PART II

Gender equality in education

In many developing countries girls are still less likely than boys to enter secondary education, while in many OECD countries educational attainment of women is now at least on par with that of men. Yet girls are still far less likely than boys to choose scientific and technological fields of study. This section looks at gender gaps in school enrolment rates, educational attainment and policies to address these gaps, including the role of aid in improving gender equality in education in developing countries. It examines gender differences in performance and attitudes in reading and maths, and the reasons why despite good performance women find it harder in many developing countries to find a job on leaving school. It considers how women still prefer to study humanities to sciences and asks what can be done to combat persistent stereotyping. Finally, it looks at the gender gap in financial literacy, and how to ensure women are as well-equipped as men to carry out long-term financial planning.

PART II

Chapter 4

Keeping girls and boys in school

Key findings

- Enrolment in primary education is near-universal in many countries and most countries worldwide have closed the gender gap. Exceptions are chiefly countries in South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa.
- Enrolment in secondary education varies considerably across countries. In Eastern, Middle Central and Western Africa and in Southern Asia, teenage girls are less likely than boys to stay in school. By contrast, especially in high-income countries, boys are more likely to drop out of secondary education than girls.
- Attainment rates in upper secondary education among OECD countries reveal that young women in Iceland, Korea and Spain made the greatest gains in comparison with their male peers. Young Portuguese women enjoy the largest comparative advantage.

Who is in school?

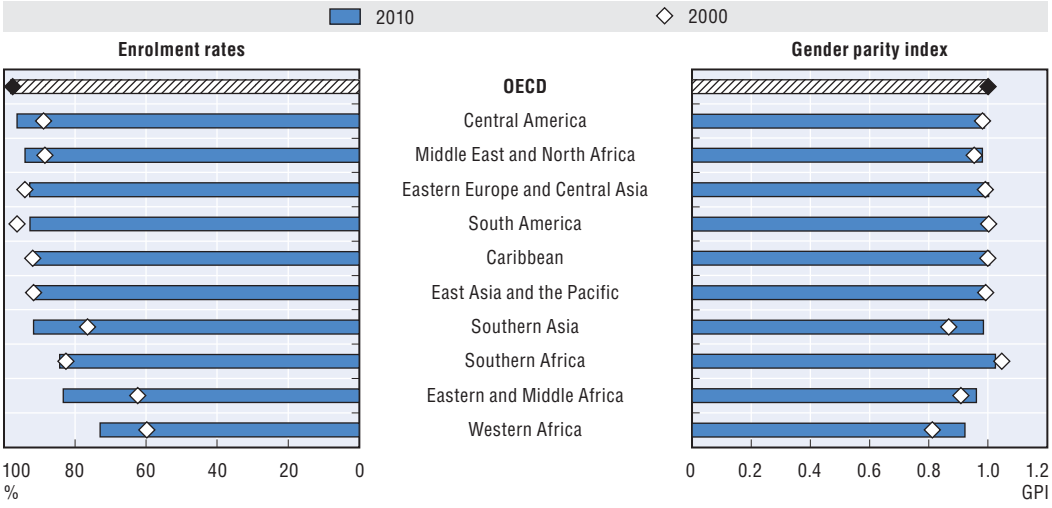
Enrolment rates

With many countries mandating schooling from around the age of six onwards, primary school enrolment is near-universal in most regions of the world. In Western Africa, however, the primary enrolment rate is barely 70% and in Southern, Eastern, and Middle Africa it is only slightly above 80%. Moreover, regional averages mask inequality within regions. In Eastern and Middle Africa, for example, Eritrea and Djibouti have primary enrolment rates of 34% and 44%, respectively, compared with 98% in Burundi and Madagascar.

Out of the 154 countries for which net adjusted primary school enrolment data were available in 2010, some 112 countries have reached "gender parity" – as many girls as boys in primary schools.* Yet Figure 4.1 shows that, despite marked progress in Western, Eastern and Middle Africa and Southern Asia, gender gaps in primary school participation persist.

Figure 4.1. **Gender gaps in primary education still persist in some geographic regions**

Average net adjusted primary enrolment rates[a] and gender parity index[b] (GPI) by world region,[c] 2000 and 2010



a) Adjusted primary net enrolment rate (ANER): total number of pupils in the official primary school age group who are enrolled at primary or secondary education levels, expressed as a percentage of the corresponding population.
b) Gender parity index (GPI): ratio of female to male values of a given indicator.
c) Country groupings are defined in the Annex II.A1. Regions are in order of decreasing 2010 enrolment rates.
Source: UNESCO Education Database 2012, UNESCO Institute for Statistics, *http://stats.uis.unesco.org/unesco/ReportFolders/ReportFolders.aspx*.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932675386*

* According to the definition used by the UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, countries are considered in gender parity when the gender parity index (GPI) is between 0.97 and 1.03.

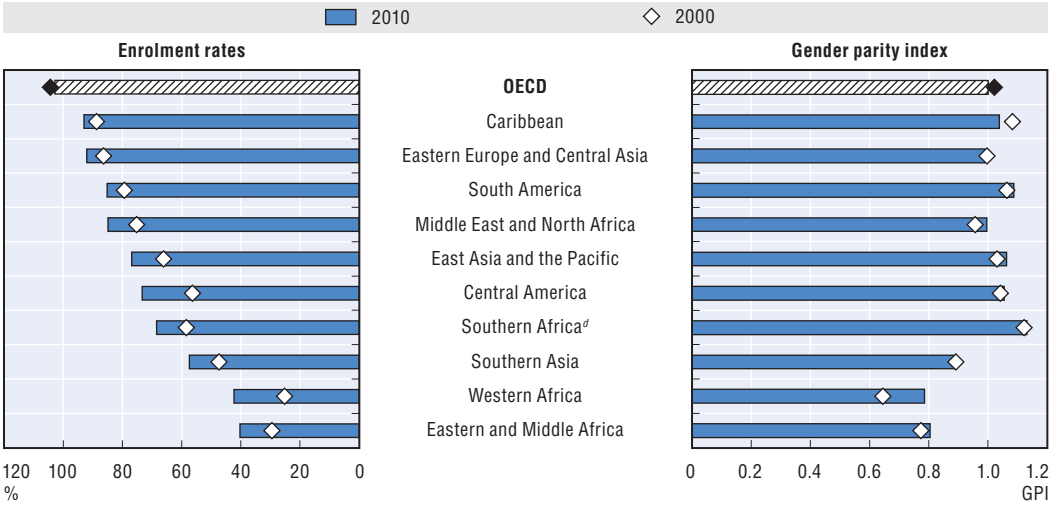
The ten countries with the highest gender inequality in primary education are all found in these regions, with Benin, the Central African Republic, Niger, Pakistan and Yemen topping the list.

Both boys' and girls' enrolment rates in secondary school are lower than in primary education and vary significantly between the more and less economically developed regions. Compulsory schooling to the age of 15-16 means that almost all children of that age attend secondary education establishments in OECD countries. In Western, Eastern and Middle Africa, however, only four out of ten children are enrolled in secondary education.

Despite the gains made over the past decade in reducing gender disparities in secondary enrolment, girls are still less likely than boys to enrol in Western, Eastern and Middle Africa and Southern Asia (Figure 4.2). Girls are disadvantaged in regions with low overall enrolment rates, while in regions with higher rates – such as South America, Central America and Southern Africa – it is the other way round. As girls' educational expectations rise at a faster pace than boys", so does their academic performance. Once they have gained access to higher education, women outstrip men in grades, evaluations and degree completions (UNESCO, 2012a).

Figure 4.2. **In secondary education girls are disadvantaged in regions with low overall enrolment rates**

Average gross secondary enrolment ratios[a] and gender parity index[b] (2010 and 2000) by world region[c]



a) Gross enrolment ratio (GER): total enrolment in a specific level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the eligible official school-age population in the same level of education in a given school year. GER can exceed 100% due to the inclusion of over-aged and under-aged pupils/students because of early or late entrants and grade repetition.

b) Gender parity index (GPI): ratio of female to male values of a given indicator.

c) Country groupings are defined in the Annex II.A1. Regions are in descending order of 2010 enrolment ratios.

d) The very high GPI value in Southern Africa is due to Lesotho (1.38) and Namibia (1.18), where the gross enrolment rate in secondary education in 2010 was low for both boys and girls. In Lesotho, the male and female secondary net enrolment rates were 39% and 54%, respectively.

Source: UNESCO Education Database 2012, UNESCO Institute for Statistics, *http://stats.uis.unesco.org/unesco/ReportFolders/ReportFolders.aspx*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932675405

Educational attainment and learning

Many developing countries have been successful in raising enrolment rates, but it is not clear to what extent learning has improved as a consequence. Evidence suggests that programmes which increased school participation, such as "deworming" (Miguel and Kremer, 2004) or the provision of school meals (Vermeersh and Kremer, 2005) and textbooks (Glewwe *et al.*, 2009) do not improve test scores. In fact, if greater participation is not accompanied by improvement in the quality of education and greater attention to children with weaker academic backgrounds, overcrowded schools or negative peer effects might actually lower test scores. Evidence from the Southern and Eastern African Consortium for Monitoring Education Quality (SACMEQ) for 15 Southern and Eastern African countries indicates that although many countries narrowed the gender gap in enrolment between 2000 and 2007, it remained stable in learning. Improvement was observed only in urban areas and among higher social economic status groups (Saito, 2011).

Sy (2011) found that in French-speaking African countries the quality factors that affect girls' achievement include female teachers, school location, class size, and teacher absenteeism. Language, ethnicity and family socio-economic background tend to compound gender inequality in learning, while speaking the language of instruction at home has a positive effect on student performance (Ouane and Glanz, 2010).

As for attainment rates in upper secondary education by gender, it appears that across OECD countries young women generally do at least as well as young men, except in Turkey. Three groups of countries emerge from comparison of the upper secondary educational attainments of younger (25-34 years old) and older (45-54 years old) men and women (see Figure 4.3):

- "Long-term male advantage countries": both younger and older women are less likely than men of the same age to have completed at least upper secondary education.
- "Recent female advantage countries": in contrast to older women, younger women are more likely than younger men to have completed at least upper secondary education.
- "Long-term female advantage countries": both younger and older women are more likely than their male counterparts to have completed at least upper secondary education.

Among the countries where lower proportions of women aged 45-54 than men of the same age have at least upper secondary education (the first two groups in Figure 4.3), progress in closing the gender gap was particularly pronounced in Australia, Iceland, Korea, Mexico and Spain (see Box 1.1 on Korea). In 2009, the proportion of women with at least upper secondary education was considerably higher than among men in Brazil, Greece, Iceland, Italy, Portugal and Spain.

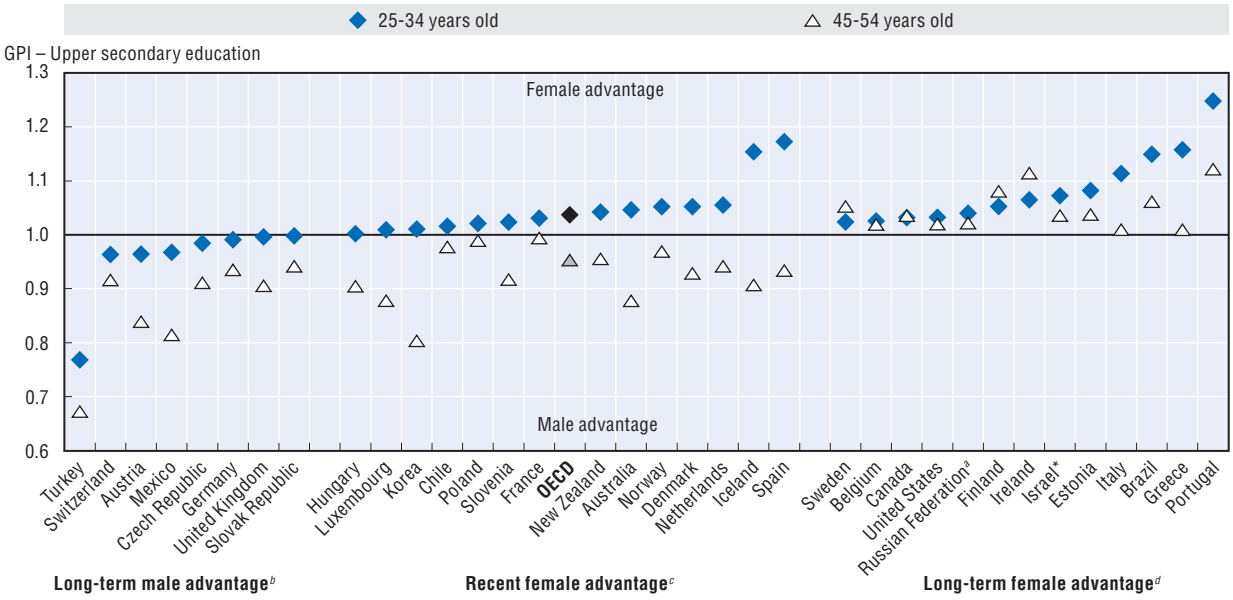
Addressing gender gaps in education

Existing gender gaps in educational outcomes are related to a mixture of economic and socio-cultural factors, such as the costs and benefits of education, social norms and gender roles, discriminatory institutions, and personal safety. These factors are interrelated, which often makes it difficult to distinguish causes and effects and/or provide immediate, targeted policy responses.

The costs of schooling are both direct – school fees, books, uniforms, and transportation – and indirect – the opportunity cost of having children in education rather than engaged in economic activity. While the direct costs are the same for boys and girls, the indirect costs vary

Figure 4.3. **In most OECD countries, young women are more likely to have completed upper secondary education than young men**

Gender parity index[a] (GPI) for the percentage of population that has attained at least upper secondary education by age, 2009



Note: Countries appear in ascending order of GPI value for 25-34 year-olds within each of the three groups – long-term male advantage; recent female advantage; and long term female advantage.

* Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

a) Gender parity index (GPI): Ratio of female-to-male values of a given indicator.

b) Long-term male advantage: GPI smaller than 1 for both 25-34 and 45-54 year-olds.

c) Recent female advantage: GPI greater than 1 for 25-34 year-olds and smaller than 1 among 45-54 year-olds.

d) Long-term female advantage: GPI greater than 1 for both 25-34 and 45-54 year-olds.

Source: OECD (2011), *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932675424*

with the prevailing gender roles. The opportunity costs of schooling include the foregone earnings of child work in the labour market or in the family business (*e.g.*, see the Understanding Children's Work [UCW] programme [*www.ucw-project.org*] on child labour and household chores). In addition to foregone earnings, the opportunity costs of schooling for girls include caring for younger siblings and unpaid domestic activities, which can take their toll on education. For example, it is frequently the duty of women and girls to fetch water – a chore which, depending on distances in rural areas and waiting times, may take up to four to five hours per day. Easier access to water, would therefore have a substantial beneficial effect on girls' enrolment in school.

In the past few decades, many countries have done away with tuition fees for primary education. But other education costs may still be barriers to participation. Kenyan parents, for example, have historically had to purchase school uniforms that cost about USD 6, accounting for a substantial proportion of the per capita income of USD 34 (Glewwe and Kremer, 2006). Interventions designed to reduce tuition fees and school uniform costs may encourage the enrolment of children from poor families. Other interventions in this direction are school meal programmes, flexible schooling models for working children, school-based malnutrition and health interventions, financial subsidies, scholarships and conditional cash transfers (Box 4.1).

Box 4.1. **Conditional and unconditional cash transfers**

In addition to general education policy, conditional cash transfers (CCTs) have also been introduced to build human capital through higher school participation rates. The success of cash transfers in Latin America in increasing educational participation is often attributed to their conditionality, whereby cash is received by households only if certain behavioural requirements are met (Behrman *et al*., 2011).

CCTs incentivise the demand side (students and parents) to overcome lack of motivation and encourage participation in schooling. At the same time, they are backed up with a provision of services to the target population. However, when low-school attendance is not principally related to parents' and students' low motivation, but is grounded in supply-side constraints (the lack of basic services in many developing countries), conditionality may not be an effective tool in boosting school attendance.

There are also differences across countries in the extent to which conditionality is applied. The Brazilian "*Bolsa Familia*" (Family Purse) programme provides benefits to low-income households – whose monthly per capita income is lower than half of the national minimum salary – and children of school age (6 to 15 years old). In the case of *Bolsa Familia* payments are conditional only on education and health services being delivered to children in the family. By 2010, the programme, launched in 2003, had reached 13 million beneficiary families (over 17 million children and adolescents of school age). The transfer amounts to a maximum of USD 112 per month to families on condition that their children attend school (on at least 85% of school days) and that family members use healthcare services. The application of eligibility criteria in Brazil is "soft": in the event of non-compliance the grant is not withdrawn. Instead, social services visit families to assess situations (Hanlon *et al*., 2010).

Before the introduction of *Bolsa Familia,* the net secondary enrolment rate in 2000 was 71% for girls and 66% for boys, compared with 86% and 78% in 2008 (UNESCO, 2011a). Soares *et al*. (2010) assert that *Bolsa Familia* increased the likelihood that a 15-year-old girl will remain in school by 19 percentage points. The largest gains occurred in the historically disadvantaged Northeast Region of Brazil, where enrolments have risen by 11.7 percentage points. Programme evaluations show that effects at primary school age are limited and mainly impact on the participation of older children.

Some CCTs are explicitly gender sensitive. The Mexican scheme "Oportunidades", for example, pays higher cash transfers for girls than boys, while the differential in support rates increases with grade levels in order to stem girls' relatively high drop-out rates after primary school in rural areas. Within two years of its implementation Oportunidades had contributed to a 9.3 percentage point increase in enrolment rates for girls in secondary school (from a base of 67%).

Another example is the Conditional Education Transfer (CET) programme for poor families implemented in Turkey since 2003. As for the majority of CCTs, the CET targets mothers and transfers cash into their bank accounts (*www.unicef.org/turkey/sy11/ge45.html*). The CET also channels higher amounts of assistance to girls than to boys in both primary and secondary school, with payments also varying according to age and the number of children in a household). The CET did not significantly affect primary school enrolment but had a noticeable effect on secondary school enrolment and attendance, subject to regional variations (Adato and Hoddinott, 2007; ADB, 2008).

Box 4.1. **Conditional and unconditional cash transfers** *(cont.)*

The South African Child Support Grant (CSG) is a means-tested benefit grant. Over the years, there has been a gradual age extension: as of 2012, children up to the age of 18 became eligible for the grant and about 60% of all children now receive it. The current amount is ZAR 240 (about USD 34) per month and in 2010, 9.4 million children benefitted from the CSG. Until recently it was an unconditional cash transfer. Since 2011, however, receipt of the CSG is conditional on furnishing proof of regular school attendance twice a year (Lund, 2011). The CSG can provide additional cash for children's uniforms or meals, which helps increase children's school participation. However, its impacts have been most visible on female labour force participation and children's nutrition.

The effectiveness of the recently introduced conditionality in South Africa is debatable. Both girls' and boys' enrolment rates at primary and secondary school level are relatively high, while remaining problems with school attendance are largely related to gaps in education services in rural areas rather than the motivation of students or their parents. In this context, conditionality imposes an additional bureaucratic layer, and since the corresponding databases and infrastructure for monitoring and enforcing the conditionality are not in place, school attendance requirements remain "soft". It is not clear that introducing conditionality in these circumstances will be effective. Nevertheless, it serves as a policy signal that confirms the importance of education and may provide some reassurance to donors and tax payers.

Policies aimed at reducing the direct and indirect costs of education tend to benefit girls more than boys. This is because in poor families more girls than boys are on the margins of schooling and reduced education costs may tilt the balance towards school. Accordingly, countries which have introduced free primary education have seen the gender gap in enrolment narrow.

Most countries worldwide have school meal policies, although it is where the need is the greatest – in African countries and India – that coverage is lowest (WFP, 2009). Although school meal programmes do not specifically target girls, they nevertheless encourage more poor households to send their daughters to school. In India, for example, the introduction of school meals contributed to an increase in the number of years that girls, though not boys, attended primary school (Drèze and Kingdon, 2001), while in Ethiopia girls switched from agricultural to housework to reconcile their school participation with unpaid work commitments (Haile *et al*., 2011).

A randomised school-based deworming programme has also been found to be cost-effective. As the programme reduces the incidence of the sickness and prompts parents to send their children to school, it is associated with significantly higher school participation rates, especially among girls and younger children (Edward and Kremer, 2000).

The benefits of education might also be different for boys and girls. Returns from education involve individual economic gains (better job, higher salary) and improved social outcomes (better health, higher social cohesion). Parents with limited financial resources might prefer to invest in boys' education rather than girls' to ensure they have the skills needed to get a decent job and marry. Although a growing body of literature suggests that mothers' education has strong social returns – lower child and maternal mortality, children more likely to attend school, and reduced gender inequality among siblings – parents usually do not consider the effect that their daughters' education might have on future

generations. In poorer contexts, parents are more likely to think about the immediate benefits of marriage, such as greater family wealth or daughters-in-law who will care for them in old age. In determining how much to invest in their children's education, parents do not weigh up the wider social benefits which underlie the rationale for public investment in education.

Dropping out and staying on

Irregular attendance, poor school performance, and drop-out rates among adolescents – particularly boys – are a growing concern in many OECD countries. In OECD countries, an average of 73% of girls complete their upper secondary education on time compared to only 63% for boys, with the gender gap in this regard exceeding 15% in Israel and Norway (OECD, 2011a). Gender differences in completion rates are largely related to school performance and differences in socio-economic background: boys drop out because they do worse than girls throughout schooling, with those from low-income households especially affected (Falch *et al.,* 2010). In OECD countries, boys and girls from lower socio-economic backgrounds or vulnerable social groups are twice as likely to be low performers and at a higher risk of dropping out (OECD, 2012a). In some countries in the MENA region, school drop-out among boys is due to the fact that they enjoy greater labour market opportunities than girls. In Abu Dhabi, for instance, boys lack the motivation to pursue education as they are practically assured of a career in the military, police, or family business (OECD, 2012b). Policies to prevent dropping out and support returns to education include a wide range of measures such as high-quality early education, tailored individual support to students when needed, and education and training opportunities that are attractive to boys (Council of the European Union, 2011; OECD, 2011a).

Policy makers need to continue to address the issue of unequal access to primary and secondary education and, where necessary, design tailored regional and local policies to address the needs of all students, including those who live in remote rural areas. Additional investment in schooling may well be most efficient if made in conjunction with investment in a range of other services that address health and care issues. Policies aimed at improving the quality of schooling, tackling poor school infrastructure, teacher shortages, and teacher absenteeism play an important role in increasing returns to education and boosting enrolment. Quality and equity in school is not a problem confined to developing countries: in OECD countries, almost one in five students fails to reach basic skill levels, while students from disadvantaged socio-economic backgrounds are twice as likely to be low performers (OECD, 2012a). Countries have to ensure that education, particularly vocational education, is relevant to labour market needs and that students do not have incentives to drop out of education too soon.

Increasing awareness among families and children of the benefits of education can be a successful, cost-effective policy for increasing school attendance and curbing drop-out rates with little cost to the public purse. A randomised evaluation of Madagascar found that providing information on returns to education for adolescents who finish primary school increased attendance by 3.5 percentage points (Nguyen, 2008). Similarly, Handa (2002) showed that adult literacy campaigns are nearly ten times more cost-effective than cash transfers in increasing primary school enrolment rates.

Getting girls into school and improving their educational outcomes requires policies to tackle such root causes of gender inequality in education as social norms, discriminatory institutions (see Chapter 2), violence against women (UNESCO, 2011a). A "girl-friendly"

school environment can help get girls into school and lower barriers to their progress through the educational system (*ibid.*). Evidence from Africa, Asia, and the Middle East suggests that sexual harassment and other forms of gender-based violence may affect girls' school enrolment or lead to increased school drop-out rates (Morrison *et al.*, 2007). Safe travel to and from school, female restroom facilities, and a balance between male and female teachers are all perceived as important in facilitating girls' enrolment.

To raise awareness of violence against women, NGOs around the world have used instruments like mass-media campaigns and community-based education. The most important lesson learned from experience is that programmes need to focus on changing the attitudes and behaviours of young men. A number of programmes that promote nonviolence among men and boys in developing countries – such as "Program H" in Brazil, "ReproSalud" in Peru, and "Men as Partners" in South Africa – have shown promising results (Guedes, 2004; Pulerwitz *et al.*, 2004). Violence against women and sexuality-related gender norms put both girls and boys at increased risk of HIV infection. Appropriate measures in schools and communities to raise awareness of the risk of HIV infection are crucial.

Another practice that has also proven to have a positive impact on girls' attendance is hiring more female teachers. The evaluation of a randomised programme in India, for instance, has found that hiring additional female teachers increased girls' attendance by 50% (Glewwe and Kremer, 2006).

Key policy messages

Gender gaps in educational participation are related to a mixture of economic and socio-cultural factors. Narrowing them requires a comprehensive, multifaceted policy approach which, in developing countries, could include:

- Reducing the direct and indirect costs of schooling by reducing or abolishing school fees and providing free stationery, uniforms, and meals.
- Local infrastructure and institutional capacity need to be taken into account when deciding on CCT conditions as the quality and availability of education and ancillary services can be uneven across urban areas and remote rural ones.
- Reducing drop-out rates and encouraging returns to education through gender-sensitive awareness campaigns on the benefits of education, improving the quality of schools, hiring more female teachers, and making curricula more relevant to the labour market.

