GENDER–RELATED ISSUES:
CURRENT SITUATION OF ACCESS TO AND QUALITY OF
FORMAL AND NONFORMAL JUNIOR SECONDARY EDUCATION
IN DBE3 TARGET AREAS

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“Without an education, people cannot work productively, care for their health, sustain and protect themselves and their families or live culturally enriched lives. Illiteracy makes it difficult for them to interact in society in a spirit of understanding, peace, tolerance and gender equality among all peoples and groups”. (Unicef, 1998:2)

INTRODUCTION

In The State of the World’s Children 1999 on Education, Unicef Executive Director Carol Bellamy quoted a Unesco report stating that nearly a billion people will enter the 21st century without the ability to read a book or sign their names, much less operate a computer. Their numbers are growing, and the consequences are profound, for those who are illiterate will live in poor conditions of economics, health, and information. In such conditions, they will not be able to participate optimally in development processes, to survive, and to take care of themselves and their families. On a larger scale, without access to education, democracy and social development are hampered, which ultimately affects the achievement of international peace and security.

Thus, it is clear that the education sector plays an important role in human resource development, together with the sectors of health and nutrition, population, and youth (Suryadi, 1999). Given the assumption that the more educated one is, the more one appraises one’s own health and consequently participates optimally in the development process, education is considered critical. Decentralized Basic Education Three (DBE3) – a five-year project – is directed toward improving the quality of basic education received by students in the junior secondary age group (12 to 15 years for formal school settings, and 12 to 18 years for nonformal settings). In collaboration with junior secondary schools (both public and religious-based schools), nonformal education providers, NGOs and government organizations at the national and local levels, DBE3 improves basic education and develops life skills for students in junior secondary school as well as for dropout youths under 18 years of age. With these life skills, it is expected that youths will be ready to continue to higher education, to enter the work force, and to participate in community development initiatives. The DBE3 project invites participation from stakeholders, specifically from the community and the private sector, to focus on the development of life skills through the national curriculum, improvement of technical skills through extracurricular activities, reducing the number of dropouts by raising transition and continuation rates in the junior secondary level, and upgrading the quality of nonformal education by developing strategies to improve management of nonformal education best suited to (local) labor markets as well as to provide an integrated life skills program (http://dbe.rti.org/about).

As a discussion document, this report presents potential gender-related issues concerning children’s access to and the quality of formal junior secondary and nonformal education in provinces where DBE3 is implemented, as well as recommendations on gender-related priority areas that can inform DBE3 program design and implementation. This current situation analysis is based on the existing secondary data, specifically education data of the respective provinces, focus group discussions (FGDs) with boys and girls in five formal schools and four Community Learning Centers (CLC – Pusat Kegiatan Belajar Mengajar/ PKBM), and interviews with informants (teachers, PKBM providers, and staff of local education offices) in DBE3 project sites: South Sulawesi (Enrengkang and Palopo), North Sumatra (Tebing Tinggi), and West Java (Karawang).

A. Background: Decentralization and gender mainstreaming policies in the education sector

Regional Autonomy (Decentralization). As the Regional Autonomy regulations came into force on January 1, 2001, local governments gradually equipped themselves with regulations at the district and subdistrict levels. In fact, decentralization in the education sector started much earlier, in 1951, as we can learn from the following regulations.

- Decentralization of the education sector is regulated by several policies, notably PP (Peraturan Pemerintah, Government Regulation) No. 65 of 1951, under which seven provinces (East Java,
Yogyakarta, Central Java, West Java, North Sumatra, Central Sumatra, and West Sumatra) were given the responsibility to establish and implement primary education, including subsidized private schools (partikelir), private courses, and introductory courses for learning readiness. Other important tasks and responsibilities were to serve as a liaison between the government and the youth movement and to conserve local culture (Jalal and Supriadi, 2001:132). Later, PP No. 65 of 1951 became applicable to all provinces in Indonesia.

- The Ministry of National Education (MONE, Departemen Pendidikan Nasional, Depdiknas) has gradually handed over some of the central government’s authority to the vertical line institutions (Jalal and Supriadi, 2001: 128). Specifically, preparation and implementation of the nine-year compulsory education is in the hands of Kantor Wilayah (Kanwil, provincial offices) of Depdiknas (deconcentration). With the elimination of Kantor Departemen (Kandep, district offices) Dikbud Dati II, which were formerly a pilot project of Regional Autonomy in 1995/96, some of the responsibilities were taken over by Dinas P dan K Tingkat II at the district level (decentralization). Additionally, Keputusan Mendikbud (Ministerial Decree) No. 0218/O/1995 established Kantor Inspeksi (Kanin, inspectorate offices) Depdikbud Dati II (district level) responsible to develop primary schools, kindergartens, primary schools for disabled children, junior secondary and senior secondary schools, nonformal education, youth, sport, and culture, and to provide technical and administrative support to all institutions within Kanin Depdikbud at the district level. Following the creation of Kanin Depdikbud, Keputusan Mendikbud No. 0274/O/1996 was issued, which set out the implementation guide for all education and culture affairs for the pilot districts, including primary schools, secondary schools, schools for the disabled, youth, sport, recreation, culture, art, museums, history, and archeology.

- In 1989, UU No. 2/1989 elaborated the National System of Education in an effort to carry out the 1945 Constitution’s mandate “to give the right to education for every citizen” and to accomplish national development in the field of education. The legislation was elaborated further through PP No. 28 of 1990 on primary education, which governed the implementation, maintenance, and improvement of school buildings as well as provision of land to build schools. Technical assistance, teacher upgrading and training, curriculum development, monitoring and evaluation remained in the hands of the central government.

- With the onset of the economic crisis, two programs were developed to respond to the crisis situation in which many families faced difficulties in continuing their children’s education: the Social Safety Net (Jaringan Pengaman Sosial, JPS) for education, and Coplaner. The main objective of JPS for education was to accomplish the target of nine-year compulsory education, through scholarships for students and operational assistance funds (Dana Bantuan Operasional, DBO) for SD/MI, SLTP/MTs, and SLTA/MA, both private and public. Coplaner was a project under the Ministry of National Education to increase community participation in providing and managing human resources for education. This project established Forum Pembinaan Pembangunan Pendidikan Tingkat Kecamatan (FP3TK – subdistrict-level Education Construction and Development Forum), one of the responsibilities of which was to train FP3TK members to socialize and mobilize community participation in education. The project was carried out under the auspices of the provincial and district levels, to be implemented at the subdistrict level. FP3TK is ongoing as part of the Regional Educational Development and Improvement Program (REDIP).

**Gender Mainstreaming.** The gender gap has long been an issue in the international arena. In 1994, the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) for the first time indicated that poverty was correlated with the low level of women’s educational attainment. International data showed that three-quarters of illiterate persons in the world were female, and most of the illiterate female populations were in Asia. Indonesia experienced the same situation: the gender gap in the literacy rate is relatively
high, although various initiatives have been implemented to close the gap. This gender gap affects other aspects of health and productivity (maternal and infant mortality rates, immunization rates, low wages and employment status for women, etc.). The Government of Indonesia (GOI) has implemented serious measures to close the gap, such as being involved in a number of international conferences, ratifying conventions related to gender equality and equity in education, and mainstreaming gender issues into policies and programs.

- The 1990 World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien declared a goal of achieving primary education for all in the year 2000. The Dakar Declaration (2000) reaffirmed and extended the Jomtien commitment, with an emphasis on improving the quality of education. In the same year, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) also reaffirmed that universal primary completion and gender equity in both primary and secondary education will be achieved by the year 2015.

- The Beijing Platform of Action (BPA, 1995), which stipulated that every country should ensure gender equality in the development process, emphasizes equality and equity of access to education for all citizens, regardless of ethnicity, race, religion, language, age, physical ability, and other forms of discrimination. One area of concern stipulated in the BPA is education for girls.

- The BPA also states that in order to eliminate gender discrimination, every country should make efforts to 1) create a gender-sensitive environment to ensure gender equity in education and training; 2) eradicate gender disparities in accessing higher education; and 3) improve the quality of education and ensure equal opportunity for girls and boys in the pursuit of knowledge and skills, so as to achieve gender equity and equality in education.

