United Nations
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Bangkok Office
Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau
for Education

Paving the Road to Education

A target-by-target analysis of SDG 4 for Asia and the Pacific

Education 2030

UNESCO Education Sector

Education is UNESCO's top priority because it is a basic human right and the foundation on which to build peace and drive sustainable development. UNESCO is the United Nations' specialized agency for education and the Education Sector provides global and regional leadership in education, strengthens national education systems and responds to contemporary global challenges through education with a special focus on gender equality and Africa.

The Global Education 2030 Agenda

UNESCO, as the United Nations' specialized agency for education, is entrusted to lead and coordinate the Education 2030 Agenda, which is part of a global movement to eradicate poverty through 17 Sustainable Development Goals by 2030. Education, essential to achieve all of these goals, has its own dedicated Goal 4, which aims to ***"ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all."*** The Education 2030 Framework for Action provides guidance for the implementation of this ambitious goal and commitments.

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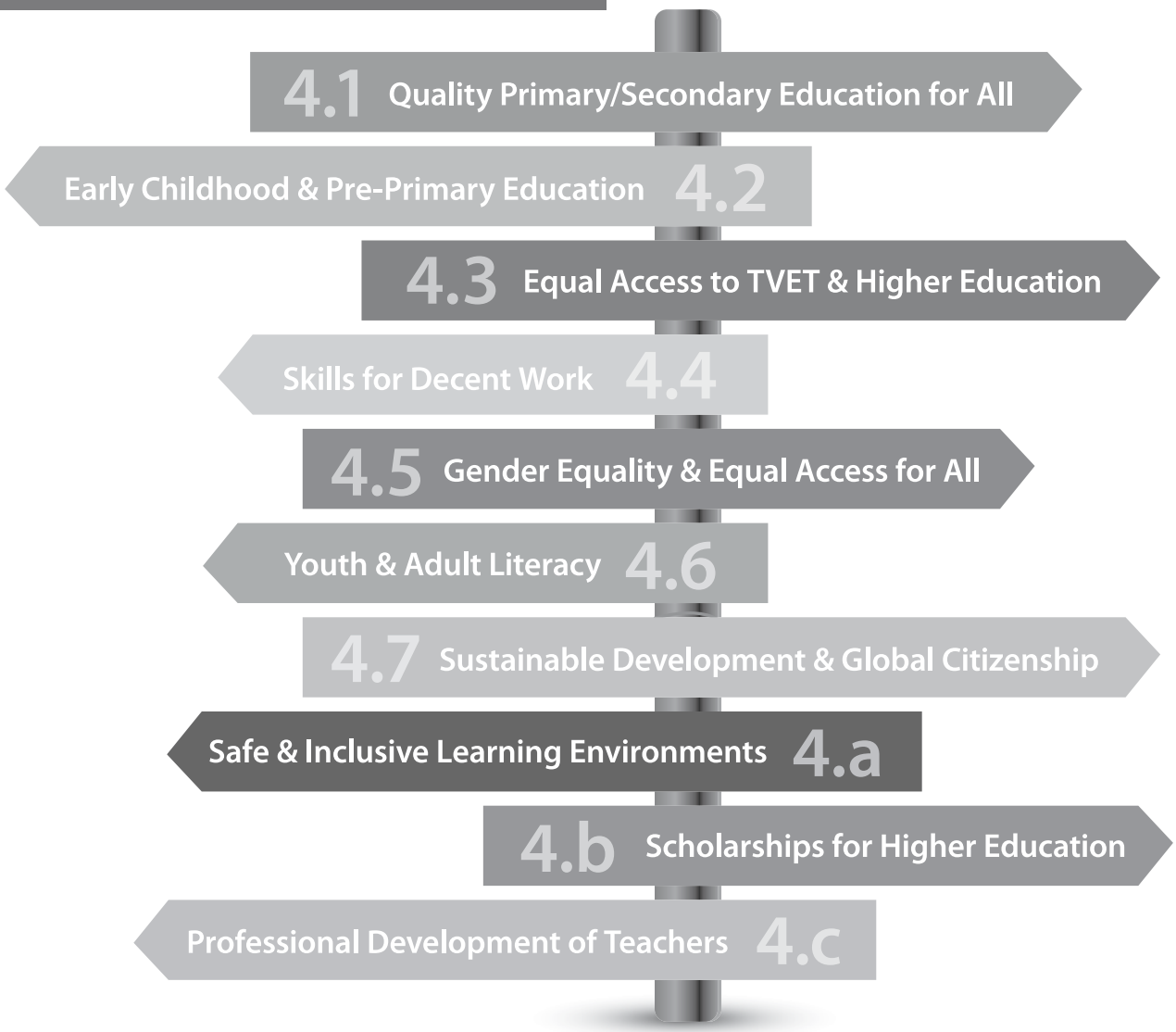

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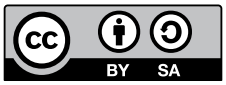

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Table of Contents

Figures, Tables and Boxes

List of Figures

List of Tables

List of Boxes

Acronyms

ADB	Asian Development Bank
ACDP	Analytical and Capacity Development Partnership
APMED	Asia-Pacific Meeting on Education 2030
APREC	Asia-Pacific Regional Education Conference
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
CRS	Creditor Reporting System
DHS	Demographic and Health Survey
ECCE	Early Childhood Care and Education
ECDI	Early Childhood Development Index
ECE	Early Childhood Education
EFA	Education for All
ESD	Education for Sustainable Development
GAML	Global Alliance to Monitor Learning
GAP	Global Action Programme
GCED	Global Citizenship Education
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEM	Global Education Monitoring
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
GIR	Gross Intake Ratio
GPIA	Adjusted Gender Parity Index
GSHS	Global School-based Student Health Survey
HLPF	High-Level Political Forum
IAEG-SDGs	Inter-Agency and Expert Group on Sustainable Development Goal Indicators
IAG-EII	Inter-Agency Group on Education Inequality Indicators
IBE-UNESCO	International Bureau of Education-UNESCO
ICCS	International Civic and Citizenship Education Study
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
IDI	ICT Development Index
IEA	International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement
IIE	Institute of International Education
ILO	International Labour Organization
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
ITU	International Telecommunication Union
LGBT	Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender
LPIA	Adjusted Location Parity Index
UNESCO MGIEP	UNESCO Mahatma Gandhi Institute of Education for Peace and Sustainable Development
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
NEA	National Education Account

Acronyms

NEET	Not in Education, Employment or Training
NER	Net Enrolment Rate
NTIA	National Telecommunications and Information Administration
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
OECD-DAC	OECD- Development Assistance Committee
OOSR	Out-of-School Rate
P21	Partnership for 21st Century skills
PIAAC	Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies
PIF	Pacific Island Forum
PIRLS	Progress in International Reading Literacy Study
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessments
PQTR	Pupil-Qualified Teacher Ratio
PTR	Pupil-Teacher-Ratio
PTTR	Pupil-Trained Teacher Ratio
RTWG	Regional Thematic Working Group
SAARC	South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SEAMEO	Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization
SOGIE	Sexual Orientation and Gender Identity and Expression
TALIS	Teaching and Learning International Survey
TAG	Technical Advisory Group on Education Indicators
TCG SDG 4-ED2030	Technical Cooperation Group on the Indicators for SDG 4-Education 2030
TIMSS	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education Training
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UN	United Nations
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNESCAP	United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund (formerly United Nations Fund for Population Activities)
UNHCR	United Nation High Commissioner for Refugees
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
WASH	Water, Sanitation and Hygiene
WG	Washington Group on Disability Statistics
WHO	World Health Organization
WPIA	Adjusted Wealth Parity Index

Foreword

In a rapidly changing world, where uncertainties are becoming more evident and resources are limited, education is seen as a critical means to transform our society, shape the future and reach all the 17 sustainable development goals. Hence, founded on the principles that education is a fundamental human right and is a public good, the Education 2030 (SDG 4) Agenda is more ambitious, aspirational and universal. It focuses on giving everyone an equal opportunity, leaving no one behind and aims to ensure quality learning outcomes for all, throughout their lives.

Because of the significant leap we made in education, we are in far better situation now than we were during EFA and MDG times. However, challenges in quality and equity remain. In addition, the shift to pursue one single education goal raises the bar. It requires innovative and bolder efforts if we aim to reach all the targets by 2030. The business as usual is no longer an option if we want to address all forms of exclusion, disparities and inequalities in education.

The Education 2030 Agenda has 10 targets, of which 7 are outcome targets and 3 are means of implementation targets. These targets demonstrate the transformative scale and ambition of the new education agenda, ranging from early childhood education to adult training. The roadmap to achieve these targets, including the 43 thematic indicators to measure progress towards these targets, are laid out in the Education 2030 Framework for Action. As education is essential for the success of all 17 SDG goals, the Education 2030 Agenda aims to "ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all."

In an effort to ascertain where the region stands in terms of their education development, this report examines the status and snapshots of each SDG 4 target at the beginning of new development era using available data. It also identifies emerging opportunities and challenges in the hope to facilitate coordination, planning, implementation and monitoring of SDG 4. In the end, this report envisions to deliver powerful messages and foster dialogues and actions in education, as a crucial enabler of sustainable development in the next 12 years.

The report's emphasis on analyzing the data through the lens of inequality will help guarantee that no one is left behind. Its intention to set benchmarks for measuring progress in this region will facilitate systematic monitoring to ensure progress is on track and actions remain focused. We hope that this will make a good resource for Member States in the region in raising awareness of where we stand, and mobilizing actions to strengthen their national education policies, plans and systems.

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Director
UNESCO Bangkok

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This report provides detail account of the achievements and progresses that the region has made in education so far and reflects on the challenges to be addressed in our efforts to pave the road for the future. This report assesses where countries stand on the implementation of SDG 4, and based on the SDG 4 indicator framework, attempts to define a starting point from which to monitor and benchmark progress ahead of the regional review schedule for 2020 and beyond.

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Introduction

At the Crossroads of Education in Asia-Pacific

The new global development agenda, *Transforming our World: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*, establishes ambitious goals and priorities that build on the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the Education for All (EFA) goals.

Each of the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) extends and expands our global commitment to end poverty and calls upon countries to ensure no one is left behind. Education is at the heart of this endeavor. A more just, peaceful and prosperous world will depend on empowering individuals to acquire the knowledge, skills and values needed to contribute to the development of societies and economies.

The Education 2030 Framework for Action, endorsed by Member States in Incheon, Republic of Korea, in May 2015, offers a plan to get there. Embedded in each target under Sustainable Development Goal 4 (SDG 4), from early childhood education to lifelong learning, is the need to ensure that everyone benefits from high quality education and opportunities to learn.

This report looks back at the road travelled in the Asia-Pacific region in relation to educational progress and reflects on the challenges to be addressed in our efforts to pave the road for the future. This report assesses where countries stand on the implementation of SDG 4, and based on the SDG 4 indicator framework, attempts to define a starting point from which to monitor and benchmark progress ahead of the regional review schedule for 2020.

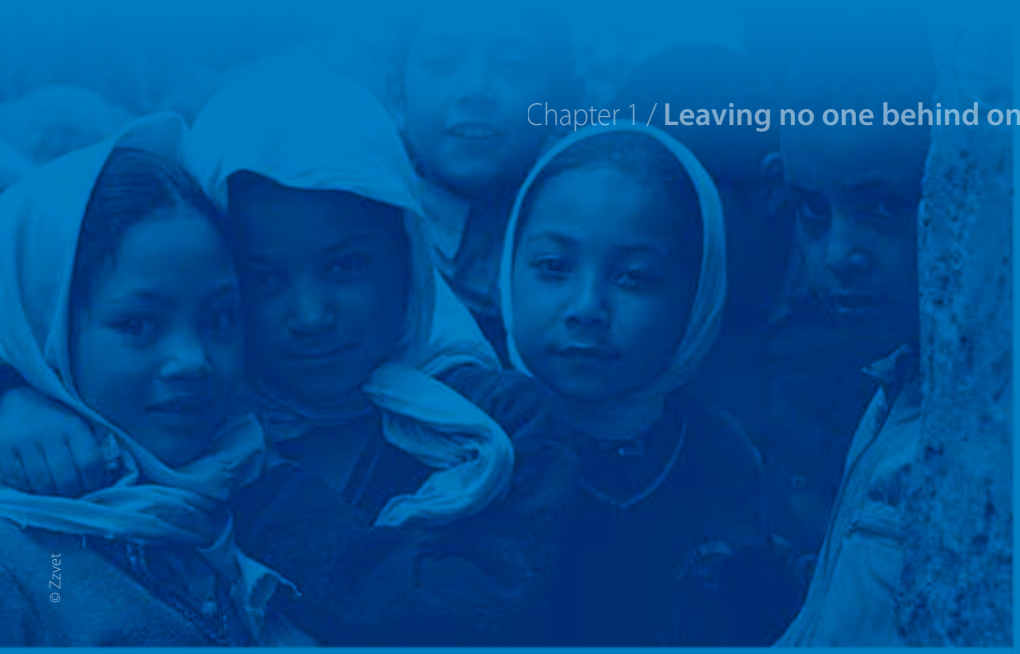
Chapter 1 describes how countries, supported by global and thematic experts and advisors, reached consensus on a global SDG 4 monitoring framework made up of 11 indicators. Stakeholders also agreed upon a broader thematic monitoring framework that defined 32 additional measures for a total of 43 indicators.

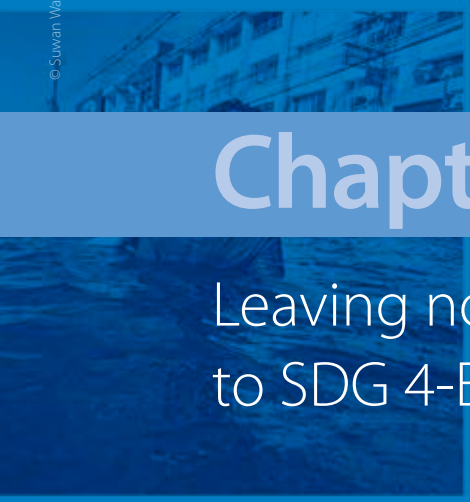
Chapter 2 walks through the ten education targets (seven targets related to policy and three targets that focus on the means of implementation) and their associated global and thematic indicators. In an effort to set benchmarks for measuring progress, the report presents currently available data for the global and thematic indicators and describes progress to date.

Despite decades of progress, many indicators lack robust internationally comparable baselines. Where possible, Chapter 2 analyses the data for each target through the lens of inequality, recognizing that national or regional averages can mask disparities between population groups.

Finally, Chapter 3 provides recommendations for the Asia-Pacific education community on key policy and measurement challenges emerging from this initial stocktaking. In the process of conducting this analysis is has become clear that greater collaboration between governments, the private sector and civil society will be essential if Member States are to produce the data and information that will ensure regional progress on the SDG 4-Education 2030 Agenda.

The international community must not only make good on the longstanding promise to get all children in school but must also ensure that they stay in school and learn while completing an education that prepares them for decent employment and a fulfilling life in the 21st century (UIS, 2017d). If the system is not delivering on the promise of learning in school, what child would want to participate in education in the first place?





Chapter 1

Leaving no one behind on the road to SDG 4-Education 2030

1.1 Background

The Asia-Pacific region is home to more than four billion people, constituting as much as 55% of the world's population (World Bank Data Bank, accessed March 2017). Spanning half the globe, the region is culturally diverse and includes countries at every stage of economic development. Yet, countries in the region share some common challenges as they seek to implement the SDG 4-Education 2030 Agenda.

Between 2000 and 2016, the region benefitted from economic growth that allowed countries to make significant progress on the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and the Education for All (EFA) Agenda. Funding for education grew, allowing more children to access basic education at the primary and lower secondary levels while reducing gender disparities in the classroom. However, a closer look reveals challenges that have yet to be addressed, such as ensuring that all learners complete primary education level and make the transition to secondary and tertiary education, and improving access to quality education for the most marginalized and vulnerable groups (UNESCO, 2015a).

SDG 4, with its ten targets, represents an unprecedented global commitment to ensure high quality, equitable education for all. It also presents a major monitoring challenge. A set of 43 indicators has been formulated to track all aspects of education. The indicator framework focuses attention on outcomes as well as the means of implementation needed to deliver on the outcomes. These indicators will be vital to decision makers and other stakeholders in formulating evidence-based education policies, assessing the effectiveness of education programmes and uncovering areas where resources should be directed.

As a first step, this report highlights the availability of baseline data for many indicators. Countries in the Asia-Pacific region are struggling to meet their SDG 4 monitoring requirements. For this reason, the report sheds light on the current situation and where new methodologies are required to ensure cross-country comparability. UNESCO and other partners are working with national statistical organizations to support methodological and structural solutions to support both capacity building and national data collection for SDG 4 (UIS, 2017a).

This chapter introduces the Education 2030 indicator framework and provides a snapshot of data available in Asia-Pacific countries for each of the SDG 4 targets. It also provides a brief overview of recent economic and demographic changes in the region and how they might shape the implementation of SDG 4 in the years ahead.

1.2 Monitoring the SDG 4-Education 2030 Agenda

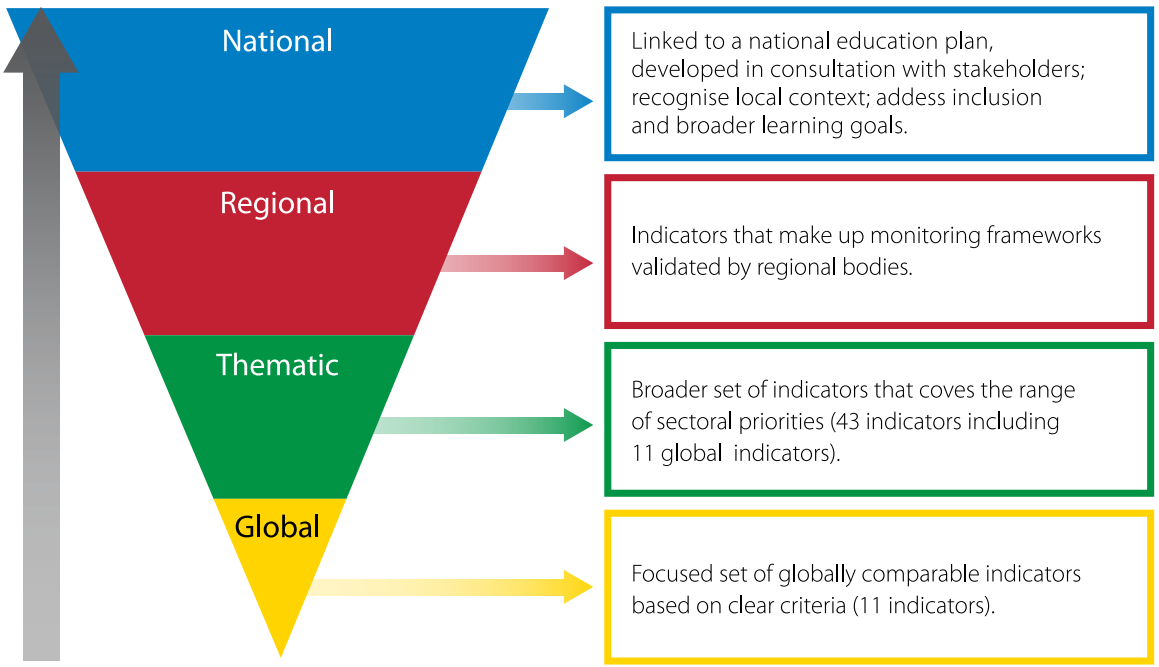
1.2.1 *Indicator framework to monitor the SDG 4-Education 2030 Agenda*

In May 2015, the global education community gathered in Incheon, Republic of Korea, for the World Education Forum where participants considered how to maintain the global momentum on the education agenda. The outcome of the meeting was the Incheon Declaration for Education 2030 which contributed to the formulation of the Sustainable Development Goal on Education (SDG 4) to "ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all". More ambitious and holistic than the preceding EFA Agenda, the SDG 4-Education 2030 Agenda with its ten targets aims to address equity, inclusiveness, early childhood learning, global citizenship, human rights and skills development.

The new agenda has a strong focus on monitoring and has set out an indicator framework to measure progress, with equity and inclusion as measures of overall success. Member States adopted the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development in September 2015, initiating a process to implement a coordinated and integrated monitoring framework for SDG 4. The UN Secretary-General recommended a multi-tiered framework composed of four levels of indicators--global, regional, thematic and national--with each level serving a different purpose (**Figure 1**).

Figure 1

Four levels of indicators for monitoring the SDG 4-Education 2030 Agenda



Source: UIS, 2016c based on UN, 2014.

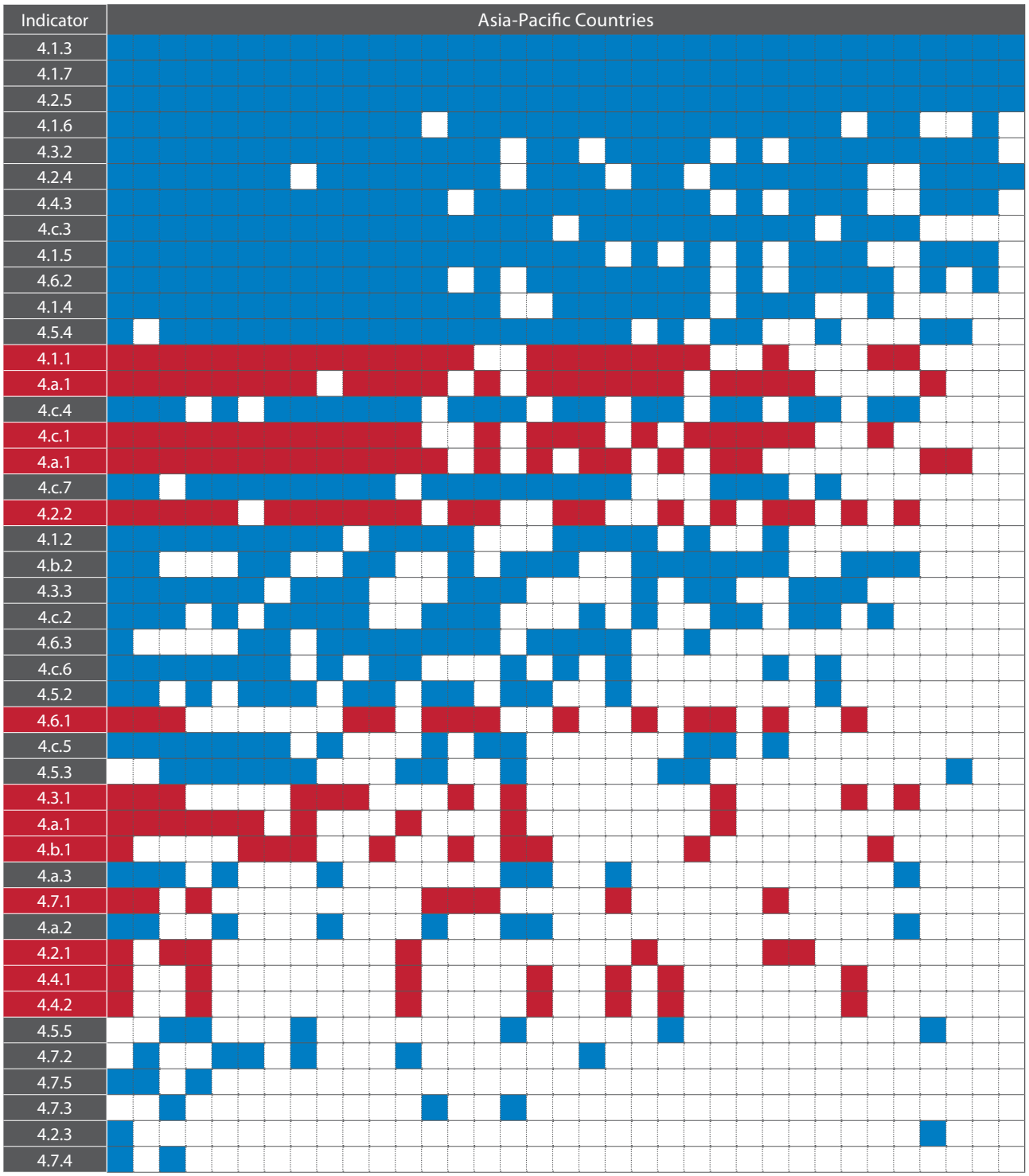
1.2.2 *Snapshot of country readiness to monitor and report on SDG 4*

In 2016, the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) conducted a rapid appraisal survey to assess country readiness to collect the data required to measure global and thematic SDG 4-Education 2030 indicators. The results of the survey showed that 35 responding countries from the Asia-Pacific region were able to collect between 9% and 91% of the data required for SDG 4 indicators (**Figure 2**).[1]

1 In total, 35 out of 46 countries, based on UNESCO Bangkok regional categories, participated in the survey. For more information on country coverage of UNESCO Bangkok, please refer to Annex A.

Figure 2

Availability of SDG 4 indicators by country, 2016



Note: Rows represent the 43 indicators and columns represent countries. Coloured-cells represent where the countries are able to collect data for the indicators. Global indicators are highlighted in red.

Source: UNESCO, 2016f.

On average, Asia-Pacific countries were able to collect data for 51% of the 43 indicators (UNESCO, 2016f). Data were available for 44% of the 11 global indicators and 60% of thematic indicators (UIS, 2017d). At the time of the survey, not one country in the Asia-Pacific region reported having the capacity to collect the data to measure all 43 indicators.

In general, countries reported that it was easier to collect data for indicators based on administrative sources than from other sources, such as learning assessments and household surveys. Many countries determined that data could be disaggregated by sex (68%) and location (66%), but data disaggregated by disability and income were limited. Only 21% and 4%, respectively, could be disaggregated by these dimensions (UNESCO, 2016f).

1.3 The regional context for SDG 4

Since 2000, steady economic growth and declining fertility rates have been important enablers of regional progress in education. However, the region was still home to roughly 400 million people who live in extreme poverty[2] between 2010 and 2013 (UN, ADB and UNDP, 2017). Moreover, in recent years the Asia-Pacific region has been hit by several natural disasters, which have destroyed or severely damaged schools and other educational institutions, and curtailed access to schooling for children, youth and adults. The combined impact of social, economic and environmental pressures will be factors in the efforts of individual countries and the region as a whole to achieve SDG 4 by 2030.

1.3.1 *Natural disasters*

The Asia-Pacific region contends with more natural disasters than any other region in the world (UN, ADB and UNDP, 2017). Millions have been affected by the storms that hit India, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Nepal, the Philippines and Vietnam in 2017. From mid-August of 2017, entire villages across Bangladesh, India and Nepal were submerged under floodwater for weeks. Authorities described it as the region's worst flooding in 40 years, with a metre of rain falling in some areas in the space of a few days. An estimated 40 million people were affected;[3] 16 million were children.[4] In South China, over 12 million people were forced to flee their homes in July 2017 as flood waters rose.[5]These disasters have a serious impact on schools, early childhood education and care centres and other educational institutions. The continual disruption of education caused by disasters prevents millions of children, youth and other learners in the region from realizing their right to education.

1.3.2 *Multidimensional poverty*

The Asia-Pacific thematic report for the 2017 High-Level Political Forum, *Eradicating Poverty and Promoting Prosperity in a Changing Asia-Pacific*, suggests that more than one in ten people in Asia and the Pacific—some 400 million people—live in extreme income poverty. As the report points out, these aggregate figures hide economic disparities within countries, regions and communities, as well as gender disparities. The report argues that there are other dimensions to consider, beyond income poverty. Poverty is multidimensional—made up of several factors that constitute deprivation—and requires targeted responses. The report applies a global Multidimensional Poverty Index (MPI), which analyses the deprivation of basic human capability (UN, ADB & UNDP, 2017). It adds that "MPI assessments propose that people who are destitute endure a combination of severe deprivations, for example, a situation in which no one in the household has at least one year of education, two or more children have died, there is severe malnutrition of an adult or child, no access to electricity or to sanitation, access to safe drinking water only at a distance of more than 45 minutes' walk, cooking with biomass fuels and/or where no material assets are possessed"(ibid).

When considering multidimensional poverty, the numbers of poor increase significantly. By this count, at least 931 million people are impoverished across the region. In rural areas in Asia-Pacific 40%, or two in five people, live in poverty. In South Asia, 86% of people living in multidimensional poverty are located in rural areas (UN, ADB and UNDP, 2017). The new focus on equity in the SDG 4-Education 2030 Agenda offers hope that individuals who are marginalized by multiple dimensions of poverty will be seen more clearly in the data.

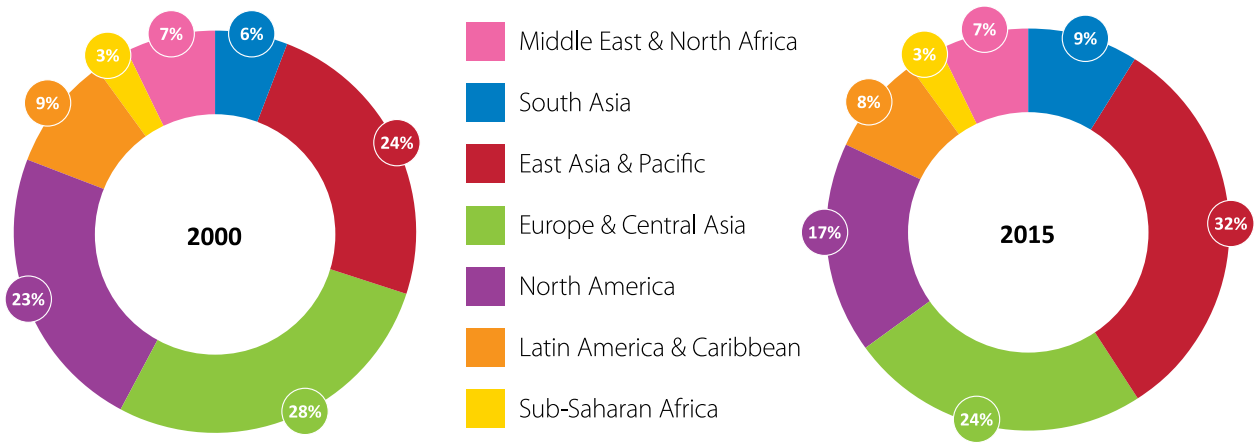
2 People living on less than US$1.90 per day at 2011 Purchasing Power Parity (PPP)
3 http://www.abc.net.au/news/2017-09-08/40-million-forced-to-rebuild-lives-after-south-asia-floods/8886264
4 https://www.unicef.org/infobycountry/media_100719.html
5 http://edition.cnn.com/2017/07/24/asia/climate-change-floods-asia/index.html

1.3.3 *Changes in the economic landscape*

In recent decades, the Asia-Pacific region has made important economic progress. In 2000, the region represented approximately 30% of the world's gross domestic product (GDP). By 2015, it accounted for more than 40% (**Figure 3**).[6] In fact, two subregions have been generating the highest annual GDP growth in the world. In 2015, East Asia and the Pacific saw GDP grow by 4% and South Asia had 7% growth. Due to its significant impact on the global economy, the Asia-Pacific region has been called "the growth engine of the world economy" (IMF, 2015).

Figure 3

Share of global GDP by region, 2000 and 2015



Source: World Bank Data Bank, accessed in August 2017.

In recent years, several countries have risen in economic status. According to the World Bank, in 2000 there were 17 low-income countries, 19 middle-income countries[7] and seven high-income countries in the Asia-Pacific region.[8] Most recently, the number of low-income countries had decreased to four, while the number of middle-income and high-income countries had increased to 33 and nine, respectively. It is important to remember that these numbers disguise significant disparities within countries.

Relatively strong regional economic growth has improved standards of living in the region. Between 2000 and 2016, the regional GDP per capita tripled (based on PPP, current international $), while global GDP per capita just doubled (World Bank Data Bank, accessed in August 2017).

Economic growth has gone hand in hand with fundamental changes in the regional labour market. In East Asia and the Pacific, since 2000, the share of employment in the agricultural sector has declined by 20 percentage points in 2016. Meanwhile, employment in the service sector has grown by 20 percentage points (World Bank Data Bank, accessed in August 2017).

6 In this section, socio-economic indicators follow the World Bank's regional classification. Unless indicated otherwise, Asia and the Pacific includes East Asia, the Pacific, and South Asia.

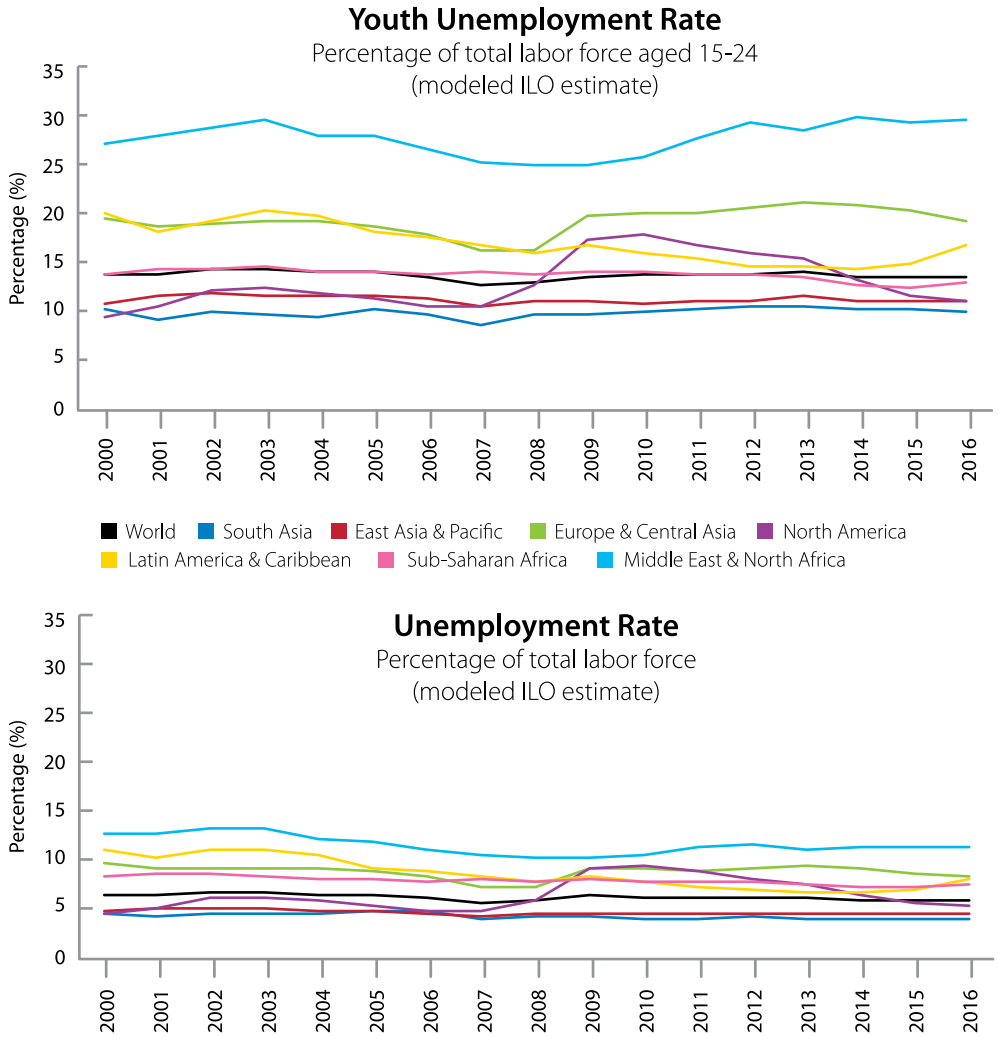
7 Middle-income countries include lower middle-income and upper middle-income countries.

8 Data refer to 46 Asia-Pacific countries with available data. For more information about the World Bank income classifications, see: https://datahelpdesk.worldbank.org/knowledgebase/articles/906519-world-bank-country-and-lending-groups.

The share of unemployment in the total labour force has remained steady at around 5% in East Asia and the Pacific. The unemployment rate among youth aged 15 to 24 years old has stagnated at 10% over the past decade (**Figure 4**). Tackling joblessness among youth remains a challenge for many countries in the region. Indeed, countries in East Asia and the Pacific, and Europe and Central Asia, as Cambodia, Kyrgyzstan and Thailand, are home to between 10% and 20% of youth who are not in education, employment or training, known as NEET (UNESCAP, 2018). In some countries in South Asia, such as Pakistan and Sri Lanka, up to 40% of youth are considered NEET (ibid.).

Figure 4

Unemployment rate (total and youth), by subregion, 2000-2016



Note: Regional classifications follow the standard of the World Bank.

Source: World Bank Data Bank, accessed in March 2017.

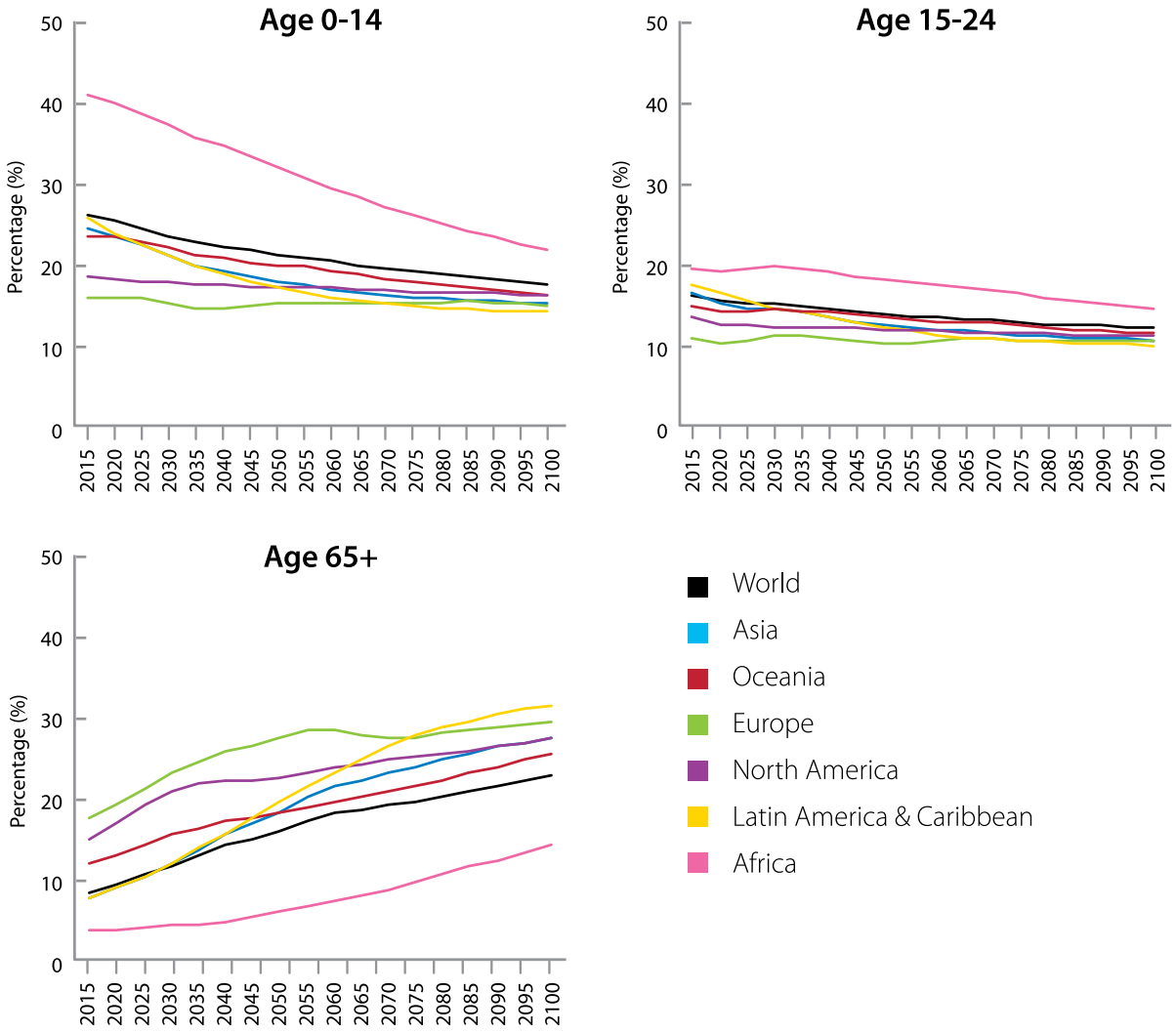
With the regional economy projected to have grown by 5.4% in 2018, countries have an opportunity to pursue key reforms that could boost socioeconomic conditions for their populations (IMF, 2017). In light of the ambitious SDG 4-Education 2030 Agenda, countries have a new opportunity to invest public funds in the quality of education, including school resources, infrastructure and salaries.

1.3.4 *Changing demographic trends*

In 2015, the Asia-Pacific region was home to 55% of the world's population, which represented an increase of approximately 600 million since 2000. One of the region's defining characteristics is the size of the youth population (aged 15 to 24). According to the United Nations Population Division, 60 % of the world's youth lived in Asia in 2015 (**Figure 5**). However, declining birth rates are gradually transforming the region. In 2015, the elderly (aged 65 and up) represented 8% of the population. By 2100, they are expected to represent 28% of the total population (Figure 5).

Figure 5

Share of population (aged 0-14, 15-24 and 65+) by region, 2015-2100



Note: Regional classifications follow the standard of the United Nations Population Division.

Source: United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division. *World Population Prospects: The 2015 Revision*, accessed in March 2017.

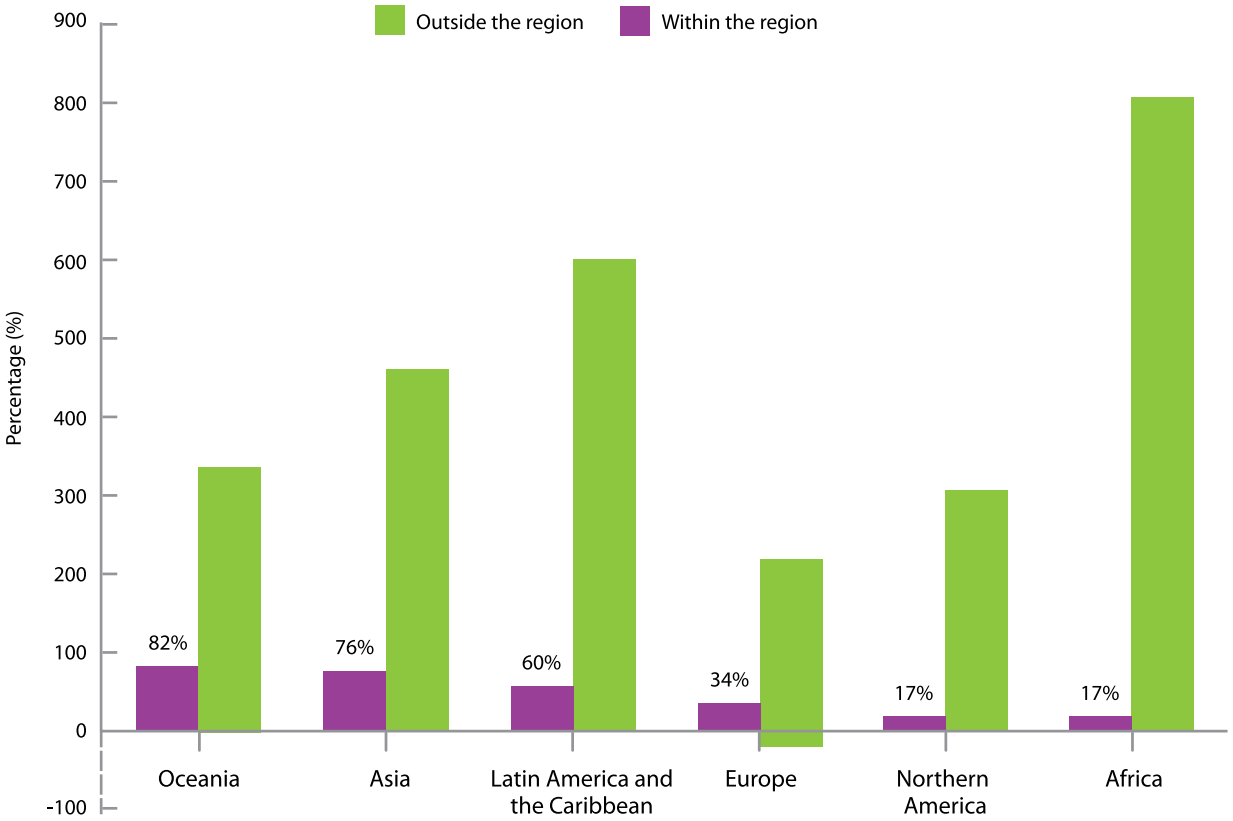
Urbanization is another important population trend. Between 2000 and 2016, the region experienced rapid urban population growth. By 2016, Asia-Pacific was home to 47% of the global urban population. In East Asia and the Pacific urban populations grew from 35% to 47%, between 2000 and 2016 (World Bank Data Bank, accessed March 2017).

Another notable demographic pattern in the Asia-Pacific region is the movement of people across international borders, generally from poor countries to richer ones. **Figure 6** presents the percentage change in cross-border migration between 1995 and 2015. During this period, the region experienced a 76% rise in migration; the movement of an estimated 59 million migrants within the region (World Bank Data Bank, accessed March 2017).

Migration brings both benefits and risks to children of migrant families (UNESCAP, 2016a). In terms of benefits, remittances from family members who migrate may reduce poverty in recipient households. Remittances often exceed what would have been earned if the migrants had stayed in their home country. As a result, remittances allow children to stay in school rather than drop out to support their families. On the other hand, children who accompany a parent or are born in a destination country can find themselves in an irregular status, if not stateless, as migrant workers are not usually permitted to bring dependents with them (ibid.). This irregular status can prevent children from attending formal education in the host country. Moreover, migrant children are vulnerable to the worst forms of child labour.

Figure 6

Percentage change in cross-border migrants by region, 1995 and 2015



Note: Regional classification follows the standard of the United Nations Population Division.
Note: Values in green represent the cumulative percent change in the movement of migrants out of the region, 1995-2015.
Source: United Nations database, accessed in January 2016.

1.4 Bridging the remaining education gaps

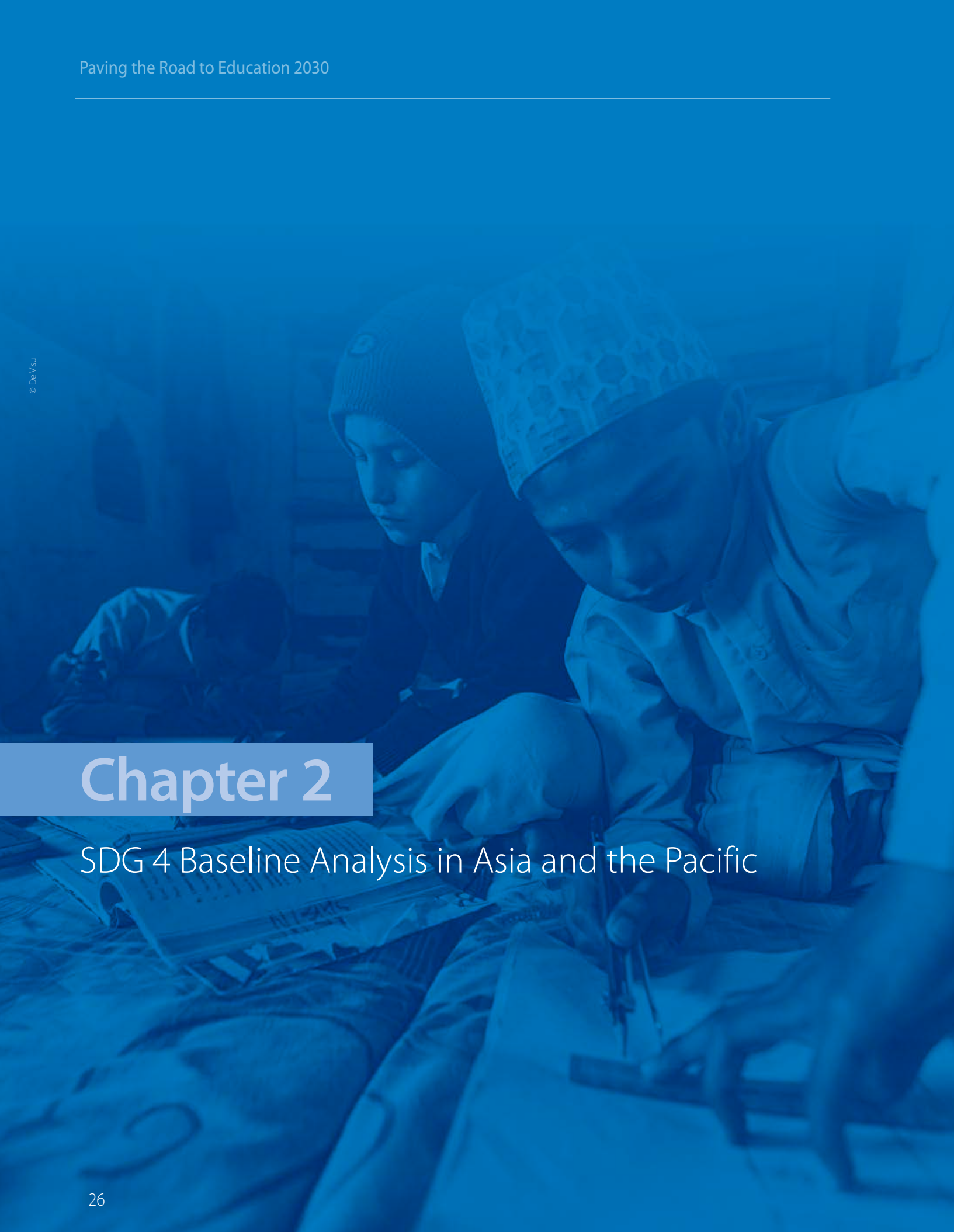
While better education has led to greater prosperity, improvements in health and social stability, this report points to the challenges countries in the region continue to face. Data tell us that without significant investments in the implementation of the SDG 4-Education 2030 Agenda, hard-won gains of recent decades will erode.

Since 2000, steady economic progress, slowing population growth and technological advances have enabled countries in Asia-Pacific to broaden access to primary and secondary education and improve levels of gender parity. Countries that had been lagging behind the rest of the region in educational participation made the most progress. However, educational attainment has slowed or has come to a standstill in recent years. As the present report will show, in some cases, achievement gaps are widening—between rich and poor, rural and urban, and within and between countries.

In 2016, regional education stakeholders convened by UNESCO and other partners met to develop a roadmap for the implementation of the SDG 4-Education 2030 Agenda. The roadmap articulates the region's intentions and actions and describes how key stakeholders will cooperate and collaborate, within and beyond the education sector, to ensure systemic monitoring of the education agenda and to review progress.

This process will help Member States better understand the 'unfinished business' of the EFA Agenda and assess the scale and scope of the challenges ahead. To this end, countries in the region have started to analyze and align their educational priorities in order to implement the Education 2030 Agenda.

The first phase of the roadmap sought to generate a more in-depth understanding of the concepts, definitions, content and linkages between the SDG 4 and its targets, as well the qualitative and quantitative data required to measure and meet the goal. Ushering in the second phase, this report, *Paving the Road to Education 2030: a target-by-target analysis of SDG 4 for Asia-Pacific*, sets down available baselines for each education indicator. As such, this report aims to provide a necessary reference point for monitoring and reporting efforts as Member States prepare for the review of progress scheduled for 2020.



Chapter 2

SDG 4 Baseline Analysis in Asia and the Pacific

Target 4.1

Educational Participation, Completion and Learning Achievement

2.1.1 *Unpacking Target 4.1*

By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes.

Target 4.1 addresses universal primary and secondary education completion as necessary milestones on the road to sustainable development. In doing so it expands the scope of the education goal from access to education, which was the focus of the EFA Agenda, to the completion of at least 12 years of schooling. Moreover, it places a sharp focus on ensuring that learners acquire relevant knowledge, skills and competencies necessary for lifelong learning.

Table 1: Target 4.1 Indicators

Indicator		Type	Baseline Available
4.1.1	Proportion of children and young people (a) in Grade 2 or 3; (b) at the end of primary education; and (c) at the end of lower secondary education achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in (i) reading and (ii) mathematics, by sex	Global	Partly
4.1.2	Administration of a nationally-representative learning assessment (a) in Grade 2 or 3; (b) at the end of primary education; and (c) at the end of lower secondary education	Thematic	Partly
4.1.3	Gross intake ratio to the last grade (primary, lower secondary)	Thematic	Yes
4.1.4	Completion rate (primary education, lower secondary education, upper secondary education)	Thematic	Yes
4.1.5	Out-of-school rate (primary education, lower secondary education, upper secondary education)	Thematic	Yes
4.1.6	Percentage of children over-age for grade (primary education, lower secondary education)	Thematic	Yes
4.1.7	Number of years of (a) free and (b) compulsory primary and secondary education guaranteed in legal frameworks	Thematic	Yes

Source: UIS, 2017c.

While data from many national learning assessments are available, every country sets its own standards based on national curricula and expectations by level of education and subject. As a result, performance levels from national assessments are not directly comparable. Today, learning assessment results are only comparable for countries that participate in the same cross-national assessment. In addition, assessments only cover students who are enrolled in school. Assessing the reading and mathematics skills of populations who are out-of-school will require the development of alternative procedures, such as household-based surveys.

2.1.2 *Are children and youth in the Asia-Pacific region learning?*

Indicator **4.1.1**, the global indicator, reflects the main innovation of the SDG 4-Education 2030 Agenda, which places learning outcomes at the centre of educational progress. The indicator tracks the proportion of children and young people who achieve at least a minimum proficiency in reading and mathematics. Currently, there are no global standards for proficiency in these subjects; however, the education community is working through the Global Alliance to Monitor Learning (GAML) to establish minimum proficiency levels aligned with internationally comparable and agreed-upon learning assessments.

Equipping learners with minimum competencies

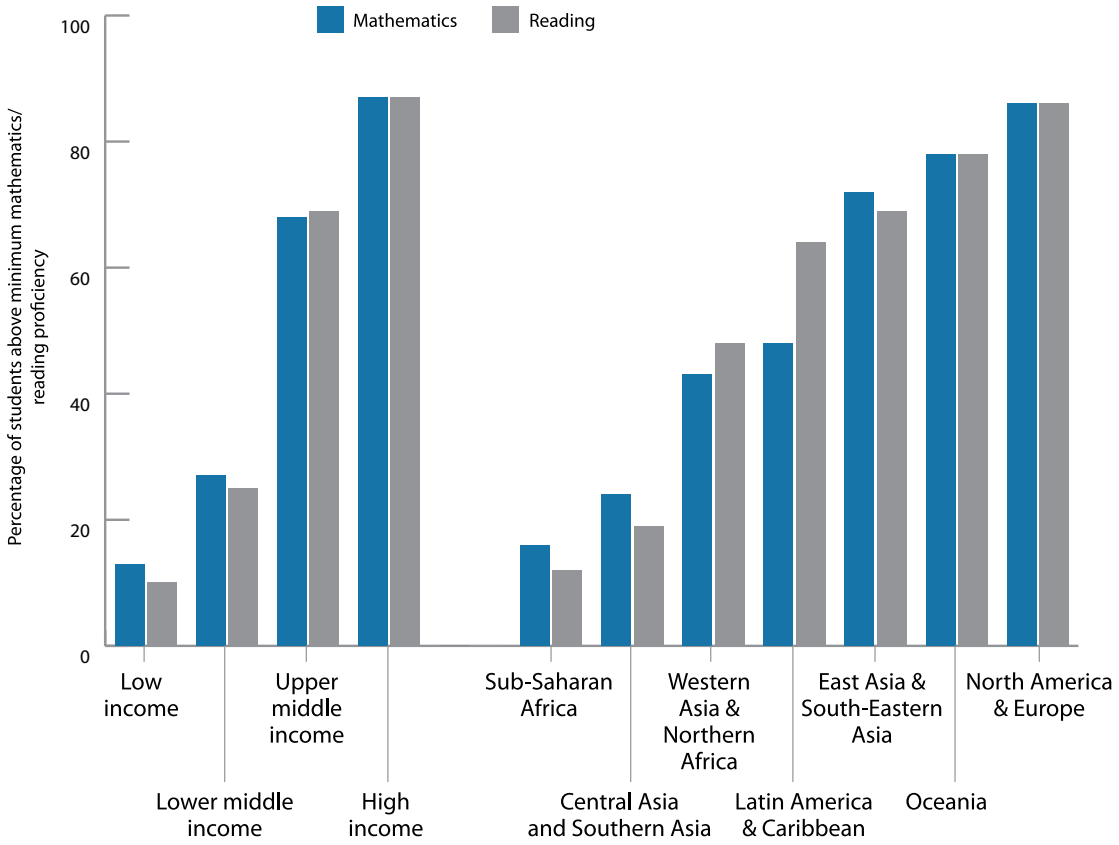
According to a global survey of country readiness to monitor the new indicators, more than one-half of countries (58%) reported having the required data to measure proficiency levels in reading and mathematics at different stages of the education system (Indicator 4.1) (UIS, 2016c). Among the 35 countries in Asia-Pacific almost 70% of them had the capacity to report the required data (UNESCO, 2016f).

As seen in **Figure 7** below, nine in ten children and adolescents (241 million) in low-income countries lack basic literacy and numeracy skills by the time they are of age to complete primary or lower secondary education. In lower middle-income countries, the rate was three in four. This includes many countries in the Asia-Pacific region where education does not equip children and young people with adequate skills for life or the labour market, contributing to what has been called a crisis in learning. (UIS, 2017d; World Bank, 2018).

