Policy, Governance & Financing Options for Skills for Marginalised Women

ASPBAE Regional Research Project

Synthesis Report

Elaine Butler
February 2019

Asia South Pacific Association for Basic and Adult Education (ASPBAE)
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**Acronyms and Abbreviations**

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<tr>
<td>AAAA</td>
<td>Addis Ababa Action Agenda</td>
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<td>ADB</td>
<td>Asian Development Bank</td>
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<td>ALE</td>
<td>Adult Learning and Education</td>
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<td>APWLD</td>
<td>Asia Pacific Forum on Women, Law and Development</td>
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<td>ASPBAE</td>
<td>Asia South Pacific Association for Basic and Adult Education</td>
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<td>CSO</td>
<td>Civil Society Organisation</td>
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<td>CSR</td>
<td>Corporate Social Responsibility</td>
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<td>FfD</td>
<td>Financing for Development</td>
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<td>FGD</td>
<td>Focus Group Discussions</td>
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<td>FLFP</td>
<td>Female Labour Force Participation</td>
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<td>GEM</td>
<td>Global Education Monitoring Reports</td>
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<td>GESI</td>
<td>Gender Equality and Social Inclusion</td>
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<td>GOI</td>
<td>Government of India</td>
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<td>GoI</td>
<td>Government of Indonesia</td>
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<td>GRALE</td>
<td>Global Report on Adult Learning and Education</td>
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<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organization</td>
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<td>IMF</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
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<td>LLL</td>
<td>Lifelong learning</td>
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<td>MDGs</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
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<td>MGI</td>
<td>McKinsey Global Institute</td>
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<td>MSDE</td>
<td>Ministry of Skill Development and Entrepreneurship (India)</td>
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<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non Government Organisation</td>
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<td>NTL</td>
<td>Non Traditional Livelihood</td>
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<td>ODA</td>
<td>Overseas Development Assistance</td>
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<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
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<td>PEKKA</td>
<td>Perempuan Kepala Keluarga (Women Headed Household Empowerment Program) Indonesia</td>
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<td>PwD</td>
<td>People with disabilities</td>
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<td>SDG</td>
<td>Sustainable Development Goal</td>
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<td>UIL</td>
<td>UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning</td>
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<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
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<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
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<td>UN ESCAP</td>
<td>United Nations (UN) Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific</td>
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<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
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<td>SI</td>
<td>Social Inclusion</td>
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<td>VAW</td>
<td>Violence against women</td>
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<td>World Economic Forum</td>
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1: INTRODUCTION

ASPBAE Regional Research Project: Policy, Governance & Financing Options for Skills for Marginalised Women Methodological Approach: Stage 1

As discussed above, the research has been designed as a phased multi-country study. Stage 1 comprises two country studies, viz; India (through Azad Foundation\(^1\)) and Indonesia (through the Perempuan Kepala Keluarga (Women Headed Household Empowerment Program) (PEKKA\(^2\)), both member organisations of ASPBAE. A Regional Scoping Paper further informed the research. Stage 2 will further the research in different selected countries in the Asia Pacific region, utilising the same framework to provide evidence of trends, similarities and differences in each context, as well as adding to ASPBAE’s regional knowledge base and capacity for advocacy.

The research methodology is best described as a mixed methods approach\(^3\). The Stage 1 research at the country level in India and Indonesia employed different tools and techniques to collect both primary and secondary data at the country level. Based on the philosophy, aims and core cohort/s of each of the two NGOs conducting the research, some variation in approach to adapt to contextual and situational circumstances occurred. The Regional Scoping Paper drew upon available secondary data to map out the situation of women in education and employment in the Asia-Pacific region, understand the skills development needs of marginalized women and explore financing/funding support for skills development for decent work for marginalized women.

ASPBAE led the research and provided research and administrative support to Azad Foundation and PEKKA for the country studies.

The India Study
Guided by the overarching question: What are the policy, governance and financing options required to include/provide skills development and adult education for decent work and economic and social well-being to the marginalized women...-given the perspectives of ‘no one left behind’ and social justice?, the India Study\(^4\) explores women’s persistent marginalisation and the issues that hold them back from fully engaging economically and socially.

Azad Foundation provides livelihoods with dignity for resource-poor women living in urban areas in India, driven by the vision of a world where all women, in particular women from underprivileged backgrounds enjoy full citizenship, earn with dignity and generate wealth and value for all. As a professional feminist organisation, Azad works across religious and social divides to enable resource-poor to women empower themselves. Azad started in 2008 as an incorporated charitable trust in Delhi with its focus based on concern about persistent gender inequalities in India and the need of finding non-traditional, high-return livelihood options for poor women in urban areas. Since its inception in south Delhi, Azad now operates four training

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\(^{1}\) See: [http://azadfoundation.com](http://azadfoundation.com)

\(^{2}\) See:

\(^{3}\) See, for example, Leech N, Onwuegbuzie A, (2008) A typology of mixed methods research designs, Quality and Quantity, 43(2), March, pp. 265-275

centres in Delhi, with offices in Jaipur and Kolkatta. It also offers residential training to women in other areas through its Women on Wheels Academy, and, by working in partnership with like-minded partners, has established Women on Wheels programs in Indore, Ahmedabad and Bangalore. It is also engaged in community engagement, research and advocacy.\(^5\)

As described in the India Study\(^6\), the research sought to generate further information about women's work in India’s informal sector, including that in the non-traditional livelihoods (NTL) for women to inform advocacy and further work by both ASPBAE in the region & Azad Foundation India, including challenging gendered notions of skills and work, and development of a gender-just framework for skills development and decent work in the India. The research approach was refined and potential participants identified at a meeting with India’s National NTL Network in September 2017.

**Primary data collection**, mainly qualitative, consisted of key informant interviews (KII), focus group discussions (FGD), and observation.

Twenty (20) KIIs were conducted with 23 participants associated with skills development and adult literacy training. They included representatives from non-government organisations (NGOs), Government of India (GOI) officials, private sector participants, representatives from international donor organisations supporting development initiatives including education and economic participation of girls and women. Ministry of Skill Development and Entrepreneurship (MSDE) and industry bodies working on government accredited programs to skill youth and in line with India’s National Policy on Skill Development and Entrepreneurship 2015.

A KII was also conducted with the Acquisition of Additional Skills Programme (ASAP) of the General Education Department and Higher Education Department, Government of Kerala to understand better the state’s efforts to link education with employability.

FGDs were carried out through cooperation with a number of organisations and agencies at Delhi/NCR; Jaipur/Rajasthan; Vizag/AP; Pune/Maharashtra; Ahmedabad/Gujarat; Mumbai/Maharashtra; Mysore, Indore/MP; Kottayam/Kerala; Lucknow/UP.

Participants included more than 150 women who had gone through skills training in car driving, auto-rickshaw driving, masonry, electrician’s work, LED bulb making, and so on and who are now pursuing employment or livelihood based on skills in which they were trained.

**Secondary data**: identification and review of relevant research studies, publications, reports, government data, international agreements and normative standards documents.

**Case Studies** were compiled for selected organisations: Azad Foundation, Delhi; Nirantar, Delhi; Archana Women's Centre, Kerala; Magic Bus; Janvikas, Ahmedabad, Gujarat, and Samaan, M.P.

**Limitations:**
The India Study, while covering selected places and states in India and a number of

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\(^6\) Ibid. This section draws on the India Study report, pp. 14-18
trades being undertaken by women mostly in the informal sector, was limited to programs on skills development for decent work for marginalised women in urban areas. In particular, it focused on skills development and work in non-traditional livelihoods.

Overview of context and Recommendations are listed in Annex 1, A.

**The Indonesia Study**
In collaboration with ASPBAE, Perempuan Kepala Keluarga (Women Headed Household Empowerment Program) Indonesia (PEKKA) conducted Stage 1 research for the Indonesia Study. PEKKA began in late 2000 as part of Komnas Perempuan’s initial plan to document the lives of widows in conflict-ridden areas, and the World Bank’s intention – through the sub-district development program (Program Pengembangan Kecamatan or PPK) – to address the pressing needs of widows of the conflict in Aceh in accessing much-needed resources in order to better cope with their economic hardships and traumatic experiences. This initiative was known as the “Widows Project”.

PEKKA has grown into a national wide networked NGO that works to strengthen the control of women household heads over decision-making processes from the household to state level, raising standards of living and well-being and improving access to various sources of livelihood for women-headed households. As it evolves, PEKKA works through a variety of strategies designed to empower women household heads to contribute towards building a prosperous, gender-justice and dignified society in Indonesia².

As documented in the Indonesia Study Report⁸, a research team consisting of the director of PEKKA, a research coordinator, and 10 data collectors at the national level and in several provinces including West Batang in Central Java, West Lombok in West Nusa Tenggara (NTB) and Sukabumi in West Java Indonesia conducted the research.

**Primary Data:** Quantitative and qualitative data was collected at both national and local (district level) to ensure a wide geographical representation. All research ethics were adhered to during primary data collection. Informed consent was taken from the respondents and they were given the choice to stop the interview at any point. The responses as well as the respondents’ identities will be kept confidential.

**Secondary data:** Available secondary data was collected and analysed. This included past research studies on similar topics, white papers and publications by others. Attempts were made to access government data on policies, allocated budgets and reports on skill building. Data on the interventions by the corporate sector through their Corporate Social Responsibility initiatives were sourced from companies (e.g. Unilever) based in Indonesia.

**Qualitative data:** The study used an open-ended interview guide to conduct one on one interviews as well as focus group discussions with key stakeholders.

Individuals from six ministries (Ministries of Agriculture; Women’s Empowerment & Child Protection; Social Services;...)

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² Information sourced from PEKKA Vision & Mission: [https://en.pekka.or.id/vision-mission/](https://en.pekka.or.id/vision-mission/)

Manpower; Maritime & Fishery; Villages, Development of Underdeveloped Regions & Transmigration) at the national level and 15 government agencies at the district level, two private companies, and four NGOs were selected for interviews.

PEKKA members from three areas, namely Sukabumi - West Java, Batang in Central Java and West Lombok Regency in West Nusa Tenggara participated in focus group discussions.

Quantitative data was collected primarily from PEKKA members. The quantitative data questionnaire was administered with the women respondents after the in-depth interview. It collected information about the women, including economic status, age, marital status, and information regarding their family.

Recommendations are listed in Annex 1.B.

The Synthesis Report
This Synthesis Report draws on and is informed by the following documents:


The detailed content contained in each of the country study research reports along with that in the two scoping papers provide foundational knowledge and insights enriched by lived experience of marginalised women to inform and shape policy and advocacy work at village/local, provincial and national levels in both India and Indonesia. The country reports also provide evidence of the complexity of national (and sub national) systems involved in overseeing skill development programs, their implementation, along with the ‘scattergun’ approach to funding initiatives that target both women in general, and specific ‘sub groups’ of women. Individually and collectively, the reports contain evidence to contribute to ongoing policy and advocacy action regionally.

Rather than attempt to reproduce (or duplicate) the rich and detailed content contained in each of the two country study research reports and the scoping paper, this synthesis report supplements that research with relevant additional sources collated through a further literature search to contextualise, and further analyse and synthesise content, findings and recommendations regionally and globally, to inform both the next stages of research and ASPBAE’s knowledge bank and ongoing advocacy work in the Asia Pacific region.
2: CONTEXTUALISING THE RESEARCH

Introduction
As a region, Asia Pacific is a complex and highly heterogeneous clustering of countries. This is further amplified by the magnitude of diversity and differences within each country in the Asia Pacific region. Given this complexity, in seeking to synthesise findings from the reports listed above, it is necessary to situate and contextualise the research globally and regionally, given that the drivers of change at those levels influence policy-making (albeit in different ways) nationally. The contextualising overview (limited due to the scope of this report) encompasses selected aspects of geo-political drivers, along with the institutions of education and training (learning), work and the positioning of women within these institutions within a development framework. While highlighting shared trends and selected differences, the efficacy of Agenda 2030 and the Sustainable Development Goals as a unifying device for action will be discussed. This will assist consideration of implications for further research, activism and advocacy across the region to address the question: ‘What are the policy, governance and financing options required to include and/or provide skill development and adult education for decent work and economic and social well being to the marginalised women in the Asia Pacific women– given the perspectives of ‘no one left behind’ and social justice?’

Asia and the Pacific: a selective snapshot
As a region, Asia Pacific has an estimated combined population of 4,141 million in 2017 - 54.8% of the world’s total population:


Five of the ten most populous economies in the world are located in Asia & the Pacific, including the top 2 (PRC 1,390 million; followed by India 1,316 million). Regionally, progress is evident across a range of indicators for most countries:

...development of Asia and the Pacific continues to be impressive on many fronts. The region’s share of global gross domestic product ... rose from 30.1% in 2000 to 42.6% in 2017, and around 780 million people moved out of extreme poverty from 2002 to 2013. Gains have also been made towards achieving gender parity in a number of important areas, including education and employment, alongside improvements in outcomes for women’s health issues. Meanwhile, there has been a marked shift in employment away from agriculture toward industry and services. Quality of life, as indicated by the Human Development Index, continues to improve. 11

However, important challenges remain. Despite reduction in poverty rates, 330 million across the region still live in extreme poverty:

The dimensions of poverty are inter-related, complex and, for many, enduring: 12

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The region’s diversity is further illustrated by the divergent rankings in the World Economic Forum’s (WEF) 2018 Global Gender Gap Report, with countries ranked between the top 10 – (Philippines #8) to Pakistan at #148. WEF’s Global Gender Gap Index comprises four sub indices: economic opportunity and participation; educational attainment; health and survival; political empowerment – all of which are relevant to the research being conducted by ASPBAE. Despite (slow) change, all countries across the region still have significant gaps in gender parity scores, in society as well as at work as illustrated below:


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Economic growth is expected to remain strong in the region. However, so far growth has not led to significant improvements in job quality for those in formal employment. Given changes in labour markets and demographic changes, predictions that unemployment rates will rise to 72.3 million people by 2020 despite improvements in education enrolment rates\(^\text{15}\). Variations in unemployment by sub regions and sex vary across Asia Pacific, with female labour force participation remaining problematic:


Variations in unemployment by sub regions and sex vary across Asia Pacific, with female labour force participation remaining problematic:

\[\text{Source: Asian Development Bank (ADB) and UN Women, 2018a, Gender Equality and the Sustainable Development Goals in Asia & the Pacific. p.55 \(\text{16}\)}\]

ILO comments that, ‘(d)espite bringing about substantial improvements, the development model adopted by most countries in the region appears to be unable to bring down significantly the region’s widespread decent work deficits\(^{17}\). The decent work deficit is exacerbated by structural transformation in labour markets associated with global changes discussed in the next section. In Asia Pacific, this adjustment is resulting in workers relocating from agriculture to service activities – more rapid in some counties than others in the region, as illustrated below:

\[\text{Source: Annex 2, Statistical Table 8.3.}\]


\[\text{Ibid, p.46}\]
Another dimension of the decent work deficit in the region is the prevalence of informal work:

The prevalence of informality in the region remains the highest globally, affecting close to 70 per cent of all workers. Among the subregions, Southern Asia has the highest share of informal employment (about 90 per cent), which is mainly due to a large agricultural sector, in which virtually all workers experience informality. The incidence of informality is also high in South-Eastern Asia and the Pacific, where it affects three-quarters of the employed, a share that rises to over 85 per cent in countries such as Cambodia, Indonesia and Myanmar.\(^\text{19}\)

Source: ILO, 2019, World Employment and Social Outlook: Trends 2019, p.46

\(^{18}\) Ibid.

