministry of Education and the UNPD, the UIS has decided not to publish this indicator.

For those countries for which data are available, it can be seen that the Net Intake Rate (NIR) rose even more dramatically than did the GIR, as seen in Table 29. The Gross Enrolment Ratio for primary education was also over 100% in all countries and increased between 2000 and 2005 in all countries for which data are available, as shown in Table 30. There appears to have been significant progress in the Net Enrolment Rate, with Thailand showing ratios approaching 100%, as shown in Table 31.

Table 30: Gross Enrolment Ratio in Primary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	102.0	108.9	94.9	125.8	130.4	121.0
Lao PDR	108.9	117.4	100.1	114.6	121.7	107.2
Myanmar	104.3	104.4	104.2	114.4^{+1}	113.9^{+1}	115.0^{+1}
Thailand	106.4	106.9	105.9	107.9^{+1}	107.8^{+1}	107.9^{+1}
Viet Nam	§	§	§	§	§	§

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "+n" indicates data refer to n years after the reference year. "…" indicates no data available. "§" indicates that due to differences in population estimates used by the Ministry of Education and the UNPD, the UIS has decided not to publish this indicator.

Table 31: Net Enrolment Rate in Primary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	87.2**	90.9**	83.4**	96.5	97.1	95.9
Lao PDR	77.2	80.5	73.9	82.7	85.0	80.3
Myanmar	95.5	95.5	95.4	…	…	…
Thailand	…	…	…	98.9^{+1}	99.2^{+1}	98.6^{+1}
Viet Nam	§	§	§	§	§	§

Source: UISDC, February 2008.

Notes: "+n" indicates data refer to n years after the reference year. "**" indicates UIS estimation. "…" indicates no data available. "§" indicates that due to differences in population estimates used by the Ministry of Education and the UNPD, the UIS has decided not to publish this indicator.

The GER at secondary level varies considerably in the Mekong Sub-Region, with each country gaining some 10 percentage points between 2000 and 2005, as shown in Table 32 and Figure 5 (see also Map 3, page 62). The NER showed gains of some 8-10 points between 2000 and 2005, as shown in Table 33 (see also Map 4, page 63).

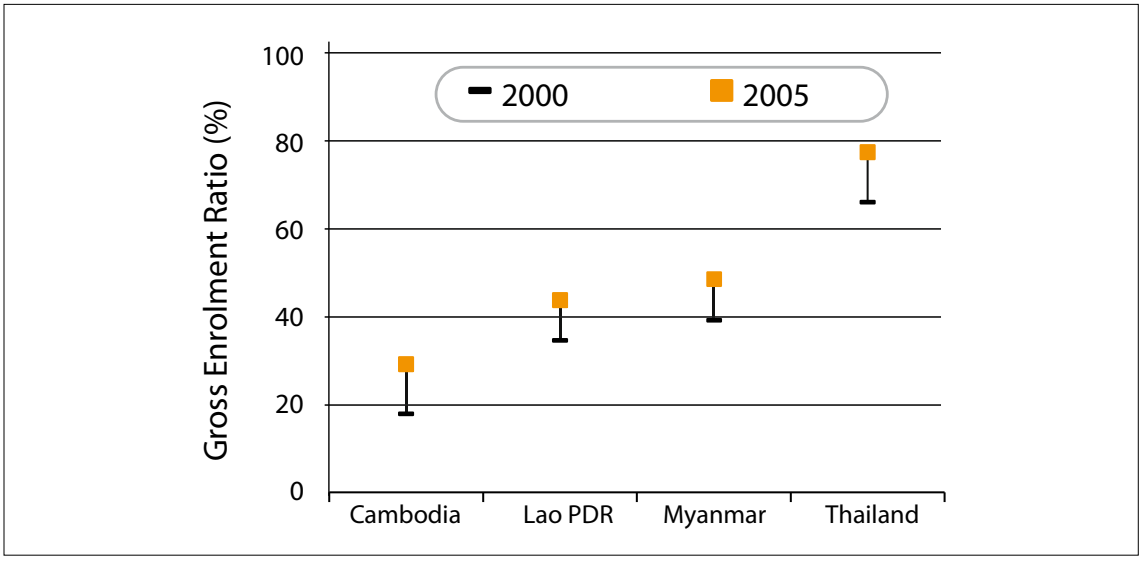
Table 32: Gross Enrolment Ratio in Secondary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	18.0	23.1	12.7	29.4$^{**,-1}$	34.7$^{**,-1}$	24.0$^{**,-1}$
Lao PDR	34.9	41.0	28.8	44.1	50.1	38.0
Myanmar	39.5	38.0	40.9	49.0^{+1}	49.1^{+1}	48.9^{+1}
Thailand	66.6^{+1}	67.4$^{**,+1}$	65.9$^{**,+1}$	78.1^{+1}	74.8^{+1}	81.5^{+1}
Viet Nam	§	§	§	§	§	§

Source: UISDC, February 2008.

Notes: "+n" indicates data refer to n years after the reference year. "-n" indicates data refer to n years before the reference year. "**" indicates UIS estimation. "…" indicates no data available. "§" indicates that due to differences in population estimates used by the Ministry of Education and the UNPD, the UIS has decided not to publish this indicator.

Figure 5: Gross Enrolment Ratio in Secondary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region



Source: UISDC, February 2008.

Table 33: Net Enrolment Rate in Secondary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	16.2	20.7	11.6	23.9**	26.0**	21.9**
Lao PDR	28.1	31.4	24.6	35.6	38.4	32.7
Myanmar	35.3	34.1	36.4	45.7^{+1}	45.8^{+1}	45.6^{+1}
Thailand	…	…	…	71.0^{+1}	67.5^{+1}	74.7^{+1}
Viet Nam	§	§	§	§	§	§

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "+n" indicates data refer to n years after the reference year. "**" indicates UIS estimation. "…" indicates no data available. "§" indicates that due to differences in population estimates used by the Ministry of Education and the UNPD, the UIS has decided not to publish this indicator.

Although there have been considerable quantitative gains at both primary and secondary level, there are substantial inefficiencies in Cambodia and Lao PDR, where the repetition rates are extraordinarily high. In Cambodia, repetition rates fell somewhat between 2000 and 2005, but in Lao PDR the high repetition rates remained unchanged, as can be seen in Table 34. At the secondary level, repetition rates are low and relatively uniform across the Sub-Region, as seen in Table 35.

Table 34: Repeaters in Primary Education (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	22.2**	23.1**	21.1**	13.8	15.1	12.4
Lao PDR	19.8	21.2	18.0	19.2	20.3	17.9
Myanmar	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5^{+1}	0.5^{+1}	0.5^{+1}
Thailand	3.5^{-1}	3.4^{-1}	3.5^{-1}	…	…	…
Viet Nam	3.3	3.8	2.8	…	…	…

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "+n" indicates data refer to n years after the reference year. "-n" indicates data refer to n years before the reference year. "**" indicates UIS estimation. "…" indicates no data available.

Table 35: Repeaters in Secondary Education (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	2.6**	3.1**	1.7**	4.2	5.2	2.9
Lao PDR	2.5	3.3	1.2	2.7	3.6	1.6
Myanmar	2.6	2.5	2.7	1.7^{+1}	1.8^{+1}	1.6^{+1}
Thailand	…	…	…	…	…	…
Viet Nam	1.7	2.3	1.1	1.0	1.9**$^{,-2}$	0.7**$^{,-2}$

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "+n" indicates data refer to n years after the reference year. "-n" indicates data refer to n years before the reference year. "**" indicates UIS estimation. "…" indicates no data available.

In summary, the quantitative UPE/UBE targets for 2007 have been met where they have been specified, and UPE/UBE targets for 2015 are expected to be met, as reported in Table 36.

Table 36: Status of Targets for Provision of UPE/UBE Core Indicators, 2007 and 2015

Country	Status of UPE/UBE 2007 Targets	Status of UPE/UBE 2015 Targets
Cambodia	NER for primary education is 91.3%; NER for UBE is 31.3%; no specific target is reported.	
Lao PDR	No specific 2005/06 or 2006/07 targets have been set.	Yes, targets likely to be met.
Myanmar	Almost all 2005 targets achieved.	Targets set for 2015 likely to be achieved.
Thailand	All	Yes, targets very likely to be achieved.
Viet Nam	Core Indicators for 2007 have been met.	It is likely the targets for 2015 will be met.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

9.3 Analysis of Disparities in Goal Two

9.3.1 Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality in Goal Two

Gender parity in NIR for primary education reportedly has been reached in most of the countries in the Mekong Sub-Region, as shown in Table 37, and gender parity in the NER is close. There is insufficient evidence to draw conclusions about the lower secondary level.

Table 37: Gender Parity Index for Intake and Enrolment Indicators, 2005/06, Sub-Region

Country	Primary				Secondary			
	GIR	NIR	GER	NER	GIR	NIR	GER	NER
Cambodia	0.90	0.98	0.92	0.96	0.93	…	0.83	0.95
Lao PDR	0.91	0.98	0.88	0.94	…	…	0.81	1.02
Myanmar	1.03	1.00	0.99	0.99	…	…	0.99	0.99

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.
Note: "…" indicates no data available.

In all countries, current policies and programmes are regarded as having been adequate for the equitable distribution of UPE/UBE, as reported in Table 38.

Table 38: Current Policies and Programmes for Equitable Provision of UPE/UBE

Country	Have the current policies and programmes been adequate for the equitable provision of quality UPE/UBE?
Cambodia	(a) Child Friendly School Policy drafted in 2006; (b) Inclusive Education Policy drafted in 2006; (c) New Basic Education Curriculum (Grade 1-9) issued in 2006; and (d) Curriculum standards for Grades 3, 6 and 9 issued in 2006.
Lao PDR	Yes, Lao PDR has made great progress particularly in primary education, which is beginning to result in the need for more provision of lower secondary education nationwide.
Myanmar	Yes. For example, opening more schools in border, remote and mountainous areas; recruiting local teachers; special curriculum for inclusive education.
Thailand	Yes, the current policies and programmes are adequate for the equitable provision of quality UPE/UBE.
Viet Nam	Yes, MOET decision on inclusive education

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

9.3.2 Progress in Improving the Quality of Goal Two

The decade of 2001-2010 will probably come to be viewed as the turning point in balance of emphasis in educational policy from quantitative development to qualitative development. In most countries in the Mekong Sub-Region, significant policies related to quality improvement in basic education were drafted and projects initiated several years into the decade. The main impact of these developments will be felt in the latter half of the decade.

In Cambodia, for example, the Child-Friendly School Policy and the Inclusive Education Policy were drafted in 2006. A new basic education curriculum (Grades 1-9) was issued in 2006.

In Lao PDR, textbooks and teachers' guides have been revised, and greater capacity has been developed to manage the cycle of textbook production and distribution. Capacity for the national assessment of student learning outcomes was developed in 2006-2007, and a permanent national assessment system will be established to monitor achievement of basic competencies.

In Viet Nam, professional standards for primary school teachers were piloted in 2006 and implemented nationwide in 2007. Fundamental school quality level (FSQL) policy was issued in 2007. The school consolidation programme started in 2003; the first phase was completed in 2006, and the second phase began in 2007 and will continue until 2010.

9.3.3 Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached" and "Under-served"

Reaching the "unreached" has involved a variety of innovative approaches. In Cambodia, bilingual classes have helped reach ethno-linguistic minorities. In Myanmar, mobile schools are used for children in remote communities. School feeding programmes, sometimes targeted especially on girls and their families, are used in several countries to cover the opportunity costs of sending girls to school. Training of female teachers from ethnic communities is also used in several countries, as are scholarships targeted for poor and disadvantaged students.

9.3.4 Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving Goal Two

In summary, considerable progress has been made in reaching the UPE/UBE goals, as reported in Table 39. This progress has been supported by "best practices", some of which are reported in Table 40.

Table 39: Progress Achieved in Reaching the UPE/UBE Goal

Country	What progress has been achieved in reaching the goal?					
Cambodia	(a) Number of schools, classes, students and teachers increased significantly at both primary and lower secondary levels; and (b) Introduction of PAP increased admission rate, enrolment rate, and transition rate from primary to lower secondary school					
Lao PDR	Expansion of primary education has been dramatic. Between 1995 and 2000, the primary school age population, in the face of declining fertility rates, increased by 8.6%. Primary school enrolment rose during the same period by 25%. Between 1991/92 and 2005/06, GER rose from 97% to 116%, while NER rose from 59% to 84%. Substantial progress has been made toward gender parity. Nearly all indicators showed movement toward gender parity.					
Myanmar	Targets and Achievements for 2005					
	Indicator	Target	Achieved	Indicator	Target	Achieved
	GIR	108%	105.6%	NIR	95%	97.6%
	Qualified teachers	96%	97%	PTR primary	32:1	30:1
	Promotion Rate Grade 1	82.5%	86.6%	Certified teachers primary	95%	97.7%
	Promotion Rate Grade 5	99%	99%			
Thailand	Have met all UPE/UBE goals					
Viet Nam	(a) The net enrolment at primary and lower secondary level have met the targets for 2007; and (b) Training qualification standards for teaching staff have improved.					

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Table 40: Best Practices in Reaching the UPE/UBE Goal

Country	What are examples of best practices?
Cambodia	(a) School Readiness programme found effective in reducing repetition and drop out rates and increasing promotion rate and school attendance in Grade 1; (b) Child Friendly School programme improved the quality of education, effectiveness of teaching, and classroom environment.
Lao PDR	The increase in the proportion of students and teachers from disadvantaged ethnic groups in primary school has been even more dramatic than the overall increases in enrolments. Indeed, virtually the entire increase in primary school enrolment in the past half-decade is due to enrolment of ethnic group students.
Myanmar	(a) Mobile schools, using the same curriculum, same duration as the formal education system. Teachers may be recruited from the formal schools or from the community and may move along with children as parents migrate to a new place of employment; (b) Inclusive Education for children with disabilities, introduced in the Education College Curriculum in 2005; (c) Child Friendly School (CFS) approach is a key strategy of the EFA National Action Plan to increase children's access to quality Basic Education, which began in partnership with UNICEF in 2001; (d) Special programmes for over-aged children in primary classes were implemented in 2003/04 at basic education schools. The accelerated programme enables children of age 7+ or 8+ to complete primary education in three years and those of age 9+ to complete primary education in two years; (e) Introduction of post-primary schools providing more access to disadvantaged children to be able to continue to secondary education; and (f) Voluntary night schools are opened, especially for the children who cannot attend schools at school hours.
Thailand	For UBE, the community is involved in fund-raising, it supports procurement of teaching aids, and is involved in school councils. Some communities helps provide school lunch programme, some arrange public libraries and provide resource persons.
Viet Nam	Involve participation of family and community to enrol children in school.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

9.4 Remaining Challenges and Issues in the Mekong Sub-Region

In general in the Mekong Sub-Region, the greatest progress has been in the quantitative expansion of primary and lower secondary education. The remaining quantitative challenges are to finally reach universalization of primary schooling and to expand lower secondary schooling. The greatest challenge in Cambodia and Lao PDR, however, is to improve the quality and relevance of primary schooling and reduce the alarmingly high repetition rate. Further elaboration on remaining challenges is shown in Table 41.

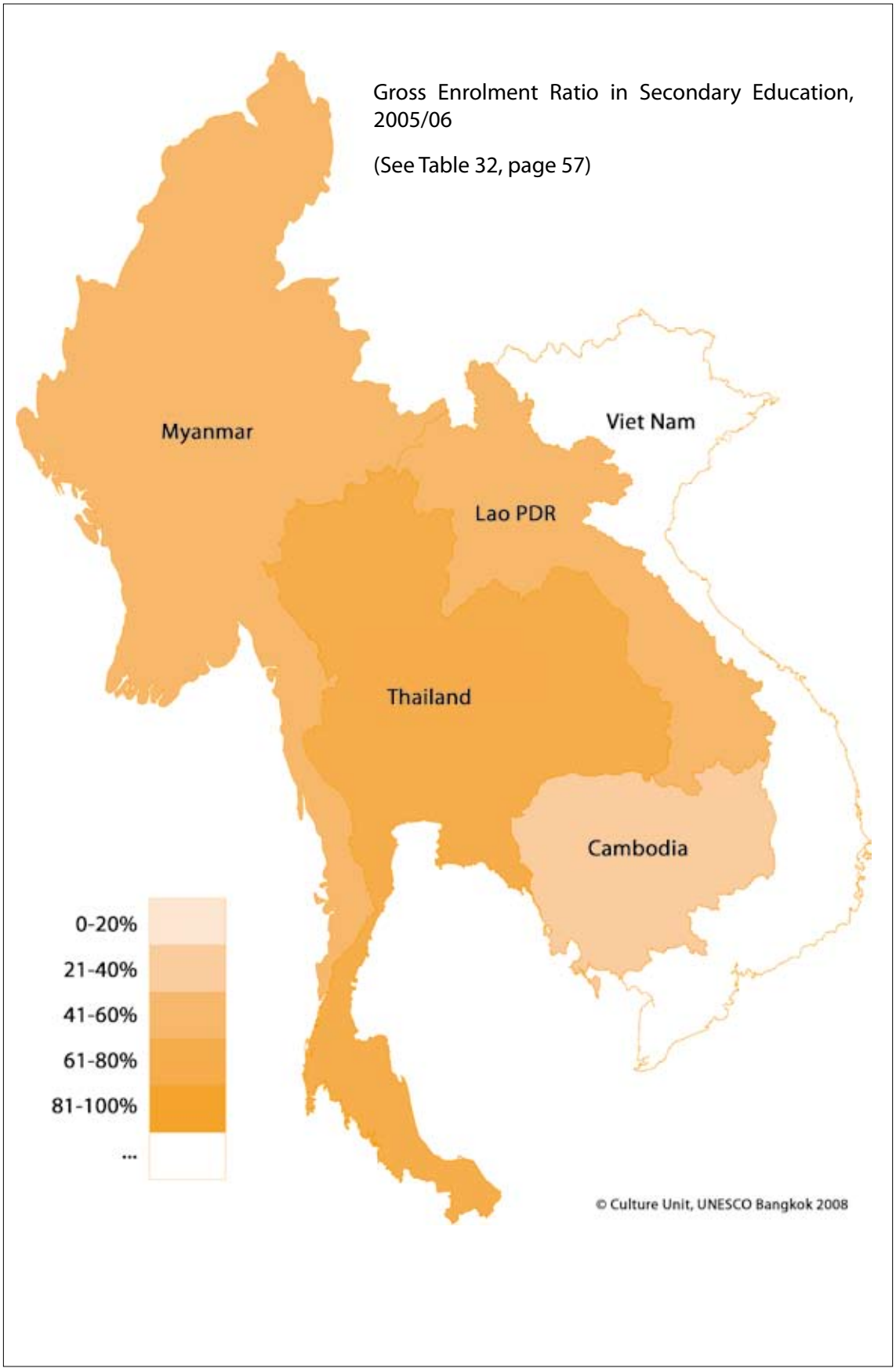
Table 41: Remaining Challenges and Issues to be Addressed

Country	What are remaining challenges and issues to be addressed?
Cambodia	(a) School enrolment still low among disadvantaged population including remote, disadvantaged ethnic groups, poor and disabled children; (b) High repetition rate at primary level, especially at lower grades; and (c) High dropout rate at upper primary and lower secondary levels.
Lao PDR	(a) There is a qualitative challenge with both primary and secondary education; (b) The informal "promotion" of qualified primary school teachers into lower secondary teaching, and qualified lower secondary school teachers into upper secondary teaching; and (c) The success of the universalization of primary schooling will increase the pressure for expansion of the secondary school system, beginning with lower secondary and continuing into upper secondary.
Myanmar	(a) There are many children, aged 5-14 who are unable to study full time in the formal system because they must work assisting their families or have no access to schools; (b) A law or policy must be developed so that employers take responsibility for education of children from migrant families; (c) Strengthening the Education Management Information System (EMIS) at township and school level; and (d) The network of private donors in Myanmar needs to be expanded.
Thailand	Try to arrange concept of basic education into 12 years compulsory, free of charge.
Viet Nam	(a) The performances of students have to be improved; (b) Increasing the professional qualification of teaching staff; (c) Improving the schools infrastructures; and (d) Modernizing school management.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

9.5 Mekong Sub-Region Thematic Maps

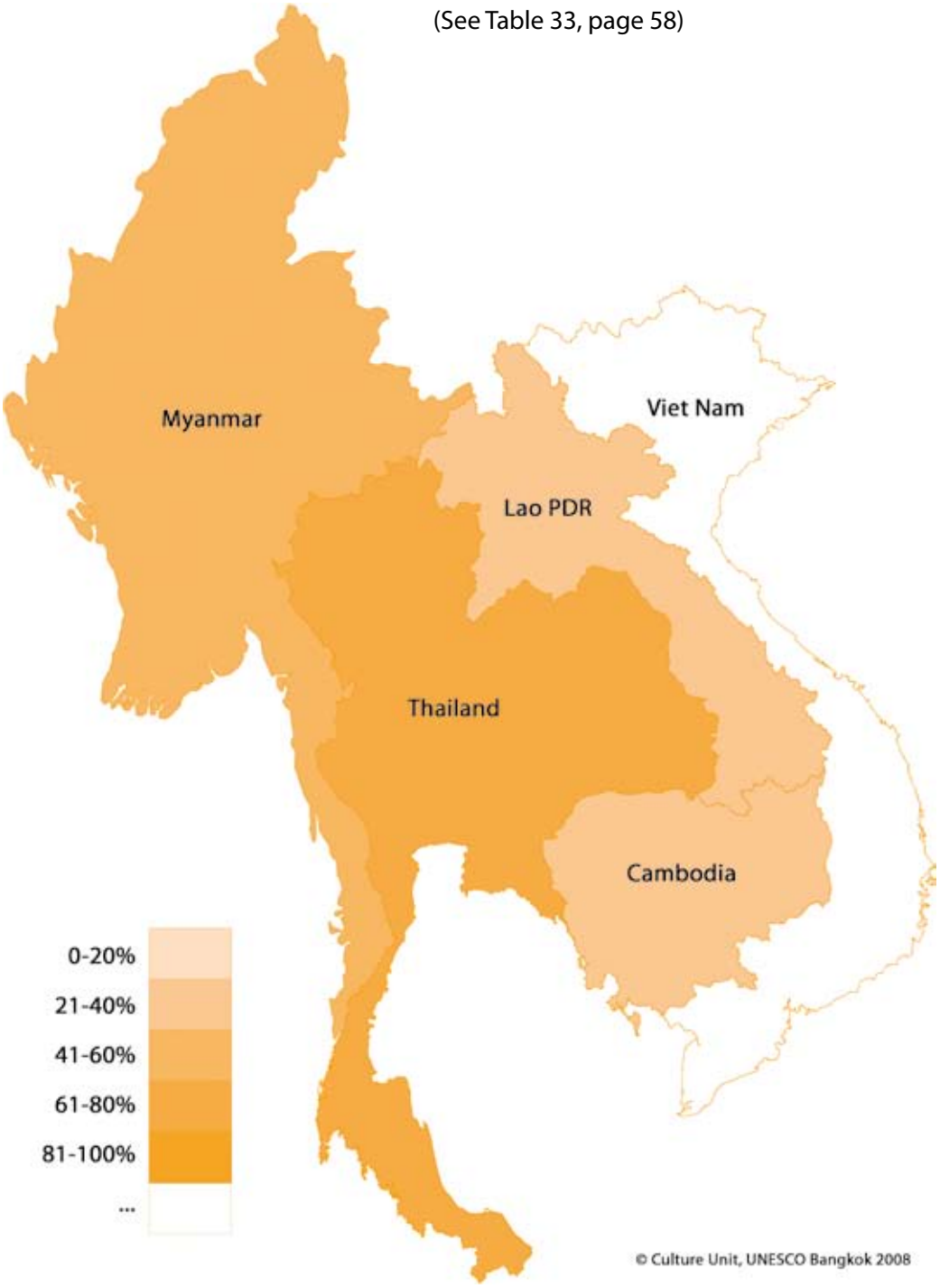
Map 3: Mekong Sub-Region Map – GER in Secondary Education, 2005/06



Map 4: Mekong Sub-Region Map – NER in Secondary Education, 2005/06

Net Enrolment Rate in Secondary Education, 2005/06

(See Table 33, page 58)



10. Goal Three: Life Skills and Lifelong Learning

10.1 Background and Development of Goal Three

10.1.1 Definition of Goal Three

The definition of "life skills" varies widely across the Mekong Sub-Region. Generally, the definitions centre on skills needed to improve the quality of daily life, including income generation skills, basic health care and disease prevention, inter-personal skills, preservation of the environment, and civic consciousness. Further elaboration is reported in Table 42.

Table 42: Definitions of Life Skills and Lifelong Learning

Country	How are "life skills" defined in your country?
Cambodia	Skills needed by each individual to use in his/her daily life. Those skills include family life skills, economic and income generating skills, knowledge of the environment, knowledge and skills on basic health care and HIV/AIDS prevention and civic consciousness.
Lao PDR	Life skills are defined as knowledge and abilities needed by the people or learners to improve their quality of life (e.g., basic vocational and rural skills)
Myanmar	Life skills education aims to develop knowledge, attitudes, and skills which enable children to use psycho-social competencies and inter-personal skills such as decision making, communication skills, inter-personal relationships, empathy, critical and creative thinking, coping with emotion and stress and fostering self-esteem and self-expression have been incorporated into lessons.
Thailand	(a) Life skills: Skill of living in the current situation, e.g. healthy living, preservation of the environment, helping the community, work skills like good behaviour, no drugs; and (b) Vocational: Good practice, labour market skills.
Viet Nam	Skills for income generation and skills in social life in economic market. Lifelong learning: People can learn any time, anywhere, based on needs of the learner.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

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

In all countries in the Mekong Sub-Region there is national policy and legislation for life skills, non-formal education (NFE), and Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET), as reported in Table 43.

Table 43: National Legislation for the Provision of Life Skills and Lifelong Learning

Country	Is there national policy and legislation for life skills, non-formal education, and Technical and Vocational Education and Training?
Cambodia	For formal, the Policy for Curriculum Development 2005-2009 issued in 2004. For NFE: National Policy for Non-formal Education issued in 2002 and National Non-formal Education Action Plan issued in 2003.
Lao PDR	(a) Strategy Paper for the Development of the Vocational Education System of 1997; (b) The Vocational Training Act, 1998; (c) National Training Council Decree, 2002; (d) National Training Council: Roles and Rules Decree; (e) Vocational Education Development Centre Decree; (f) Trade Working Groups Decree, 2003; (g) Integrated Vocational Education and Training System (IVETS) Decree, 2003; and (h) Policy and Strategy Development of Technical and Vocational Education and Training 2005-2020, 2006.
Myanmar	Myanmar's policies on life skills and lifelong education are focused on school children, out-of-school young people and adults, but priority is given to poor children, children from remote, border and mountainous areas, children with disabilities, children from migrant families, and orphans.

Thailand	Government has adopted a policy of strengthening production and development of manpower of quality. With the economic expansion in Thailand during the new decade, the demand for personnel with experience and special skills has been rising. A Committee for Increased National Competitiveness has been appointed and entrusted with the tasks of formulating policy and strategy for increasing national competitiveness, as well as strengthening production and the private sector.
Viet Nam	(a) Strategic document for provision of life skills and lifelong learning; (b) Government programme for development of the learning society; and (c) Also government decision on development of CLCs.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

There are generally two population targets for life skills and lifelong learning programmes. Some programmes are targeted on youth, the definition of which varies considerably. Other programmes target adults, the lower bound of which varies but which has no formal upper bound in age, as reported in Table 44.

Table 44: Target Population for Life Skills and Lifelong Learning Programmes

Country	Who are the target populations for life skills and lifelong learning programmes?
Cambodia	Youth and adult literacy: 15-24 years old and 15+.
Lao PDR	The strategy is to concentrate its actions on young adults, especially school drop outs and ethnic group women and girls in the poorest districts who are motivated to acquire skills for income generating activities.
Myanmar	Life skills programme: age 6-15; Out-of-schools programme: age 10-17; EXCEL project TVET: age 15+; NFE age 10+.
Thailand	There are three target populations for lifelong learning: (a) Workers in enterprises, factories, or agencies; (b) Those engaged in independent occupations and general workers such as farmers, fishermen and housewives, who constitute a major target group requiring facilities for access to lifelong learning services; and (c) The elderly who need informal education and learning required for self-adaptation, enabling them to lead a life of quality, happiness and providing benefits to society in accord with their age level.
Viet Nam	Target groups are those who are unable to enter the formal education system or who need support to increase their income.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

10.1.3 Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Children

In all countries in the Mekong Sub-Region, there are specific strategies and programmes for the provision of life skills to disadvantaged target groups, as reported in Table 45. There is substantial diversity, however, and there appears to be little commonality. One of the most interesting programmes is the Thai approach of providing vouchers or credits especially for the disadvantaged to allow them access to education and training as appropriate.

Table 45: Strategies and Programmes for Life Skills, NFE and TVET for the Disadvantaged

Country	Are there specific strategies and programmes for the provision of life skills education, NFE, and TVET for disadvantaged groups?
Cambodia	(a) Community Learning Centres; (b) Mobile School Vehicle; (c) Life skills for HIV/AIDS Education Programme; (d) Local life skills programme; (e) Vocational training programme for disabled women and children; and (f) Technical training programmes.
Lao PDR	The EFA Programme 5 covers skills development programme for disadvantaged groups. Skills development, together with other support activities (improved technologies, product development, development of market linkages, etc.) is crucial to diversify production, enhance product quality, and increase productivity. Interventions should focus on assisting the rural poor to diversify their activities and gradually move out of low-return income generation activities.
Myanmar	The overall relevant strategy under the EFA NAP is "Enhancing Literacy and Continuing Education through NFE." Further strategies encompassing disadvantaged groups include: (a) Improving quality of life skills curriculum; (b) Ensuring all school children receive skill-based learning approach; (c) Increasing partnership and sustainability; (d) Increasing community participation; and (e) Increasing lifelong education.
Thailand	Setting a voucher or credit system for promoting lifelong learning of individuals, especially the disadvantaged, in order to allow all target groups to access informal education services, training, and learning as appropriate and on equitable basis.
Viet Nam	Yes, there are.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

The main barriers to the provision of NFE and TVET to disadvantaged people appear to be limited resources, in terms of facilities, teachers, and instructional materials, as reported in Table 46.

Table 46: Barriers to NFE and TVET for Disadvantaged Groups

Country	What are the barriers to NFE and TVET for disadvantaged groups?
Cambodia	Physical facilities constraints, limited budget, lack of teachers, parent's poverty
Myanmar	Low income, insufficient teachers, insufficient time in school
Viet Nam	The poor provisions from commune learning centre. Need to strengthen the service capacity of CLCs.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

10.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators

Youth literacy figures for the period after 2000 are available for only two countries, namely Cambodia and Lao PDR – the two countries reporting the lowest level of youth literacy. In these two countries, youth literacy rates rose by some 7 percentage points, as shown in Table 47 and Figure 6.

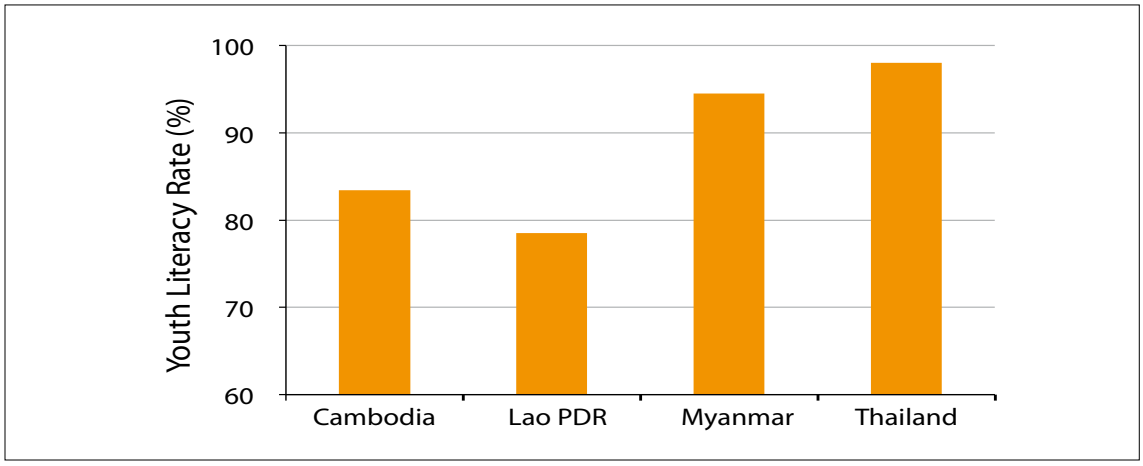
Table 47: Youth Literacy Rate (Age 15-24), 1995-2000 and After 2000, Sub-Region

Country	Between 1995 and 2000					After 2000				
	Year	Total	Male	Female	GPI	Year	Total	Male	Female	GPI
Cambodia	1998	76.3	81.1	71.1	0.88	2004	83.4	87.9	78.9	0.90
Lao PDR	1995	71.1	78.8	64.1	0.81	2001	78.5	82.6	74.7	0.90
Myanmar	2000	94.5	95.7	93.4	0.98		…	…	…	…
Thailand	2000	98.0	98.1	97.8	1.00		…	…	…	…
Viet Nam		§	§	§			…	…	…	…

Source: UISDC, February 2008.

Notes: "…" indicates no data available. "§" indicates that due to differences in population estimates used by the Ministry of Education and the UNPD, the UIS has decided not to publish this indicator.

Figure 6: Youth Literacy Rate (Age 15-24), Latest Year, Sub-Region



Source: UISDC, February 2008.

Table 48: Enrolment in Secondary TVET (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000	2005
Cambodia	2.3	2.4**,-1
Lao PDR	1.4	1.5
Myanmar	…	…
Thailand	15.3+1	15.5+1
Viet Nam	2.3	4.7

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "+n" indicates data refer to n years after the reference year. "-n" indicates data refer to n years before the reference year. "**" indicates UIS estimation. "…" indicates no data available.

Enrolment in secondary level technical and vocational education and training, as a proportion of total secondary level enrolment, is relatively low in the four Mekong countries for which data are available except Thailand, as can be seen in Table 48 (see also Map 5, page 70). In Viet Nam, the proportion of secondary students in TVET doubled between 2000 and 2005, while in Cambodia and Lao PDR the proportion remained virtually unchanged.

The transition rate from primary to general secondary school rose between 2000 and 2005 in all countries for which data are available. Viet Nam, which had the highest rate in 2000, showed a small increase, while Cambodia, Lao PDR, and Myanmar showed a modest but significant rise, as shown in Table 49.

Table 49: Transition Rate from Primary to General Secondary, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	76.4	80.8	70.4	82.2-1	84.0-1	80.2-1
Lao PDR	73.7	75.9	70.9	78.0-1	80.1-1	75.5-1
Myanmar	66.0	66.8	65.2	71.7**,-1	72.3**,-1	71.0**,-1
Thailand	…	…	…	…	…	…
Viet Nam	93.0	94.0	92.0	94.6-4	94.8-4	94.4-4

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "+n" indicates data refer to n years after the reference year. "-n" indicates data refer to n years before the reference year. "**" indicates UIS estimation. "…" indicates no data available.

10.3 Analysis of Disparities in Goal Three

10.3.1 Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality in Goal Three

As can be seen in Table 47, gender parity in youth literacy rates had already been achieved by 2000 in Myanmar and Thailand, and the GPI rose significantly over the measurement periods in Cambodia and Lao PDR.

The current policies are considered to have been adequate for the equitable provision of TVET and NFE, as reported in Table 50.

Table 50: Current Policies and Programmes for Equitable Provision of TVET and NFE

Country	Have the current policies and programmes been adequate for the equitable provision of quality TVET and NFE?
Cambodia	Yes
Myanmar	Yes. Myanmar's policies on life skills and lifelong education are focused on out-of-school youth and adults, but priority is given to poor children, children from remote, border, and mountainous areas, children with disabilities, children from migrant families, and orphans.
Viet Nam	Yes

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

10.3.2 Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving Goal Three

Apart from modest quantitative improvement, progress has been slow in the development of the provision of life skills and lifelong learning. In Cambodia, there has been quantitative expansion, improvement in efficiency, and improvements in meeting gender equity goals, as reported in Table 51. Myanmar also reported significant qualitative improvement. The expanded role of the private sector in the provision of a wide range of education and training programmes to meet social demand is common throughout the Mekong Sub-Region.

Some "best practices" for provision of life skills and lifelong learning have emerged, as reported in Table 52. Part of the progress made in Cambodia is due to the Priority Action Programme, a multi-donor supported programme that channels funds directly to schools. Combining literacy training with skill training is another factor contributing to raising literacy rates among youth. In Lao PDR, a major development in vocational and technical education and training is the linkage of TVET to labour market demand.

Table 51: Progress Achieved in Reaching the TVET and NFE Goal

Country	What progress has been achieved in reaching the goal?
Cambodia	Improvement in quantity: (a) The Priority Action Programme (PAP) budget supported the operation of 42 skills training institutions and 30 CLCs and CLC-based training programmes; (b) Participation of private schools in skills training increased in areas such as language, computer, electronic repair, and training for tourist guides; Improvement in efficiency: (c) Inter-ministerial coordination and cooperation improved; (d) There has been good cooperation with NGOs, who are important partners in vocational training; and Meeting cross-cutting goals: (e) Vocational training is conducted with gender mainstreaming in the needs analysis of skills on a regular basis.
Myanmar	Improvement in quality: (a) Knowledge gained among students, and attitudes and behaviours changed positively; (b) Increased awareness among students on preventive health measures with regard to HIV/AIDS, STIs, drug abuse and smoking; (c) Improved nutrition knowledge, personal hygiene, decision making and social skills among students; (d) Eagerness among parents to learn more about HIV/AIDS and higher acceptance level of open discussion of the epidemic; and (e) Satisfaction among teachers, parents, students and communities on increased knowledge on health and social issues.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Table 52: Best Practices in Reaching the TVET and NFE Goal

Country	What are examples of best practices?
Cambodia	(a) PAP budget allocated to support the operation of 33 skills training institutions in Phnom Penh and nine institutions in provinces; (b) The number of CLCs and CLC-based training programmes increased; (c) The coverage of literacy combined with skills training programmes for out-of-school youth expanded; (d) Private schools participation increased in skills training in areas such as language, computer, and electronic repair; and (e) Inter-ministerial coordination/cooperation improved.
Lao PDR	The success of vocational and technical education and training is based on the policy development done mainly since the beginning of the decade, which links TVET to labour market demand through the establishment of the National Vocational Training Council.
Viet Nam	Roughly 70% of communes have a CLC.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

10.4 Remaining Challenges and Issues in the Mekong Sub-Region

A most frequently cited challenge is insufficient resources, but there are many other remaining challenges, as reported in Table 53. There remain social disparities – gender, urban/rural/remote location, rich and poor. There also remains the challenge of linking life skills training and lifelong learning more closely to the needs of individuals and to labour market demand.

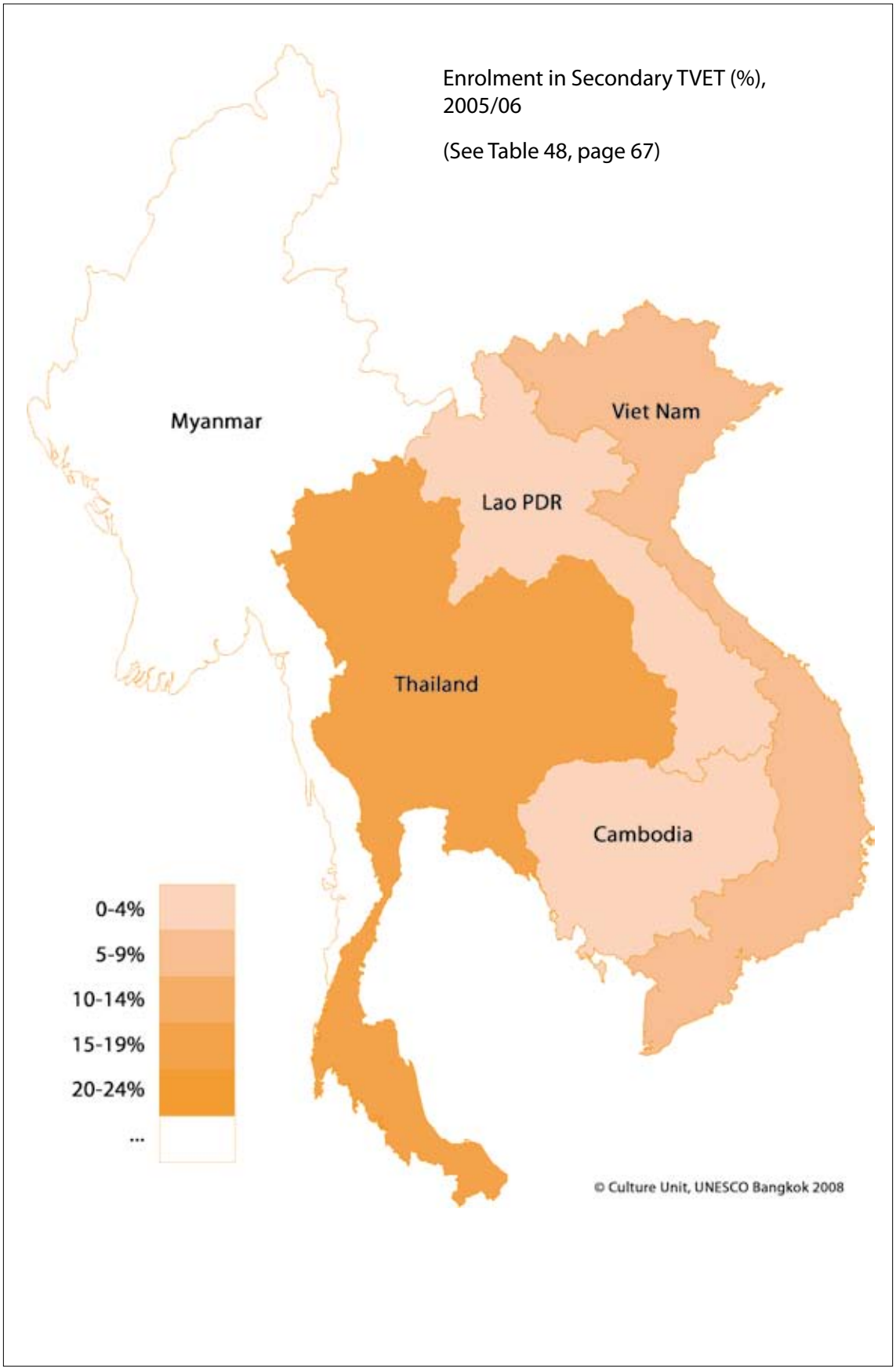
Table 53: Remaining Challenges and Issues to be Addressed

Country	What are remaining challenges and issues to be addressed?
Cambodia	(a) Insufficient budget to expand skills training programmes to needy population; (b) Disparities in terms of the coverage of skills training programmes between men and women, urban and rural/remote areas, and rich and poor; (c) Training programmes sometimes do not match the real needs of trainees as well the job market demands; (d) Locally available human resources and materials yet to be fully utilized; and (e) The cooperation/coordination between different departments and ministries need to be further improved to ensure better coherence and synergy among different skills training programmes.
Lao PDR	(a) Revision and development of TVET programmes serving today's labour market as well as tomorrows, including skills and competence based curricula and lifelong learning opportunities; (b) Changing the concept of TVET to be lifelong and oriented to changing labour market demand; and (c) Development of "gender neutral" and "inclusive" TVET programmes.
Myanmar	(a) Capacity building in programme development and coordination management; (b) Development of upgraded learner-oriented functional life skills and literacy programmes; (c) Shortages of human, funds, materials and time resources, at all levels; (d) Difficulty of regular monitoring and evaluation in remote, border and mountainous areas, particularly during the rainy season; and (e) Traditional concepts and beliefs.
Viet Nam	Increasing the effectiveness of CLC activities.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

10.5 Mekong Sub-Region Thematic Maps

Map 5: Mekong Sub-Region Map – Enrolment in Secondary TVET (%), 2005/06



11. Goal Four: Literacy

11.1 Background and Development of Goal Four

11.1.1 Definition of Goal Four

There is no single definition of literacy either within or between the countries in the Mekong Sub-Region, as shown in Table 54. Instead there are varying general understandings, with varying age ranges, and sometimes including basic numeracy. Similarly there are different approaches to measuring literacy, sometimes self-reporting and sometimes testing, as reported in Table 55. In some cases, only the national language is covered, and in other cases one or more minority language is covered, as reported in Table 56.

Table 54: Definitions of Literacy

Country	What is the official definition of "literacy" in your country?
Cambodia	The ability to read and write with understanding a simple statement related to one's daily life. It involves a continuum of reading and writing skills, and often includes also basic arithmetic skills (numeracy).
Lao PDR	There is no single agreed definition of literacy.
Myanmar	Basic literacy aims at giving illiterates sufficient command of mechanisms of reading, writing, and elementary arithmetic to afford access to the written or printed word.
Thailand	(a) The national census defines literacy as the ability to both read and write in any language from five years old onwards. If someone can read but not write then they are still defined as literate but with a low level of literacy; and (b) According to Committees under the Department of Community Development, Ministry of Interior that is working on policy related to Thai quality of life, the definition of a literate person is a someone between the ages of 15 and 60 years old who is able to read and write in Thai and is also able to perform simple calculations and solve basic mathematical problems.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Table 55: Measurement of Literacy

Country	How is literacy measured in your country?
Cambodia	(a) The Assessment of the Functional Literacy Levels of the Adult Population in Cambodia. May 2000, Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport supported by UNDP and UNESCO; (b) Annual Progress Report 2006 on National Strategic Development Plan 2006-2010 based on CMDG (Planning Ministry); and (c) Annual Education Congress Report, Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport.
Lao PDR	There have been several different approaches to assess literacy: (a) Self reported literacy; (b) Tested basic literacy; and (c) Tested functional literacy
Myanmar	Household surveys were conducted on adults (age 15+) in 1996-2000. Literacy is assessed in township literacy programmes, and adjustments are made to the estimated literacy rate as registered illiterates become literate.
Thailand	It is measured in Thai using general questionnaires by the National Bureau of Statistics.
Viet Nam	By examination

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Table 56: Languages Measured

Country	In which language(s) is literacy measured?
Cambodia	Khmer
Lao PDR	Lao
Myanmar	Can be in the local language in remote national group communities
Thailand	For the national census, any language, but see Table 54 above.
Viet Nam	Vietnamese

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

11.1.2 National Policies and Legislation for Provision and Coordination of Goal Four

There are non-formal literacy classes in all countries in the Mekong Sub-Region, and in some cases the local languages are used, as reported in Table 57. The policies on non-formal literacy instruction are considered adequate, and literacy training is offered by a wide range of organizations working in different sectors, as reported in Table 58.

Table 57: Status of Non-Formal Literacy Classes

Country	Are there non-formal literacy classes, with instructional materials, in local languages?
Cambodia	Some
Lao PDR	Yes
Myanmar	Yes, there are non-formal literacy classes with instructional materials in local languages.
Thailand	Local languages are used to facilitate learning in education institutions with Thai (local Malay) Muslim people in the South of the country and with hill tribe people living in the North. Also Khmer near the Cambodian border (many small language groups, but medium of instruction is Thai).
Viet Nam	Yes

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Table 58: Current Policies and Programmes for Equitable Provision of TVET and NFE

Country	Have the current policies and programmes been adequate for non-formal literacy courses?
Cambodia	Yes
Myanmar	Current policy and programmes have been adequate for non-formal literacy courses.
Thailand	Yes. Different sectors and many relevant agencies are involved in the implementation of programmes in line with the set targets and indicators.
Viet Nam	Yes

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

11.1.3 Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Groups

All countries have established strategies and non-formal programmes for provision of literacy training to disadvantaged groups, as reported in Table 59. There are three main barriers to implementation of the strategies, as recorded in Table 60: (a) Insufficient resources, including instructional materials and personnel; (b) Language of communication; and (c) Remoteness.

Table 59: Strategies and Non-Formal Literacy Programmes for Disadvantaged Groups

Country	Are they specific strategies and non-formal literacy programmes for disadvantaged groups?
Cambodia	(a) Adult Functional Literacy; (b) Community Learning Centre; (c) Equivalency Programme; (d) Re-entry programme; and (e) Bilingual Literacy Programme.
Lao PDR	Yes, see EFA NPA or EFA MDA report.
Myanmar	Yes, there are specific strategies and non-formal literacy programmes for disadvantaged groups: (a) Providing 3Rs programmes in remote and border areas; and (b) Opening more CLCs in rural, remote and border areas, providing non-formal primary education programmes for out-of-school children.
Thailand	Yes
Viet Nam	Yes

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Table 60: Barriers to Increasing Literacy Rates for Disadvantaged Groups

Country	What are the barriers to increasing literacy rates among disadvantaged groups?
Cambodia	Physical facilities constraints, limited budget, lack of teachers, poverty.
Lao PDR	Lack of reading materials to create culture of reading.
Myanmar	Language and communication barriers.
Thailand	It is especially difficult to increase literacy rates among the following two groups: (a) Children of migrant labourers who move from one construction site to another; and (b) Hill tribe children who live in inaccessible areas and are not registered as Thai citizens.
Viet Nam	Living conditions both income and geographical.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

11.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators

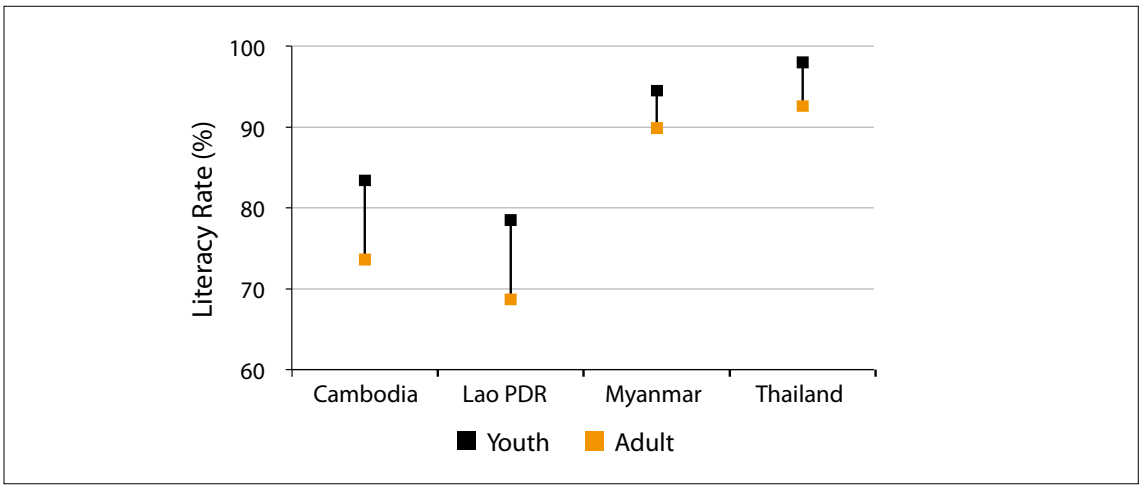
Although literacy measures after 2000 are not available in several Mekong countries, there is good reason to assume that adult literacy rates have risen, as shown in Table 61 for Cambodia and Lao PDR, the two countries with the lowest adult literacy rates. Figure 7 displays both the youth literacy (see Table 47) rate and the adult literacy rate (see also Map 6, page 76).

Table 61: Adult Literacy Rate (Age 15+), 1995-2000 and After 2000, Sub-Region

Country	Between 1995 and 2000					After 2000				
	Year	Total	Male	Female	GPI	Year	Total	Male	Female	GPI
Cambodia	1998	67.3	79.5	57.0	0.72	2004	73.6	84.7	64.1	0.76
Lao PDR	1995	60.3	73.5	47.9	0.65	2001	68.7	77.0	60.9	0.79
Myanmar	2000	89.9	93.9	86.4	0.92		…	…	…	…
Thailand	2000	92.6	94.9	90.5	0.95		…	…	…	…
Viet Nam		§	§	§	§		…	…	…	…

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "…" indicates no data available. "§" indicates that due to differences in population estimates used by the Ministry of Education and the UNPD, the UIS has decided not to publish this indicator.

Figure 7: Youth and Adult Literacy Rates, Latest Year, Sub-Region



Source: UISDC, February 2008.

In general, literacy targets for 2007 have been met, and targets for 2015 are expected to be met, as reported in Table 62.

Table 62: Status of Targets for Provision of Literacy, 2007 and 2015

Country	Status of Adult Literacy 2007 Targets	Status of Adult Literacy 2015 Targets
Cambodia	Literacy rate for age 15-24 years: 83.4% (2005) 84.7% (2006).	The targets sets for 2015 are likely to be achieved.
Myanmar	Targets set for 2007 for literacy core indicators have been met. All EFA targets for literacy and continuing education have been achieved.	The targets sets for 2015 are likely to be achieved.
Thailand	There has been a slight improvement in the literacy rate (in any language) from 99.3% in 2006 to 99.4% in 2007.	There is a possibility that the 2015 targets will be met.
Viet Nam	Yes	Yes

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

11.3 Analysis of Disparities in Goal Four

11.3.1 Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality in Goal Four

In summary, the GPI for youth and adult literacy in the Mekong Sub-Region are shown in Table 63.

Table 63: Gender Parity Index for Adult and Youth Literacy Rates, Latest Year, Sub-Region

Country	GPI for Youth Literacy	GPI for Adult Literacy
Cambodia	0.90 in 2004	0.76 in 2004
Lao PDR	0.88 in 2005/06	0.77 in 2005/06
Myanmar	0.96 in 2002 and 0.99 in 2005	0.99 in 2002 and 0.99 in 2005

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

11.3.2 Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving Goal Four

In general, progress has been made in raising literacy rates, especially in those countries which had the lowest literacy rates, as reported in Table 64. A number of "best practices" can be identified, as reported in Table 65. CLCs figure prominently in many successful literacy programmes. Myanmar reports a particularly successful programme targeted on remote and border areas.

Table 64: Progress Achieved in Reaching the Literacy Goal

Country	What progress has been achieved in reaching the goal?
Cambodia	(a) Enrolment increased significantly in the functional literacy programmes, especially females; (b) Number of CLC facilitators, trainers, and literacy teachers increased; (c) Number of donor partners supporting literacy programmes increased; (d) The coverage of literacy activities for disadvantaged population expanded including rural, poor and female population; (e) Those who have completed literacy programmes are actually utilizing the gained skills and knowledge to improve their daily life; and (f) The number of female and ethnic group teachers and trainers and literacy teachers increased.
Lao PDR	Over the recent decades, literacy rates have risen considerably among the population. This is largely a consequence of rising participation rates in primary education but to some extent also a consequence of adult NFE programmes. Gender disparity has also fallen.
Myanmar	Target for 2005 was 92.5%; achieved 94.1%.
Thailand	The adult literacy rate has increased from 99.3% in 2006 to 99.4% in 2007.
Viet Nam	The GPI in ethnic groups has significantly improved.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Table 65: Best Practices in Reaching the Literacy Goal

Country	What are examples of best practices?
Cambodia	(a) Enrolment in the functional literacy programmes increased significantly, especially females; (b) Number of CLC facilitators trainers and literacy teachers increased; (c) Number of donor partners supporting literacy programmes increased; (d) The coverage of literacy activities for disadvantaged population expanded including rural, poor and female population; (e) Those who have completed literacy programmes are actually utilizing the gained skills and knowledge to improve their daily life; and (f) The number of women and ethnic group trainers and literacy teachers increased.
Myanmar	(a) The Special 3R's Programme for Border Areas is critical for reaching the unreached because the border areas are very remote, and transportation and communications very difficult. The programme has made more than 65,000 people literate and numerate. It has run continuously since 1996. It is reviewed and modified each year based on experiences and expertise gained and on local needs; (b) The NFE Online Training of Trainers Programme uses 192 e-learning centres to conduct NFE training of trainers via a satellite broadcasting system; (c) The two-year Non-formal Primary Education (NFPE) Programme is equivalent to formal primary education in terms of relevant knowledge and skills for out-of-school children aged 10-14 who never enrolled or who dropped out; and (d) CLCs were introduced in 1995, using as venues school buildings, religious buildings such as zayats, monasteries, and other community buildings. The CLC can be used as an information centre, vocational training centre, discussion club, reading centre, library, cultural centre, or entertainment centre. There are 927 CLCs in Myanmar.
Thailand	Announcements in community newspaper, volunteer programmes, librarians assistance to practice reading, adult education programme offered in remote areas, literacy plus NFE basic education, evening schools.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

11.4 Remaining Challenges and Issues in the Mekong Sub-Region

Even though there has been significant success in spreading literacy, significant challenges remain, as reported in Table 66. One common problem is the estimation of the illiteracy rate. A second is the lack of instructional material and reading material for use after the training and for attempts to create a "culture of reading".

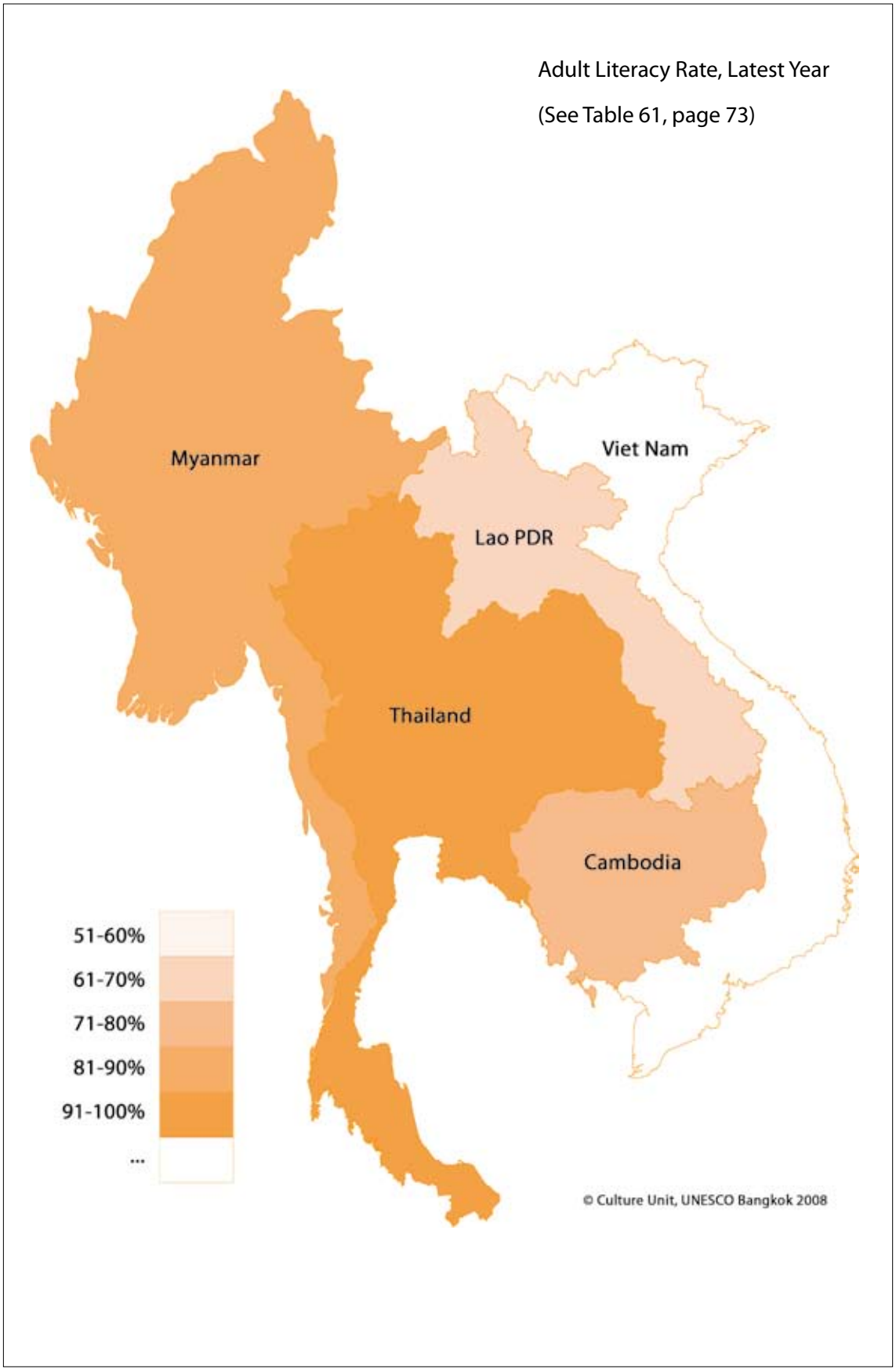
Table 66: Remaining Challenges and Issues to be Addressed

Country	What are remaining challenges and issues to be addressed?
Cambodia	(a) Irregular attendance of literacy class students due to many other engagements, either at home or at work; (b) Low level of and delayed payment of salaries for literacy teachers; and (c) Lack of classrooms and materials for literacy classes.
Lao PDR	Universalization of primary education will gradually lead to further declines in illiteracy rates, but sustained literacy will remain a challenge for many years to come. Low quality of primary schooling leads to low levels of secured literacy, and in an environment in which reading material is not widely available, relapsing into illiteracy is a risk. Efforts are made to promote a "culture of reading", but such a culture can only thrive in an environment in which interesting and attractive reading material for work, public information, and leisure enjoyment is widely available.
Myanmar	(a) Data collection difficulties; (b) Over-estimation cases; (c) Scanty studies of the relationship between literacy and continuing education; (d) Need to improve methods and procedures; (e) Promote non-formal primary education for children who cannot attend formal schools; and (f) Initiate non-formal secondary education for out-of-school children who complete non-formal primary education.
Thailand	(a) Low reliability of data on non-literate people; Lack of access to educational services for the target groups (children of migrant workers and hill tribe children); (b) Use of languages other than Thai in the Southern part of Thailand; and (c) Lack of coordination with regard to target groups, standard measures, and indicators.
Viet Nam	Substance of the achievement in literacy programme.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

11.5 Mekong Sub-Region Thematic Maps

Map 6: Mekong Sub-Region Map – Adult Literacy Rate, Latest Year



12. Goal Five: Gender Parity and Equality in Education

12.1 Background and Development of Goal Five

Definition of Goal Five. Goal Five is defined internationally as eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality.

National Policies and Legislation for Goal Five. All countries in the Mekong Sub-Region have national policy and legislation in support of gender equality, as reported in Table 67, and all countries have ratified the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW). All countries have strategies and programmes for achieving gender equality, as described in Table 68, and for achieving gender equality among disadvantaged groups, as reported in Table 69.

Table 67: Status of National Legislation for the Provision of Education for All Children

Country	Does national policy and legislation ensure gender equality?
Cambodia	(a) Gender Mainstreaming Strategic Plan 2002-2006 and 2006-2010 Ministry of Education, Youth and Sport; and (b) Education Strategic Plan and Education Sector Support Programme.
Lao PDR	Gender equality is reflected in the Constitution, which guarantees all citizens equality before the law, irrespective of sex, and equal rights in the political, economic, cultural, and social fields and family affairs. It is also reflected in major international commitments, CEDAW and CRC. The Education Law gives all citizens the right to education without discrimination for gender. The National Growth and Poverty Eradication Strategy (NGPES) establishes a gender mainstreaming strategy for poverty reduction.
Myanmar	National policy and legislation ensure gender equality. Women in Myanmar have equal rights with men in the political, economic, administrative, judicial, and social spheres, according to law.
Thailand	Thailand has national policy and legislation to ensure gender equality. The National Education Act (1999) states that all individuals shall have equal right and opportunities to receive an education provided for by the State for at least 12 years.
Viet Nam	The Law on Gender Equality.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Table 68: Status of Strategies and Programmes in Place for Achieving Gender Equality

Country	Are there strategies and programmes in place for achieving gender equality?
Cambodia	Yes
Lao PDR	Yes, for instance, it is treated as cross-cutting issue in the EFA NPA, and is especially mentioned in the National Social Education Development Plan.
Myanmar	Yes. The strategies and activities have been developed in line with the MDGs and the EFA NAP. The MDG for elimination of gender disparity will be achieved simultaneously with the accomplishments of the 30-Year Long-Term Education Development Plan.
Thailand	Yes, the Ministry of Social Development and Human Security is the core agency responsible for development of strategies and programmes to achieve gender equality.
Viet Nam	Yes

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Table 69: Strategies and Programmes to Promote Gender Equality among Disadvantaged

Country	Are there strategies and programmes in place for achieving gender equality among disadvantaged groups?
Cambodia	(a) Secondary School Scholarship Programmes; (b) Child-Friendly School Programme; (c) Dormitory for girl students in Teacher Training Centres; and (d) Promote girl students for teacher selection.
Lao PDR	Yes, strategies include gender equality for disadvantages groups, supported especially by donor financed programmes.
Myanmar	Yes. It is generally accepted that gender differences in Myanmar, in education or any other field, have been slight overall. Government approves of the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women and recognises the important role of women in shaping the future socio-economic development of the country.
Thailand	Yes. For example, the Thai National Commission on Women's Affairs collaborates with the MOE to give scholarships for girls and young women living under conditions that could make them vulnerable to entry into prostitution.
Viet Nam	Yes

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

The perception of barriers to gender equality in access to education and in education outcomes varies considerably, as reported in Table 70. For Cambodia, very concrete factors are reported, such as lack of separate toilets for girls, lack of female teachers as role models, and distance to school, which is more of a hinderance for girls than for boys. For Viet Nam, by contrast, the more abstract awareness on the part of the population is cited. For Thailand, it is reported that the barriers can be broken with adequate legislation. Myanmar reports that there are no barriers. In all countries, current policies and programmes have been adequate for achieving gender parity and equality in education, as reported in Table 71.

Table 70: Barriers to Gender Equality in Access to Education and Educational Outcomes

Country	What are the barriers to increasing gender equality in access to education and in educational outcomes?
Cambodia	(a) Physical facilities constraints – no separate toilet for girls and boys or no toilet at all; (b) Lack of female teachers as good role models; and (c) Distance to school.
Myanmar	There are no barriers to increasing gender equality in access to education and in educational outcomes.
Thailand	There are some barriers, but with adequate legislation to ensure the provision of education without gender discrimination, we believe that we can break the barriers soon.
Viet Nam	The lack of awareness on the part of the population.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Table 71: Adequacy of Policies and Programmes for Achieving Gender Parity

Country	Have the current policies and programmes been adequate for achieving gender parity and equality in education?
Cambodia	Yes, Gender Mainstreaming Strategic Plan 2002-2006 and 2006-2010.
Lao PDR	Policy has been effective in achieving notable increases in gender parity, but more needs to be done especially in promotion of primary school participation of girls in poor, remote, and often ethnic group communities.
Myanmar	The current policies and programmes have been adequate. Gender policies are very much tied to the socio-economic, cultural, and political context of the country. Focus is on both quality and equality issues, i.e., gender equity does not mean gender equality.
Thailand	Current policies and programmes are adequate for achieving gender parity and equality in education because they do not allow gender discrimination.
Viet Nam	Yes

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

12.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators

Table 72: GPI for Pre-Primary Gross Enrolment Ratio, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000	2005
Cambodia	1.05	1.09
Lao PDR	1.10	1.05
Myanmar	…	1.02^{+1}
Thailand	1.03	1.01^{+1}
Viet Nam	§	§

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "+n" indicates data refer to n years after the reference year. "…" indicates no data available. "§" indicates that due to differences in population estimates used by the Ministry of Education and the UNPD, the UIS has decided not to publish this indicator.

Pre-Primary. At the pre-primary level, the Gender Parity Index in Mekong countries are slightly greater than 1.00, as seen in Table 72. Girls are more likely to be sent to pre-school than boys. Thailand met the criterion for gender parity, namely GPI = 1.00 ± 0.03. Over the period 2000 to 2005, there was no systematic tendency toward greater equality. In 2005, two countries (Myanmar and Thailand) met the criterion for gender parity.