According to data obtained from global and regional assessments, students in East Asia, Southeast Asia and Oceania perform relatively well compared to other regions of the world. Data from East Asia, in particular, is influenced by the results from countries with top-performing student populations. In Central and Southern Asia, education systems struggle to equip learners with the basic competencies in reading and mathematics.

Figure 7

Percentage of primary and secondary school students who pass a minimum proficiency threshold in reading and mathematics, by income level and SDG subregion, 2011-2015



Note: Subregional grouping is based on SDG regions. The results were processed by the UIS, based on data from PIRLS 2011, TIMSS 2015, PISA 2015 and SAQMEC III

Source: UIS, 2017d.

Currently, the GAML is working to establish a common metric to help countries identify a minimum proficiency threshold for reading and mathematics. Baselines are already available for countries that have participated in international assessments, such as the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), administered by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), as well as in the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS) and the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS).

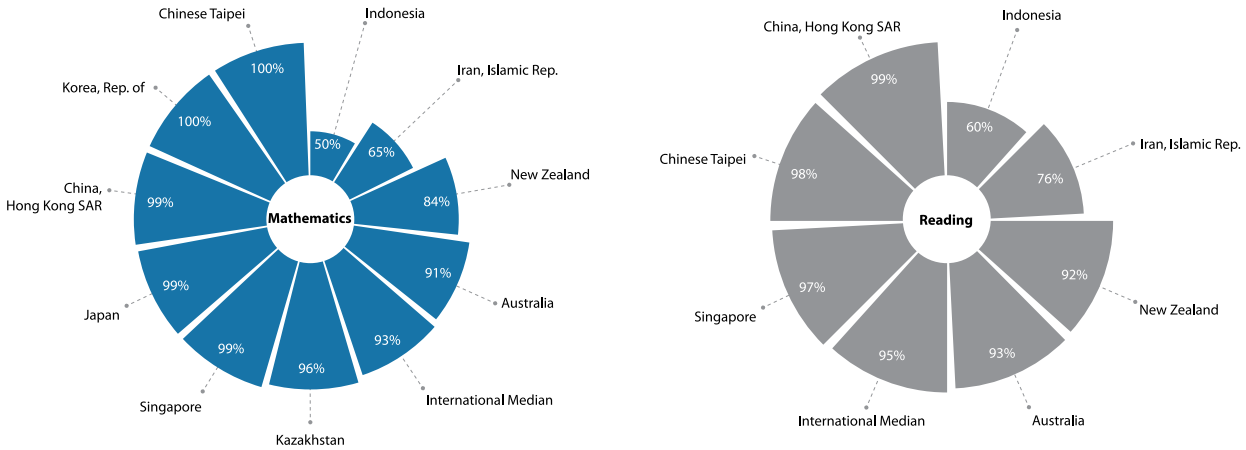
Figures 8 present the share of students that participated in TIMSS and PIRLS assessments at the end of primary education and achieved minimum proficiency levels in mathematics and reading. TIMSS and PIRLS assessments have five internationally benchmarked proficiency levels: low, intermediate, high and advanced, and a separate category to capture data from countries that struggle to meet the lowest threshold.[9] According to the latest data, students in Indonesia and in the Islamic Republic of Iran performed poorly in both the reading and mathematics assessments, failing to meet the minimum proficiency levels. At the end of primary

9 For each proficiency level benchmark, see Mullis, Ina V.S., Michael O. Martin, Pierre Foy, and Kathleen T. Drucker, 2012. PIRLS 2011 International Results in Reading, p.65. Chestnut Hill: TIMSS & PIRLS International Study Center & Amsterdam: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA). Mullis, Ina V.S. and Michael O. Martin, TIMSS 2015 Assessment Frameworks, Chestnut Hill: TIMSS & PIRLS International Study Center & Amsterdam: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA).

school, half of students from Indonesia and two-thirds of the students from the Islamic Republic of Iran met the minimum threshold in mathematics. On the reading assessment, two-thirds of students in Indonesia and three-fourths of students in Iran met the threshold. In comparison, most students in most high-income countries achieved the minimum proficiency levels in these two subjects.

Figure 8

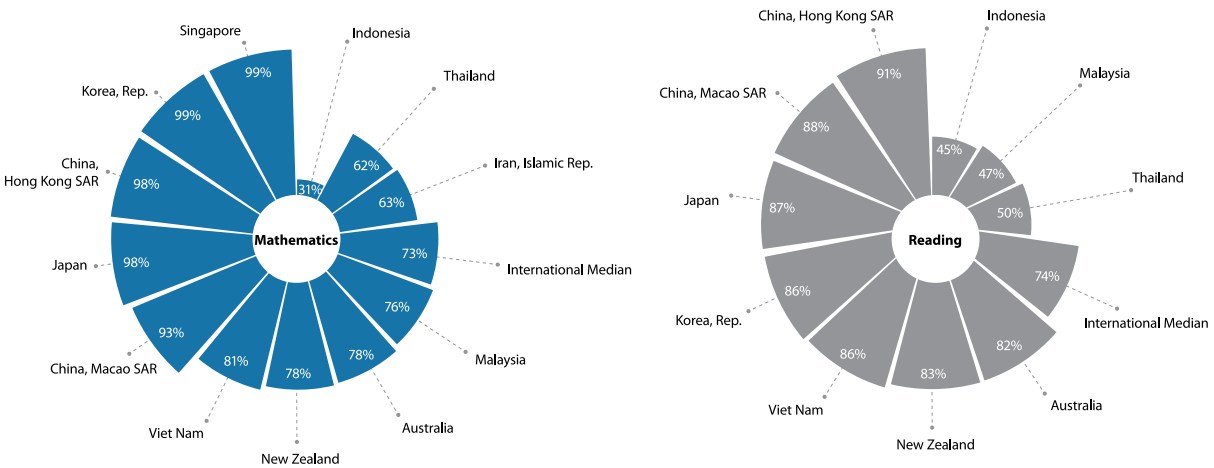
Proportion of children in fourth grade achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in mathematics (2015) and reading (2011) in selected countries



Source: Mathematics: Mullis, Ina V.S. and Michael O. Martin, 2015; Reading: Mullis, Ina V.S., Michael O. Martin, Pierre Foy and Kathleen T. Drucker, 2012.

Figure 9

Proportion of students at the end of lower secondary education achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in mathematics and reading, 2015



Note: Mathematics data for Australia, Indonesia, Macao (SAR of China), New Zealand and Viet Nam are for 2015; Reading data for Malaysia are for 2012.
Source: OECD, 2016c.

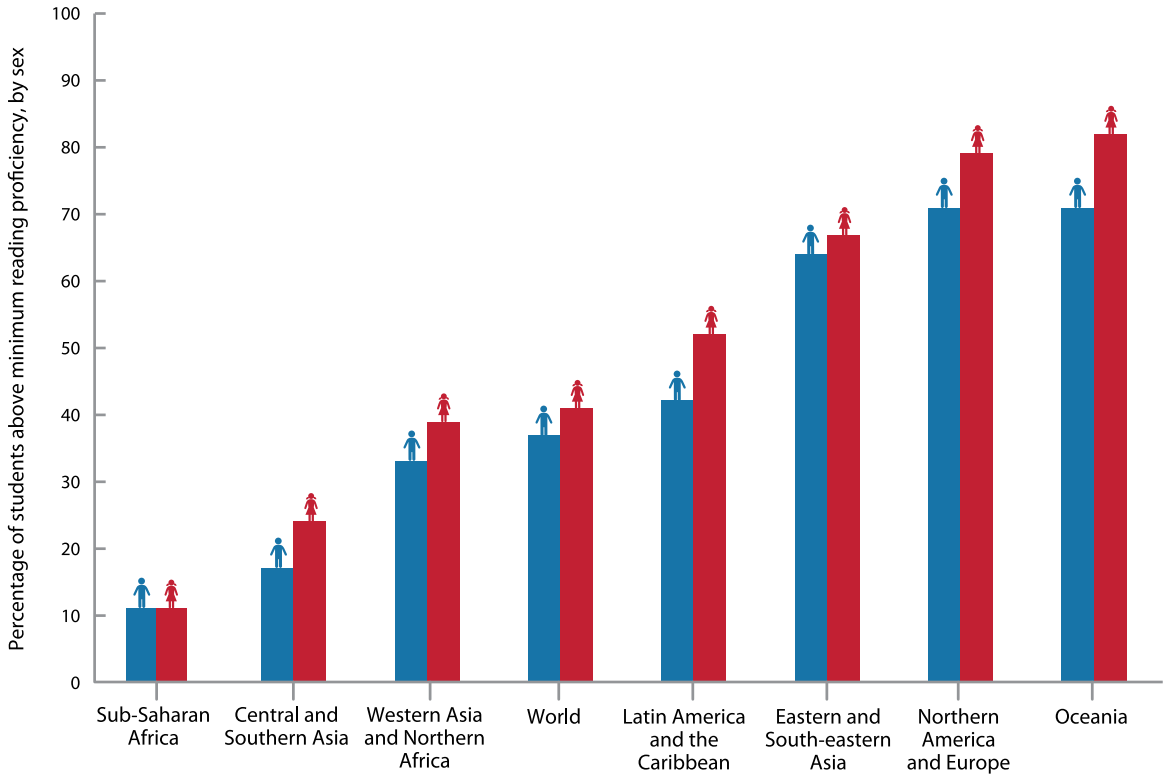
Proficiency levels in mathematics and reading at the end of lower secondary education paint a similar picture. In 2015, PISA distinguished six levels of proficiency. Students reaching Level 2 were considered to have achieved the minimum functional skill level in mathematics and reading. According to the assessment (Figure 9), less than one-third of lower secondary students in Indonesia achieved the minimum proficiency level in mathematics, and almost two-thirds of students in Thailand and the Islamic Republic of Iran. In contrast, about three-fourths of lower secondary students in Australia, Malaysia and New Zealand met the minimum level in mathematics, placing these countries just above the international median of 73%.

In Indonesia, Malaysia and Thailand, approximately 50% of lower secondary students fell short of the minimum proficiency level in reading. At the global level, three in four lower secondary students achieved the minimum reading proficiency.

Consistent with previous PISA findings, females outperformed their male peers across the board in lower secondary education (**Figure 10**); however, new research suggests that the difference in favour of females may be attributed to the way international assessments, such as PISA and PIRLS, are designed and carried out in schools (Solheim and Lundetrae, 2018).

Figure 10

Percentage of males and females in lower secondary education who achieve minimum proficiency in reading, by SDG region and sex, 2011-2015



Note: Subregional grouping is based on SDG regions. The results were processed by the UIS, with data from PIRLS 2011, TIMSS 2015, PISA 2015 and SAQMEC III.

Source: UIS, 2017d.

Children and youth in the Asia-Pacific region have yet to achieve universal functional literacy and numeracy skills. Yet, these skills are prerequisites for meaningful participation in society. Without the ability to read and perform simple calculations their ability to participate in education, the labour market or the political process is severely restricted. Literacy and numeracy enable citizens to collaborate, communicate, engage in autonomous learning, and exercise their creativity, decision-making and critical thinking skills--all vital for their participation in the 21st century (Ananiadou and Claro, 2009; P21, 2009; Scott, 2015;UNESCO, 2015c UNESCO, 2015d; UNESCO and UNEP, 2016).

BOX 1

SUBREGIONAL LEARNING ASSESSMENT FOR SOUTHEAST ASIAN COUNTRIES

The **Southeast Asia Primary Learning Metrics (SEA-PLM)** is a large-scale assessment for grade five students. The first regional assessment for Southeast Asia was developed to capture a holistic picture of where countries stand on inclusive and equitable quality education as students near the end of primary education.

Specifically, SEA-PLM gathers nationally representative data based on regionally standardized items, across four domains: mathematics, reading, writing and global citizenship. It identifies student achievement levels in cognitive and non-cognitive skills, disaggregated by sex, location, socio-economic status and subnational geographical unit.

The assessment is designed to provide system-level monitoring of achievements towards Indicator **4.1.1(b)**, learning achievement at the end of primary school. It will also inform efforts at the country level to develop programmes that will improve learning outcomes at an early age.

SEA-PLM will also help countries harmonize their procedures and technical standards with international best practices for learning measures, allowing them to align with the UNESCO Institute for Statistics' (UIS) Global Reporting Scales.

Implemented in close collaboration with education ministries, the assessment also helps governments strengthen their capacity to administer assessments, and improve the quality and management of national learning assessment systems

In the 2019-2020 period, the assessment will cover seven countries: Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Timor-Leste and Viet Nam.

2.1.3 *To what extent are children and youth in school and completing the full cycle of education?*

Target 4.1 aims to foster greater learning outcomes for children and youth enrolled in school, emphasizing the completion of primary and secondary education. However, completion rates - the extent to which students are graduating - are not sufficient to understand the full extent of educational attainment for primary and secondary education.

Completing basic education has yet to be achieved

To fill the gaps, thematic Indicator 4.1.3, or the gross intake ratio to the last grade of primary and the last grade of lower secondary education, has served as a proxy measure. It assumes that pupils entering the last grade for the first time will eventually complete the grade.

According to the regional overview in **Figure 11**, all subregions had higher gross intake ratios in 2016 compared to 2000. For the most part, countries in the region had nearly universal learner intake to the last grade of primary education. At the lower secondary level, students in South and West Asia saw the strongest gains. In 2000, only 53% of students from the subregion reached the end of lower secondary education. By 2016, the rate increase to 80%.

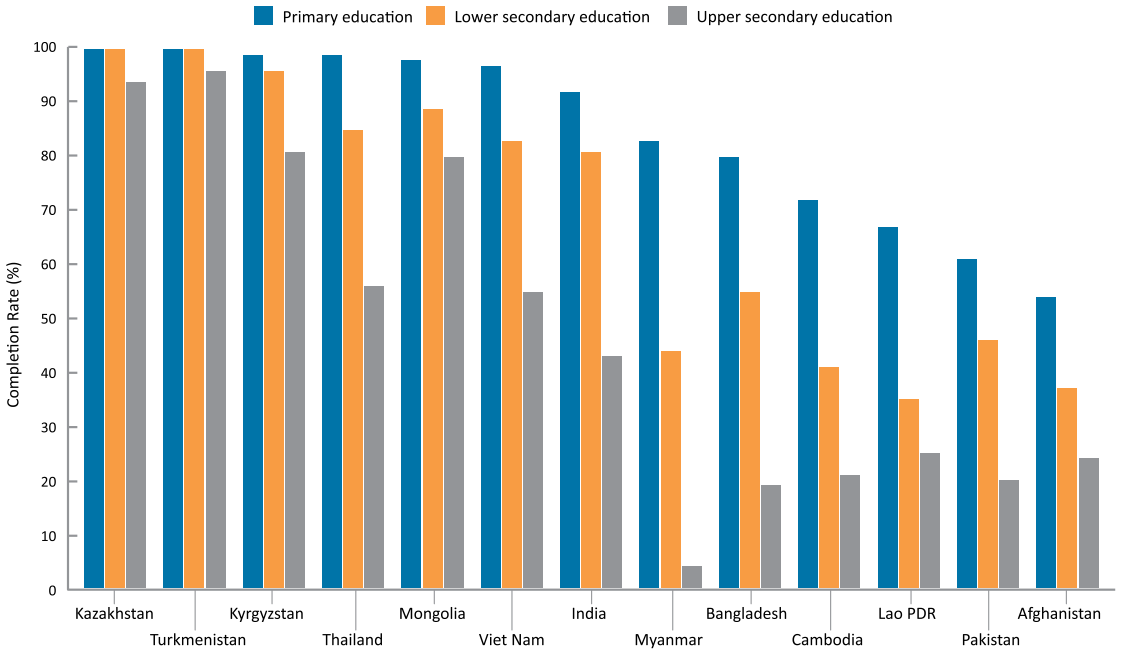
Figure 11

Gross intake ratio to the last grade of primary education and lower secondary education, 2000 and 2016

Source: Statistical Table 1.

Figure 12

Completion rates in primary, lower secondary and upper secondary education in selected countries, 2016 or latest year available



Source: Statistical Table 1.

The extent to which children and youth enroll in and complete a cycle of education is monitored by the completion rates from primary to upper secondary education, covered by Indicator **4.1.4**. Data for this indicator are limited and do not include marginalized populations, such as children and young people with disabilities.

In the Asia-Pacific region (**Figure 12**), children enrolled in primary education tend to complete this level; however, primary completion rates for individual countries vary by more than 40 percentage points. In Pakistan, 61% of children complete primary education, while in Mongolia, Thailand and Viet Nam, almost every child completes this level. Children and young people enrolled in lower secondary education are less likely to complete this stage successfully. In some countries, between half and one-third of students complete lower secondary education, with completion rates for this level, for example, at 35% in Lao PDR to 46% in Pakistan. Students in upper secondary education are the most likely to abandon their schooling before graduation. While in Kyrgyzstan 81% complete upper secondary education, in Myanmar the rate is only 4%. The poorest populations are here the least likely to complete secondary education and, as a result, to be deprived of the economic and social benefits that a full cycle of education can provide.

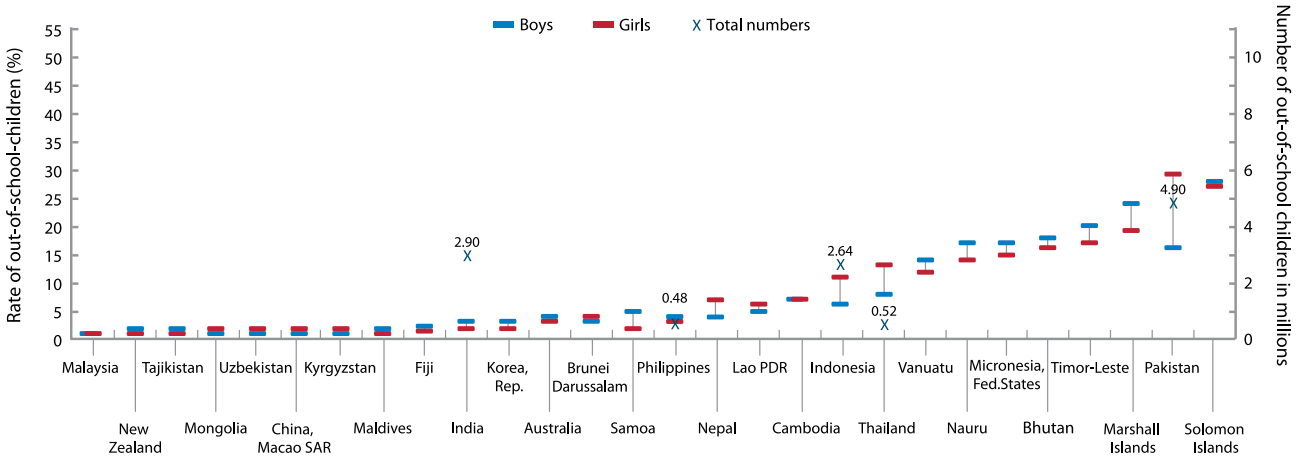
Boys more often out of school

The share of children and adolescents who are outside the education system is monitored by the out-of-school rate (OOSR), Indicator **4.1.5**. The Asia-Pacific region has made the most progress enrolling children in school and ensuring they complete a full cycle of primary and lower secondary education; however, many children continue to be excluded as seen below.

Figure 13 presents the out-of-school rate, disaggregated by sex, for primary education. According to the latest data, 24% of primary school-aged boys in Marshall Islands and 29% of primary school-aged girls in Pakistan are out of school. These two countries have the widest primary school gender gaps in the region. In the Solomon Islands, both boys and girls have similarly high out-of-school rates, reaching above 28% and 27% respectively.

Figure 13

Rate by sex and total numbers of out-of-school children of primary school age, 2016 or latest year available



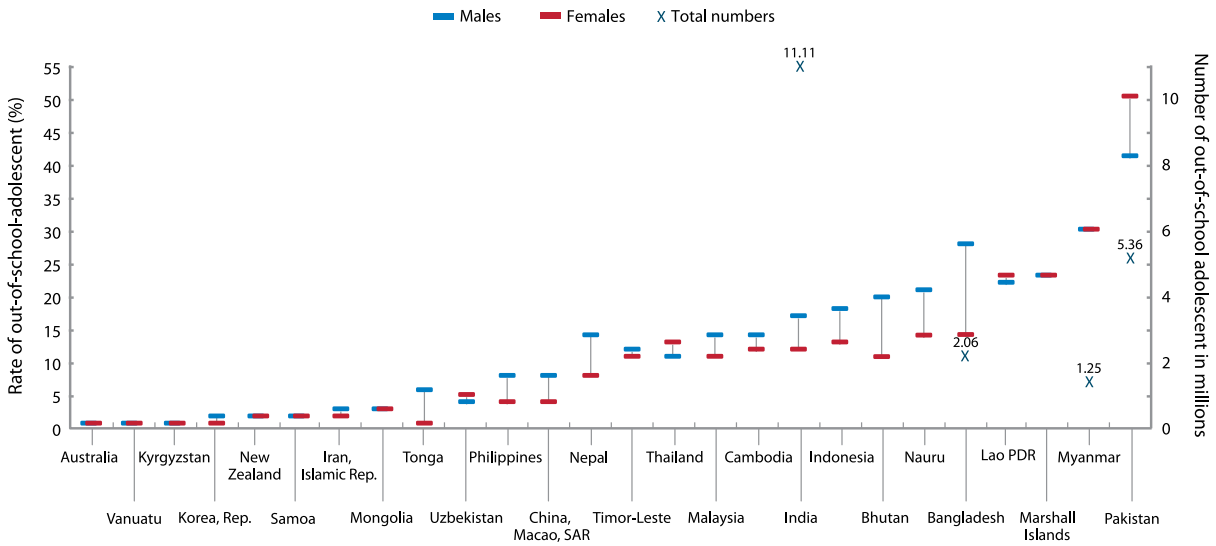
Source: Statistical Table 1.

At the lower secondary level (**Figure 14**), between 10% to 50% of adolescents in 14 countries are excluded from schooling. In other words, up to half of adolescents in these countries will likely enter the labour market with insufficient educational qualifications and low skills. An underqualified workforce results in low national productivity growth, low national capacity for economic diversification (ILO, 2013), besides perpetuating poverty.

Gender disparities in education help perpetuate unequal economic and social roles for men and women. The gap is particularly wide in Pakistan, where at least half of adolescent girls are out-of-school, but exclusion is a reality for boys, too. In many countries across the region, adolescent boys are more likely to be out-of-school than adolescent girls, often driven by poverty to enter the labour market before completing a full cycle of education (UNESCO, 2018).

Figure 14

Rate by sex and total numbers of out-of-school adolescents of lower secondary school age by sex, 2016 or latest year available



Source: Statistical Table 1.

The out-of-school rate alone does not capture the full magnitude of the problem. A low out-of-school rate can mask the true scale of exclusion. For example, the primary out-of-school rate in India is below 5%, but approximately 2.9 million primary school-aged children are out of school. At the lower secondary level, more than 11 million adolescents are out of school. In Pakistan, the primary out-of-school rate is 22%, which means 4.9 million primary school-aged children are out of school. In the Philippines and Thailand the out-of-school populations at the primary level are at half a million (Statistical Table 1).

Children too old for primary education

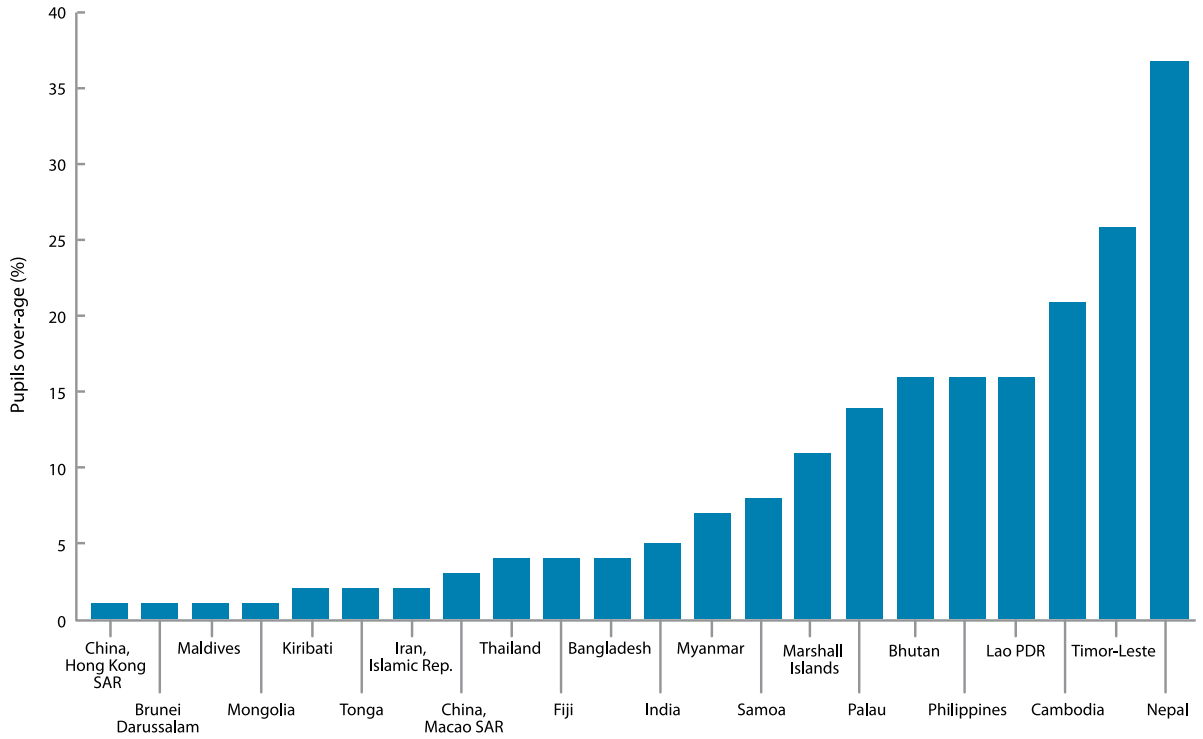
Children from vulnerable groups face the steepest barriers to education. Among marginalized populations, those with disabilities are the least likely to ever enroll in school or complete a full cycle of basic education. An estimated 90% of children with disabilities in the developing world do not go to school (UN, 2014).

Many other factors can contribute to the exclusion of children. For example, a child whose mother tongue is not the language of instruction faces the risk of never entering or never completing school (UNICEF and UIS, 2013). Children, adolescents and youth who are over-age for their grade, due to late entry and/or repetition, face similar challenges (Sabates, Hossain and Lewin, 2010; Sabates, Akyeampong, Westbrook and Hunt, 2010; UNICEF, 2014b; UNESCO, 2016a).

To help countries address the phenomenon of over-age children in school, Indicator **4.1.6**. tracks children and adolescents who are at least two years over the age intended for primary and lower secondary education. Currently, data on over-age children in primary school are available for a limited number of countries in the Asia-Pacific region (Figure 15). In many countries from Asia-Pacific, the percentage of children who are over-age are near and above 10%. In Nepal, over-age children make up more than one-third (37%) of those enrolled in primary education, and in Timor-Leste about one-fourth (26%) are over-age.

Figure 15

Percentage of pupils at least 2 years over-age in primary education, 2016 or latest year available



Source: Statistical Table 1.

2.1.4 *To what extent is secondary education free in the Asia-Pacific region?*

With the adoption the Education 2030 Framework for Action, countries have committed to promoting universal primary and secondary education, 12 years of which are meant to be compulsory to ensure students have enough time to acquire relevant skills and achieve expected learning outcomes. The number of years of free and compulsory primary education guaranteed by law is tracked by Indicator **4.1.7**. Globally, fewer than one in five countries guarantees 12 years of free and compulsory education (UNESCO, 2017a).

The cost of education is a major barrier to school participation for many low and middle-income families who are compelled to compensate for the lack of government expenditure on education–be it teachers' salaries, uniforms, textbooks, stationary or school maintenance costs (UNESCO, 2013a). Families in urban areas, who tend to have higher incomes, are likely to spend more on their children's education than rural families (ibid.). In addition, household expenditure on education can vary considerably, depending on whether the child is a girl or a boy. For example, in Bangladesh parents tend to spend more on the education of boys, while in India families spend more on girls (ibid.). By providing 12 years of free basic education, countries are relieving households of the burden of financing the education of their children, and making it more likely that girls and boys will attend.

In many countries, the legal framework for affordable basic primary and secondary education is already in place (**Table 2**), but in reality, parents may be required to cover costs ranging from certificate and examination fees to textbooks and even payments to teachers (UNESCO, 2013a).

Some countries have opted for targeted measures, such as eliminating school fees for marginalized groups. The challenge for policymakers is the perception that supporting the education of one population comes at the expense of others. For example, if there are incentives for learners who suffer from chronic illness or disability, similar programmes should be in place for migrants and children from different linguistic backgrounds.

Table 2: Free provision of secondary education in Asia-Pacific, 2012

Country	Lower secondary	Upper secondary
Australia	Yes	Yes
Bangladesh	Yes	No
Bhutan	Yes	No
Cambodia	Yes	Yes
China (Shanghai)	Yes	No
India	Yes	No
Indonesia	Yes	No
Japan	Yes	No
Republic of Korea	Yes	No
Kyrgyzstan	Yes	Yes
Mongolia	Yes	Yes
Nepal	No	No
Philippines	Yes	...
Sri Lanka	Yes	Yes
Thailand	Yes	Yes
Tonga	Yes*	No
Uzbekistan	Yes	Yes

Note: * 'Yes' in grades 1 and 2 delivered in primary schools, 'No' in grades 1 and 2 delivered in secondary schools. '...' Not available.

Source: UNESCO, 2013a.

2.1.5 *Key issues and challenges*

Including all learners

Since 2000, the Asia-Pacific region has seen participation rates increase at the primary and lower secondary levels, but some countries in South and West Asia and in East Asia still struggle to ensure children complete primary education. Improving the transition rate from primary to secondary education, and ensuring that all students complete secondary school, must be regional priorities. The completion of basic education contributes to human capital and economic growth. However, persistent inequalities in education perpetuate the marginalization of disadvantaged groups. What is considered a smooth transitioning environment for some learners might not be for others, as in the case of children with disabilities or children learning in a language other than their mother tongue (UNESCO, 2008). Policies that aim to improve educational attainment must recognize the diversity of learners and their individual life circumstances in order to identify and target specific bottlenecks to education, including age, health, wealth, ethnicity, location or gender.

Improving quality learning

The quality of primary and secondary education is a necessary precondition for reaching SDG 4 but is not sufficient to ensure that all learners reach their full potential (UIS, 2017d). While enrolments have increased over the past decade and a half, thanks to policies in favour of access to education, young people in the region still leave schools without having acquired the basic skills required to lead a productive life (UNESCO, 2013b; Dundar et al., 2014; World Bank, 2018). The immediate next step is to ensure that students are learning. Target 4.1 requires that students demonstrate proficiency in literacy and numeracy skills, upon which higher order learning relies. Children who do not learn to read in the early grades later struggle to develop more advanced skills (ACDP, 2014). In short, without the basics, education will never deliver on its promise to eliminate poverty, let alone create prosperity for all (World Bank, 2018).

Tracking learning outcomes

An internationally comparable framework for tracking learning achievements would help improve the quality of education (World Bank, 2018). However, most countries in the Asia-Pacific region do not conduct large-scale learning assessments, and there are no regional frameworks or guidelines. In countries where resources are scarce, assessments are conducted on an irregular basis or are administered by third-parties (UNESCO, 2017b). Yet, Target 4.1 requires that countries track learning through regular assessments. Information from national assessments can help policymakers identify systemic inefficiencies and develop strategies to address underlying problems, such as grade repetition and early school leaving. Armed with more data, policymakers will also be able to direct resources where they are most needed (UIS, 2017d). The challenge lies in striking a balance between the need for cross-nationally comparable information on learning outcomes, and learning outcomes that respond to national priorities (Wagner, 2011). The danger in a common learning framework is a race to the bottom, whereby assessment standards for measuring learning outcomes decline as a means to boost a country's ranking in international league tables (Winthrop and Simons, 2013).

Target 4.2

Early Childhood Education

2.2.1 *Unpacking Target 4.2*

By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys have access to quality early childhood development, care and pre-primary education so they are ready for primary education.

In 2012, the *Asia-Pacific End of Decade Notes on Education for All* highlighted progress made across the region in widening the provision of early childhood care and education, but noted that daunting challenges remained as countries neared the 2015 deadline for the Millennium Development Goals (UNESCO and UNICEF, 2012a). Target 4.2 reaffirms the importance of laying a strong foundation for learning early on, with good quality, inclusive early childhood education. The target also emphasizes the importance of early childhood development and the readiness to learn.

This section will provide a snapshot of available data in the Asia-Pacific region for five indicators under Target 4.2, two of which are global. It will also provide an overview of the challenges countries face in meeting the target by 2030.

In the past, a myriad of distinct and interchangeable terms has been used to address the development of children in early childhood. The most commonly used term to describe this phase is early childhood care and education (ECCE). To be consistent with the language of the SDG 4-Education 2030 Agenda, this report uses the term early childhood education (ECE) to refer to the education of children under the age of five. Two subcategories within ECE are early childhood educational development (ISCED 01) and pre-primary education (ISCED 02).[10]

Table 3: Target 4.2 indicators

	Indicator	Type	Baseline available
4.2.1	Proportion of children under 5 years of age who are developmentally on track in health, learning and psychosocial well-being, by sex	Global	Partly
4.2.2	Participation rate in organized learning (one year before the official primary entry age), by sex	Global	Yes
4.2.3	Percentage of children under 5 years experiencing positive and stimulating home learning environments	Thematic	Partly
4.2.4	Gross early childhood education enrolment ratio in (a) pre-primary education and (b) and early childhood educational development	Thematic	Yes
4.2.5	Number of years of (a) free and (b) compulsory pre-primary education guaranteed in legal frameworks	Thematic	Yes

Note: Target 4.2 is the only target with two global indicators.

Source: UIS, 2017c.

Target 4.2 recognizes that a holistic approach to early childhood education can unlock huge development potential. Among the many benefits is the reduction in developmental delays and the mitigation of disparities among disadvantaged groups. The target emphasizes nurturing children to develop the cognitive, linguistic, social, emotional and physical capabilities that prepare them to participate in primary education and beyond. This approach presents measurement challenges. For example, measuring what it means for a child to be 'developmentally on track', as specified in Indicator **4.2.1**, will require further methodological elaboration. For instance, commonly agreed normative development standards, relevant to children in all parts of the world, will need to align with national standard, but most countries in the Asia-Pacific region have yet to establish their own standards.

Participation rates in organized learning programmes, covered by Indicator **4.2.2**, also present measurement challenges. The new indicator does not measure the intensity, duration or the quality of early learning programmes. Few countries offer free and/or compulsory pre-primary education. Formal early learning programmes are rarely offered full time, so the intensity of exposure to learning environments outside the home is difficult to track. Countries require more clarity on the definition of learning programmes to be able to monitor participation rates.

10 The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) is the reference classification for organizing education programmes and related qualifications by education levels and fields. For more details, see Definitions.

The definition of 'positive and stimulating home learning environments', Indicator **4.2.3**, presents a similar challenge. The indicator as it is currently formulated does not question the quality or frequency of engagement with children. Further methodological development will also be needed to ensure that the measure enables all countries to produce meaningful data.

2.2.2 *Are children in the Asia-Pacific region ready for school?*

Pre-primary education and early childhood educational development play an important role in developing the child's ability to learn throughout life (Heckman, 2008 as cited in OCED, 2016b). The early years of childhood have a long-lasting effect on brain development. Improper nutrition, unhealthy environments and a lack of stimulation by caregivers can have a negative impact on the neurological development of the child (Coe and Lubach, 2007; Garner et al., 2012 as cited in World Bank, 2018). To illustrate the phenomenon, the 2016 Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) scores for 15-year-old students showed that, in 58 of 65 participating countries worldwide, students who attended at least one year of pre-primary schooling scored higher than students who did not (OCED, 2016b).

Socio-emotional competencies are also more likely to develop in children who attend ECE programmes. Evidence shows that these children are less likely to be depressed, less inclined to engage in antisocial behaviour, and tend to be more successful in completing education in later life (Hayes, 2008; Danboba et al., 2014; OECD, 2016b). With many promising benefits, it should be emphasized that it is the quality, not quantity of ECE that contributes to learning and development.

To implement timely interventions that address the needs of the youngest children, and to improve learning outcomes and inclusion from early life onward, Indicator **4.2.1** tracks the proportion of children under five years of age who are developmentally on track in health, learning and psychosocial well-being. 'On track' can be understood as a broad measure of a child's development and readiness for primary education. Precise definitions vary with empirically and conceptually driven perspectives on how best to define the term (UIS, 2017c), therefore, measuring a child's readiness depends on the tool used.

Early childhood development is a matter of wealth

In the absence of comparable data from all countries in the Asia-Pacific region, **Figure 16** presents data from the Early Childhood Development Index (ECDI) as a proxy for Indicator **4.2.1**. The ECDI, which is derived from Multiple Cluster Indicator Surveys (MICS), identifies a set of domains relating to moving, thinking, speaking, feeling, recognizing and relating to other individuals to help assess the developmental status of children.

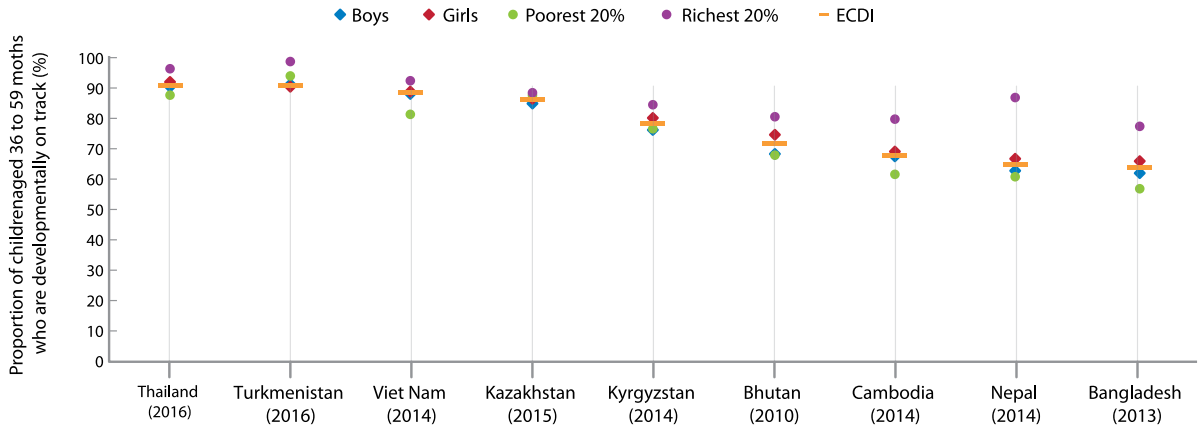
In countries with data, the tendency is that children from the richest quintile are more often developmentally on track than children from the poorest quintile. In Nepal, 86% of children from the richest households compare to 60% from the poorest households.

Gender differences are little but tend to be in favour of girls. The widest gender disparity among the present countries is in Bhutan where 69% of boys are developmentally on track compare to 75% of girls.

As a composite index, the ECDI tool tends to overestimate the proportion of young children who are 'on track'. A truer picture would require more analysis and disaggregation by specific dimensions, such as disability. The indicator needs further methodological development.

Figure 16

Proportion of children between 3 and 5 years old who are developmentally on track, by sex and wealth for countries with available data, 2010-2016



Source: Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS): Afghanistan 2011, Bangladesh 2013, Bhutan 2010, Kazakhstan 2015, Kyrgyzstan 2014, Lao PDR 2011, Mongolia 2014, Nepal 2014, Thailand 2016, Turkmenistan 2016, Viet Nam 2014; Demographic and Health Survey: Cambodia 2014.

2.2.3 *Are children participating in early childhood education?*

Research has shown that early childhood education yields better results in terms of later school performance (UNICEF, 2013). Young children who enjoy stimulating, organized learning activities are more likely to participate productively in the economy and to live more fulfilling lives as adults (ibid.). In order to identify age-appropriate programmes and develop the institutional capacity to support this level of education, it is important to distinguish between participation in different forms of care and education. Early childhood educational development (ISCED 01) and pre-primary education (ISCED 02) are explicitly designed to support different developmental needs. These categories should not be confused with daycare, which may or may not offer an enriching environment.

Blurred enrolment data in early childhood education

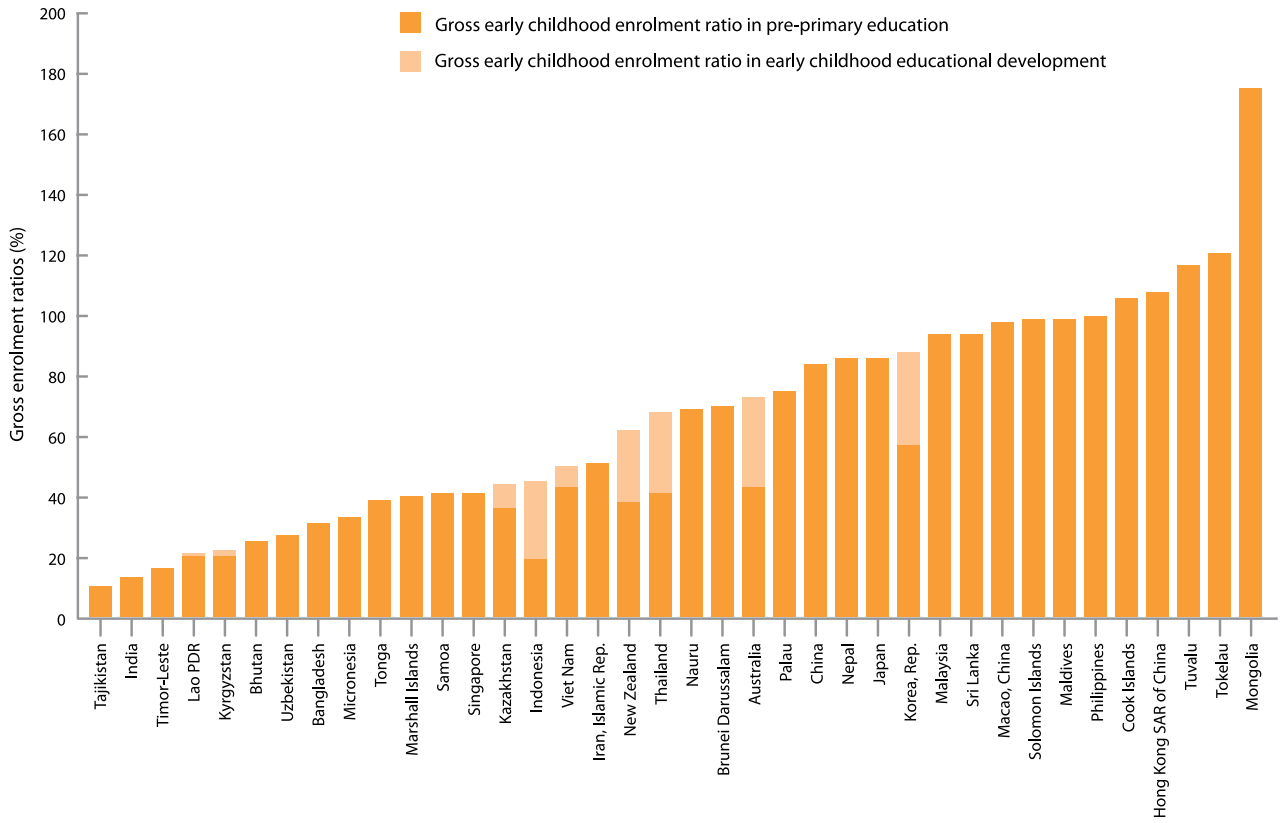
Currently available data does not paint a comprehensive picture of enrolment in either early childhood education (ISCED 01) and/or pre-primary education (ISCED 02), corresponding to Indicators **4.2.4b** and **4.2.4a**, respectively. Country data, presented in **Figure 17**, illustrate the uneven enrolment of children in ECE programmes in the region.

Fifteen out of 38 countries, most of which are middle- or low-income countries, enrol less than 50% of children in ECE programmes. In comparison, many countries from East Asia and the Pacific enrol more than 70% of young children in early childhood education programmes.

In contrast, with the example Mongolia, the gross enrolment ratio exceeds 100%, indicating that many over-age children are enrolled in ECE programmes.

Figure 17

Gross enrolment ratios in pre-primary education (ISCED 02) and early childhood educational development (ISCED 01) as a share of the population of the official age for early childhood education, 2016 or latest year available



Note: Data for early childhood educational development programmes (corresponding to ISCED 0) are only available for Australia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, New Zealand, Niue, Republic of Korea, Thailand and Viet Nam.

Source: Statistical Table 2.

Many countries have laws guaranteeing free access to organized learning several years prior to primary schooling. In fact, the realization of free access to early learning is often hindered by national economic constraints (UNESCO and UNICEF, 2012a). Upper middle-income and higher income countries may have more resources to finance access to early childhood education via public-private partnerships. Furthermore, the administration of education programmes prior to primary education may not fall under ministries of education, especially when children attend private institutions, or when programmes are administered by different line ministries, as is the case in India where ECE falls under the Ministry of Women and Child Development. For these reasons, administrative data may underestimate the actual number of children participating in ECE.

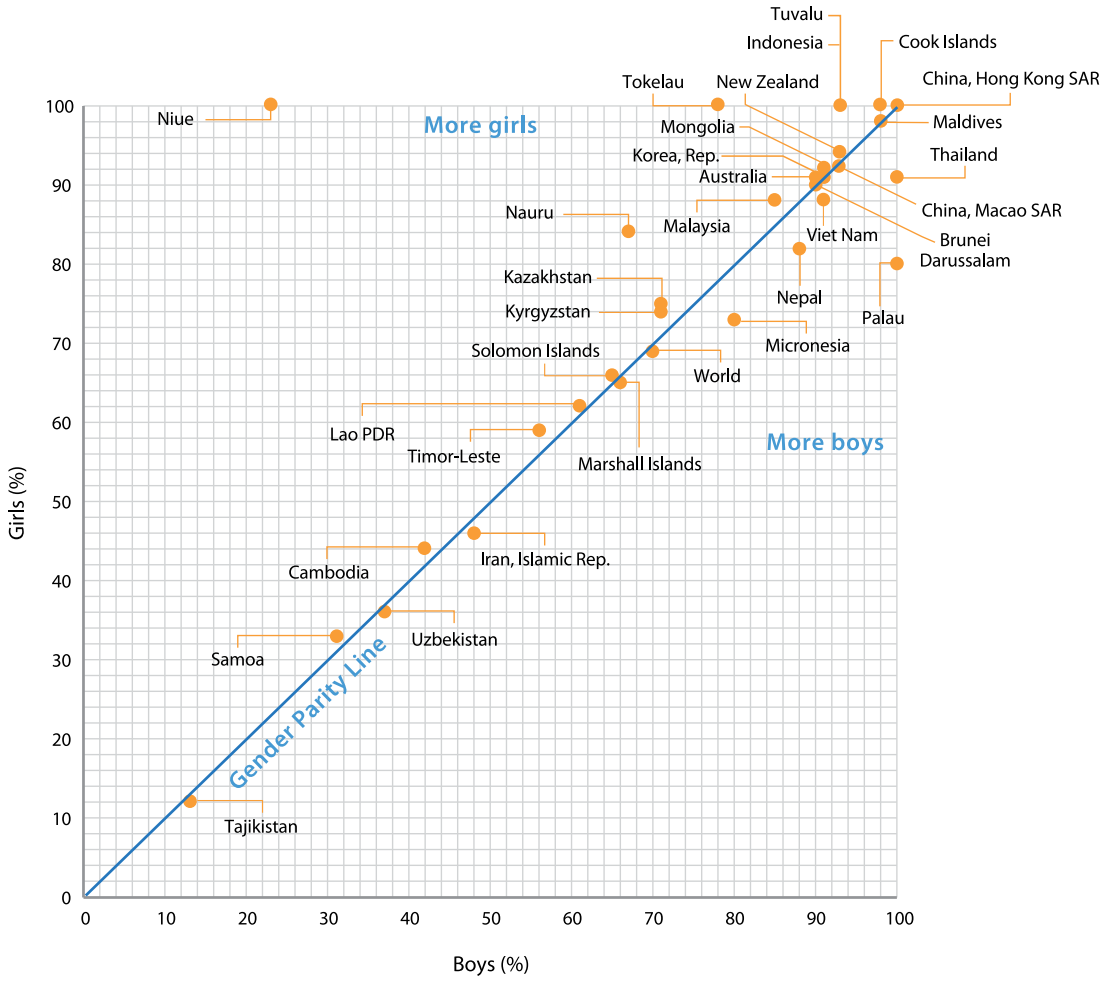
ECE participation one year before primary education

The entrance age for primary education varies by country. To overcome this difference, Indicator **4.2.2** will monitor the proportion of children attending any form of organized learning one year before the official primary entrance age (UIS, 2017c). **Figure 18** shows the proportion of children by gender and by country who participate in organized learning the year before they enter primary school.

Regardless of whether participation rates are low or high, most countries with data report that boys and girls are equally likely to take part in organized learning the year before they enter primary school. There are a few countries in the Pacific region, however, where gender appears to be a factor. In Palau, 100% of boys participate, compared to 81% of girls. The opposite is the case in Niue where 100% of girls participate, compared to 23% of boys.

Figure 18

Participation rate in organized learning one year before the official primary education entry age by sex, 2016 or latest year available



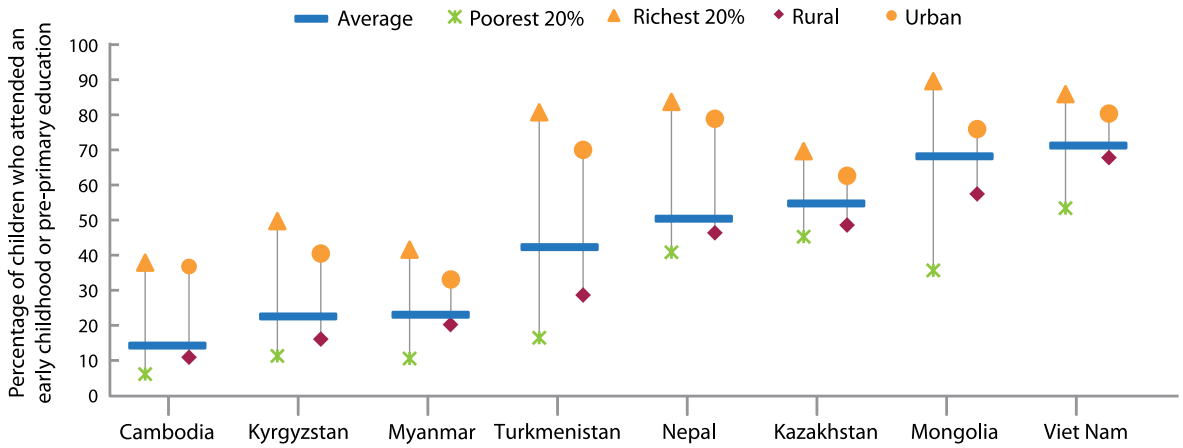
Source: Statistical Table 2.

Poverty and rural locations impede participation in ECE

The cost of preschool programmes for 3- to 5-year-olds can be prohibitively high for low-income families. According to the MICS data (**Figure 19**), 3- to 5-year-olds from families with greater household wealth are up to five times more likely to attend an early childhood education programme. Seventeen per cent of children from the poorest 20% of households in Turkmenistan attended such programmes prior to primary school, compared to 81% of children from the richest 20%. In Cambodia, the average participation rate is 15%, whereas 38% of children from the richest quintile participate and only 7% from the poorest quintile.

Figure 19

Percentage of children, 3-5 years old, who attended early childhood or pre-primary education in selected countries, by wealth and location, 2014-2016



Source: Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS): Kazakhstan 2015, Kyrgyzstan 2014, Mongolia 2014, Nepal 2014, Turkmenistan 2016, Viet Nam 2014; Demographic and Health Survey (DHS): Cambodia 2014, and Myanmar 2016.

Location is also a major factor in participation. Children living in urban areas were up to 2.4 times more likely to participate in early childhood education. In Turkmenistan, the participation rate for rural children was 29%, compared to 70% for urban children.

It is important to note that 'rich and urban' or 'poor and rural' are not inextricably linked. Poverty is as at home in small towns as it is in megacities (World Bank and IMF, 2013). Preschool programmes may simply be unavailable in rural areas, putting families living in remote or rural areas at a disadvantage. Nevertheless, exclusion from preschool may be exacerbated in countries where ethnically or linguistically marginalized populations live in remote border areas. Families living in areas where ECE is not offered in their mother tongue may choose to keep children out of organized learning to avoid the risk of losing their first language (Ball, 2011).

2.2.4 *Is the home an early learning environment?*

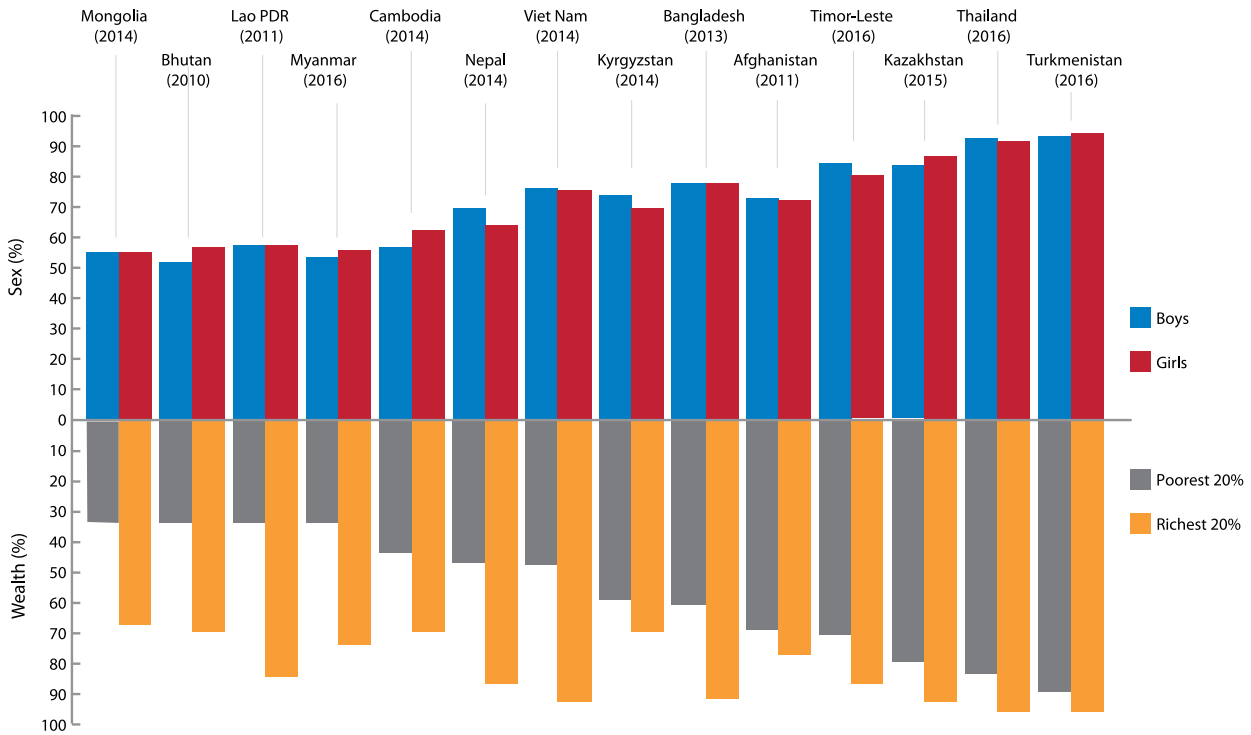
In the absence of organized learning opportunities, the home is the primary environment where meaningful interaction takes place, the first cognitive skills emerge and behavioural patterns are adopted. The extent to which parents engage in stimulating activities with their children and the kind of care that a child receives at home are indicators of quality in the home environment (UNICEF, 2002). By engaging in nurturing activities, such as reading or telling stories; looking at picture books; singing songs; drawing; playing pointing, naming and counting games, parents support emerging abilities that are essential to their child's social, emotional and cognitive development (UNESCO, 2016d). Children need this interaction because rapid brain development occurs in the first three to four years of life, and the quality of interactions at home is a major determinant of the child's development (Grantham-McGregor et al., 2007). All the more reason to monitor the percentage of children under five years of age who experience a positive and stimulating home learning environment (Indicator **4.2.3**) in which adults interact with children in meaningful ways that promote learning and school readiness (UIS, 2017c).

Results from the MICS, presented in **Figure 20**, show data on the proportion of children who experienced a positive, stimulating home learning environment in the three days prior to the survey, disaggregated by sex and wealth. The proportion ranges from 55% in Mongolia to above 90% in Thailand and Turkmenistan for both sexes. In five out of 14 countries, just over half of the boys and girls (50%-60%) between the ages of three and five experience a stimulating home environment.

While gender differences are not a significant factor in the data, household wealth is. Households that can afford to have books and toys at home are more likely to be engaging children in learning activities. Children from the poorest 20% of households are twice as likely to miss out on learning activities with an adult as their peers in the richest 20%. In Viet Nam, 96% of children from the richest families engaged in learning activities with an adult, compared to 52% of children from poor households. The lowest percentage was found in Mongolia, where only 38% of children from poor households experienced learning activities.

Figure 20

Percentage of children, 3-5 years old, with whom an adult reported engaging in 4 or more activities in the past 3 days, selected countries, by sex and wealth, 2010-2016



Source: Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS): Afghanistan 2011, Bangladesh 2013, Bhutan 2010, Kazakhstan 2015, Kyrgyzstan 2014, Lao PDR 2011, Mongolia 2014, Nepal 2014, Thailand 2016, Turkmenistan 2016, Viet Nam 2014; Demographic and Health Survey (DHS): Cambodia 2014, Myanmar 2016, Timor-Leste 2016.