\(^{19}\) Ibid

Women in Asia are on average 70% less likely than men to be in the labor force, with the country-to-country percentage varying anywhere from 3% to 80%. This gap persists despite economic growth, decreasing fertility rates, and increasing education. Many are in the informal economy. Surveys suggest that, relative to men, women are often perceived to have lower skills for the labor market. Further, social norms that emphasise domestic work as the primary responsibility of women constitute a significant constraint to their opportunities for employment, social activities and mobility, with the time spent on unpaid care work and domestic tasks identified as a major barrier to their economic empowerment.

Women’s time spent on unpaid care and domestic work, selected countries and territories in Asia and the Pacific, latest available year (as a ratio of men’s time)

![Chart showing time spent on unpaid care and domestic work](image)

Source: Calculated from Annex 2, Statistical Table 5.6.

Source: ADB and UN Women, 2018a, Gender Equality and the Sustainable Development Goals in Asia & the Pacific. p.49

To say we live in an increasingly interconnected and fast changing world is a truism. While this section has presented a brief overview of selected aspects of the Asia Pacific region of interest to ASPBAE’s regional research project, it is important to further contextualise the region with/in contemporary global trends that impact regionally and nationally.

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21 Asian Development Bank (ADB) and UN Women, 2018a, *Gender Equality and the Sustainable Development Goals in Asia & the Pacific*. Op Cit.
Contemporary mega trends and transformational changes: a global ‘New Deal’?

We are in a stage of profound change. Our economies, societies, and the institutions of the state are under pressure, given the global inter-connectedness of our world. We are also witnessing increasing inequality globally, with OECD stating that, as a global community, we have reached a tipping point. Inequality can no longer be treated as an afterthought. We need to focus the debate on how the benefits of growth are distributed; that there should not be a trade off between growth and equality. Rather, ‘inclusive growth’ is the new goal. Skills for life and work along with lifelong learning and skill development are part of this mix.

Parallel mega trends are both driving and accompanied by a change in world order and geopolitics (unipolar to multipolar, with emergent increases in nationalism and protectionism); increasing population movements, migration and urbanisation, and a shift from multilateralism to ‘plurilateralism’. CSIRO research identified a number of megatrends impacting jobs - ‘the internet of things’, big data, increasing automation and the adaption/ adoption of AI associated with rapid digital-technological transformation are driving rapid transformation of labour markets across the globe. This is now variously badged as the interplay between Globalisation 4.0 and the Fourth Industrial Revolution (4IR) – a revolution that is fundamentally different from those that preceded it. Also, along with global issues including those associated with climate change and human impact on earth, there is increasing agreement that we are entering (or are in) what is being named as a new geological epoch - the Anthropocene.

These mega trends are resulting in profound transformation of both the future of work and the future of learning, both of which are integral to and integrated in vocationally oriented education and training. Institutions and policies are struggling to keep abreast of impacts, while also planning for future proofing and resilience for forthcoming changes and impacts.

22 See, for example, Picketty, T. 2014, Capital in the Twenty First century. Harvard University Press
'shocks'. As Payton contends, changes in the labour market are not new, but:

The difference now ... is that the combination of the megatrends occurring simultaneously are amplifying one another, resulting in faster, bigger and exponential shifts, vastly different from those previously experienced. ... These impending changes offer great promise for both future prosperity and job creation, as well as a major challenge for people, corporations, societies and governments as they plan for and negotiate fundamental changes in the way we work and live⁴⁰.

Similarly, the rapidity and complexity of the changes are challenging development paradigms. The World Bank claims that we are in times that demand a new social contract, a global ‘New Deal’, where equality of opportunity must play a big role in the changing nature of work:

The labor market is increasingly valuing advanced cognitive and socio-behavioral skills that complement technology and make workers more adaptable. This means that inequality will increase unless everyone has a fair shot at acquiring these skills. In fact, in view of the changing nature of work, lack of education is likely to be one of the strongest mechanisms for transmitting inequalities from one generation to the next. A new social contract should seek to level the playing field for acquiring skills⁴¹.

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The complexity and vulnerabilities inherent in the global labour market, and (so opportunities for work – or not, for many) is illustrated thus:


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The theme for a new (or reinvigorated) social contract along with global governance mechanisms was a topic of discussion at the 2019 World Economic Forum (WEF) as elsewhere, with the Director General of ILO blogging about fundamental questions being asked about ‘the legitimacy and relevance of institutions’, concerns based on data as well as lived realities, specifically mentioning education, work and the paucity of social protection:

Currently, 55 per cent of the global population – four billion people – have no social protection at all. Without a social protection floor they are more likely to fall into working poverty and less likely to invest in education for their children, retraining for themselves, starting businesses. The whole economy will suffer as a result. …

He continues:

We are not powerless against this situation. We can prepare for … changes by making it easier for those who are marginalized or restricted – women, youth, the elderly and differently abled, minority and indigenous groups – to participate in the workforce fully and equally. A pre-requisite for all this must be real social dialogue.

The recognition that we are (yet again) in ‘new times’ has implications for development paradigms, policies, processes and practices, as well as the institutions involved at global, regional and national levels. Encouragingly, OECD acknowledges that there is a ‘better understanding about the limitations of GDP’; that ‘economic growth is no longer quality growth’, and that development strategies, rather than being one size fits all, ‘should be context specific, and based on the principles of being participatory, place-based, multisectoral and multilateral’.

This calls into question and puts on notice the global uptake of neoliberalism and belief in ‘free markets’ – subject to sustained critique by academics, civil society organisations, media and others as a failed experiment, especially in relation to microeconomic and social policies including the marketisation of what should be public goods. Now, OECD has acknowledged that ‘…some of the ultra-liberal arguments …have lost their traction’ – conceivably signaling a shift in global meta-discourses. However, while acknowledging the potential of Agenda 2030 and the Sustainable Development Goals, OECD adds a cautionary note, stating that:

...institutions and policies in countries as well as donors today are ill equipped to face the challenges required to meet the objectives set out by the SDGs. …There is a need for donors to align behind the national country strategies, and support their implementation beyond official development assistance.

The design of our institutions determines their capacity to deal with shocks and trend changes and the way risks are shared between the institutions and their stakeholders and ultimately, the impact

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33 Schwab, K., 2019, ‘Our global system has spun out of control. Here’s how to rebalance it’ World Economic Forum. 05 February 2019 https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2019/02/how-to-rebalance-our-global-system/

34 Ryder, G., 2019, ‘Why we need a reinvigorated social contract’ Work in Progress. 15 February 2019 https://iloblog.org/2019/02/15/why-we-need-a-reinvigorated-social-contract/


37 Ibid, p.13

38 Ibid
on citizens/individuals. This highlights the need for policy settings of economic and social institutions to be able to be ready for and cope with shocks and trend changes^39. A reciprocal relationship exists between people and the state, economy and societies in which we live and the institutions that impact us. By institutions and systems laying out their expected roles and associated privileges and obligations, North suggests that it is useful to think of institutions as the “rules of the game that determine human interactions”^40. Levels of inclusion, then, are dependent on the amount of influence that can be exerted or is granted (or not) – on representation and participation, and at global, regional, national and local levels.

The Sustainable Development Goals: an inclusive and unifying platform?

After intensive and extensive global consultation, and building on decades of collaborative work, the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development was unanimously adopted by 193 member countries at an historic UN Summit in September 2015, and formalised in the document: Transforming our world: The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. A/RES/70/1 UN (Agenda 2030)^41. Agenda 2030 officially came into force on 1st January 2016. The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) provide a framework complete with 17 Goals^42, 169 targets and 232 indicators (54 of which are gender specific^43) for the world to address poverty through an approach of sustainability and inclusion. Agenda 2030 is pro-poor, centres gender as a cross cutting Goal (SDG 5) and is ambitious in its intent.

The 17 SDGs are designed to be transformative, inter-related and unique in that they call for action by all countries, poor, rich and middle-income to promote prosperity while protecting the planet; ending poverty must go hand-in-hand with strategies that build economic growth and address a range of social needs including education, health, social protection, and job opportunities, while tackling climate change and environmental protection. However, ‘(s)uccess in all countries is highly dependent on political will, which may be lacking where elites defend vested interests”^44. Most in the development community received Agenda 2030 with cautious optimism, seeing the SDGs as providing opportunity for progress, if not transformation.

Along with political will, ensuring that the SDG commitments are translated into effective action requires a precise understanding of target populations.

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^41 See: https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdg-goals.html

^42 See: https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sgds


See: Figure 2, p. 52 (Gender specific indicators across the 17 SDGs) and Figure 2.2 p 55 (Gender specific indicators by their classification).

However, availability of robust data, especially disaggregated data to provide evidence relating to vulnerable groups was very limited. The United Nations General Assembly (UNGA) adopted a global indicator framework to monitor the 2030 Agenda as a voluntary and country-led endeavour on 6 July 2017. The 232 global indicators that align with the 169 targets of 17 SDGs are complemented by indicators at the regional and national levels, developed by United Nations Member States. Data from national statistical and data systems are the basis for the compilation of global indicators.

This is being described as ‘a data revolution in motion’ with the rapid collaborative development of new tools and emergent frameworks to integrate new data sources, including data that are increasingly disaggregated by income, sex, age, race, ethnicity, migratory status, disability, geographic location and other characteristics. As stated by the UN, this type of detailed information is the basis upon which effective policies are shaped. In turn, this ‘revolution’ is challenging theories and methods of monitoring and evaluation and theories of change, opening up new spaces such as the opportunity for training at local/community levels in ‘data literacies’ - for collecting data and also enhanced capacity to read data.

The central tenet of ‘Leave No-one Behind’ appears in the SDG outcome document in the following form:

As we embark on this great collective journey, we pledge that no one will be left behind. Recognizing that the dignity of the human person is fundamental, we wish to see the Goals and targets met for all nations and peoples and for all segments of society. And we will endeavor to reach the furthest behind first.

Three concepts are covered in the ‘Leave no one behind’ concept and framing, each and all of which are central to improving the welfare of societies: ending extreme poverty (in all its forms), reducing inequalities, and addressing discriminatory barriers. The five key intersecting and dynamic factors associated with marginalisation were identified – discrimination; geography/location; socio-economic status; governance and shocks and fragility.

Stuart and Samman make the point that: (d)espite its prominent positioning in the SDG declaration, ‘leave no one behind’ enters the political – and technical – discourse amidst a wide range of other important terms and concepts, such as the reduction of inequality and poverty (including multidimensional poverty).

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http://undocs.org/A/73/292, p.16

http://undocs.org/A/73/292


They argue that ‘explicit and pro-active attempts are needed to ensure populations at risk of being left behind are included from the start’\(^49\); that ‘tackling all three concepts will require the prioritisation and fast tracking of action for those who are worst-off’\(^50\). A further challenged is made overt by Stuart and Woodroffe, who point out that gender issues and the Leave No-one behind aspects are treated as being quite separate in the wording of the will have to be thought of and responded to in a joined up fashion\(^51\).

If Agenda 2030 and the SDGs are to be ‘inclusive’, a unifying framework, there are other inherent tensions that require careful consideration, especially for policy-related advocacy work. One major issue is that, in contrast to the ambitious vision of sustainable and inclusive development, the model of growth that underpins Agenda 2030 continues as that based on GDP growth\(^52\). However, ‘economic growth is a gendered process because economies are gendered structures’, comprising both paid and unpaid economies, with the former being included (counted) in official GDP figures and so national accounts while the latter (the ‘care economy’) is not, despite its highly significant but unmeasured contributions\(^53\). As Seth argues, ‘economic progress may well exacerbate inequalities, not alleviate them’: -

More than 75 per cent of the world’s population lives in societies that are more unequal today than 20 years ago. In many parts of the world, income gaps have deepened despite impressive growth performances. The sharpest increases in income inequality have taken place in those developing countries that were especially successful in pursuing vigorous growth and managed, as a result, to graduate into higher income brackets\(^54\).

Through its inherent growth model, the SDGs specifically gesture to increasing the capacity of financial institutions (Target 8.10), with Elson and Fontana advising that, for many low-income people, financial inclusion has been predatory inclusion, disproportionately impacting women\(^55\). Given the dominance of finance in the inclusive growth paradigm, they distinguish three spheres of an economy (all characterised by gender inequalities): finance, production and social production, with the former two being market spheres; the latter non-market. This embeds yet another sphere of relative disadvantage for the work of social reproduction: -

The non-market sphere of social reproduction supplies goods and services directly concerned with the daily and

\(^{49}\) Ibid
\(^{50}\) Ibid
\(^{51}\) Stuart, E. & Woodroffe, J., 2016, ‘Leaving no-one behind: can the Sustainable Development Goals succeed where the Millennium Development Goals lacked?’, in Gender & Development, 24:1, 69-81, p.76
\(^{53}\) Elson & Fontana, M., 2019, ‘Conceptualizing gender-equitable inclusive growth’ in Elson, D. & Seth, A., (Eds.), 2019, Gender equality and inclusive growth: Economic policies to achieve Sustainable Development. UN Women. P.22
\(^{54}\) Seth, A., ‘Introduction’ in Elson, D. & Seth, A., (Eds.), 2019, Gender equality and inclusive growth: Economic policies to achieve Sustainable Development. UN Women. P.9
intergenerational reproduction of people as human beings, especially through their care, socialization and education. It includes unpaid domestic and care work in families and communities, organized unpaid volunteer work, and paid (but non-market) work in public services such as health and education. 

An example of both the dominance of the traditional approach to growth and the significance of financial investment embedded in Agenda 2030 is that of SDG 9 – Build resilient infrastructure, promote inclusive and sustainable industrialization and foster innovation. 

To achieve inclusive and sustainable industrialization, competitive economic forces need to be unleashed to generate employment and income, facilitate international trade and enable the efficient use of resources.

Infrastructure, industrialisation and innovation are positioned as ‘crucial drivers of economic growth and development’ in Agenda 2030. Since its inception and global agreement, the SDG/Agenda 2030 platform has (and is) resulting in ‘massive’ global investment in infrastructure. Investing in (sustainable) infrastructure was seen as ‘imperative’ to address three simultaneous global challenges - to re-energise growth, deliver on the SDGs and also reduce climate risks as agreed in the Paris Agreement.

This cost of global investment in infrastructure for the 15 year time period of Agenda 2030 was estimated as US$90 trillion, with the claim that investing in sustainable infrastructure would “…support inclusive growth, enhance access to basic services that can reduce poverty and accelerate development, and promote environmental sustainability.” Infrastructure is positioned as underpinning all economic activity and critical for economic growth, that, despite its ‘massive cost’ and through what is badged as inclusive growth, ‘holds the key to poverty reduction and societal well-being’, including assisting in the attainment of gender equality through increasing access to basic services.