- Indonesia has made a strong commitment to eliminating the gender gap in every strategic sector by issuing Presidential Instruction (Instruksi Presiden, Inpres) No. 9/2000 on gender mainstreaming* (pengarusutamaan gender, PUG). The main mission of the Inpres is to mainstream gender issues in policies and programs. The education sector is one of the sectors implementing gender mainstreaming. One of the results of struggling with gender mainstreaming initiatives is the Kelompok Kerja Gender (Pokja Gender, Gender Working Group) under the Directorate of NonFormal Education (Direktorat Jendral Pendidikan Luar Sekolah, Ditjen PLS). The Pokja is mainly responsible for coordinating with related working units within and outside the education sector, as well as networking with community organizations to implement gender mainstreaming initiatives. Its tasks include preparing materials for the ministry to formulate education policies and preparing a national plan of action for gender mainstreaming. From 2002 to 2005, Pokja Gender has networked with 15 provinces and 30 districts. In the last four years, Pokja’s main activity has been capacity building for local stakeholders, including gender sensitivity training and gender analysis training for textbook writers and publishers and for teachers at the primary and secondary levels.

B. Methodology/approach of the situation analysis

The two main purposes of this situation analysis are 1) to overview the current situation of boys’ and girls’ education at junior secondary level, both formal and nonformal; and 2) to identify potential gender-related constraints faced by girls and boys in junior secondary and nonformal education. The analysis is based on the following framework.

* Gender mainstreaming is defined as a strategy to achieve gender equity and equality by considering women’s and men’s experiences, aspirations, and needs, as well as issues in the process of planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programs in all aspects of life and development sectors (Inpres No.9 Tahun 2000).
## ASPECTS OF ANALYSIS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender issues in access to education: Current situation of boys' and girls' education at junior school level, both formal and nonformal settings</th>
<th>Net Enrollment Ratio of girls and boys</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sex-disaggregated enrollment rates by grade level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gross primary admission (new entrants) rates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sex-disaggregated school attendance rates</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sex-and grade level-disaggregated dropout rates</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender issues in the curriculum and education process: Identification of potential gender-related issues in the teaching-learning process as well as in education management as a whole</th>
<th>Percentage of male and female teachers by grade level</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage of male and female school principals by grade level</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td>Completion rates (proportion of entering students who complete the final year of primary and secondary school)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Repetition rates at primary and secondary level</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage of female and male teachers involved in curriculum development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage of male and female textbook writers by grade level</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<tr>
<th>Gender issues in vocational education and the selection of study program: Identification of potential gender-related bias in the selection of study programs and/or vocational education</th>
<th>Enrollment ratio of girls and boys at vocational schools</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sex-disaggregated labor force participation rate by main industries</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In conducting the situation analysis, the following key methods were employed:

- Discussions with DBE3 management (COP and DCOP) and TAF Education staff on the structure and management of DBE3, as well as the activities delivered by DBE3 thus far.
- Independent review of available written documentation from DBE3, including progress reports, DBE3 planned activities, format of M&E (developed in collaboration with M&E consultants), and other instruments/tools developed by consultants for work transition.
- In-depth interviews with teachers and tutors, as well as nonformal education (NFE) providers in selected DBE3 project sites (Sulawesi Selatan: Enrengkang and Palopo; Sumatera Utara: Tebing Tinggi, Jawa Barat: Karawang) to obtain more detailed information on their perceptions of education for males and females, as well as gender-related issues in the management of schools and NFE providers and the teaching and learning process.
- Coordination/consultation meetings with the Gender Working Group (POKJA Gender) in MoNE to explore other issues related to gender in Indonesia, including DBE3 target areas with the exception of Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam.
- Direct observation in junior secondary schools and madrasah, pesantren and NFE providers.
- Discussions with PCs and DOs during field visits about management in the field and gender-related issues in the respective project sites visited.

### Limitations of the Study

Secondary data collection is critical in conducting any situation analysis. The challenges in obtaining education-related data on gender issues include 1) the limited availability of up-to-date sex-
disaggregated data (by province); and 2) conflicting data. The process of secondary data collection is also hampered by a shortage of personnel who are familiar with all types of data produced by each section and/or department within the education sector.

Other challenges faced while conducting this situation analysis include 1) the number of project activities being implemented at the provincial level during July and August, which made access to provincial staff limited and 2) some resistance to gender issues, particularly at the district level (DATI II), where such issues are not considered important.

D. Report Presentation

The introduction to the report presents the rationale and methodology for the study, followed by the results. A section on gender-related issues in access to education follows. This section presents a number of key indicators related to access to education, including literacy rates and educational attainment. This section also contains an analysis of specific data on participation, dropout, and repetition rates. This is followed by a section which discusses gender-related issues in curriculum development and in the teaching and learning process, and presents an analysis of the persistence of gender bias in curriculum development and in the teaching-learning process.

Gender biases are also apparent in the selection of study programs at the senior secondary level and in vocational schools. The data indicates that boys and girls tend to choose different study programs, in accordance with traditional perspectives on the gendered division of labor. Although DBE3 does not have interventions at the senior secondary level, it is instructive to examine these issues since they shed light on the gendered employment environment which awaits graduates of senior secondary school and gives a sense of what kinds of programs girls and boys may choose on completion of junior secondary school or the Packet B junior secondary equivalency program.

The conclusions and recommendations close the report.
GENDER-RELATED ISSUES IN ACCESS TO EDUCATION

A. General Overview

Development in education emphasizes the need to provide equal education opportunities for all citizens regardless of gender, religion, race, ethnicity, or welfare status. The Government of Indonesia (GOI) has made consistent efforts to provide access to education for all, and official policy stipulates there should be equal opportunities for male and female students. A number of government programs have been developed to support access to education, including: primary schools established by Presidential Instruction (SD Inpres), the Foster Parents Movement (Gerakan Orang Tua Asuh, GNOTA) through which foster parents provide financial assistance to poor families to help provide for the children’s education, compulsory education (6 and 9 years), acceleration programs and Operational Assistance for Schools (Bantuan Operasional Sekolah, BOS).

The literacy rate of a population (aged 10 and above) is generally a useful indicator to examine the quality of education, with a high literacy rate often indicating the success of an education program. Sex-disaggregated data on the literacy rate in Indonesia, obtained from national Welfare Statistics, highlights the different standard of education programs for male and female students, particularly as related to access to education providers.

The same pattern applies in provinces in DBE3 target areas, in both urban and rural settings. As shown in the accompanying table, North Sumatra had the smallest literacy rate gender gap, with only a 3.1 percent difference between males and females. Other provinces demonstrated a wider gender gap in literacy rates between males and females aged 10 and above, with the most distinct gender gap being in East Java. In a number of DBE3 target areas, literacy rates for characters other than Latin (most probably Arabic) was high (more than 1 percent): South Sulawesi 1.46 percent (males 1.20 percent, females 1.70 percent), East Java 1.42 percent (males 1.19 percent, females 1.65 percent), Banten 1.14 percent (males 0.86 percent, females 1.43 percent). In this case, the ability to read and write Arabic seemed to be more important for...
women than for men, as many women choose to work outside of Indonesia, particularly in Arab countries, as migrant workers.

To obtain a more accurate analysis of the literacy rate, DBE3 should obtain local specific data disaggregated by sex and age in each DBE3 target area for languages such as Arabic which don’t use the Roman alphabet. One possible data source for literacy in Arabic characters is from Islamic schools (both private and public). As a number of DBE3 target areas include districts that are major sources of (female) migrant workers, DBE3 can possibly address this issue through the program to improve the quality of basic education. Although more in-depth studies concerning (female) migrant workers need to be conducted, a number of qualitative studies have already been performed by NGOs (both local and international) in collaboration with international donor agencies, such as the World Bank, Asian Development Bank, and USAID. One significant issue revealed in many of these studies is that the low education level of female migrant workers impairs their access to information and bargaining power, such that they are easily subject to abuse and not fully aware of their rights.

Similar to statistical data on literacy rates, data on education levels of the general population aged 10 years and above reveals a gender gap. According to the National Socio-economic Survey (Susenas) for 2004, over 32 percent of the female population aged 10 years and above have either never attended school or never completed primary education, while that figure is only approximately 26% for males 10 years old and above. The data also shows that, with the exception of elementary school level (SD/MI), a greater percentage of the male population over the age of 10 has achieved attainment at all levels of education after elementary school up through university. While many efforts, such as the GOI nine year compulsory education program, have increased education attainment levels over recent years, this data looks at the entire population 10 years old and above, therefore capturing an historic dimension as well.

In the six provinces where DBE3 operates, East Java has the highest percentage of the population aged 10 and above who either have attended or are still attending school (84.07 percent); West Java and Central Java followed with 81.95 percent and 81.96 percent respectively. In contrast, North Sumatra, South Sulawesi and Banten had somewhat smaller percentages, with only 75.51 percent, 80.31 percent, and 78.48 percent of surveyed participants either having attended or are still attending school. There is no data disaggregated by sex and by province available to analyze the existence of a gender gap regarding the level of education of the general population aged 10 and above.