Even though the home is considered the primary place where children can experience learning in a nurturing and protected setting, the home is not a universal alternative nor a supplement for organized learning. In low-income households, in particular, parental time is constrained and financial resources are limited. Furthermore, children from low-income households are less likely to participate early childhood education programmes.

BOX 2

EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION PROGRAMMES IN THE ASIA-PACIFIC REGION

The second Asia-Pacific Regional Policy Forum on Early Childhood Care and Education, held in Putrajaya, Malaysia, in 2016, reviewed country progress in developing and implementing policies on early childhood education, showcased innovations and identified the region's priorities and strategies for achieving Target 4.2.

The Putrajaya Declaration includes nine action points for more inclusive, integrated and multisectoral policies aimed at Early Childhood Care and Education (ECCE):

- Put in place integrated and inclusive legislation, policies and programmes, paying special attention to the most disadvantaged and vulnerable children.
- Implement integrated, multisectoral, coordinated ECCE policies, strategies and high quality programmes.
- Develop clear policies, strategies and guidelines, including action plans for the professionalization of ECCE personnel.
- Design inclusive, accessible, high quality and integrated ECCE programmes, services and infrastructure and support families as first caregivers.
- Increase government investment in ECCE and forge partnerships with the private sector, civil society and development partners.
- Monitor and evaluate country progress towards Target 4.2 using the global thematic indicators of readiness, participation and provision, as well as public and private financing for ECCE.
- Strengthen the collection, analysis and use of data to address equity and to holistically measure child learning and development outcomes.
- Raise awareness of stakeholders through evidence-based advocacy.
- Initiate the process of developing a regional framework for Target 4.2 and national roadmaps for implementation.

The third Asia-Pacific Regional Policy Forum on Early Childhood Education took place in Kathmandu, Nepal, in June 2018, to review progress on implementing Target 4.2. Countries will also develop subregional action plans to monitor the target.

Other regional initiatives include UNESCO Bangkok's early childhood education project, Teacher Development in Southeast Asia and the Pacific Small Island Developing States, which supports Member States in their efforts to build the capacity of early childhood education teachers and practitioners in Southeast Asia and the Pacific.

UNESCO has also developed a common framework on teacher competencies in early childhood education for the two subregions, in collaboration with the Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization (SEAMEO) Secretariat and the Pacific Regional Consortium for Early Childhood Development (PRC4ECD). The framework describes the knowledge, skills and attitudes teachers require to support the holistic development of a child.

2.2.5 *Key issues and challenges*

ECE policies and resources

Policymakers are becoming more aware of the importance of organized early childhood education, and the role this stage plays in a child's preparation for school and lifelong learning. However, the commitment to ECE is still low in the Asia-Pacific region. Indeed, research has found that few countries have comprehensive policies that target early childhood development and pre-primary education (Rao and Sun, 2010). Where policies exist, they tend to be implemented in a piecemeal fashion and suffer from a lack of ministerial coordination (UNESCO, 2016d). Such fragmentation will complicate efforts to create common ECE standards, without which it will be difficult to establish qualifications or monitor the accreditation of ECE teachers and educators.

Improving support for enrolment

In the absence of ECE support mechanisms, particularly for the poor, national education systems risk perpetuating disparities between households. Typically, low-income households do not enrol their children in early learning programmes unless they benefit from some form of governmental, community or private donor assistance. Parents who did not attend school, or have a low level of education, may not understand the benefits of ECE and are unlikely to have the means to pay for this level of schooling (Pholphirul, 2016).

Yet, it is precisely these children who need early education the most to break the cycle of poverty (Rao and Sun, 2010). Marginalized communities are even more vulnerable to exclusion. Disparities caused by poverty become further compounded by other social stigma rooted in ethnicity, disability, refugee status or migration (UNESCO and UNICEF, 2012a; UNESCO, 2016d).

Improving the home environment

Poor households may struggle to provide high quality home care in the early years of a child's life. For example, children from impoverished households are less likely to engage in developmental learning activities at home. Parents may lack tools they could use to engage a child in learning activities, such as toys, books and paint (World Bank, 2018). As a result, young children from poor households are doubly disadvantaged. They are more likely to be deprived of both organized learning and a positive home learning environment.

Socio-emotional learning

When the home is not a caring or positive environment, children may be deprived of or receive negative cognitive stimulation, which can lead to difficulties in learning and adaptation in school and later in life. In a supportive home environment, children are more likely to acquire socio-emotional skills, such as how to manage their emotions, show empathy and act responsibly. Research has shown that children who exhibit positive socio-emotional capacities at the age of four were less prone to both aggressive and depressive behaviour (Bornstein, Hahn and Haynes, 2010). In short, a positive, nurturing and stimulating home environment not only paves the way for lifelong learning but teaches children how to behave and interact with others. The acquisition of socio-emotional skills is also the basis for responsible global citizenship. As such, early learning is critical for the achievement of Target 4.7, which focuses on the importance of Global Citizenship Education and emphasizes the need to foster the knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours that support sustainable development (UNESCO, 2015c).

Target 4.3

Technical, Vocational and Tertiary Education

2.3.1 *Unpacking Target 4.3*

By 2030, ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university.

The Sustainable Development Goals integrate technical and vocational education and training (TVET) and tertiary education as central concepts in the SDG 4-Education 2030 Agenda. Specifically, Target 4.3 acknowledges that lifelong learning opportunities can help ensure youth and adults continue to evolve and contribute to sustainable economic development. The target also introduces the concepts of access, affordability, quality and disaggregation by gender.

Table 4: Target 4.3 indicators

Indicator		Type	Baseline Available
4.3.1	Participation rate of youth and adults in formal and non-formal education and training in the previous 12 months, by sex	Global	No
4.3.2	Gross enrolment ratio for tertiary education, by sex	Thematic	Yes
4.3.3	Participation rate in technical and vocational programmes (15- to 24- year-olds), by sex	Thematic	Partly

Source: UIS, 2017c.

This section presents currently available cross-national data for two thematic indicators and explores the challenges of measuring the global indicator, which still requires methodological development.

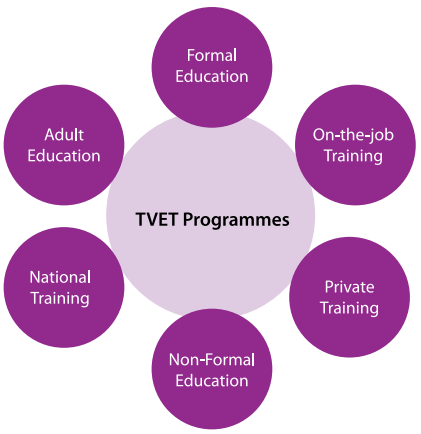
Cross-nationally comparable data for Indicator **4.3.2**, which cover tertiary education, are widely available in the Asia-Pacific region, although the indicator may not account for differences in the duration of programmes, levels of education and fields of study. Available data for Indicator **4.3.3** cover enrolment in formal technical and vocational training at the secondary education level, but do not capture the full spectrum of informal and non-formal TVET providers. The global indicator, which measures lifelong learning, is still a work in progress. Since comparable data are limited, the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) has assigned a placeholder indicator: the percentage of adults (aged 15+ years) enrolled in formal education as a share of total enrolment by level of education. Currently, data for the placeholder are also unavailable for countries in the region.

2.3.2 *Are young people attracted to TVET?*

Against the backdrop of changing economies, governments are turning to TVET to boost economic productivity and nurture opportunities for decent work for all (UNESCO, 2016b). TVET programmes take place in formal education systems at the secondary, post-secondary non-tertiary and tertiary levels, as well as in non-formal settings and workplaces (**Figure 21**). Given the variety of offerings, data from national statistical sources may only capture a portion of actual youth participation in TVET programmes. This section will focus on the provision of TVET in formal programmes at the secondary education level, where data are widely available.

Figure 21

Scope of TVET programmes



Source: UIS, 2016c.

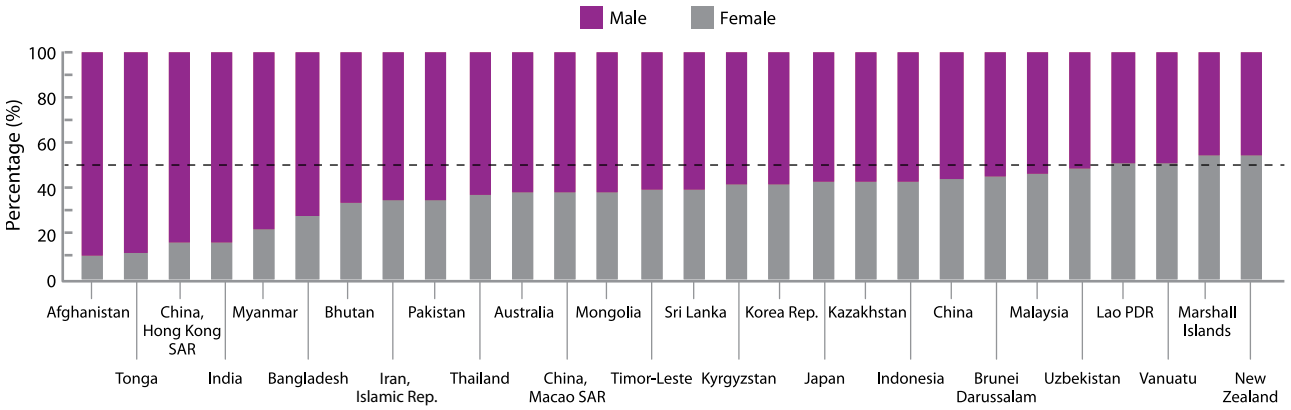
Students participating in TVET in formal secondary education settings

In the Asia-Pacific region, the number of students enrolled in TVET programmes in formal secondary education increased in recent years from 20 million in 2000 to 31 million in 2016. The region accounts for more than half of secondary-level TVET students in the world today. Four out of five of those enrolled live in East Asia, with China (17 million) and Indonesia (4 million). A relatively small proportion of students are from South and West Asia (12%), with1.8 million students in India. Central Asia accounts for 6% of secondary-level TVET enrolment and the Pacific accounts for 3% (Statistical Table 3}.

Across the region, secondary education TVET programmes tend to attract more male students than female students. Out of 31 million students, 58% (or 18 million) are male (Statistical Table 3). In 24 out of 28 Asia-Pacific countries with data, male students appear to make up more than half of enrolments (**Figure 22**). Particularly New Zealand is an exception where females are more likely to participate in secondary education TVET programmes.

Figure 22

Share of enrolment in secondary education vocational programmes by sex, 2016 or latest year available



Source: Statistical Table 3.

Despite the recent growth in enrolments, participation in TVET is still limited in Asia and the Pacific compared to overall participation in secondary education. In formal secondary education, the share of students in TVET ranges from 2% in South and West Asia, 16% in East Asia, 22% in Central Asia to 26% in the Pacific. While the participation in TVET programmes is less than 10% in 18 out of 28 countries in the region with available data, it is highest in Australia (37%), Uzbekistan (35%) and China (20%) (Statistical Table 3).

Low female participation rates in TVET reflect the exclusion of women from the workforce. Despite having higher levels of education and outperforming men in many post-secondary fields of study, the participation of women in the workforce remains low, especially in South and West Asia (UNDP, 2015; ADB, 2015; Klasen, 2017).

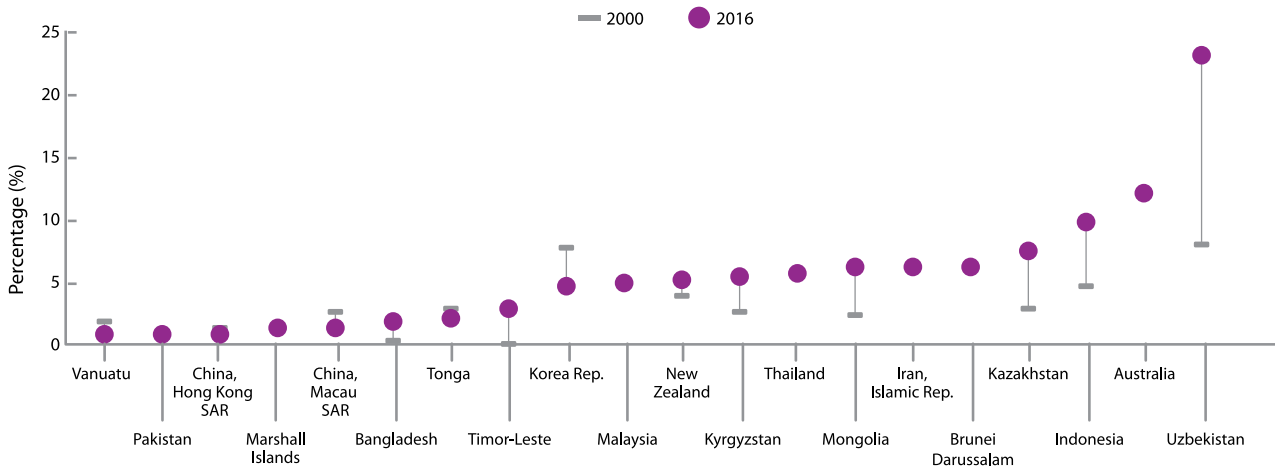
Youth participation rates in TVET in formal secondary education programmes

Indicator **4.3.3** monitors the participation of youth (aged 15-24 years) in a broad spectrum of TVET programmes at different levels of education; however, cross-nationally comparable data are only available for programmes offered at the secondary education level. The percentages presented here are drawn from the placeholder indicator: the percentage of adults (aged 15+ years) enrolled in formal education as a share of total enrolment by level of education.

The proportion of youth participating in secondary-level TVET programmes varies widely in the Asia-Pacific region; from 1% in Vanuatu to 23% in Uzbekistan (**Figure 23**). While in most countries the appetite for TVET in secondary school appears to be growing, countries with relatively low percentages, such as Tonga and Vanuatu, saw little progress in enrolments in TVET at the secondary level between 2000 and 2016. Countries with higher percentages, where students may see more value in TVET, experienced growth in enrolments, such as Indonesia, Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan.

Figure 23

Percentages of youth (aged 15-24 years) participating in secondary technical/vocational education, 2000 and 2016



Note: 2000 data for Australia, Brunei Darussalam, Iran, Islamic Rep., Malaysia, Marshall Islands, Pakistan and Thailand are missing.

Source: Statistical Table 3.

BOX 3

UNESCO BANGKOK WORKS WITH MEMBER STATES TO SET TVET STANDARDS

Increased migration between Asia-Pacific countries and the rapid pace of regional economic integration have countries calling for quality assurance in TVET qualifications. Reliable, transparent standards are necessary to ensure the trustworthiness and comparability of qualifications across the region.

The third International Congress on TVET, held in Shanghai, China, in 2012, recommended the development of guidelines to assist Member States in this process. To this end, UNESCO Bangkok, working with Asia-Pacific Member States, developed *Guidelines for the Quality Assurance of TVET Qualifications in the Asia-Pacific Region*. The guidelines propose principles and indicators intended to assist Member States in optimizing their quality assurance mechanisms for TVET qualifications. The guidelines are based on findings from 13 country-level studies and provide a framework for documenting, developing, monitoring, evaluating and improving the comparability of certificates, diplomas or degrees in TVET.

2.3.3 *Equity in tertiary education: expanding opportunities, but for whom?*

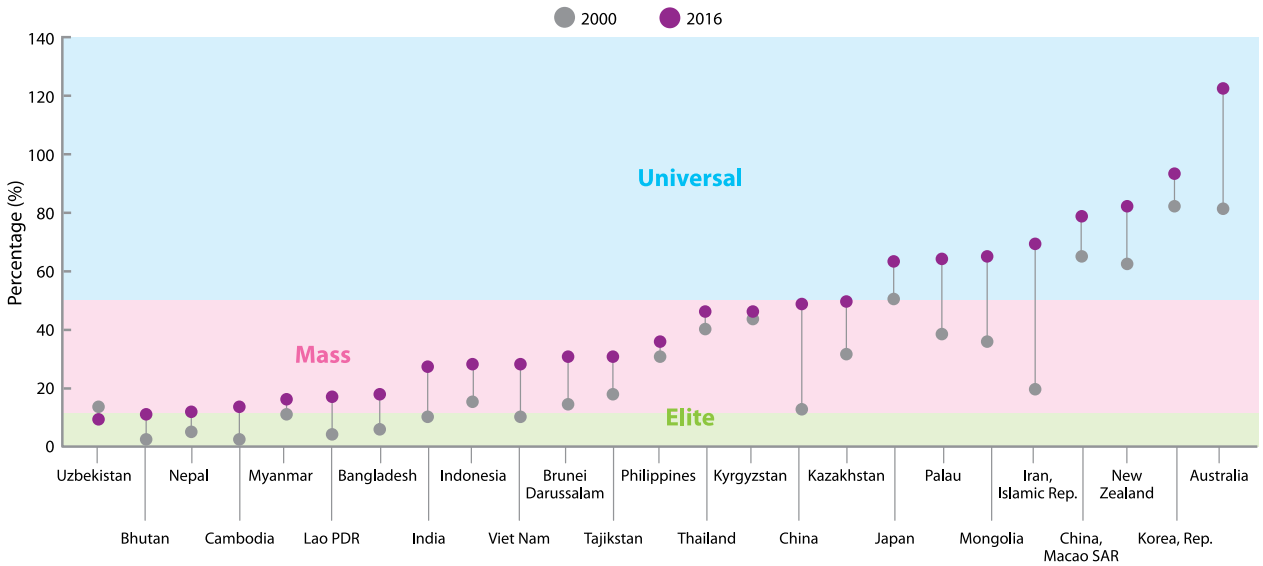
Expansion of opportunities in tertiary education

With the growing demand for education beyond the secondary level, coupled with steady economic growth, the Asia-Pacific region has made great progress in providing access to tertiary education. The number of students in tertiary education in the region[11] more than doubled between 2000 and 2016, growing from 46 million to 112 million (Statistical Table 3). The Asia-Pacific region is now home to 52% of tertiary students, worldwide. East Asia made the greatest progress: 39 million more students have enrolled in tertiary education since 2000. The Asia and the Pacific gross enrolment ratio (GER) for tertiary education covered by Indicator **4.3.2** stood at 32% in 2016, increased from 15% in 2000.

Demand for tertiary education has been strong across the region, but the sector is at different stages of development, depending on the proportion of the relevant age group enrolled in higher education. According to Trow (2006), there are three growth phases for tertiary education: elite, mass and universal. In the elite phase, the GER in tertiary education is 15% or lower for the relevant age group. In this phase, access tends to be limited to high-income individuals or those with outstanding talents. The elite phase of tertiary education prevails in low-income and lower middle-income countries (**Figure 24**), such as Afghanistan and Turkmenistan (both 8%) or Uzbekistan (9%). If the GER is between 16% and 50% the tertiary education system is in the mass phase where it is open to a wider population able to play a pivotal role in the socio-economic development of the country. Lower and upper middle-income countries, ranging from Myanmar (16%) and Bangladesh and Lao PDR (both 17%), to Kyrgyzstan (46%) and China (48%), are in the *mass* phase. A GER of 51% and above corresponds to the *universal* phase. Participation in tertiary education is a common path for many young people in Australia (122%), the Republic of Korea (93%) and New Zealand (82%). Eight countries in the Asia-Pacific region are at the *elite* phase, 16 are at the mass phase and nine are at the *universal* phase.

Figure 24

Gross enrolment ratio of tertiary education, 2000 and 2016



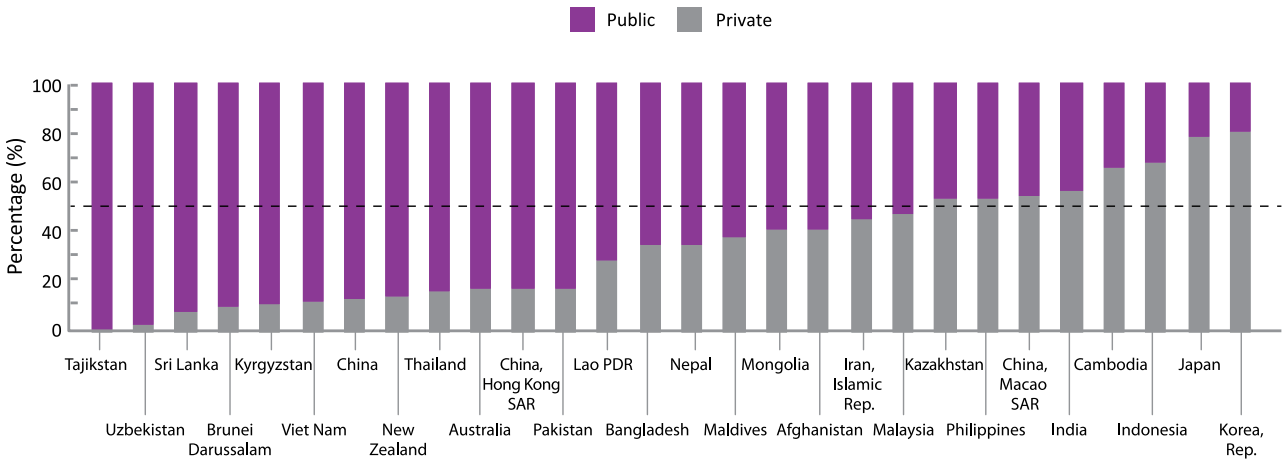
Source: Statistical Table 3.

11 ISCED 5 to ISCED 8.

Public funding has not necessarily kept pace with demand for tertiary education, which is putting pressure on institutions to recover costs from other sources (Levy, 2006; ADB, 2011; UIS, 2014a). At the same time, governments have allowed the expansion of private tertiary education programmes. In eight out of 28 countries in the region, the percentage of students enrolled in private institutions exceeds 50% (**Figure 25**). The figure is particularly high in countries such as the Republic of Korea (80%), Japan (79%) and Indonesia (68%).

Figure 25

Share of enrolment in tertiary education, by public and private institutions, 2016 or latest year available



Source: Statistical Table 3.

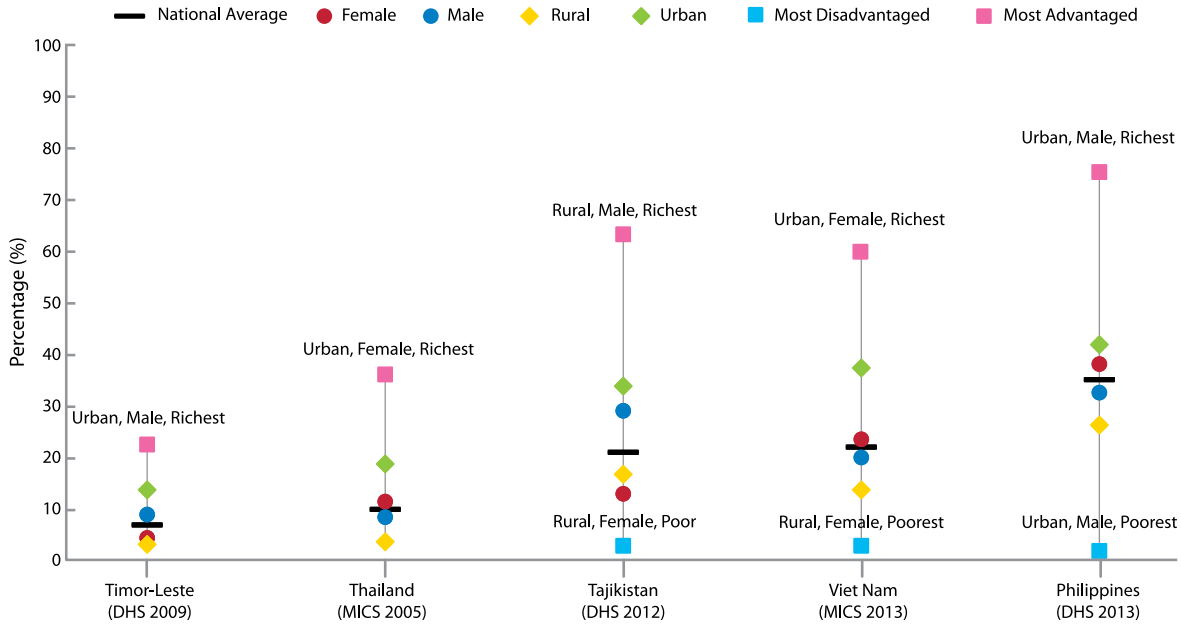
Equity in tertiary education completion

Increased enrolment in higher education has not necessarily led to greater equity. While Indicator **4.3.2** is a useful measure of overall enrolment in tertiary education, it does not take into account disparities between different socio-economic groups. A closer look at a few country examples shows that wealthier populations are more likely to complete tertiary education.

Figure 26 presents a demographic breakdown of tertiary education completion rates in selected Asia-Pacific countries. While the gap between female and male populations is relatively small across countries, there is a large discrepancy between the most privileged and disadvantaged groups. For instance, in the Philippines, 76% of 25- to 29 -year-old males from the richest urban households have completed tertiary education, compared to only 2% of males in this age group from the poorest urban households. In other words, young men from rich, urban households are 38 times more likely to complete tertiary education than their peers from poor households.

Figure 26

Tertiary education completion rate (population aged 25-29) in selected countries, 2005-2013



Note: Data for the most disadvantaged groups in Timor-Leste and Thailand are applicable for multiple categories, thus are not shown in this graph. World Inequality Database on Education (WIDE) defines a tertiary completion rate as the percentage of the population aged 25-29 years, who have completed at least two to four years of tertiary education.

Source: World Inequality Database on Education (WIDE), accessed in October 2017.

2.3.4 *Key issues and challenges*

Unequal distribution of learning opportunities

Although Target 4.3 aims to achieve equal access to TVET and tertiary education, participation data show that certain population groups are more likely to benefit. Across the Asia-Pacific region, TVET programmes are largely dominated by male students. In tertiary education, there is a large completion gap between the most privileged (typically, males in urban areas from the richest households) and disadvantaged groups (typically, females in rural areas from the poorest households). From an equity perspective, much more needs to be done to understand the barriers certain populations face in accessing and completing TVET and tertiary education.

The inability of TVET to meet the demand for skilled labour

Despite positive economic growth in recent years and increased investment in education, youth in the Asia-Pacific region have difficulties finding work, and many sectors are unable to recruit skilled and qualified workers (Elder, 2014). While TVET is meant to help bridge the skills gap, the quality and relevance of programmes are in question. Outdated or underdeveloped curricula and pedagogical practices; ageing teaching staff; low salary scales for teachers; inadequate or obsolete equipment and facilities; weak institutional management; insufficient funding; weak or non-existing links between industries and TVET institutions as well as weak coordination among TVET providers are some of the challenges facing this segment of the education system in the region (ADB, 2014; ADB, 2016a-f; ADB and ILO, 2017). Given this extensive list of shortcomings, it is no surprise that TVET is failing to attract more students (ADB, 2016e), or that employers undervalue the quality of TVET graduates (ADB, 2014).

Unintended consequences of expanding participation

Although the SDG 4-Education 2030 Agenda calls for increasing access to tertiary education for all, the dramatic rise in tertiary enrolments in recent years has already highlighted the unintended consequences of rapid expansion. Strong demand is putting even more pressure on the quality of institutions, leading to a shortage of qualified instructors and a reduction of public funding (ADB, 2011). The response from governments has been to expand private tertiary education; however, privatization has pitfalls. A lack of accountability can make it difficult for governments to shape national education policies and plans to reduce disparities in access to tertiary education.

Target 4.4

ICT Skills and Work

2.4.1 Unpacking Target 4.4

By 2030, substantially increase the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent jobs, and entrepreneurship.

Target 4.4 emphasizes the importance of equipping youth and adults with essential skills for employment, entrepreneurship and decent jobs, by building on literacy and numeracy skills acquired in school. This target appears against a backdrop of ever-changing labour market demands, and growing youth unemployment rates since the start of the new millennium (E2030 FFA, 2016). While linked to Target 4.3, which addresses access to technical and vocational skills, this target emphasizes the importance of developing transversal skills, which can be applied across many professions that rely on modern information and communication technologies (ICTs).

Table 5: Target 4.4 indicators

Indicator		Type	Baseline available
4.4.1	Proportion of youth and adults with information and communications technology (ICT) skills	Global	Partly
4.4.2	Percentage of youth/adults who have achieved at least a minimum level of proficiency in digital literacy skills	Thematic	No
4.4.3	Youth/adult educational attainment rates by age group, economic activity status, levels of education and programme orientation	Thematic	Yes

Source: UIS, 2017c.

Work-specific skills vary considerably, although the skillful use of information and communication technology has become a universal requirement for youth and adults in today's ICT-driven world (UNESCO, 2016c). Indicator **4.4.1** is informed by new internationally agreed-upon definitions and methodologies, developed under the coordination of the International Telecommunications Union (ITU), and responses to a survey of computer-related activities (UIS, 2017c). Linking ICT usage and impact, the indicator helps measure and track the proficiency levels of users; however, it is not a direct measure of skill nor can it provide concise information on how well users perform on assessments.

Countries require a common framework to help them develop surveys to accurately assess 'digital literacy skills' (**4.4.2**) for both youth and adults. The framework should define target populations, content coverage and general reporting metrics. An interim solution uses existing cross-national assessments (either school-based or household-based). In the long-term, national-level assessments could also be included.

2.4.2 *When are ICT and digital literacy skills acquired?*

Skills for efficiently using ICTs are a necessary precondition for engaging constructively in today's technology-driven world. According to estimates, 80% of future jobs will require fundamental ICT skills (Dahlberg, 2017). The question is, how do we define ICT and digital literacy skills? ICT skills for the global Indicator, **4.4.1**, as set out by the International Telecommunication Union (ITU) in **Box 4**, are critical for all computer and electronic communication technologies and related activities, and are not limited to the office environment. ICT skills are essential for a variety of sectors, even those that do not explicitly produce ICT products or services, such as transportation, logistics and sales (European Commission, 2014).

BOX 4

ICT SKILLS AS DEFINED BY THE INTERNATIONAL TELECOMMUNICATIONS UNION (ITU)

- Copy or move a file folder
- Use copy and paste tools to duplicate or move information within a document
- Send emails with attached files (e.g. a document, picture or video)
- Use basic arithmetic formulas in a spreadsheet
- Connect and install new devices (e.g. a modem, camera or printer)
- Find, download, install and configure software
- Create, electronic presentations with presentation software (including text, images, sound and video)
- Transfer files between a computer and other devices
- Write a computer program using a specialized programming language

Source: ITU, 2014.

Digital literacy (**4.4.2**) relies on ICT skills for the meaningful use, transformation, creation and sharing of digital information (Fraillon et al., 2014). These skills include intelligently handling search engines, managing website content or operating text processing and spreadsheet software. However, the central idea is that the learner should acquire digital literacy skills that go beyond technical competencies to include the ability to critically evaluate information found online, responsibly participate in online communities, and establish respectful interaction with community members. ICT skills can overlap with digital literacy skills, where both include the use of software and the ability to change or create digital information. The definition of digital literacy skills is currently in development by the international community.

Learning ICT skills in education requires remaining in secondary education

The first step is to emphasize specific objectives or subjects related to fundamental computer skills in school. In the Asia-Pacific region, some countries have included learning objectives in their curricular strategies to promote ICT in education (**Table 6**). According to UIS data, in 2012 (Table 6), most learners were exposed to ICT strategies in upper secondary education. At the lower secondary level, all but four out of 24 countries and territories surveyed did not include ICT in the curriculum.

At the primary level, at least seven countries did not have ICT in the curriculum. It appears that low-income and lower middle-income countries do not or cannot provide ICT subjects in either primary or lower secondary education. The cost of instruction in these subjects, including equipment, may be the primary reason. As the World Bank pointed out (2018), in resource-deprived schools, equipment and software are more likely to be out of date or not usable due to the lack of a steady electricity supply.

While these numbers attest to the effort to introduce learners to ICT in school, they also serve as a proxy for Indicator **4.4.1**. In some countries, students need to reach the secondary education level to experience the benefits of ICT instruction. In low- and lower middle-income countries, only young people who achieve *upper* secondary education benefit from ICT subjects in the curriculum. However, in these countries the majority of youth never complete lower secondary education.

Table 6: Curriculum includes specific objectives or a subject on basic computer skills (or computing), by education level, 2012

Country or territory	Primary (ISCED 1)	Lower Secondary (ISCED 2)	Upper secondary (ISCED 3)	Country or territory	Primary (ISCED 1)	Lower Secondary (ISCED 2)	Upper secondary (ISCED 3)
Mongolia	√	√	√	Iran, Islamic Rep.	√	√	√
Australia	√	√	√	Maldives	√	√	√
China	√	√	√	Bhutan	x	√	√
China, Hong Kong SAR	√	√	√	Philippines	x	√	√
China, Macao SAR	√	√	√	Lao PDR	x	√	√
Indonesia	√	√	√	Nepal	x	x	√
Japan	√	√	√	Myanmar	x	x	√
Malaysia	√	√	√	Cambodia	x	x	√
New Zealand	√	√	√	Sri Lanka	x	x	√
Singapore	√	√	√	Samoa	…	√	√
Thailand	√	√	√	Kyrgyzstan	…	√	…
Bangladesh	√	√	√	Kazakhstan	…	…	√

Note: √ = Curriculum includes specific subjects or objectives on basic computer skills; x = Curriculum does not include specific subjects or objectives on basic computer skills; … Data are missing or not available

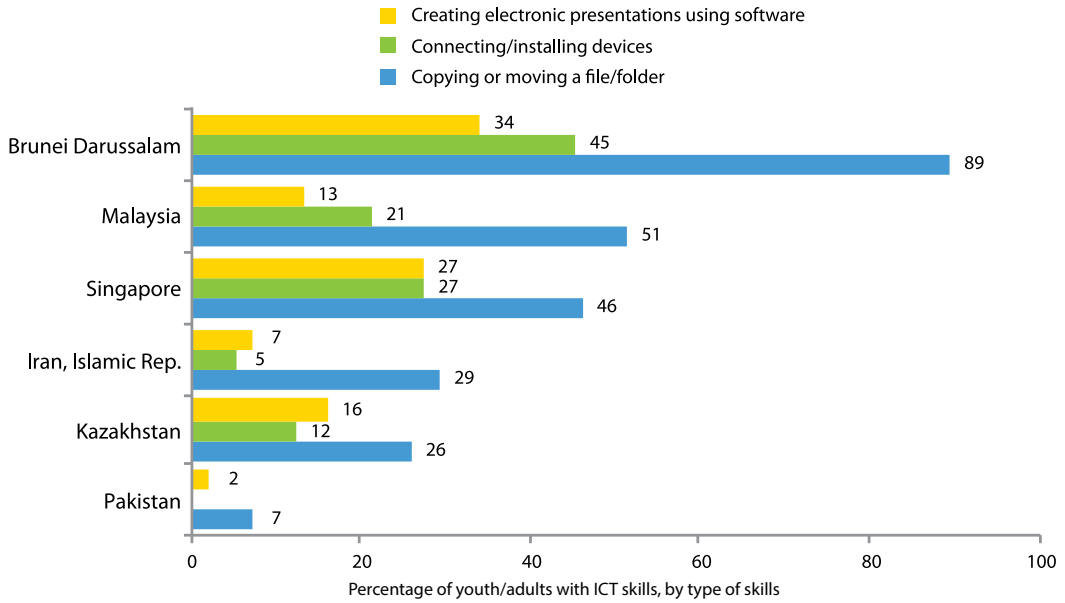
Source: UIS, 2014b.

2.4.3 *How skilled are populations in the use of ICTs?*

Currently, country-level and regional data that provide measures of ICT skills (**4.4.1**) and digital literacy skills (**4.4.2**) are limited. However, data suggest that in both developing and developed countries a significant share of the populations have low ICT proficiencies (OECD, 2016d). Data for Indicator **4.4.1**, in **Figure 27**, show that 89% of youth and/or adults in Brunei Darussalam are skilled in basic information management procedures, such as copying or moving files on a computer. However, only about 45% can connect or install an information and communication device, and 34% create electronic presentations. The percentage fall drastically. In Malaysia and Singapore about half the youth and adult population (51% and 46% respectively) can copy or more a file/folder, which falls again by half to 21% in Malaysia and 27% in Singapore for youth and adults who can connect or install a device.

Figure 27

Percentage of youth and adults (15+ years) with specific ICT skills, 2015-2016



Source: UNESCO eAtlas for Education 2030, accessed in May 2018.

ICTs divide populations in technology-rich environments

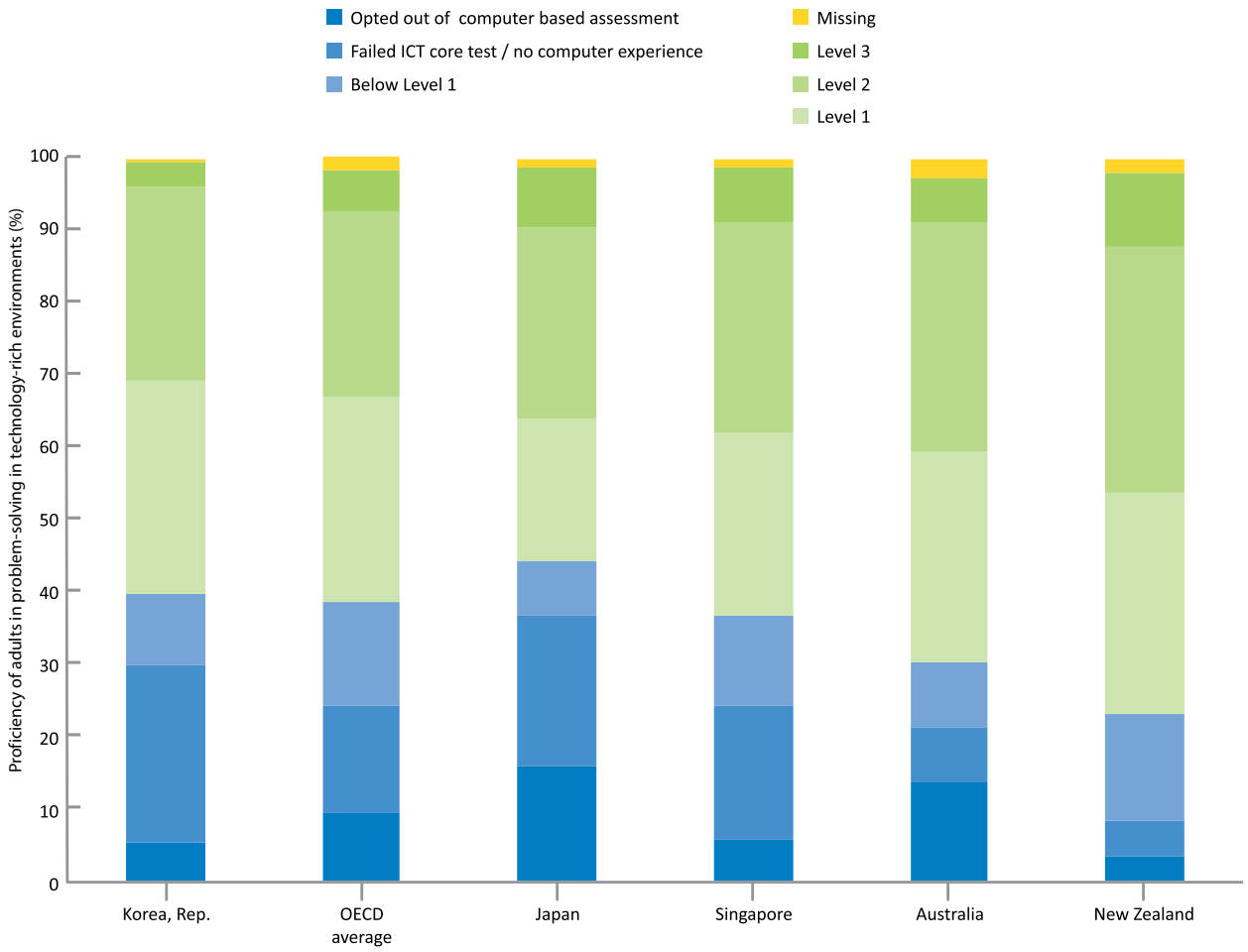
The Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC) investigated computer proficiencies among adults (aged 16-64), testing their problem-solving skills in technology-rich environments (OECD, 2016e). Participants were categorized as follows: Levels 1, 2, 3 or below Level 1. Those who opted out of the computer-based assessment or failed the ICT core test on fundamental computer skills were assigned to a separate category. **Figure 28** reveals that a substantial proportion of adults were unable to demonstrate any problem-solving proficiency in technology-rich environments because they chose to complete the paper-based assessment (opted out). Another share of adults failed the initial core test on ICT skills despite claims of previous computer experience.

Participants reaching Level 1 were able to demonstrate the use of widely available technology applications, such as email software or a web browser, with little or no navigation skills needed to access the information (OECD, 2016d). In Japan, the Republic of Korea and Singapore, about four in ten adults did not demonstrate

such proficiency, which was similar to the OECD average. These rates are striking considering that survey respondents were from high-income countries where ICT resources are widespread (**Figure 28)**. It is worth noting that even in technologically advanced economies, where enabling environments exist ICT skills are not automatically attributable to everyone.

Figure 28

Proficiency in problem-solving skills in technology-rich environments among adults (16-64), 2016



Source: OECD, 2016e.

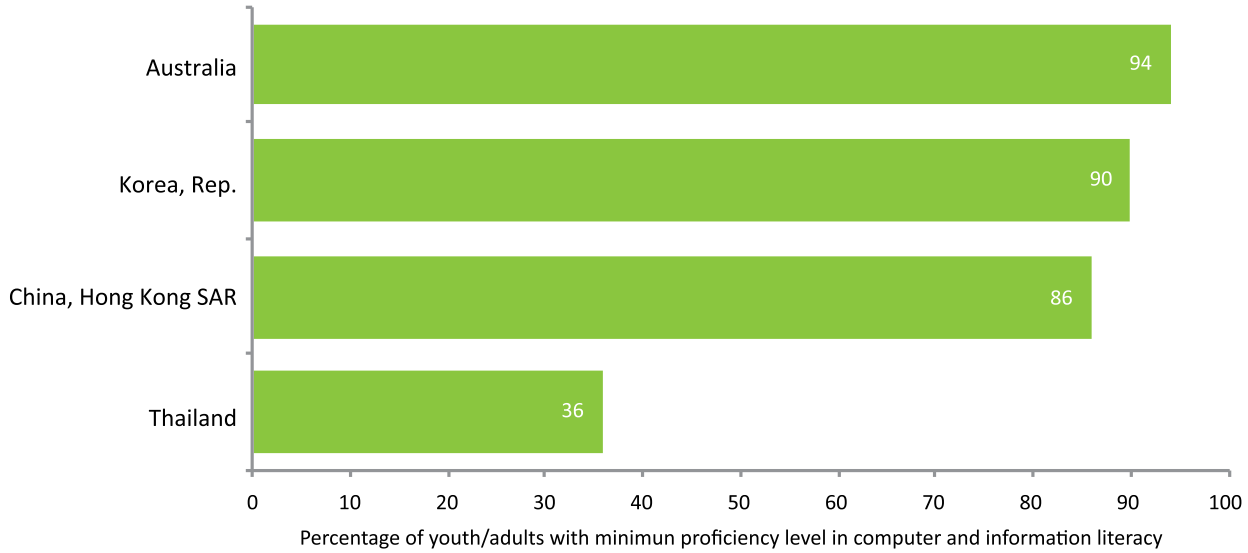
International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) provides an alternative source of data on ICT skills among adults above 15 years of age (Fraillon et al., 2014) in Australia, Hong Kong (SAR of China), the Republic of Korea and Thailand.

According to IEA data (**Figure 29**), most youth and adults in Australia (94%) have acquired the minimum proficiency in accessing, managing, analyzing and/or communicating digital information. Differences between the OECD and IEA data may be attributed to the instruments. It is worth noting that the low percentage for Thailand in the IEA survey, where only 36% of youth or adults have achieved at least a minimum level of computer and information proficiency, suggests a digital divide exists within the country as well as between

countries in the region. It is likely that similar disparities in ICT and digital literacy skills are present in countries in the same income category. The statistics also hint at a cross-regional digital divide that needs to be addressed with digital literacy and ICT skills training to help improve proficiency.[12]

Figure 29

Percentage of youth and adults (15+ years) with a minimum proficiency level in computer and information literacy in four countries, 2013



Source: Fraillon et al., 2014.

Limited exposure to ICT devices means little opportunity to practice

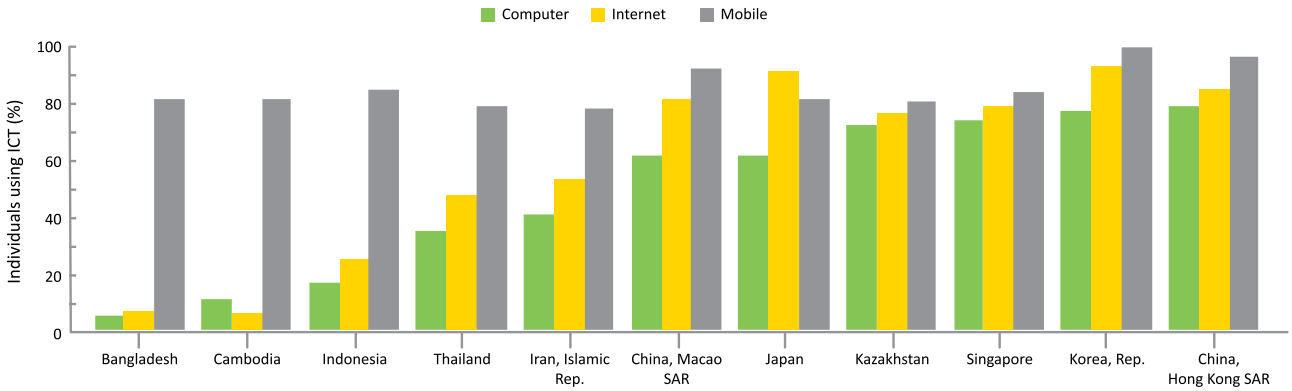
A partial explanation for the low percentage of youth and adults with computer and information literacy skills may be related to access (**Figure 30**). In Thailand, about one-third of individuals possess a computer, and the percentage is even lower in Indonesia (17%). Rates of computer ownership are significantly higher in Japan (60%) and Kazakhstan (70%). When it comes to mobile phones, however, access is much higher. The proportional difference in ownership between Thailand (79%) and Indonesia (85%), closely matches Japan (82%) and Kazakhstan (81%).

With such high mobile phone access, why are ICT and/or digital literacy skills lacking? Individuals may have a range of ICT skills depending on the device they use, if they use one at all. For example, skills such as moving files, manipulating numbers in a spreadsheet or connecting devices are very limited using a mobile phone or even a smartphone. Mobile phones do not require advanced ICT skills, but smartphones allow for some information sharing, often via social media. Indeed, countries in East Asia account for one billion social media users (RVC, 2016). Computers, however, offer a fuller spectrum of engagement, and require a more advanced technical environment to practice digital skills. In countries like Bangladesh, Cambodia or Indonesia, access to computers (and the Internet) is limited, leaving little or no opportunity to practice ICT or digital literacy skills.

12 The digital divide refers to the gulf that separates people, countries or regions that have ready access to computers and the Internet and those that do not (NTIA, 1999; Norris, 2001).

Figure 30

Percentage of individuals with access to a computer, mobile device or the Internet at home, countries with available data, 2016



Note: Data on access to mobile refer to smartphones as well as non-smartphones. Data on access to the Internet refer to either household-based or mobile-based access. Access to computers refers to individuals aged 6-72; access to the Internet refers to individuals aged 16-74; access to a mobile phone (possession) refers to individuals aged 5+ years.

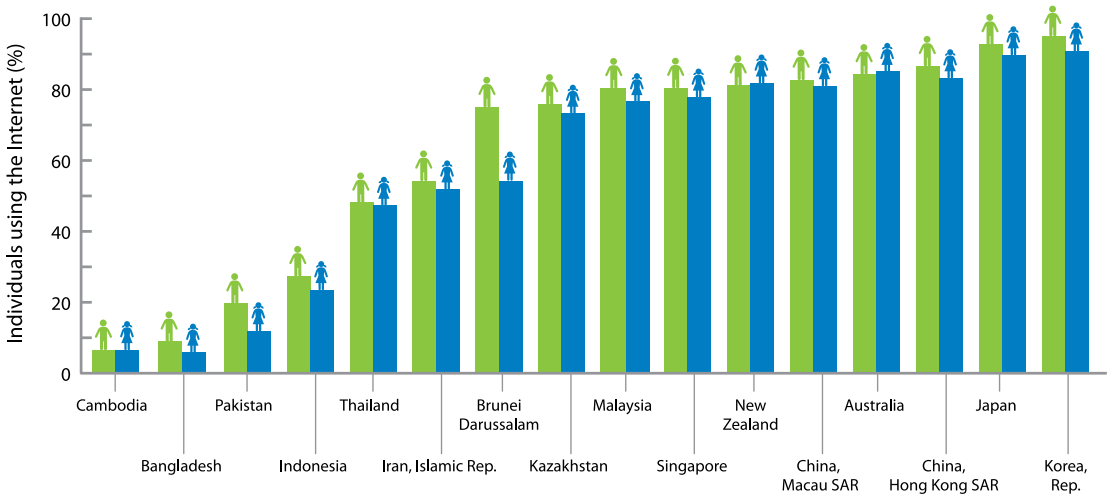
Source: ITU World Telecommunication/ICT Indicators Database. Data on mobile phones for Cambodia from Phong and Solá, 2015; data from Indonesia retrieved from We Are Social, November 2017.

Typically, the digital divide refers to disparities between rural and urban populations, and poor and rich populations (UNESCAP, 2016c). However, the digital divide is also a gendered divide. According to the ITU, 48% of men in the Asia-Pacific region had access to the Internet in 2017, compared to 40% of women (ITU ICT Indicators Database, accessed 24 January 2018). Across the Asia-Pacific (**Figure 31**), men use the Internet more frequently than women, except in Australia and New Zealand.

The gender gap is likely to widen as a result of women not benefitting from equal access to the Internet, or acquiring much-needed ICT skills. This will have consequences for women seeking access to the labour market where employers increasingly expect workers to have at least rudimentary ICT skills. Women may also face discrimination when they wish to acquire ICT skills. Technology is often perceived as a 'male domain'. As a consequence, girls and women are discouraged from embracing ICT training or employment (Dahlberg, 2017). Moreover, women face obstacles that arise from household obligations, poverty, mobility constraints and limited family support.

Figure 31

Percentage of males and females using the Internet, 2012-2016



Source: ITU, 2016.

BOX 5

USING ICT TO ACHIEVE THE EDUCATION 2030 AGENDA

The *Asia-Pacific Regional Strategy on Using ICT to Facilitate the Achievement of Education 2030* (UNESCO, 2017c) was adopted by Member States on 11 May 2017 at the Asia-Pacific Forum on ICT in Education in Seoul, Republic of Korea. The strategy supports Member States in the implementation of a set of concrete, feasible actions to leverage the affordances of ICT to achieve the Education 2030 Agenda over the next five years (2017-2022), while keeping the long-term goals of Education 2030 in mind. Member States identified ICT skills (Target 4.4) and TVET (Target 4.3) as priority areas for action. Member States also recognized that open educational resources (OER) and ICT-based solutions offer unprecedented opportunities to improve the quality of, and expand access to, secondary education and TVET.

These innovations can help facilitate a smoother transition to higher learning and nurture the development of labour forces with market-relevant skills. Member States agreed to "allocate resources to maximize the full potential of ICT tools to expand flexible access to and enhance the quality and relevance of secondary education, TVET and higher education" by 2022.

In addition, Member States acknowledged the importance of establishing comprehensive Education Management Information Systems (EMIS) and strengthening existing EMIS to facilitate the collection, organization and analysis of disaggregated data for monitoring SDG 4 indicators. That includes Indicator **4.a.1**, the proportion of schools with access to computers and the Internet for pedagogical use.

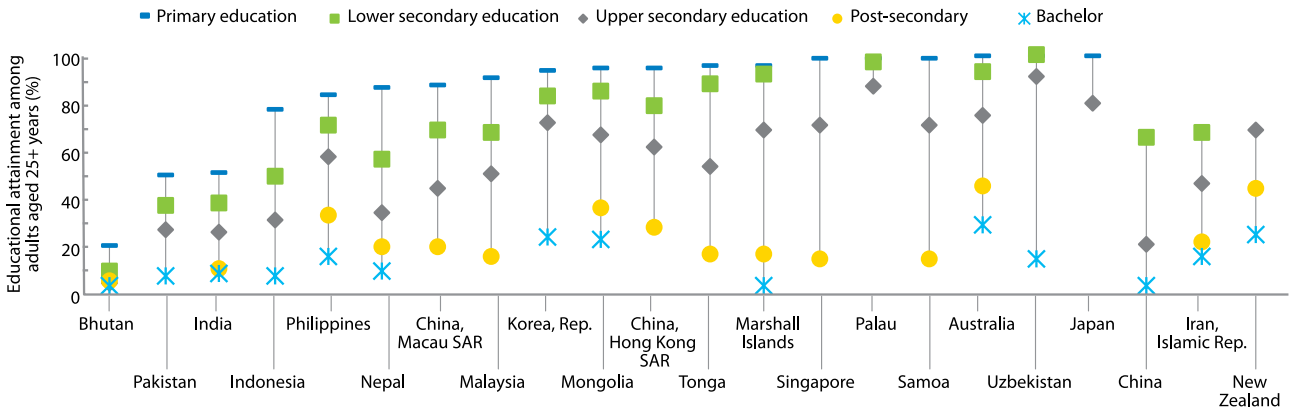
2.4.4 *How educated is Asia-Pacific's adult population?*

High levels of educational achievement (Indicator 4.4.3) serve as a foundation for sustainable development. Opportunities to earn increase as an individual acquires the necessary skills for decent work and the knowledge to make informed decisions. Each year of education increases an individual's future earnings by up to 10%, and raises the average annual gross domestic product (GDP) by 0.37% (UNESCO, 2011; World Bank, 2018).

Overall, adults in the Asia-Pacific region have relatively low levels of educational attainment. In countries with data, the majority of adults (25 years old and above) completed primary education (**Figure 32**). In some countries, such as in Pakistan and Bhutan, the majority of adults still do not complete primary education. At the higher educational level, between 4% and 30% of adults completed Bachelor's degrees or the equivalent (ISCED 6; see Definitions).

Figure 32

Educational attainment rate for the population aged 25+ years in selected countries with available data by education level, 2016 or latest year available



Source: Statistical Table 4.

While rising educational attainment rates among youth will lead to a gradual improvement in the level of education among the adult population in the region, progress is uneven. As seen above, many adults still lack primary schooling, and the lack of secondary or higher education is a barrier to decent work (Huynh and Kapsos, 2013). In five out of 19 countries with data, more than half of the adult population has not completed lower secondary education. Moreover, adults are unlikely to go back to school to obtain a secondary education qualification.

Wealth disparities are a significant impediment to education and become more pronounced at successive levels of education. When development is uneven, the gap between poor and wealthy students grows with time, which contributes to inequality between those who benefit from education and those who do not. This situation can fuel a vicious cycle of poverty and exclusion in which those who have completed a full cycle of education benefit from higher earnings while those who lack education are left behind.

2.4.5 *Key issues and challenges*

Enabling environments

Much international attention has focused on Internet access and overcoming the 'digital divide' in order to promote economic development (ITU, 2016; UNESCAP, 2016c; Dahlberg, 2017). Even the ICT Development Index (IDI) places more weight on ensuring Internet access than on the skills needed to become proficient in the use of technologies (ITU, 2016). Individuals who have access to the Internet are not necessarily skilled users of information and communication technology. ICT and digital literacy skills include a broad set of competencies of which Internet skills, such as the ability to use social media, are a small part. Having an infrastructure to support new technologies is a necessary, but not a sufficient, condition for nurturing an ICT-skilled population. Even countries where ICTs are integrated into everyday life, large segments of the population have limited experience using these technologies.

Gender bias

The lack of ICT skills has been identified as one of the barriers keeping youth and adults in low-skill jobs, especially girls and women (Dahlberg, 2017). Females are more likely to be discouraged from pursuing ICT-related fields in favour of traditional activities. In addition, they are more likely to suffer discrimination and harassment in online

spaces, which further deters them from acquiring skills that could translate into decent and non-vulnerable employment (ibid.). These gendered limitations also put a brake on national productivity and ICT innovation, which in turn result in slower GDP growth (Broadband Commission, 2013).

Learning in time

As seen in the section on Target 4.1, many young people never reach upper secondary education. ICT strategies in education may be taught in lower secondary education, but are more likely to be introduced in upper secondary education, at which point many children and youth have already left school. Moreover, even the most adept teachers of ICT cannot teach without up-to-date resources and clear learning objectives. As a result, students find themselves learning ICT and digital literacy skills that are no longer relevant.

Target 4.5

Equity

2.5.1 Unpacking Target 4.5

By 2030, eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training for the vulnerable, including persons with disabilities, indigenous peoples and children in vulnerable situations.

Equity and inclusion are at the heart of the SDG 4-Education 2030 Agenda. Access and participation in education have expanded in the past decade, especially for girls, and more work has been done to understand the characteristics of excluded children under projects like the Out-of-School Children Initiative.[13] However, Target 4.5 calls upon national and international stakeholders to make an even deeper commitment to equity in education and learning. New methodologies and tools aim to monitor dimensions that are more difficult to define and compare, such as disability, language and migrant status.