The intent underpinning the (contested) emergent discourses around ‘inclusive growth’ and the ‘new deal’ is that prosperity resulting from economic growth should be more evenly distributed; that ‘growth needs to create equitable opportunities for a much wider proportion of population/s’. Esquivel, in a feminist analysis of the power dynamics inherent in the SDGs, argues that this ‘traditional’ approach to growth in Agenda 2030, with its embedded liberalism (a softer version of market liberalism) assumes that economic growth ‘is a supply side story that is independent from policies and actions', with a wide ranging ‘diverse’ private sector positioned as ‘just another stakeholder in development’. Such an approach fails to respond to, let alone challenge ‘the macro-economic and structural drivers of the current patterns of growth’. It:

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56 Ibid, p.23
59 See: https://unfccc.int/process-and-meetings/the-paris-agreement/the-paris-agreement
61 Ibid
62 Ibid
...does not challenge the ways inequalities in income, wealth and power are produced at national and global levels, nor does it attempt to transform power relations between the North and the South, between the rich and the poor, and between men and women. Power relations are the big elephant in the room of Agenda 2030.63

Seth’s research is in line with and expands on this analysis of economic growth, power dynamics and inclusive growth:

...even as inclusive growth proponents advocate for equity considerations to be at the front and centre of growth policy, the principal concern is with class equity – not gender equality. Yet, a growing body of evidence shows that economic growth is a gendered process, and that gender inequalities can be barriers to shared prosperity. ... (E)vidence makes clear that unless the gender dimensions of inclusive growth are made explicit, and unless policies for inclusive growth aim to improve women's well-being and address gender gaps, it is unlikely that growth will benefit women and men equally.64

Three years into the implementation of the Agenda, many countries are at important but relatively early stages of translating this shared vision into national development plans and strategies, with most facing shared and daunting challenges: changing climate, conflict, inequality, persistent pockets of poverty and hunger, rapid urbanisation and environmental degradation. As advised by the UN, ‘policymakers in every country need to reflect on how societies can be made more resilient while confronting these challenges’ 65, while also moving to accommodate an inclusive agenda to address poverty and marginalisation.

While implementation of the SDGs is being supported by a follow up and review framework via the inter-governmental High Level Political Forum (HLPF) 66, there is no prescribed implementation mechanism; rather the responsibility is that of national governments.

There is ongoing concern both about capacity for data collection (including sex disaggregated data), and, for gender, concern about the limitations of the indicators, with most relying on parity measures rather than the more nuanced indicators required for data collection to measure progress towards gender equality and inclusion. Accounting for and so measuring gender outcomes is not about disaggregating data by sex alone; as a social construct gender influences the differential experiences and life opportunities available to individuals and groups.

Two years into implementation, UN Women released a review of progress and recommendations for action to progress gender equality in Agenda 2030, claiming that ‘making every woman and girls count will require a revolution not only in gender data but also in policies, programming and accountability67.

64 Seth, 2016, Op Cit, p.10

66 See: https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/hlpf
Fours key areas were identified for action, viz:

- Harnessing policy synergies. Integrated approaches to implementation are pivotal to harnessing these synergies;
- Improving gender data, statistics and analysis to effectively monitor progress for women and girls across all goals and targets;
- Prioritising gender-responsive investments, policies and programs to align action with the principles, values and aspirations of the 2030 Agenda.
- Strengthening accountability through gender-responsive processes and institutions to ensure an integrated approach to implementation, follow-up and review with gender equality at its core.

The need for a new deal, a new social contract presents a space and so the opportunity to re/form our institutions and economic, social and cultural systems while at the same time working to shift persistent oppressive social norms. Given the coalescence and activities around Agenda 2030 globally, regionally and in most countries, an awareness of the challenges and caveats as well as the ambitious attempt to move the world towards more inclusive futures, Agenda 2030 provides a platform for action. It encapsulates both the potential benefits and the challenges of its ambitious agenda, framing the task ahead for collaborative and participative policy work – research, practice, activism and advocacy.

**The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and the ASPBAE skill development project**

Recognising that all 17 SDGs are inter-related, the SDGs of most relevance to the ASPBAE research project and for which opportunities exist in each country for policy advocacy are:

- Goal 1: No poverty
- Goal 4: Inclusive education
- Goal 5: Gender equality
- Goal 8: Decent work & economic growth
- Goal 10: Reduce inequalities.

Detail of the above goals, targets of interest and their indicators is available in Annex 2. It is recognised that while the above Goals are implicated in and of interest to the overarching research project, ASPBAE’s core interest and centre of activity foregrounds SDG4 – ‘the education goal’: - SDG4: Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all. Moreover, as a major NGO representing the interests in post school learning of so many CSOs across the region, ASPBAE’s collaborative work at global and regional meetings and high level forums provides a space for advocacy, to amplify the voices of many and the opportunity to provide evidence-based recommendations to foster inclusive change. This work is two-way, based on ASPBAE’s knowledge-sharing platform with information, support and training made available at national and local levels.
Similar to SDG5 (Achieve gender equality and empower all women & girls) that is recognised as a cross cutting SDG, it is acknowledged (although in a less overt way) that education is central to the achievement of Agenda 2030 and each of the 17 SDGs:

How education is typically linked with other Sustainable Development Goals

SDG4 cover all sectors and types of education and learning. It comprises 10 targets (7 expected outcomes & 3 means of achieving the former) and 11 indicators. Those that directly name and so include skill development as vocational education are Targets 4.3, 4.4 & 4.5:

- **Target 4.3**: By 2030, ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university

- **Target 4.4**: By 2030, substantially increase the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent work and entrepreneurship.

- **Target 4.5**: By 2030, eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training for the vulnerable, including persons with disabilities, indigenous peoples and children in vulnerable situations

The targets that underpin and so implicate integrated holistic skill development programs nationally as well as those available at local community level include:

- **Target 4.6**: By 2030, ensure that all youth and a substantial proportion of adults, both men and women, achieve literacy and numeracy

- **Target 4.7**: By 2030, ensure that all learners acquire the knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development, including, among others, through education for sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence, global citizenship and appreciation of cultural diversity and of culture’s contribution to sustainable development.
The key foundational documents of note here are:

- Education 2030. Incheon Declaration & Framework for Action for the implementation of Sustainable Development Goal 4;
- Strategy For Technical And Vocational Education And Training (TVET) (2016-2021);

While the first two documents provide an overall framework for education and then TVET, the Addis Ababa Action Agreement (AAAA) set in place the model and parameters for the financing of the SDGs, reinforcing the traditional growth model discussed in the previous section, viz: -

It provides a new global framework for financing sustainable development by aligning all financing flows and policies with economic, social and environmental priorities. It includes a comprehensive set of policy actions, with over 100 concrete measures that draw upon all sources of finance, technology, innovation, trade, debt and data, in order to support achievement of the Sustainable Development Goals.

Given slow progress on the SDGs in an ever more ‘challenging global environment’, a series of measures have since been agreed, confirming and extending commitments to include ‘a range of issues that affect all areas, such as gender equality, infrastructure investment and social protection’, with follow up scheduled annually.

While boundaries between the various sectors of the broad and complex meta-institution of education are dynamic, blurred and leaky with noticeable differences between countries, work-related education including skill development is usually recognised as vocational learning and so either encapsulated under or closely linked with the juggernaut Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET or T/VET).

In this way, the meta-discourses of governance, regulation and funding of education 2030.

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74 As a global institution, TVET is also referred to as VET, or to indicate differences in acronyms - T/VET
TVET (global and national) and the hierarchy of those privileged as key (global/regional) stakeholders coalesce to impact and shape policies, implementation and practices at national and local levels.

Adult learning and education (ALE) along with non-formal and informal learning and community/place-based activities, most often linked with CSO endeavours, are (usually) named but most often this is tokenistic and not accompanied with appropriate mainstream funding or power to impact policy development let alone fulfil demands for community/place based activities - skill development or otherwise.

UNESCO is charged with carriage of SDG4, including TVET, under Agenda 2030. Meetings were held to evaluate the TVET Strategy (2010-2015) along with a series of recommendations in 2015: Recommendation on Adult Learning and Education and the Recommendation concerning Technical and Vocational Education and Training to reflect new global trends and support the Education 2030 Framework for Action. Consultations resulted in agreement on a revised framework for TVET that is in line with and complements the directions and assumptions of both Agenda 2030 and Education 2030, viz: Strategy for Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) (2016-2021). This TVET strategy and its framework is a radical departure from previous designs and over time, has the potential to reshape the institution of TVET for the better. It provides an integrated and holistic approach to education and training that ensures the promotion of a broad spectrum of knowledge, skills and competencies for work and life. The Strategy has three priority areas:

- Fostering youth employment
- Promoting equity and gender equality
- Facilitating the transition to green economies and sustainable societies.

TVET has the responsibility to address multiple demands - economic, social and environmental - by ensuring youth and adults develop the skills they need for employment, decent work and entrepreneurship, promoting equitable, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, and supporting transitions to green economies and environmental sustainability. Further, vocational learning can take place not only in technical colleges, but also across diverse locations and through a range of pedagogies. This is a challenging aim, but one that is being taken up by countries around the world as it is in the Asia Pacific region.

The recent 4th Asia-Pacific Meeting on Education 2030 (APMED4) (July 2018) focused on SDG 4 targets 4.3, 4.4. The meeting noted that:

Despite notable achievements in economic growth in recent decades, equity in growth continues to be elusive, resulting in increasing inequality... The Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) recognize the urgent need to bridge the worlds of education and employment and

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76 UNESCO 2016a, Strategy for TVET Ibid, p4
ensure a solid educational and skills foundation for all, including young people to make that leap to the world of work.

A collective set of recommendations was agreed on:

- Revise and update national policies and programmes to ensure a holistic education environment that encompasses secondary education, TVET, tertiary and adult education within a lifelong learning context and to ensure no one is left behind from availing to the diverse learning opportunities and pathways; and to
- Provide feedback to the national and regional monitoring.

It is apparent that, despite differences in development stages and specific national contextual issues, TVET systems in the region are experiencing shared issues, and collaborative progress under the Agenda 2030 umbrella provides a way forward that will benefit the region and its member countries. To move the overall SDG4-Education 2030 agenda forward in the region, countries, UN Agencies, CSO/NGO partners and all other stakeholders agreed to coordinate efforts, based on the following principles at all levels and areas of action:

- Keep the equity agenda as key driver in the achievement of SDG targets 4.3 and 4.4, to reduce the marginalization of girls and woman, children with disabilities, isolated population, among others, and to enhance female participation in the formal labour force;
- Involve communities, youth and other partners to improve targets 4.3 and 4.4 related policies and services;
- Invest in innovation and quality data as indispensable means to deliver results;
- Improve the cross-sectoral and inter-institutional actions, as critical for effective policy responses; and
- Increase and improve their financial investments, with effective equity formulas, to achieving results for all

Key recommendations around six detailed Action Areas were agreed, with Action Area 1 being that of ‘Inclusion, equity and gender equality’, reaffirming the central positioning and significance of inclusiveness in TVET reform. Other Action Areas are: digital skills; promoting a smooth transition from school to work; TVET (to improve the relevance and quality of TVET and skills training provision and programs); and monitoring of SDG targets 4.3, 4.4 (including enhancing data capacity and disaggregation).

There is much of relevance here, in this regional endeavour focusing on a transformative TVET agenda. Initiatives in progress such as cross national recognition of skills being pursued by ASEAN can result in mutual benefits: meeting industry and labour forces skills demands in any one part of the region while providing more opportunities for work within the region. However, political will and ongoing monitoring and advocacy

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78 Ibid, p.8
will be required to transform ‘technicist’ and male dominated TVET’ into an genuinely inclusive institution where the goals for greater social good are weighted equally with those of economic growth.

**Summary**

In considering the overarching research question for ASPBAE’s regional research project, viz:

What are the policy, governance and financing options required to include and/or provide skill development and adult education for decent work and economic and social well being to the marginalised women in the Asia Pacific women – given the perspectives of ‘no one left behind’ and social justice,

This section provides a snapshot of the inter-related global-regional contexts in which the research and its beneficiaries are located. It also discusses opportunities and tensions inherent in Agenda 2030, which, with informed approaches and a willingness to tackle enduring problems, has the capacity to provide a ‘unifying’ mechanism for the Asia Pacific region. It also provides a framing of the regional research and spaces for ongoing research, advocacy work & knowledge sharing amongst ASPBAE and its constituent CSOs.

The next section turns attention to the first specific research question ‘who are the marginalised women’. It considers how approaches to marginalisation and gender are woven through Agenda 2030, and the opportunities and tensions involved in utilising them to identify marginalised populations and individuals.
3: WHO ARE THE MARGINALISED WOMEN?

Seeking to understand who (and where) the marginalised women are, given the diversity within any one country and even more so between country members of the Asia and Pacific region/s presents a difficult challenge. Given the limitations of the scope of this report, identifying the many cohorts that comprise vulnerable and/or marginalised populations is not possible. Cognizant of the diversity encapsulated by category ‘women’, priority is given to using a lens of intersectionality: gender, disability, poverty/socio-economic status, location, age, ethnicity/race, religion and so on.\(^7\)

Approaches to intersectionality provide an opportunity to consider the complexity of interconnecting dimensions at personal, socio-economic and cultural levels, given that such entangled intersections ‘construct multiple ... disadvantage and marginalisation as well as seemingly contradictory and non-reinforcing ... advantage and disadvantages’.\(^8\)

**Approaches to marginalisation and (social) inclusion**

Despite documented success in global human development measures over the last two decades, such as attainment of education, access to healthcare and growth in overall income, over 30% of the world’s population still lives in extreme poverty, with individuals and communities struggling with structural and systemic challenges – economic, political, socio-cultural, including those embedded in local laws and norms.

In every country, certain groups...confront barriers that prevent them from fully participating in their nation’s political, economic, and social life. These groups are branded by stereotypes, stigmas, and superstitions. They often live with insecurity. And such disadvantages not only preclude them from capitalizing on opportunities to lead a better life, they also rob them of dignity.\(^8\)

Moreover, the most vulnerable people are also those most at risk of being disproportionally impacted by disruptions and crises, further exacerbating their marginalisation. Definitions of and approaches to the concept of marginalisation are numerous, contested and continue to evolve. Cruwys et al (2013) offer this understanding: -

Marginalisation describes a state in which individuals are living on the fringes of society because of their compromised or severely limited access to the resources and opportunities needed to fully participate in society and to live a decent life. Marginalised people experience a complex, mutually reinforcing mix of economic, social, health and early-life disadvantage, as well as stigma.\(^8\)

\(^7\) For a graphic depiction of intersectionality and discrimination, see: UN Women, 2018a, Op Cit., Figure 4.1 Common forms of discrimination faced by women and girls, p.136


Marginalisation can be group based and/or individualised. It is a dynamic process closely linked with identity and identity politics; with enduring marginalisation for some, movement in and out of groups for others; the recognition of new groups, and increasing acknowledgment that many people considered marginalised identify with or belong to one or more categories or groups simultaneously:

This inherent and dynamic complexity is also interconnected with related concepts and categories (such as ‘vulnerable’, ‘disadvantaged’ and ‘equity groups’) means that marginalisation per se is both a complex area to research at a theoretical level as well as presenting challenges in the identification of who the marginalised (and so excluded) groups are in any place at any time.