To obtain a more in-depth picture of participation rates and access to education, the specific data available at a national level should be examined in conjunction with data from the targeted DBE3 provinces.

B. Access to Formal Education

Since 1984, the GOI has implemented a six-year compulsory education program for primary-school-age children (aged 7 to 12 years), which has successfully increased school participation rates from 79.3 percent in 1983 to 92.2 percent in 1993 (Shatifan, 2001). With the aim of providing education for all children aged 7 to 15 years by 2003/2004, the GOI extended the program to nine years of compulsory education. In the six provinces where DBE3 operates, East Java has the highest percentage of the population aged 10 and above who either have attended or are still attending school (84.07 percent); West Java and Central Java followed with 81.95 percent and 81.96 percent respectively. In contrast, North Sumatra, South Sulawesi and Banten had somewhat smaller percentages, with only 75.51 percent, 80.31 percent, and 78.48 percent of surveyed participants either having attended or are still attending school. There is no data disaggregated by sex and by province available to analyze the existence of a gender gap regarding the level of education of the general population aged 10 and above.
education, commencing in 1994. The minimum education level in Indonesia therefore consists of six years of primary school (SD) plus another three years of junior secondary (SMP).

In general, school participation rates indicate the proportion of the population of a certain age group who attend school. At the national level, MONE uses this data to identify school participation rates at the commencement of the school year, but does not specifically break the data down to the level of education that children are enrolled. With the data available, this report will assess the extent to which the population has utilized school facilities, as well as measure the extent to which equal opportunities to access education are available to male and female students in a certain period within a region.

### School Participation Rate by Age Group, Sex and Urban-Rural Classification, 2004

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group (years)</th>
<th>Rural F</th>
<th>Rural M</th>
<th>Urban F</th>
<th>Urban M</th>
<th>Rural + Urban F</th>
<th>Rural + Urban M</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7 – 12</td>
<td>96.35</td>
<td>95.90</td>
<td>97.78</td>
<td>97.70</td>
<td>96.92</td>
<td>96.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 – 15</td>
<td>80.08</td>
<td>78.57</td>
<td>89.50</td>
<td>89.67</td>
<td>83.97</td>
<td>83.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 - 18</td>
<td>42.48</td>
<td>43.41</td>
<td>65.47</td>
<td>68.13</td>
<td>52.97</td>
<td>53.94</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Welfare Statistic, 2004

However, not all provinces provide disaggregated data by sex, which makes it difficult to identify whether a gender gap exists in accessing education. Data on school participation rates from 2004 (Welfare Statistics, 2004) reveal that an average of 96.88 percent of male and females aged 7 to 12 years were accommodated in schools.

School participation rates appear to decrease for older students: an average of 84.14 percent of male and female students aged 13 to 15 years attended schools, and only 54.4 percent of males and females aged 16 to 18 years attended school. The data also reveals that a higher number of females aged 7 to 12 years of age, as well as 13 to 15 years, attended school, when compared with males. However, for the 16 to 18 year age-group, more males than females attended schools. This suggests that the older the population, the lower the level of female participation in schools.

Participation of women in schooling seems to be closely related to community and/or family beliefs on the role of women in society. It is common that the community and family still regard women as simply ‘child bearers’ and ‘house keepers’. Thus, women are often considered only capable of taking care of household matters and not sufficiently responsible to handle matters “outside of the home. For such roles, tasks and limited responsibilities, women do not require a high level of thinking ability or complex skills which can be attained through schooling. As a consequence, women are not prioritized to participate in school programs. On the other hand, men are expected to be breadwinners for their family. And society at large assumes men will therefore need to have a higher education so that they will be more easily able to obtain suitable employment.

To obtain a clearer picture of the participation rates at different levels of education, we can examine the enrollment rates (gross enrollment rate = GER and net enrollment rate = NER). GER indicates the number of children, of any age, that are enrolled in a given education level, relative to the number of children of the appropriate age for that education level. The NER, on the other hand, indicates the proportion of children of a given age that are enrolled in the appropriate education level. To further clarify, if children are enrolled in school, but not the appropriate level given their age (e.g. entering school late or repeating years) the GER may exceed 100 percent. At the national level, the GER of primary school for 2003 for males was 106.04 percent, and for females was 105.59 percent. These figures indicate that for every 100 male students attending primary school, there were at least 6 boys and 6 girls aged below 7 years or above 12 years. The NER for 2003 was 92.49 percent for males, and 92.61 percent for females, indicating that for every 100 males aged 7 to 12 years, there were at least 7 boys and 7 girls who did not attend primary school.
The pattern of GER is similar to the school participation rate, i.e. the higher the level of education, the fewer students (male and female) in attendance. In the six provinces where DBE3 operates, the table above highlights that the GER for female students in primary school is lower than that of male students, except in South Sulawesi and NAD. The figures for South Sulawesi indicate that there were 3 females aged below 7 or above 12 years in every 100 female students attending primary school, compared with only 1 boy aged below 7 or above 12 years in every 100 male students attending primary school. The figures for NAD indicate that there were 8 females aged below 7 or above 12 years in every 100 female students attending primary school, compared with 7 males aged below 7 or above 12 years within every 100 male students.

For junior secondary education, the GER of female and male students were generally the same, except in East Java and South Sulawesi. In South Sulawesi, for every 100 females aged 13 to 15 years of age, there were 74 females enrolled in junior secondary school. Looking at the NER for the same year for that education level in South Sulawesi, we can see that for every 100 females aged 13 to 15, only 58 were enrolled in the appropriate education level, i.e. junior secondary school. Taken together, the GER and NER indicate that of the girls attending junior high in South Sulawesi in 2004/2005, many were not between the ages of 13 and 15, the appropriate age for junior secondary school.

For senior secondary education, depending on the province, the GER indicates either equal numbers of male and female participation rates, or a higher number of males attending school compared with females, with the exception of North Sumatra, where the GER for females was higher than for males. The same pattern applied for NER, as seen in the table below:

Overall, statistics indicate that the gender gap increases in accordance with education levels: the higher the education level, the greater the gender gap (fewer females accommodated in the higher level of education compared with males). This situation correlates with literacy rates as well as with the level of education attained. A number of studies have revealed that the traditional gender division of labor is still believed to be one of the underlying factors that prevent more females from participating in higher
education; and such concepts are deeply imbedded within families, the education environment, and the community at large. Data on the selection of study programs in senior secondary and vocational school clearly supports this argument (refer to section on Gender-related Issues in the Selection of Study Programs). The following section on gender-related issues in curriculum development and education process, explains the issue in more detail.

C. Dropout

Several other indicators such as the repetition rate, drop-out rate, completion rate, and continuation rate, are commonly used to further examine the effectiveness and efficiency of education. At the national level, the continuation rate for female students in all levels of education was higher than for males, with the exception of vocational schools. In the year 2001/02, the continuation rate for female students was over 90 percent for all education levels, except for primary education (84.50 percent). In general, the figures were higher than those of male students: primary school 84.50 percent (female) and 80.50 percent (male), junior secondary 93.75 percent (female) and 82.10 percent (male), senior secondary 94.15 percent (female) and 82.85 percent (male), vocational education 91.34 (female) and 92.05 percent (male). However, in 2002/03, the continuation rate for female students was lower than for males at senior secondary level, at both general and vocational schools.

The table below outlines the continuation rates in six provinces of DBE3 and at the national level in the year 2004/05. The pattern was the same as in 2001/02: at all levels of education, except in vocational school, female students tend to have a higher continuation rate. There is a relatively high level of discontinuation among girls at vocational school for the years 2002/03 and 2004/05. Further research needs to be conducted to examine more closely the reasons why more female students do not continue at this level of education.