13 The Global Out-of-School Children Initiative: http://allinschool.org/

Table 7: Target 4.5 indicators

Indicator		Type	Baseline available
4.5.1	Parity indices (female/male, rural/urban, bottom/top wealth quintiles and others such as disability status, indigenous peoples and conflict-affected, as data become available) for all education indicators on this list that can be disaggregated	Global	Partly
4.5.2	Percentage of students in primary education whose first or home language is the language of instruction	Thematic	No
4.5.3	Extent to which explicit formula-based policies reallocate education resources to disadvantaged populations	Thematic	No
4.5.4	Education expenditure per student by level of education and source of funding	Thematic	Partly
4.5.5	Percentage of total aid to education allocated to least developed countries	Thematic	Yes

Source: UIS, 2017c.

Indicator **4.5.1** calls for monitoring equity using parity indices, and for the disaggregation of all education indicators "by income, sex, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability and geographic location, or other characteristics" (UN, 2016). While parity indices, particularly for gender, are available for many indicators, most indicators cannot yet be disaggregated by all of these characteristics.

Cross-nationally comparable data are widely available for Indicator **4.5.5**, which covers aid to education. Governments routinely collect data on education expenditure per student (Indicator **4.5.4**). However, education funding can come from many sources for which data are not necessarily available in an easily comparable form. Similarly, despite growing efforts in some countries to track equity in spending by population group (**Box 8**), Indicator **4.5.3** lacks comparable data. Indicator **4.5.2**, which measures the percentage of children receiving education in their mother tongue, also requires methodological development, although data from large-scale assessments could be used in the meantime.

2.5.2 *Are countries ensuring equity in education participation?*

Inequality can be measured with reference to any education indicator, provided data are sufficiently disaggregated. This section demonstrates how data on participation can be analyzed in light of millions of children in the Asia-Pacific region continuing to be denied access to schooling. While the region has seen participation in education grow steadily and the gender gap has gradually narrowed since 2000, much more needs to be done (UNESCO and UNICEF, 2012b). Indicator **4.5.1** aims to ensure that even the most marginalized groups gain access to education and learning by 2030.

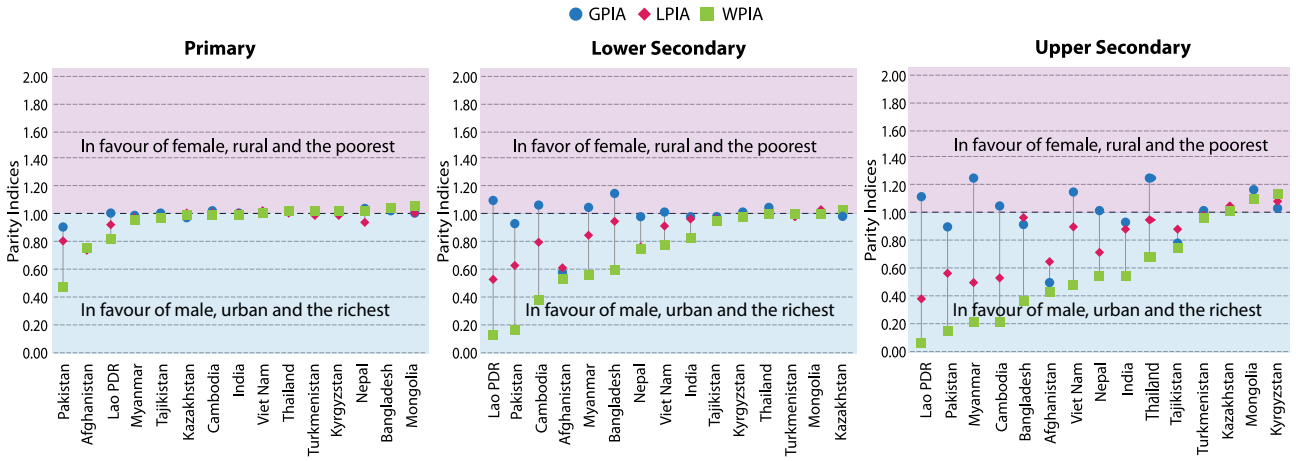
To illustrate the disparities, **Figure 33** plots the adjusted parity indices of net attendance rates in terms of gender (GPIA), location (LPIA) and wealth of households (WPIA), from primary to upper secondary education. Analysis of disaggregated data are, at the moment, mostly possible using household surveys in which the background information and characteristics of all members of the household are collected (**Box 6**).

Inequalities prominent in upper secondary levels

Attendance in primary education has reached gender parity in almost all countries with available data, with a few exceptions. In Afghanistan and Pakistan, boys, children in urban areas and those from the richest families are more likely to attend school than girls in rural areas from the 20% poorest families. The inequalities become more pronounced in upper secondary education. For instance, Thailand maintains parity for gender, location and wealth in primary and lower secondary education, but inequalities emerge in upper secondary education.

Figure 33

Adjusted parity indices of net attendance rate by education level based on household survey data, 2016 or latest year available



Note: GPIA (adjusted gender parity index), LPIA (adjusted location parity index), and WPIA (adjusted wealth index).

Source: Statistical Table 5.

BOX 6

USING MICS TO ACHIEVE THE EDUCATION 2030 AGENDA

UNICEF started to implement the sixth generation of Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) which will provide nationally-representative and internationally-comparable indicators on various aspects of child development, including education and learning, in over 40 countries during 2017-2019. MICS data can be disaggregated by sex, location, socio-economic status, sub-national geographical unit, ethnicity, home language and disability. Hence, it is a data source for sector analysis and monitoring of the SDG 4 with a focus on equity in education. As MICS is household-based, it reaches not only children in school but also out of school, thereby identifying the most marginalized children.

There are two newly developed optional modules. "The Functional Learning Skills Module" monitors early learning outcomes for Indicator **4.1.1** (a). With a consent of children and caretakers, it adopts a direct assessment method for children's early learning in reading and mathematics at the level of primary Grade 2 and/or 3 among children who are 5-14 years old. "The Parental Involvement Module" measures the degree of parental/family engagement in their child's education at home (e.g. reading for children) and in school management activities. MICS also provide information on Indicators **4.2.1** (Early Childhood Development Index: ECDI) and **4.2.2** (participation to organized learning among children one year before primary).

While parity indices offer important information about exclusion based on gender, wealth and location, Target 4.5 calls for countries to address all forms of exclusion and marginalization in education and learning for children and adults. Some countries in the region collect data that can shed light on harder-to-measure characteristics, such as disability. Children with disabilities are less likely to enter and complete basic education, compared to their peers without disabilities. In Cambodia, 44% of children with disabilities, aged 14 to 16 years of age, completed primary education, compared to 72% for non-disabled children. This tendency grows at higher levels of education where only 4% of disabled young people, aged 17 and 19 years, completed lower secondary education, contrary to 41% for their non-disabled counterparts (UIS, 2017m).[14]

14 The Washington Group (WG) on Disability Statistics, which was established in 2001, has been collecting data on persons with disabilities based on the internationally comparable short set of questions. The Demographic and Health Survey (DHS) for Cambodia 2014 and Maldives 2009 adopted the WG's questions (UIS, 2017d).

BOX 7

PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS IN PRIMARY EDUCATION WHOSE FIRST OR HOME LANGUAGE IS THE LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION

To support the monitoring Indicator 4.5.2, 11 Southeast Asian countries were part of a background study, conducted for the 2017/8 Global Education Monitoring Report, that estimated the percentages of children who have access to education in their first or home languages (Kosonen, 2017). According to the paper, about 90% of students in Cambodia and Viet Nam attended primary education in their first languages. Approximately 60% studied in their mother tongue in the Philippines, Malaysia and Myanmar. In Lao PDR, Singapore, Thailand and Timor-Leste between 30% and 50% of students in primary school were taught in their first language, while in Brunei Darussalam and Indonesia, only 25% went to school in their home or first language.

The link between language and marginalization in education is well established. Students whose mother tongue is not the same as the language of instruction may face barriers to learning, and are more likely to leave school early (UNESCO, 2010; UNICEF and UIS, 2015; UNESCO, 2016c). To ensure equity in access and learning, education policies should do more to provide instruction in the child's mother tongue, especially in the early years. Doing so not only helps to eliminate disparities in performance, but lowers the barrier to other levels of education, and may help strengthen or even revitalize endangered languages and cultures.

2.5.3 *Who benefits from public spending on education?*

Education finance is pertinent to three out of five Target 4.5 indicators. In order to achieve the SDG 4-Education 2030 Agenda countries need to increase investment in education. In fact, in the 2015 Addis Ababa Action Agenda on financing for development, countries were encouraged to spend at least 4% to 6% of GDP on education and allocate 15% to 20% of public expenditure on education (UN, 2015a). Today, 19 out of 30 Asia-Pacific countries with available data allocate 4% and more of GDP to education and 13 out of 29 countries invest more than 15% of public expenditure in education (Statistical Table 5).

There are different ways to capture government commitment and investments in education. For example, Indicator **4.5.4** calls for data on expenditure per student by level of education and source of funding. However, currently available comparable data only cover government spending per student.

According to **Table 8**, there is a large gap in public spending per student between high and lower middle-income countries. In high-income countries, the differentials in per-pupil spending across levels of education are small, while in some middle- and low-income countries, spending per tertiary student is much greater than at the primary level. This implies that disadvantaged children in these countries do not benefit from more generous public spending at the upper levels of education. Instead, the beneficiaries tend to be students from wealthier households.

Table 8

Initial government funding per students by education level (in constant PPP$), 2016 or latest year available

		Pre-primary	Primary	Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary	Tertiary
Low-income	Nepal	52	311	238	297	607
Lower middle-income	Indonesia	294	1311	980	1168	2085
	Lao PDR	463	494	514	1068	1104
	India	533	497	526	1238	2500
	Pakistan	559	473	509	571	1350
	Mongolia	2114	1966	1972	1517	1282
Upper middle-income	Iran, Islamic Rep.	143	1363	2597	2592	2393
	Kazakhstan	1781	74	6364	2481	2476
High-income	Brunei Darussalam	806	7017	16527	19645	25249
	Japan	1738	8839	9764	9010	9643
	Korea, Rep.	5678	9967	9445	9562	5409
	New Zealand	6861	6712	8124	8021	10071

Source: Statistical Table 5.

2.5.4 *How is aid to education allocated?*

Even if countries substantially increase domestic education budgets to meet the SDG 4 targets, there will still be an annual financial gap in low-income countries of US$21 billion (UNESCO, 2016c). The Incheon Declaration states "aid will thus remain a crucial source of education finance over the next 15 years if the targets are to be met" (E2030 FFA, 2016).

Available data available for Indicator **4.5.5** suggest that the total amount of international aid[15] given to the education sector in the Asia-Pacific region varies by country. In 2015, the largest recipients were populous lower middle-income countries, such as Pakistan (US$648 million[16]), India (US$589 million) and Bangladesh (US$466 million) (OECD, OECD.Stat).

In terms of the proportion of total aid earmarked for education in the region, a large share was dedicated to the education sector in Iran (Islamic Republic of) (61%), China (31%) and Kiribati (25%). Bhutan and Republic of Korea received relatively small proportions of education aid: 1% and 2%, respectively. In relative terms, these small countries received very little aid to their education sectors (OECD, OECD.Stat).

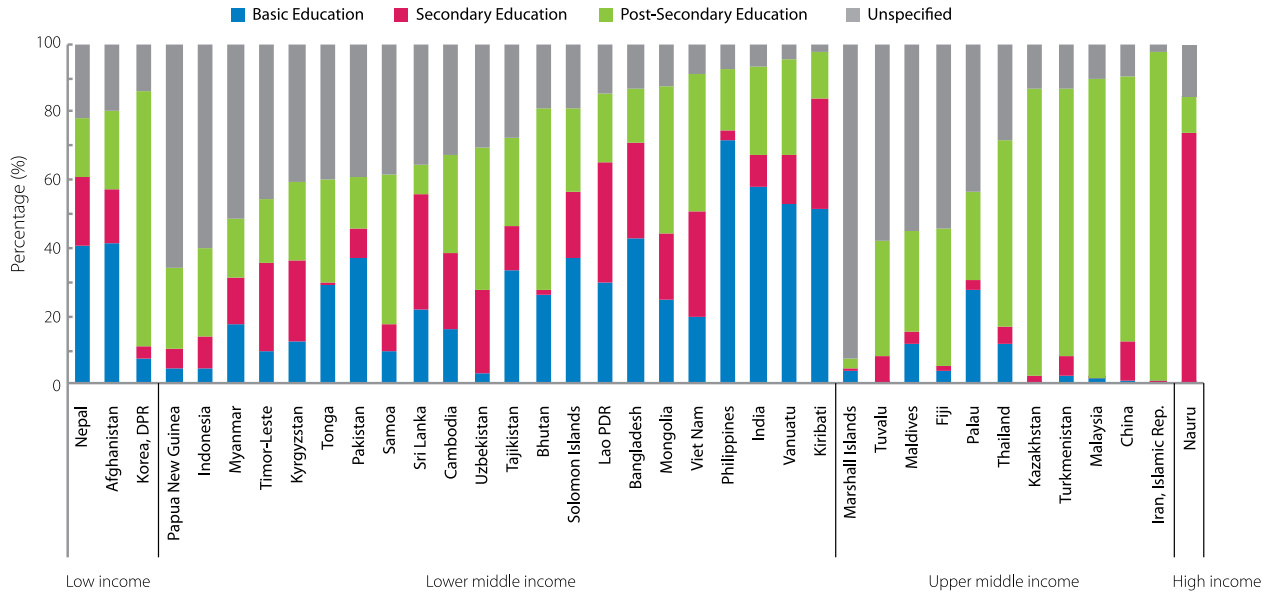
15 Data on international aid comes from the OECD's Creditor Reporter System (CRS).

16 The total is based on the gross disbursement of the total ODA to education total in terms of constant USD, 2015.

Figure 34 presents the distribution of international education aid by level of education. Upper middle- income countries tend to receive a higher proportion of education aid for post-secondary education, such as Iran (Islamic Republic of) (97%), Malaysia (88%) and Kazakhstan (84%). On the other hand, lower middle- and low-income countries are likely to receive aid for basic education. Some countries rely on international aid to cover more than 50% of the cost of basic education, including the Philippines (71%), India (58%), Vanuatu (53%) and Kiribati (52%).

Figure 34

Distribution of international education aid by level of education (in constant 2015 PPP$), 2015 or latest year available



Note: OECD definitions: **Basic education** covers early childhood education, primary education and basic life skills for youth and adults. **Secondary education** includes both general secondary education and vocational training. Post-secondary education encompasses higher education and advanced technical and managerial training. **Unspecified areas** refer to any activities that cannot be attributed solely to the development of a particular level of education, such as teacher training and educational research.

Source: OECD, 2016e. Creditor Reporting System, accessed in November 2017.

BOX 8

NEPALESE EQUITY INDEX

In Nepal, an equity index has been developed in partnership with the Government of Nepal, UNICEF and the World Bank. Endorsed by the government in late 2014, this planning tool ranks districts according to a combination of performance and equity indicators, including school access, participation and learning. Specific actions are then developed to reduce barriers. For example, low ranking districts set yearly targets to reduce the number of out-of-school children. Iallocate at least a part of the education budget according to need.

In exchange, they receive additional funding, thereby contributing to a more equitable distribution of resources. The tool is being adapted to the new federal structure of the country, and is being embedded within a new "resource index" to pave the way for formula-based resource allocations designed to allocate at least a part of the education budget according to need.

2.5.5 Key issues and challenges

Lack of disaggregated indicators to monitor equity

Despite the substantial gains in education participation, children in the Asia-Pacific region still face many barriers to schooling. While countries have made progress to improve the measurement of disparities using parity indices for gender, wealth and location, more work needs to be done to assess difficult-to-measure characteristics, such as language, disability and migrant status. In reality, children often face a complex web of disadvantages that combine and compound to further exclude the most vulnerable. For example, in some countries, a girl with a disability, living in poverty in a remote area would have virtually no access to education. Currently available indices would provide a partial picture of her circumstances, but data on children with disabilities (by type and impact on their ability to learn, etc.) are not available in many countries. Without these data, policymakers will find it difficult to develop targeted interventions, or invest in appropriate education plans, for children who have complex individual needs.

Financial burden on households and lack of pro-poor spending

When the government cannot provide sufficient funding for public education, households and students often bear the burden. In addition to extra classes and private tutoring, these expenses may include special fees, such as contributions to maintain school infrastructure. The household share of education spending tends to increase from pre-primary to tertiary education (Government of Viet Nam and UIS, 2016). Costs related to learning can be a barrier for the poorest households. Caregivers or parents in the region have reported that cost is a factor in not enrolling their children in school. Parents simply cannot afford the registration and unofficial fees (UNICEF and UIS, 2012; UNICEF and UIS, 2013). In those countries, governments may need to prioritize investments in basic education so that all children have access to education and learning.

Target 4.6

Literacy and Numeracy among Youth and Adults

2.6.1 *Unpacking Target 4.6*

By 2030, ensure that all youth and a substantial proportion of adults, both men and women, achieve literacy and numeracy.

Literacy is a basic human right enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and a necessary prerequisite for achieving all other development goals. Acquiring basic functional literacy and numeracy skills is the foundation for further learning, decent work, participation in society and many other domains. But, as of today, an estimated 750 million adults are illiterate, most of whom are women (Statistical Table 6). Target 4.6 renews the global commitment to universal literacy for youth and adults and stresses the achievement of proficiency, which is the ability to use literacy and numeracy skills in daily life.

Table 9

Target 4.6 indicators

Indicator		Type	Baseline available
4.6.1	Proportion of population in a given age group achieving at least a fixed level of proficiency in functional (a) literacy and (b) numeracy skills, by sex	Global	Yes
4.6.2	Youth/adult literacy rate	Thematic	No
4.6.3	Participation rate of youth/adults in literacy programmes	Thematic	No

Source: UIS, 2017c.

At the centre of the new global indicator (**4.6.1**) is the understanding that literacy proficiency is best measured by a direct assessment method that benchmarks competencies for each domain. The traditional measure of literacy for youth and adults is self-reported, which results in a dichotomous measure: respondents are either literate or illiterate. In fact, literacy and numeracy skills should be measured on a continuum. Even in countries where the adult and youth literacy rates are near 100%, the skills of a proportion of the literate population may be at the lower end of the spectrum.

Direct assessments can provide a more nuanced picture by requiring respondents to take a short test to determine their skill level. However, even this method can underestimate or overestimate an individual's ability to apply literacy and numeracy skills in daily life, and may overlook their ability to function across different cultural contexts and languages. Moreover, data from sophisticated assessments of literacy are not directly comparable with the results of simple self- or household-assessments. Methodological development is needed to provide accurate literacy and numeracy data that meet global standards in order to achieve this target.

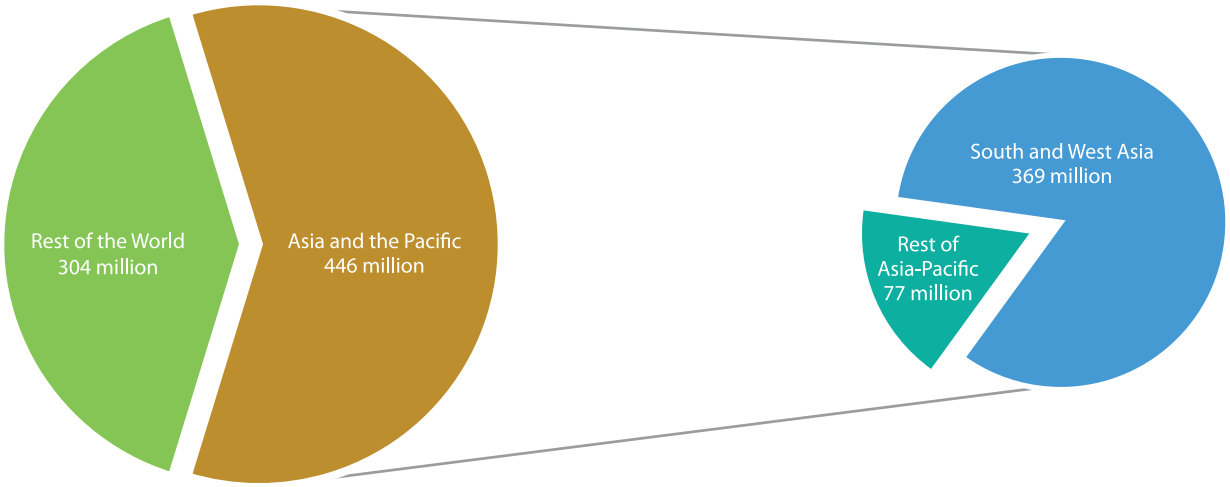
2.6.2 *To what extent are youth and adults acquiring literacy and numeracy skills?*

In Asia-Pacific, the subregions have reported increases in literacy rates among both youth and adults since 2000. With the exception of a few countries, youth in Central Asia and East Asia are near universal literacy, but youth and adults in South and West Asia have been slower to close the gap.

Close to three and a half billion people between the ages of 15 years and above live in the Asia-Pacific region (UNESCAP, 2016b). Of them, 446 million are illiterate adults, of the ages 15 years and above. Most (369 million) live in South and West Asia, which account for roughly half of the global population of illiterate adults (Statistical Table 6).

Figure 35

Proportion of illiterate adults (aged 15+) in Asia-Pacific compared to the rest of the world and in South West Asia compared to the rest of Asia-Pacific based on household survey data, 2016 or latest year available



Source: Statistical Table 6.

On a positive note, literacy rates among male and female youth in South and West Asia indicate that the gender gap is closing. Since 2000, the literacy rate for female youth has grown by 17 percentage points as girls have entered the school system; however, adult women lag behind. Only 59% of women of 15 years and above can read and write, compared to 78% of men.

Rising literacy over time

Figures 36 and **37** provide youth and adult literacy rates (Indicator **4.6.2**), for the latest year available, based on census and survey data as well as UIS projections.[17]

17 In 2017, the UIS began producing estimated literacy rates with its Global Age-Specific Literacy Projections (GALP) model for all years where national data are missing.

Figure 36

Literacy rates among youth (15-24 years) by subregion, 2000 and 2016

Source: Statistical Table 6.

Figure 37

Literacy rates among adults (25-64 years) based on household survey data by subregion, 2000 and 2016 or latest year available

Source: Statistical Table 6.

As each new age cohort enters the education system, the illiterate population will diminish; however, waiting for a generational shift to take place is not an effective way to close the literacy gap. Sustainable economic growth depends on a literate workforce. Countries must do more to support the acquisition of literacy and numeracy skills if they are to meet Target 4.6 by 2030.

Part of the challenge will be to find more precise ways to distinguishing between literate and illiterate populations. The binary nature of current assessment method does not capture the spectrum of capabilities in literacy or numeracy. In reality, most individuals who are considered illiterate have some literacy skills.

Assessing skills reveals the true literacy and numeracy status

As a proxy for Indicator **4.6.1**, the Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies (PIAAC), developed by the OECD, provides a useful assessment framework (OECD, 2016e). The latest study, conducted between 2011 and 2014 included six countries in the region, measured five levels of proficiency in literacy and numeracy among working-age adults between 16 and 65 years of age. The study did not define a benchmark of minimum proficiency.[18]

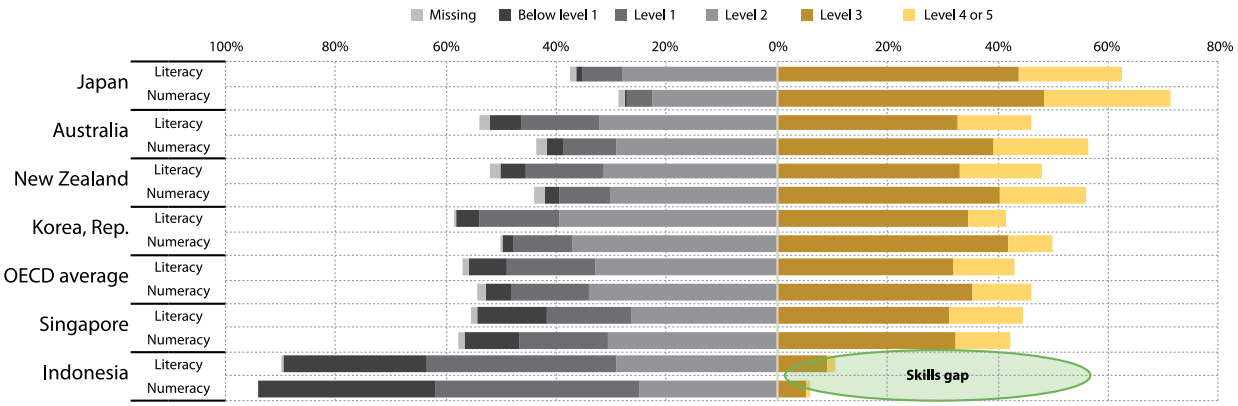
The results for participating countries and territories from the Asia-Pacific region, as seen in **Figure 38**, indicate that the majority of adults fall into proficiency Levels 2 and 3[19] for both literacy and numeracy. On average, 85% of adults in Indonesia scored below Level 3 in both domains.[20] About 60% of adults in Singapore scored at Level 2 or below in numeracy, and 70% were at Level 2 in literacy.

Adults in Singapore failed to meet the OECD accumulated averages in numeracy and literacy--76% and 80%, respectively. In comparison, Japan had the highest proportion of adults scoring in Level 4 or 5 for numeracy (19%) and literacy (23%). Countries where adults left school early or did not complete secondary education, as is the case in Singapore and Indonesia, were associated with low proficiency scores (OECD, 2016e).

Adults scoring below Level 1 in either domain are still able to read short, simple texts and to perform basic calculations. According to Schleicher (2016), these individuals are more than twice as likely to end up unemployed and to suffer from poor health. They are also more likely to believe they have little impact on political processes, and are less likely to participate actively in society (ibid). The same study noted that proficiency in literacy and numeracy is related to problem-solving skill – further evidence that literacy and numeracy proficiency are the foundation for higher-order skills.

Figure 38

Proficiency levels among adults in literacy and numeracy in six countries, 2011-2014



Note: Adults in the missing category were not able to provide enough background information to impute proficiency scores because of language difficulties, or learning or mental disabilities (referred to as literacy-related non-response).

Source: OECD, 2016d.

18 The chosen division between level two and three was stated for an ease of presentation. Level four and five were combined due to low numbers. For each proficiency level benchmark, see: OECD, 2016e. "Skills Matter: Further Results from the Survey of Adult Skills", OECD *Skills Studies*, p.40 & 48. Paris: OECD Publishing.

19 Skills at these levels include the ability to make low level inferences and respond appropriately to dense or lengthy texts.

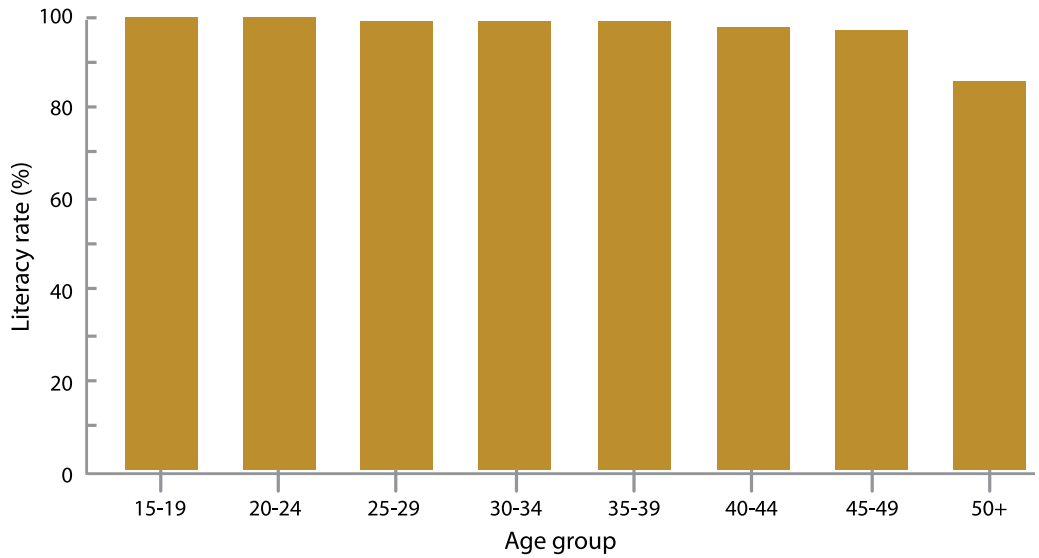
20 Indonesia refers to Jakarta only.

In Indonesia, the PIAAC survey found much lower literacy proficiency levels among adults compared to the skills-reported in direct assessments and in self-reported household surveys of adults (**Figure 39**). While literacy was reported to have been achieved by almost every young person at or above the age of 15, the same age group fell visibly short in the PIAAC study.

In short, the current literate/illiterate categorization of populations is an inadequate measure. The PIAAC study shows that by international literacy and numeracy standards, some country populations are vastly under skilled. To reach the literacy and numeracy target by 2030 a substantial proportion of youth and adults will need to be equipped with the relevant skills and competencies to fully function and integrate into society--a goal that self-reported assessments will not be able to support. Rather than attempting to eradicate illiteracy, countries need to shift their focus to improving competencies (UIL, 2017).

Figure 39

Literacy rates in Indonesia by age group, 2016



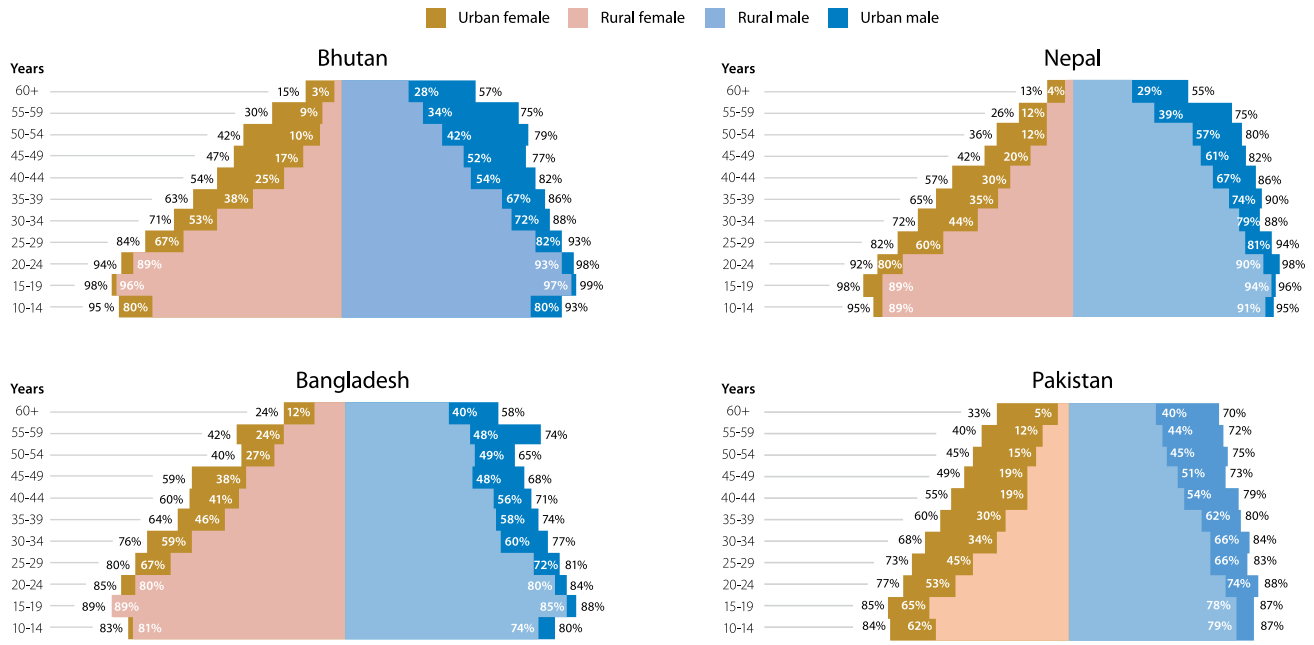
Source: Badan Pusat Statistik (BPS-Statistics Indonesia): https://www.bps.go.id, retrieved 24 January 2018.

2.6.3 *Who is most likely to be left behind?*

While internationally comparable assessments are still sparse and difficult to administer, household surveys and population censuses can provide disaggregated data across gender, age and location dimensions. **Figure 40**, below, compares literacy rates by gender and location in four countries from South and West Asia. Adults living in urban areas are on average two times more likely to be literate than those in rural areas. Pakistan is one of the countries where steep gender disparities remain in spite of decades of efforts to promote equality. In Pakistan's urban areas, the gender gap in literacy rates between boys and girls, aged ten to 19, is relatively small. However, chronic disparities persist in rural areas, where at least one in three girls struggles to read and write.

Figure 40

Literacy rate for age groups, by gender and location in Bangladesh 2015, Bhutan 2012, Nepal 2016 and Pakistan 2014



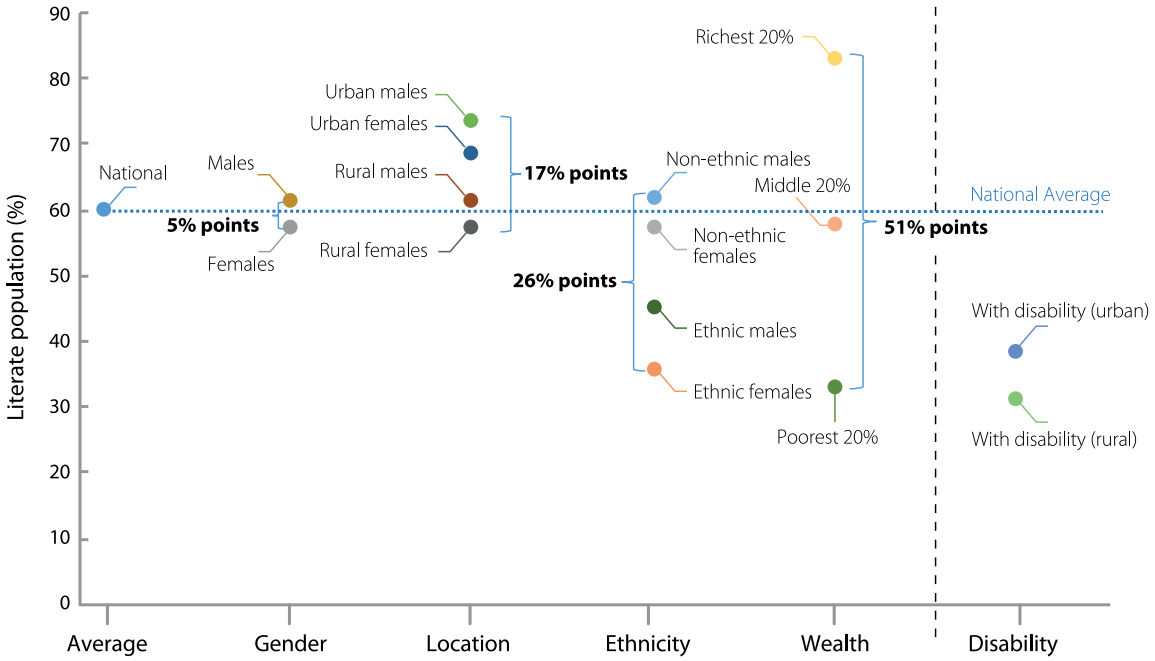
Sources: Bureau of Statistics Bangladesh, 2015. Education Household Survey 2014; National Statistics Bureau Bhutan and ADB, 2012, Annual Bhutan Living Standards Survey 2012 Report; Central Bureau of Statistics Nepal and UNDP, 2016, Annual Household Survey 2015/16; Bureau of Statistics Pakistan, 2014. Labour Force Statistics.

Urban areas tend to have better school infrastructure. This makes access to education easier for all income groups, which in turn influences literacy rates among urban populations. Migrants, who are more likely to be living in remote rural areas, tend to have low literacy skills. Further accentuating the rural/urban divide, literate adults from rural areas are more likely to migrate to urban areas. As a result, rural populations are less literate than their urban counterparts (Singh, 2001; OECD, 2010; Berhanu, 2012; Rajan, 2012).

Rural-urban disparities are considerably more complex than conventionally portrayed, and may be better understood as a proxy for other underlying factors that interfere with literacy skills (Singh, 2001). To better understand literacy rates among disadvantaged populations, more disaggregated data are needed. Nested disaggregation (**Figure 41**) provides a more nuanced picture. For example, in Bangladesh, ethnic populations, poor populations and persons with disabilities are generally less literate than the national average. These groups are also more likely to be living in rural settings. Thus, looking at rural populations requires careful attention to the circumstances of marginalized individuals and the particular barriers they face.

Figure 41

Literacy rate for the population 7+ years in Bangladesh by gender and ethnicity, and by gender, location, disability and wealth, 2014



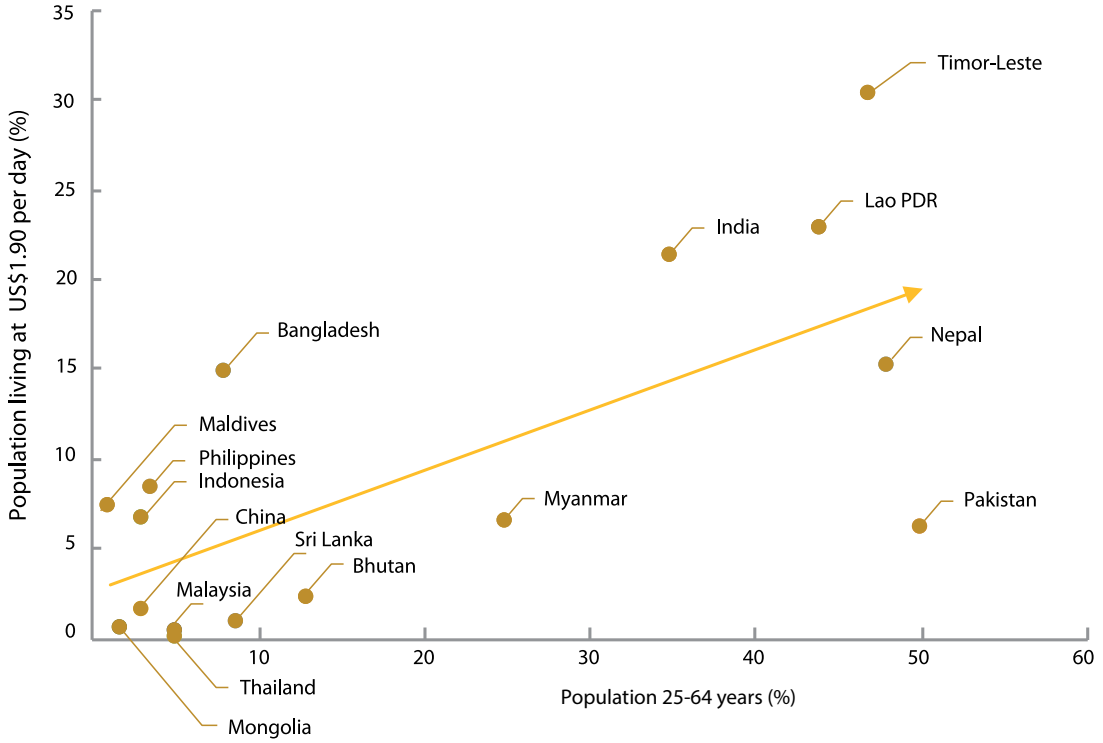
Source: Bureau of Statistics Bangladesh, 2015. *Education Household Survey* 2014.

Among all factors, poverty is the most strongly associated with low literacy skills (UNESCO and UNICEF, 2012gc World Bank, 2018), as illustrated in Figure 41. In Bangladesh, the poorest population is half as likely as the richest population to have acquired basic literacy skills (a 51-percentage point gap). The same applies to females from ethnic minority communities who have similarly low literacy rates (a 26- percentage point gap compared to males from non-ethnic communities), as do individuals with disabilities. Disability, in particular, can compound the effect of poverty because of health care expenses and the inability to take up employment.

Figure 42 provides further evidence of the link between poverty and low literacy skills. In Nepal for instance, 15% of the population lives on US$1.90 dollar per day or less, and 48% of the population has low literacy skills.

Figure 42

Population (25-64 years) with low literacy skills and the population living at or below US$1.90 per day for selected countries, 2016 or latest year available



Source: UIS Data Centre, accessed in September 2017.

In the run-up to 2030, countries in the Asia-Pacific region must address the root causes of illiteracy among youth and adults. A population equipped with strong skills in reading and mathematics is essential for countries committed to reducing poverty. The benefits of a literate population extend beyond the individual; those who can identify, understand, calculate and shape text and number-based information are better able to contribute human capital to the national economy. A literate population also helps to build social cohesion. When citizens possess these skills, they are empowered to participate meaningfully in the democratic process, understand the importance of upholding human rights, and are more likely to show respect for cultural diversity (UNESCO, 2004; UNESCO, 2006; UNESCO, 2016f).

BOX 9

LITERACY PROGRAMMES IN REMOTE RURAL AREAS OF THAILAND

UNESCO Bangkok and the Ministry of Education's Office of Non-Formal and Informal Education (NFE) in Thailand established the "Literacy through Edutainment" project in 2015. The project worked with learners, 15 years and older, in the remote Tak Province, to improve their literacy skills. As part of the project, 26 NFE teachers were trained to conduct classes, using mobile technology, karaoke and movies, to help participants improve their Thai literacy skills.

The project initially expected to reach about 3,000 disadvantaged adults and young learners across five remote districts and 125 community learning centres. It exceeded this number, reaching more than 4,600 learners, including women and girls. By singing and watching movies, among other activities, participants gained confidence in their communication skills. The Ministry of Education has taken over the project with the intention of making it self-sustaining.

At the same time, UNESCO Bangkok continues to promote high-quality learning initiatives with the help of Microsoft, True Corporation, CP Group, Help Without Frontiers and the Ministry of Education. The "Mobile Literacy for Out-of-School Children Project" uses mobile devices equipped with educational apps, including a language learning app available in Thai, Burmese and Karen. To date, over 5,500 children and youth have improved their basic literacy and numeracy skills by more than 50% (*Mobile Literacy for Out-of-School Children*, 2016).

2.6.4 *Key issues and challenges*

Bringing adults into literacy programmes

Adults require opportunities for lifelong literacy and numeracy learning, but adult education receives very little attention in the Asia-Pacific region, and programming is hampered by poor funding (ASPBAE, 2012; UNESCO, 2016a). Adults with higher proficiency levels tend to be more motivated to participate in adult literacy programmes (OECD, 2013). For the most part, illiterate adults face numerous sociocultural and geographical barriers to learning (ASPBAE, 2012; UNESCO, 2016a). Location, underlying gender, poverty or ethnicity can all play a role in whether adults access literacy programmes. Improvements in data collection will help identify marginalized populations so literacy policies and programmes can be tailored to the needs of adult learners.

Retaining literacy and numeracy skills

With a basic foundation of literacy and numeracy skills the acquisition of other skills comes more easily, enabling adults to participate in lifelong learning. However, individuals must have opportunities to maintain their skills or risk losing them (Rahman, 2010). Literacy and numeracy skills stay fresh when learners are able to link them to economic, social and cultural activities in their daily lives (UIL, 2017), be it from on-the-job training, the handling of computers and mobile devices for learning or partaking in programmes at community learning centres (UNESCO and UNICEF, 2012c). Policymakers perceive the development and maintenance of literacy and numeracy skills as an ongoing, context-bound process that takes place within and outside of educational settings across all ages and generations (Hahnemann, 2016).

Self-reported vs. assessed skills

Even though literacy rates are improving, current data largely overstate the actual literacy proficiency levels of populations in the region. There is a large discrepancy between literacy rates based on self-reporting, which come from censuses or household surveys, and direct assessment data (ASPBAE, 2012). Categorizing populations as literate or illiterate does not capture the continuum of literacy and numeracy skills. To understand the full extent of the challenge embodied in Target 4.6, countries will need an internationally tested measure that can inform national education targets (Learning Metrics Task Force, 2013a, as cited in Winthrop and Simons, 2013).

Target 4.7

Education for Sustainable Development and Global Citizenship

2.7.1 *Unpacking Target 4.7*

By 2030, ensure all learners acquire knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development, including, among others through education for sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence, global citizenship, and appreciation of cultural diversity and of culture's contribution to sustainable development.

Target 4.7 presents a vision of education as a force for societal transformation in support of the broader Sustainable Development Agenda. The target goes beyond subject matter knowledge highlighted in the learning agenda by calling for all learners, regardless of sex or age, to acquire the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes necessary to contribute to peaceful and sustainable societies. The target encompasses Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) as well as Global Citizenship Education (GCED). Themes like education for peace and non-violence, human rights, gender equality, health and sexuality, sustainable lifestyles and cultural diversity are to be integrated into curricula, teaching, assessments and education policies by 2030.

Table 10

Target 4.7 indicators

	Indicator	Type	Baseline available
4.7.1	Extent to which (i) global citizenship education and (ii) education for sustainable development, including gender equality and human rights, are mainstreamed at all levels in: (a) national education policies (b) curricula (c) teacher education and (d) student assessments	Global	Partly
4.7.2	Percentage of schools that provide life skills-based HIV and sexuality education	Thematic	No
4.7.3	Extent to which the framework on the World Programme on Human Rights Education is implemented nationally (as per the UNGA Resolution 59/113)	Thematic	No
4.7.4	Percentage of students by age group (or education level) showing adequate understanding of issues relating to global citizenship and sustainability	Thematic	Partly
4.7.5	Percentage of 15-year-old students showing proficiency in knowledge of environmental science and geoscience	Thematic	No

Source: UIS, 2017c.

Monitoring Target 4.7 will be a challenge. The indicators have not yet been completely defined. However, Once the measures are in place they will provide countries with information on the level of national commitment required to ensure that all learners acquire vital competencies for sustainable development.

The global Indicator, **4.7.1**, is based on country reporting on the implementation of the 1974 UNESCO Recommendation concerning Education for International Understanding, Co-operation and Peace and Education relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms (1974 Recommendation). The reporting measure will be decided by a process of consultation. For the moment, there is no consensus on the desirable outcomes of education for sustainable development and global citizenship. As formulated, the indicator cannot be used to verify whether measures taken by countries actually lead to changes in learning outcomes. Without greater clarity, countries will find it difficult to implement national commitments to mainstream GCED and ESD in education policies, curricula, teacher education and student assessments to support learning about the themes of this target.

Indicator **4.7.2** measures the percentage of schools that provide minimum life skills-based HIV and sexuality education. However, this indicator will be difficult to calculate using the current method, which relies on school-based surveys. These instruments do not capture how much time is spent on each topic, which topics were taught or by what means.

The globalized economy is characterized by an increase in cross-border migration, which makes learning to live together more important than ever. Global Citizenship Education can help by teaching individuals to be considerate, tolerant and respectful of human beings in all their diversity. Education can help students build the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes they need by integrating topics of human rights, gender equality, governance structures, respect for diversity and also care for the environment (UNESCO, 2015c; UNESCO, 2016e). Education can also encourage young people to behave as responsible citizens, locally and globally, and teach them how to resolve conflict peacefully (UNESCO, 2013c).

Subjects related to global citizenship, sustainability, environmental science and geoscience are considered key for the promotion of sustainable development. Further elaboration of proficiency levels in these subjects will be needed to ensure that the competencies assessed by Indicators **4.7.4** and **4.7.5** can be made relevant to local and national contexts. In addition, extending the assessment of these competencies to those who are out of school would require new, potentially costly surveys.

2.7.2 *Does the Asia-Pacific region educate for sustainable development and global citizenship?*

Establishing baselines for the five indicators under Target 4.7 is a daunting task. As mentioned above, the data collection mechanism for the global indicator is still in development. It will be based on reports submitted by Member States describing how GCED and ESD concepts are being mainstreamed into national education policies and systems (UIS, 2017c).

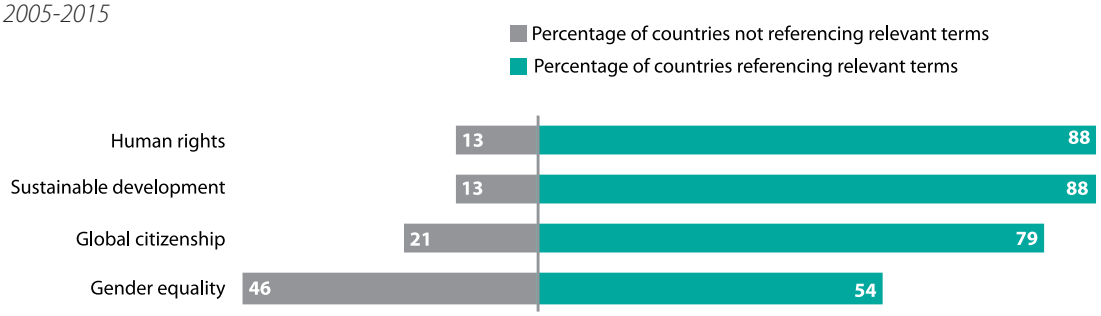
One important collection mechanism is already in place: the 1974 UNESCO Recommendation, which covers the conceptual aspects of GCED and ESD. Responses from the Asia-Pacific region to the Sixth Consultation on the implementation of the 1974 Recommendation, covering 2013 to 2016, have yet to be consolidated; however, key findings of the Fifth Consultation (2009-2012) confirmed that ESD- and GCED-related concepts were being addressed in education plans, globally (UNESCO General Conference, 2013).[21] Many countries reported that curriculum was an important instrument for implementing the 1974 Recommendation.

Missing out on gender equality

Indeed, the UNESCO International Bureau of Education (IBE-UNESCO) has reported that many conceptual terms are addressed in the curricula of Asia-Pacific countries. In 24 countries, curricula address the concepts of *human rights, sustainable development, global citizenship and gender equality* (2016).[22] As can be seen in **Figure 43**, *human rights* and *sustainable development* receive the most attention, appearing in the curricula of 88% of countries. In 79% of countries, curricula include concepts that address relevant aspects of *global citizenship*. About half of the countries reviewed (46%) made no mention of *gender equality* in their curricula.

Figure 43

Percentage of countries that have covered ESD- and GCED-related concepts in national curricula, most recent year available between 2005-2015



Source: : UNESCO, 2016c with data from UNESCO-IBE, 2016.

In 2017, the UNESCO Mahatma Gandhi Institute of Education for Peace and Sustainable Development (MGIEP) analyzed the prevalence of ESD- and GCED-related terms and phrases in education policies and curricula of 22 Asian countries. The study found that terms related to *human rights*, *environmental sustainability* or *good health and well-being* were prevalent, reflecting the extent to which they are mainstreamed in the curricula of most countries.[23] However, the majority of countries use curriculum to emphasize the nation, whether in the context of identity

21 These concepts count among others: tolerance, solidarity, diversity, human rights, citizenship, patriotism, democracy, gender equality, sustainable development, HIV and AIDS, racism and discrimination.

22 Curricula referred to are for primary education, lower secondary education or both. The degree of inclusion of the concept in curricula is assessed as 'low' if 1 to 4 of the 10 items are covered, 'medium' if 5 to 7 items are covered, 'high' if 8 to 10 items are covered or 'none' if no key term is included. For the definition of the individual key terms, see: UNESCO IBE, 2016. *Global Monitoring of Target 4.7: Themes in National Curriculum Frameworks. Background paper prepared for the 2016 Global Education Monitoring Report*, pp.37. Paris, UNESCO.

23 For the constituent concepts of the individual key terms, see UNESCO MGIEP, 2017. Rethinking Schooling for the 21st Century: The State of Education for Peace, Sustainable Development and Global Citizenship in Asia, p.238-247. New Delhi, UNESCO MGIEP.

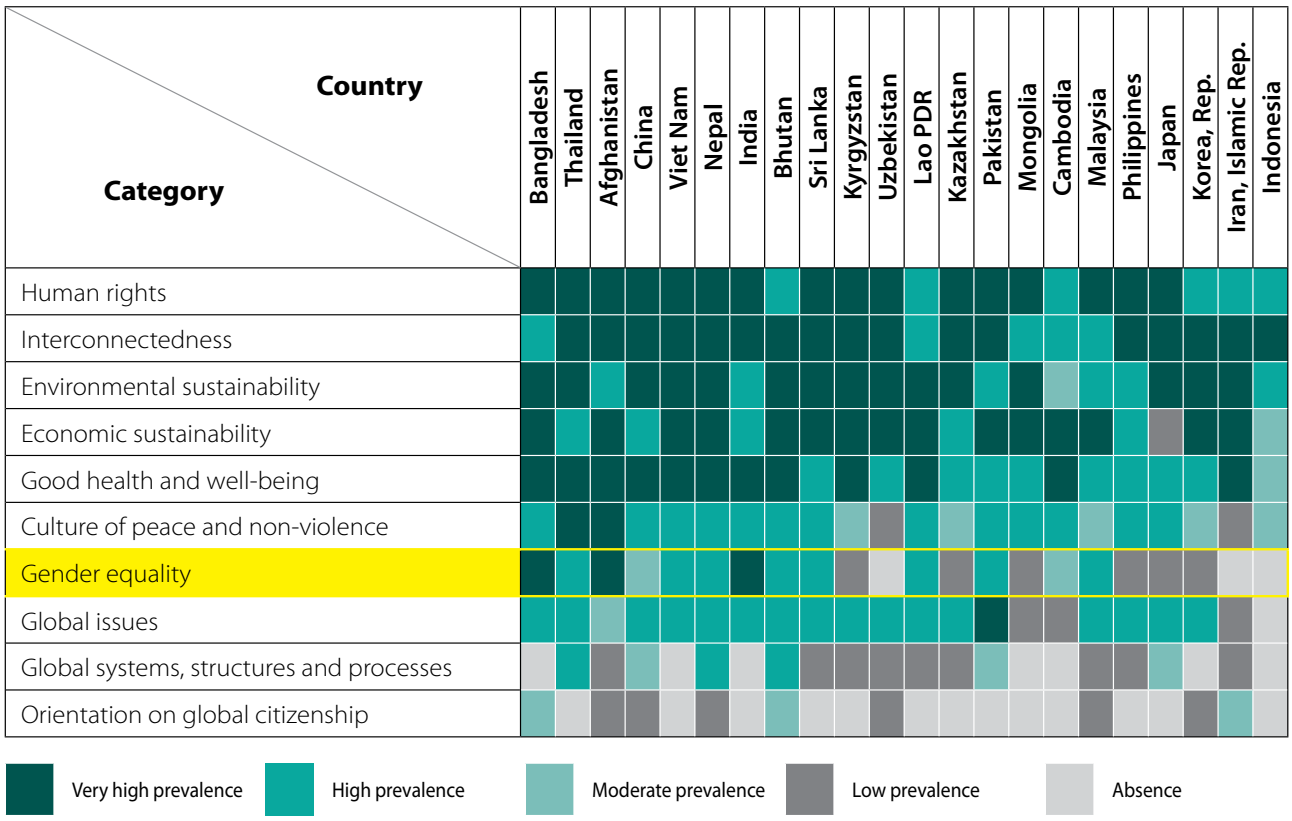
formation or cultural heritage (UNESCO MGIEP, 2017). In contrast, relatively little attention is paid to the concept of a *common humanity*, highlighting the challenge of addressing the concepts pertaining to global citizenship in education systems (ibid.).

Some key terms are largely missing in the national curriculum. While conservation within *environmental sustainability* is widely referenced, *climate change* and *renewable energy* are not mentioned as learning topics. In the category of *economic sustainability*, the terms *limits to growth* and *green economy* are rarely or never mentioned.

As mentioned above, references to *gender equality*, illustrated in **Figure 44**, are rare compared to the other three domains identified by the IBE. In fact, some countries in East Asia have the fewest mentions of issues related to gender equality in curricula, while countries in South and West Asia are the most likely to address these issues (UNESCO MGIEP, 2017). Still, *gender equality* as a learning topic appears to rank at the bottom, despite decades of efforts to mainstream this concept. In the face of chronic gender discrimination, the effectiveness curricula that address the concept of gender equality should be called into question.

Figure 44

Prevalence of concepts related to ESD and GCED in national education policies and curricula among 22 countries, 2017



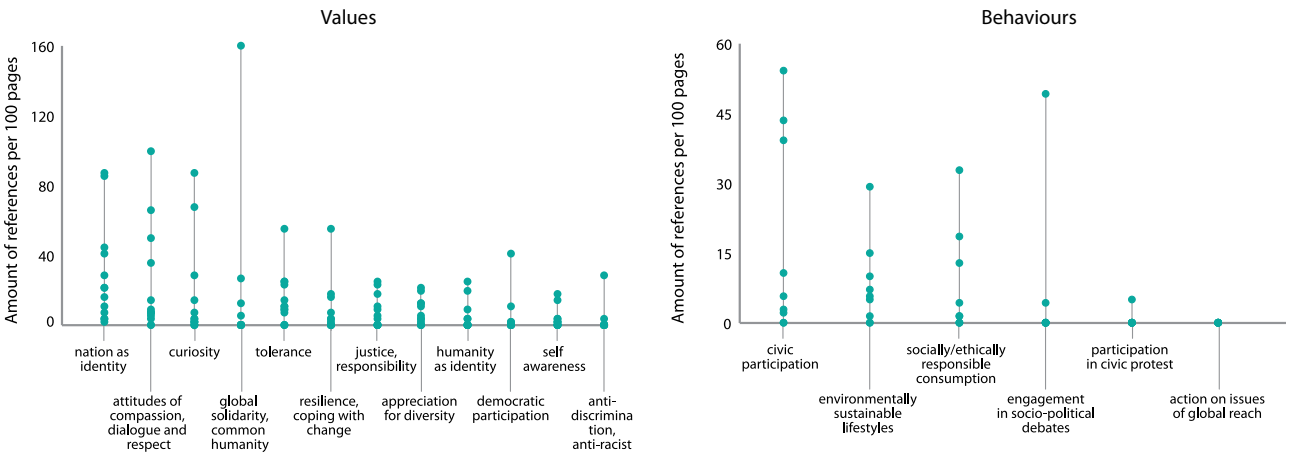
Source: Adapted from UNESCO MGIEP, 2017.

