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Advocacy Brief

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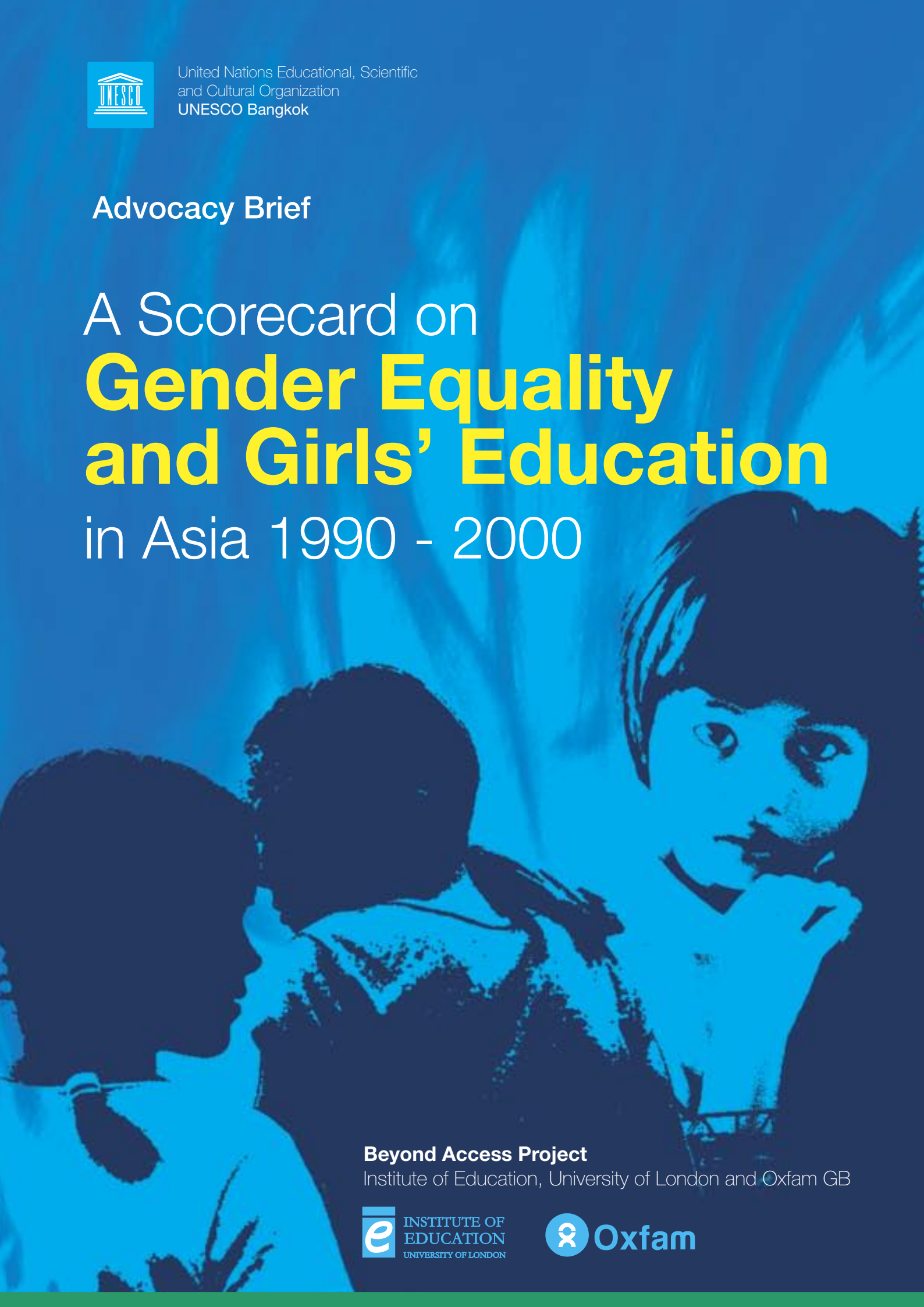

Beyond Access Project
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A Scorecard on **Gender Equality and Girls' Education** in Asia 1990 - 2000

Report prepared for UNESCO Bangkok, September 2004

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A Scorecard on Girls' Education in Asia 1990 - 2000[1]

This briefing reports on results derived from applying to Asian countries a methodology for measuring gender equality in schooling and education used by the Beyond Access project, and first documented in a report to the Commonwealth Secretariat on Commonwealth countries in Africa (Unterhalter et al, 2004). The methodology takes some ideas of measurement associated with Amartya Sen's capability approach and utilizes these in relation to existing data sets regarding girls' access to and continuation in school, as well as to their survival into adult life. (Sen, 1999; Unterhalter and Brighouse, 2003).

The ideas that have driven the construction of this scorecard are multi-faceted. Existing measures for access to and efficiency in the school system are very limited as measures of gender equality, even though there have been marked improvements in sex-disaggregated of data. These access and retention measures cannot, in their raw form, point to a wider understanding of gender equality in schooling nor, as a result, in the area of education more generally. Thus, the idea for developing a scorecard that weighs enrolment, participation and survival into adulthood originated from concern over the need to find a publicly accountable measure that could distil some general components of human flourishing linked to education and schooling. This has been done using insights from the UNDP's Gender Development Index (GDI), and linking these with the data on schooling collected by UNICEF and UNESCO.

We are aware of the many pitfalls associated with this approach to measurement and with the construction of scorecards: The risk of an over-summarized representation of complex historical processes diminishing a thorough understanding of the situation. The approach also suggests the interrelationship between countries or regions as competitive – a culture of winners and losers – when, in actuality, they are deeply interrelated and in need of each other's support. It sets up an arbitrary board of scorers, who generally have little experience with delivery, to judge performance. It tends to extinguish the processes entailed in working towards achievement, scoring only 'results.' In addition, because of highly aggregated data, a scorecard presents inflated versions of some countries' achievements and deflated versions of others, particularly countries where there are wide regional variations in relation to the selected indicators of gender equality. Because of the extensive reliance on government data, which is not always of high quality, countries that inflate enrolment or retention ratios, possibly to attract donors, might appear as high scorers, while countries that take care with the validity of data are penalized and appear as low scorers. Any of these are compelling reasons not to proceed down this path of analysis, with regard to either scorecards or measures of gender equity.