Two visual depictions based on women’s accounts illustrate this complexity. The first is one of women working in textile and garment factories in Sukabumi, West Java, Indonesia; the other, women living in various urban poor communities in Sampaloc, Manila in the Philippines and working in the informal economy as street vendors impacted by privatisation of public markets. The two depictions are offered as selected examples of how the dynamics of intersectionality contribute to a multiplier effect that shapes contextualised lives differently for specific groups of women in Asia Pacific. The collective aspirations (regional demands) of these women and the other groups (indigenous and migrant women) who engaged with the participative action project conducted by APWLD are clear: access to control over resources; decent work and a living wage; peace based on justice, and women’s voice in decision making processes.

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The contemporary shift to social inclusion (SI) is one approach to combat marginalisation. It is based on an understanding of SI as ‘the process of improving the ability, opportunity, and dignity of people, disadvantaged on the basis of their identity, to take part in society’. In an investigation of exclusion and inclusion, the World Bank identified seven key features, viz: -

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84 Ibid, p.34
85 Ibid, p.60
86 World Bank, 2013, Op Cit, p.4
1. Excluded groups exist in all countries.
2. Excluded groups are consistently denied opportunities.
3. Intense global transitions are leading to social transformations that create new opportunities for inclusion as well as exacerbating existing forms of exclusion.
4. People take part in society through markets, services, and spaces.
5. Social and economic transformations affect the attitudes and perceptions of people. As people act on the basis of how they feel, it is important to pay attention to their attitudes and perceptions.
6. Exclusion is not immutable. Abundant evidence demonstrates that social inclusion can be planned and achieved.
7. Moving ahead will require a broader and deeper knowledge of exclusion and its impacts as well as taking concerted action.\(^87\)

The World Bank Report claims that ‘education represents an unparalleled agent for stimulating inclusion’\(^88\). With the proviso that there is no universally agreed definition for social inclusion, the Australian Social Inclusion Board defines social inclusion as having the resources, opportunities and capabilities to:
- Learn (e.g. participate in education and training);
- Work (e.g. participate in employment, unpaid or voluntary work including family and carer responsibilities);
- Engage (e.g. connect with people, use local services and participate in local, cultural, civic and recreational activities); and
- Have a voice (influence decisions that affect them)\(^89\).

With acknowledgment of increasing inequity globally and in many nation states, and that absolute poverty continues to rise in some countries despite economic growth\(^90\), solving the compounding problems of social exclusion is urgent. This urgency has seen a recent focusing attention away from ‘exclusion’ to that of ‘inclusion’ - social, spatial and economic (e.g. inclusive growth)\(^91\).

Change is inevitable albeit incremental, messy and complex. ‘No single set of policies or programs can be classified as “social inclusion policies” or “social inclusion programs”; rather, a range of dynamic sequenced cross-sectoral interventions is necessary\(^92\); interventions that also recognise that power relationships sustain marginalisation, poverty and exclusion. A multidimensional, crosscutting and multi-level (macro, meso, micro; global, regional, national, local) approach that includes intervention in markets, services and spaces is required: -

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\(^87\) Ibid p.3
\(^88\) Ibid, p.xvi
\(^89\) Triggs, G., 2013, Social Inclusion and Human Rights in Australia. Tuesday 20\(^{\text{th}}\) August 2013.

\(^90\) OECD, 2018b, Perspectives on global development 2019. Rethinking development strategies. Overview. OECD Development Centre

\(^91\) Baker & Gadgell (2017) have developed a guiding framework with definitions and principles for action in relation to integrated social, economic and spatial inclusion, with a focus on urban poor. See: Baker J.L. & Gadgil, G.U. (Eds.), 2017, East Asia and Pacific countries: Expanding opportunities for the urban poor. Urban Development Series. World Bank, Washington, D.C.
https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/27614

\(^92\) Ibid, p.213
Cognisant of limitations and inherent tensions discussed in the next section around ‘inclusion’ *per se*, the concept and evolving frameworks of SI go some way to both ‘explain why some inequalities exist or why some are particularly durable’, and also offer an approach to planning for inclusion supported by accountability measures. The case of poverty offers an example: - Social inclusion takes poverty analysis beyond identifying correlates to uncovering its underlying causes. It asks questions such as why certain groups are overrepresented among the poor and why some people lack access to education, health, and other services or receive poorer-quality services. It exposes the multidimensional nature of chronic deprivation arising from social exclusion, which plays a key role in driving the more readily observable correlates of poverty (lack of schooling, poor health, and constrained labor market returns). It underscores that deprivation arising from social exclusion tends to occur along multiple axes at once, so that policies that release just one of these axes of deprivation, such as improved access to education, will not unleash the grip of others. It draws back the curtain on the norms and belief systems that underpin this multifaceted exclusion, which may be overt norms, such as apartheid in South Africa, or the result of intangible belief systems handed down through history.

Contemporary practices seeking to take a proactive (and pro-poor) approach to combat marginalisation combine Gender Equality initiatives with those of SI (GESI). This is in line with the underlying assumptions and approach in *Agenda 2030*.

**Marginalisation, inclusion and women - the Sustainable Development Goals**

While the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) that preceded the SDGs delivered substantial progress, much less was achieved for the most vulnerable and marginalised – many of whom were not included in data bases, surveys and the like, with MDG indicators consistently worse for disadvantaged groups across every region. Attention to gender was ‘modest’, at the periphery of the MDGs and with narrow targets and no focus on structural barriers, despite it being known...
that ‘a disproportionate number of the poorest and most excluded people are women and girls’.94

The extended negotiations, both intergovernmental and with sustained and informed civil society advocacy, that took place prior to the endorsement of Agenda 2030 shifted the MDG focus to a new way of addressing global/national development through a commitment to ‘leaving no one behind’.95 This implies that poverty and income inequalities would/will be tackled, especially for the most vulnerable, and that governments would attempt to ‘ensure that marginalised groups made progress more quickly than the average’.96

Significantly, the stand alone and crossing cutting goal with a focus on gender (SDG 5) was agreed – a ground breaking achievement. That said, Agenda 2030 does not adequately recognise that women and girls experience specific obstacles to meeting targets as a result of structural and power relations such as those that present barriers to women’s employment prospects and pathways to decent work.97

Further, despite concerted advocacy efforts, while SDG 5 is strong on a wide range of gender issues, its focus on education is minimal – implied rather than overt. Global attention on gender and education in the MDGs focussed mainly on parity for girls in primary and secondary education and utilised enrolment data rather than progression and completion. While progress was made, little space was available for informal and nonformal education, including adult and community learning (ALE), especially at national/government level – something that is being repeated in Agenda 2030 & SDG 4’s focus on ‘lifelong learning’ (LLL).

Agenda 2030’s ‘Leave No-one Behind’ commitment provides a platform to advance issues significant for women and girls in a range of other goals and targets where there is no specific provision (or indicators). Agenda 2030 explicitly states that goals must be met for all people and segments of society, in all countries. By referencing specific groups (including women), who should not experience exclusion (social, economic or political), it also affords the space to argue for policy and financing to provide education and learning opportunities for marginalised women (and other vulnerable groups). Moreover, this requires countries to both collect disaggregated data and to disaggregate all data.

Stuart & Woodroffe state that: The Leave No-one Behind approach ... implies a requirement not just to mainstream a gender analysis across all goals, but also to do the same for groups marginalised by income, race, age discrimination, disability and other areas. ... (T)he concept also ...stress(es) the need to recognise the intersecting disadvantages that many women experience, and so acknowledge the specific barriers that must be addressed.98

96 Stuart, E. & Woodroffe, J., 2016, p Cit. p.70
97 Ibid, p.72
98 Ibid, p.74
The ‘Leave No-one Behind’ approach is illustrative of a social inclusion approach. It recognises gender (SDG 5) as a cross cutting goal, given the acknowledged relative disadvantage and/or marginalisation of women and girls in multiple spheres of public and private life, viz: -

**Evidence on global gender gaps**

Source: CFR (2017); FAO Gender and Land Rights, and IPU databases; ILO (2018b); Munoz Boudec et al. (2018); Neumayer and Plümper (2007); UNDP (2013); UNICEF (2016); UN Women (2018); WHO (2013); WHO and UNICEF (2017).

Source: United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and UN Women, 2018, Gender equality as an accelerator for achieving the Sustainable Development Goals. Discussion paper. P.53

With its central aim of eradicating poverty, *Agenda 2030*’s ‘pro-poor’ approach assumes inclusion as critical for marginalised and vulnerable groups living in poverty. Poverty is not gender neutral; its impact is cumulative given the many other factors that shape the lives of women especially. According to UN Women, the portion of women and girls aged 15-49 living in slums99 (2003-2016) in Indonesia is almost 50 per cent100.

99 SDG indicator 11.1.1 classifies ‘slum household’ as households that meet at least one out of five listed criteria: (1) Lack of access to improved water source, (2)
Indonesia, with China and Philippines, is home to cities with the highest numbers of urban poor in the region\textsuperscript{101}, with 53.7 per cent of its total population being urban dwellers. The urban poor comprise 36 per cent of Indonesians living in poverty, with the number of urban poor expected to surpass that of rural poor by 2030. They are characterised by low education, low skills, low wage labor or informal sector jobs, insecure housing and limited access to infrastructure and services\textsuperscript{102}.

Gender differences are among the most important for understanding how poverty is experienced differently with compounding inequalities making women and girls more vulnerable to poverty across their life cycles. Gender differences in labour force participation and employment impact on women’s ability to access and manage resources. Women are more likely to be employed informally, experience lower pay & benefits from paid work, are taxed differently, carry the burden of unpaid care work and in many countries still carry deficits (increased in low income families) through lower educational investment in them early in their lives\textsuperscript{103}. This burden is often exacerbated by age. As argued by UN Women: When women are poor, their rights are not protected. They face obstacles that may be extraordinarily difficult to overcome. This results in deprivation in their own lives and losses for the broader society and economy, as women’s productivity is well known as one of the greatest generators of economic dynamism\textsuperscript{104}.

**Gender and intersectionality: towards inclusion**

In accordance with the design of the 17 SDGs as ‘integrated and indivisible’ – each and all critical for achieving overall results and the commitment to ensure that no one is left behind; that no goal is considered met unless met for all, action requires national anti-discrimination policy agendas with a focus on intersectionality that will actively seek to prioritise and fast track actions that go beyond a ‘trickle down’ agenda to reduce inequalities among both individuals (vertical) and groups (horizontal)\textsuperscript{105} marginalised through discrimination, geography, governance, socio-economic status &/or shocks and fragility\textsuperscript{106}.

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\textsuperscript{101} Baker, J.L. & Gadell, G.U. (Eds.).\hspace{0.1cm}2017, *East Asia and Pacific Countries: Expanding opportunities for the urban poor.* Urban Development Series. World Bank, Washington, D.C. p xv–xvi

\textsuperscript{102} Ibid, p. 59


The concept of intersectionality is utilised to illuminate both the diversity and potential cumulative impact of multiple identities encapsulated with/in the overarching category ‘women’ (‘gender and, and, and’). Intersectionality makes visible and accounts for multiple interlocking identities, relative sociocultural power and privilege and the interconnectedness of various systems of oppression in women’s lives. Rather than relying on an analysis of gender alone, approaches based on intersectionality enrich and expand data by engaging critically with the reality ‘… that oppression is not a singular process or a binary political relation, but is better understood as constituted by multiple, converging, or interwoven systems’[^107]. The complexity of this is evident in the following representation:

![Common Forms of Discrimination Faced by Women and Girls](image)

Source: UN Women, 2018a, Turning Promised Into action: Gender equality in the 2030 Agenda, p.16

Women living in poverty provides one example where attention to intersectionality is necessary. Poverty impacts women differently, dependent on their situational and life histories. For example, there are various dimensions of urban poverty that affect poor urban women, especially female-headed households, including reduced access to social capital, health services, education and the labour market. This is reinforced by findings of a 2016 study in South Asia that, despite the assumption that urban planning and infrastructure provision could act as important mechanisms to embed SDGs in national and provincial plans and policies, gender was generally not considered as an important factor, that there is a disconnect between urban planning and gender-inclusive policies. For those who experience working poverty, being in a paid job is not sufficient alone to escape poverty. Moreover, gender patterns are complex: ‘while women constitute a higher share of the low-wage workforce, they are more likely than men...to be supplementing another household income and therefore contributing to the household’s efforts to escape poverty’.

In Asia and the Pacific, many women (and girls) are engaged in the informal economy, which is both gender-segregated and hierarchical. It is well recognised that ‘women tend to concentrate at the lower end of employment, even in the informal economy, particularly as unpaid family workers, or engaged in domestic work, home or home-based work, or survivalist micro-enterprises’, reinforced in many cases by women’s preference to work in and/or near their homes where both reproductive and productive work can be combined. However, such work does not provide women with appropriate benefits, protection or rights. While it was considered that informal, small-scale activities would be formalised and absorbed into mainstream economic activity as countries developed, this has not eventuated.

The ILO contends that:

...the global challenges of informality and working poverty are also rooted (often organizationally and culturally) in patterns of sectoral and occupational sex segregation, which systemically constrain the opportunities open to women to gain access to better jobs. This suggests that tackling the labour market challenges confronting women will require not only efforts by governments, employers and trade unions to bridge the gap in the labour market, but also initiatives to

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112 Ibid, p.7

113 Ibid, p.4-5
dismantle the unequal demands that women face.\textsuperscript{114}

Intersectionality assists in enhancing the visibility of people with disabilities (PwD) – amongst the most marginalised individuals and groups. A comparative study by UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS) provides the first in-depth analysis of available data from 49 countries relating to education and disability. It confirms that persons with disabilities are amongst the most marginalised population groups. The study advises that:

- Persons with disabilities are less likely to ever attend school, more likely to be out of school and that they tend to have fewer years of education than persons without disabilities. They are less likely to complete primary or secondary education and are less likely to possess basic literacy.

- Persons with disabilities between the ages of 15 to 29 are less likely to have attended school and have lower literacy skills than those without in almost all of the 37 countries. The largest gaps are found in Viet Nam 2009 (44 vs. 97 %), Egypt 2006 (43 vs. 89 %) and Indonesia 2010 (53 vs. 98 %);

- In all 25 countries with relevant data, the adult literacy rate for those with disabilities is lower than for other adults. The gap ranges from 5 % in Mali to 41 % in Indonesia, where the vast majority of adults without disabilities (93 per cent) have basic literacy skills, compared to only half (52 %) of adults with disabilities;

- The data also reveal that women with disabilities are often less likely to reap the benefits of a formal education than disabled men – marginalised not only by their disability but also by their gender. In most countries, men with disabilities have higher literacy rates than women with disabilities.\textsuperscript{115}

In relation to women with disabilities, the study states:

The data in this study also reveal that disabled women are often less likely to reap the benefits of a formal education than disabled men, thus suffering doubly by virtue of being female and a person with a disability. The observed disadvantage of disabled persons is likely to be intensified in combination with other factors of exclusion linked to location, poverty, and other personal and household characteristics.\textsuperscript{116}

Some of the prevalent forms of discrimination that intersect with gender and contribute further to marginalisation (poverty, disability, sexual orientation & gender identity, religion, indigeneity, race/ethnicity, caste, age) may be called on to identify vulnerable groups and individuals. However, in the absence of reliable disaggregated data assumptions are open to challenge. Moreover, there is variation between and within regions, countries and place.