Values and behaviours support sustainability and global citizenship

Figure 45 presents two categories of terms embedded in curricula to address ESD and GCED: Values and Behaviours. According to the MGIEP study, frequently mentioned Value references include an attitude of compassion, dialogue and respect, curiosity, tolerance, or an appreciation for *diversity*[24], while *democratic participation and anti-discrimination and/or anti-racism* receive little attention. Terms in the Behaviour category that reflect the themes of global citizenship and sustainable development are rare and may not yet be integrated into curricula; however, the most frequently mentioned term in this category is *civic participation*. Other rarely mentioned references in the Behaviour category are *environmentally sustainable lifestyles and socially or ethically responsible consumption*. Most countries do not address *engagement in debates on socio-political issues, peaceful participation in civic protest*, or *action on issues of global reach*. In summary, countries appear to be making slowly an effort to go beyond purely knowledge-based approaches to ESD and GCED, in line with commitments made in country reports to the Fifth Consultation of the 1974 Recommendation (UNESCO General Conference, 2013).

Figure 45

Number of references to concepts defined as Values or Behaviours relevant to ESD and GCED in national curricula, 2017



Note: Each dot represents the number of times that a category appears per 100 pages in the subject curriculum of a country.
Source: Adaptation based on data presented at APMED III by UNESCO Bangkok.

2.7.3 *Do students understand the concepts of sustainability and citizenship?*

To monitor the percentage of students who acquire an understanding of global citizenship (4.7.4), the International Civic and Citizenship Education Study (ICCS) provides an important source of data. The ICCS investigates the ways in which young people are prepared to be responsible citizens. Future cycles will also explore the concept of sustainable development.

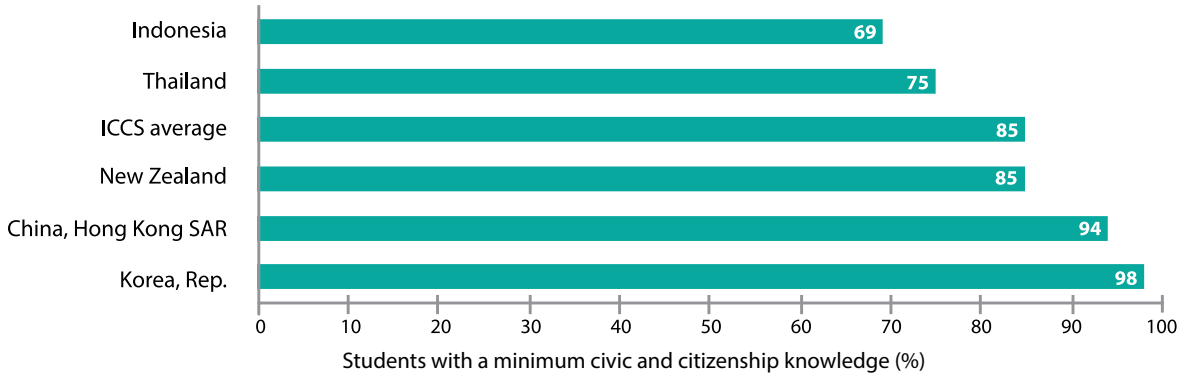
ICCS distinguishes three levels of proficiency with the concept of citizenship: no proficiency, mechanistic working proficiency (considered the minimum level) and advanced proficiency. The baseline results from the 2009 study tested secondary school students from five Asia-Pacific countries. Results presented in **Figure 46** indicate that students in the Asia-Pacific region have varying levels of relevant minimum knowledge of civic

24 The data were compiled by UNESCO Bangkok Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau for Education in collaboration with UNESCO MGIEP with the intention of analysing eighth-grade curricula for 13 countries in relation to learning objectives linked to ESD and GCED. The concepts were derived from the UNESCO MGIEP 2017 study. The curricula included subjects in mathematics, languages, natural sciences and social studies.

policies, political practices and corporate behaviour. On the topic of understanding civic and citizenship issues, 69% of students in Indonesia and 75% of students in Thailand scored below the ICCS international average (85%). New Zealand's students were on par with the ICCS average, while students from Hong Kong (SAR of China) and the Republic of Korea scored well above the average at 94% and 98%, respectively.[25] In the context of the study, citizenship means understanding international conventions and treaties, the work of transnational organizations and corporations, the dynamics of civil society as well as the fundamentals of international human rights (UNESCO, 2015c).

Figure 46

Percentage of students demonstrating an understanding of issues relating to citizenship in 6 countries/territories, 2009



Source: Schulz et al., 2010, International Civic and Citizenship Education Study, 2009.

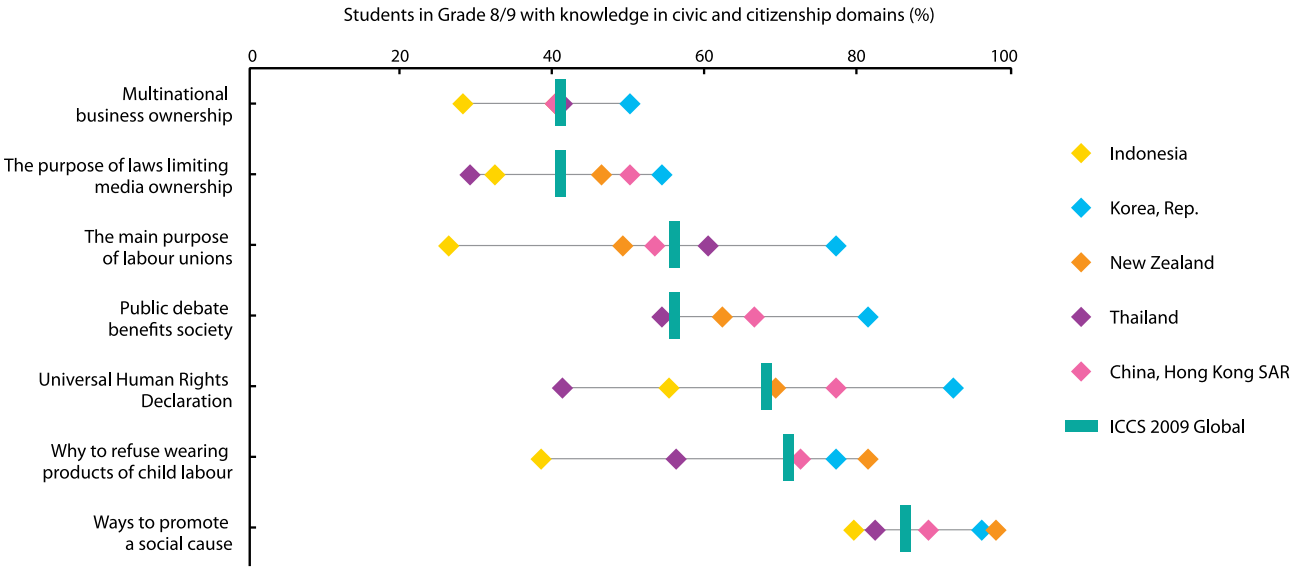
Different countries show different citizenship knowledge

Knowledge of citizenship issues among student populations varies depending on the question asked (**Figure 47**). For example, 92% of students from the Republic of Korea understood the purpose of the Universal Declaration on Human Rights, compared to 41% in Thailand. When asked about the purpose of laws limiting media ownership, the knowledge gap widened. In Hong Kong (SAR of China), 50% of students understood the purpose of media ownership laws, but in Thailand only 29% of students did. In contrast, benefits of promoting a social cause scored much higher for all students, including 98% of students from New Zealand and 82% of students from Thailand. The benefits of a public debate were understood by about half of the student population in Thailand (54%), which is similar to the ICCS 2009 global average. In the Republic of Korea, 81% of students were aware of the benefits.

25 For each proficiency level benchmark, see: Schulz, Wolfram, John Ainley, Julian Fraillon, David Kerr, Bruno Losito, 2010. ICCS 2009 International Report: *Civic knowledge, attitudes, and engagement among lower secondary school students in 38 countries*, pp.59. Amsterdam: International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement.

Figure 47

Percentage of students demonstrating an understanding of specific issues relating to citizenship, 2009



Source: Schulz et al., 2010, International Civic and Citizenship Education Study, 2009.

Science knowledge predominant in higher income economies

Monitoring whether students have acquired an understanding of the concept of sustainability (**4.7.4** and **4.7.5**), also presents a daunting challenge, but the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) provides an important source of data.

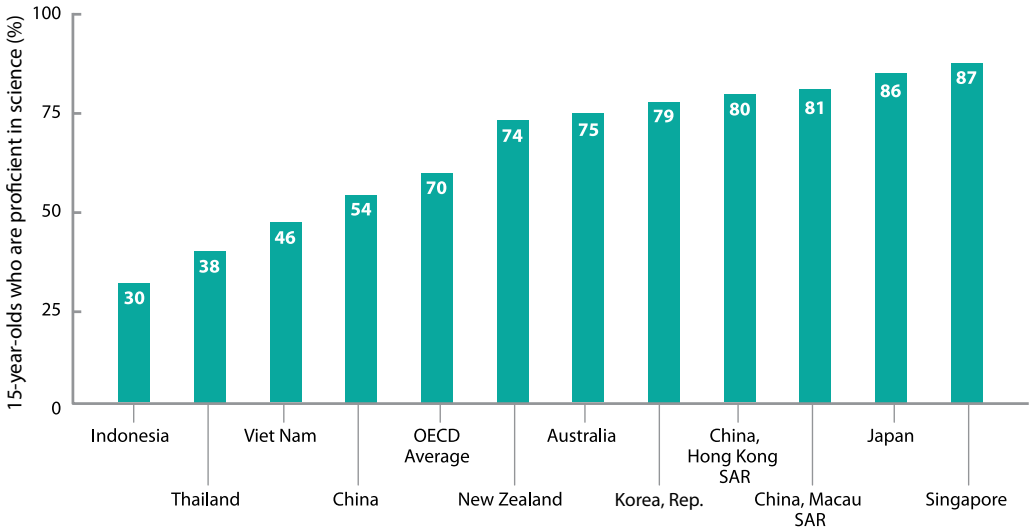
The 2015 study assessed the proficiency levels of students in environmental sciences and geosciences (**4.7.5**), and their ability to understand and reflect upon issues and ideas scientifically.[26] The results showed that 15-year-old students from the Asia-Pacific region had a range of proficiency levels. Some fell below the minimum proficiency in science (**Figure 48**). Adolescents had a proficiency level of 30% in Indonesia, 38% in Thailand, 46% in Viet Nam and 54% in China.[27] By comparison, 15-year-olds in all other participating countries were above the OECD average of 70%, evidence that at least three-fourths of 15-year-olds in these countries were sufficiently knowledgeable of environmental sciences. Notably, these countries peratin to mainly high-income classifications.

26 or each proficiency level benchmark, see: OECD, 2016c. PISA 2015 Results (Volume I): Excellence and Equity in Education. Paris: OECD Publishing. PISA 2015 Assessment and Analytical Framework: Science, Reading, Mathematics and Financial Literacy, p.42-43. OECD Publishing, Paris.

27 Refers to major cities in China: Shanghai, Beijing, Jiangsu and Guangdong.

Figure 48

Percentage of 15-year-olds who are proficient in science, 2015



Source: OECD, PISA 2015 Database, Table I.2.1b.

Schools and other educational institutions are ideal settings for teaching about the environment and for connecting knowledge with sustainable behaviour (Ahmad et al., 2015). Without this knowledge learners may not understand the impact of their behaviour on the planet and its ecosystems (as captured in Sustainable Development Goals 6, 7, 12, 14 and 15). In this respect, education about the environment is an indispensable part of the global effort to create a sustainability mindset among citizens (UN, 2015). The UNESCO Global Action Programme (GAP) on Education for Sustainable Development is driving this global effort. Working with partners at all levels of society, from policymakers to youth organizations, GAP seeks to scale-up environmental education and accelerate progress toward sustainable development by promoting a holistic understanding of the interconnectedness of the economic, social and environmental dimensions of sustainability (UNESCO, 2017d).

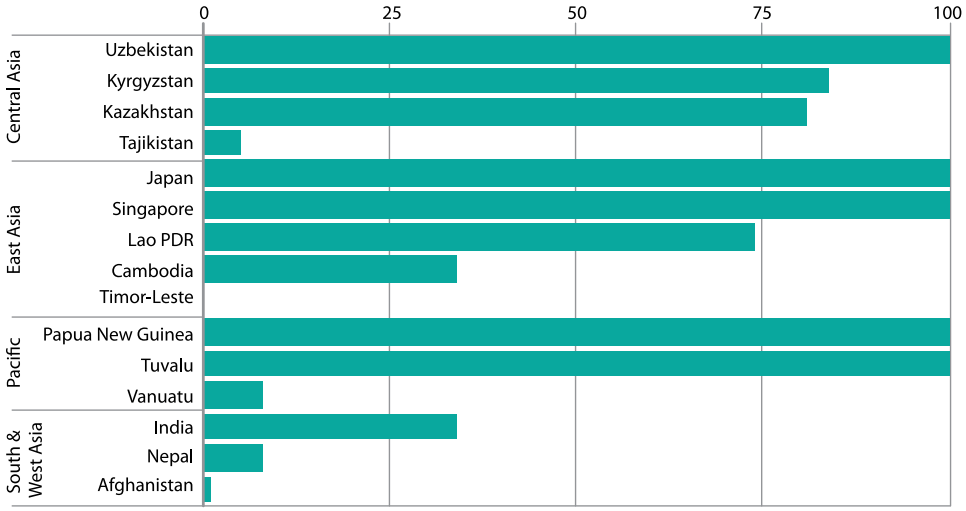
HIV and sexuality education are a vehicle for sustainability and global citizenship

Target 4.7 also refers to HIV and sexuality education (**4.7.2**), which fosters awareness and skills that children and young people need to develop good health and well-being. New evidence shows that embedding topics on sexuality and HIV into classroom teachings can provide a platform for discussing gender and human rights issues (UNESCO, 2012a), which results in more effective learning outcomes.

To monitor progress on this indicator, countries will be required to provide the percentage of schools that provide life skills-based HIV and sexuality education. The 2016 UNESCO Global Education Monitoring Report found that HIV and/or sexuality education is taught mainly at the secondary level (UNESCO, 2016c). This finding confirms an earlier review conducted by UNESCO (2012a), which reported that 12 out of 28 Asia-Pacific countries addressed HIV and sexuality education content at the primary level, while 22 countries taught relevant topics at the secondary level. Some schools were found to address these topics at both levels.

Figure 49

Percentage of schools that provide HIV education at primary or secondary level, 2009-2010



Source: UNESCO, 2016d, with data from UNAIDS, 2011.

BOX 10

RETHINKING EDUCATION IN VIEW OF PEACE AND SUSTAINABILITY

Asia-Pacific is the most diverse region in the world. It comprises more than half of the world's population (UNESCAP, 2016b) and possesses vast linguistic and cultural diversity. The region is characterized by high rates of mobility among both skilled and unskilled populations, spurred by economic integration and the growing internationalization of education. Nevertheless, many societies remain divided by social and economic disparities, and the region faces enormous challenges related to environmental degradation and natural disasters.

Faced with this reality, education policies and practices need to underscore the principles of learning to live together, and fostering a sense of belonging to a common humanity, while better responding to the everyday needs and challenges of learners.

The Third Asia-Pacific Meeting on Education 2030 (APMED-III) in July 2017 addressed Target 4.7. Member States identified priority areas of action including curriculum, teacher education, learning assessments and monitoring. The project, Sustainability Begins with Teachers, supports teacher education institutions in Central Asia and Southeast Asia, helping them to enhance their capacity to integrate ESD into teacher training. Other UNESCO Bangkok projects, such as Preparing Teachers for Global Citizenship Education, Happy Schools!, School-related Gender-based Violence, and Comprehensive Sexuality Education are designed to help teachers and school leaders nurture students to become creative, responsible and proactive contributors to peace and sustainability. UNESCO Bangkok assists in the development of learner well-being at the school level by building networks and support structures for teachers, school leaders, academics and government officials, and by promoting dialogue and exchanges of good practices.

2.7.4 *Key issues and challenges*

Undervalued learning contents

With some exceptions, the concepts of gender equality, peace and global citizenship were found to be mostly absent from national education policies and curricula in the Asia-Pacific region (UNESCO MGIEP, 2017). The absence of certain terms suggests the need for further reflection on curricular content (ibid.). Gender equality, in particular, deserves more attention. Despite decades of promoting this concept in society, it remains undervalued in teaching and learning. Gender equality means more than providing equal access to education; it includes challenging unjust social norms and making a societal commitment to the promotion of gender-sensitive values and behaviours, for which education is an effective vehicle. This commitment also applies to the promotion of tolerance and the respect for diversity.

Barriers between policy and practice

The Fifth Consultation on the 1974 Recommendation noted that countries were slow to translate sustainable development policies into the curriculum. Studies have shown that countries have increased efforts to mainstream Target 4.7 at the policy level, but the quality of teaching materials and the knowledge level of teachers remain low (UNESCO, 2016c). Inadequate resources and capacities were shown to hamper the implementation of curricula (UNESCO General Conference, 2013). Quality learning depends on the teacher's knowledge of the subject matter. Whether it be citizenship, human rights, sustainability or sexuality, the teacher must feel confident delivering the subject and using available teaching materials in order to teach the subject effectively (UNESCO, 2016c). In short, without greater commitment to the development of curriculum resources, and teacher training to support sustainable development and global citizenship education, students will fail to meet the learning outcomes expected of Target 4.

Common consensus for common learning

The specific knowledge, skills, values and behaviours associated with ESD and GCED, and proficiency levels that will be relevant for all parts of the world, have yet to be harmonized. The presence or absence of ESD- and GCED-related concepts in policies and curricula may be interpreted in different way, indicating either official recognition of particular problems or indifference due to perceived nonexistence of problems (UNESCO MGIEP, 2017). Global, as well as local issues, need harmonized applications in learning. Achieving progress on education for sustainable development and global citizenship education will have to be built on a common consensus about required competencies, which will then need to be implemented at all levels, from education policies to the classroom.

Building on qualitative approaches

For education to contribute to global citizenship and sustainable development it will need to do more than impart facts. While it is important to be able to quantify knowledge of critical issues, getting individuals to exercise the values they have learned requires a more in-depth approach. Education can provide opportunities to explore social issues that underpin concepts of human rights, equality and peace, as well as collective and individual responsibility. Education systems must also provide students with a framework in which to exercise these concepts. How will they know if these efforts have succeeded? Assessing the cognitive, socio-emotional and behavioural competencies that underpin Target 4.7 will require a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches to measurement. Knowledge of facts can be scored, but quantitative learning metrics alone cannot register from where the motivation for certain values and behaviours arise. There can be any number of reasons why individuals choose not to act in accordance with what they have learned. Perhaps the lessons do not correspond with the learner's value system or beliefs, or the learner has no emphatic connection to the issue, and so on. For the moment, there are no qualitative indicators to measure a shift in attitudinal and behavioural change.

Target 4.a

School Environments

2.8.1 *Unpacking Target 4.a*

Build and upgrade education facilities that are child, disability and gender sensitive and provide safe, non-violent, inclusive and effective learning environments for all.

Target 4.a is the first of three means of implementation for the SDG 4-Education 2030 Agenda. The target covers different aspects of the school environment, ranging from infrastructure and resources, to the physical safety and psychosocial well-being of students, regardless of gender, disability, ethnicity and other socioeconomic differences. In this regard, the target is similar in spirit to the child-friendly schools concept from the 1990 Convention on the Rights of the Child.

Table 11

Target 4.a indicators

Indicator		Type	Baseline available
4.a.1	Proportion of schools with access to: (a) electricity; (b) Internet for pedagogical purposes; and (c) computers for pedagogical purposes	Global	Partly
	Proportion of schools with access to: (d) adapted infrastructure and materials for students with disabilities	Global	No
	Proportion of schools with access to: (e) basic drinking water; (f) single-sex basic sanitation facilities; and (g) basic handwashing facilities (as per the WASH indicator definitions)	Global	Partly
4.a.2	Percentage of students experiencing bullying, corporal punishment, harassment, violence, sexual discrimination and abuse	Thematic	Partly
4.a.3	Number of attacks on students, personnel and institutions	Thematic	Partly

Source: UIS, 2017c.

The global Indicator (**4.a.1**) aims to capture school conditions with a multiplicity of dimensions: electricity, access to the Internet and computers, adapted infrastructure, and water and sanitation. Information on the proportion of schools with access to electricity is based on administrative data from schools and other educational institutions. This information merely reveals the existence of resources, not their quality or state.

Two thematic Indicators (**4.a.2** and **4.a.3**) are intended to monitor whether the school environment is a welcoming safe haven by tracking instances of violence, bullying or attacks on schools, students and staff. Measures that rely on self-reporting, like bullying, tend to be unreliable. Victims may avoid reporting incidents out of fear of retaliation or other repercussions.

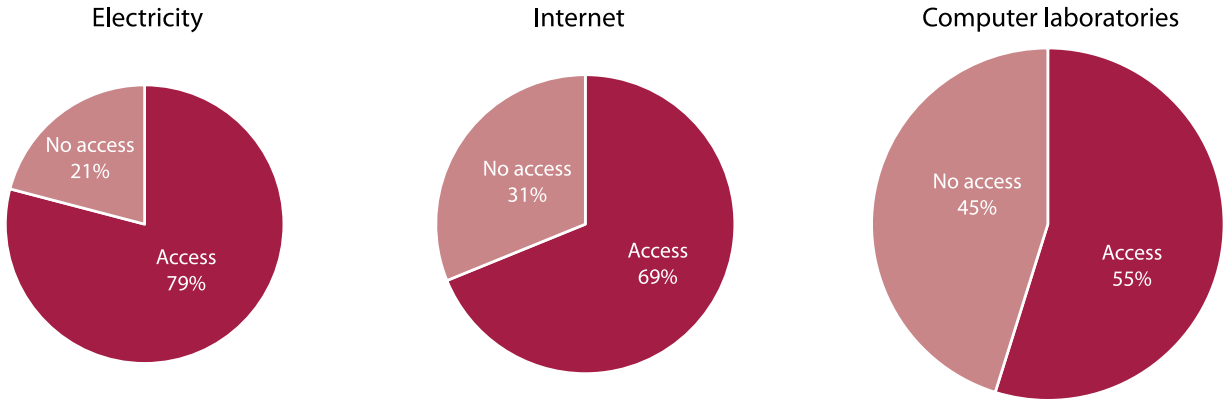
2.8.2 *Are schools in Asia-Pacific ready for learners?*

Electricity has yet to reach all schools

Access to electricity is one of the most basic enabling conditions for education. Without it schools cannot provide the ICT infrastructure required to teach computing or other digital literacy skills, let alone provide access the Internet for pedagogical purposes. Based on UIS data (2010-2012) for countries in the Asia-Pacific region, 79% of combined primary and secondary schools had access to electricity (Figure 50). Learners at one in five schools were at risk falling behind in ICT-based learning, since schools without electricity are unlikely to have computers or access to the Internet. Currently available data indicate that 55% of schools are equipped with computer laboratories, while 65% of primary and secondary schools with computers are connected to the Internet (UIS, 2014b).

Figure 50

Percentage of primary and secondary schools with access to electricity, computer laboratories, and access to the Internet, 2012

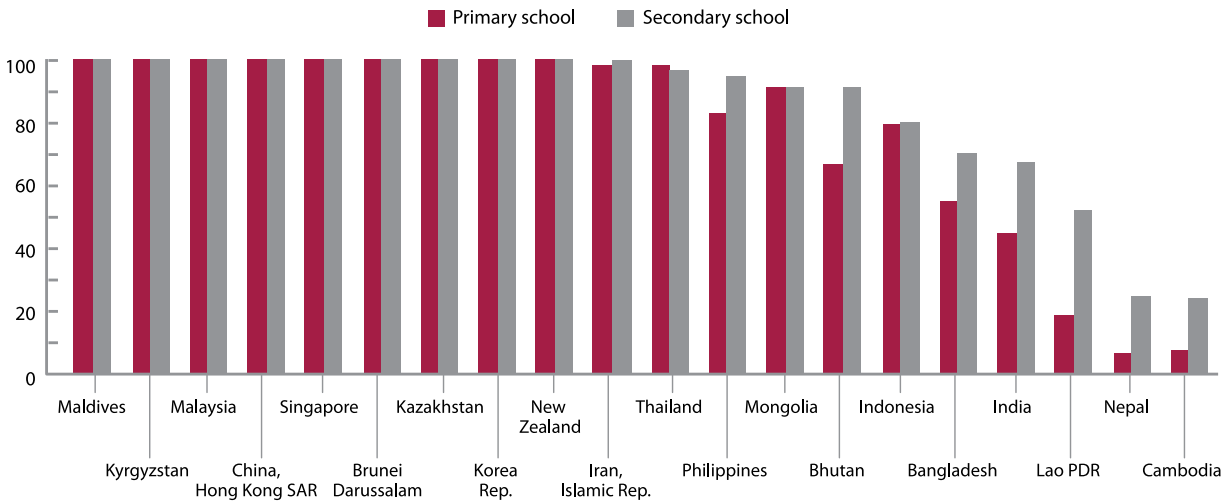


Source: UIS, 2014b.

Schools in high-income and upper middle-income countries and territories tend to have universal access to electricity. In countries that fall short of universal electricity coverage, secondary schools are more likely to have electricity than primary schools (**Figure 51**). One in four secondary schools in Cambodia had access to electricity in 2012, compared to only one in sixteen (6%) primary schools. In Lao PDR, about half of all secondary schools (53%) were provided with electricity compared to one in five (19%) primary schools. In general, schools located in urbanized areas are more likely to have electricity, while schools located in rural and remote areas frequently lack access (UIS, 2014b).

Figure 51

Percentage of primary and secondary schools with access to electricity, 2012



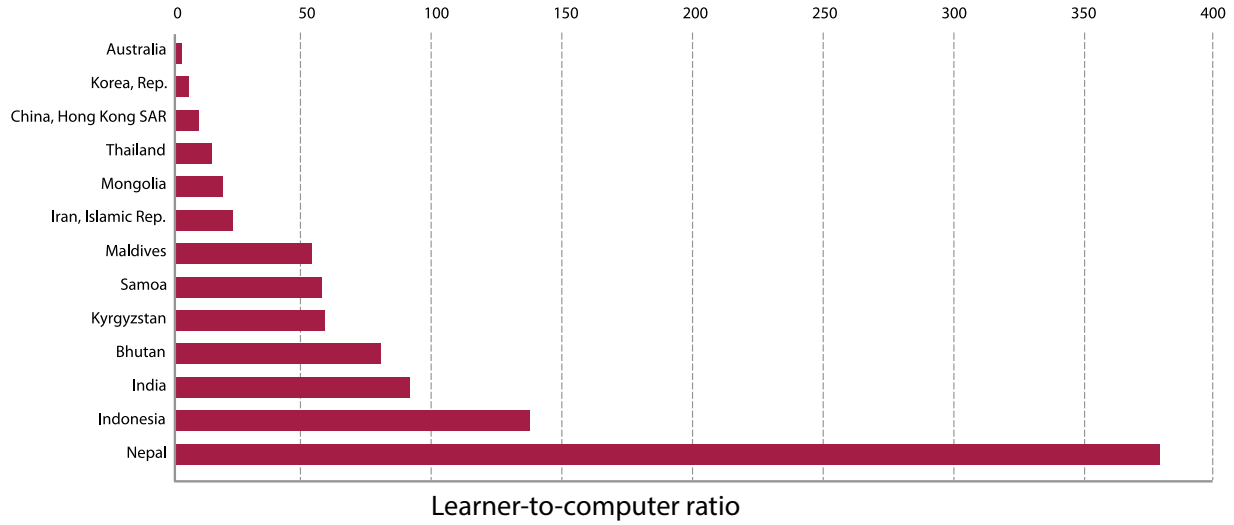
Source: UIS, 2014b.

Improving ICT learning environment in schools

Building an infrastructure that supports ICT in education requires substantial resources. Low- and lower middle-income countries and territories that struggle to provide a steady electricity supply can ill afford ICT resources in all schools. For countries such as Kyrgyzstan, the Maldives or Samoa, as seen in **Figure 52**, the learner-to-computer ratio (LCR) exceeds 50 learners to one computer. At this rate, if every school day dedicated a maximum of eight hours to learning with a computer, each student would have access for less than 10 minutes per day, or about one hour per week. The LCR is most extreme in Nepal where on average there is one computer for every 378 students. Improving the ratio would require adopting different strategies, either to replace or to complement existing computer laboratories with options such as one device per learner or server-based processing units designed for simultaneous usage (UIS, 2014b).

Figure 52

Learner-to-computer ratios in primary and secondary schools for selected countries and territories, 2012



Source: UIS, 2014b.

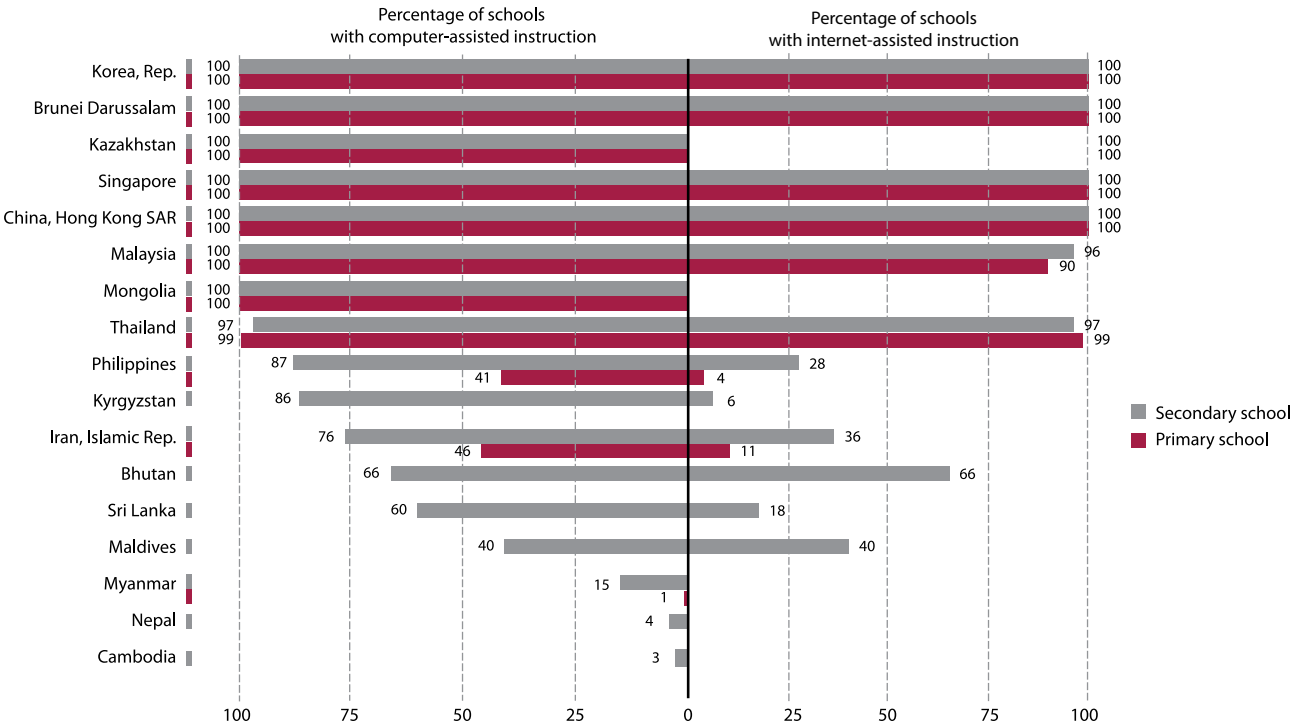
Computer- and Internet-assisted instruction help students develop basic ICT and digital literacy skills by allowing them to demonstrate and practice such skills as computer-supported presentations, information management, Internet research or information retrieval in many subject areas.

Most countries in the region use ICT-assisted instructional methods in primary and secondary education (**Figure 53**), which helps inform the global Indicator (**4.a.1.c**) on the use of computers and the Internet for pedagogical purposes. The exceptions include the Philippines and the Islamic Republic of Iran where computer-assisted instruction is more prevalent in secondary rather than primary schools.

Data on ICTs for education in primary school are incomplete, but given the small percentage of secondary schools in Bhutan, Myanmar and Sri Lanka that use computers and/or the Internet for instruction, it is unlikely that primary schools in these countries are equipped with technology. This is consistent with data presented on Target 4.4.; countries in Asia tend to teach ICT subjects in secondary education.

Figure 53

Percentage of primary and secondary schools in Asia-Pacific with access to computers and the Internet for pedagogical purposes, 2012



Note: Data for Cambodia cover pre-primary, primary and secondary education. For the Philippines and the Republic of Korea, data for secondary education only include the lower secondary level. Data for the Republic of Korea refer to 2009. Data for Malaysia and Singapore refer to 2011. Data for Cambodia, the Philippines and the Republic of Korea cover the public sector only. No data means that no information was available.

Source: UIS, 2014b.

BOX 11

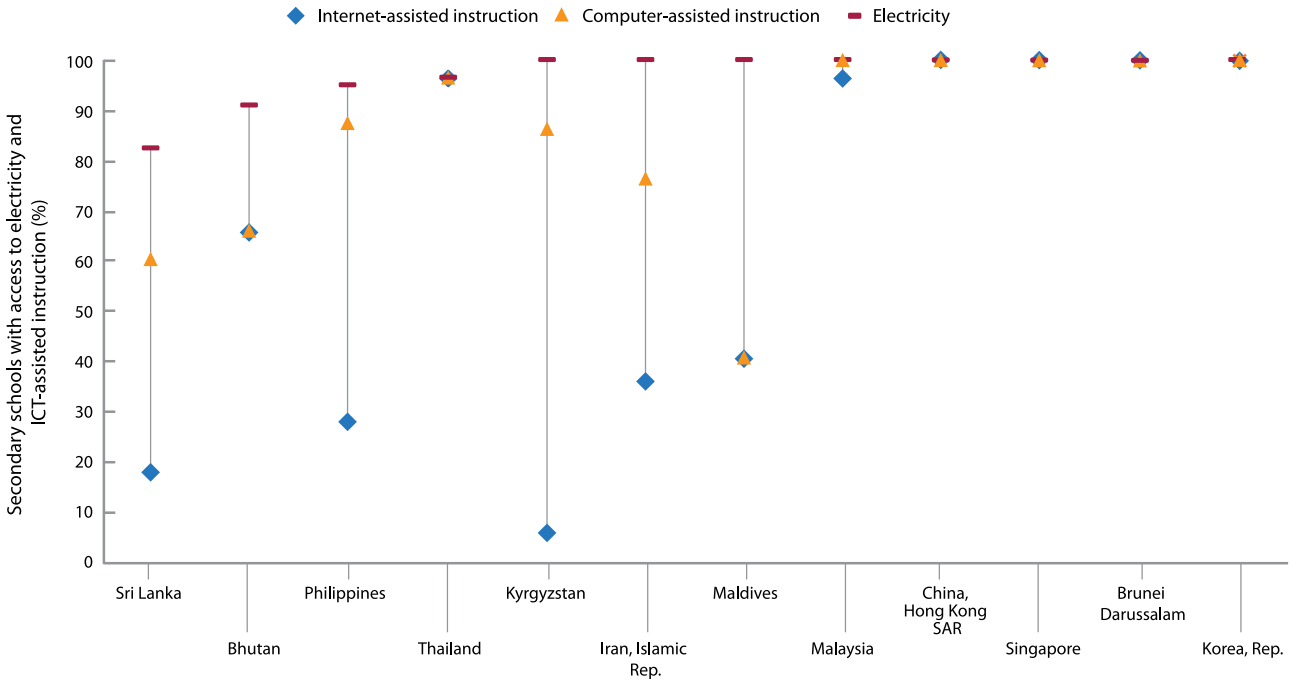
POLICY PLANNING AND SUPPORT TO ACHIEVE TARGET 4.A

UNESCO Bangkok provides technical support to Member States for the development of their ICT in Education Master Plans. A key component of national policy planning is the availability of ICT infrastructure in schools. UNESCO advocates a holistic, costed and comprehensive approach to ensure schools have access to reliable electricity that can support the use of computers and access to the Internet for pedagogical purposes, all of which are indicators under Target 4.a.

Some countries and territories in the region are ready to provide data for Target 4.a on the ICT environment in secondary education, which requires schools to meet three conditions: computer-based learning is integrated into the school environment, schools have access to computer resources, and teachers are trained in an ICT-supported pedagogy. Brunei Darussalam, Hong Kong (SAR of China), Republic of Korea and Singapore meet all three conditions (100%), and in Malaysia, Internet-assisted instruction is found in almost all secondary schools (96%).

Figure 54

Percentage of secondary schools with access to electricity, computers and the Internet for pedagogical purposes, 2012



Note: Brunei Darussalam is assumed to be at 100 % for access to electricity as both computer- and Internet- assisted instruction are at 100%, and all households (100 %) have access to electricity, according to World Bank data.

Source: UIS, 2014b.

2.8.3 *Are schools equipped with basic WASH facilities?*

In preparation for monitoring access to water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) facilities in schools, UNICEF and WHO (2017) conducted a scoping study in both East Asia and the Pacific. The report identifies critical gaps in school infrastructure and sets quality benchmarks to help policymakers ensure that schools are equipped to ensure a safe and healthy learning environment. The study distinguishes between *limited services* and *basic facilities*. A *basic* level of infrastructure includes drinking water on the premises, handwashing facilities with soap and water, and separate toilets for girls and boys. The results in **Figure 55** show that at the primary and pre-primary levels, many schools have yet to establish basic facilities across all three dimensions.

Clean water is the most widely available service. According to the study, approximately half of schools have access to piped-in drinking water, but one-third of schools have only *limited services*; i.e., drinking water is available off-site or is on-site but not accessible to all students (UNICEF and WHO, 2017).

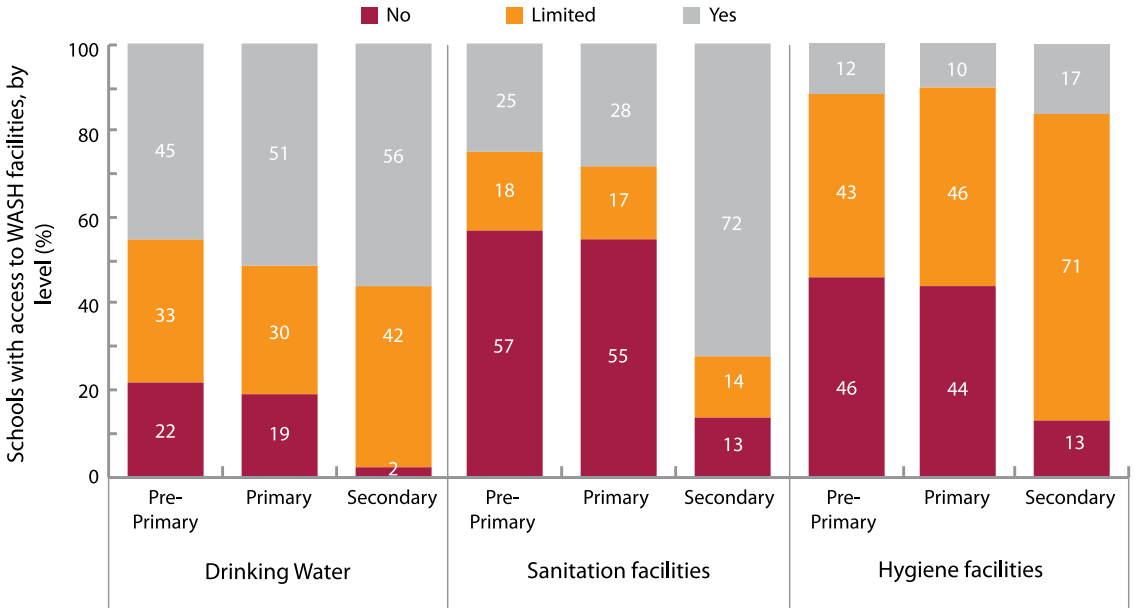
Only about one in four pre-primary and primary schools (25% and 28%, respectively) have separate toilets for boys and girls. In comparison, 18% of pre-primary schools and 17% of primary schools have inadequate toilet facilities.

Roughly one in ten pre-primary and primary schools have handwashing facilities adjacent to toilets, while limited handwashing facilities are available in 43% of pre-primary schools and 46% of primary schools.

Secondary schools tend to have better infrastructure. Only 2% of all secondary schools in the two subregions have no access to drinking water, while 13% do not have adequate toilets, and 13% have no handwashing facilities.

Figure 55

Access to hygiene facilities, sanitation facilities and drinking water in both East Asia and the Pacific by education level, 2013



Note: Countries in this study were Cambodia, China, Cook Islands, Fiji, Indonesia, Korea DPR, Kiribati, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Marshall Islands, Micronesia, Mongolia, Myanmar, Niue, Nauru, Palau, Papua New Guinea, Philippines, Samoa, Solomon Islands, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Tokelau, Tonga, Tuvalu, Vanuatu and Viet Nam.

Source: UNICEF and WHO, 2017.

In primary and secondary school, access to clean drinking water and toilets can help prevent early school leaving. When water and sanitation facilities are inadequate, children with poor health tend to drop out of school, while girls of menstrual age refrain from attending school (Nahar et al., 2006; Abraham et al., 2012 as cited in UNICEF, 2013). For young women, hygienic and properly constructed latrines can also reduce the risk of sexual harassment or assault (UNESCAP, 2015).

In some instances, schools have toilets, but they are unusable or inaccessible. Facilities may not be maintained or are kept locked for the exclusive use of teachers (UNICEF, 2011; UNICEF, 2013). Facilities for learners with disability may not be adapted.

Even though these data are limited to East Asia and the Pacific, they point to a wider problem of inferior infrastructure, especially in pre-primary and primary schools. As the study suggests, countries need to do more to provide access to clean water and properly equipped, maintained and accessible facilities to help ensure children stay in school.

2.8.4 *Do schools in Asia-Pacific provide welcoming learning spaces?*

The Fifth Consultation on the 1974 Recommendation stated that gender-based violence and bullying remain a concern among many countries (UNESCO General Conference, 2013). To monitor the level of violence and abuse, and the feeling of safety in school, Target 4.a tracks the percentage of students who experience bullying, violence, sexual discrimination and corporal punishment at school.

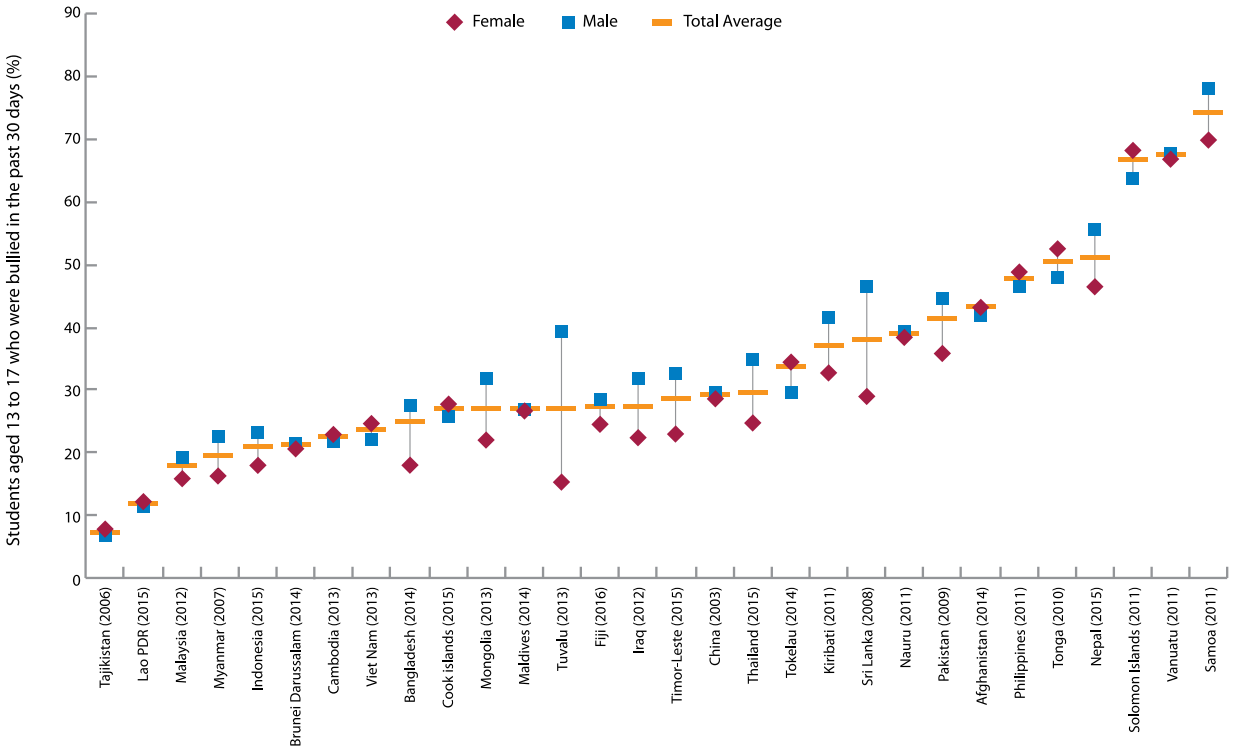
The Global School-based Student Health Survey (GSHS), conducted by the World Health Organisation (WHO) and the U.S. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, provides data on the percentage of boys and girls who have experienced bullying at school during the 30-day period prior to the survey.

Students are considered bullied when they are repeatedly exposed to aggressive behaviour from their peers that intentionally inflicts injury or discomfort (Olweus, 1993; Hemphill et al., 2011; RTI International, 2013). While the way bullying is described can vary, three distinct elements are common: it is a deliberately harmful or aggressive behaviour, it is repeated over time, and it involves an imbalance of power between the bully and the bullied (Olweus, 1996; Olweus, 2013 as cited in UNESCO, 2015b). Bullying behaviour can range from repeated teasing, taunting, and the use of hurtful nicknames, to physical violence and social exclusion.

According to **Figure 56**, boys appear more likely to be the victims of bullying than girls. In the Asia-Pacific region, the highest percentage of boys and girls experiencing some form of bullying at school was reported in the Pacific. Solomon Islands (67%), Vanuatu (67%) and Samoa (74%) had the highest rates. The lowest incidence of bullying was in Tajikistan (7%) and Lao PDR (12 %). However nearly one-fifth of students felt bullied in Malaysia (18%), Myanmar (19%) and Indonesia (21%).

Figure 56

Percentage of students who were bullied on one or more days during the 30 days prior to the survey, 2003-2016



Source: WHO and US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Country reports 2003-2016.

Lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) persons suffer higher rates of victimization than their non-LGBT peers (UNESCO, 2015b). **Table 12** shows the percentage of LGBT learners of various ages exposed to bullying in school. Bullying is most prevalent in Viet Nam, where 46% of LGBT learners reported some form of bullying in school, and Republic of Korea, were the rate was 80%. Verbal bullying is one of the most common form of bullying reported by LGBT students, ranging from 29% in the Republic of Korea and in Thailand, to 70% in Viet Nam.

Young gay, bisexual and gender non-conforming men and transgender students (both male-to-female and female-to-male) reported higher percentages of victimization for almost every type of bullying, especially physical bullying (UNESCO, 2015b). Lesbian and bisexual women were often the targets of social and verbal bullying (ibid.).

Table 12

Percentage of LGBT learners reporting school bullying and violence in selected countries and territories, 2011-2014

Type of bullying	Australia	China	China, Hong Kong SAR	Japan	Republic of Korea	Thailand	Viet Nam
Verbally	61%	44%	42%	53%	29%	29%	70%
Physically	18%	10%	14%	20%	5%	31%	19%
Psychosocially	39%	21%	40%	49%	31%	36%	18%
Sexual Harassment	-	8%	14%	11%	7%	24%	18%
Bullying Overall	69%	77%	-	68%	80%	56%	46%

Note: The table was compiled from a variety of data sources in the UNESCO publication with varying survey designs and sample populations, including age ranges. These figures are not designed to be comparative but to provide an indication of the magnitude of the problem and demonstrate that it occurs in many countries in the region. Lack of inclusion of a country does not mean that bullying does not exist but rather indicates a lack of available data.

Source: UNESCO, 2015b.

BOX 12

PILOTING THE SCHOOL CLIMATE ASSESSMENT TOOL

In Thailand, research has highlighted the prevalence and impact of school-based violence and bullying based on sexual orientation and gender identity and expression (SOGIE). Research suggests that students under-report instances of bullying--physical and verbal aggression that can include the use of stigmatizing language by teachers and peers. Only 1 in 12 students who said they were bullied reported the aggression to a teacher.

To support the inclusion of learners of diverse sexualities and gender identities in school and to enable them to reach their full potential, UNESCO Bangkok held a training workshop for 28 participants from the education community. Representatives from the Ministry of Education, university-level teacher training programmes, primary and secondary school educators and civil society partners learned how to identify and investigate instances of bullying and discrimination due to SOGIE using the School Climate Assessment Tool designed by UNESCO.

UNESCO Bangkok is working with the ministry to pilot test the tool as part of UNESCO's health and well-being strategy. The strategy aims to ensure all children and young people have access to safe, inclusive and health-promoting learning environments, contributing to the achievement of Target 4.a.

2.8.5 *Key issues and challenges*

Disability in education

The definition of a welcoming, safe and inclusive school environment includes infrastructure and materials that are accessible to students of all ages and abilities. Cross-nationally comparable data on this topic are very limited; however, the global indicator requires countries to monitor progress on accessibility. Advances in assistive technologies are helping some children with disabilities to become more mobile, to communicate,

to see and hear better, and generally participate more in learning activities (Sæbønes et al., 2015). The first step is access to the classroom. Barriers range from a lack of roads, long distances to adapted schools and inadequate infrastructure (stairs and doorways unsuitable for wheelchair use), to a lack of classroom equipment and inaccessible sanitation facilities (WHO, 2011). Physical and material barriers aside, the most difficult obstacle to overcome is the reluctance of decision makers to invest in changes that would increase access to education for disabled learners. Disability-inclusive education requires a political commitment, legislative action, adequate funding sources and public awareness, from peers to government (Sæbønes et al., 2015). Finally, school pedagogy often focuses on performance rather than individual progress, which makes education restrictive for children with disabilities and other special needs (WHO, 2011).

ICT in education

For all learners to acquire ICT and digital literacy skills, schools must be able to maintain a functioning ICT environment, which depends on electricity coverage. Schools that are unable to adopt ICT for educational purposes may be facing any number of barriers, including a lack of electricity or telecommunication infrastructure, the high cost of extending these services to rural and remote areas, or high connectivity costs that cannot be covered by school budgets alone (UIS, 2014b). In some cases, schools have computers, but budget constraints may restrict their use to administration (World Bank, 2010; ADB, 2012a). These are daunting challenges that low-income countries will not be able to quickly resolve on their own. Without more resources for ICT-based instruction, students in these countries will fall deeper into the digital divide, and will be ill-prepared for the demands of the 21st century economy.

WASH facilities in schools

As with electricity and Internet connectivity, basic WASH facilities are less prevalent in rural and remote primary schools (UNICEF, 2013). Poor quality hygiene and sanitation facilities can have serious consequences for learners, ranging from health risks to early school leaving (ibid., UNICEF, 2011). Many countries have national policy frameworks on WASH standards, but schools cannot afford to build and maintain adequate facilities and services. Moreover, school administrations may be unaware of these policies and standards (UNICEF, 2013). For the safety and health of students, countries should ensure that schools are providing a learning environment that meets basic standards for WASH facilities (UNICEF and WHO, 2017).

Well-being in education

Children and young people around the world face numerous factors that lead to exclusion and bullying, such as poverty, social status, gender, ethnicity, language, migration, refugee status, appearance and disability (UNESCO, 2017d). When physical, verbal, or psychosocial bullying or other forms of violence are added into the mix, learners are at an even great risk of leaving school early (ibid.). The percentage of students who have been targets of bullying, regardless of sexual orientation, gender identity or expression, suggests that schools in the Asia-Pacific region are failing to offer safe, inclusive and welcoming environments for all. For students to feel motivated, engaged and willing to participate in learning, UNESCO's Happy Schools! Framework, as referred to in Target 4.7, offers an approach to include all school-level stakeholders, including students, in evaluating and improving the school environment from a people, place and processes perspective.

Target 4.b

Scholarships

2.9.1 *Unpacking Target 4.b*

By 2020, substantially extend the number of scholarships that are available to developing countries, in particular, the least developed countries, small island States and African countries. That includes enrolment in higher education, including vocational training and information and communications technology, technical, engineering and scientific programmes, in developed countries and other developing countries.

Scholarships enable young people and adults to pursue the higher education they might otherwise not be able to afford. In order to reduce inequality in tertiary education, Target 4.b calls for increasing funding for scholarships, particularly to students in developing countries.

Table 13

Target 4.b indicators

Indicator		Type	Baseline Available
4.b.1	Volume of official development assistance flows for scholarships by sector and type of study	Global	Yes
4.b.2	Number of higher education scholarships awarded by beneficiary country	Thematic	No

Source: UIS, 2017c.

Indicator **4.b.1,** which measures the volume of official development assistance (ODA) flows for scholarships, has a mechanism that produces internationally comparable data. However, Indicator **4.b.2**, which monitors the number of higher education scholarships awarded by beneficiary countries, still lacks standardized measures to collect cross-national data. Therefore, this indicator will be difficult to monitor at the international level.

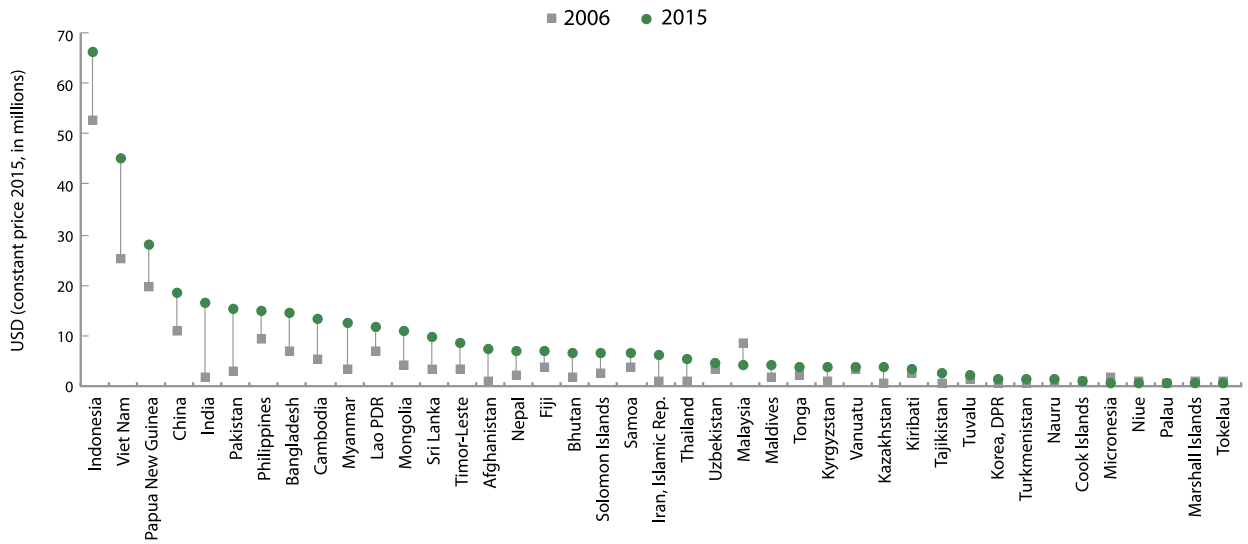
2.9.2 *Increasing ODA for scholarships*

Recipients of scholarships

In 2015, US$359 million in scholarships[28] were provided to youth and adults in 40 Asia-Pacific countries compared to US$182 million in 2006.[29] Indonesia received the most ODA funding for scholarships in the region--US$66 million--almost 18% of the total funding for scholarships to the region (**Figure 57**). The other major recipient countries were Viet Nam (US$44 million), Papua New Guinea (US$27 million), China (US$18 million) and India (US$16 million).

Figure 57

Volume of ODA flows for scholarships in selected countries, 2006 and 2015 or latest year available (constant 2015 US$)



Note: Data for Nauru and Turkmenistan, 2007; data for Cook Islands, 2008; data for Tokelau, 2014.
Source: OECD, 2016e. Creditor Reporting System, accessed July 2017.

28 Local scholarships and financial aid to participate in studies and training courses in developing countries are not included in calculation. The data are annually collected from national administrations by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD).

29 Data on scholarships are available from 2006.

While countries such as Indonesia, China, and the Philippines have been receiving a steady flow of scholarships since 2006, in recent years, new countries have started to receive funding, too. For example, the volume of scholarships to Indian nationals increased about 15 times between 2006 and 2015. Likewise, the amount that Pakistani nationals received increased over six times between 2006 and 2015.