However, aside these arguments lies the confusion that results from not knowing which countries or districts are improving their gender equity in education. Beyond the very limited insights provided by enrolment and retention data, the questions of which areas need resources (understood more broadly than desks and classrooms), in what form and why remain difficult to answer without hard information. Insight into how countries can learn from each other must also be sought. Hence, with an emphasis on taking the Millennium Development Goal[2] (MDG) seeking gender equality in education by 2005 seriously, the Beyond Access project outlook focuses on harnessing all available energies to work together in support of the MDG (Aikman, Challender and Unterhalter, 2003). This has led to the development of a methodology that can measure a problem of global significance. Our view is that this pressing need mitigates to some extent against the negative aspects of scorecards as outlined above.

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[1] Our thanks to Joseph Crawford and Jacob Steel for help with working out the formulae used in the scorecard and assessing the usability of some of the data.

[2] Millennium Development Goal 3: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005, and at all levels by 2015.

It is in this spirit that the scorecards discussed here have been developed; however, constructing them has not been a simple matter. Despite the excellent data put together by UNESCO and UNICEF, there are gaps in their tables. Where these have occurred, we have searched for the missing data in country reports, UNDP and World Bank reports or other published output (see Appendices 1 and 2). We have also interviewed various people with in-depth country knowledge (see Appendix 3). Inevitably, though, gaps remain. Some countries, notably Afghanistan, Bhutan and Brunei, have no publicly available data for 2000 concerning key areas of gender equality used in this scorecard. We have, therefore, had to omit them from the analysis. Other countries - Cambodia, Viet Nam and Myanmar - have incomplete data for the 1990 table, and they have been omitted from the comparative discussion. There is a particular problem that relates to the countries of Central Asia which in 1990 were part of the USSR. While the tables in Appendices 1 and 2 are, themselves, not assembled from data sources of equal quality, we have compiled the fullest statement of measurements in these four areas so far put together, and we hope they will be of use to other researchers whether or not they draw on the Scorecard's approach.

Given all these difficulties of conceptualization, measurement, quality and accessibility of data, the *Scorecard On Gender Equality and Girls' Education in Asia* is intended to expand understanding and facilitate comparison with regard to achievements of gender equity in and through schooling. Measures have not been based on the Gender Parity Index (GPI), but on measures of girls' participation in and benefits from schooling. This is partly because the GPI gives scant insight into the qualitative dimensions of schooling for girls and boys, as well as into the intersection of schooling with other areas of social policy. A second reason for not drawing on the GPI is that an emerging consensus from a number of country studies suggests that when the quality of education improves for girls, it generally improves for boys, too (Mlama, 2003; Muito 2003; Global Campaign for Education, 2003; Pattman and Chege, 2003). However, in some regions of the world, there are problems with boys not continuing in school, and an interesting extension of this study might cover a scorecard on boys' schooling, as well.

Scorecard tables are based on a number of key indicators with regard to girls' schooling and education in Asia. Technical information concerning the construction of the scorecards is to be found in Appendix 1 for the 2000 Scorecard and Appendix 2 for the 1990 Scorecard. The scorecards have been developed to look at access and retention in broader ways than analysed heretofore. They look not only at numbers of girls who attend and remain in primary school, but also at whether those girls are able to translate their attendance and retention into future secondary-level schooling and healthy, income-earning lives. Four widely-used measures have been employed to develop the score for girls' access to and retention in school. These measures are:

- Girls' net attendance rate at primary school
- Girls' survival rate over 5 years in primary schooling
- Girls' secondary Net Enrolment Ratio (NER)
- Country gender development index (GDI)

These measures were selected because they point to access into primary schooling (net attendance rate) derived from household surveys, retention in primary schooling (survival rates), potential of the education system to generate teachers and managers who care about gender equality (girls' secondary NER), and the possibilities for these women to survive and flourish as adults (GDI). We are aware of the considerable difficulties in using NER because of the inadequacy of birth registration information, but, as discussed below, when no attendance rate was available for a country, NER has been used as a proxy for attendance. The Gender Empowerment Measure[3] (GEM) would have been a stronger indicator of gender equility in a country than the GDI, but the GEM has not been

[3] Gender Empowerment Measure, used by UNDP in its Human Development Report, is based on the percentage of seats in parliament occupied by women, the proportion of jobs in senior management and professions held by women, and the proportion of income earned by women. It is a better measure than GDI because it indicates how women put their education to use in relation to decision-making and earning.

calculated for many countries in Asia, and comparative data from 1990 to 2000 was not available on the GEM. As a result, the GDI has been used to give comparative trends for all countries. An interesting follow up project might entail working with the GEM in selected countries to see if different trends emerge.

The measures were weighted so that primary attendance (or enrolment when attendance figures were not available, notably for the 1990 data set) was only half as important as survival through five years of primary schooling. Secondary NER was scored somewhat more important than primary attendance, while a society's health and wealth dimensions as reflected through the GDI were considered twice as important as primary attendance.

The 2000 Scorecard data has been largely based on government data collected by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics for the *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2003, the UNICEF Report on the State of the World's Children* and each country's own EFA assessments (UNESCO, 2003; UNICEF, 2004). The data for the 1990 Scorecard comes from much more dispersed sources, and for some countries, only some very questionable measures were available. Sex-disaggregated data was not systematically collected in 1990; school attendance rates were not surveyed and only some countries collected net enrolment rates at the primary and secondary levels. In addition, eight countries in Asia did not exist in 1990 because they were part of the USSR.

As described in Appendix 2, we have tried to overcome some of these very difficult problems with the data by using a variety of proxies. Thus, the earliest available sex-disaggregated primary school NER in the 1990s has been used as a proxy for girls' school attendance rate in 1990. While NER cannot give information about how many children attend school on a given day, it provides some measure relating to girls' access to school. This measurement has been used for 20 countries in Table A, Appendix 2. For the remaining seven countries for which we had nearly full datasets, we were not even able to find NER values for the early 1990s. For these countries, five of which were then part of the USSR, we have only been able to find sex-disaggregated GER data. Thus, for these and other reasons related to information from the former USSR, we consider the data on the former Soviet Republics for 1990 to be unsafe.