Continuation Rates by Education Level, Sex, and Province, 2004/05

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROVINCES</th>
<th>SD + MI</th>
<th>SLTP + Mts</th>
<th>SM + MA</th>
<th>SMK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam (NAD)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Sumatra</td>
<td>91.27</td>
<td>90.37</td>
<td>97.92</td>
<td>92.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Java</td>
<td>96.42</td>
<td>96.33</td>
<td>94.44</td>
<td>94.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banten</td>
<td>93.59</td>
<td>95.26</td>
<td>97.12</td>
<td>99.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Java</td>
<td>98.23</td>
<td>98.34</td>
<td>99.15</td>
<td>97.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Java</td>
<td>96.19</td>
<td>96.16</td>
<td>98.17</td>
<td>99.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Sulawesi</td>
<td>83.48</td>
<td>82.54</td>
<td>97.55</td>
<td>98.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>91.39</td>
<td>91.31</td>
<td>96.86</td>
<td>96.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Education Statistics (SD, SMP, SMU, SMK, 2005); NAD data is not available

The drop-out rate provides information on the number of students who cannot continue their education at each particular level. The graph below shows that from 1999/00 to 2003/04, the highest dropout rate was in vocational education. The year 2003/04 showed the highest dropout rate (more than 5 percent) when compared with other years and other education levels.

Junior secondary school appears to be the second critical point, as there are consistently high drop-out rates at this level of schooling (over 3 percent), with the exception of the year 2002/03. The drop-out rate in junior secondary education was particularly high in 1999/00 (over 5 percent). Compared with senior secondary education, primary education has more consistent drop-out rates. Students who drop out of primary and junior secondary education...
potentially can not read or write and therefore contribut e to Indonesia's illiteracy rate. This is one of the main reasons behind the government's move to make these two education levels compulsory.

Susenas 1998 (Education core module) indicated that financial difficulty was the primary cause preventing both males and females from continuing their education. Other important gender-related issues include the fact that girls are often married off at an early age to ease the burden on the family, and the general belief that girls/women do not need to pursue higher education. Formal discussions held during a recent field visit with youths who have dropped out of schooling (male and female participants of one PKBM in Enrengkang District, South Sulawesi) revealed that acute illness may also prevent them from continuing their education.

There is a need for further in-depth studies to be carried out to determine the actual causes of children who drop out of formal education. Gender-related issues such as the different ‘value’ assigned to girls and boys within the family, the community perspective of the importance of education for children, and the division of labor between children (male and female) in the family and between children and parents, all deserve to be explored more deeply. These gender issues are culturally connected; thus, local specific traditions and culture should be kept in mind when undertaking such a study, as well as when engaging the local community in all education initiative programs.

Susenas 1998 also identified a number of reasons why both males and females do not continue their education. Reasons included: economic hardship (difficulties in paying school fees), early marriage, helping parents to take care of the family business, and long distances between homes and school. The accompanying table, Reasons of School Dropout of Population aged 5 to 39 years, 1998, breaks down the responses by gender and reason.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REASONS</th>
<th>GIRLS</th>
<th>BOYS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>SMP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic (difficulties in paying school fees)</td>
<td>45.97</td>
<td>48.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Early marriage</td>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>16.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Help parents to take care of family business</td>
<td>17.04</td>
<td>9.67</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Education Statistic (SD, SMP, SMU, SMK, 2005)

Economic factors are clearly the primary cause of school drop-out rates at all levels of education and for both males and females. More than half the males surveyed stated that their reason for dropping out in SMP was financially motivated, and more than 48 percent of females cited the same reason. By the time they reach SMP, males are potentially old enough to obtain employment outside of the family home. In contrast, responding to the traditional concept of gender division, females are more likely to drop out of school around this time to assist their parents with domestic duties.

The Indonesia Young Adult Reproductive Health Survey (IYARHS) 2002-2003 identified similar reasons for unmarried men and women aged 15 to 24 years not continuing their education. Of the 8,633 households sampled, more than 50 percent of male and female respondents stated that they could not afford to pay the school fees. A further 24.2 percent of females and 19.2 percent of males indicated they felt they had sufficient education and did not feel it necessary to continue to higher education. Only 2 percent of females and 5.1 percent of males stated that helping their parents to take care of the family business was the primary reason.

Suryadi (1999) outlined 12 aspects of education that are a financial burden to parents: 1) the entrance fee; 2) monthly school and other extra fees; 3) parental subsidies for school rehabilitation (SPP); 4) annual examination fees; 5) school uniforms; 6) sport (olah raga) uniforms; 7) books and stationary; 8) other necessities (e.g. school bags, shoes, etc.); 9) transportation costs; 10) uang saku (fee for refreshments); 11) extracurricular fees; 12) other costs (contingencies for education purposes). Of these
12 components, the entrance fees (24.77%), uang saku (24.49%) and monthly school fees (18.98%) took up more than 50 percent of the total education costs which must be borne by parents. It should be noted that since the economic crisis in 1998, the GOI has developed assistance schemes to address the financial burden of families with school-age children, but support is still a long way from sufficient.

_BOS (Bantuan Operasional Sekolah)_ is one financial assistance scheme currently designed to help schools in reducing the burden on families struggling with basic education costs. However, the BOS scheme does not cover many of the components of school and extracurricular fees borne by families, as outlined above. As a consequence, disadvantaged families are likely to continue to give preference to their sons when considering the continuation of basic education. In some regions, as ILO studies indicate, boys are likely to leave education at an earlier age to help the family earn a living, while girls will be asked to help with household chores.

Discussions with parents in Karawang, through a UNESCO study (Science and Technology Vocational Education for Girls - STVE, 2002), revealed that parents generally choose their sons to continue on to higher education when limited funds are available, since girls will later be married and are therefore of more use in the home. The majority of parents as well as children (male and female) who participated in the discussion indicated that the main factor preventing them from attending, or sending their children to school was lack of financial resources. Children also often refused to continue with their education if the location of the school was far away, as extra costs would be incurred for transportation. Moreover, parents would not permit their daughters to stay at dormitories or boarding schools because they required help with household chores at home.

Discussions with both male and females who had dropped out of school and interviews with teachers and tutors during field visits to North Sumatra, South Sulawesi, and Karawang identified similar reasons. Both teachers and former students emphasized financial difficulties were behind their decision - some needed to provide opportunities for their siblings to continue education, others felt an obligation to help their parents by working in paddy fields (males) or domestic duties (females). Some females from poorer families stated that they left school to obtain employment as salespersons in small local stores, or as helpers (servants) in houses of wealthier families. Sexual harassment at school and a dislike of punishments issued by teachers were also cited as factors which prevented some females from continuing education. Acute illness, such as a tumor, was the primary reason a few of the children dropped out of school.

In contrast, children from urban areas (in Karawang, West Java) tended to indicate that early marriage and unwanted pregnancy could prevent girls from continuing their education. The long distances between home and school, was cited by teachers and tutors as a primary factor for parents who prevented female children from continuing their education. The need to travel long distances is an issue which has been repeatedly identified as a significant reason for girls to not continue with higher education, particularly in the transition from SMP to SMA, which are usually located in district areas. Both male and female students in the discussion groups clearly stated that girls are not as physically strong as boys, who can walk or ride bicycles long distances to school.

### D. Access to Nonformal Education

Government policy to implement out-of-school (nonformal) educational programs includes the following:

1. Education for young children (male and female) to lay the foundation for a child’s optimum growth and development of their mind and physical skills is provided through playgroups and child care centers at the District/City level;

2. A certification program is provided through Packet A equivalent to SD/MI, Packet B equivalent to SMP/MTs, and Packet C equivalent to SMA/MA;

3. A (functional) literacy program is specifically provided to reduce the illiteracy rate;
4. Education for women’s empowerment;
5. Skills development programs are provided through small business activity (*kegiatan bina usaha*) and apprenticeship programs, as well as increasing PKBM capabilities to provide skills training services for the community;
6. Life skills education programs for marginalized members of the community are provided through training courses, integrated societal development institutions (*lembaga pengembangan masyarakat terpadu*), learning activities workshops (*Sanggar Kegiatan Belajar*), learning activities development bodies (*balai pengembangan kegiatan belajar*), women’s organizations, training education institutions, polytechnics of higher education, graduates as motivators of rural development (*sarjana penggerak pembangunan pedesaan*), and PKBM.

Certification Education is included as one type of nonformal Education in Law No. 20 of 2003 (on the Education System), article 26 (3) which states that certification education is a nonformal education program providing public education equivalent to SD/MI, SMP/MTs, and SMA/MA, consisting of Packet A, Packet B, and Packet C.