In responding to answer the question: ‘Who are the marginalised women?’ in ASPB&E’s two country studies, different approaches were taken by each, based on

\textsuperscript{114} International Labour Office (ILO), 2018b Op.Cit, p.12


\textsuperscript{116} Ibid, p 30
knowledge of each particular context. Each of the two CSOs overseeing the research in their respective country for ASPBAE came to the research with widely respected long-term experience in working with specific groups of marginalised women. For Azad in the India country study it was poor urban women, mainly young, learning for work in a non-traditional industry - transport. In Indonesia, PEKKA’s focus was on women headed households. The rationale for each enabled the researchers to shine a light on issues relating to skill development for these two selected groups of marginalised women, within their respective contexts.

**The India study**
The groups most often described as marginalised in literature pertaining to India are women, people with disabilities, scheduled castes (Dalits), scheduled tribes, elderly and aged people, children, and sexual minorities. The India study, based on an extensive review of secondary data and in line with the project objectives, reports:

The Exploratory Study commissioned by ASPBAE in 2016 to better understand policy and provisioning (both State and NGOs) for skills training for women in the informal sector in India, based on available secondary data. It surfaced challenges about adequate and reliable data for various aspects of women’s work in the informal sector in India, e.g. labour policies, provisioning for education and skills training and its intersection with access to resources, poverty and social marginalization.

For this study, marginalised women refers to women who are left out or pushed to the sidelines by the fact of any one or the intersection of factors such as gender, age, education or non-education/educational attainment, status as single or married or divorced, economic status, geographical location, caste, religion, and so on.

In keeping with Azad’s work, it also focuses on marginalised women working or interested in work in non-traditional livelihoods (NTL) - livelihood practices that help women break stereotypes emerging from the intersections of gender, caste, class, religion, sexual orientation, disabilities and other marginalities and oppressive structures. NTL has the potential to increase choices relating to viable livelihood options available to women and enhancing access and control over skills, technology, market, mobility and resources.117

**The Indonesia Study** approached the challenge from a different stance, identifying four ways of marginalisation identified during the research process, reporting that:

Interviews with multiple stakeholders found that different skill-building and vocational training programs catered to three target groups: the public in general, women, and marginalised women. The general public includes men and women who are farmers and fisher folk. ... The second target group is women in general. ... (F)urther, there are several programs that target marginalised women. The following section analyses the four ways of marginalisation identified during the research process.

- **Socially marginalised women** - women (who are) socially and economically vulnerable ...(T)his category includes those with disabilities, elderly women, survivors/victims of trafficking,

former prisoners, former commercial sex workers and transgender people. It also includes communities prone to disasters and climate change ….

- **Economically marginalised women:** materially poor; those who have less than the minimum standard of living a decent life. … As poverty is seen from a material lens, the resulting programs are designed to improve business skills, increase income and family welfare, and provide capital assistance by developing cooperatives and offering production equipment. …

- **Marginalised women based on size of their businesses.** … This includes women running micro and small-sized businesses with limited capital, home based industries, and poor women without jobs or businesses. …

- **Marginalised women working in the formal & informal sectors**

Marginalised women in this category work in factories (formal sector), and as homeworkers (informal sector) - based on the extent to which they earn a decent salary. … These women are at risk of discrimination, have no protection, and vulnerable to gender-based harassment or violence\(^ {118} \).

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**Summary**

Each country study highlights different (and multiple) aspects of intersectionality that compound (and categorise) many women’s marginalised status. Apart from illustrating the significance of intersectionality in the challenging and complex task of identifying who the marginalised women are in any one context and place at any one time, this section also demonstrates how the role of the state/s and institutions come into play, and so the critical element of political will to combat marginalisation, poverty and exclusion. Through informed and pro-active decisions made, resourced and enacted at global/regional/national/locals levels, measures can be implemented to identify and address marginalised groups and populations. Again, this highlights the critical need for robust data.
4: POLICIES, PROVISIONS AND FINANCING OPTIONS FOR SKILL BUILDING

Introduction

Education is (very) big business. ‘The global education marketplace has been valued at approximately $5 trillion a year’\textsuperscript{119}. The institution of education has been firmly located within globalised and globalising policy regimes since the mid 20\textsuperscript{th} century, when it became a key arena of activity for international organisations and policy makers. As contended by Mundy et al, this was the beginning of a new ‘era for global policy-making in education, opening the way to a proliferation of bilateral, multilateral and non-government efforts to influence and transform education systems and set global education standards’\textsuperscript{120} at a time when neoliberalism was in early ascent.

Verger et al argue that globalisation should be taken seriously, given the multiple ways it affects education and education policy-making, with global mechanisms of influence exerted through imposition, harmonisation, dissemination and standardisation\textsuperscript{121}. They describe it as a terrain - the new ‘contexts of contexts’ where the problems to be addressed by education policy are defined while simultaneously the capacity of states to respond is altered. The authors have identified nine impacts of globalisation on education policy. As most if not all of them are relevant to the key themes of this research, it is worth listing them, albeit in an abbreviated form:

- It generates the problems that education needs to fix;
- It alters the capacity of welfare states to address education and non-education problems via education policy, as well as the state’s capacity to provide and finance education directly in the context of increasing and changing educational demand;
- It revitalises the role of international agencies in the making of education policy;
- This revitalised role contributes to the ‘deterritorialisation’ of the education policy process and to the national territory losing its centrality in the process;
- As neoliberalism is the dominant political-economic ideology globally, its logics and mechanisms impact the provision and funding of education;
- As well as their role in formulation and dissemination of education policies, some international organisations also have the capacity to transform the legal frameworks of member countries, and by so doing, change ‘the rules of the game’ through which policies are formulated;
- Advances in ICTs allow the intensification of the international circulation of policy ideas and the constitution of new policy networks;
- Globalisation creates a transnational market of education

\textsuperscript{120} Mundy, K.; Green, A.; Lingard, B. & Verger, A. (Eds.), 2016, The handbook of global education policy. John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.
\texttt{https://www.academia.edu/35418288/Global_Education_Policy_and_International_Development_A_Revisited_Introduction}
provision that complements and/or competes against national education providers (including the state); and finally

- Globalisation also fosters the organisation of transnational social justice movements that struggle for the realisation of education as a global public good and endorse it as a human right.\(^{122}\)

Globalisation continues to generate the conditions for policy to be organised transnationally by international actors while making the organisation of transnational policy networks ever more pressing; 'it is a strategically selective and conflicting terrain for educational policy-making that is more conducive to certain policy ideas and political actors than others.\(^{123}\)

Policy decisions coalesced around what came known as the ‘new managerialism’, with standardization of national systems of educational governance, the rise of new systems of privatisation, marketisation and accountability regimes. This hybrid policy configuration or network is now populated by ever more diverse global and regional institutions and non-state actors\(^{124}\), each seeking to influence global education polices for individual and group-based collective ends. This reform agenda has eroded the notion of education as a public good; rather it is now firmly located as a critical component in the imagining and shaping of global futures – of resolving global problems, translating into economic growth and innovation.

**Privatisation and financing education**

... it is important to note that the global privatization agenda is not only about promoting the adoption of specific policies and practices; it is broader in scope and, in fact, politically more ambitious than that. Its main aim is to promote a drastic and paradigmatic change both in the goals of education systems (putting global competitiveness, and economic efficiency at the center of state priorities in education) and in the expected role of the state in education (from a provider state to an evaluative state). Inevitably, once such a paradigmatic change becomes more broadly institutionalized, more policy-makers worldwide will be more receptive to the adoption of particular privatization measures, especially to those that fit better within the new goals and globally accepted forms of education provision (Verger, 2014, pp24-25\(^{125}\))

While privatisation and marketisation are central components of the neoliberal ideology along with small government, deregulation, free markets and user choice, its impact on is education was to transform it into a quasi-market place. The intent of competition was to shift

\(^{122}\) Ibid., p.6


\(^{124}\) For example, OECD, World Trade Organisation (WTO), the World Bank (WB), World Economic Forum (WEF), ILO, ASEAN, the European Union (EU), the Group of 8 (G8), the Group of 20 (G20); publishing conglomerates such as Pearson; philanthropies linked to transnational corporate actors like the Gates and Walton Foundations, private companies claiming to be philanthropies yet building education conglomerates, such as Chan Zuckerberg Initiative, the Omidyar Network, and the Emerson Collective, along with UNESCO and many transnational educational businesses, INGO & development agencies, et al.

https://www.tc.columbia.edu/cice/pdf/33064_16_2_Antoni_Verger.pdf
costs where possible from the state into markets for education, including user pays systems. The logic of this was packaged as expanded choice and a way in which to boost efficiency. While privatisation in education is now a global phenomenon, it also has multiple manifestations. Education’s status as a public good has been heavily eroded, as has funding, with education budgets regularly politicised. This market has now been populated by numerous actors, each and all with their own agendas, who come together at different levels for policy formulation – global to national and sub national, as powerful ‘stakeholders’. This includes a shift to privatisation in relation to key educational indicators, including financing and provision. As mentioned earlier, the business of education is now big business. This shift has impacted quality, decentered control in various significant aspects of policy making, and has not resulted in the quality improvement anticipated. One of the lasting and serious effects is that on equity issues in education. As stated by Verger et al:

... privatization policies tend to generate opposition and political dispute. Significant education stakeholders see privatization as a key challenge to the conception of education as a basic human right and a public good. Further, privatization is a policy that runs the risk of undermining educational equity, and whose presupposed benefits—whether in terms of efficiency or quality gains—have not been empirically and rigorously tested globally.126

The process of privatisation also changes the manner in which education services are coordinated, financed and controlled, with public moneys being transferred to the private sector. While privatisation need not result in states losing ownership of education per se, it tends to manifest especially at service provision and delivery levels. Indeed, India is being viewed as ‘a sort of laboratory where many philanthropists actively promote privatisation in different ways’127. This includes Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) presence and funds, now established as ‘a new global norm that legitimizes the increasing presence of the business sector in education networks globally, and especially in the Global South’.128

According to Verger et al, privatisation in education is happening by default in numerous low-income countries, with private providers meeting new demands in the absence of government provision. They describe it thus:

A range of nongovernmental actors, including private corporations, private foundations, philanthropists, think tanks, and the media are increasingly active in the promotion of different forms of education privatization worldwide. Indeed, a state-centered approach is no longer appropriate to understand education privatization reforms, not only due to the globalization of educational politics, but also because nonstate actors are increasingly active in multiple policy domains, including education policy. Recent transformations in the organization of the state and the emergence of forms of governance by networks have contributed to an increasing presence of private actors and private interests within public policy processes. It is no coincidence that in the


127 Ibid, p.149
128 Ibid, p.150
different education policy spaces where they participate, these private actors tend to be eager to advocate education privatization and marketization\textsuperscript{129}.

There is now a crowded market place of education providers and services, that will be very difficult if not impossible to retreat from, other than through re-regulation and accountability mechanisms. The lack of robust data around financing for education, and for accountability purposes is of major concern. Privatisation flows into the privatisation of education policy – privatisation through education\textsuperscript{130}.

Increasingly, governments, international organizations (IOs), donors, and philanthropic entities are converging around the idea that the involvement of the private sector in education systems is inevitable and, to some extent, desirable. … the assumption that the private sector can contribute to the positive development of education systems has become a sort of global norm that, for different reasons, is being increasingly embraced by key education stakeholders. This is an important normative change with significant implications for the way that education systems are governed worldwide\textsuperscript{131}.

However, global policy governance, while powerful in its discursive practices and funding regimes, can be and is mediated and adapted within regional and then national and subnational socio-political and economic contexts, with many being described described as ‘stubbornly local’. Education policies are shaped by multiple interacting forces; vertical (top down) such as the global agenda setting policy networks, and also horizontal networks of diverse policy communities from state actors to business interests and civil society organisations. A recent OECD report states that the extent to which individuals, companies and economies will be able to benefit from changes underway is dependent on the readiness of each country’s adult learning system, finding that many are insufficiently prepared for the challenges ahead; that ‘no adult learning system is perfect and all countries face challenges\textsuperscript{132}.

Spaces for advocacy exist, so it is important that counter-narratives ‘for promoting and imagining forms of education conducive to democratic transformation of social relations and achieving equitable and sustainable futures’ \textsuperscript{133} are inserted. This requires challenging and shifting the dominant understanding of who/what comprises ‘stakeholders’, to enhance inclusion, especially that of CSO representation as equal partners. The contemporary scenario of disruption and turbulent change highlighted in Section 2 provides both an insight into global futures and, to a degree, illuminates strategic spaces for intervention.

The World Economic Forum (WEF) is an exemplar of a conglomerate of powerful global/transnational corporate actors shaping global governance and so influencing education policy. Although the power of global governance will continue under its new badging as ‘Globalisation 4.0’, the 2019 WEF meeting discussed the need ‘to put in place a

\textsuperscript{129} Ibid, p. 137
\textsuperscript{130} Ibid, p.177
\textsuperscript{131} Ibid, p.177
\textsuperscript{133} Saltman, K.J. & Means, A.J. (Eds.), 2019, The Wiley handbook of global education reform Op Cit. p.8
normative framework for global system change’ based on seven norms, viz: -

- A collaborative approach of global governance that is respectful of multipolarity and diversity;
- The new global system should be more stakeholder-based;
- Our system should be more sustainable;
- Our system should be more inclusive;
- Our system should be more gender-balanced;
- It should be more human-centric;
- Our future global system should be more ethically based\(^\text{134}\) .

While this is in line with the ‘inclusive' sentiment underpinning Agenda 2030, to be implemented such a framework would require major global shifts to ‘equalise up’. As explained by Seth: -

Policy frameworks on inclusive growth ... have rarely called into question current models of production or proposed macro-level policies and structural reforms necessary to correct the distributional bias of growth. ... If growth is to be inclusive and gender-equitable ...\(^\text{(t)}\)his will require policymakers to rethink the role of macro-level policies (trade, industrial, macroeconomic, finance and investment) since these affect the distribution of income, assets and other resources, which in turn have feedback effects on the whole economy\(^\text{135}\).

While agreeing with the argument, and given how slow change towards gender equality is, to equalise up presents a profound challenge.