Using GER data inflates a country's score because it measures all the children in school as a proportion of a large age group, rather than NER, which measures children enrolled as a proportion of the appropriate age group, All seven countries for which GER is substituted for NER (Armenia, Azerbaijan, Kazakhstan, Sri Lanka, Tajikisatan, Uzbekistan, and Viet Nam) have high scores in the primary school enrolment column (see Table B, Appendix 2).

We have not been able to complete a full dataset for Viet Nam in 1990 due to the absence of figures for primary school survival rates. Therefore, despite documenting girls' GER in Viet Nam for the early 1990s, we have drawn no conclusions about the country's position on the scorecard. However, if we include the GER for Sri Lanka in 1992, we do have a full dataset for that country. Using data based on the GER gives Sri Lanka quite a high position on the scorecard. In Table E, Appendix 2, we have done an alternative calculation for Sri Lanka based on an estimated NER of 70%. We have estimated this based on accounts by Little (1999) and Gunarwardena (2003) of state education's expansion for girls and boys during the 1980s. Two scores for Sri Lanka are entered in Table 2.

Data on the children's survival rate in schooling was not disaggregated by sex until the late 1990s. However, a comparison of the sex-disaggregated data in 2000 and the aggregated data for 1990 indicates that there is at most only 5% difference either way for any one country. This supports one of the main findings of the *UNESCO EFA Global Monitoring Report 2003*: Once girls get into school, they remain there and do well (UNESCO, 2003). In light of this, and in order to have a measurement of girls' school survival for the scorecard representing the early 1990s, we have used the period's sex-disaggregated information for survival rates assuming that the level of error would not be too large.

Virtually no secondary NERs were collected for girls in the 1990s. As Appendix 2 shows, we have largely had to use secondary GERs in this field of measurement. While we were initially concerned that this would artificially inflate country scores (the 2000 Scorecard used secondary NER), most countries - with the exception of the former Soviet Central Asian republics - had secondary GERs that did not look hugely inflated compared with the NERs recorded a decade later. Once again, in order to have proxy data, these measures were used; however, those considered particularly unsafe are highlighted in the appendix (see Appendix 2, Tables A and B).

As noted above, those less reliable figures are largely for the former Soviet states. For these countries, namely Armenia, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan and Uzbekistan, no primary or secondary sources we consulted had sex-disaggregated regional figures for these areas in the 1990s (although measures have been collected for 2000). We had to decide whether to omit these countries from the comparative 1990 Table altogether, or seek some proxy measure for 1990. We were interested to see what results would be achieved if the figure for the USSR was utilized in the areas of measurement for which there was no regional measure (primary and secondary NER and primary retention). These figures, themselves, were not easy to obtain, but the results have been presented in Appendix 2. Indeed, the problems of aggregation are enormously distorting for these countries, much more so than in India, where the national figure has been arrived at through an open process of data collection. Therefore, the 1990 scores for these countries are considered unsafe. While they are included to provide as full a data set as possible, any interpretations based on these figures need to be formulated with caution.

The 1990 and 2000 Scorecards

Table 1 reflects gender equality in school figures for Asia during 2000.

Table 1 Gender Equality and Education Scorecard 2000

	Gender equality and education score %	Rank
Japan, Korea, Singapore	100	1
Armenia, Fiji, Kyrgyzstan, Malaysia, Sri Lanka	94	2
Kazakhstan	91	3
China	89	4
Georgia	88	5
Thailand	86	6
Maldives	85	7
Azerbaijan, Tajikistan, Viet Nam	84	8
Mongolia, Uzbekistan	81	9
Indonesia	76	10
Philippines	68	11
Bangladesh	48	12
India	41	13
Cambodia, Nepal	36	14
Myanmar	34	15
Lao PDR	26	16
Pakistan	20	17
Afghanistan, Bhutan, Brunei, Turkmenistan	INCOMPLETE DATA	

Source: Derived from Appendix 1.

A number of interesting issues arise from the 2000 Scorecard. Firstly, the table divides into two very distinct halves. There is a large group of high scoring countries, predominantly in South-East Asia and Central Asia, but it is notable that Sri Lanka, China, Viet Nam and the Maldives - which are not high-income countries - are in this group. There is also a large group of low scoring countries, including the very populous India and Bangladesh. There is a big gap between the lowest ranking 'high scorer' Philippines (68%) and the highest ranking 'low scorer' Bangladesh (48%). This outcome is quite different to that found in Africa, for example, where there are a large number of low scoring countries, but no apparent regional disjuncture (Unterhalter et al, 2004).

Secondly, while it is no surprise that countries such as Japan, Korea and Singapore, which have a high GDP per capita, come at the scorecard's top end, it is notable that countries with relatively low GDP per capita, such as Sri Lanka and China, also score so highly. This result seems to highlight the achievements of policies on gender equality in access to education, health and, to some extent, employment over many decades, regardless of levels of income and wealth in the country. Indeed, the example of Sri Lanka bears this out: It is on a par with the much richer Malaysia, and has a far higher score than Thailand. This high score has been achieved despite many decades of war, underlining observations that, despite the war, aspirations for education are widespread (Little, 1998).

Thirdly, countries which have or have had Communist governments for long periods (China, the former Soviet republics, Mongolia and Viet Nam) or countries which have had many decades of government commitment to the expansion of education (South Korea) score much more highly than countries that have had less co-ordinated policies on mass education, such as India and Pakistan. A country like Bangladesh, which has mobilized huge local and international resources to improve education, scores much more highly than other countries in South Asia, where policy on education has been less clearly directed.

Fourthly, countries that have suffered long periods of war and repressive government (Lao PDR, Cambodia and Myanmar) have particularly low scores. This bears out a similar trend observed in Africa (Unterhalter et al, 2004). However, some caveats are needed. Viet Nam suffered many decades of war, and yet its score is double that of Cambodia and Lao PDR. The reasons for this might be that the war in Viet Nam ended in 1974, and was followed by a concerted reconstruction and reunification effort with focused five-year plans. By contrast, the war in Cambodia ended in 1979 with virtually the whole infrastructure of the country destroyed. For nearly a decade, there was no clear government reconstruction effort in education. Although the war in Lao PDR ended in the 1970s, a low intensity war continued for years, marked by sharp ethnic tensions. Thus, while a history of conflict does point to great difficulties in achieving a high gender equity in education score, these difficulties are not insurmountable. Once again, this was a trend observed in Africa where South Africa, Namibia and Uganda, despite histories of war and repression, were high scorers. We believe this could be linked to very focused reconstruction programmes in education. An exception to this general observation is Sri Lanka, where, despite many decades of war, the country scores highly on our gender equality and schooling index. There is clearly a need for more investigation into issues of gender equality, education and violent conflicts.