PART II

Chapter 5

Aid in support of gender equality in education

Key findings

- Aid from DAC members in support of gender equality amounted to around USD 25 billion in 2010 – 0.32% of DAC member countries' GNI. The figure is 31% of total bilateral sector-allocable aid.
- The education sector has the highest gender equality focus, reflecting donors' gender equality objectives and key international commitments like the Millennium Development Goals.
- The gender equality focus of aid to education is uneven across regions and is significantly lower in some regions with relatively high gender disparity in enrolment rates, notably in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Total aid flows from OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC) donor countries reached a historic high of USD 129 billion in 2010, a 6.3% increase over 2009. The figure represented 0.32% of the combined gross national income (GNI) of DAC member countries. Of total DAC donor aid flow in 2009-10, USD 25.3 billion were reported as targeting gender equality and women's empowerment – 31% of bilateral sector-allocable aid screened against the DAC gender equality policy marker (Box 5.1).

Box 5.1. **The gender marker**

As part of annual reporting on their aid activities to the DAC Creditor Reporting System (CRS), DAC members are asked to indicate for each aid activity whether it targets gender equality as one of its policy objectives. To qualify as "gender equality focused", an activity must explicitly promote gender equality and women's empowerment. An activity can either target gender equality as its "principal" objective or as a "significant" objective. A "principal" score (2) is assigned if gender equality is an explicit objective of the activity and fundamental to its design – in other words, the activity would not be undertaken without that objective. A "significant" score (1) is attributed if gender equality is an important, but secondary, objective – *i.e.* not the principal reason for undertaking the activity. A "not targeted" score (0) is given if, after being screened against the gender equality policy marker, an activity is not found to target gender equality at all. Activities assigned a principal objective score should not necessarily be considered better than activities given a significant objective score, as donors that mainstream gender equality – and thus integrate it into their projects across a range of sectors – are more likely to score it as a "significant" objective.

All 24 DAC members now provide gender equality marker data to the DAC CRS, and 76% of all bilateral sector-allocable aid was screened against the marker in 2009-10. The remaining aid flows which were not screened against the marker were mainly attributable to the United States' reporting. The other 23 DAC members combined a total of 92% of their aid.

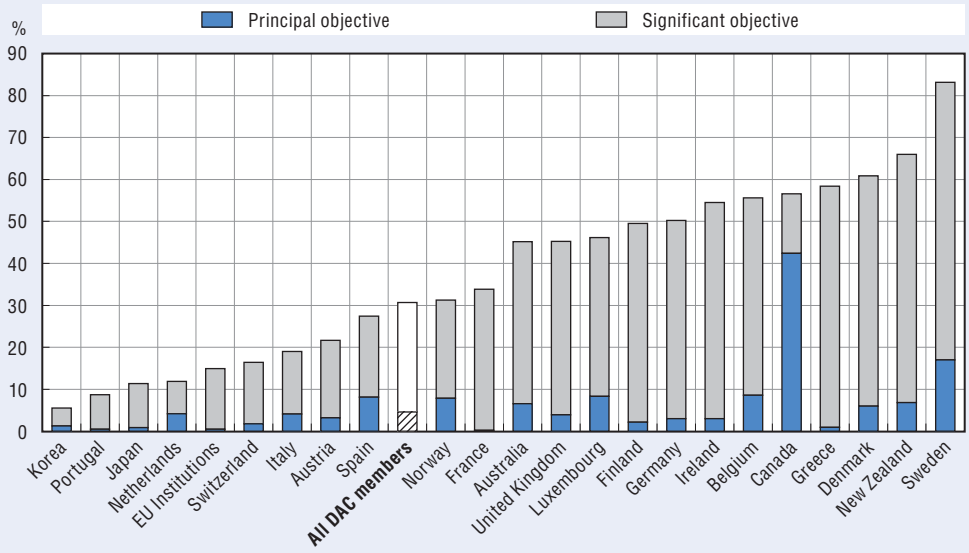
Almost all activities targeted gender equality as a significant – not principal – objective. USD 3.3 billion, or 5%, of total bilateral sector-allocable aid targeted gender equality as its principal objective. Canada stands out as the exception in this regard, with 42.4% of its aid targeting gender equality as a principal objective. One possible reason could be that Canada's development co-operation strategy includes measures to design programmes specifically aimed at reducing gender equality gaps.

A significant rise in Canada's spending on aid to gender equality has been supported by an emphasis on results-based management that incorporates descriptions of gender equality outputs into results frameworks. This approach helps planners to introduce these objectives into policy dialogue and to include them in the design phase of programmes.

Box 5.1. **The gender marker** *(cont.)*

A high share of OECD DAC aid targets gender equality as a significant objective

Gender equality focus of donors' aid programmes, percentage of 2009-10 annual average DAC members' aid commitments, 2010 prices



Notes: Countries are arranged left to right in ascending order of the percentage of gender equality focused aid (principal and significant objectives combined). The United States did not screen all its aid activities against the gender equality marker (21% coverage in 2009), so the share of aid that targets gender equality cannot be assessed.
Source: OECD Creditor Reporting System (CRS), *Aid Activity Database*, *www.oecd.org/dac/stats/idsonline*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932675481

The donor with the greatest overall proportion of gender equality focused aid is Sweden. Its prioritisation of gender equality is a whole-of-government effort, signalled through a tenfold increase in spending on gender equality across government between 2007 and 2010. As one of three thematic priorities within development co-operation, Sweden's main approach to gender equality has been to systematically mainstream it into all programmes. Policy directives require that context-specific analyses, including clear gender equality perspectives, guide the design of all programmes and operational measures.

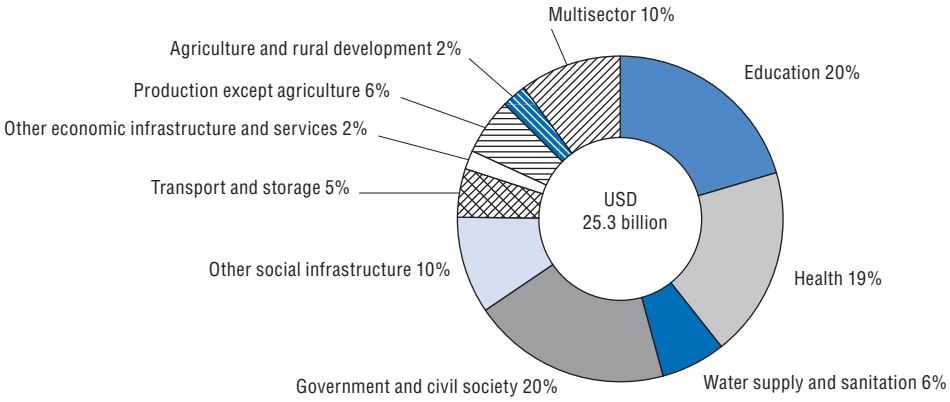
International commitments drive DAC donor aid allocation for gender equality

Data on the distribution of aid that targets gender equality suggest that DAC donor allocation decisions are influenced by international commitments like the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The target for MDG3 – promote gender equality and women's empowerment – seeks to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005 and, at all levels of education, by 2015. Gender equality marker data reveal that, in 2009-10, the education sector received one of the highest shares of gender equality focused aid –20%, or approximately USD 5.3 billion (Figure 5.1). This was equal to the government and civil society sector's allocation and just ahead of the health sector (19%).

Data show that education was the sector that targeted the highest share of its aid – 60% – at gender equality in 2009-10 (Figure 5.2). Next came the health sector with 51%, which reflects donor efforts to meet MDG5 (improve maternal health). Both sectors also

Figure 5.1. **The education sector receives the highest volume of gender equality focused aid**

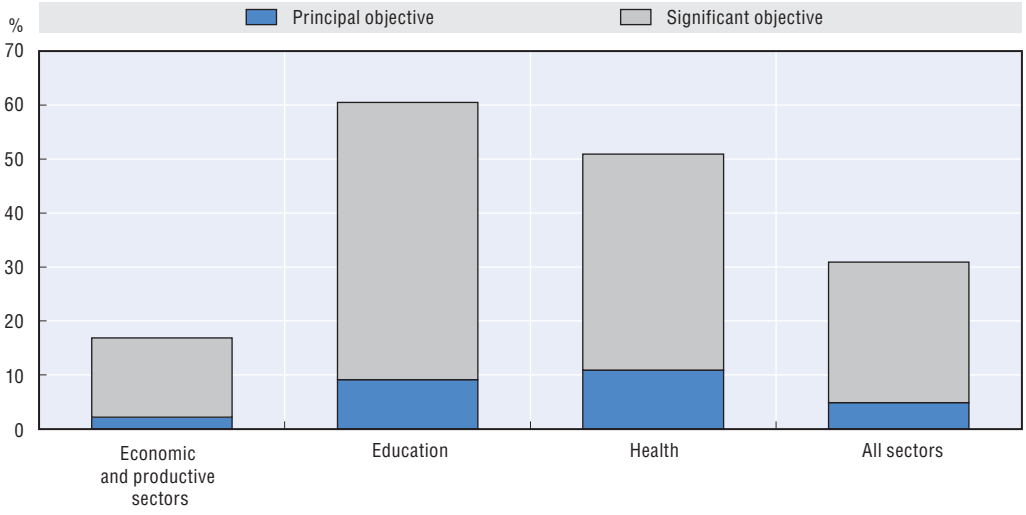
Sectoral distribution of all aid targeting gender equality, 2009-10 annual average
DAC members' aid commitments, 2010 prices



Note: The United States did not screen all its aid activities against the gender equality marker (21% coverage in 2009), so the share of aid that targets gender equality cannot be assessed.
Source: OECD Creditor Reporting System (CRS), *Aid Activity Database, www.oecd.org/dac/stats/idsonline.*
StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932675443

Figure 5.2. **The education sector has the highest proportion of gender equality focused aid**

Gender equality focused aid by sector, percentage of 2009-10 annual average
DAC members' aid commitments, 2010 prices



Note: The United States did not screen all its aid activities against the gender equality marker (21% coverage in 2009), so the share of aid that targets gender equality cannot be assessed.
Source: OECD Creditor Reporting System (CRS), *Aid Activity Database, www.oecd.org/dac/stats/idsonline.*
StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932675462

recorded relatively high shares of aid with gender equality as a principal objective: education with 9% and health with 11% (see definitions in Box 5.1). In contrast, Figure 5.1 reveals that the economic and productive sectors (banking, business, agriculture, transport) directed a significantly lower share of their aid (17%) at gender equality, despite their well documented gender inequalities (see Chapters 11, 22, 26, 27 and 29).

Setting international targets for gender equality in education has proven itself as an effective way to focus donor efforts on reducing gender enrolment gaps. More targeted international commitments could help increase donor efforts in other critical areas where the gender equality focus of aid is relatively low, such as the economic and productive sectors.

Does DAC aid to education target gender equality in regions with the greatest gender disparities?

Some regions are lagging behind in the effort to reach gender equality in education, with gender gaps persisting even in primary education enrolment (Chapter 4). Figure 5.3 illustrates the percentage of aid to primary and secondary education that was gender equality focused by region in 2009-10. The regions with wider gender gaps in primary enrolment are not necessarily the ones with the strongest gender focus in aid to education.

Figure 5.3. **The proportion of OECD DAC donor aid targeting gender equality in primary and secondary education varies across regions**

Gender equality focused aid in primary and secondary education, percentage of 2009-10 annual average DAC members' aid commitments, 2010 prices

Note: Recipient regions are arranged top to bottom in descending order of the percentage of gender focused aid in primary education. Country groupings are defined in the Annex II.A2.

Source: OECD Creditor Reporting System (CRS), *Aid Activity Database*, *www.oecd.org/dac/stats/idsonline*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932675500

Donor aid to primary education was most heavily targeted on gender equality in North Africa and the Middle East at 97% (Figure 5.3, left-hand panel). Meanwhile, only 68% of the aid to primary education targeted gender equality in Sub-Saharan Africa where, except for some countries in Southern Africa, primary school enrolment had some of the highest levels of gender disparity (see Chapter 4). There is therefore scope for DAC members to increase the gender equality focus of their aid to primary education in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Data on aid to secondary education highlight an uneven spread in the shares of donors' aid focused on gender equality across regions. The focus is particularly low in the Sub-Saharan Africa region at 73% (Figure 5.3, right-hand panel), a percentage that is inadequate given that the region fares considerably worse than all others in terms of gender parity in secondary education enrolment (see Chapter 4). The South Asia region is also yet to reach gender parity in secondary education and enrolments, with the most

significant gaps persisting in countries such as Afghanistan and India (Chapter 4). The gender equality focus of aid to secondary education to the South and Central Asia region was below average at 67%. Donors should increase efforts to ensure that their aid to secondary education in these regions includes objectives to increase the gender parity of enrolment as part of progress towards MDG2 (universal primary education) and MDG3 (promote gender equality and women's empowerment).

Policies and programmes that address the main barriers to gender parity in education

Regions face many daunting barriers to their efforts to increase girls' enrolment in primary and secondary schools (Chapter 4). A number of innovative examples from donors illustrate the role that well designed aid policies and programmes can play in helping developing countries to address challenges. AusAID, for example, has invested in facilities to train young women teachers in Papua New Guinea, while DFID has been working with state governments in Northern Nigeria to increase their capacity to deliver on increasing girls' school attendance (Boxes 5.2 and 5.3).

Box 5.2. **Educated women support Papua New Guinea's development**

About half of Papua New Guinea's (PNG) adult population cannot read or write. PNG, determined to change this, came up with an education wish list. It set an objective of at least 75% of children in primary school by 2015, with a focus on more girls not only in schools, but also in technical and vocational education. Aid provided by AusAID helped to eliminate school fees for the first few years of school, increasing primary school enrolments (many of them girls) from 53% in 2007 to 75% in 2010. The 2015 target was thus achieved five years ahead of schedule. An additional AUD 14 million in 2012 will further support the PNG government's own fee-free tuition programme, which will focus on lower secondary students in addition to primary school education.

As the number of girls enrolled increases, and as more girls complete primary school and go on to secondary school, the country needs more qualified teachers. Through AusAID support, work will soon start on improving facilities for women's colleges, such as building education rooms, health clinics, and extra female dormitories. This work will allow the colleges to accept more female students from across the country, enabling young women to receive an education and contribute to PNG's development. In doing so, it will also support PNG's own efforts to respond to a growing demand for education.

Box 5.3. **The Girls Education Project in Nigeria**

Over the past decade, Nigeria has made limited and uneven progress towards universal basic education, with its northern states suffering from particularly low enrolment rates and major gender disparities in primary school enrolment: 65% male to 35% female in 2010 (Nigeria Federal Ministry of Education, 2010). Unfortunately, the situation continues to worsen with 10.5 million children out of school in 2012, 3.6 million more than reported in 2000 and 42% of the primary school age population.

Box 5.3. **The Girls Education Project in Nigeria** *(cont.)*

Girls Education Project (GEP), a partnership bringing together Nigeria's Federal Ministry of Education, DFID and UNICEF, was launched in 2005. Since 2008, GEP has been implemented in four Northern Nigerian states. One of the project's objectives has been to build institutional capacity in state governments to address some of the biggest challenges facing the education system, such as overcrowded classrooms, poorly trained teachers, limited textbook availability, and outmoded teaching methods. Initial efforts helped a number of state governments to develop gender sensitive strategic plans for education. However, largely due to unaccountable government systems, these plans were rarely budgeted or implemented.

One way GEP addressed this was through the establishment of school-based management committees (SBMCs). State governments and donors co-financed grants awarded to SBMCs on the condition that local school plans made provisions for the improvement of the school environment; increased girls' enrolment and participation in the classroom; and improved the quality of educational inputs and services. Using the grants as incentives saw the SBMCs find innovative and practical ways to meet the conditions, *e.g.* by working with traditional and religious leaders, as well as conducting house-to-house campaigns to raise awareness of the importance of basic education for all children. Another positive intervention from the SBMCs was to help identify rural women candidates for co-financed scholarships to train as qualified teachers in their local communities. Ultimately, SBMCs proved a useful modality for channeling government resources towards raising the quality of schools and promoting female inclusion.

GEP has recently entered a third phase, and over the next eight years will be expanded into ten Northern Nigerian students. A measure of the programme's success has been the degree to which components of the project, such as the SBMC grants, have become increasingly co-financed and owned by state governments. Some states have performed better than others. For example, Bauchi State Government funded 86% of their female teacher scholarships, and the Niger State Government 78%. GEP is thus attempting to maximise the impact that aid resources can make on the achievement of MDG3 through efforts to mainstream reform into government systems and to strengthen government ability to deliver greater gender parity in education.

Key policy messages

- An increased gender equality focus is needed in aid to education in Sub-Saharan Africa and South and Central Asia to back countries' efforts to eliminate gender disparities and achieve the MDG3 targets in primary and secondary education.
- Partner countries need more support from donors to develop context-specific, innovative approaches to keeping girls in schools so that they complete a quality education.
- Setting international targets for gender equality in education has been an effective way to focus donor efforts on reducing gender gaps in school enrolment. More targeted international commitments could help increase donor efforts in other critical areas where the gender equality focus of aid is relatively low, such as the economic and productive sectors.

PART II

Chapter 6

Who is good at what in school?

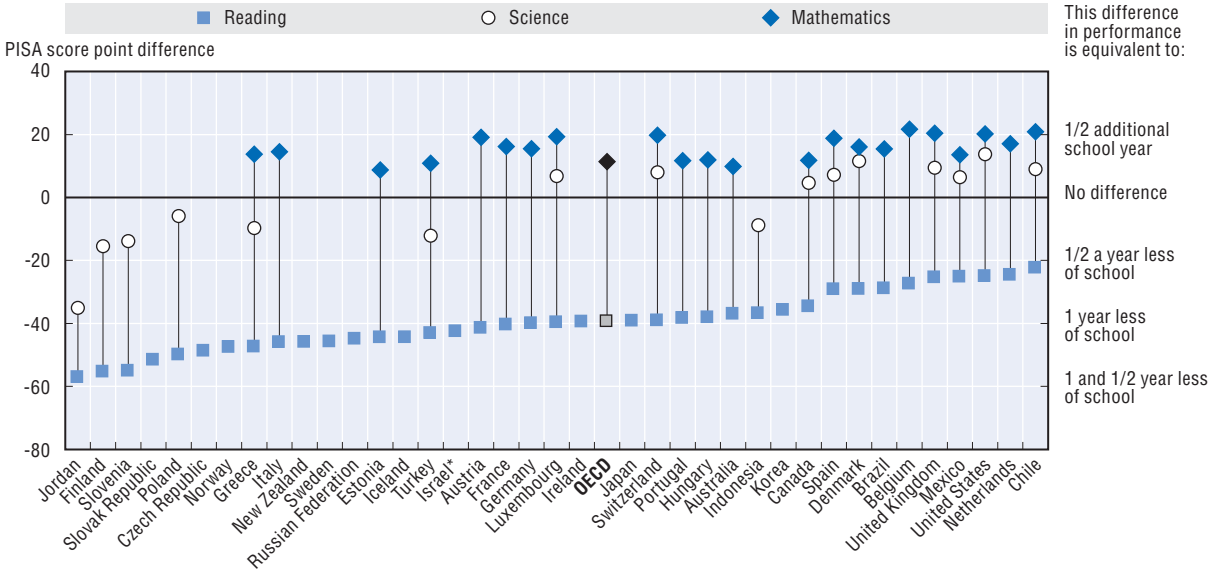
Key findings

- At age 15, girls outperform boys in reading in every country and economy that participates in PISA. The reading performance gender gap is equivalent, across OECD countries, to one year's worth of schooling. In mathematics, boys outperform girls in most economies, though gaps are generally narrower than in reading. In science, gender differences are slight and there is no consistent pattern across countries.
- Students' attitudes play an important role in shaping the gender differences in academic performances observed in mathematics and reading. Gender-stereotypical attitudes towards these subjects arise early on.
- Gender gaps are much more pronounced among low- and high-achieving students. In reading, there are many more boys lacking basic skills than girls, while in mathematics it is boys who are more likely to be among the best performing students.

Concern over gender differences in education throughout much of the 20th century focused on the disadvantages and underachievement of girls. More recently, however, the underachievement of boys in reading and that of girls in mathematics have become the focus of policy attention (OECD, 2009a). Figure 6.1 illustrates the gender gaps in reading, mathematics and science in all PISA 2009 participant countries and economies. Evidence from other studies on African countries, such as the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Education Quality (SACMEQ) and the *Programme d'Analyse des Systèmes Éducatifs des Pays de la CONFEMEN** ("CONFEMEN Programme on the Analysis of Education Systems" – PASEC), also found that boys perform better in science-based subjects and girls are more successful in reading.

Figure 6.1. **Girls significantly outperform boys in reading, but boys perform better than girls in mathematics**

Difference in PISA score points (boys' scores *minus* girls' scores),[a] 2009



Note: Countries are arranged from left to right in order of decreasing gender gap in PISA reading scores.

* Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

a) All PISA score point differences represented in the chart are statistically significant.

Source: OECD PISA Database 2009, http://pisa2009.acer.edu.au.

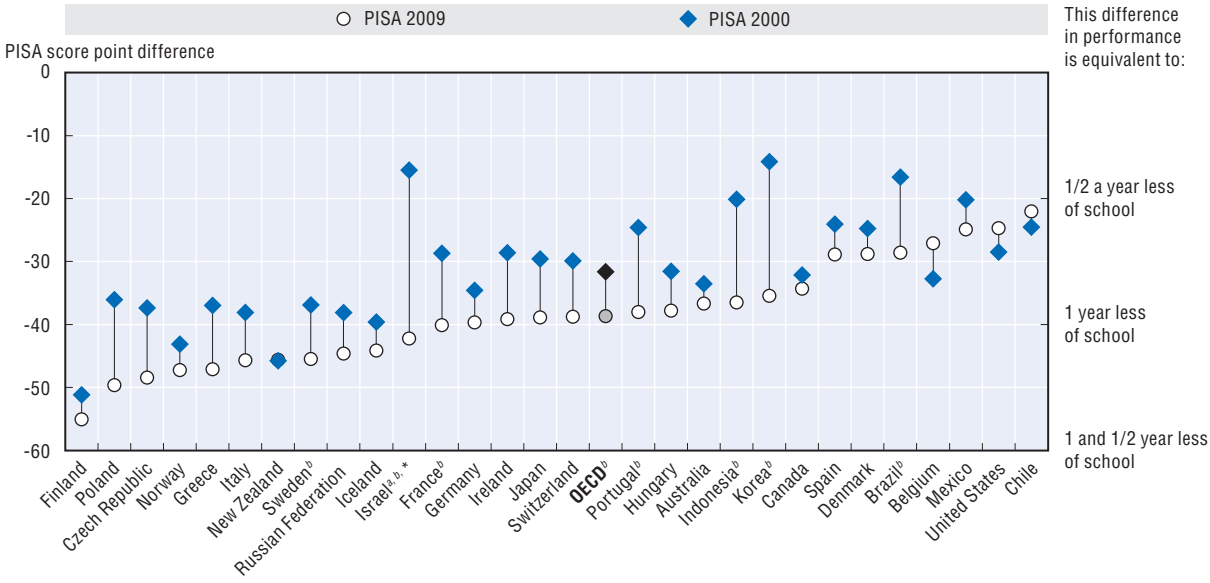
StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932675519

In the PISA 2009 reading assessment, girls outperformed boys in every participant OECD country by an average of 39 PISA score points – equivalent to roughly one year of formal schooling (OECD, 2010a). The gap was much wider in some countries than in others.

* CONFEMEN is a French-language acronym for the *Conférence des ministres de l'Éducation des pays ayant le français en partage* (Conference of Ministers of Education of French-speaking Countries).

Figure 6.2. **Girls continue to outperform boys in reading**

Difference in PISA score points (boys' scores *minus* girls' scores),[a] 2009 and 2000



Note: Countries are arranged from left to right in ordered of decreasing gender gap in PISA reading scores.

* Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

a) The Israel gender gap in reading in 2000 was non-statistically significant.

b) Gender gap in reading in 2009 was statistically significantly different from the reading gender gap in 2000.

Source: OECD PISA Database 2009, http://pisa2009.acer.edu.au.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932675538

With the exception of Denmark, Northern European countries have above-average gender gaps (Guiso *et al.*, 2008), while gender differences in East Asian countries tend to cluster just below the average, with Korea showing a gap of 35 points.

Gender performance in reading and mathematics

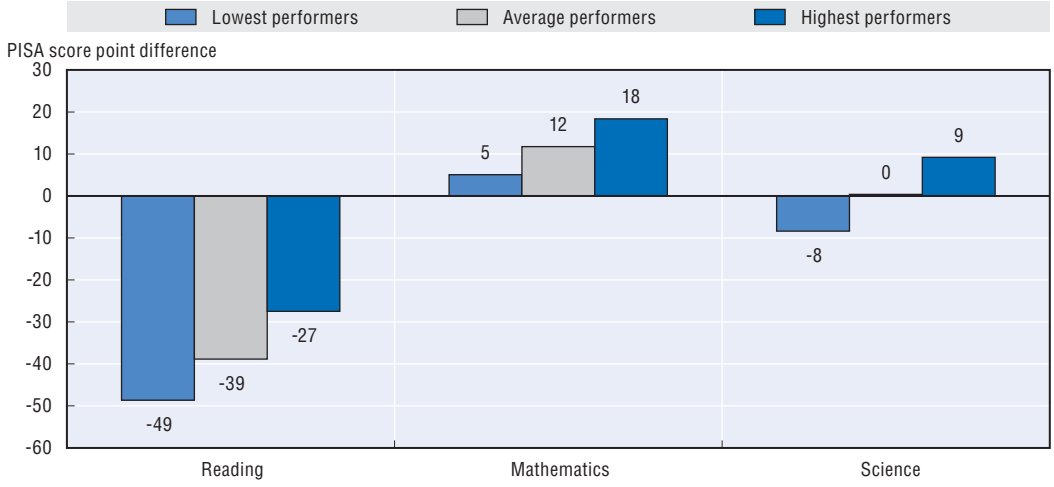
In 23 of the 34 OECD countries that participated in PISA 2009, boys performed better in mathematics than girls. Although gender differences varied widely across the countries, the average gender gap in mathematics tended to be much narrower than in reading. The widest disparities were observed in Belgium, Chile, the United Kingdom, and the United States, with an advantage of 20 score points or more for boys.