Primary. In general, gender parity is close for enrolment in primary school: the GPI for the primary school indicators tend to be close to 1.00, as seen in Table 73. The GPI for the Gross Intake Ratio (GIR) shows no discernible pattern of change between 2000 and 2005. The Net Intake Rate (NIR), however, showed convergence toward gender parity, and by 2005 the three countries for which data are available had achieved gender parity. The same pattern holds for Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) and Net Enrolment Rate (NER). This is a general trend in the Sub-Region: boys are somewhat more likely than girls to be enrolled in primary school, but if girls are enrolled, they are more likely than boys to be enrolled at the "correct" age. The differences, however, are gradually disappearing, as the GPIs tend to converge on parity.

Table 73: GPI for Primary Intake and Enrolment, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	GIR Primary		NIR Primary		GER Primary		NER in Primary	
	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005
Cambodia	0.94	0.94	0.95	1.01	0.87	0.93	0.92**	0.99
Lao PDR	0.89	0.92	0.98	0.98	0.85	0.88	0.92	0.94
Myanmar	1.04	0.98^{+1}	1.04	0.98^{+1}	1.00	1.01^{+1}	1.00	1.01^{+1}
Thailand	$0.96^{**,-1}$	…	…	…	0.99	1.00^{+1}	…	0.99^{+1}
Viet Nam	0.97	§	…	…	0.95	§	$0.94^{**,+1}$	…

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "+n" indicates data refer to n years after the reference year. "-n" indicates data refer to n years before the reference year. "**" indicates UIS estimation. "…" indicates no data available. "§" indicates that due to differences in population estimates used by the Ministry of Education and the UNPD, the UIS has decided not to publish this indicator.

Table 74: GPI for Survival and Transition Rates, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	Survival Rate to Grade 5		Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary	
	2000	2005	2000	2005
Cambodia	1.00	1.05^{-1}	0.87	0.95^{-1}
Lao PDR	1.02	0.98^{-1}	0.93	0.94^{-1}
Myanmar	1.00	1.06^{-1}	0.98	$0.98^{**,-1}$
Thailand	…	…	…	…
Viet Nam	0.99	…	0.98	…

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "-n" indicates data refer to n years before the reference year. "**" indicates UIS estimation. "…" indicates no data available.

In 2000, gender parity in Survival to Grade 5 was seen in all countries for which data are available, as shown in Table 74. By 2005, however, the situation had changed, and girls were somewhat more likely than boys to survive to Grade 5. Already by 2000, Myanmar and Viet Nam had achieved gender parity in the Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary, and Cambodia and Lao PDR showed improvement.

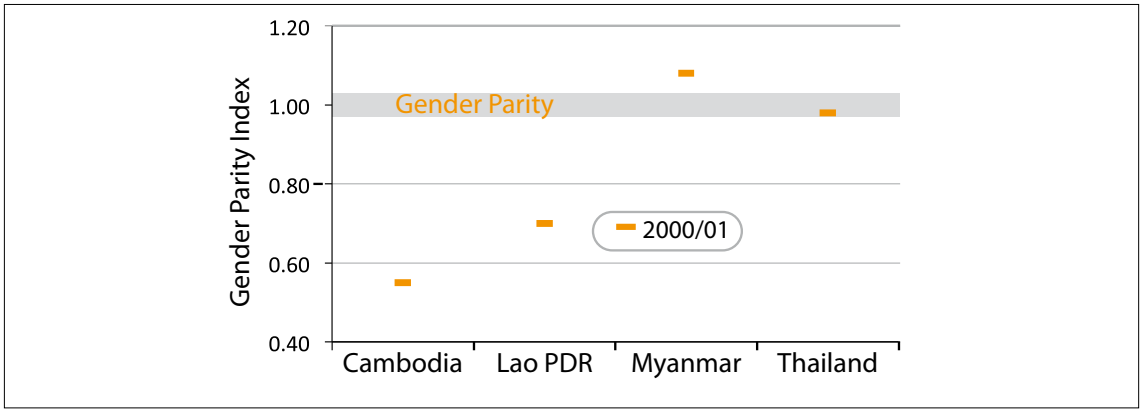
Table 75: GPI for Secondary GER and NER, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	GPI for GER		GPI for NER	
	2000	2005	2000	2005
Cambodia	0.55	$0.69^{**,-1}$	0.56	0.84**
Lao PDR	0.70	0.76	0.78	0.85
Myanmar	1.08	1.00^{+1}	1.07	1.00^{+1}
Thailand	$0.98^{**,+1}$	1.09^{+1}	…	1.11^{+1}
Viet Nam	0.91	§	…	§

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "+n" indicates data refer to n years after the reference year. "-n" indicates data refer to n years before the reference year. "**" indicates UIS estimation. "…" indicates no data available. "§" indicates that due to differences in population estimates used by the Ministry of Education and the UNPD, the UIS has decided not to publish this indicator.

Secondary. The gender distribution pattern is much more varied at secondary level than at primary level, as seen in Table 75 and Figure 8 (see also Map 7, page 85). Between 2000 and 2005, the GPI tended toward greater parity in all countries except Thailand, where the GPI for GER rose from "parity" (0.98) to bias in favour of girls (1.09): girls are more likely than boys to be enrolled in secondary school. This pattern holds even more strongly with NER.

Figure 8: GPI for Secondary Gross Enrolment Ratio, 2000/01, Sub-Region



Source: UISDC, February 2008.

Table 76: Female Enrolment in Vocational or Technical Education (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000	2005
Cambodia	39.0	33.6**,+1
Lao PDR	35.6	37.0
Myanmar	…	…
Thailand	47.7+1	45.0+1
Viet Nam	51.5	55.0

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "+n" indicates data refer to n years after the reference year. "**" indicates UIS estimation. "…" indicates no data available.

Vocational and Technical Education and Training (TVET). With the exception of Viet Nam, it appears that vocational and technical education and training (TVET) is intended mainly for males, as seen in Table 76. Over the period 2000 to 2005, Lao PDR and Viet Nam showed an increased proportion of females enrolled in TVET, while Cambodia and Thailand showed a decreased proportion.

Teachers. At both primary and secondary level, the gender distribution of teachers varies considerably across the Mekong Sub-Region, as shown in Table 77 and Figure 9 (see also Map 8, page 86). In Cambodia and Lao PDR, the proportion of female teachers at primary level is well below 50% but shows an increase over the period 2000 to 2005. In the remaining countries, the proportion of female teachers is well over 50%. Most countries showed an increasing proportion of female teachers, while in Thailand the proportion of female teachers declined toward greater gender parity.

At the secondary level, the variation over the Sub-Region is even greater. As in primary schooling, the proportion of female teachers is well under 50% in Cambodia and Lao PDR and well over 50% in the remaining countries. The proportion of female teachers increased in all countries except Viet Nam, which showed a decline toward parity.

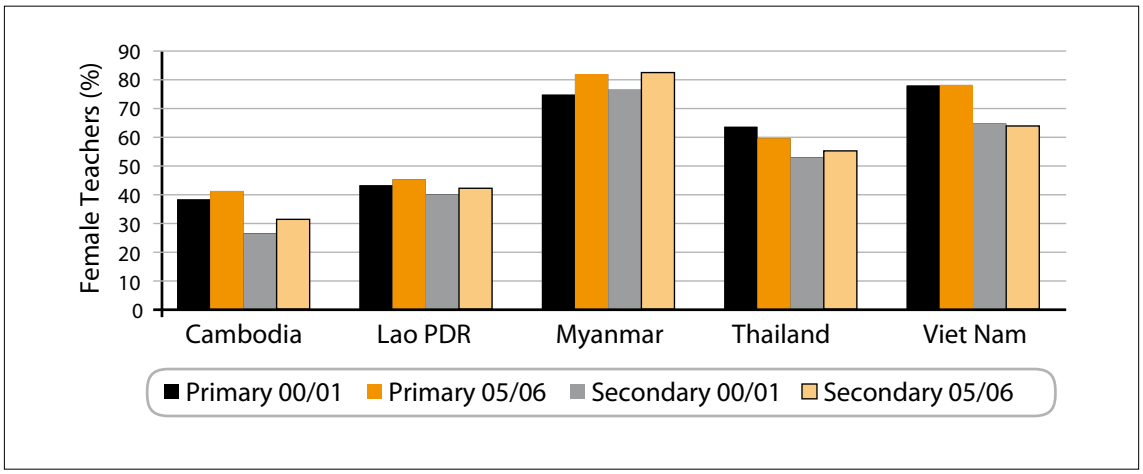
Table 77: Female Teachers in Primary and Secondary Education (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	Primary		Secondary	
	2000	2005	2000	2005
Cambodia	38.5	41.4	26.7	31.3**,-1
Lao PDR	43.4	45.4	40.1	42.1
Myanmar	74.7	81.9+1	76.4	82.4+1
Thailand	63.6	59.7+1	53.0**,+1	55.1+1
Viet Nam	77.9	78.1+1	64.7	63.8

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "+n" indicates data refer to n years after the reference year. "-n" indicates data refer to n years before the reference year. "**" indicates UIS estimation.

In summary, many of the 2007 gender targets for primary and lower secondary education were met, and most of the 2015 are expected to be met, as reported in Table 78 and Table 79. For upper secondary education, however, the picture is more mixed.

Figure 9: Female Teachers in Primary and Secondary Education (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region



Source: UISDC, February 2008.

Table 78: Status of Core Gender Indicator Targets for 2007 and 2015

Country	Status of 2007 Targets	Status of 2015 Targets
Cambodia	No	Likely to be achieved in primary education.
Lao PDR	Gaps are currently narrow for primary and lower secondary, wider at upper secondary.	The target is likely to be achieved for primary and lower secondary, but perhaps not for upper secondary level.
Myanmar	The targets set for 2007 for Gender Core Indicators have been met.	The targets set for 2015 are likely to be achieved.
Thailand	Thailand has achieved many of the 2007 gender core indicators, but some indicators do not apply to our local context and therefore data is not available for all sections.	
Viet Nam	Yes	Yes

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Table 79: Status of Gender Parity in Indicators

Country	Has gender parity, as measured by the Gender Parity Index (GPI), been achieved in the majority of the Core Indicators?
Cambodia	No
Lao PDR	Complete gender parity has not been achieved for most GPIs, but virtually all GPIs are moving rapidly toward gender parity.
Myanmar	Gender parity been achieved as measured by the Gender Parity Index (GPI).
Thailand	We lack instruments to measure the Gender Parity Index, so we cannot answer this question clearly. However, we are confident that our country would achieve gender parity because we have legislation to support this.
Viet Nam	Yes

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

12.3 Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving Goal Five

Progress. Over the past half-decade most GPIs have moved steadily toward gender parity, although some significant gender gaps remain, especially at secondary level and in TVET. Gender awareness has improved through information, increased female representation at all levels, and concrete measures to improve the situation of females in education, as seen in Table 80. These measures include:

- Construction of dormitory facilities for females at secondary schools and teacher training institutions in remote and disadvantaged areas; and
- Gender sensitization of the teaching and learning environment through child-friendly schools and the inclusion of gender issues in life skills programmes of reproductive health, HIV/AIDS prevention, domestic violence, human trafficking, etc.

Table 80: Progress Achieved in Reaching the Gender Equality Goal

Country	What progress has been achieved in reaching the goal?
Cambodia	(a) Dormitories for female secondary students in remote and disadvantaged areas; (b) Provincial and Regional Teacher Training Centres/Colleges equipped with dormitories for female teacher trainees; (c) Scholarship programmes for secondary students increased enrolment, especially for girls; (d) Majority of literacy programme participants are women; (e) Gender issues integrated into life skills programmes, reproductive health, HIV/AIDS prevention, domestic violence in family, human trafficking, etc.; (f) Child-friendly schools promote gender-sensitive teaching and learning environment; (g) Commune councils active in promotion of school enrolment and completion, especially for girls; and (h) Female representation increased at all education levels.
Lao PDR	In general, the policy is widely embedded in Government and Party, including mass organizations.
Myanmar	A gender review of life skills materials was undertaken to ensure that no gender stereotyping existed, including in illustrations and story lines. Materials also were designed to look at risks for both boys and girls. Capacity building was undertaken for both life skills curriculum designers and materials developers.
Thailand	Formal Education: Since 2000-2005, the number of girls enrolled in primary education has increased and is almost equal to the number of boys. In secondary education, the number of girls enrolled now outnumbers boys. Non-formal Education: Number of girls enrolled in primary non-formal education has increased and is almost equal to the number of boys.
Viet Nam	All gender equity goals have been met.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Best Practices. As seen in Table 81, several "best practices" have emerged as particularly effective in improving gender equality:

- School feeding programmes targeting girls and their families have been quite successful in increasing girls' participation rates;
- Scholarship programmes for secondary students increased enrolment rate, especially for girls;
- Dormitories for females at secondary schools and teacher training institutions in remote and disadvantaged areas have enabled girls to continue their studies where they otherwise would not have been able; and
- Female representation at all education levels has improved awareness.

Table 81: Best Practices: Reaching the Gender Equality Goal

Country	What are examples of best practices?
Cambodia	(a) Dormitories built for female secondary school students in remote and disadvantaged areas and at all provincial and regional teacher training centres and colleges; (b) Scholarship programmes for secondary students increased enrolment,especially for girls; (c) Priority given to new female teachers when selecting a duty station so that they will not be assigned to disadvantaged and remote areas; (d) Increased number of schools in rural/remote areas made it easier for girls to attend and continue schools; (e) Gender-related issues integrated into life skills programmes; (f) Child-friendly schools promote gender-sensitive teaching and learning environment; (g) Commune councils actively involved in promotion of school enrolment and completion, especially for girls; and (h) Female representation increased at all education levels.
Lao PDR	Several school feeding programmes targeting girls and their families have been quite successful in increasing girls' participation rates.
Myanmar	An incentive plan under the World Food Programme for girls to attend school regularly has effectively reduced dropout rates in two critical geographical areas.
Thailand	Each school must offer separate toilets for boys and girls, all boys and girls can select what subjects they want, no discrimination on gender.
Viet Nam	It comes from gender equity to gender equality in almost all levels of education system.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

12.4 Remaining Challenges and Issues in the Mekong Sub-Region

Even though there has been substantial progress in reaching Goal Five, there are many challenges and issues remaining, as reported in Table 82.

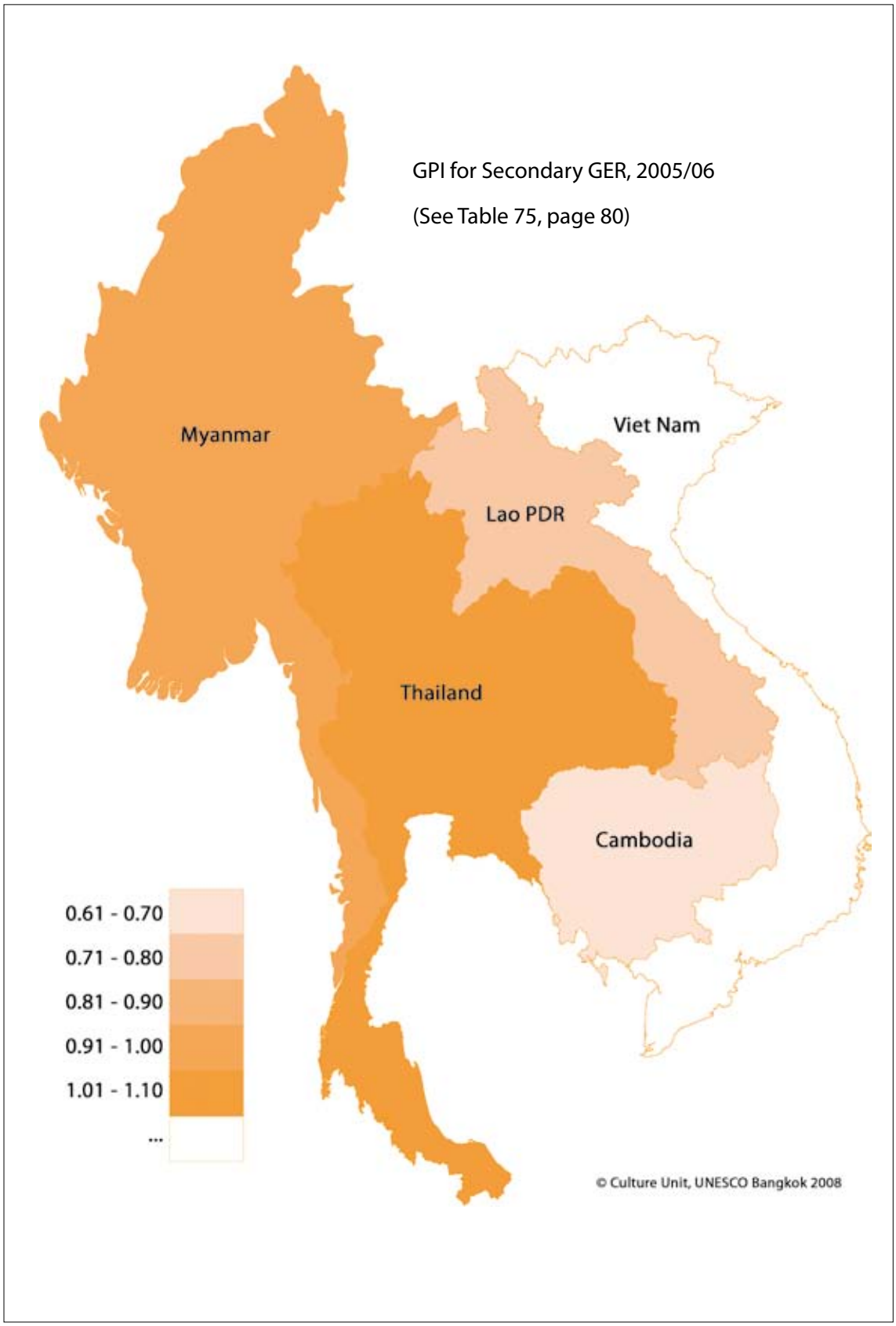
Table 82: Remaining Challenges and Issues to be Addressed

Country	What are remaining challenges and issues to be addressed?
Cambodia	(a) Dormitories for female students are not sufficient in remote and disadvantaged areas; (b) Coverage of literacy programmes still limited because of lack of facilities, materials, teachers, and budget; (c) Dropout rate is very high at lower secondary levels, especially for girls; (d) Gender responsive teaching methods not used widely; and (e) Not enough secondary schools in remote areas.
Lao PDR	(a) Further widening of access to education, especially primary education in remote areas, because girls are less likely than boys to be sent to schools at long distances; (b) Increasing access to secondary schooling, especially lower secondary, in response to social demand; and (c) Raising internal efficiency, especially at primary level.
Myanmar	(a) Gender disparity in education plans; (b) Assessment of gender equity in text books, curricula, and learning materials; (c) Gender imbalances in teaching staff and at management level; and (d) Traditional beliefs and cultural practices effects on girls' education.
Thailand	(a) Policy on the number of male and female students with access to education has been fairly successful. There is now less differentiation between the sexes; (b) More women than men enter the teaching profession, but we would like to encourage more men to become teachers; and (c) There is no longer any social discrimination against women and girls, but isolated and individual problems are sometimes found.
Viet Nam	Gender equality in some ethnic groups and some rural areas

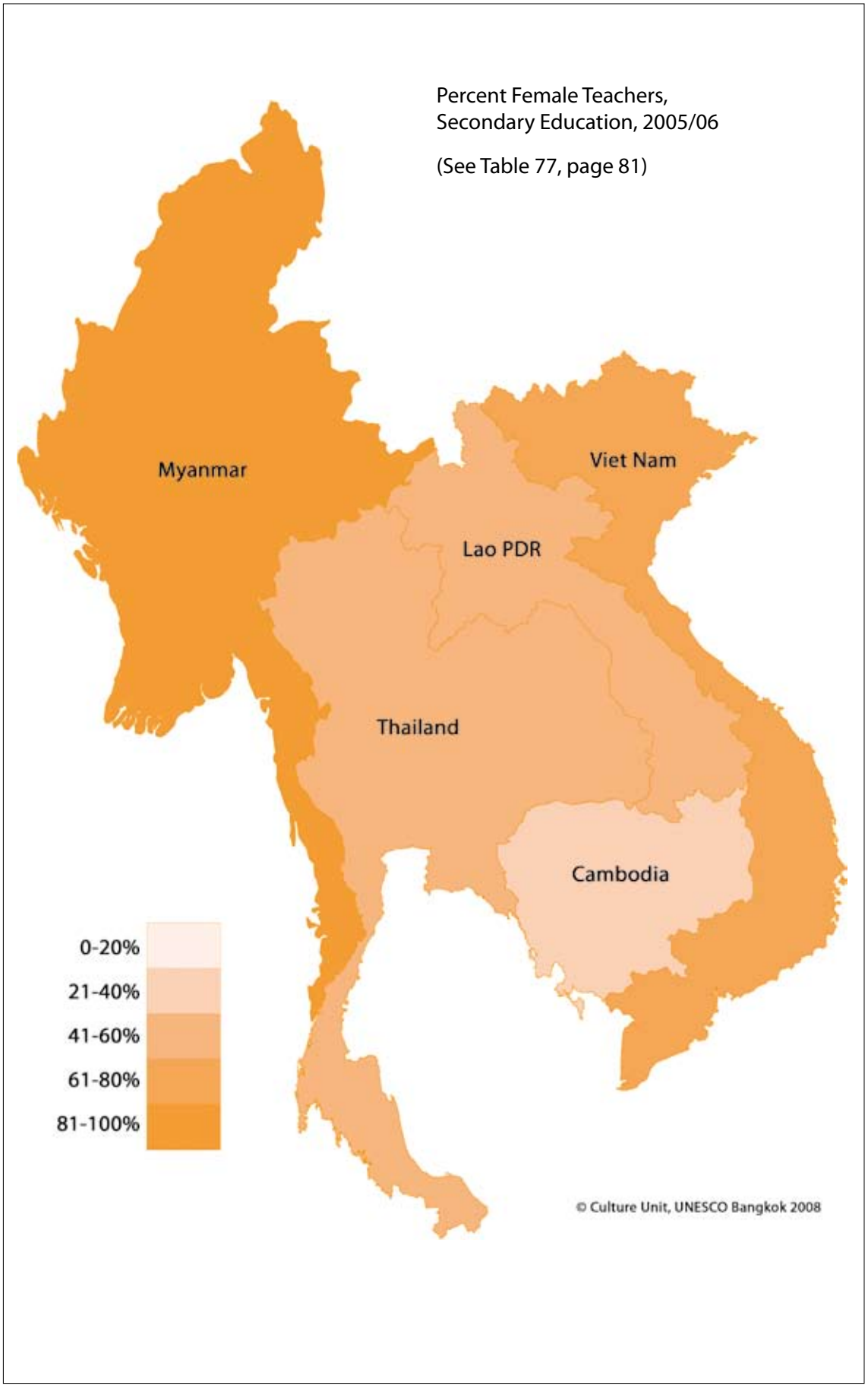
Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

12.5 Mekong Sub-Region Thematic Maps

Map 7: Mekong Sub-Region Map – GPI for Secondary GER, 2005/06



Map 8: Mekong Sub-Region Map – Percent Female Teachers, Secondary, 2005/06



13. Goal Six: Quality of Education

13.1 Background and Development of Goal Six

13.1.1 Definition of Goal Six

There is great variation in the way Goal Six is defined, as reported in Table 83. In all countries there is a focus on learning outcomes, but in some countries the focus appears to be more child-centred, while in other countries the focus appears to be more school-centred – the inputs, processes, and outputs. Thailand references "total quality in management and resources", and Viet Nam references the objectives of society and the labour market.

Table 83: Definitions of Quality of Education

Country	How is the "quality" of education defined in your country?
Cambodia	The CFS framework has been used to more clearly identify the key dimensions of quality, which include inclusiveness, effectiveness, a safe/protective/healthy environment, gender friendliness, and involvement of community, parents, and students.
Lao PDR	Quality of education is defined as a quality of inputs, processes, and outcomes from which all children enjoy learning skills that are essential to their lives and benefit from a stimulating and safe environment.
Myanmar	Quality education is measured against the school's ability to meet students' cognitive needs and foster physical, social, and emotional development, including teaching-learning approaches, quality of teachers, class size, availability of learning materials, assessment systems, leadership of school heads, and effectiveness of supervision and assistance provided by Township Education Officers.
Thailand	Quality in education refers to the acquisition of desirable qualities and skills in learners. These qualities are developed through an educational system that relies on total quality in management and resources.
Viet Nam	Quality is understood as meeting the education objectives and achievements adopted by society, including the employer.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

13.1.2 Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Children

In all Mekong countries, strategies and programmes are in place for the provision of quality education, as reported in Table 84 and specifically for the provision of quality education for disadvantaged groups, as shown in Table 85.

Table 84: Status of Strategies and Programmes for Quality of Education

Country	Are there strategies and programmes in place for the provision of quality education?
Cambodia	Yes
Lao PDR	(a) The Teacher Training Strategic Action Plan: 2006-2015 aims to improve teacher training; and (b) The Education Sector Reform Programme: primary curriculum reform (EDP2); lower secondary reform (BESDP); re-structuring formal education system by adding one year to lower secondary to make a 5+4+3 system.
Myanmar	(a) To increase survival rate in school; (b) To promote the quality of teachers; and (c) To improve Education Management Information System (EMIS).
Thailand	Yes. See National EFA MDA Report
Viet Nam	Yes

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

The barriers to improving the quality of education is reported in Table 86. The barriers most commonly referred to are related to shortage of resources, including financial, infrastructure, personnel, and instructional material. Low "teacher quality" and teaching-learning processes are also commonly cited.

Despite the barriers, all Mekong countries consider that the policies have been adequate for achieving quality education, as recorded in Table 87.

Table 85: Status of Strategies and Programmes for Provision of Quality Education for Disadvantaged Groups

Country	Are there specific strategies and programmes for the provision of quality education among disadvantaged groups?
Cambodia	(a) CFS, achievement tests for Grades 3, 6, and 9, school self-assessment and school improvement plans; (b) School operational budget (PAP); (c) Quality and indicator standards for ECCE, NFE, UPE, UBE, life skills programme and gender; (d) Remedial classes during school year; (e) Multi-grade teaching classes; and (f) Eight-week school readiness programme for children not attending pre-school in areas of low enrolment.
Lao PDR	Yes. See EFA NPA or EFA MDA report. (a) Develop, produce, and distribute supplementary materials for ethnic group areas and supplementary materials addressing disadvantaged; and (b) Ethnic female teacher training programmes, including for the disabled.
Myanmar	Inclusive education programme, life skills and lifelong learning in primary and secondary school curriculum, NFE programme, and others.
Thailand	Yes. See National EFA MDA Report.
Viet Nam	Yes

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Table 86: Barriers to Improving Quality of Education

Country	What are the barriers to increasing the quality in educational inputs, processes, and outputs?
Cambodia	(a) Physical facilities; (b) Limited budget; (c) Lack of teachers; and (d) Poverty.
Lao PDR	Inputs: (a) Insufficient budget and donor contributions; and (b) Shortage of teachers, especially in remote and ethnic areas, schools, instructional materials. Processes: (a) Quality of teachers is low; and (b) In disadvantaged areas, the strategy is to provide multi-grade teaching, but quality must be improved. Home environment: Some children have poor learning culture in the home, which leads to poor outputs; illness, malaria, worms, etc.
Myanmar	(a) Availability of trained teachers; (b) Less socio-economically developed areas; (c) Geographic access to primary schools remains problematic; and (d) Disparities must be reduced between urban and rural areas in terms of certified teachers.
Thailand	(a) Lack of resources, in small schools; (b) Underutilized resources; (c) Inconsistency in quality management policy; and (d) Weakness of Educational Service Areas Offices (ESAOs).
Viet Nam	Quality of teaching-learning process

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Table 87: Adequacy of Policies and Programmes for Achieving Quality Education

Country	Have the current policies and programmes been adequate for achieving quality education?
Cambodia	Yes
Lao PDR	Yes
Myanmar	Yes. To ensure the quality of basic education, numerous policies have been adopted and relevant programmes and projects implemented.
Thailand	Yes
Viet Nam	Yes

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

13.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators

Proportion of Trained Teachers. Progress in the education and training of pre-school care-givers and teachers has been very uneven, as shown in Table 88. In Cambodia, over the period 2000-2005, the proportion of trained pre-primary teachers fell from 98% to 85%, and in Lao PDR it fell from 83% to 80%. This decline happened at the same time as gross enrolment in pre-primary was gradually increasing, as seen in Table 13, page 45 above. By contrast, in Viet Nam both enrolment and the proportion of qualified teachers increased very rapidly over the same period.

Table 88: Trained Teachers in Pre-Primary Education (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	98.1^{+1}	…	…	85.5^{+1}	…	…
Lao PDR	83.1	83.3	83.1	80.5^{+1}	36.0^{+1}	80.8^{+1}
Myanmar	…	…	…	50.3^{+1}	29.5^{+1}	50.6^{+1}
Thailand	…	…	…	…	…	…
Viet Nam	50.5	…	…	70.8^{+1}	…	…

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "+n" indicates data refer to n years after the reference year. "…" indicates no data available.

The development pattern for the proportion of trained teachers at primary level is quite different from pre-primary level, as seen in Table 89 and Figure 10. In most countries, the proportion of trained primary school teachers is substantially higher than the proportion of pre-primary teachers, and in all countries for which data are available, the proportion of trained primary teachers rose substantially between 2000 and 2005. These improvements occurred at the same time as gross enrolments also rose considerably, as seen in Table 30, page 56 above.

Table 89: Trained Teachers in Primary Education (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	95.9^{+1}	…	…	97.7	…	…
Lao PDR	76.7	69.6	86.0	83.4	78.3	89.4
Myanmar	62.7	62.7	62.7	76.0	79.9	75.1
Thailand	…	…	…	…	…	…
Viet Nam	80.0	74.5	81.6	95.6^{+1}	93.3^{+1}	96.3^{+1}

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "+n" indicates data refer to n years after the reference year. "…" indicates no data available.

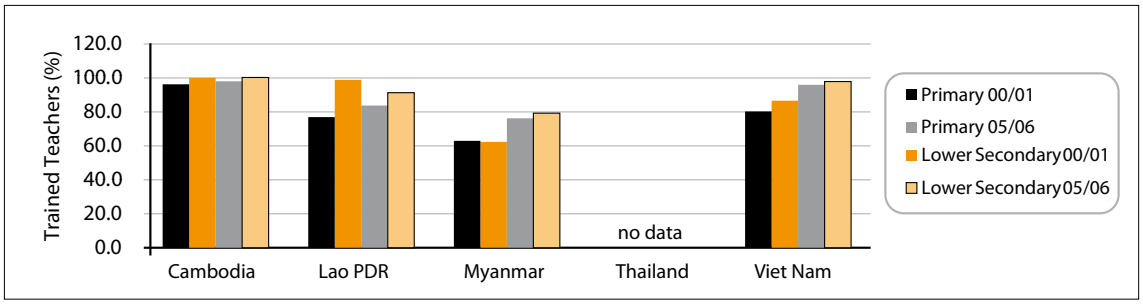
By the end of the period 2000 to 2005, the proportion of trained lower secondary teachers was above 90% in Cambodia, Lao PDR and Viet Nam, although Lao PDR showed a decline, as shown in Table 90 and Figure 10. The decline in Lao PDR could be due to the practice of "promoting" qualified primary school teachers to be lower secondary teachers. In Viet Nam and especially Myanmar, these high proportions were achieved as a result of considerable increases in the numbers of teachers trained. Where data are available, a similar pattern is seen for upper secondary level in Table 91, except for the slight decline in the proportion of trained teachers in Viet Nam.

Table 90: Trained Teachers in Lower Secondary Education (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	99.7[+1]	…	…	99.9	…	…
Lao PDR	98.5	98.3	98.8	91.0**	90.0**	92.5**
Myanmar	62.1	64.3	61.5	79.0	79.0	79.0
Thailand	…	…	…	…	…	…
Viet Nam	86.3	82.6	87.9	97.5[+1]	97.4[+1]	97.5[+1]

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "+n" indicates data refer to n years after the reference year. "**" indicates UIS estimation. "…" indicates no data available.

Figure 10: Trained Teachers in Primary and Lower Secondary Education (%), 2000/01 and 2005/06, Sub-Region



Source: UISDC, February 2008.

Table 91: Trained Teachers in Upper Secondary Education (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	99.1[+1]	…	…	…	…	…
Lao PDR	95.6	95.0	96.5	89.8**	88.3**	91.8**
Myanmar	97.1	97.2	97.1	98.0	94.2	99.0
Thailand	…	…	…	…	…	…
Viet Nam	93.9	93.5	94.2	92.0**	…	…

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "+n" indicates data refer to n years after the reference year. "**" indicates UIS estimation. "…" indicates no data available.

Pupil/Teacher Ratio. In Cambodia and Lao PDR, the Pupil/Teacher Ratio (PTR) rose at all levels over the period 2000 to 2005, while in Thailand and Viet Nam, the PTR fell at all levels, as seen in Table 92 (see also Map 9, page 94). By 2005, primary PTRs tended to range around 30, except for Cambodia with a high of 53 and Thailand with a low of 18.3. At both lower and upper secondary level, PTRs typically ranged in the 20s.

Table 92: Pupil/Teacher Ratio, Primary and Secondary, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	Primary		Lower Secondary		Upper Secondary	
	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005
Cambodia	50.1	53.2	16.6	27.6	23.7	26.4**[,-1]
Lao PDR	30.1	31.5	21.6	23.0**	20.7	28.3**
Myanmar	32.8	29.9[+1]	29.6	34.2[+1]	39.7	32.5[+1]
Thailand	20.8	18.3[+1]	23.4**[,+1]	21.9[+1]	24.9**[,+1]	21.4[+1]
Viet Nam	29.5	20.7[+1]	27.6	21.1[+1]	28.9	27.1

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "+n" indicates data refer to n years after the reference year. "-n" indicates date refer to n years before the reference year. "**" indicates UIS estimation.

In all Mekong Sub-Region countries for which data are available, total Survival Rates to Grade 5 rose over the period 2000 to 2005, as shown in Table 93 (see also Map 10, page 95). In most countries, the Survival Rate for girls rose more than the Survival Rate for boys, the exception being Lao PDR where it fell slightly.

Table 93: Survival Rate to Grade 5, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	62.8	62.9	62.7	63.1[-1]	61.5[-1]	64.8[-1]
Lao PDR	53.2	52.6	53.9	63.0[-1]	63.6[-1]	62.3[-1]
Myanmar	55.2	55.3	55.2	69.9[-1]	67.8[-1]	72.1[-1]
Thailand	…	…	…	…	…	…
Viet Nam	85.7	86.1	85.4	86.8**[,-3]	87.2**[,-3]	86.5**[,-3]

Source: UISDC, February 2008.
Notes: "-n" indicates data refer to n years before the reference year. "**" indicates UIS estimation. "…" indicates no data available.

In general, some of the 2007 quality targets have been met, and some of the 2015 targets are expected to be met, as shown in Table 94.

Table 94: Status of Targets for Provision of Core Goal 6 Indicators, 2007 and 2015

Country	Have the 2007 Core Goal 6 Indicators been met?	Are the 2015 targets likely to be achieved?
Cambodia	Some	Some
Lao PDR	Primary curriculum and textbook reform will be completed in 2008/09. Lower secondary curriculum and textbooks will be ready for 2012.	Likely to be achieved. Training for ethnic group teachers will continue until 2015.
Myanmar	Three EFA quality targets have been met.	Three targets remain likely to be achieved.
Thailand	It is unlikely for the year 2007.	We expect to achieve the goals by the year 2015.
Viet Nam	Yes	Yes

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

13.3 Analysis of Disparities in Goal Six

13.3.1 Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality in Goal Six

In the Mekong Sub-Region as a whole, gender parity has been met for some of the quality core indicators and not for others, as reported in Table 95. The Gender Ratio (%female/%male) for the proportion of trained teachers is shown in Table 96. For 2005, at primary and secondary level, all countries for which data are available show either gender parity (0.97-1.03) or a value very close. At pre-primary, there is a great gender imbalance, either against boys or girls, depending on the country.

Table 95: Status of Gender Parity Index for Core Goal 6 Indicators

Country	Has gender parity, as measured by the Gender Parity Index (GPI), been Achieved in the Core Goal 6 Indicators?
Cambodia	Some
Lao PDR	Gender parity is emerging for most indicators.
Myanmar	Gender parity has been achieved in the quality core indicators.
Thailand	Thailand does not have problems concerning gender disparity.
Viet Nam	Yes

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Table 96: Gender Ratios (%F/%M), Trained Teachers, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	Pre-Primary		Primary		Lower Secondary		Upper Secondary	
	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005
Cambodia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Lao PDR	1.00	2.25	1.00	1.03	1.02	1.04	1.02	1.04
Myanmar	…	1.72	0.96	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Thailand	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Viet Nam	…	0.60	1.06	1.00	1.01	…	1.01	…

Source: Calculated from Tables 88 - 91.
Note: "…" indicates that the Gender Ratio cannot be calculated because the required data was not available.

Table 97: Gender Ratios (%F/%M), Survival to Grade 5, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000	2005
Cambodia	1.00	1.05
Lao PDR	1.02	0.98
Myanmar	1.00	1.06
Thailand	…	…
Viet Nam	0.99	0.99

Source: Calculated from Table 93.
Note: "…" indicates that the Gender Ratio cannot be calculated because the required data was not available.

The Gender Ratio for Survival to Grade 5 is shown in Table 97. The Gender Ratios are very close to 1.00, the imbalance sometimes favouring boys, sometimes girls.

13.3.2 Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving Goal Six

Table 98 reports progress in reaching education quality goals over the past half-decade. Each country has achieved significant and interesting progress in the improvement of quality in education.

Table 98: Progress Achieved in Reaching the Education Quality Goal

Country	What progress has been achieved in reaching the goal?
Cambodia	(a) Sample-based standardised achievement test conducted for Grade 3 students in 2006; (b) School-self assessment system and tools drafted for piloting in 2007/08; and (c) Child-friendly school initiatives implemented in 12 provinces.
Lao PDR	(a) Increased proportions of qualified primary school teacher; very high proportions of secondary school teachers are now qualified.
Myanmar	(a) Inclusion of life skills in basic education curriculum, introduction of vocational courses in secondary schools, inclusion of human rights education in morals and civics courses; (b) Development and distribution of video tapes on learners' guides and examination guides for 11th Graders; (c) CD ROMs for ICT activities; and (d) Multimedia facilities for secondary schools.
Thailand	(a) Education institutions, including small ones, are now equipped with computers and office technologies; (b) Small schools have been integrated so as to provide flexibility in management; (c) Schools and ESAOs are aware of goals and are committed to achieving quality education to ensure higher performance; and (d) Collaboration between schools and school boards is firmly established.
Viet Nam	Truthfulness in assessing student performance, and elimination of cheating in the examinations.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

Some of the most significant progress achieved, as reported in Table 98, has been the basis of some of the best practices, as identified in Table 99.

Table 99: Best Practices in Reaching the Education Quality Goal

Country	What are examples of best practices?
Cambodia	(a) Sample-based standardised learning achievement test conducted for Grade 3 students in 2006; (b) School-self assessment system and school self-assessment tools and school improvement plan for pilot implementation in school year 2007-08; and (c) Child-friendly school initiatives implemented in 12 provinces.
Lao PDR	MOE has embarked on a major programme of development of the teacher education system to promote best practices in teaching and learning.
Myanmar	The University for the Development of National Races (UDNR) is responsible for training of youth from all indigenous national groups, especially from remote and border areas to become teachers and community leaders. It provides a curriculum similar to Education Colleges but differs in terms of admission requirements and length of training. It accepts students who have passed Grade 9, and training lasts three years. After completion, trainees are appointed as primary assistant teachers in remote and border areas and are able to proceed up to B. Ed., M. Phil., and M. Ed. courses. From September 2003 to the present, UDNR had served more than 8,600 trainees from 87 national groups.
Thailand	All teachers must have license and bachelor degrees; all schools provide computers, teaching aids, libraries, textbooks free of charge, science centre, sport facilities, "learning bicycle", which is provided for transport for children living far away. For low income families, full scholarship, as far up as the student can go. Lower secondary school in every sub-district.

Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

13.4 Remaining Challenges and Issues in the Mekong Sub-Region

Some of the remaining challenges, as reported in Table 100, involve inputs – mainly financial and personnel, but several countries mention direct quality assessment. Cambodia reports Quality and Indicator Standards in the pilot stage of development. Lao PDR is striving to build competence in assessment of learning outcomes. Viet Nam aims toward the development of a quality assurance system.

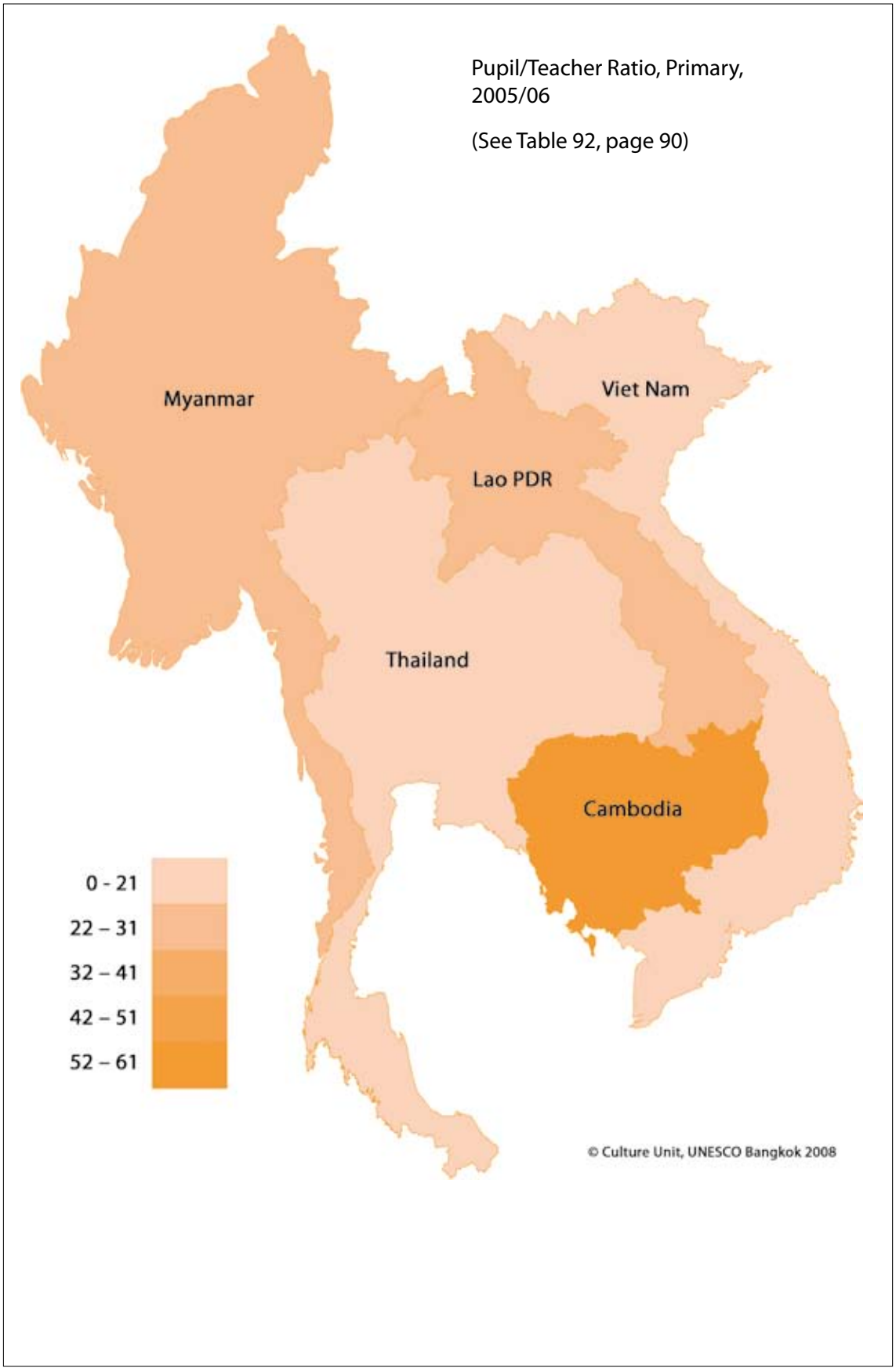
Table 100: Remaining Challenges and Issues to be Addressed

Country	What are remaining challenges and issues to be addressed?
Cambodia	(a) Quality and Indicator Standards still in pilot implementation; and (b) Regional disparity in terms of resources.
Lao PDR	A major challenge is to build competence in the assessment of learning outcomes at the classroom and school level to allow for comparison of learning outcome standards.
Myanmar	(a) Border areas, localities with transportation and communication difficulties; (b) Traditional concepts and beliefs, particularly with regard to life skills education; (c) Shortage of donor support for non-formal education; and (d) Reducing of Pupil/ Teacher Ratio (primary) to 30:1 by 2010 and maintain at 30:1 through 2015.
Thailand	Teachers and administrators are engaged in training and therefore leave schools too often.
Viet Nam	Establish a quality assurance system

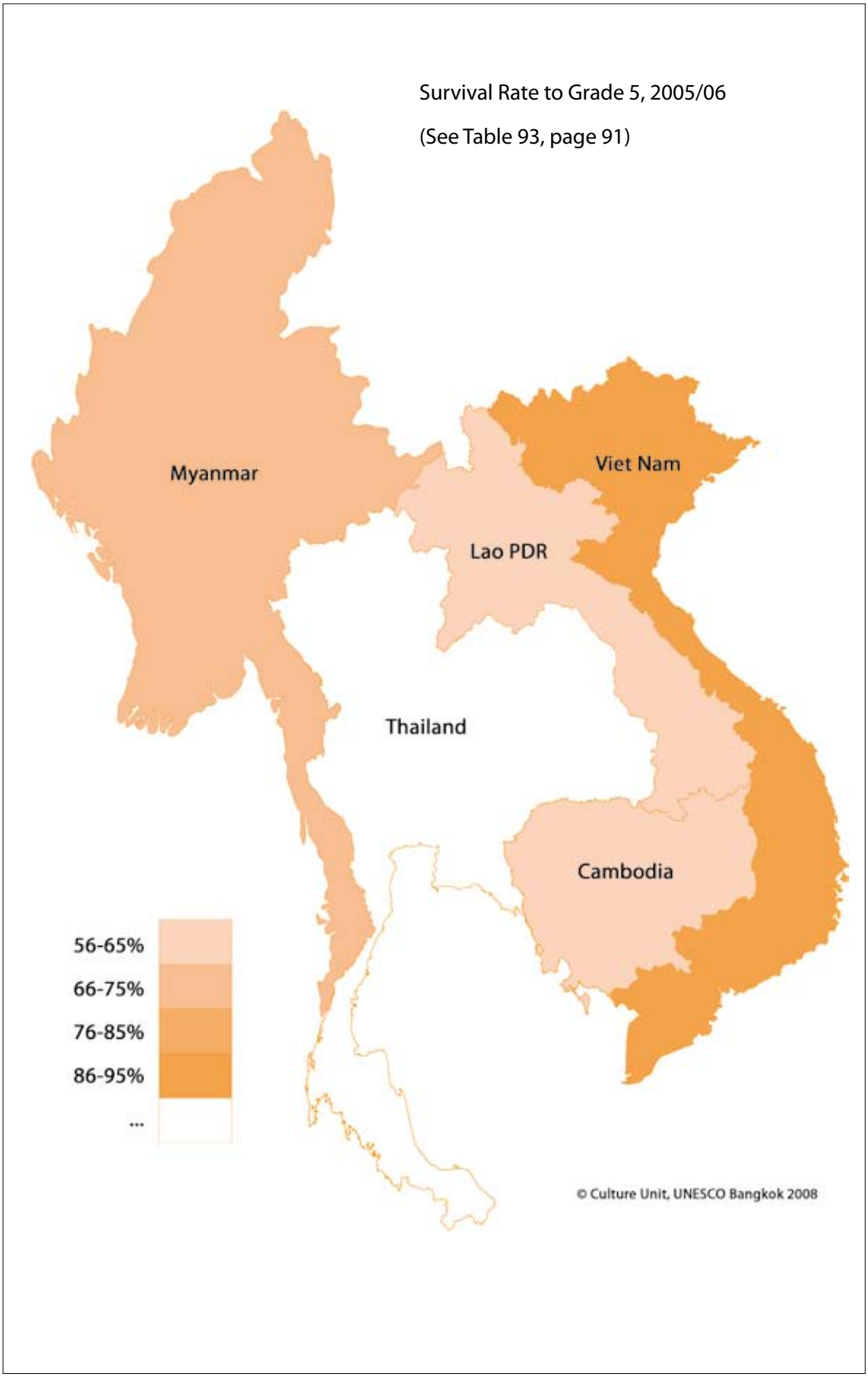
Source: EFA MDA Questionnaires.

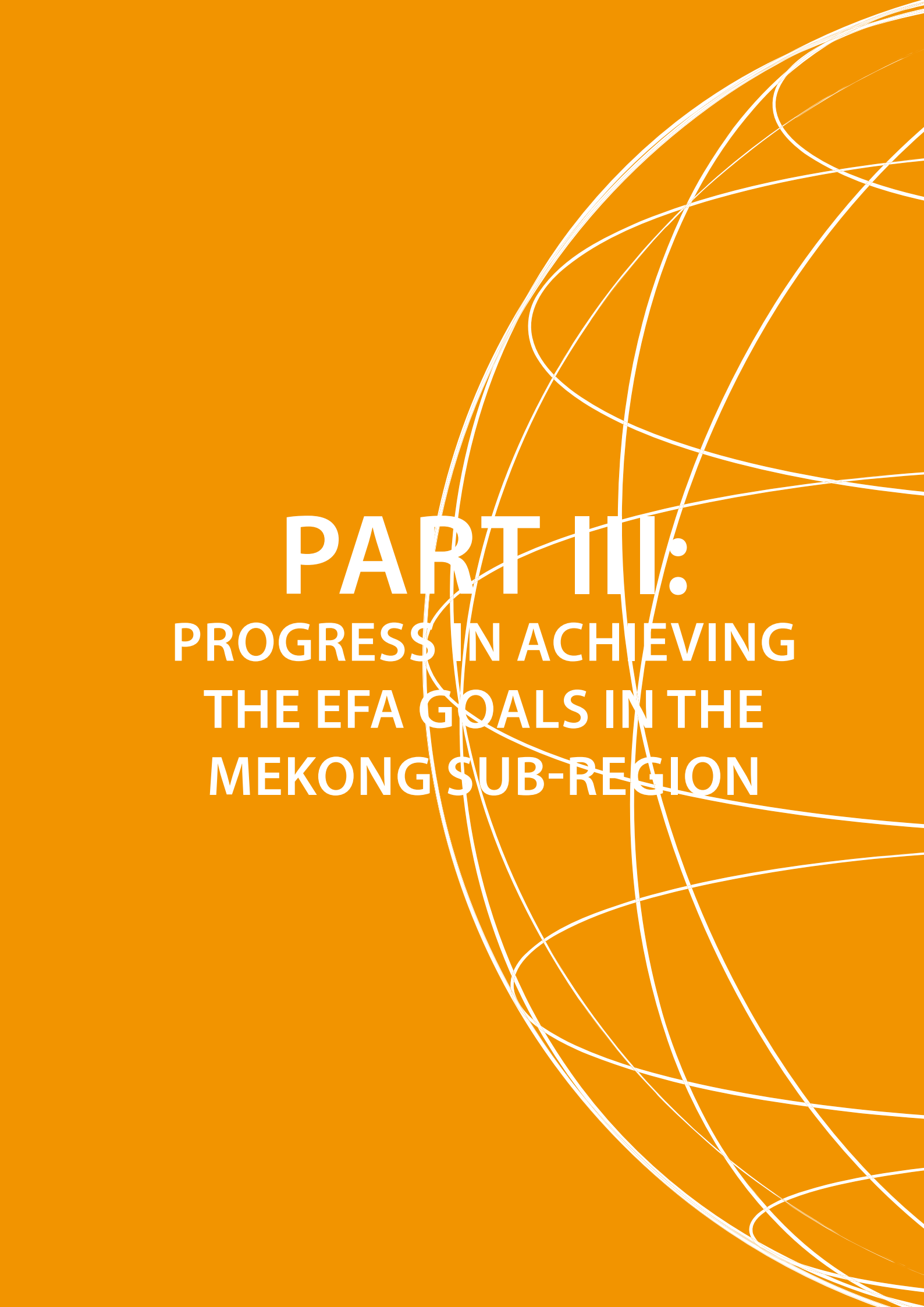
13.5 Mekong Sub-Region Thematic Maps

Map 9: Mekong Sub-Region Map – Pupil/Teacher Ratio, Primary, 2005/06



Map 10: Mekong Sub-Region Map – Survival Rate to Grade 5, 2005/06





PART III:
PROGRESS IN ACHIEVING THE EFA GOALS IN THE MEKONG SUB-REGION

14. Cambodia

14.1 Goal One: Early Childhood Care and Education in Cambodia

14.1.1. Background and Development of ECCE in Cambodia

a. Definition of ECCE

The ECCE programme in Cambodia covers ages 3-5 years. Currently, there are several kinds of pre-schools in Cambodia, but it is not yet possible to cover the needs of all the children of Cambodia, in terms of quantity and quality, especially for those in the rural and remote areas.

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

To respond to the commitment to "Education for All" and the National Education Goals, the MOEYS cooperates with other line ministries and NGOs to expand services through both private pre-schools (mostly in urban areas) and community-based pre-schools (mostly in rural and remote areas) and to develop curricula and manuals to serve the present pre-school model.

The current ECCE policy was issued in 2000, and the Department of Early Childhood Education was established in 2003. A policy on early childhood education covering the age range 0-5 is now under preparation.

Departments involved at the MOEYS include Primary Education, Early Childhood Education, Teacher Training, Non-Formal Education, Pedagogical Research, Planning, and School Health. Other ministries involved include Women's Affairs (preparation and management of community pre-school and home-based programmes), Interior (commune council budget for community pre-schools), and Health (health education and health-related support).

c. Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Children

As a strategy to support children who have not been able to attend pre-school, an eight-week School Readiness Programme has been established. To support community pre-school programmes, a curriculum has been developed for community pre-school, the curriculum for pre-school teacher training centre has been reviewed, and community pre-school teachers have been trained.

In rural areas, pre-schools have been expanded on primary school campuses, and community based and home based pre-schools have been expanded to provide free access for all children, especially poor children and children from disadvantaged ethnic groups.

14.1.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Cambodia

a. Assessing Progress Using Time Series Data

Pre-school Enrolment. The ECCE services have expanded every year since the beginning of the decade with increases in the number of classrooms, ECCE centres, teachers, and community volunteers for public and community pre-schools, and home-based programmes. There has been strong support from leaders and stakeholders at all levels, including the MOEYS, local authorities, monks, parents, teachers, community leaders, NGOs, and international organizations. The expansion of pre-school enrolment is shown in Table 101.

Table 101: Enrolment in Pre-school, by Provider, 2000/01-2005/06, Cambodia

Indicator	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06
Total enrolment	78,292	89,018	87,064	88,470	102,245	113,627
% State	71.3	71.6	74.3	81.6	70.6	66.6
% Community	24.8	23.8	21.0	11.3	18.8	19.6
% Home-Based	…	…	…	…	3.7	6.3
% Private	4.0	4.6	4.7	7.1	7.0	7.5
Gross Enrolment Ratio	6.5	8.3	9.0	9.8	11.0	12.0

Source: MOEYS, EMIS.
Note: "…" indicates no data available.

Table 102: Indicators of Malnutrition in Children Under 5 (%), 2005, Cambodia

Indicator	%
Moderate Underweight	35.6
Moderate Stunting	37.3
Moderate Wasting	7.3

Source: Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey 2005.

Nutrition. Although improvement has been rapid in the past half-decade, moderate malnutrition is a serious problem, as shown in Table 102. Over one-third of Cambodian children under five years old are classified as malnourished by the measures of moderate underweight (weight for age) and moderate stunting (height for age). Wasting (weight for height) is less widespread.

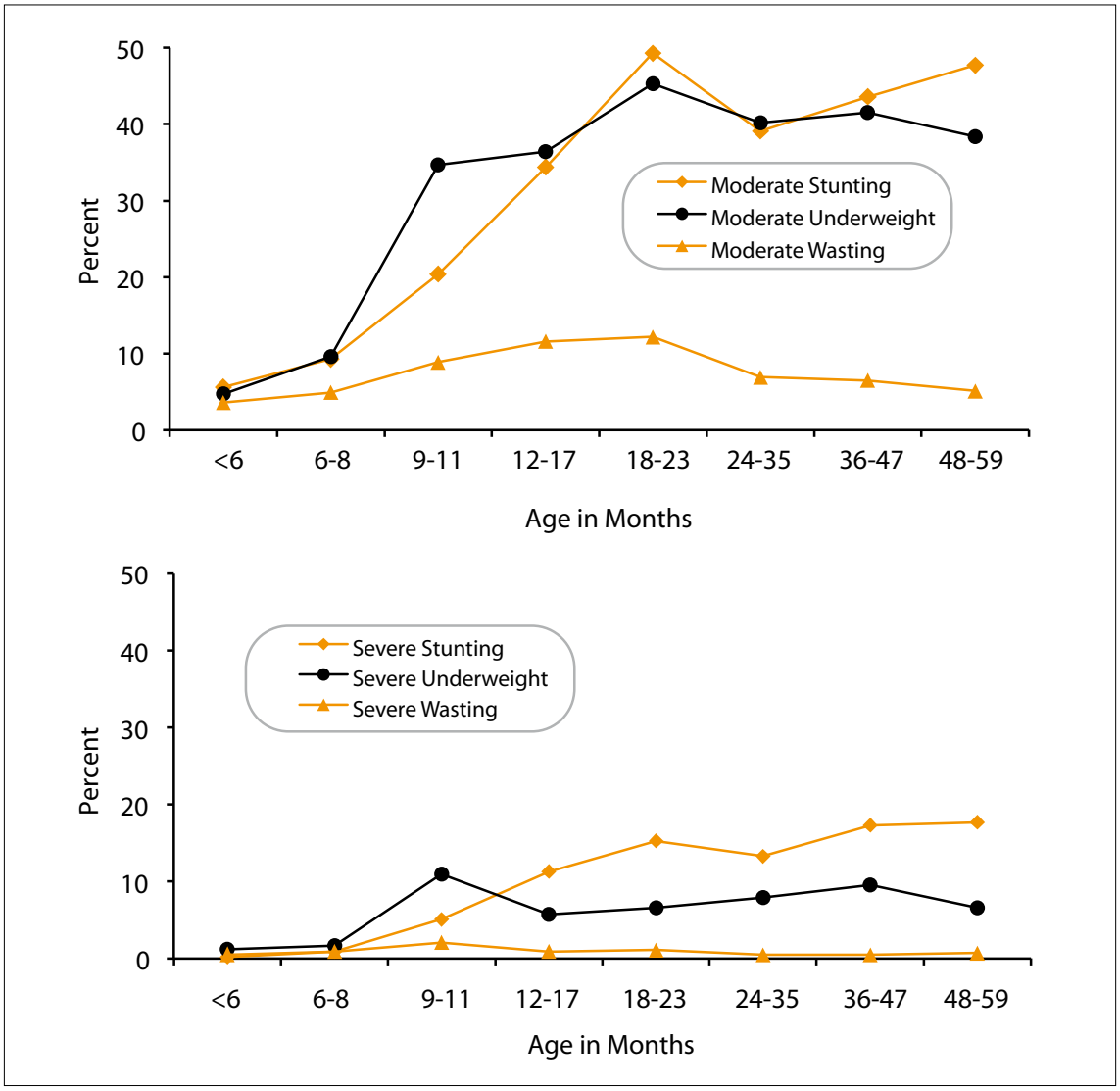
Wasting is highest among children between nine and 23 months, where it reaches 12%; it is only very weakly related to income. Moderate stunting is apparent even among children six months old (6%), with the rate of stunting increasing with age, reaching 49% for children 18-23 months of age, as shown in Table 103 and Figure 11. These findings suggest that supplementary feeding programmes linked to increased access to pre-schools would help alleviate the most debilitating effects of inadequate nutrition for poor children.

Table 103: Indicators of Malnutrition in Children Under 5 (%), by Age, 2005, Cambodia

Age	Stunting		Wasting		Underweight	
(months)	Moderate	Severe	Moderate	Severe	Moderate	Severe
<6	5.6	0.2	3.6	0.6	4.7	1.2
6-8	9.3	0.9	4.9	0.9	9.6	1.7
9-11	20.4	5.1	8.9	2.1	34.7	11
12-17	34.4	11.3	11.6	0.9	36.4	5.7
18-23	49.3	15.3	12.2	1.1	45.3	6.6
24-35	39.1	13.3	6.9	0.5	40.2	7.9
36-47	43.6	17.3	6.5	0.5	41.5	9.6
48-59	47.7	17.7	5.1	0.7	38.4	6.6

Source: Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey 2005.

Figure 11: Indicators of Malnutrition in Children Under 5 (%), by Age, 2005, Cambodia



Sources: Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey 2005.

The target for universal salt iodization is that more than 90% of households in any community regularly consume iodized salt, but use of iodized salt is far below target.

The national target for Vitamin A supplementation is 80%, but Cambodia is falling far short of this target, although significant progress has been made: in 2000, 28.5% of households used Vitamin A supplements, but by 2005 the figure had risen to 34.5%.

b. Assessing Progress Using Sub-National Data

Table 104: Enrolment in State Pre-schools, by Location, 2005/06, Cambodia

Location	Number	%
National	75,669	100
Urban	18,665	24.7
Rural	55,820	73.8
Remote	1,184	1.6

Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

Pre-school Enrolment. As can be seen in Table 104, approximately three quarters of the total enrolment in state pre-schools is in rural and remote areas, where an estimated 86% of households live. This is due in part to the expansion of pre-schools by attaching pre-schools to primary schools for five-year-old children in rural areas and in part because there are few or no private pre-schools in rural and remote areas. State pre-schools have been expanded almost everywhere except the most remote areas.

Nutrition. There are substantial differences in level of nutritional deficiencies between provinces. Pursat has the highest rate of stunting (62%) and wasting (17%) and the second highest rate of underweight children under five (49%). There is clearly a need for medical and nutritional interventions for the young children in this province, many of whom apparently suffer chronic malnutrition.

14.1.3 Analysis of Disparities in ECCE in Cambodia

a. Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality in ECCE

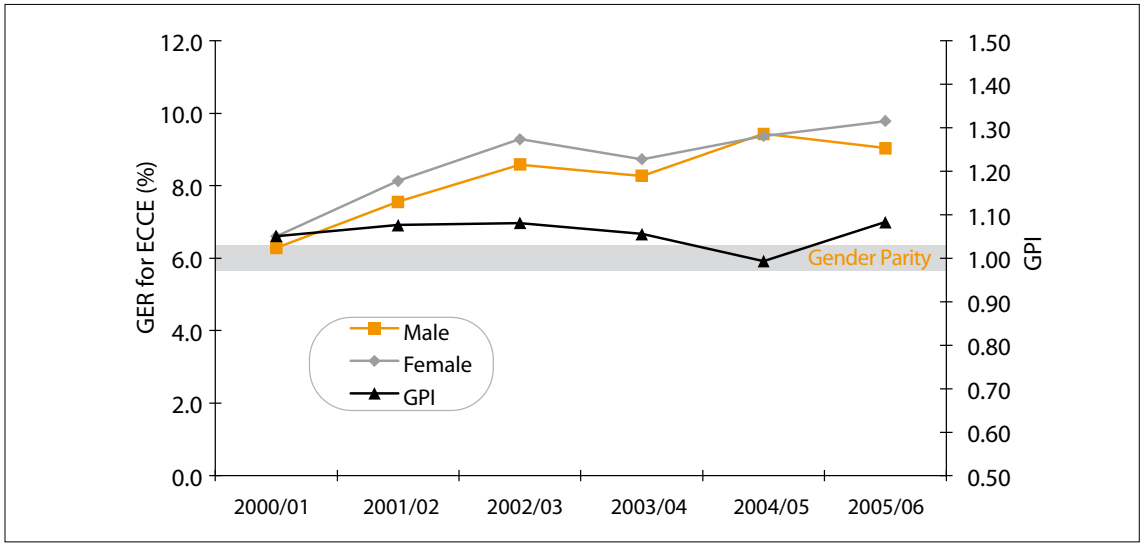
Pre-school Enrolment. In pre-schools, enrolment rates for girls tend to be slightly higher than the enrolment rates for boys, as seen in Table 105 and Figure 12.

Table 105: Pre-Primary GER, by Sex and GPI, 2000/01-2005/06, Cambodia

Year	GER (%)		GPI
	Male	Female	
2000/01	6.3	6.6	1.05
2001/02	7.6	8.1	1.08
2002/03	8.6	9.3	1.08
2003/04	8.3	8.7	1.06
2004/05	9.4	9.4	0.99
2005/06	9.0	9.8	1.08

Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

Figure 12: Pre-Primary GER, by Sex and GPI, 2000/01-2005/06, Cambodia



Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

Table 106: Malnutrition in Children Under Five (%), by Income Quintile, 2005, Cambodia

Quintile	Stunting (Height for Age)		Wasting (Weight for Height)		Underweight (Weight for Age)	
	S	M	S	M	S	M
National	12.9	37.3	0.8	7.3	6.9	35.6
Poorest	19.4	46.7	0.9	8.3	10.4	42.9
2nd	15.0	42.5	0.8	9.2	9.0	39.8
3rd	11.6	36.5	0.3	5.5	5.0	33.5
4th	9.7	35.5	1.1	6.0	5.5	34.3
Richest	5.6	19.4	0.7	6.7	2.8	23.1

Sources: Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey 2005.
Notes: S=Severe, M=Moderate.

Nutrition. There are small gender differences in children's malnutrition, but income has a significant effect, as shown in Table 106. Nearly half of the children in the poorest quintile of families are moderately stunted, and nearly one fifth are severely stunted. By comparison, less than one fifth of children in the richest quintile are moderately stunted and just over one out of 20 are severely stunted. A similar but weaker relationship is seen between income and underweight. On average for the country as a whole, 7% of children suffer moderate wasting, and less than 1% suffer severe wasting.

The relationship between income and wasting is quite weak; wasting is nearly as common in the upper income quintiles as in the lower quintiles. The relationship between income and stunting and underweight, however, is much stronger.

Table 107: Households Using Iodized Salt and Vitamin A Supplement (%), 2000 and 2005, Cambodia

Location	Iodized Salt	Vitamin A Supplement	
		2000	2005
National	72.5	28.5	34.5
Urban	84.8	38.8	32.5
Rural	70.5	27.0	34.9

Sources: Cambodia Demographic and Health Survey 2005.

Use of iodized salt and Vitamin A supplement are shown in Table 107. It can be seen that use of iodized salt is more common in urban areas than in rural areas. The pattern of consumption of Vitamin A supplement is less clear. Although significant progress has been made in the use of Vitamin A supplement in rural households since the beginning of the decade, a decline can be seen in urban households. It may be that urban dwellers have increasing access to foods rich in Vitamin A, such as milk, eggs, etc., and therefore need less Vitamin A supplementation.

b. Progress in Improving Quality of ECCE

Quality standards have been developed for the current ECCE programme for children of age 3-5 years and for five year-old children in the School Readiness Programme. Materials on thematic teaching methodology for five-year-old children have been developed. Technical and managerial capacity has been upgraded among education officials, national and provincial trainers, and school directors.

c. Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached"

In the near future, the MOEYS will expand services to include home-based programmes, through orientation of parents and caregivers on early childhood development in order to reach all children, including those of the disadvantaged and marginalized populations.

d. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goal

Progress. ECCE services expanded every year, through increased numbers of classrooms, centres, teachers, and community volunteers for public pre-schools, community pre-schools, and home-based programmes. Quality standards were developed for the care and development of children aged 3-5 years and for five-year-old children in the eight-week School Readiness Programme. Curricula for community pre-school teachers were developed, and community pre-school teachers were trained. The technical and managerial capacity of education officials, national and provincial trainers, and school directors was upgraded. Strong support was provided by leaders and stakeholders at all levels, including MOEYS leaders, local authorities, monks, parents, teachers, community leaders and international organizations and NGOs.