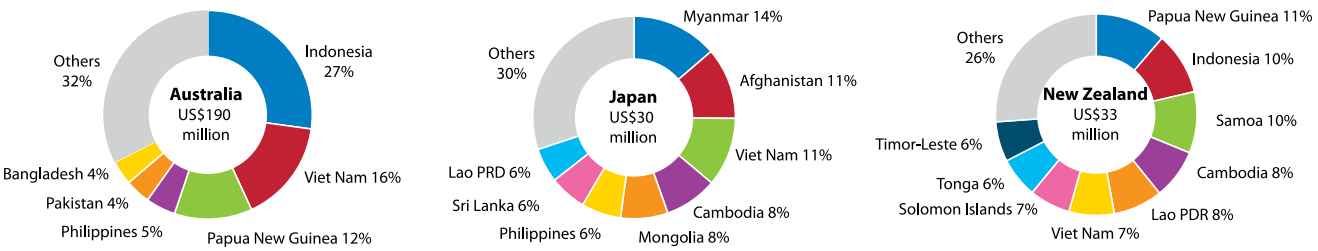
Providers of scholarships

In 2015, US$359 million in scholarships to Asia-Pacific countries were offered bilaterally by OECD-DAC countries, although a small portion came from multilateral institutions and non-DAC countries. Australia was the major provider of scholarships to Asia-Pacific countries, accounting for the majority (53%) of scholarships available in the region. Other providers of scholarships to the region included New Zealand (9%) and Japan (8%).

Each donor pursues different target countries for its scholarships (**Figure 58**). In 2015, Australia provided half of its scholarships to three countries: Indonesia (27%), Viet Nam (16%) and Papua New Guinea (12%). Scholarships from New Zealand were given to nationals from Papua New Guinea (11%), Indonesia and Samoa (both 10%). Myanmar was the major recipient of scholarships from Japan (14%), followed by Afghanistan and Viet Nam (both 11%).

Figure 58

Distribution of scholarships to recipient countries in Asia-Pacific by donor, 2015



Source: OECD, 2016e. Creditor Reporting System, accessed July 2017.

Although the volume of scholarships from Australia to countries in the Asia-Pacific increased from US$124 million to US$190 million between 2006 and 2015, its share relative to other providers dropped. Scholarships offered by Australia to the region fell from 68% in 2006 to 53% in 2015. Scholarships from Japan are also in decline. Although the absolute amount of scholarship funding from Japan increased from US$25 million to US$30 million between 2007 and 2015, the share provided to countries in Asia-Pacific fell from 14% to 8%. This implies that new donors have been providing funding for scholarships to Asia-Pacific countries.

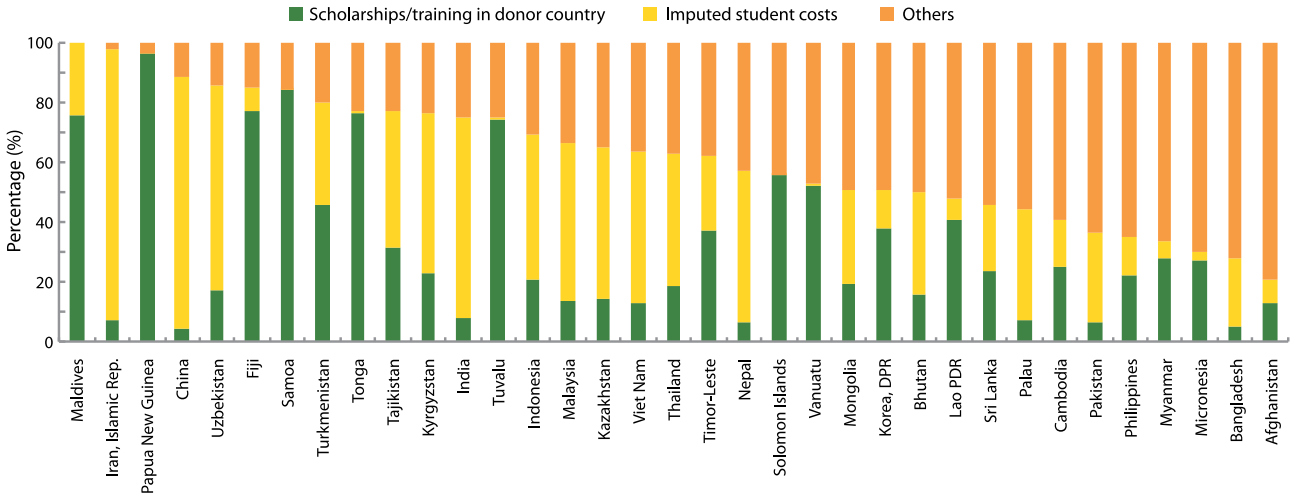
Higher education development and scholarships

Under Target 4.b, scholarships are considered development aid, but it remains unclear how much funding is being allocated to scholarships in the overall development aid package to higher education in developing countries. **Figure 59** presents the share of scholarships and imputed student costs[30] to the higher education sector in 35 Asia-Pacific countries using data from 2015. It is worth noting that in 25 countries, scholarships and imputed costs accounted for more than 50% of aid to higher education. In eight countries, scholarships represented more than 80% of total higher education development assistance. This means that the majority of aid to higher education was spent on scholarships to study in donor countries instead of the development of higher education systems in recipient countries. In only 10 countries did more than 50% of aid to higher education fund expenses other than scholarships and imputed student costs.

30 Indirect tuition costs of foreign students studying in donor countries.

Figure 59

Share of higher education aid spent on scholarships, imputed student costs and other costs in selected countries, 2015



Source: OECD, 2016e. Creditor Reporting System, accessed July 2017.

BOX 13

PROMOTING INTERNATIONAL RECOGNITION OF TERTIARY QUALIFICATIONS IN ASIA-PACIFIC

Over the past decade, students and trainees from Asia-Pacific countries have benefited from an increased number of scholarships to study abroad. This, along with the growing demand for tertiary education has seen the number of students going abroad to pursuing tertiary education rise. For example, in 2016, about two million students were enrolled in tertiary education institutions outside their country of origin, an increase of 0.8 million since 2000 (Statistical Table 3). Based on estimates from 2016, the Asia-Pacific region accounts for 40% of internationally mobile tertiary students in the world. The largest number of students studying abroad in 2016 was from China (847 million), India (277 million), the Republic of Korea (108 million) and Kazakhstan (89 million) (ibid).

For many of these students, the lack of clear and transparent criteria about foreign academic qualifications can be an obstacle to having their credential recognized. The newly ratified U*NESCO Regional Convention on the Recognition of Qualifications in Higher Education in Asia-Pacific*, also known as the Tokyo Convention, responds to this challenge by providing a legal framework to help countries in the region facilitate cross-border mobility based on the shared values of fair and transparent recognition practices.

The convention, adopted in Tokyo in 2011, is a revision of an earlier convention adopted in Bangkok, Thailand, in 1983. The revised convention reflects major changes in higher education such as the diversity of public and private education providers and the growth qualifications earned through open, online and distance learning. As of December 2017, five countries in Asia-Pacific (Australia, China, Japan, New Zealand, and the Republic of Korea) have ratified the Tokyo Convention.

As the only UN agency with a mandate in higher education, UNESCO, and the Bangkok office in particular, are committed to the full implementation of the Tokyo Convention, recognizing the importance of transparent criteria and qualifications in higher education for students and teachers in the region.

2.9.3 *Key issues and challenges*

Definition of scholarships

Target 4.b narrowly defines scholarships; accounting only for development aid provided by donor countries. This definition excludes other forms of financial aid that also offer opportunities for youth and adults in developing countries to study, such as scholarships from developing countries for their own citizens and financial aid to study in developing countries. Likewise, non-ODA financial aid provided by universities, foundations, non-governmental organizations and other private sources is not counted. As of today, aspects of the definition of a scholarship remain vague. For example, the length of an eligible programme of study is unclear, or whether the amount of aid fully or partially funds a scholarship (UNESCO, 2016c).

Scholarships vs local higher education development

The importance of scholarships is widely recognized as a means to strengthen the human resource capacity in developing countries (E2030 FFA, 2016). On the other hand, scholarships are a form of financial aid that "never leaves donor countries" (UNESCO, 2012b), because it is tied to donor country institutions. It is debatable to what extent scholarships should be counted as aid, and whether greater focus should be given to bolstering access, equity and quality in national higher education institutions in developing countries (Bengtsson and Barakat, 2016). Acknowledging this point, the SDG 4-Education 2030 Agenda calls for donor countries to increase other forms of support to education (E2030 FFA, 2016).

Scholarships for development

Some critics claim that scholarships could aggravate inequalities because recipients tend to be from high-income households. Individuals who face economic barriers do not have the same access to information about scholarships (UNESCO, 2016c; IIE, 2016). Furthermore, scholarships contribute to the risk of a brain drain; the migration of skilled individuals from developing countries to developed countries (Bengtsson and Barakat, 2016). Many students who earn a scholarship to study in a developed country tend to stay in the host country after completing their education (ADB, 2012).

Lack of Monitoring System

Monitoring Target 4.b will be difficult because a robust monitoring mechanism still needs to be developed. Indicator **4.b.2** lacks a system for publicly reporting data on scholarship programmes. Institutions tend not to share data on the number, size and amount of scholarships awarded to students. Nor do donor countries consolidate data on scholarships to foreign students (UIS, 2017c). Another technical issue to be clarified is the definition of the characteristics of scholarship recipients. Currently, internationally comparable data on the characteristics of beneficiaries, including their sex, socio-demographic background, education level and field of study are, for the most part, unavailable (IIE, 2016).

Target 4.c

Teachers

2.10.1 *Unpacking Target 4.c*

By 2030, substantially increase the supply of qualified teachers, including through international cooperation for teacher training in developing countries, especially least developed countries and small island developing States.

Teachers play a critical role in delivering high quality education and learning outcomes. This is recognized by Target 4.c, which calls on countries to train more teachers and ensure they meet the qualifications set by national standards.

Table 14

Target 4.c indicators

Indicator		Type	Baseline Available
4.c.1	Proportion of teachers in: (a) pre-primary education; (b) primary education; (c) lower secondary education; and (d) upper secondary education who have received at least the minimum organized teacher training (e.g. pedagogical training) pre-service or in-service required for teaching at the relevant level in a given country, by sex	Global	Yes
4.c.2	Pupil-trained teacher ratio by level of education	Thematic	Yes
4.c.3	Percentage of teachers qualified according to national standards by level and type of institution	Thematic	Yes
4.c.4	Pupil-qualified teacher ratio by level of education	Thematic	Yes
4.c.5	Average teacher salary relative to other professions requiring a comparable level of qualification	Thematic	No
4.c.6	Teacher attrition rate by level of education	Thematic	Partly
4.c.7	Percentage of teachers who received in-service training in the last 12 months by type of training	Thematic	No

Source: UIS, 2017c.

Indicators under Target 4.c monitor key aspects of the teaching profession, from pre-primary to upper secondary education, including the pedagogical training and academic qualifications of teachers; the allocation of trained and qualified teachers; the relative financial attractiveness of the teaching profession, and teacher turnover. Indicators **4.c.1, 4.c.2, 4.c.3**, and **4.c.4** are readily available across countries. Indicator 4.c.6 is collected by relatively few countries, and Indicators **4.c.5** and **4.c.7** require further development (UIS, 2016b). Indeed, **4.c.5**, which tracks the relative attractiveness of the teaching profession will require the development of a methodology to compare average teaching salaries with those of other professions requiring a similar level of qualification.

2.10.2 *How is the teaching profession faring in the Asia-Pacific region?*

Number and share of teachers by level of education

In 2016, the Asia-Pacific region had 38 million teachers, from pre-primary to upper secondary education, accounting for 50% of the global teacher supply. The largest share of teachers, 44% (17 million), were employed in primary education. Teachers employed in lower secondary education followed, representing 25% (10 million) of the teaching force. About 19% (7 million) were employed in upper secondary education, while 12% (4 million) were employed in pre-primary education (Statistical Table 7).

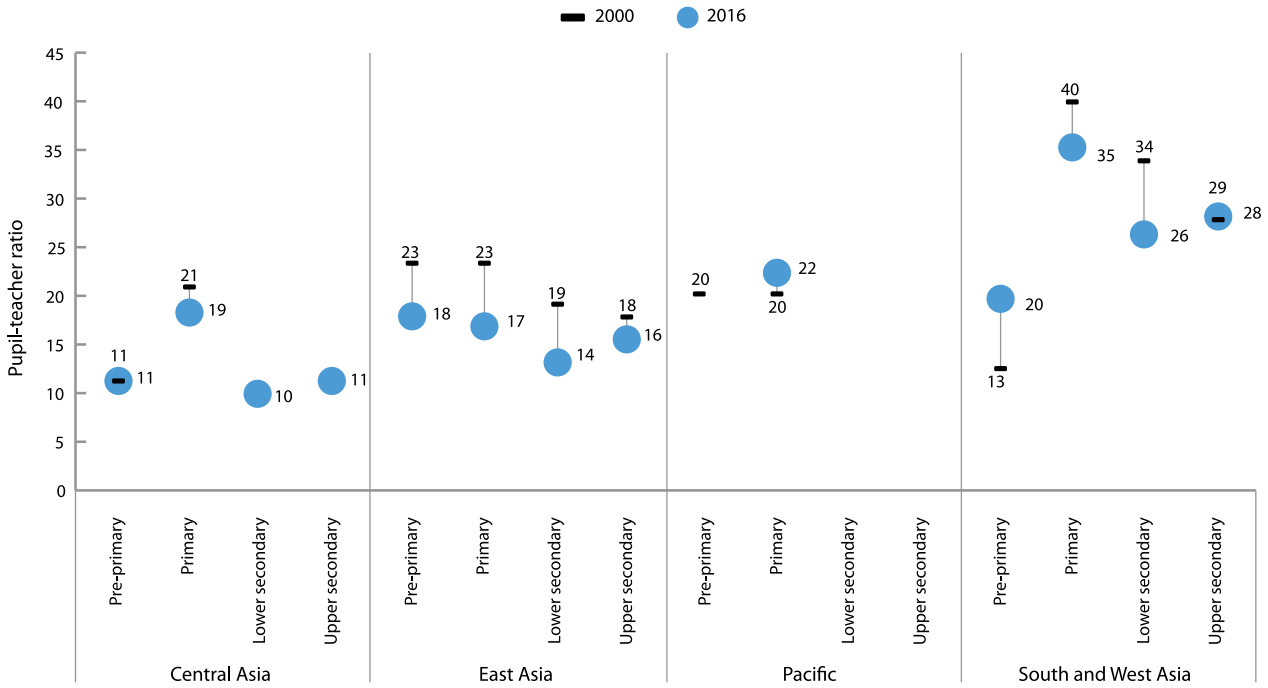
East Asia had the largest share of teachers overall, or 64% (24 million) from pre-primary to upper secondary, followed by 35% (13 million) in South and West Asia and 3% (1.2 million) in Central Asia (ibid.).

Since 2000, the region has added 9 million teachers. The size of the teaching force in pre-primary education grew the most, increasing by 86% between 2000 and 2016 (Statistical Table 7). Much of this increase came from East Asia where the number of pre-primary teachers more than doubled between 2000 and 2016. In Central Asia, the teacher supply grew slowly at all levels of education (Statistical Table 7).

The pupil-teacher ratio (PTR) is a measure of teaching capacity rather than actual class sizes.[31] In general, the PTR for most levels of education has declined since 2000, indicating that teaching capacity has grown. There were on average 19 students per teacher in pre-primary education, 23 per teacher in primary education, 19 pupils per teacher in lower secondary and 22 per teacher in upper secondary (Statistical Table 7).

Figure 60

Pupil-teacher ratio by education level and subregion, 2000 and 2016 or latest data available



Note: Data for Central Asia and the Pacific (lower secondary and upper secondary) from 2000, data for the Pacific (pre-primary, lower secondary, and upper secondary) from 2016 are missing.

Source: UIS Data Centre, accessed August 2017.

Female teachers underrepresented in upper levels of education and decision-making

Figure 61 shows the latest data on the proportions of female and male teachers from pre-primary education to upper secondary education in the region. Female teachers accounted for more than 90% of the pre-primary education teaching force. In primary education, female teachers accounted for more than 50% of the workforce.

At the country level, the share of female teachers varies considerably. In Afghanistan, female teachers made up 34% of the teacher supply in primary education. In Solomon Islands, 42% were female. Almost all primary school teachers were female in Niue and Kyrgyzstan (UIS Data Center).

In secondary education, the share of female teachers was smaller than in primary education. In lower secondary education, the proportion of female teachers was 66% in Central Asia, 55% in East Asia and the Pacific and 47% in South and West Asia (Figure 61).

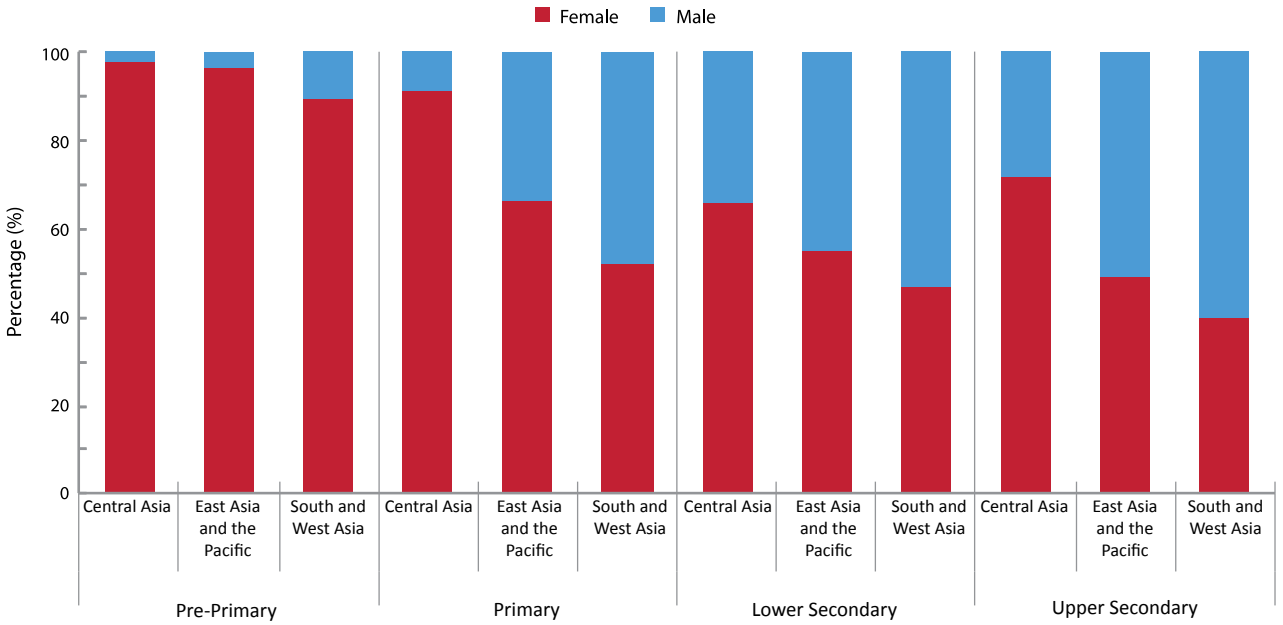
31 The PTR is a ratio of the numbers of students and teachers. It is not a measure of class size or the number of students a teacher faces in the classroom. The PTR is calculated based on headcounts of both students and teachers; all teachers are counted regardless of working hours and teacher absenteeism. Moreover, the PTR does not account for the quality of teachers, such as differences in teachers' qualifications, pedagogical training, experiences and status, teaching methods, teaching materials and variations in classroom conditions.

In upper secondary education, the percentage of female teachers tends to be even smaller. In Nepal and Bhutan, females made up 18% and 37% of the teaching force, respectively (UIS Data Center).

It is worth noting that while the teaching profession is dominated by women in most countries in the region, they are much less likely to be in leadership and decision-making roles (UNESCO and UNICEF, 2012b).

Figure 61

Proportion of teachers, by sex, education level and subregion, 2016



Note: Pre-primary data for South and West Asia for 2007.

Source: UIS Data Centre, accessed in May 2018.

2.10.3 *Are teachers in Asia-Pacific trained and qualified to teach?*

Trained teachers and qualified teachers

The global monitoring indicator recognizes that improving education quality requires more than having enough teachers in the education system. Countries must ensure that teachers are qualified, trained and equipped to teach students from diverse backgrounds, with different learning styles and needs (UNESCO, 2014a). To this end, Indicators **4.c.1** and **4.c.7** aim to increase the percentage of trained teachers.

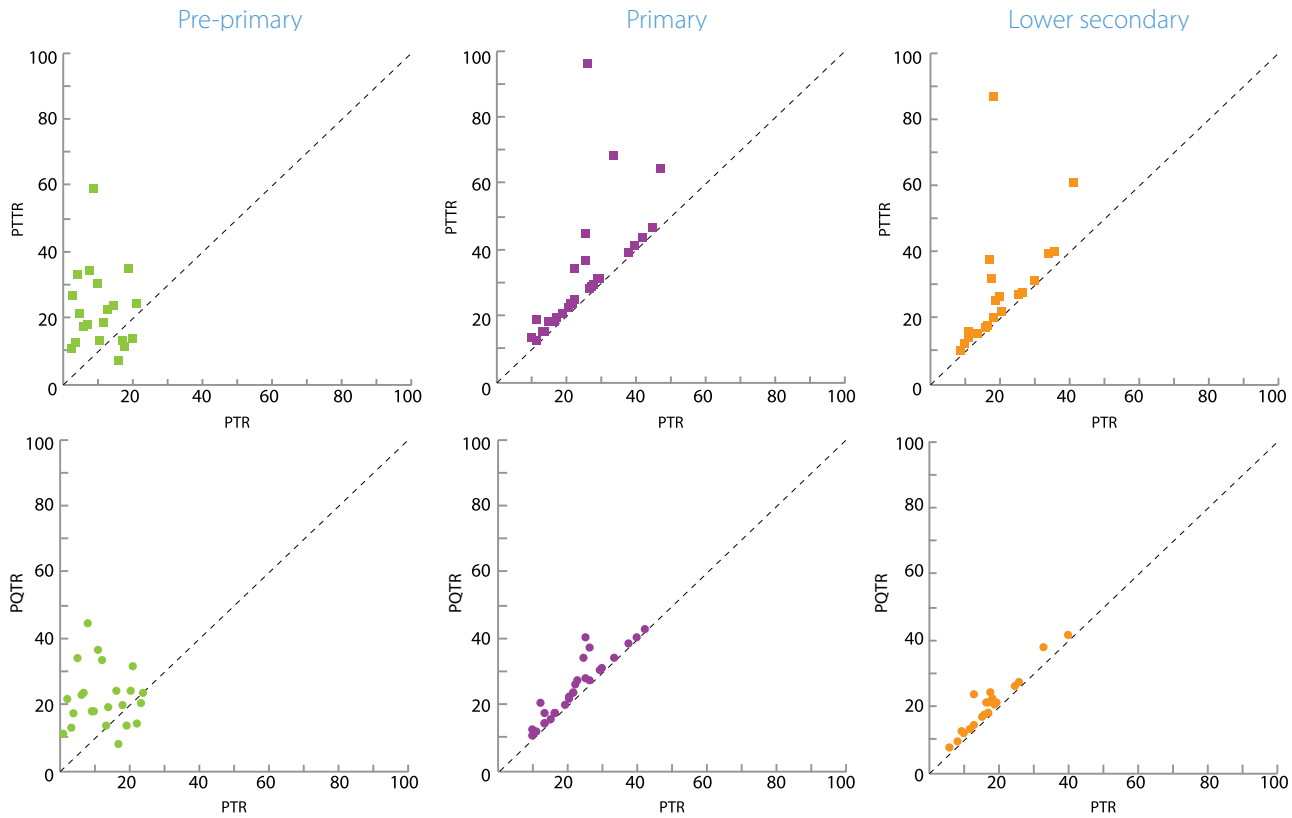
Trained teachers are defined as 'Those who have fulfilled at least the minimum organized teacher-training requirements (pre-service or in-service) to teach a specific level of education according to the relevant national policy or law' (UIS, 2017c). Pre-service training generally provides prospective teachers with appropriate pedagogical and subject matter knowledge before they enter the classroom. In-service training supports the continuous professional development of teachers, allowing them to enhance their skills after joining the teaching force (UNESCO, 2014b).

Qualified teachers are 'Those who have at least the minimum academic qualifications required for teaching their subjects at the relevant level in a given country' (UIS, 2017c). For this reason, Indicator **4.c.3** will monitor the supply of teachers who are academically qualified in the subject they teach according to national standards.

Some teachers in the region still fall short of the national minimum training or qualifications. **Figure 62** plots the pupil-trained teacher ratio (PTTR) and pupil-qualified teacher ratio (PQTR) against the PTR. While the PTR indicates the average number of students in relation to teachers, the PTTR expresses the ratio of trained teachers to students and the PQTR refers to the ratio of qualified teachers to students, as indicated in **4.c.2** and **4.c.4,** respectively.

Figure 62

Pupil-teacher ratio, pupil-trained teacher ratio, pupil-qualified teacher ratio, by education level in the Asia-Pacific region, 2016 or latest data available



Note: Latest data range from 2012 to 2016. If the PTR and PTTR or PQTR are plotted along the line, the teaching force meets national training or qualification standards.
Source: Statistical Table 7.

In terms of trained teachers, 63% of countries in the region with available data have a larger PTTR than PTR in primary education, which means there are fewer trained teachers. For instance, in Vanuatu, the PTR is 27:1, but the PTTR is 95:1. In Bangladesh, the PTR is 34:1 compared to the PTTR of 67:1. In lower secondary education, the capacity gap diminishes and students are more likely to be taught by qualified teachers.

By and large, the gaps between the PQTR and PTR are small, indicating that many teachers in the region meet the national academic qualification standard. In 50% of countries with available data, all pre-primary teachers meet the national qualification standard. Likewise, in primary education 41% of countries have a teaching force that meets national standards. The trend continues in lower secondary education, where the gap between the PQTR and PTR is present in less than 10% of the countries across the region.

Some countries have high ratios of students to both qualified and trained teachers, despite having a sufficiently large teaching force. This is the result of teachers in the workforce having neither training nor qualifications. In Bangladesh, the PTTR in primary education is twice as large as the PTR.

Other countries have a shortage of teachers, even though the entire teaching force is trained and/or qualified. For example, in Cambodia, there is no gap between the PTR, PTTR and PQTR in primary education, but the ratio is about 43:1 for all three categories.

Increasing the supply of teachers by 2030, but also ensuring teachers are qualified and trained will be a major challenge for education systems in much of the region.

2.10.4 *How attractive is a career in teaching?*

Teacher attrition

Indicator **4.c.6** tracks teacher attrition; the proportion of teachers leaving the profession for personal or professional reasons, including retirement. This is a particular problem at the pre-primary education level. In many developing countries, pre-primary teachers are employed by local communities or ministries other than the ministries of education. Compared to primary school teachers, they may have a lower status, lower pay and poor working conditions (SEAMEO and UNESCO, 2016). Moreover, the lack of good quality training, or continuous professional development and advancement opportunities, and weak administrative support leads to high rates of absenteeism and attrition among pre-primary teachers.

High rates of attrition can deplete the teaching force and undermine the quality of education and learning. A shortage of teachers raises the risk of overcrowded classrooms, or the recruitment of teachers with little or no training, which can lead to a poor learning environment (UIS, 2016d).

Currently, data on rates of attrition are only available for nine countries in Asia-Pacific at the primary level, where the rate ranges from 1% to 8%. For instance, in 2016, the attrition rate of primary school teachers in Kazakhstan was 8% (UIS Data Centre).

Finding ways to stem the premature departure of teachers from the profession will help maintain the quality of education in the region.

Teaching salaries

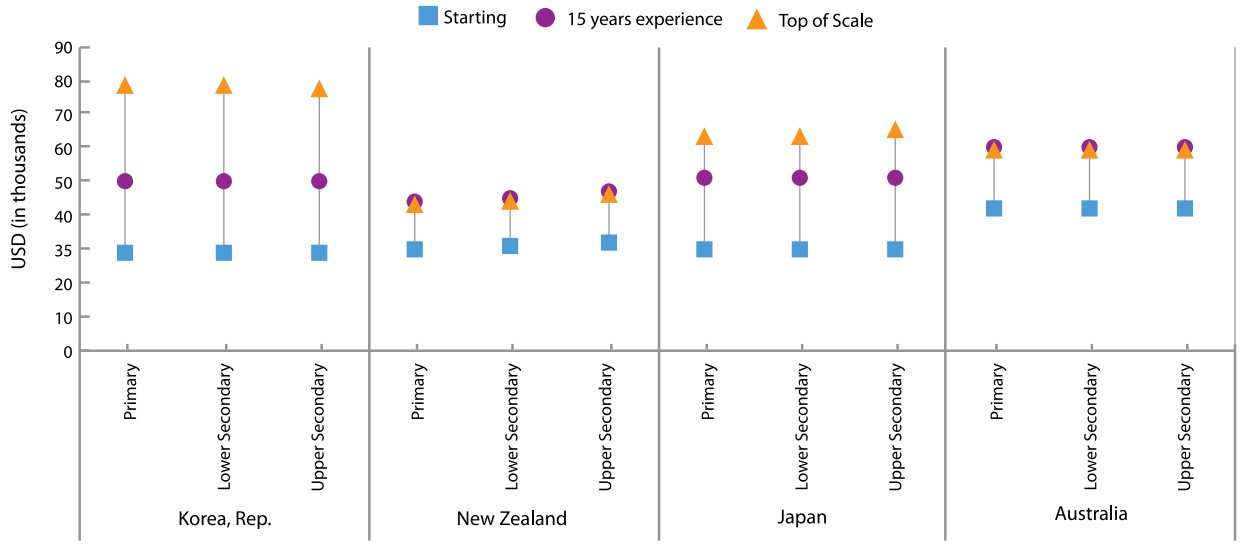
Salaries are one of the main reasons teachers choose to stay in or exit the profession (Vegas and Umansky, 2005).[32] Indicator **4.c.5** tracks average teacher salaries relative to other professions requiring the same level of qualification, but the methodology for making such comparisons does not yet exist.

Currently, cross-national data from the region on teacher salaries is limited; however, a small set of comparable data from Australia, Japan, Republic of Korea and New Zealand indicate that the annual starting salaries of new teachers with the minimum qualifications range from less than US$28,000 to more than US$40,000 (**Figure 63**). There is no significant difference in remuneration by education level. Salaries increase with years of teaching experience and qualifications. In these four countries, the salaries of teachers with 15 years of experience, which is a proxy for a mid-career salary (OECD, 2017), ranged from less than US$43,000 to more than US$59,000. The starting salary of a new teacher in the Republic of Korea is the lowest among the four countries, for all levels of education, but teachers with the most qualifications earn the highest salary – almost three times as much as new teachers.

32 Target 4.c measures the annual gross statutory starting salary for qualified primary and secondary teachers in public institutions, not including bonuses and pension contributions (UIS, 2017c).

Figure 63

Annual statutory salaries of teachers in public institutions (PPP US$) by experience and education level, 2015

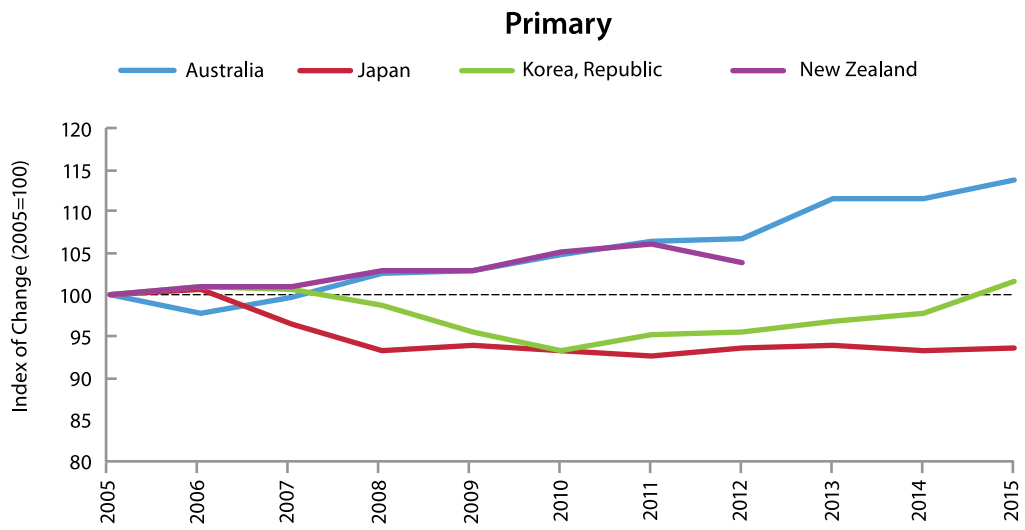


Source: OECD, 2017.

Figure 64 illustrates the change in the statutory salaries of teachers with 15 years' experience in primary education in four countries. In Australia and New Zealand, teachers' salaries have increased continually since 2005. For example, between 2005 and 2015, teachers' salaries in Australia by 14%.[33] In the same 10-year period, salaries in the Republic of Korea grew slightly, while in Japan teachers' salaries declined.

Figure 64

Change in statutory salaries of teachers with 15 years' experience at the primary education level, 2005-2015



Note: 2013-2015 data for primary and lower secondary education for New Zealand is missing.

Source: OECD Statistics database, *Education at a Glance 2017*.

33 Salaries for 2005 are set as a baseline of 100. Salaries for other years are compared in relation to the baseline.

Professional development for teachers

Professional development, covered by Indicator **4.c.7**, is a mechanism to improve teacher quality while helping to keep teachers motivated. Also known as in-service training, these short, specialized programmes can help upgrade the pedagogical skills and knowledge of teachers in a rapidly changing education context. Good quality in-service training can compensate for poor pre-service training. In countries where inexperienced or unqualified teachers are hired to make up for teacher shortages, in-service training can be a quick and sometimes cost-effective way to enhance the quality of teaching. Moreover, in-service training programmes can reinforce the knowledge of subject-matter teachers (UNESCO, 2014b). UNESCO identified a correlation between participation in relevant and practice-linked professional development with a positive sense of self-efficacy and preparedness among teachers in nine countries in Asia-Pacific (UNESCO, 2016c).

BOX 14

UNESCO BANGKOK PROJECT AIMS TO ELIMINATE GENDER BIAS IN TEACHING

As part of its efforts to mainstream gender equality in education, UNESCO Bangkok launched a project to combat gender stereotypes in education. The project, Enhancing Girls' and Women's Right to Quality Education through Gender-sensitive Policymaking, Teacher Development and Pedagogy in South, Southeast, and Central Asia, focuses on gender issues in teacher education in Cambodia, Myanmar, Nepal, Sri Lanka and Uzbekistan. This includes reviewing textbooks and curricula to eliminate gender stereotypes and biases, promoting gender transformative pedagogy, applying gender mainstreaming principles in national and institutional policymaking processes, and promoting female school leadership. This sector-wide approach recognizes that achieving girls' and women's right to quality education recognizes that teachers and policymakers must do their part to eliminate gender inequality.

2.10.5 *Key issues and challenges*

Characteristics of today's teaching force

Since 2000, the number and share of female teachers has increased at all levels of education; however, they tend to be overrepresented in pre-primary education and underrepresented in secondary education. There are some regional variations in the distribution of female teachers. In Central Asia, female teachers make up 65% of the total teaching force. In South and West Asia, the female share account for about 50% or less of the teaching force. Women tend to be underrepresented in leadership roles, too. With few exceptions, men dominate the upper levels of education management and administration, globally. As a result, women are more likely to be excluded from policymaking and decision-making processes (Kirk, 2006).

Diversifying the teaching force

There are distinct benefits to a culturally diverse teaching workforce. Teachers of different ethnic or linguistic backgrounds enrich the teaching environment, enhance the acceptance of students from marginalized groups, and can have a positive impact on the self-esteem of minority students (Howard, 2010). Students with limited proficiency in the language of instruction can benefit from linguistic support provided by teachers who share their language, which may enhance the relevance of schooling for these students (ibid.). For these reasons, teacher candidates should be recruited from a wide range of social and cultural backgrounds.

Changing demographic structures

Approximately 32 million teaching posts will need to be filled to achieve universal primary and secondary education by 2030 in Asia-Pacific (UIS, 2016a). Growing school-age populations will continue to drive the demand for teachers as education systems try to absorb more students at all levels. A growing teacher workforce then will require governments to increase spending on education in order to cover teachers' salaries, which are the largest share of public education expenditure. At the same time, more students are making the transition to secondary education where teachers are paid more. Countries will also need to pay attention to the distribution of teachers to avoid ballooning class sizes. Although some countries have a desirable PTR at the national level, this can mask variations across the country. Teachers tend to be concentrated in areas where they have better working conditions, such as urban areas. As a result, children in disadvantaged locations, such as rural and remote areas, may face overcrowded classrooms led by underqualified teachers.

Difficult working conditions among teachers of marginalized children

Teachers of marginalized children face many adversities in their personal and professional lives. They typically contend with living and working conditions that are more difficult than those faced by other teachers. Analyses conducted by UNICEF in India, Mexico and the United Republic of Tanzania found that teachers working in marginalized environments or with disadvantaged children expressed lower levels of satisfaction and a greater desire to change schools (Chudgar and Lushei, 2013). In India, for example, teachers posted to remote, hard-to-staff environments coped with a lack of resources, isolation, loneliness and fear. These findings demonstrate the importance of ensuring adequate working conditions for all teachers to reverse the uneven distribution of teachers.

Defining and comparing the qualifications of teachers

Even though indicators related to trained and qualified teachers are readily available, it is difficult to draw the kind of cross-national comparisons that make monitoring possible. What defines a *trained* or *qualified* teacher is determined by national education standards, which vary widely across countries. Moreover, even in countries that encourage in-service training, most do not have a systematic approach to the delivery of training. The contents and quality of the training may vary depending on local cultures and practices, or the abilities of trainers (Marphatia et al, 2010). Incentives can spur participation in in-service training, but teachers report feeling frustrated by the lack of time allocated to such programmes, or the lack incentives altogether (OECD, 2014). Currently, there is no agreed global mechanism for collecting data on in-service teacher training (UIS, 2016b).

Data collection and monitoring

One of the biggest monitoring obstacles facing Target 4.c is the fragmented state of data on teachers. Data are collected by different ministries, depending on the type of education and institution (e.g. public, non-formal education, private institutions). For instance, data on teachers by years of experience and type of contract may be collected by the government payroll system. Data on graduates from teacher training institutions and the number of new teachers may be housed in the Teacher Education Management Information System. Moreover, administrative data does not capture information about the salaries of teachers in private schools and teachers working on contracts (UNESCO, 2016c).

Chapter 3

The Road Ahead

3.1 In which direction do education statistics point?

This report has provided baseline indicators for the commencement of the world development agenda and therein SDG 4-Education 2030 to inform current progress towards the SDG 4 and to serve as a stock-taking of the remaining data gaps. Reviewing the data presented in this report, obstacles on the road to achieving Education 2030 can be identified, which should trigger asking how these obstacles can be addressed in the short-term. What steps can be taken to ensure that Member States in the region will achieve the SDG 4-Education 2030 efficiently and effectively? Major key areas to be tackled have been identified which should enable Member States and regional partners to direct their attention in the coming years.

3.1.1 *Focus on addressing inequality*

The strong focus on equity is a defining feature of the Education 2030 Agenda. Ensuring equity, inclusion and gender equality will require well-designed strategies for identifying, targeting and reaching those populations that are underserved, vulnerable and disadvantaged in relation to accessing and remaining in learning opportunities of good quality. Such issues cut across all education targets from early childhood to adult learning and can be addressed by means of on policy interventions which remove direct cost barriers, lower opportunity costs, address physical barriers, stigma and social norms, provide incentives for changing behaviours, and address the cumulative impact of disadvantage.

The report, as the previous synthesis analysis of EFA in 2015 (UNESCO, 2015a), shows that while gender equality in the region has leapt forward in participation in primary education during the last decade, significant challenges still remain in secondary and higher education. For other disadvantaged population groups, the picture is not yet clear due to data gaps but may likely uncover misfortunate scenarios if no or little targeted interventions are taking place.

The most marginalized and vulnerable children, youth and adults that would benefit most from learning and education are not in school. In the commitment to "leave no one behind" disaggregated data should be collected on the multidimensional barriers to education, their learning needs and aspirations for education and life.

3.1.2 *Getting the basics right*

An important approach is to focus on the essentials and other pieces will follow. This inevitably leads to getting early learning right so that the opportunity to achieve learning is on track from the start. Addressing early childhood learning can make a big difference in school readiness and have positive knock-on effects across a wide range of targets. This also applies to linking other thematic SDGs to education, such as the protection of ecosystems (SDG 15), responsible consumption and production (SDG 12), sustainable cities and communities (SDG 11) and sustainable economic growth and decent work (SDG 8).

Within school environments, this means focusing on the key elements in teaching and learning – is the curriculum up to date and reflecting the aspirations of the sustainable development agenda? Are teachers prepared and supported to focus on the relevant teaching and learning? Do schools have the resources, in terms of human, financial and infrastructural means, to accommodate quality learning?

Although teachers are often considered central to quality learning, a lack of trained teachers was seen in secondary education, where the proportion of trained teachers was smaller than in primary education (UNESCO, 2015). The shortage of trained teachers could present a risk to the provision of quality education.

From the policy side, the focus on the content and delivery of learning would involve the review of existing curricula frameworks; teaching and learning contents, pedagogy, materials and classroom teaching practice; assessment frameworks; as well as teacher training and professional development. A holistic and coherent

curricular approach will require alignment between curriculum content, assessment, teacher training, as well as school leadership and management (UNESCO, 2016c). This does require though, that definitions on skills, such as digital literacy skills, become an agreed upon reality in order to be subsequently measured appropriately.

Similarly, basic learning environments are still missing in many schools in Asia-Pacific countries. Basic resources, such as availability of clean water and sanitation, computers and internet to facilitate learning and to engage in teaching learning processes, and safe and violence free environment for all, should be there for the conducive learning environment for girls and boys to participate actively in learning processes.

3.1.3 *Measuring learning outcomes*

Building on the premise that a comprehensive and up-to-date curriculum, as well as well-trained and motivated teachers can improve the quality of education, while drawing on the results from learning outcomes in an internationally comparable framework, all can provide additional important analysis of the quality education (World Bank, 2018).

As pointed out earlier in this report, most countries in the region lack large-scale learning assessment data or conduct irregular assessments due to resource constraints. Tracking learning through regular assessments that are aligned with national as well as international needs will ultimately improve a country's situation, as they enable policymakers to identify systemic inefficiencies that can lead to grade repetition and early school leaving, which could save considerable resources (UIS, 2017d). International standards and national priorities, however, as well as individual aspirations need to find agreements as not to mutually barricade one another. This includes not to accept increasingly lower standards in assessments with the purpose of ranking higher in international comparisons as well as not excluding learners from assessments that may reduce the national average. Policy changes need to happen that include education assessment as an important part of the education system and provide specific guidelines for a well-functioning assessment system that in return informs education practitioners and policy-makers of the current state of their education and learning outcomes (ibid.).

3.1.4 *Lifelong learning is often outside the margins of formal education*

Some of the most challenging areas are on the margins of formal education which are the most persistent issues in addressing a problem – such as low levels of literacy and numeracy skills among the adult population, especially women.

The report provides an important baseline for youth and adults in the region who lack the foundational skills in literacy and numeracy with consequences for later learning. In 2016, there were 446 million adults (aged 25- 64) in Asia and the Pacific with low literacy skills (Statistical Table 6) – more than the rest of the world combined. There are also mismatches between knowledge and skills that are taught in school, and those that are needed in the labour market and the society. Education systems need to respond better to changing labour market needs. ICT skills as presented in this report represent one such skill area which has grown in importance, but where education systems focus on primarily among the upper secondary school-age population – a school level that the majority of young people in the region does not reach.

3.1.5 *Sector wide data management and monitoring system*

Monitoring progress towards SDG 4 commitments from an equity lens will require having access to more reliable, timely and disaggregated data for all SDG 4 targets. Disaggregated data will not only help understand the levels of inequality but also help consider the coverage and impacts of inclusion policies. Administrative invisibility of certain populations often extends further to national survey data, where disaggregation by excluded groups – in particular, children with disabilities; persecuted ethnic, religious and caste groups; as

well as street children – is mostly absent. Without these data, researchers and civil society representatives are oblivious of the extent and precise nature of the problem. Unable to hold governments to account about these inequalities, the challenge of exclusion can continue to exist beneath the radar (Shaheen et al., 2016).

Most countries in the region had issues in obtaining reliable data to monitor progress on the margins of formal education. Comparable indicators that measure both the quantity and quality of education remained elusive; only a few countries were able to report on student learning outcomes. A lack of data management systems failed to track various types of literacy programmes in the region. For instance, many countries did not have sufficient data collection systems to capture non-formal education (NFE), provision of early childhood education (ECE) and technical and vocational education training (TVET). In addition, data were plagued with concerns about transparency and comparability, and indicators often reported after considerable time lags (UNESCO, 2015a).

It will also require strengthened national capacities to analyze data about both populations with and without access to good quality learning opportunities. In the future, there will be an increased need for efficient data monitoring and analyzing at the sub-national level to feed into the sub-national planning processes. Education Management and Information Systems (EMIS) will need to be designed or adapted to cover all the education sectors from ECE to TVET, higher education and NFE. It should also be able to ensure required disaggregation and support national capacities in terms of report generation, data visualization and interpretation.

There is a real change looming in the institutional culture and the need to look at not just the supply of education monitoring but at the demand-side as well. In the short-run, defining disadvantaged populations to be targeted by policies as well as mapping potential data sources (for example national household surveys) would be important steps towards better reporting.

3.2 The power of a roadmap

The ambition of the SDG 4-Education 2030 Agenda provides a framework that addresses education at every stage of life, from early childhood to adult education, and includes all types of learning; in school, in the home and beyond. The framework sets out a range of indicators for measuring progress against SDG 4, but countries at every stage of development are confronted with the challenge of not having sufficiently robust data ecosystems to capture all of the information required for monitoring.

Governments are now setting their national education priorities to determine how they can align national action plans with the SDG 4 targets. The road ahead is no longer the straightforward path carved by the MDGs, which focused on universal primary education and gender parity, but a bustling freeway with confusing signposts. SDG 4 is composed of a myriad of targets, indicators, policy priorities that address national, regional and global concerns.

How do we make progress when there are so many unpaved routes? Where do we start? To what extent can we build upon or reinforce what has already been established? A national roadmap requires an agreed starting point and destination. This report offers an overview of the landscape and identifies where data are available in an effort to clarify our goals and expectations for success by 2030, but there is much more work to be done.

In the first instance, the education community must acknowledge that reaching SDG 4 will depend on many stakeholders fulfilling their responsibilities. As the Global Education Monitoring Report 2017/18 Accountability in Education highlighted, ensuring inclusive, equitable and good quality education is a collective enterprise that demands all actors make a concerted effort to uphold their responsibilities (UNESCO, 2017a). Governments are encouraged to align their existing education sector plans, strategies and data systems with requirements of other public, and also private, stakeholders, such as labour market relevant learning.

Effective coordination and resource are crucial to the attainment of SDG 4. In Asia-Pacific, the Regional Thematic Working Group (RTWG)-Education 2030+ serves as the overall coordination group in supporting countries to achieve SDG 4. This working group brings partners and stakeholders together to ensure synergy and collaboration in support of SDG 4 at the regional, sub-regional and national level. Through the RTWG-Education 2030+, a "Regional Roadmap for the SDG 4-Education 2030 Agenda in Asia and the Pacific" has been collaboratively prepared to articulate the region's intentions and necessary actions to achieve the education agenda in the context of lifelong learning. It envisions facilitating coordination, cooperation and partnerships among stakeholders within and beyond education and to provide strategic guidance for Member States in planning, implementing and monitoring SDG 4 until 2030. It lays down the regional key milestones into five phases and key areas of regional support, commenced in 2015 and ending in 2030 as below (Annex D). It must be noted that these are only indicative timeframes, and they will be continuously reviewed and updated depending on the overall progress of the region. More details of the roadmap and the focus of technical support to Member States for each phase are found in the elaborated SDG 4 roadmap in a separate document (UNESCO/RTWG, 2018).

PHASE I (2015-2016): Foundation Building

Phase I focused on advocacy and capacity building activities at the regional and national levels. The purpose was to familiarize Member States with the SDG 4-Education 2030 Agenda to enhance understanding of the Agenda by unpacking SDG 4, its targets, the global level indicators and indicative strategies as provided in the Framework for Action (E2030 FFA, 2016). Subsequently, Member States were enabled to contextualize SDG 4 to national requirements.

PHASE II (2017-2019) Clarification of Targets; Towards Implementation, and 1st Progress Review for the region

This phase continues to clarify contents of the SDG 4 targets in order to achieve in-depth understanding of concepts, definitions, data requirements and linkages between the targets. During this phase, the 1st regional progress review on SDG 4 will be undertaken to contribute to the first High-Level Political Forum (HLPF) Global Monitoring of SDG 4 in 2019. By end of this phase, countries should be well prepared to start fully implementing the localized SDG 4-Education 2030 Agenda.

PHASE III (2020-2023): Implementation and Midterm Review for the region

During Phase III, Member States will have integrated and progressed in their planning for and implementation of SDG 4. Therefore, the focus of the regional support and coordination will be on monitoring the SDG 4 implementation. Member States will be supported to prepare for the regional mid-term review of SDG 4 in 2022, contributing to the 2nd HLPF Global Monitoring of SDG 4 in 2023.

PHASE IV (2024-2027): Acceleration/Reviewing Success and Remaining Challenges

Based on the results of the regional midterm review and the 2nd global monitoring, Member States' priorities will be identified and closely monitored. The remaining challenges will be addressed to ensure target attainments. As such, this phase will be dedicated to accelerating SDG 4 efforts in the region. A regional campaign on SDG 4 acceleration will also be launched. Sub-regional or country level workshops on SDG 4 monitoring will continue providing implementation support and prepare for the final review of SDG 4.

PHASE V (2028-2030): Into the Future

The final phase will focus on shaping the next agenda beyond 2030. Based on the region's final SDG 4 review, consultations and dialogue at regional and national levels, and on reflecting on lessons learned, trends and developments across sectors and in relation to world development progress, the next education agenda will be identified. The collective voice of the Asia-Pacific region and its key priorities in education will be documented and endorsed at the highest level for further contribution to global level discussions and decisions.

3.3 Partnership, collaboration and network development

The Asia-Pacific Regional Network of SDG 4-Education 2030 National Coordinator was established in 2015 to exchange communication and good practices in SDG 4 implementation and monitoring among Member States. UNESCO and UNICEF as co-chairs of the RTWG-Education 2030+, also take a seat as members in this regional network. The network of national coordinators has served since then as the first point of contact for the RTWG-Education 2030+ and its partners in coordinating and supporting country level SDG 4-Education 2030 initiatives.

However, there are various regional organizations working on different areas of education and monitoring. Those organizations have been providing various supports to Member States in their national capacity development. To harmonize those efforts, there is a need to set up a regional partnership mechanism in education monitoring. The RTWG-Education 2030+ can serve as a platform to develop such a mechanism.

The RTWG-Education 2030+ as a regional platform brings together members of four sub-regional organizations, namely the South East Asia Ministers of Education Organization (SEAMEO), Association of South Asian Nations (ASEAN), South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) and the Pacific Island Forum (PIF). The roles of these sub-regional bodies in monitoring SDG 4 is to facilitate countries' priorities, issues, challenges and effective practices and to systematically report at the regional and global level.

These regional and national mechanisms play important role in bridging global and national initiatives and ensuring that global level is aware of regional realities and national priorities and vice versa. As monitoring SDG 4 progress in this region is a challenge, it would require strong partnerships and collaboration that goes beyond existing modalities within and outside education.

Asia-Pacific will conduct at least three progress reviews on SDG 4 between 2018-2028. These regional reviews will inform both the Global Education Meeting (GEM) and the High-Level Political Forum (HLPF) Global Monitoring on SDGs scheduled for 2019, 2023 and 2027.

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Annexes

Annex A

Sub-Regions and Countries Coverage

This report present data for 49 Member States and Associate Members in the Asia-Pacific region, which have been grouped into the following sub-regions:

- **Central Asia** (5 countries):
  Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan

- **East Asia** (18 countries/territories):
  Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, China, China, Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, China, Macao Special Administrative Region, Democratic People's Republic of Korea, Indonesia, Japan, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Malaysia, Mongolia, Myanmar, Philippines, Republic of Korea, Singapore, Thailand, Timor-Leste, Viet Nam

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

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

In some graphics, the countries' names have been abbreviated. The countries are listed below:

China, Hong Kong Special Administrative Region	**China, Hong Kong SAR**
China, Macao Special Administrative Region	**China, Macao SAR**
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	**Korea, DPR**
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	**Iran, Islamic Rep.**
Lao People's Democratic Republic	**Lao PDR**
Micronesia (Federated States of)	**Micronesia**
Papua New Guinea	**PNG**
Republic of Korea	**Korea, Rep.**

Annex B

Definitions

The definitions are derived from various sources as indicated. Where no reference is indicated the definition is derived from the multilingual UIS online glossary. More definitions, as well as data requirements, data source, interpretation and limitations can be found online at uis.unesco.org/en/glossary.

COMPLETION RATE

The completion rate refers to the percentage of a cohort of children or young people aged three to five years above the intended age for the last grade of each level of education who have completed that grade. The data can be obtained from population censuses and household surveys that collect data on the highest level of education completed by children and young people in a household, through self- or household declaration.

INTENDED ENTRANCE AGE

The intended entrance age to the last grade of each level of education is the age at which pupils would enter the grade had they started school at the official primary entrance age, had studied full-time and had progressed without repeating or skipping a grade (UIS, 2017c).

KEY TERMS ON "VALUES" INCLUDE:

Self-awareness: personal needs/concerns/hopes/aspirations/fears, an understanding of personal attributes/competencies, inner peace; justice, responsibility: values for social justice/equity/responsibility, living with compassion; democratic participation: active/participating member of society, democratic governance; appreciation for diversity: respecting/appreciating racial/sexual/ cultural diversity; tolerance: creating/cultivating an environment of tolerance, acceptance of cultural diversity/forms of expressions/ways of being human, tolerant; attitudes of care, compassion, dialogue, respect: ability to feel and share emotions, empathy, to aid others, concern for others and the environment; solidarity, global solidarity, common humanity: intercultural/local/national/ regional/global solidarity, binding people together; humanity as identity: common humanity, global/international identity; nation as identity: national identity, patriotism/nationalism, motherland; antidiscrimination, anti-racism: attitude for anti-discrimination/anti-racism; curiosity: healthy curiosity, desire to know/to learn; resilience, coping with change: to cope with change/uncertainty/disasters, education for disaster risk reduction (compare UNESCO MGIEP, 2017).

KEY TERMS ON "BEHAVIOUR" INCLUDE:

Environmentally sustainable lifestyles: sustainable living, using less natural resources, taking personal responsibility for the environment, demonstrating conservation/protection/restoration, living in harmony with Earth; socially/ethically responsible consumption: awareness of social/environmental/cultural implications of products, responsible consumer; civic participation: active citizenship, civic engagement, constructive participation, community volunteering, participation at local/national/global levels, participating in all aspects of society/community; participation in civic protest: encouraging peaceful participation in protest against inequalities, signing petitions, demonstrating; engagement in socio-political debates: participating in socio-political debates/discussions for local/national relevance (online or offline); action on issues of global reach: demonstrating solutions to an issue, showing alternatives, revealing existing problems, taking non-violent actions (compare UNESCO MGIEP, 2017).

LITERACY

Literacy is defined as the ability to identify, understand, interpret, create, communicate and compute using printed and written materials associated with diverse contexts. Literacy involves a continuum of learning in enabling individuals to achieve their goals, develop their knowledge and potential and participate fully in community and society (UNESCO, 2005).

NUMERACY

Numeracy connotes different things to different people. Common themes, however, are found in international assessments: They capture a continuum of skills, focus on competencies to effectively engage with quantitative tasks in everyday life in a variety of context, and refer to a broader set of knowledge and skills to process, interpret and communicate numerical information than just the ability to count, estimate and measure (Evans, 2000; UNESCO, 2016c).

DIGITAL DIVIDE

The digital divide refers to people, countries or regions that have access to the Internet and those that do not. A lack of access accounts as being disadvantaged to those that have access because it grants availability of knowledge that can be found online. (NTIA, 1999, Norris, 2001).

ISCED – INTERNATIONAL STANDARD CLASSIFICATION OF EDUCATION

The International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) is the reference classification for organizing education programmes and related qualifications by education levels and fields. ISCED is a product of international agreement and adopted formally by the General Conference of UNESCO Member States. In ISCED, an education programme is defined as a coherent set or sequence of educational activities or communication designed and organized to achieve pre-determined learning objectives or accomplish a specific set of educational tasks over a sustained period (UIS, 2012).

EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION (ISCED 0)

- **ISCED 01**

ISCED 01 refers to early childhood developmental education designed for younger children below three years or below 36 months of age. The educational properties of early childhood educational development are characterized by a learning environment that is visually stimulating and language-rich. These programmes foster self-expression, with an emphasis on language acquisition and the use of language for meaningful communication. There are opportunities for active play, so that children can exercise their coordination and motor skills under supervision and through interaction with staff.

- **ISCED 02**

ISCED 02 refers to pre-primary education designed for children from the age of three years up to the age when they start primary education at usually five years of age. The educational properties of pre-primary education are characterized by interaction with peers and educators, through which children improve their use of language and social skills, start to develop logical and reasoning skills, and talk through their thought processes. They are also introduced to alphabetical and mathematical concepts and encouraged to explore their surrounding world and environment. Supervised gross motor activities (i.e. physical exercise through games and other activities) and play-based activities can be used as learning opportunities to promote social interactions with peers and to develop skills, autonomy and school readiness.