Based on BPS (Badan Pusat Statistik) drop-out data for 2004, the Directorate of Certification (Directorate General of Nonformal Education, MONE) estimated the priority targets for certification education of Packet A, Packet B, and Packet C as shown in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program</th>
<th>Target Group</th>
<th>Priority 1</th>
<th>Priority 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Packet A</td>
<td>DO SD/MI</td>
<td>198,244 (7 – 12 years)</td>
<td>583,487 (13 – 15 years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DO (not finished) SMP/MTs</td>
<td>30,000 (20% of 13 – 15 years)*</td>
<td>2,400,205 (19 – 22 years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>871,875 (16 – 18 years)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DO (finished) SMP/MTs</td>
<td>63,280 (20% of 13 – 15 years)</td>
<td>5,703,202 (19 – 22 years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2,320 (16 – 18 years)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Packet B</td>
<td>DO (not finished) SMP/MTs</td>
<td>106,140 (30% of 16 – 18 years)</td>
<td>138,735 (3% of 19 – 22 years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DO (finished) SMA/MA</td>
<td>181,772 (30% of 16 – 18 years)</td>
<td>216,619 (3% of 19 – 22 years)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Directorate of Certification, 2006. * specific service program where access is needed and not overlapping with Open Secondary School Program.

The Directorate of Certification Education determines the figures for the Packet A, Packet B, and Packet C programs respectively based on the magnitude, geographical spread (across Indonesia) and characteristics of dropout students from SD/MI and from SMP/MTs. The main priority of Packet A is those who dropped out (finished and unfinished) of SD/MI within the age group of 7 to 12 years, i.e. 198,244 children across Indonesia. Packet B is prioritized for the 20 percent of the total number of those who dropped out (finished and unfinished) from SMP/MTs within the age group of 13 to 15 years. This program is specifically only opened on an as needs basis, to avoid overlapping with Open SMP. Finally, Packet C is provided for the 30 percent of those who dropped out (finished and unfinished) from SMA/MA within the age group of 16 to 18 years.

Disaggregated data on the priority targets are not available. However, interviews with PKBM (Packet B provider) during field visits to DBE3 project sites (in South Sulawesi and North Sumatra) reveals there are more female participants in nonformal education than males.

The Community-based Learning Center (PKBM) program was established in 1998 to address the needs and to manage resources in the community. Since its inception, PKBM has increased in number and improved in quality.
PKBM in DBE3 Provinces, 2000

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROVINCES</th>
<th>No. of PKBM</th>
<th>Program Provided</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam (NAD)</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Packet A, Packet B (sewing, embroidery, handcrafting, cooking, small business)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Sumatra</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>Early-age education, scholarships, Packet A, Packet B (handcrafting, small business group)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Java</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>Packet A, Packet B, Community Library, -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banten</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Java</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>Early-age education, Packet A functional, Packet B, Qur’an reading, Functional Literacy, small business group,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Java</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>Early-age education, Packet B, Scouting, Community Library, Functional Literacy, sewing, small business group,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Sulawesi</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>Packet A, Packet B, Functional Literacy, small business group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>1,643</td>
<td>(various programs)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The monitoring reports of the Directorate General of nonformal education, indicates a twofold increase in participation rates in just one year, from 815 PKBMs in early 1999 to 1,643 PKBMs in March 2000. The established PKBMs provide a variety of programs to address local community needs. The table on the left indicates the number of PKBM and programs provided in DBE3 provinces.

There is no disaggregated data available to analyze gender related issues at the national level. However, during field visits in South Sulawesi and North Sumatra it was evident that all of the Directors of PKBM were men.

Source: Potret PKBM di Indonesia pada Tahap Perkembangan (Tahun. 2000) (Overview of PKBM in Indonesia in the Growth Years (2000))
GENDER-RELATED ISSUES IN CURRICULUM AND THE EDUCATION PROCESS

MONÉ’s Research and Development Agency (Balitbang Diknas) has made efforts to update and develop disaggregated data to try and identify gender-related issues within the education process and in the process of curriculum development. However, more in-depth (qualitative) information should be obtained from the various partners and/or stakeholders involved. In general, from the available data and information obtained from a variety of sources, it is evident there are gender biases and potential gender-related issues that prevent students from continuing their education, in both formal and nonformal settings.

A. Gender-related issues in education management

The process of education management includes utilizing human resources involved in the decision-making process in planning, developing, and implementing education programs, from the central to the operational level. Male and female participation rates in the decision-making process is one indicator to identify the existence of a gender gap in the management process, from the top strategic position at the central government level, to the lowest operational position in the school setting level (both formal and nonformal education providers in subdistricts). Traditional gender roles have placed women in reproductive roles, while traditionally men have been burdened with productive roles. Within this concept, women typically have a lower status than men and often have limited access to the decision-making process. Thus, gender bias has often colored decisions made. As an example, it is common to see female teachers teach students in lower grades in primary schools, because female teachers are perceived to be more patient than males and as more able to take better care of the students.

Composition of Civil Servants by Sex and Structural Position, 2003

The graph on the left indicates that females are rarely found in almost any structural (decision-making) position within the Indonesian civil service, except in specific functional (executive or field worker) positions. Only 8.5 percent and 6.8 percent of top positions (in echelon 1 and 2, respectively) are held by females. From the graph we also learn that the lower the position, the higher the proportion of females: 13.2 percent in echelon 3, 21.8 percent in echelon 4, and 21.5 percent in echelon 5. In contrast, males are dominant in every position, except in the specific functional positions, in which females are 51 percent compared to 48 percent male.

Percentage of Headmasters by Sex and Level of Education, 2004/05

Education Statistics for 2005 confirm that fewer women participate in the management process as headmasters than men, in both public and private schools and at all education levels. In primary education, the number of male headmasters was more than double that of females. In junior secondary, senior secondary and vocational schools, the percentages of female headmasters were 13.97 percent, 10.94 percent, and 11.35 percent respectively. The higher the education level, the less likelihood the position of headmaster will be held by a woman.
The same pattern applies to provinces where DBE3 operates in West Java, Banten, Central Java, East Java, North Sumatra, and South Sulawesi. At all levels of education and in all DBE3 target provinces, the percentage of male headmasters was more than double that of females, except in primary education in North Sumatra, where there was an almost equal male/female division, with men comprising 52.20 percent and women 47.80 percent.

From the Education Statistics for 2005 it is also evident that a similar pattern applies for teachers, except in primary education. The table below shows that nationwide, the percentage of male teachers at all levels of education was higher compared to females, except in primary education, where we find more female teachers than males.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROVINCES</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>SMP</th>
<th>SMA</th>
<th>SMK</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam (NAD)</td>
<td>72.44</td>
<td>27.56</td>
<td>61.05</td>
<td>38.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Sumatra</td>
<td>75.25</td>
<td>24.75</td>
<td>55.81</td>
<td>44.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>West Java</td>
<td>60.07</td>
<td>39.92</td>
<td>46.14</td>
<td>53.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banten</td>
<td>58.17</td>
<td>41.83</td>
<td>38.44</td>
<td>61.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Java</td>
<td>55.74</td>
<td>44.26</td>
<td>46.17</td>
<td>53.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Java</td>
<td>57.67</td>
<td>42.33</td>
<td>46.93</td>
<td>53.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Sulawesi</td>
<td>66.55</td>
<td>33.45</td>
<td>52.34</td>
<td>47.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>National</strong></td>
<td><strong>61.02</strong></td>
<td><strong>38.98</strong></td>
<td><strong>48.77</strong></td>
<td><strong>51.23</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>F</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>M</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td><strong>54.24</strong></td>
<td><strong>39.16</strong></td>
<td><strong>62.72</strong></td>
<td><strong>60.84</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Statistics of Education, 2004/05

Headmasters hold the most strategic position in decision-making and school management, while teachers are mostly engaged in the actual teaching-learning process in the classroom. Although an increase in the number of female headmasters and teachers would not automatically eliminate gender bias in decision-making or in the teaching-learning process, greater numbers of female headmasters and teachers would be able to educate students based on their own personal gender experiences. Reducing gender bias in the teaching-learning process can also be achieved by raising awareness about gender-related issues in education and on gender sensitivity training for teachers and tutors/facilitators. This type of awareness raising is currently being undertaken by MOWE through the Gender Working Group.

Through such processes, it is hoped that teachers and tutors will be able to appropriately address gender-related issues in the teaching-learning process. As an example, teachers (female and/or male) are encouraged to give the same attention and opportunities to both male and female students, particularly in responding to their questions and in providing extra assistance outside formal lessons as required. Teachers are also encouraged to give more rewards (as opposed to punishments) to both male and female students in an attempt to reduce the school dropout rate.