Best Practice. The School Readiness Programme has been found effective in reducing repetition and drop out rates and increasing promotion rate and school attendance.

e. Remaining Challenges and Issues

Systematic data collection and statistics management is weak and is lacking for community pre-schools, home-based programmes, and private pre-schools. Monitoring and evaluation of teaching practice seldom reaches remote areas. Private institutions are not monitored. There are no established criteria for disabled children, and ECCE coverage is still low among disadvantaged populations.

14.2 Goal Two: Universal Basic Education in Cambodia

14.2.1 Background and Expansion of Universal Basic Education in Cambodia

a. Definition of UBE

The formal educational structure in Cambodia comprises six years of primary school (Grades 1-6), three years of lower secondary school (Grades 7-9), and three years of upper secondary school (Grades 10-12). Basic education, within the framework of EFA, includes Grades 1-9.

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

There was significant policy development in 2006 with the following policies adopted: Inclusive Education Policy, New Basic Education Curriculum (Grades 1-9), Curriculum Standards for Grades 3, 6, and 9, and Teacher Standards for Basic Education. The Child-Friendly School Policy was adopted in 2007.

c. Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Children

Reforms introduced in 2001/02 abolished formal school fees for primary students and included a plan to provide operating budgets for schools to replace the fees. As a result, there was a surge in admission and enrolment. Many children who enrolled immediately after the reform were over-age, raising the Gross Intake Ratio (GIR) steeply in the first year of the reforms. The subsequent decline in over-age enrolment was reflected in the declining GIR after the surge.

14.2.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Cambodia

a. Assessing Progress Using Time Series Data

Table 108: Number of Primary and Lower Secondary Schools, 2000/01-2005/06, Cambodia

Year	Primary		Lower Secondary	
	Number	% Change	Number	% Change
2000/01	5,468	3.7	367	1.1
2001/02	5,741	5.0	379	3.3
2002/03	5,915	3.0	411	8.4
2003/04	6,063	2.5	486	18.2
2004/05	6,180	1.9	578	18.9
2005/06	6,277	1.6	670	15.9

Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

Number of Primary and Lower Secondary Schools. The number of primary schools grew steadily over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06, and by the end of the period the number of schools had increased by nearly 15%, although the year-on-year rate of expansion declined, as shown in Table 108. The number of lower secondary schools increased only slowly until 2002/03 but then increased much more rapidly than the number of primary schools, and by the end of the period the number of lower secondary schools had increased by 83%.

Primary School Intake and Enrolment. As a result of the reforms introduced in 2001/02, including abolishing formal school fees, there was a surge in new admission and enrolment, as seen in Table 109. Many of the new admissions were over-age, raising the Gross Intake Ratio (GIR) the Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) steeply in the first years of the reforms, and subsequently declining but with another sharp increase in 2005/06. Over the period from before the reform to 2005/06, NIR rose by 6 percentage points, and the proportion of "over-age" entries declined by 14 points.

Table 109: Primary GIR, NIR, GER and NER, 2000/01-2005/06, Cambodia

Year	Intake Ratio		Enrolment Ratio		% Over-age
	GIR	NIR	GER	NER	
2000/01	154.0	76.4	109.8	83.8	50.4
2001/02	188.9	80.6	125.1	87.0	57.3
2002/03	134.4	78.1	118.0	88.9	41.9
2003/04	135.2	78.7	119.9	90.1	41.8
2004/05	120.0	81.0	119.7	91.9	32.5
2005/06	130.4	82.6	124.0	91.3	36.6

Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

The surge in admission in the first year of the reform brought the GIR from 154% to 189%. The decline in over-age enrolment is reflected in the subsequent decline in the GIR. The longer-term effects of the reform are seen in the rising NIR and NER. Comparing over-age intake in 2000/01 and 2005/06, it would seem that the net effect of the reform was a reduction of over-age intake by approximately 10 percentage points in urban areas and 15 points in rural and remote areas.

Table 110: Lower Secondary GER and NER, 2000/01-2005/06, Cambodia

Year	GER (%)	NER (%)
2000/01	27.0	16.6
2001/02	32.7	18.9
2002/03	36.5	19.1
2003/04	39.3	21.3
2004/05	45.8	26.1
2005/06	55.3	31.3

Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

Lower Secondary School Enrolment. Progress in lower secondary school enrolment over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06 was dramatic, as seen in Table 110. GER more than doubled, and NER nearly doubled, reaching nearly one-third of the lower secondary school age population.

Repetition Rate and Survival Rates to Grades 5 and 6. Over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06, primary school repetition varied, as shown in Table 111 and Figure 13, but there was no systematic and enduring tendency toward reduction. Some 20% of Grade 1 and some 10%-15% of Grade 2 students tend to repeat. The average repetition over all grades varied slightly over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06, but remained around 10%.

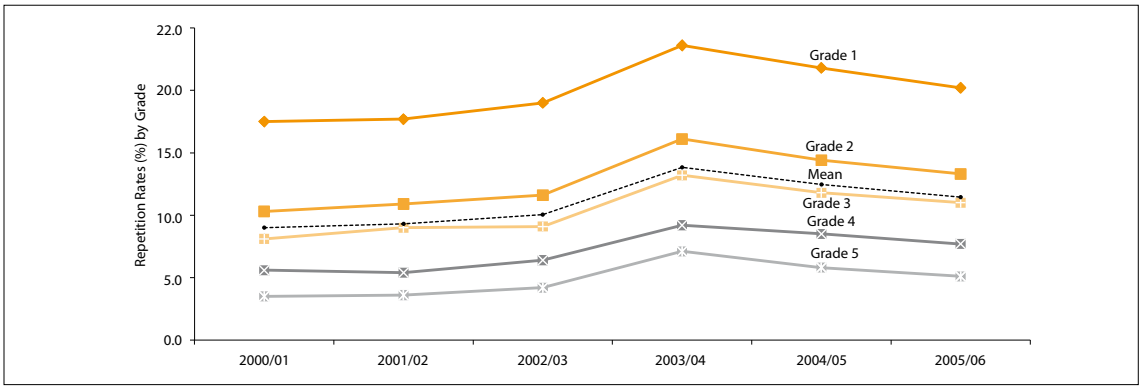
Over the past half-decade, the Survival Rate to Grade 5 shows no systematic trend toward reduction. This represents a significant inefficiency in the primary school system.

Table 111: Primary Repetition Rate, by Grade, 2000/01-2005/06, Cambodia

Year	Repetition Rate by Grade (%)						Survival to Grade 5	Survival to Grade 6
	1	2	3	4	5	Mean		
2000/01	17.5	10.3	8.1	5.6	3.5	9.0	58.4	51.2
2001/02	17.7	10.9	9.0	5.4	3.6	9.3	56.8	50.3
2002/03	19.0	11.6	9.1	6.4	4.2	10.0	55.2	48.8
2003/04	23.6	16.1	13.2	9.2	7.1	13.8	58.9	52.6
2004/05	21.8	14.4	11.8	8.5	5.8	12.4	55.5	48.2
2005/06	20.2	13.3	11.0	7.7	5.1	11.5	57.0	49.3

Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

Figure 13: Primary Repetition Rate (%), by Grade, 2000/01-2005/06, Cambodia



Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

Table 112: Survival Rate to Grades 5 and 6, by Sex and GPI, 2004/05, Cambodia

	Total (%)	Female (%)	Male (%)	GPI
Survival to Grade 5	55.5	54.9	56.0	0.98
Survival to Grade 6	48.2	47.6	48.7	0.98

Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

Survival Rates to Grades 5 and 6. Although the overall Survival Rate to Grade 5 has shown no systematic improvement, there has been improvement in the GPI, with gender parity achieved, as shown in Table 112.

b. Assessing Progress Using Sub-National Data

Table 113: Total and Incomplete Schools, 2005/06, Cambodia

	Primary			Lower Secondary		
	Total	Incomplete	% Incomplete	Total	Incomplete	% Incomplete
National	6,277	1,719	27.4	670	173	25.8
Urban	663	106	16.0	84	18	21.4
Rural	5,101	1,296	25.4	555	143	25.8
Remote	513	317	61.8	31	12	38.7

Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

Schools. Considerable progress was made in school construction between 2000/01 and 2005/06, especially in rural and remote areas, as seen in Table 113. In rural areas the total number of primary schools rose, but the number of complete primary schools rose even more, as hundreds of incomplete schools were "completed", in many cases by providing teachers for all grades rather than by facilities construction. The total number of lower secondary schools also increased substantially, but in 2005/06 a quarter of them in rural areas were incomplete, and in remote areas more than a third were incomplete.

Enrolment. In urban and rural areas, GIR tended to fall over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06, while NIR tended to rise, as increasing proportions of school-age children enrolled at the official age. GIR in rural areas fell almost to that in urban areas, while in remote areas, GIR tended to rise, as increasing numbers of children entered school regardless of age. Urban areas showed less impact of elimination of formal fees, compared with a significantly larger increase in rural and remote areas. This suggests that fees had been a significant barrier to primary school entrance in rural and remote areas but not in urban areas. When the barrier was lowered, many over-age children who had been unable to attend school before now entered first grade. By 2005/06, the difference in intake ratios between urban and rural areas had almost vanished, but remote areas lagged, with significantly lower NIR and higher over-age intake, as seen in Table 114.

Table 114: Intake and Enrolment Ratios, by Location, 2005/06, Cambodia

Location	Primary					Lower Secondary	
	GIR	NIR	Over-Age	GER	NER	GER	NER
National	130.4	82.6	36.6	124.0	91.3	55.3	31.3
Urban	125.4	83.7	33.3	122.5	91.2	88.5	50.1
Rural	130.1	82.9	36.2	124.4	91.7	50.2	28.6
Remote	155.6	73.2	53.0	122.3	83.7	17.8	6.0

Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

By 2005/06, virtual parity had been achieved for the primary GER between urban, rural, and remote areas, although the NER lagged in remote regions. At lower secondary level, very substantial differences remain between urban, rural, and remote areas, for both GER and NER.

14.2.3 Analysis of Disparities in UBE in Cambodia

a. Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality in UBE

School Intake and Enrolments. Although the removal of primary school fees resulted in increased intake and enrolment, it had little impact on gender disparities. The GPI for GER was 0.93 before the reform and 0.92 in 2005/06; the GPI for NER was 0.97 before the reform and 0.98 in 2005/06, as shown in Table 115. The GPI for NIR is higher than for GIR, which indicates that girls are less likely to enter primary school than boys, but if they do they are more likely to enter at the official age. Stable gender parity for NIR may have been reached by 2005/06.

Table 115: Intake and Enrolment Ratios, by Sex and GPI, 2005/06, Cambodia

Indicator	Primary		Primary		Lower Secondary	
	GIR	NIR	GER	NER	GER	NER
National	130.4	82.6	124.0	91.3	55.3	31.3
Female	125.1	81.8	118.6	89.7	50.0	30.4
Male	135.6	83.5	129.4	93.0	60.5	32.1
GPI	0.92	0.98	0.92	0.96	0.83	0.95

Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

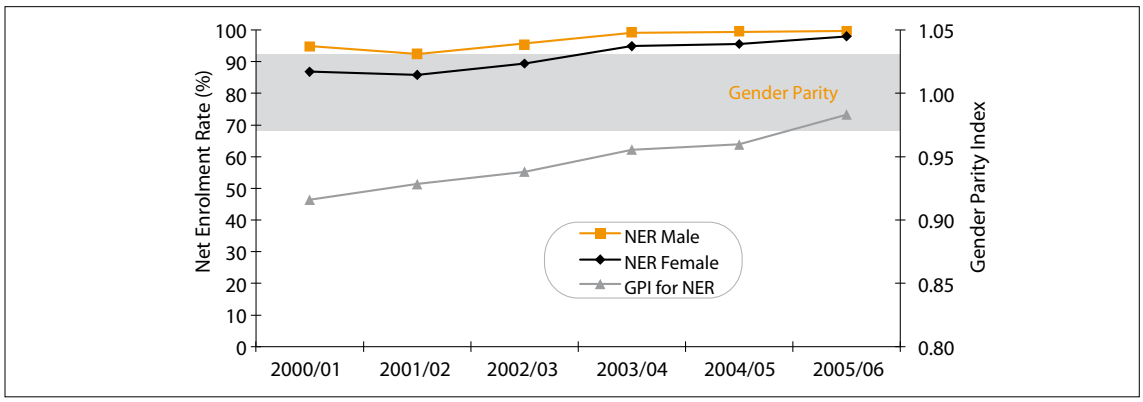
Although the removal of primary school fees appeared to have little effect on admission, there may have been a slight impact on retention, since GPI for both GER and NER tended to rise slightly. Great progress has been achieved in lower secondary school enrolment, not only in the rapid increase in gross and net enrolment rate but also in the gender balance. The GPI for the GER shows that boys are still more likely to be in school than girls, but the GPI for the NER is close to gender parity, as seen in Table 116 and Figure 14.

Table 116: Primary GER and NER, by Sex and GPI, 2000/01-2005/06, Cambodia

	Gross Enrolment Ratio			Net Enrolment Rate		
	Male	Female	GPI	Male	Female	GPI
2000/01	113.5	98.9	0.87	94.8**	86.8**	0.92
2001/02	123.4	109.4	0.89	92.4**	85.8**	0.93
2002/03	139.5	125.0	0.90	95.3**	89.4**	0.94
2003/04	142.5	129.1	0.91	99.3	94.9	0.96
2004/05	142.5	130.5	0.92	99.6	95.6	0.96
2005/06	139.3	128.7	0.92	99.7	98.0	0.98

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

Figure 14: Primary NER by Sex and GPI, 2000/01-2005/06, Cambodia



Source: UISDC, February 2008.

Table 117: Repetition Rate (%), by Sex and Location, 2004/05, Cambodia

Location	Primary		Lower Sec.		Upper Sec.	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
National	12.4	15.2	2.7	5.0	3.5	5.8
Urban	9.0	11.5	4.4	6.8	3.0	5.4
Rural	12.9	15.7	2.1	4.3	4.0	6.1
Remote	18.1	19.1	1.3	1.9	…	…

Source: MOEYS, EMIS.
Note: "…" indicates no data available.

Repetition. At the primary level, repetition rates are typically several points higher for boys than for girls. Similarly, repetition rates have been higher in rural areas than in urban areas and higher still in remote areas, as can be seen in Table 117. Repetition rates are substantially lower at secondary level than at primary level. As with primary school repetition, however, rates tend to be lower for girls than for boys.

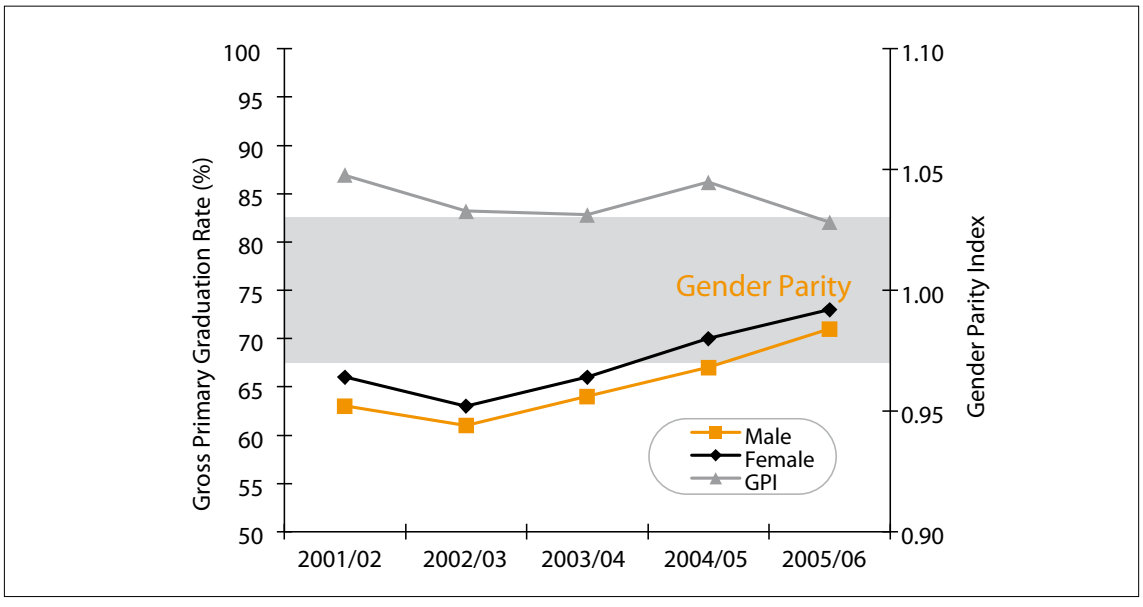
Table 118: Gross Primary Graduation Rate, by Sex and GPI, 2001/02-2005/06, Cambodia

	Males (%)	Females (%)	GPI
2001/02	63	66	1.05
2002/03	61	63	1.03
2003/04	64	66	1.03
2004/05	67	70	1.04
2005/06	71	73	1.03

Source: UISDC, February 2008.

Graduation from Primary. Although repetition rates have not shown any systematic tendency to decline, as shown in Table 111, page 105 above, primary school graduation rose substantially over the period 2001/02 to 2005/06, as shown in Table 118 and Figure 15. Over the whole period, the primary graduation rate for females has been higher than the graduation rate for males, and there is no clear tendency toward gender parity in graduation rates.

Figure 15: Gross Primary Graduation Rate, by Sex and GPI, 2001/02-2005/06, Cambodia



Source: UISDC, February 2008.

b. Progress in Improving Quality of UBE

Table 119: Total and Incomplete Schools, 2000/01-2005/06, Cambodia

	2000/01		2005/06		Change	
	Total	Incomplete	Total	Incomplete	Total	Incomplete
Primary	5,468	2,484	6,277	1,719	809	-765
Lower Sec.	367	21	670	173	303	152

Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

Incomplete Schools. The problem of incomplete schools is not confined to remote areas. Incomplete primary and lower secondary schools constricts the availability of basic education across the nation. The solution involves not only physical facilities but also effective deployment of human resources and effective instructional arrangements. Where class size is small, multi-grade teaching can be an effective solution, but appropriate pedagogical training is required.

Lack of access to complete schools is one of the causes of high dropout rates. Although the total number of primary schools increased by 15% and the number of incomplete schools declined by nearly a third, the Survival Rate to Grade 5 showed no systematic tendency to decline.

At the lower secondary level, by contrast, the total number of schools rose by over 80% and the number of incomplete schools increased seven-fold over the period 2000/01 and 2005/06. The Survival Rate to Grade 6 rose.

c. Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached"

Remote areas face many problems. Difficulties in provision of schooling services at reasonable distance from homes lead to over-age enrolment and paucity of schools. The sub-national categories urban, rural, and remote are useful for highlighting trends, but they do not correspond to any institutional structures or coherent constituencies around which targeted interventions can easily be organized. The province or the district might be the most appropriate unit for finding ways of "reaching the unreached".

In order to reach all children, more attention should be paid to the particular needs of poor, disabled, and disadvantaged ethnic group children. Hostels or mobile teacher programmes should be prepared to help teach children in remote areas. Scholarships should be offered to poor children, especially girls, in the primary school from Grades 4-6 to prevent dropout, and life skill programmes at primary school should be improved. Inclusive education should be implemented in all provinces. Bilingual classes from Grade 1 at schools with ethnic groups should be prepared.

d. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goal

Progress. The removal of primary school fees led to a surge in admission and enrolment in 2001/02, with continued improvements in the following years. Rural and remote areas showed the greatest improvement, confirming that fees had been a significant barrier to primary school entrance, especially in the remote areas.

At the national level, the Survival Rate to Grade 5 shows little improvement over the period 1999/00 to 2004/05, although there was improvement in the GPI, and gender parity was achieved in 2002/03. Despite persistent high repetition and drop-out levels, however, gross student survival to Grade 6 has improved.

e. Remaining Challenges and Issues

Despite the expansion of both primary and lower secondary schooling, school enrolment among disadvantaged population including remote, ethnic, poor, and disabled children is low. Repetition

rates are unacceptably high at primary level, especially at lower grades, and dropout rate at upper primary and lower secondary levels are also high.

There is a lack of qualified teachers, especially in remote areas. There is a lack of classrooms and school buildings in both urban and remote areas. The School Readiness Programme has yet to be implemented in all schools, and the child-friendly school concepts are not fully understood among stakeholders. Community participation in education is low in some areas.

14.3 Goal Three: Life Skills and Lifelong Learning in Cambodia

14.3.1 Background and Development of Life Skills and Non-Formal Education in Cambodia

a. Definition of Life Skills and Lifelong Learning

Life skill is defined as an ability which everyone needs for effective personal living, high safety in the family and the community, and participation in national development. Three categories are identified: (a) Basic skills, including literacy, numeracy, etc; (b) Psycho-social skills, including reflective, personal and interpersonal skills, problem solving, communication, team work, etc; and (c) Practical and functional skills, including skills relating to specific vocations or to health. Life skills include mental skills, interpersonal skills, and vocational skills which can help in decision-making and effective relationships. The objective of life skills programmes are: (a) To provide knowledge and simple career skills to out-of-school youth, widows, poor people, disabled people, working children, and poor ethnic groups for daily living; (b) To reduce unemployment and poverty effectively; and (c) Enable the beneficiaries to take part in social activities and national development.

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

In recent years, there have been important policy developments, mostly related to curricula. The Non-Formal Education Policy was disseminated in 2002. In 2004, the Policy for Curriculum Development 2005-2009 was issued, and in 2006 the Master Plan for implementation of the Policy was developed. The policies for life skills in lower secondary education and for life skills in non-formal and formal education were issued in 2006.

c. Target Populations for Life Skills and Lifelong Learning Programmes

Different target populations are set for different programmes, but the target group is typically in the range 6-18 years of age. Youth is defined to cover 15-24 year olds.

d. Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Groups

The Mobile School Vehicle programme, under the Department of Non-Formal Education of the MOEYS, supported by UNESCO, aims to provide opportunities for the disadvantaged young population to learn and use ICT, especially in rural and remote areas. The programme has been implemented at 154 places in 20 provinces with 5,030 participants (2,279 females) aged 6-18 years.

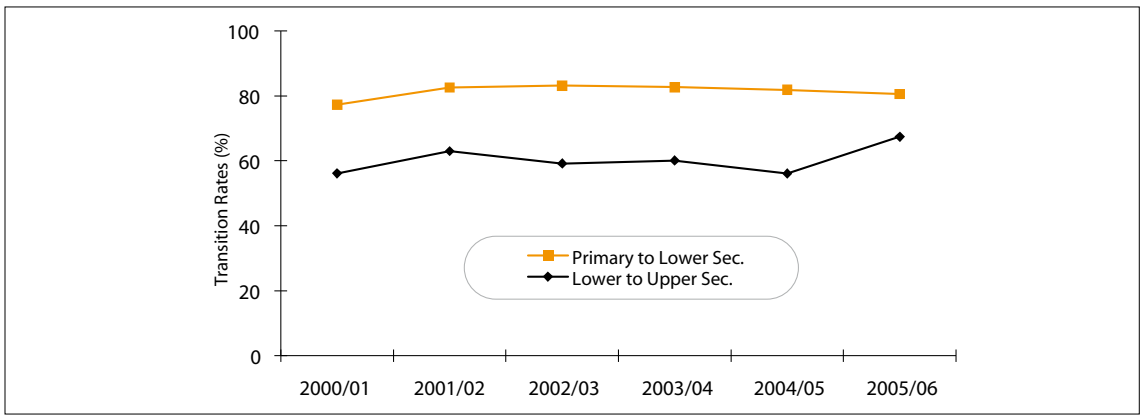
The current programme of construction of lower secondary schools will nearly double the number of lower secondary schools. This will have a dramatic impact on capacity of the lower secondary level to admit the increasing numbers flowing through the primary level. The continued expansion of a National Scholarship Programme is also likely to lower the cost barriers to transition between 6th and 7th grades and increase the transition rate, especially in rural and remote areas. Both factors will contribute to achieving the EFA goal of providing basic education, covering Grades 1 through 9.

14.3.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Cambodia

a. Assessing Progress Using Time Series Data

Transition from Primary to Upper Secondary School. Over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06, the transition rate to lower secondary school increased from 2000/01 to 2002/03, then declined slightly each year up to 2005/06, ending the period with a total gain of 3.6 percentage points, as shown in Table 120 and Figure 16. Over the same period, there was an unsteady rise of 11.2 percentage points in transition rates to Upper Secondary.

Figure 16: Transition Rates (%), Primary to Upper Secondary, 2000/01-2005/06, Cambodia



Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

Table 120: Transition Rates (%), Primary to Upper Secondary, 2000/01-2005/06, Cambodia

Year	Primary to Lower Secondary	Lower to Upper Secondary
2000/01	77.3	56.2
2001/02	82.6	63.0
2002/03	83.2	59.2
2003/04	82.7	60.1
2004/05	81.9	56.1
2005/06	80.6	67.4

Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

Table 121: Participants in Life Skills Training Programmes in 2000-2006, Cambodia

Ministry or Institution	Total	%
MOEYS	688,820	90.2
Training at CLCs	70,364	9.2
Literacy with Vocational Education	377,652	49.5
Re-entry Programme	56,929	7.5
ICT training by mobile unit	5,030	0.7
Training at private schools	111,395	14.6
Training with NGOs	67,450	8.8
Ministry of Women's Affairs	4,776	0.6
Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training	69,699	9.1
Total	763,295	

Sources: MOP, Cambodia Inter-censal Population Survey 2004 (CIPS), National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Planning; Cambodia MOP, Cambodia Socio-economic Surveys (CSES), National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Planning; and Cambodia MOP, General Population Census of Cambodia, National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Planning, 1998.

The Non-formal System. Over 700,000 persons participated in the various life skills training programmes from 2000 to 2006, as shown in Table 121. Over 90% of these programmes were offered by the MOEYS, and 9% were offered by the Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training.

b. Assessing Progress Using Sub-National Data

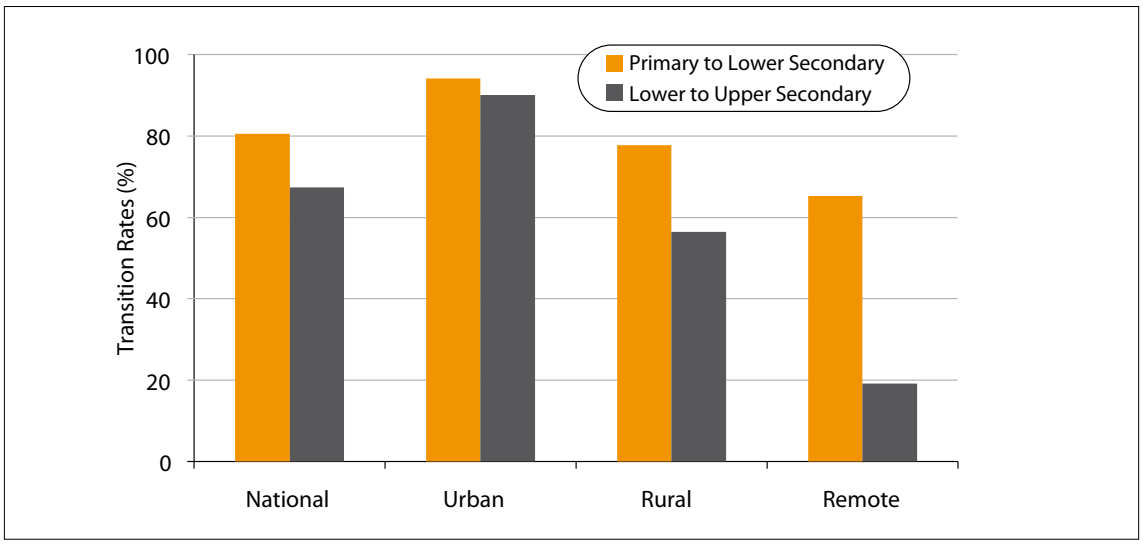
Transition Rates. The trend in the transition rate from primary to lower secondary in both urban and rural areas followed the national trend. The trend in remote areas showed increases almost every year. By 2005/06, there remained sharp differences in transition rates between urban, rural, and remote areas, as shown in Table 122 and Figure 17. Over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06, transition rates increased more in rural areas than in urban areas, and more in remote areas than in rural areas. Nevertheless, by 2005/06, there were still significant differences between urban, rural, and remote areas in transition rates from primary to lower secondary; there were vast differences in transition rates from lower to upper secondary. The sudden increase in the transition rate in remote areas is probably due in part to the scholarships for 7th graders introduced in 2003/04, then successively through to Grade 12, aimed specifically at poor communes, primarily in rural and remote areas.

Table 122: Transition Rates (%), by Location, 2005/06, Cambodia

Location	Primary to Lower Secondary	Lower to Upper Secondary
National	80.6	67.4
Urban	94.1	90.1
Rural	77.7	56.5
Remote	65.2	19.2

Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

Figure 17: Transition Rates (%), by Location, 2005/06, Cambodia



Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

14.3.3 Analysis of Disparities in Life Skills in Cambodia

a. Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality in Life Skills, NFE and TVET

Table 123: Transition from Primary to Lower Secondary, 2005/06, Cambodia

Indicator	National	Male	Female	GPI
Primary to Lower Sec.	80.6	82.3	78.7	0.96
Lower to Upper Sec.	67.4	66.8	68.3	1.02

Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

Transition Rates. Over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06, the transition rate from primary and lower secondary rose for girls and fell for boys. Thus although female transition to lower secondary school lagged behind male transition rates, the gender gap steadily closed. An increase in GPI probably reflects the impact of scholarships for 7th graders that were primarily targeted to poor girls in rural areas and remote ethnic group areas. By 2005/06 the GPI for transition rate from primary to lower secondary had nearly reached the EFA criterion for achievement of gender parity, as shown in Table 123. For the transition rate from lower to upper secondary, the GPI was 1.02, indicating that girls were slightly more likely than boys to continue from lower to upper secondary school.

Life Skills and Lifelong Learning. Taking all kinds of life skills programmes as a whole, there were more female participants than male, as shown in Table 124. In most of the programmes, however, females were under-represented. Only in two of the MOEYS programmes do more females participate than males, namely Literacy with Vocational Education (the largest single programme) and Training with NGOs. Only 40% of the participants in programmes offered by the Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training were females.

Table 124: Participants in Life Skills Training Programmes in 2000-2006, Cambodia

Ministry or Institution	Total	Male	Female	% Female
MOEYS	688,820	235,187	425,633	61.8
Training at CLCs	70,364	35,917	34,447	48.2
Literacy with Vocational Education	377,652	113,476	264,176	70.0
Re-entry Programme	56,929	3,280	25,649	45.0
ICT training by mobile truck	5,030	2,751	2,279	45.3
Training at private schools	111,395	59,166	52,229	46.9
Training with NGOs	67,450	20,597	46,853	69.5
Ministry of Women's Affairs	4,776	0	4,776	100.0
Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training	69,699	41,587	28,112	40.3
Total	763,295	304,774	458,521	60.1

Sources: Cambodia MOP, Cambodia Inter-censal Population Survey 2004 (CIPS), National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Planning; Cambodia MOP, Cambodia Socio-economic Surveys (CSES), National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Planning; and and Cambodia MOP, General Population Census of Cambodia, National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Planning, 1998.

b. Progress in Improving Quality of Life Skills, NFE, and TVET

Monitoring and evaluation of the quality and effectiveness of life skills programmes has been regularly done in 2000 to 2005. The working group led by the Department of Non-Formal Education of MOEYS has closely worked with the Ministries of Labour and Vocational Training, CLCs, Culture and Fine Arts, Agriculture, Forestry, and Fishery, Rural Development, Women's Affairs and Health with financial, material and technical support from UNESCO, UNICEF, ILO/IPEC.

c. Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached"

In the formal school system, there has been good progress toward gender parity in intake, enrolment, and transition rates. In the non-formal system, however, there remains a gender bias in many TVET programmes.

Although the objective of the life skills programme is to provide skills to poor, unemployed, and disadvantaged people, there is little information on the extent to which these programmes actually reach out to the "unreached". The Mobile School Vehicle Programme is an exception.

d. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goal

Overall Progress. The PAP budget was able to support some 42 skills training institutions and to significantly increase the number of CLCs and CLC-based training programmes. Interministerial coordination and cooperation improved, and good cooperation with NGOs was established.

Best Practices. The Mobile School Vehicle Programme aims to provide opportunities for disadvantaged young people to learn and use ICT, especially in rural and remote areas. The programme has been implemented at 154 places in 20 provinces and has over 5,000 participants (45% females) aged 6-18 years. A vocational training is conducted for women and children with disabilities.

The continued expansion of a National Scholarship Programme is likely to lower the cost barriers to transition between 6th and 7th grades and increase the transition rate, especially in rural and remote areas. Both factors will contribute to achieving the EFA goal of providing a basic education, Grades 1 through 9 for all.

e. Remaining Challenges and Issues

Disparities in coverage of skills training programmes remain, between men and women, between urban, rural, and remote areas, and between rich and poor. Sometimes training programmes do not match the needs of either the trainees or labour market demand. Locally available human resources and materials are yet to be fully utilized.

The cooperation and coordination between different departments and ministries need to be further improved to ensure better coherence and synergy among different skills training programmes. Systematic and comprehensive data collection mechanisms and tools need to be established to provide accurate and up-to-date information on skills training programmes in relation to established goals.

14.4 Goal Four: Literacy in Cambodia

14.4.1 Background and Development of Literacy Acquisition in Cambodia

a. Definition of Literacy

Literacy is the ability to read and write with understanding a simple statement related to one's daily life. It involves a continuum of reading and writing, often including also basic arithmetic skills (numeracy).

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

National policy and legislation on literacy include the National Policy for Non-Formal Education issued in 2002 and the National Non-Formal Education Action Plan issued in 2003.

The objective of non-formal education is to provide learning opportunities primarily to people who are poor, lacking assets, living in rural and remote areas, etc. Past experience has shown that districts in which the local authorities are seriously concerned about education and health care will mobilize more effort and contributions from the community to participate in non-formal education programmes such as literacy classes and training skills courses.

Many ministries besides MOEYS are involved in literacy programmes, including Women Affairs, Rural Development, Religious Affairs, Social Affairs and Veterans, Interior, Agriculture and Fishery, and Public Health. Many NGOs also support literacy programmes.

c. Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Groups

A number of programmes providing literacy training and other non-formal education programmes for disadvantaged groups are available. Adult functional literacy programmes deliver training in literacy, numeracy, and essential life skills, including problem-solving, critical thinking, information gathering, decision-making, communication, negotiation, and learning how to learn. CLCs offer adult functional literacy and family life improvement, income-generation skills and entrepreneurship, primary and lower secondary equivalency for children and youth, post-literacy and continuing education materials and information, and family education for early childhood development.

Equivalency programmes are flexible, part-time programmes aimed at the primary and lower secondary levels to meet the needs of out-of-school youth and children, allowing possibilities for both further study and/or for entering the world of work. Re-entry programmes are short-term activities aimed at bringing recent primary school drop-outs back into the formal primary system, focusing on children aged 10-14 years, who have recently dropped out of primary school. Bilingual programmes target disadvantaged ethnic groups.

14.4.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Cambodia

a. Assessing Progress Using Time Series Data

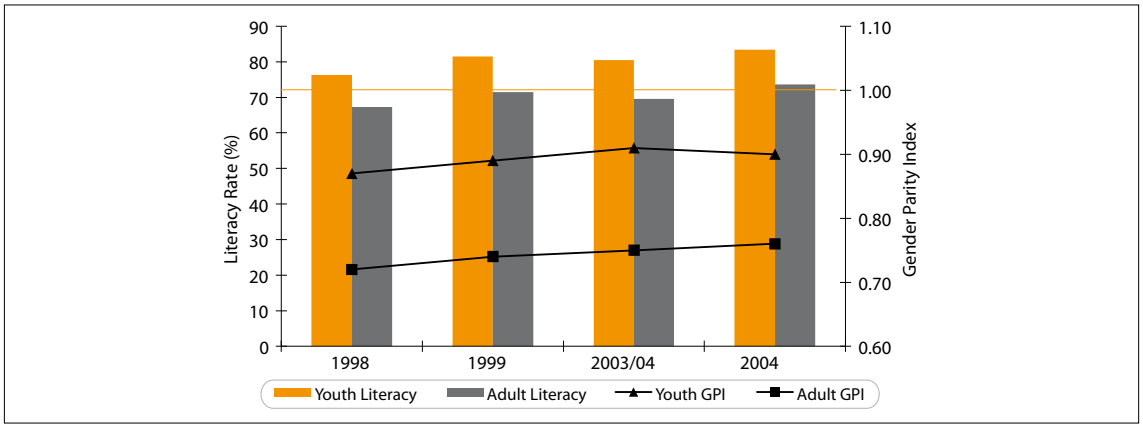
Literacy and Literacy Programme. An intensive monitoring of literacy programmes was conducted in 2004. Although the data on youth literacy rate has some gaps, the trends are visible in Table 125 and Figure 18. Between 1998 and 2004, the youth literacy rate (age 15-24) rose by 7 percentage points and the adult literacy rate (age 15+) rose by 6 points.

Table 125: Youth and Adult Literacy Rates and GPI, 1998-2004, Cambodia

Year	Youth Age 15-24		Adult Age 15+	
	Literacy	GPI	Literacy	GPI
1998	76.3	0.87	67.3	0.72
1999	81.5	0.89	71.5	0.74
2003/04	80.5	0.91	69.6	0.75
2004	83.4	0.90	73.6	0.76

Sources: MOP, Cambodia Inter-censal Population Survey 2004 (CIPS), National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Planning; MOP, Cambodia Socio-economic Surveys (CSES), National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Planning; and MOP, General Population Census of Cambodia, National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Planning, 1998.

Figure 18: Youth and Adult Literacy Rates and GPI, 1998-2004, Cambodia



Sources: MOP, Cambodia Inter-censal Population Survey 2004 (CIPS), National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Planning; MOP, Cambodia Socio-economic Surveys (CSES), National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Planning; and MOP, General Population Census of Cambodia, National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Planning, 1998.

Low adult literacy suggests persistent gaps and challenges in access to quality primary education over recent history. In Cambodia, the social upheavals since the 1940's associated with the end of colonial rule, the Japanese occupation, Independence, the civil war, Khmer Rouge elimination of education, the Vietnamese occupation, and continuing unsettled civil conditions after the Paris Peace Accords until the late 1990's are all reflected in low literacy rates for adults.

Table 126: Number of Classes and Participants in Adult Literacy Programmes, 1999/00-2005/06, Cambodia

Year	Number of classes	Total Enrolment
1999/00	1,578	30,449
2000/01	2,637	59,855
2001/02	3,483	71,236
2002/03	5,039	105,034
2003/04	5,206	105,430
2004/05	5,410	119,686
2005/06	4,317	87,008

Source: NFE Department, MOEYS.

The number of participants involved in the adult literacy programmes from 2000 though 2005 is shown in Table 126. Between 1999/2000 and 2004/05, the number of adult literacy classes increased more than three-fold, and the number of participants increased nearly four-fold. Then between 2004/05 and 2005/06, the number of classes fell by 20% and enrolment fell by 27%.

b. Assessing Progress Using Sub-National Data

Literacy and Literacy Programme. As seen in Table 127, Phnom Penh has the highest literacy rates, for both youth (age 15-24) and adults (age 15+). Other urban centres had lower literacy rates than Phnom Penh but higher than rural areas.

Table 127: Youth and Adult Literacy Rates, by Location, 2004, Cambodia

Youth Age 15-24				Adults Age 15+			
National	Phnom Penh	Other Urban	Rural	National	Phnom Penh	Other Urban	Rural
83.4	93.7	88.7	81.3	73.6	88.8	80.1	70.9

Source: MOP, Cambodia Inter-censal Population Survey 2004 (CIPS), National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Planning.

14.4.3 Analysis of Disparities in Literacy in Cambodia

a. Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality in Literacy

Gender. Female literacy continues to lag behind male literacy. For youth literacy, this reflects the higher enrolment rates of males in primary and lower secondary education over the past 10 years; for adult literacy it reflects mainly the history of Cambodia over the past century. The gap is gradually narrowing, however, and the GPI for youth literacy had risen to 0.90 by 2004, and for adult literacy to 0.76, as shown in Table 125 and Table 128.

The adult literacy gap is closing. Females have been much more likely than males to participate in literacy programmes, as seen in Table 129. They have also been more likely to graduate from the literacy programmes, but these tendencies have been declining toward improved gender balance. Complete gender parity in participation in adult literacy programmes, however, will probably be delayed until gender parity is reached in youth literacy rates.

Table 128: Youth and Adult Literacy Rates, by Sex and GPI, 2004, Cambodia

Youth Age 15-24				Adult Age 15+			
National	Female	Male	GPI	National	Female	Male	GPI
83.4	78.9	87.9	0.90	73.6	64.0	84.7	0.76

Source: MOP, Cambodia Inter-censal Population Survey 2004 (CIPS), National Institute of Statistics, Ministry of Planning.

Table 129: Participation in Adult Literacy Programmes, by Sex, 2005/06, Cambodia

Classes	Enrolment			Graduated		
	Total	Female	% Female	Total Graduates	Female Graduates	% Female
4,317	87,008	47,032	54.1	67,865	42,053	62.0

Source: NFE Department, MOEYS.

b. Progress in Improving Quality of Literacy Training

In practice, because of limited resources and urgent priorities focused on education of the young, it is understood that improved primary school access and quality in rural areas may eventually be reflected in improved literacy rates for the population aged 15 and above. This expected improvement in rates may begin to be evident in about 5 to 10 years from now.

c. Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached"

As a consequence of the violence, destruction, and dislocations in the years before, during, and after the Khmer Rouge regime, earlier literacy gains were lost. In some provinces youth literacy rates are distinctly lower than adult literacy rates. These differences are especially marked in Kratie, Mondulkiri, Preah Vihear, Ratanakiri and Stung Treng, areas which are predominantly remote, forested, hill areas populated by numerous ethnic groups.

Gender differences in literacy rates in the adult population are substantial but falling gradually, at least in part as a consequence of rising gender parity in basic education.

d. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goals

Progress. Enrolment increased significantly in the functional literacy programmes, especially among females. The number of CLC facilitators, trainers, teachers, and participants increased. The coverage of literacy activities for disadvantaged population expanded including the rural, poor, and female population. Among trainers and literacy teachers, the number of women and members of disadvantaged ethnic groups increased.

Best Practices. Experience has shown that in districts where the local authorities are seriously concerned about education, more resources will be mobilized and participation in programmes will be higher. This effort leads to the success of many programmes' objectives. To strengthen the capacity of the programmes to reach the target group and to be successful, the role of the local authority has to be considered as a first priority, so the task of the EFA committee at the district level should be to review and activate the District and Commune EFA Committees.

An intensive monitoring of literacy programmes was conducted in 2004 using stakeholders' surveys and interviews. Most of the surveyed students stated that the literacy classes were very useful because they learned how to read, write, calculate, and reason as well as how to deal with daily life. The majority of the students reported that the knowledge gained from the programmes was useful for their daily lives and had contributed to the improvement of their living standards.

e. Remaining Challenges and Issues

The challenge remains to reach the unreached, including adults, especially women. Attention has been paid to gender equity for school children, but literacy campaigns for adults have not kept pace. The low gender parity level for adult literacy shows that the adult literacy programmes needed should be targeted especially at women, including the mothers of children in the present school-age and pre-school age group. Their literacy will be able to support the school learning of their children. This group must be provided training in basic literacy and numeracy skills to raise adult literacy and gender parity to acceptable rates.

While attention has been paid to gender equity and provision of literacy for children over the last 5 to 10 years, literacy campaigns for adults have not kept pace. The disparity between the youth and the adult literacy rates demonstrate the need to reach adults with literacy training. The low gender parity level for adult literacy shows that adult literacy programmes should be targeted especially at women, including mothers of school-age children, and whose own literacy will guarantee the consolidation of gains for their children.

14.5 Goal Five: Gender Equality in Education in Cambodia

14.5.1 Background and Development of Gender Parity and Equality in Cambodia

a. National Policy and Legislation for Gender Equality

Policies and regulations issued for the sector during the period 2000-2006 include, the Gender Mainstreaming Strategy 2002-2006 from the Commitment to Action issued in 2002; the Cambodian Gender Education Policy drafted in 2003; the Gender Mainstreaming Strategy in Education for 2006-2010 drafted in 2006, and the Quality Standards and Indicators for Gender Mainstreaming in Education drafted in 2006.

b. Strategies and Programmes for Achieving Gender Equality

The strategy for the achievement of gender equality contains three components: (a) Girls' Equal Access to Education; (b) Enhancing Gender Equity in Education, Management, and Delivery Services; and (c) Strengthening Gender Technical Capacity in Education Programming and Policy-Making.

14.5.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Cambodia

a. Assessing Progress Using Time Series Data

School Enrolment. At all levels of general schooling, girls are significantly under-represented, as seen from the GPIs in Table 130 and Figure 19. Four trends concerning gender parity can be seen: (a) At all levels there is a gender imbalance in favour of boys, but the trend over time is toward steadily increasing gender parity; (b) At all levels, since the GPI for the NER is higher than the GPI for the GER, although males are more likely to be enrolled, females are less likely to be over-age; (c) The higher the level of schooling, the greater the gender disparity – the disparity is least at primary level and greatest at upper secondary level; and (d) The level of schooling showing the greatest improvement in gender parity is lower secondary, followed by upper secondary.

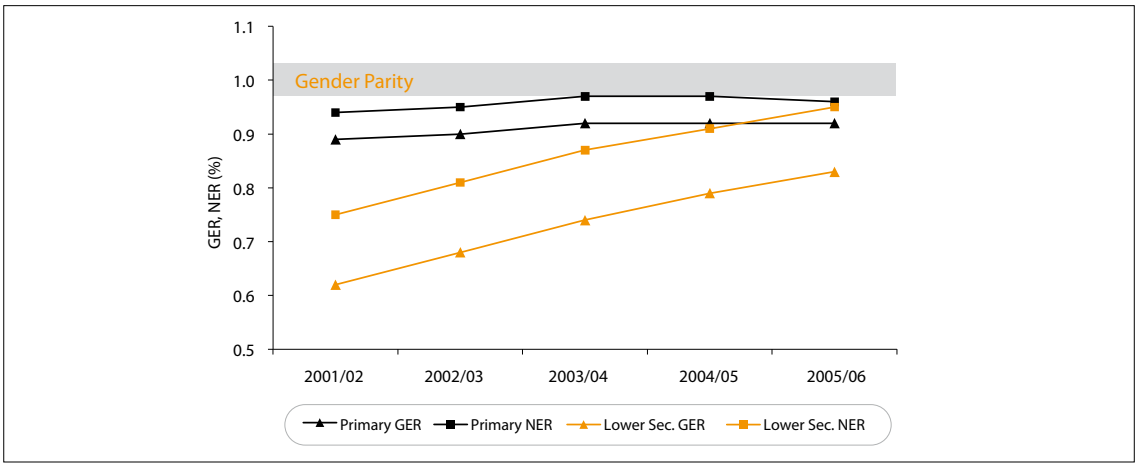
Table 130: Primary and Secondary Enrolment Ratios, by Sex and GPI, 2000/01-2005/06, Cambodia

Year	Primary GER			Primary NER			Lower Sec. GER			Lower Sec. NER		
	F	M	GPI	F	M	GPI	F	M	GPI	F	M	GPI
2000/01	103.2	…	…	80.7	…	…	20.3	…	…	13.7	…	…
2001/02	118.1	132.6	0.89	84.2	90.0	0.94	25.6	41.6	0.62	16.4	21.9	0.75
2002/03	112.0	123.8	0.90	86.8	91.0	0.95	29.5	43.4	0.68	17.1	21.1	0.81
2003/04	115.1	124.5	0.92	88.6	91.5	0.97	33.3	45.2	0.74	19.8	22.7	0.87
2004/05	114.4	125.0	0.92	90.7	93.1	0.97	40.3	51.2	0.79	24.8	27.3	0.91
2005/06	118.6	129.4	0.92	89.7	93.0	0.96	50.0	60.5	0.83	30.4	32.1	0.95

Source: MOEYS, EMIS.
Note: "…" indicates no data available.

Adult Literacy. The GPI for adult literacy rose steadily over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06. This probably reflects the fact that since the late 1990s, as the primary school system has expanded, more females have had access to primary education and attained literacy. National level rates for adult literacy for males and females show a very strong predominance of male literacy over female literacy, but there is a trend toward increasing GPI. If the current educational trends continue, then it is likely that gender parity in the youth literacy rate will be achieved within 10 years.

Figure 19: GPI for Enrolment Ratios, Primary and Secondary, 2001/02-2005/06, Cambodia



Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

Percent of Female Teachers. There was a slow but steady rise in the participation of women in the teaching workforce at both primary and secondary levels over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06, as seen in Table 131. In 2000/01, 39% of primary school teachers were women, but by 2005/06 the

proportion had increased to 42%. The proportion of female teachers was smaller at secondary level than at primary level. The proportion of female teachers in secondary education increased slowly and steadily over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06. In 2000/01, the rate was 29%, and by 2005/06 the rate had increased to 32%.

Table 131: Primary and Secondary Teachers, by Sex, 2000/01-2005/06, Cambodia

Year	Primary				Secondary			
	Total	Male	Female	% Female	Total	Male	Female	% Female
2000/01	45,152	27,531	17,621	39.0	19,668	14,010	5,658	28.8
2001/02	47,654	28,999	18,655	39.1	20,806	14,675	6,131	29.5
2002/03	48,433	28,971	19,462	40.2	22,830	15,831	6,999	30.7
2003/04	49,603	29,405	20,198	40.7	24,219	16,620	7,599	31.4
2004/05	50,140	29,462	20,678	41.2	25,107	17,143	7,964	31.7
2005/06	50,378	29,356	21,022	41.7	25,520	17,275	8,245	32.3

Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

Repetition. At all levels, female repetition rates have tended to be lower than male rates. At primary level, for both girls and boys, repetition rates displayed a slight and irregular tendency to rise between 2001/02 and 2005/06. Repetition rates at the lower secondary level are substantially lower than at the primary level. For both girls and boys, however, repetition rates have shown a slight and irregular tendency to rise between 2000/01 and 2005/06, except in remote areas where they have tended to fall. Repetition rates at upper secondary level are somewhat higher than at lower secondary level, but the gender pattern is quite similar. Repetition rates are higher for boys than for girls.

b. Assessing Progress Using Sub-National Data

Indicators disaggregated by sex and location can be summarised as in Table 132 for primary education and in Table 133 for lower secondary education. Figure 20 displays the data for both primary and secondary education. Of the 18 GPIs shown in these two tables, 12 indicated bias in favour of males, five indicated gender parity. One indicated bias in favour of females, namely secondary NER in remote areas, which was based on extremely low NERs (60%). The tendencies vary considerably among indicators, but the trends are clear: the indicators tend to be lower for females than for males; they tend to be lower in rural areas than in urban areas and lower still in remote areas.

Table 132: Primary Intake and Enrolment Rates (%), by Sex and Location, 2005/06, Cambodia

Location	Gross (%)				Net (%)			
	Total	Male	Female	GPI	Total	Male	Female	GPI
Intake Rate								
Urban	125.4	134.5	116.8	0.87	83.7	86.0	81.4	0.95
Rural	130.1	134.4	125.6	0.93	82.9	83.4	82.5	0.99
Remote	155.6	162.6	148.3	0.91	73.2	75.7	70.6	0.93
Enrolment Rate								
Urban	122.5	127.5	117.4	0.92	91.2	92.7	89.7	0.97
Rural	124.4	129.8	118.9	0.92	91.7	93.3	90.1	0.97
Remote	122.3	129.0	115.3	0.89	83.7	87.3	80.1	0.92

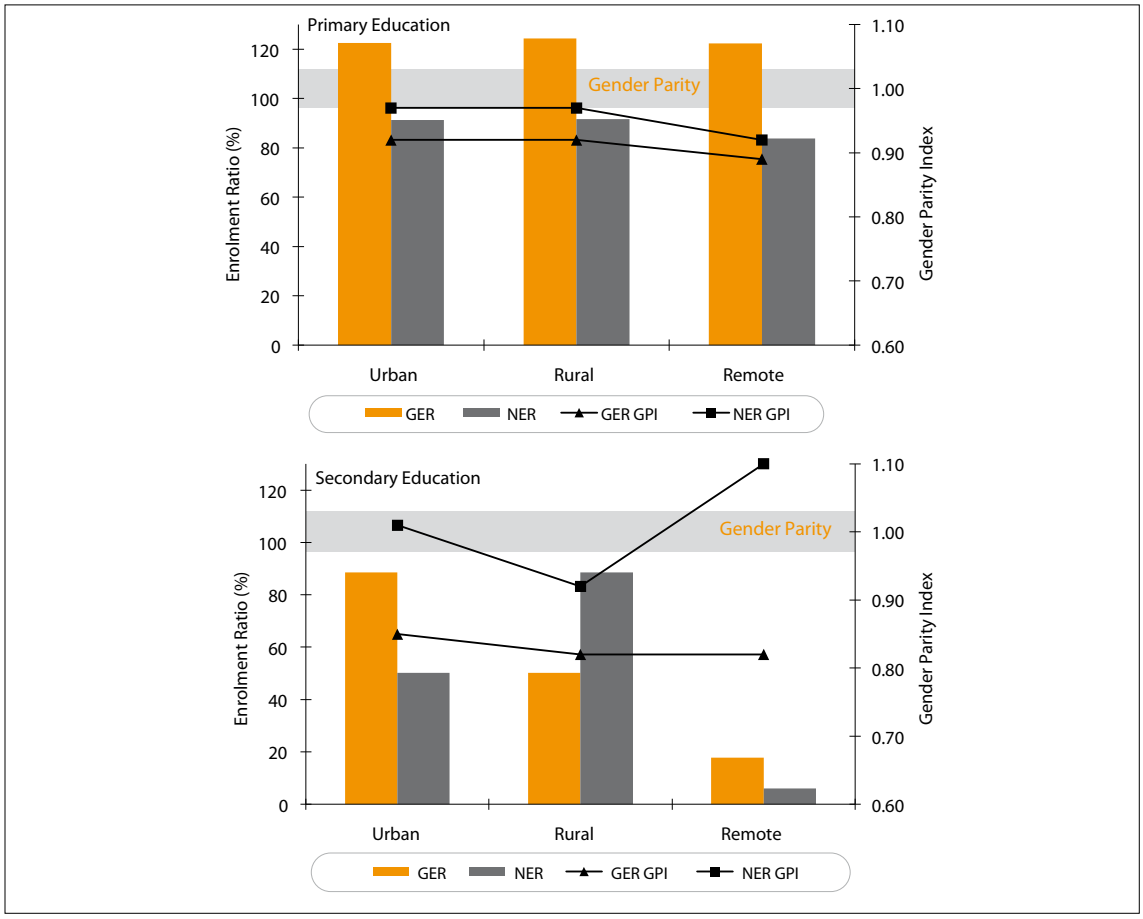
Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

Table 133: Lower Secondary GER and NER (%), by Sex and Location, 2005/06, Cambodia

Location	GER (%)				NER (%)			
	Total	Male	Female	GPI	Total	Male	Female	GPI
Urban	88.5	95.5	81.3	0.85	50.1	49.9	50.3	1.01
Rural	50.2	55.3	45.2	0.82	88.6	29.7	27.4	0.92
Remote	17.8	19.4	16.0	0.82	6.0	6.0	6.6	1.10

Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

Figure 20: Enrolment Ratios (%), by Location and GPI, 2005/06, Cambodia



Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

14.5.3 Analysis of Gender Disparities in Cambodia

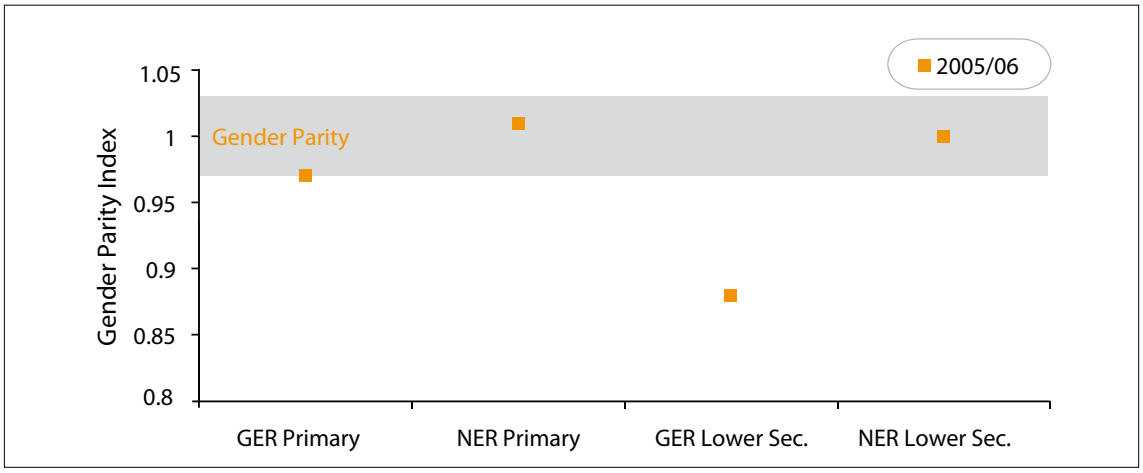
a. Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality

Progress in achieving gender and social equality across the EFA goals can be summarised as follows and displayed in Figure 21:

- **Gender and Intake**. Although the removal of primary school fees resulted in increased primary school intake, it had little impact on gender disparity in intake ratios. Throughout the period 2001/02 to 2005/06, the gross intake of boys has been been higher than for girls by around 10 percentage points or higher, and the net intake has tended to be around 3 points higher (see Table 115, page 107 above).
- **Gender and Enrolment**. The GER for primary education for males and females show a consistent pattern of enrolment in favour of males, but over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06, the GPI rose for both GER and NER (see Table 130 and Figure 19, page 119 above).

- **Gender and Repetition at Primary Level**. Female repetition rates have tended to be lower than male rates. The difference is greatest for urban areas, but for remote areas the difference is small and varied. Repetition rates have tended to decline very slightly from 2000/01 to 2005/06, somewhat more for girls than for boys (see Table 117, page 108 above).
- **Gender and Repetition at Secondary Level**. Repetition rates are lower at secondary level than at primary level but are higher for boys than for girls. The gender disparity is highest in urban areas (see Table 117, page 108 above).
- **Gender and Transition**. The gender balance in the transition rate to lower secondary showed marked improvement. The gender balance in transition to upper secondary also showed improvement, with the GPI falling from 1.10 to 1.02 (see Table 123, page 113 above).
- **Female Teachers**. There was a slow, steady rise in the proportion of female teachers, at both primary and secondary levels (see Table 131, page 120 above).

Figure 21: GPI Summary, 2005/06, Cambodia



Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

b. Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached"

Priority actions for reaching the "unreached" include the following:

- Reform and pilot curricula by incorporating into existing documents the new gender-neutral and child-friendly standards;
- Strengthen the capacity of basic education officials, especially on school administration, teaching and learning methods, and school development plan;
- Monitor teaching and learning in remote areas by cooperating with national and international organizations, involved institutions; and
- Research the causes and consequences of dropout at secondary school.

c. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goal

Offering scholarships to poor students, especially girls, to continue their studies at secondary level has been found effective in promoting enrolment among disadvantaged children. Separate latrines are needed for girls and boys, and counsellors should be provided for girls. Female teachers should be provided as support and role models for female students.

d. Remaining Challenges and Issues

Additional dormitories for female students are needed in remote and disadvantaged areas. The coverage of literacy programmes is still limited because of lack of facilities, materials, teachers, and budget. The dropout rate is very high at lower secondary levels, especially for girls. Gender responsive teaching methods are not used widely. There are insufficient secondary schools in remote areas.

14.6 Goal Six: Quality of Education in Cambodia

14.6.1 Developments in the Provision of Quality Education in Cambodia

Important policy documents prepared in the past half-decade include:

- Quality Standards and Indicators developed for ECCD, Basic Education, Life Skills, and Literacy in 2004-2006, drafted in 2004;
- School Self-Assessment instruments, drafted in 2006;
- Inclusive Education Policy, drafted in 2006;
- New Basic Education Curriculum (Grades 1-9), issued in 2006;
- Curriculum Standards for Grade 3, 6 and 9, issued in 2006;
- Teacher Standards for Basic Education, drafted in 2007; and
- Child-Friendly School Policy, issued in 2007.

As part of efforts to improve the quality of education, MOEYS conducted a monitoring and evaluation survey covering the first four EFA goals in five provinces in 2007. On the basis of the findings of the survey, corrective measures were identified.

14.6.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Cambodia

a. Progress in Achieving the Goal Using Times Series Data

Table 134 shows selected quality indicators for primary and secondary schooling over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06. Virtually all primary and secondary school teachers are qualified according to national standards. At primary level, the Pupil/Teacher Ratio and the Pupil/Class Ratio declined significantly over the period, but at the secondary level they rose significantly. The Book/Pupil Ratio declined somewhat at primary level but more significantly at secondary level.

Table 134: Selected Quality Indicators, 2000/01-2005/06, Cambodia

Year	Teachers Certified by National Standards		Pupil/Teacher Ratio		Pupil/Class Ratio	
	Primary	Secondary	Primary	Secondary	Primary	Secondary
2000/01	96.21	99.57	53.3	19.8	43.4	42.4
2001/02	96.29	99.56	56.8	22.4	44.6	45.4
2002/03	96.43	99.56	56.7	23.8	45.9	47.2
2003/04	96.54	99.64	55.4	25.3	45.0	48.2
2004/05	97.71	99.73	53.5	28.1	43.5	49.5
2005/06	98.58	99.65	50.8	31.1	41.3	50.3

Source: MOEYS, EMIS.
Note: "..." indicates no data available.

b. Assessing Progress Using Sub-National Data

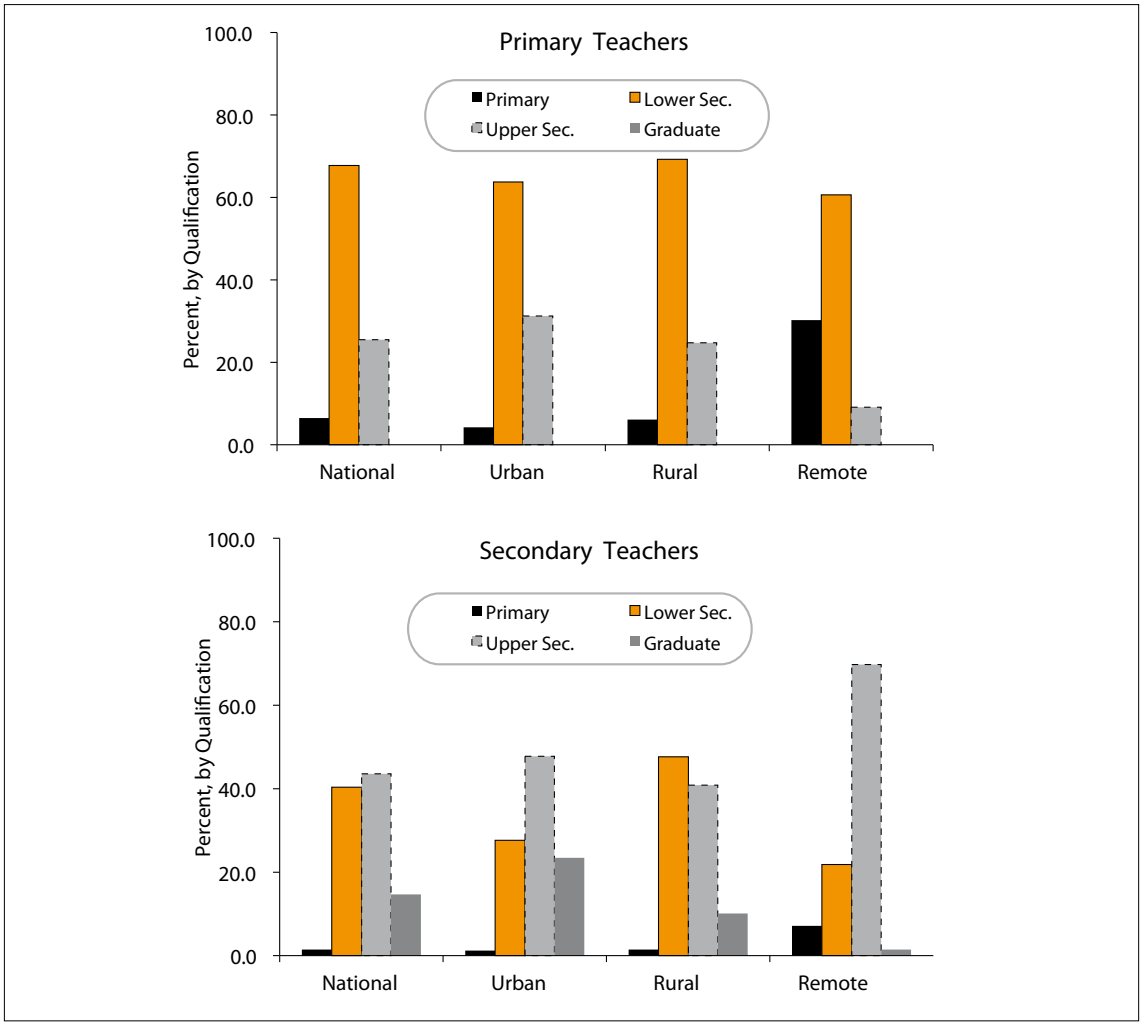
Although virtually all teachers are qualified according to national standards, there are significant location differences in the overall level of education of both primary and secondary teachers, as shown in Table 135 and Figure 22. Most primary school teachers have only lower secondary education, but in the urban areas nearly one-third have upper secondary education, while in rural areas less than one-fourth and in remote areas less than one-tenth have upper secondary education. The pattern is similar for secondary school teachers. Most have upper secondary education, but in urban areas nearly a quarter have tertiary education, while in rural areas only one-tenth have tertiary education, and in remote areas less than 2% have tertiary education.

Table 135: Primary and Secondary Teachers by Highest Education (%), 2005/06, Cambodia

Location	Primary Teachers				Secondary Teachers			
	Primary	Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary	Graduate	Primary	Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary	Graduate
National	6.5	67.8	25.5	0.2	1.4	40.3	43.6	14.7
Urban	4.2	63.7	31.3	0.7	1.2	27.6	47.7	23.4
Rural	6.1	69.2	24.7	0.0	1.4	47.6	40.9	10.1
Remote	30.3	60.6	9.1	0.1	7.1	21.8	69.7	1.4

Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

Figure 22: Primary and Secondary Teachers by Highest Education (%), 2005/06, Cambodia



Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

Pupil/Teacher ratios also vary by location, as shown in Table 136. At primary level, urban schools have the lowest Pupil/Teacher Ratios, and remote areas have the highest ratios. At secondary level, the lowest Pupil/Teacher Ratios are in remote areas, and rural schools have the highest ratios.

Table 136: Pupil/Teacher Ratio in Primary and Secondary Education, 2005/06, Cambodia

Primary				Secondary			
National	Urban	Rural	Remote	National	Urban	Rural	Remote
50.8	38.1	54.0	56.3	31.1	27.2	33.3	24.7

Source: MOEYS, EMIS.

14.6.3 Analysis of Disparities in Quality in Cambodia

a. Progress in Achieving Quality Across the EFA Goals

The 2007 monitoring and evaluation survey covering the first four EFA goals in five provinces, provided important guidance for improving of the quality of education. For each of the first four EFA goals, concrete corrective measures were identified. In terms of formal teacher qualifications, there is little difference between urban, rural, and remote areas, but in terms of general educational level, substantial differences remain.

b. Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached"

Both over-age enrolment and lack of schools at reasonable distance from homes, especially in remote areas, are matters of concern. The sub-national categories of urban, rural, and remote are useful for highlighting trends, but they do not correspond to any institutional structures on which interventions can easily be organized. For identifying effective approaches to reach the "unreached", a preferable disaggregation of the data is by province, and suitable mechanisms and procedures could be developed for cooperation among the various stakeholder.

c. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goal

According to the monitoring and evaluation survey, ECCD care givers are trained and understand the policy and operation procedure to serve ECCD programmes. Pre-school managers are capable of managing and leading the professional and administrative work. At lower secondary, teachers are able to conduct teaching and learning effectively through student centre methods.