Gender differences in science performance tend to be small, both in absolute terms and relative to the wide gap in reading and the narrower one in mathematics. In 2006, when science was the main focus of the PISA assessment, gender differences were observed in two of the science processes assessed: identifying scientific issues and explaining scientific phenomena. Across OECD countries, girls scored higher when it came to identifying scientific issues, while boys outscored girls in explaining phenomena scientifically (OECD, 2007). The PISA 2000 and 2009 surveys both focused on reading, student attitudes, and engagement in reading activities. This provided the opportunity to analyse trends over that period for 38 countries, 26 of which were OECD members. The gender gap in reading performance did not narrow in any country between 2000 and 2009 and actually widened in seven.

Average differences in performance between boys and girls mask much greater gender differences between the lowest and the highest performing students. In reading, the gender gap is much larger among the lowest performing students: many boys lack basic reading skills, while only a few girls are not able to read texts and comprehend what they read (Figure 6.3).

Figure 6.3. **The gender gap in reading is widest among the lowest performing students**

Difference in PISA score points (boys' scores *minus* girls' scores) by performance level, 2009



Source: OECD PISA Database 2009, http://pisa2009.acer.edu.au.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932675557

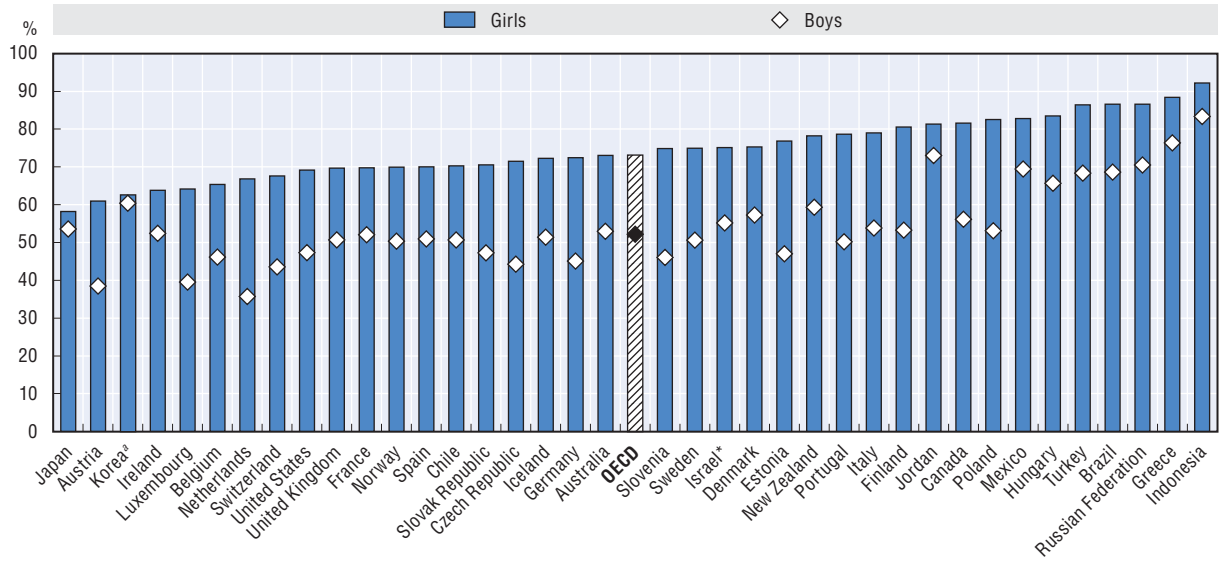
In mathematics the gender gap is negligible among the lowest performing students, but increases to almost 20 score points – the equivalent of around half-a-year of formal schooling – among the best students. Thus, while the number of 15-year-old girls and boys struggling with mathematics is similar, boys outnumber girls among students with the highest proficiency levels in mathematics. Although gaps in science are generally smaller, girls outperform boys among the lowest performing students, while there are more boys than girls among 15-year-olds with the highest levels of proficiency.

Gender attitudes to reading and mathematics

Gender gaps in performance relate closely to gender differences in student attitudes and behaviours towards reading (OECD, 2004, 2007, 2010b). Girls are more likely to enjoy reading and to read for the sake of it (Figure 6.4). Differences in gender-based attitudes to reading and in reading habits widened between 2000 and 2009 – mostly because of a sharper decline in reading for enjoyment among boys than among girls (OECD, 2010c). Boys and girls not only differ in their propensity to read, but also in the types of reading material they favour: girls are significantly more likely than boys to read long, complex works of fiction and non-fiction, while boys are more likely than girls to read comic books (OECD, 2010b). Boys not only are less likely to read for enjoyment or to value reading as an activity, they are also less confident readers and see themselves as having lower skills than girls (Baker and Wigfield, 1999).

Figure 6.4. **Girls are more likely than boys to enjoy reading**

Percentage of boys and girls who read for enjoyment



Note: Countries are arranged from left to right in ascending order of the percentage of girls who read for enjoyment.

* Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

a) The difference between girls and boys in Korea is not statistically significant.

Source: OECD PISA Database 2009, http://pisa2009.acer.edu.au.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932675576*

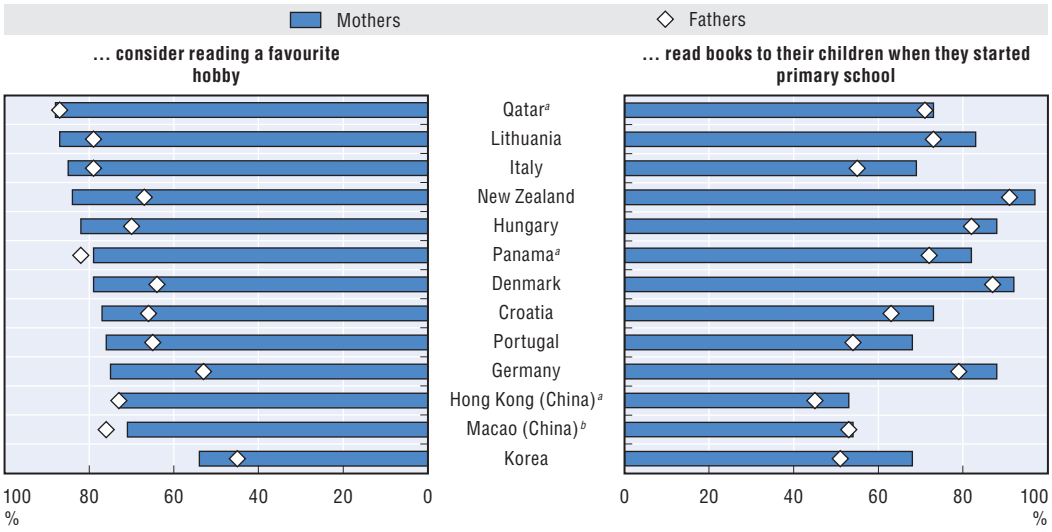
Boys show greater interest and ability in digital reading than in print reading (OECD, 2011b). Even though girls still outperform boys, the gender gap is narrower than in print reading. Among boys and girls with similar levels of proficiency in print reading, boys tend to have stronger digital navigation skills and therefore score higher in digital reading. This could be exploited to start a "virtuous cycle" where boys would read digital texts more frequently, so improving their digital reading proficiency which could, in turn, lead them to derive greater enjoyment from reading and to read printed matter more proficiently. Parents, educators, and policy makers should also take note of girls' weaker skills in digital navigation. Without them, students will find it more difficult to make their way in the digital age.

In mathematics, girls rate their own ability as lower than that of boys as early as the first year of primary school, even when their actual performance does not differ from that of boys (Fredericks and Eccles, 2002; Herbert and Stipek, 2005). Both boys and girls exhibit gender-stereotypical attitudes towards mathematics (Cvenecek *et al.*, 2011). Unlike mathematics and reading, gender differences in science performance cannot be traced back to differences in attitudes, motivation, or confidence (OECD, 2009a). Even in the absence of performance differences in mathematics and science, 15 year-old girls and boys are unlikely to expect to enter similar occupations: girls who anticipate working in fields such as engineering and computing are few and far between (Sikora and Pokropek, 2011).

PISA reveals that teenagers whose parents were reading to them when they started primary school tend to read better than their peers whose parents did not read to them (OECD, 2010d). It is especially important for fathers to read to their sons, as doing so helps change their perceptions and attitudes to reading. Yet fathers in all countries are less likely than mothers to read to their children or to harbour positive attitudes towards reading (Figure 6.5). Whether at

Figure 6.5. **Fathers are less likely than mothers to read to their children or have positive attitudes towards reading**

Proportion of mothers and fathers[a] who…



Note: This chart is based on data collected through the Parental Questionnaire which was administered in 14 countries. (Poland is excluded from the chart, since Poland's survey did not include the question on parental engagement.) Countries are arranged from top to bottom in descending order of the proportion of mothers who consider reading a favourite hobby.

a) The difference between the proportion of mothers and fathers who consider reading a favourite hobby (left panel) is not statistically significant.

b) The difference between the proportion of mothers and fathers who read books to their child (right panel) is not statistically significant.

Source: OECD PISA Database 2009, http://pisa2009.acer.edu.au.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932675595

home or school, providing boys with the kinds of books that appeal to them is an essential strategy for motivating them to read (OECD, 2010b). Finding the right books for children and parents to read together can significantly influence boys' perception of reading. Similarly, teachers can diversify their class reading lists and schools their libraries in order to appeal to the reading tastes of boys as well as girls. Parents and teachers can instil the pleasure of reading in boys by providing them with reading materials (such as comic books) they find interesting. Once the reading habit has gradually been built, longer and more complex texts such as novels and non-fiction books can be introduced. That said, simply engaging boys in discussions about what they like reading can also arouse their interest.

Turkey improved its mathematics performance between 2003 and 2009: boys by 21 score points and girls by 25. In reading, boys improved by 17 points and girls by 27. All this was achieved at a time when the enrolment of girls in education increased markedly (OECD, 2010c). In fact, Turkey implemented several projects that addressed equity issues. The aim of the campaign "Girls to Schools Now", launched in 2003, was that 100% of 6-14 year-old girls should attend primary school. Since 2003, the Ministry of National Education has supplied all primary school textbooks free of charge. More recently – in 2008 – the country initiated its Complementary Training Programme to provide all 10-14 year-olds who had never been to school or had dropped out with a basic education.

The gender gap in reading increased by 20 score points in Korea, mainly because of a marked improvement in girls' performance that was not matched by a similar trend among boys. The percentage of top performers increased among girls by more than nine

percentage points, while among boys it rose by slightly less than five percentage points (OECD, 2010c). Overall, the average reading performance improved only among girls, while it remained at similar levels among boys. The improvement in girls' performance was recorded not only in reading, but also in other assessment areas covered by PISA and other international or national studies.

Since 2000, Korea has gradually introduced a more female-friendly science and mathematics curriculum. The effort has involved promoting female scientists or engineers as role models for girls, using more gender-neutral language in textbooks, and introducing learning materials considered more interesting to girls. At the same time, national assessments such as the NAEA were redeveloped to better monitor the different ways in which girls and boys acquire skills and to use formats that girls prefer, including, for example, the constructed response-item format.

Changes in Korean society may also be a factor in the drive to make science teaching more conducive to girls. Over the past few years, the family structure has changed as the number of children per household has fallen rapidly and the number of single-child families increased. While girls from larger families were once unlikely to get a good education, sociologists note that Korean parents today tend to set great store by their children's education, regardless of gender. New opportunities and incentives for learning may be additional reasons for the emphasis placed on teaching science to girls.

Key policy messages

- The teaching of STEM subjects (science, technology, engineering, mathematics) should be made more interesting for girls – by phasing out gender stereotypes from textbooks, promoting female role models, and using learning materials that appeal to girls.
- Boys' interest and abilities in digital reading could be exploited to start a "virtuous cycle": boys would read digital texts more frequently, so improving their digital reading proficiency which could, in turn, lead them to get more enjoyment from reading and read printed matter more proficiently.
- Parents and teachers can instil the pleasure of reading in boys by providing them with reading materials (such as comic books) they find interesting. Once the reading habit has gradually been built, longer and more complex texts such as novels and non-fiction books can be introduced.

PART II

Chapter 7

Secondary school graduates: What next?

Key findings

- In many low-income countries young women are more likely than their male peers to be neither employed nor in education or training (NEET).
- For young women the likelihood of being NEETs increases with age. In OECD countries being a NEET is often related to the end of compulsory education, while in developing countries it is associated with early marriage and child bearing.
- In general, NEET rates fall with higher levels of education. However, in some countries, especially in rural areas, informal employment and bad quality jobs may account for low NEET rates.

Across the world there has been marked progress in school participation and gender equality in education (Chapter 4). However, the school-to-work transition continues to pose numerous challenges. Young women are far more likely than young men to be neither employed nor in education or training (NEET), particularly in low- and middle-income countries. Failure to overcome other barriers which prevent women from making the transition from school to work as easily as men (Chapters 2, 4 and 18) can have effects that last a lifetime.

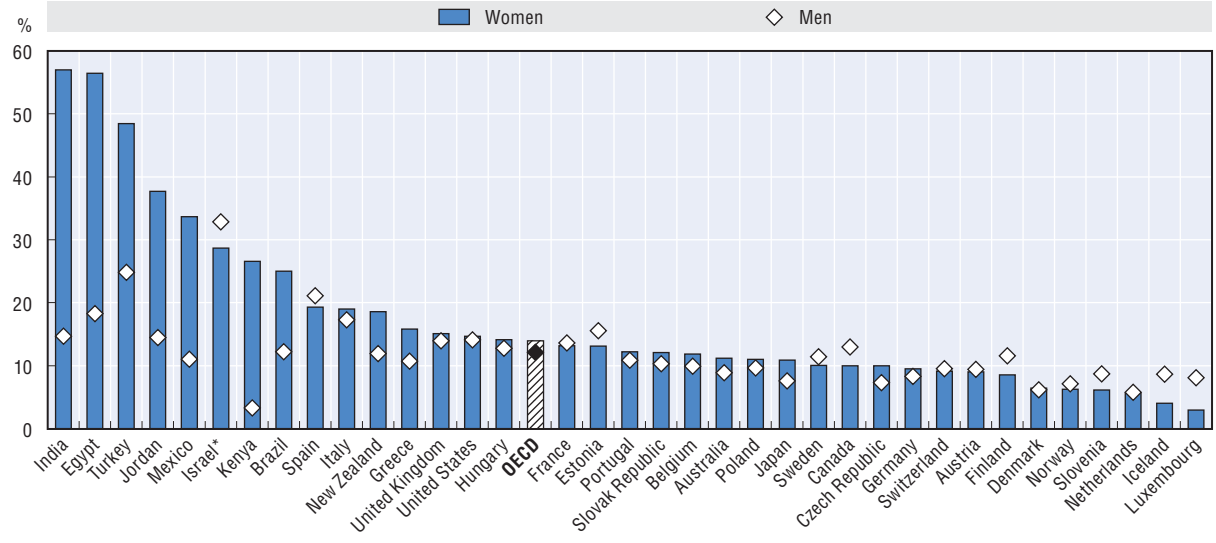
Being barred from the job market exacts a personal, social, and economic toll on young people. But being young and female, particularly in developing countries, is a double burden. While the recession further exacerbates youth unemployment, young women face even greater difficulty than young men in finding work (ILO, 2010). And in countries where women and girls are even more vulnerable to the effects of the global economic and food crises, there is a high risk that progress in gender equality and women's empowerment will be reversed (World Bank, 2009).

Employment eludes young women

In many OECD countries, NEET rates for boys and girls aged 15-24 are below 15% and do not show significant gender differences (Figure 7.1). Nor is there any clear gender

Figure 7.1. **In low and middle income countries, NEET rates for women can be relatively high**

Proportion of young people (aged 15-24) not in employment, education, or training (NEETs)



Note: Countries are arranged from left to right in descending order of young women who are NEETs.

* Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

Source: OECD estimates based on OECD (2011), *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris; Kenyan estimations based on *Demographic and Health Survey 2008* and Indian estimations based on *Demographic and Health Survey 2005-06*; both references available at *www.measuredhs.com*.

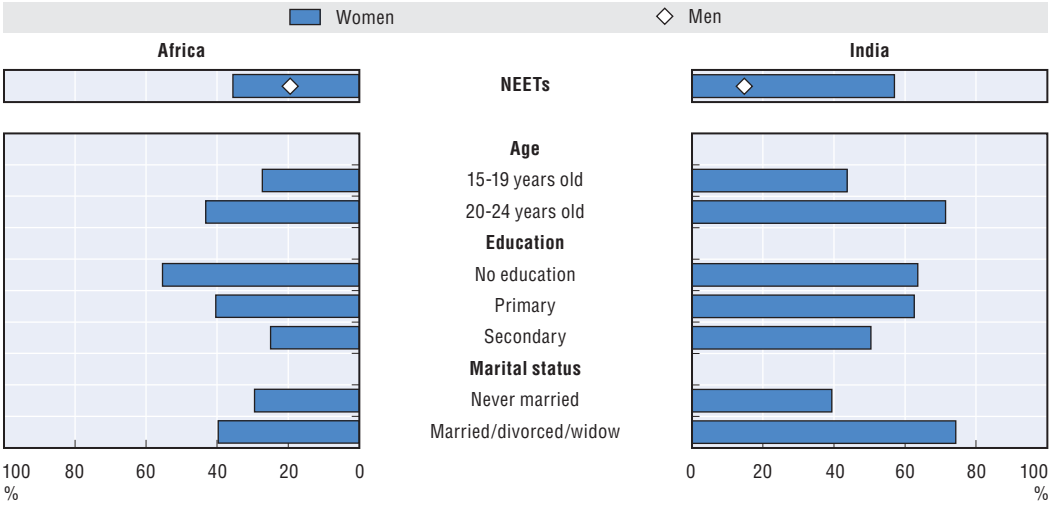
StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932675614

pattern in youth unemployment rates (ILO, 2012a). However, in some OECD countries, such as Mexico and Turkey, girls' NEET rates are much higher than young men's and comparable with those of non-OECD countries like Brazil, Kenya, Jordan, Egypt, and India.

Figure 7.2 shows that gender differences in NEET rates can be substantial in non-OECD countries. In India, for example the NEET rate among young men aged 15-24 is 15%, but at 57% India has an extremely high proportion of young women who are neither in education nor employment. In African countries the NEET rate for young men is about 20%, but 35% for young women.

Figure 7.2. **Married and less educated young women aged 20-24 are more likely to be NEETs in Africa and India**

Proportion of NEETs by age, educational levels, and marital status



Source: OECD calculations based on the Gallup World Poll (2009-10) for African countries and *Demographic and Health Survey 2005-06* for India, *www.measuredhs.com*. (African analysis includes 27 countries.)

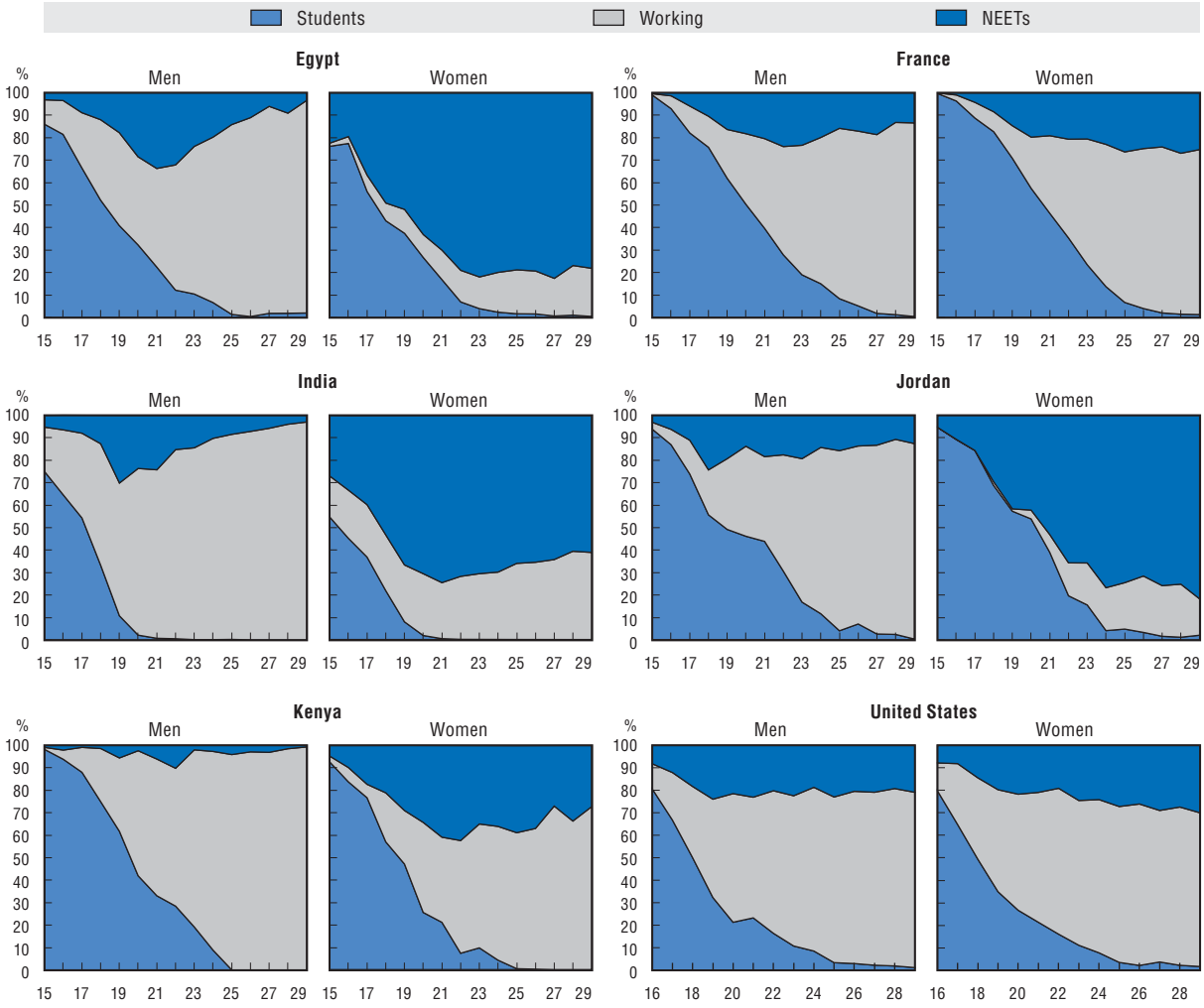
StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932675633

Girls' NEET rates are likely to worsen as they enter their 20s. In OECD countries, it is because they may have just completed compulsory education, while in developing countries it is frequently because they have married early and/or have caring duties. Indeed, Figure 7.3 shows that in India young women who are married are more likely to be NEET than unmarried women of the same age. Figure 7.2 indicates a lower variation in the NEET rate by marital status for Africa, although this masks wide regional variations. In North Africa, the NEET rate was around 64% for married women and 40% for unmarried women.

A lack of qualifications also proves a significant barrier to female labour force participation. Figure 7.2 shows that the higher the level of educational attainment among women in Africa, the lower their NEET rates are. In India there does not seem to be such a pattern at national level. In urban areas, where there are more job opportunities, female NEET rates fall as education levels rise. In rural areas, however, where much of the population have very low levels of educational attainment, young women often work out of necessity and NEET rates tend to be lower. The Indian example illustrates how important both education and decent job opportunities are in providing "empowerment opportunities" to young women (Francavilla *et al.*, 2012; and Chapter 20).

Figure 7.3. **After secondary school boys are more likely than girls to work**

Proportion of students, workers and NEETs by age and gender in selected countries (age 15-29)



Source: OECD estimates based on the *Kenya Demographic and Health Survey 2008*; the *Demographic and Health Survey 2005*, *www.measuredhs.com*; *France Labour Force Survey 2009*, Institut national de la statistique et des études économiques (INSEE); US Census (2009), "Results from the 2007 Survey of Business Owners", *www.census.gov/econ/sbo*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932675652

School-to-work transition: Young women's missed opportunity

Figure 7.3 shows the shares of young people up to the age of 30 who are students, employed, or NEETs in selected countries. It reveals young women's NEET rates are similar of those of their male peers in France and the United States. In Egypt, India, Jordan and Kenya, however, they are much more likely to be NEETs from a very early age.

Adolescence is a decisive time for young people everywhere. In developing countries it is at that age that young men tend to drop out of school to enter the labour market. Young women, instead, usually leave school and take up the burden of unpaid household work, thus missing their chance to enter the labour market. In OECD countries, boys are likely to leave school earlier than girls. For example, in France and in the United States young women at age 24 are at least as likely to participate in formal education as young men of the same age. However, as women near the time when they typically form families, they are increasingly more likely to become NEETs than their male counterparts.