**Skills development and the global policy agenda/s**

It is well recognised that technical and vocational skills development is an area of significance in the Education 2030 Agenda as it is in SDG4. It is also recognised that mobilising the means to fund this ambitious agenda, and indeed all of Agenda 2030, is a matter of increasing international, regional and national concern. The Beirut Consensus on Financing for Development (FfD) recognised that the international financial system is not generating the volume of long-term financing required to meet the SDGs. At that meeting, there were calls to reconsider the ‘private sector first’ attitude towards development finance, re-affirming the centrality of public policies; that ‘a public concession to incentivize the private sector should be reciprocated with accountability to avert ‘socializing risks while privatizing or guaranteeing private benefits’\(^\text{136}\).

The market place for skills development is now well established, with mixed outcomes. The private sector is positioned as a key stakeholder and contributor to TVET and skills development broadly, both supplementing and utilising (often diminishing) public funds through a variety of mechanisms, including user pays. There is a countless plethora of skills development courses in most countries, from formal apprenticeships to work place learning to community based non-formal non-accredited provision. Quality varies as does the status and recognition of the

\(^{134}\) Schwab, K., 2019, ‘Our global system has spun out of control. Here’s how to rebalance it’ World Economic Forum. 05 February 2019 https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2019/02/how-to-rebalance-our-global-system/


learning undertaken. Some are linked to work experience and job opportunities, many are not. For marginalised groups including women and girls, for those seeking to ‘get a foot on the ladder’, and/or improve their life opportunities, this variation in cost and efficacy of skills development is of great concern.

The UN’s recent report *World economic situation and prospects 2019* highlights three critical areas for action to reduce inequality and urban/rural divides: broadening access to education; employment policies that include social protection clauses to raise living standards of lower income earners and prioritising public and private investment in rural infrastructure. The skilling agenda is central to this scenario. It is argued increasingly that skill development for nations and individuals must be a lifelong pursuit, given rapidly transforming economies and labour markets and the ongoing need for both economic growth and reduction in inequality and poverty. The future of work means ‘learning to re-learn’.

Here yet again, education, skills and the future of work are interlinked in the pursuit of ‘inclusive’ futures. Within this scenario, policies based on human capital theory are re/gaining traction: ‘Whatever the future holds, investment in human capital is a no-regrets policy that prepares people for the challenges ahead’.

This approach is evident in the World Bank’s depiction of the integrated policy environment, linking the effects of technology on skills and business and policy intervention with social inclusion and the ‘new social contract’ discussed earlier:

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**Responding to the changing nature of work**

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effects of technology</th>
<th>Changing skills</th>
<th>New business models</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public policy</td>
<td>manage the direction and effects of change</td>
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<tr>
<td>Policy</td>
<td>Invest in human capital</td>
<td>Strengthen social protection</td>
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<td>Social inclusion</td>
<td>Effective service provision, fair taxation regulation, voice</td>
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<tr>
<td>Goal</td>
<td>Prepared people, competitive markets, new social contract</td>
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Sakamoto and Sung’s statement locates skill development firmly in the systems based global policy context of inclusive growth. While this is lengthy, it demonstrates the intent of skills development systems that underpin the policies, provision and financing central to ASPBAE’s research: -

The pursuit of inclusive growth and examining the role of skills in that process have important policy implications. If skills development is to have a significant impact on achieving inclusive growth, we need to address not just “who gets access to training” but also pay greater attention to how skills, supplied by the skills development system, are used and how they help create better employment and business outcomes. There is a big assumption that having relevant skills naturally leads to better jobs with improved wages and working conditions or, similarly, that having employees with the right skill sets leads to improved productivity. The impact of skills on these employment and business outcomes are not automatic. What is missing is a perspective that skills do not exist in a vacuum and that the impact of skills is mediated by the context or conditions of work\textsuperscript{140}.

Global/regional drivers and respective national contexts will impact decisions made at country level about how to adapt their education and employment systems. This is a complex scenario for policy design, provision and financing for skill building. However, by mapping it, places for interventions become visible. A recent study into the implications of technological and other changes in India’s workforce, based on an assumption that ‘an inclusive future of work must create decent jobs, which provide individuals with security, income, rights, protection and purpose’ \textsuperscript{141} devised a useful framework illustrating the interplay of various key factors that must be considered in policy design and implementation, viz: -


This, then, is the context in which education for skills building and development is located. Moreover, it is further situated in a plethora of regulatory jurisdictions and frameworks linking education and work. Labour market regulation is a significant example, given the links between SDGs 4 (education) and 8 (decent work) and the intent of the ‘No-one left behind’ agenda. Labour market regulations bring into tension the interplay between orthodox economics and ILO’s Decent Work Agenda, where the challenge for legal instruments is to ‘strike the right balance between growth, employment and worker protection’ \(^{142}\). As pointed out by Lee and McCann, ‘a widespread disjuncture between labour force participation patterns and regulatory frameworks is helping to generate precarious forms of employment’ that include the most vulnerable groups of workers—especially women\(^{143}\).

**The SDGs, lifelong learning and and skill development**

The central tenet of Sustainable Development Goal 4 is that of lifelong learning for all. This includes skill development dispersed through time (life cycles) and across education sectors as depicted below\(^{144}\): - 

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\(^{143}\) Ibid pp2-3

Despite SDG4’s focus on lifelong learning (LLL), take up of LLL frameworks is patchy at best, with divisions between the various sectors of education driving policies that are still often ‘silo-based’. As discussed in the previous section, work-related education including skill building or skill development is most often categorised as vocational learning and so either encapsulated under or closely linked with Technical and Vocational Education and Training.

TVET is positioned as the institutional bridge to directly link learning, education and training with the world of work through skills development. In practice, this is based on the needs of (big) industry demand, government forecasts and, at national levels, existing institutional arrangements. The stakeholder range here is limited and hierarchical, with representation of educators (where this exists) wielding less power in decision making than industry and related industry bodies and labour market representatives. Input from or consultation with CSOs or communities is rare. Given this, the meta-discourses of governance, regulation and funding of TVET (global and national) impact on and shape policies, implementation and practices at national and local levels.

Although a key component of lifelong learning, adult learning and education, including non-formal and informal learning and community/place-based activities, is low in the hierarchy of influence in education broadly as it is in TVET. This is despite its positive impact on and significant contributions to societies, economies and cultural life; individuals, families, and communities. Investment in ALE remains relatively low. Its relegated ‘Cinderella’ status has been apparent since the late C20, directly associated with the introduction and increase of neoliberal policies in education, and the associated focus on ‘skill’ – learning for employment, the labour market, the economy and the nation state.
The provision of skill development programs based on the needs of participants and local communities is a significant part of the work of ALE, with many programs (accredited and non accredited, formal, non formal and informal) being delivered at local levels. By accommodating a complex mix of learner centred needs rather than focussing primarily on labour market needs, ALE programs provide pathways to income earning opportunities, to work and/or further learning activities. Programs have the potential to enhance self-esteem, social inclusion and employability skills. This is especially significant for marginalised and vulnerable groups, for whom accessing training is problematic.

GRALE III’s 2016 report on ALE’s impact on health and well-being, employment and the labour market along with social, civic and community life found that while progress had been made in policy, especially relating to literacy and basic skills, challenges remained in the areas of access and participation rates, quality and data availability. A further three significant challenges identified for ALE remain relevant to this report:

- Financing (inadequate and misdirected funding with 42% of countries spending less than 1% of their education budgets on ALE);
- Poor inter-departmental and cross-sectoral collaboration and
- Inequity in the way women’s education and qualifications are supported and valued.

Policy implications highlighted by the 2016 report remain as relevant as they were in 2016:

- GRALE III underlines three overarching policy implications. Firstly, countries need to remember that ALE is an indispensable component of education, and that education is a fundamental and enabling human right. Secondly, they need to see ALE as an integral dimension of a balanced life course. Thirdly, they need to view ALE as part of a holistic, intersectoral sustainable development agenda with the potential to offer multiple benefits and lasting impact.

- OECD data indicate that coverage in adult learning is improving in recent years, suggesting that the rhetoric of broadening lifelong learning is translating into action on the ground, even if further progress is required. Acknowledging that there will be differences in policy priorities across countries OECD identifies some general policy directions across broad areas: ‘inclusiveness; aligning adult learning with skill needs; the quality of training; financing and governance.

While progress (including through Agenda 2030) is evident, as long as ALE remains relatively marginalised within the institution of education, policy makers and practitioners within the ALE sector continue to have less influence or power to impact mainstream policy development or appropriate relative mainstream funding. ALE does have strong links with many in the development and social sectors, where the value of the work done

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145 UNESCO Institute for Lifelong Learning (UIL), 2016, Third Global Report on Adult Learning and Education: The Impact of Adult Learning and Education on Health and Well-Being; Employment and the Labour Market; and Social, Civic and Community Life. (GRALE 3) UIL. http://uil.unesco.org/adult-education/global-

146 Ibid, p. 20


148 Ibid, pp. 15-16
is respected. However, this, along with the status of ALE, results in less secure, less predictable and often short cycle funding, much of it project based, along with a scattergun approach with funding being made available from a wide variety of sources.

**Skill development, TVET and learning for (decent) work**

Education continues to be directed to accommodating the ever-changing demands of global markets, with current focus shifting to (so-called) ‘21st century skills’. TVET is the sector charged with responsibility for training and so skill development for employment, given its links with industry and labour market demands for skilled workers. This responsibility has been accompanied by a global focus on the capacity enhancement and transformation of TVET for more than three decades now. Despite that, many TVET systems remain unwieldy and struggle to meet demands both in an ever-changing world and for diverse participants - learners and ‘stakeholders’.

The global UNESCO TVET strategy formally adopted in 2016 centres the intent of *Agenda 2030* and sits alongside *Education 2030 Framework for Action* that includes attention to technical and vocational skills development, specifically regarding access to affordable quality TVET and the acquisition of technical and vocational skills for employment, decent work and entrepreneurship along with the elimination of gender disparity and ensuring access for the vulnerable. As stated in the UNESCO Strategy:

> TVET is expected to address the multiple demands of an economic, social and environmental nature by helping youth and adults develop the skills they need for employment, decent work and entrepreneurship, promoting equitable, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, and supporting transitions to green economies and environmental sustainability.\(^\text{149}\)

The increasing significance of TVET is reinforced in the report on the review of TVET in Asia Pacific: (w)ith the new Agenda, technical and vocational education and training (TVET) has been placed at the heart of ensuring “inclusive and equitable quality education and promot[ing] lifelong learning opportunities for all” SDG4.\(^\text{150}\)

Rather than adopting a narrow limiting focus on training, the UNESCO reconceptualisation of TVET is cross sectoral and inclusive of formal and nonformal education and training and skills development delivered in a variety of contexts. It is cognisant of lifelong learning (LLL) being central to learning for work; relevant to both the formal and the informal economies and embraces a multi-stakeholder approach. This is described and depicted visually thus:

Technical and vocational education and training (TVET) is understood as comprising education, training and skills development relating to a wide range of occupational fields, production, services and livelihoods. TVET, as part of lifelong learning, can take place at secondary, post-secondary and tertiary levels and

includes work-based learning and continuing training and professional development, which may lead to qualifications. TVET also includes a wide range of skills development opportunities attuned to national and local contexts. Learning to learn, the development of literacy and numeracy skills, transversal skills and citizenship skills are integral components of TVET.\(^{151}\)

Despite this broader definition, most national TVET strategies remain more ‘traditional’ in their conceptualisation and regulation, focused more on the needs of the economy, big business and demand/supply issues for the labour market. In turn, this is reproduced through governance and policy mechanisms, including resourcing. This is problematic for the funding and recognition of the multitude of skills development activities that are spread across the wide terrain of lifelong learning as described in UNESCO’s definition of TVET.

While the new global agreement for TVET is relatively recent, transformation at national TVET systems levels and so opportunities for skill development for marginalised groups remain slow and uneven. Strategies are written in gender-neutral language, albeit perhaps with some specific clauses and provisions that focus on women and girls that may or may not be implemented, resourced, monitored or evaluated. Gender equitable work-related education and training requires both recognition of the ways in which inequalities intersect and interrelate and then the design, implementation and testing of multifaceted strategies to progress gender equality. In turn, this requires strategies and interventions informed by knowledge of gendered relationships reproduced through structurally and systemically entrenched inequalities between women and men, with the capacity to accommodate the complexity and differences of women’s and girls’ lives.

Skills building, including upgrading skills for women (and men) in the informal economy or vulnerable work, is a ‘key channel to improve productivity and incomes’ as well as acting as a support mechanism for pathways from informal to decent work.\(^{152}\) However, as recognised by ILO: -

... a multitude of challenges must be overcome at policy, institutional and micro levels to enable skills training to improve productivity of enterprises, the employability and competences of workers, and contribute to their integration into the formal economy.\(^{153}\) Contributing to skills development for workers in the informal economy is an important role for vocational education and training. Wheelahan and Moodie argue that:

Vocational education can make a major contribution to increasing social and economic justice and advancing social and economic inclusion and mobility by being invested in areas and groups with the greatest need. An important area of need largely overlooked by vocational education as much as other formal social

\(^{151}\) UNESCO (GC) 2015. UNESCO General Conference (GC) 38th Session, 3-15 November 2015. 38/C32. Item 7.6 Proposal for the revision of the 2001 revised recommendation concerning TVET UNESCO. https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000234137


\(^{153}\) Ibid, Section 7.2 ‘Enhancing skills and employability: facilitating access to the formal economy’. p.2
services, is supporting the development of skills in the informal economy\textsuperscript{154}.

Such provision rarely appears in mainstream vocational education and training policy development and less so in practice, with transition pathways from informal and nonformal (often community based) education also being highly problematic.

Best practice programs such as those included in the India Study as case studies\textsuperscript{155} that optimise outcomes of work-related education and training do not focus solely on a narrow set of technical skills. Rather, they develop and utilise holistic approaches that start where the participants ‘are at’, to maximise learning. A combination base of at least three skill-based domains is required: the knowledge base of practice; the technical base of practice and also the attributes (including self confidence and agency) needed for transition to and retention in the job/occupation.

In turn, this needs to be encompassed with/in an educative program that provides information to enhance and support transition of the participants into their wider socio-cultural, political and economic contexts, from a position of marginalisation to that of citizen. While such an holistic approach has been demonstrated to provide the best outcomes for women in general, it is especially important for those entering ‘non-traditional’ male dominated fields of work.

and from a societal (and individual) perspective,

- To support social inclusion and widen access to education and work, especially for disadvantaged learner/students from marginalised groups.\textsuperscript{156}

They argue further that, as vocational education has ‘a compelling social rationale’\textsuperscript{157}, vocational education’s employment purpose includes:

- Awarding qualifications that are well recognised in the formal economy;
- That the qualifications should prepare graduates for further study in their chosen field, as well as
- Acting as an enabler to broader complementary fields.