Fifthly, there are some interesting issues that arise when the scores of India, Bangladesh and Pakistan are compared. Bangladesh scores more highly than India, and considerably more highly than Pakistan. It is likely the problem of aggregated data reduces India's score and increases Bangladesh's. In most southern Indian states, gender equity measures are high, while in most northern states, they are low (Dreze and Sen, 2000). The very large numbers of districts where enrolment and achievement are low contributes to India's low score. In Bangladesh, by contrast, aggregation of data hides problems of the smaller number of thanas (districts) where gender equity measures are low. In these very populous countries, the scorecard methodology may be less useful for the country as a whole than for particular districts.

The 2000 Scorecard indicates that twenty countries in Asia are relatively high scorers. They have achieved the 2005 MDG, or are very close to doing so. However, seven countries are low scorers, and will not achieve the MDG by this measure. There is no information for another four countries, two of which - Afghanistan and Bhutan - are likely on the basis of the information in Appendices A and B to be low scorers. This scorecard, hence, emphasizes the importance of paying considerable and urgent attention to gender equality issues in these countries.

Table 2 presents the gender equity scorecard for the early 1990s.

Table 2 Gender Equality and Schooling Scorecard 1990

NB - Some figures, especially for former USSR, are very unsafe.

	Gender equality and education score %	Rank1
Korea, Japan, Singapore	100	1
Brunei	97	2
Kazakhstan, Turkmenistan	91	3
Malaysia	89	4
Georgia, Kyrgyzstan	88	5
Armenia, Azerbaijan	84	6
Fiji	83	7
Uzbekistan	81	8
China	79	9
Mongolia, Tajikistan	78	10
Philippines	75	11
Sri Lanka	74 (68)*	12
Indonesia	68	13
India	28	14
Bangladesh, Pakistan	23	15
Afghanistan, Lao PDR, Nepal	20	16
Cambodia, Bhutan, Maldives, Myanmar, Thailand, Viet Nam	INCOMPLETE	

** 68% more likely estimated score; see calculations Table E, Appendix 2*
Source: Derived from Appendix 2

Interestingly, Table 2 indicates that the sharp division between high scorers and low scorers observed in 2000 for the region is long established. All the countries in the low scoring group in 2000 were in that group in 1990. This implies that a huge amount of additional effort is needed to move up the table from a low score. However, there have, indeed, been spectacular achievements by some low-based countries, as is discussed below.

High-income countries, such as Japan, Korea and Singapore, scored highly at the beginning of the 1990s (unsurprisingly). However, the scorecard also indicates the length of time for which Sri Lanka has had high gender equity in schooling scores, even though these may be slightly inflated (see above and Table E, Appendix 2). In the 1990s, Sri Lanka was a low-income country, but the very significant investments in education show up with generally high gender equity scores. The striking contrast is between Sri Lanka's score in comparison with that of India, despite India's far larger economy.

The correlation noted between war, repression and low gender equity in education is evident here, too. Afghanistan and Lao PDR come at the bottom of the table. Unfortunately, the data for Viet Nam is incomplete for 1990, so it is unclear whether at that date it was a relatively high scorer, or whether its major advance took place during the 1990s.

Table 3 presents details of countries that moved up or down the scoreboard over the course of the 1990s.

Table 3 Change in Scores 1990-2000

Improvers

	Scores in 19890	Scores in 2000	Percentage improvement of score 1990-2000	Rank in order of improvement	Human Development Index (HDI) rank
Bangladesh	23	48	109%	1	138
Nepal	20	36	80%	2	140
India	28	41	46%	3	127
Lao PDR	20	26	30%	4	135
Sri Lanka	74 (68) *	94	27% (38)	5 (4)	96
China	79	89	13%	6	94
Fiji	83	94	13%	6	81
Armenia	84	94	12%	7	82
Indonesia	68	76	12%	7	111
Tajikistan	78	84	8%	8	116
Kyrgyzstan	88	94	7%	9	110
Malaysia	89	94	6%	10	59
Mongolia	78	81	4%	11	117

** Figure in brackets denotes score using estimated NER and calculations in Table E, Appendix 2*

Fallers

	Score in 1990	Score in 2000	Percentage decrease of score	Rank in order of who has fallen most	HDI rank
Pakistan	23	20	13%	1	142
Philippines	75	68	9%	2	83

Change in score 1990-2000-Static

	Score in 1990	Score in 2000	Percentage decrease of score	Rank in order of who has fallen most	HDI rank
Korea, Japan, Singapore	100	100	0		28
Kazakhstan	91	91	0		78
Georgia	88	88	0		97
Azerbaijan	84	84	0		91
Uzbekistan	81	81	0		107

Table 3 indicates a spectacular rise up the scorecard for Bangladesh and Nepal by 2000 (although Nepal still has a very low score). Both, however, started the decade from a very low base. These are two of the three lowest Asian countries on the UNDP's Human Development Index (HDI), yet they are at the top of the Improvers list. Pakistan, meanwhile, saw a 13% decrease in score between 1990 and 2000. India improved by nearly 50%, yet still remained in the lower scoring part of the scorecard. Bangladesh and India both have important women's mobilization efforts, associated on the Africa and Latin America scorecards with higher ranks, and this might well be a contributory factor in the considerable gains both countries have made. The absence of women's mobilization in this form may contribute, together with large expenditure on arms, to Pakistan's fall down the scoreboard.