The cooperation of the education authorities and the national and international community in order to develop provincial education functions well. The local community usually takes responsibility to send all children to schools, and teachers, and school principals provide information on students' performance to parents. NGOs cooperate well to provide materials and support to schools.

The monitoring and evaluation survey showed that many students get employed after the skills training courses. Simple vocational training is cost-effective, because the equipment is appropriate and has adequate supply for the number of students trained.

Adult literacy programmes combined with vocational training has been found effective. Provinces and municipalities conduct literacy classes in the local areas and during the slack season to avoid interrupting work and farming. The literacy programme is flexible and modular. The curriculum covers subjects related to every day life, health education, traffic rules, drug abuse, domestic violence, hygiene, health, first aid, and HIV/AIDS.

d. Remaining Challenges and Issues

A major challenge, especially for ECCD, is the provision of education services to remote communities inhabited by indigenous groups who generally have low levels of education and poor living standards, where transportation and communication are poor, all of which leads to difficulties in communication between schools and families, parents, or guardians.

Classroom environments in some pre-schools is good, but the environment outside the class is often less attractive to children.

14.7 Overall Conclusions and Policy Recommendations in Cambodia

In Cambodia, special efforts were made to build schools in rural and remote communities, provide scholarships especially for girls in Grades 7-9, establish school feeding programmes, and institute multi-grade classes and bilingual classes. These proved to be very effective, and such efforts should continue. The abolition of school fees increased net enrolment rate in primary education substantially. Reducing the number of incomplete schools make it possible to reduce school dropout rates.

Un-reached and under-served target groups include children with disabilities, children of migrants, child labourers, persons affected by HIV/AIDS, child trafficking victims, disadvantaged ethnic groups, and children from very poor families.

Remaining obstacles are poor teaching, poorly qualified teachers, inappropriate teaching materials, lack of teaching materials for the specific target groups, and poor living conditions of teachers.

The following strategies and actions for reaching the unreached and underserved groups are therefore recommended:

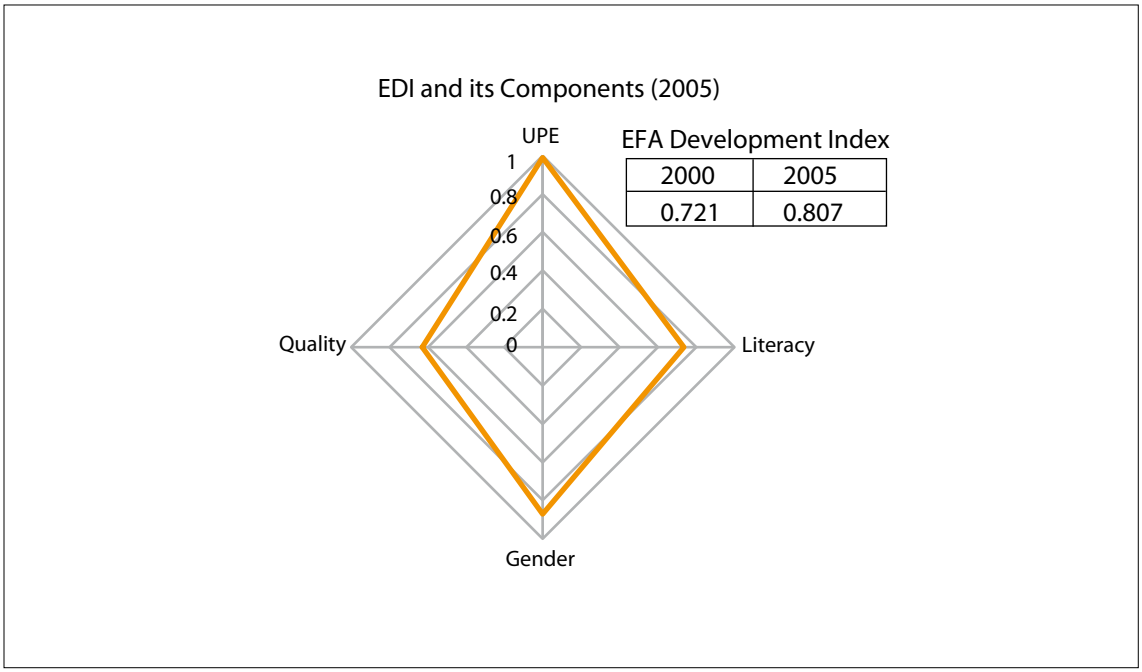
- Scholarship programme;
- School feeding programme;
- Child-friendly and inclusive schools;
- Multi-grade teaching programme;
- Construction of schools in remote communities; and
- Core primary schools converted into basic education schools.

The following schedule of targets to be attained over the remaining period until 2015 is recommended:

- Policy on children with disabilities, approved March 2008;
- Policy on Child Friendly Schools, approved 14 December 2007;
- Education Law, approved December 2007;
- Gender policy, likely to be approved in 2009;
- Policy on Early Childhood Care and Education, likely to be approved in December 2008 or early 2009;
- Policy on Inspection and Monitoring, up for approval, likely to be approved in 2009; and
- Strategy to increase survival rate in primary education (2007-2010), likely to be approved in 2009.

14.8 Cambodia Country Statistical Profile

Figure 23: EFA Development Index, 2000 and 2005, Cambodia



Sources: Global Monitoring Reports 2003/04 and 2008.

15. Lao PDR

15.1 Goal One: Early Childhood Care and Education in Lao PDR

15.1.1 Background and Development of ECCE in Lao PDR

a. Definition of ECCE

In Lao PDR, the EFA ECCE goal are covered by the concept Early Childhood Care and Development (ECCD). The Lao interpretation of ECCD is limited to kindergarten, targeted on five-year-olds. Note that the statistics presented in this report for ECCD enrolment cover only kindergarten, while statistics on teachers cover both crèche and kindergarten.

The MOE strategy is to progressively increase participation in kindergarten in order to improve pupils' integration into and achievement in primary education. "Grade 0", also referred to as a "pre-primary class", is to be established in the future, based on MOE revised ECCD policy and long-term strategy, and depending on the results of a feasibility study.

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

The MOE vision for early childhood care and education involves promoting pre-primary education gradually, focusing on developing pre-school education by improving and increasing the number of public crèches and kindergartens, while at the same time stimulating the private sector to open crèches and kindergartens.

The MOE is developing a set of School Readiness Competencies to be used for monitoring and assessing readiness of children for primary school. They will be piloted in 2007/2008 and implemented in 2008/2009.

In the area of health, the MOE has been cooperating with the Mother and Child Health Centres, under the Ministry of Health (MOH), to promote breast-feeding and improve nutrition and primary health care for young children in rural and remote areas. In urban areas, medical doctors are invited to provide yearly health checks to children in crèches and kindergartens and to make sure that children receive Vitamin A supplement once a year. However, the programme is not yet in operation in rural areas.

Two systems of pre-school pre-service training are available: (a) One year pre-service training after upper secondary (11+1); and (b) A 30 week in-service training equivalent certificate.

c. Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Children

The ECCD programme includes four strategic objectives and supporting activities:

- Planning the development of early childhood care and development, including policy development and medium-term action plan, capacity building at decentralized levels, and a regulatory framework;
- Building new kindergartens and improving existing ones, including identification of suitable "unserved" communities, construction or rehabilitation of ECCD centres, commitment of resources in the Education Medium Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF), and rehabilitation and improvement of government kindergarten facilities;
- Training, recruiting, and deploying pre-school teachers to meet increased demand, including increasing the capacity of pre-school teacher education institutions, allocation of bonded scholarships to ECCD trainees; and
- Community mobilization for development of kindergarten and pre-school community centres, including pro-poor identification of suitable communities.

15.1.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Lao PDR

a. Assessing Progress Using Time Series Data

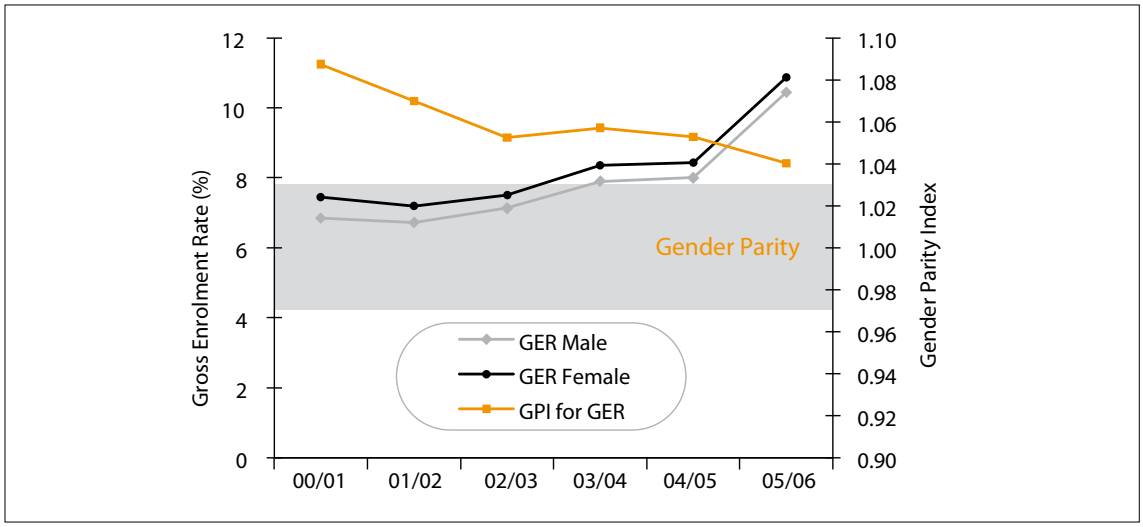
Pre-school Enrolment. Lao PDR saw a slow but continuous increase in GER in pre-primary care and development over the past 15 years, as shown in Table 137 and Figure 24. The GPI has gradually moved toward gender parity. Lao PDR has nearly achieved the EFA National Action Plan target of 10.9% pre-primary GER for 3-5 year old children for 2005/06.

Table 137: ECCD GER, by Sex and GPI, 1991/92 to 2005/06, Lao PDR

Year	GER Male	GER Female	GER Total	GPI for GER
1991/92	5.4	6.4	5.9	1.20
2000/01	6.9	7.4	7.1	1.09
2001/02	6.7	7.2	7.0	1.07
2002/03	7.1	7.5	7.3	1.05
2003/04	7.9	8.4	8.1	1.06
2004/05	8.0	8.4	8.2	1.05
2005/06	10.4	10.9	10.6	1.04

Source: MOE/ESITC.
Note: Enrolment in ECCD here includes only children in kindergarten.

Figure 24: ECCD GER and GPI, 2000/01-2005/06, Lao PDR



Source: MOE/ESITC.

Enrolment in ECCD caregiver training increased by 34% over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06, but the number of teachers increased by only 29%. The Pupil/Teacher Ratio (PTR) has therefore gradually risen, and there has been no improvement in the proportion of pre-service trained pre-primary teachers, almost all of whom are women.

Government policy is to encourage private sector ECCD initiatives by clarifying conditions and simplifying procedures. At the beginning of the decade, just over 21% of all ECCD enrolment was in private institutions, but by the middle of the decade, nearly 29% were enrolled in private institutions. Private sector enrolment has increased more than twice as rapidly as public sector enrolment.

Nutrition and Health. Findings from MICS III indicate that in 2006 nearly all households (99%) used iodized salt. However tests with household salt samples show that many households used salt with insufficient iodine (<15 ppm) to prevent iodine deficiency disorders (IDD).

According to the MICS III, in 2006, of the 23% of infants who were weighed at birth, 13% were estimated to weigh less than 2,500 grams, with only minor variations in regions of living. In Lao PDR, Vitamin A is largely consumed in the form of fruits and vegetables, and daily per capita intake is often insufficient to meet dietary requirements. According to the MICS III, in 2006, 52% of children aged six to 59 months failed to receive a sufficient dose of Vitamin A in the last six months.

b. Assessing Progress Using Sub-National Data

Table 137 and Figure 24 show a nearly 50% increase in GER for ECCE over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06, but there has been substantial geographic variation. More than a quarter of all children enrolled in ECCE programmes are in Vientiane Capital City, although only 8% of the nominal ECCE population age group lives there. Vientiane Capital City had a GER of over 30%, while Saravane had a GER of less than 3%.

15.1.3 Analysis of Disparities in ECCE in Lao PDR

a. Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality in ECCE

Although girls are more likely than boys to be sent to ECCE programmes generally, boys are more likely to be sent to private ECCE programmes. There is no significant trend toward increased gender parity over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06.

Table 138: GER in ECCD, by Income Quintile, 2006, Lao PDR

Quintile	Total
Richest	43.2
Fourth	7.3
Middle	2.7
Second	2.1
Poorest	1.4
Total	7.3

Source: MICS III.

Social Distribution of ECCE. Strong private demand for ECCE services is expressed primarily in the fourth and fifth quintile (highest income families), as shown in Table 138. This has resulted in rapid expansion in the sub-sector without overly straining the public education sector budget, but access of the children of the poor to ECCE is very limited. The estimated GER for children of the highest quintile is more than ten times as high as for children from the lower quintiles. Poor provinces Phongsaly, Houaphanh, Saravanne, and Sekong had no private ECCE programmes as of 2005.

The Poverty, Health, and Education Nexus. As shown in Table 139 and Figure 25, over 40% of all children aged 0-59 months were moderately stunted and nearly 17% were severely stunted. Gender disparities were slight. There is a visible link between the proportion of stunted children and the consumption level of the household.

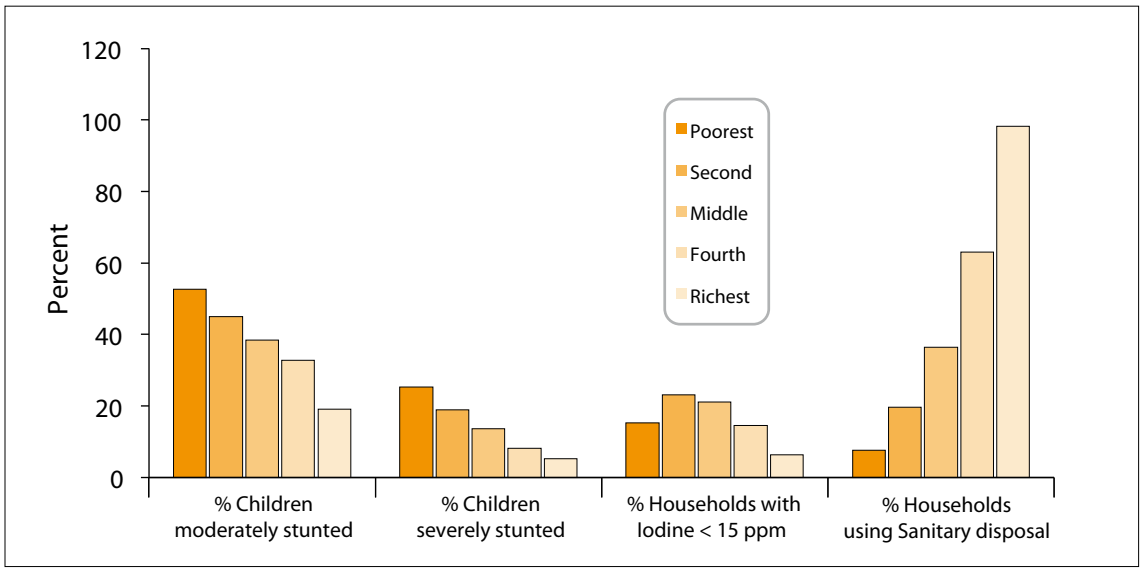
Breakdowns of the population using safe drinking water sources by geographical area indicate significant discrepancies between urban and rural areas. In urban areas, 70% of households reported using safe drinking water, whereas rural areas with and without roads reported 50% and 36%, respectively.

Table 139: Poverty and Education-Related Health Indicators, by Income Quintile, 2006, Lao PDR

Quintile	Percent of Children		Percent of Households	
	Moderately Stunted	Severely Stunted	Iodine < 15 ppm	Sanitary Disposal
Richest	19.1	5.2	6.4	98.3
Fourth	32.7	8.2	14.5	63.0
Middle	38.4	13.6	21.2	36.4
Second	45.0	19.0	23.1	19.7
Poorest	52.7	25.3	15.3	7.6
Total	41.2	16.7	15.8	45.0

Source: MICS III.

Figure 25: Poverty and Education-Related Health Indicators, by Income Quintile, 2006, Lao PDR



Source: MICS III.

Similarly there were substantial rural / urban differences in the use of improved sanitary facilities: 83% for households in urban areas, 38% for households in rural areas with road connections, and 16% in rural off-road households. There are also dramatic income related differences. While 98% of the richest quintile used sanitary means of human waste disposal, only 7.6% in the poorest quintile did so.

Proportion of Young Children whose Parents Participate in ECCE Programmes. MICS III showed that some 25% of parents participate in activities that promote learning and school readiness. The survey showed a strong correlation between consumption and participation in ECCE activities: the poorest quintile indicates only 18%, while the richest quintile indicates 45%.

According to MICS III, in 2006, 72% of the births of children under the age of five in Lao PDR were registered, compared to 59.2% in 2000. There is hardly any variance based on the gender of the child; however, children in the North are somewhat less likely to have their births registered (60%) than children living in the Centre (75%) or South (84%) of the country.

Table 140: Trained Teachers in ECCE (%), by Sex and PTR, 2000/01-2005/06, Lao PDR

Year	Trained Teachers (%)			PTR
	Male	Female	Total	
2000/01	50.0	83.7	83.6	16.4
2001/02	50.0	83.2	83.0	16.1
2002/03	100.0	82.1	82.2	16.4
2003/04	85.0	83.8	83.8	16.6
2004/05	79.0	83.8	83.8	16.8
2005/06	53.0	83.9	83.7	17.1

Source: MOE/ESITC.

b. Progress in Improving the Quality of ECCE

Over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06, there was a trend towards the improvement of either the proportion of trained ECCE teachers or the Pupil/Teacher Ratio, as shown in Table 140.

c. Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the Unreached

The unreached are the children of the very poor, children with disabilities, and children in poor and remote communities. Typically, the children who are unreached by pre-school services are also unreached by other social services and are more likely to lack clean water and sanitation and to suffer from malnutrition and disease.

d. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goals

Beginning in 2002, with support from UNICEF and Save the Children Norway, the MOE piloted programmes adding a pre-primary class to existing primary schools ("Grade 0"). The pilot programmes were found successful in 2005 and opened the way for expansion nationwide. Because resources allocated to ECCE will often be scarce, and the private sector will not be able to create sufficient ECCE facilities in rural and remote areas, pre-primary classes attached to primary schools appears to be an affordable and realistic option for the expansion of ECCE programmes in Lao PDR in the years to come.

e. Remaining Challenges and Issues

The absence of a national ECCE policy in 2007 suggests that in Lao PDR, pre-primary schooling is viewed by many as a supplementary, not an integral component of basic education. This is reflected in limited resource allocations, quotas of teachers, omissions of pre-school accommodation in newly constructed schools, and the expectation that community-managed early learning centres will be developed to limit the costs to public education.

As a consequence of the lack of financial resources, ECCE programmes, as well as health, water and sanitation facilities for the vast majority remain limited to the urban and non-poor communities. Government policy to stimulate the private sector to expand the ECCE sub-sector in urban communities and to establish public and community ECCE programmes in rural, remote, and ethnic communities has not yet succeeded in undoing the discrepancies in enrolment ratios between urban and rural areas. Although during the past five years ECCE programmes have substantially expanded enrolment, and the GER is nearly on target by 2005/2006, the targets for 2010/2011 and 2015/2016 are very ambitious. Meeting these targets will require going beyond the upper quintiles of household income, and that will be a considerable challenge.

15.2 Goal Two: Universal Basic Education in Lao PDR

15.2.1 Background and Expansion of Universal Basic Education in Lao PDR

a. Definition of UPE/UBE

Primary education (from age six) comprises five years and is compulsory and free. Lower secondary education comprises three years, as does upper secondary education. The MOE will move from the present 5+3+3 system with just eight years of basic education to the regional standard of nine years of basic schooling, with a 5+4+3 structure by 2010. Basic education is defined as five years of primary education according to the Education Law of 2000.

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

The Decree on Compulsory Education in 1996 (No.138/PMO/96) makes primary education, which lasts five years, free and compulsory for all Lao multi-ethnic people between the ages of 6 and 14 years.

c. Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Children

The primary and lower secondary programmes include five strategic objectives and supporting activities for realizing the targets that have been set out:

- Develop the primary school network to provide all children aged six years and above access to a complete multi-grade or single grade primary school with agreed norms of minimum and maximum class size. Develop the lower secondary school network to increase the enrolments of ethnic group children, girls, and children from rural and remote areas, and to selectively respond to demand from Grade 5 graduates.
- Train, recruit, and deploy teachers according to needs, as determined by the annual school mapping programme;
- Promote demand for primary education from girls, ethnic groups, and the poorest families, and improve access of children with special needs and children in difficult circumstances in all provinces to complete at least primary school;
- Increase access of children in difficult circumstances to complete at least primary school; and
- Reduce drop-out rates in primary and lower secondary schools, especially in rural and remote areas.

Although the Decree on Compulsory Education makes primary education free and compulsory, in practice, primary schooling is neither free nor compulsory. Parents often pay a variety of fees and other charges, and it is estimated that some 10% of children never attend school and fewer than 50% graduate from Grade 5. There are pro-poor policy incentives targeted on primary schooling, for example, salary supplements for teachers in rural and remote schools and for multi-grade teaching, but it is not clear how effective these incentives are in practice.

The Compulsory Education Decree of 1996 covers only primary education, but lower secondary schooling is now one of the four priority segments of the EFA NPA. While the government resources are heavily committed to the universalization of primary schooling, private sector development, driven by social demand, is intended to be a significant source of development. Indeed enrolment in private lower secondary schooling grew by an average annual rate of almost 16% between 1995/96 and 2005/06, and by over 8% between 2000/01 and 2005/06. The private sector accounted for 3% of lower secondary enrolment in 2005/06.

15.2.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Lao PDR

a. Assessing Progress Using Time Series Data

Enrolment. Enrolments rose at all levels throughout the period 2000/01 to 2005/06. Enrolments rose most rapidly at upper secondary level, and rose most slowly at primary level.

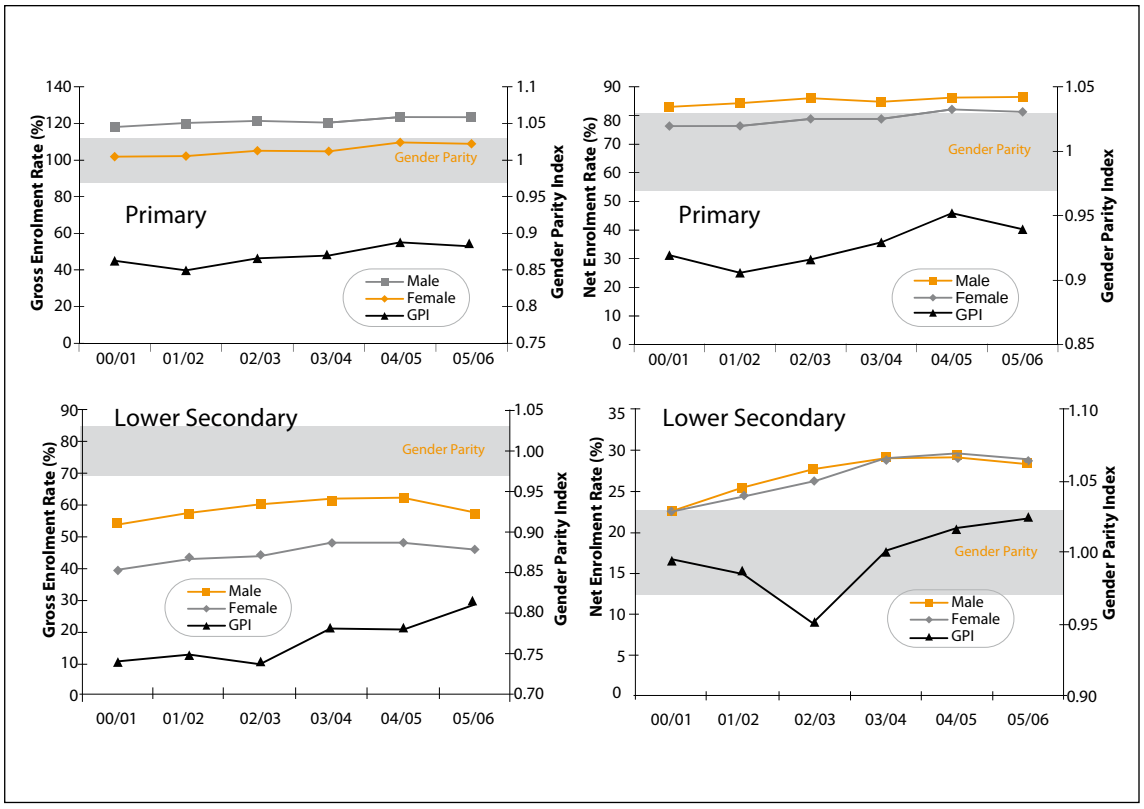
Gross and Net Enrolment Rates are shown in Table 141 and Figure 26. Both GER and NER rose steadily over the past half-decade. The increase was somewhat higher for girls than boys, which is reflected by the rising GPIs. In general, over the period, the GPI has been higher for NER than for GER.

Table 141: Primary and Lower Secondary GER and NER, by Sex and GPI, 2000/01-2005/06, Lao PDR

Year	Primary								Lower Secondary							
	GER				NER				GER				NER			
	M	F	Tot	GPI	M	F	Tot	GPI	M	F	Tot	GPI	M	F	Tot	GPI
2000/01	118	102	110	0.86	83	76	80	0.92	54	40	47	0.74	23	22	23	0.99
2001/02	120	102	111	0.85	84	76	80	0.91	57	43	50	0.75	25	25	25	0.99
2002/03	121	105	113	0.87	86	79	82	0.92	60	44	52	0.74	28	26	27	0.95
2003/04	120	105	113	0.87	85	79	82	0.93	61	48	54	0.78	29	29	29	1.00
2004/05	123	110	117	0.89	86	82	84	0.95	62	48	55	0.78	29	30	29	1.02
2005/06	123	109	116	0.88	86	81	84	0.94	57	46	52	0.81	28	29	28	1.02

Source: MOE/ESITC.

Figure 26: Primary and Lower Secondary GER and NER, 2000/01-2005/06, Lao PDR



Source: MOE/ESITC.

Table 142: Repetition Rate (%), Grades 1-5, 2000/01-2004/05 and GPI, 2004/05, Lao PDR

Year	Grade				
	1	2	3	4	5
2000/01	35.7	20.6	13.1	8.1	5.2
2001/02	34.7	20.0	13.2	8.3	5.3
2002/03	34.8	19.7	13.0	8.3	5.3
2003/04	34.1	19.1	12.5	6.8	4.9
2004/05	33.2	18.2	12.2	7.8	4.5
Male 2004/05	33.7	19.3	13.6	9.0	5.5
Fem. 2004/05	31.9	16.5	10.4	6.2	3.3
GPI 2004/05	0.95	0.85	0.77	0.70	0.59

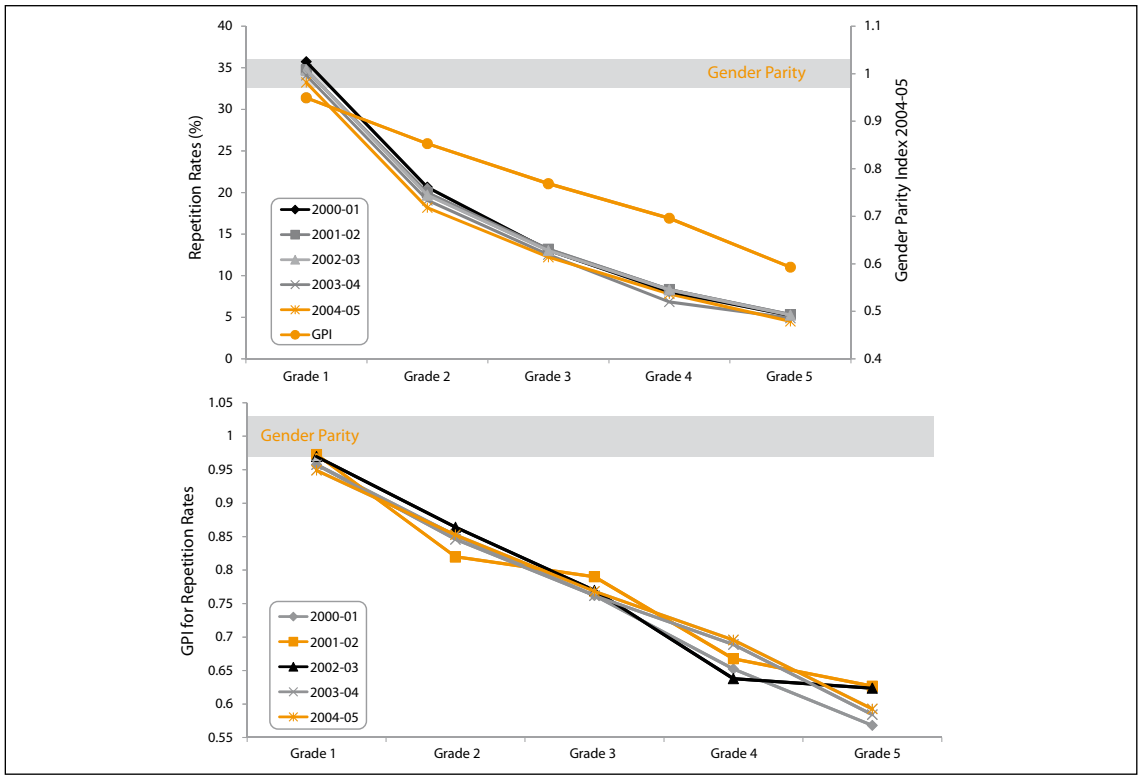
Source: MOE/ESITC.

Repetition, Survival, and Drop-out Rates. Repetition rates for Grades 1-5 and the grade-by-grade GPI are shown in Table 142. Repetition rates for years 2000/01 to 2004/05, together with the GPI for 2004/05, are displayed in Figure 27. It can be seen that there has been virtually no change since the beginning of the decade in either the level of repetition or the gender distribution, as can be seen in the GPIs displayed to the right in Figure 27. Approximately one third of all students enrolled in Grade 1 repeat. Almost one fifth repeat Grade 2, one out of eight repeat Grade 3, one out of 12 repeat Grade 4, and one out of 20 repeat Grade 5. In Grade 1, repetition is nearly equal between girls and boys, but grade-by-grade, repetition becomes increasingly a "boys' problem". By Grade 5, 63% of repeaters are boys.

Like Repetition Rates, Survival Rates to Grade 5 have remained virtually unchanged since 2000/01 at a very low rate of some 60%, as seen in Table 143. Although boys are more likely than girls to repeat one or more grades, girls and boys are equally likely to remain in school to Grade 5, so the Survival Rate GPI is nearly 1.0, varying only slightly from year to year.

Repetition rates at secondary level are much lower than at primary – about 3% at lower secondary and 2% at upper secondary, with rates for boys about twice the rates for girls.

Figure 27: Repetition Rate and GPI in Primary School, 2000/01-2004/05, Lao PDR



Source: MOE/ESITC.

Table 143: Survival Rate to Grade 5, by Sex and GPI, 2000/01-2004/05, Lao PDR

Year	Survival Rate (%)			
	Male	Female	Total	GPI
2000/01	59.8	59.8	59.9	1.00
2001/02	61.9	61.6	61.8	0.99
2002/03	60.2	60.4	60.3	1.00
2003/04	61.8	59.9	61.0	0.97
2004/05	60.7	59.6	60.2	0.98

Source: MOE/ESITC.

Drop-out Rates and Incomplete Schools. The drop-out rate is around 13% in Grade 1, declining to under 7% in Grade 2 and gradually rising to almost 10% by Grade 5. Some of the Grade 1 drop-outs could appear later as "drop-ins", or new entrants. One of the main reasons for the high dropout rate in primary schools is that many small communities, especially in rural and remote areas, have incomplete schools, that is, schools which offer fewer than five primary grades. There is substantial variation over provinces in the proportions of primary schools offering all five grades.

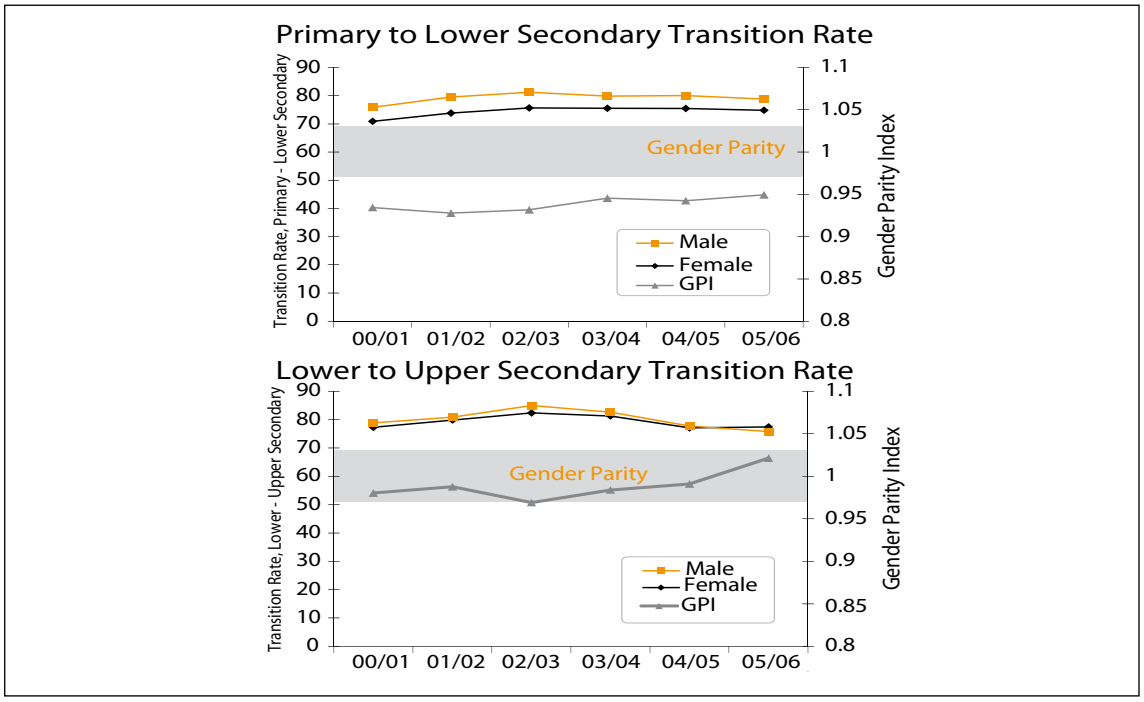
Transition Rates. The transition rate from primary to lower secondary and from lower to upper secondary over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06 is shown in Table 144 and Figure 28. Over the period as a whole, there was only a slight change in the transition rates. Rates were relatively stable over the period for the transition from primary to lower secondary levels, while they rose and then fell again for the transition from lower to upper secondary.

Table 144: Transition Rate (%), Primary to Upper Secondary, by Sex and GPI, 2000/01-2005/06, Lao PDR

Year	Primary to Lower Secondary				Lower to Upper Secondary			
	Male	Female	Total	GPI	Male	Female	Total	GPI
2000/01	76	71	74	0.93	78.8	77.3	78.2	0.98
2001/02	80	74	77	0.93	80.8	79.9	80.4	0.99
2002/03	81	76	79	0.93	85.0	82.4	83.9	0.97
2003/04	80	75	78	0.95	82.6	81.3	82.1	0.98
2004/05	80	75	78	0.94	77.8	77.1	77.5	0.99
2005/06	79	75	77	0.95	75.8	77.4	76.5	1.02

Source: MOE/ESITC.

Figure 28: Transition Rate (%) Primary to Lower and to Upper Secondary and GPI, 2005/06, Lao PDR



Source: MOE/ESITC.

The transition rate from lower secondary to upper secondary schooling is shown in Table 144 and in Figure 28. The total transition rate between primary and lower secondary schooling is very nearly the same as between lower secondary and upper secondary. It is particularly significant that the transition rate from lower to upper secondary education for girls is in parity with the transition

rate for boys. Girls who complete lower secondary schooling are just as likely as boys to continue to upper secondary.

b. Assessing Progress Using Sub-National Data

Declining Fertility Rates. One of the most profound but quiet changes occurring in Lao PDR over the past decade is the decline in fertility rates, which was found in the 2005 census and the Lao Reproductive Health Survey 2005 to be substantially faster than anticipated. It had been observed in recent years in some of the major towns that the number of primary school teachers required was declining, as falling fertility rates meant that the number of school-age children, and therefore enrolments, was declining. The magnitude of the overall decline in fertility rates between the 1995 census and the 2005 census at the national level was surprising. As significant as the overall decline was the differential ethnic composition of the decline.

In the urban areas, the fertility rate has stabilized at just over 2%. In the rural "on road" areas, the fertility rate is still relatively high at 3.7%. In rural "off road" areas (that is, in remote and often ethnic communities), the fertility rate is still quite high at 4.7%. Because of the rapid change in fertility rates, the distribution of the ethnic composition of the population of the school-age population is different from the distribution of the ethnic composition of the population at large.

In the past half-decade, the number of students from the major ethnic group has declined by 8%, while the number of students from other ethnic groups rose considerably - the largest minority ethno-linguistic families by as much as 40%-60%. This is a relatively rapid change as a social development. This change in the ethnic composition of the schools is a consequence partly of the demographic changes and partly a consequence of the successful penetration of primary schools into increasingly remote areas.

In a parallel development, the number of ethnic group primary school teachers also increased, largely as a matter of deliberate policy and some innovative approaches. The increase in the number of ethnic group teachers, however, was slower than the increase in the number of ethnic group students, so the probability of ethnic group students having a teacher who understands the language and culture has declined.

15.2.3 Analysis of Disparities in UPE/UBE in Lao PDR

a. Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality in UPE/UBE

Enrolment. Enrolment rates for girls at all levels rose more rapidly and from a lower level than enrolment of boys, as can be seen in Table 141 and Figure 26; this is reflected in the rising GPI at all levels. It can be noted that for GER at the primary level, the GPI is 0.88, substantially below the parity level of 1.0. For NER, however, the GPI is much higher, 0.94. At the lower secondary level, the GPI for the GER is 0.81, but the GPI for the NER is 1.02. This is a reflection of the fact that boys are more likely than girls to participate in lower secondary schooling, but they are also more likely than girls to be outside the official age range. Girls outside the official age are less likely than boys to enrol in lower secondary school. Boys are more likely than girls to repeat grades in primary school and to continue in lower secondary even if they are beyond the official age.

Repetition. For all years shown in Table 141, the GPI is higher for the NER than for the GER, reflecting the fact that if girls are enrolled in primary school, then they are more likely than boys to be within the primary official school age. It can be seen in Table 142 that the repetition rate is substantially higher for boys than for girls, and the GPI, which is close to 1.0 for Grade 1, falls in each successive grade, until by Grade 5 it is only 0.59 – indicating that repetition is mainly a "boys' problem".

b. Progress in Improving Quality of UPE/UBE

Table 145: Pupil/Teacher Ratio, 2000/01-2005/06, Lao PDR

Year	Primary	Secondary
2000/01	30.1	23.3
2001/02	30.0	26.3
2002/03	30.6	26.0
2003/04	32.0	26.8
2004/05	32.3	26.6
2005/06	32.1	25.8

Source: MOE/ESITC.

The Pupil/Teacher Ratio rose moderately during the first half-decade, at both primary and secondary level, as shown in Table 145. As if in compensation, the proportion of primary school teachers qualified according to national standards rose significantly in the first half-decade, and the proportion of qualified secondary school teachers rose slightly from its already high level, as seen in Table 146.

Table 146: Teachers Certified to National Standards (%), by Sex and GPI, 2000/01-2005/06, Lao PDR

Year	Primary				Secondary			
	Male	Female	Total	GPI	Male	Female	Total	GPI
2000/01	69.6	86.4	76.9	1.24	98.0	98.8	98.3	1.01
2001/02	69.3	85.7	76.5	1.24	97.9	98.8	98.3	1.01
2002/03	70.5	86.3	77.5	1.22	97.9	98.9	98.3	1.01
2003/04	74.4	88.6	80.8	1.19	98.2	99.1	98.6	1.01
2004/05	81.0	90.9	85.5	1.12	98.5	99.2	98.8	1.01
2005/06	84.8	93.2	88.7	1.10	98.7	99.5	99.0	1.01

Source: MOE/ESITC.

In the first years of the half-decade, a serious shortage of primary school textbooks emerged. Due to lack of financing, replacement textbooks were not printed, and some primary schools were completely without textbooks. In 2006, an agreement was reached between the government and donor agencies on the recurrent printing of textbooks, and textbooks were printed and distributed.

c. Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached"

Sources of Inequality. The reasons for the existing inequality in primary schooling today are complex and inter-related. In one sentence, Lao PDR is a poor, largely rural, multi-ethnic, multi-linguistic society. Compared with less remote communities, more remote communities are less likely to have close access to schools, tend to be poorer, and tend to be populated predominantly by disadvantaged ethno-linguistic groups. Each of these factors alone contributes to low participation rates, late entry into school, low performance rates, and early departure from school. Together they account for most of the geographic variation, that is, between provinces, between districts within provinces, between communities within districts, and even between families within communities.

d. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goals

Primary. There are three major success stories in the development of primary education in recent years, all of which reflect the government's policy thrusts:

- Expansion of primary education has been dramatic. Between 1995 and 2000, the primary school-age population, in the face of declining fertility rates, increased by 8.6%. Primary school enrolment rose during the same period by 25%. Between 1991/92 and 2005/06, GER rose from 97% to 116%, while NER rose from 59% to 84%.
- Substantial progress has been made toward gender parity. Nearly all indicators showed movement toward gender parity.
- The increase in the proportion of students and teachers from disadvantaged ethnic groups in primary school has been even more dramatic than overall increases in enrolments. Indeed, the entire increase in primary school enrolment in the past half-decade is due to enrolment of ethnic group students.

There are many success stories behind the achievements described above, and only a small number of more outstanding examples can be given. The Basic Education (Girls) Project (BEGP) and the co-financed Lao-Australia Basic Education Project (LABEP) have been particularly successful in providing access to primary schools and qualified teachers in poor, remote, and ethnic group communities and in supporting access of girls. The first World Bank Education Development Project was successful in providing schools and textbooks, especially in poor communities, and the second project (EDP2) is in the process of providing the same kinds of outputs. UNICEF and a number of NGOs have been successful in providing training for untrained teachers in poor, remote, and ethnic group communities.

Lower Secondary. The EFA National Plan of Action has focused mainly on primary education, but involves the expansion of secondary schooling, driven in part by social demand to provide a significant portion of the resources needed for expansion. That policy has been highly successful, leading to rapid expansion of both lower and upper secondary schooling. As with primary schooling, substantial progress has been made toward gender parity, as shown by almost all GPI trends.

e. Remaining Challenges and Issues

There are the quantitative challenges. It is estimated that some 10% of children never attend school. They are primarily, but not exclusively in poor, remote, and ethnic communities. There is a need to establish inclusive education strategies for implementation in all schools. There is a need to establish "child-seeking" or outreach programmes to identify children who, for whatever reason, are not attending school and to find ways of assuring that they too receive the benefits of primary education.

There are also qualitative challenges, to reduce the extraordinarily high repetition rates and the drop-out rates. To some extent, high repetition and drop-out rates are due to lack of perceived relevance and poor quality instruction. Poor quality instruction, in turn, is due partly to poor instructional methods and partly to lack of instructional materials. Absence of textbooks and qualified teachers is particularly a problem of poor, remote, and ethnic group communities.

The remaining challenges concern mainly, but not exclusively, the problem of how to provide quality primary education services to poor, remote, and ethnic group communities which the community members themselves perceive as useful and valuable.

15.3 Goal Three: Life Skills and Lifelong Learning in Lao PDR

15.3.1 Background and Development of Life skills and Non-Formal Education in Lao PDR

a. Definition of Life Skills and Lifelong Learning

Life skills are defined as knowledge and abilities needed by people to improve their quality of life, such as basic vocational skills, together with support activities, such as improved technologies, product development, and development of market linkages, which are crucial for increased productivity, diversified production, and enhanced product quality. Interventions should focus on assisting the rural poor to diversify their economic activities and gradually move out of low-return income generation activities and into the production of higher value-added goods and services.

Reproductive health and environment are also components of life skills. For rural areas, the purpose of a skills training programme is to contribute to the creation of self-employment and the development of livelihood and small enterprises.

b. National Policy and Legislation for Life Skills, Non-Formal Education, Technical and Vocational Education and Training: Provision and Coordination

Significant progress was made in the half-decade 2000-2005 in the development of policy for technical and vocational education and training. In 2002, the National Training Council (NTC) was established, and roles and rules were set out. Trade Working Groups and an Integrated Vocational Education and Training System (IVETS) were established in 2003. The policy document "Policy and Strategy Development of Technical and Vocational Education and Training 2005-2020" was prepared in 2006, and "Strategic Plan for the Development of Technical and Vocational Education and Training from 2006 to 2020" was published in 2007.

c. Target Population for Life Skills and Lifelong Learning Programmes

The strategy is to concentrate its actions on young adults, especially school drop outs and ethnic group women and girls in the poorest districts who are motivated to acquire skills for income generating activities and life skills.

d. Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Groups

The strategies and programmes for disadvantaged groups is to improve and develop an effective vocational and rural skills training programme for disadvantaged groups and to coordinate actions with other ministries involved in providing vocational and rural skills training and micro-finance services for disadvantaged groups.

15.3.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Lao PDR

a. Assessing Progress Using Time Series Data

Participation in formal TVET is quite low compared with participation in general education. Only 0.6% of an age cohort participate in "vocational" programmes, usually after completion of lower secondary school (0.8% for boys, 0.4% for girls). Only some 5% participate in "technical" programmes, usually after completion of upper secondary school (6.3% for boys, 4.2% for girls).

Table 147: TVET Institutions and Students, by Sex, 2000/01-2005/06, Lao PDR

Year	Vocational			Technical		
	Schools	Students	% F	Schools	Students	% F
2000/01	12	3,288	36	15	9,550	35
2001/02	11	3,514	36	22	11,901	40
2002/03	12	4,121	39	22	14,175	37
2003/04	14	3,930	34	24	11,648	40
2004/05	12	3,356	31	43	20,915	44
2005/06	12	2,675	34	47	22,652	40

Source: MOE/ESITC.

Notes: Other ministries include MOFA, MOH, MOIC, and MOF. The authority for some institutions has changed over time. Technical does not include teacher training, which was categorized in the statistics as technical education until 2004/05.

The enrolment trend over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06 is shown in Table 147. The enrolment in vocational programmes rose from 2000/01 to 2002/03 and then fell continuously. By contrast, enrolment in technical programmes expanded dramatically after 2003/04. This coincided with the establishment and development of the NTC.

The MOE provides 89% of enrolment, and other ministries provide the remainder. The private sector is not engaged in the provision of secondary vocational programmes. The MOE enrolment accounts for only 45% of total enrolment in technical programmes, while other ministries provide 37% and the private sector provides 18%.

Table 148: TVET Institutions and Students, by Authority and Sex, 2005/06, Lao PDR

Authority	Vocational				Technical			
	Schools	Total	Female	% F	Schools	Total	Female	% F
MOE	9	2,375	701	29.5	17	10,219	3,403	33.3
Other	3	300	220	73.3	16	8,413	3,832	45.5
Private	0	0	0	…	14	4,020	1,731	43.1
Total	12	2,675	921	34.4	47	22,652	8,966	39.6

Source: MOE/ESITC.

Notes: "…" indicates no data available. Other ministries include MOFA, MOH, MOIC, and MOF. The authority for some institutions has changed over time. Technical does not include teacher training, which was categorized in the statistics together with technical education until 2004/05.

It should be noted that in addition to the private sector institutions providing technical education (typically formal 11+2 or 11+2 programmes), there is a host of private sector institutions ("colleges", "business schools", etc.) that provide programmes for secondary or post-secondary school students in foreign languages, computer applications, and commercial subjects.

Some 150,000 youth and adults participate in and complete non-formal programmes every year, as shown in Table 149. The primary school equivalency programme is the most popular, and the second most popular is the literacy programme.

Table 149: Completion of Youth and Adults in Life Skills Programmes, by Sex, 2005/06, Lao PDR

Indicator	Literacy	Primary	Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary	Professional	Total
Total	44,357	96,955	1,890	4,278	3,826	151,306
% of Total	29.3	64.1	1.2	2.8	2.5	100.0
Male	19,692	43,428	1,277	3,235	1,840	69,472
Female	24,665	53,527	613	1,043	1,986	81,834
% Female	55.6	55.2	32.4	24.4	51.9	54.1

Source: MOE/ESITC.

b. Assessing Progress Using Sub-National Data

Provision of technical education and training programmes is distributed around the country. Some are residential and are located outside the major urban areas. Programmes provided by the private sector are typically located in the major urban areas.

15.3.3 Analysis of Disparities in Life Skills in Lao PDR

a. Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality in Life Skills, NFE, and TVET

Females are under-represented in vocational and technical programmes, as can be seen in Table 147 above, and there has been no clear tendency for the gender balance to improve. From Table 148, it can be seen that the MOE programmes have the smallest proportion of females. By contrast, women are well-represented in the life skills programmes, except for the secondary equivalency programmes.

b. Progress in Improving the Quality of Life Skills, NFE, and TVET

The most significant progress in improving the quality of technical and vocational education and training is a consequence of the establishment of the NTC and the emerging re-orientation of TVET programmes and other skills development programmes toward labour market demand. The quality of NFE and TVET needs to be improved, however, and a draft NFE policy is scheduled to go to the National Assembly in the 2007/2008 session.

c. Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached"

The NFE programmes are targeted on the disadvantaged, to provide them an opportunity to make up for earlier disadvantages by participating in literacy and school equivalency programmes. In formal vocational and technical education and training, however, females are still seriously under-represented.

d. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goal

Significant Successes. The success about vocational and technical education and training is the policy development done mainly since the beginning of the decade. The fact that enrolment rates seem to be lagging should not be seen as a failure. The economy is still in a state of transition. The challenge of TVET in transitional economies is to get the labour market connection right. Many kinds of TVET involve substantial investment and recurrent costs. Incurring such costs prior to getting the labour market connection right can lead to great wastage of financial and human resources. At the broad policy level, a most significant response to this challenge has now been met with the establishment of the tripartite NTC in 2002.

e. Remaining Challenges and Issues

The major challenges for technical and vocational education and training involve the revision and development of TVET programmes serving today's labour market as well as tomorrow's. It involves not only skills and competence based curricula but also systems for providing educational and vocational guidance to young people as they proceed through their educational and occupational careers.

In an open market economy, a strict separation between general education and TVET is not sustainable. Careers will seldom be lifelong, and skills and competencies demanded on the labour market will change many times over the economically active period of life of an individual. The solution is shown in the concept of an integrated vocational education and training system (IVETS). This will involve, over a considerable period of time, a major transformation of secondary schooling

and TVET, including the gradual development of TVET institutions and facilities. One aspect of this development would be the development of "gender neutral" and "inclusive" TVET programmes.

15.4 Goal Four: Literacy in Lao PDR

15.4.1 Background and Development of Literacy Acquisition in Lao PDR

a. Definition of Literacy

There is no single agreed definition of literacy, but commonly it is defined as reading, writing, and numeracy. Three levels are usually considered, namely basic, functional, and secure. The most common method of estimating literacy rates is based on self-reporting, but some estimates are based on testing.

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

Virtually all official documents related to sector development emphasize eradication of illiteracy. Most recently, the Sixth National Social and Economic Development Plan declares that "Education and literacy are prerequisites for the introduction and adoption of modern productivity enhancing technologies and for competing in both domestic and world markets."

Non-formal literacy training programmes are usually organized by the MOE, but literacy training is increasingly provided in connection with other non-formal programmes, such as life skill programmes and vocational skill development programmes. In addition, other ministries and agencies provide literacy training in combination with other programmes.

c. Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Groups

The development strategies for literacy involve: (a) The development of a comprehensive non-formal education policy, strategy and plan; (b) Advocacy for strong political commitment to organize advocacy campaigns to motivate youth and adults to participate in NFE literacy and other training programmes; (c) Development and production of national and local NFE curricula adapting to specific needs of target groups; (d) Establishment of a standard system for training NFE staff, trainers, facilitators and teachers; (e) Establishment of non-formal schooling system for school drop-outs and children not attending formal primary schools and the provision of non-formal primary education to children and youth in disadvantaged areas; and (f) Raising the literacy rate of the adult population.

There are some donor-funded programmes for non-formal education/literacy materials in ethnic languages using Lao script.

15.4.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Lao PDR

a. Assessing Progress Using Time Series Data

Table 150: Self-Reported Youth and Adult Literacy Rates (%), by Sex and GPI, 1995-2005, Lao PDR

Indicator	Total	Male	Female	GPI
Adult (15+) 1995	60	73	48	0.66
Adult (15+) 2005	73	82	63	0.77
Change	+13	+9	+15	+0.11
Youth (15-24) 2005	84	89	79	0.88

Sources: 1995 Census and 2005 Census.

The 1995 population census estimated the adult literacy rate in the Lao language at 60%, and the 2005 census estimated 73%, as shown in Table 150. This would suggest that over the period 1995 to 2005, adult illiteracy declined by an average of about 1 percentage point each year. This development represents the combined effects of both rising school enrolment ratios and literacy programmes. The self-reported literacy rate for youth is estimated at 84%.

Some evidence about ethnicity and literacy rates among children aged 11 to 16 years is shown in Table 151. Among ethnic Lao children (Lao-Phutai sub-family), the literacy rate is 84%, with no reported difference between boys and girls. Among other children, the literacy rate is 61%, with substantial differences between girls and boys.

Table 151: Number of Children Aged 11-16 by Literacy, by Sex and GPI, 2005, Lao PDR

Ethnicity	Boys			Girls			
	Literate	Illiterate	% Literate	Literate	Illiterate	% Literate	GPI
Ethnic Lao	321,623	62,388	83.8	311,703	59,353	84.0	1.00
Other Ethnicity	252,853	144,658	63.6	220,958	162,965	57.6	0.91

Source: Noonan and Xaiyasensouk, 2007, Appendix 3, Table 12.

Table 152: Reported and Tested Literacy Rates (%), (Age 15-24), 2000, Lao PDR

Age	Reported (%)	Tested (%)		
		Basic	Functional	Secured
15-19	80	51	43	36
20-24	76	51	44	37
15-24	78	51	43	36

Sources: Lao National Literacy Survey 2001, Tables 3.1 and 5.4 and author estimate.

The Lao National Literacy Survey 2001 (LNLS) tested over 26,000 individuals between the ages of 15 and 59 for literacy skills in 2001. Tested literacy comprised reading and writing skill in the Lao language and numeracy skill. Classification of attainment of basic, functional, or secured functional literacy was based on minimum level scores in these three skill areas. The literacy estimate based on testing was 25-30 points lower than estimates based on self-reporting, as shown in Table 152.

b. Progress Achieved Using Sub-National Data

Literacy rates are higher in urban areas than in rural areas, as shown in Table 153. Regardless of gender and assessed level of literacy, urban rates are some 25 percentage points higher than rural rates.

Table 153: Functional Literacy (%), (Age 15-59), by Sex, 2000, Lao PDR

Category	Basic Literacy			Functional Literacy			Secured Functional Literacy		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
National	54	37	45	45	30	38	37	24	31
Urban	72	57	64	65	50	58	60	46	52
Rural	50	32	41	41	26	33	32	20	26

Source: Lao National Literacy Survey 2001 (LNLS), Table 6.7.

15.4.3 Analysis of Disparities in Literacy in Lao PDR

a. Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality in Literacy

Comparing the adult literacy estimates from the 1995 census, the adult literacy from the 2005 census, and the youth literacy rate from the 2005 census, it can be seen that substantial progress has been made toward gender parity – the GPI for adult literacy rose from 0.66 to 0.77, and the youth literacy rate shows a GPI of 0.88 (see Table 150, page 143 above).

Women are more likely than men to participate in literacy and non-formal primary education programmes, as shown in Table 149, page 141 above. In part, this is due to lower literacy rates among women, but it could also reflect higher interest in literacy.

b. Progress in Improving Quality of Literacy Training

There is a need to improve the quality of literacy training. In particular, it is necessary to ensure that sufficient and appropriate instructional material is available and that suitable reading material is available to support neo-literates to help them retain their literacy.

c. Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached"

Literacy rates are lower for women than for men, for rural dwellers than for urban dwellers, and for non-Lao speaking ethnic groups.

d. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goals

Over the recent decades, literacy rates have risen considerably among the population. This is largely a consequence of rising participation rates in primary education but to some extent also a consequence of adult NFE literacy programmes and primary education equivalency programmes. Gender disparity has also fallen.

e. Remaining Challenges and Issues

Universalization of primary education will gradually lead to further declines in illiteracy rates, but sustained literacy will remain a challenge for many years to come. In an environment in which reading material is not widely available, relapsing into illiteracy is a risk. Efforts are made to promote a "culture of reading", but such a culture can only thrive in an environment in which interesting and attractive reading material is available for work, public information, and leisure enjoyment.

15.5 Goal Five: Gender Equality in Education in Lao PDR

15.5.1 Background and Development of Gender Parity and Equality in Lao PDR

a. National Policy and Legislation for Gender Equality

Gender equality is reflected in the Constitution, which guarantees all Lao citizens equality before the law, irrespective of sex, social status, education, faith and ethnic group (Article 22), and equal rights in the political, economic, cultural, and social fields and family affairs (Article 24). It is also reflected in major international commitments, such as the Convention on the Political Rights of Women, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women, and the Convention on the Rights of the Child. It is reflected in the establishment of a National Commission for the Advancement of Women. The National Growth and Poverty Eradication Strategy (NGPES; CPI, 2000) also establishes a gender mainstreaming strategy for poverty reduction.

b. Strategies and Programmes for Achieving Gender Equality

The main education sector strategy referenced in the National Socio-Economic Development Plan (NSEDP; CPI, 2006) states that: Lessons will be drawn from past and current projects for increasing the number of ethnic minority teachers, improving the relevance of primary school materials, and providing incentives for girls to attend school. Provinces and districts will be encouraged to develop locally appropriate materials to supplement the core curriculum, and to schedule primary and secondary school classes to encourage school attendance. Dormitories will be built for female students who live long distances from schools. Other approaches include distance learning and "bridging" courses to enable students (particularly women) to enter vocational and technical schools.

15.5.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Lao PDR

Almost all of the core indicators for ECCE and primary education show movement toward gender parity, as shown in Table 154. For two of the indicators, it may be concluded that gender parity has been achieved, namely primary NIR and Survival to Grade 5. The GPI for GER for ECCE has tended to be greater than 1.0 but is approaching 1.0. It can be estimated that parity in GER for ECCE could be reached by 2015.

Table 154: GPIs for Selected Indicators, ECCE and Primary, 2000/01-2005/06, Lao PDR

Year	ECCE GER	Primary				
		GIR	NIR	GER	NER	Survival to Grade 5
2000/01	1.09	0.86	0.95	0.86	0.92	1.00
2001/02	1.07	0.86	0.95	0.85	0.91	0.99
2002/03	1.05	0.88	0.96	0.87	0.92	1.00
2003/04	1.06	0.92	0.99	0.87	0.93	0.97
2004/05	1.05	0.91	0.96	0.89	0.95	0.98
2005/06	1.04	0.91	0.98	0.88	0.94	…

Source: MOE/ESITC.
Note: "…" indicates no data available.

Table 155: GPIs for Selected Indicators, Secondary Level, 2000/01-2005/06, Lao PDR

Year	Lower Secondary			Upper Secondary		
	Trans. to LS	GER	NER	Trans. to US	GER	NER
2000/01	0.93	0.74	0.99	0.98	0.70	1.38
2001/02	0.93	0.75	0.99	0.99	0.71	1.41
2002/03	0.93	0.74	0.95	0.97	0.72	1.35
2003/04	0.95	0.78	1.00	0.98	0.72	1.38
2004/05	0.94	0.78	1.02	0.99	0.72	1.41
2005/06	0.95	0.81	1.02	1.02	0.75	1.41

Source: MOE/ESITC.

Two of the indicators for secondary school display parity, namely NER for lower secondary and the transition rate to upper secondary, as shown in Table 155. All other indicators show movement toward gender parity except NER for upper secondary. Boys are more likely than girls to enter lower secondary schools, but they are also more likely to be outside the official age range, in large measure because they tend to leave primary school late due to repetition. Girls who complete lower secondary school are just as likely as boys to enter upper secondary school. Girls who enter lower secondary are just as likely as boys to reach Grade 8. Girls enrolled at upper secondary level are much more likely than boys to be in the official age range.

Table 156: Proportion of Female Teachers (%), by Sub-Sector, 2000/01–2005/06, Lao PDR

Year	Primary	Secondary	
		General	TVET
2000/01	43.8	40.9	29.8
2001/02	44.2	41.4	31.5
2002/03	44.4	42.0	31.9
2003/04	44.9	42.5	31.6
2004/05	45.9	42.7	30.5
2005/06	46.8	43.2	30.8

Source: MOE/ESITC.

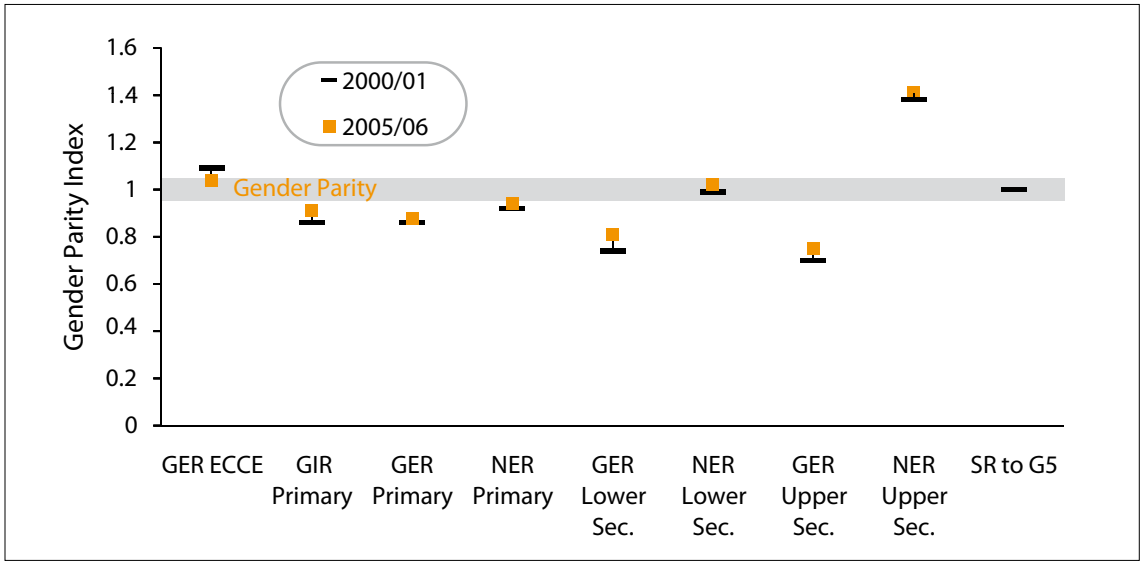
In large measure, the gender distribution of teachers follows the gender distribution of enrolments, as seen in Table 156. The gender balance appears to be improving in general education but not in TVET (see Table 148, page 141 above).

15.5.3 Analysis of Gender Disparities in Lao PDR

a. Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality across the EFA Goals

For general education at all levels, there has been significant progress toward gender parity, as shown in Figure 29.

Figure 29: GPI Summary, 2000/01 and 2005/06, Lao PDR



Source: MOE/ESITC.

b. Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached"

Although the statistical evidence is not readily available, it is known that girls in rural communities are less likely to be enrolled in primary school than boys, and girls in remote communities are even less likely to be enrolled. It is also known that some ethnic groups are less likely than others to send girls to school. The combination of remoteness and ethnicity, often combined with poverty, tends to preserve gender imbalance, with women and young mothers often poorly educated and illiterate, and passing educational disadvantage along to future generations.

c. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goals

The great success in gender development has been generally clear and there has been consistent improvement in nearly all student-related GPIs in general education. Dramatic improvements in the ethnic distribution of primary school students and teachers have been seen. School feeding programmes and scholarships, especially for girls, have been particularly effective in promoting girls' enrolment.

d. Remaining Challenges

Success in pushing the boundaries of access to primary schooling brings with it the challenges of making schooling more relevant to marginal groups by adapting the curriculum to local needs and improving the quality of both teaching methods and instructional materials. Of the approximately 10% of children who never attend school, most live in relatively remote communities. Bringing schooling into these areas will be an increasingly difficult and costly challenge as the final frontiers are reached.

There are also children with physical and learning impairments who could benefit from schooling if schooling were inclusive. There are migrant families, the urban poor, the street children, and the children in difficult circumstances.

There are also those who have access to schools, teachers, and instructional materials but who drop out of primary school after a few grades because parents, teachers, local education authorities, and community leaders do not ensure that they attend school in accordance with the Compulsory Education Act of 1996.

There is a need for a broad-based advocacy programme and an outreach or "child-seeking" programme, operating at the community level, to raise the awareness of community leaders, parents, and children and youth of the importance of education, especially the importance of basic education.

15.6 Goal Six: Quality of Education in Lao PDR

15.6.1 Developments in the Provision of Quality Education in Lao PDR

The main strategies for improvement of quality in education are: (a) Improvement of the management and operation of pre-service and in-service teacher education delivery, with comprehensive but flexible teacher training curricula and programme to suit different modalities of teacher training; (b) Use of research to underpin the development of the teacher training system; (c) Increase in the recruitment and rate of retention of teachers, and improvement of heir status; (d) Effective deployment of trained and professional teachers; (e) Provision of learning materials and adaptation to local conditions; (f) Improved student assessment systems; (g) Improved management and supervision of schools; and (h) Expansion of health promotion in primary schools, in collaboration with the Ministry of Health and concerned organizations.

15.6.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Lao PDR

Education. There have been significant quantitative improvements in nearly all sub-sectors, but qualitative improvements have lagged. Although the high repetition and low survival rate cannot be attributed entirely to low quality of the teaching and learning processes, the problems of quality are a visible contributing factor. For ECCE, there has been no improvement in the qualifications of teachers, and the child/care-giver ratio has been worsening (see Table 140, on page 131 above). At both primary and secondary level, the proportion of certified teachers has been rising (see in Table 146, page 138 above), but the Pupil/Teacher Ratio has been worsening (see Table 145, page 138 above).

At primary level, repetition rates are very high, with the Grade 1 repetition rate at about one-third, and the Grade 2 rate about one-fifth (see Table 142, page 134 above). At 60%, the Survival Rate to Grade 5 is low (see Table 143, page 135 above).