The role of policy

Fostering youth employment opportunities is vital for economic development across the globe, and investment in schooling is key (Chapter 4). However, the quality of schooling in developing countries often leaves much to be desired (Box 7.1). Too many children graduate from school without acquiring the basic skills in literacy and numeracy which are essential for labour market participation and progression. Youth literacy rates remain extremely low, especially for girls, in countries such as Benin, the Central African Republic, Chad, Guinea or Sierra Leone (UNESCO, 2009). MENA countries also still lag behind many other regions in adult literacy rates (72% for the period 2005-08), especially as regards women who account for about 65% of the region's illiterate population. Nevertheless, there has been considerable progress in recent years, as evidenced by literacy rates among young people that far exceed those of adults (UNESCO, 2010).

Box 7.1. **Improving schools for better education for children: Tailored country reviews to promote reform**

The OECD has increased its efforts to promote effective education reforms across OECD member and partner countries (*www.oecd.org/edu/improvingschools*). As part of these efforts, the OECD has developed education policy country reviews tailored to address the specific challenges of a country's education system.

In 2008, the OECD produced a review tailored to help **Mexico** improve the quality of its education system. Challenges faced by the Mexican education system include a lack of capacity; unclear assignment of responsibilities across a decentralised system; and how to distribute resources across schools effectively along more institutionalised ways of consensus-building. The key recommendations, presented in two reports, can be summarised as follows:

- Develop and consolidate teacher career paths: define effective teaching, and attract, recruit, prepare, evaluate and develop a higher-quality teaching force.
- Improve school effectiveness: define effective school leadership, professionalise the training and appointment of directors, build instructional leadership capacity in and across schools, enhance school autonomy, ensure funding for all schools, and strengthen social participation.

In **Norway** in 2010-11, the OECD undertook a review to find ways of strengthening lower secondary education, where Norway faces a number of challenges. They include low student engagement and motivation, insufficiently prepared teachers, and a governance arrangement that does not necessarily fit with a decentralised education system. The key recommendations from the review were:

- Align policy design and implementation across different levels of governance.
- Raise the status of teaching and improve teacher performance: improve initial teacher education, raise salaries to attract high quality candidates, ensure teachers' continued skills and professional development.
- Improve school capacity: develop a national strategy to strengthen schools' capacities, enhance instructional leadership, and support the transition from primary to lower secondary school by creating a culture of student self-assessment and feedback for improvement.

Box 7.1. **Improving schools for better education for children: Tailored country reviews to promote reform** *(cont.)*

Further work with Norwegian policy makers and stakeholders (OECD Seminar for Leaders in Education Improvement) resulted in the design of an action plan specifically to improve lower secondary education in Norway.

In **Iceland**, upper secondary educational attainment amongst young people has fallen as a result of the high dropout rate. Dropout rates seem to be related to the education system failing to address students' needs, whereas there ought to be more career and professional development opportunities. Recommendations include:

- Support transition into upper secondary education: ensure that curricula across education levels do not overlap, strengthen the guidance and counselling of students in lower secondary education, and improve the capacity of schools to adapt to students' specific learning needs.
- Strengthen the link between vocational education and the labour market: encourage social partners (employers and unions) to send the message to students that education is important, raise the status of vocational training programmes, and incentivise schools to recapture drop-out students.
- Support teaching quality: increase the attractiveness of the teaching profession by, for example, providing career and professional development opportunities.
- Promote a governance system that focuses on support and capacity building for schools: foster collaboration between stakeholders such as teachers' unions and ministries.

Some training schemes offer school-leavers valuable grounding in fields such as life skills (leadership, managing income and budgets, understanding employees' rights); employability (interpersonal and basic job skills, particularly those that young women may lack); and basic business skills training (developing business plans, financial management, and marketing). Other initiatives to help school leavers negotiate the transition to work include job placement support, providing access to micro-credit and/or savings accounts, and learning in small groups.

The World Bank Youth Employment Inventory shows that of 291 programmes in 84 countries, only 15% actively promote the inclusion of young women (Betcherman *et al.*, 2007). The Adolescent Girls Initiative (AGI) promoted by the World Bank is currently implemented in seven countries: Afghanistan, Jordan, Laos, Liberia, Nepal, Rwanda and South Sudan. It is a public-private partnership whose programmes are tailored to local contexts (World Bank, 2010). The AGI focuses not on low-paid, gender-stereotypical jobs like flower arranger or seamstress (Levine *et al.*, 2009), but on making non-stereotypical trades like electrician, mason and mobile phone technician attractive to young women. In some countries, AGI support programmes include: improving child care and transport services; placement and counselling services; financial incentives to recruit young women; job vouchers to incentivise firms to hire new graduates with no experience; and/or awareness campaigns to reach poorer, less educated and more vulnerable girls. All AGI programmes are first run as pilot schemes, then scaled up only if they have been found to be effective upon evaluation (World Bank, 2011).

Learning opportunities for young people also depend on the structure and development of the labour market. A study of seven cities in Western Africa shows that for those employed in the informal sector the returns from vocational schools are marginal. The main forms of vocational training are traditional apprenticeships and on-the-job training, the latter dominated by women (Nordman and Pasquier-Doumer, 2012). In South Africa, government training programmes have had limited success in helping youth with no job experience. To help reduce youth unemployment, the government is proposing a youth employment incentive that takes the form of a wage subsidy to help young workers into the unionised formal sector where entry wages are relatively high.

In many countries, supply-side policies alone are not sufficient to guarantee decent jobs for young men and women. For example, adequate industrial policies (such as investment in labour-intensive industry), technology and infrastructure are required, especially in rural areas. Policy approaches need to foster youth job opportunities through the creation of a good investment climate and the removal of barriers to competition like land and credit market imperfections.

Key policy messages

Successful school-to-work transitions require integrated, multi-sector policy approaches that address such critical areas as education, labour market, migration, family programmes, and social and cultural norms. Key policy interventions include:

- Facilitating the transition from school to work by ensuring a solid educational base, offering high quality education, establishing better links between the education sector and employers, and providing extensive labour market information.
- Promoting gender-sensitive vocational training programmes that are tailored to local contexts, focus on making non-stereotypical trades attractive to women, and include placement and counselling services. Before they can be scaled up, such programmes need first to be run as pilot projects and then evaluated.

PART II

Chapter 8

Science *versus* the humanities

Key findings

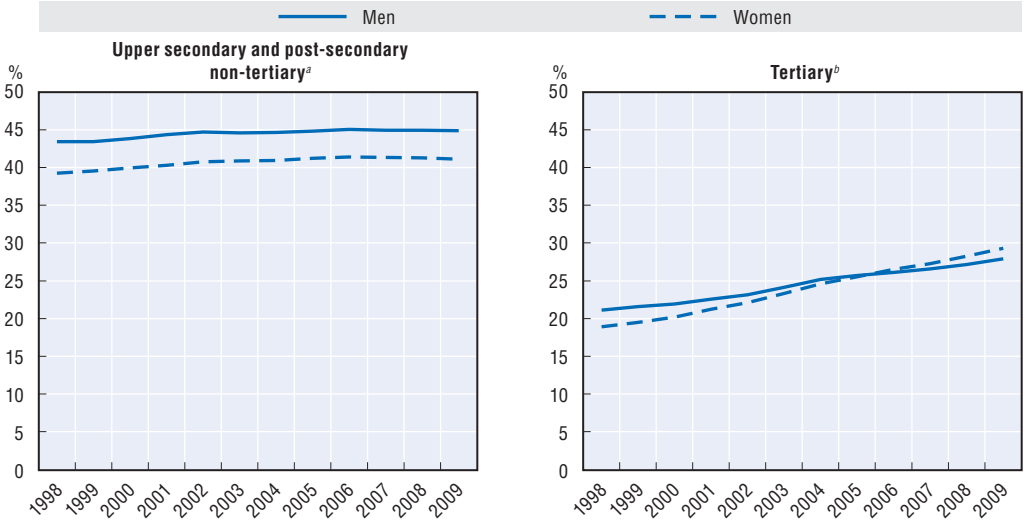
- There are no significant gender differences in performance amongst university graduates.
- In post-secondary education, boys tend to choose vocational training programs and girls higher education, which exacerbates gender differences in fields of study.
- Improving the quality of schooling for children from disadvantaged socio-economic backgrounds can in itself prompt more girls to go into science-related fields of study.

Women's greater gains in post-secondary education

Arguably, one of the greatest transformations in education to have occurred in OECD countries over the past few decades is the increased participation of women in tertiary education. Figure 8.1 shows that the graduation rates of both sexes at upper secondary (which includes programmes in post-secondary, non-tertiary education) and tertiary levels have risen across OECD countries. However, the share of women completing tertiary education has grown particularly rapidly. Although the numbers of men and women attaining upper secondary education have increased at similar rates, the proportion of men remains slightly higher (by 4 percentage points) simply because there are more men in post-secondary non-tertiary education programmes. If these were excluded, young women (25-34 age cohort) are actually more likely to complete both secondary and tertiary education than their male counterparts (OECD, 2011c).

Figure 8.1. **Today women are more likely to obtain a tertiary degree than men**

Proportion of men and women aged 25-64 with upper secondary or tertiary degrees across 27 OECD countries, 1998-2009



a) Includes graduates from upper secondary (ISCED 3A, 3B and 3C) and post-secondary non-tertiary education (ISCED 4). For a description of the ISCED classification see *http://stats.oecd.org/glossary/detail.asp?ID=1436*.

b) Include tertiary type A and advanced degrees.

Source: OECD (2011), *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932675671*

Participation trends in higher education reveal a reversal in the gender gap: in 1985, the average share of female students was 46% in the OECD area; by 2005 it was 54%. If the trend continues, there will be an average of 1.4 female students for every male by 2025, and almost twice as many women in tertiary education in Austria, Canada, Iceland, Norway, and the United Kingdom (Table II.A2.1).

Gender differences in subject choices persist

Even if the gender gap in overall educational attainment is narrowing, it remains wide when it comes to the field of study. Women are still much under-represented in science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM). And even though more women are completing STEM degrees (particularly in biology and agriculture), they still account for a very small share of students in computing and engineering – subjects in great demand on the labour market in OECD countries and other regions (Box 8.1). Figure 8.2 clearly shows that women are a minority amongst computer science graduates and a majority in health and welfare degrees. Indeed, the proportion of female graduates in computer science degree courses in most OECD countries fell in the first decade of the 21st century due to the steeper rise in shares of male students. The largest drops in the proportion of female computer science graduates came in Korea, Ireland, and Sweden. On the other hand, more women entered health-related degrees in 2009 than in 2000 across all OECD countries, with the increase particularly pronounced in Denmark and the Slovak Republic.

Box 8.1. **Gender differences in subject choices at tertiary level in MENA countries and China**

Despite existing gender disparities in some Middle East and North African (MENA) countries in enrolment rates at the secondary (and sometimes primary) level of education, tertiary enrolment of young women has been growing and often exceeding that of young men (UNESCO, 2011b). Their rates rose from 42% in 1999 to 51% in 2009 in the region (UNESCO, 2012b), exceeding male rates in Algeria, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Tunisia and the United Arab Emirates (WEF, 2011).

Tertiary education: Female share in total enrolment by field of study in selected MENA countries, school year ending in 2007

Percentages

	Education	Humanities and arts	Social sciences, business and law	Science	Engineering, manufacturing and construction	Agriculture	Health and welfare	Services
Algeria	69	75	59	61	31	47	60	29
Bahrain	51	83	70	75	21	n.a.	85	69
Jordan	84	63	39	51	29	54	48	53
Lebanon	94	67	52	53	24	54	68	53
Morocco	38	52	50	41	29	38	67	48
Oman	63	69	43	56	23	74	66	n.a.
Palestinian Authority	70	65	40	46	30	18	57	31
Qatar	85	85	65	68	25	n.a.	76	n.a.
Saudi Arabia	73	73	53	59	2	23	44	n.a.
United Arab Emirates	92	76	55	55	29	74	80	30

Source: UNESCO (2010), Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2010, Paris, http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0018/001865/186558E.pdf.

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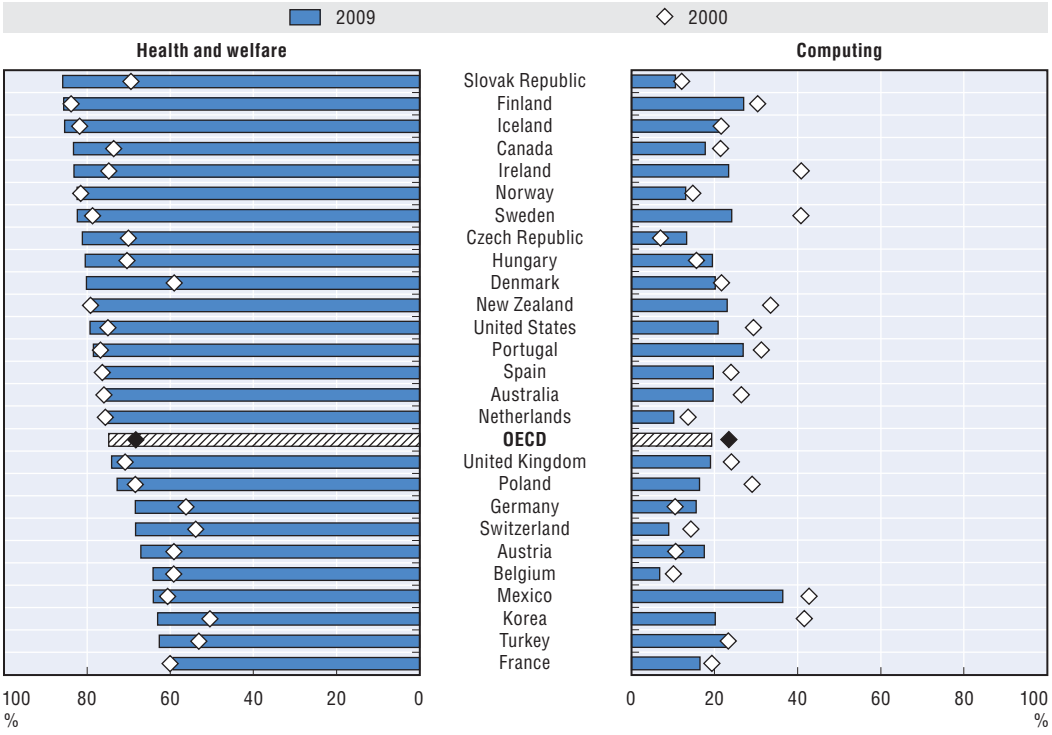
Box 8.1. **Gender differences in subject choices at tertiary level in MENA countries and China** *(cont.)*

However, as in OECD countries, distinct gender differences persist in fields of study at the tertiary level. The table below shows the female share of total enrolment. In nearly all the countries in the table (save Morocco), women are notably over-represented in the humanities, arts subjects, and education. With the exception of Jordan and Saudi Arabia, they also form the majority of university students in health and welfare and science in most countries. They are, however, significantly under-represented (less than one-third of students) in engineering, manufacturing and construction. The low female proportions in these subjects are, as in most OECD countries, related to attitudes rather than ability: for example, OECD (2010a) shows that 15 year-old girls in Jordan score better than boys in mathematics.

In China, too, a highly disproportionate number of females choose the humanities over the science track in high school, which irreversibly affects their subject choices at tertiary level. The preference for the humanities is unlikely to be driven by girls' abilities in science and mathematics, since they score as well as boys, save at the upper end of the score distribution and in some, mostly rural, areas. Yet, the evidence suggests that the science track increases female students' chances of pursuing studies at university or in elite higher education institutes (Loyalka and Maani, 2012).

Figure 8.2. **More women enter health related degrees but remain underrepresented in computer science degrees**

Proportion of tertiary degrees awarded to women in 2000 and in 2009



Note: Countries are arranged from top to bottom in descending order of proportions of tertiary degrees in health and welfare awarded to women in 2009.

Source: OECD (2011), *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris.

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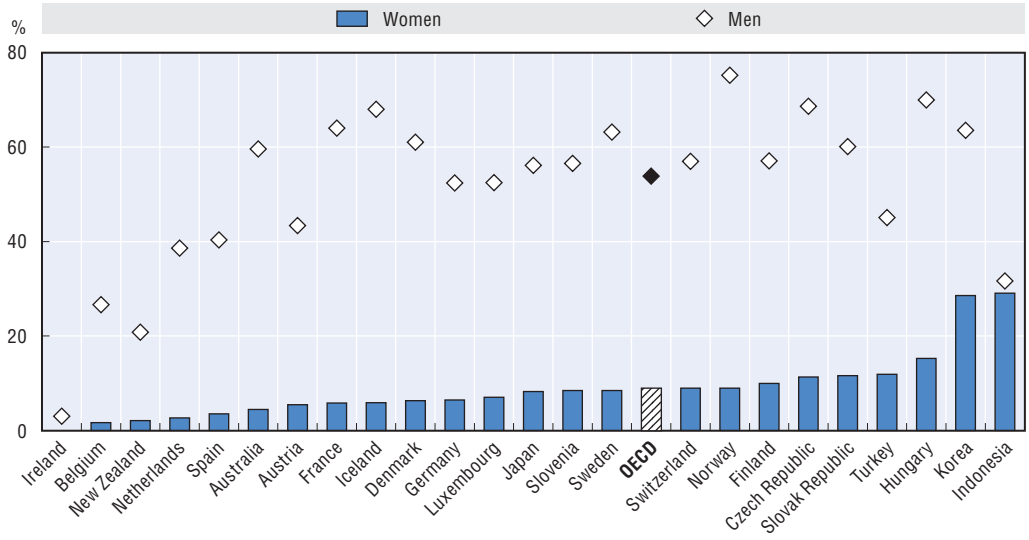
The gender differences observed in higher education level are even more marked in vocational training programmes. More than one male student in two but less than one in ten females graduate from such programmes in the fields of engineering, manufacturing and construction in OECD countries (Figure 8.3). The exceptions are Korea and Indonesia, where the female graduation rates from vocational engineering programmes were 28.6% and 29.1%, respectively. Indonesia shows hardly any difference in male and female graduation rates or in subject choices at the tertiary level (OECD, 2011c).

Figure 8.3. **Gender differences persist in technical vocational programmes**

Proportions of women and men in upper secondary vocational education who completed their programmes in engineering, manufacturing and construction in 2009



Note: Countries are arranged from left to right in ascending order of the proportion of female graduates.
Source: OECD (2011), *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris.

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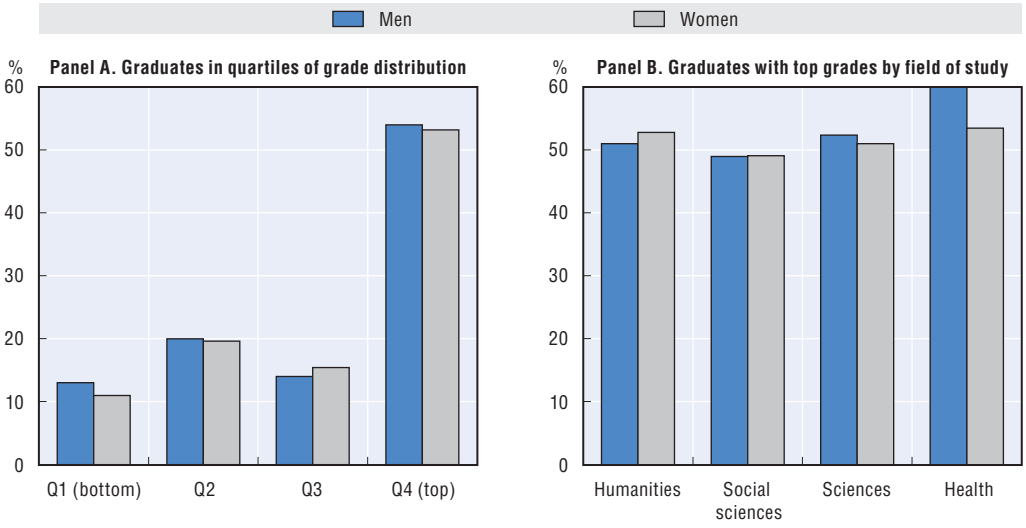
Negligible gender performance disparities at tertiary level

Despite systematic gender differences in subject choices at tertiary level, male and female students graduate with very similar standards of performance. Panel A in Figure 8.4 shows that it is hard to discern gender-related performance disparities across subject areas, except that there are slightly more men than women amongst graduates with the lowest grades. Panel B reveals that the proportion of women among top performing students is very similar across fields of study, while men show a little more variation in this regard. Men and women graduate with very similar grades in science and in the social sciences, while women do slightly better in the humanities and men have the edge in the health area.

These broad trends, however, mask differences in individual countries. In Japan and the United Kingdom, for example, the proportion of female graduates with top grades is around 10 to 15% lower than for males, while in Estonia, Italy, and the Netherlands it is the other way around (Flabbi, 2011).

Figure 8.4. **Women and men perform equally well at the tertiary level**



Note: Panel A and Panel B show the proportions of male and female graduates in a pooled sample of all tertiary graduates in the surveyed countries.

Source: Flabbi, L. (2011), "Gender Differentials in Education, Career Choices and Labour Market Outcomes on a Sample of OECD Countries", Background paper for the *OECD Gender Initiative*, using the REFLEX dataset which surveys 1999-2000 graduates from higher education (ISCED 5A, equivalent to bachelor or master degrees) who have about five years of work experience after leaving higher education in 14 OECD countries (Austria, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Switzerland and the United Kingdom).

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Cultural factors in subject choices at post-secondary level

Girls and boys might choose different fields of education because their personal preferences and expectations about labour-market outcomes are not the same (OECD, 2011a). For example, young women are more likely to plan intermittent participation in the labour force, so avoiding fields like the sciences that require high levels of on-the-job training, long working hours and where time taken out of work can be very costly (OECD, 2011c). They might also choose fields that allow more flexible work arrangements enabling them to combine work and caring for children and elderly relatives more easily. Such choices partly explain the trend towards the "feminisation" of the health and education sectors.

Different subject choices in higher education might also be driven by performance differences in reading, mathematics and science at secondary school. However, gender disparities in subjects chosen appear to be related more to student attitudes (such as motivation and interest) towards a particular subject rather than to ability and performance at school (Chapter 6). Attitudes are formed early in life and are undoubtedly influenced by traditional perceptions of gender roles and wide acceptance of the cultural values associated with particular fields of study (Kane and Mertz, 2011; OECD, 2009a). Moreover, traditional subject choices can be reinforced by early tracking in the education system. Further insights into the possible factors influencing choices made by students as they advance through their education can be obtained from the PISA longitudinal surveys (Box 8.2).

Box 8.2. **What drives gender differences in subject choices?**

New PISA longitudinal studies in a number of countries shed light on factors that determine gender differences in fields of study in post-secondary education. The studies considered male and female choices of subjects in different national education systems at tertiary level and in vocational training (VT) programmes. They show that a number of factors, such as individual attributes, family characteristics, and socio-economic background, play a role in determining whether boys and girls pursue science or arts subjects.

Typically, students who have high grades in mathematics in the last year of secondary school tend to choose science-related subjects when they go on to post-secondary education. The relationship is particularly pronounced for girls in most countries. Findings show that confidence in performing specific tasks in mathematics is a strong determinant among boys in choosing science and computing-related fields, whereas girls' perception of their own ability is essential to forming an idea of their future study and career paths.

The longitudinal studies do not generally find that mothers' or fathers' education has any significant effect on students' choices. In some countries, however, they may be associated with parental occupation. In Switzerland, parents' high occupational status seems to be an important predictor of whether students take science-based as opposed to arts-based degree courses, although the result is only significant for vocational training (Bergman *et al.,* 2012). In the case of Uruguay, for example, if mothers work as teachers their daughters are significantly less likely to choose a humanities career and their sons less likely to choose medicine or social work. Fathers in engineering professions do not seem to influence their daughters' or sons' choices, whereas those who work as teachers, lawyers or administrators discourage boys from humanities and encourage them to enter law, the behavioural sciences and economics (Fernandez *et al*., 2012). In Australia, parents' occupations appear to have a greater effect on sons' choice of field of study than on their daughters.

The migration status of parents also influences the field of study their children choose. In Australia, for example, girls with both parents from overseas are more likely than those whose parents are born locally to choose traditional subjects, such as the humanities. In contrast, there is no such effect on boys, which might suggest that overseas perceptions of suitable careers for women differ from local ones. Families' socio-economic background might also play a role in the area of study chosen. In Uruguay, for example, lower economic status prompts girls to choose humanities subjects like teaching and the arts at the tertiary level. Indeed, girls from the middle and lower classes seem to favour occupations in such fields as a rung on the ladder of upward social mobility (Fernandez *et al*., 2012).

Young women are more likely to aspire to careers as professionals (OECD, 2009a) than young men and tend, therefore, to exhibit a preference for university study over vocational training. In Australia, young men associate science courses less with university entry than with vocational training schemes like apprenticeships. Since access to vocational training is not generally based on academic merit, performance in mathematics at the age of 15 has no significant effect on their choice of science course. Evidence for the Czech Republic shows a similar pattern: girls with high grades at secondary level choose to go to university while boys are more likely to pursue vocational training in a technical or science-related field. As in Australia and the Czech Republic, the segregation of subjects taught by different institutions influences gender differences in subject choices, so reinforcing typical male and female roles (Matějů *et al.,* 2012; Polidano and Ryan, 2012).

To varying degrees from country to country, education systems may reinforce individual characteristics and cultural expectations. Thus, in addition to raising girls' interest and confidence in mathematics and science at school and at home, a wider provision of diverse, flexible educational pathways to the same career can help females pursue science-related occupations.

Policy interventions to address gender differences

The issue of gender disparities in subject choices is of concern because it affects women's career opportunities (Chapter 9), reduces their earnings potential, and underutilises available human capital (OECD, 2011c). As the global economy becomes increasingly knowledge-driven and there is ever fiercer competition in speed of innovation, the full use of a population's available stock of skills should be any government's priority.