Sri Lanka maintained a high rank, improving by 27% (or possibly as much as 36% if the lower score is used). Amongst the higher scoring countries, a small group who were already high scorers maintained their high position with either no or relatively little change over the decade (Japan, Singapore, Korea, Mongolia, Malaysia). However, a number of other high scorers (Indonesia, China, Thailand and Sri Lanka) made quite substantial moves up the scorecard from middle to high ranks, possibly demonstrating the benefits of the earlier investments in gender equity in education. This is particularly pertinent when considering future directions for middle scoring countries like the Philippines and Bangladesh over the next ten years. However, the Philippines' score fell by 9% over the decade, perhaps as a result of the country's southern war and the impact of displacement on education. Its falling score indicates that gains in gender equality can be fragile.

In addition, there is a significant move up the scorecard by Lao PDR, although again from a very low base. Like Nepal, the move does not take the country out of the low scoring group of countries; however, it is important to note that countries - even those who have experienced terrible turmoil - do improve and that education is a process where gains for well-being can be noted.

Conclusion

The Asian scorecards, for all the difficulties with data quality and this form of measurement, do point to some useful insights with regard to Millenium Deveopment Goal achievements. Firstly, co-ordinated government policies with strong local champions within government, NGOs or a women's movement can lead to significant increases in score. Good scores, once attained, yield value over decades. Secondly, little action on gender equity in education, coupled with large internal inequalities, can lead to a fall in score. Thirdly, the effects of war linger for many decades after fighting officially ends. Reconstruction requires very sustained programmes. While the MDG may seem unattainable for some countries, gains are evident in some of the poorest countries. These deserve celebration, and sustain hope that all countries will, indeed, attain their MDGs by 2015.

Appendix 1

Calculating the Girls' Access and Retention in Education Scorecard for 2000

The scorecard was constructed using four measures deemed useful as indicators of girls' access to and retention in schooling. The indicators selected were girls' primary attendance rate, girls' survival rate over five years of primary schooling, girls' secondary NER and the GDI. The data is extremely scattered and, as the tables note, attendance rates and secondary NER were not available for all countries. When these have not been found, either primary NER or secondary GER have been used. For the 1990 Table, virtually all measures of secondary school enrolment are secondary GER and, thus, data is comparable within this time frame (but there are difficulties in comparing with the later time period as is discussed on p. 3). For the 2000 Table, secondary NER was not available for four countries and GER has been used. This may overstate the ranking of these five countries (Kyrgyzstan, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Uzbekistan and Viet Nam).

Sex-disaggregated data for survival rate over five years in primary school was not available for the beginning of the 1990s, nor for some countries in 2000. However, the data sets on boys' and girls' survival in 2000 show that there is generally only 5% difference between the sexes.[4] This reflects a finding borne out in the general conclusion of UNESCO's global education report that once girls enter school, they are able to remain over five years (UNESCO, 2003). On the assumption that there was a largely similar pattern in the early 1990s, ie. that there were no major initiatives on retention for girls in the 1990s, the aggregated figures for the 1990s have been used. (For further discussion, see p. 3.)

Table A provides the information with regard to all these measures for the countries in Asia using data from UNESCO EFA reports for 2003 and 2004, the *UNDP Human Development Report 2003*, countries' own EFA assessments and some World Bank datasets.

Table A: Selected indicators of girls' access to and retention in school for 2000

	Net girls' primary school attendance % 1992-2002	Girls' survival rate over 5 years in primary schooling % 2000*	Girls' secondary NER 2000*	Gender Development Index (GDI) - HDR 2003 (unless otherwise stated)
Afghanistan	14 (e)	35.1 + (c)		
Armenia	98 (e)	95.6 (g) (to last grade)	65.4 (b)	0.727
Azerbaijan	88 (e)	99 (g) (to last grade)	74.7 (k)	0.691 (HDR -1999)
Bangladesh	78 (e)	70.1 (a)	43.7 (b)	0.495
Bhutan		92.2 (a)		
Brunei Darussalam		91.8 (a)		0.867
Cambodia	65 (e)	62.7 (a)	12.3** (b)	0.551
China	93.0** ++ (d)	95.8 (g) **	58.4	0.718
Fiji	99.0** ++ (d)	92.4 + (c -1998)	79.2 (b)	0.743

[4] Table 5, State of the World's Children, UNICEF, 2003

Georgia	100 (e)	93.7 (g) (to last grade)	73.4** (b - data for 1999/2000)	0.630 (HDR -1997)
India	73 (e)	41.7** (a - data for 1999/2000)	40 (e) (GER 1997-2000)	0.574
Indonesia	86 (e)	100** (a)	46.4** (b - data for 1999/2000)	0.677
Japan	100 (g) (2001)	100 (m)	103 (e) (GER 1997-2000)	0.926
Kazakhstan	88 (e)	94.8 (g) (to last grade)	81.8 (b)	0.763
Kyrgyzstan	94 (e)	91.3 (g) (to last grade)	86 (e) (GER 1997-2000)	0.715 (NHDR -2001)
Lao Peoples' Dem. Rep.	59 (e)	53.9 (a)	26.9 (b)	0.518
Malaysia	98.7++ (d)	99 (l)	73.9 (b)	0.784
Maldives	99.3 (d)	98 (l)	48 (2002) (i)	0.735 (HDR -2001)
Mongolia	77 (e)	95 (f)	70.4 (b)	0.659
Myanmar	68 (e)	55.2 (a)	35.5** (b)	0.547 (HDR – 2001)
Nepal	66 (e)	70.1 (a)	23.9 (2002) (j)	0.479
Pakistan	51 (e)	50 (l)	19 (e) (GER 1997-2000)	0.469
Philippines	83 (e)	66.3 (l)	57.1 (b)	0.748
Rep. of Korea	99.9 (d)	98.7+ (c) (1997/1998)	90.9 (b)	0.873
Singapore	92 (n) x	00 (l) y	77 (e) (GER 1997-2000) x	0.880
Sri Lanka	100 (g - 2001)	97(l)	75 (e) (GER 1997-2000)	0.726
Tajikistan	81 (e)	93.1 (m)	69.2 (b)	0.673
Thailand	84.1** + (d)	96.0** (a -data for 1999/2000)	56.5(b - data for 1999/2000)	0.766
Turkmenistan	84 e)			0.748 (HDR -2002)
Uzbekistan	78(e)	89 (f)	87 (e) (GER 1997-2000)x	0.727
Viet Nam	86 (e)	94 (f)	64 (e) (GER 1997-2000)	0.687

x indicates data that refers to years or periods other than those specified (i.e. 1997-2000) differ from the standard definition or refer to part of the country

y indicates data that differ from the standard definition or refer to only part of a country, but are included in the calculation of regions and global averages