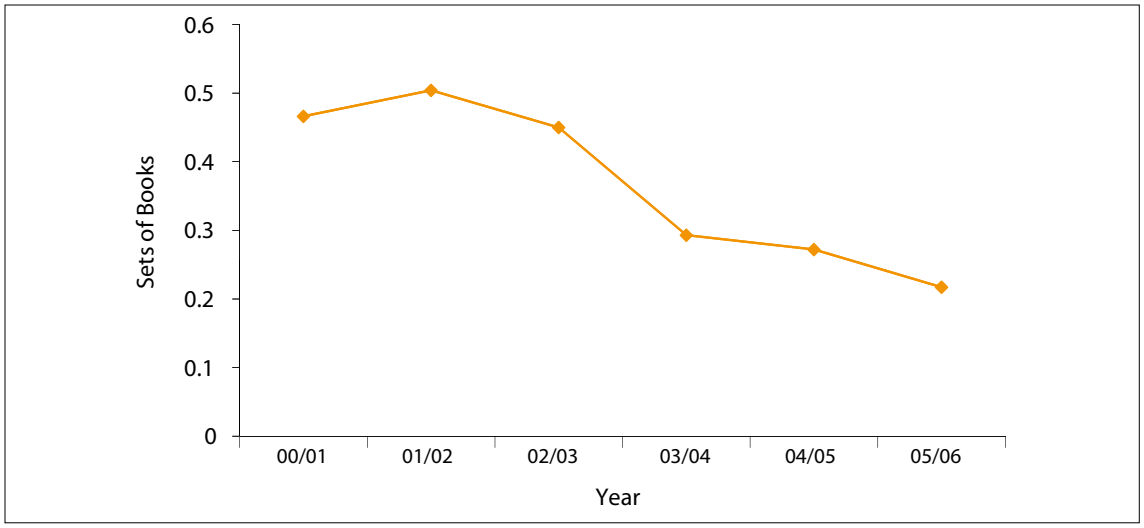
Access to textbooks has been particularly problematic over the past half decade, especially for primary schooling. Under the first Education Development Project, three sets of new primary school textbooks and teacher guides were produced and distributed – Lao language, mathematics, and social studies. The target was one set of books for two students, and this target appears to have been met. The last printing was in 2000, and once the books were distributed, new copies were not printed and distributed. As a result, a textbook shortage appeared and emerged into a crisis, as shown in Table 157 and Figure 30. In many remote schools, there were no textbooks at all and no teacher guides. Only in 2006 did the government and a consortium of donor agencies agreed on financing a new round of textbooks. The MOE has agreed on regular re-printing and distribution of primary school textbooks. It should be noted that according to the financing policy, primary school textbooks are sold on the market in the urban areas, but they are provided free of charge to schools in rural and remote areas.

Table 157: Number of Textbooks per Primary School Student, 2000/01-2005/06, Lao PDR

Year	Sets of 3 per Student
2000/01	0.47
2001/02	0.50
2002/03	0.45
2003/04	0.29
2004/05	0.27
2005/06	0.22

Source: MOE/ESITC.

Figure 30: Sets of Textbooks per Primary School Student, 2000/01-2005/06, Lao PDR



Source: MOE/ESITC.

Health. Evidence about general health-related indicators has been discussed above in "The Poverty, Health, and Education Nexus" section. It can also be pointed out that a very common health problem among primary school students is parasitic worm or helminth infection. It has been estimated that the infection rate of school-age children by soil transmitted helminths is more than 50% (NGPES, Part IV, Chapter 3, p. 89).

15.6.3 Analysis of Disparities in Quality in Lao PDR

a. Progress in Achieving Quality across EFA Goals

In almost all sub-sectors, there have been quantitative improvement, but the qualitative improvements have not kept pace. Children in urban areas are more likely to have close access to schools at all levels. Better educated and qualified teachers are more likely to teach in urban schools. Textbooks are more likely to be available (in the market) in urban areas. The quality of the physical facilities tends to be higher in urban schools. Health standards in general tend to be higher in urban areas.

b. Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached"

There has been expansion into increasingly remote areas, greatly reducing the number of "unreached" and providing educational opportunities where they were previously virtually nil. Nevertheless, "unreached" groups remain, namely those who live in areas not yet reached by educational services, and the disadvantaged, whose poverty or social situation or health or other personal situation does not allow or facilitate participation.

For years to come, the "unreached" will be: (a) Children in remote communities, due to sparse population and lack of access; (b) Poor children in poor communities, who have high opportunity cost combined with low appreciation of the importance of education and often learning difficulties due to language and culture; (c) Children with disabilities, due mainly to lack of understanding and capacity among teachers and partly to lack of "inclusiveness" built in the physical facilities; and (d) Possibly street children, although relevant evidence is weak.

c. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goals

The quantitative improvement in primary school teacher qualifications over the past half decade can only be counted as a significant success. The fact that the very high proportions of secondary school teachers are qualified is also a significant achievement. That the MOE has embarked on a major programme of developing the teacher education system promises important improvements in the remainder of the decade and beyond.

Until recently, the greatest problems has been to expand access into the more remote areas, even though it is clear that widespread provision of high quality schooling is not possible in the medium term. Now that access to a very basic level of primary schooling is approaching universality, it is important to place higher priority on spreading quality basic education for all.

Four "best practices" that work, especially in increasing enrolments in remote areas are: (a) School feeding programmes; (b) Training of teachers from disadvantaged ethnic groups; (c) Multi-grade teaching, targeting ethnic and small villages to develop complete schools and reduce drop-outs; and (d) Attachment of Grade 0 to primary schools in remote communities where it is not feasible to establish separate ECCE facilities.

d. Remaining Challenges and Issues

These significant successes are matched by great challenges. Although valuable guidance will be provided by current development efforts in the teacher education system, the gradual up-grading of the education and training level of the existing stock of primary school teachers in order to improve teaching and learning methods will be an enduring challenge for years to come. More than 10% of the present stock of primary school teachers are not qualified, many of these untrained primary school teachers are serving in small and remote communities, and in many such communities there are no teachers at all. Just the quantitative task of providing qualified primary school teachers to these remote communities and other communities where unqualified teachers are serving will be a major challenge.

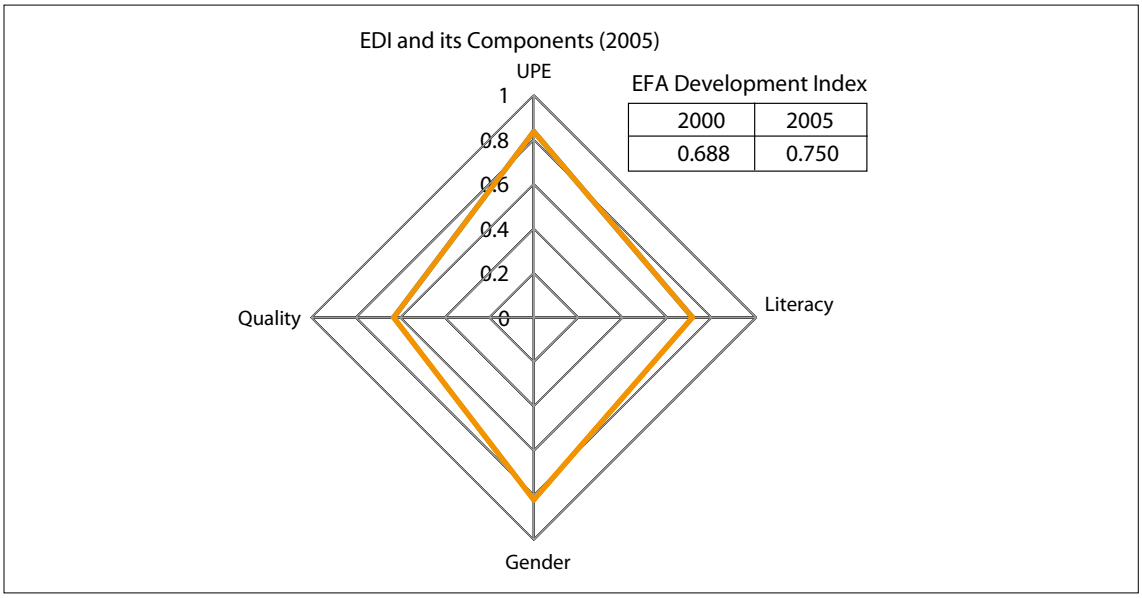
This problem is exacerbated by the practice of the informal "promotion" of qualified primary school teachers to be under-qualified lower secondary school teachers, and qualified lower secondary teachers to be under-qualified upper secondary school teachers. This practice lowers the average level of qualifications at all levels.

15.7 Overall Conclusions and Policy Recommendations in Lao PDR

- Work is ongoing under the SIDA-financed TTEST project, to improve the quality of the teaching and learning processes, and the outcomes of this development work need to be implemented.
- Textbook policy involving the annual printing and distribution of instructional materials needs to be developed.
- Multi-grade schools should be implemented where sparse population hinders the operation of single-grade classrooms.
- Policies and practices related to the identification of teacher training candidates, provision of scholarships for teacher training, and the employment and deployment of teachers should be adjusted to enable the employment of ethnic group teachers in ethnic group communities. One possible approach could be to utilize, and possibly expand the secondary boarding schools for ethnic group children. Other approaches should also be considered.
- Community participation in the planning and management of schools should be encouraged.

15.8 Lao PDR Country Statistical Profile

Figure 31: EFA Development Index, 2000 and 2005, Lao PDR



Sources: Global Monitoring Reports 2003/04 and 2008.

16. Myanmar

16.1 Goal One: Early Childhood Care and Education in Myanmar

16.1.1 Background and Development of ECCE in Myanmar

a. Definition of ECCE

ECCE is defined as nurturing children younger than five years physically, socially, mentally and spiritually, and refers to both pre-school (ages 3-5 years) programmes and child-rearing practices and to day-care programmes for children younger than three. The aim is to involve more children in ECCE programmes and to provide them with education and care in improved service centres and pre-primary schools of quality that adopt child-centred models to promote lifelong learning, ensuring quality and equality in access to and participation in ECCE programmes, including for sub-national target groups.

The target group includes all children under five years of age, but priority is given to the most vulnerable groups, i.e., poor children; children from remote, border and mountainous areas; children with disabilities; children from migrant families; and orphans. Types of ECCE programmes include centre-, community-, home- and family-based "mother circles" and parental education, as well as integrated ECCE activities.

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

Under the EFA NPA, major strategic actions to achieve the ECCE goal include: (a) Creation of a policy framework and advocacy for ECCE; (b) Raising ECCE awareness through information, education, and communication; (c) Expanding home and family-based ECCE and providing technical services and parental education; (d) Supporting the establishment of quality ECCE centres through training, coordination, and financing and material support; and (e) Creating an ECCE database and multi-sector network with active support of partners.

One of the four Social Objectives of the State Peace and Development Council is to "Uplift the Health, Fitness, and Education Standards of the Entire Nation." To achieve this objective, an important factor is to achieve the all-around development of children under the age of five years.

The Child Law, a special child-focussed legislation developed and enacted in 1993 after Myanmar's accession in 1991 to the Convention on the Rights of the Child, is specific about the obligations of the State. The national education policies of Myanmar are encompassed in the 30-year Long-Term Education Development Plan (LTEDP) and the EFA NAP 2003-2015.

The Child Law enables the Ministry of Social Welfare, Relief, and Resettlement (MSW) to: (a) Establish local residential nurseries for the care of children under the age of five; and (b) Supervise, inspect, and give guidance, expertise, and support to day nurseries and pre-primary schools established by NGOs and private institutions. MSW is developing a plan to monitor such schools. The Child Law also guarantees that all children, irrespective of religion, shall be equal before the law and given equal opportunities. Religious practices of all faiths – Buddhism, Christian, Islam, and Hindu – are respected in pre-schools and are carefully supervised by the authorities.

c. Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Children

ECCE efforts led by MSW, based on the concept of the development of the whole child, have led to the establishment of day-care centres and pre-primary schools throughout the country. Since 1998, the Ministry of Education has become more actively involved and helped to stimulate the recent expansion of ECCE programmes, even though communities generate most of the necessary resources.

Other relevant Ministries include: (a) Ministry of Health; (b) Ministry of Information, which conducts health-care programmes and child-participating activities for children under age five; and (c) Ministry of Progress of Border Areas and National Races and Development Affairs (MPBND), which has collaborated with UNDP to establish pre-schools in villages in the remote areas in the Kachin and Chin States.

Specific target groups for EFA in Myanmar include poor children; children from remote, borderland mountainous areas; children with disabilities; children from migrant families; and orphans. National policies adopted in the Child Law encourage the participation of NGOs, communities, and families in ECCE activities. These groups are not singled out in the EFA NAP and other policies; their inclusion is implicit.

16.1.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Myanmar

Table 158: Pre-Primary Schools and Enrolment under the MOE, 2000/01-2006/07, Myanmar

Year	Schools	Enrolment
2000/01	354	9,560
2001/02	512	12,860
2002/03	667	15,679
2003/04	785	18,223
2004/05	905	19,077
2005/06	1,311	24,685
2006/07	1,773	36,595

Source: MOE/DEPT.

Care and Education. Registration procedures for pre-primary schools and day-care centres were developed in 2004 and reviewed in 2006, and have now been submitted to higher authorities. Through the Education Promotion Programmes launched in 1998 under comprehensive education reforms, schools are allowed to open a pre-primary school or pre-primary classes if space and the number of teachers permit. This resulted in more than a threefold increase in the number of State pre-primary schools over the period 2000/01to 2006/07 as shown in Table 158.

In addition, State pre-schools, community-based pre-primary schools, and day-care centres also have been opened by the MOE, MSW, and INGOs. As of 2007/08, there are 1,656 community-based pre-schools nurturing more than 62,400 children. Parental education has been carried out in villages and wards through discussion programmes on parent care, malaria prevention, HIV/AIDS education, and childcare for children under five. NGOs and INGOs also participate in the implementation of ECCE programmes. As of 2006, they have established 2,800 pre-schools serving more than 100,000 children and some 1,400 "mother circles" serving more than 14,000 children under three. These facilities provide help to children who cannot attend government pre-school, and to parents for income generation, parental education, awareness raising, and child healthcare and nutrition assistance. MSW also nurtures orphans, juvenile delinquents, children with physical or mental disabilities, and poor children younger than five.

The pre-schools under the MOE account for only about one-seventh of the total enrolment, as seen in Table 159. In total, the State accounts for just over one-quarter of ECCE enrolments, NGOs for 56%, and the private sector for 18%, as seen in Table 159.

Table 159: ECCE Centres by Organization, 2006, Myanmar

Organization	Centres/Classes		Children	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Ministries				25.6
Education	1,773	23.6	36,595	14.3
Progress of Border Areas & National Races & Dev.	38	0.5	2,601	1.0
Social Welfare, Relief and Resettlement	877	11.6	26,404	10.3
Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs)	…	…	…	56.5
Myanmar Maternal and Child Welfare Assoc.	1,656	22.0	62,440	24.4
Religion-based	1,347	17.9	59,444	23.2
INGOs	248	3.3	10,958	4.3
Local NGOs	393	5.2	11,780	4.6
Private	1,196	15.9	46,135	18.0
Total	7,528	100.0	256,357	100.0

Source: MOE/DEPT.
Note: "…" indicates no data available.

Table 160: ECCE Core Performance Indicators, 2005/06, Myanmar

Indicator	Target (%)	Achieved (%)
GER	16.0	16.9
New Entrants, Grade 1	10.0	10.7

Sources: EMIS, 2007/MICS, 2003/EFA-NAP, 2003.

The ECCE pre-school targets for 2005/06 were exceeded, as shown in Table 160.

Nutrition. The Ministry of Health is responsible for promoting maternal health care and decreasing infant mortality rates, as well as implementing survival, health, nutrition, and immunisation programmes for children younger than five in collaboration with United Nations agencies. The aim is to cover all schools, including pre-schools, under the School Health Programme.

Health and Nutrition. Because most births in Myanmar occur at home, birth weight is frequently not recorded. For infants with reported birth weights, the Ministry of Health reported in 2000 that 12% had low birth weight, half the reported rate in 1991.

Nutrition promotion activities are carried out with the aim of reducing childhood malnutrition, which varies across states and divisions, and achieving nutritional well-being for all citizens. Myanmar has identified Protein Energy Malnutrition (PEM) and micronutrient deficiencies such as Vitamin A deficiency, iron deficiency, anaemia, and iodine deficiency disorders (IDD) as its major nutrition challenges. Interventions on these issues are targeted at the two most vulnerable groups, namely, pregnant women and children younger than five. Growth monitoring and promotion for children younger than three is the major PEM control activity taking place throughout the country, and nutrition rehabilitation activities also are carried out in selected rural and urban areas.

Immunization coverage in Myanmar peaked in 1990 – the target year in the global drive for Universal Child Immunisation – and has declined somewhat subsequently. Nevertheless, coverage levels remain high overall. The proportion of children under five receiving DPT 3 immunisations held steady at 82% between 2000 and 2004.

Malnutrition among children declined slowly over the past decade, with steady improvements in iodine status and Vitamin A status of children. Since 1999, Universal Salt Iodisation (USI) has been adopted for sustained elimination of IDDs and effectively reached its goal in 2004. Bi-annual supplementation with high-potency Vitamin A capsules for children aged six months to five years represents the major intervention against Vitamin A deficiency. Iron supplementation for under-

five children, as well as for adolescent schoolgirls and pregnant women, is also being implemented in selected areas. The National Micronutrient Survey 2005 showed the prevalence of anaemia to be 65% among pre-school children, 72% among infants aged 6-12 months, and 77% for infants aged 12-24 months.

Integrating helminth reduction interventions into school health programmes is the main strategy to address the problem of Soil-Transmitted Helminthiasis (STH). A school de-worming programme was initiated in 2002 after a baseline survey in the delta region, one of the four major ecological zones in the country, showed a high level of prevalence and high intensity of STH among schoolchildren. By the end of 2005, 2.1 million pre-school-aged children and 4.8 million school-aged children from all over the country had been de-wormed as an integrated approach with the support of WHO and UNICEF.

16.1.3 Analysis of Disparities in ECCE in Myanmar

a. Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality in ECCE

Of the 256,357 children attending pre-schools in 2006, a total of 127,200 or 50%, were girls. The Gender Ratio of pre-school children thus stood at 101.6 boys per 100 girls. At the same time, age 3-5 population Gender Ratio is 101.1 boys per 100 girls.

More than half of Myanmar's pre-schools are in urban and peri-urban areas, indicating an urgent need to expand ECCE programmes in rural areas.

b. Progress in Improving Quality of ECCE

In recent years, several monitoring and evaluation assessments of performance and impact have been conducted by the MOE, other ministries, UN agencies, and NGOs. These evaluations showed that the ECCE Programme had not only achieved quantitative improvement, but also provided quality improvement in specific skills such as better health; physical, mental, cognitive, language, social, behavioural, and observational development; thinking and reasoning skills; learning skills and self-confidence. Most pre-schools appeared to be satisfying parents' expectations. Among outcomes, school readiness stands out as the most significant change from the point of view of the various stakeholders.

Child-Centred ECCE. Since 2001, child-centred ECCE models have received increasing emphasis in Myanmar. Teachers, government officials, NGOs, parents, and communities are together learning an approach to early childhood education that is more holistic and child-centred. Rather than concentrating on reading and writing, which may be poorly suited for very young children, more centres are giving children opportunities for play that promotes physical, social and cognitive development.

The MSW, in cooperation with other relevant Ministries, UNICEF, NGOs, and INGOs, developed a curriculum for pre-schools and day-care centres, along with a teachers' manual and guidelines for caring for children under three. These guidelines were approved in 2007.

Careers for ECCE care providers are being professionalised, as teachers, school heads, and caregivers are trained in ECCE courses, including trainings designed to address the special target groups of children with disabilities and orphans. Trainees are from all areas, including remote, border, and mountainous areas. The overall proportion of trained pre-school teachers in 2006 was found to be just over 56%, despite rapidly increasing enrolments.

c. Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached"

Geographic Disparities. As a whole, communities living in remote, border, and mountainous areas are under-served. The delivery system, however, is highly diversified, with very considerable involvement of non-government providers, as shown in Table 159 above. Community involvement is also high. This combination of many different providers and high local participation is a good basis for improving the outreach of ECCE programmes.

Language. More than 100 dialects are spoken in Myanmar, but the official language in schools is Myanmar (Burmese). It is particularly challenging for the estimated 30% of Myanmar's children whose mother tongue is not the national language. In pre-schools, according to the ECCE learning method, pre-primary children learn their own dialect as a first language. Pre-primary children of Myanmar nationalities learn bilingually. About 2,300 bilingual pre-schools have been established. Bilingualism is included in pre-school teachers' training. The EFA NAP recommends that specific methodologies designed to deal with the introduction of young children to the Myanmar language be developed. A special transition curriculum will be applied in pilot primary schools.

d. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goal

Enrolment. Under the EFA NAP 2003-2015, Myanmar has two ECCE targets gross enrolment ratio in ECCE programmes of 10% by 2002 and 15% by 2005. According to the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) 2003, based on data from States and Divisions, ECCE enrolment already stood at 16.9%, thereby surpassing the EFA target before 2005.

Local and international NGOs have become active in "out-of-centre" ECCE; this represents an area where education partnerships have great potential. In recent years, NGOs, churches, monasteries, and social organizations have helped communities add many new centres. Because of the rising level of NGO and community activity, MSW has recently modified its strategy from that of direct provision of childcare services to one of community support.

Mothers' Circles. A key ECCE strategy in reaching the priority target groups and reducing rural-urban gaps has been the innovative development of "Mother Circles" (MCs), which represent a hybrid model whereby pre-primary school-based early childhood centres serve as the nucleus of support to home-based programmes. Initiated in 2000 in disadvantaged peri-urban townships in Yangon, they form a very successful model for supporting the development of the most vulnerable young children in Myanmar.

In 2006, there were some 1,408 MCs which served more than 14,000 children under three. "Mother Circles" are conducted in homes in cooperation with Basic Education Schools. As part of ECCE Parenting Education Activity, parenting education on developmentally appropriate practices is given to community volunteers and support groups. Low-income families and rural communities receive ECCE opportunities through MCs, whose activities can be implemented with low costs and a participatory community approach.

Outreach Programmes. Other successful interventions designed to reach the unreached include schools for children with disabilities, use of bilingual methods for language development in border areas, distribution of "box libraries" and toys, and pre-school teacher trainings for trainees from all areas, including remote, border and mountainous areas. A total of 21,000 "box libraries" have been distributed.

e. Remaining Challenges and Issues

Foremost among the challenges facing ECCE development is that of improving access to ECCE among the unreached target population – poor children; children from remote, border and mountainous areas; children with disabilities; children from migrant families; and orphans. More

than half of pre-schools are in urban areas, indicating a need for more rural-based programmes. Many parents from low socio-economic groups are still not aware of the importance of ECCE. Moreover, in areas of difficult terrain, parents cannot send children to ECCE centres, even if there is one, because of difficulty in reaching the facilities and time required.

A 2006 monitoring and evaluation report showed that MSW pre-schools average 30-35 children, with two caregivers allocated, resulting in a child/caregiver ratio of about 15:1. Some ECCE classes were combined with primary classes. Class size varies widely, from six to more than 88 children, with the upper limit clearly challenging quality outcomes.

The perceived importance of early childhood development still focuses more on academic needs rather than on a systematic nurturing of the child by parents. A challenging task in the EFA context will be the provision of assistance to increase the knowledge and practices of parents of children up to five years in caring and stimulating the child's cognitive and psychosocial development.

Increasing numbers of ECCE centres, particularly in remote, border and mountainous areas, must be equipped with a sufficient number of trained teachers, requiring expanded training of pre-school personnel. In addition, teaching facilities must be upgraded, including improved infrastructure, more access to appropriately equipped learning corners and teaching aids, and stronger teaching programmes. In particular, class size and Pupil/Teacher Ratios must be monitored carefully to avoid overcrowding and ensure that all children are able to maximise their learning opportunities.

Data collection on ECCE needs to be strengthened and disaggregated further by geographic region, gender, rural-urban disparities, national groups, language, disabilities, economic quintile, and professional qualifications.

16.2 Goal Two: Universal Basic Education in Myanmar

16.2.1 Background and Expansion of Universal Basic Education in Myanmar

a. Definition of UBE

The Myanmar school system consists of five years of primary, four years of middle school (lower secondary) and two years of high school (upper secondary) education, totalling 11 years. In EFA usage, basic education includes only the primary and lower secondary levels, and the aim is to bring basic education within the reach of all children in the school-going age group. Priority is given to poor children, children from remote, border and mountainous areas, children with disabilities, children from migrant families, and orphans. Girls are given the same opportunities as boys.

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

According to the Basic Education Law, the aims of basic education are:

- To enable every citizen of the Union of Myanmar to become a physical or mental worker, well-equipped with basic education, good health and moral character;
- To lay a foundation for vocational education for the benefit of the Union of Myanmar;
- To give precedence to the teaching of science capable of strengthening and developing productive forces;
- To give precedence to the teaching of arts capable of preserving and developing the culture, fine arts and literature of Myanmar; and
- To lay a firm educational foundation for the further pursuance of university education.

The Education Committee was established in 1991 under the chairmanship of Secretary 1 of the State Peace and Development Council. In 2006, the Committee comprised 18 members, including: the Education Minister, ministers for other education-related ministries and two Deputy Ministers for Education. Under the MOE, there is a Basic Education Council for the supervision of Basic Education. Responsible government organizations include the MOE, MSW, and MPBND.

Primary Education is free, but secondary education is not. There are monthly school fees prescribed for each grade, but the amount of school fees is minimal. Textbooks for the first grade entrance are provided free, and all the textbooks in all subsequent grades are provided with subsidized prices. Nonetheless, the hidden costs such as textbooks and uniforms may be a barrier to education for poor children. For the needy children, special arrangements for providing texts, stationery, and uniforms are organized by regional and local authorities, NGOs, communities, and benefactors, especially at the school enrolment week in the last week of May every year.

c. Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Children

There are three main strategies for achieving UBE:

- Develop and expand child-friendly schools (CFS), which promote inclusiveness, child seeking, child-centred learning, parent-community participation, and a conducive learning environment;
- Make basic education more accessible to children; and
- Increase retention and completion rates in schools.

Meanwhile, in this age of knowledge, e-education has become a necessity, and the MOE is overseeing the provision of e-facilities in urban schools and some rural schools. Equitable development must be ensured when equipping schools in phases with facilities for ICT multimedia classrooms, Internet access and resource centres.

The Special Four-Year Plan 2000-2004 encompassed all the activities of the Education Promotion Programmes to strive for the development of highly qualified human resources. The Plan defined six programmes to be implemented by the basic education sector:

- Revise and reform the basic education curriculum;
- Introduce a new assessment system and redefine completion of basic education;
- Introduce multimedia classrooms to enhance the teaching-learning process;
- Upgrade the quality of teacher education;
- Support all-around development activities; and
- Universalize primary education.

The Special Four-Year Plan resulted in increased school enrolment, major revisions in the curricula of the three levels of Basic Education, implementing a new assessment system based on continuous assessment procedures that promote rational thinking, creativity and problem-solving skills, establishment of multimedia classrooms, and upgrading teacher training institutions and teacher quality. The Special Four-Year Plan has now been incorporated in the 30-Year Long-Term Education Development Plan 2001-2031.

Specific policies targeting specific disadvantaged groups of children are given in Table 161.

Table 161: General Policies and Programmes Related to Specific Target Groups, Myanmar

Target Group	Policies and Programmes
For children in border and remote areas	Opening more schools in border areas; improving the quality of basic education for pre-vocational and vocational education
For rural children	Post-primary schools
For children from migrant families	Mobile schools
For poor children	Monastic schools
For children with disabilities and excluded children	Inclusive education
For out-of-school children	Improving Non-Formal Education activities

Many children in Myanmar accompany their parents as they move from place to place to earn a living. Mobile schools, with mobile teachers, have been opened as an effective means for promoting access to basic education for these children, who in 2006/07 numbered some 1,900 students.

With the help and encouragement of the community and social organizations, HIV/AIDS infected and affected children are accepted without discrimination in basic education schools and monastic schools. NGOs are providing education not only to children living with AIDS (CLWA) but also to children of HIV infected parents.

Voluntary night schools have been opened for out-of-school children and youth by the Myanmar Women Affairs Federation (MWAF) and Myanmar Maternal and Child Welfare Association (MMCWA). In 2006, the total number of students who attended such schools run by MWAF, MMCWA, or the communities reached 26,600.

For many years, orphanage homes have been operated by social and faith-based organizations and private benefactors to take care of orphans and children from poverty-stricken families in Myanmar. In 2005/06, the MSW supported 68 centres serving 14,830 children.

16.2.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Myanmar

a. Assessing Progress Using Time Series Data

Enrolment. In accordance with the policy of promoting entrance at the official age of entry, the primary Gross Intake Ratio (GIR) gradually declined toward 100% over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06 as the Net Intake Rate rose toward 100%, as shown in Table 162.

Table 162: Primary GIR and NIR (%), by Sex and GPI, 2000/01-2005/06, Myanmar

Year	GIR				NIR			
	M	F	Total	GPI	M	F	Total	GPI
2000/01	110.1	108.6	109.3	0.99	92.3	90.8	91.5	0.98
2001/02	112.8	112.1	112.4	0.99	92.2	91.9	92.0	1.00
2002/03	111.3	108.6	109.9	0.98	93.7	92.4	93.1	0.99
2003/04	107.6	106.6	107.1	0.99	95.4	94.8	95.1	0.99
2004/05	105.0	106.3	105.7	1.01	96.6	96.6	96.6	1.00
2005/06	104.0	107.2	105.6	1.03	97.5	97.7	97.6	1.00

Source: DEBT, DBEs.

Correspondingly, Primary Gross Enrolment Ratio rose by 2.1 points while the Net Enrolment Rate rose by 4.7 points, as shown in Table 163. Secondary Gross and Net Enrolment Rates rose only slightly, by 1.2 points, as shown in Table 164.

Table 163: Primary GER and NER (%), by Sex and GPI, 2000/01-2005/06, Myanmar

Year	GER				NER			
	M	F	Total	GPI	M	F	Total	GPI
2000/01	87.8	87.1	87.5	0.99	77.8	77.2	77.5	0.99
2001/02	88.4	88.4	88.4	1.00	78.0	78.0	78.0	1.00
2002/03	90.3	90.9	90.6	1.01	79.4	79.8	79.6	1.01
2003/04	90.6	89.9	90.3	0.99	81.1	80.5	80.8	0.99
2004/05	89.9	89.8	89.8	1.00	81.4	81.2	81.3	1.00
2005/06	90.2	89.1	89.6	0.99	82.7	81.6	82.2	0.99

Source: DEBT, DBEs.

Table 164: Secondary GER and NER (%), by Sex and GPI, 2000/01-2005/06, Myanmar

Year	GER				NER			
	M	F	Total	GPI	M	F	Total	GPI
2000/01	38.9	39.6	39.3	1.02	33.1	33.7	33.4	1.02
2001/02	40.0	39.9	40.0	1.00	34.2	34.1	34.2	1.00
2002/03	40.6	40.7	40.7	1.00	34.9	35.0	35.0	1.00
2003/04	41.0	40.2	40.6	0.98	35.4	34.7	35.1	0.98
2004/05	40.6	40.4	40.5	0.99	35.2	35.0	35.1	0.99
2005/06	40.0	39.5	39.8	0.99	34.8	34.4	34.6	0.99

Source: DEBT, DBEs.

Table 165: Repetition Rate (%), Grades 1-5, 2000/01-2005/06 and GPI 2005/06, Myanmar

Year	Grade				
	1	2	3	4	5
2000/01	1.6	0.9	0.8	0.5	0.2
2001/02	1.6	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.4
2002/03	1.3	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.5
2003/04	1.0	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.2
2004/05	0.6	0.4	0.3	0.3	0.2
2005/06	0.9	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.3
Male 2005/06	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.3
Female 2005/06	0.9	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.3
GPI 2005/06	1.03	0.97	1.03	1.03	1.02

Source: MOE/DEPT.

Repetition, Survival, and Transition. At all grades, the repetition rates are low and declined over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06, as shown in Table 165. It can also be seen that the repetition rates are highest in Grade 1 and lowest in Grade 5. The dropout rate for primary school was 6.9% and for lower secondary school, 6.1%. Students are much more likely to drop out of primary school than repeat a grade. The overall internal efficiency of basic education at the national level is estimated at 60%.

Table 166: Survival Rate to Grade 5 (%), by Sex and GPI, 2000/01-2005/06, Myanmar

Year	Male	Female	Total	GPI
2000/01	47.8	48.4	48.1	1.01
2001/02	55.4	56.5	56.0	1.02
2002/03	62.1	62.5	62.3	1.01
2003/04	68.1	65.9	67.0	0.97
2004/05	65.0	67.2	66.1	1.03
2005/06	67.0	66.3	66.7	0.99

Sources: MOE/DEPT and DBEs.

The survival rates improved dramatically over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06, as shown in Table 166. Nevertheless, of all children who begin Grade 1, fewer than 70% survive to Grade 5. As repetition rates fell and survival rates rose, transition rates from primary to lower secondary have also risen, as shown in Table 167. Transition rates to upper secondary, however, remained virtually unchanged.

Table 167: Transition Rates (%) Primary to Lower Secondary and Lower Secondary, 2001/02-2005/06, Myanmar

Year	Primary to Lower Secondary	Lower Secondary to Upper Secondary
2001/02	67.9	93.1
2002/03	70.6	93.8
2003/04	71.5	92.5
2004/05	76.2	93.0
2005/06	78.3	93.3

Source: MOE/DEPT.

b. Assessing Progress Using Sub-National Data

Regular schools under the MOE account for almost all enrolments, especially at the secondary level, as seen in Table 168. Monastic schools account for 3% of primary enrolment, but only 1% of lower secondary and less than 1% at upper secondary.

Table 168: Enrolment, by Level and Type, 2005/06, Myanmar

Type of School	Mobile	Border Area	Regular MOE	Monastic	Total
Primary	1,883	105,755	4,918,951	160,432	5,187,021
% of Total	0.0	2.0	94.8	3.1	100.0
Lower Secondary	0	52,461	1,966,653	20,880	2,039,994
% of Total	0.0	2.6	96.4	1.0	100.0
Upper Secondary	0	12,704	632,841	3,437	648,982
% of Total	0.0	2.0	97.5	0.5	100.0

Source: MOE/DEPT.

16.2.3 Analysis of Disparities in UBE in Myanmar

a. Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality in UBE

Table 169: Girls' Enrolment as % of Total by Level and Urban/Rural, 2003/04-2005/06 and GPI 2005/06, Myanmar

Year	Urban		Rural	
	Prim.	Sec.	Prim.	Sec.
2003/04	49.3	48.8	48.8	47.8
2004/05	49.0	49.5	50.1	48.9
2005/06	48.8	49.7	49.8	49.0
GPI 2005/06	0.96	0.99	1.00	0.98

Source: MOE/DEPT.

Table 169 shows that no gender disparity exists in primary and secondary school enrolment in both rural and urban areas. However, while there is no gender disparity among students, overwhelming gender disparity is found among teachers of basic education schools, as shown in Table 170. Female teachers comprise some 85% of all basic education school teachers. To address this gender disparity, a policy has been adopted to reduce male teachers' entrance marks for entering pre-service training courses as compared to marks for female teachers.

Table 170: Teachers in Basic Education Schools, by Sex, 2003/04-2005/06, Myanmar

Year	Male		Female		Total	
	Nuber	% of Total	Number	% of Total	Number	% of Total
2003/04	30,659	15.8	162,938	84.2	193,597	100
2004/05	29,252	14.4	174,059	85.6	203,311	100
2005/06	29,356	13.9	181,349	86.1	210,705	100

Source: MOE/DEPT.

Since 2003/04, a special accelerated programme enables children of age 7+ or 8+ to complete primary education in three years and those of age 9+ to complete primary education in two years. Learning through the special curriculum, these over-aged children were able to attend lower secondary school after their primary education. In 2005/06, this programme served more than 103,000 children.

Table 171: Number of Post-Primary Schools and Students, 2001/02 and 2005/06, Myanmar

Year	Schools	Students
2001/02	696	31,881
2005/06	5,545	334,090

Source: MOE/DEPT.

In many areas, particularly remote and border areas, children who finished primary education have no opportunity to continue their studies because there are no lower secondary schools in the area. In 2001/02, existing primary schools in such regions had Grade 6 added to their classes so that graduating children could attend; the following year, Grade 7 was added, and so on. The number of these post-primary schools and students has soared, which has contributed to the increase in transition rate from primary to lower secondary level from 68% in 2001/02 to 78% in 2005/06.

b. Progress in Improving Quality of UBE

Basic Education Schools are monitored regularly by the Minister of Education, the Deputy Minister of Education, Directors General, and Township Education Officers. In order to monitor the quality of Basic Education, state and division inspection teams have been strengthened in terms of quantity and quality. The 11-member team monitors, evaluates, and supervises the management, teaching-learning situation, and co-curricula activities of a school. Specific training on capacity building for them is provided prior to assignment as inspection team members.

c. Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached"

According to the evidence available, gender parity in enrolment appears to be achieved in rural areas but is lagging in urban areas. The magnitude of the urban/rural gap is not known.

d. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goal

CFS is a key strategy of the Myanmar EFA National Action Plan to increase children's access to quality basic education. The CFS initiative began in partnership with UNICEF in 2001 and was

initially implemented in 19 disadvantaged townships. By 2005, it had expanded to 94 townships, more than 10,000 primary schools, and 1.2 million children. Its primary focus is to increase access of disadvantaged, out-of-school children to education by reducing the cost of schooling through provision of textbooks, exercise books, and pencils.

Another key strategy is the mobilization of Parent-Teacher Associations (PTAs) and communities for enhanced participation in school management, capacity building of school clusters for more decentralised management, and provision of supplies to needy students and schools, as well as baseline data collection and target monitoring by communities. Capacity building of teachers and school heads facilitates the building of partnerships among parents, communities, and teachers for the schools to become true child-friendly learning environments. The cross-sectoral collaboration with other relevant progammes, the convergence of Basic Education, water and sanitation, and health interventions in the school also provide significant improvements to the school environment, facilities, and services.

A groundbreaking endeavour has been the initiation of the "School Enrolment Week" on a national scale to accelerate the achievement of universalization of primary education. Since 1999/00, the last week of May has been declared "Enrolment Week", under which a "Whole Township Enrolment Day" is observed in every township. This mass movement mobilizes parents to send their children to school and makes arrangements for the provision of classrooms, furniture, and teaching aids to the schools involved. It also harnesses the resources of communities to support needy children with school uniforms, textbooks, stationery, and stipends. The mass media, including television, radio, and newspapers, are used to mobilise public participation in the programme. As a result of such efforts, Grade 1 intake rose from 91% in 1999/00 to nearly 98% in 2005/06.

The introduction of post-primary education in rural areas has been very successful in opening up opportunities for further education.

e. Remaining Challenges and Issues

Low retention has been a fundamental issue in primary education. Recent reforms have led to improvements at the primary level, but continuing high dropout rates indicate a need to make schools more effective and child friendly, although external factors such as economic and social issues also may have a significant impact. The situation calls for a careful investigation into the quality aspects, including complex issues of teaching-learning approaches, assessment systems, class size, availability of learning materials, quality of teachers, leadership of school heads and, above all, the effectiveness of supervision and assistance provided by Township Education Officers.

Further challenges include:

- Managing the significant increase in primary school intake rate to achieve the completion of primary education of all children, with strong collaboration and cooperation between the government and communities;
- More effective utilisation of multimedia facilities in the teaching-learning process in primary education;
- Expansion of both pre- and in-service teacher training because of the increase in primary education enrolment;
- More involvement by and contribution of social organizations, communities, and private benefactors; and
- Introduction of inclusive education in almost all schools.

16.3 Goal Three: Life Skills and Lifelong Learning in Myanmar

16.3.1 Background and Development of Life Skills and Non-formal Education in Myanmar

a. Definition of Life Skills and Lifelong Learning

Learning needs in Myanmar include decision making, communications, income generation, technical and vocational education, health, literacy and numeracy. Life skills and lifelong education will equip youth (aged 10-24) and adults (aged 25+) with psycho-social competencies that will allow them to deal effectively with demands and challenges of everyday life and make informed decisions about their health and well-being.

National targets by 2015 include:

- To develop life skills and lifelong education programmes through the formal education system by implementing revised life skills primary curricula at primary level by 2009 and at secondary level by 2015;
- To improve life skills and lifelong education programmes through non-formal out-of-school education by implementing community-based programme Extended and Continuous Education and Learning for up to 50,000 out-of-school youth in 46 townships by 2015, and by expanding the pre-service Education College Peer Education Programme; and
- To formulate new policies, guidelines and strategies for TVET, not only to meet current manpower needs but also to address future human resource requirements in industry and the economy as a whole, by developing the teaching quality and effectiveness of teachers.

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

Recent education reform in Myanmar made life skills mandatory for inclusion at the primary level as a separate core curriculum in 1998 and as separate co-curriculum at the secondary level in 2001. This was the first such programme in South-East Asia.

The School-Based HIV/AIDS Prevention Education project, assisted by UNICEF, provides experience and made an impact for the revision of the primary curriculum in 2004 toward a skills-based teaching and learning process. The secondary curriculum is currently being updated and revised. The age-appropriate life skills curriculum covers areas of personal health and hygiene; nutrition; physical growth and development; reproductive health; mental health; preventable diseases such as diarrhoea, malaria, iodine deficiency, tuberculosis, hepatitis, HIV/AIDS, and alcohol and substance use and abuse; and environmental health and sanitation. The national strategic plan for HIV/AIDS 2006-09 gives high priority to reducing HIV-related risks, vulnerability, and impact on young people through the life skills programme in basic education schools and education colleges.

Social skills such as decision making, communication skills, interpersonal relationships, empathy, critical and creative thinking, coping with emotion and stress, and fostering self-esteem and self-expression, have been incorporated into lessons. Contents, teaching-learning methods, and hours have been carefully specified for lower primary, upper primary and secondary school curricula. Booklets, reading cards, and learning materials have been developed and distributed to schools.

The Long-Term Education Development Plan is committed to providing quality education for all, to producing all-around developed citizens, to providing opportunities for pre-vocational and vocational education at all levels of basic education, and to expanding NFE.

Myanmar's policies on life skills and lifelong education are focused on out-of-school youth and adults as a whole, but priority is given to poor children, children from remote, border, and mountainous areas, children with disabilities, children of migrant families and orphans.

Various interventions have been undertaken to ensure quality of programme delivery in life skills. Training programmes use a cascade model at central, zonal and township levels. At all levels, 80% of the training period for life skills is used for practical sessions and demonstrations of lesson plans from the life skills curriculum. Night studies help teachers prepare for demonstration lessons, and training teams are formed with inputs from the next level of trainers to match strengths among team members.

There is a teacher guidebook that includes guidelines and lesson plans for implementation of the curriculum, but weak implementation of the curriculum has been found, especially at the secondary level, given that life skills was not part of the core curriculum, and students and teachers were focusing more on academic subjects.

c. Target Populations for Life Skills and Lifelong Learning Programmes

The target populations for life skills include children and youth in school (age 6-15) and out-of-school children and youth (age 10-17). The target population for EXCEL and TVET are youth and adults (age 15+).

d. Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Groups

Although there are life skills programmes specifically for in-school children and youth, there are also programmes targeted specifically for out-of-school youth and adults. The EXCEL and many TVET programmes are designed specifically for youth and adults who have not had opportunities before.

16.3.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Myanmar

The transition rate from primary to lower secondary school rose significantly over the period 2001/02 to 2005/06, as shown in Table 172 and Figure 32. The transition to upper secondary level, however, showed no systematic increase or decrease.

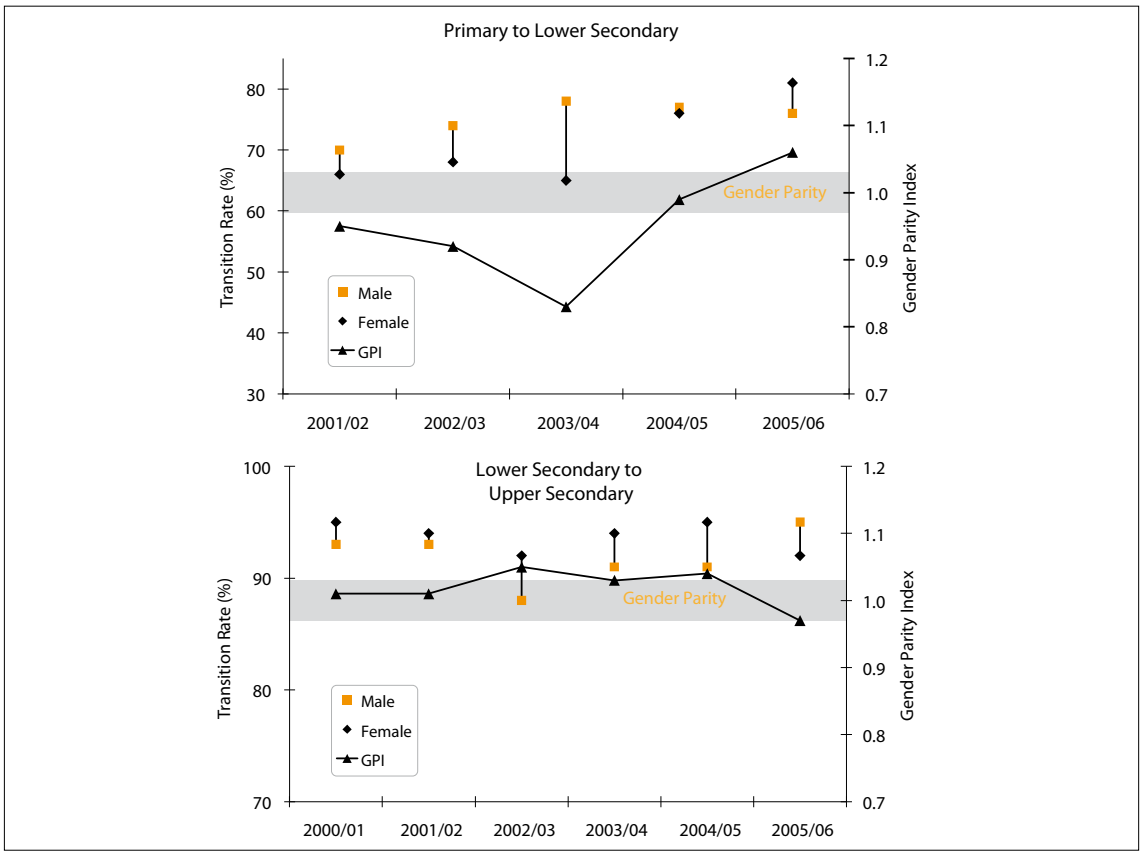
Enrolments in vocational and technical education and training institutions are shown in Table 173. It can be seen that in practice these programmes serve predominantly males.

Table 172: Transition Rate (%), Primary to Upper Secondary, by Sex and GPI, 2000/01-2005/06, Myanmar

Year	Primary to Lower Secondary				Lower to Upper Secondary			
	Male	Female	Total	GPI	Male	Female	Total	GPI
2000/01	…	…	…	…	93	95	94.1	1.01
2001/02	70	66	68.2	0.95	93	94	93.1	1.01
2002/03	74	68	70.9	0.92	88	92	90.0	1.05
2003/04	78	65	71.7	0.83	91	94	92.5	1.03
2004/05	77	76	76.2	0.99	91	95	93.0	1.04
2005/06	76	81	78.3	1.06	95	92	93.3	0.97

Source: MOE.
Note: "…" indicates no data available.

Figure 32: Transition Rate (%), Primary to Upper Secondary and GPI, 2001/02-2005/06, Myanmar



Source: MOE.

Some non-formal education and training programmes, especially domestic science programmes, are designed mainly (but not exclusively) for women, as shown in Table 174. In 2003/04, eight types of technical institutions accepted more than 14,400 students, of which 46% were females, while weaving and home science training schools (including programmes operated by the Department of Cottage Industry and the Department of Social Welfare) accepted some 4,000 students in the same year, of which some 97% were females. Enrolment in programmes for people with disabilities is given in Table 175. The number of participants in the EXCEL programme rose rapidly over the period 2003/04 to 2006/07, as shown in Table 176.

Table 173: Enrolment in TVET Institutions, 2001/02-2003/04, Myanmar

School	Total	2003/04		
	2001/02	Male	Female	Total
GTIs and GTC	**7,325**	6,605	3,875	**10,480**
State Agricultural Institute	**826**	522	357	**879**
Commercial School	**578**	84	283	**367**
Machinery Repair & Maintenance School	**72**	49	0	**49**
Handicrafts School	**566**	426	0	**426**
Fisheries (1998/99)	**40**	0	0	**0**
Music and Drama	**0**	24	16	**40**
Fine Arts	**0**	57	6	**63**

Source: DMERB, 2005.

Notes: GTC: Government Technological College; CTI: Government Technological Institute; these programmes vary

greatly in duration.

Table 174: Vocational Programmes Mainly for Women, 2003/04-2005/06, Myanmar

Year	Vocational Training School for Women		Centre for Women Care		School for Home Science	Training Schools of Domestic Science	DCI & DSW
	3-R Class	Voc. (1)	3-R Class	Tailoring	Total	Total	Total
2003/04	114	78	5	33	…	1,681	2,142
2004/05	63	67	5	86	2,574	2,180	2,764
2005/06	32	94	7	93	2,810	…	2,995

Source: MOE.
Notes: "…" indicates no data available. Includes Tailoring, Knitting, Weaving, Laundry; DCI stands for Department of Cottage Industry; and DSW stands for Department of Social Welfare.

Table 175: Programmes for Women and People with Disabilities, 2004-2006, Myanmar

Indicator	2004		2005		2006	
	Sch.	Stu.	Sch.	Stu.	Sch.	Stu.
Women Development Centre	2	92	2	70	2	59
Vocational Training School	2	182	2	130	2	127
Centre for Women Care	2	138	2	91	2	100
Vocational Training School for Domestic Science	5	1,681	16	2,180	…	…
Skills Training	1	169	1	169	1	249
Adults With Disability	1	161	1	182	1	…
Children With Disability	1	145	1	150	1	161
Deaf Children	1	185	1	200	1	220

Source: DSW, DEPT , DTVE, 2007.
Note: "…" indicates no data available.

Table 176: EXCEL Programmes, 2003/04-2006/07, Myanmar

Year	Townships	Communities	Children Attended	% of Female Completers
2003/04	5	15	1,239	62.8
2004/05	7	36	2,773	56.6
2005/06	10	61	4,693	58.5
2006/07	13	90	7,915	55.7

Source: Pyinnya Tazaung Association, Kayin Baptist Convention, Kayuna Yangon Social Services.

In 2005, the 26 schools and centres represented in Table 175 provided skills training to 3,172 trainees. The programmes included income generation, tailoring, weaving, and special services for people with disabilities. The MWAF and MMCWA have conducted vocational training courses in sewing, baking, agriculture and other subjects for 346,723 persons. Nearly 40% of trainees were from remote or border areas.

16.3.3 Analysis of Disparities in Life Skills in Myanmar

a. Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality in Life Skills, NFE, and TVET

Females have more advantage when it comes to life skills and lifelong learning programmes in Myanmar. Around 70% of teachers in schools and 80% of EXCEL facilitators are female. Among participants in youth literacy programmes, 93% are female. Women also are given priority to attend vocational schools, and 46% of participants in technical institutions are women; 97% of participants in weaving and home science training schools are females. Females are also the predominant

participants in health training programmes, including HIV/AIDS and human trafficking.

Nearly half of the townships implementing life skills programmes are in remote and border areas, as are all vocational training schools of domestic science for women. The MWAF and MMCWA also conducted vocational training, income generation programmes, and health and HIV/AIDS educational talks in these areas.

b. Progress in Improving Quality of Life Skills, NFE and TVET

The national life skills primary curriculum was revised in 2005 and implemented in 238 out of 325 townships, ahead of the nationwide target of 2009; at the secondary level, the life skills curriculum was implemented in 137 out of 325 townships. A new life skills curriculum for secondary school is to be developed and will be implemented by 2015.

c. Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached"

Important strategies for reaching the unreached include:

- Strengthen coordination and cooperation with those contributing to community learning for better supervision, monitoring, and evaluation at all levels, and increase school management support systems for teachers' adherence to the curriculum;
- Review training of trainers and teachers, and integrate life skills in all education college and education institute curricula;
- Develop a secondary life skills baseline data set for revision of secondary-level curriculum;
- Establish drug education facilities for youth in every ward;
- Expand the income generation programme and skills-based training for out-of-school youths and adults; and
- Formulate new policies, guidelines, and strategies on TVET, not only to meet the current manpower needs but also to address the human resource requirements of the future trends in industry and economy by developing teaching quality and effectiveness of teachers.

d. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goal

Most life skills and preventive education objectives in schools have been realised under the revised curriculum. This curriculum was developed with consideration for the rural poor and schools with few teachers, using the fewest and least costly teaching aids.

The EXCEL programme has been very successful. More than 16,600 children enrolled, and 95% completed a three-phase course, of which more than 50% were girls, and the majority of working children have completed a nine-month programme. Only 5 % did not complete the course, mainly due to migration.

e. Remaining Challenges and Issues

Capacity gaps in life skills and lifelong learning remain wide. The overall life skills primary curriculum implementation gap between the numbers of townships targeted and reached is 27%, while the life skills secondary curriculum gap is 58%, and the implementation gap for EXCEL is 50%.

In all, further potential exists to link life skills to dimensions of the CFS concept, particularly dimensions of healthy, safe, and productive environments and participation of communities, families, and students. Examples include clean water and sanitation, hygiene, regular anti-helminth days, child clubs, PTAs and so forth.

For both in- and out-of-school youth, life skills programme areas requiring further improvement include active participation and coordination of MOE, strategic partnerships with local communities, and receptivity to and support for the programme. The length of training is not sufficient for trainers and teachers to internalise new information. It is difficult to maintain teachers and trainers, and the quality of training at township level cannot be controlled.

The data management and information system is weak at all levels.

16.4 Goal Four: Literacy in Myanmar

16.4.1 Background and Development of Literacy Acquisition in Myanmar

a. Definition of Literacy

The goal of basic literacy aims at giving the illiterates sufficient command of the mechanisms of reading, writing, and elementary arithmetic to afford him or her access to the written word. In particular, literacy in Myanmar is determined when a person has completed the entire literacy primer and has passed a basic literacy test. Updated national definitions of basic and functional literacy are required. Data from 2005 show that all indicators for national EFA targets with regard to literacy and continuing education have been achieved.

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

The government's policy has been "to create an education system that will generate a learning society capable of facing the challenges of the Knowledge Age." There is no national law specifically with regard to literacy. However, Myanmar is presently preparing a new constitution, and the published draft states that every citizen shall have the right to education and to be given basic education prescribed by the law as compulsory. The Myanmar Child Law, enacted in 1993 after Myanmar's accession to the CRC in 1991, is specific about the obligations of the State. The MOE leads the literacy programme with implementation and coordination by the Myanmar Education Research Bureau (MERB), which became a Department (DMERB) in 2004. Other ministries involved in the literacy programme include: (a) Ministry of Social Welfare, Relief and Resettlement; (b) MPBND; and (c) Ministry of Information.

c. Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Groups

Until the mid-1990s, non-formal education was primarily focused on literacy acquisition. In 1994, the concept of CLC was introduced with UNESCO assistance. Starting from a very small pilot of only seven centres, the approach has spread to more than 70 centres, creating new opportunities for youth and adults to continue learning. CLCs represent the strategy of choice to achieve the Government's vision of a learning society for the 21st Century.

Outreach extends to village communities as well as to disadvantaged urban communities, particularly through CLCs. A special 3Rs programme has been instituted for border areas. Along with the extensive Basic Literacy Programme, continuing education programmes such as post-literacy, income generation, and quality of life improvement have been implemented.

Major actions will be: (a) To continue the Basic Literacy Programme in all states and divisions; (b) To develop continuing education programme activities alongside training on the management of CLCs; (c) To raise awareness of prospective learners about literacy and NFE programmes; (d) To develop learner-oriented literacy programmes, along with income generation and upgraded life skills programmes; (e) To develop an NFE database and network with support of active partners; and (f) To develop functional literacy materials by local groups.

Strategies aimed specifically at disadvantaged groups include: (a) Expansion of regular Basic Literacy Programmes in all townships; (b) Expansion of the Special 3Rs Programmes to reach the unreached, particularly in remote and border areas; (c) Continuation of the NFPE Programme; (d) Development of the capacity of literacy and continuing education personnel; and (e) Systematically develop database system for literacy and continuing education.

16.4.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Myanmar

Table 177: Literacy Rates (%), by Age Group and GPI, 2004/05, Myanmar

Indicator	Target (%)	Actual (%)
Adult Literacy Rate (age 15+)	92.5	94.1
Literacy Rate (age 15-45)	96.0	96.5
Literacy Gender Parity Index	0.96	0.99
Youth Literacy Rate (age 15-24)	96.0	96.5

Source: Compiled by EFA Secretariat, DBE (1), MOE.

All indicators for national EFA targets with regard to literacy and continuing education have been achieved, as seen in Table 177.

In terms of quantity, the major instrument for eradication of illiteracy is the non-formal Basic Literacy Programme which reached 595,000 learners between 2000 and 2006. Another instrument for the eradication of illiteracy is the Special 3Rs Programme for Border Areas. The programme has been implemented since 1996 and has now covered 223 townships and a total of over 66,000 participants since 1996. The aim is to cover all townships. A third instrument for illiteracy eradication is the NFPE programme. Subjects taught at NFPE Levels I and II are Myanmar language, English, mathematics, and general studies. The quality of learning is assessed against formal school standards, and those who have successfully completed NFPE can enrol in secondary school. Enrolments in these programmes have been significant and expansive, as shown in Table 178.

Table 178: Achievements in 3Rs and NFPE Programmes, 2000-2006, Myanmar

Year	3Rs Programme for Border Areas				NFPE Programme		
	Areas	Townships	Instructors	Learners	Townships	Level I Students	Level II Students
2000	4	10	1,268	10,510	0	0	0
2001	7	13	675	7,512	0	0	0
2002	7	12	599	9,772	0	0	0
2003	4	9	320	2,696	28	1,248	0
2004	5	15	419	3,927	35	304	237
2005	19	75	3,105	16,681	23	366	369
2006	18	82	1,550	14,447	32	500	221
Total	67	223	8,053	66,669	141	2,708	1,046

Sources: Myanmar NFE records, DMERB; DBE (1), MOE.
Note: For the 3Rs programme, the Totals are greater than the sums because data for years 1996-1999 do not appear in this table.

Table 179: Adult (Age 15+) Literacy Rate (%), 2000/01-2004/05, Myanmar

Year	Literacy Rate (%)
2000/01	91.4
2001/02	91.8
2002/03	92.2
2003/04	93.3
2004/05	94.1

Source: Compiled by EFA Secretariat.

Together with the contributions of the formal school system, the above mentioned programmes have been a major contributor to the rising adult (15+) literacy rate as shown in Table 179.

16.4.3 Analysis of Disparities in Literacy in Myanmar

a. Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality in Literacy

Table 180: GPI for Adult Literacy Rate, 2002-2005, Myanmar

	2002	2003	2004	2005
Literacy GPI	0.96	0.96	0.97	0.99

Source: Compiled by EFA Secretariat, DBE (1), MOE.

Between 2000 and 2006, nearly two-thirds of the 595,000 learners from regular basic literacy programmes who have completed literacy classes were women. As a result, the gender parity for adult literacy rose over the past half-decade, as seen in Table 180.

b. Progress in Improving Quality of Literacy Training

All NFE programmes must be integrated, and a regulatory framework for licensing or accreditation of NFE activities offered by civil society has been created to assist in the quality development aspects of their service activities. The DMERB is responsible for the literacy and continuing education programmes. Learning materials for literacy and continuing education are reviewed and developed by the DMERB.

The learner-oriented method is best suited for NFPE programmes, where out-of-school children learn primary-level packages at NFPE classes. The quality of learning is assessed against the formal school standards, and NFPE completion is regarded as completion of formal primary school. A technical team has developed equivalency standards that permit NFPE completed children to enrol in middle school.

c. Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached"

Although gender imbalance can be seen in adult literacy rates, women are a substantial majority in literacy programmes, thus overcoming previous disadvantages and leading toward gender equality in literacy rates.

d. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goal

The Special 3Rs Programme for Border Areas is a critical undertaking for reaching the unreached because the border areas are very remote, and transportation and communication rather difficult. Hence, initiatives for literacy in these areas are much more challenging than in urban areas. The programme has been implemented since 1996 under the strong political commitment of the State Law and Order Restoration Council. During its initial stage, it covered only seven townships in the border areas of Kokant, Wa, Kyaingtong (East) and Rakhine. It has been expanded significantly and made more than 65,000 people in these disadvantaged areas have become literate and numerate. It is implemented by the MPBND, DBEs, and DEPT, with technical assistance from DMERB. The programme has been run continuously by reviewing and modifying experiences and expertise gained from each succeeding year, based on local needs.

e. Remaining Challenges and Issues

A major challenge in the implementation of NFE activities is the weak information base. There are data collection difficulties, cases of over-estimation, and few studies of the relationship between literacy and development activities. There is a need to improve methods and procedures by redefining literacy, specifically, basic literacy, functional literacy, and the criteria used.

A second challenge is the resource base, including not only materials, instructors, and financial resources, but also compensation to families for the opportunity costs of having children attend classes.

A third challenge is the considerable regional disparities. The literacy rates in Rakhine State (79%), Shan State (North) (73%), and Shan State (East) (53%) remain far lower than in other states and divisions. This is due partly to the existence of under-served and unreached areas in remote mountainous regions and border areas, and to language difficulties some of the population have faced in learning the Myanmar language.

16.5 Goal Five: Gender Equality in Education in Myanmar

16.5.1 Background and Development of Gender Parity and Equality in Myanmar

a. National Policy and Legislation for Gender Equality

National policy and legislation ensure gender equality. In law, women in Myanmar have equal rights with men in the political, economic, administrative, judicial, and social spheres. In principle, the academic ability of students in Myanmar is the only factor that would limit them in their studies. It is expected that the number of girl students will continue to increase; indeed, the ratio of girls to boys is steadily rising. However, in tertiary education, some institutions set temporary limits on the numbers of males or females because of over-subscribing by one gender. In all learning centres except the Defence Service Academy and Forestry, the chance of pursuing education or admission to any institute is open to female students.

It is generally accepted that gender differences in Myanmar, in education or any other field, have been slight overall. The Government approves of the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women under its accession to CEDAW in 1996. The government also recognises the important role of women in shaping the future socio-economic development of the country.

b. Strategies and Programmes for Achieving Gender Equality

Strategies for achieving gender equality include pre-school education, observation of School Enrolment Week, special primary education for over-aged children, post-primary schools, and literacy for out-of-school children, youth, and adults.

One strategy for increasing the number of male teachers is to reduce entrance marks for entering pre-service training courses for male teachers. Gender-sensitive assessment and monitoring and evaluation ensure participation of both women and men in monitoring and evaluation, planning, implementation, and result analysis.

The government is committed to this but has yet to assess gender mainstreaming and gaps or to use gender analysis to assess existing programmes in formal and non-formal education systems. However, under the Education Promotion Programme, school inspection teams, including both female and male members at the central, state and division levels monitor the quality of Basic Education.

16.5.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Myanmar

All access-related core EFA MDA indicators were achieved. All quality-related indicators were achieved with the exception of the target for internal efficiency at lower secondary level. The target was 73%, but the achieved was only 63%.

The overall progress in approaching gender parity related to access at primary and secondary level, as indicated by the GPI, is shown in Table 181. At primary level, gender parity has been achieved in all indicators. The GPI for the transition from primary to lower secondary increased significantly over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06, but there was virtually no change in the GPI for the transition from lower to upper secondary. The Gross and Net Enrolment Rates, however, show gender parity.

Although in some countries, repetition is a "boys' problem", in Myanmar boys and girls are equally likely to repeat a grade at all levels of school.

Some 80% of primary and secondary school teachers are women, and there is no discernible trend toward greater gender balance. More than 50% of school principals are women. Over 80% of teacher educators are women.

Table 181: Progress in GPI for Core Access Indicators, 2000/01-2005/06, Myanmar

Year	Primary					Secondary			
	GIR	NIR	GER	NER	Survival to G5	Transition to LS	Transition to US	GER	NER
2000/01	0.99	0.98	0.99	0.99	1.01	…	1.01	1.02	1.02
2001/02	0.99	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.02	0.95	1.01	1.00	1.00
2002/03	0.98	0.99	1.01	1.01	1.01	0.92	1.05	1.00	1.00
2003/04	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.97	0.83	1.03	0.98	0.98
2004/05	1.01	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.03	0.99	1.04	0.99	0.99
2005/06	1.03	1.00	0.99	0.99	0.99	1.06	0.97	0.99	0.99

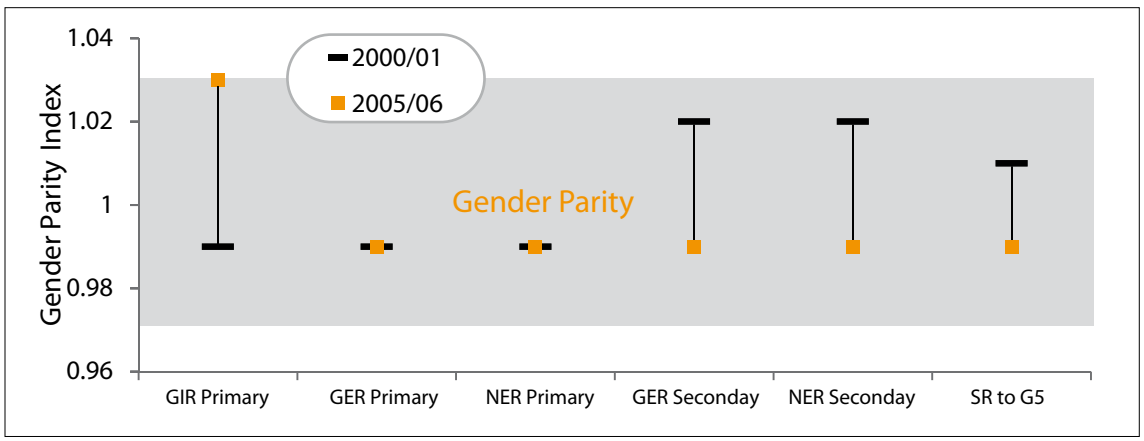
Sources: Table 162, Table 163, Table 164, Table 166, Table 172.
Note: "…" indicates no data available.

16.5.3 Analysis of Gender Disparities in Myanmar

a. Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality across the EFA Goals

The main indicators of progress in achieving gender parity are displayed in Figure 33. Most indicators were at or close to the level representing gender parity in 2000, and maintained gender parity in 2005/06, as shown in Figure 33, below.

Figure 33: GPI Summary, 2000/01 and 2005/06, Myanmar



Sources: Table 162, Table 163, Table 164, Table 166, Table 172.

Schools in Myanmar are primarily female-oriented settings, in the sense that the great majority of teachers are women. Data show that women teachers outnumber men every year. The MOE is trying to provide more male teachers by giving integrated gender training in regular teacher training courses.

b. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goal

An incentive plan under the World Food Programme for girls to attend schools regularly has effectively reduced drop out rates in two geographical areas.

A gender review of life skills materials was undertaken to ensure that no gender stereotyping existed, including in illustrations and story lines. Materials were also designed to look at risks for both boys and girls. Capacity building was undertaken for both life skills curriculum designers and materials developers. Materials were also designed to look at risks for both boys and girls.

c. Remaining Challenges and Issues

Despite the legal provisions on gender equality, there remain some gender disparities in the education plans. A gender assessment needs to be conducted for all curricula, textbooks, and other learning materials. The gender imbalance in teaching staff and at management level remains a challenge. Traditional beliefs and cultural practices sometimes hinder girls from attending school.

16.6 Goal Six: Quality of Education in Myanmar

16.6.1 Developments in the Provision of Quality Education in Myanmar

Quality of education in Myanmar is measured against the school's ability to meet students' cognitive needs and foster the physical, social, and emotional development. Quality aspects in Myanmar include teaching-learning approaches, quality of teachers, class size, availability of learning materials, assessment systems, leadership of school heads, and the effectiveness of supervision and assistance provided by Township Education Officers.

Quality education is thus locally relevant and culturally appropriate; it is informed by the past, is relevant to the present, and prepares Myanmar citizens for the future, building knowledge, life skills, perspectives, attitudes, and values. The challenge remains in the monitoring and assessment of this concept, which is intrinsically linked to all the other five EFA Goals.