**B. Gender bias in curriculum development and textbooks**

One of the concerns emphasized in the Beijing Platform of Action was female participation rates, as participation of females in education systems worldwide did not increase significantly after the Jomtien Declaration, and the goal to achieve education for all in the year 2005 was not reached. The Beijing Conference identified that one of the likeliest factors to prevent females from participating in education was curricula and textbooks that contain gender bias and stereotyping. Thus, unless curricula and textbooks treat gender issues sensitively, traditional concepts relating to the gender division of labor may restrict female students from continuing their education. As previously mentioned, increasing the number of women engaged in education development and management does not automatically increase gender awareness. However, recruiting more women and encouraging them to participate in curriculum and
textbook development will, to some extent, introduce a gender perspective into the teaching-learning environment.

Statistics released by BKN (Badan Kepegawaian Nasional, National Civil Service Personnel Agency) in 2003 outlines data on the composition of those who are involved in curriculum development, disaggregated by sex and by field of study. The data indicates that in all fields of study, males dominate the process of curriculum development. The most male-dominated field of study is religion, where 80 percent of those engaged in developing the religion curriculum are men. Surprisingly, although there is still a strong belief in the traditional concepts of the gender division of labor, about 40 percent of those involved in developing technical science curricula are women. Women comprised 37.21 percent of those involved in developing curricula for language study.

Another form of data used by the Ministry of Education to indicate gender bias in the process of curriculum development is the number of male and female researchers who are involved in developing and revising the curriculum, particularly in formal schools, and in seeking innovations of media and new approaches for the teaching-learning process. The data for 2000 indicated that more males than females held these research positions, and consequently has most likely contributed to further gender bias in curriculum development.

Since 1985, a number of textbook analyses have been conducted, and the results clearly indicate that gender bias exists in textbooks used in primary, junior secondary, and senior secondary education. The analysis first considered the composition of male and female writers and illustrators to indicate whether gender bias possibly existed in the process of developing the materials. The results, from 1985 (Logsdon and Myra Diarsi), 1997/98 (Yustina Rostiawati), and 2000 and 2003 (the Ministry of Education), show that male writers and illustrators dominate nearly all textbooks for primary, junior secondary, and senior secondary education. Further analysis indicated that more male characters are found in a number of textbooks selected as samples, i.e. Civic Education and Bahasa Indonesia for primary education, grade 1 and 4 (Yustina Rostiawati, 1997/98, unpublished). The study also revealed that fewer female names were mentioned compared with males, and enforced stereotypes of male and female characters and images existed, particularly in regard to the traditional division of labor for men and women. In 2000, the Gender Working Group of MOWE identified gender bias in other subjects as well, i.e. Natural Sciences and Social Sciences.

Textbook analysis has also indicated strong gender bias, in that the traditional gender division of labor colors nearly all textbooks used in primary, junior secondary, and senior secondary education (1985, Logsdon; 1997/98, Yustina Rostiawati, Mary Astuti; 1999, Muthali’in; 2001, Ismi; 2002 and 2005, Indri). Given this situation, male and female students in primary school are likely to begin to absorb and develop the understanding that girls need to develop nurturing/motherly skills, and boys should develop the skills required of future breadwinners. This kind of traditional gender division-of-labor concept may also encourage parents to terminate the education of their female children, as parents often believe that females have less need for higher education compared with males. Furthermore, these concepts potentially deter both male and female students themselves from having the motivation to continue their education.
GENDER ISSUES IN THE SELECTION OF STUDY PROGRAMS

While DBE3 does not include senior secondary and vocational education, it is important to understand gender issues at this level since the selection of study programs reflects gender biases at the lower levels of education. For DBE3, information concerning gender issues in the selection of study programs will provide more input for the development of life-skills modules and/or programs.

The Law No 2/1989 on the National Education System stipulates that selection of study programs begins in SMA and SMK (vocational education). In SMA, the selection starts in year two with three study programs: language and art, social sciences, and natural sciences. As SMA is a transition phase to higher education, the programs selected at this education level will determine the study programs undertaken at the university/diploma level. In contrast, SMK (vocational school) has seven main vocational study programs, i.e. agriculture and forestry, technology and industry, business and management, community welfare, tourism, art and handicraft. SMK is a transition to prepare students who will enter the workforce or start their own business. Programs are therefore usually provided in line with local (provincial) development.

According to Education Statistics 2005, more than 50 percent of the total applicants to senior secondary school in 2004/05 were female (52.15 percent). The same pattern applied to DBE3 provinces, with the exception of Banten in which there were more male applicants (52.75 percent male, 47.25 percent female) – although the data does not provide detail on the different subject selection of females compared with males. Gender Profile in Education 2004 (MOWE, 2004), however, claims there is no significant difference in choice of study programs between male and female students in the final year of SMA. If this information is accurate, it is possible that students (male and female) are directed by their teachers as to which subjects to select and the students themselves do not have sufficient autonomy to make individual choices of the program they would like to study.

The situation is different for those who decide to continue their education at a vocational school. From the first year of entry, students at vocational schools select their own program of study. There are six study programs provided under the auspices of Directorate General of Nonformal Education, Ministry of Education, i.e. agriculture and forestry, technology & industry, business and management, community welfare, tourism and art and handicraft. Vocational secondary schools in a region (province) have the opportunity to choose the most suitable study program based on the region’s situation and standard of development.

At the national level, business and management, technology and industry, as well as tourism are the three preferred study programs provided by all provinces in Indonesia. The data of vocational education in the year 2005 shows the number of schools in Indonesia that offered these study programs: 2,132 schools had facilities to teach business and management, 2,888 schools offered courses in technology and industry, and 313 schools had programs for tourism studies. While agriculture and forestry, community welfare, and art and handicraft study programs were available in most of the provinces, as previously stated, the choice to develop study programs for vocational secondary education is usually in line with local development in the region. The provinces of DBE3 target areas provide all of the listed study programs, with the exception of Banten which does not have a community welfare study program.
Vocational schools accommodate 2,164,068 students nationwide, whereas vocational schools in the six provinces accommodate 1,381,040 students (63.82 percent of the national total number).

Overall, female students constitute 42.41 percent of the total number of students at the national level, and the percentage of female students in the six provinces also comprises less than half compared with male students (36 to 44 percent). Data collected by Balitbang Diknas (2004) indicates that gender disparity colors the selection of a study program. For example, agriculture and forestry, technology and industry, and community welfare are fields of study predominately dominated by male students. On the other hand, higher numbers of female students can generally be found in business and management, tourism, and art and handicraft. This divide remained constant through the years 2000-2003, and previous studies suggest that the broader community still maintain the traditional gender division of labor, as well as gender stereotyping whereby female children are prepared for their role as mothers, whereas boys tend to be trained to undertake paid work. Through gender stereotyping, girls are required to develop feminine characteristics such as ‘polite manners’, and boys are expected to possess typically masculine characteristics which are usually defined as being ‘tough’ and ‘strong’. Thus, agriculture and forestry as well as technology and industry are considered to be the domain of males rather than females. Whereas business and management, as well as tourism are female-dominated programs.

Eight Main Study Programs of Vocational School in DBE3 Target Provinces

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROVINCES</th>
<th>AGRICLTR&amp; FORESTRY</th>
<th>TECH&amp; INDUST</th>
<th>BUSINESS&amp; MANAGEMENT</th>
<th>COMMUNITY WELFARE</th>
<th>TOURISM</th>
<th>ART&amp; HANDICRAFT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sch</td>
<td>stu</td>
<td>sch</td>
<td>stu</td>
<td>sch</td>
<td>stu</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nanggroe Aceh Darussalam (NAD)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1,214</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8,785</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>10,202</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sumatera Utara</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4,744</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>73,651</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>97,354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jawa barat</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>4,892</td>
<td>319</td>
<td>150,010</td>
<td>367</td>
<td>119,209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Banten</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>35,267</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>43,136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jawa Tengah</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>10,179</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>189,380</td>
<td>364</td>
<td>154,282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jawa Timur</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3,593</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>206,968</td>
<td>400</td>
<td>154,233</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sulawesi Selatan</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1,553</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>30,053</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>21,148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>52,826</td>
<td>2,132</td>
<td>959,738</td>
<td>2,888</td>
<td>986,920</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Education Statistics, Vocational Education, 2005; sch = number of schools, stu = number of students