** *UNESCO Institute of Statistics estimate*

++ *The girls' primary NER for 2000 has been used as figure on primary school attendance is not available*

\+ *Figure taken from UNESCO Country Reports*

a - Survival rate to Grade 5 1999 (UNESCO 2003)

b - Girls' secondary NER 2000 (UNESCO 2003)

c - Country report

d - NER 2000 (UNESCO 2003)

e - UNICEF, 2004

f - UNICEF, 2004 survey data on % of primary school entrants reaching Grade 5 from 1995 to 2001 (aggregated)

g - UNESCO 2004

h - Department of Education – Philippines

i - Ministry of Education, Maldives

j - Ministry of Education, Nepal

k - World Bank, 2004

l - UNICEF, 2003 - % of primary school entrants reaching Grade 5 – 1995-1999 (aggregated)

m - The Status of Women and Children, Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (disaggregated)

n - Primary school enrolment rate (1997-2000 net) (UNESCO 2004)

On the basis of the information contained in Table A, a scoring system was developed on a scale of 1-5 with regard to the four different measures. The thinking with regard to the scoring system was related to the 2015 MDG and the Beijing Declaration of 1995 as follows:

Table B: Criteria for scoring achievements with regard to access and achievement in girls' education

Score	Criteria to achieve the score
5	Excellent conditions. Already at or extremely well-positioned to achieve gender equity in 2015 and fulfil the aspirations of the Beijing Declaration
4	Very good conditions. Substantial achievement with regard to gender equity, and well on the path to achieving 2015 goal with regard to access, some gains needed with regard to improving retention
3	Good conditions. Achievement towards 2015 evident, but further work necessary with regard to access and retention
2	Poor conditions. Achievement towards 2015 slow. Considerable and intensive work needed with regarded to access and retention
1	Very poor conditions. 2015 unlikely to be reached without massive mobilization to secure access and achievement

Using the criteria outlined in Table B, the following scoring system (Table C) was developed with regard to the indicators in Table A.

Table C: Scores and indicators

Score	Net girls primary attendance	Girls primary survival rate	Girls secondary NER	GDI
5	90% and above	90% and above	60% and above	0.800 and above
4	80-89%	80-89	50-59	0.700-0.799
3	70-79	70-79	40-49	0.600-0.699
2	60-69	60-69	30-39	0.500-0.599
1	59% and below	59% and below	29% and below	Below 0.499

On the basis of the scores developed in Table C, all the countries were given raw scores in the four areas of measurement (Table D).

Table D: Raw country score measurements for 2000

	Net girls' primary school attendance % 1992-2002	Girls' survival rate over 5 years in primary schooling % 2000	Girls' secondary NER 2000	Gender Development Index (GDI)
Afghanistan	1	1		
Armenia	5	5	5	4
Azerbaijan	4	5	5	3
Bangladesh	3	3	3	1
Bhutan		5		
Brunei Darussalam		5		5
Cambodia	2	2	1	2
China	5	5	4	4
Fiji	5	5	5	4
Georgia	5	5	5	3
India	3	1	3	2
Indonesia	4	5	3	3
Japan	5	5	5	5
Kazakhstan	4	5	5	4
Kyrgyzstan	5	5	5	4
Lao Peoples' Dem. Rep.	1	1	1	2
Malaysia	5	5	5	4
Maldives	5	5	3	4
Mongolia	3	5	5	3
Myanmar	2	1	2	2
Nepal	2	3	1	1
Pakistan	1	1	1	1

Philippines	4	2	4	4
Rep. of Korea	5	5	5	5
Singapore	5	5	5	5
Sri Lanka	5	5	5	4
Tajikistan	4	5	5	3
Thailand	4	5	4	4
Turkmenistan	4			4
Uzbekistan	3	4	5	4
Viet Nam	4	5	5	3

The raw scores in Table D were then weighted in order to develop an overall percentage score. The weighting was designed to reflect the relative importance of the measures with regards to indicating improvements in access and retention. The following modifiers were applied:

Girls' primary attendance x 1.25
Girls' survival rate in first five years of primary schooling x 2.5 (twice as important as attendance)
Girls' secondary NER x 1.75 (slightly more important than primary attendance as an indicator of progression and potential to educate future women teachers and administrators with concerns for gender equality)
GDI x 2.5 (twice as important as primary attendance as an indicator of women's status in the society)

Table E: Final 2000 Scorecard: Four measurements

	Net girls' primary school attendance (Score Table D x 1.25)	Girls' survival rate over 5 years in primary schooling (Score Table D x 2.5)	Girls' secondary NER 2000 (Score Table D x 1.75)	Gender Development Index (GDI) score table D x 2.5	Scorecard total (sum of weighted measures divided by 4)
Afghanistan	1.25	2.5			n/a
Armenia	6.25	12.5	8.75	10	9.375
Azerbaijan	5	12.5	8.75	7.5	8.4375
Bangladesh	3.75	7.5	5.25	2.5	4.75
Bhutan		12.5			n/a
Brunei		12.5		12.5	n/a
Cambodia	2.5	5	1.75	5	3.5625
China	6.25	12.5	7	10	8.9375
Fiji	6.25	12.5	8.75	10	9.375
Georgia	6.25	12.5	8.75	7.5	8.75
India	3.75	2.5	5.25	5	4.125
Indonesia	5	12.5	5.25	7.5	7.5625
Japan	6.25	12.5	8.75	12.5	10.00
Kazakhstan	5	12.5	8.75	10	9.0625
Kyrgyzstan	6.25	12.5	8.75	10	9.375
Lao PDR	1.25	2.5	1.75	5	2.625
Malaysia	6.25	12.5	8.75	10	9.375
Maldives	6.25	12.5	5.25	10	8.5
Mongolia	3.75	12.5	8.75	7.5	8.125
Myanmar	2.5	2.5	3.5	5	3.375
Nepal	2.5	7.5	1.75	2.5	3.5625
Pakistan	1.25	2.5	1.75	2.5	2.00
Philippines	5	5	7	10	6.75
Republic of Korea	6.25	12.5	8.75	12.5	10.00
Singapore	6.25	12.5	8.75	12.5	10
Sri Lanka	6.25	12.5	8.75	10	9.375
Tajikistan	5	12.5	8.75	7.5	8.4375
Thailand	5	12.5	7	10	8.625
Turkmenistan	5			10	n/a
Uzbekistan	3.75	10	8.75	10	8.125
Viet Nam	5	12.5	8.75	7.5	8.4375