The second goal of the Myanmar EFA National Action Plan is "Improving all aspects of the quality of Basic Education: teachers, education personnel, and curriculum". The sixth goal is "Strengthening education management and EMIS" to provide an information base for policy and planning.

Specific strategies and programmes for disadvantaged groups include inclusive education, life skills, and lifelong learning in the primary and secondary school curriculum, NFE programme, etc.

16.6.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Myanmar

The quality indicators show mixed results. The target for the percentage of primary and secondary school teachers having the required academic qualifications (matriculated) was 96%, and the by achieved result was 97%. Similarly the target for primary school teachers who are certified to teach according to the national standards was 97% and the achieved was nearly 98%. At the secondary level, however, the target for the proportion of teachers certified was 97%, but the achieved result was only 94%.

The target for primary Pupil/Teacher Ratio was 32:1, and the achieved was 30:1. Although the result is pedagogically advantageous, there are also cost consequences. At the lower secondary level,

the target was 29:1, but the result was 33:1. The target for Survival to Grade 5 was 74%, but the achieved result was 71.5%.

16.6.3 Analysis of Disparities in Quality in Myanmar

a. Progress in Achieving Quality Across the EFA Goals

For ECCE, there have been quality improvements in specific skills such as better health; physical, mental, cognitive, language, social, behavioural, and observational development; thinking and reasoning skills; learning skills; and self-confidence. Understanding of the concepts of school readiness and child-centred care and education has been important.

Careers for ECCE care providers are being professionalised, as teachers, school heads, and caregivers are trained in ECCE courses, including trainings designed to address the special target groups of children with disabilities and orphans. Trainees are from all areas, including remote, border, and mountainous areas.

The quality of basic education schools is monitored regularly by 11-member inspecttion teams that have been strengthened in terms of quantity and quality. The team monitors, evaluates, and supervises the management, teaching-learning situation, and co-curricula activities of a school.

The national life skills primary curriculum was revised in 2005 and implemented in 238 out of 325 townships. A new life skills curriculum for secondary school will be developed and implemented by 2015.

A regulatory framework for licensing or accreditation of NFE activities offered by civil society has been created to assist in the quality development aspects of their service activities.

For NFPE programmes, learner-oriented approaches are used to help out-of-school children and youth learn primary-level packages at NFPE classes. The quality of learning is assessed against the formal school standards, and NFPE completion is regarded as completion of formal primary school. A technical team has developed equivalency standards that permit NFPE completed children to enrol in middle school.

An incentive plan under the World Food Programme for girls to attend schools regularly has effectively reduced drop out rates in two geographical areas. A gender review of life skills materials was undertaken to ensure that no gender stereotyping existed, including in illustrations and story lines. Capacity-building was undertaken for both life skills curriculum designers and materials developers. Materials were also designed to look at risks for both boys and girls. Such gender reviews need to be carried out for the curricula and materials at all levels.

b. Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached"

The main cross-cutting issues are gender, location, and personal characteristics related to health, disabilities, and psycho-social situation. A major constraint is the lack of statistical data and research on these issues. The EMIS needs to be strengthened, and research needs to be conducted. Part of the problem is that delivery is the responsibility not only of the MOE but also of many other organizations, including other ministries and NGOs. Coordination in planning, operation, and evaluation needs to be strengthened.

c. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goal

An example of best practices is the role of the University for the Development of National Races (UDNR) in the training of youth from all indigenous national groups, especially from remote and border areas, to become teachers and community leaders. UDNR provides a curriculum which is similar to Education Colleges but differs in terms of admission requirements and length of training. It accepts students who have passed Grade 9, partly because of a need to train the younger population in the border areas. Training lasts three years, and after completion of the course, trainees are appointed as primary assistant teachers in remote and border areas and are able to proceed to higher levels of education. Through September 2003, UDNR had served more than 8,600 trainees from 87 national groups.

d. Remaining Challenges and Issues

In border areas and other localities with transportation and communication difficulties, delivery of education services is lagging. Traditional concepts and beliefs sometimes hinder education participation, particularly with regard to life skills education. There is a shortage of donor support for non-formal education. The attitudes of some teachers hinder them in accepting new teaching approaches.

Reducing regional and rural-urban disparities, and reducing Pupil/Teacher Ratio at primary level to 30:1 by 2010, and maintaining that level up to 2015 will be a significant challenge.

16.7 Overall Conclusions and Policy Recommendations in Myanmar

With available yet limited resources, the initiation of mother circles in homes, in cooperation with village communities under the administration of government run basic education schools has been a particular achievement in the area of ECCE. The low income families and rural communities particularly receive ECCE opportunities through MCs, whose activities can be implemented with low costs and a participatory community approach.

For universalization of basic education, developing and expanding child-friendly schools, and making basic education more accessible through both formal and non-formal delivery modes has helped to reach the unreached and achieve the EFA goal.

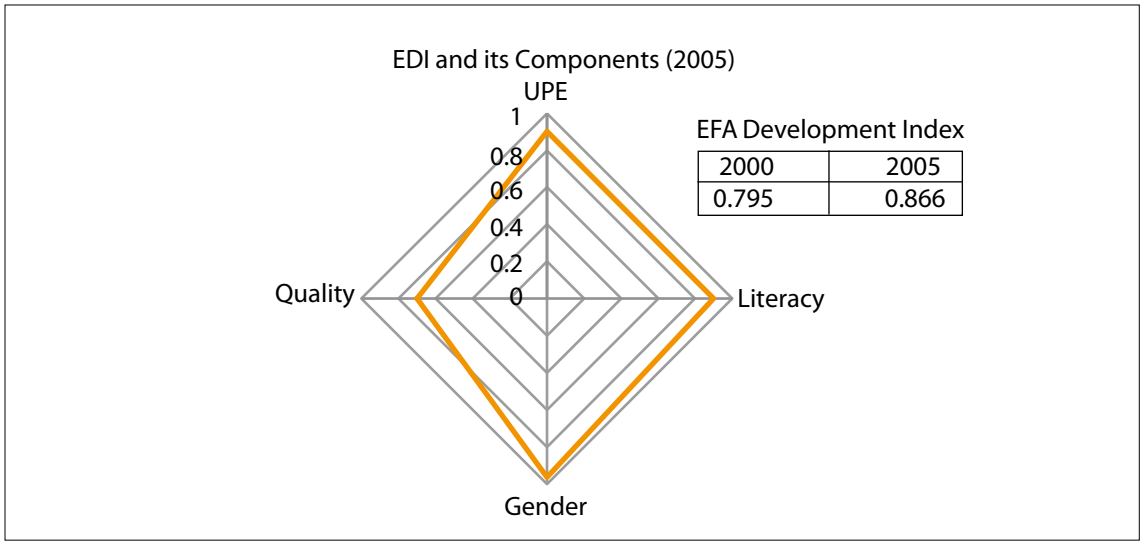
The primary life skills curriculum addresses most life skills and preventive education objectives, and the EXCEL programme activities are designed to increase access to life skills-based education for the most vulnerable children in Myanmar, particularly out-of-school and working children aged 10-17. The implementation of Special 3Rs programme and the NFPE programme have made important contributions to eradicating illiteracy.

Food for education programme for girls increases regular attendance and reduces dropout rates effectively.

Among others, in achieving social and gender equity and quality education highlighted in the EFA goals, the role of the UDNR is remarkable in training of youths from all indigenous national groups, especially from remote and border areas to become teachers and community leaders.

16.8 Myanmar Country Statistical Profile

Figure 34: EFA Development Index, 2000 and 2005, Myanmar



Sources: Global Monitoring Reports 2003/04 and 2008.

17. Thailand

17.1 Goal One: Early Childhood Care and Education in Thailand

17.1.1 Background and Development in ECCE in Thailand

a. Definition of ECCE

Early childhood covers children aged 0-5 years (under the age of six). Operationally, childhood development is divided into two age groups: under three years and 3-5 years old. For children under three, a home-based approach is used, and the main persons involved are parents or guardians and other family members. For children aged 3-5 years old, child development activities take place in either formal, informal, or non-formal settings by having a caregiver or teacher work together with parents or guardians, and other family members in developing their children. Child development services for 3-5 year olds have three possible formats: Pre-school (years 1-3), pre-primary (1 year before primary), and child care and child development centres for 2-6 year olds.

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

There is no specific law at the national level on early childhood education, but there are a number of references in the National Education Act of 1999, and its subsequent amendments and modifications in 2002, which directly support the achievement of EFA Goal One. The parents or guardians have the right to receive support from the state for nurturing and educating their children. Individuals, families, communities, community organizations, private organizations, and other social institutions that support or provide basic education have the right to receive support from the state for nurturing individuals under their responsibilities. Early childhood education and basic education can be set up in early childhood centres, pre-educational children development centres in religious institutions, initial support centres for children with disabilities and special needs, and other early childhood development centres. An internal and external quality assurance system has been established.

The Social Welfare Support Act is the leading law in supporting and coordinating any kind of welfare activities by promoting and supporting individuals, families, communities, local administration organizations, and other organizations in participating and contributing to social welfare service at all levels.

The Child Protection Act of 2003 is aimed at fostering better care of abused or exploited children in various categories to ensure their better care and development. There are Child Protection Committees at national and provincial levels, comprising public and private sector specialists in social welfare and child development, teachers, lawyers, and physicians.

The first objective of the National Education Plan (2002-2016) is to ensure the lifelong and holistic development of the individual. The State shall be involved in the provision of lifelong learning and development. The plan is targeted at the holistic development of children aged 0 to 5 years. The aim is: (a) To support and encourage the development and readiness for early childhood education in all aspects and at all levels, with a focus on enhancing childcare knowledge among parents, guardians, and future parents; and (b) To accelerate the extensive and equitable expansion of quality early childhood education to target groups in order to guarantee appropriate basic development of all people.

c. Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Children

ECCE developments have been in line with a national ECCE strategy and also the EFA criteria, including some specifically designed to meet the needs of the disadvantaged: (a) Establishment of a national multicultural early childhood policy; (b) Implementation of early screening programmes with a referral system; (c) Establishment of health links in ECCE with diagnostics or referral visits by health professionals; and (d) Development of a national ECCE or education policy, which includes provision of ECCE for vulnerable and disadvantaged groups of children.

The MOE Department of Curriculum and Instruction Development has developed early childhood educational curricula for children aged between 0-3 years old, and 3-5 years old.

17.1.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Thailand

a. Assessing Progress Achieved Using Time Series Data

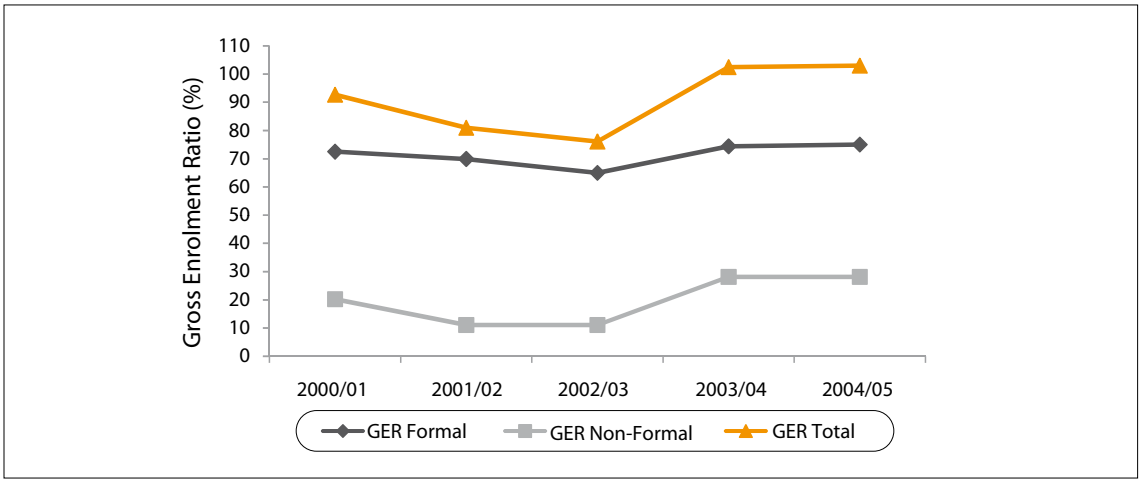
Enrolment. The total ECCE enrolment rate rose irregularly over the period 2000/01 to 2004/05, as shown in Table 182 and Figure 35. The major component of the enrolment was public and formal ECCE, with private provision accounting for a little over one quarter.

Table 182: Selected ECCE Core Education Indicators, 2000/01-2004/05, Thailand

Year	GER Formal (%)	GER Non-formal (%)	GER Total (%)	Private (%)
2000/01	72.5	20.2	92.7	26
2001/02	69.9	11.1	81.0	26
2002/03	65.0	11.1	76.1	27
2003/04	74.4	28.1	102.5	28
2004/05	75.0	28.1	103.0	28

Source: Office of the Permanent Secretary for Education. "Education Statistics in Brief".

Figure 35: GER (%) for Formal and Non-Formal ECCE, 2000/01-2004/05, Thailand



Source: Office of the Permanent Secretary for Education. "Education Statistics in Brief".

Table 183: New Entrants to Grade 1 with ECCE Experience (%), 2000/01-2005/06, Thailand

Year	%
2000/01	86.7
2001/02	87.1
2002/03	89.0
2003/04	88.7
2004/05	87.5
2005/06	91.5

Source: Office of the Permanent Secretary for Education. "Education Statistics in Brief".

As a consequence of the rising ECCE enrolments, the proportion of new entrants to primary school who have had ECCE experience rose to over 90% by 2005/06, as shown in Table 183.

Health and Nutrition. Selected core health indicators are reported in Table 184. The mortality rate for children under five years of age averages about 11.7 over the period 2000 to 2005 and shows a slight tendency to decline.

The Ministry of Public Health (MOPH) set the 2006 target for infants with low birth weight (weight less than 2,500 grams) at 7% or less. As seen in Table 184, over the period 2000 to 2005, the proportion of low-weight births varied around 8.8% and showed no visible tendency to decline toward the target. The proportion of households using safe drinking water appears to have increased dramatically since 2000.

The Fifth Food and Nutrition Survey, conducted by the MOPH, found that 8% of 0-5 year old children suffered stunting (height/age). The frequency of stunting was higher in rural areas (9%) than in urban areas (5%). It was also found that over the period 2002 to 2004, the proportion of malnourished children was approximately 1% (MOPH, 2006).

A survey conducted in 2005 and 2006 shows that only some 60% of household consume iodized salt (MOE, 2007).

Table 184: Selected ECCE Core Health Indicators, 2000-2005, Thailand

Year	Under 5 Mortality Rate	Infants < 2,500 g. (%)	Using Safe Drinking Water
2000	11.9	8.8	37.9
2001	12.3	8.9	36.8
2002	11.7	8.8	…
2003	12.0	8.9	90.5
2004	11.3	8.5	…
2005	10.8	8.7	94.0

Source: Health Department, MOPH.
Note: "…" indicates no data available.

In order to protect and control the Vitamin A deficiency, the Department of Health provided the Vitamin A supplement for children age 6 months to 5 years in high risk areas during the campaign for polio vaccine in 2003. The 2005 MICS found that 83% of one-year old children have received total vaccination (MOE, 2007).

The report on the Fifth National Food and Nutrition Survey 2003 found that over 96% of the population had access to basic sanitation (i.e. available toilets). The same study found that nearly 27% of children aged 6 months to 5 years suffered from anaemia (Hemoglobin < 11 g/dl).

The 2005 MICS found that over 14% of infants aged 0-6 months had exclusive breastfeeding. Virtually all births are registered.

b. Progress Using Sub-National Data

Private pre-schools account for nearly 30% of total pre-school enrolment, and the proportion has been rising gradually, as shown in Table 185. In the Bangkok metropolitan area, private schools account for nearly 60% of enrolment, but accounting for only 25% in provincial areas.

Table 185: Pre-Primary Enrolment, Public & Private Institutions, 2000/01-2005/06, Thailand

Year	National			Bangkok Metro Area			Provincial Area		
	Public (1000)	Private (1000)	(%) Private	Public (1000)	Private (1000)	(%) Private	Public (1000)	Private (1000)	(%) Private
2000/01	1,635.5	532.1	25	77.0	118.9	61	1,558.5	413.2	21
2001/02	1,560.8	547.4	26	77.3	120.0	61	1,483.4	427.4	22
2002/03	1,529.2	541.5	26	74.3	112.2	60	1,454.9	429.3	23
2003/04	1,421.3	520.5	27	71.4	105.6	60	1,349.9	414.8	24
2004/05	1,322.4	502.3	28	70.0	101.5	59	1,252.4	400.9	24
2005/06	1,292.8	513.5	28	70.8	102.2	59	1,221.9	411.3	25

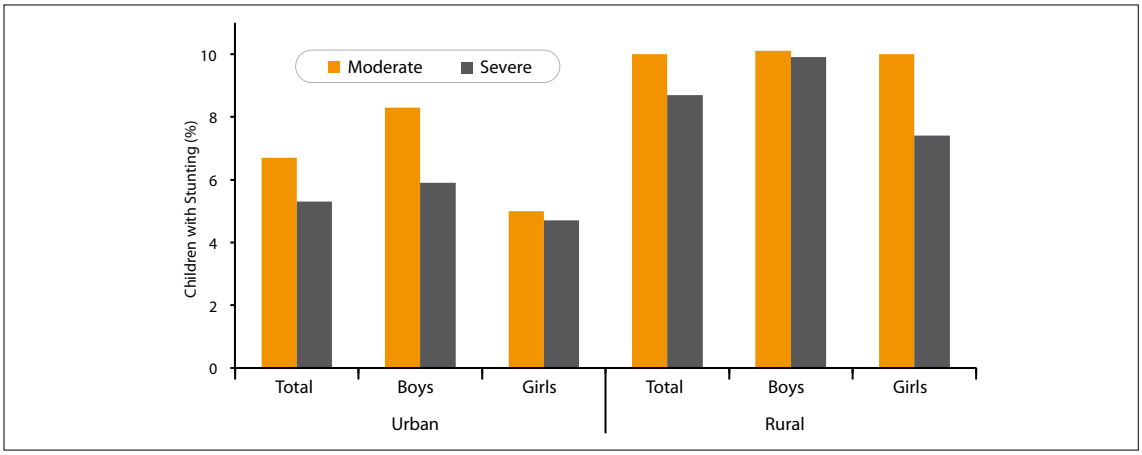
Source: Office of the Permanent Secretary for Education. "Education Statistics in Brief".

Table 186: Under-Fives Suffering from Stunting, by Location, 2003, Thailand

Location	Sex	Moderate (<-1.5 SD to -2 SD)	Severe (< -2 SD)
Urban	Total	6.7	5.3
	Boys	8.3	5.9
	Girls	5.0	4.7
Rural	Total	10.0	8.7
	Boys	10.1	9.9
	Girls	10.0	7.4

Source: Health Department, MOPH.

Figure 36: Under-Fives Suffering from Stunting, by Location, 2003, Thailand



Source: Health Department, MOPH.

From Table 186 and Figure 36, it can be seen that moderate and severe stunting (low height for age) is significantly more widespread in rural areas than in urban areas. Moreover, boys are more likely to suffer stunting than girls.

17.1.3 Analysis of Disparities in ECCE in Thailand

a. Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality in ECCE

No information has been collected on gender or socio-economic conditions. Thai educational policy provides equal opportunities to all with no gender discrimination.

b. Progress in Improving Quality of ECCE

The Office for National Education Standards and Quality Assessment (ONESQA) conducted an external assessment of early childhood education (3-5 age group) achievements from 2001 to 2005. The results of the assessment were submitted to the agencies concerned and disseminated to the general public.

There are limitations and constraints regarding availability of statistical data required for analysis of the present status of ECCE in Thailand. The agencies concerned have adopted their own method of data collection, depending on their respective responsibilities, and the data collected vary, for example with respect to gender breakdowns and location (urban/rural). It has therefore not been possible to find reliable evidence for all the indicators.

There are several categories of ECCE personnel. The two main categories are "pre-school teachers", under the jurisdiction of the MOE, and "care takers", under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Social Development and Human Security (MSDHS). The requirements and the implementation differ between providers. Most pre-school teachers are required to have a bachelor's degree, and caretakers are required to have a high school diploma.

c. Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached"

With GER exceeding 100% and the age range relatively restricted in practice, the NER must be approaching 100%. What is missing, however, is data on service delivery to small but specific, identifiable groups of disadvantaged children, especially children with disabilities and children in difficult circumstances.

d. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goal

The proportion of children between 3-5 years old who can access educational services in both the public and private sector has increased significantly in the past half-decade. As a consequence, the development of skills and abilities appropriate to age is increasing. There is a government campaign to help parents realise the importance of early childhood development.

e. Remaining Challenges and Issues

At present there are eight ministries and 35 agencies from the public and private sectors offering ECCE programmes for the 0-5 age group. Nonetheless, these agencies have not been able to provide nationwide coverage. ECCE quality needs to be improved. There is lack of coordination, uniformity of policy, and clear direction. Steps are now being taken to establish the Office of the National ECCE Committee, which will serve as the core agency in charge of coordination and integration of services of all agencies concerned.

With the aim of creating more active participation by the family and community in ECCE, government agencies have transferred ECCE programmes to local administration organizations. Most ECCE programmes nevertheless still operate under the responsibility of government agencies. The private sector has not had opportunities for full participation because of legal provisions and regulations hampering smooth functioning and unclear tax rules.

Economically and socially disadvantaged parents, who are mostly poor labourers, often lack knowledge and appreciation of the importance of early childhood development, and they tend to neglect to send their children to child development centres for school readiness.

Data collection by various agencies depend on their respective responsibilities and, in certain cases, on researchers' needs resulting in wide variations in the information collected, in disaggregations, in time period, and on the target population. Due to the incomplete database for national coverage, it is not possible to present a picture of the whole country.

17.2 Goal Two: Universal Basic Education in Thailand

17.2.1 Background and Development of Universal Basic Education in Thailand

a. Definition of UBE

UPE refers only to the six years of primary education. Students enter Grade 1 when they are six years old and finish on completion of Grade 6 when they are 11 years old. UBE includes six years of primary education, three years of lower secondary education covering Grades 7-9 and including students from age 12-14, plus three years of high school covering Grades 10-12 and including students from age 15-17.

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

The National Education Act of 1996 expanded the years of compulsory education from 6 to 9 years covering Grades 1–9. The Compulsory Education Act of 2002 specifies that "a person shall enjoy an equal right to receive the fundamental education for the duration of not less than twelve years which shall be provided by the State, up to the standard quality and without charge."

Basic education is compulsory for Grades 1-9 and free for Grades 1-12. There should be no hidden costs that may be a barrier to education since the Government provides free schooling for 12 years, including free textbooks. School lunches are included for those who are in primary education.

The main agency responsible for early childhood education, primary education and secondary education is the Office of the Basic Education Commission (OBEC) within the MOE. OBEC has the lead responsibility in implementing the changes outlined earlier in this section.

Sector planning and sector reform processes are in place, with mechanisms for coordination with and between donors established. In order to coordinate the EFA programmes comprehensively, and equally with the rights and opportunities, OBEC requires the collaboration at many levels. OBEC, through its websites and other publication services, provides information that is freely available to the public.

c. Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Children

The MOE has developed a national policy for disadvantaged children which includes the following measures: (a) Provide equal educational opportunity to all disadvantaged groups; (b) Provide quality education for all disadvantaged groups; (c) Mobilize resources to ensure that all disadvantaged groups can access education; (d) Develop effective management systems to support these groups of people; and (e) Set up and expand networks to strengthen the provision of education to disadvantaged groups.

Incentives have been put in place specifically targeting economically exploited and disadvantaged children to enable them to access basic education services. Policies aimed at enhancing basic education opportunities for disadvantaged children have led to a collaboration between the MOE and MSDHS for implementation, in recognition of the cross-sectoral nature of the problems involved.

The Student Loans Foundation provides funds for students from low-income families to continue their education at upper secondary level through to undergraduate school, including both general and TVET, as well as for those continuing NFE students at lower secondary level in accordance with the national curriculum. Students must repay the loan with 1% interest per year after graduating.

Some scholarships and stipends are available for students from low-income families and children living in difficult circumstances. There are scholarships for underprivileged students from every district and sub-district who are about to enter higher education ("One District, One Scholarship"). The scholarships aim to give underprivileged youth an opportunity to study for a Bachelor's degree in fields in accordance with the individual's and the local community's preferences, either inside or outside of the country.

The Children's Guardianship Foundation provides support to public or private schools for projects that aim for the protection and promotion of the welfare and behaviour of children, their families, and their foster families.

17.2.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Thailand

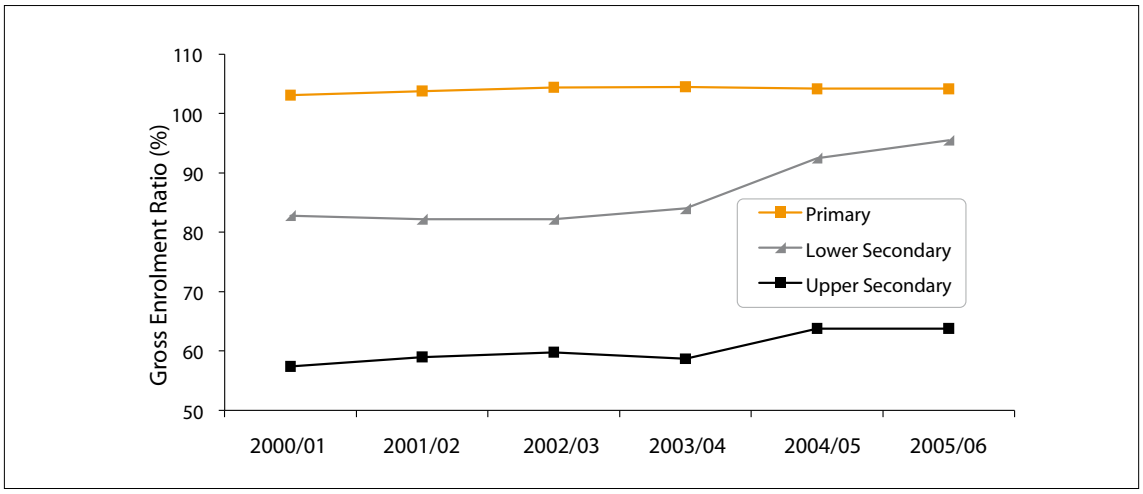
Intake and Enrolment in Primary and Secondary Education. Consistent with a policy of promoting "correct age" entry into primary schooling, the proportion of six-year-olds among new entrants into primary schooling increased slightly between 2000/01 and 2004/05, as indicated in Table 187 and shown in Figure 37. Correspondingly, the primary GER also rose slightly. At secondary level, the GERs rose much more, especially at the lower secondary level, where it rose by nearly 13 percentage points, compared with just over 6 points for upper secondary.

Table 187: Intake and Enrolment, Primary and Secondary, 2000/01-2005/06, Thailand

Year	% New Entrants Age 6	GER (%)		
		Primary	Lower Sec.	Upper Sec.
2000/01	89.1	103.1	82.8	57.4
2001/02	89.5	103.8	82.2	59.0
2002/03	88.2	104.4	82.2	59.8
2003/04	91.3	104.5	84.0	58.7
2004/05	90.4	104.2	92.5	63.8
2005/06	92.9	104.2	95.5	63.8

Source: Bureau of Information and Communication Technology, Office of Permanent Secretary, MOE.

Figure 37: Primary and Secondary Education GER, 2000/01-2005/06, Thailand



Source: Bureau of Information and Communication Technology, Office of Permanent Secretary, MOE.

The transition rate from primary to lower secondary increased dramatically from 89% in 2002, to 97% in 2004. This is a result of a decision to expand compulsory education from six to nine years in 2002, in accordance with the 2002 Compulsory Education Act. After 2004, the transition rate from primary to lower secondary level remained relatively constant.

Pupil/Teacher Ratio. At the primary level, the Pupil/Teacher Ratio was relatively constant between 2000 and 2006, rising only slightly from 19.0 to 20.5. At the secondary level, it rose from 20.7 in 2000 to 23.4 in 2006. The rise in Pupil/Teacher Ratio is due to the policy of downsizing government employment. This policy led to shortages of teachers in some specific subjects, especially in small and remote schools.

Table 188: Selected Repetition Rates (%), 2000 and 2002, Thailand

Year	Grades		
	1	2	3-6
2000	6.6	2.7	1.7
2002	6.0	2.5	0.9

Source: Bureau of Information and Communication Technology, Office of Permanent Secretary, MOE.

Repetition, Dropout, and Survival. In Thailand, there is repetition only in primary education; in secondary education, promotion is automatic. The repetition rate is highest in Grade 1 (over 6%), and next highest in Grade 2 (over 2%), as shown in Table 188. The repetition rates for Grades 3-6 were almost the same, 1.7% in 2000 and 0.9% in 2002. The overall repetition rate varied only slightly between 2000 and 2002.

The dropout rate in primary education for the period 2000 to 2006 was relatively stable and low, under 1%. Dropout rates of lower secondary education and upper secondary education tended to be higher, slightly over 2%. The Survival Rate to Grade 5 increased from 89% in 2000 to 91% in 2004; the Survival Rate to Grade 6 was 86% in 2004.

Complete Schools. Nearly 80% of primary schools offer all six grades of primary education.

Table 189: Disadvantaged Children Receiving Assistance for Education, 2003, Thailand

Academic year	Number	%
Extremely poor children	26,384	66.7
Children from minority groups	6,441	16.3
Orphan and abandoned children	4,880	12.3
Child prostitutes	559	1.4
Disabled children in inclusive education	482	1.2
Others	367	2.1
Total	39,564	100.0

Source: Office of the Permanent Secretary, the Ministry of Education.

Assistance for Education for Disadvantaged. The annual budget is allocated to education institutions so as to provide education access to disadvantaged children regardless of ethnic background, religion, belief, or geographic origin. The distribution of this support over the major categories of disadvantaged children is shown in Table 189.

17.3 Goal Three: Life Skills and Lifelong Learning in Thailand

17.3.1 Background and Development of Life Skills and Non-Formal Education in Thailand

a. Definition of Life Skills and Lifelong Learning

Goal 3 of the National EFA Plan of Action is aimed at "increasing the level of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, with equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults, and ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programmes".

The National Education Act 1999 and Amendments 2002 define "lifelong education" as "education resulting from integration of formal, non-formal, and informal education so as to create ability for continuous lifelong development of quality of life". MOE defines "life skills" as characteristics or social and psychological capability, enabling an individual to effectively cope with various situations in daily life. These skills can cover health care, knowledge about HIV/AIDS and drug abuse, safety, environment, morality and ethics, decision-making, problem-solving, intellectual capacity, interpersonal intelligence, intrapersonal intelligence, understanding and sympathy for others, and management of emotion and stress.

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

Thai policy is to develop a coordinated multi-sectoral technical, vocational education and training system that is responsive to national and global market trends and opportunities. This policy comprises several major thrusts: (a) Life skills; (b) Lifelong education; and (c) TVET.

Life Skills. Four basic life skills are identified: (a) Health care and disease prevention; (b) Security in life and property, disaster relief and protection, keeping order and safety in society, traffic, etc.; (c) Preservation of the natural environment and environmental resources, etc.; and (d) Morality, ethics, and desirable values and characteristics.

Lifelong Learning. The aim of lifelong education is to enable all people, regardless of age, to have access to learning resources and opportunities. The MOE has formulated strategies for enhancing lifelong learning: (a) Identification of target groups and organization; (b) Encouragement for coordination and networking among learning sources and encouragement for learning centres to use ICT and to develop their requisite bodies of knowledge; (c) Encouraging community initiative in the development of learning centres; (d) Budgetary allocation aimed at direct decentralization to target groups through special "learning funds" and requiring Local Administrative Organizations (LAOs) to allocate necessary budget; (e) Strengthening the management and administration of the Office of NFE Commission and enabling it to provide support and to strengthen and coordinate learning sources; and (f) Launching an information and advocacy campaign concerning lifelong learning.

TVET. The policy on TVET concerns strengthening production and development of manpower. With the economic expansion in Thailand during the present decade, the demand for personnel with experience and special skills is increasing. A Committee for Increased National Competitiveness has been appointed and entrusted with the tasks of formulating policy and strategy for increasing national competitiveness, as well as strengthening production and the private sector.

According to the 9th National Economic and Social Development Plan (2002-2006), the development of the TVET system should focus on production and development of middle-level manpower. Diversified services for skill testing should be widely available. Cooperative networks linking education and training institutions with domestic and foreign enterprises should be encouraged. The development of professional qualifications system with emphasis on working capacity should be encouraged. The public and private sectors should be encouraged to join efforts in providing additional training for the workforce in various enterprises in order to attain higher productivity.

c. Target Population for Life skills and Lifelong Learning Programmes

The target population for life skills and lifelong learning programmes include all segments of society: (a) School age children and youth not in the education system, such as disadvantaged children or those living in remote areas without access to formal education; (b) Those who need to develop their knowledge and skills in relation to their employment; and (c) The elderly, who need informal education and learning required for self-adaptation, enabling them to lead a life of quality, happiness and provide benefits to society in accord with their age level. Life skills programmes and lifelong learning programmes can be formal, non-formal, or informal, depending on the particular situation of the individual and the specific learning needs.

d. Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Groups

Life skills programmes and lifelong learning programmes are designed to be flexible to meet the needs of persons to improve their lives or their productivity, including those who previously have not had educational opportunities.

One strategy the MOE has for the reform non-formal and informal education to enhance lifelong learning is the establishment of a voucher or credit system for promoting lifelong learning, especially for the disadvantaged, in order to allow all target groups to access informal education services, training, and learning as appropriate and on equitable basis.

17.3.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Thailand

a. Assessing Progress Using Time Series Data

Youth Literacy Rate (Age 15-24). Data on youth literacy rate ((age 15-24) was obtained from the population and household surveys conducted by the National Statistical Office, based on questions to household members on their ability to read and write in any language. In 2000, the literacy rate of the 15-24 age group was 98%, and this high rate remained virtually unchanged through 2005.

Table 190: Transition Rate, Primary through Upper Secondary (%), 2000-2005, Thailand

Year	Primary to Lower Secondary	Lower to Upper Secondary
2000	88.4	81.5
2001	88.7	82.2
2002	88.9	83.6
2003	90.9	84.5
2004	97.1	86.2
2005	97.5	86.9

Sources: Bureau of Information and Communication Technology, Office of Permanent Secretary, MOE; Education and Teacher Report, National Statistical Office, Office of Prime Minister.

Transition and Participation in Post-Primary Education and Training. The Transition Rates between primary and secondary levels and between secondary and higher levels are shown in Table 190. The jump in the transition from primary to secondary between 2002 and 2003 was due to an expansion of compulsory education from six years to nine, and the further jump between 2003 and 2004 in the transition rate to lower secondary education is a knock-on effect of the changing composition of the student population.

Table 191: TVET as % of Total Upper Secondary (Age 15-24) and GER in Upper Secondary and Post-Secondary TVET (Age 15-24), 2000-2005, Thailand

Year	TVET Enrolment as % of Total Upper Secondary	GER in Upper Secondary and Post-Secondary TVET, Age 15-24
2000	36	18.0
2001	34	18.1
2002	35	18.7
2003	37	19.5
2004	40	24.6
2005	40	24.5

Source: Office of the Permanent Secretary for Education. "Education Statistics in Brief".

In addition to enrolment in general upper secondary education (Grade 10–12), substantial numbers of youth participate in vocational education at the same grade levels (Lower Certificate Year 1-3), as shown in Table 191. A comparison of enrolments in the upper secondary and post secondary TVET programmes with the age 15-24 population shows that a considerable and growing proportion of youth participate in TVET programmes.

b. Assessing Progress Using Sub-National Data

The urban/rural difference ("municipal", "non-municipal") in youth literacy rates (age 15-24), nationwide, is relatively small (1.2 percentage points), as seen in Table 192. Regional differences are more significant, ranging from a low of 94.5% in the Northern region to a high of 99.2% in Bangkok. In the Central region, there is hardly any difference between rural and urban areas, but in the Northern region there is a difference of 5.2 percentage points.

Table 192: Youth Literacy (%), (Age 15-24), by Region, 2000, Thailand

	Nationwide	Bangkok	Region			
			Northern	Northeastern	Central	Southern
Total	98.0	99.2	94.5	99.0	98.4	97.5
Municipal	98.7	99.2	97.6	99.2	98.5	98.0
Non-Municipal	97.5	.	93.7	98.9	98.4	97.3

Source: National Census, National Statistical Office, 2000.
Note: "." indicates not applicable.

Most illiterates are from disadvantaged groups, such as ethno-linguistic groups living in remote areas, including those without access to schooling. The authorities have launched extensive literacy campaigns. Basic education textbooks, supplementary reading material, and cassette tapes for teaching Thai have been made for distribution to illiterates nationwide. For remote and generally inaccessible areas, an imaginative NFE programme has been launched, using elephants to carry educational materials; and using long-tail boats to transport learning aids to target groups for places which can be reached only through waterways.

17.4 Goal Four: Literacy in Thailand

17.4.1 Background and Development of Literacy Acquisition in Thailand

a. Definition of Literacy

The national definition for "literacy" and "numeracy" is specific according to each field of work within an organization. The "working definition" is that used by the National Statistical Office in conducting the population census, namely the self-reported ability to read and write in any language. Literacy is defined, for a person over the age of five, as the ability to read and write simple statements in any particular language. The lower boundary age for calculation of literacy rates has been lowered gradually over the years.

It should be noted that the lower boundary age for calculation of literacy rates is several years lower than in most other countries, even lower than the age for children to enter primary school. As a result, the official Thai national literacy rates are not strictly comparable to those of other countries.

The "promotion definition" is that used by the Office of the Non-Formal Education Commission in their National Literacy Campaign Programme, which defines a literate person as one who can read and write simple messages and perform simple calculations used in everyday life.

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

Goal 4 aims at: (a) Achieving a 50% improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, with especial attention to women; and (b) Providing equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults.

c. Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Groups

According to the Constitution, all persons have equal rights to basic education of not less than 12 years, of at least a minimum standard quality, which shall be provided by the state without charge. The 1999 National Education Act, as amended in 2002, explicitly assures the right to opportunities to receive basic education for:

- Persons with physical, mental, intellectual, emotional, social, communication, and learning deficiencies;
- Persons with physical disabilities;
- Persons unable to support themselves; and
- Persons who are destitute or disadvantaged.

The right to access education for the disabled, free of charge, is conferred at birth or at first diagnosis. Persons with disabilities have the right to access the facilities, media, services, and other forms of educational aid. Education for specially gifted persons shall be provided in appropriate forms in accord with their competencies.

Thailand has a policy of providing minority language NFE curricula where needed, but the implementation of this policy in terms of curricula and instructional materials is still at an early stage. The following have been some of the key initiatives:

- The pilot project "Bilingual Curriculum (P'wo Karen)" will organize a bilingual curriculum that first teaches in the native language (P'wo Karen) and then Thai. It involves the development of a P'wo Karen script, the outline of the curriculum through cultural calendars, dictionaries, P'wo Karen writing handbooks, developing lesson plans, creating learning materials, producing bilingual books for supplementary reading, games, stories, and pocket books. The pilot project will be tracked and the development assessed.
- Special curricula are being developed for illiterate children and adults of the Thai-Maugan ethnicity (Surin Islands, Umphur Sraburi, Pang-Nga provinces) in order to provide students with adequate Thai language skills and mathematic skills so they will to be able to further their education. This learning process will begin by using the students' mother tongue (Maugan language).
- A local Malay language course is provided to encourage the general public and government officials working in the five southern provinces to use Malay in communicating with people who use Malay in their daily lives. The course focuses mainly on listening and speaking skills and requires 20 hours of study; two hours of instruction for 10 days.

17.4.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Thailand

a. Assessing Progress Using Time Series Data

Table 193: National Literacy Rates (%), 1985-2000, Thailand

Year	Lower Bound Age	Rate
1985	7+	87.7
1994	6+	91.5
2000	5+	92.6

Source: National Statistical Office, Population and Housing Census, 2000 and 2002.

National literacy rates have risen substantially over the past two decades, as shown in Table 193. The trend is clear despite the fact that the lower boundary for calculation of literacy rates has been successively lowered.

b. Assessing Progress Using Sub-National Data

Urban/rural and regional variation in youth literacy rates is shown in Table 192 (page 188). For youth, urban/rural differences are relatively small, but the regional variation was greater. For adult literacy rates (age 15+), the overall urban/rural difference is more substantial (3.8 percentage

points), as seen in Table 194. Regional differences are also more significant, ranging from a low of 86.1% in the Northern region to a high of 96.1% in Bangkok. Differences between rural and urban areas are especially large in the Northern region (7.1 percentage points).

Table 194: Adult Literacy Rate (%), (Age 15+), by Region, 2000, Thailand

	Nationwide	Bangkok	Region			
			Northern	Northeastern	Central	Southern
Total	92.6	96.1	86.1	95.0	94.0	90.3
Municipal	95.1	96.1	91.7	96.2	95.4	93.1
Non-Municipal	91.3	.	84.6	94.7	93.2	89.5

Source: National Census, National Statistical Office, 2000.
Note: "." indicates not applicable.

17.4.3 Analysis of Disparities in Literacy in Thailand

a. Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality in Literacy

Gender differences in literacy rates are relatively small, especially for youth literacy, where the gender parity criterion has been reached, as can be seen in Table 195.

Table 195: Literacy Rates (%), by Sex and GPI, 2000 and 2005, Thailand

Indicators	2000				2005			
	Total	Male	Female	GPI	Total	Male	Female	GPI
Adult (Age 15+)	92.6	95.2	91.4	0.96	93.5	96.1	92.3	0.96
Youth (Age 15-24)	98.0	98.9	97.6	0.99	98.1	98.6	97.8	0.99

Sources: Household Census 2002; Population Change Survey Project 2005/06.

17.5 Goal Five: Gender Equality in Education in Thailand

17.5.1 Background and Development of Gender Parity and Equality in Thailand

a. National Policy and Legislation for Gender Equality

The Constitution states that all persons are equal before the law and shall enjoy equal protection under the law and specifically states that men and women shall enjoy equal rights. A department level Office for Women and Families, established under MSDHS, is responsible for gender parity and equality and is mandated to promote and support the role of men and women, as well as to prevent violence against women and children in all forms. The office also provides resources and support to private organizations to ensure their role in countering violence and providing support to affected women.

The Office of the Civil Service Commission underlines the importance of gender equality, especially in the aspect of career advancement and acceptance of women into executive roles.

An Act related to gender equality at a family level has been promulgated. This Act gives women the right to use their own surname after getting married, to be the child guardian, and to sue for divorce.

b. Strategies and Programmes for Achieving Gender Equality

Government encourages all stakeholders to ensure gender equality in education; some of these specific measures are:

- Co-education is promoted in boys-only and girl-only schools, especially at the secondary and vocational levels;
- Institutions are allowed to develop curricula and content suitable for the demand and ability of students, with due consideration to personal and gender differences;
- The MOE has promulgated regulations on provision of facilities, including nursing rooms, sport complexes, and cafeterias, taking into account students' convenience and gender equality, with the same facilities for male and female students;
- Music, sports, and recreational activities are organized, and education institutions allow students to participate in activities regardless of gender;
- School clubs and activity groups are organized in congruence with the basic education curriculum, and students are encouraged to participate according to their interests regardless of gender or religious beliefs;
- The Thai National Commission on Women's Affairs collaborates with the MOE to provide scholarships to underprivileged young women in areas where many young women enter prostitution and do not return to school after the 6th and 9th grades due to poverty; and
- Many private organizations offer help and support to finance scholarships for underprivileged children and youth.

There are many courses in many different fields of study related to Women's Studies at the undergraduate level. Two masters degree programmes in Women's Studies have been opened, namely at Chiang Mai University and Thammasat University.

17.5.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Thailand

a. Assessing Progress Using Time Series Data

Table 196: Estimated GPI for GER in ECCE, 2000/01-2005/06, Thailand

Year	% Female	GPI
2000/01	54.1	*1.21*
2001/02	48.9	*0.98*
2002/03	48.9	*0.98*
2003/04	n/a	n/a
2004/05	48.2	*0.96*
2005/06	48.6	*0.98*

Source: Bureau of Information and Communication Technology, Office of Permanent Secretary, MOE.
Note: Figures in italics are estimates based on the assumption that the proportion of girls ECCE age population (3-5 years) is 49.3, corresponding to the findings of the 2000 census. See Statistical Notes.

ECCE Enrolment. The somewhat irregular growth of ECCE enrolments at the beginning of the decade is reflected in the variations in the GPI for GER, as shown in Table 196. At the beginning of the decade, many more girls participated in ECCE than boys, but by mid-decade near balance appears to have been achieved.

Primary and Secondary Enrolment. At primary and secondary school level, the gender balance remained nearly unchanged from 2000 to 2003, as shown in Table 197. At primary level, the criterion for gender pariity had been achieved already in 2000. At lower secondary level, girls were more likely to participate than boys, and this tendency was even greater for general education at upper secondary level. For the vocational programmes, however, boys were much more likely to participate.

Table 197: Estimated GPI for GER, Primary, Secondary and Vocational, 2000 and 2003, Thailand

Year	Primary		Lower Secondary		Upper Secondary		Vocational	
	% Female	GPI	% Female	GPI	% Female	GPI	% Female	GPI
2000	49	*0.98*	52	*1.11*	53	*1.16*	41	*0.71*
2003	49	*0.98*	52	*1.11*	53	*1.16*	42	*0.73*

Source: Bureau of Information and Communication Technology, Office of Permanent Secretary, MOE.
Note: Figures in italics are estimates based on the assumption that the proportion of girls in the primary school age population (6-11 years) and lower secondary school age (12-14) is 49.4, and the proportion of girls the upper secondary school age population (15-17) is 49.3, corresponding to the findings of the 2000 census. See Statistical Notes.

Table 198: Estimated GPI for GER in Primary and Secondary NFE, 2000/01-2005/06, Thailand

Year	Primary NFE		Secondary NFE	
	% Female	GPI	% Female	GPI
2000/01	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
2001/02	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
2002/03	45.6	*0.86*	42.2	*0.75*
2003/04	46.8	*0.91*	41.3	*0.73*
2004/05	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
2005/06	45.3	*0.85*	41.3	*0.73*

Source: Bureau of Information and Communication Technology, Office of Permanent Secretary, MOE.
Note: Figures in italics are estimates based on the assumption that the proportion of females in the age range 15-34 in the population is 49.2, corresponding to the findings of the 2000 census. See Statistical Notes.

NFE. Men are much more likely to participate in literacy, primary, and secondary NFE programmes than women, especially at secondary level, as shown in Table 198. There is no visible systematic tendency toward greater gender balance over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06.

Teachers. At both primary and secondary level, approximately 60% of the teachers are women.

b. Assessing Progress Using Sub-National Data

Table 199: "One District, One Scholarship" Recipients, % Female, 2006, Thailand

Region	% Female
National	63.8
Northern	61.0
Northeastern	55.9
Central	70.3
Eastern	70.4
Southern	73.3

Source: Bureau of Information and Communication Technology, Office of Permanent Secretary, MOE.

In 2006, nearly two-thirds of all "One District, One Scholarship" recipients were females, but there was substantial regional variation in the gender distribution, as shown in Table 199.

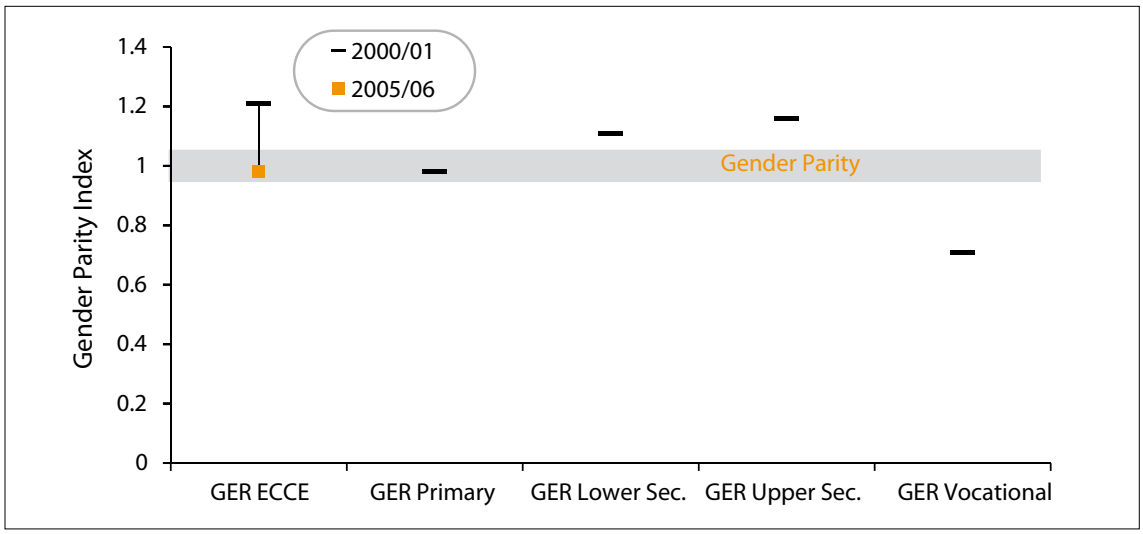
17.5.3 Analysis of Gender Disparities in Thailand

In the formal education system, over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06, the GER for girls in primary education increased and is almost equal to the GER for boys. In secondary education, the GER for girls is greater than the GER for boys (see Table 197 above).

In the non-formal education system, the number of females enrolled at primary level has increased and is almost equal to the number of males, but at secondary level, the number of males enrolled substantially exceeds the number of females.

Overall progress in reaching gender parity can be summarized as in Figure 38.

Figure 38: GPI Summary, 2000/01 and 2005/06, Thailand



Sources: Tables 196 and 197.
Note: 2006 data unavailable except GER ECCE.

17.6 Goal Six: Quality of Education in Thailand

17.6.1 Developments in the Provision of Quality Education in Thailand

Education Act. The National Education Act indicates three principles of the reform aimed at improving the quality of education:

- Unity in policy and diversity in implementation;
- Decentralisation of authority to Educational Service Area Offices (ESAOs), educational institutions, and local administration organization; and
- Setting of education standards and implementing quality assurance system for all levels and all types of education.

In accordance with these principles, the Office of the Basic Education Commission (OBEC) has distributed administrative, managerial, and academic power to educational districts and institutions to improve their curricula and meet the basic education standards. All educational institutions are required to have a quality assurance system. As part of the quality assurance process, schools publish an annual report.

The Office for National Education and Quality Assessment (ONESQA) helps in developing criteria, methods of assessing quality, and assessing the management of education. Every educational institution will undergo quality inspections at least once every five years. OBEC directs and monitors the results of the inspection in order to maintain education standards. OBEC and its Bureau of Education Testing (BET) organize systems and methods of testing and developing standard tools for education assessment.

Basic Education Curriculum 2001. By 2005/06, the Basic Education [core] Curriculum 2001 was in place, covering Thai language; mathematics; science; social studies; religion and culture; health and

physical education; art; career and technology; and foreign languages. A total of 76 standards have been prescribed for assessing learning quality. The ESAOs have flexibility in choosing substance to suit the local context. The schools also elaborate curricular contents further according to the needs, aptitudes, and interests of the students.

OBEC encourages schools to adopt various teaching-learning models, including Montessori Method, Constructivism, project approach, integrated teaching and learning, ICT-aided learning, and learning through development of the thinking process.

Table 200: Basic Education Standards, Thailand

Target	No. of Standards
Students	8
Teaching	2
Admin. & Management	6
Community	2
Total	18

Source: MOE.

Basic Education Standards. In 2005, the MOE announced the adoption of the Basic Education Standards. There are 18 standards and 84 indicators in all, covering students, teaching, administration and management, and the community. These standards are to be used as tools for educational facilities to measure up to, and as guidelines for improving the quality of the facilities.

Education Testing and Assessment. The National Institute of Educational Testing Service (NIETS) was established in 2005 as the central organization for research, development, and service provision concerning education assessment and testing, and as a centre for cooperation in education testing, both nationally and internationally. NIETS assesses the quality of education, with the aim of building different levels of knowledge and character that meet the standards and are equal to that of other countries. The main practice in testing is to assess the standard of the basic education level by testing students from Grades 1-12.

Following the concept of Prior Learning Assessment and Recognition (PLAR), education and training institutions under the jurisdiction of the Office of the Non-Formal Education Commission (ONFEC) have the opportunity to document their competence, including primary, secondary, and higher education, through testing and certification.

Mathematics, Science, and Technology. The Institute for the Promotion of Teaching Science and Technology (IPST), under the jurisdiction of the MOE, has wide-ranging responsibilities: (a) Research and development related to the teaching and learning of science, mathematics, and technology in all levels but focusing mainly on basic education; (b) Promotion of the development of quality assurance and assessment systems for education standard on science, mathematics, and technology; (c) Establishment of standards of learning and handbooks on organizing the learning of scientific, mathematical, and technological subject matter in accordance with the Curriculum for Basic Education 2001; (d) Organizing teacher training in mathematics, science, and technology nationwide, using both campus and distance modes; (e) Development of instructional materials and supplementary materials in science, mathematics, and technology; (f) Promotion of information technology; and (g) Creation of a network of cooperation for educational research and development in science, mathematics, and technology, including both domestic and international comparative research, such as TIMSS, the PISA Project, and others.

CFS Policy Framework. The CFS framework identifies five key dimensions of quality:

- Inclusiveness;
- Effectiveness;
- Safe, protective, and healthy environment;

- Gender friendliness; and
- Involvement of community, parents, and students.

17.6.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Thailand

Table 201: Students per Teacher, Class, and Computer, 2000/01-2005/06, Thailand

	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06
Students per Teacher						
Primary	…	18.0	20.7	20.7	20.4	19.0
Secondary	…	20.0	22.7	22.7	25.4	21.0
Students per Class						
Primary	23.8	24.0	24.0	24.0	23.8	23.4
Lower Sec.	34.1	34.1	34.4	34.8	36.1	35.8
Upper Sec.	35.2	34.6	34.3	33.4	46.3	46.1
Students per Computer						
Primary	…	…	…	119	…	79
Secondary	…	…	…	58	…	21

Source: Bureau of Information and Communication Technology, Office of Permanent Secretary, MOE.
Note: "…" indicates no data available.

The quality indicators available relate to the density of provision of instructional resources, specifically teachers, classes, and computers, as shown in Table 201. The trend over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06 at both primary and secondary level is that the human inputs are distributed more thinly, while computers are distributed more densely.

17.7 Overall Conclusions and Policy Recommendations in Thailand

Information Needs. Data collection, analysis, and reporting is the responsibility of the various agencies involved, each of which has its own information needs for administration, management, and research. Because of the differing needs and in the absence of organization and coordination, it is often not possible to provide complete national coverage of the many core indicators, with uniform definitions and internal consistency. It is therefore recommended that the MOE take responsibility for assuring, on a national basis, the harmonization of data collection, processing, and reporting of all EFA core indicators and other indicators needed for planning and managing the development of the education system, including breakdowns by sex, geographic region, and other significant social variables. This would typically be done within the framework of an EMIS under the MOE and possibly in cooperation and coordination with other organizations and agencies responsible for education service delivery.

ECCE. Although the evidence presented here is sparse, there appear to be some small but serious regional variations in nutrition and health (see Table 186, page 180 above). It is recommended that the government's ECCE investment include: (a) A "nutrition watch" for children under the age of five years, especially in areas where many poor people live; and (b) Networking for effective, systematic, and sustainable assistance and support for special target groups.

Literacy Assessment. In order to obtain more valid estimates of literacy rates, it is recommended that on a regular sample survey basis, literacy be directly tested, using the experience of UNESCO, OECD, and others.

18. Viet Nam

18.1 Goal One: Early Childhood Care and Education in Viet Nam

18.1.1 Background and Development of ECCE in Viet Nam

a. Definition of ECCE

In the Education Law, ECCE covers children from birth to 59 months. Pre-school covers the age 60-72 months and is seen as preparation for primary education.

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

In order to fulfil the ECCE objectives indicated in the National EFA Action Plan, the government issued and implemented a number of policies.

On the basis of the Education Law of 15 November 2002, the government confirmed some fundamental issues in relation to: (a) Tasks and orientations of various types of ECCE institutions; (b) Curriculum development and teaching staff development; (d) Investment polices and ECCE development planning; and (e) Responsibilities of line ministries and People's Committees at various levels on the fulfilment of ECCE development objectives.

The Education Development Strategic Plan for 2001-2010, approved in December 2001, gives the following ECCE development goals: (a) To increase the quality of care and education for children under the age of 6 years for their all-round development in physical fitness, sentiment, intellect, and aesthetics sense; (b) To expand the system of crèches and kindergartens in every populated area, especially in rural and areas of difficult access; and (c) To strengthen the activities of disseminating knowledge and advising on children's care and education for families.

The Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) has issued several documents related to quality and relevance of ECCE:

- MOET Decision 45/QD-BGD&DT on national standards for ECCE schools for the period 2001-2005;
- MOET Decision 5205/QD-BGD&DT 2006, on the pilot of ECCE curriculum for gradual regional and international integration, with integrated theme-based care and education contents and activities which are relevant to children's psychology and ECCE requirements;
- MOET Decision 2227/QD-BGD&DT 2006, on minimum ECCE equipment standards for piloting the renovated ECCE curriculum; and
- MOET Decision 2322/QD-BGD&DT 2007, on the implementation plan for piloting the ECCE curriculum for two school-years (2006/07-2007/08).

c. Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Children

Policies on ECCE Development Project. Prime Minister Decision No. 49/2006/QD-TTG approved the ECCE Development Project for the period 2006-2015. Within this Project, priority is given to communes in mountainous, border, isolated, remote and island areas. ECCE must be done with the close cooperation and linkages among schools, families and the society.

Policies related to disadvantaged groups include:

- MOET Decision 31/2005/QD-BGD&DT on the minimum operation conditions of crèche and kindergarten classes and children groups in places where pre-schools cannot be established, with a view to expanding the access for poor children, reduce difficulties and ensure the learning rights of small children living in big cities and mountainous provinces; and

- MOET Decision 23/QD-BGD&DT, 2006, on inclusive education for people with disabilities, creating a legal basis to help people with disabilities enjoy equal learning rights and opportunities for education, vocational training, rehabilitation, and personal development for community integration.

18.1.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Viet Nam

a. Assessing Progress Using Time Series Data

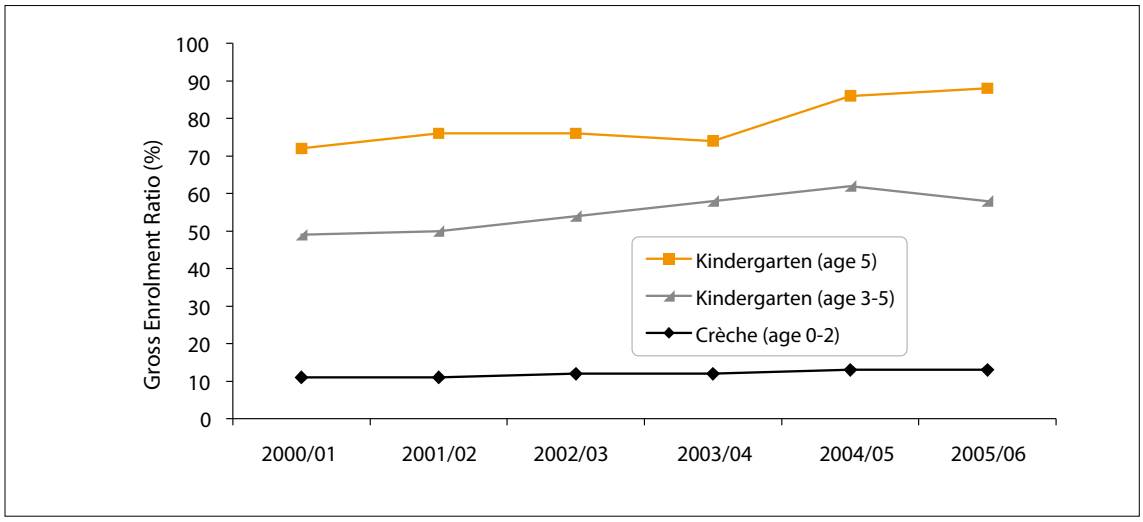
Pre-school Participation. The Gross Enrolment Ratios for ECCE for the period 2000/01 to 2005/06 for the three distinct forms are presented in Table 202 and Figure 39. There were substantial increases in the GER for the three forms of ECCE for 2000/01 to 2005/06, with the greatest growth shown for kindergarten for 5-year olds.

Table 202: GER for ECCE (%), by Level, 2000/01-2005/06, Viet Nam

Programme	00/01	01/02	02/03	03/04	04/05	05/06
Crèche	11	11	12	12	13	13
KG 3-5	49	50	54	58	62	58
KG 5	72	76	76	74	86	88

Source: Information Centre, Planning and Finance Department, MOET, 2006.

Figure 39: GER for ECCE (%), by Level, 2000/01-2005/06, Viet Nam



Source: Information Centre, Planning and Finance Department, MOET, 2006.

Table 203: GER for ECCE (%), by Sex and GPI, 2000-2005, Viet Nam

Year	Male	Female	Total	GPI
2000	30.7	32.5	31.6	1.06
2001	32.1	31.3	31.7	0.98
2002	33.8	34.7	34.2	1.03
2003	35.9	36.2	36.0	1.00
2004	37.9	39.1	38.5	1.03
2005	36.8	35.6	36.2	0.97

Source : Planning and Finance Department, MOET and Population Department, GSO.

The combined GER for all three forms is given in Table 203. A third of all pre-school aged children participate in some form of pre-school.

Non-public ECCE Provision. Some 60% of all ECCE enrolment is in the non-public sector. Both public and private enrolment have generally increased over the period 2001/02 to 2005/06, but in recent years, public enrolment has expanded somewhat more rapidly than non-public enrolment, as shown in Table 204.

Table 204: Children Receiving Non-Public ECCE (%), 2001/02-2005/06, Viet Nam

Indicator	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06
Total ECCE	2,568,242	2,547,430	2,588,837	2,754,094	2,879,054
Non-public ECCE	1,378,619	1,583,189	1,585,538	1,603,984	1,660,510
Percent Non-public	53.7	62.1	61.2	58.2	57.7

Source: Information Centre, Planning and Finance Department, MOET, 2006.

The number of children entering primary school Grade 1 with ECCE experience has risen rapidly, from 62% in 2001/02 to 87% in 2005/06, as shown in Table 205. This is a positive trend which forms the basis for quality universal primary education, especially in mountainous, remote, isolated, disadvantaged areas, and provinces with large ethnic minority populations.

Table 205: Grade 1 Students with ECCE Experience (%), 2001/02-2005/06, Viet Nam

Indicator	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06
Grade 1 Students	1,741,785	1,594,730	1,504,499	1,354,906	1,324,339
Children with ECCE	1,080,785	1,113,459	1,034,923	1,057,058	1,148,419
Percent with ECCE	62.1	69.8	68.8	78.0	86.7

Source: Information Centre, Planning and Finance Department, MOET, 2006.

Table 206: Trained ECCE Teachers (%), 2000/01-2005/06, Viet Nam

Year	Trained ECCE Teachers, % of Total
2000/01	48.4
2001/02	53.8
2002/03	40.7
2003/04	65.2
2004/05	77.7
2005/06	72.4

Source: Information Centre, Planning and Finance Department, MOET, 2006.

Qualifications of ECCE Teachers. The qualifications of ECCE teachers have improved rapidly, as shown in Table 206. Only 2% of ECCE teachers had higher education qualifications in 2000/01, but the figure had risen to 10% by 2005/06. The proportion of ECCE teachers meeting ECCE training qualification standards jumped from 48% in 2000/01 to 72% in 2005/06.

Nevertheless, both the qualifications and regional distribution of ECCE teachers and managers need to be improved; one fourth of teachers are under-qualified; the proportion of teachers and managers with college and university degrees is very low; the proportion of teachers from disadvantaged ethnic groups in ethnic minority areas is very small (just over 5%). The qualifications of managers cannot meet the higher requirements for the more demanding tasks.

Table 207: Children Under Five Suffering from Stunting (%), 2000-2005, Viet Nam

Year	%
2000	33.8
2001	31.9
2002	30.1
2003	28.4
2004	26.6
2005	25.2
2005 Target	25.0

Source: National Nutrition Institute.

Health and Nutrition. The proportion of children under five years suffering from stunting (low height for age) fell dramatically between 2000 and 2005. The National Action Plan for Children had set the target at 25% by 2005, and the actual achievement was 25.2%, as seen in Table 207.

However, there is an emerging overweight trend among children under 5 years old. In 1998, the number of under 5-year-old overweight children was 0.7% and has risen to 1.7% by 2004.

In recent years, more than 90% of households consumed iodized salt.

b. Assessing Progress Using Sub-National Data

Enrolment Rates by Geographical Region. Economic and geographical regions in Viet Nam significantly vary in terms of natural conditions, population density, ethnic groups, and income levels.

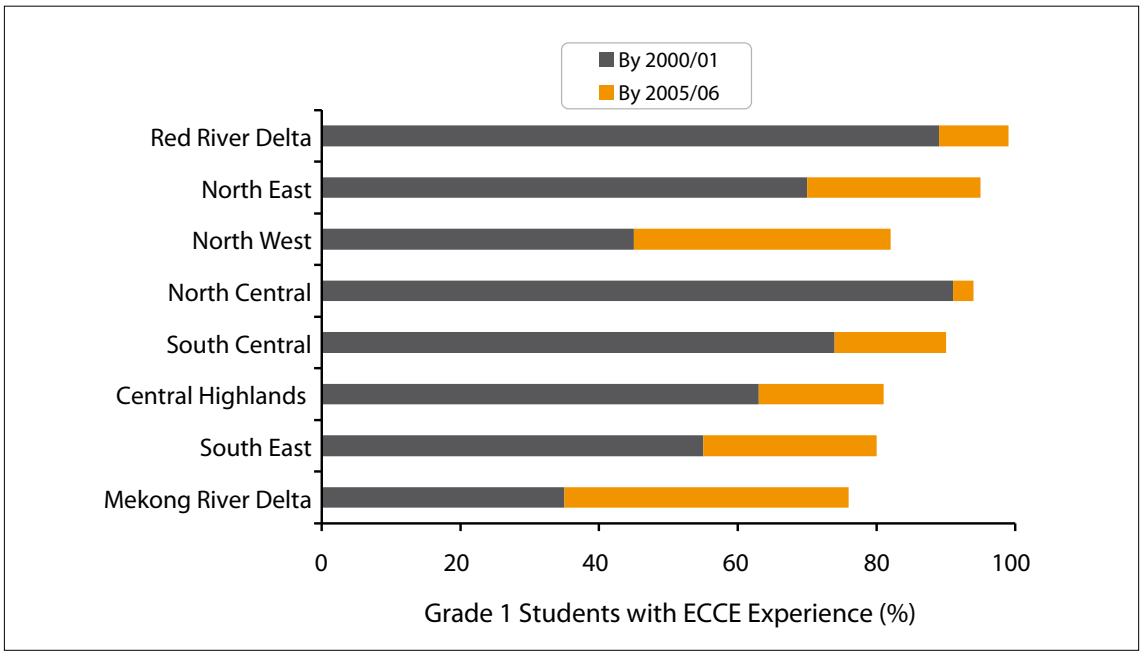
The proportion of Grade 1 students with ECCE experience varies by region, as shown in Table 208 and Figure 40. It can be seen that the proportion of Grade 1 children participating in preschool education was highest in the North Central and Red River Delta regions, and lowest in Mekong River Delta region. The regions with the lowest proportion of Grade 1 students with ECCE experience in 2000/01 were also the regions which showed the greatest gains by 2005/06. Although the maximum value for a region rose by 8 percentage points from 91% to 99%, the minimum value rose by 41 points from 35% to 76%, and the range between minimum and maximum values declined from 56 points to 23 points. This is a reflection of the general trend toward reduction of regional disparities at a relatively high level of ECCE participation.