Gender differences in subject choices are deeply rooted in cultural norms across all different socio-economic levels. Changing students' attitudes and behaviours is therefore particularly challenging, requiring considerable efforts from parents and teachers to change the stereotyped notions of what boys and girls excel in doing and what they enjoy. Interventions should start early in life before stereotypical perceptions and attitudes towards certain subjects are formed. A Canadian study, for example, shows that students aged 12-13 show the greatest interest in science and that their interest declines dramatically as they grow older (Ipsos Reid, 2010). A study of 4 000 children in the United Kingdom confirms the decline in interest in science as children progress through school. It reveals that science lessons are inspiring to 42% of 9 year-olds compared with 38% and 35% of 12 and 14 year-olds (Parvin and Porter, 2008). OECD (2008) found that interest in science and technology appears in primary school and remains stable until the age of 15 after which it declines. It is crucial that teachers embed mathematics and science activities in contexts that are interesting to both boys and girls and connect them to careers in ways that do not reinforce existing gender stereotypes (IES, 2007).

A positive attitude towards a subject (be it reading or mathematics) is also related to positive teacher-student relations since interaction with teachers helps shape the cognitive development and intellectual engagement of boys and girls (OECD, 2010b). Moreover, students tend to learn more when they feel that their teachers are taking them seriously because they gain confidence and perform better. Students who are better informed about what will help them learn also tend to perform better (OECD, 2009a). It therefore pays to have highly qualified teachers who address gender-specific attitudes within the classroom. Teacher-training programmes for graduates have proven to be effective in raising the quality of teaching in Turkey (OECD, 2011a). Valuable additions to existing teacher-training frameworks could be gender awareness courses, while gender mainstreaming concepts could be introduced in teacher training and teaching material. Examples include the "*Jungenarbeit und Schule*" (Working with Boys and School) project in Germany (*www.jungenarbeit-und-schule.de*), which focuses on how teachers can help boys succeed in school, or the gender mainstreaming approach in Austria (*www.bmukk.gv.at/medienpool/9718/PDFzuPubID455.pdf*). The policy effectiveness of introducing single-sex schools – which are generally considered to increase girls' confidence and benefit their ability to learn mathematics – is not supported by data (Kane and Mertz, 2011).

With an eye on girls' future entry into the labour market, co-operation between educational establishments and the private sector can provide added support for increasing their interest in mathematics and science-related subjects. Introducing work-related learning to high-school students and explaining what subjects are required for different career options can also enhance students' interest in particular subjects (Crowley and Niesr, 2008).

Key policy messages

- Attracting girls to typically male-dominated fields of study and *vice versa* needs to start early both in schools and at home.
- Teacher-training programmes need to include courses that raise awareness of potential gender stereotypes.
- Governments, schools, and the private sector need to explore co-operation strategies such as job information days or career fairs in schools for both parents and students in order to increase girls' interest in science-related subjects and boys' interest in the humanities and arts-related subjects. Improving the quality of teaching staff and materials can further enhance pupils' academic motivation and learning outcomes for boys and girls.

PART II

Chapter 9

Getting the job you studied for

Key findings

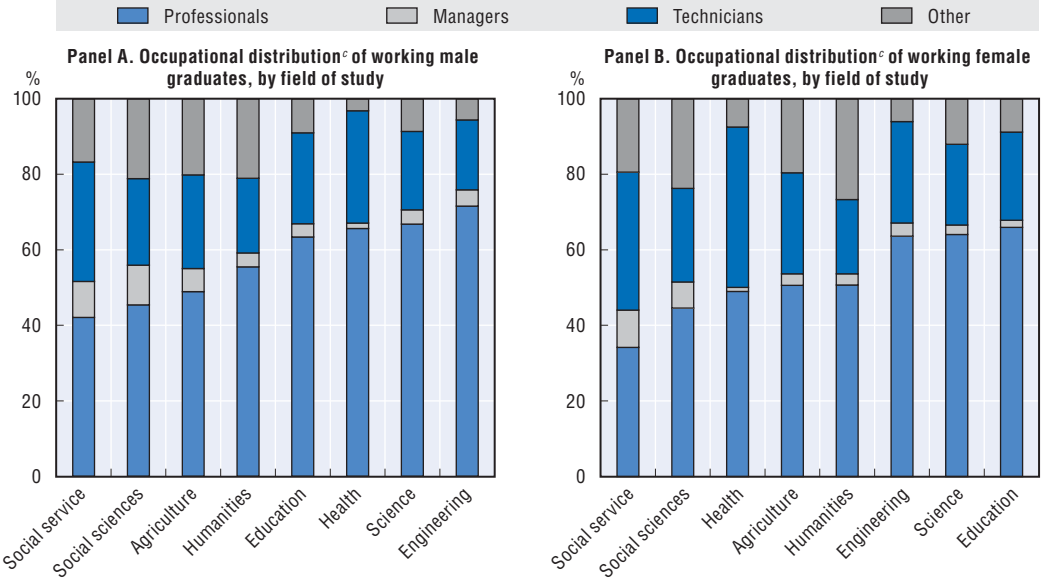
- Even when women pursue STEM studies they are less likely than men to end up working in physics, mathematics and engineering.
- Gender differences in fields of study appear only marginally to respond to expectations of labour market outcomes and are likely to be related to a complex set of factors such as preferences, norms, and labour market characteristics.
- There is no clear indication of systematic gender differences in mismatches of skills with jobs.

In most OECD countries, young women are now at least as likely as men to complete their university education and perform just as well, regardless of the field of study. However, as Chapter 8 describes, gender differences still condition students' chosen fields of study and may well go on to affect men's and women's jobs, the sectors in which they work, and other labour market outcomes (see Chapters 11 and 13).

Gender imbalances in university-work transition

Although gender differences systematically shape the choice of study, over 50% of tertiary graduates find work as professionals or technicians, regardless of what they studied. Figure 9.1 depicts the distribution of university graduates from different fields of study across three occupational categories: managers, professionals and technicians.

Figure 9.1. **Male and female graduates[a] who start their career in a skilled occupation[b]**



a) Fields of study are grouped into eight categories in ascending order of the proportion of graduates working as professionals.

b) The depicted occupations (*i.e.* managers, professionals and technicians) correspond to the main ISCO-88 categories (one-digit) (see *www.ilo.org/public/english/bureau/stat/isco*).

c) First job chosen after graduation.

Source: Flabbi, L. (2011), "Gender Differentials in Education, Career Choices and Labour Market Outcomes on a Sample of OECD Countries", Background paper for the *OECD Gender Initiative*. For more details see Figure 8.4.

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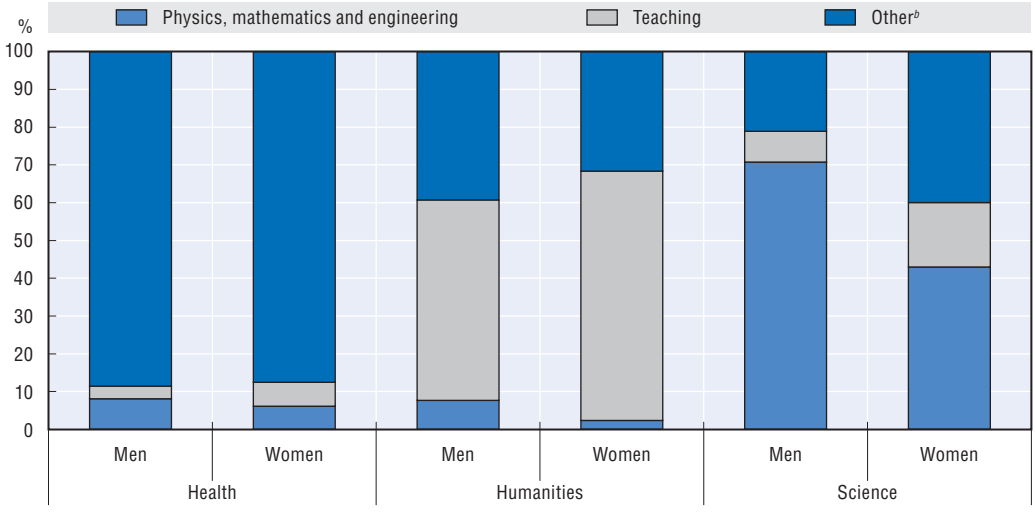
There are some gender differences. For both men and women the lowest proportion of professionals is observed amongst graduates from social services studies, while the highest proportion is amongst male engineering graduates and female education

graduates. Furthermore, more men work in professional positions and more women are technicians. Among graduates who take up managerial positions on completing their studies the proportion of men (9.7%) is almost twice that of women (5.7%).

Even though differences in occupational choices can be traced back to differences in educational choices, occupational segregation is further reinforced in the transition from post-secondary education to employment. Figure 9.2 links the field of study to the choice of a career in teaching or in physics, mathematics and engineering. Among university graduates who work as professionals or technicians, about 66% of the female graduates who studied humanities work as teachers, compared with about 53% of male graduates. Conversely, 71% of male graduates from the science field work as professionals in physics, mathematics and engineering, as opposed to 43% of female graduates. In other words, even if women choose STEM subjects they are less likely to pursue a science career than men, although there is no gender difference in performance.

Figure 9.2. **Men and women who graduated from the same field often make different occupational choices**[a]

Distribution of graduates working as professionals and technicians by field of study and occupation



a) First job chosen after graduation.
b) "Other" includes all other professional and technical occupation fields.
Source: Flabbi, L. and M. Tejada (2012), "Fields of Study Choices, Occupational Choices and Gender Differentials", Background paper for the *OECD Gender Initiative*. For more details see Figure 8.4.

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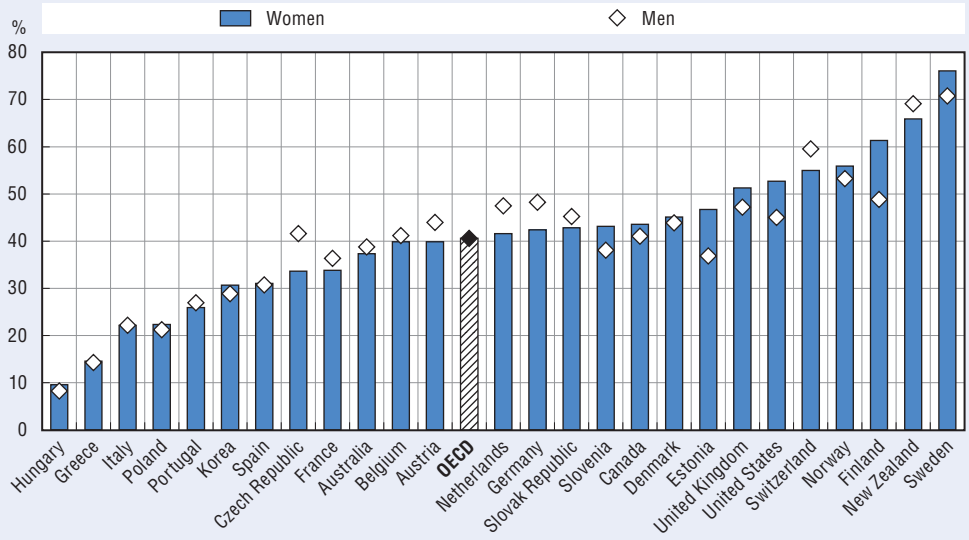
Gender differences in the choice of field of study appear to be related to a complex set of factors. Flabbi and Tejada (2012) find that gender differences in the choice of field of study only marginally respond to expectations about labour market outcomes, as measured by wages and occupational segregation in a given occupation. The reasons that girls and boys make different choices in their educational career are thus presumed to be related to a range of factors, such as the historical predominance of men in manual occupations, innate preferences, considerations of future family obligations, as well as gender perceptions at home and amongst peers and teachers. The importance of socio-cultural factors is substantiated by the fact that employment expectations among 15 year-olds already attest gender segregation, regardless of differences in economic context and education system (OECD, 2012c). Although girls expect higher status

Box 9.1. **Adult learning in OECD countries**

Lifelong skills development enhances both individuals' human capital through greater personal and professional development and countries' economic growth through greater labour force employability and productivity. Across OECD countries in 2007, 41% of adults participated in learning activities (OECD, 2012d). The figure below shows no clear cross-national gender pattern in participation rates in adult education. The greatest gender difference in participation rates is recorded in Finland (12%, to the advantage of women), while no significant gender differences can be observed for Greece and Spain. In OECD countries, participation in adult learning declines with age and increases with educational attainment for both men and women (OECD, 2012d).

Participation of women and men in adult education[a] varies across countries

Percentage of 25-64 years old participating in adult education,[a] 2007[b]

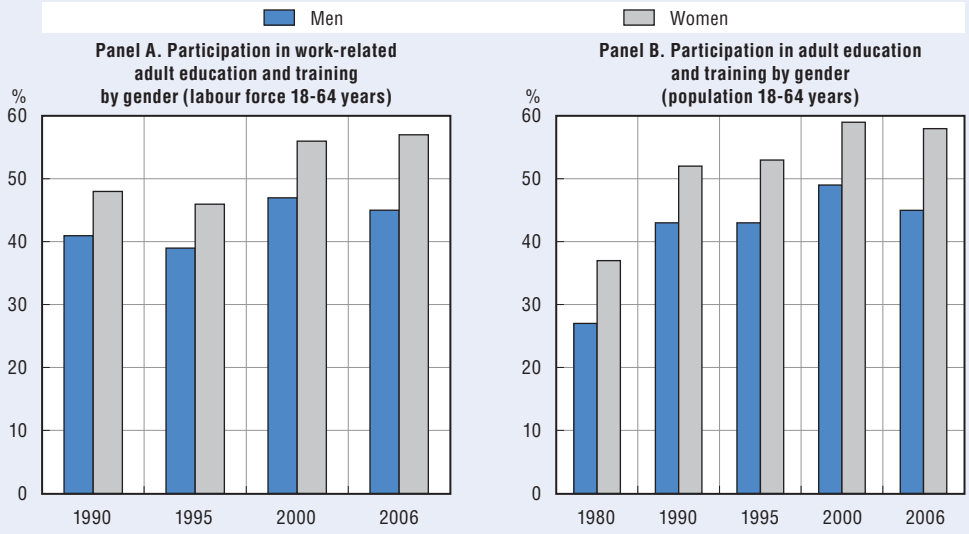


Note: Countries are ranked in ascending order of women's participation in adult education.
a) Adult learning includes formal and/or non-formal learning.
b) 2008 for Belgium, Canada, the Czech Republic, and the Netherlands; 2006 for Denmark, France, Finland, New Zealand, Hungary, Italy, Poland, and the United Kingdom; and 2005 for Sweden and the United States.
Source: OECD (2012), *Education at a Glance: OECD Indicators*, OECD Publishing, Paris.
StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932675785

There are, however, significant gender differences in the number of hours spent in job-related education (*OECD Education at a Glance*, online data). In the majority of OECD countries, men spend on average four hours more than women in job-related education over their working lives. The widest disparities are observed in the Netherlands (19 hours) and in Norway (16 hours). The most striking exceptions are Finland and France where adult women receive on average 15 and 10 hours respectively more training than men. In Finland, women's active participation in work-related training can be traced back to 1990s. Between 1990 and 2006, participation in job-related education increased from 48% to 57% among women and only from 41% to 45% among men (see Panel A in the figure below). If schooling and training for the entire adult population (18-64 years) is considered, the participation rate of women has been at least 10 percentage points higher than that of men since 1980 (see Panel B in the figure below).

Box 9.1. **Adult learning in OECD countries** *(cont.)*

In Finland, women take greater advantage of adult learning than men



Source: Official Statistics of Finland (OSF) (2012), "Adult Education Survey", e-publication, Participation in Adult Education and Training 2006, 1. Mature students number 1.7 million, Statistics Finland, Helsinki, *www.tilastokeskus.fi/til/aku/2006/01/ aku_2006_01_2008-12-31_kat_001_en.html.*

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932675804

employment than boys and more of them look forward to a career in health and medicine (*ibid.*), only 5% on average anticipate a career in engineering and computing compared with 18% of boys in OECD countries.

In OECD countries, women dominate teaching (especially at the lower levels of education). The 2008 OECD Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) found that, on average, almost 70% of lower secondary school teachers were women. On the other hand, education management is, to a large extent, the province of men. Women were also more likely to teach languages, the arts (79%) and human sciences (57%), rather than mathematics and science (49%) (OECD, 2012c). This segregation within the teaching profession is a concern since it further reinforces existing gender stereotypes amongst students.

Gender skills mismatch real or perceived?

The mismatch between girls' aspirations and their actual career achievements is a cause for concern since well-educated women often end up in jobs where they do not use their full potential and skills. In addition to loss of talent, OECD findings show that being over-qualified and over-skilled reduces job satisfaction and increases the likelihood of women conducting on-the-job searches for fresh employment, which is likely to reduce productivity (OECD, 2011d).

Certain fields of study are associated with higher incidences of over-qualification. For instance, just over 10% of workers with qualifications in personal care services and teaching are over-qualified, compared with almost 30% of those with a background in social studies (Quintini, 2011). Women usually dominate such occupations, which may suggest that women are more likely to be over-qualified because of their educational background rather than their gender *per se*. Conversely, Quintini (2011) finds that women

are more likely to be under-qualified than men, which could partly be driven by women's perceptions of their own abilities, which is borne out by Flabbi and Tejada (2012) who show that women more frequently declare they are under-qualified for their jobs. The mixed and, in some instances, counter-intuitive evidence of gender differences in skills assessment points to the need for further research in this area (Box 9.2).

Box 9.2. **A survey of adult skills**

The mismatch between workers' skills on one hand and job requirements on the other has been an ongoing concern of policy makers in the fields of education and employment. Since government investment in education and training is usually large, unused and misused human capital are a considerable waste of investment. Indeed, there is an increasing polarisation of skills in modern economies, whereby highly skilled workers are needed for technology-related jobs and low-skilled workers are hired for services that cannot be automated (*e.g.* personal care). The consequences for female labour market outcomes are significant because women are over-represented in low-skilled sectors and are consequently being pushed into low paying jobs. There is general agreement that the long-term trend in skills needs is towards jobs that require more education and cognitive skills (OECD, 2012e). To avoid further marginalisation of women in the labour market, therefore, a better understanding of how women's and men's skills are acquired and matched or mismatched throughout their working lives is essential.

A promising avenue is the new data being collected through an OECD survey of adult skills (the Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies [PIAAC]) since it will measure skills (across age groups) along with indicators of the extent to which skills are used at work (OECD, 2012e). This approach will afford new insights into consequences for gender-related occupational differences and may suggest new ways of encouraging boys and girls to move away from traditional career choices.

How can governments change career stereotypes?

As suggested above, education performance or expectations about labour market outcomes do not shape gender differences in post-secondary fields of study, that are instead influenced by culture, students' attitudes and self-perception formed around or before the age of 15. Particular focus should therefore be placed on pupils still in school in addition to programmes that encourage non-traditional occupational choices among young people.

Supporting pupils with careful guidance on further study and university students with career advice that challenges stereotyped assumptions (*e.g.* "Carrefour des métiers" in France) can assist in encouraging "atypical" educational and occupational choices among young men and women. Other initiatives that seek to address early roots of segregation are motivational events and educational programmes. One example is the nationwide campaign in the United Kingdom, Women Into Science and Engineering (WISE), which aims to encourage young women to study mathematics and physics and consider careers in the areas of science, engineering and construction. First launched in 1984, WISE may have contributed to the doubling of the percentage of female engineering graduates from 7% in 1984 to 15% in 2009 (European Commission, 2009a).

It has been found that female mentors play an important role in attracting students into STEM careers and keeping them there. Accordingly, the US Department of Energy (DoE) created a mentoring programme that matches female college students with successful employees in the DoE (White House Council, 2012).

While many similar initiatives primarily encourage girls to enter male-dominated areas of work, there are also efforts to draw boys into predominantly female occupations such as teaching or caring. Examples include information drives such as the parallel campaigns "Girls' Day" and "New Pathways for Boys" in Germany and educational events like "National Future Day" in Switzerland. Some of these initiatives involve the participation of private firms (European Commission, 2009b), which helps smooth students' transition from education into the labour market (European Commission, 2010; IET, 2007; Lord and Jones, 2006; Mann, 2012).

Key policy messages

- Promoting early work experience through education programmes and apprenticeships could encourage women, particularly those who successfully completed STEM-related studies, to work in scientific fields.
- Careful career guidance and counselling at schools and universities can help young men and women to better match their acquired skills with the career path they choose.
- The OECD Programme for the International Assessment of Adult Competencies can help to build a data system that enables the assessment of available skills at the national level, informs skills policies, and minimises skills mismatches in the economy.

PART II

Chapter 10

Financial education for financial empowerment

Key findings

- Current evidence suggests that women typically have lower levels of financial literacy than men, exhibiting lower levels of financial knowledge and a lack of confidence in their financial skills.
- Women need to be financially literate in order to plan even more thoroughly than men for their retirement and health care expenditures, notably due to longer life expectancy.
- Both men and women need better tailored information, knowledge and skills development in order to efficiently address financial issues, make effective and confident financial decisions, and take advantage of income generation opportunities.

In the aftermath of the global financial crisis policy makers have recognised financial literacy as an essential life skill (OECD, 2009b). The growing policy attention stems from a number of factors:

- The transfer of a broad range of financial risks from governments and corporations to individuals.
- The mounting complexity of financial markets.
- The growing number of newly active consumers and investors in the financial sphere who need support and protection beyond that provided through regulation.

Financial education has become an important complement to market conduct and prudential regulation. Indeed, improving individuals' financial literacy is now a long-term policy priority in many developed and developing countries. The potential gains from financial education are substantial. Academic research shows that higher levels of financial knowledge are associated with a range of beneficial behaviour and positive outcomes, such as careful budgeting, controlled spending, planning for retirement, the accumulation of wealth, and the ability to understand the benefits of participating in financial markets (Hilgert *et al.*, 2003; Lusardi and Mitchell, 2007; Perry and Morris, 2005; van Rooij *et al.*, 2011; Stango and Zinman, 2009).

Box 10.1. **Defining financial education**

Financial education is the process by which individuals improve their understanding of financial products and concepts; and through information, instruction and/or objective advice develop the skills and confidence to become more aware of financial risks and opportunities, to make informed choices, to know where to go for help, and to take other effective actions to improve their financial well-being and protection (OECD, 2005).

Women must be sufficiently financially literate if they are to participate more effectively in economic activities and financial decision making in their households and communities. They should, for example, be able to access and choose the appropriate financial services to protect themselves and their families and to develop entrepreneurial activities (see Chapter 26). Such an ability is of special concern with the increasing prevalence of single-parent families, typically headed by women. Governments and development organisations have attempted to empower women by improving their financial literacy so that they can successfully start and manage small-scale or micro-enterprises (Hung *et al.*, 2012). Examples of such programmes include: Australia, as a development activity for low-income countries (Australian Government, 2009); Cambodia (ILO, 2012b); Canada, for aboriginal women entrepreneurs (AANDC, 2010); Lebanon (Hung *et al.*, 2012); and Uganda (Nordic Consulting Group, 2011).

Box 10.2 outlines some additional examples of how countries address gender-related differences in financial literacy.

Box 10.2. **Addressing gender differences in financial literacy**

Various countries, both developed and developing, have acknowledged the need to address the financial literacy of women and girls by studying their specific needs and implementing financial education programmes targeted at various subgroups.

In 2008, in a first step to help women build their financial security, Australia conducted the "Women Understanding Money" research campaign in order to identify the needs of women and girls. Analogously, the New Zealand Commission for Financial Literacy and Retirement Income is undertaking research into women's future retirement prospects in the country as part of an approach to address women's lower retirement outcomes.

Several other countries are engaged in developing programmes that exclusively or mainly target vulnerable women and girls. For example, Canada's "National Initiative for the Care of the Elderly" (NICE) holds money management workshops for low-income older women in Vancouver, Montreal and Toronto. Similarly, the Capital Markets Board (CMB) of Turkey launched a financial literacy programme in 2010 for unemployed, unbanked, and low-income women consisting of short seminars delivered by CMB experts. From Colombia, the project "Mujeres Ahorradorras en Acción" (Active Women Savers), launched in 2007 by the Presidential Agency for Social Action and International Co-operation, offers an example of a financial education programme dedicated to encouraging the use of formal saving products by women.

Several OECD countries also fund financial literacy programmes for women in developing countries. The UK Department for International Development (DFID) funded financial literacy training for girls and young women in rural areas of Zambia. It also contributed to funding a Population Council programme delivering financial education training and access to savings products for adolescent girls in Kenya and Uganda. Similarly, the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) is supporting financial education initiatives with a focus on female micro-entrepreneurs both in Pakistan and the Philippines.

Women are also more likely to take primary responsibility for child-rearing, make important decisions about allocation of household resources, and take a lead role in the education of their children on financial matters. This is an important issue given that the financial literacy of students is closely correlated with their mothers' education (Lusardi *et al.*, 2010).