Table F: 2000 Scorecard ranking

	Rank	Scorecard total
Afghanistan		INCOMPLETE
Armenia	2	9.375
Azerbaijan	8	8.4375
Bangladesh	12	4.75
Bhutan		INCOMPLETE
Brunei		INCOMPLETE
Cambodia	14	3.5625
China	4	8.9375
Fiji	2	9.375
Georgia	5	8.75
India	13	4.125
Indonesia	10	7.5625
Japan	1	10.00
Kazakhstan	3	9.0625
Kyrgyzstan	2	9.375
Lao PDR	16	2.625
Malaysia	2	9.375
Maldives	7	8.5
Mongolia	9	8.125
Myanmar	15	3.375
Nepal	14	3.5625
Pakistan	17	2.00
Philippines	11	6.75
Rep. of Korea	1	10.00
Singapore	1	10.00
Sri Lanka	2	9.375
Tajikistan	8	8.4375
Thailand	6	8.625
Turkmenistan		INCOMPLETE
Uzbekistan	9	8.125
Viet Nam	8	8.4375

The 2000 Scorecard

Table G: Gender Equality and Education 2000 Scorecard

	Gender equality and education score %	Rank
Japan, Korea, Singapore	100	1
Armenia, Fiji, Kyrgyzstan, Malaysia, Sri Lanka	94	2
Kazakhstan	91	3
China	89	4
Georgia	88	5
Thailand	86	6
Maldives	85	7
Azerbaijan, Tajikistan, Viet Nam	84	8
Mongolia, Uzbekistan	81	9
Indonesia	76	10
Philippines	68	11
Bangladesh	48	12
India	41	13
Cambodia, Nepal	36	14
Myanmar	34	15
Lao PDR	26	16
Pakistan	20	17
Afghanistan, Bhutan, Brunei, Turkmenistan	INCOMPLETE	

Appendix 2

Calculating the Girls' Education 1990 Scorecard

The same methodology outlined in Appendix 1 was used; however, because of the lack of secondary NER data (except for three countries), secondary GER has been used. This inflates a country's overall score. For all countries, there is no gender disaggregated survival rate at the primary level, and the scores in this area may also be inflated.

Table A: Selected indicators of girls' access to and retention in education c.1990

	Girls' primary school enrolment (NER)	Survival rate over 5 years in primary schooling %	Girls' secondary NER	Gender Development Index (GDI) 1993 (Source: HDR 1996 unless otherwise indicated)
Afghanistan	14 (a)	52 (f)	7.4 (NER 1993) (l)	0.196
Armenia	89 (p)	94 (q)	93.4 (l) (GER 1991)	0.677
Azerbaijan	89 (p)	94 (q)	89.9 (l) (GER 1991)	0.661
Bangladesh	66 (a)	26.7 (m)	12 (k)	0.336
Bhutan		84 (g)		
Brunei Darussalam	86 (a)	95(r)	64 (k)	0.808
Cambodia		42 (g)	20.7 (l) (GER 1991)	
China	95 (a)	92 (g)	45.2 (l) (GER 1991)	0.601
Fiji	100 (a)	84 (f)	59.8 (l) (GER 1991)	0.734
Georgia	91 (b)	98 (r)	68.7 NER 1994 (l)	0.646
India	61 * (j)	59 (g)	33.5 (l) (GER 1991)	0.410
Indonesia	95 (a)	81 (g)	34 (k)	0.616
Japan	100 (n)	100 (r)	1000 (r)	0.897
Kazakhstan	87.9 (l) (GER 1991)	94 (q)	97.7 (l) (GER 1991)	0.732
Kyrgyzstan	93 (c)	92 (r)	99.7 (l) (GER 1991)	0.661
Lao Peoples' Dem. Rep.	57 (a)	50 (f)	13 (k)	0.387
Malaysia	92 (d)	98 (f)	58.6 (l) (GER 1991)	0.772
Maldives		94 (g)	45.4 (l) (GER 1991)	0.599
Mongolia	81 (d)	92 (h)	64.8 (NER 1994) (i)	0.572
Myanmar	85 (j)		24.8 (l) (GER 1991)	0.447
Nepal	41 (e)	52 (f)	21.7 (l) (GER 1991)	0.308
Pakistan	62 (j)	48 (f)	17.3 (l) (GER 1991)	0.383
Philippines	100 (e)	70 (i)	74.3 (l) (GER 1991)	0.644

Rep. of Korea	99 (d)	100 (f)	85 (k)	0.816
Singapore	100 (e)	100 (r)	100 (r)	0.833
Sri Lanka	104 (o) (GER 1992)	93 (f)	39 (s)	0.679
Tajikistan	89 (p)	94 (q)	100.6 (l) (GER 1991)	0.575 (1994) - HDR 1997
Thailand		88 (r)	32.8 (l) (GER 1991)	0.811
Turkmenistan	80* (j)	94 (q)	107.3 (l) (GER 1991)	0.712 (1994) - HDR 1997
Uzbekistan	75.6 (i) (GER 1991)	94 (q)	93.7 (l) (GER 1991)	0.655 (1994) - HDR 1997
Viet Nam	101.3 (l) (GER 1991)		30.6 (l) (GER 1991)	0.539

a) NER Primary 1992 - UNESCO 1995

b) NER Primary 1996 - UNESCO 2000

c) NER Primary 1996 - UNESCO 2000

d) NER Primary 1995 - UNESCO 1998

e) NER Primary 1990 - UNESCO 1993

f) Percentage of 1991 cohort reaching Grade 5 - UNESCO 1995 (disaggregated)

g) Percentage of 1994 cohort reaching Grade 5 - UNESCO 1998 (disaggregated)