Table 208: Grade 1 Students with ECCE Experience (%), by Region, 2000/01-2005/06, Viet Nam

Region	2000/01	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06
National	66	62	70	69	78	77
Red River Delta	89	86	89	88	92	99
North East	70	62	74	78	77	95
North West	45	42	48	53	70	82
North Central	91	83	82	79	90	94
South Central	74	74	81	72	67	90
Central Highlands	63	64	68	78	80	81
South East	55	40	62	58	76	80
Mekong River Delta	35	43	50	49	65	76
Maximum	91	86	89	88	92	99
Minimum	35	40	48	49	65	76
Range	56	46	41	39	27	23

Source: Information Centre, Planning and Finance Department, MOET, 2006.

Figure 40: Grade 1 Students with ECCE Experience, by Region, 2000/01 and 2005/06, Viet Nam



Source: Information Centre, Planning and Finance Department, MOET, 2006.

Table 209: Children Receiving Non-Public ECCE (%), by Region, 2005/06, Viet Nam

Region	0-5 year olds	of which 0-2 year olds	3-5 year olds
National	58	75	54
Red River Delta	89	92	88
North East	52	58	50
North West	26	42	23
North Central	82	84	82
South Central	78	68	79
Central Highlands	30	70	26
South East	34	44	32
Mekong River Delta	13	57	9

Source: Information Centre, Planning and Finance Department, MOET, 2006.

Non-public ECCE Provision by Region. The proportion of children receiving non-public ECCE in 2005/06 was highest in the Red River Delta region (89%) and the North Central region (82%) and lowest in the Mekong River Delta region (13%), as shown in Table 209. By comparing Table 208 with Table 203 it can be seen that the regions with the highest proportion of children entering Grade 1 with ECCE experience are those in which non-public provision is highest. At present, the sub-sector is focusing on implementation of Resolution No. 05/2005/NQ-CP to raise the proportion of children receiving non-public ECCE, to 80% and 70% for crèches and kindergartens, respectively, by 2010.

Health and Nutrition. The regions with the highest proportions of children under five years suffering from stunting are North West and North Central. The Red River Delta region recorded the lowest proportion.

The Red River Delta, South Central, and Mekong River Delta regions have not reached the targets on provision of sufficient iodized salt for disease prevention purposes.

18.1.3 Analysis of Disparities in ECCE in Viet Nam

a. Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality in ECCE

Gender. Although the GPI seems to vary a lot from year to year, it can be concluded that gender parity has been achieved in the GER for ECCE taken as a whole, as seen in Table 203.

Table 210: Minority Children Enrolled in ECCE (%), 2001/02-2005/06, Viet Nam

Year	%
2001/02	12.4
2002/03	12.0
2003/04	12.9
2004/05	13.5
2005/06	13.8

Source: Information Centre, Planning and Finance Department, MOET, 2006.

Ethnic Minorities. In all aspects of education development in ethnic minority areas, progress has been made in quantity, school or class network, school facilities, and teacher pre-service and in-service training. In school year 2002/03, there were 208 communes without ECCE provision, and these were located in ethnic minority and very disadvantaged areas. By 2005/06, all communes had ECCE provision. In 2003/04, 12.9% of children enrolled in ECCE were ethnic minorities; by 2005/06, the figure had risen to 13.8%, as shown in Table 210. This is proportional to the distribution of the ethnic minority population in the total national population.

In ethnic minority and high mountainous and isolated areas, children are provided with Vietnamese language strengthening programmes, which help prepare them for Grade 1, reduce the drop-outs, and contribute to the "correct-age" universal primary education.

b. Progress in Improving Quality of ECCE

The most significant progress has been the development of a new ECCE curriculum and a series of decisions related to ECCE institutions, teaching staff development, investment polices and ECCE development planning, and the clarification of responsibilities for the fulfilment of ECCE development objectives. The establishment of minimum quality standards has been especially important for children living in poor and remote areas. The level of qualifications of ECCE teachers has also risen considerably.

c. Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached"

Although ECCE has greatly expanded coverage, it is still mainly upper income families who send their children to pre-school.

d. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goal

All of the ECCE targets have been achieved, and it is expected that the 2015 targets will also be achieved.

Disadvantaged groups, such as poor families and families living in difficult to reach areas, girls, ethnic minority children, and those with disabilities, have received special attention due to the implementation of pro-poor policies. The ECCE policies have shown their efficiency in creating equal opportunities for children from different regions and ethnic groups, as well as ensure the encouragement of gender equity.

Engaging the participation of family and communities in ECCE has been quite effective in promoting ECCE enrolment.

e. Remaining Challenges and Issues

There is a need for improved preparation of staff and physical facilities to meet the urgent needs for comprehensive renovation of ECCE content and methods.

The greatest challenge is to improve the training qualifications and pedagogical skills of ECCE teachers working in rural and disadvantaged areas. Another significant challenge is the poor conditions of physical facilities and equipment for ECCE in disadvantaged areas.

There is a shortage of ECCE teachers in remote, isolated, mountainous, and island areas. According to norms, there will be a need for nearly 20,000 additional ECCE teachers by 2010. ECCE teacher training institutions are facing constraints. The content of ECCE teacher training programmes lacks relevance, and graduates cannot meet the current requirements of renovated ECCE.

The placement, deployment, assessment, policy, and incentive mechanisms for ECCE teachers and managers are inappropriate and not able to create momentum for teachers to improve their qualities and capacities. Current mechanisms and policies prevent ECCE institutions from effective use of staff.

There are significant regional differences in participation rates. At least 8,200 newly built classrooms will be needed for 5-year-olds in disadvantaged areas by 2010.

Inter-agency coordination in fulfilling ECCE objectives is still weak and not institutionalized. The knowledge dissemination to families has not been promoted.

There are few programmes, projects, and policies for the support of disadvantaged children from poor families, and from workers' families working in industrial processing zones in cities, provincial towns and other difficult places.

18.2 Goal Two: Universal Basic Education in Viet Nam

18.2.1 Background and Expansion of Universal Basic Education in Viet Nam

a. Definition of UBE

As defined in the Education Law, UPE covers all children 6-10 years old, Grades 1-5. UBE includes primary and lower secondary education, and covers all children 6-15 years old and Grades 1-9. The aim for UPE is that by 2015, all children (including girls, disadvantaged children and ethnic minority children) will receive and complete free and good quality primary education;

The aim for UBE is that all lower secondary school age children have access to affordable and adequate quality lower secondary education.

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

Prime Minister Decision No. 201/2001/QD-TTg approved of the Education Development Strategic Plan for 2001-2010, with the following primary education development goals:

- Increase participation rates among school age group from 95% in 2000 to 97% in 2005 and 99% in 2010;
- Create opportunities for children with disabilities to attend inclusive, semi-inclusive or special classes with 50% and 70% of mobilization rates in 2005 and 2010, respectively"; and

- Establish at least one primary school within the location of a commune or quarter or a cluster of communes or quarters in places with small population.

National Assembly Resolution No. 40/2000/QH10 provides for the renovation of general education curriculum, curriculum implementation, and use of new textbooks starting from Grade 1 in school year 2002/03 so that by school year 2006/07, the new curricula and textbooks are implemented in the final grade.

Instruction 40/CT/T, 2004, identifies the tasks to be fulfilled for the development and quality improvement of teachers and educational managers, including their deployment.

The Prime Minister issued Decision No.159/2002/QDTTD approves plans for construction of permanent school facilities which would eliminate three-shift classes by the end of 2003 and the removal of temporary classrooms by the end of 2005. There have also been programmes which have given investment priorities to poor communes, flood-prone areas, and ethnic minority areas.

The MOET has issued various documents on the national standards and Fundamental School Quality Levels (FSQL), which are considered to be measures for the improvement of primary education quality and relevance.

The MOET Decision No.28/1999/QD promotes the checking, assessment, and certification of correct-age universal primary education, which means that primary students must complete the primary education curriculum by the age of 11. The implementation of correct-age universal primary education is intended to consolidate the achievements of universal primary education gained during 1990s and gradually establish high quality primary schools.

c. Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Children

The MOET Decision 23/QD-BGD&DT, 2006, promotes inclusive education and provides a legal basis to help people with disabilities enjoy equal learning rights and opportunities for education, vocational training, rehabilitation and personal development for community integration.

According to National Assembly Resolution 41/2000/QH10, the objective for universal lower secondary education, covering the period 2001-2010, is to ensure that most primary school graduates will continue their learning and complete lower secondary curriculum by the age of 18. To achieve universal lower secondary education, communes will have to fulfil the following targets:

- Ensure that 95% or more of primary school graduates continue on to lower secondary schooling, and that this figure is at least 80% in socio-economically disadvantaged communes;
- Ensure that the annual lower secondary graduation rate is 90% or more; and that this figure is at least 75% in socio-economically disadvantaged communes; and
- Ensure that 80% or more of 15-18 year olds are granted lower secondary graduation diplomas, and this figure is at least 70% in socio-economically disadvantaged communes.

The Education Development Strategic Plan for 2001-2010 indicates an increase in the correct-age enrolment rates from 74% in 2000, to 80% in 2005, and 90% by 2010. It also indicates the intention to create opportunities for children with disabilities to attend inclusive, semi-inclusive, or special classes with 50% and 70% of mobilization rates in 2005 and 2010, respectively.

The MOET Decision 23/QD-BGD&DT, 2006, regulates inclusive education for people with disabilities. The objective is to help people with disabilities enjoy equal learning rights and opportunities for education, vocational training, rehabilitation, and personal development for community integration.

18.2.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Viet Nam

a. Assessing Progress Using Time Series Data

Primary Enrolment. The Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) for Grade 1 is shown in Table 211 and Figure 41. In recent years, the GER in Grade 1 on national basis has always been greater than 100%, which reflects the fact that a number of over-age children (mostly 7-8 year olds, but even older) are enrolled in Grade 1.

Table 211: Gross and Net Enrolment Rate for Grade 1 (%), 2001/02-2005/06, Viet Nam

Indicator	2001/02	2004/05	2005/06
Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER)	109.9	106.8	106.3
Net Enrolment Rate (NER)	94.6	95.6	98.2
Percent of Students in Official Age	86.1	89.5	92.4

Source: Education and Training Statistics, MOET; General Statistics Office.

Although the Grade 1 GER has tended to decline, the NER has risen steadily, reaching nearly 98% by 2005/06. This is the result of efforts made in the implementation of Universal Primary Education Law during the 1990s and correct-age universal primary education policy in the early years of the 21st century.

The Gross and Net Enrolment Ratios for primary school are shown in Table 212 and Figure 41. Over the period 2001/02 to 2005/06, the GER showed a continual decline, while the NER showed a continual rise, and the proportion of primary school students in the correct age range rose from 88.9% to 95.3%. The mobilization rate of the age 6-10 population has been relatively high. On a national scale, there have been various efforts made on bringing learning opportunities and conditions for 6-10 year olds. However, there is still over 1.6% of the 6-10 population who have never attended school.

Table 212: Primary Education GER and NER (%), 2001/02-2005/06, Viet Nam

School-year	2001/02	2004/05	2005/06
Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER)	107.7	105.3	102.1
Net Enrolment Rate (NER)	95.8	98.1	98.3
Percent of Students in Official Age	88.9	93.2	95.3

Source: Education and Training Statistics, MOET; General Statistics Office.

Table 213: Transition Rate to Lower Secondary Education (%), 2001/02-2004/05, Viet Nam

School-year	Transition Rates (%)
2001/02	97.2
2003/04	98.2
2004/05	98.5

Source: Education and Training Statistics, MOET.

Transition from Primary to Lower Secondary Education. Over the period 2001/02 to 2004/05, the Transition Rate to Lower Secondary rose by more than one percentage point, as shown in Table 213.

Lower Secondary Enrolment. The GER and NER for Grade 6, the first grade of lower secondary school, are shown in Table 214 and Figure 41. Due to declining fertility rates, the number of 11-year-olds has been declining in recent years.

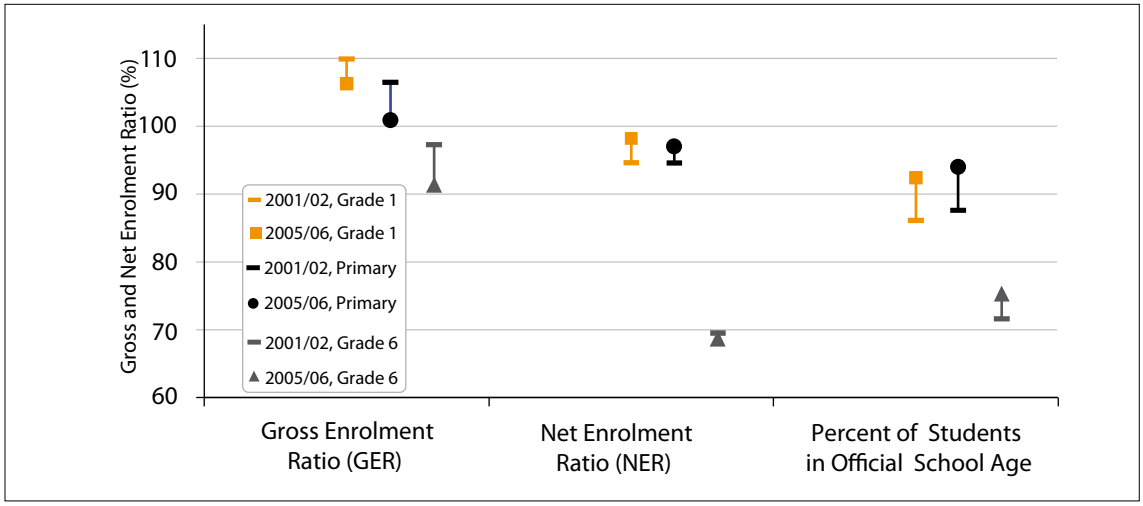
This explains part of the decline in the total number of Grade 6 students, but after a rise between 2001/02 and 2004/05, there was a sharp decline in the number of 11-year-old Grade 6 students and a corresponding decline in the NER in 2005/06. Over the period 2001/02 to 2005/06, however, the proportion of Grade 6 students in the "correct" Grade 6 age rose from 72% to 75%. An "incorrect age" enrolment at Grade 6 is mainly a reflection of late entry into primary school and repetition in primary school (including returning dropouts). The GER and NER for lower secondary is shown in Table 215.

Table 214: GER and NER in Grade 6 (%), 2001/02-2005/06, Viet Nam

	2001/02	2004/05	2005/06
Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER)	97.1	95.3	91.2
Net Enrolment Rate (NER)	69.6	73.1	68.8
Percent of Students in Official Age	71.7	76.7	75.4

Sources: Total 11-year-olds (General Statistics Office) and Total Grade 6 students (Planning and Finance Department, MOET).

Figure 41: GER and NER for Grade 1, Primary School and Grade 6, 2001/02 and 2005/06, Viet Nam



Sources: Tables 211, 212 and 214.

There has been improvement in participation rates in remote and isolated areas. However, the rate is still low for various reasons, such as low achievement level, difficult economic conditions, and the long distance and duration of travel to schools. In geographically difficult localities, satellite campuses and community-based boarding classes have been established to facilitate children's learning.

Gross and net enrolments in lower secondary school as a whole are shown in Table 215. Neither GER nor NER showed any significant tendency to change over the period 2002/03 to 2005/06, although both showed slight declines between 2004/05 and 2005/06. The enrolment of girls showed a slight net increase between 2002/03 and 2005/06, while the enrolment of boys showed a slight net decline as shown in Table 215. As a result the GPI rose, passing the criterion for gender parity in 2004/05. Approximately 90% of lower secondary school students are in the official lower secondary school age range.

Table 215: Lower Secondary GER and NER (%), by Sex, 2002/03-2005/06, Viet Nam

	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06
Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER)	84.7	84.8	85.8	84.5
GER, Male	86.4	86.9	86.6	85.2
GER, Female	82.9	82.5	85.0	83.8
GPI (GER)	0.96	0.95	0.98	0.98
Net Enrolment Rate (NER)	…	…	77.7	76.2
Percent of Students in Official Age	…	…	90.6	90.2

Sources: Total 11-14 year-olds (General Statistics Office) and Total Lower secondary students (Planning and Finance Department, MOET).
Note: "…" indicates no data available.

Table 216: Repetition Rate (%), Primary and Lower Secondary, 2002/03-2005/06, Viet Nam

Grade	2002/03	2004/05	Target	Actual
			2005/06	2005/06
1	3.0	2.3	4.0	2.7
2	1.3	1.0	2.0	1.2
3	1.0	0.6	…	0.8
4	0.8	0.4	…	0.6
5	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1
6	1.8	1.7	2.3	2.2
7	0.7	1.0	…	1.2
8	0.8	0.9	…	1.0
9	0.2	0.2	0.4	0.3

Source: Education and Training Statistics, MOET.
Note: "…" indicates no data available.

Repetition and Survival. As can be seen in Table 216, repetition was highest in Grade 1 and gradually decreases through Grade 5. This reflects the difficulties students face in moving from playing activities in kindergartens to learning activities in primary schools, and suggests the need for special attention to children's learning needs in the first grade, the review of relevance of the curriculum and textbook, and the improvement of Grade 1 teachers' qualifications and pedagogical capacities. The Repetition Rate fell between 2002/03 and 2004/05 (except for Grades 7 and 8), but rose again slightly in 2005/06. The EFA targets were met, as seen in the final two columns of Table 216, which suggests the relevance of the new primary school curriculum and the improvement of teachers' teaching skills.

The repetition rate at lower secondary level, which starts from Grade 6 (also seen in Table 216) increased slightly, from a mean of 0.9% to a mean of 1.2%. Repetition was higher in the earlier grades. This probably reflects the learning difficulties faced by students when they move from primary schools to lower secondary schools and into learning environments not familiar to them. This suggests giving particular attention to children's learning needs in the transition to Grade 6 and to teacher qualifications and competence.

The Survival Rate to Grade 5 increased by 3 percentage points between 2003/04 and 2004/05. Combined with the increase in NER shown in Table 212, this shows a significant increase in the proportion of each age cohort surviving to Grade 5 and a rapid approach to universal primary education.

Survival rates to Grade 6, the first year of lower secondary school, and Grade 9, the final grade in lower secondary school, are shown in Table 217. Note that the years given for Survival to Grade 9 lag by four years compared to those given for Grade 6, corresponding to the flow of the student cohorts. Over the period 2003/04 to 2004/05, the survival rate increased gradually by 3 percentage

points. The increased survival rate is a result of declines in the repetition and drop-out rates. In addition, the number of drop-outs who came back to school also rose. Over the period 2002/03 to 2005/06, the Transition Rate to upper secondary school rose by nearly three percentage points.

Table 217: Survival and Transition Rates, (%), 2002/03-2005/06, Viet Nam

Year	Survival Rate to Grade 5 (%)	Transition Rate to Lower Sec. (%)	Survival Rate from Grade 6 to Grade 9	Transition Rate to Upper Sec. (%)
2002/03	…	97.2	77.8	72.2
2003/04	80.5	98.2	81.7	75.0
2004/05	83.5	98.5	84.9	74.6
2005/06	…	97.2	``83.3	75.0

Source: Planning and Finance Department, MOET.
Notes: "``" indicates the apparent decline in the survival rate 2005/06 was due to change in data collection schedule. "…" indicates no data available.

Teachers. The student/teacher ratio for primary school fell from 26.3 in 2001/02 to 20.7 in 2005/06, and for lower secondary level from 25.7 to 21.1.

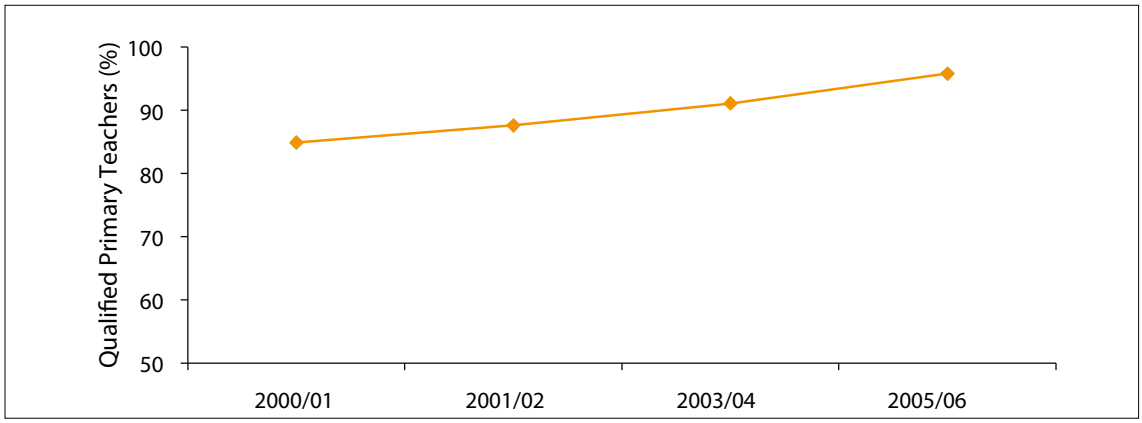
The proportion of primary school teachers with the required academic qualifications rose considerably over the period 2000/01 to 2005/06, as shown in Table 218 and Figure 42.

Table 218: Qualified Primary Teachers (%), 2000/01-2005/06, Viet Nam

Year	% Qualified Primary Teachers
2000/01	84.9
2001/02	87.6
2003/04	91.1
2005/06	95.8

Source: Primary Education Department, MOET.

Figure 42: Qualified Primary Teachers (%), 2000/01-2005/06, Viet Nam



Source: Primary Education Department, MOET.

b. Assessing Progress Using Sub-National Data

The breakdown of the Grade 1 GER and NER by region is shown in Table 219. In school year 2005/06, the Grade 1 GER was highest in the four disadvantaged regions: Mekong River Delta, North West, South East, and Central Highlands. The high Grade 1 GER reflects the challenges to the achievement of correct-age universal primary education in these regions in terms of facilities and teachers. However, it also shows the positive results of efforts to bring schools to children in disadvantaged areas.

In all regions, the NER rose over the period 2001/02 to 2005/06. In general, regions with lower NER in 2001/02 showed higher growth over the period. For example, the Central Highlands region began the period with the lowest NER (88.4%) but showed the highest increase (7.8 points) by 2005/06. The North West region, which began the period with the second lowest NER (89.8%) also showed an increase (46.7 points) to reach 96.5% by 2005/06. Three regions have an NER of over 99%, namely Red River Delta, North Central and South Central. The achievement of 100% NER in all regions is a challenge, as reaching the last few percent may take many years and require tremendous efforts.

Table 219: GER and NER (%) for Grade 1, by Region, 2001/02 and 2005/06, Viet Nam

Region	Gross Enrolment Ratio		Net Enrolment Rate		% Official Age	
	2001/02	2005/06	2001/02	2005/06	2001/02	2005/06
Red River Delta	109.5	102.6	97.4	99.2	88.9	96.7
North East	108.6	105.8	92.5	98.0	85.2	92.6
North West	109.9	107.8	89.8	96.5	81.7	89.5
North Central	107.7	102.0	96.8	99.0	89.9	97.1
South Central	112.3	109.0	95.8	99.4	85.3	91.2
Central Highlands	109.8	108.2	88.4	96.2	80.5	88.9
South East	107.4	103.6	96.7	…	90.0	97.4
Mekong River Delta	121.2	119.4	95.2	98.9	78.5	82.8

Source: Education and Training Statistics, MOET.
Note: "…" indicates no data available.

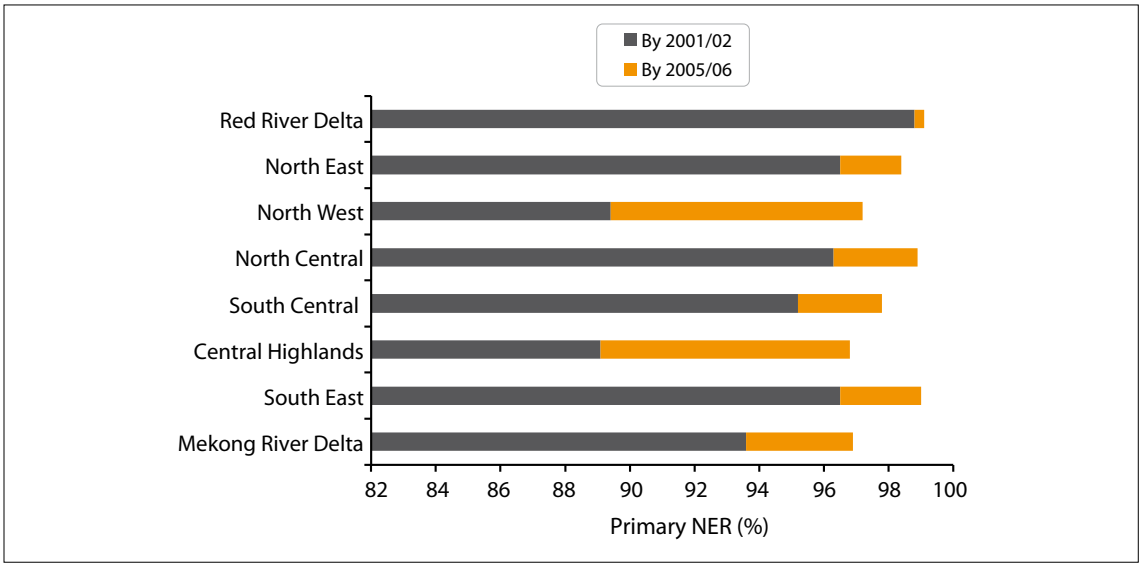
Table 220 shows the GER and NER for primary education as a whole, by region, for 2001/02 and 2005/06. Figure 43 displays the growth in NER between 2001/02 and 2005/06. With the exception of the North West, all regions showed declining GER over the period 2001/02 to 2005/06, and all regions showed rising NER. There was a strong tendency for regions with lower NER at the beginning of the period to show greater gains in NER by the end of the period, leading to a substantial reduction in regional variation.

Table 220: Primary Education GER and NER (%), by Region, 2001/02 and 2005/06, Viet Nam

Region	Gross Enrolment Ratio		Net Enrolment Rate		% Official Age	
	2001/02	2005/06	2001/02	2005/06	2001/02	2005/06
Red River Delta	101.0	100.2	98.8	99.1	97.8	98.9
North East	106.8	103.9	96.5	98.4	90.4	94.7
North West	110.1	111.0	89.4	97.2	81.2	87.6
North Central	108.1	105.3	96.3	98.9	89.1	93.9
South Central	110.7	107.2	95.2	97.8	86.0	91.2
Central Highlands	112.8	109.6	89.1	96.8	79.0	88.3
South East	108.9	104.2	96.5	99.0	88.6	95.0
Mekong River Delta	115.9	114.0	93.6	96.9	80.8	85.0

Source: Education and Training Statistics, MOET.

Figure 43: Primary NER (%), by Region, 2001/02 and 2005/06, Viet Nam



Source: Education and Training Statistics, MOET.

The GER and NER for Grade 6, the first grade of lower secondary school, and for lower secondary as a whole, are shown in Table 221. As 2005/06 data show, some children are not able to attend lower secondary school after dropping out of or completing primary school, especially in northern mountainous, central coastal and Mekong River Delta regions. For example, the disadvantaged regions Mekong River Delta, North West, and Central Highlands have relatively low GERs and NERs, while the South Central region has relatively high GER and NER. However, the two regions with the highest NERs, namely Red River Delta and North Central, have relatively moderate to low GERs. Meanwhile, they also have the highest proportion of "correct age" students in Grade 6. In these two regions, almost all Grade 6 students are at the official Grade 6 age, while in the Mekong River Delta, North West, and Central Highlands regions, over one third of Grade 6 students are outside (almost all above) the official Grade 6 age.

Table 221: GER and NER, % Correct Age, Grade 6, by Region, 2005/06, Viet Nam

Region	Grade 6			Lower Secondary
	GER	NER	% Correct Age	GER (%)
Red River Delta	89.3	81.9	91.7	87.7
North East	94.3	61.1	64.8	88.4
North West	89.1	51.1	57.4	74.5
North Central	91.3	82.6	90.5	90.3
South Central	94.8	78.6	82.9	89.1
Central Highlands	89.9	48.3	53.7	82.1
South East	94.6	69.8	73.8	83.2
Mekong River Delta	87.7	54.4	62.0	75.7

Source: Planning and Finance Department, MOET.

The regional breakdown of GER for lower secondary education as a whole is also shown in Table 221. It can be seen that there is substantial variation among regions, the North Central Regions having the highest GER (over 90%) and the North West Region having the lowest GER (under 75%).

A breakdown of primary and lower secondary school repetition rates by region for 2004/05 is shown in Table 222. Regions with high repetition rates tend also to have high GER. The Red River

Delta has the lowest repetition rate and the lowest GER. The Central Highlands has the highest repetition rate and the third highest GER. The major exception is the Mekong River Delta region, which has a relatively low repetition rate but high GER.

There are several possible reasons for high repetition rates, but the removal of primary school graduation exam from the 2004/05 school year appears have led to a decline in quality among Grade 6 entrants and as a result a rise in repetition rates.

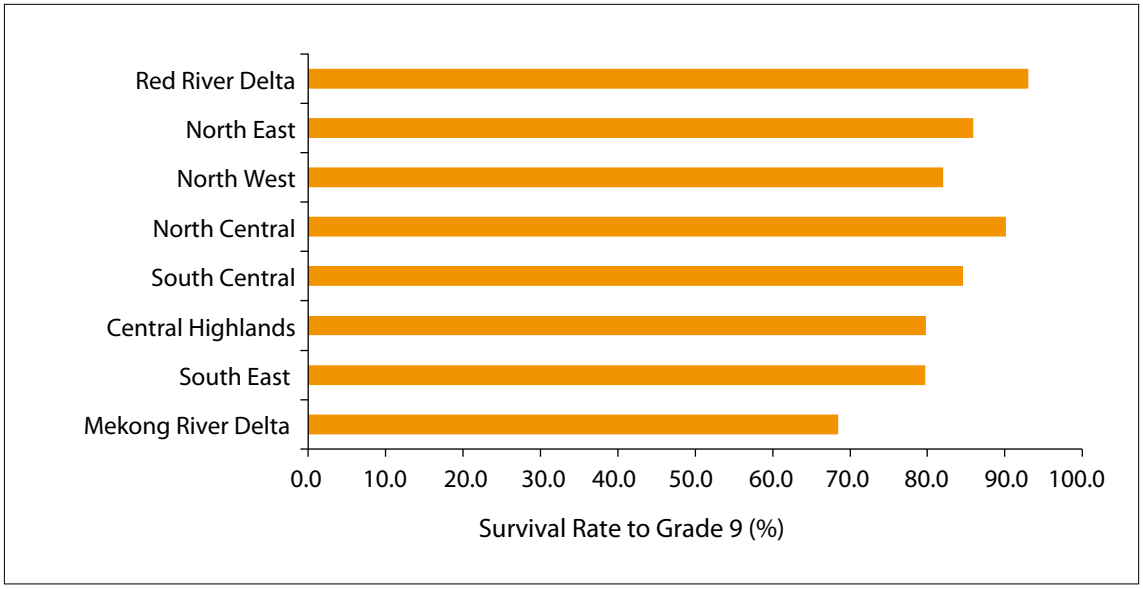
The Survival Rate to Grade 9 varies substantially among the regions, as shown in Table 222 and Figure 44. The Red River Delta and North Central regions both recorded survival rates to Grade 9 of over 90%. The Mekong River Delta recorded the lowest survival rate of under 70%. Thirty provinces were certified as having achieved universal lower secondary education standards during the period 2001 to 2005.

Table 222: Repetition Rate (%), Primary and Lower Secondary and Survival Rate to Grade 9, by Region, 2004/05, Viet Nam

Region	Repetition Rates, 2004/05		Survival Rate to Grade 9
	Primary	Lower Secondary	
Red River Delta	0.15	0.8	93.0
North East	0.87	1.2	85.9
North West	1.32	0.9	82.0
North Central	0.35	0.6	90.1
South Central	0.55	1.5	84.6
Central Highlands	3.18	2.1	79.8
South East	1.14	1.9	79.7
Mekong River Delta	0.84	1.2	68.5

Source: Education and Training Statistics, MOET.

Figure 44: Survival to Grade 9, by Region, 2004/05, Viet Nam



Source: Education and Training Statistics, MOET.

Table 223: Qualified Primary Teachers (%), by Region, 2001/02-2005/06, Viet Nam

Region	Primary			Lower Secondary		
	2001/02	2003/04	2005/06	2001/02	2004/05	2005/06
National	87.6	91.1	95.8	91.1	95.0	96.2
Red River Delta	90.6	97.1	97.1	94.0	96.4	96.9
North East	90.6	91.0	98.2	86.5	91.8	94.5
North West	78.9	93.2	97.8	90.2	91.4	93.0
North Central	86.3	95.3	97.8	87.9	94.3	96.1
South Central	90.0	90.4	98.4	94.0	98.2	97.9
Central Highlands	78.9	85.5	96.4	94.0	96.7	97.6
South East	87.2	91.4	95.5	95.9	97.3	98.3
Mekong River Delta	81.9	84.6	89.3	87.4	95.1	94.5
Maximum	90.6	97.1	98.4	95.9	98.2	98.3
Minimum	78.9	84.6	89.3	86.5	91.4	93.0
Range	11.7	12.5	9.1	9.4	6.8	5.3

Source: Planning and Finance Department, MOET.

Teacher Qualifications. In recent years, local efforts have been made on the implementation of the "Primary Teacher Standardization" policy, which is an important measure to improve primary education quality. In 2001/02, only 88% of primary teachers in the whole country had standard or better qualifications, but by 2005/06, the figure had risen by nearly 7 points to 96%, as seen in Table 223.

The proportion of teachers with standard or higher qualifications has significantly improved, especially in disadvantaged areas. For example, in the half-decade between 2000/01 and 2005/06, the proportion of primary school teachers possessing the required academic qualifications in North West and the Central Highlands regions rose from under 80% to 98% and 96%, respectively. By 2005/06 the maximum value among all regions reached 98%, and the minimum value reached 89%.

At the lower secondary level, only 91% of teachers in the whole country met the standard academic qualifications in 2001/02, but over the half-decade to 2005/06, this proportion rose by more than 5 percentage points to over 96%. In the provinces with the lowest proportion of academically qualified lower secondary school teachers (North East, North Central, and Mekong River Delta regions), the proportion of teachers with the required academic qualifications rose from under 88% to over 94%. The regional variation declined significantly over the period.

Pupil/Teacher Ratio. The Pupil/Teacher Ratio for lower secondary school fell from 25.7 in 2001/02 to 21.1 in 2005/06.

18.2.3 Analysis of Disparities in UBE in Viet Nam

a. Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality in UBE

Gender. The data provided do not allow direct calculation of the GPI for the GER, but with some simple assumptions it is possible to estimate the GPI, as shown in Table 224. The table shows that the GER for primary enrolment is slightly higher for boys than for girls; as a result the GPI is 0.97, which meets the criterion for gender parity. The net enrolment figures by gender were not provided, so the GPI for NER cannot be estimated. Similarly, the GPI for lower secondary enrolment is estimated at 0.98.

Table 224: Enrolment, GER, GPI for Primary and Lower Secondary, 2005/06, Viet Nam

	Primary			Lower Secondary		
	Population Age 6-10	Gross Enrolment	GER (%)	Population Age 11-15	Gross Enrolment	GER (%)
Total	7,164,180	7,317,813	102.1	7,626,380	6,445,364	84.5
Male	*3,675,224*	3,812,187	103.7	3,926,886	3,345,105	85.2
Female	*3,488,956*	3,505,626	100.5	3,699,494	3,100,259	83.8
Estimated GPI			0.97			0.98

Sources: Education and Training Statistics, MOET; General Statistics Office (GSO, 2008).
Notes: The figures in italics are estimated. The Population Total was reported, but the number of males and females was not. The estimates are based on the proportions of males and females for the age 6-10 age cohorts in the 1999 census, namely 51.3% and 48.7% respectively. See Statistical Notes.

Ethnic Minority Children. The ethnic minority population in Viet Nam accounts for 13.8% of total population (1999 Census). Due to difficulties in geographical conditions, language barriers, and slow socio-economic development, ethnic minority students often face a number of learning challenges. According to Article 102 of the Education Law, the State budget for education must reflect the State's priority policy towards educational development in ethnic minority areas.

The government has a policy on free provision of textbooks, notebooks, learning aids, and some types of newspapers and magazines for ethnic minority students. Boarding schools in districts, communes and commune clusters, as well as community-based semi-boarding schools and classes continue to be built for receiving ethnic minority children. Since 2002/03, students in disadvantaged ethnic group areas have been provided with textbooks and writing paper. Development of bilingual books is underway in order to help children from some ethnic minority groups with written scripts to support learning. Some communities provide Vietnamese language strengthening classes for pre-school children in ethnic minority areas before entering Grade 1.

Over the period 2001/02 to 2005/06, the proportion of ethnic minority students among total primary students increased gradually, as shown in Table 225. The proportion of ethnic minority students in lower secondary school increased year by year over the period 2001/02 to 2005/06, from 12% to 14%, or some four percentage points below that in primary schools.

Table 225: Enrolment, Ethnic Minority Children, 2001/02-2005/06, Viet Nam

School-year	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06
Primary					
Total students	9,331,010	8,814,004	8,350,191	7,773,484	7,317,813
Ethnic minority students	1,631,000	1,584,087	1,476,401	14,38,385	1,350,319
Percent	17.5	18.0	17.7	18.5	18.5
Lower Secondary					
Total students	6,253,525	6,497,548	6,612,099	6,670,714	6,445,364
Ethnic minority students	…	794,572	845,681	906,043	919,477
Percent	…	12.2	12.7	13.5	14.2

Source: Education and Training Statistics, MOET.
Note: "…" indicates no data available.

Children with Disabilities. Inclusive education is one of the main strategies for providing learning opportunities for children with disabilities. The Education Law, with regulations on the education for children with disabilities, has contributed to raising public awareness and creating conditions for children with disabilities to participate in the national education system. Most provinces provide inclusive classes for children with disabilities. Thousands of primary school teachers have been trained for teaching children with disabilities. The target is to reach 70% of children with disabilities by 2010.

According to a 2005 survey data, there were about 700,000 primary school-age children with disabilities, or about 1.2% of the population. As a result of measures such as special education and inclusive education, the proportion of children with disabilities benefiting from primary education increased rapidly between 2002/03 and 2005/06, as shown in Table 226 and Figure 45. By far the largest increase has come in the form of inclusive education, which increased more than three-fold over the period. The figure of 31% for children with disabilities in inclusive education, however, should be compared with the NER of 98% for the primary school-age population at large, so the considerable efforts made in recent years need to continue.

Table 226: Children with Disabilities in Primary School, 2002/03-2005/06, Viet Nam

	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06
Primary School Age Children with Disabilities	768,000	752,000	736,000	721,000
Enrolled in Inclusive Education	70,000	100,000	120,700	223,700
Enrolled in Special Education	7,000	7,500	12,900	6,900
% Enrolled in Inclusive Education	9.1	13.3	16.4	31.0
% Enrolled in Special Education	0.9	1.0	1.8	1.0
% Total	10.0	14.3	18.2	32.0

Source: Education and Training Statistics, MOET.
Note: Figures for 2002/03 and 2004/05 are estimates.

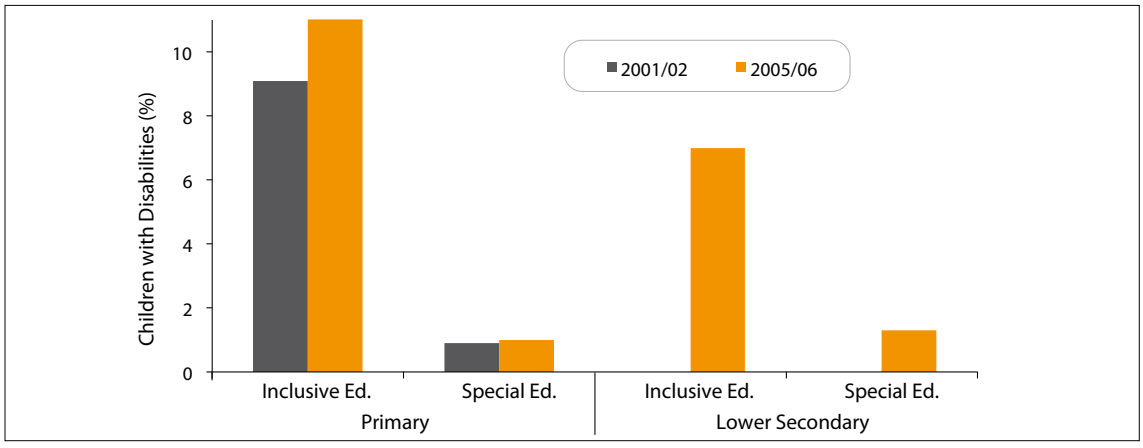
The number of children with disabilities enrolled in lower secondary school is displayed in Table 227 and Figure 45. The proportion of children with disabilities enrolled in lower secondary school is only one fourth that in primary school, as shown in Table 226, and approximately one tenth the NER at lower secondary level nationally, as shown in Table 215.

Table 227: Children with Disabilities in Lower Secondary School, 2005/06, Viet Nam

	2005/06
Lower Secondary School-Age Children with Disabilities	454,359
Enrolled in Inclusive Education	31,805
Enrolled in Special Education	6,042
% Enrolled in Inclusive Education	7.0
% Enrolled in Special Education	1.3
% Total	8.3

Source: Workshop on inclusive education for people with disabilities at lower and upper secondary levels in Viet Nam.

Figure 45: Children with Disabilities in Lower Secondary School, 2001/02 and 2005/06, Viet Nam



Source: Workshop on inclusive education for people with disabilities at lower and upper secondary levels in Viet Nam.

b. Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached"

For both primary and lower secondary school, gender equality appears to have been achieved. Nevertheless, more remains to be done to assure that instructional materials and methods are gender neutral.

For primary schooling there are no fees, and the indirect costs of primary schooling can be covered through subsidies for disadvantaged children. For lower secondary education, disadvantaged students can pay reduced fees or be exempted. This policy has a general pro-poor impact.

Although there has been dramatic expansion in the number of children with disabilities in inclusive education and special education, much more needs to be done in both inclusive education and special education, especially at the secondary level.

c. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goal

There have been major developments in all aspects of basic education. In expansion of access, the target was exceeded. Gender parity seems to have been achieved in primary education. The proportion of ethnic minority children enrolled in schools have risen yearly, stabilizing at 18% of total primary students, near the population proportion. The repetition rate has fallen below the targets set for 2005/06, and the drop-out rate has fallen to the target levels for Grades 1 and 5.

In the improvement of quality, the pupil/teacher and teacher/class ratios have met or surpassed the targets. The contents of curriculum and textbooks have been renovated and made more relevant to students' abilities. Teachers' pedagogical skills and subject matter knowledge have been enhanced, and teaching methods have been renovated to motivate students' activeness. The majority of teachers have participated in continuing in-service training programmes for primary teachers for the 2003 to 2007 period, and nearly 96% of all primary teachers had achieved minimum standard or higher qualifications by 2005/06. In recent years, the "primary teacher standardization" policy has been implemented as an important measure to improve lower secondary education quality.

In the improvement of management and efficiency, steering documents on education and training activities have been provided on education renovation, pre-service and in-service teacher training, school development, and education development so as to be relevant to each location (urban/rural, advantaged/disadvantaged, delta/mountainous). Community participation in the development process has been encouraged. Leadership and management activities have become more efficient and routine, and monitoring and regular assessment have shown significant improvements.

International cooperation with both governmental and non-governmental organizations has improved, especially in EFA related programmes.

Box 9: Establishment of Schools which Meet FSQL National Standards, Viet Nam

Schools Achieving National Standards, by Region, Viet Nam

	Primary			Lower Secondary		
	Total	Number	%	Total	Number	%
National	14,229	4,029	28	9,386	428	4.6
Red River Delta	2,491	1,428	57	2,260	175	7.7
North East	1,834	550	30	1,624	56	3.4
North West	554	77	14	544	13	2.4
North Central	2,336	1,133	49	1,625	71	4.4
South Central	1,142	308	27	663	78	11.8
Central Highlands	978	126	13	543	1	0.2
South East	1,749	97	6	840	18	2.1
Mekong River Delta	3,145	310	10	1,287	16	1.2

Source: Primary Education Department, MOET.

During the period 2001 to 2005, the MOET issued rules on the certification of primary and lower secondary schools achieving the national standards. Fundamental School Quality Level (FSQL) scores are based on a 100-point scale. The MOET issued rules on the certification of national standard primary schools on two levels:

- Level 1: Necessary conditions for primary schools to provide quality teaching and learning; and
- Level 2: Necessary conditions for primary schools to provide high quality teaching and learning and come closer to regional and international standards.

d. Remaining Challenges and Issues

Although 30 provinces and cities have achieved the "correct-age" universal primary education, this achievement needs to be compared with the target of 40 provinces or cities to achieve this objective by 2005.

The transition rate into lower secondary school is still low for various reasons, such as low achievement level, difficult economic conditions, and the long distance and duration to travel to schools. Some children with serious disabilities have not been provided with early interventions in order to attend inclusive classes in lower secondary schools. Due to difficulties in geographical conditions, language barriers and slow socio-economic development, some ethnic minority students face a number of learning challenges.

At present, most provinces provide inclusive classes for children with disabilities, and thousands of lower secondary teachers have been trained to teach children with disabilities, but there is a need to accelerate the mobilization of children with disabilities so that 70% of children with disabilities will be in schools by 2010.

18.3 Goal Three: Life Skills and Lifelong Learning in Viet Nam

18.3.1 Background and Development of Life Skills and Non-Formal Education in Viet Nam

a. Definition of Life Skills and Lifelong Learning

"Life skills" is defined as the ability to use knowledge and skills in community relationships and production in income generation.

The objectives for the EFA NAP are: (a) To ensure that all out-of-school youth in primary and lower secondary school age have opportunities to achieve primary and lower secondary schooling; (b) To ensure that all adults, especially women and disadvantaged groups, have access to free and quality literacy and post-literacy programmes and to affordable and quality life skills programmes and lifelong learning opportunities; (c) To improve quality, relevance, and results of all continuing education programmes for youth and adults (up to age 40); (d) To develop a comprehensive national strategy for affordable and relevant continuing education, lifelong learning opportunities and to build a learning society; and (e) To strengthen the management capacity of NFE and continuing education at the local level.

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

The government has a number of policies on NFE and continuing education development in order to provide second learning opportunities for edwucationally disadvantaged groups, and continuing and lifelong learning opportunities for those in need, including the following:

- Decision No. 201/2001/QD-TTg in 2001 on the approval of the Education Development Strategic Plan for 2001-2010;
- Decision No. 112/2005/QD-TTg in 2005 on continuing education and creation of a learning society;
- Decision No. 164/2005/QD-TTg in 2005 on the Distance Education Development Project for 2005-2010;
- Decision No. 48/2002/QD-BGD&DT in 2002 on the implementation of the new complementary education curriculum;
- Decision No. 40/2003/QD-BGD&DT in 2003 on the regulations of training organizations, examinations, testing, and certification for distance education programmes;
- Decision No. 03/2005/QD-BGD&DT in 2005 on the regulation of the third cycle of continuing in-service training for teachers from pre-schools, primary, lower secondary, upper secondary, complementary education, continuing education schools, and the comprehensive technical and career orientation centres;
- MOET Official Document No. 2016/GDTX in 2005 on the operations of commune-level community learning centres;
- Decision No. 01/2007/QD-BGD&DT in 2007 regarding the regulation of the organization and operations of continuing education centres;
- Decision No. 02/2007/QD-BGD&DT in 2007 on the assessment and grading of learners following continuing education programmes at lower and upper secondary levels; and
- Decision No. 13/2007/QD-BGD&DT in 2007 on the issuance of anti-illiteracy and post-literacy programmes.

c. Target Populations for Life Skills and Lifelong Learning Programmes

Target groups are those aged 15+ who are unable to enter formal education or need support to increase income.

d. Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Groups

Some disadvantaged groups can benefit from the development of Community Learning Centres (CLCs), financed either by the central government or from international agencies. Others can benefit from exemption of lower secondary school fees or reduced fees and subsidies to cover the indirect costs of schooling.

18.3.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Viet Nam

Table 228: Youth Literacy (%) (Age 15-25), by Ethnicity, Rural/Urban, Sex and GPI, 2000-2004, Viet Nam

	2000	2002	2004
Total	93.8	95.9	96.6
Ethnic Minority	…	84.9	88.3
Rural	92.8	95.2	96.0
Urban	97.0	98.3	98.6
Rural/Urban Parity Ratio	0.96	0.97	0.97
Male	94.0	96.0	97.0
Female	93.5	95.8	96.2
GPI	0.99	1.00	0.99

Source: Household Living Standards Survey, General Statistics Office.
Note: "…" indicates no data available.

Nationally, the literacy rate for youth aged 15-25 (compared to the 15-24 international standard) is relatively high and increased over the period 2000 to 2004, from 94% to 97%, as shown in Table 228. The literacy rate of ethnic minority youth is substantially lower than the national average, but in the two year period 2002 to 2004, the literacy rate increased more among ethnic minorities than in the total population.

The difference between rural and urban literacy rates fell from over 4.21 percentage points in 2000 to under 3 points in 2004. The Rural/Urban Parity Ratio rose from 0.96 to 0.97, which could meaningfully be considered to indicate parity between rural and urban literacy rates.

The literacy rate for female youth has been less than one percentage point below that of male youth, and the gender parity index has varied between 0.99 and 1.00, well within the criterion range for gender parity.

Table 229: Youth Literacy (%) (Age 15-25), by Region, 2000-2004, Viet Nam

	2000	2002	2004
Red River Delta	98.9	99.1	99.2
North East	90.8	94.4	97.1
North West	75.5	83.0	84.5
North Central	96.1	98.1	98.4
South Central	96.0	97.5	98.0
Central Highlands	88.0	91.1	92.8
South East	94.9	96.8	97.0
Mekong River Delta	91.7	94.1	94.9
Maximum	98.9	99.1	99.2
Minimum	75.5	83.0	84.5
Range	23.4	16.0	14.8

Source: Household Living Standards Survey, General Statistics Office.

There is substantial regional variation in literacy rates, but this variation fell considerably between 2000 and 2004, as shown in Table 229. While the highest value among regions was stable at 99%, the lowest value rose by 9 percentage points to over 84%. The range of variation fell from 23% to 15%. The highest illiteracy rates were among ethnic minority women in mountainous areas (North West and Central Highlands) and the Mekong River Delta. By 2004, youth literacy rates were well above 90% in all regions except the North West region, which had shown the largest gain between 2000 and 2004.

Figure 46, page 221 below, displays development of both youth and adult literacy by region.

18.3.3 Analysis of Disparities in Life Skills in Viet Nam

a. Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality in Life Skills, NFE, and TVET

As shown in Table 228 above, gender disparities in youth literacy are minimal, and gender parity has been achieved. Even the rural/urban equity ratio reaches the criterion level for parity. However, between the population as a whole and ethnic minorities, disparities remain, but progress towards parity has been rapid.

b. Progress in Improving Quality of Life Skills, NFE, and TVET

It is the objective of the government to improve quality, relevance and results of all continuing education programmes (complementary primary and lower secondary programmes, literacy, post-literacy and life skills programmes), but there is a lack of resources for the CLCs, especially teachers, instructional materials, and facilities.

c. Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached"

The programmes are designed to reach those who have not had sufficient educational opportunities or who need to improve their literacy skills or productive skills. There may be groups who are not yet well served by the programmes, such as persons with disabilities or persons affected by HIV/AIDS, or persons who live in difficult circumstances.

d. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goal

The network of CLCs has been expanded rapidly nationwide: The target for 2006 was a total of 5,300 CLCs, but the actual number was 7,384. The target for district-level continuing education centres was 494, but by 2005/06 there were 577.

Many people have been provided with access to diverse life skills and lifelong learning programmes, especially through the establishment of CLCs. In 2005/06, there were 6.3 million participants, which greatly surpassed the target of 3.2 million.

From 2000 to late 2007, there has been strong improvement in the access to continuing education, literacy, post-literacy, lower secondary complementary education and life skills programmes. A number of out-of-school children from 6-11 and 11-14 years old have been provided with opportunities to enrol in "universal education" (primary and lower secondary), and primary and lower secondary complementary education classes. The number of learners in primary and lower secondary complementary programmes rose considerably in the past five years.

e. Remaining Challenges and Issues

The main challenges related to access are the following:

- The access by ethnic minorities, especially Hmong, Bahnar and Giarai groups, and those in the Mekong River Delta, North West and Central Highlands is still limited;
- Female literacy has improved most considerably in the last 5 years, but the literacy rate for females is still lower than for males;
- Many out-of-school youth and adults have not been provided with opportunities to attend complementary education classes at primary and lower secondary levels; and
- Many adults, especially women and disadvantaged groups, have not been provided with opportunities to participate in training, theme-based training, and life skills programmes.

18.4 Goal Four: Literacy in Viet Nam

18.4.1 Background and Development of Literacy Acquisition in Viet Nam

a. Definition of Literacy

The literacy programme covers basic literacy (reading, writing, speaking, listening comprehension) and numeracy. Literacy is assessed by examination in Vietnamese language. In ethnic minority areas, literacy is also measured in ethnic languages for which scripts are available. Some 10-13 ethnic minority languages have scripts.

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

There are formal literacy classes held in CLCs and in district level continuing education centres. The central budget provides teacher salaries, but the main financial source for other continuing education comes from "education socialization activities" (raising demand), community participation, local agencies, socio-economic organizations, employers, and learners. There are no projects or targeted programmes on continuing education.

c. Strategies and Programmes for Disadvantaged Groups

Teaching and learning materials are developed for CLCs to support young adults. Support is provided for minority groups based on learning materials developed to meet needs of minorities. Local languages are used where scripts have been developed. The policy is to continue developing CLCs and continuing education centres in district and provincial areas throughout the country.

18.4.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Viet Nam

Literacy rates for youth (age 15-25) are shown in Table 228, page 217 above, which shows the following findings:

- The youth literacy rate increased over the period 2000 to 2004 from 94% to 97%;
- The literacy rate of ethnic minority youth increased from 85% in 2002 to 88% in 2004;
- The literacy rate for rural youth increased from 93% to 96%, bringing the Rural/Urban Parity Ratio to 0.97; and
- The gender parity index has varied between 0.99 and 1.00, which is well within the criterion range for gender parity.

Table 230: Adult Literacy (%) (Age 15+), by Sex, Ethnicity, Rural/Urban, Sex and GPI, 2000-2004, Viet Nam

	2000	2002	2004
Total	89.9	91.7	92.1
Ethnic Minority	…	75.3	77.1
Rural	88.5	90.4	90.8
Urban	94.3	95.8	96.1
Rural/Urban Parity Ratio	0.94	0.94	0.94
Male	93.6	94.8	92.7
Female	86.5	88.8	90.2
GPI	0.92	0.94	0.97

Source: Household Living Standards Survey, General Statistics Office.
Note: "…" indicates no data available.

Adult literacy rates (age 15+) are shown in Table 230. Over the period 2000 to 2004, the total adult literacy rate increased from just under 90% to over 92%. The adult literacy rate has been increasing at approximately the same rate in rural areas as in urban areas, and as a result the Rural/Urban Parity Ratio did not change.

The female literacy rate (age 15+) increased substantially, from 86% to 90%, resulting in a GPI of 0.97 and hence the achievement of gender parity in this indicator. The adult literacy rate (age 15+) for ethnic minorities increased by nearly 2 percentage points between 2002 and 2004, but remains low at 77%.

Table 231: Adult Literacy Rate (%) (Age 15+), by Region, 2000-2004, Viet Nam

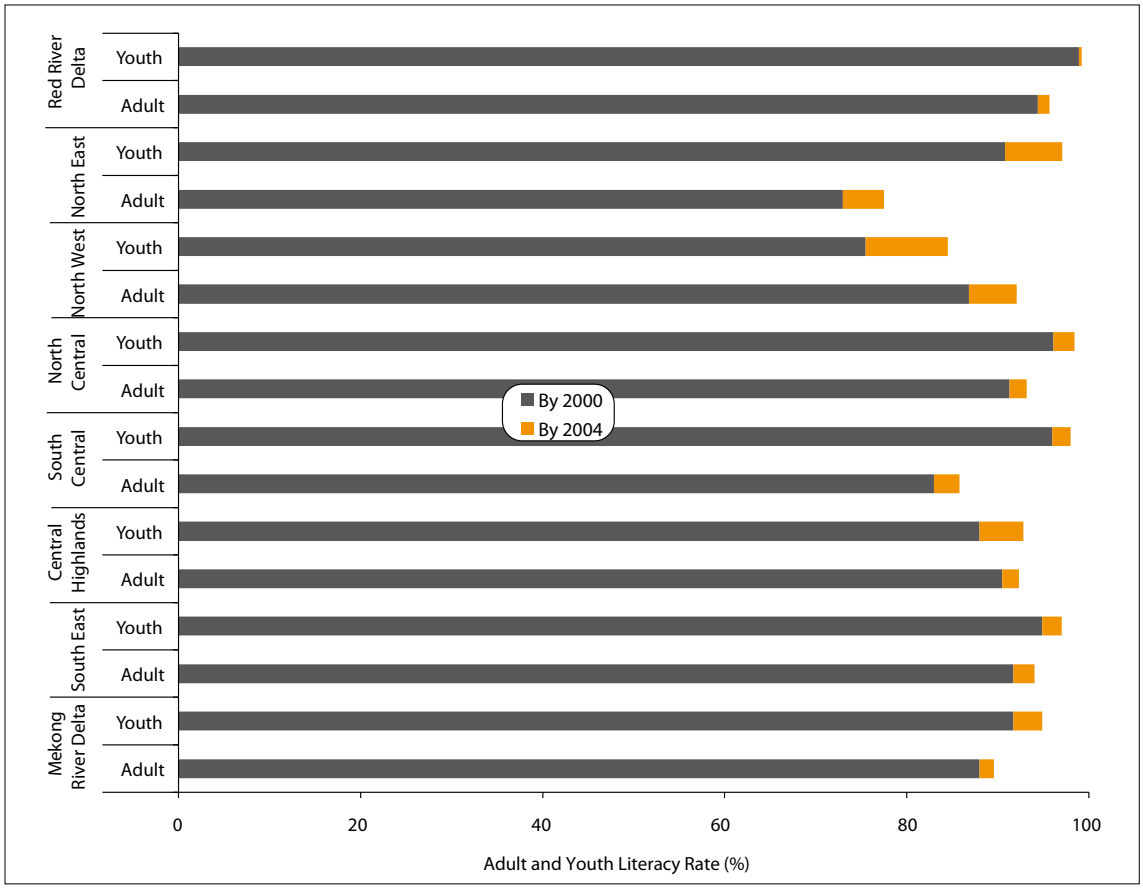
	2000	2002	2004
Red River Delta	94.4	95.4	95.7
North East	73.0	78.7	77.5
North West	86.8	90.1	92.1
North Central	91.3	94.0	93.2
South Central	83.0	84.9	85.8
Central Highlands	90.5	92.4	92.3
South East	91.7	93.6	94.0
Mekong River Delta	88.0	88.9	89.6
Maximum	94.4	95.4	95.7
Minimum	73.0	78.7	77.5
Range	21.4	16.7	18.2

Source: Household Living Standards Survey, General Statistics Office.

The adult literacy rates have increased in all geographical regions, as shown in Table 231 and Figure 46. However, adult literacy rates tended to increase more in regions with the lowest rates. As a result, the range between the regions with the highest and lowest adult literacy rates fell from 21% to 18%.

The highest illiteracy rates were among ethnic minority women in mountainous areas in the North West (with high concentration of Hmong people), Central Highlands (with high concentration of Bahnar and Giarai), and Mekong River Delta. These regions face various difficulties, such as poor socio-economic conditions, out-of-date customs, low perceptions on learning by the community, and lack of transportation. Table 231 above shows that by region, the North East had the lowest adult literacy rate, up nearly 78% in 2004.

Figure 46: Adult and Youth Literacy Rates (%), by Region, 2000 and 2004, Viet Nam



Source: Household Living Standards Survey, General Statistics Office.

Table 232: GPI for Youth and Adult Literacy, 2000-2004, Viet Nam

	2000	2002	2004
Youth (Age 15-24)	0.99	1.00	0.99
Adult (Age 15 +)	0.92	0.94	0.97

Source: Household Living Standards Survey, General Statistics Office.

Table 232, which summarises findings presented in Table 228 and Table 230 above, shows that gender parity in literacy had been reached among youth already by 2000 and was reached among adults of age 15+ by 2004.

18.4.3 Analysis of Disparities in Literacy in Viet Nam

a. Progress in Achieving Gender and Social Equality in Literacy

Gender parity has been achieved for both youth and adult literacy. For youth literacy, the rural/urban parity ratio rose, but for adults it remained constant. Literacy rates for ethnic groups improved significantly for both youth and adults.

b. Progress in Improving Quality of Literacy Training

Teaching and learning materials have been developed for CLCs to support young adults. Learning materials have been developed to meet needs of ethnic minorities, and local languages have been used where scripts are available. The policy is to continue developing CLCs and continuing education centres in district and provincial areas throughout the country.

c. Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached"

The central public expenditure partly supports the development of curriculum, material development, teacher and manager training, and physical facilities for disadvantaged and ethnic minority areas. Although the public expenditure on continuing education has been low, priority has been given to disadvantaged and ethnic minority areas.

d. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goal

The 2007 literacy targets have been met, and it can be expected that the 2015 targets will also be met.

The CLCs have proven highly successful in providing an institutional environment for literacy learning, especially for out-of-school youth and adults.

e. Remaining Challenges and Issues

A remaining challenge is to maintain secured literacy after completion of literacy training programmes. In order to develop and maintain sustainable continuing education programmes, CLCs, and continuing education centres, it is necessary to strengthen demand for continuing education and to mobilize various resources for education in addition to the public budget.

There is a need for the coordination between the education sector and other social organizations, especially youth and women associations, in order to provide education access for female youth.

One of the barriers to literacy development is that many of the illiterate are poor and live in remote and mountainous areas.

18.5 Goal Five: Gender Equality in Education in Viet Nam

18.5.1 Background and Development of Gender Parity and Equality in Viet Nam

a. National Policy and Legislation for Gender Equality

Viet Nam signed the CEDAW in 1980. The Law on Gender Equality ensures rights of males and females against all types of discrimination. The EFA NAP aims to provide access to affordable and quality primary and lower secondary education for children, especially ethnic minority and disadvantaged children, and girls. The Comprehensive Poverty Reduction and Growth Strategy also defines gender parity targets in the education programmes.

b. Strategies and Programmes for Achieving Gender Equality

The gender programmes, run by the MOET in coordination with the Viet Nam Women Association and the National Committee on Women's Advancement, aim at gender parity in education and training.

18.5.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Viet Nam

a. Assessing Progress Using Time Series Data

Table 233: GPI for GERs for ECCE, Primary, Lower Secondary, 2000/01-2005/06, Viet Nam

Year	ECCE GER	Primary GER	Lower Sec. GER
2000/01	1.06	…	…
2001/02	0.98	*0.95*	…
2002/03	1.03	*0.95*	0.96
2003/04	1.01	*0.95*	0.95
2004/05	1.03	*0.95*	0.98
2005/06	0.97	*0.97*	0.98

Source: Planning and Finance Department, MOET and Population Department, GSO.
Notes: "…" indicates no data available. Figures in italics are estimates based on the assumption that the proportion of girls in the primary school age population (6-10 years) is 48.7. See Statistical Notes.

The GPIs for GERs for ECCE, primary education and lower secondary schooling are given in Table 233. For gross enrolment at all three levels, gender parity had been achieved by 2005/06, if not before. GPI for youth literacy rates had reached gender parity before 2000, and adult literacy had achieved gender parity by 2004.

Table 234: Female Teachers (%), Primary and Lower Secondary, 2001/02-2005/06, Viet Nam

Year	Primary	Lower Secondary
2001/02	77.8	69.6
2002/03	78.0	68.9
2003/04	78.3	68.2
2004/05	78.0	68.1
2005/06	78.1	67.6

Source: Information Centre, MOET.

The percentage of female teachers at primary level has been relatively high nationwide, as seen in Table 234. The distribution has been relatively stable, with a possible trend toward an increasing proportion of women teachers. The proportion of female teachers at lower secondary level is around 10 points lower than at primary level, and a small but clear trend toward decline is visible.

b. Assessing Progress Using Sub-National Data

Table 235: GPI for GERs for ECCE, Primary and Lower Secondary, by Region, 2005/06, Viet Nam

Region	ECCE	Primary	Lower Secondary
Red River Delta	0.97	0.99	0.98
North East	0.95	0.95	0.96
North West	0.99	0.85	0.82
North Central	0.95	1.02	1.01
South Central	1.05	0.98	0.98
Central Highland	1.00	0.97	1.02
South East	1.07	0.97	0.99
Mekong Delta	0.93	0.95	0.97

Source: Information Centre, MOET.

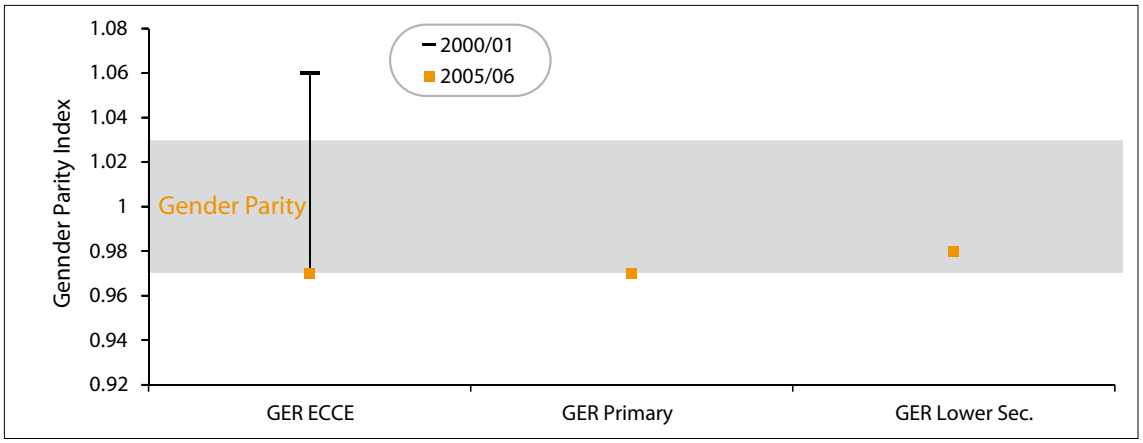
Although there are regional variations in the GPI for gross enrolment for ECCE and primary and lower secondary schooling, the differences are generally small, the exception being the North West region with quite low GPI for primary and lower secondary schooling, as seen in Table 235. The greatest variation is for ECCE. For lower secondary, only two regions are outside the range of gender parity.

18.5.3 Analysis of Gender Disparities in Viet Nam

In general, the GPI is close to- and approaching 1.00 for the gross enrolment ratio for ECCE and primary and lower secondary schooling. Three-quarters of primary school teachers and two-thirds of lower secondary teachers are women. The gender balance for lower secondary school teachers improved somewhat over the period 2001/02 to 2005/06. No evidence is available, however, for the GPI for net enrolment rates. Nor are there gender breakdowns related to ethnicity or urban/rural/remote location. It is known, however, that in some ethnic communities and in some rural areas, gender disparities remain a challenge.

The overall progress toward gender parity can be displayed as in Figure 47.

Figure 47: GPI Summary for ECCE, Primary and Lower Secondary, 2000/01 and 2005/06, Viet Nam



Source: Table 233.

18.6 Goal Six: Quality of Education in Viet Nam

18.6.1 Developments in the Provision of Quality Education in Viet Nam

Quality is seen in relation to outcomes, as assessed by examination and by large scale sample surveys of student performance.