Discussions with both current and former students at junior secondary school, and teachers and tutors of PKBM, in South Sulawesi revealed that in rural areas (villages), parents expect their sons to assist them by working in the paddy fields or helping to look after livestock, both after school and in the morning before school. In contrast, girls are typically expected to assist their parents with domestic duties and the care of younger siblings. The students also provided different responses when asked about the type of work they wanted to do to assist their parents after finishing their education. Males mentioned a range of jobs such as tukang ojek (motorcycle taxi driver), shoe polisher, or sailor, while females mentioned selling vegetables at the market, working as cashier in a store, or working as a beautician/ opening a beauty salon.
In the process of designing the English for Employment non-curricular toolkit, now called English for Life, Learning, and Work, the DBE3 consultant conducted a series of discussions with students and teachers in a number of DBE3 project sites. It is interesting to note the gender issues that emerged during a discussion group in East Java. Female and male students in an Islamic boarding school in this region identified different areas of employment they aspired to. In this instance, despite the methodology and type of questions put forward, it was evident that male students considered they have a wider variety of potential areas of employment than females. And although ‘modern’ fields of work were mentioned by females, it appears that female students are often still bound to traditional jobs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Areas of Employment, by sex</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>FEMALE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islamic teacher, entrepreneur/trader, civil servant, steward, doctor, presenter, teacher, singer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>MALE</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Migrant worker, sailor in foreign shipping, fisherman, hotel, Islamic teacher, musician, pilot, teacher, journalist, architect, trader</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Quoted from Ridhi’s FGD report in East Java
CONCLUSIONS

A. Gaps in Data Collection and Qualitative Research

Lack of reliable data on the education sector in Indonesia at both the national and the provincial/district level, limits our ability to accurately monitor education accessibility. This dilemma is compounded by different and conflicting data provided by different sources. One common problem seems to relate to the categorization of population by age: national statistical data categorizes age differently from the population groupings used in the education sector (which are based on education level). In addition to conflicting numbers, sex-disaggregated data is not systematically collected and analyzed which creates even more difficulties for research in this area. A further challenge relates to the delay in publication of data, which usually reaches policy makers or other users at a very late stage. As a consequence, situation analysis or needs assessment studies and other initiatives related to program development tend to use out-of-date data.

B. Decentralization and Gender Mainstreaming Policy

In the past, education policy development depended greatly on the central government and was strictly based on the Five-Year Development Plan (Repelita) or National Development Program (Propenas). Specifically, there was coordination in delivery of basic education among the Ministry of National Education, Ministry of Interior, and Ministry of Religion Affairs at the central level and the local governments in the provinces. This collaboration allocated responsibilities amongst the ministries, e.g., for curriculum, material, monitoring/evaluation, and appraisal. Provision of financial support and human resources were in the hands of the central government, while local (provincial) governments held responsibility for implementing the policies defined by central government.

Since the implementation of the Regional Autonomy regulations (Law 22/1999 and PP 25/2000), this division of responsibilities between the central and local governments no longer exists, as more responsibility for managing the education system has been devolved to local governments. This transformation of responsibilities has challenged local governments to restructure their infrastructure and apparatus to take on new responsibilities in planning, coordinating, collecting and managing human resources to improve the quality of education, as well as in raising community participation to manage education in local areas. However, changes continue to occur in nearly all structures and policies of the education sector. To address gender issues in education, the Directorate General of Nonformal Education under the Ministry of National Education has established a gender mainstreaming working group whose primary task is to coordinate with the relevant units in MONE to carry out gender mainstreaming initiatives in the Education sector. The working group should engage in networking with various stakeholders at the central and local levels, specifically to build capacity in gender mainstreaming and to improve the quality of education by ensuring the teaching-learning process is more gender sensitive.

C. Improving Education Quality, Making Education Gender Sensitive: Education Management, Curriculum, and the Teaching Process

The improvement of education quality corresponds to several important factors: education management, curriculum, and the teaching process. Management of education includes teachers, infrastructure and facilities, financial support, and supporting administrative staff. Among all these important aspects, teachers play a critical role in delivering the teaching-learning process in the classroom. In general, GOI has successfully reduced the gender gaps in school participation at the primary and junior secondary education levels. However, the gender gap persists and is even increasing in higher levels of education, in all provinces in Indonesia. Therefore, it is wise to consider the student-teacher ratio in classrooms, the geographical distribution of teachers, and the teaching capabilities of teachers, particularly in regard to the new concept of competence-based learning.
The data reveals that school accessibility is not the only indicator for gender equality in education. The main gender inequalities in education include unsafe school environments and facilities, gender-biased behavior of teachers, teaching-learning process in favor of one sex, and gender-biased curricula and teaching materials. Although there is little data concerning the provision of nonformal education, the same situation appears to also apply to this sector, as the majority of the directors of PKBM are males, and the materials delivered are adopted from the formal school setting.

D. Gender-related issues in the selection of study programs

Two conclusions can be reached in regard to gender-related issues in the selection of study programs: 1) Gender bias still colors the selection of study programs, although in formal settings the results of the national examinations show little difference between males and females in all subjects; 2) Children are rarely engaged in decision-making processes, even in matters relating to their future such as the selection of study programs. Although there have been some changes in recent years, i.e. an increased number of boys are beginning to select study programs traditionally considered more appropriate for females such as community welfare and arts and handicrafts, a distinct gender gap remains in a number of subjects such as technology and industry, and tourism. This situation indicates that parents and the community at large remain comfortable with the traditional concepts of the gender division of labor and undervalue education for females.

Achieving gender equity in DBE3 target areas will require the transformation of very deep-seated relations between females and males, many of which are based on culture and religion (and are therefore, different in different provinces). This will take time and a multi sectoral approach. The processes, products and outcomes of DBE3 interventions will be much more successful if DBE3 adopts a “local fit and supported by local values” approach, which will ensure that activities are relevant to local conditions and are congruent with local value systems since it is the local context which creates opportunities and sets limits regarding what can be done, how it can be done and who can do it.
RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of this situation analysis highlight the fact that boys and girls face specific and different challenges in terms of participation in formal and nonformal education, continuation of schooling and choice of educational programs, among others. At the same time, boys and girls also face many of the same challenges, particularly in access to education and drop-out among lower socio-economic groups. Ensuring educational equity between boys and girls and addressing gender imbalances inherent within the education system thus requires a program approach which recognizes these similarities and differences and takes specific steps to address them. In order to achieve this, in addition to the strategies for gender equity which DBE3 already has in place, it is recommended that DBE3 conduct the following:

1. **Apply a policy of affirmative action for all program activities.**

   This situation analysis identified significant gender imbalances in teacher numbers, with male teachers outnumbering female teachers in both junior and senior secondary school, and a larger number of males responsible for curriculum development and revision. In order to address this, it is recommended that DBE3 apply a policy of ensuring at least 30 percent participation by women in the development of all training modules and other materials, as core and district trainers, and as district facilitators. This policy should also be applied in the selection of teachers and tutors taking part in training workshops and in the hiring of program staff for provincial offices. In order to achieve this, DBE3 should adopt practices that ensure women are not just present but are actively involved. For example, recognizing that in Indonesia women are largely responsible for the care of young children, DBE3 should facilitate women who need to bring their children to training workshops.

   This recommendation is not only concerned with increasing the number of female participants in program activities, but with improving the quality of women’s participation. To this end, core and district trainers and facilitators should ensure that female participants are given equal opportunity to contribute during materials development and training workshops and in other program activities.

2. **Train junior secondary school teachers and nonformal education tutors to evaluate their own gendered teaching practices and adopt alternative practices which promote gender equity in a classroom environment.**

   All individuals have socially- and culturally- determined expectations and assumptions about the nature, attitudes, and roles of boys and girls, and teachers are no exception. In a classroom environment, these expectations and assumptions are both implicitly and explicitly conveyed to students through teachers’ attitudes and teaching practices.

   However, by adopting gender-sensitive teaching practices in the classroom, teachers and tutors can challenge ideas about how girls and boys should behave and what they should do, thereby raising the gender awareness of their students. DBE3 should focus on making teachers and tutors more gender aware and on mainstreaming gender awareness into their daily teaching practice. Teachers and tutors should be encouraged to reflect on and evaluate their own gender expectations and assumptions and the implications of these on their teaching practices and behavior in the classroom. Teachers should also be encouraged to evaluate existing teaching and learning materials as well as the materials they develop for classroom use, thereby ensuring that gender inequalities are not reinforced in the classroom. DBE3 should incorporate gender equity training into the national (core-trainer) and provincial-level (district trainer) training workshops. Such training should incorporate existing materials that promote gender awareness and work with trainers with expertise in gender issues to design and facilitate the training.
3. Ensure that youth consultations on dropout and nonformal education provide DBE3 with data that is relevant to the needs of boys and girls and inform DBE3’s dropout strategy to address specific reasons for dropout among boys and girls.