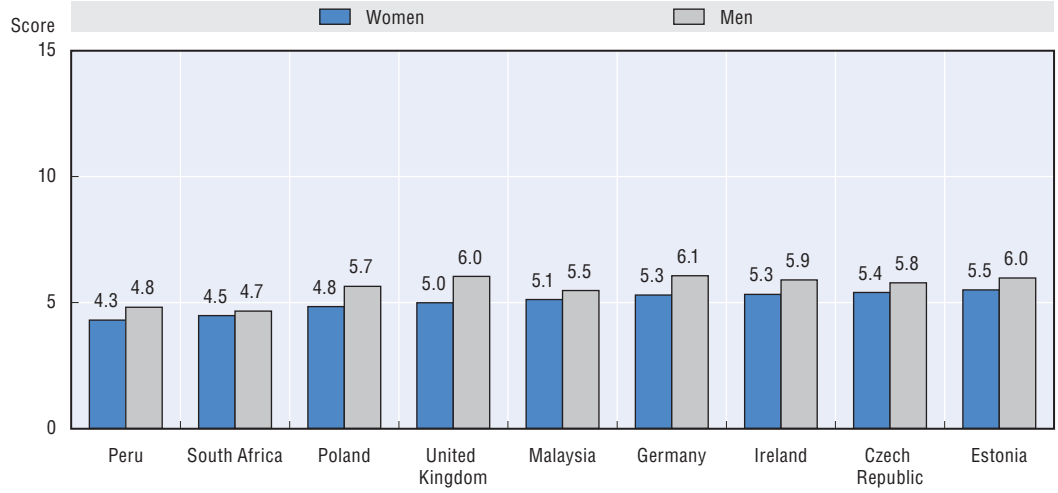
Policy makers have not yet widely recognised the potential benefits of knowing the current levels of financial literacy amongst women and addressing any shortfalls. A recent stocktaking exercise across members of the OECD International Network on Financial Education (OECD/INFE) found that just eight of the 27 respondent countries recognised that the financial literacy of women and girls was an important issue (Hung *et al.*, 2012). And, because academics have not paid much attention to the question either, there is little research evidence. Nevertheless, it is possible to draw on existing survey data to identify differences in levels of financial literacy by gender and the associated policy issues.

Women have less financial knowledge and confidence

Short tests of financial knowledge around the world have shown that women have lower levels of financial knowledge than men. Lusardi and Mitchell (2011) report evidence from studies on eight countries – Germany, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, New Zealand, the Russian Federation, Sweden, and the United States. These findings are largely confirmed by the responses to a set of eight knowledge questions used in the OECD/INFE financial literacy measurement survey (Atkinson and Messy, 2012). The survey includes a test of basic financial numeracy, as well as understanding of terms and concepts such as inflation, the time value of money, and the effect of compound interest rates. Figure 10.1 shows that the test scores of women are somewhat below those of men.

Figure 10.1. **Women have slightly lower levels of financial knowledge than men**

Mean number of correct responses (from minimum = 0 to maximum = 8)[a]



Note: Sample size ranges from 993 in Estonia to 3 112 in South Africa. Countries are arranged from left to right in ascending order of women's financial knowledge.

a) Differences are significant at the 5% level for each country.

Source: Atkinson, A. and F. Messy (2012), "Measuring Financial Literacy: Results of the OECD/International Network on Financial Education (INFE) Pilot Study", *OECD Working Papers on Finance, Insurance and Private Pensions*, No. 15, OECD Publishing, Paris.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932675823

Women are also more likely than men to say they do not know the answer to a financial knowledge question rather than attempt to answer it (Lusardi and Mitchell, 2011). Moreover, they have been shown to have lower levels of confidence in both their knowledge and their ability with complex financial issues (Australian Government, 2008). Evidence suggests that gender differences in levels of confidence in financial knowledge start in school (the Capital One survey [2009] reports evidence from the United States). The combination of lower levels of knowledge and a lack of confidence means that women are less likely to feel capable when dealing with financial issues, services, and providers. They therefore fail to grasp potential opportunities for income generation through entrepreneurship or investment or apply for credit to develop their business potential (Morcos and Sebstad, 2011).

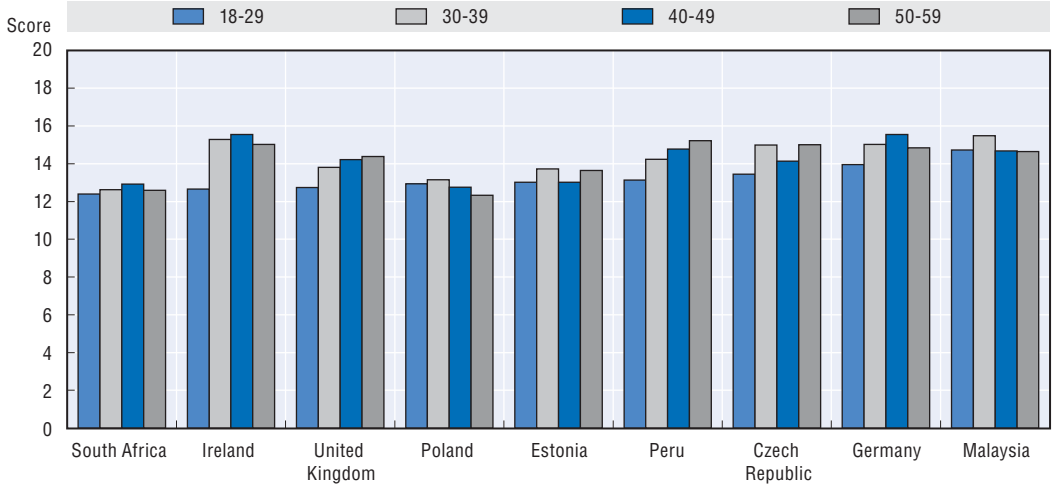
A wide range of factors influence women's generally lower levels of financial knowledge. Two particularly prominent ones are the socio-cultural context and access to financial services. For example, women's understanding and experience is partly shaped by the extent of their involvement in long-term financial investment strategies and related choices of financial products at the household level. Against that background, financial dependency on husbands or other male family members may be expected to impair the ability to learn from experience and the associated opportunities for improving self-confidence.

Financial education could start at school

Financial education is a complex, long-term process which involves changing individuals' attitudes, knowledge and behaviour in order to support more "savvy" financial decision making (OECD, 2005). Data also show that young people have lower levels of financial literacy than their elders, as Figure 10.2 illustrates with regard to women. What is more, adults with lower levels of education and those on low incomes are typically less financially literate than the general population (Atkinson and Messy, 2012). The 2012 PISA exercise and its new financial literacy option is a first international attempt to provide more detailed evidence on 15 year-olds' financial knowledge and their ability to apply it (OECD, 2010e and 2012f).

Figure 10.2. **Young women typically have lower levels of financial literacy than their elders**

Women's mean score for financial literacy[a] (from minimum = 0 to maximum = 22)[b]



Note: See notes to Figure 10.1. Countries are arranged from left to right in ascending order of female financial literacy for 18-29 years old.

a) This score combines knowledge, behaviour and attitudes.

b) Differences are significant at the 5% level for the Czech Republic, Germany, Ireland, Peru and the United Kingdom.

Source: Atkinson, A. and F. Messy (2012), "Measuring Financial Literacy: Results of the OECD/International Network on Financial Education (INFE) Pilot Study", *OECD Working Paper on Finance, Insurance and Private Pensions*, No. 15, OECD Publishing, Paris.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932675842

Against this backdrop, quality financial education in schools has the potential to bridge the income, gender and age gaps and influence students' financial attitudes and present behaviours (Elliot *et al.*, 2010). This explains why 23 out of 38 countries surveyed by the OECD/INFE had some form of financial education in schools in 2011 (Australia, the Czech Republic, Germany, Japan, New Zealand, South Africa, Spain and the United States were

just some of those countries). The OECD/INFE is about to complete a three-year project which will provide specific guidance to policy makers to help them efficiently address challenges involved in introducing and developing financial literacy in schools. The project will also include the development of a learning framework for financial education (OECD, 2012g).

Women's money management and long-term planning

A number of national studies in OECD countries and the OECD/INFE survey suggest that women may be better than men in such short-term money management abilities as keeping an eye on their everyday expenditure (Atkinson *et al.*, 2006; Atkinson and Messy, 2012; Irish Financial Regulator, 2009; McKay, 2011). At the same time, country evidence also suggests that women may be less likely than men to make long-term financial plans. In the United States, for example, over 50% of men, but only 45% of women, have set aside an emergency fund covering expenses for three months. Similarly, 45% of men and 39% of women have tried to assess how much they need to save for retirement (FINRA Investor Education Foundation, 2009). In the United Kingdom, a composite measure of attitudes and behaviour relating to long term planning suggests that women appear to be slightly worse at planning ahead than men – even after taking into account such explanatory factors as income or working status (Atkinson *et al.*, 2006).

As women have to manage greater financial risks – they typically live longer than men but have lower life-time earnings – it is important that they are well equipped to carry out long-term financial planning, such as for retirement. The OECD will explore these issues in greater detail in 2012-13.

An interesting point to emerge from the OECD/INFE survey is that women appear at least as likely as men, if not more so, to have a positive attitude towards long-term financial planning. They should therefore be receptive to well-designed policies that strengthen their knowledge and encourage behavioural changes which could further improve their overall financial well-being and that of their households.

Key policy messages

Differences in financial literacy and behaviour by gender should be explored further: *i*) to gain a deeper understanding of the specific aspects of financial literacy that might negatively affect the financial well-being of women; and *ii*) design better targeted policy interventions. Given that financial literacy is a relatively new area of research, work in this area should focus primarily on:

- Gaining further insight into the gender differences in financial literacy and behaviours through internationally comparable surveys using the OECD/INFE Financial Literacy Core Questionnaire for adults and the PISA financial literacy international option introduced in 2012 for 15 year-olds.
- Developing financial education programmes tailored to girls' and women's needs and preferences. Such programmes should build on the current state of knowledge and good practice identified by the OECD/INFE and include – but are not limited to – financial education in schools in order to reach girls before they lose confidence in their abilities.
- Financial education programmes should incorporate regular monitoring to identify any divergence in expectations, confidence, or outcomes between male and female participants and to evaluate effectiveness.

ANNEX II.A1

Supplementary tables to Chapter 4

Table II.A1.1. **Adjusted primary school net enrolment rates, 2000 and 2010**

Total number of pupils of the official primary school age who are enrolled at primary or secondary education levels, expressed as a percentage of the eligible official primary school age population

Region, country or economy[b]	2000				2010			
	All	Male	Female	GPI[a]	All	Male	Female	GPI[a]
OECD	**97.6**	**97.6**	**97.6**	**1.00**	**98.2**	**98.0**	**98.3**	**1.00**
Australia	94.6	94.2	95.0	1.01	97.2[m]	96.9[m]	97.5[m]	1.01[m]
Austria	90.1[d]	89.6[d]	90.6[d]	1.01[d]	. .	. .	. .	. .
Belgium	99.2	99.0	99.4	1.00	99.0[m]	98.9[m]	99.2[m]	1.00[m]
Canada	99.8[d]	99.6[d]	99.9[d]	1.00[d]	. .	. .	. .	. .
Chile	. .	. .	. .	. .	93.8[m]	94.0[m]	93.6[m]	1.00[m]
Czech Republic	95.9[d]	95.8[d]	96.0[d]	1.00[d]	. .	. .	. .	. .
Denmark	98.1	97.7	98.5	1.01	96.0[m]	94.9[m]	97.1[m]	1.02[m]
Estonia	99.3	99.4	99.2	1.00	96.3[m]	96.5[m]	96.0[m]	1.00[m]
Finland	99.7[e]	99.7[e]	99.8[e]	1.00[e]	97.6[m]	97.5[m]	97.7[m]	1.00[m]
France	99.7	99.5	99.8	1.00	99.2[j]	99.1[j]	99.3[j]	1.00[j]
Germany	84.5[c]	83.7[c]	85.2[c]	1.02[c]	. .	. .	. .	. .
Greece	97.7	97.6	97.9	1.00	98.5[k]	98.3[k]	98.7[k]	1.00[k]
Hungary	97.5	97.3	97.7	1.00	98.0[m]	97.8[m]	98.1[m]	1.00[m]
Iceland	99.2	100.0	98.3	0.98	99.4[m]	99.3[m]	99.6[m]	1.00[m]
Ireland	93.8	93.6	94.1	1.01	98.2[m]	97.5[m]	98.9[m]	1.01[m]
Israel*	97.9	98.1	97.6	1.00	97.0[m]	96.7[m]	97.3[m]	1.01[m]
Italy	99.7	99.8	99.7	1.00	99.4[m]	99.6[m]	99.2[m]	1.00[m]
Japan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Korea	99.8	99.5	100.0	1.00	99.6[m]	100.0[m]	99.1[m]	0.99[m]
Luxembourg	97.0	96.0	98.1	1.02	96.8[l]	96.1[l]	97.6[l]	1.02[l]
Mexico	99.5	99.1	99.9	1.01	99.6[m]	99.4[m]	99.8[m]	1.00[m]
Netherlands	99.4	100.0	98.8	0.99	99.4[k]	99.9[k]	98.9[k]	0.99[k]
New Zealand	99.0	98.8	99.1	1.00	99.5[m]	99.4[m]	99.6[m]	1.00[m]
Norway	99.7	99.6	99.8	1.00	99.0[m]	98.8[m]	99.1[m]	1.00[m]
Poland	97.5	97.7	97.2	0.99	96.0[m]	96.1[m]	95.9[m]	1.00[m]
Portugal	99.4[f]	99.3[f]	99.4[f]	1.00[f]	99.4[m]	99.2[m]	99.5[m]	1.00[m]
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Slovenia	95.3	94.2	96.4	1.02	97.2[m]	97.3[m]	97.1[m]	1.00[m]
Spain	99.9	100.0	99.9	1.00	99.9[m]	99.9[m]	99.9[m]	1.00[m]
Sweden	99.4	99.7	99.1	0.99	99.3[m]	99.6[m]	99.0[m]	0.99[m]
Switzerland	99.3	98.9	99.7	1.01	98.9[m]	98.6[m]	99.1[m]	1.01[m]
Turkey	96.0	99.9	91.9	0.92	97.5[m]	98.2[m]	96.7[m]	0.98[m]
United Kingdom	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.00	99.8[m]	99.9[m]	99.7[m]	1.00[m]
United States	97.0	97.1	97.0	1.00	96.9[m]	95.9[m]	97.9[m]	1.02[m]

Table II.A1.1. **Adjusted primary school net enrolment rates, 2000 and 2010** *(cont.)*

Total number of pupils of the official primary school age who are enrolled at primary or secondary education levels, expressed as a percentage of the eligible official primary school age population

Region, country or economy[b]	2000				2010			
	All	Male	Female	GPI[a]	All	Male	Female	GPI[a]
Caribbean	**91.9**	**91.9**	**91.9**	**1.00**	**91.8**	**91.6**	**92.1**	**1.01**
Anguilla	99.3[e]	99.0[e]	99.6[e]	1.01[e]	92.9[l]	92.7[l]	93.0[l]	1.00[l]
Antigua and Barbuda	. .	. .	. .	. .	87.8	91.1	84.5	0.93
Aruba	98.7	99.0	98.4	0.99	99.7	99.5	99.9	1.00
Bahamas	87.7	88.7	86.7	0.98	95.1[j]	94.0[j]	96.2[j]	1.02[j]
Barbados	94.7	91.7	98.0	1.07	93.4[k]	89.8[k]	97.5[k]	1.09[k]
Bermuda	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
British Virgin Islands	95.5[h]	95.4[h]	95.5[h]	1.00[h]	95.0[m]	95.2[m]	94.7[m]	0.99[m]
Cayman Islands	93.8[f]	92.3[f]	95.3[f]	1.03[f]	83.9[l]	83.4[l]	84.4[l]	1.01[l]
Cuba	98.1	98.4	97.8	0.99	99.8	100.0	99.7	1.00
Dominica	. .	. .	. .	. .	95.5[l]	94.6[l]	96.4[l]	1.02[l]
Dominican Republic	84.8	84.3	85.3	1.01	93.0	95.5	90.4	0.95
Grenada	83.2	86.6	79.8	0.92	97.5[m]	95.7[m]	99.3[m]	1.04[m]
Haiti	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Jamaica	93.8	94.0	93.7	1.00	82.8[m]	83.8[m]	81.9[m]	0.98[m]
Montserrat	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Puerto Rico	. .	. .	. .	. .	85.9	83.5	88.4	1.06
Saint Kitts and Nevis	. .	. .	. .	. .	86.0	85.8	86.2	1.0
Saint Lucia	96.8	97.4	96.2	0.99	89.7	90.2	89.2	0.99
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	. .	. .	. .	. .	98.3[i]	99.5[i]	97.0[i]	1.0[i]
Trinidad and Tobago	93.5	93.2	93.8	1.01	95.9[m]	97.5[m]	94.4[m]	0.97[m]
Turks and Caicos Islands	75.2[g]	75.3[g]	75.0[g]	1.0[g]	80.7[i]	77.5[i]	83.9[i]	1.1[i]
Central America	**88.9**	**89.8**	**88.0**	**0.98**	**96.3**	**97.0**	**95.7**	**0.99**
Belize	90.0	93.7	86.4	0.92	95.1[l]	99.7[l]	90.7[l]	0.91[l]
Costa Rica	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
El Salvador	86.0[e]	85.4[e]	86.5[e]	1.01[e]	94.6[m]	94.1[m]	95.0[m]	1.01[m]
Guatemala	86.7	90.0	83.4	0.93	98.6	99.6	97.6	0.98
Honduras	88.8	88.4	89.2	1.01	97.2	95.9	98.4	1.03
Nicaragua	83.2	82.4	84.1	1.02	93.9	93.2	94.5	1.01
Panama	98.6	98.7	98.6	1.00	98.7	99.1	98.2	0.99
South America	**96.3**	**96.2**	**96.4**	**1.00**	**92.7**	**92.6**	**92.9**	**1.00**
Argentina	99.4[d]	99.8[d]	98.9[d]	0.99[d]	. .	. .	. .	. .
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	96.2	96.1	96.3	1.00	95.5[k]	95.2[k]	95.8[k]	1.01[k]
Brazil	94.5[h]	96.8[h]	92.1[h]	0.95[h]	95.1[l]	95.9[l]	94.2[l]	0.98[l]
Colombia	96.8	96.9	96.8	1.00	91.5	91.7	91.3	1.00
Ecuador	99.2[d]	98.5[d]	99.9[d]	1.01[d]	. .	. .	. .	. .
Guyana	98.3[g]	98.1[g]	98.4[g]	1.00[g]	84.1	82.4	85.9	1.04
Paraguay	97.9	97.5	98.2	1.01	85.7[m]	85.7[m]	85.7[m]	1.00[m]
Peru	99.5[c]	99.7[c]	99.4[c]	1.00[c]	97.2[m]	97.0[m]	97.5[m]	1.01[m]
Suriname	92.4[e]	90.4[e]	94.4[e]	1.04[e]	90.9[m]	90.9[m]	91.0[m]	1.00[m]
Uruguay	. .	. .	. .	. .	99.5[m]	99.8[m]	99.2[m]	0.99[m]
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	89.3	88.6	90.0	1.02	94.9	94.7	95.1	1.00
East Asia and the Pacific	**91.7**	**92.0**	**91.3**	**0.99**	**91.8**	**92.1**	**91.5**	**0.99**
Brunei Darussalam	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Cambodia	90.5	94.4	86.6	0.92	95.9	96.4	95.4	0.99
China	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
China, Hong Kong Special Administrative Region	93.0[e]	93.4[e]	92.6[e]	0.99[e]	96.8[m]	96.2[m]	97.5[m]	1.01[m]
China, Macao Special Administrative Region	86.0	84.5	87.7	1.04	82.6	81.0	84.3	1.04
Cook Islands	94.3	93.0	95.9	1.03	98.7[k]	99.3[k]	97.9[k]	0.99[k]

Table II.A1.1. **Adjusted primary school net enrolment rates, 2000 and 2010** *(cont.)*

Total number of pupils of the official primary school age who are enrolled at primary or secondary education levels, expressed as a percentage of the eligible official primary school age population

Region, country or economy[b]	2000				2010			
	All	Male	Female	GPI[a]	All	Male	Female	GPI[a]
Fiji	94.7	94.7	94.7	1.00	99.1[m]	98.8[m]	99.3[m]	1.00[m]
Indonesia	94.0	95.6	92.3	0.97	95.1[i]	96.7[i]	93.5[i]	0.97[i]
Kiribati	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Korea, Democratic People's Republic of	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Lao People's Democratic Republic	78.1	81.3	74.7	0.92	89.0[l]	90.8[l]	87.0[l]	0.96[l]
Malaysia	97.8	97.8	97.8	1.00	. .	. .	. .	. .
Marshall Islands	85.0[e]	85.0[e]	85.1[e]	1.00[e]	. .	. .	. .	. .
Micronesia (Federated States of)	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Mongolia	91.8	90.9	92.8	1.02	98.1[m]	98.3[m]	97.8[m]	0.99[m]
Myanmar	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Nauru	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Niue	98.5[d]	98.6[d]	98.4[d]	1.00[d]	. .	. .	. .	. .
Palau	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Papua New Guinea	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Philippines	89.8[d]	89.5[d]	90.1[d]	1.01[d]	88.7[m]	87.9[m]	89.5[m]	1.02[m]
Samoa	92.2	91.5	93.0	1.02	. .	. .	. .	. .
Singapore	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Solomon Islands	. .	. .	. .	. .	82.0[k]	82.9[k]	81.1[k]	0.98[k]
Thailand	. .	. .	. .	. .	89.7[m]	90.0[m]	89.4[m]	0.99[m]
Timor-Leste	. .	. .	. .	. .	85.9	86.2	85.6	0.99
Tonga	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Vanuatu	97.7[d]	98.3[d]	97.0[d]	0.99[d]	. .	. .	. .	. .
Viet Nam	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Southern Asia	**76.5**	**81.4**	**71.3**	**0.87**	**91.7**	**92.3**	**91.0**	**0.98**
Afghanistan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Bangladesh	. .	. .	. .	. .	95.5[m]	91.2[m]	100.0[m]	1.10[m]
Bhutan	58.5	61.5	55.5	0.90	88.9[m]	87.6[m]	90.2[m]	1.03[m]
India	84.8	92.1	76.8	0.83	96.1[k]	97.8[k]	94.2[k]	0.96[k]
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	85.7	87.1	84.2	0.97	96.7[i]	97.6[i]	95.7[i]	0.98[i]
Maldives	98.6	98.0	99.2	1.01	96.8[n]	96.7[n]	96.8[n]	1.00[n]
Nepal	73.5	80.6	66.0	0.82	. .	. .	. .	. .
Pakistan	57.9[e]	68.9[e]	46.3[e]	0.67[e]	74.1	81.3	66.5	0.82
Sri Lanka	. .	. .	. .	. .	93.7[m]	93.5[m]	93.9[m]	1.00[m]
Eastern Europe and Central Asia	**94.1**	**94.6**	**93.7**	**0.99**	**92.8**	**92.7**	**92.9**	**1.00**
Albania	96.5[g]	97.5[g]	95.4[g]	0.98[g]	78.8	78.5	79.1	1.01
Armenia	93.2[e]	92.7[e]	93.6[e]	1.01[e]	79.5	78.2	81.1	1.04
Azerbaijan	88.2	88.5	88.0	0.99	84.7	85.3	84.1	0.99
Belarus	92.4[f]	92.6[f]	92.2[f]	1.00[f]	96.1[l]	95.0[l]	97.4[l]	1.02[l]
Bosnia and Herzegovina	. .	. .	. .	. .	87.4	86.5	88.4	1.02
Bulgaria	98.1	98.9	97.3	0.98	99.3[m]	98.9[m]	99.7[m]	1.01[m]
Croatia	92.4	92.8	92.0	0.99	93.2[m]	92.9[m]	93.5[m]	1.01[m]
Cyprus[o, p]	98.1	97.8	98.4	1.01	99.1[m]	99.4[m]	98.8[m]	0.99[m]
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM)	97.8	98.1	97.4	0.99	93.9[m]	93.0[m]	94.8[m]	1.02[m]
Georgia	90.2[h]	92.1[h]	88.3[h]	0.96[h]	95.3[k]	96.3[k]	94.2[k]	0.98[k]
Kazakhstan	94.0	92.8	95.3	1.03	99.5[n]	99.4[n]	99.7[n]	1.00[n]
Kyrgyzstan	92.3	92.5	92.2	1.00	95.3	95.5	95.1	1.00
Latvia	93.9[d]	94.3[d]	93.4[d]	0.99[d]	94.6[m]	94.1[m]	95.1[m]	1.01[m]
Lithuania	98.0	97.8	98.2	1.00	96.7[m]	96.5[m]	96.9[m]	1.00[m]
Moldova, Republic of	92.6	93.0	92.1	0.99	90.1	90.1	90.1	1.00
Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Table II.A1.1. **Adjusted primary school net enrolment rates, 2000 and 2010** *(cont.)*

Total number of pupils of the official primary school age who are enrolled at primary or secondary education levels, expressed as a percentage of the eligible official primary school age population