One of Viet Nam's implementation strategies of the National EFA Action Plan is "moving from quantity to quality and relevance". Improvement of quality involves: (a) Renovation of curriculum, contents, and teaching methods; (b) Teacher development and training to meet professional education and training qualifications; (c) Assessment of student learning achievements; and (d) Improvement of learning environments and learning outcome quality. Curricula and textbooks have been renovated for the whole education system, covering Grades 1-12. Skills of teachers and education managers have been upgraded. The quality targets for 2007 have been met, and it is expected that the targets for 2015 will also be met.

One of the most important developments for quality improvement in basic education was the establishment of "Fundamental School Quality Levels", which regulate minimum quality standards nationwide (see Box 9, page 215 above).

Policy for support of ethnic and other disadvantaged groups includes construction of permanent schools ("concretization", i.e., build with concrete instead of bamboo) and consolidation of small schools. Free textbooks and learning materials are provided for poor children, including ethnic minorities. Efforts are made to ensure appropriate conditions of living and professional activities of teachers who work in remote, ethnic, and mountainous areas. Six ODA loan projects funded by the World Bank and donor agencies are targeted on disadvantaged children and youth at primary, lower secondary, and upper secondary levels.

18.6.2 Progress Achieved in Selected EFA MDA Core Indicators in Viet Nam

a. Assessing Progress Using Times Series Data

The Survival Rate to Grade 5 increased by more than 3 percentage points between 2003/04 and 2004/05. Combined with the increase in NER shown in Table 212, page 204 above, this shows a very significant increase in the proportion of each age cohort surviving to Grade 5 and a rapid approach to universal primary education.

Survival rates to Grade 9, the final grade in lower secondary school, are shown in Table 217, page 207. Over the period 2002/03 to 2005/06, the survival rate has increased gradually by more than 5 percentage points. The increased survival rate is a result of declines in the repetition and drop-out rates. In addition, the number of drop-outs who came back to school also rose.

Teachers. In recent years, local efforts have been made on the implementation of "primary teacher standardisation" policy, which is an important measure to improve the quality of primary education. In 2001/02, only 88% of teachers had standard or higher levels of qualifications. This number increased in the following years to 96% by 2005/06. The proportion of teachers with standard or higher qualifications has significantly improved, especially in disadvantaged areas, as seen in Table 223, page 211.

At the lower secondary level, only 91% of lower secondary school teachers in the whole country met the standard academic qualifications, but over the half-decade to 2005/06 this proportion rose by more than 5 percentage points to over 96%, as seen in Table 223. In the provinces with the lowest proportion of academically qualified lower secondary school teachers (North East, North Central, and Mekong River Delta Regions), the proportion of teachers with the required academic qualifications rose from under 88% to over 94%. The regional variation declined significantly over the period.

The pupil/teacher ratio for primary school fell from 26.3 in 2001/02 to 20.7 in 2005/06, and for lower secondary level from 25.7 to 21.1.

Table 236: Pupil/Teacher Ratio, Primary and Lower Secondary, 2001/02-2005/06, Viet Nam

	2001/02	2005/06
Primary	26.3	20.7
Lower Secondary	25.7	21.1

Source: Information Centre, MOET.

Over the period 2001 to 2006, the Student/Teacher Ratios at both primary and lower secondary level have significantly improved as a result of continuous primary teacher training in order to meet the teacher demand in all regions and to move towards full-day schooling.

Over the period 2001/02 to 2005/06, the mean Student/Class Ratio declined in all regions, at both primary and lower secondary level, as shown in Table 237. Although all regions showed declining ratios at both levels, the range between the highest and lowest values however, increased at both levels.

Strikingly, in each year for which data are given, for both primary and lower secondary, the South East Region has the highest Pupil/Class Ratio, while the North West Region has the lowest.

b. Assessing Progress Using Sub-National Data

The Survival Rate to Grade 9 varies substantially among the regions, as shown in Table 222 and Figure 44, page 210. The Red River Delta and North Central regions both recorded Survival Rates to Grade 9 of over 90%. The Mekong River Delta recorded the lowest survival rate with under 70%. Thirty provinces were certified as having achieved universal lower secondary education standards during the period 2001to 2005.

Table 237: Pupil/Class Ratio, Primary and Lower Secondary, by Region, 2001/02-2005/06, Viet Nam

School-year	Primary			Lower Secondary		
	2001/02	2004/05	2005/06	2001/02	2004/05	2005/06
National	29.6	26.9	26.4	40.6	39.2	37.9
Red River Delta	32.5	30.4	30.1	41.5	40.0	39.1
North East	23.9	20.8	20.2	37.5	35.5	33.7
North West	22.2	19.5	18.7	33.9	31.3	29.5
North Central	29.7	27.1	26.2	40.9	39.9	38.8
South Central	31.6	28.2	30.0	41.3	41.2	40.4
Central Highlands	30.4	28.6	27.7	41.4	39.3	34.5
South East	33.4	30.5	30.9	43.0	41.7	41.2
Mekong River Delta	29.6	26.9	26.5	40.4	39.5	38.8
Maximum	33.4	30.5	30.9	43.0	41.7	41.2
Minimum	22.2	19.5	18.7	33.9	31.3	29.5
Range	11.2	11.1	12.2	9.1	10.4	11.7

Source: Education and Training Statistics, MOET.

There are no precise statistics on the Students/Textbook Ratio, but the government has implemented a number of support policies to ensure that 100% of primary and lower secondary students have enough textbooks.

Table 238: Public Expenditure on Education, 2003 and 2006, Viet Nam

	2003	2006
Education as % of GNP	3.6	4.6
Education as % of Total Gov. Exp.	16.2	18.4

Source: Planning and Finance Department, MOET.

Public Expenditure on Education. From 2003 to 2006, public expenditure on education increased considerably, both as a proportion of GNP and as a proportion of the total government budget, as shown in Table 238.

18.6.3 Analysis of Disparities in Quality in Viet Nam

a. Progress in Achieving Quality Across the EFA Goals

At the national level, significant progress has been made in the improvement of quality of primary and lower secondary education, and the limited evidence available suggests that progress is widespread across the regions, even if there remain significant disparities. No evidence is available concerning progress in the quality of ECCE or life skills, and continuing education.

b. Cross-Cutting Issues and Addressing the "Unreached"

Measures have been taken to address the specific problems of disadvantaged children, especially ethnic group children living in remote areas, but no evidence on the specific progress made is presented.

c. Overall Progress and Best Practices for Achieving the Goal

The best practice has been "Say no to untruthful assessment on student performance and cheating in the examination". In the past, assessment of students was not a genuine reflection of their abilities. Truthfulness in evaluation campaign and the campaign against cheating started two years ago. Repetition rates may be higher, but this is better than false assessment of student achievement. This also requires teachers to pay more attention to the learning process.

d. Remaining Challenges and Issues

The quality of teaching and learning processes needs to be further improved in the existing stock of teachers. In some cases the shortage of budget does not allow provision of appropriate teaching and learning conditions. There still remain gaps between regions and socio-economic disparities between urban and rural.

A major challenge in the coming years is the development and implementation of a quality assurance system.

18.7 Overall Conclusions and Policy Recommendations in Viet Nam

For ECCE, by 2005/06, the GER for the programme for 5-year-olds reached 88%, and the proportion of Grade 1 students with ECCE experience reached 87%. The rate of malnutrition fell by nearly 9 points in the period 2000 to 2005. The proportion of ethnic minority children among all school children increased from 12% in 2001/02 to 14% in 2005/06. In accordance with policy, non-public sector provision of ECCE rose.

For primary education, NER in Grade 1 reached 98.2% by 2005/06. NER in primary education increased from 96% in 2001/02 to 98% in 2005/06. The FSQL was implemented, giving national standards for schools; teacher qualifications; teacher professional training, curriculum, and textbook renovation.

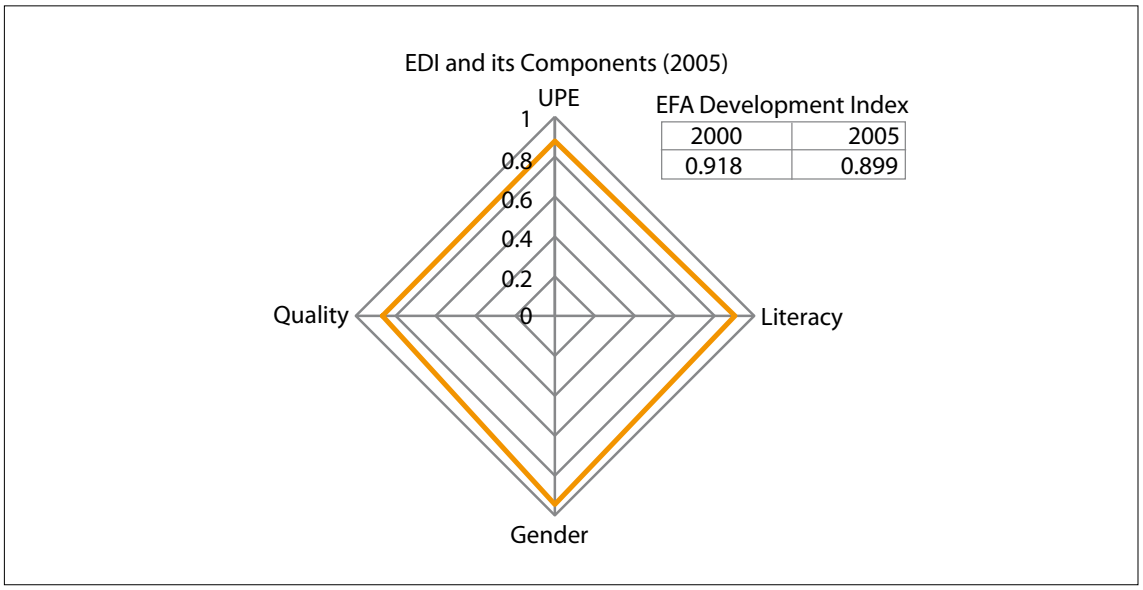
For NFE, youth literacy (ages 15-25) reached nearly 97% in 2004 with a GPI of 0.99. The total number of CLCs reached nearly 7,400 in 2006, encompassing approximately 70% of all communes. Policies and programmes on the learning society and distance education were issued in 2005. The curricula for NFE were renovated.

There remain some unreached groups. In particular, there are geographical regional disparities, ethnic group disparities, disabled children who have difficulty accessing education, and often girls who face discrimination.

The remaining obstacles are mainly languages, family income, family work, and disease.

18.8 Viet Nam Country Statistical Profile

Figure 48: EFA Development Index, 2000 and 2005, Viet Nam



Sources: Global Monitoring Reports 2003/04 and 2008.

ANNEXES

Annex 1: Statistical Tables

Annex 2: Country Profiles

Annex 3: References

Reader's Guide

The following symbols are used in the Statistical Tables and Country Profiles:

…	No data available
*	National estimation
**	UIS estimation
-	Magnitude nil or negligible
.	Not applicable
(p)	Data for the reference year or more recent years are provisional
x	Data refer to years or periods other than those specified in the column heading, differ from the standard definition, or refer to only part of a country
+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
#	Data refer to the most recent year available during the period specified in the column heading
§	Indicates that due to differences in population estimates used by the Ministry of Education and the UNPD, the UIS has decided not to publish this indicator.

Note: All the data used in Annex 1: Statistical Tables came from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics Data Centre, accessed on February 2008.

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 Pre-Primary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	5.8	5.7	6.0	9.5	9.1	10.0
Lao PDR	7.8	7.4	8.2	10.1	9.9	10.4
Myanmar	2.3**	…	…	5.5[+1]	5.5[+1]	5.6[+1]
Thailand	98.6	97.4	99.8	91.7[+1]	91.1[+1]	92.4[+1]
Viet Nam	§	§	§	§	§	§

Enrolment in Private Institutions (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000	2005
Cambodia	22.5	24.3
Lao PDR	16.6	26.1
Myanmar	89.9**	49.6[+1]
Thailand	18.7	20.9[+1]
Viet Nam	51.1	61.2[+1]

Health and Nutrition Indicators, 1998-2005, Sub-Region

Country	Households Consuming Iodized Salt (%)	Children Under Five Suffering from Malnutrition		
		Underweight (%)	Wasting (%)	Stunting (%)
Cambodia	14.0	45.0	15.0	45.0
Lao PDR	75.0	40.0	15.0	42.0
Myanmar	60.0	32.0	9.0	32.0
Thailand	63.0	18.0[x]	5.0[x]	13.0[x]
Viet Nam	83.0	27.0	8.0	31.0

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 Ratio in Primary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	121.4	125.1	117.6	127.9	131.7	124.1
Lao PDR	117.2	124.2	110.0	120.7	125.4	115.7
Myanmar	133.2	130.6	135.9	137.6[+1]	139.2[+1]	135.9[+1]
Thailand	109.5**[,-1]	111.5**[,-1]	107.4**[,-1]	…	…	…
Viet Nam	§	§	§	§	§	§

Net Intake Rate in Primary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	69.2	70.9	67.4	86.0	85.4	86.6
Lao PDR	55.9	56.5	55.3	62.7	63.4	62.0
Myanmar	96.7	94.8	98.7	…	…	…
Thailand	…	…	…	…	…	…
Viet Nam	§	§	§	§	§	§

Gross Enrolment Ratio in Primary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	102.0	108.9	94.9	125.8	130.4	121.0
Lao PDR	108.9	117.4	100.1	114.6	121.7	107.2
Myanmar	104.3	104.4	104.2	114.4[+1]	113.9[+1]	115.0[+1]
Thailand	106.4	106.9	105.9	107.9[+1]	107.8[+1]	107.9[+1]
Viet Nam	§	§	§	§	§	§

Net Enrolment Rate in Primary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	87.2**	90.9**	83.4**	96.5	97.1	95.9
Lao PDR	77.2	80.5	73.9	82.7	85.0	80.3
Myanmar	95.5	95.5	95.4	…	…	…
Thailand	…	…	…	98.9[+1]	99.2[+1]	98.6[+1]
Viet Nam	§	§	§	§	§	§

Gross Enrolment Ratio in Secondary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	18.0	23.1	12.7	29.4**[,-1]	34.7**[,-1]	24.0**[,-1]
Lao PDR	34.9	41.0	28.8	44.1	50.1	38.0
Myanmar	39.5	38.0	40.9	49.0[+1]	49.1[+1]	48.9[+1]
Thailand	66.6[+1]	67.4**[,+1]	65.9**[,+1]	78.1[+1]	74.8[+1]	81.5[+1]
Viet Nam	§	§	§	§	§	§

Net Enrolment Rate in Secondary Education, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	16.2	20.7	11.6	23.9**	26.0**	21.9**
Lao PDR	28.1	31.4	24.6	35.6	38.4	32.7
Myanmar	35.3	34.1	36.4	45.7[+1]	45.8[+1]	45.6[+1]
Thailand	…	…	…	71.0[+1]	67.5[+1]	74.7[+1]
Viet Nam	§	§	§	§	§	§

Repeaters in Primary Education (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	22.2**	23.1**	21.1**	13.8	15.1	12.4
Lao PDR	19.8	21.2	18.0	19.2	20.3	17.9
Myanmar	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5[+1]	0.5[+1]	0.5[+1]
Thailand	3.5[-1]	3.4[-1]	3.5[-1]	…	…	…
Viet Nam	3.3	3.8	2.8	…	…	…

Repeaters in Secondary Education (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	2.6**	3.1**	1.7**	4.2	5.2	2.9
Lao PDR	2.5	3.3	1.2	2.7	3.6	1.6
Myanmar	2.6	2.5	2.7	1.7[+1]	1.8[+1]	1.6[+1]
Thailand	…	…	…	…	…	…
Viet Nam	1.7	2.3	1.1	1.0	1.9**[,-2]	0.7**[,-2]

Gender Parity Index for Intake and Enrolment Indicators

Country	Primary				Secondary			
	GIR	NIR	GER	NER	GIR	NIR	GER	NER
Cambodia	0.90	0.98	0.92	0.96	0.93	…	0.83	0.95
Lao PDR	0.91	0.98	0.88	0.94	…	…	0.81	1.02
Myanmar	1.03	1.00	0.99	0.99	…	…	0.99	0.99

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), 1995-2000 and After 2000, Sub-Region

Country	Between 1995 and 2000					After 2000				
	Year	Total	Male	Female	GPI	Year	Total	Male	Female	GPI
Cambodia	1998	76.3	81.1	71.1	0.88	2004	83.4	87.9	78.9	0.90
Lao PDR	1995	71.1	78.8	64.1	0.81	2001	78.5	82.6	74.7	0.90
Myanmar	2000	94.5	95.7	93.4	0.98		…	…	…	…
Thailand	2000	98.0	98.1	97.8	1.00		…	…	…	…
Viet Nam		§	§	§			…	…	…	…

Enrolment in Secondary TVET (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000	2005
Cambodia	2.3	2.4**,-1
Lao PDR	1.4	1.5
Myanmar	…	…
Thailand	15.3+1	15.5+1
Viet Nam	2.3	4.7

Transition Rate from Primary to General Secondary, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	76.4	80.8	70.4	82.2-1	84.0-1	80.2-1
Lao PDR	73.7	75.9	70.9	78.0-1	80.1-1	75.5-1
Myanmar	66.0	66.8	65.2	71.7**,-1	72.3**,-1	71.0**,-1
Thailand	…	…	…	…	…	…
Viet Nam	93.0	94.0	92.0	94.6-4	94.8-4	94.4-4

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

Adult Literacy Rate (Age 15+), 1995-2000 and After 2000, Sub-Region

Country	Between 1995 and 2000					After 2000				
	Year	Total	Male	Female	GPI	Year	Total	Male	Female	GPI
Cambodia	1998	67.3	79.5	57.0	0.72	2004	73.6	84.7	64.1	0.76
Lao PDR	1995	60.3	73.5	47.9	0.65	2001	68.7	77.0	60.9	0.79
Myanmar	2000	89.9	93.9	86.4	0.92		…	…	…	…
Thailand	2000	92.6	94.9	90.5	0.95		…	…	…	…
Viet Nam		§	§	§	§		…	…	…	…

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 for Pre-Primary Gross Enrolment Ratio, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000	2005
Cambodia	1.05	1.09
Lao PDR	1.10	1.05
Myanmar	…	1.02[+1]
Thailand	1.03	1.01[+1]
Viet Nam	§	§

GPI for Primary Intake and Enrolment, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	GIR Primary		NIR Primary		GER Primary		NER in Primary	
	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005
Cambodia	0.94	0.94	0.95	1.01	0.87	0.93	0.92**	0.99
Lao PDR	0.89	0.92	0.98	0.98	0.85	0.88	0.92	0.94
Myanmar	1.04	0.98[+1]	1.04	0.98[+1]	1.00	1.01[+1]	1.00	1.01[+1]
Thailand	0.96**[,-1]	…	…	…	0.99	1.00[+1]	…	0.99[+1]
Viet Nam	0.97	§	…	…	0.95	§	0.94**[,+1]	…

GPI for Survival and Transition Rates, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	Survival Rate to Grade 5		Transition Rate from Primary to Secondary	
	2000	2005	2000	2005
Cambodia	1.00	1.05[-1]	0.87	0.95[-1]
Lao PDR	1.02	0.98[-1]	0.93	0.94[-1]
Myanmar	1.00	1.06[-1]	0.98	0.98**[,-1]
Thailand	…	…	…	…
Viet Nam	0.99	…	0.98	…

GPI for Secondary GER and NER, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	GPI for GER		GPI for NER	
	2000	2005	2000	2005
Cambodia	0.55	0.69**[,-1]	0.56	0.84**
Lao PDR	0.70	0.76	0.78	0.85
Myanmar	1.08	1.00[+1]	1.07	1.00[+1]
Thailand	0.98**[,+1]	1.09[+1]	…	1.11[+1]
Viet Nam	0.91	§	…	§

Female Enrolment in Vocational or Technical Education (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000	2005
Cambodia	39.0	33.6**[,+1]
Lao PDR	35.6	37.0
Myanmar	…	…
Thailand	47.7[+1]	45.0[+1]
Viet Nam	51.5	55.0

Female Teachers in Primary and Secondary Education (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	Primary		Secondary	
	2000	2005	2000	2005
Cambodia	38.5	41.4	26.7	31.3**,-1
Lao PDR	43.4	45.4	40.1	42.1
Myanmar	74.7	81.9+1	76.4	82.4+1
Thailand	63.6	59.7+1	53.0**,+1	55.1+1
Viet Nam	77.9	78.1+1	64.7	63.8

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.

Trained Teachers in Pre-Primary Education (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	98.1[+1]	…	…	85.5[+1]	…	…
Lao PDR	83.1	83.3	83.1	80.5[+1]	36.0[+1]	80.8[+1]
Myanmar	…	…	…	50.3[+1]	29.5[+1]	50.6[+1]
Thailand	…	…	…	…	…	…
Viet Nam	50.5	…	…	70.8[+1]	…	…

Trained Teachers in Primary Education (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	95.9[+1]	…	…	97.7	…	…
Lao PDR	76.7	69.6	86.0	83.4	78.3	89.4
Myanmar	62.7	62.7	62.7	76.0	79.9	75.1
Thailand	…	…	…	…	…	…
Viet Nam	80.0	74.5	81.6	95.6[+1]	93.3[+1]	96.3[+1]

Trained Teachers in Lower Secondary Education (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	99.7[+1]	…	…	99.9	…	…
Lao PDR	98.5	98.3	98.8	91.0**	90.0**	92.5**
Myanmar	62.1	64.3	61.5	79.0	79.0	79.0
Thailand	…	…	…	…	…	…
Viet Nam	86.3	82.6	87.9	97.5[+1]	97.4[+1]	97.5[+1]

Trained Teachers in Upper Secondary Education (%), 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	99.1[+1]	…	…	…	…	…
Lao PDR	95.6	95.0	96.5	89.8**	88.3**	91.8**
Myanmar	97.1	97.2	97.1	98.0	94.2	99.0
Thailand	…	…	…	…	…	…
Viet Nam	93.9	93.5	94.2	92.0**	…	…

Pupil/Teacher Ratio, Primary and Secondary, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	Primary		Lower Secondary		Upper Secondary	
	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005
Cambodia	50.1	53.2	16.6	27.6	23.7	26.4**,-1
Lao PDR	30.1	31.5	21.6	23.0**	20.7	28.3**
Myanmar	32.8	29.9[+1]	29.6	34.2[+1]	39.7	32.5[+1]
Thailand	20.8	18.3[+1]	23.4**,[+1]	21.9[+1]	24.9**,[+1]	21.4[+1]
Viet Nam	29.5	20.7[+1]	27.6	21.1[+1]	28.9	27.1

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

Country	2000			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Cambodia	62.8	62.9	62.7	63.1[-1]	61.5[-1]	64.8[-1]
Lao PDR	53.2	52.6	53.9	63.0[-1]	63.6[-1]	62.3[-1]
Myanmar	55.2	55.3	55.2	69.9[-1]	67.8[-1]	72.1[-1]
Thailand	…	…	…	…	…	…
Viet Nam	85.7	86.1	85.4	86.8**[,-3]	87.2**[,-3]	86.5**[,-3]

Gender Ratios (%F/%M), Trained Teachers, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	Pre-Primary		Primary		Lower Secondary		Upper Secondary	
	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005	2000	2005
Cambodia	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Lao PDR	1.00	2.25	1.00	1.03	1.02	1.04	1.02	1.04
Myanmar	…	1.72	0.96	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Thailand	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
Viet Nam	…	0.60	1.06	1.00	1.01	…	1.01	…

Gender Ratios (%F/%M), Survival to Grade 5, 2000 and 2005, Sub-Region

Country	2000	2005
Cambodia	1.00	1.05
Lao PDR	1.02	0.98
Myanmar	1.00	1.06
Thailand	…	…
Viet Nam	0.99	0.99

Symbols used :

…	No data available
*	National estimation
**	UIS estimation
-	Magnitude nil or negligible
.	Not applicable
+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
#	Data refer to the most recent year available during the period specified in the column heading.
x	Data refer to years or periods other than those specified in the column heading, differ from the standard definition, or refer to only part of a country.
§	Indicates that due to differences in population estimates used by the Ministry of Education and the UNPD, the UIS has decided not to publish this indicator.

Note: All the data used in the Statistical Annex came from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics Data Centre, accessed on February 2008.

Annex 2: Country Profiles

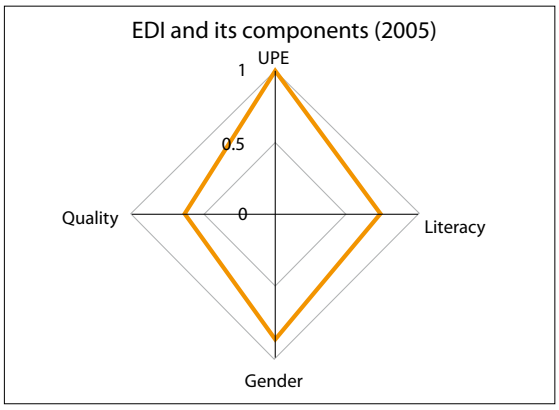
Cambodia - Progress toward achieving EFA Goals (Post Dakar)

Social and Demographic Context (2005)

Total Population (000)	14,071
Annual population growth rate (%)	2.0
Sex ratio (women per 100 men)	107
Life expectancy at birth, total (years)	57
Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 births)	68
HIV prevalence rate % in adults (15-49)	1.6
GDP (US$ million)	6,194.3
Human Development Index	0.6
Population age 0-14 (%)	34.5
School life expectancy ISCED 1-6 (years)	10.1**,-1
Total number of enrolment (Primary)	2,695,372
Total number of teachers (Primary)	50,654
% Under-Fives Suffering from Stunting	45
Children immunization rate (% of under 12 months)	
Immunized against DPT_3	82
Immunized against measles	79

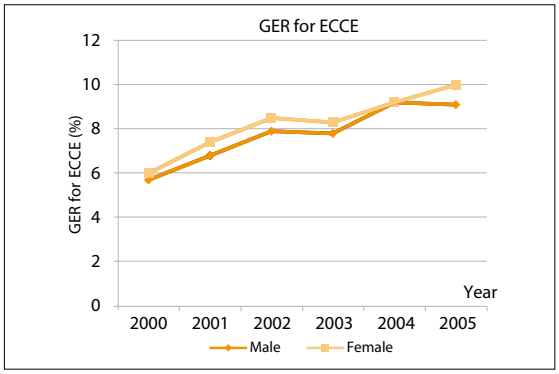
Overall Achievement in EFA (2000-To date)

	2000	2005
EFA Development Index	0.721	0.807



Goal I: Expansion of ECCE

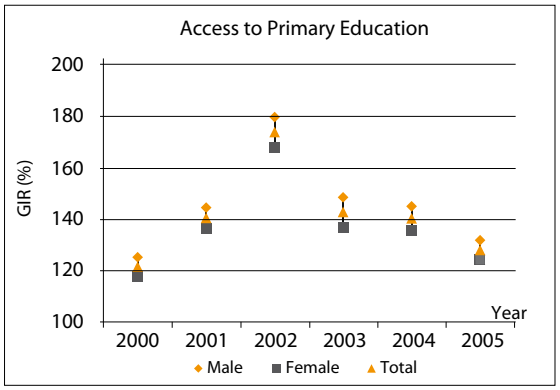
for 2005	T	M	F
Gross Enrolment Ratio	9.5	9.1	10.0
Net Enrolment Rate	8.7	8.7	9.1
% of new entrants with ECCE Exp.	15.3	15.3	15.7

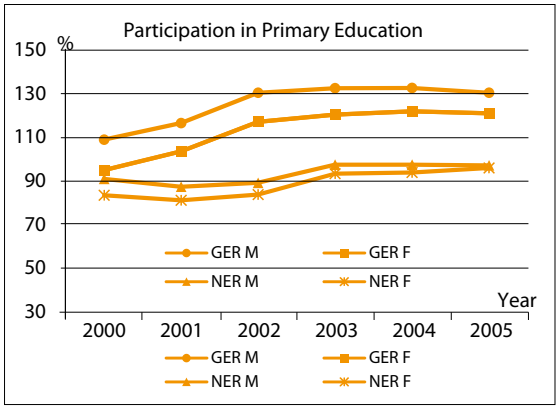


Goal II: Universal Primary Education

Primary education age-range	6-12

for 2005	T	M	F
Gross Intake Ratio	127.9	131.7	124.1
Net Intake Rate	86.0	85.4	86.6
Gross Enrolment Ratio	125.8	130.4	121.0
Net Enrolment Rate	96.5	97.1	95.9





Goal III: Learning Needs of All Youth and Adults

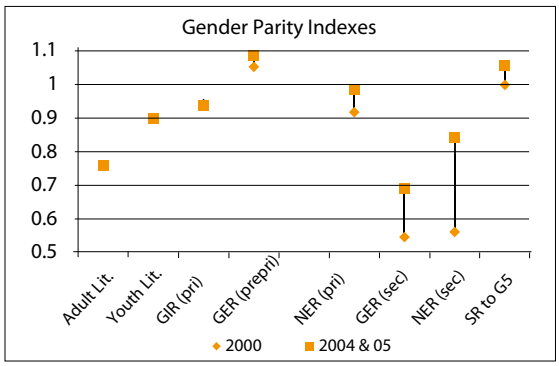
		2000	2005
Transition rate from primary to secondary (general programme)	T	76.4	82.2-1
	M	80.8	84.0-1
	F	70.4	80.2-1
Gross Enrolment Ratio, Total secondary (all programmes)	T	18.0	29.4**,-1
	M	23.1	34.7**,-1
	F	12.7	24.0**,-1
Tech / Voc enrolment as % of total enrolment (in ISCED 2 & 3)		2.3	2.4**,-1
Unemployment rate		2.5	1.8-4

	Earliest	Latest
%Contraceptive use among currently married women 15-49 years old, any method	12.5(95)	23.8(00)
%Condom use to overall contraceptive use among curently married women 15-49 years old	2.4(95)	3.8(00)

Goal IV: Literacy

			T	M	F
Adult Literacy Rate	Cambodia	2004	73.6	84.7	64.1
	East Asia & the Pacific	2005	92.0	95.0	88.0
	World	2005	82.0	87.0	77.0
Youth Literacy Rate	Cambodia	2004	83.4	87.9	78.9
	East Asia & the Pacific	2005	98.0	98.0	98.0
	World	2005	88.0	91.0	84.0

Goal V: Gender

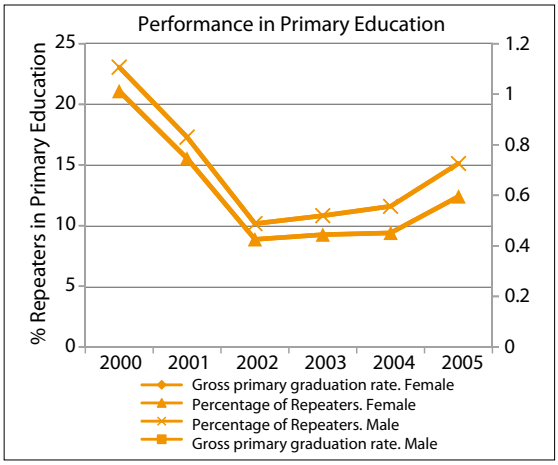


Goal VI: Education Quality

for 2005	T	M	F
Gross Primary Graduation Ratio	…	…	…
Percentage of repeaters	13.8	15.1	12.4

Goal VI: Education Quality (Cont.)

		2000	2005
Survival rate to G5	T	62.8	63.1^{-1}
	M	62.9	61.5^{-1}
	F	62.7	64.8^{-1}
Pupil-teacher ratio (Pre-primary)		27.8	24.7
Pupil-teacher ratio (Primary)		50.1	53.2
Pupil-teacher ratio (Secondary)		18.5	25.1**$^{,-1}$
% of trained teachers (Pre-primary)		98.1^{+1}	85.5^{+1}
% of trained teachers (Primary)		95.9^{+1}	97.7
% of trained teachers (Secondary)		99.6^{+1}	…
% of repeaters (Primary)		22.2**	13.8

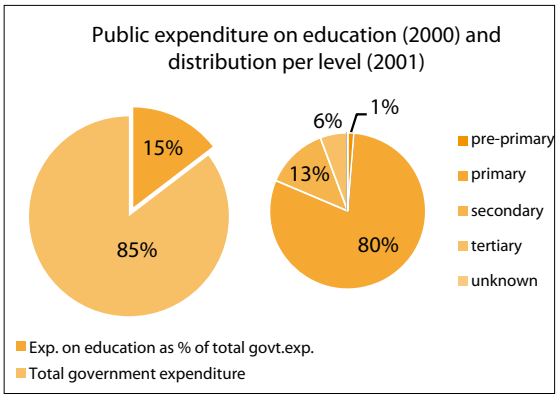


Financing in EFA

Education expenditure as % of total educational expenditure (2005)

Pre -primary	…	Primary	64.6**$^{,-1}$
Secondary	…	Post Secondary	1.4^{-1}
Tertiary	13.6^{-1}		

	2000	2005
Total public expenditure on education		
as % of GDP	1.7	1.7^{-1}
as % of total govt. exp.	14.7	…
Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil (US$ PPP)	107.5	143.2^{-4}



Symbols used :

(p)	Data for the reference year or more recent years are provisional
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
…	No data available
*	National estimation
**	UIS estimation
-	Magnitude nil or negligible
.	Not applicable

Sources :
UNESCO Institute for Statistics
World Bank
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Global Monitoring Reports 2003/04 and 2008

ISCED & Regions : Please refer to ANNEX C and ANNEX D of Global Education Digest 2007
http://www.uis.unesco.org/publications/GED2007
UIS Data Centre last accessed on February 2008

Note: Data for Performance in Primary Education is current as of March 2009

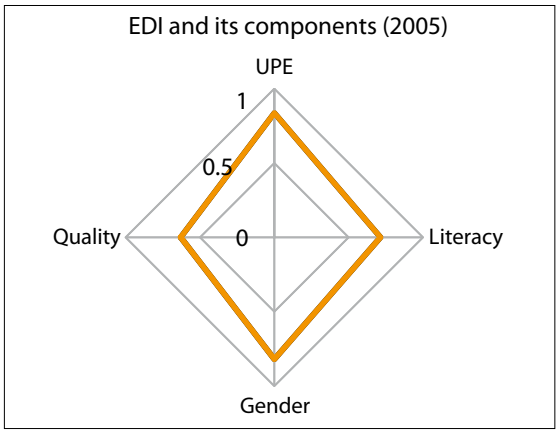
Lao PDR - Progress toward achieving EFA Goals (Post Dakar)

Social and Demographic Context (2005)

Total Population (000)	5,924
Annual population growth rate (%)	1.6
Sex ratio (women per 100 men)	100
Life expectancy at birth, total (years)	55.3[-1]
Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 births)	62
HIV prevalence rate % in adults (15-49)	0.1
GDP (US$ million)	2,881.7
Human Development Index	0.6
Population age 0-14 (%)	37.8
School life expectancy ISCED 1-6 (years)	9.4**
Total number of enrolment (Primary)	890,821
Total number of teachers (Primary)	28,299
% Under-Fives Suffering from Stunting	42
Children immunization rate (% of under 12 months)	
Immunized against DPT_3	49
Immunized against measles	41

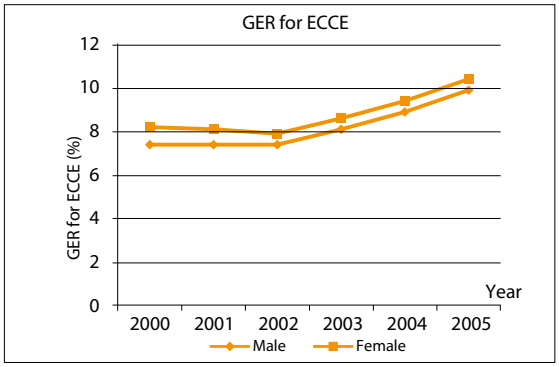
Overall Achievement in EFA (2000-To date)

	2000	2005
EFA Development Index	0.688	0.750



Goal I: Expansion of ECCE

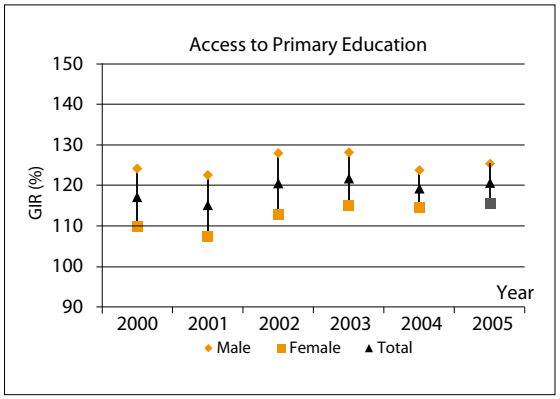
for 2005	T	M	F
Gross Enrolment Ratio	10.1	9.9	10.4
Net Enrolment Rate	8.5	8.3	8.7
% of new entrants with ECCE Exp.	8.8	8.3	9.4

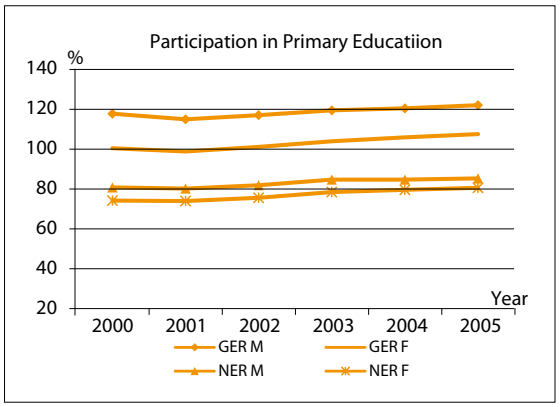


Goal II: Universal Primary Education

Primary education age-range	6-11

for 2005	T	M	F
Gross Intake Ratio	120.7	125.4	115.7
Net Intake Rate	62.7	63.4	62.0
Gross Enrolment Ratio	114.6	121.7	107.2
Net Enrolment Rate	82.7	85.0	80.3





Goal III: Learning Needs of All Youth and Adults

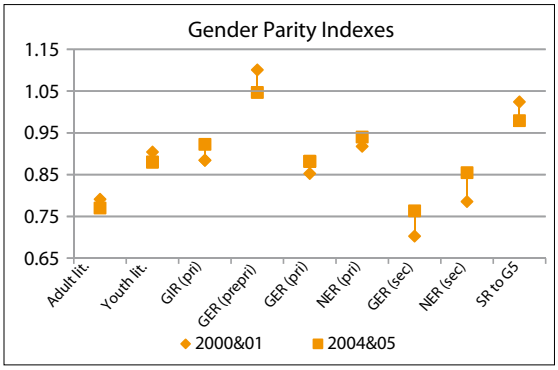
		2000	2005
Transition rate from primary to secondary (general programme)	T	73.7	78.0[-1]
	M	75.9	80.1[-1]
	F	70.9	75.5[-1]
Gross Enrolment Ratio, Total secondary (all programmes)	T	34.9	44.1
	M	41.0	50.1
	F	28.8	38.0
Tech / Voc enrolment as % of total enrolment (in ISCED 2 & 3)		1.4	1.5
Unemployment rate		…	…

	Earliest	Latest
%Contraceptive use among currently married women 15-49 years old, any method	18.6(93)	32.2(00)
%Condom use to overall contraceptive use among curently married women 15-49 years old	0.5(93)	1.6(00)

Goal IV: Literacy

			T	M	F
Adult Literacy Rate	Lao PDR	2001	68.7	77.0	60.9
	East Asia & the Pacific	2005	92.0	95.0	88.0
	World	2005	82.0	87.0	77.0
Youth Literacy Rate	Lao PDR	2001	78.5	82.6	74.7
	East Asia & the Pacific	2005	98.0	98.0	98.0
	World	2005	88.0	91.0	84.0

Goal V: Gender

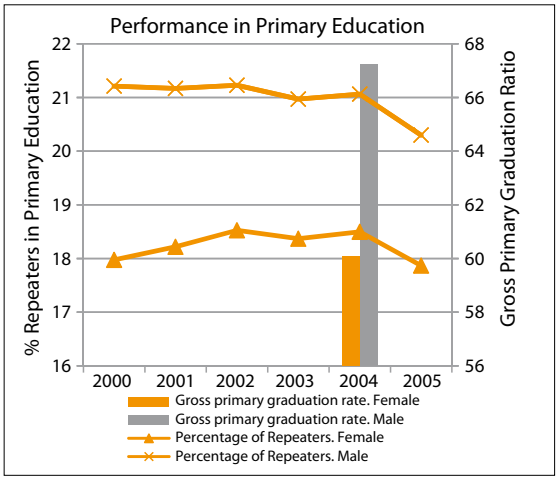


Goal VI: Education Quality

for 2005	T	M	F
Gross Primary Graduation Ratio	…	…	…
Percentage of repeaters	19.2	20.3	17.9

Goal VI: Education Quality (Cont.)

		2000	2005
Survival rate to G5	T	53.2	63.0[-1]
	M	52.6	63.6[-1]
	F	53.9	62.3[-1]
Pupil-teacher ratio (Pre-primary)		17.1	16.4
Pupil-teacher ratio (Primary)		30.1	31.5
Pupil-teacher ratio (Secondary)		21.3	24.8
% of trained teachers (Pre-primary)		83.1	80.5[+1]
% of trained teachers (Primary)		76.7	83.4
% of trained teachers (Secondary)		97.6	90.6
% of repeaters (Primary)		19.8	19.2

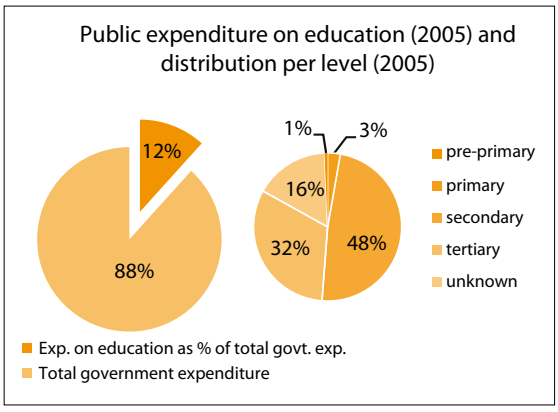


Financing in EFA

Education expenditure as % of total educational expenditure (2005)

Pre-primary	1.6	Primary	62.5
Secondary	14.1	Post Secondary	12.2
Tertiary	9.2		

	2000	2005
Total public expenditure on education		
as % of GDP	1.5	2.3
as % of total govt. exp.	7.4	11.7
Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil (US$ PPP)	45.6**	61.2



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Sources :
UNESCO Institute for Statistics
World Bank
International Labour Organization
UNICEF
UNESCAP
Global Monitoring Reports 2003/04 and 2008

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Note: Data for Performance in Primary Education is current as of March 2009

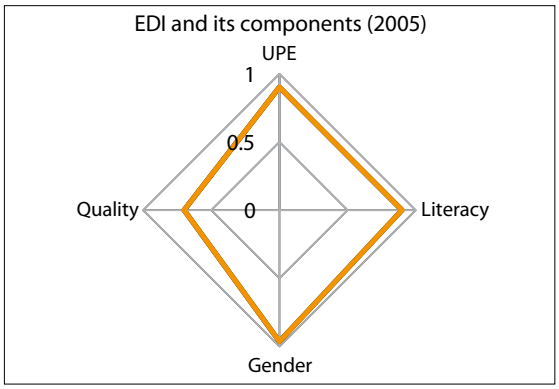
Myanmar - Progress toward achieving EFA Goals (Post Dakar)

Social and Demographic Context (2005)

Total Population (000)	50,520
Annual population growth rate (%)	1.0
Sex ratio (women per 100 men)	101
Life expectancy at birth, total (years)	61
Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 births)	75
HIV prevalence rate % in adults (15-49)	1.3
GDP (US$ million)	…
Human Development Index	0.6
Population age 0-14 (%)	27.6
School life expectancy ISCED 1-6 (years)	7.3**-1
Total number of enrolment (Primary)	4,948,198
Total number of teachers (Primary)	160,110
% Under-Fives Suffering from Stunting	32
Children immunization rate (% of under 12 months)	
Immunized against DPT3	73
Immunized against measles	72

Overall Achievement in EFA (2000-To date)

	2000	2005
EFA Development Index	0.795	0.866



Goal I: Expansion of ECCE

for 2005	T	M	F
Gross Enrolment Ratio	5.5+1	5.5+1	5.6+1
Net Enrolment Rate	…	…	…
% of new entrants with ECCE Exp.	11.0+1	10.5+1	11.5+1

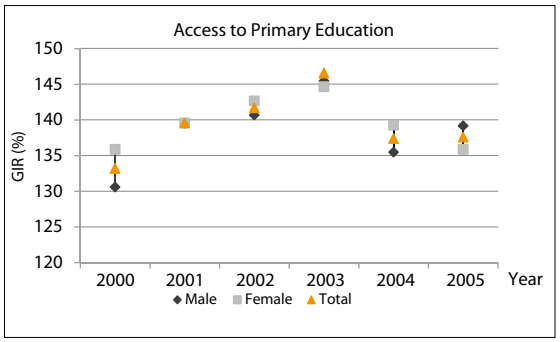
GER for ECCE

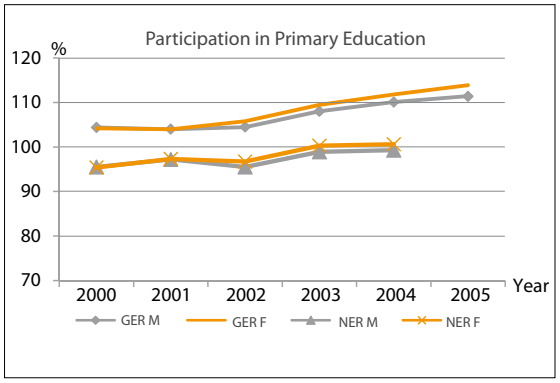
No data available

Goal II: Universal Primary Education

Primary education age-range	5-10

for 2005	T	M	F
Gross Intake Ratio	137.6+1	139.2+1	135.9+1
Net Intake Rate	…	…	…
Gross Enrolment Ratio	114.4+1	113.9+1	115.0+1
Net Enrolment Rate	…	…	…





Goal III: Learning Needs of All Youth and Adults

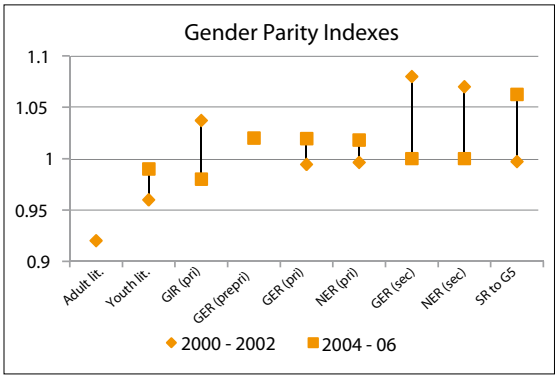
		2000	2005
Transition rate from primary to secondary (general programme)	T	66.0	71.7**,-1
	M	66.8	72.3**,-1
	F	65.2	71.0**,-1
Gross Enrolment Ratio, Total secondary (all programmes)	T	39.5	49.0+1
	M	38.0	49.1+1
	F	40.9	48.9+1
Tech / Voc enrolment as % of total enrolment (in ISCED 2 & 3)		-	-
Unemployment rate		…	…

	Earliest	Latest
%Contraceptive use among currently married women 15-49 years old, any method	16.8 (91)	37.0(01)
%Condom use to overall contraceptive use among curently married women 15-49 years old	0.6(91)	0.8(01)

Goal IV: Literacy

			T	M	F
Adult Literacy Rate	Myanmar	2000	89.9	93.9	86.4
	East Asia & the Pacific	2005	92.0	95.0	88.0
	World	2005	82.0	87.0	77.0
Youth Literacy Rate	Myanmar	2000	96.5	95.7	93.4
	East Asia & the Pacific	2005	98.0	98.0	98.0
	World	2005	88.0	91.0	84.0

Goal V: Gender

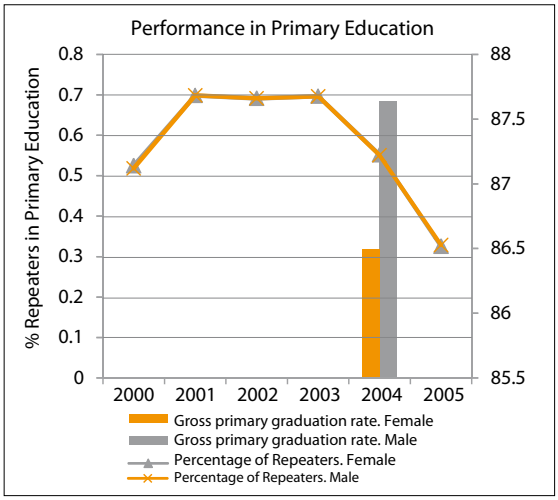


Goal VI: Education Quality

for 2005	T	M	F
Gross Primary Graduation Ratio	…	…	…
Percentage of repeaters	0.5[+1]	0.5[+1]	0.5[+1]

Goal VI: Education Quality (Cont.)

		2000	2005
Survival rate to G5	T	55.2	69.9[-1]
	M	55.3	67.8[-1]
	F	55.2	72.1[-1]
Pupil-teacher ratio (Pre-primary)		21.6	…
Pupil-teacher ratio (Primary)		32.8	29.9[+1]
Pupil-teacher ratio (Secondary)		31.9	33.1
% of trained teachers (Pre-primary)		…	50.3[+1]
% of trained teachers (Primary)		62.7	76.0
% of trained teachers (Secondary)		69.9	83.8
% of repeaters (Primary)		0.5	0.5[+1]

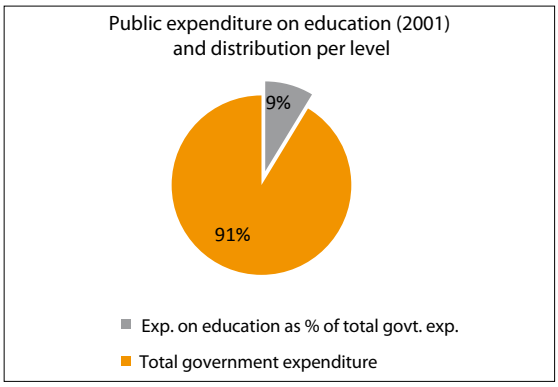


Financing in EFA

Education expenditure as % of total educational expenditure (2005)

Pre-primary	…	Primary	…
Secondary	27.0[-4]	Post Secondary	…
Tertiary	26.4[-4]		

	2000	2005
Total public expenditure on education		
as % of GDP	0.6	…
as % of total govt. exp.	8.7	…
Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil (US$ PPP)	…	…



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Thailand - Progress toward achieving EFA Goals (Post Dakar)

Social and Demographic Context (2005)

Total Population (000)	64,233
Annual population growth rate (%)	0.5
Sex ratio (women per 100 men)	104
Life expectancy at birth, total (years)	71
Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 births)	18
HIV prevalence rate % in adults (15-49)	1.4
GDP (US$ million)	176,221.7
Human Development Index	0.8
Population age 0-14 (%)	22.2
School life expectancy ISCED 1-6 (years)	12.2**
Total number of enrolment (Primary)	5,843,512[+1]
Total number of teachers (Primary)	312,632**,[+1]
% Under-Fives Suffering from Stunting	13
Children immunization rate (% of under 12 months)	
Immunized against DPT3	98
Immunized against measles	96

Overall Achievement in EFA (2000-To date)

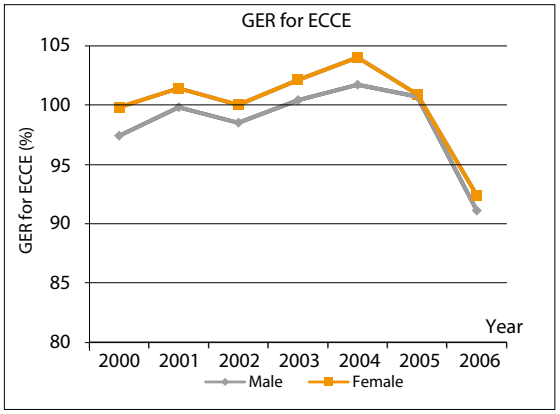
	2000	2005
EFA Development Index	0.927	…

EDI and its components (2005)

No data available

Goal I: Expansion of ECCE

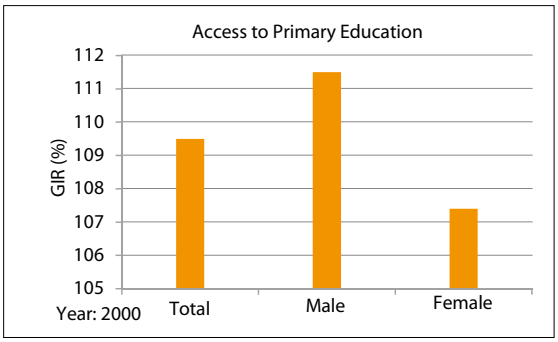
for 2005	T	M	F
Gross Enrolment Ratio	91.7[+1]	91.1[+1]	92.4[+1]
Net Enrolment Rate	75.6[+1]	76.1[+1]	75.0[+1]
% of new entrants with ECCE Exp.	…	…	…

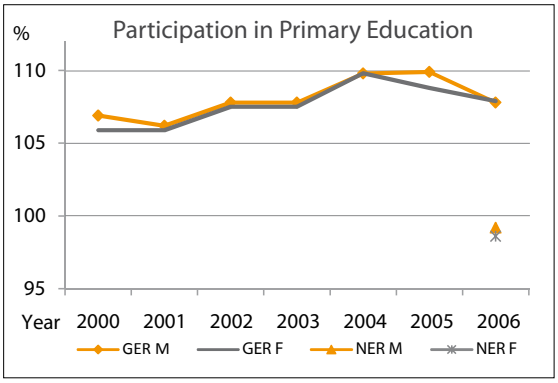


Goal II: Universal Primary Education

Primary education age-range: 6-12

for 2005	T	M	F
Gross Intake Ratio	…	…	…
Net Intake Rate	…	…	…
Gross Enrolment Ratio	107.9[+1]	107.8[+1]	107.9[+1]
Net Enrolment Rate	98.9[+1]	99.2[+1]	98.6[+1]





Goal III: Learning Needs of All Youth and Adults

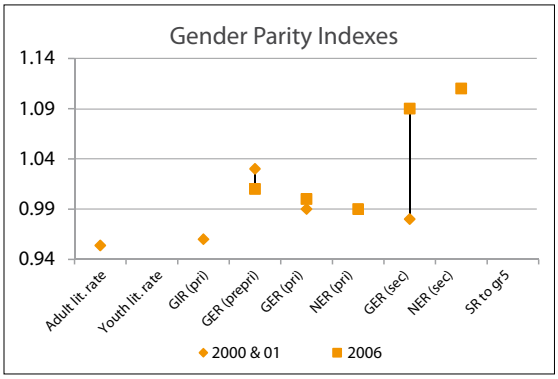
		2000	2005
Transition rate from primary to secondary (general programme)	T	…	…
	M	…	…
	F	…	…
Gross Enrolment Ratio, Total secondary (all programmes)	T	66.6[+1]	78.1[+1]
	M	67.4**,[+1]	74.8[+1]
	F	65.9**,[+1]	81.5[+1]
Tech / Voc enrolment as % of total enrolment (in ISCED 2 & 3)		15.3[+1]	15.5[+1]
Unemployment rate		2.4	1.4

	Earliest	Latest
%Contraceptive use among currently married women 15-49 years old, any method	73.9[(93)]	72.2[(97)]
%Condom use to overall contraceptive use among curently married women 15-49 years old	2.6[(93)]	2.5[(97)]

Goal IV: Literacy

			T	M	F
Adult Literacy Rate	Thailand	2000	92.6	94.9	90.5
	East Asia & the Pacific	2005	92.0	95.0	88.0
	World	2005	82.0	87.0	77.0
Youth Literacy Rate	Thailand	2000	98.0	98.1	97.8
	East Asia & the Pacific	2005	98.0	98.0	98.0
	World	2005	88.0	91.0	84.0

Goal V: Gender



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	…	…
	M	…	…
	F	…	…
Pupil-teacher ratio (Pre-primary)		24.8	24.9^{+1}
Pupil-teacher ratio (Primary)		20.8	18.3^{+1}
Pupil-teacher ratio (Secondary)		24$^{**,+1}$	22.8$^{**,+1}$
% of trained teachers (Pre-primary)		…	…
% of trained teachers (Primary)		…	…
% of trained teachers (Secondary)		…	…
% of repeaters (Primary)		3.5^{-1}	…

Performance in Primary Education

No data available

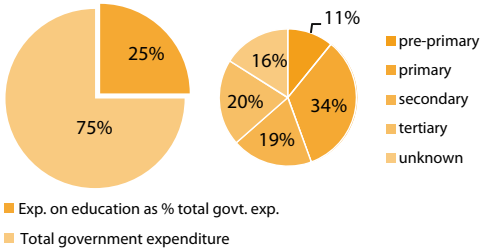
Financing in EFA

Education expenditure as % of total educational expenditure (2005)

Pre-primary	13.6	Primary	31.5^{-1}
Secondary	24.4^{-1}	Post Secondary	-
Tertiary	21.7		

	2000	2005
Total public expenditure on education		
as % of GDP	5.4	4.2
as % of total govt. exp.	31.0	25.0
Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil (US$ PPP)	1122.4**	…

Public expenditure on education (2005) and distribution per level (2001)



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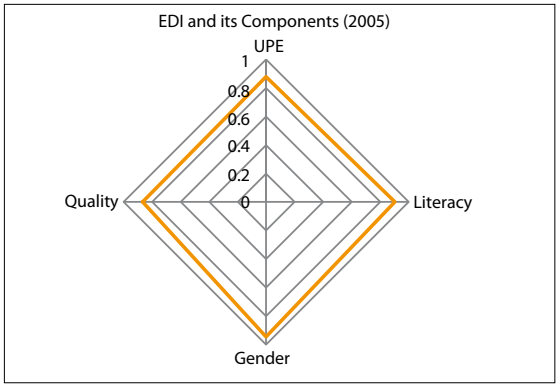
Viet Nam - Progress toward achieving EFA Goals (Post Dakar)

Social and Demographic Context (2005)

Total Population (000)	84,238
Annual population growth rate (%)	1.3
Sex ratio (women per 100 men)	100
Life expectancy at birth, total (years)	71
Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 births)	16
HIV prevalence rate % in adults (15-49)	0.5
GDP (US$ million)	52,917.4
Human Development Index	0.7
Population age 0-14 (%)	27.6
School life expectancy ISCED 1-6 (years)	…
Total number of enrolment (Primary)	7,773,484
Total number of teachers (Primary)	360,624
% Under-Fives Suffering from Stunting	31
Children immunization rate (% of under 12 months)	
Immunized against DPT3	95
Immunized against measles	95

Overall Achievement in EFA (2000-To date)

	2000	2005
EFA Development Index	0.918	…



Goal I: Expansion of ECCE

for 2005	T	M	F
Gross Enrolment Ratio	§	§	§
Net Enrolment Rate	§	§	§
% of new entrants with ECCE Exp.	…	…	…

GER in ECCE

No data available

Goal II: Universal Primary Education

Primary education age-range	6-11

for 2005	T	M	F
Gross Intake Ratio	§	§	§
Net Intake Rate	§	§	§
Gross Enrolment Ratio	§	§	§
Net Enrolment Rate	§	§	§

Access to Primary Education

No data available

Participation in Primary Education

No data available

Goal III: Learning Needs of All Youth and Adults

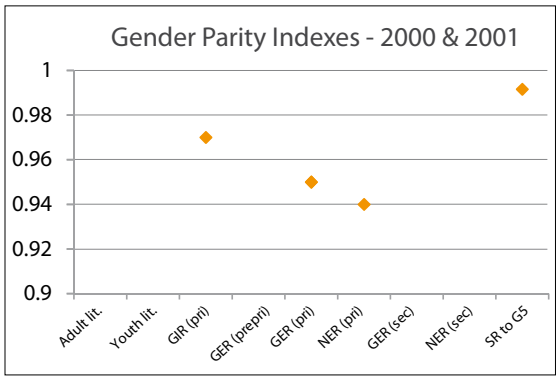
		2000	2005
Transition rate from primary to secondary (general programme)	T	93.0	94.6[-4]
	M	94.0	94.8[-4]
	F	92.0	94.4[-4]
Gross Enrolment Ratio, Total secondary (all programmes)	T	…	…
	M	…	…
	F	…	…
Tech / Voc enrolment as % of total enrolment (in ISCED 2 & 3)		2.3	4.7
Unemployment rate		2.3	2.1[-1]

	Earliest	Latest
%Contraceptive use among currently married women 15-49 years old, any method	65.0[(94)]	78.5[(02)]
%Condom use to overall contraceptive use among curently married women 15-49 years old	6.2[(94)]	7.4[(02)]

Goal IV: Literacy

			T	M	F
Adult Literacy Rate	Viet Nam	2000	…	…	…
	East Asia & the Pacific	2005	92.0	95.0	88.0
	World	2005	82.0	87.0	77.0
Youth Literacy Rate	Viet Nam	2000	…	…	…
	East Asia & the Pacific	2005	98.0	98.0	98.0
	World	2005	88.0	91.0	84.0

Goal V: Gender

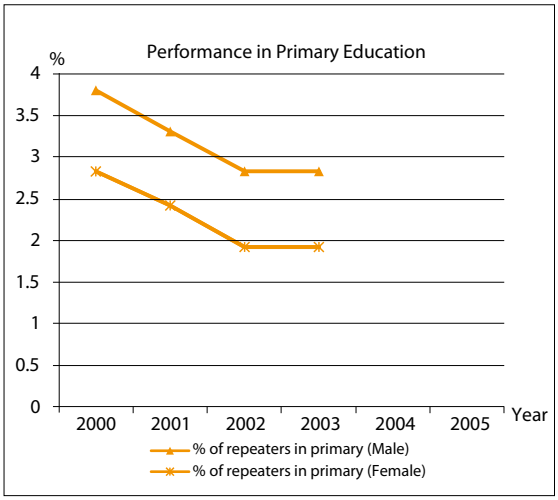


Goal VI: Education Quality

for 2005	T	M	F
Gross Primary Graduation Ratio	…	…	…
Percentage of repeaters	1.0	2.8**,-2	1.9**,-2

Goal VI: Education Quality (Cont.)

		2000	2005
Survival rate to G5	T	85.7	86.8**,-3
	M	86.1	87.2**,-3
	F	85.4	86.5**,-3
Pupil-teacher ratio (Pre-primary)		22.1	17.7
Pupil-teacher ratio (Primary)		29.5	20.7+1
Pupil-teacher ratio (Secondary)		28.0	23.9
% of trained teachers (Pre-primary)		50.5	70.8+1
% of trained teachers (Primary)		80.0	95.6+1
% of trained teachers (Secondary)		88.3	93.9**
% of repeaters (Primary)		3.3	…



Financing in EFA

Education expenditure as % of total educational expenditure (2005)

Pre-primary	…	Primary	…
Secondary	…	Post Secondary	…
Tertiary	…		

	2000	2005
Total public expenditure on education		
as % of GDP	…	…
as % of total govt. exp.	…	…
Public current expenditure on primary education per pupil (US$ PPP)	…	…

Public expenditure on Education (2000) and distribution per level (2001)

No data available

Symbols used :

(p)	Data for the reference year or more recent years are provisional
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
…	No data available
*	National estimation
**	UIS estimation
-	Magnitude nil or negligible
.	Not applicable

Sources :
UNESCO Institute for Statistics
World Bank
International Labour Organization
UNICEF
UNESCAP
Global Monitoring Reports 2003/04 and 2008

ISCED & Regions : Please refer to ANNEX C and ANNEX D of Global Education Digest 2007
http://www.uis.unesco.org/publications/GED2007
UIS Data Centre last accessed on February 2008

Note: Data for Performance in Primary Education is current as of March 2009

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STATISTICAL NOTES

Calculating GPI from Incomplete Data

1. Problem

The Gender Parity Index is a ratio of ratios, for example the ratio of the gross enrolment ratio for girls to the gross enrolment ratio for boys, or:

$$GPI = GER_{female}/GER_{male} \quad (1)$$

Sometimes, however, the data are incomplete, and all that is known is the proportion of females in the target population and the proportion of females in the target group, such as primary school students. Then either of several equivalent formulas for calculating GPI can be used, where:

f = Number of females in the target group, such as female primary school students;
F = Number of females in the population, such as females aged 5-10;
m = Number of males in the target group;
M = Number of males in the population;
m* = Number of males per 100 females in the target group; and
M* = Number of males per 100 females in the population.

$$GPI = (\%f/\%F)/(\%m/\%M) \quad (2)$$

or equivalently,

$$GPI = (\%f/\%m)/(\%F/\%M) \quad (3)$$

or equivalently

$$GPI = M^*/m^* \quad (4)$$

Expressing equation (2) in words, using enrolment as the target group:
GPI = (% of students who are female)/(% of population who are female)
(% of students who are male)/(% of population who are male)

Note that the above formulas (2) - (4) are *equivalent* to formula (1), not *approximations*, so the results are "exact" within the limitations of the data.

Sometimes the *actual numbers of cases* in the target population or the target group are not readily available, but the *actual percent distributions* are readily available. Then the results using formulas (2) - (4) will be equivalent to using formula (1) with the actual numbers of cases.

Sometimes the gender distributions in the target population or target group can only be approximated, for example by using the distribution from a seven year old census because it is the most recent, or using the national distribution because provincial distributions are not readily available. Sometimes a gender ratio is available, for example, the number of boys enrolled per 100 girls enrolled and the number of boys in the population per 100 girls in the population. In such cases formulas (2) - (4) will yield estimates which are only as good as the approximations used.

2. Example 1: Percent Female Students Given, Primary Enrolment, Viet Nam

Table B66.A: Gender Distribution in Primary School, 2001/02-2005/06, Viet Nam

	2001/02	2002/03	2003/04	2004/05	2005/06
Total Students	9,311,010	8,841,004	8,350,191	7,773,484	7,317,813
Female Students	4,427,314	4,198,429	3,951,439	3,690,563	3,505,626
% Female Students	47.5	47.5	47.3	47.5	47.9
Estimated GPI for GER*	0.95	0.95	0.95	0.95	0.97

Source: Education and Training Statistics, MOET
* The GPI estimates are based on the assumption that the proportion of girls in the ECCE age population is 48.7, in accordance with the results of the 1999 census.

In Table B66 of the Viet Nam National Report, the percent girls in primary schooling is given. Neither the GER nor the GPI is given. A reasonable approximation to the GPI can be estimated, however, since the proportion of girls in target group (female students) is given and the proportion of girls in the age group in the population can be estimated from the most recent census (1999). According to the 1999 census, the proportion of girls in the population of age 6-10 years was 48.7%. Let it be assumed that the proportion of girls in that age range is relatively stable over the years between 1999 and 2006. Then the GPI for 2005/06 would be calculated using formula (2) above as follows:

GPI = (47.91/48.70)/[(100-47.91)/(100-48.70)] = 0.9689

3. Example 2: Males per 100 Female Students and Males per 100 Females in the Population, ECCE, Myanmar

In reporting the gender balance in ECCE enrolments in the Myanmar National Report, the following data are given in the text:

Number of boys per 100 girls enrolled: 101.59
Number of boys per 100 girls in the population: 101.09
Then using formula (4) above, the GPI can be calculated as follows: GPI = 101.09/101.59 = 0.9951

4. Derivation

The derivation of these formulas is given below using GER as an example.

Derivation of Equivalent GPI Formulas

Standard formula:	GPI	=	(f/F)/(m/M)	(1)
$GPI = GER_{female}/GER_{male}$				
Divide both numerators by (f+m)		=	[(f/(f+m))/F] [(m/(f+m))/M]	
Divide both denominators by (F+M)		=	[(f/(f+m))/F/(F+M)] [(m/(f+m))/M/(F+M)]	
Convert to percents		=	(%f/%F)/(%m/%M)	(2)
Or re-arrange terms		=	(%f/%m)/(%F/%M)	(3)
Or, if the GR is given, then (2) becomes		=	1/(m*/M*)	
		=	(M*/m*)	(4)

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