**Measuring work-related learning: gender issues in accountability**

‘Data is what drives resources towards development. Policy makers decide where to invest in infrastructure, education and other important aspects of people’s lives by examining data related to poverty and the quality of life.\textsuperscript{158}’ Given the timeline set by *Agenda 2030*, the need for economic and social statistical evidence by sex will become ever more critical. The availability of reliable and informative data not only at system and sector levels, but data that drills down to household level and specifically looks at differences headed by a male or female is one step towards advancing gender equality and social inclusion, but this information can also mask deeper inequalities within households, including the ability of women to access economic and social resources. ADB claims that there is very little data that exposes this mismatch, as most data collection relies on conventional methods, along with the methodological challenges to standardise such data for comparative work.\textsuperscript{159}

Globally, there is a significant gap in such useful and reliable data relating to the inclusion of women and other vulnerable groups access to and participation in work related education and training and its links to decent work. While documenting achievements in vocational education and training of some countries in the region, the 2015 review of progress since 2012 in Asia Pacific conducted with the aim to enhance the relevance of TVET noted uneven progress and persistent challenges that limit both the attractiveness as well as relevance of TVET; that many countries in the region:

- Do not regularly gather data on the labour market;
- Have a low opinion of the efficacy of evidence-based approaches;
- Have made slow progress in ‘greening TVET’, as well as incorporating ICT in TVET and/or adapting training and career support systems to technological change;
- Do not validate, accredit and recognize learning acquired through non-formal and informal channels; and/or
- Do not include key stakeholders in TVET systems and processes.\textsuperscript{160}

In recognition of the inclusive requirements of SDG4, the Review’s expansive list of recommendations

\textsuperscript{157} Ibid, pp 51-53
\textsuperscript{159} Ibid, p.2
\textsuperscript{160} UNESCO, 2016c, *Enhancing Relevance in TVET: Review of Progress in the Asia-Pacific since 2012* Bangkok; Op cit, p.x
includes a specific set under the heading of *Ensure inclusive and equitable TVET*, viz: in small, micro and household enterprises, as well as through community-based and civil society-managed programmes in rural and urban areas\(^1\).

Noting the gender bias in many countries in the region, the report also recommends that: Governments, training providers and other TVET stakeholders (including the private sector) should promote gender-responsive TVET policies and skills development practices, career guidance and counselling, and information to increase girls’ and women’s access to TVET programmes \(^2\).

While such recommendations are commendable, they count for little without reliable disaggregated data to monitor and evaluate implementation, and, beyond that, to inform national policy development and so the allocation of resources. Further, to optimise gender-related data, social and economic impact measurements are important. The breadth of responsibility for the purpose of vocational learning and associated qualifications is not accounted for adequately in the monitoring and evaluation frameworks so important for the collection of data, including that related to *Agenda 2030* generally, and by the new education monitoring framework for SDG4 specifically, despite recognition that under SDG4, all indicators will be disaggregated by sex ‘where possible’, but ‘that for many of the global indicators, further methodological work is needed’\(^3\).

The Global Monitoring Review (GEM)’s 2018 Gender Review acknowledges the challenge, and, drawing on the work of Unterhalter, states:

... the monitoring framework does not go far enough; a complete monitoring framework addressing the challenge of gender equality in education would need to be much broader. Equalizing education opportunities between males and females, notably in terms of participation and learning outcomes, is necessary but not sufficient for realizing gender equality in education. Indicators from at least five more domains are needed to frame the issue: gender norms, values and attitudes (many of which can be influenced through education); institutions outside the education system; laws and policies in education systems; resource distribution; and teaching and learning practices (Unterhalter, 2015)\(^4\).

Participation rates for adult education and training rely heavily on labour force surveys, while those for adult literacy rates are estimated mainly through self-reporting in population surveys. Reliable sex disaggregated data are essential for progressing gender equality through education in general, but such data need to move beyond measuring parity to satisfy issues of gender equality progression, especially for data connected to the inter-related domains that underpin learning for work and access to labour force participation and employment.

While this is recognised in the GEM 2018 Gender report in the following paragraph, action to resolve the lack of data remains elusive:

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\(^1\) Ibid, p. xiii

\(^2\) UNESCO Ibid, p X111


\(^4\) Ibid, p.10
Target 4.4 focuses on skills for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship, a measure that covers a wide scope. The 2016 Global Education Monitoring Report outlined a range of skills that could be included here, but it emphasized that skill requirements were specific to job opportunities, which differ by country. Given the task of identifying skills that (a) are relevant across diverse labour market contexts, (b) are acquired through education and training, and (c) can be measured in a meaningful way at low cost, the SDG monitoring framework has focused on ICT and digital literacy skills.\[165]\[165]

Thus, the challenge is diminished in breadth and depth of data collection, along with a degree of responsibility being reliant on national data collection capacity, political priorities and interest in gender monitoring. The paucity of the indicators for gender sensitive data collection beyond parity figures becomes apparent when considering the associated indicators against which countries will report progress in education for women learning for work.

This is compounded by the lack of capacity (or necessity) for many providers of adult education, whether formal or informal, institution or community based, as it is by the capacity of the TVET/vocational education providers to collect, analyse, use and make accessible reliable sex disaggregated data. For the TVET sector, the cross-sectoral reach of vocational learning programs, and, until recently, a reluctance to measure gender further complicates this.

In an effort to redress the lack of evidence based information available (and the capacity for its collection at national levels to inform progress in the SDGs and so Agenda 2030), a number of global/regional initiatives are being implemented. One such timely example is that of the project EDGE (Evidence and Data for Global Equality), where the UN Statistics Bureau and UN Women are working with partner agencies and pilot countries to integrate gender issues into official statistics in the effort to inform better evidence-based policies. Information is being made available via an online portal (Minimum Set of Gender Indicators\[166\]) that includes information relating to specific fields (including education, economic structures and participation, human rights, health and public life) as well as on a country basis (including Indonesia). The portal includes both qualitative and quantitative data, with very limited quantitative data that is so important available at this stage.

This then is a partial overview of the complex and dynamic scenario in which policies, provision and financing options for skill building are negotiated and implemented. As Saltman and Means state: -

In short, what is at stake in comprehending educational reform today is setting the agenda for educational and social development that serves the interests of civil society and that promotes cultures of intellectuality, self-governance, and egalitarian and sustainable forms of living and being.\[167\]

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165 Ibid, p.18

166 See: [https://genderstats.un.org/#/home](https://genderstats.un.org/#/home) Data mapping, including availability (or not) availability for Indonesia can be accessed at: [https://genderstats.un.org/#/downloads](https://genderstats.un.org/#/downloads) and [https://genderstats.un.org/#/countries](https://genderstats.un.org/#/countries)

167 Ibid, p.2
GENDERED NOTIONS OF SKILL DEVELOPMENT AND ADULT EDUCATION

Introduction: Learning for the labour market: gender disparities in Asia Pacific

Investing in women and girls has a multiplier effect on productivity and sustained economic growth\(^{168}\). The 2016 World Economic Forum (WEF) declared that:

The moral case for gender equality has, in the most part, been won. The business and economic case is also increasingly understood. The Fourth Industrial Revolution now presents an unprecedented opportunity to place women’s equal participation in the workplace at the heart of preparations for the shifts to come\(^{169}\).

Most women work, especially in Asia and the Pacific. Whether the work they do is ‘official’ and so counted or not impacts on both on female labour force participation (FLFP) data and also on their access to opportunities for skill development and decent work. The high amount of informal work (including caring and domestic responsibilities) along with the challenging living conditions experienced by many women (and girls) are factors for consideration\(^{170}\).

Proportion of female urban population living in slums by age group, selected countries in Asia and the Pacific, latest available year (%)


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\(^{168}\) [http://weprinciples.unglobalcompact.org/files/attachments/WEPs_Gap_Analysis_Tool.pdf](http://weprinciples.unglobalcompact.org/files/attachments/WEPs_Gap_Analysis_Tool.pdf)


Before considering gendered notions of skill and adult education, a snapshot of women’s positioning in the labour force in Asia Pacific is informative. While women’s (official) labour force participation has increased in most countries, gender disparity in labour markets continues to prevail globally. Despite earlier increases, there has been little change in the Asia Pacific region over the last 25 years⁷¹:

**Female Labor Force Participation by Region (% of female population aged 15+):**

*Not much change over the last 25 years*

![Graph](image)

Source: ADB, 2015. Women in the Workforce. An unmet potential in Asia and the Pacific. Figure 3. P.3

There are also notable differences in FLFP between countries and economies in the Asia Pacific region:

**Female Labor Force Participation in Asia and the Pacific, 2013:**

*Wide dispersion across economies and subregions*

![Graph](image)

DMC = developing member countries, OECD = Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.

Sources: International Labour Organization (2015); World Bank, World Development Indicators, accessed January 2015.

ADB 2015 Women in the workforce The unmet potential p.2

The differences between female and male labour force participation also varies across countries and regions in Asia and the Pacific:

**Ratio of Female to Male Labor Force Participation in Economies in Asia and the Pacific, 2012** *The best performers are not necessarily the wealthiest*

Source: ADB, 2015. Women in the Workforce. An unmet potential in Asia and the Pacific. Figure 6, p.6

The women who do work in the official economy, also experience wage disparities, including the gender pay gap prevalent globally as well as in the Asia Pacific region:

Gender wage gap (difference of male and female monthly earnings as a proportion of male monthly earnings), selected countries in Asia and the Pacific, latest available year (%)

Source: Annex 2, Statistical Table 8.2.

ADB/UN Women 2018 Gender equality & the SDGs in Asia & Pacific. Baseline & pathways...p65

The ADB study found that 'women in Asia are on average 70% less likely than men to be in the labour force, with the country-to-country percentage varying anywhere from 3% to 80%. This gap persists despite economic growth, decreasing fertility rates, and increasing...
education. The factors that impact women’s labour force participation, be it formal and/or informal, the types and levels of jobs they have and so the wages they receive are part of a complex mix, as depicted visually below. Many of these factors ... barriers:

**A Model of Gender Labor Force Participation and Wage Determination: A complex multidimensional issue**

- Opportunity cost of work, including:
  - Housework
  - Child care
  - Foregone leisure
- Other household income
  - Earnings (other HH members)
  - Unearned
- Social costs (e.g., stigma, mobility, norms)

- Female wages and male-female wage gaps
- Discrimination
- Comparative advantage
- Work environment
  - Flexibility
  - Discrimination and harassment
  - Opportunities for growth and advancement
  - Location

ADB, 2015, Women in the workforce The unmet potential p.15

An ILO gender analysis of school to work transition surveys in 32 developing economies lists the following summary of (limited) decent work indicators for Asia and the Pacific as:

- Nearly six in ten female workers are in vulnerable employment (of which 40 per cent are in contributing family work).
- 91 per cent are in informal employment.
- Only one in three paid workers has a contracted duration greater than 12 months.
- 40 per cent are employed in agriculture, 24 per cent in industry and 35 per cent in services.
- 8 per cent are in involuntary part-time work.

Key empirical findings include:

- The roles of young women beyond the household remain limited to a much greater extent than for young men.

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• The struggle for universal basic education continues, with young women still more likely to be excluded.
• Gender gaps continue in the job search and in the quality of jobs attained.
• The labour market transitions of young women are less certain than for young men.
• Too many young women move directly into inactivity (outside of education) and remain there.

Despite educational attainment and labour force participation, women in Asia and the Pacific are still more likely to earn less than men, be in insecure low-level jobs including jobs in the informal economy, are less likely to advance in their careers and do more unpaid work\(^\text{174} \, 175\). The quality of women’s jobs remains a challenge, including factors such as status in employment and informal employment, significant pay gaps, sectoral and occupational segregation along with gender gaps in the distribution of unpaid household and care work\(^\text{176}\). Women dominate the informal (or unorganized) economy. Bertulfo claims that ‘taking agriculture into account, informal employment accounted for nearly half of the working population in the Philippines, more than 70% in Indonesia and more than 90% in India’\(^\text{177}\). For example, it is estimated that in India, 91% of those in the informal economy are women workers, many of whom are primary carers for their families\(^\text{178}\).

The informal economy is a ‘shock absorber’ in times of economic downturn and structural shifts in economies and labour markets. While vulnerable employment saw modest declines 2007 –2013, it remains high in Asia Pacific region:

![Vulnerable employment as a share of total employment in developing economies, 2007–19 (percentages)](source: ILO, Trends Econometric Models, October 2014)


The ILO advises that ‘... almost half of the world’s employed population are still working in vulnerable conditions, pre-dominantly women, and are thus prevented from accessing basic necessities and decent work’\(^{179}\). This is exacerbated by the global trend of passing risk down to the lowest end of global value chains and the new ways that women are being incorporated into global production systems in Asia\(^{180}\). Improving the lot of informal workers will necessitate a gendered approach in development planning\(^{181}\) and in TVET policies to explicitly provide and promote access to relevant quality skills education and training.

Kelkar contends that there are 3 ‘sticky’ areas resistant to transformative change for women’s economic empowerment in Asia:

- The gendered division of housework and domestic care;
- The general reluctance to recognise women’s immediate authority to ownership and management of property, land and other forms of production, and, significantly,
- The gender lag in the labour market – the segregation of women and men in market work and occupational structures.

The norms associated with these inter-related areas impact on economic behaviour from household level to manifestation in the labour market. In turn, this results in women investing in skills for jobs that are seen as appropriate to their (labour market) gender identity. ‘Women are kept out of skilled categories or their labour, even though skilled, is classified as unskilled’\(^{182}\). Gender disparity inhibits progress for national economies as well as its potential negative impact on the socio-economic wellbeing for women (and men). As such gender-inclusivity continues as a very important policy issue for skill development programs including those offered by TVET and/or ALE in the Asia Pacific region as it does globally.

Asian Development Bank research, *A Model of Gender Inequality and Economic Growth* (2016), noted the significant advantages of completely removing gender inequality in regional economies: per capita income will rise by 30.6% after one generation, and 71.1% after two. The authors ‘believe that these growth-enhancing effects of gender equality are larger than or at least comparable to those of most other types of policies contemplated in developing countries’\(^{183}\).

Changing women’s and girls’ time use allocation, promoting education and training, and enhancing women’s labour market participation have the potential to bring about these momentous income changes. Skills training including upgrading skills for women – especially

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\(^{181}\) Bertulfo, 2011. Op Cit

\(^{182}\) Kelkar, 2013, Op cit pp30-32

those in the informal economy or vulnerable work is a 'key channel to improve productivity and incomes' as well as acting as a support mechanism for pathways from informal to decent work\textsuperscript{184}.

However, as recognised by ILO, 
... a multitude of challenges must be overcome at policy, institutional and micro levels to enable skills training to improve productivity of enterprises, the employability and competences of workers, and contribute to their integration into the formal economy\textsuperscript{185}.

This then, is the opportunity and the challenge for TVET, to fulfil its core obligations and so progress the economic and social wellbeing of women though gender sensitive and inclusive provision of accessible, relevant and quality vocational education and training.

UN Secretary-General’s High-Level Panel on Women’s Economic Empowerment (UNHLP), 2016 p.4.


\textsuperscript{185} Ibid, Section 7.2 ‘Enhancing skills and employability: facilitating access to the formal economy’. p.2
Women using the internet as a ratio of men using the Internet, selected countries and territories in Asia and the Pacific, latest available year

Source: Calculated from Annex 2, Statistical Table 9.1.
Note: 1.00 = parity line, where women's and men's access are equal.
FINANCING GENDER-JUST FRAMEWORK FOR SKILL DEVELOPMENT AND DECENT WORK

The 2030 agenda for Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) indicates that “development will only be sustainable if its benefits accrue equally to both women and men; and women’s rights will only become a reality if they are part of broader efforts to protect the planet and ensure that all people can live with dignity and respect.” The SDG’s envision gender equality as a key cornerstone, the force that will ensure the promise of ‘leaving no one behind’.