TERTIARY EDUCATION

- **ISCED 05**

ISCED 5 refers to short-cycle tertiary education that are often designed to provide participants with professional knowledge and skills. Typically, they are practically-based, occupationally-specific and prepare students to enter the labour market. They can also serve as a pathway to other tertiary education programmes. Typically, these are programmes below the bachelor level or equivalent.

- **ISCED 06**

Bachelor's programmes or the equivalent fall under ISCED 6 and are often designed to provide intermediate academic and/or professional competencies that lead to a first academic degree or equivalent qualification. Programmes are typically theoretically-based, but may include practical components, and are informed by state of the art research and/or best professional practice.

- **ISCED 07**

Under ISCED7, master's programmes or equivalent are designed to provide advanced academic and/or professional competencies, leading to a second, higher degree or equivalent qualification. Programmes at this level may have substantial research components. These programmes are theoretically-based, but may include practical components, and are informed by state-of-the-art research and/or best professional practice.

- **ISCED 08**

Doctoral programmes or equivalent under ISCED 8 are designed to lead to an advanced research qualification. Programmes at this level are devoted to advanced study and original research and are typically offered only by research-oriented tertiary educational institutions. Doctoral programmes exist in both academic and professional fields.

HEALTH

Health refers to the physio-motoric skills that e.g. allows a child to pick up small objects as well as not being sick to play with its peers (UNICEF, 2017a).

LEARNING

Learning relates to skills needed for the participation in organized learning, such as following simple directions and to exercise them independently (UNICEF, 2017a).

PSYCHOSOCIAL WELL-BEING

Psychosocial well-being relates to socio-emotional aspects, such as getting along well with other. Children do not exercise aggressive behavior, such as kicking, biting or hitting other children, and have an ability for not getting distracted easily (UNICEF, 2017a).

ORGANIZED LEARNING PROGRAMME

An organized learning programme typically consists of a coherent set or sequence of educational activities designed with a holistic approach to support children's early cognitive, physical, social and emotional development and to introduce young children to organized instruction outside the family context. Early childhood and primary education programmes represent examples of such organized learning (UIS, 2017c, UIS, 2012.

STIMULATING HOME LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

A home environment is considered stimulating learning when it refers to reading books to the child, telling stories to the child, singing songs to the child, taking the child outside the home, playing with the child, and/or spending time with the child naming, counting or drawing things (UNICEF, UNICEF Data).

DECENT WORK

Decent work is a concept introduced in 1999 in the Report of the Director General to the International Labour Conference meeting in its 87th Session. (ILO, 1999). This refers to worker rights in terms of safety, remuneration and physical and mental integrity of the worker within conditions that provide them freedom, equality, security and human dignity (UNESCO, 2016c).

ADJUSTED PARITY INDEX

An adjusted parity index - equal to "1" - indicates parity between two compared categories. The adjusted parity index is limited to a range between "0" and "2". The wider the distance from one, either above or below, the greater the disparity between the two values. An adjusted *gender* parity index (GPIA) compares females and males: an adjusted location parity index (LPIA) compares rural and urban location, and an adjusted *wealth* parity index (WPIA) compares the poorest 10% of a population and richest 10% of a population. A value of less than "1" represents disparity in favour of the category in the denominator (males for GPIA; urban for LPIA; richest quintile for WPIA). A value greater than "1" represents disparity in favour of the numerator category (females for GPIA; rural for LPIA; poorest quintile for WPIA).

GROSS ENROLMENT RATIO

The gross enrolment ratio (GER) is the number of students enrolled in a given level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the official school-age population corresponding to the same level of education. For the tertiary level, the population used is the 5-year age group starting from the official secondary school graduation age.

GROSS INTAKE RATIO TO THE LAST GRADE

The gross intake ratio to the last grade is composed of the total number of new entrants into the last grade of primary education or lower secondary education, regardless of age. It is expressed as a percentage of the population at the intended entrance age to the last grade of primary education or lower secondary education (UIS, 2017c).

NET ATTENDANCE RATE

The net attendance rate measures the total number of students in the theoretical age group for a given level of education attending that level at any time during the reference academic year, expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age group. A high net attendance rate denotes a high degree of coverage for the official school-age population.

FUNCTIONAL LITERACY AND NUMERACY SKILLS

'Functional' relates to an individual who can engage in all those activities in which literacy and/or numeracy are required for effective participation that enables him or her to continue using reading, writing and calculating for his or her own development and the community he or she is involved in (UNESCO, 2006).

EDUCATION FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Education for Sustainable Development (ESD) is defined as empowering learners to take informed decisions and responsible actions for environmental integrity, economic viability and a just society, for present and future generations, while respecting cultural diversity. It can take place throughout one's lifetime, and should be seen as an integral part of a quality education (UNESCO, 2014c).

GLOBAL CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

Global Citizenship Education (GCED) is defined as nurturing respect for all, building a sense of belonging to a common humanity and helping learners become responsible and active global citizens. GCED aims to empower learners to assume active roles to face and resolve global challenges and to become proactive contributors to a more peaceful, tolerant, inclusive and secure world (UNESCO, 2013c).

WATER, SANITATION AND HYGIENE (WASH) FACILITIES

(compare UNICEF and WHO, 2017)

- ***Basic drinking water service***

  Basic drinking water service is defined as an improved source of drinking water (piped water, protected well/spring, rainwater, bottled water) on or near the premises and water points are accessible to all users during school hours.

- ***Limited drinking water service***

  Limited drinking water service means there is an improved source (piped water, protected well/spring, rainwater, bottled water), but water it was not available at the time of the survey.

- ***Basic sanitation facilities***

  Basic sanitation facilities are defined as improved, non-open defecation facilities (flush/pour flush, pit latrine with slab, composting toilet), separated for males and females on or near the school.

- ***Limited sanitation facilities***

  Limited sanitation facilities means there are improved facilities (flush/pour flush, pit latrine with slab, composting toilet), but not sex-separated or not usable.

- ***Basic hygiene facilities***

  Basic hygiene facilities are defined as functional handwashing facilities, with the availability of both soap and water for both girls and boys.

- ***Limited hygiene facilities***

  Limited hygiene facilities refer handwashing facilities that have water, but no soap.

SCHOLARSHIPS

Scholarship are defined as the gross disbursement of the total ODA from all donors, directed at scholarships to be awarded by students and trainees from developing countries to study at a higher education institution in donor countries (UN, 2017).

PUPIL-TO-TEACHER RATIO

The pupil-to-teacher ratio (PTR) is average number of pupils per teacher at a given level of education, based on headcounts of both pupils and teachers. It is not a measure of class size or the number of students a teacher faces in the classroom; and all teachers are counted regardless of working hours and teacher absenteeism.

OUTBOUND STUDENTS

Students from a given country studying abroad.

TRANSVERSAL SKILLS

Transversal skills are those typically considered as not specifically related to a particular job, task, academic discipline or area of knowledge but as skills that can be used in a wide variety of situations and work settings (IBE-UNESCO, 2013). These skills are increasingly in high demand for learners to successfully adapt to changes and to lead meaningful and productive lives. There refer to: critical and innovative thinking, interpersonal skills, intrapersonal skills, global citizenship, media and Information literacy and others. 'Others' can include competencies, such as physical health or religious values, that may not fall into one of the other (UNESCO-UNEVOC, TVETipedia Glossary).

INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

Inclusive education aims to change structures and content, including curricula, pedagogy and assessment, to eliminate barriers to and within education (UNESCO, 2017a).

SPECIAL EDUCATION

Special education refers to classes or instruction that is designed for students who are categorized as having special educational needs (UNESCO, 2017a).

Annex C

SDG 4 Targets and Indicators

Target 4.1	By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes
4.1.1	**Proportion of children and young people (a) in Grade 2 or 3; (b) at the end of primary education; and (c) at the end of lower secondary education achieving at least a minimum proficiency level in (i) reading and (ii) mathematics, by sex**
4.1.2	Administration of a nationally-representative learning assessment (a) in Grade 2 or 3; (b) at the end of primary education; and (c) at the end of lower secondary education
4.1.3	Gross intake ratio to the last grade (primary education, lower secondary education)
4.1.4	Completion rate (primary education, lower secondary education, upper secondary education)
4.1.5	Out-of-school rate (primary education, lower secondary education, upper secondary education)
4.1.6	Percentage of children over-age for grade (primary education, lower secondary education)
4.1.7	Number of years of (a) free and (b) compulsory primary and secondary education guaranteed in legal frameworks

Target 4.2	By 2030, ensure that all girls and boys have access to quality early childhood development, care and pre-primary education so that they are ready for primary education
4.2.1	**Proportion of children under 5 years of age who are developmentally on track in health, learning and psychosocial well-being, by sex**
4.2.2	**Participation rate in organized learning (one year before the official primary entry age), by sex**
4.2.3	Percentage of children under 5 years experiencing positive and stimulating home learning environments
4.2.4	Gross early childhood enrolment ratio in (a) pre-primary education and (b) early childhood educational development
4.2.5	Number of years of (a) free and (b) compulsory pre-primary education guaranteed in legal frameworks

Target 4.3	By 2030, ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university
4.3.1	**Participation rate of youth and adults in formal and non-formal education and training in the previous 12 months, by sex**
4.3.2	Gross enrolment ratio for tertiary education, by sex
4.3.3	Participation rate in technical and vocational programmes (15- to 24-year-olds), by sex

Target 4.4	By 2030, substantially increase the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship
4.4.1	**Proportion of youth/adults with information and communications technology (ICT) skills, by type of skill**
4.4.2	Percentage of youth/adults who have achieved at least a minimum level of proficiency in digital literacy skills
4.4.3	Youth/adult educational attainment rates by age group, economic activity status, level of education and programme orientation

Target 4.5	By 2030, eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training for the vulnerable, including persons with disabilities, indigenous peoples and children in vulnerable situations
4.5.1	**Parity indices (female/male, rural/urban, bottom/top wealth quintiles and others such as disability status, indigenous peoples and conflict-affected, as data become available) for all education indicators on this list that can be disaggregated**
4.5.2	Percentage of students in primary education whose first or home language is the language of instruction
4.5.3	Extent to which explicit formula-based policies reallocate education resources to disadvantaged populations
4.5.4	Education expenditure per student by level of education and source of funding
4.5.5	Percentage of total aid to education allocated to least developed countries

Target 4.6	By 2030, ensure that all youth and a substantial proportion of adults, both men and women, achieve literacy and numeracy
4.6.1	**Percentage of the population in a given age group achieving at least a fixed level of proficiency in functional (a) literacy and (b) numeracy skills, by sex**
4.6.2	Youth/adult literacy rate
4.6.3	Participation rate of illiterate youth/adults in literacy programmes

Target 4.7	**By 2030, ensure that all learners acquire the knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development, including, among others, through education for sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence, global citizenship and appreciation of cultural diversity and of culture's contribution to sustainable development**
4.7.1	**Extent to which (i) global citizenship education and (ii) education for sustainable development, including gender equality and human rights, are mainstreamed at all levels in: (a) national education policies (b) curricula (c) teacher education and (d) student assessments**
4.7.2	Percentage of schools that provide life skills-based HIV and sexuality education
4.7.3	Extent to which the framework on the World Programme on Human Rights Education is implemented nationally (as per the UNGA Resolution 59/113)
4.7.4	Percentage of students by age group (or education level) showing adequate understanding of issues relating to global citizenship and sustainability
4.7.5	Percentage of 15-year-old students showing proficiency in knowledge of environmental science and geoscience

Target 4.a	**Build and upgrade education facilities that are child, disability and gender sensitive and provide safe, non-violent, inclusive and effective learning environments for all**
4.a.1	**Proportion of schools with access to: (a) electricity; (b) the Internet for pedagogical purposes; (c) computers for pedagogical purposes; (d) adapted infrastructure and materials for students with disabilities; (e) basic drinking water; (f) single-sex basic sanitation facilities; and (g) basic handwashing facilities (as per the WASH indicator definitions)**
4.a.2	Percentage of students experiencing bullying, corporal punishment, harassment, violence, sexual discrimination and abuse
4.a.3	Number of attacks on students, personnel and institutions

Target 4.b	**By 2020, substantially expand globally the number of scholarships available to developing countries, in particular least developed countries, small island developing States and African countries, for enrolment in higher education, including vocational training and information and communications technology, technical, engineering and scientific programmes, in developed countries and other developing countries**
4.b.1	**Volume of official development assistance flows for scholarships by sector and type of study**
4.b.2	Number of higher education scholarships awarded by beneficiary country

Target 4.c	By 2030, substantially increase the supply of qualified teachers, including through international cooperation for teacher training in developing countries, especially least developed countries and small island developing States
4.c.1	**Proportion of teachers in: (a) pre-primary education; (b) primary education; (c) lower secondary education; and (d) upper secondary education who have received at least the minimum organized teacher training (e.g. pedagogical training) pre-service or in-service required for teaching at the relevant level in a given country, by sex**
4.c.2	Pupil-trained teacher ratio by education level
4.c.3	Percentage of teachers qualified according to national standards by level and type of institution
4.c.4	Pupil-qualified teacher ratio by education level
4.c.5	Average teacher salary relative to other professions requiring a comparable level of qualification
4.c.6	Teacher attrition rate by education level
4.c.7	Percentage of teachers who received in-service training in the last 12 months by type of training

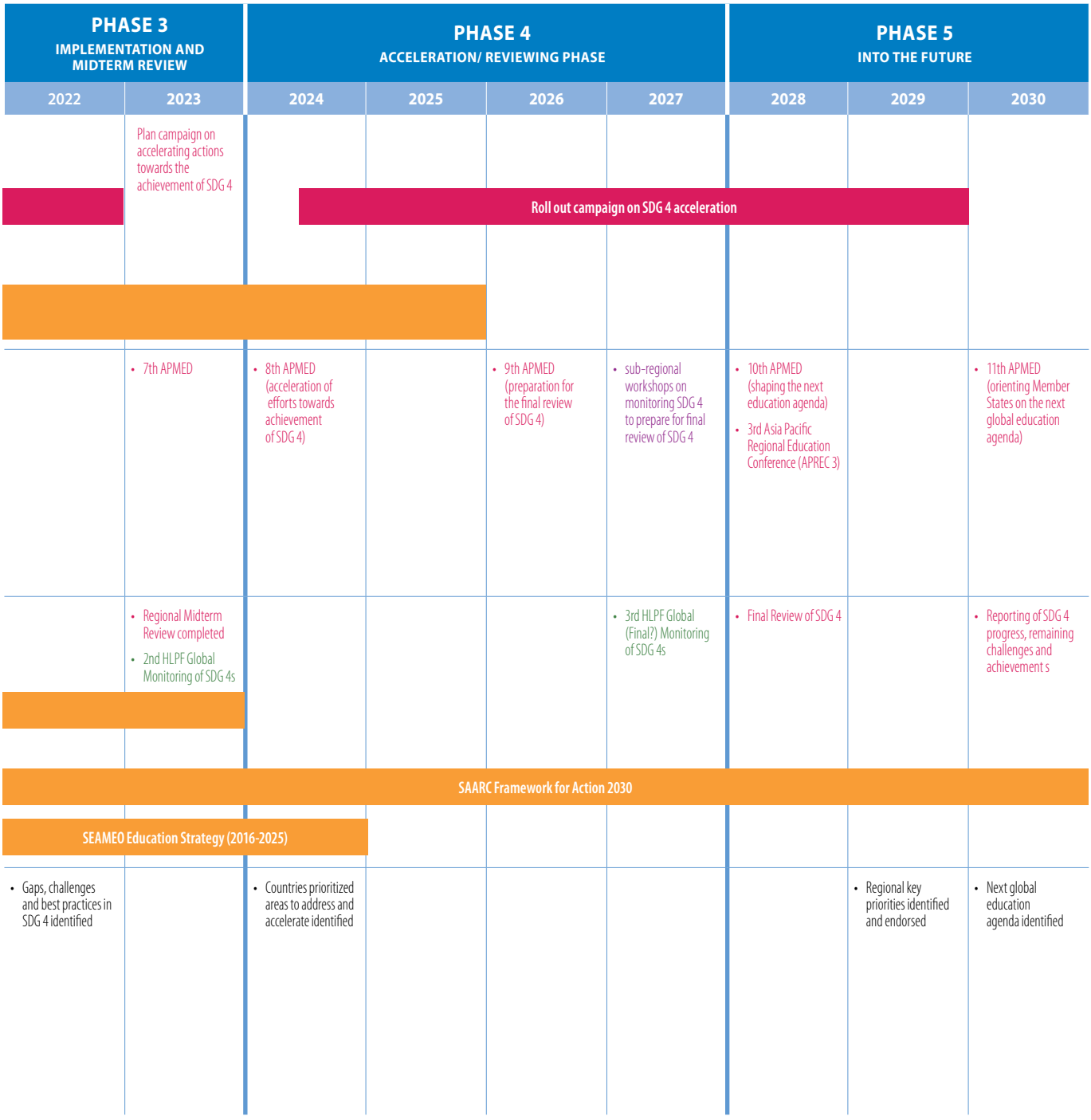
Note: Bold indicators represent the SDG 4 global indicators.
Source: http://sdg4monitoring.uis.unesco.org/quickdefinitions, accessed in August 2017.

Annex D

Asia Pacific Regional Support Milestones

	PHASE I FOUNDATION BUILDING		PHASE 2 CLARIFICATION OF TARGETS, TOWARDS IMPLEMENTATION AND 1ST PROGRESS REVIEW			PHASE 3 IMPLEMENTATION AND MIDTERM REVIEW	
	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021
ADVOCACY/ INFORMATION AND KNOWLEDGE EXCHANGE			Develop/ finalize SDG 4 advocacy/ outreach strategy	Develop/ finalize media training toolkit for reporting on SDG 4	Sub-regional workshops with media		
			Roll-out SDG 4 advocacy/outreach strategy				
			Develop and manage regional/ sub-regional portals for information sharing, collaboration, strategic and policy dialogue				
				Undertake collaborative research, compile promising practices and innovations, organize policy dialogues, produce SAARC journal			
CAPACITY DEVELOPMENT	• 1st APMED (orienting member states on SDG 4)	• 2nd APMED (Establishing the regional network of SDG 4 national coordinators and integrating SDG 4 into plans)	• 3rd APMED (SDG 4.7) • Capacity Development Training on Planning • SDG 4 Training programme / for strengthening institutional and human capacity	• 4th APMED (SDG 4.3 and 4.4) • 3rd ECCE Policy Forum (SDG 4.2) • Capacity Development Training on Monitoring SDG 4	• 5th APMED (SDG 4.1 and 4.6) • Follow-up sub-regional workshops on 4.3/4.4 • Asia-Africa Inter Regional Seminar on Education Policy and Governance	• 2nd Asia Pacific Regional Education Ministers' Conference on SDG 4 (APREC 2)	• 6th APMED • sub-regional workshops on monitoring SDG 4 to prepare for MTR
				Develop training modules on SDG 4 monitoring (statistical capacity)			
MONITORING/ ANALYSIS			• 29 indicators established • Regional benchmarks / targets for T4.7 established	• Regional Thematic Review of SDG 4.3 and 4.4) • 1st SDG 4 Progress Review • Global Education Meeting	• 1st HLPF Global Monitoring of SDG 4	• Sub-regional reporting of SDG 4 support to countries	• Regional Midterm Review process starts
					Pacific Regional Education Framework (2018-2023)		
			ASEAN, SAARC, PIFS Develop regional monitoring mechanism to guide/support countries;		**ASEAN Education Workplan (2015-2020)**		
			Support assessment through SEA-PLM; develop a regional mechanism for reviewing learning assessment systems and processes in SAARC countries, support quality assurance				
OUTCOMES	• All countries have a common understanding of SDG 4, targets and the Framework for Action • All countries oriented on the thematic indicators • National and regional mechanisms and partnership modalities proposed and defined	• Regional network of national coordinators officiated	• All countries have a better understanding of Target 4.7 • Regional targets for 4.7 agreed • All countries agree on coordination mechanisms for SDG 4 at the regional and national levels • TOR of SDG 4 national coordinators endorsed	• All countries' capacity enhanced to undertake SDG 4.3/4.4 monitoring • Region's input to GEM and HLPF Global Monitoring provided	• All countries have a better understanding of SDG 4 and its targets and how to plan, implement, monitor and report on SDG 4 • Selected countries in the region successfully develop high-quality National Voluntary Reports on SDGs, focusing on education for HLPF		

LEGEND Global led | Regional/TWG-led | Regional/sub-regional activities led by UIS-AIMS | Sub-regional bodies-led


PHASE 3
IMPLEMENTATION AND MIDTERM REVIEW
PHASE 4
ACCELERATION/ REVIEWING PHASE
PHASE 5
INTO THE FUTURE
2022
2023
2024
2025
2026
2027
2028
2029
2030
Plan campaign on accelerating actions towards the achievement of SDG 4
Roll out campaign on SDG 4 acceleration
• 7th APMED
• 8th APMED (acceleration of efforts towards achievement of SDG 4)
• 9th APMED (preparation for the final review of SDG 4)
• sub-regional workshops on monitoring SDG 4 to prepare for final review of SDG 4
• 10th APMED (shaping the next education agenda)
• 3rd Asia Pacific Regional Education Conference (APREC 3)
• 11th APMED (orienting Member States on the next global education agenda)
• Regional Midterm Review completed
• 2nd HLPF Global Monitoring of SDG 4s
• 3rd HLPF Global (Final?) Monitoring of SDG 4s
• Final Review of SDG 4
• Reporting of SDG 4 progress, remaining challenges and achievement s
SAARC Framework for Action 2030
SEAMEO Education Strategy (2016-2025)
• Gaps, challenges and best practices in SDG 4 identified
• Countries prioritized areas to address and accelerate identified
• Regional key priorities identified and endorsed
• Next global education agenda identified

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Annex E

Statistical Tables

The following symbols are used in the Statistical Tables:

Symbol	Interpretation
…	No data available
**	For country data: UIS estimation For regional averages: Partial imputation due to incomplete country coverage (between 25% to 75% of the population)
*	National estimation
-	Magnitude nil
.	Not applicable

Source: All Statistical Tables refer to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) database, Education Data Release of February 2018. When it applies, foonotes under each Statistical Table will mention the primary data source.

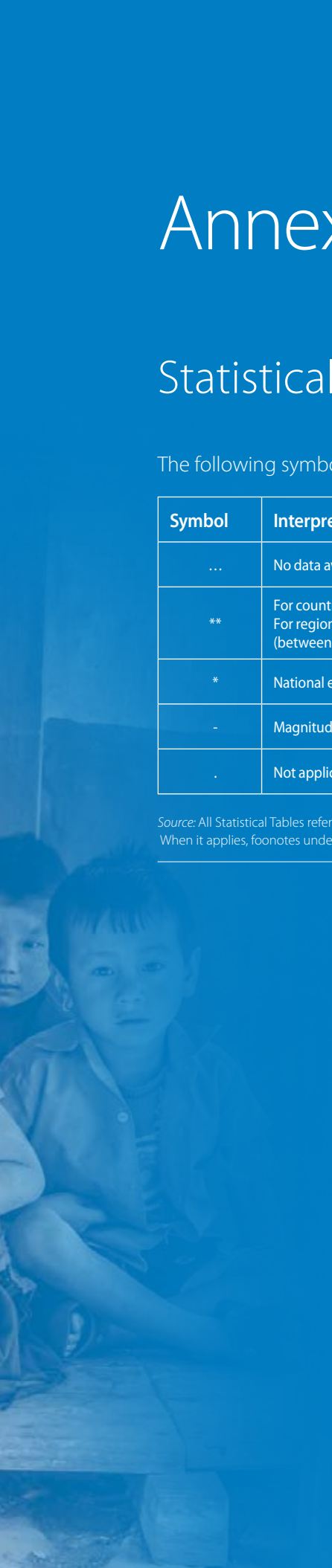

Table 1: Primary and secondary education provition, participation, completion and learning

Region, Country or Territory	Reference year	Gross enrolment ratio (both sexes)			Net enrolment rate (both sexes)			Rate of out-of-school children of primary school age			Rate of out-of-school adolescent of lower secondary school age		
		Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	MF	M	F	MF	M	F
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
CENTRAL ASIA													
Kazakhstan	2016	108[+1]	112[+1]	115[+1]	86[+1]	88[+1]	76[+1]	1[+1]	2[+1]	-[+1]	...	...	...
	2000	100[+2]	95[+2]	...	90[+2]	88[+2]	...	2[**, +2]	2[**, +2]	2[**, +2]	1[**, +2]	1[**, +2]	2[**, +2]
Kyrgyzstan	2016	106	103	86	89	92	55	2	1	2	1	1	1
	2000	96[+2]	93[+2]	62[+2]	87[+2]	...	...	6[**, +2]	6[**, +2]	7[**, +2]	...	...	...
Tajikistan	2016	99[+1]	96[+1]	...	98[+1]	96[+1]	...	1[+1]	1[+1]	2[+1]	...	...	...
	2000	97[+2]	87[+2]	52[+2]	97[+2]	...	...	3[+2]	1[+2]	6[+2]	13[+2]	8[+2]	19[+2]
Turkmenistan	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	2016	103[+1]	95[+1]	89[+1]	96[+1]	93[+1]	82[+1]	1[+1]	1[+1]	2[+1]	4[+1]	4[+1]	5[+1]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
EAST ASIA													
Brunei Darussalam	2016	107	104	89	94	76	73	3	3	4	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cambodia	2016	110	66	...	93	47	...	7	7	7	...	...	...
	2000	107	23	12	92	14	8	7	2	13	85	83	88
China	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	105[3]	82[3]	32[3]	89[3]	...	...	11[3]	10[3]	12[3]	...	...	...
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	2016	...	91[1]	95[1]	...	57[1]	57[1]	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Hong Kong SAR of China	2016	107	108	98	97[**]	92[*]	77[*]	2[**]	1[**]	3[**]	1[**]	...	...
	2000	97[4]	...	...	93[4]	...	...	7[4]	8[4]	7[4]	8[4]	9[4]	7[4]
Indonesia	2016	104[1]	97[1]	77[1]	...	78[1]	57[1]	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	110[+2]	71[+2]	43[+2]	91[+2]	...	...	5[+2]	4[+2]	5[+2]	28[+2]	27[+2]	28[+2]
Japan	2016	99[1]	102[1]	102[1]	99[1]	100[1]	96[1]	1[1]	1[1]	1[1]	-[1]	...	...
	2000	99[+2]	99[+2]	100[+2]	99[+2]	...	...	1[+2]	1[+2]	1[+2]	1[+2]	...	...
Lao People's Democratic Republic	2016	110	79	49	95	57	32	5	5	6	23	22	23
	2000	106[+2]	49[+2]	27[+2]	76[+2]	24[+2]	11[+2]	24[+2]	20[+2]	27[+2]	28[+2]	21[+2]	34[+2]
Macao, China	2016	106	111	91	99	83	62	1	2	1	6	8	4
	2000	103[+2]	102[+2]	67[+2]	85[+2]	63[+2]	41[+2]	15[+2]	15[+2]	16[+2]	10[+2]	9[+2]	11[+2]
Malaysia	2016	103	89	82	99	87	61	1	1	1	13	14	11
	2000	97[+2]	89[+2]	...	97[+2]	...	...	3[**, +2]	3[**, +2]	3[**, +2]	...	...	...
Mongolia	2016	104	88	116	98	82	84	1	1	2	3	3	3
	2000	102[+2]	83[+2]	61[+2]	90[+2]	76[+2]	49[+2]	7[+2]	8[+2]	6[+2]	17[+2]	21[+2]	12[+2]
Myanmar	2016	112[+1]	69[+1]	44[+1]	100[+1]	60[+1]	34[+1]	-[+1]	...	...	30[+1]	30[+1]	30[+1]
	2000	100[+2]	45[+2]	31[+2]	91[+2]	37[+2]	22[+2]	9[+2]	8[+2]	9[+2]	52[+2]	50[+2]	54[+2]
Philippines	2016	113[1]	91[1]	79[1]	96[1]	62[1]	27[1]	4[1]	4[1]	3[1]	6[1]	8[1]	4[1]
	2000	108[+2]	84[+2]	62[+2]	90[+2]	...	...	10[+2]	11[+2]	9[+2]	10[+2]	12[+2]	8[+2]
Republic of Korea	2016	98[1]	102[1]	98[1]	97[1]	97[1]	95[1]	3[1]	3[1]	2[1]	2[1]	2[1]	1[1]
	2000	99[+2]	101[+2]	91[+2]	98[+2]	...	...	2[+2]	2[+2]	2[+2]	1[+2]	...	...
Singapore	2016	108	101	77	95	67	68	4	5	2	2	2	2
	2000	100[+1]	99[+1]	72[+1]	86[+1]	48[+1]	63[+1]	5[+1]	7[+1]	3[+1]	24[+1]	24[+1]	24[+1]
Thailand	2016	101[1]	121[1]	120[1]	90[1]	75[1]	63[1]	10[1]	8[1]	13[1]	12[1]	11[1]	13[1]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Timor-Leste	2016	109	90	59	80	47	28	18	20	17	12	12	11
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Viet Nam	2016	107[3]	91[3]	...	98[**, -3]	...	...	2[**, -3]	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	106[+1]	82[+1]	...	96[+1]	72[+1]	...	4[**, +1]	...	...	15[**, +1]	...	...
PACIFIC													
Australia	2016	101	121	218	97	90	79	3	4	3	1	1	1
	2000	101[+2]	...	...	94[+2]	...	...	6[**, +2]	7[**, +2]	4[**, +2]	...	...	...
Cook Islands	2016	104[*, -1]	99[*, -1]	76[*, -1]	94[*, -1]	93[*, -1]	69[*, -1]	4[*, -1]	...	...	2[**, -1]	...	...
	2000	105[*]	89[*]	58[*]	93[**]	...	...	6[**]	7[**]	4[**]	...	...	...
Fiji	2016	105[4]	98[4]	76[4]	97[4]	84[4]	63[4]	1[4]	...	...	4[4]	...	...
	2000	104[1]	94[1]	57[1]	94[1]	84[1]	45[1]	6[1]	6[1]	5[1]	4[1]	...	...
Kiribati	2016	105	113	...	97	79	...	2	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	118[3]	...	...	99[3]	...	...	1[3]	...	...	...	...	...
Marshall Islands	2016	89	80	55	77	61	33	21	24	19	23[**]	23[**]	23[**]
	2000	120[+2]	104[+2]	57[+2]	96[+2]	51[+2]	43[+2]	2[+2]	1[+2]	3[+2]	2[+2]	...	...
Micronesia (Federated States of)	2016	96[1]	81[1]	...	84[1]	52[1]	...	16[1]	17[1]	15[1]	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Out-of-school (000), both sexes		Gross intake ratio to the last grade (both sexes)		Completion rate (both sexes) [1]			Percentage of pupils who are at least 2 years over-age in primary education	Number of years of (i) free and (ii) compulsory primary and secondary education guaranteed in legal frameworks		Region, Country or Territory
Children	Adolescents	Primary	Lower secondary	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	MF	Free	Compul-sory	
(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(21)	
										CENTRAL ASIA
11 [+1] 26 [m, +2]	... 23 [m, +2]	109 [+1] 96 [+2]	110 [+1] 97 [+2]	100 [-1] ...	100 [-1] ...	94 [-1] ...	- [+1] 1 [+2]	10 9 [+2]	9 9 [+2]	Kazakhstan
6.8 30 [m, +2]	5.3 ...	105 94 [+2]	93 94 [+2]	99 [-2] ...	96 [-2] ...	81 [-2] ...	- - [+2]	11 ...	9 9 [+2]	Kyrgyzstan
11 [+1] 22 [+2]	... 113 [+2]	92 [+1] 98 [+2]	94 [+1] 65 [+2]	98 [-4] ...	90 [-4] ...	62 [-4] ...	- [+1] - [+2]	9 ...	9 9 [+2]	Tajikistan
... ...	... ...	... ...	... ...	100 ...	100 ...	96 ...	... ...	12 9 [+2]	12 9 [+2]	Turkmenistan
34 [+1] ...	108 [+1] ...	98 [+1] 102 [+2]	91 [+1] 101 [+2]	... ...	... ...	... ...	- [+1] ...	12 11 [+2]	12 11 [+2]	Uzbekistan
										EAST ASIA
1.3 ...	... ...	102 [-1] 118 [+2]	101 ...	... ...	... ...	... ...	1 ...	- - [+2]	9 - [+2]	Brunei Darussalam
88 [m, -1] 154	119 [m, -1] 890	92 60 [+2]	47 24 [+2]	72 [-2] ...	41 [-2] ...	21 [-2] ...	21 23	9 - [+2]	- - [+2]	Cambodia
... 14,052 [3]	... ...	100 [-3] 90 [-3]	102 [-3] 75 [-3]	... ...	... ...	... ...	... ...	9 9 [+2]	9 9 [+2]	China
... ...	... ...	... ...	... ...	... ...	... ...	... ...	... ...	10 10 [+2]	10 10 [+2]	Democratic People's Republic of Korea
5.9 [m] 35 [-4]	1.9 [m] 34 [-4]	103 94 [-4]	100 89 [+2]	... ...	... ...	... ...	1 [m] 5 [-, +2]	12 12 [+2]	9 9 [+2]	Hong Kong SAR of China
2,360 1,204 [+2]	... 3,668 [+2]	99 95 [+2]	95 69 [+2]	... ...	... ...	... ...	- ...	12 6 [+2]	9 6 [+2]	Indonesia
81 [-1] 95 [+2]	3.5 [-1] 41 [+2]	102 [-4] 96 [+2]	... ...	... ...	... ...	... ...	- [-1] ...	9 9 [+2]	9 9 [+2]	Japan
40 191 [+2]	129 121 [+2]	100 68 [+2]	67 40 [+2]	67 [-4] ...	35 [-4] ...	25 [-4] ...	16 45 [+2]	5 5 [+2]	5 5 [+2]	Lao People's Democratic Republic
0.32 6.6 [+2]	0.74 2.7 [+2]	102 97 [+2]	97 74 [+2]	... ...	... ...	... ...	3 15 [+2]	12 - [+2]	9 9 [+2]	Macao, China
33 108 [m, +2]	196 ...	101 93 [+2]	84 84 [+2]	... ...	... ...	... ...	- - [+2]	7 - [+2]	6 - [+2]	Malaysia
3.4 16 [+2]	4.6 43 [+2]	94 99 [+2]	... 78 [+2]	98 [-2] ...	89 [-2] ...	80 [-2] ...	1 3 [+2]	12 10 [+2]	12 7 [+2]	Mongolia
22 [+1] 414 [+2]	1,252 [+1] 2,032 [+2]	89 [+1] 79 [+2]	54 [+1] 35 [+2]	83 ...	44 ...	4 ...	7 [+1] 12 [+2]	5 5 [+2]	5 5 [+2]	Myanmar
483 [-1] 1,180 [+2]	380 [-1] 574 [+2]	101 [-1] 94 [+2]	83 [-1] 69 [+2]	... 84	... 65	... 60	16 [-1] ...	10 10 [+2]	10 6 [+2]	Philippines
74 [-1] 88 [+2]	26 [-1] 25 [+2]	99 [-1] 95 [+2]	109 [-1] 102 [+2]	... ...	... ...	... ...	- [-1] ...	9 6 [+2]	9 6 [+2]	Republic of Korea
1.1 1.5 [+1]	0.17 2.1 [+1]	105 97 [+2]	99 95 [+2]	... ...	... ...	... ...	8 9 [+1]	8 - [+2]	8 8 [+2]	Singapore
522 [-1] ...	331 [-1] ...	91 [-1] 87 [+1]	79 [-1] ...	99 [-3] 96	85 [-3] 74	56 [-3] 36	4 [-1] ...	12 12 [+2]	9 9 [+2]	Thailand
39 ...	11 ...	95 ...	80 ...	... ...	... ...	... ...	26 ...	9 9 [+2]	9 9 [+2]	Timor-Leste
127 [m, -3] 362 [m, +1]	... 1,082 [m, +1]	105 101 [+2]	88 72 [+2]	97 [-2] ...	83 [-2] ...	55 [-2] ...	1 9 [+2]	5 5 [+2]	9 5 [+2]	Viet Nam
69 113 [m, +2]	6.2 ...	... ...	... ...	... ...	... ...	... ...	- [-1] ...	13 13 [+2]	10 10 [+2]	Australia
0.07 [*, -1] 0.13 [*]	0.02 [*, -1] ...	109 [*] 88 [*, -1]	94 [*] 90 [*, +2]	... ...	... ...	... ...	- 1 [-1]	13 - [+2]	11 10 [+2]	Cook Islands
1.3 [-4] 6.4 [-1]	2.5 [-4] 2.7 [-1]	106 [-1] 102 [+2]	96 [-1] ...	... ...	... ...	... ...	4 [-1] 5 [-1]	- - [+2]	- - [+2]	Fiji
0.30 0.13 [-3]	... ...	100 111 [+2]	93 ...	... ...	... ...	... ...	2 ...	9 - [+2]	9 - [+2]	Kiribati
1.9 0.14 [+2]	1.2 [m] 0.07 [+2]	77 114 [+2]	... 104 [+2]	... ...	... ...	... ...	11 ...	12 8 [+2]	12 8 [+2]	Marshall Islands
2.3 [-1] ...	... ...	... ...	... ...	... ...	... ...	... ...	- [-1] ...	8 8 [+2]	- - [+2]	Micronesia (Federated States of)

Table 1: continued

Region, Country or Territory	Reference year	Gross enrolment ratio (both sexes)			Net enrolment rate (both sexes)			Rate of out-of-school children of primary school age			Rate of out-of-school adolescent of lower secondary school age		
		Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	MF	M	F	MF	M	F
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
PACIFIC													
Nauru	2016	107*	70*	93*	84*	60*	42*	16*	17*	14*	18*	21*	14*
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
New Zealand	2016	99	102	130	98	97	88	1	2	1	2	2	2
	2000	97+2	106+2	131+2	97+2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Niue	2016	133*,-1	119*,-1	95*,-1	...	78*,-1	72*,-1	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Palau	2016	115*,-2	104*,-2	121*,-2	99*,-2	56*,-2	83*,-2	1*,-2	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	2016	112-4	72-4	22-4	84-4	16-4	...	15-4	11-4	18-4	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Samoa	2016	108	101	77	95	67	68	4	5	2	2	2	2
	2000	100+1	99+1	72+1	86+1	48+1	63+1	5+1	7+1	3+1	24+1	24+1	24+1
Solomon Islands	2016	115	80	...	73	25	...	27	28	27	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tokelau	2016	102*	128*	9*	92*	95*	2*	8*	...	...	1*	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tonga	2016	108-2	103-2	55-2	88-2	81-2	31-2	1-2	...	...	4-2	6-2	1-2
	2000	111-1	112-1	92-1	90-1	63-1	24-1	9-1	7-1	12-1	4-1	...	...
Tuvalu	2016	114*,-2	109*,-2	59*,-2	88*,-2	80*,-2	43*,-2	-*,-2	...	...	8*,-2	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	2016	120-1	70-1	34-1	86-1	45-1	22-1	13-1	14-1	12-1	1-1	1-1	1-1
	2000	122+2	45**,+2	32**,+2	98**,+2	...	...	1**,+2	...	...	11**,+2	8**,+2	14**,+2
SOUTH AND WEST ASIA													
Afghanistan	2016	105+1	68+1	41+1	...	54+1	32+1	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bangladesh	2016	119	86	57	...	65	47	...	...	...	11	...	...
	2000	...	69+2	36+2	...	60+2	30+2	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bhutan	2016	95	94	65	81	60	25	17	18	16	16	20	11
	2000	79+1	42+1	12+1	60+1	21+1	...	40+1	37+1	42+1	47+1	45+1	49+1
India	2016	111-3	85-3	56-3	92**,-3	66-3	45**,-3	2**,-3	3**,-3	2**,-3	15**,-3	17**,-3	12**,-3
	2000	95+2	63+2	35+2	79*,+2	...	...	16**,+2	11**,+2	22**,+2	...	...	...
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	2016	109-1	98-1	84-1	99-1	91-1	61-1	1-1	...	...	2-1	3-1	2-1
	2000	99+2	92+2	67+2	93+2	...	...	7+2	5**,+2	9**,+2	...	...	...
Maldives	2016	102	106	...	98	75	...	2	2	1	...	...	...
	2000	128-1	62-1	3-1	96-1	27-1	1-1	4-1	4-1	4-1	11-1	12-1	11-1
Nepal	2016	134+1	93+1	55**,+1	95+1	54+1	37+1	5+1	4+1	7+1	11+1	14+1	8+1
	2000	120	54	21	73**	...	...	27**	20**	35**	...	...	...
Pakistan	2016	98	58	37	78*	55	36	22*	16*	29*	45	41	50
	2000	76*,+2	35*,+2	...	59**,+2	...	...	41**,+2	30**,+2	53**,+2	...	...	...
Sri Lanka	2016	102	98	97	99	96	...	1	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	106+2	99+2	...	100+2	...	...	-+2	...	...	...	...	...
REGIONAL AVERAGES													
World	2016	104	85	68	89**	66**	...	9**	8**	10**	16**	16**	16**
	2000	101+2	75+2	47+2	85+2	...	...	14+2	11**,+2	16**,+2	23**,+2	21**,+2	25**,+2
Asia and the Pacific	2016	107-1	90-1	68-1	93**,-1	72**,-1	...	5**,-1	5**,-1	5**,-1	14**,-1	15**,-1	13**,-1
	2000	101+2	73+2	39+2	88**,+2	...	...	10**,+2	8**,+2	13**,+2	26**,+2	24**,+2	28**,+2
Central Asia	2016	103-1	97-1	94-1	92-1	89-1	...	3-1	3-1	4-1	6**,-1	5**,-1	7**,-1
	2000	100+2	93+2	83**,+2	94**,+2	...	...	3**,+2	2**,+2	3**,+2	5**,+2	5**,+2	6**,+2
East Asia	2016	103	93	80	96**	75**	...	4**	4**	5**	9**	9**	9**
	2000	111+2	80+2	42+2	97**,+2	...	...	2**,+2	2**,+2	3**,+2	17**,+2	17**,+2	17**,+2
Pacific	2016	106-1	102**,-1	99**,-1	93-1	71**,-1	...	7-1	6-1	7-1	2-1	...	...
	2000	92+2	95+2	138+2	84+2	...	...	16+2	14+2	18+2	10+2	11**,+2	9**,+2
South and West Asia	2016	113	84	62	91**	67**	...	6**	5**	6**	17**	18**	16**
	2000	93+2	62+2	35+2	77+2	...	...	19+2	14+2	25+2	38**,+2	33**,+2	43**,+2

Primary sources: [1]UNESCO Institute for Statistics and ECLAC calculations based on nationally-representative household survey data (such as Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey [MICS], Demographic and Health Surveys [DHS], Labour Force Surveys [LFS]).

Out-of-school (000), both sexes		Gross intake ratio to the last grade (both sexes)		Completion rate (both sexes) [1]			Percentage of pupils who are at least 2 years over-age in primary education	Number of years of (i) free and (ii) compulsory primary and secondary education guaranteed in legal frameworks		Region, Country or Territory
Children	Adolescents	Primary	Lower secondary	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	MF	Free	Compul-sory	
(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)	(20)	(21)	(21)	
0.26*	0.15*	120*	77*,-4	...	...	...	-	12	12	Nauru
...	...	87*,+1	32*,+2	...	...	...	...	10+2	10+2	
5.6	5.5	...	...	...	...	...	-	13	10	New Zealand
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	13+2	10+2	
...	...	112*	113*,-1	...	...	...	n	12	11	Niue
...	...	105*,+1	...	...	...	...	...	12+2	11+2	
0.01*,-2	...	96*,-2	105*,-2	...	...	...	14-2	12	12	Palau
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12+2	12+2	
185-4	...	77-4	62-4	...	...	...	...	-	-	Papua New Guinea
...	...	55+2	15-2	...	...	...	...	-+2	-+2	
1.1	0.17	105	99	...	...	...	8	8	8	Samoa
1.5+1	2.1+1	97+2	95+2	...	...	...	9+1	-+2	8+2	
26	...	85-4	63-4	...	...	...	...	-	-	Solomon Islands
...	...	...	46+2	...	...	...	...	-+2	-+2	
0.01*	0.00*	88*	59*	...	...	...	2	...	11	Tokelau
...	...	173*,+2	103*,+2	...	...	...	...	...	-+2	
0.21-2	0.43-2	111-3	...	...	...	...	2-2	8	13	Tonga
1.4-1	0.33-1	106+1	99+1	...	...	...	4+1	6+2	6+2	
0.00*,-2	0.06*,-2	112*,-1	104*,-2	...	...	...	-1	-	8	Tuvalu
...	...	92*,+2	...	...	...	...	...	-+2	-+2	
5.1-1	0.18-1	94-3	53-3	...	...	...	...	-	-	Vanuatu
0.24**,+2	2.1**,+2	106+1	34+1	...	...	...	19+1	-+2	-+2	
...	...	...	...	54-1	37-1	24-1	...	12	9	Afghanistan
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	6+2	
...	2,063-1	98-1	77	80-2	55-2	19-2	4-3	-	5	Bangladesh
...	...	...	59+2	...	...	...	...	...	5+2	
17	9.2	97	79	...	...	...	16	11	-	Bhutan
45+1	29+1	50+1	31+1	...	...	...	52+1	...	-+2	
2,898**,-3	11,109**,-3	96	86	92	81	43	5-3	8	8	India
19,512**,+2	...+2	76+2	53+2	...	...	...	...	-+2	-+2	
41-1	52-1	102-1	94-1	...	...	...	2-1	8	8	Iran (Islamic Republic of)
499+2	...+2	96+2	74+2	...	...	...	11	5+2	5+2	
0.75	...	96-1	104	...	...	...	1	12	-	Maldives
2.4-1	2.6-1	186+2	...	...	...	...	19+2	-+2	-+2	
159+1	222+1	113+1	89+1	83	70	-	37+1	8	-	Nepal
858**	...	72+2	49+2	...	...	...	...	7+2	-+2	
4,901*	5,357	71	54	61-4	46-4	20-4	...	12	12	Pakistan
7,885**,+2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12+2	12+2	
16	...	101	95	...	...	...	-	13	9	Sri Lanka
1.2+2	...	113+2	90+2	...	...	...	...	13+2	9+2	
63,343**	61,118**	90**	77**	...	...	...	...	...	...	World
90,039+2	93,522**,+2	83**,+2	66**,+2	...	...	...	...	...	...	
18,243**,-1	28,418**,-1	94**,-1	86-1	...	...	...	...	...	...	Asia and the Pacific
37,941**,+2	60,098**,+2	84**,+2	68**,+2	...	...	...	...	...	...	
156-1	317**,-1	104-1	97-1	...	...	...	...	...	...	Central Asia
133**,+2	372**,+2	100+2	93+2	...	...	...	...	...	...	
7,245**	7,983**	95**	91**	...	...	...	...	...	...	East Asia
4,374**,+2	21,566**,+2	93**,+2	80**,+2	...	...	...	...	...	...	
269-1	39-1	95**,-3	80**,-3	...	...	...	...	...	...	Pacific
539+2	202+2	91**,+2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
10,278**	18,219**	94	80	...	...	...	...	...	...	South and West Asia
33,032+2	38,471**,+2	74+2	53+2	...	...	...	...	...	...	

Table 2: Early childhood education participation

Region, Country or Territory	Reference year	Participation rate in organized learning (one year before the official primary entry age)			Gross early childhood enrolment ratio in pre-primary education	Gross early childhood enrolment ratio in early childhood educational development
		MF	M	F	MF	MF
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
CENTRAL ASIA						
Kazakhstan	2016	73[+1]	71[+1]	75[+1]	36[+1]	8[+1]
	2000	–	–	–	27[+2]	–
Kyrgyzstan	2016	72	71	74	20	2
	2000	43[+2]	42[+2]	44[+2]	11[+2]	.[+2]
Tajikistan	2016	13[+1]	13[+1]	12[+1]	10[+1]	.[+1]
	2000	–	–	–	8[+2]	–
Turkmenistan	2016	–	–	–	32[-2]	–
	2000	–	–	–	–	–
Uzbekistan	2016	37[+1]	37[+1]	36[+1]	27[+1]	.[+1]
	2000	–	–	–	26[-2]	–
EAST ASIA						
Brunei Darussalam	2016	90	90	90	70	.
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Cambodia	2016	43[-4]	42[-4]	44[-4]	10	...
	2000	...	...	...	6[+2]	-[+2]
China	2016	...	...	...	84	.
	2000	...	...	...	42[+2]	.[+2]
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Hong Kong SAR of China	2016	100[*]	100[*]	100[*]	108	.
	2000	...	...	...	53[-2]	...
Indonesia	2016	96	93	100	19	26
	2000	...	...	...	8[*,+2]	...
Japan	2016	91[-1]	...	...	86[-1]	.[-1]
	2000	96[+2]	...	...	50[+2]	8[+2]
Lao People's Democratic Republic	2016	61	61	62	20	1
	2000	...	...	...	4[+2]	-[+2]
Macao, China	2016	92	93	92	98	.
	2000	89[+2]	90[+2]	89[+2]	89[+2]	.[+2]
Malaysia	2016	86	85	88	94	.
	2000	77[+2]	75[+2]	79[+2]	53[+2]	.[+2]
Mongolia	2016	91	91	92	176	.
	2000	...	...	...	17[+2]	...
Myanmar	2016	...	...	...	10[-2]	...
	2000	...	...	...	1[-1]	...
Philippines	2016	85[-1]	84[-1]	85[-1]	100[-1]	.[-1]
	2000	26[+2]	26[+2]	26[+2]	31[+2]	.[+2]
Republic of Korea	2016	91[-1]	91[-1]	91[-1]	57[-1]	31[-1]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Singapore	2016	32	31	33	41	.
	2000	34[-1]	...	...	53[+1]	.[+1]
Thailand	2016	96[-1]	100[-1]	91[-1]	41[-1]	27[-1]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Timor-Leste	2016	57	56	59	16	.
	2000	...	...	...	6[+2]	...
Viet Nam	2016	90	91	88	43	7
	2000	...	...	...	45[+2]	.[+2]
PACIFIC						
Australia	2016	91	91	90	43	30
	2000	51[+2]	51[+2]	52[+2]	101[+2]	.[+2]
Cook Islands	2016	99[*]	98[*]	100[*]	106[*]	.[*]
	2000	...	...	...	60[*,+2]	.[*,+2]
Fiji	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	47[-2]	46[-2]	48[-2]	12[+1]	.[+1]
Kiribati	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	53[+2]	.[+2]
Marshall Islands	2016	66	66	65	40	.
	2000	...	...	...	57[+2]	.[+2]
Micronesia (Federated States of)	2016	76[-1]	80[-1]	73[-1]	33[-1]	.[-1]
	2000	...	...	...	36[-1]	.[-1]

Table 2: continued

Region, Country or Territory	Reference year	Participation rate in organized learning (one year before the official primary entry age)			Gross early childhood enrolment ratio in pre-primary education	Gross early childhood enrolment ratio in early childhood educational development
		MF	M	F	MF	MF
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
PACIFIC						
Nauru	2016	75*	67*	84*	69*	.*
	2000	...	...	...	77*,+2	.*,+2
New Zealand	2016	93-1	93-1	94-1	38-1	24-1
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Niue	2016	56*,-1	23*,-1	100*,-1	44*	...
	2000	...	...	...	32*,+2	...
Palau	2016	90*,-2	100*,-2	80*,-2	75*,-2	.*,-2
	2000	...	...	...	70*,+2	...
Papua New Guinea	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	60+2	.+2
Samoa	2016	32	31	33	41	.
	2000	34-1	...	...	53+1	.+1
Solomon Islands	2016	65-1	65-1	66-1	99-1	.-1
	2000	...	...	...	41+2	.+2
Tokelau	2016	88*	78*	100*	121*	.*
	2000	...	...	...	120*,+2	.*,+2
Tonga	2016	...	...	...	39-2	.-2
	2000	...	...	...	28-1	.-1
Tuvalu	2016	96*,-1	93*,-1	100*,-1	117*,-1	.*,-1
	2000	...	...	...	96*,+1	.*,+1
Vanuatu	2016	...	...	...	102-1	...
	2000	...	...	...	80+1	.+1
SOUTH AND WEST ASIA						
Afghanistan	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Bangladesh	2016	...	...	...	34	.
	2000	...	...	...	14+2	.+2
Bhutan	2016	...	...	...	25	.
	2000	...	...	...	1	.
India	2016	...	...	...	13	.
	2000	...	...	...	6+2	.+2
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	2016	47-1	48-1	46-1	51-1	.-1
	2000	...	...	...	25+2	.+2
Maldives	2016	98	98	98	99	.
	2000	72+2	72+2	73+2	66+2	.+2
Nepal	2016	85+1	88+1	82+1	86+1	.+1
	2000	...	...	...	12+2	.+2
Pakistan	2016	...	...	...	35	...
	2000	...	...	...	22+2	...
Sri Lanka	2016	...	...	...	94	.
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
REGIONAL AVERAGES						
World	2016	70**	70**	69**	36	5**
	2000	...	...	...	26+2	...
Asia and the Pacific	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Central Asia	2016	50-1	49-1	52-1	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
East Asia	2016	86**	85**	87**	57	10
	2000	...	...	...	31+2	...
Pacific	2016	82-1	80-1	84-1	...	...
	2000	62**,+2	60**,+2	65**,+2	...	...
South and West Asia	2016	...	...	...	20	...
	2000	...	...	...	10+2	...