Region, country or economy[b]	2000				2010			
	All	Male	Female	GPI[a]	All	Male	Female	GPI[a]
Romania	92.7	92.9	92.6	1.00	92.4[m]	92.4[m]	92.5[m]	1.00[m]
Russian Federation	. .	. .	. .	. .	95.7[m]	95.1[m]	96.3[m]	1.01[m]
Serbia	. .	. .	. .	. .	94.5	94.7	94.4	1.00
Tajikistan	96.1	99.3	92.8	0.93	97.8	99.5	96.0	0.96
Turkmenistan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Ukraine	93.8[f]	93.9[f]	93.7[f]	1.00[f]	91.1	90.8	91.5	1.01
Uzbekistan	. .	. .	. .	. .	92.8[n]	94.1[n]	91.5[n]	0.97[n]
Middle East and North Africa	**88.5**	**90.3**	**86.6**	**0.95**	**94.1**	**94.9**	**93.3**	**0.98**
Algeria	93.0	94.5	91.5	0.97	97.3	98.2	96.4	0.98
Bahrain	98.4	97.1	99.8	1.03	99.3[j]	99.1[j]	99.6[j]	1.01[j]
Egypt	93.7	96.6	90.6	0.94	98.0[m]	99.7[m]	96.2[m]	0.96[m]
Iraq	87.4	93.4	81.0	0.87	89.2[k]	94.5[k]	83.7[k]	0.89[k]
Jordan	94.8	94.2	95.5	1.01	94.0[l]	93.1[l]	95.0[l]	1.02[l]
Kuwait	95.7	94.9	96.5	1.02	98.2[l]	96.6[l]	100.0[l]	1.03[l]
Lebanon	94.1[d]	95.4[d]	92.8[d]	0.97[d]	93.2	93.5	92.9	0.99
Morocco	76.3	80.7	71.6	0.89	96.2[n]	96.8[n]	95.6[n]	0.99[n]
Oman	82.4	81.3	83.5	1.03	98.1	97.9	98.4	1.01
Palestinian Authority	92.8	93.0	92.6	1.00	89.2	89.8	88.5	0.99
Qatar	96.2	93.0	99.8	1.07	96.2	95.7	96.6	1.01
Saudi Arabia	. .	. .	. .	. .	89.9[m]	90.4[m]	89.4[m]	0.99[m]
Syrian Arab Republic	. .	. .	. .	. .	99.1[m]	99.8[m]	98.4[m]	0.99[m]
Tunisia	96.5	98.1	94.8	0.97	. .	. .	. .	. .
United Arab Emirates	81.0	80.6	81.5	1.01	95.6[j]	93.6[j]	97.7[j]	1.04[j]
Yemen	56.7[d]	71.2[d]	41.6[d]	0.58[d]	78.2	85.5	70.5	0.82
Western Africa	**59.8**	**65.5**	**54.0**	**0.81**	**73.0**	**75.9**	**70.0**	**0.92**
Benin	85.6[g]	99.9[g]	71.5[g]	0.72[g]	88.0[i]	99.8[i]	76.3[i]	0.76[i]
Burkina Faso	34.5	40.3	28.6	0.71	61.5[m]	65.1[m]	57.7[m]	0.89[m]
Cape Verde	98.8[f]	99.4[f]	98.1[f]	0.99[f]	93.5	94.6	92.4	0.98
Côte d'Ivoire	56.8	65.5	48.2	0.74	61.5[m]	67.1[m]	55.8[m]	0.83[m]
Gambia	68.0	71.6	64.4	0.90	69.4	68.3	70.6	1.03
Ghana	65.0	65.7	64.2	0.98	84.2[n]	83.8[n]	84.6[n]	1.01[n]
Guinea	46.9	53.8	39.8	0.74	77.0	83.2	70.5	0.85
Guinea-Bissau	51.2	59.8	42.6	0.71	75.0	76.7	73.3	0.96
Liberia	46.5[d]	52.3[d]	40.5[d]	0.78[d]	. .	. .	. .	. .
Mali	42.2[d]	48.7[d]	35.5[d]	0.73[d]	65.8	70.6	60.8	0.86
Mauritania	61.1	62.0	60.2	0.97	74.4	72.8	76.0	1.04
Niger	27.1	31.6	22.3	0.71	58.3	64.2	52.0	0.81
Nigeria	64.5	70.0	58.9	0.84	62.1[k]	64.8[k]	59.3[k]	0.92[k]
Senegal	60.0	63.8	56.1	0.88	78.0	75.9	80.2	1.06
Sierra Leone	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Togo	88.8	98.5	79.1	0.80	. .	. .	. .	. .
Eastern and Middle Africa	**62.4**	**64.9**	**59.9**	**0.91**	**83.3**	**84.7**	**81.9**	**0.96**
Angola	53.5[c]	57.6[c]	49.4[c]	0.86[c]	85.7	93.1	78.2	0.84
Burundi	44.9	49.0	40.8	0.83	99.1[m]	98.3[m]	99.8[m]	1.02[m]
Cameroon	. .	. .	. .	. .	93.8[m]	99.6[m]	88.0[m]	0.88[m]
Central African Republic	. .	. .	. .	. .	70.9	81.3	60.6	0.75
Chad	54.6	66.0	43.1	0.65	. .	. .	. .	. .
Comoros	73.4	79.4	67.4	0.85	77.8[k]	80.7[k]	74.8[k]	0.93[k]
Congo	. .	. .	. .	. .	90.8	92.3	89.3	0.97

Table II.A1.1. **Adjusted primary school net enrolment rates, 2000 and 2010** *(cont.)*

Total number of pupils of the official primary school age who are enrolled at primary or secondary education levels, expressed as a percentage of the eligible official primary school age population

Region, country or economy[b]	2000				2010			
	All	Male	Female	GPI[a]	All	Male	Female	GPI[a]
Congo, Democratic Republic of	33.3[d]	34.2[d]	32.3[d]	0.95[d]	. .	. .	. .	. .
Djibouti	26.8	30.5	23.1	0.76	52.0[n]	54.9[n]	49.1[n]	0.89[n]
Equatorial Guinea	76.0[e]	81.2[e]	70.7[e]	0.87[e]	56.3	56.5	56.0	0.99
Eritrea	38.0	40.7	35.2	0.87	34.9	37.2	32.5	0.87
Ethiopia	40.4	46.6	34.2	0.73	82.2	84.8	79.5	0.94
Gabon	81.4[e]	81.6[e]	81.2[e]	1.00[e]	. .	. .	. .	. .
Kenya	65.7	64.7	66.7	1.03	84.0[m]	83.5[m]	84.5[m]	1.01[m]
Madagascar	67.2	66.8	67.6	1.01	. .	. .	. .	. .
Malawi	. .	. .	. .	. .	94.3[k]	91.0[k]	97.6[k]	1.07[k]
Mauritius	92.5	92.3	92.8	1.01	93.4	92.4	94.4	1.02
Mozambique	56.0	61.8	50.2	0.81	92.0	94.6	89.4	0.94
Rwanda	75.9[e]	74.9[e]	76.9[e]	1.03[e]	90.6[l]	89.0[l]	92.2[l]	1.04[l]
Sao Tome and Principe	89.5[d]	89.8[d]	89.2[d]	0.99[d]	97.3[l]	96.6[l]	97.9[l]	1.01[l]
Seychelles	91.8[e]	91.3[e]	92.4[e]	1.01[e]	95.1[i]	96.3[i]	94.0[i]	0.98[i]
Somalia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Sudan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Uganda	. .	. .	. .	. .	91.0	89.7	92.3	1.03
Tanzania, United Republic of	53.1	52.4	53.8	1.03	92.1	91.3	92.9	1.02
Zambia	71.0	71.7	70.2	0.98	92.7	91.4	93.9	1.03
Zimbabwe	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Southern Africa	**82.6**	**80.7**	**84.4**	**1.05**	**84.3**	**83.3**	**85.3**	**1.02**
Botswana	81.0	79.3	82.8	1.04	85.8[k]	84.9[k]	86.7[k]	1.02[k]
Lesotho	76.2	73.3	79.2	1.08	73.7	72.2	75.3	1.04
Namibia	89.6	86.5	92.7	1.07	86.4[m]	83.9[m]	88.9[m]	1.06[m]
South Africa	93.9	93.2	94.7	1.02	90.0[m]	89.4[m]	90.7[m]	1.01[m]
Swaziland	72.1	71.3	72.9	1.02	85.6	86.1	85.1	0.99

* Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

a) Gender parity index: ratio of female to male values of the adjusted net enrolment rate into primary education.

b) Country classification by world region is based on UN and World Bank classifications.

c) Data refer to 1998.

d) Data refer to 1999.

e) Data refer to 2001.

f) Data refer to 2002.

g) Data refer to 2003.

h) Data refer to 2004.

i) Data refer to 2005.

j) Data refer to 2006.

k) Data refer to 2007.

l) Data refer to 2008.

m) Data refer to 2009.

n) Data refer to 2011.

o) *Footnote by Turkey:* The information in this document with reference to "Cyprus" relates to the southern part of the Island. There is no single authority representing both Turkish and Greek Cypriot people on the Island. Turkey recognises the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). Until a lasting and equitable solution is found within the context of United Nations, Turkey shall preserve its position concerning the "Cyprus issue".

p) *Footnote by all the European Union member states of the OECD and the European Commission:* The Republic of Cyprus is recognised by all members of the United Nations with the exception of Turkey. The information in this document relates to the area under the effective control of the Government of the Republic of Cyprus.

Source: UNESCO Education Database 2012.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932677457

Table II.A1.2. **Gross secondary school enrolment ratios, 2000 and 2010**

Total enrolment in secondary school, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the eligible official secondary school-age population

Region, country or economy[b]	2000				2010			
	All	Male	Female	GPI[a]	All	Male	Female	GPI[a]
OECD	**104.4**	**103.0**	**105.8**	**1.02**	**102.8**	**102.8**	**102.9**	**1.00**
Australia	161.7	161.5	162.0	1.00	129.2[m]	131.8[m]	126.5[m]	0.96[m]
Austria	97.7	99.8	95.4	0.96	99.6[m]	101.8[m]	97.4[m]	0.96[m]
Belgium	145.1	138.4	152.2	1.10	110.5[m]	112.2[m]	108.8[m]	0.97[m]
Canada	102.5	101.6	103.4	1.02	101.3[l]	102.4[l]	100.2[l]	0.98[l]
Chile	82.7	81.8	83.6	1.02	87.9[m]	86.7[m]	89.2[m]	1.03[m]
Czech Republic	87.3	86.6	88.1	1.02	90.4[m]	89.9[m]	90.9[m]	1.01[m]
Denmark	126.7	124.0	129.6	1.04	117.4[m]	116.3[m]	118.5[m]	1.02[m]
Estonia	93.8	91.9	95.7	1.04	103.6[m]	102.7[m]	104.7[m]	1.02[m]
Finland	124.8	119.4	130.5	1.09	107.5[m]	105.0[m]	110.1[m]	1.05[m]
France	108.2	108.1	108.3	1.00	112.6[m]	112.4[m]	112.8[m]	1.00[m]
Germany	98.1	98.7	97.4	0.99	102.6[m]	105.3[m]	99.7[m]	0.95[m]
Greece	89.5	86.8	92.4	1.06	100.9[k]	103.5[k]	98.1[k]	0.95[k]
Hungary	95.1	94.8	95.5	1.01	98.3[m]	99.0[m]	97.6[m]	0.99[m]
Iceland	107.4	104.0	110.9	1.07	107.2[m]	105.7[m]	108.8[m]	1.03[m]
Ireland	106.7	102.6	111.1	1.08	117.5[m]	114.0[m]	121.1[m]	1.06[m]
Israel*	93.2	93.1	93.3	1.00	91.0[m]	90.3[m]	91.8[m]	1.02[m]
Italy	92.2[d]	92.6[d]	91.9[d]	0.99[d]	99.1[m]	99.8[m]	98.3[m]	0.98[m]
Japan	101.8	101.2	102.4	1.01	101.5[m]	101.4[m]	101.6[m]	1.00[m]
Korea	98.9	99.0	98.7	1.00	97.1[m]	97.6[m]	96.4[m]	0.99[m]
Luxembourg	97.0	94.2	99.9	1.06	97.6[l]	96.4[l]	98.8[l]	1.02[l]
Mexico	72.7	71.9	73.4	1.02	86.9[m]	83.7[m]	90.1[m]	1.08[m]
Netherlands	123.4	125.7	121.0	0.96	120.2[m]	121.1[m]	119.3[m]	0.99[m]
New Zealand	110.6	107.6	113.9	1.06	124.6[m]	122.9[m]	126.4[m]	1.03[m]
Norway	116.1	114.7	117.5	1.02	110.2[m]	111.5[m]	108.8[m]	0.98[m]
Poland	100.6	101.6	99.5	0.98	97.0[m]	97.5[m]	96.5[m]	0.99[m]
Portugal	104.7	101.4	108.1	1.07	106.7[m]	104.8[m]	108.7[m]	1.04[m]
Slovak Republic	84.6	83.8	85.4	1.02	89.4[m]	88.9[m]	90.0[m]	1.01[m]
Slovenia	100.8	99.1	102.6	1.04	97.1[m]	97.3[m]	96.8[m]	1.00[m]
Spain	111.4	108.3	114.7	1.06	119.0[m]	116.5[m]	121.6[m]	1.04[m]
Sweden	151.8	134.3	170.2	1.27	100.3[m]	100.6[m]	99.9[m]	0.99[m]
Switzerland	95.4	98.4	92.3	0.94	95.2[m]	97.1[m]	93.3[m]	0.96[m]
Turkey	71.4	82.5	60.1	0.73	77.6[m]	80.9[m]	74.1[m]	0.91[m]
United Kingdom	101.6	101.1	102.1	1.01	101.8[m]	100.8[m]	102.9[m]	1.02[m]
United States	93.0	92.4	93.7	1.01	96.5[m]	95.8[m]	97.1[m]	1.01[m]
Caribbean	**88.8**	**85.6**	**92.0**	**1.08**	**93.0**	**91.4**	**94.7**	**1.04**
Anguilla	107.0	108.2	105.9	0.98	79.7[l]	81.8[l]	77.6[l]	0.95[l]
Antigua and Barbuda	78.9	82.5	75.5	0.92	105.4	104.8	106.0	1.01
Aruba	97.0	95.4	98.5	1.03	89.6	89.3	90.0	1.01
Bahamas	81.9	85.8	77.9	0.91	94.0[m]	92.9[m]	95.0[m]	1.02[m]
Barbados	104.8	99.5	110.5	1.11	100.6	96.4	105.1	1.09
Bermuda	79.2[e]	76.5[e]	81.9[e]	1.07[e]	78.7	72.3	85.4	1.18
British Virgin Islands	95.7[h]	92.9[h]	98.5[h]	1.06[h]	98.4[m]	96.9[m]	99.8[m]	1.03[m]
Cayman Islands	102.5	102.6	102.5	1.00	83.2[l]	78.2[l]	88.4[l]	1.13[l]
Cuba	82.5	80.8	84.3	1.04	89.4	90.0	88.8	0.99
Dominica	105.5	99.1	112.0	1.13	98.2	94.0	102.8	1.09
Dominican Republic	59.5	53.5	65.5	1.23	76.4	72.0	81.0	1.12
Grenada	108.1[f]	100.7[f]	115.6[f]	1.15[f]	107.9	106.3	109.4	1.03
Haiti	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Jamaica	86.7	85.8	87.6	1.02	95.6[m]	94.9[m]	96.3[m]	1.01[m]

Table II.A1.2. **Gross secondary school enrolment ratios, 2000 and 2010** *(cont.)*

Total enrolment in secondary school, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the eligible official secondary school-age population

Region, country or economy[b]	2000				2010			
	All	Male	Female	GPI[a]	All	Male	Female	GPI[a]
Montserrat	102.0[f]	96.3[f]	109.0[f]	1.13[f]	102.1[k]	101.1[k]	103.2[k]	1.02[k]
Puerto Rico	. .	. .	. .	. .	82.2	79.9	84.5	1.06
Saint Kitts and Nevis	75.4	72.8	78.0	1.07	97.5	97.8	97.2	0.99
Saint Lucia	73.4	63.8	82.7	1.30	96.1	96.7	95.6	0.99
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	82.5	70.5	94.6	1.34	109.4[m]	107.4[m]	111.5[m]	1.04[m]
Trinidad and Tobago	75.7	72.1	79.4	1.10	89.9[l]	87.0[l]	93.0[l]	1.07[l]
Turks and Caicos Islands	88.2[g]	88.4[g]	88.1[g]	1.00[g]	86.0[i]	88.7[i]	83.2[i]	0.94[i]
Central America	**56.3**	**55.0**	**57.7**	**1.04**	**73.3**	**71.4**	**75.3**	**1.06**
Belize	65.1	63.4	66.8	1.05	74.8	75.7	74.0	0.98
Costa Rica	60.7	58.2	63.5	1.09	99.7	97.0	102.5	1.06
El Salvador	54.0	54.2	53.9	0.99	63.1[m]	62.4[m]	63.7[m]	1.02[m]
Guatemala	38.0	40.3	35.6	0.88	58.5	60.5	56.6	0.93
Honduras	. .	. .	. .	. .	73.5	66.0	81.2	1.23
Nicaragua	53.1	49.0	57.4	1.17	69.4	66.2	72.7	1.10
Panama	67.0	65.0	69.1	1.06	74.1	71.7	76.7	1.07
South America	**79.4**	**77.1**	**81.7**	**1.06**	**85.2**	**81.8**	**88.7**	**1.09**
Argentina	86.6	84.6	88.6	1.05	85.8[l]	80.5[l]	91.4[l]	1.14[l]
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	79.8	81.5	78.1	0.96	81.0[l]	81.9[l]	80.1[l]	0.98[l]
Brazil	104.4	99.5	109.5	1.10	101.3[l]	96.4[l]	106.5[l]	1.11[l]
Colombia	71.8	68.4	75.3	1.10	96.4	92.0	100.9	1.10
Ecuador	57.1	56.7	57.6	1.02	80.4[m]	78.6[m]	82.4[m]	1.05[m]
Guyana	94.6	94.5	94.8	1.00	91.0	86.6	95.7	1.11
Paraguay	61.3	60.3	62.3	1.03	66.9[m]	65.5[m]	68.5[m]	1.05[m]
Peru	85.8	88.8	82.6	0.93	91.6[m]	92.6[m]	90.6[m]	0.98[m]
Suriname	73.4[e]	67.3[e]	79.8[e]	1.19[e]	74.8[m]	67.3[m]	82.6[m]	1.23[m]
Uruguay	98.3	92.1	104.8	1.14	85.0[m]	79.4[m]	90.8[m]	1.14[m]
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	59.8	54.6	65.3	1.20	82.5	78.8	86.4	1.10
East Asia and the Pacific	**66.1**	**64.1**	**68.2**	**1.03**	**76.9**	**74.6**	**80.1**	**1.06**
Brunei Darussalam	89.2	86.9	91.7	1.06	107.3[m]	105.9[m]	108.7[m]	1.03[m]
Cambodia	16.6	21.4	11.7	0.55	46.2	48.5	43.7	0.90
China	63.3[e]	64.8[e]	61.6[e]	0.95[e]	80.1[m]	77.6[m]	82.9[m]	1.07[m]
China, Hong Kong Special Administrative Region	77.1[e]	77.6[e]	76.5[e]	0.98[e]	83.0	82.4	83.7	1.02
China, Macao Special Administrative Region	83.0	81.6	84.4	1.03	92.4	95.9	88.9	0.93
Cook Islands	76.7	72.0	82.0	1.14	83.4[m]	78.7[m]	88.6[m]	1.13[m]
Fiji	78.5	75.1	82.0	1.09	86.5[m]	82.7[m]	90.5[m]	1.09[m]
Indonesia	52.8	54.1	51.5	0.95	75.1[m]	75.4[m]	74.7[m]	0.99[m]
Kiribati	100.2	76.3	125.0	1.64	85.6[l]	81.3[l]	90.0[l]	1.11[l]
Korea, Democratic People's Republic of	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Lao People's Democratic Republic	34.9	40.9	28.7	0.70	44.7[l]	49.4[l]	39.8[l]	0.81[l]
Malaysia	66.2	63.4	69.1	1.09	69.1[l]	66.6[l]	71.6[l]	1.08[l]
Marshall Islands	67.8[d]	65.7[d]	69.9[d]	1.06[d]	98.8[m]	97.5[m]	100.3[m]	1.03[m]
Micronesia (Federated States of)	82.2[h]	79.9[h]	84.8[h]	1.06[h]	83.2[i]	80.2[i]	86.6[i]	1.08[i]
Mongolia	65.0	58.5	71.6	1.22	92.9[m]	89.5[m]	96.3[m]	1.08[m]
Myanmar	39.9	38.6	41.1	1.07	54.3	52.6	56.0	1.06
Nauru	47.1	43.3	50.8	1.17	62.9[l]	57.6[l]	68.9[l]	1.20[l]
Niue	97.0	89.9	104.7	1.16	105.1[l]	82.9[l]	147.8[l]	1.78[l]
Palau	91.6[e]	91.3[e]	91.9[e]	1.01[e]	. .	. .	. .	. .
Papua New Guinea	19.3[c]	22.6[c]	15.9[c]	0.70[c]	. .	. .	. .	. .
Philippines	74.3[d]	70.8[d]	77.9[d]	1.10[d]	84.8[m]	81.5[m]	88.3[m]	1.08[m]

Table II.A1.2. **Gross secondary school enrolment ratios, 2000 and 2010** *(cont.)*

Total enrolment in secondary school, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the eligible official secondary school-age population

Region, country or economy[b]	2000				2010			
	All	Male	Female	GPI[a]	All	Male	Female	GPI[a]
Samoa	77.9	73.1	83.3	1.14	84.7	79.3	90.7	1.14
Singapore	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Solomon Islands	20.7	23.0	18.2	0.79	35.5[k]	38.4[k]	32.4[k]	0.84[k]
Thailand	62.2[e]	62.9[e]	61.5[e]	0.98[e]	77.2	74.2	80.4	1.08
Timor-Leste	56.6[h]	57.3[h]	55.9[h]	0.98[h]	56.3	56.1	56.4	1.01
Tokelau	92.3	91.9	92.7	1.01	. .	. .	. .	. .
Tonga	106.5	101.0	112.7	1.12	101.3[j]	101.2[j]	101.5[j]	1.00[j]
Tuvalu	79.5[e]	76.2[e]	83.7[e]	1.10[e]	. .	. .	. .	. .
Vanuatu	34.7	32.4	37.0	1.14	54.7	54.3	55.1	1.02
Viet Nam	64.0	66.9	61.0	0.91	77.2[l]	75.4[l]	79.1[l]	1.05[l]
Southern Asia	**47.4**	**50.5**	**49.5**	**0.89**	**57.4**	**60.2**	**54.4**	**0.89**
Afghanistan	11.5[e]	22.1[e]	. .	. .	45.5	59.8	30.2	0.51
Bangladesh	48.2	47.4	49.0	1.03	49.3[m]	47.1[m]	51.5[m]	1.09[m]
Bhutan	40.7	44.7	36.7	0.82	60.8[m]	61.0[m]	60.7[m]	1.00[m]
India	45.3	52.6	37.4	0.71	60.2[l]	63.8[l]	56.2[l]	0.88[l]
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	79.7	82.2	77.1	0.94	83.5[m]	85.9[m]	81.1[m]	0.94[m]
Maldives	52.8	50.8	54.9	1.08	82.1[j]	79.4[j]	85.1[j]	1.07[j]
Nepal	35.0	40.6	29.0	0.71	43.5[j]	46.1[j]	40.8[j]	0.89[j]
Pakistan	27.7[g]	31.1[g]	24.1[g]	0.77[g]	34.2	38.9	29.4	0.76
Sri Lanka	85.5[f]	82.9[f]	88.1[f]	1.06[f]	. .	. .	. .	. .
Eastern Europe and Central Asia	**86.4**	**86.5**	**86.3**	**1.00**	**92.0**	**92.5**	**91.5**	**0.99**
Albania	71.5	73.0	70.1	0.96	78.2	79.0	77.3	0.98
Armenia	87.7[e]	85.2[e]	90.2[e]	1.06[e]	92.0	91.0	93.1	1.02
Azerbaijan	74.8	76.7	73.0	0.95	84.5[k]	86.2[k]	82.7[k]	0.96[k]
Belarus	87.2	85.7	88.8	1.04	95.9[k]	94.9[k]	97.0[k]	1.02[k]
Bosnia and Herzegovina	. .	. .	. .	. .	89.6	88.5	90.7	1.03
Bulgaria	93.0	94.0	92.0	0.98	88.0[m]	89.6[m]	86.3[m]	0.96[m]
Croatia	85.2	84.3	86.1	1.02	95.3[m]	93.7[m]	97.0[m]	1.04[m]
Cyprus[o, p]	93.4	92.4	94.4	1.02	98.4[m]	97.8[m]	99.0[m]	1.01[m]
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM)	83.9	85.2	82.6	0.97	82.8[m]	83.6[m]	81.9[m]	0.98[m]
Georgia	78.8	79.4	78.2	0.99	89.0[l]	91.4[l]	86.6[l]	0.95[l]
Kazakhstan	93.7	92.8	94.6	1.02	99.6[n]	101.0[n]	98.3[n]	0.97[n]
Kyrgyzstan	84.3	83.1	85.5	1.03	84.0	84.5	83.5	0.99
Latvia	90.6	89.4	91.9	1.03	94.1[m]	93.8[m]	94.4[m]	1.01[m]
Lithuania	97.9	98.3	97.6	0.99	98.0[m]	98.1[m]	97.9[m]	1.00[m]
Moldova, Republic of	81.6	80.7	82.5	1.02	88.0	87.0	89.0	1.02
Montenegro	. .	. .	. .	. .	104.0	103.5	104.6	1.01
Romania	81.9	81.3	82.5	1.02	95.1[m]	95.4[m]	94.8[m]	0.99[m]
Russian Federation	91.6[g]	91.7[g]	91.5[g]	1.00[g]	88.6[m]	89.6[m]	87.5[m]	0.98[m]
Serbia	90.0	89.1	91.0	1.02	91.4	90.5	92.4	1.02
Tajikistan	74.2	79.8	68.5	0.86	87.2	93.4	80.9	0.87
Turkmenistan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Ukraine	98.9	98.6	99.2	1.01	95.6	96.7	94.4	0.98
Uzbekistan	87.5	88.9	86.2	0.97	105.7[n]	106.8[n]	104.5[n]	0.98[n]
Middle East and North Africa	**75.2**	**75.7**	**74.7**	**0.96**	**84.9**	**84.5**	**85.4**	**1.00**
Algeria	74.9[f]	73.2[f]	76.7[f]	1.05[f]	94.9[m]	94.1[m]	95.8[m]	1.02[m]
Bahrain	98.7	94.7	103.0	1.09	103.1[j]	100.9[j]	105.3[j]	1.04[j]
Egypt	82.6	85.9	79.1	0.92	. .	. .	. .	. .
Iraq	37.5	46.0	28.5	0.62	52.9[k]	60.3[k]	45.1[k]	0.75[k]