h) Percentage of 1995 cohort reaching Grade 5 - UNESCO 2000 (disaggregated)

i) Percentage of 1989 cohort reaching Grade 5 - UNESCO 1993 (disaggregated)

j) NER primary school attendance 1993-1997- UNICEF 1999
(indicates data that refer to years or periods other than specified, differ from the standard definition, or refer to only part of a country)*

k) Secondary NER 1992 – UNESCO 1995

l) http://devdata.worldbank.org/edstats/ThematicDataOnEducation/GenderDisaggregatedProfile/

m) Chowdry et al, 1999

n) UNICEF 1999 – primary school enrolment ratio (net) (1993-1995)

o) UNESCO 1995 (GER 1992)

p) UNESCO 1993 (GER 1990 for USSR)

q) UNESCO 1989, primary school completion aggregated for USSR

r) Percentage of primary school entrants reaching Grade 5 (1990-1995) aggregated – UNICEF 1999

s) UNESCO, 1998a

Table B: Raw country scores in 4 areas of measurement c.1990

	Girls' School enrolement	Girls' survival rate over 5 years in primary schooling	Girls' secondary NER	Gender Development Index (GDI)
Afghanistan	1	1	1	1
Armenia	4	5	5	3
Azerbaijan	4	5	5	3
Bangladesh	2	1	1	1
Bhutan		4		
Brunei Darussalam	4	5	5	5
Cambodia		1	1	
China	5	5	3	3
Fiji	5	4	4	4
Georgia	5	5	5	3
India	2	1	2	1
Indonesia	5	4	2	3
Japan	5	5	5	5
Kazakhstan	4	5	5	4
Kyrgyzstan	5	5	5	3
Lao PDR	1	1	1	1
Malaysia	5	5	4	4
Maldives		5	3	2
Mongolia	4	5	5	2
Myanmar	4		1	1
Nepal	1	1	1	1
Pakistan	2	1	1	1
Philippines	5	3	5	3
Republic of Korea	5	5	5	5
Sri Lanka	5	5	2	3
Singapore	5	5	5	5
Tajikistan	4	5	5	2
Thailand		4	2	5
Turkmenistan	4	5	5	4
Uzbekistan	3	5	5	3
Viet Nam	5		2	2

Table C: Weighted scores in four measures and final scorecard c.1990

	Net girls primary school enrolment score x1.25	Girls' survival rate over 5 years in primary schooling (Score Table D x 2.5)	Girls' secondary NER 2000 (Score Table D x 1.75)	Gender Development Index (GDI) score table D x 2.5	Scorecard total (sum of weighted measures divided by 4)
Afghanistan	1.25	2.5	1.75	2.5	2
Armenia	5	12.5	8.75	7.5	8.4375
Azerbaijan	5	12.5	8.75	7.5	8.4375
Bangladesh	2.5	2.5	1.75	2.5	2.3125
Bhutan		10			n/a
Brunei	5	12.5	8.75	12.5	9.6875
Cambodia		2.5	1.75		n/a
China	6.25	12.5	5.25	7.5	7.875
Fiji	6.25	10	7	10	8.3125
Georgia	6.25	12.5	8.75	7.5	8.75
India	2.5	2.5	3.5	2.5	2.75
Indonesia	6.25	10	3.5	7.5	6.8125
Japan	6.25	12.5	8.75	12.5	10
Kazakhstan	5	12.5	8.75	10	9.0625
Kyrgyzstan	6.25	12.5	8.75	7.5	8.75
Lao PDR	1.25	2.5	1.75	2.5	2
Malaysia	6.25	12.5	7	10	8.9375
Maldives		12.5	5.25	5	n/a
Mongolia	5	12.5	8.75	5	7.8125
Myanmar	5		1.75	2.5	n/a
Nepal	1.25	2.5	1.75	2.5	2
Pakistan	2.5	2.5	1.75	2.5	2.3125
Philippines	6.25	7.5	8.75	7.5	7.5
Rep. of Korea	6.25	12.5	8.75	12.5	10
Singapore	6.25	12.5	8.75	12.5	10
Sri Lanka	6.25	12.5	3.5	7.5	7.4375
Tajikistan	5	12.5	8.75	5	7.8125
Thailand		12.5	3.5	12.5	n/a
Turkmenistan	5	10	8.75	10	9.0625
Uzbekistan	3.75	12.5	8.75	7.5	8.125
Viet Nam	6.25		3.5	5	n/a

Table D: 1990 Scorecard ranking

	Rank	Scorecard total
Afghanistan	16	2
Armenia	6	8.44
Azerbaijan	6	8.44
Bangladesh	15	2.3
Bhutan		INCOMPLETE
Brunei	2	9.69
Cambodia		INCOMPLETE
China	9	7.88
Fiji	7	8.3
Georgia	5	8.75
Japan	1	10
India	14	2.75
Indonesia	13	6.8
Kazakhstan	3	9.06
Kyrgyzstan	5	8.75
Lao Peoples' Dem. Rep.	16	2
Malaysia	4	8.94
Maldives		INCOMPLETE
Mongolia	10	7.81
Myanmar		INCOMPLETE
Nepal	16	2
Pakistan	15	2.3
Philippines	11	7.5
Rep. of Korea	1	10
Singapore	1	10
Sri Lanka	12	7.44
Tajikistan	10	7.81
Thailand		INCOMPLETE
Turkmenistan	3	9.06
Uzbekistan	8	8.1
Viet Nam		INCOMPLETE

Table E: An alternative estimate of Sri Lanka's score

	Girls' primary school enrolment (NER)	Survival rate over 5 years in primary schooling %	Girls' secondary NER	Gender Development Index (GDI) 1993 (Source: HDR 1996 unless otherwise indicated)
Data compiled from Table A	104	93	39	0.679
Table A data with adjusted NER	70*	93	39	0.679
Raw scores using adjusted NER (row 2)	3	5	2	3
Weighted scores using adjusted NER (row 2)	3.75	12.5	3.5	7.5

Sril Lanka estimated scorecard (sum of weighted measures) divided by 4: 6.81, ie. 68%.
** Estimated NER based on historical and qualitative studies (Little, 1999; Gunawardena, 2003)*

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