Table 3: Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) and tertiary education participation

Region, Country or Territory	Reference year	Enrolment in tertiary, all programmes (000)			Gross enrolment ratio for tertiary education			
		MF	M	F	MF	M	F	GPI
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
CENTRAL ASIA								
Kazakhstan	2016	627[+1]	283[+1]	344[+1]	50[+1]	44[+1]	55[+1]	1.26[+1]
	2000	418	194	225	32	29	34	1.19
Kyrgyzstan	2016	250	112	138	46	40	52	1.28
	2000	209[+2]	98[+2]	111[+2]	44[+2]	41[+2]	47[+2]	1.15[+2]
Tajikistan	2016	265[+1]	154[+1]	112[+1]	31[+1]	35[+1]	26[+1]	0.75[+1]
	2000	109[+2]	77[+2]	32[+2]	17[+2]	24[+2]	10[+2]	0.43[+2]
Turkmenistan	2016	44[-2]	27[-2]	17[-2]	8[-2]	10[-2]	6[-2]	0.64[-2]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	2016	281[+1]	178[+1]	103[+1]	9[+1]	11[+1]	7[+1]	0.61[+1]
	2000	345[+2]	193[+2]	152[+2]	14[+2]	15[+2]	12[+2]	0.80[+2]
EAST ASIA								
Brunei Darussalam	2016	11	4.3	6.5	31	24	38	1.60
	2000	4.4[+2]	1.6[+2]	2.8[+2]	14[+2]	11[+2]	17[+2]	1.61[+2]
Cambodia	2016	217[-1]	122[-1]	95[-1]	13[-1]	14[-1]	12[-1]	0.82[-1]
	2000	32[+2]	23[+2]	9.2[+2]	2[+2]	4[+2]	1[+2]	0.40[+2]
China	2016	43,886	21,178	22,708	48	44	53	1.21
	2000	12,144[+2]	...	...	13[+2]	...	...	...
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	2016	565[-1]	370[-1]	196[-1]	28[-1]	36[-1]	20[-1]	0.55[-1]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Hong Kong SAR of China	2016	300	143	157	72	67	77	1.14
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Indonesia	2016	6,141	2,969	3,171	28	26	29	1.11
	2000	3,176[+2]	1,717[+2]	1,458[+2]	15[+2]	16[+2]	14[+2]	0.87[+2]
Japan	2016	3,845[-1]	2,030[-1]	1,815[-1]	63[-1]	65[-1]	61[-1]	0.94[-1]
	2000	3,967[+2]	2,177[+2]	1,790[+2]	50[+2]	54[+2]	47[+2]	0.86[+2]
Lao People's Democratic Republic	2016	123	62	61	17	17	17	1.00
	2000	23[+2]	15[+2]	8.2[+2]	4[+2]	5[+2]	3[+2]	0.56[+2]
Macao, China	2016	32	14	18	78	67	89	1.33
	2000	20[+2]	13[+2]	7.5[+2]	64[+2]	88[+2]	44[+2]	0.50[+2]
Malaysia	2016	1,337	633	703	44	40	48	1.20
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mongolia	2016	163	69	94	65	54	75	1.39
	2000	90[+2]	33[+2]	57[+2]	36[+2]	26[+2]	46[+2]	1.78[+2]
Myanmar	2016	771[+1]	313[+1]	458[+1]	16[+1]	13[+1]	19[+1]	1.47[+1]
	2000	553[+1]	129[-2]	204[-2]	11[+1]	...	...	...
Philippines	2016	3,589[+1]	1,597[+1]	1,993[+1]	35[+1]	31[+1]	40[+1]	1.32[+1]
	2000	2,467[+2]	1,096[+2]	1,371[+2]	30[+2]	26[+2]	34[+2]	1.30[+2]
Republic of Korea	2016	3,268[-1]	1,936[-1]	1,332[-1]	93[-1]	105[-1]	81[-1]	0.77[-1]
	2000	3,210[+2]	2,042[+2]	1,168[+2]	82[+2]	102[+2]	62[+2]	0.61[+2]
Singapore	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	1.2	0.66	0.52	8	8	7	0.92
Thailand	2016	2,235[-1]	931[-1]	1,304[-1]	46[-1]	38[-1]	54[-1]	1.44[-1]
	2000	2,155[+2]	1,033[+2]	1,122[+2]	40[+2]	38[+2]	42[+2]	1.12[+2]
Timor-Leste	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	6.3[+2]	3.0[+2]	3.4[+2]	9[*,+2]	8[*,+2]	9[*,+2]	1.15[*,+2]
Viet Nam	2016	2,307	1,058	1,249	28	25	31	1.24
	2000	785[+2]	449[+2]	336[+2]	10[+2]	11[+2]	8[+2]	0.77[+2]
PACIFIC								
Australia	2016	1,919	814	1,104	122	101	144	1.43
	2000	1,042[-3]	512[-3]	529[-3]	81[-3]	78[-3]	83[-3]	1.07[-3]
Cook Islands	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[*,+2]	.[*,+2]	.[*,+2]	.[*,+2]
Fiji	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kiribati	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]
Marshall Islands	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	0.90[+2]	0.39[+2]	0.51[+2]	16[+2]	14[+2]	18[+2]	1.28[+2]

Share of enrolment in tertiary education, by institution	Enrolment in secondary vocational programmes (000)			Percentage of students in secondary education enrolled in vocational programmes	Participation rate in technical-vocational secondary education programmes (aged 15 to 24)	Number of outbound internationally mobile tertiary students studying abroad (000)	Region, Country or Territory
Private	MF	M	F	MF	MF	MF	
(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	
							CENTRAL ASIA
53[+1] ...	194[+1] 81	111[+1] 40	83[+1] 41	11[+1] 4	8[+1] 3	90[**,+1] 26[+1]	Kazakhstan
11 7[+2]	61 26[+2]	36 17[+2]	26 9.3[+2]	9 4[+2]	6 3[+2]	11[**] 3.7[+2]	Kyrgyzstan
1[+1] .[+2]	15[-3] 25[+2]	... 18[+2]	... 7.1[+2]	1[-3] 3[+2]	... -[+2]	21[**,+1] 2.3[+2]	Tajikistan
... ...	51[-2] ...	... ...	... ...	8[-2] ...	... ...	48[-2] 4.5[+2]	Turkmenistan
3[+1] ...	1,358[+1] 417[+2]	693[+1] 236[+2]	666[+1] 182[+2]	35[+1] ...	23[+1] 8[**,+2]	32[**,+1] 14[+2]	Uzbekistan
							EAST ASIA
11 .[+2]	4.9 2.1[+2]	2.6 1.3[+2]	2.2 0.75[+2]	11 5[+2]	6 ...	3.7[**] 2.2[+1]	Brunei Darussalam
66[-1] 76[+2]	... 8.8[+2]	... 5.8[+2]	... 3.0[+2]	... 2[+2]	... -[+2]	5.6[**,+1] 2.1[**,+2]	Cambodia
14 ...	16,570 12,327	9,213 5,914[3]	7,357 4,964[3]	20 15	... ...	847[**] 236[+2]	China
.[-1] ...	.[-1] ...	.[-1] ...	.[-1] ...	.[-1] ...	.[-1] ...	1.5[**,+1] 0.95[**,+2]	Democratic People's Republic of Korea
18 ...	7.7 14[+2]	6.4 12[+2]	1.2 1.3[+2]	2 3[+2]	1[*] 1[*,+2]	37[**] 32[**,+2]	Hong Kong SAR of China
68 63[+2]	4,335 2,027[+2]	2,482 1,156[+2]	1,853 872[+2]	18 13[+2]	10[**] 5[+2]	46[**,+1] 42[**,+2]	Indonesia
79[-1] 77[+2]	833[-1] 1,092[+2]	478[-1] 601[+2]	355[-1] 490[+2]	12[-1] 13[+2]	... 7[+2]	30[-1] 64[**,+2]	Japan
29 23[+2]	8.5 4.5[+2]	4.1 3.0[+2]	4.4 1.6[+2]	1 1[+2]	- -[+2]	6.1[**] 1.2[**,+2]	Lao People's Democratic Republic
55 71[+2]	1.1 2.6[+2]	0.66 1.4[+2]	0.41 1.2[+2]	4 6[+2]	1 3[+2]	2.5[**] 0.92[**,+2]	Macao, China
48 ...	301 ...	161 ...	140 ...	11 ...	5 ...	65[**] 47[**,+2]	Malaysia
42 33[+2]	35 13[+2]	22 6.4[+2]	14 6.6[+2]	12 5[+2]	6 2[+2]	9.9[**] 3.6[+1]	Mongolia
.[+1] -[+1]	5.9[+1] -[+2]	4.6[+1] -[+2]	1.3[+1] -[+2]	-[+1] -[+2]	-[+1] -[+2]	7.6[**,+1] 2.8[**,+2]	Myanmar
54[+1] 67[+2]	.[-1] .[+2]	.[-1] .[+2]	.[-1] .[+2]	.[-1] .[+2]	.[-1] .[+2]	16[**,+1] 6.6[**,+2]	Philippines
80[-1] 81[+2]	320[-1] 580[+2]	184[-1] 301[+2]	136[-1] 280[+2]	9[-1] 16[+2]	5[-1] 8[+2]	108[-1] 87[**,+2]	Republic of Korea
... ...	. .[+2]	. .[+2]	. .[+2]	. .[+2]	. .[+2]	0.76[**,+1] 0.98[**]	Singapore
17[-1] 19[+2]	685[-1] 592[+2]	427[-1] 351[+2]	258[-1] 241[+2]	10[-1] 14[**,+2]	6[-1] ...	26[-2] 27[**,+2]	Thailand
... ...	7.9 -[+2]	4.8 ...	3.1 ...	6 -[+2]	3 -[+2]	3.8[**,+1] 0.42[**,+2]	Timor-Leste
13 9[+2]	... ...	... ...	... ...	... ...	... ...	70[**] 13[**,+2]	Viet Nam
							PACIFIC
18 ...	994 1,052[3]	617 533[3]	377 519[3]	37 44[3]	12 ...	12[**] 6.0[**,+2]	Australia
... ...	. .[+2]	. .[+2]	. .[+2]	. .[+2]	.[*] .[*,+2]	0.21[**,+1] 0.29[**,+2]	Cook Islands
... ...	... 2.6[+2]	... 1.9[+2]	... 0.76[+2]	... 3[+2]	... -[+2]	1.2[**,+1] 2.0[**,+2]	Fiji
... ...	... -[+2]	... -[+2]	... -[+2]	... -[+2]	... -[+2]	1.1[**,+1] 0.90[**,+2]	Kiribati
... 22[+2]	0.13 .[+2]	0.06 .[+2]	0.07 .[+2]	2 .[+2]	1 .[+2]	0.17[**,+1] 0.13[**,+2]	Marshall Islands

Table 3: continued

Region, Country or Territory	Reference year	Enrolment in tertiary, all programmes (000)			Gross enrolment ratio for tertiary education			
		MF	M	F	MF	M	F	GPI
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
PACIFIC								
Micronesia (Federated States of)	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	1.5	...	...	14[*]	...	...	...
Nauru	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[*,+2]	.[*,+2]	.[*,+2]	.[*,+2]
New Zealand	2016	271	117	154	82	68	96	1.41
	2000	185[+2]	76[+2]	109[+2]	62[-2]	51[-2]	73[-2]	1.42[-2]
Niue	2016	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
	2000	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[*,+2]	.[*,+2]	.[*,+2]	.[*,+2]
Palau	2016	0.86[-3]	...	0.50[-3]	64[*,-3]	51[*,-3]	78[*,-3]	1.54[*,-3]
	2000	0.48[+2]	0.18[+2]	0.31[+2]	38[**,+2]	26[**,+2]	52[**,+2]	2.04[**,+2]
Papua New Guinea	2016	...[...]	...[...]	...[...]	...	...	...	...
	2000	9.9[-1]	6.4[-1]	3.5[-1]	2[**,-1]	2[**,-1]	1[**,-1]	0.57[**,-1]
Samoa	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	1.2	0.66	0.52	8	8	7	0.92
Solomon Islands	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]
Tokelau	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[*,+2]	.[*,+2]	.[*,+2]	.[*,+2]
Tonga	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	0.60[+2]	0.24[+2]	0.36[+2]	6[+2]	4[**,+2]	7[**,+2]	1.68[**,+2]
Tuvalu	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[*,+2]	.[*,+2]	.[*,+2]	.[*,+2]
Vanuatu	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	0.90[+2]	0.58[+2]	0.32[+2]	5[+2]	6[**,+2]	3[**,+2]	0.57[**,+2]
SOUTH AND WEST ASIA								
Afghanistan	2016	263[-2]	209[-2]	54[-2]	8[-2]	13[-2]	4[-2]	-[-2]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bangladesh	2016	2,699	1,611	1,088	17	20	14	0.70
	2000	855[+2]	582[+2]	274[+2]	6[+2]	8[+2]	4[+2]	-[+2]
Bhutan	2016	8.5[-3]	5.0[-3]	3.5[-3]	11[-3]	12[-3]	9[-3]	0.74[-3]
	2000	1.5[-1]	0.94[-1]	0.54[-1]	3[**,-1]	3[**,-1]	2[**,-1]	0.58[**,-1]
India	2016	32,392	17,018	15,374	27	27	27	1.00
	2000	10,577[+2]	6,441[+2]	4,135[+2]	10[+2]	12[+2]	8[+2]	0.69[+2]
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	2016	4,348	2,346	2,003	69	72	66	0.91
	2000	1,567[+2]	798[+2]	768[+2]	19[+2]	19[+2]	19[+2]	0.99[+2]
Maldives	2016	6.1[-2]	2.4[-2]	3.7[-2]	14[-2]	10[-2]	20[-2]	2.06[-2]
	2000	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]
Nepal	2016	361	173	188	12	11	12	1.07
	2000	120[+2]	95[+2]	25[+2]	5[+2]	9[+2]	2[+2]	-[+2]
Pakistan	2016	1,856	1,020	836	10	10	9	0.87
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sri Lanka	2016	290	113	178	19	15	23	1.55
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
REGIONAL AVERAGES								
World	2016	215,945	105,073	110,872	37	35	39	1.12
	2000	116,986[+2]	59,083[+2]	57,903[+2]	22[+2]	21[+2]	22[+2]	1.02[+2]
Asia and the Pacific	2016	111,914[-1]	56,567[-1]	55,346[-1]	32[-1]	32[-1]	33[-1]	1.06[-1]
	2000	46,194[+2]	25,996[+2]	20,199[+2]	15[+2]	16[+2]	13[+2]	0.82[+2]
Central Asia	2016	1,455[-1]	738[-1]	717[-1]	23[-1]	23[-1]	23[-1]	1.00[-1]
	2000	1,276[+2]	655[+2]	620[+2]	24[+2]	24[+2]	23[+2]	0.96[+2]
East Asia	2016	68,798	33,450	35,348	43	40	47	1.15
	2000	29,823[+2]	16,483[**,+2]	13,340[**,+2]	18[+2]	20[**,+2]	17[**,+2]	0.85[**,+2]
Pacific	2016	1,750[**,-1]	761[**,-1]	989[**,-1]	62[**,-1]	52[**,-1]	72[**,-1]	1.38[**,-1]
	2000	1,226[+2]	558[+2]	668[+2]	52[+2]	46[+2]	58[+2]	1.25[+2]
South and West Asia	2016	42,239	22,509	19,730	25	25	24	0.96
	2000	13,717[+2]	8,259[+2]	5,457[+2]	9[+2]	11[+2]	8[+2]	0.71[+2]

Share of enrolment in tertiary education, by institution	Enrolment in secondary vocational programmes (000)			Percentage of students in secondary education enrolled in vocational programmes	Participation rate in technical-vocational secondary education programmes (aged 15 to 24)	Number of outbound internationally mobile tertiary students studying abroad (000)	Region, Country or Territory
Private	MF	M	F	MF	MF	MF	
(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	
							PACIFIC
...	...	...	...	...	...	0.37[**,+1]	Micronesia (Federated States of)
...	...	...	...	...	...	0.22[**,+2]	
...	.	.	.	.	.[*]	0.21[**,+1]	Nauru
...	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[*,+2]	0.07[**,+2]	
15	74	33	40	15	5	5.4[**]	New Zealand
3[-2]	56[+2]	22[+2]	33[+2]	12[+2]	4[+2]	7.4[**,+2]	
.	.[-1]	.[-1]	.[-1]	.[-1]	.[*,-1]	0.04[**]	Niue
...	.[+2]	.[+1]	.[+1]	.[+2]	.[*,+2]	0.07[**,+2]	
...	.[-2]	.[-2]	.[-2]	.[-2]	.[*,-2]	0.03[**,-3]	Palau
...	.	.	.	.	.	0.34[+1]	
...	...	...	...	...	...	1.6[**,+1]	Papua New Guinea
...	16[-2]	11[-2]	4.3[-2]	12[-2]	1[*,-2]	0.80[**,-2]	
...	.	.	.	.	.	0.76[**,+1]	Samoa
...	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	0.98[**]	
...	...	...	...	...	...	3.2[**,+1]	Solomon Islands
...	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	1.2[**,+2]	
...	.	.	.	.	.[*]	0.07[**,+1]	Tokelau
...	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[+2]	.[*,+2]	0.01[**,+2]	
...	0.48[-2]	0.42[-2]	0.06[-2]	3[-2]	2[-2]	1.2[**,+1]	Tonga
...	0.83[+1]	0.50[+1]	0.34[+1]	6[**,+1]	3[**,+1]	1.2[**,+2]	
...	-[-1]	-[-1]	-[-1]	-[-1]	-[*,-1]	0.46[**,+1]	Tuvalu
...	0.07[-2]	0.07[-2]	0.00[-2]	9[-2]	...	0.21[**,+2]	
...	0.50[-1]	0.24[-1]	0.26[-1]	2[-1]	1[-1]	1.8[**,+1]	Vanuatu
...	2.7[+2]	1.7[+2]	1.0[+2]	22[+2]	2[**,+2]	0.83[**,+2]	
							SOUTH AND WEST ASIA
42[-2]	22[+1]	20[+1]	2.3[+1]	1[+1]	-[+1]	20[-2]	Afghanistan
...	-[+1]	-[+1]	-[+1]	-[+1]	...	3.5[**,+2]	
35	627	454	173	4	2	60[**,+1]	Bangladesh
58[+2]	126[+2]	94[+2]	32[+2]	1[+2]	-[+2]	40[**,+2]	
...	1.5	0.98	0.50	2	-	4.4[**,+1]	Bhutan
...	0.44[+1]	0.28[+1]	0.17[+1]	2[+1]	-[+1]	0.77[**,+2]	
57	1,763	1,470	292	1	...	277[**]	India
...	619[+2]	511[+2]	108[+2]	1[+2]	-[+2]	103[**,+2]	
46	832[-1]	545[-1]	287[-1]	15[-1]	6[-1]	51[**]	Iran (Islamic Republic of)
...	736[+2]	466[+2]	270[+2]	7[+2]	...	23[**,+2]	
38[-2]	...	...	...	...	...	2.9[**,+1]	Maldives
.[+2]	1.5[+1]	0.74[+1]	0.78[+1]	6[+1]	...	1.7[**,+2]	
36	...	...	...	...	...	44[**,+1]	Nepal
30[+2]	21[+2]	16[+2]	4.1[+2]	1[+2]	...	6.5[**,+2]	
18	325	211	113	3	1	52[**,+1]	Pakistan
...	...	...	...	...	...	24[**,+2]	
8	111	66	44	4	...	19[**]	Sri Lanka
...	...	...	...	...	...	9.8[**,+2]	
							REGIONAL AVERAGES
...	61,161	34,730	26,431	10	...	4,854	World
...	45,669[+2]	25,392[+2]	20,277[+2]	10[+2]	...	2,517[+2]	
...	30,741[-1]	17,739[-1]	13,002[-1]	9[-1]	...	1,932[-1]	Asia and the Pacific
...	20,352[+2]	11,170[**,+2]	9,182[**,+2]	8[+2]	...	823[+2]	
...	1,766[-1]	915[-1]	851[-1]	22[-1]	...	182[-1]	Central Asia
...	652[**,+2]	368[**,+2]	284[**,+2]	8[**,+2]	...	50[+2]	
...	23,446	13,175	10,271	16	...	1,317	East Asia
...	16,882[**,+2]	8,981[**,+2]	7,900[**,+2]	12[**,+2]	...	595[+2]	
...	902[**,-1]	519[**,-1]	383[**,-1]	26[**,-1]	...	30[-1]	Pacific
...	1,184[+2]	641[+2]	543[+2]	35[+2]	...	23[+2]	
...	3,696	2,781	915	2	...	539	South and West Asia
...	1,652[+2]	1,193[+2]	459[+2]	2[+2]	...	213[+2]	

Table 4: Primary and secondary education provition, participation, completion and learning

Region, Country or Territory	Reference year	Educational attainment rate in primary education, population 25+ years	Educational attainment rate in lower secondary education, population 25+ years	Educational attainment rate in upper secondary education, population 25+ years	Educational attainment rate in post-secondary education, population 25+ years	Educational attainment rate at the bachelor level, population 25+ years
		MF	M	F	MF	MF
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
CENTRAL ASIA						
Kazakhstan	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	91[-1]	82[-1]	71[-1]	38[-1]	...
Kyrgyzstan	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	97[-1]	89[-1]	77[-1]	28[-1]	...
Tajikistan	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	97	92	79	20	...
Turkmenistan	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	96[-5]	91[-5]	77[-5]	32[-5]	...
Uzbekistan	2016	100[-1]	100[-1]	92[-1]	.[-1]	16[-1]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
EAST ASIA						
Brunei Darussalam	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Cambodia	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
China	2016	...	65[-6]	22[-6]	...	4[-6]
	2000	...	52	...	4	...
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Hong Kong SAR of China	2016	95[-1]	78[-1]	62[-1]	28[-1]	...
	2000	...	62[-4]	43[-4]	14[-4]	...
Indonesia	2016	78[-1]	49[-1]	32[-1]	.[-1]	8[-1]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Japan	2016	100[-6]	...	81[-6]	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Lao People's Democratic Republic	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Macao, China	2016	88[-5]	69[-5]	45[-5]	20[-5]	...
	2000	79[+1]	52[+1]	...	28[+1]	...
Malaysia	2016	91[-6]	68[-6]	51[-6]	16[-6]	...
	2000	85	56	36	11	...
Mongolia	2016	95[-6]	85[-6]	68[-6]	36[-6]	24[-6]
	2000	94	80	53	31	...
Myanmar	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Philippines	2016	84[-3]	70[-3]	58[-3]	33[-3]	17[-3]
	2000	80	50	36	16	...
Republic of Korea	2016	94[-6]	83[-6]	73[-6]	.[-6]	24[-6]
	2000	92	77	64	21[-5]	...
Singapore	2016	99[-5]	...	72[-5]	15[-5]	...
	2000	96[+1]	...	63[+1]	13[+1]	...
Thailand	2016	66	45	33	17[-3]	15
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Timor-Leste	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Viet Nam	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
PACIFIC						
Australia	2016	100[-1]	93[-1]	76[-1]	45[-1]	30[-1]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Cook Islands	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	73[-4]	45[-4]	26[-4]	9[-4]	...
Kiribati	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...

Table 4: continued

Region, Country or Territory	Reference year	Educational attainment rate in primary education, population 25+ years	Educational attainment rate in lower secondary education, population 25+ years	Educational attainment rate in upper secondary education, population 25+ years	Educational attainment rate in post-secondary education, population 25+ years	Educational attainment rate at the bachelor level, population 25+ years
		MF	M	F	MF	MF
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
PACIFIC						
Marshall Islands	2016	96[-5]	92[-5]	70[-5]	17[-5]	4[-5]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Micronesia (Federated States of)	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Nauru	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
New Zealand	2016	...	...	70[-1]	44[-1]	26[-1]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Niue	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Palau	2016	99[-3]	97[-3]	88[-3]	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Samoa	2016	99[-5]	...	72[-5]	15[-5]	...
	2000	96[+1]	...	63[+1]	13[+1]	...
Solomon Islands	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Tokelau	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Tonga	2016	96[-5]	88[-5]	54[-5]	17[-5]	...
	2000	...	74[-4]	...	...	...
Tuvalu	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
SOUTH AND WEST ASIA						
Afghanistan	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Bangladesh	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	47[+1]	27[+1]	17[+1]	4[+1]	...
Bhutan	2016	20[-4]	10[-4]	6[-4]	5[-4]	5[-4]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
India	2016	51[-5]	38[-5]	27[-5]	10[-5]	9[-5]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	2016	...	68[-2]	47[-2]	22[-2]	17[-2]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Maldives	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Nepal	2016	87[-5]	56[-5]	35[-5]	20[-5]	10[-5]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Pakistan	2016	50[-2]	37[-2]	28[-2]	...	9[-2]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...
Sri Lanka	2016	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	86[+1]	75[+1]	56[+1]	35[+1]	...

Table 5: Parity indicies for the net attendance rate and education expenditure, by level of education

Region, Country or Territory	Reference year	Initial government funding per student (PPP, $ constant)					Adjusted gender parity index of net attendance rate (household survey)			Adjusted location parity index of net attendance (household survey)			Adjusted wealth parity index of net attendance (household survey)			Government expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP	Expenditure on education as a percentage of total government expenditure
		Pre-primary	Primary	Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary	Tertiary	Primary	Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary	Primary	Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary	Primary	Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary		
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)
CENTRAL ASIA																	
Kazakhstan	2016	1,781	74	6,364	2,481	2,476	0.95[-1]	0.97[-1]	1.01[-1]	1.00[-1]	1.02[-1]	1.03[-1]	0.97[-1]	1.04[-1]	0.98[-1]	3	14
	2000	834[+2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3[+2]	15[+2]
Kyrgyzstan	2016	928[-2]	...	...	...	190[-2]	0.98[-2]	1.01[-2]	1.01[-2]	0.99[-2]	0.99[-2]	1.07[-2]	1.00[-2]	0.98[-2]	1.11[-2]	6[-2]	16[-2]
	2000	717[+2]	...	...	...	476[+2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4[+2]	15[+2]
Tajikistan	2016	...	...	...	81[-3]	502[-3]	0.99[-4]	0.97[-4]	0.75[-4]	0.97[-4]	0.97[-4]	0.88[-4]	0.96[-4]	0.94[-4]	0.73[-4]	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	293[+2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3[+2]	15[+2]
Turkmenistan	2016	...	...	...	...	...	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.98	1.00	0.97	1.00	0.99	0.94	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
EAST ASIA																	
Brunei Darussalam	2016	806	7,017	16,527	19,645	25,249	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4	11
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cambodia	2016	99[-2]	177[-2]	455[-2]	...	...	1.00[-2]	1.07[-2]	1.03[-2]	1.01[-2]	0.81[-2]	0.52[-2]	0.97[-2]	0.38[-2]	0.19[-2]	2[-2]	9[-2]
	2000	46[+1]	102[+1]	96[+1]	89[+1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2[+1]	11[+1]
China	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	41[-2]	203[-2]	...	...	2,019[-2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2[-2]	15[-2]
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Hong Kong SAR of China	2016	3,495	8,482	...	22,479	13,737	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3	18
	2000	1,186[+2]	4,515[+2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4[+2]	22[+2]
Indonesia	2016	294[-2]	1,311[-2]	980[-2]	1,168[-2]	2,085[-2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3[-2]	18[-2]
	2000	...	...	...	...	1,520[-3]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1[-3]	8[-3]
Japan	2016	1,738[-2]	8,839[-2]	9,764[-2]	9,010[-2]	9,643[-2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4[-2]	9[-2]
	2000	1,363[+2]	7,662[+2]	8,002[+2]	7,009[+2]	5,920[+2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3[+2]	10[+2]
Lao People's Democratic Republic	2016	463[-2]	494[-2]	514[-2]	1,068[-2]	1,104[-2]	0.99[-4]	1.09[-4]	1.09[-4]	0.93[-4]	0.54[-4]	0.37[-4]	0.81[-4]	-[-4]	-[-4]	3[-2]	12[-2]
	2000	234[+2]	223[+2]	157[+2]	438[+2]	2,316[+2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3[+2]	16[+2]
Macao, China	2016	...	...	...	...	26,321[-1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3[-1]	13[-1]
	2000	3,030[**]	3,381[**]	4,256[**]	5,127[**]	24,450	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3	...
Malaysia	2016	1,485	4,493	...	...	7,216	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5	21
	2000	559[**,+1]	2,782[+1]	4,513[**,+1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7[+1]	24[+1]
Mongolia	2016	2,114	1,966	1,972	1,517	1,282	0.98[-2]	1.02[-2]	1.15[-2]	1.01[-2]	1.04[-2]	1.09[-2]	1.04[-2]	1.00[-2]	1.07[-2]	5	13
	2000	1,565[+2]	...	...	...	1,585[+2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7[+2]	20[+2]
Myanmar	2016	...	...	...	...	...	0.98	1.04	1.23	0.97	0.86	0.49	0.93	0.57	0.18	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Philippines	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	17[+2]	486[+2]	415[+2]	395[+2]	650[+2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3[+2]	14[+2]
Republic of Korea	2016	5,678[-1]	9,967[-1]	9,445[-1]	9,562[-1]	5,409[-1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5[-1]	...[-1]
	2000	...	3,426[+2]	4,602[+2]	5,329[+2]	1,052[+2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4[+2]	...[+2]
Singapore	2016	101	525	530	896	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4	10
	2000	41[**,+1]	394[**,+1]	394[**,+1]	434[**,+1]	8,556[+1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4[+1]	13[+1]
Thailand	2016	...	3,674[-3]	3,369[-3]	2,217[-3]	2,864[-3]	1.01[-3]	1.04[-3]	1.22[-3]	1.00[-3]	1.01[-3]	0.94[-3]	1.00[-3]	0.99[-3]	0.65[-3]	4[-3]	19[-3]
	2000	2,040[-3]	1,442[-3]	...	...	4,480[-3]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5[-3]	21[-3]
Timor-Leste	2016	133[-2]	483[-2]	439[-2]	488[-2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7[-2]	7[-2]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Viet Nam	2016	1,228.17[-3]	1,143[-3]	1,347[-3]	...	1,849[-3]	0.99[-2]	1.02[-2]	1.12[-2]	1.02[-2]	0.93[-2]	0.89[-2]	0.98[-2]	0.77[-2]	0.45[-2]	6[-3]	19[-3]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
PACIFIC																	
Australia	2016	4,517[-2]	8,433[-2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5[-2]	14[-2]
	2000	...	6,261	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5	13
Cook Islands	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	2016	...	1,050[-3]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4[-3]	14[-3]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kiribati	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	467[+1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12[+1]	12[+1]
Marshall Islands	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	-[-1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	15[-1]	29[-1]

Table 5: continued

Region, Country or Territory	Reference year	Initial government funding per student (PPP, $ constant)					Adjusted gender parity index of net attendance rate (household survey)			Adjusted location parity index of net attendance (household survey)			Adjusted wealth parity index of net attendance (household survey)			Government expenditure on education as a percentage of GDP	Expenditure on education as a percentage of total government expenditure
		Pre ...primary	Primary	Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary	Tertiary	Primary	Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary	Primary	Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary	Primary	Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary		
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)
PACIFIC																	
Micronesia (Federated States of)	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nauru	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
New Zealand	2016	6,861 [-1]	6,712 [-1]	8,124 [-1]	8,021 [-1]	10,071 [-1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	6 [-1]	18 [-1]
	2000	...	5,821	5,530 [+2]	7,165 [+2]	11,040 [+2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	6 [+2]	19 [+2]
Niue	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Palau	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	9,579 [+1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	8 [+1]	15 [+1]
Papua New Guinea	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Samoa	2016	101	525	530	896	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4	10
	2000	41 [**, +1]	394 [**, +1]	394 [**, +1]	434 [**, +1]	8,556 [+1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4 [+1]	13 [+1]
Solomon Islands	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tokelau	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tonga	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	412 [-2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	6 [-2]	...
Tuvalu	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	2016	3 [-1]	395 [-1]	630 [-1]	568 [-1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	6 [-1]	22 [-1]
	2000	5 [+1]	368 [+1]	1,544 [+1]	4,986 [+1]	7,465 [+1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	9 [+1]	40 [+1]
SOUTH AND WEST ASIA																	
Afghanistan	2016	...	188 [-2]	195 [-2]	189 [-2]	805 [-2]	0.73 [-1]	0.57 [-1]	... [-1]	0.74 [-1]	0.63 [-1]	0.64 [-1]	0.73 [-1]	0.52 [-1]	0.41 [-1]	4 [-2]	14 [-2]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bangladesh	2016	...	307	276 [**]	373 [**]	832 [**]	1.01 [-2]	1.14 [-2]	0.89 [-2]	1.03 [-2]	0.96 [-2]	0.95 [-2]	1.01 [-2]	0.59 [-2]	0.33 [-2]	3 [**]	18 [**]
	2000	...	...	...	...	628 [+2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2 [+2]	16 [+2]
Bhutan	2016	...	1,031 [-2]	...	...	4,066 [-2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	6 [-2]	17 [-2]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
India	2016	533 [-3]	497 [-3]	526 [-3]	1,238 [-3]	2,500 [-3]	0.98	0.98	0.91	1.00	0.98	0.88	0.98	0.83	0.52	4 [-3]	14 [-3]
	2000	...	386	389	1,052	2,521	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4	17
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	2016	143 [-1]	1,363 [-1]	2,597 [-1]	2,592 [-1]	2,393 [-1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3 [-1]	19 [-1]
	2000	1,096 [+2]	1,419 [+2]	1,398 [+2]	1,613 [+2]	4,842 [+2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4 [+2]	26 [+2]
Maldives	2016	1,078 [-2]	2,088 [-2]	2,128 [-2]	...	4,384 [-2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3 [-2]	10 [-2]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nepal	2016	52 [-1]	311 [-1]	238 [-1]	297 [**, -1]	607 [-1]	1.03	0.97	0.99	0.93	0.78	0.70	1.01	0.75	0.52	4 [-1]	17 [-1]
	2000	...	195 [+2]	174 [**, +2]	174 [**, +2]	1,283 [+2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3 [+2]	20 [+2]
Pakistan	2016	559	473	509	571	1,350	0.89 [-4]	0.92 [-4]	0.87 [-4]	0.80 [-4]	0.65 [-4]	0.55 [-4]	0.46 [-4]	0.15 [-4]	0.11 [-4]	2	13
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sri Lanka	2016	...	1,395	1,435	1,317	3,665	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	3	18
	2000	...	...	4 [+1]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Table 6: Youth and adult literary skills

Region, Country or Territory	Reference year	Youth (15-24 years) literacy rates			Adult (25-64 years) literacy rates			Adult (15+ years) literacy rates			Illiterate youth (15-24 years) population (000)	Illiterate adults (15+ years) population (000)
		MF	M	F	MF	M	F	MF	M	F	MF	MF
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
CENTRAL ASIA												
Kazakhstan	2016	100[**,-6]	100[**,-6]	100[**,-6]	100[**,-6]	100[**,-6]	100[**,-6]	100[**,-6]	100[**,-6]	100[**,-6]	3.3[**,-6]	27[**,-6]
	2000	100[-1]	100[-1]	100[-1]	100[-1]	100[-1]	100[-1]	100[-1]	100[-1]	99[-1]	4.1[-1]	53[-1]
Kyrgyzstan	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	100[-1]	100[-1]	100[-1]	99[-1]	100[-1]	99[-1]	99[-1]	99[-1]	98[-1]	2.9[-1]	41[-1]
Tajikistan	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	100	100	100	100	100	100	99	100	99	1.9	19
Turkmenistan	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	100[-5]	100[-5]	100[-5]	99[-5]	100[-5]	99[-5]	99[-5]	99[-5]	98[-5]	1.5[-5]	31[-5]
Uzbekistan	2016	100[-1]	100[-1]	100[-1]	100[-1]	100[-1]	100[-1]	100[-1]	100[-1]	100[-1]	-[-1]	3.5[-1]
	2000	100	100	100	99	100	99	99	99	98	6.2	211
EAST ASIA												
Brunei Darussalam	2016	99[-5]	99[-5]	100[-5]	97[-5]	98[-5]	97[-5]	96[-5]	97[-5]	95[-5]	0.46[-5]	12[-5]
	2000	99[+1]	99[+1]	99[+1]	94[+1]	96[+1]	91[+1]	93[+1]	95[+1]	90[+1]	0.69[+1]	17[+1]
Cambodia	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	76[-2]	82[-2]	71[-2]	...	...	...	67[-2]	79[-2]	57[-2]	479[-2]	2,101[-2]
China	2016	100[-6]	100[-6]	100[-6]	97[-6]	98[-6]	96[-6]	95[-6]	97[-6]	93[-6]	843[-6]	53,767[-6]
	2000	99	99	99	94[**]	97[**]	91[**]	91	95	87	2,264	86,450
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Hong Kong SAR of China	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Indonesia	2016	100	100	100	97	98	96	95	97	94	147	8,724
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Japan	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Lao People's Democratic Republic	2016	72[**,-5]	77[**,-5]	67[**,-5]	56[**,-5]	65[**,-5]	46[**,-5]	58[**,-5]	67[**,-5]	50[**,-5]	407[**,-5]	1,684[**,-5]
	2000	78[+1]	83[+1]	75[+1]	67[+1]	77[+1]	58[+1]	69[+1]	77[+1]	61[+1]	233[+1]	968[+1]
Macao, China	2016	100	100	100	98	99	97	97	98	95	0.15	18
	2000	100[+1]	99[+1]	100[+1]	94[+1]	96[+1]	92[+1]	91[+1]	95[+1]	88[+1]	0.25[+1]	30[+1]
Malaysia	2016	98[-6]	98[-6]	98[-6]	95[-6]	96[-6]	93[-6]	93[-6]	95[-6]	91[-6]	90[-6]	1,400[-6]
	2000	97	97	97	89	92	85	89	92	85	122	1,764
Mongolia	2016	98[-6]	98[-6]	99[-6]	98[-6]	98[-6]	99[-6]	98[-6]	98[-6]	98[-6]	9.1[-6]	35[-6]
	2000	98	97	98	99	99	99	98	98	98	12	35
Myanmar	2016	85[**]	85[**]	84[**]	75[**]	80[**]	72[**]	76[**]	80[**]	72[**]	1,483[**]	9,607[**]
	2000	95	96	93	90	94	86	90	94	86	541	3,232
Philippines	2016	98[3]	97[3]	99[3]	96[3]	96[3]	97[3]	96[3]	96[3]	97[3]	364[3]	2,371[3]
	2000	95[+3]	94[+3]	97[+3]	91[**,+3]	91[**,+3]	92[**,+3]	93[**,+3]	92[**,+3]	94[**,+3]	812[+3]	3,821[**,+3]
Republic of Korea	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Singapore	2016	99[-5]	99[-5]	99[-5]	...	...	...	99[-5]	99[-5]	99[-5]	0.27[-5]	1.2[-5]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Thailand	2016	98[1]	98[1]	98[1]	95[**,-1]	96[**,-1]	94[**,-1]	93[1]	95[1]	91[1]	166[1]	3,978[1]
	2000	98	98	98	94	96	92	93	95	91	218	3,497
Timor-Leste	2016	80[-6]	80[-6]	79[-6]	53[-6]	61[-6]	44[-6]	58[-6]	64[-6]	53[-6]	43[-6]	259[-6]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Viet Nam	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	95	96	94	92	95	89	90	94	87	828	5,402
PACIFIC												
Australia	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Cook Islands	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Fiji	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Kiribati	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Marshall Islands	2016	98[-5]	98[-5]	99[-5]	99[-5]	99[-5]	99[-5]	98[-5]	98[-5]	98[-5]	0.11[-5]	0.55[-5]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Table 6: continued

Region, Country or Territory	Reference year	Youth (15-24 years) literacy rates			Adult (25-64 years) literacy rates			Adult (15+ years) literacy rates			Illiterate youth (15-24 years) population (000)	Illiterate adults (15+ years) population (000)
		MF	M	F	MF	M	F	MF	M	F	MF	MF
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
PACIFIC												
Micronesia (Federated States of)	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Nauru	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
New Zealand	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Niue	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Palau	2016	99[1]	98[1]	99[1]	98[1]	97[1]	98[1]	97[1]	97[1]	96[1]	0.03[*,1]	0.51[*,1]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Papua New Guinea	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	67	69	64	55[**]	63[**]	46[**]	57	63	51	366	1,374
Samoa	2016	99[5]	99[5]	99[5]	...	...	...	99[5]	99[5]	99[5]	0.27[5]	1.2[5]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Solomon Islands	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tokelau	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Tonga	2016	99[5]	99[5]	100[5]	99[5]	99[5]	99[5]	99[5]	99[5]	99[5]	0.11[5]	0.40[5]
	2000	99[4]	99[4]	99[4]	99[4]	99[4]	99[4]	99[4]	99[4]	99[4]	0.13[4]	0.64[4]
Tuvalu	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Vanuatu	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
SOUTH AND WEST ASIA												
Afghanistan	2016	47[5]	62[5]	32[5]	23[5]	38[5]	8[5]	32[5]	45[5]	18[5]	2,947[5]	10,373[5]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bangladesh	2016	92	91	94	68	72	64	73	76	70	2,460	31,525
	2000	64[+1]	67[+1]	60[+1]	42[**,+1]	50[**,+1]	34[**,+1]	47[+1]	54[+1]	41[+1]	10,177[+1]	44,544[+1]
Bhutan	2016	87[4]	90[4]	84[4]	49[4]	61[4]	36[4]	57[4]	66[4]	48[4]	19[4]	223[4]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
India	2016	86[5]	90[5]	82[5]	65[5]	76[5]	54[5]	69[5]	79[5]	59[5]	32,620[5]	265,568[5]
	2000	76[+1]	84[+1]	68[+1]	57[+1]	71[+1]	43[+1]	61[+1]	73[+1]	48[+1]	49,444[+1]	274,237[+1]
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	2016	98[2]	98[2]	98[2]	86[2]	91[2]	81[2]	85[2]	90[2]	80[2]	273[2]	9,113[2]
	2000	93[4]	96[4]	91[4]	68[4]	77[4]	58[4]	73[4]	80[4]	66[4]	880[4]	9,784[4]
Maldives	2016	99[2]	99[2]	99[2]	99[2]	99[2]	99[2]	99[2]	99[2]	99[2]	0.54[2]	3.6[2]
	2000	98	98	98	96	96	94	...	...	...	1.1	...
Nepal	2016	85[5]	90[5]	80[5]	52[5]	68[5]	38[5]	60[5]	72[5]	49[5]	823[5]	6,989[5]
	2000	70[+1]	81[+1]	60[+1]	41[+1]	58[+1]	25[+1]	49[+1]	63[+1]	35[+1]	1,390[+1]	7,368[+1]
Pakistan	2016	73[2]	80[2]	66[2]	50[2]	66[2]	34[2]	57[2]	69[2]	44[2]	10,145[2]	51,636[2]
	2000	55[2]	67[2]	43[2]	38[2]	52[2]	23[2]	43[2]	55[2]	29[2]	11,228[2]	43,962[2]
Sri Lanka	2016	98[6]	98[6]	99[6]	91[6]	92[6]	91[6]	91[6]	93[6]	90[6]	60[6]	1,323[6]
	2000	96[+1]	95[+1]	96[+1]	91[+1]	92[+1]	89[+1]	91[+1]	92[+1]	89[+1]	158[+1]	1,298[+1]
REGIONAL AVERAGES												
World	2016	91	93	90	86	90	82	86	90	83	101,926	750,125
	2000	88[+3]	91[+3]	85[+3]	83[+3]	88[+3]	77[+3]	83[+3]	88[+3]	78[+3]	139,694[+3]	781,757[+3]
Asia and the Pacific	2016	93	95	92	86	90	81	86	90	82	43,067	446,197
	2000	88[+3]	91[+3]	84[+3]	81[+3]	87[+3]	74[+3]	80[+3]	87[+3]	74[+3]	81,232[+3]	510,338[+3]
Central Asia	2016	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	8.9	87
	2000	100[+3]	100[+3]	100[+3]	100[+3]	100[+3]	100[+3]	99[+3]	100[+3]	99[+3]	17[+3]	317[+3]
East Asia	2016	99	99	99	97	98	96	96	97	94	3,624	74,499
	2000	97[+3]	98[+3]	97[+3]	94[+3]	97[+3]	92[+3]	92[+3]	96[+3]	89[+3]	8,660[+3]	117,814[+3]
Pacific	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
South and West Asia	2016	89	91	86	69	78	59	72	80	63	38,885	369,383
	2000	76[+3]	83[+3]	69[+3]	57[+3]	70[+3]	43[+3]	61[+3]	72[+3]	49[+3]	72,122[+3]	390,480[+3]

Table 7: Teachers

Region, Country or Territory	Reference year	Number of teachers (MF, 000)				Pupil-teacher ratio			
		Pre-primary	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Pre-primary	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
CENTRAL ASIA									
Kazakhstan	2016	82[-2]	67[-2]	...	...	9[-2]	17[-2]	...	...
	2000	22[+2]	61[+2]	...	...	12[+2]	19[+2]	...	...
Kyrgyzstan	2016	...	...	...	...	...	25	...	...
	2000	2.3[+2]	19[+2]	...	...	20[+2]	24[+2]	...	...
Tajikistan	2016	8.0[+1]	35[+1]	...	...	11[+1]	22[+1]	...	...
	2000	4.6[+2]	31[+2]	...	...	12[+2]	22[+2]	...	...
Turkmenistan	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Uzbekistan	2016	60[+1]	113[+1]	278[+1]	99[+1]	12[+1]	21[+1]	9[+1]	15[+1]
	2000	66[+2]	121[+2]	...	...	10[+2]	21[+2]	...	...
EAST ASIA									
Brunei Darussalam	2016	0.89	4.0	1.4	3.9	15	10	10	8
	2000	0.55[*,+2]	3.5[*,+2]	1.8[*,+2]	1.7[*,+2]	20[*,+2]	13[*,+2]	12[*,+2]	10[*,+2]
Cambodia	2016	6.3	50	29	...	32	43	20	...
	2000	3.2[+2]	48[+2]	17[+2]	5.5[+2]	28[+2]	56[+2]	21[+2]	22[+2]
China	2016	2,236	5,933	3,542	2,677	19	17	12	15
	2000	856[+1]	5,860[+1]	3,380[+1]	1,192[+1]	26[+1]	22[+1]	19[+1]	20[+1]
Democratic People's Republic of Korea	2016	33[-1]	66[-1]	55[-1]	68[-1]	10[-1]	21[-1]	19[-1]	16[-1]
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Hong Kong SAR of China	2016	...	25	...	...	...	14	...	...
	2000	8.4[-4]	20[-4]	...	...	21[-4]	24[-4]	...	...
Indonesia	2016	513	2,107	970	704	11	14	14	14
	2000	141[*,+2]	1,384[+2]	680[+2]	435[+2]	15[*,+2]	21[+2]	14[+2]	13[+2]
Japan	2016	114[-1]	410[-1]	281[-1]	353[-1]	25[-1]	16[-1]	13[-1]	10[-1]
	2000	100[+2]	366[+2]	259[+2]	360[+2]	30[+2]	20[+2]	15[+2]	12[+2]
Lao People's Democratic Republic	2016	10	36	25	11[**]	18	23	18	19[**]
	2000	2.3[+2]	29[+2]	8.9[+2]	4.4[+2]	15[+2]	30[+2]	24[+2]	24[+2]
Macao, China	2016	1.0	1.9	1.2	1.5	16	14	11	10
	2000	0.47[+2]	1.6[+2]	1.0[+2]	0.71[+2]	29[+2]	27[+2]	25[+2]	22[+2]
Malaysia	2016	57	267	...	...	16	12	...	...
	2000	25[+2]	159[+2]	77[**,+2]	...	23[+2]	19[+2]	18[**,+2]	...
Mongolia	2016	6.8	9.2	...	...	33	30	...	...
	2000	3.2[+2]	7.6[+2]	9.4[+2]	3.5[+2]	26[+2]	32[+2]	23[+2]	20[+2]
Myanmar	2016	16[-2]	188[-2]	70[-2]	30[-2]	28[-2]	28[-2]	36[-2]	23[-2]
	2000	1.9[-1]	155[-1]	54[-1]	14[-1]	22[-1]	31[-1]	28[-1]	38[-1]
Philippines	2016	75[-1]	478[-1]	...	...	30[-1]	30[-1]	...	...
	2000	22[+2]	362[+2]	104[+2]	48[+2]	30[+2]	35[+2]	45[+2]	23[+2]
Republic of Korea	2016	99	164	104	130	...	...	...	...
	2000	21[-4]	138[-4]	94[-4]	97[-4]	25[-4]	28[-4]	27[-4]	23[-4]
Singapore	2016	0.34	...	...	0.94	12	...	...	18
	2000	0.13[+1]	1.2[+1]	0.34[+1]	0.73[+1]	41[+1]	25[+1]	25[+1]	19[+1]
Thailand	2016	...	301[-1]	129[-1]	111[-1]	...	17[-1]	26[-1]	31[-1]
	2000	...	326[+2]	105[**,+2]	68[**,+2]	...	19[+2]	23[**,+2]	25[**,+2]
Timor-Leste	2016	0.62	...	...	2.2	32	...	...	25
	2000	...	3.9[+2]	1.0[+2]	0.76[+2]	...	47[+2]	32[+2]	26[+2]
Viet Nam	2016	232	397	314	...	17	20	16	...
	2000	103[+2]	355[+2]	243[+2]	...	21[+2]	26[+2]	26[+2]	...
PACIFIC									
Australia	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	...	105[**,-1]	...	...	...	18[**,-1]	...	...
Cook Islands	2016	0.03	0.11	...	0.11	17	17	...	6
	2000	0.03[+2]	0.14[+2]	...	...	14[+2]	18[+2]	...	...
Fiji	2016	...	3.7[-4]	2.3[-4]	2.7[-4]	...	28[-4]	26[-4]	13[-4]
	2000	0.34[**,+1]	4.1[+1]	...	...	21[**,+1]	28[+1]	...	...
Kiribati	2016	...	0.66	0.41	...	...	26	18	...
	2000	...	0.66[+2]	0.28[+2]	0.28[+2]	...	22[+2]	19[+2]	18[+2]
Marshall Islands	2016	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	2000	0.12[+2]	0.52[+2]	0.18[+2]	0.20[+2]	12[+2]	17[+2]	17[+2]	16[+2]
Micronesia (Federated States of)	2016	...	0.70[**,-1]	0.21[**,-1]	...	...	20[**,-1]	20[**,-1]	...
	2000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

Pupil-trained teacher ratio				Pupil-qualified teacher ratio				Region, Country or Territory
Pre-primary	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Pre-primary	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	
(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	
								CENTRAL ASIA
9[2]	17[2]	...	...	9[2]	17[2]	...	...	Kazakhstan
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	120	...	...	...	34	...	...	Kyrgyzstan
56[+2]	...	...	...	...	49[+2]	...	...	
	22[+1]	...	...	20[+1]	23[+1]	...	...	Tajikistan
12[+2]	27[+2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Turkmenistan
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
12[+1]	21[+1]	9[+1]	16[+1]	12[+1]	21[+1]	9[+1]	15[+1]	Uzbekistan
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
								EAST ASIA
26	12	11	9	15	10	12	9	Brunei Darussalam
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
32	43	20	...	32	43	20	...	Cambodia
30[+2]	59[+2]	21[+2]	23[+2]	...	...	...	...	
...	...	...	...	21	17	13	17	China
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Democratic People's Republic of Korea
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	14	...	...	...	14	...	...	Hong Kong SAR of China
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	...	...	...	22	17	23	15	Indonesia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Japan
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
20	24	19	20[**]	43	26	20	31[**]	Lao People's Democratic Republic
18[+2]	39[+2]	25[+2]	26[+2]	...	...	...	...	
16	14	12	12	16	14	11	10	Macao, China
29[+2]	31[+2]	41[+2]	38[+2]	...	...	...	...	
17	12	...	...	16	12	...	...	Malaysia
...	20[+2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	
33	30	...	...	35	30	...	...	Mongolia
26[+2]	32[+2]	23[+2]	20[+2]	...	...	...	...	
58[-2]	28[-2]	38[-2]	24[-2]	...	...	...	...	Myanmar
...[-1]	51[-1]	45[**,-1]	39[**,-1]	...	...	...	...	
30[-1]	30[-1]	...	...	32[-1]	30[-1]	...	...	Philippines
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Republic of Korea
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
12	...	...	22	12	...	...	48	Singapore
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	17[-1]	26[-1]	31[-1]	...	17[-1]	26[-1]	31[-1]	Thailand
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Timor-Leste
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
17	20	16	...	17	20	16	...	Viet Nam
...	30[+2]	28[+2]	...	...	...	...	...	
								PACIFIC
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Australia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
21	18	...	...	...	...	...	...	Cook Islands
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	28[-4]	26[-4]	13[-4]	...	...	...	...	Fiji
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	35	...	...	...	27	18	...	Kiribati
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Marshall Islands
12[+2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
174[-1]	...	...	...	126[-1]	...	...	...	Micronesia (Federated States of)
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	

Table 7: continued

Region, Country or Territory	Reference year	Number of teachers (MF, 000)				Pupil-teacher ratio			
		Pre-primary	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Pre-primary	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
PACIFIC									
Nauru	2016	0.03	0.05	0.02	0.02	23	40	26	23
	2000	0.05[+2]	0.06[+2]	...	...	13[+2]	26[+2]	...	...
New Zealand	2016	14[-1]	25[-1]	16[-1]	19[-1]	8[-1]	14[-1]	15[-1]	13[-1]
	2000	...	20[+2]	15[+2]	...	...	17[+2]	18[+2]	...
Niue	2016	0.01	0.01	0.01	...	6	15	20	...
	2000	0.01[+1]	0.01[+1]	...	...	6[+1]	18[+1]	...	...
Palau	2016	0.03[-2]	...	...	...	18[-2]	...	...	...
	2000	0.06	0.12	0.06	0.07	10	16	16	14
Papua New Guinea	2016	...	32[-4]	8.1[-4]	5.7[-4]	...	45[-4]	30[-4]	24[-4]
	2000	...	14[**,+1]	...	...	...	36[**,+1]	...	...
Samoa	2016	0.34	...	...	0.94	12	...	...	18
	2000	0.13[+1]	1.2[+1]	0.34[+1]	0.73[+1]	41[+1]	25[+1]	25[+1]	19[+1]
Solomon Islands	2016	2.0[-1]	4.1[-1]	1.7[-1]	0.49[-1]	24	26[-1]	19[-1]	...
	2000	...	3.0[-1]	...	...	...[-1]	19[-1]	...	...
Tokelau	2016	0.01	0.02	0.01	...	4	12	11	...
	2000	0.01[+2]	0.02[+2]	...	...	14[+2]	13[+2]	...	...
Tonga	2016	0.17[-2]	0.78[-2]	...	...	12[-2]	22[-2]	...	...
	2000	0.10	0.75	...	...	...	22	...	...
Tuvalu	2016	0.07[-1]	0.12[-1]	0.06[-1]	0.15[-1]	11[-1]	13[-1]	...	...
	2000	0.04[+1]	0.08[+1]	0.03[+1]	...	18[+1]	18[+1]	25[+1]	...
Vanuatu	2016	0.92[-1]	1.7[-1]	0.83[-1]	0.17[-1]	16[-1]	27[-1]	18[-1]	31[-1]
	2000	0.83[+1]	1.5[+1]	...	...	10[+1]	24[+1]	...	...
SOUTH AND WEST ASIA									
Afghanistan	2016	...	144[+1]	...	...	...	44[+1]	...	...
	2000	...	26[-1]	...	...	...	33[-1]	...	...
Bangladesh	2016	...	548	205	232	...	34	41	32
	2000	62[+2]	...	159[+2]	161[+2]	23[+2]	...[+2]	41[+2]	27[+2]
Bhutan	2016	0.57	2.5	4.1	2.5	12	38	13	8
	2000	0.02	2.1	0.72	...	22	41	32	...
India	2016	461[-1]	4,399[-1]	2,182[-1]	1,910[-1]	20[-1]	31[-1]	30[-1]	33[-1]
	2000	535[+2]	2,833[+2]	1,254[+2]	1,104[+2]	9[+2]	41[+2]	36[+2]	28[+2]
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	2016	...	286[-1]	131[-1]	204[-1]	...[-1]	27[-1]	16[-1]	18[-1]
	2000	14[+2]	308[+2]	...	...	24[+2]	24[+2]	...	...
Maldives	2016	1.4	4.3	2.7	...	16	10	6	...
	2000	0.56[+2]	3.4[+2]	1.6[+2]	0.09[+2]	23[+2]	20[+2]	15[+2]	16[+2]
Nepal	2016	48[+1]	198[+1]	55[+1]	61[**,+1]	20[+1]	21[+1]	34[+1]	24[**,+1]
	2000	13[+2]	97[+2]	27[+2]	32[+2]	20[+2]	40[+2]	40[+2]	20[+2]
Pakistan	2016	...	452	394	196[**]	...	48	18	29[**]
	2000	...	414[*,+2]	...	...	...	35[*,+2]	...	...
Sri Lanka	2016	...	76	80	71	...	23	17	18
	2000	...	70[**,+2]	60[**,+2]	...	...	25[**,+2]	22[**,+2]	...
REGIONAL AVERAGES									
World	2016	9,851[**]	31,316	19,254[**]	14,863[**]	17[**]	24	17[**]	17[**]
	2000	5,639[**,+2]	25,455[+2]	15,968[+2]	10,230[+2]	18[**,+2]	26[+2]	19[+2]	17[+2]
Asia and the Pacific	2016	4,415[-1]	16,583[-1]	9,544[-1]	7,135[-1]	19[-1]	23[-1]	19[-1]	22[-1]
	2000	2,372[**,+2]	13,740[+2]	7,791[+2]	4,396[+2]	19[**,+2]	28[+2]	22[+2]	21[+2]
Central Asia	2016	169[**,-1]	252[-1]	537[**,-1]	236[**,-1]	11[**,-1]	19[-1]	10[**,-1]	11[**,-1]
	2000	114[+2]	247[+2]	...	...	11[+2]	21[+2]	...	...
East Asia	2016	3,493	10,492	5,877	4,214	18	17	14	16
	2000	1,396[**,+2]	9,253[**,+2]	5,250[+2]	2,503[+2]	23[**,+2]	23[**,+2]	19[+2]	18[+2]
Pacific	2016	...	190[**,-3]	...	...	...	22[**,-3]	...	...
	2000	24[**,+2]	156[**,+2]	...	...	20[**,+2]	20[**,+2]	...	...
South and West Asia	2016	1,094[**]	5,855	3,392	2,950	20[**]	35	26	29
	2000	837[+2]	4,083[+2]	1,870[+2]	1,605[+2]	13[+2]	40[+2]	34[+2]	28[+2]

Pupil-trained teacher ratio				Pupil-qualified teacher ratio				Region, Country or Territory
Pre-primary	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	Pre-primary	Primary	Lower secondary	Upper secondary	
(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	
								PACIFIC
23	40	26	23	23	40	26	23	Nauru
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	New Zealand
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
6	17	25	...	6	15	20	...	Niue
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	...	...	...	18[-2]	...	...	...	Palau
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	45[-4]	30[-4]	24[-4]	...	...	...	...	Papua New Guinea
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
12	...	...	22	12	...	...	48	Samoa
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	43[-1]	23[-1]	...	...	40[-1]	21[-1]	...	Solomon Islands
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
10	18	15	...	...	...	...	...	Tokelau
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	23[-2]	...	...	...	23[-2]	...	...	Tonga
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	...	...	...	22[-1]	20[-1]	...	...	Tuvalu
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
34[-1]	95[-1]	86[-1]	152[-1]	30[-1]	37[-1]	23[-1]	39[-1]	Vanuatu
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
								SOUTH AND WEST ASIA
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Afghanistan
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	67	61	54	...	34	41	32	Bangladesh
...	...	112[+2]	129[+2]	...	...	...	...	
12	38	13	8	12	38	13	8	Bhutan
24	43	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	India
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	27	16[-1]	18[-1]	...	27[-1]	16[-1]	19[-1]	Iran (Islamic Republic of)
...	...[+2]	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	...	...	...	18	12	7	...	Maldives
49[+2]	31[+2]	18[+2]	29[+2]	...	...	...	...	
23[+1]	21[+1]	38[+1]	27[**,+1]	22[+1]	22[+1]	37[+1]	28[**,+1]	Nepal
...	272[+2]	142[+2]	70[+2]	...	...	...	...	
...	63	30	...	...	...	...	...	Pakistan
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	33	36	...	...	27	21	22	Sri Lanka
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
								REGIONAL AVERAGES
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	World
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Asia and the Pacific
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Central Asia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	East Asia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	Pacific
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	South and West Asia
...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	

United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization

Education Sector

Paving the Road to Education

A target-by-target analysis of SDG 4 for Asia and the Pacific

The globally adopted development agenda "Transforming our World: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development" has established ambitious intentions that build on the past Millennium Development Goals but also expand on their achievements.

The Sustainable Development Goal 4 on education propels forward the vision of ensuring inclusive and equitable quality education and to promote lifelong learning opportunities for all through a holistic, aspirational and systematic education agenda. Education monitoring is an integral part in this process.

This publication delivers a data-rich snapshot of Sustainable Development Goal 4, its targets and their monitoring indicators while analyzing available data through a lens of inequality. Assessing the progress which countries have made in the recent past as well as where countries currently stand, this publication sets a baseline against which Member States from Asia and the Pacific are able to monitor progress in achieving the Goal 4 over time but at latest by 2030.

Finally, after discussing emerging opportunities and remaining challenges in the region, this publication seeks to assist Member States in identifying what steps can be taken to ensure that the region will achieve the new education agenda.

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Sustainable Development Goals