Table II.A1.2. **Gross secondary school enrolment ratios, 2000 and 2010** *(cont.)*

Total enrolment in secondary school, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the eligible official secondary school-age population

Region, country or economy[b]	2000				2010			
	All	Male	Female	GPI[a]	All	Male	Female	GPI[a]
Jordan	84.2	82.4	86.2	1.05	91.1[l]	89.3[l]	93.0[l]	1.04[l]
Kuwait	107.9	105.9	109.9	1.04	101.0[l]	97.9[l]	104.3[l]	1.07[l]
Lebanon	76.7[d]	73.4[d]	80.1[d]	1.09[d]	81.4	76.8	86.2	1.12
Libya	110.3[f]	107.0[f]	113.7[f]	1.06[f]	93.4[j]	86.1[j]	101.2[j]	1.18[j]
Morocco	38.1	42.5	33.7	0.79	56.1[k]	60.3[k]	51.8[k]	0.86[k]
Oman	75.5	75.8	75.2	0.99	101.3	101.8	100.7	0.99
Palestinian Authority	80.6	78.9	82.4	1.04	86.0	82.7	89.4	1.08
Qatar	87.5	81.9	94.2	1.15	93.7	85.8	103.7	1.21
Saudi Arabia	. .	. .	. .	. .	104.3	110.6	97.9	0.89
Syrian Arab Republic	44.8	46.7	42.9	0.92	72.4	72.2	72.6	1.01
Tunisia	76.1	74.8	77.4	1.03	90.5[m]	88.0[m]	93.1[m]	1.06[m]
United Arab Emirates	85.2	82.9	87.7	1.06	92.3[j]	91.7[j]	93.0[j]	1.01[j]
Yemen	42.5	59.9	24.5	0.41	44.1	54.1	33.7	0.62
Western Africa	**25.2**	**29.9**	**20.4**	**0.65**	**42.3**	**46.6**	**38.0**	**0.79**
Benin	23.1	32.3	14.2	0.44	37.1[i]	48.4[i]	26.0[i]	0.54[i]
Burkina Faso	9.7	11.7	7.7	0.66	20.7	23.4	17.9	0.76
Cape Verde	67.9[e]	66.5[e]	69.2[e]	1.04[e]	87.5	79.7	95.4	1.20
Côte d'Ivoire	23.6	30.6	16.6	0.54	. .	. .	. .	. .
Gambia	. .	. .	. .	. .	54.1	55.6	52.6	0.95
Ghana	40.5	44.4	36.5	0.82	67.3[n]	70.6[n]	63.9[n]	0.91[n]
Guinea	16.0	23.1	8.6	0.37	38.1[m]	47.7[m]	28.1[m]	0.59[m]
Guinea-Bissau	18.5	23.9	13.1	0.55	. .	. .	. .	. .
Liberia	34.8	40.3	29.2	0.73	. .	. .	. .	. .
Mali	16.5	21.1	11.9	0.56	37.7	44.3	30.9	0.70
Mauritania	18.2	20.9	15.5	0.74	24.4	26.4	22.4	0.85
Niger	7.0	8.8	5.2	0.60	13.4	16.1	10.6	0.66
Nigeria	24.3	26.3	22.2	0.85	44.0	46.8	41.2	0.88
Senegal	16.5	19.9	13.0	0.65	37.4	39.9	34.9	0.88
Sierra Leone	27.6[e]	33.0[e]	22.5[e]	0.68[e]	. .	. .	. .	. .
Togo	33.7	46.7	20.8	0.44	45.5[k]	59.8[k]	31.4[k]	0.53[k]
Eastern and Middle Africa	**29.5**	**32.2**	**26.7**	**0.77**	**40.2**	**43.2**	**37.3**	**0.80**
Angola	14.9	16.4	13.4	0.82	31.3	37.2	25.5	0.69
Burundi	11.1[g]	12.6[g]	9.7[g]	0.77[g]	24.8	28.9	20.7	0.72
Cameroon	26.1[d]	28.4[d]	23.8[d]	0.84[d]	42.2[m]	46.0[m]	38.4[m]	0.83[m]
Central African Republic	. .	. .	. .	. .	12.6	16.0	9.3	0.58
Chad	10.8	16.9	4.8	0.28	25.7	36.3	15.0	0.41
Comoros	28.9	31.8	26.0	0.82	46.3[i]	52.7[i]	39.9[i]	0.76[i]
Congo	35.6	41.8	29.4	0.70	. .	. .	. .	. .
Congo, Democratic Republic of	19.0[d]	24.9[d]	13.1[d]	0.53[d]	37.9[m]	48.5[m]	27.2[m]	0.56[m]
Djibouti	13.6	16.4	10.8	0.66	36.1[n]	40.1[n]	31.9[n]	0.80[n]
Equatorial Guinea	31.4	43.5	19.2	0.44	. .	. .	. .	. .
Eritrea	25.0	29.7	20.4	0.69	31.9	36.3	27.6	0.76
Ethiopia	14.5	17.4	11.6	0.66	35.7	39.3	32.1	0.82
Gabon	48.0	51.6	44.4	0.86	. .	. .	. .	. .
Kenya	39.2	40.2	38.2	0.95	60.2[m]	63.2[m]	57.1[m]	0.90[m]
Madagascar	16.6[c]	17.1[c]	16.2[c]	0.95[c]	31.1[m]	32.0[m]	30.2[m]	0.94[m]
Malawi	32.2	36.7	27.6	0.75	32.1	33.6	30.6	0.91
Mauritius	75.3	76.6	73.9	0.96	89.4	89.5	89.3	1.00
Mozambique	6.1	7.5	4.7	0.63	25.5	28.0	22.9	0.82
Rwanda	11.1	11.4	10.8	0.95	32.2	31.9	32.4	1.02

Table II.A1.2. **Gross secondary school enrolment ratios, 2000 and 2010** *(cont.)*

Total enrolment in secondary school, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the eligible official secondary school-age population

Region, country or economy[b]	2000				2010			
	All	Male	Female	GPI[a]	All	Male	Female	GPI[a]
Sao Tome and Principe	38.4[g]	35.3[g]	41.5[g]	1.18[g]	59.2[n]	55.2[n]	63.4[n]	1.15[n]
Seychelles	104.5	101.8	107.4	1.06	114.7[m]	108.2[m]	122.0[m]	1.13[m]
Somalia	. .	. .	. .	. .	7.8[k]	10.7[k]	4.9[k]	0.46[k]
Sudan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Uganda	16.3	18.5	14.1	0.76	28.1	30.4	25.8	0.85
Tanzania, United Republic of	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Zambia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Zimbabwe	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Southern Africa	**58.4**	**55.6**	**61.2**	**1.12**	**68.5**	**65.1**	**71.9**	**1.13**
Botswana	74.6	72.7	76.5	1.05	80.0[k]	77.9[k]	82.1[k]	1.05[k]
Lesotho	30.1	26.0	34.3	1.32	46.4	39.0	53.9	1.38
Namibia	60.1	56.6	63.7	1.13	64.0[k]	58.9[k]	69.3[k]	1.18[k]
South Africa	85.3	81.0	89.5	1.10	93.8[m]	91.6[m]	96.0[m]	1.05[m]
Swaziland	41.9	41.7	42.1	1.01	58.1	58.1	58.1	1.00

* Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

a) Gender parity index: ratio of female to male values of the gross enrolment ratio into secondary education.

b) Country classification into world regions is based on UN and World Bank classifications.

c) Data refer to 1998.

d) Data refer to 1999.

e) Data refer to 2001.

f) Data refer to 2002.

g) Data refer to 2003.

h) Data refer to 2004.

i) Data refer to 2005.

j) Data refer to 2006.

k) Data refer to 2007.

l) Data refer to 2008.

m) Data refer to 2009.

n) Data refer to 2011.

o) *Footnote by Turkey:* The information in this document with reference to "Cyprus" relates to the southern part of the Island. There is no single authority representing both Turkish and Greek Cypriot people on the Island. Turkey recognises the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). Until a lasting and equitable solution is found within the context of United Nations, Turkey shall preserve its position concerning the "Cyprus issue".

p) *Footnote by all the European Union member states of the OECD and the European Commission:* The Republic of Cyprus is recognised by all members of the United Nations with the exception of Turkey. The information in this document relates to the area under the effective control of the Government of the Republic of Cyprus.

Source: UNESCO Education Database 2012.

StatLink *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932677476*

ANNEX II.A2

Supplementary table to Chapter 5

Table II.A2.1. **Gender equality focused aid in primary and secondary education, percentage of 2009-10 annual average DAC members' aid commitments, 2010 prices**

Recipient region, country or economy	Primary education	Secondary education
North and Central America, all[a]	**75.6**	**65.6**
North and Central America, regional	98.2	99.2
West Indies, regional	. .	100.0
Anguilla	. .	. .
Antigua and Barbuda	. .	. .
Barbados	. .	. .
Belize	100.0	. .
Costa Rica	98.5	99.9
Cuba	15.8	57.0
Dominica	. .	. .
Dominican Republic	57.1	72.6
El Salvador	48.5	95.5
Grenada	0.0	. .
Guatemala	39.2	46.2
Haiti	91.0	77.2
Honduras	89.7	34.6
Jamaica	100.0	100.0
Montserrat	. .	0.0
Nicaragua	63.0	24.7
Panama	100.0	37.0
Saint Kitts and Nevis	. .	. .
Saint Lucia	. .	. .
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	. .	. .
Trinidad and Tobago	. .	. .
South America, all[a]	**76.1**	**64.4**
South America, regional	99.8	91.2
Argentina	67.1	96.8
Bolivia (Plurinational State of)	64.2	61.7
Brazil	59.5	52.1
Colombia	90.5	65.2
Ecuador	41.0	68.0
Guyana	0.0	. .
Paraguay	63.0	23.7
Peru	81.7	62.5
Suriname	. .	. .
Uruguay	86.5	57.8
Venezuela (Bolivarian Republic of)	96.1	46.3

Table II.A2.1. **Gender equality focused aid in primary and secondary education, percentage of 2009-10 annual average DAC members' aid commitments, 2010 prices** *(cont.)*

Recipient region, country or economy	Primary education	Secondary education
Far East Asia, all[a]	**26.7**	**48.8**
Far East Asia, regional	100.0	100.0
Cambodia	16.7	31.5
China	38.5	47.1
Indonesia	10.5	79.2
Korea, Democratic People's Republic of	100.0	100.0
Lao People's Democratic Republic	87.5	76.2
Malaysia	51.1	5.8
Mongolia	49.9	8.9
Philippines	72.4	58.9
Thailand	55.4	38.2
Timor-Leste	67.2	93.4
Viet Nam	88.3	25.9
Oceania, all[a]	**91.4**	**88.5**
Oceania, regional	100.0	91.3
Cook Islands	100.0	100.0
Fiji	10.4	12.6
Kiribati	97.3	. .
Marshall Islands	. .	. .
Micronesia (Federated States of)	0.0	. .
Nauru	. .	. .
Niue	100.0	. .
Palau	. .	. .
Papua New Guinea	86.8	97.8
Samoa	70.6	53.0
Solomon Islands	91.0	0.0
Tokelau	100.0	. .
Tonga	100.0	96.3
Tuvalu	76.1	17.3
Vanuatu	100.0	91.9
South and Central Asia, all[a]	**88.7**	**67.1**
Central Asia, regional	85.0	100.0
South Asia, regional	100.0	100.0
Afghanistan	84.0	90.3
Armenia	97.4	0.3
Azerbaijan	67.3	100.0
Bangladesh	87.2	49.5
Bhutan	0.0	93.2
Georgia	8.2	1.5
India	97.4	69.4
Kazakhstan	52.2	86.5
Kyrgyzstan	100.0	98.9
Maldives	0.0	100.0
Myanmar	80.3	3.5
Nepal	94.2	97.4
Pakistan	79.5	99.3
Sri Lanka	56.9	66.7
Tajikistan	99.9	75.9
Turkmenistan	. .	7.4
Uzbekistan	0.7	44.9

Table II.A2.1. **Gender equality focused aid in primary and secondary education, percentage of 2009-10 annual average DAC members' aid commitments, 2010 prices** *(cont.)*

Recipient region, country or economy	Primary education	Secondary education
Europe, all[a]	**53.0**	**64.7**
Europe, regional	98.2	99.7
Albania	39.8	36.2
Belarus	0.0	78.1
Bosnia and Herzegovina	9.6	77.7
Croatia	100.0	94.9
Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia (FYROM)	50.6	37.7
Kosovo	26.7	58.8
Moldova, Republic of	74.2	68.5
Montenegro	100.0	6.5
Serbia	33.1	84.4
Ukraine	92.2	65.9
Africa, South of Sahara, all[a]	**68.5**	**72.9**
South of Sahara, regional	98.0	88.2
Angola	87.3	20.5
Benin	52.2	98.0
Botswana	91.0	8.6
Burkina Faso	96.6	78.6
Burundi	56.3	94.3
Cameroon	88.2	94.9
Cape Verde	100.0	0.1
Central African Republic	89.2	88.7
Chad	47.2	84.3
Comoros	100.0	1.8
Congo	87.0	94.3
Congo, Democratic Republic of	60.1	92.9
Côte d'Ivoire	89.0	78.3
Djibouti	100.0	100.0
Equatorial Guinea	17.6	24.9
Eritrea	0.0	39.6
Ethiopia	62.1	88.8
Gabon	0.0	18.6
Gambia	84.4	7.4
Ghana	58.1	24.2
Guinea	99.2	87.5
Guinea-Bissau	27.3	24.8
Kenya	52.6	54.2
Lesotho	99.8	. .
Liberia	100.0	100.0
Madagascar	49.9	97.2
Malawi	99.1	7.1
Mali	90.4	36.5
Mauritania	78.8	75.8
Mauritius	100.0	100.0
Mayotte	100.0	100.0
Mozambique	66.3	41.3
Namibia	50.6	15.0
Niger	97.8	56.7
Nigeria	46.5	82.0
Rwanda	95.5	34.7
Saint Helena	. .	0.0
Sao Tome and Principe	0.0	0.0

Table II.A2.1. **Gender equality focused aid in primary and secondary education, percentage of 2009-10 annual average DAC members' aid commitments, 2010 prices** *(cont.)*

Recipient region, country or economy	Primary education	Secondary education
Senegal	64.6	87.9
Seychelles	100.0	. .
Sierra Leone	94.1	69.9
Somalia	58.4	37.1
South Africa	3.0	62.7
Sudan	81.3	94.3
Swaziland	49.5	67.4
Tanzania, United Republic of	98.6	93.5
Togo	96.3	81.8
Uganda	25.3	24.2
Zambia	41.0	54.2
Zimbabwe	34.8	69.6
Middle East, all[a]	**97.2**	**84.4**
Middle East, regional	100.0	96.1
Iran (Islamic Republic of)	100.0	24.8
Iraq	93.8	90.1
Jordan	95.0	89.5
Lebanon	95.6	99.7
Oman	100.0	0.0
Palestinian Authority[b]	98.8	54.9
Syrian Arab Republic	97.0	71.2
Yemen	99.3	99.8
Africa, North of Sahara, all[a]	**97.5**	**90.5**
North of Sahara, regional	71.4	90.8
Algeria	100.0	98.6
Egypt	97.1	89.9
Libya	100.0	100.0
Morocco	97.7	89.4
Tunisia	98.5	93.8

. .: There were no commitments made to primary or secondary education for this country in 2009-10 or this aid was not screened against the gender equality policy marker.

a) Regional weigthed average.

b) Referred to as "West Bank and Gaza Strip" in the DAC List of ODA Recipients.

Source: Creditor Reporting System (CRS), *Aid Activity Database*, *www.oecd.org/dac/stats/idsonline*.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932677495

ANNEX II.A3

Supplementary table to Chapter 8

Table II.A3.1. **Percentage of female students in higher education, 1985-2025**

	1985	1995	2005	2015	2025
OECD	**46**	**50**	**54**	**56**	**58**
Australia	. .	50	54	55	56
Austria	44	48	54	61	72
Belgium	47	49	54	58	60
Canada	49	53	58	60	64
Czech Republic	. .	48	53	53	54
Denmark	48	52	57	59	60
Finland	49	53	54	54	53
France	52	55	55	56	57
Germany	. .	43	50	54	58
Greece	. .	49	51	53	53
Hungary	. .	52	58	59	60
Iceland	. .	58	65	67	68
Ireland	43	49	55	58	59
Italy	45	52	57	57	57
Japan	. .	44	46	47	48
Korea	. .	35	37	38	40
Luxembourg	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Mexico	. .	47	50	52	52
Netherlands	41	47	51	53	54
New Zealand	46	55	59	59	60
Norway	50	55	60	63	65
Poland	. .	. .	58	58	58
Portugal	53	57	56	56	56
Slovak Republic	. .	. .	55	58	59
Spain	48	53	54	55	55
Sweden	52	55	60	62	63
Switzerland	32	37	46	49	52
Turkey	31	38	42	43	43
United Kingdom	45	51	57	65	71
United States	52	55	57	60	62

Source: OECD (2008), *Higher Education to 2030*, OECD Publishing, Paris.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932677514

ANNEX II.A4

General background data on education

Table II.A4.1. **Educational attainment, PISA scores, and field of tertiary education, 2009**

	Proportion of the population with at least upper secondary education				Proportion of the population with tertiary education[a]				PISA scores						Proportion of degrees[b] awarded to women			
	25-34 years old		55-64 years old		25-34 years old		55-64 years old		Reading[c]		Mathematics[d]		Science[e]		Computing	Engineering, manufacturing and construction	Education	Health and welfare
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Women	Women	Women	Women
OECD	**80.1**	**82.9**	**65.6**	**57.0**	**32.7**	**41.5**	**24.2**	**20.6**	**474**	**513**	**501**	**490**	**501**	**501**	**18.9**	**26.3**	**76.8**	**74.8**
Australia	81.0	84.8	65.9	50.2	38.1	51.5	29.7	28.9	496	533	519	509	527	528	19.6[g]	24.8[g]	74.0[g]	75.6[g]
Austria	90.0	86.8	81.5	62.5	19.6	22.5	21.2	11.0	449	490	506	486	498	490	17.5	25.5	80.3	67.1
Belgium	82.1	84.2	56.7	50.7	36.3	48.7	25.9	20.8	493	520	526	504	510	503	6.8	27.2	75.8	64.1
Canada	90.5	93.4	80.4	80.4	49.0	63.2	39.2	42.1	507	542	533	521	531	526	17.8[g]	23.5[g]	76.8[g]	83.2[g]
Chile	84.9	86.3	46.2	39.4	35.6	34.3	17.2	16.1	439	461	431	410	452	443	22.1	27.5	74.3	70.4
Czech Republic	94.9	93.5	92.4	79.9	18.1	22.5	13.6	8.3	456	504	495	490	498	503	13.3	25.6	78.5	81.1
Denmark	83.5	87.9	74.3	61.7	37.1	52.5	25.6	26.1	480	509	511	495	505	494	20.2	31.8	72.5	80.1
Estonia	82.9	89.7	80.0	85.8	27.5	45.7	26.4	37.6	480	524	516	508	527	528	28.8	37.6	92.1	84.0
Finland	88.1	92.8	65.5	69.4	30.3	49.0	27.4	30.5	508	563	542	539	546	562	27.0	22.8	83.6	85.6
France	82.6	85.1	59.3	50.5	38.7	47.5	18.3	17.7	475	515	505	489	500	497	16.5	28.8	74.6	59.3
Germany	86.4	85.7	88.8	76.8	24.4	26.9	32.4	18.4	478	518	520	505	523	518	15.6	22.3	72.5	68.4
Greece	69.6	80.6	42.1	37.1	25.0	34.1	19.4	10.8	459	506	473	459	465	475	. .	. .	. .	. .
Hungary	85.9	86.1	80.8	65.7	20.4	29.8	17.6	15.2	475	513	496	484	503	503	19.5	24.2	78.7	80.4
Iceland	65.1	75.2	67.9	45.0	30.2	41.9	25.6	19.8	478	522	508	505	496	495	21.1	35.3	84.5	85.4
Ireland	83.1	88.5	45.1	50.2	41.2	53.8	20.5	19.9	476	515	491	483	507	509	23.4	21.2	74.2	83.1
Israel*	84.3	90.4	73.8	74.7	35.1	50.6	44.1	45.8	452	495	451	443	453	456	24.6	24.2	83.3	77.8
Italy	66.5	74.1	40.7	32.9	15.8	24.6	11.1	9.5	464	510	490	475	488	490	. .	. .	. .	. .
Japan	. .	. .	. .	. .	52.3	59.2	31.9	23.1	501	540	534	524	534	545	8.0	10.8	59.3	56.6
Korea	97.0	98.1	55.3	30.1	62.8	63.4	19.1	7.5	523	558	548	544	537	539	20.1	22.5	71.6	63.0
Luxembourg	83.4	84.2	77.5	62.9	42.7	47.4	30.7	19.0	453	492	499	479	487	480	. .	. .	. .	. .
Mexico	42.6	41.3	24.7	18.2	21.5	19.0	14.5	5.5	413	438	425	412	419	413	36.4	28.3	72.0	64.1
Netherlands	80.1	84.6	71.1	53.9	37.1	43.2	33.0	21.8	496	521	534	517	524	520	10.2	18.7	81.1	75.2
New Zealand	77.6	80.9	67.7	55.4	41.4	51.8	32.1	35.3	499	544	523	515	529	535	23.0	29.8	81.2	79.5
Norway	81.5	85.8	81.3	76.0	37.6	56.4	28.1	26.3	480	527	500	495	498	502	13.1	24.5	74.5	82.4
Poland	92.5	94.5	79.9	75.4	28.2	42.7	12.4	12.8	476	525	497	493	505	511	16.3	33.6	77.8	72.8

Table II.A4.1. **Educational attainment, PISA scores, and field of tertiary education, 2009** *(cont.)*

	Proportion of the population with at least upper secondary education				Proportion of the population with tertiary education[a]				PISA scores						Proportion of degrees[b] awarded to women			
	25-34 years old		55-64 years old		25-34 years old		55-64 years old		Reading[c]		Mathematics[d]		Science[e]		Computing	Engineering, manufacturing and construction	Education	Health and welfare
	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Women	Women	Women	Women
Portugal	43.0	53.6	14.9	13.3	17.8	29.0	7.8	7.1	470	508	493	481	491	495	26.9	29.4	85.3	78.5
Slovak Republic	94.8	94.7	89.9	76.5	17.5	23.8	14.1	10.4	452	503	498	495	490	491	10.6	31.1	78.2	85.9
Slovenia	92.4	94.6	81.1	66.4	21.9	39.5	15.9	17.5	456	511	502	501	505	519	10.4	31.0	84.2	72.9
Spain	59.1	69.4	34.6	26.2	33.3	43.5	20.4	12.9	467	496	493	474	492	485	19.7	33.9	78.7	75.9
Sweden	90.1	92.3	72.8	78.5	36.5	48.4	23.5	30.4	475	521	493	495	493	497	24.1	28.4	79.3	82.3
Switzerland	91.7	88.4	89.1	76.0	42.5	37.4	38.6	18.1	481	520	544	524	520	512	8.9	19.1	74.3	68.3
Turkey	46.9	36.0	22.6	14.8	17.4	15.9	12.2	6.7	443	486	451	440	448	460	23.3	26.7	54.6	62.6
United Kingdom	81.7	81.5	73.1	55.2	42.9	46.8	30.4	27.0	481	507	503	482	519	509	19.0	22.5	76.3	74.1
United States	86.9	89.7	88.5	89.2	36.1	46.1	42.6	39.2	488	513	497	477	509	495	20.8	21.4	77.7	79.3
Brazil	48.8	56.1	24.9	24.2	9.6	13.5	9.3	8.6	397	425	394	379	407	404	17.9	28.8	79.7	75.2
China	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
India	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .
Indonesia	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	383	420	371	372	378	387	. .	. .	. .	. .
Russian Federation	89.2[f]	92.8[f]	73.1[f]	69.8[f]	49.1[f]	61.6[f]	44.3[f]	45.2[f]	437	482	469	467	477	480	. .	. .	. .	. .
South Africa	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .

Note: The OECD average is calculated as the unweighted average for OECD countries for which data is available.

* Information on data for Israel: *http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932315602*.

a) Refers to ISCED levels 5 and 6.

b) Degrees awarded at the tertiary level.

c) PISA reading literacy is scored based on a weighted OECD average of 500 and standard deviation of 100: the unweighted OECD average for all countries for girls is 513, and for boys is 474.

d) PISA mathematics ability is scored based on a weighted OECD average of 500 and standard deviation of 100: the unweighted OECD average for all countries for girls is 490, and for boys is 501.

e) PISA science ability is scored based on a weighted OECD average of 500 and standard deviation of 100: the unweighted OECD average for all countries for both girls and boys is 501.

f) Data refer to 2002.

g) Data refer to 2008.

Source: OECD (2010), *PISA 2009 Results: What Students Know and Can Do*, OECD Publishing, Paris; OECD (2011), *Education at a Glance*, OECD Publishing, Paris.

StatLink http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/888932677533

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