Low motivation to continue schooling is the second most common reason for dropout from junior secondary school among boys and the third most common reason among girls. This low motivation may in part be due to a perception that junior secondary schooling is not relevant to the knowledge and skills that young people need. This finding underlines the importance of DBE3’s aim of providing youth with an education that is oriented to the acquisition of the life skills that youth themselves feel they need. For this reason, regular consultation with both boys and girls should be conducted to ensure that DBE3 program interventions in the area of nonformal education address these needs.

The findings of the youth consultations should also be used to ensure that DBE3’s dropout strategy addresses the specific and different reasons for dropout among boys and girls. Gender specific reasons for dropout may include early marriage, employment to supplement family income, distance to school, among others. DBE3’s dropout strategy should prioritize interventions that address these gender-specific reasons and provide boys and girls with equal opportunity to access junior secondary education.

4. Promote equal access to NFE and non-curricular programs for boys and girls.

Most subjects at junior secondary school are compulsory and therefore equally accessible to male and female students. There are, however, a number of optional subjects. Visits to DBE3 target schools suggest that there are gender divisions related to subject choice, with girls dominating the subjects seen as traditionally female (e.g. sewing and cooking). This pattern is mirrored in the choices girls make in the senior secondary and tertiary levels, with males dominating the more physically demanding and technological subjects. Although it is often the young person making the choice, they are influenced (consciously or not) by their teachers, caregivers, the role models they see in society, and traditional values and culture. DBE3 should ensure that all programs it is supporting, irrespective of content, are equally accessible to both males and females and that males and females have equal opportunities to participate.

When promoting gender awareness among teachers and tutors (see Recommendation 2 above), the issue of subject choice and accessibility should be addressed, so that they know how and why to encourage boys and girls to take part in any program that they are interested in and not only those traditionally considered appropriate for their gender.

In addition to addressing this issue with teachers and tutors, DBE3 should ensure that both boys and girls also understand that they have equal access to education and all programs within education. The Student Governance toolkit includes activities on the Rights of the Child which cover such issues as equal access to education and equal opportunities. DBE3 should also endeavor to provide youth in target schools with the skills to make informed choices for themselves and to resist any ‘encouragement or pressure’ to opt for particular subjects as a result of their gender. Specifically, DBE3 should include activities on building self esteem and assertiveness.

5. DBE3 Provincial Coordinators play a gender advocacy role to offset gender imbalances in education management at the district government and school/nonformal education provider level.

Women are underrepresented in decision-making positions at all levels of education and education management. At the school and nonformal education level, male principals and managers outnumber females and in government departments women hold far fewer key decision-making roles in the upper management levels than men. In order to counter these gender imbalances, Provincial Coordinators
and District Officers should play an advocacy role in their interactions with district education officials, school principals and managers of nonformal education providers, ensuring that these groups are informed of the gender-related issues that DBE3 is seeking to address through its interventions in this area and engaging their support.

As part of their overall responsibility for engaging district education officials, Provincial Coordinators should take a lead role in socializing DBE3’s gender affirmative action policy and advocating for increased and improved involvement of women in decision-making at all levels of education and education management.

6. **Conduct a briefing seminar for DBE3 Provincial Coordinators and District Officers on the findings of the situation analysis and DBE3’s strategies for addressing these issues through provincial-level programming.**

Recommendations 1 and 6 require active roles on the part of Provincial Coordinators in implementing DBE3’s affirmative action policy and playing a gender advocacy role. Given their important role in implementing these points, it is recommended that Provincial Coordinators and, if possible, District Officers, attend a briefing on the findings of the situation analysis and DBE3’s strategies for addressing these issues through provincial-level programming.
REFERENCES

Shatifan, Nina (2001). Equity in Basic Education in Indonesia: Challenges and Opportunities: A Discussion paper. UNESCO.


LIST OF CONSULTATIONS, FOCUSED GROUP DISCUSSIONS (FGD), AND INTERVIEWS

Consultation Meetings with Gender Working Group:
- Ace Suryadi, Ph.D. (Director General of Nonformal Education, MONE/ Head of Gender Working Group)
- Dra. Nina Sardjunani, MA (HRD expert of the Ministry of BAPPENAS/ Deputy of Gender Working Group)
- Dr. Yulfita Rahardjo (Senior Researcher LIPI/ Expert Team member of Gender Working Group)
- Prof. Dr. Mary Astuti (Faculty member of Gadjah Mada University/ Expert Team member of Gender Working Group)
- Dr. Sudjarwo, M.Sc., (Director of Community Education, Directorate General of Nonformal Education, MONE/ Head of Secretariat Team of Gender Working Group)
- Drs. Yusuf Supiandi (Deputy of Women’s Life Quality Division, MOWE/ Expert Team member)
- Dra. R.B Sinaga, M.Pd. (Head of Sub-directorate of Women’s Education, Directorate of Community Education, MONE/ Secretariat Team member of Gender Working Group)
- Staff/Team Dinas Pendidikan Nasional (local office of MONE) Enrengkang, South Sulawesi

Interviews with:
1. Bapak Muchtar Basir (Head of Local Education Office, Palopo, South Sulawesi)
2. Bapak Rasyid Galung (Head of Local Education Office, Enrengkang, South Sulawesi)
3. Ibu Fitri (Head of Secondary and Vocational Education Division, Local Education Office, Enrengkang, South Sulawesi)
4. Bapak Lukman (Coordinator of MGMP – English Teachers, Palopo, South Sulawesi)
5. Drs. Rasman, M.Si (SMPN 3, Wara Subdistrict, Palopo, South Sulawesi)
6. Bapak Akram (English Teacher, SMPN 3/ Staff of PKBM Paradigma, Wara Subdistrict, Palopo, South Sulawesi)
7. Bapak Sofyan Usman, S.Sos (PKBM Paradigma, Anggareja Subdistrict, Enrengkang, South Sulawesi)
8. Ibu Teti Sabarniati, S.Pd (English Teacher, SMPN 1, Karawang, West Java)
9. Bapak Ali Ahman Harahap (Head of Local Education Office, Tebing Tinggi, North Sumatra)
10. Bapak Jonner Sitinjak (Head of Primary and Secondary Education Division, Local Education Office, Tebing Tinggi, North Sumatra)
11. Ibu Greta (Counselor, SMPN IX, Tebing Tinggi, North Sumatra)
12. Ibu Ramnah Purba (Indonesian Teacher, SMP IX, Tebing Tinggi, North Sumatra)
13. Uztad Pesantren (Headmaster of Islamic Boarding School) Al-Hasyimi (Tebing Tinggi, North Sumatra)
14. Ibu Arwina (English Teacher, MTs Al Washliyah, Tebing Tinggi, North Sumatra)
15. Bapak Mahmud (English Teacher, MTs Al Washliyah, Tebing Tinggi, North Sumatra)
16. Ibu Ana (Religion Teacher, MTs Al Washliyah, Tebing Tinggi, North Sumatra)

Focus Group Discussions (FGD) with:
1. Students in SMPN 3 Palopo, South Sulawesi (6 girls, 2 boys)
2. Participants of PKBM Paradigma, Palopo, South Sulawesi (8 girls)
3. Participants of PKBM Paradigma, Enrengkang, South Sulawesi (3 girls, 3 boys)
4. Students of SMPN 1, Enrengkang, South Sulawesi (6 girls, 3 boys)
5. Students of SMPN 1, Karawang, West Java (5 girls, 2 boys)
6. Students of SMPN 9, Tebing Tinggi, North Sumatra (8 girls)
7. Students of SMPN 9, Tebing Tinggi, North Sumatra (8 boys)
8. Participants of PKBM – SMPN 4, Tebing Tinggi, North Sumatra (13 girls)
9. Students of Pesantren Al Hasyimi, Tebing Tinggi, North Sumatra (7 girls, 6 boys)
10. Students of MTs AL Washliyah, Tebing Tinggi, North Sumatra (6 girls, 5 boys)
Consultation Meetings with DBE3:

- Daniel Hunt (DCOP)
- Lorna Power (Formal Education Advisor)
- Sri Karna (Nonformal Education Specialist)
- Jordan Naidoo (SC US)

September 19, 2006

- Elisabeth Jackson (Program Officer for Islam and Education Programs, The Asia Foundation)
- Ani Soetjipto (Gender Specialist, The Asia Foundation)
- Lorna Power (Formal Education Advisor)
- Endang Maliki (Monitoring & Evaluation Advisor)
- Atiq Susila (Islamic Education Specialist)
- Budi Widyantara (Grant Compliance Coordinator)
- Mira Renata (Public-Private/ Communications Specialist)

DBE3 Consultants

- Janet Edwards
- Veronica Torres
- David James-Wilson