However, in a situation of rising inequality, existing structural barriers, gender disparities in education and gendered labour markets worldwide, women and other gender minorities participation in the workforce is limited to a very narrow set of jobs, which are often low-skilled. Being in low skilled jobs limits their opportunities for future training or upskilling to meet the demands of digitisation and automation, putting them at a high risk of unemployment in the changing labour market conditions. There is need to move beyond the traditional conservative approaches to skilling and livelihood.

We, a collective of practitioners, educators, advocates, entrepreneurs, artists, youth, women, academicians and development partners, have come together in New Delhi on 16-18 January 2019 in the “International Conference on Making Non Traditional Livelihoods (NTL) work for the Marginalised.” This international conference aims to create a platform to deliberate on how to overcome existing gender disparities in learning opportunities and skills to ensure equitable technical and transferable skills (Target 4.4 of SDG 4), access to employment and decent jobs (as outlined in SDG 8).

Non-traditional livelihoods for women and other gender minorities constitutes a challenge to gendered notions of work and skilling, creates mobility, remunerative incomes and a sense of identity and dignity. It helps in bolstering women’s self-worth, thereby leading to creation of better opportunities for other women and gender minorities and a challenge to the structural gendered norms.

We believe that the State is at the centre of pursuit of sustainable development, and in particular, economic empowerment of women. Governments across the world have taken strides in initiating skills development programmes. However, much needs to be done to ensure that policies and programs reach out to the marginalised and transform the lived realities of women.

The state should adopt a systems approach that will guarantee the creation of an ecosystem of support that will enable women to have opportunities to learn, acquire/upgrade/refresh skills especially in NTLs thereby pursue a life of dignity.

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187 When we speak of women, we consider women across intersections of caste, class, religion, differently abled women
In this regard, we call on governments to:

1. Make available easy to understand information about skilling opportunities, jobs and market options that can be accessed by resource poor women

2. Provide counselling support for women to negotiate with their families the support required to pursue livelihoods of their choice.

3. Invest substantially in contextual skills training for women and gender minorities to formalise a skills training curriculum that recognises prior learning, goes beyond the technical skills and includes life skills linked to building of physical, emotional and cognitive capacities and skills for upgrading like digital and business skills

4. Ensure flexible learning schedules that respond to women’s needs and guarantee learning environments that are free of sexual harassment, violence, discrimination, social prejudices and stereotyping. Additional support such as counselling for family, safe transportation, hostels, scholarships must be made available to enable women to complete the training.

5. Invest in quality public services that will generate employment and provide a better quality of life to all.

6. Legislate quotas for women in all jobs across occupations (especially non traditional) and across hierarchies to ensure that there is a critical mass of women in all sectors and all levels of economy.

7. Put in place social protection policies and conducive social infrastructure that can ensure women and gender minority workers in the informal sector and the formal sector are able to live a life of dignity.

8. Institutionalise gender disaggregated data system that monitors access, quality and outcomes of skills trainings must be collated, made available to all stakeholders and inform policy formulation and programme development by the Government.

Further, policies and strategies must be employed to address social protection and gender-sensitive markets:

1. Disproportionate burden of unpaid care work at home restricts women from taking up paid jobs, undertaking advanced education and skilled training and active participation in public life. We urge the state to recognise unpaid work which have been heightened due to non-availability of quality public services and design social protection policies that redistribute care work between women and men.

2. Investors, Markets and Work places need to be sensitised and incentivised such that they can be supportive to women, where they are treated fairly. (They need to provide for creches, safe and hygienic wash rooms, counselling and support through gender desks, parenting leave, care giving leave, return-ships for people coming back to work, options for flexible work, part-time work.)
3. Women need to be protected and provided economic social and other support (such as helpline services, safe shelter homes, quick redressal and punitive action) when they face a backlash (at home, on roads or at work place) due to their choice of work.

There is also need to broaden the movement within civil society and make conscious efforts to reach out and connect with diverse groups like other movements, skill providers, funders and the private sector.

We urge the Civil Society to

1. Build linkages with labour movements, especially women in labour unions or women worker collectives to strengthen ties and transfer the thought leadership on skills and work. This will broaden the scope of impact.
2. Create collectives and alliances as coalitions are the most powerful way forward not only to build advocacy with state but also with non-state actors like funders and private sector.
3. Look inwards at their own policies and systems with respect to provision of a rights based social protection system to their own employees.

We urge the Non-State-Private actors and donors

1. Funders, donors need to realize the long-term benefits of investing in NTL, supportive social protection policies and the missing link of a rights-based agenda in the context of skill building of women, girls and gender minorities. This will make conversations more actionable and instrumental, helping realize this radical agenda.
2. We live in a world where resources are being allocated very disproportionately in the hands of few, while others who need capital are being denied access. Thoughtful financing of programs using a paradigm of rights and empowerment will help bridge the gap between these unequal power structures.
3. The private sector needs to have a lens of inclusion, whether it is on creating more open markets that accept women across different roles across the hierarchy or governance around violence at work spaces and parental leaves.

Finally, we reiterate the need for an alliance of the State in partnership with civil society and the private sector in continuing to mobilise women to create awareness, provide information, have spaces for sharing and solidarity and creating facilitative and sustainable infrastructure and social policies to sustain women in the workforce.
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ANNEXES

Annex One: Overview of context and Recommendations from Country Studies
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ANNEX 1
Overview of context and recommendations from Country Studies

A. India Country Study

Overview of context

India is home to a vast numbers of people living in poverty affecting 29.5% of its population, the largest population of the poor living in any country. Women form a major part of this population. They face not only the burden of resourcelessness but also gender-based discrimination, social exclusion and other forms of marginalisation. Women generally trail men in education, employability, and employment, among other indicators with women from certain sections of society faring worse than the rest. Women are not homogenously placed; their situations are defined by social categorizations and identities. The intersection of gender with caste, ethnicity, class, age, geographical location, poverty and so on compounds the marginalisation of women, with certain groups of women systemically more denied access to opportunities, resources and services.

There has been improvement with India’s overall literacy rate being 72.98% (female literacy rate at 64.63%, and male literacy rate at 80.9%). However, India continues to have the highest number of the non-literate population of the world at 287 million, with about 1 in 3 women in rural areas and 1 in 5 women in urban areas respectively not literate. Among those who are literate, about 3 in 5 men and 4 in 5 women are either non-graduates or only been educated till the upper primary level.

Data presented thus far show that access to and ability to sustain a quality education becomes limited with the intersection of gender, poverty, caste, ethnicity, religion, and geographical location. This poses a serious challenge for India of being unable to address the aspirations of its people despite having made significant inroads in the education of its children.

India is going through a period where the predominantly young population is entering the workforce- a period referred to as a “demographic dividend” whereby it can potentially capitalize on the share of the youth population as a proportion of the total population. However, the structure of the Indian economy is such that most of the employment is generally in the informal sector with 93% of the workforce located in either the unorganized sector or working in contractual segments of the organised sector with more or less the same work insecurities as the unorganised sector of the economy. Wage/salary earners, contract workers, casual workers and self-employed workers form part of the labour force and vast numbers of people are not salary/wage earners. About 80% of the women workers are either self employed or engaged in casual work.

There is a low level of relevant skills for the types of jobs that are available in the country with only about 5.4% of the labour force being skilled, with the number among women being even lower at 3.4%. While the overall number is low, most of the skilling acquired is informal in nature and it is mostly people in wage/salary employment who have opportunities for formal skill/vocational training in India. A large number of self-employed have gone through a skill/vocational training to be able to continue their occupation. This is primarily informal training. The majority of contractual and casual workers, who are part of the informal economy, do not have any training (or training opportunities).

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Linking this to the level of educational attainment and the fact that a vast majority of the population has not been educated beyond the upper primary level, especially the women, the participation of the population in the productive sector is primarily confined to work of low remuneration, or underemployment in own-account work, besides the un-monetized care work, which is predominantly done by women.

The progress of women in India has been generally slow and scattered. India’s socio-cultural context relating to women has been pulling its women back from advancement and remains the “weak link” in the chain of change. Indeed, as this Study has found – and as India admitted in its report for Beijing plus 20 in 2015 or in the report of its High Level Committee on the Status of Women 2015 or in its report on CEDAW in 2014 or in the rationale of the draft National Policy on Women 2016, gender inequalities in education, employment, health, among other indicators, borne out of deep-seated beliefs and stereotypes continue to disadvantage women in the country.

India has made strides in terms of formulating laws and policies for women. Yet, laws and policies create conditions for women’s participation and empowerment only where it articulates these clearly and does not leave the provisions of any law or policy to interpretations by implementers, and where mechanisms are put in place to ensure that laws and policies benefit women as much as men or any gender. Laws and policies alone are not sufficient where gendered notions of spaces, learning/skills and work are all too prevalent.

The dichotomy of private-public, reproductive-productive, unpaid-paid domains remain to hinder women’s participation. While spaces are slowly opening up for girls and women, it remains limited for the most part affecting education for women and their engagement in public, including the productive sector. Work segregation remains a reality in the country, limiting occupations that women can access. And, while this Study has shown that through initiatives on NTL, women are able to regain spaces otherwise dominated and controlled by men, and expand opportunities for decent jobs and livelihoods, that NTL breaks stereotypes of gendered roles and expectations, that the complementarity of women’s participation in economy and in decision-making, representation, women’s agency should pave the way for substantive gender equality, the entire ecosystem affecting women’s education or skills development and work need serious relook. The household, the community, the educational and training institutions, the workplace, the state must all redefine and install norms & practices, structures, infrastructures and services that would genuinely allow women meaningful participation in all spheres of life. And, laws/policies and their implementation must be made truly gender-sensitive and more proactively supportive of marginalized women.

**Action points and recommendations**

1. The study highlighted that to ensure participation of ‘hard to reach’ groups of women marginalized by intersections of caste class religion in any skill development program there is need to focus on information dissemination about such skilling programs, its eligibility criteria. Women are constrained by norms that restrict their mobility that limit their access to various sources of information. The study reported from FGDs with CSOs that there can be various methods of information dissemination like mobile phone or internet based media, which are accessed even by resource poor women and even television example programs like Satyamev Jayate.

   Therefore, we recommend that skilling programs need to make use of these methods of information dissemination so that it can be readily available and accessed by marginalized women enabling them to join the program.
2. The study also highlights the importance of mobilization activity in the community to enable women to participate in skilling programs. Mobilization and outreach through 'information camps', surveys, 'information booths', door to door campaigns or even through introducing 'role models' i.e. practitioners of NTL in a community allow for interface of the skills development provider with the community and their prospective participants to sensitize, inform them of the process and clarify their doubts. This helps the community to understand and support their women who decide to participate in such programs. This is a time intensive process and is critical for building trust, to change mindsets and ensure acceptance of skilling programs for non-traditional livelihoods that go beyond the gendered work segregation.

*Therefore we recommend that the process of mobilization and community engagement be considered as an essential non-negotiable by skilling programs that are engaging with resource poor women.*

3. Bulk of the skill training in India is financed through the Government. The training supported under the National Policy 2005 focuses primarily on core skills and at most some soft skills. Timings are rigid and tightly planned disregarding the reality of lives of women and therefore their needs. As a stark contrast the findings of the FGDs indicate that nearly every CSO that is engaged in skill provision is providing a much more broad, diverse and need based training programme. Women themselves have appreciated how these other trainings (on rights and entitlements, on communications, self defence, sexuality and many others as mentioned in the report) have enabled them to gain more confidence and sustain them in the application.

Women are not able to access available skills training not because they are “not interested”, but because there are gendered structural barriers that limit their participation in the economy. The solution therefore cannot rest upon only “provision of technical skills”, as the same structural barriers will then hinder their use of these skills.

Another stark contrast exhibits in the timing of the trainings. Whereas the trainings offered under the NSDE framework are within a tight schedule, the trainings being made available by all the participating CSOs varied in terms of time required, depending upon the skill as well as the needs of women. In 2018, as per the crime bureau statistics, 5 cases of rape against women have been reported every day in Delhi, as of June 15th. Violence and the threat of it is just one of the challenges that defines a woman's life. Domestic and reproductive work, maintaining social and cultural relations is a demanding responsibility that remains non negotiable for most women. Training programmes will need to account for these realities and adapt their pedagogy to ensure women enlist and sustain their participation through such programmes.

*We recommend that the policy framework for skills training for women and other marginalized groups MUST include training on rights, on structural barriers and how to address these. The time schedules prescribed therefore must be flexible to ensure the skill provider is able to respond to women’s needs.*

*We also recommend that the funds allocated to these trainings need to provide for more comprehensive training programmes that extend over flexible periods of time. From one month for example in the case of concrete brick production to 8 months in the case of driving.*

4. **Ensuring viable employment options**

The study found that most women aim to learn skills that will lead to livelihood
options and a scope for future employment. The translation of skilling to employment that ensures a good income, steady career and a dignified and respectful life is therefore critical. Women from resource poor communities usually negotiate multiple barriers like family acceptance, managing care giving work, children, negotiating time, money and the ability to travel long distances to attend training programs.

The hope of a 'stable job' and 'financial security' are therefore critical drivers for a woman to prove their 'worth' to themselves and to establish their position in the community. The secondary review shows that majority of the resource poor women current engagement in the productive sector is primarily confined to work of low remuneration, or underemployment in own-account work. Entrepreneurship and self-employment is promoted by the government but data show that most people in the self-employment category have very low earning and are primarily underemployed.

**Therefore, we recommend that skills development providers should work to create viable employment opportunities that enhance women's income and support women to seek these employment options as part of their programs.**

5. **Enabling Women to sustain work**-
The study reported that even post-employment women need handholding, on job support not only from a technical perspective but to help them adapt to the work culture and environment, to be able to balance time between work and home and also to manage a professional workspace. Women from resource poor communities already face challenges of being a woman in ‘public’ space i.e. workspaces, their mobility being subjected to scrutiny Women are also not freed the roles of managing the household, caring for the young and elderly in the family, caring for the sick, cooking and doing the laundry, among others which they have to balance with their professional duties. Women however lack spaces to discuss about their challenges, issues and seek help. The study findings reported how CSOs are creating spaces through follow-up, or forums for interaction, which helped in building their confidence to undertake work, counseling sessions and building a network for regular updates and interactions.

Hence, we recommend that skill development and creation of employment opportunities be followed up with initiatives to hand hold and build a supportive network to help them sustain their work.

Also, at the policy level there needs to be focused advocacy, building evidence and advocating on sharing of household duties and push for sharing of care giving work across gender, creating a positive environment to facilitate women to balance and sustain their into a profession.

6. **The challenge with the policy framework promoting livelihoods for women**
The policy frameworks do not take into account gendered division of work, and thus the skills trainings provided by them not just reflect but perpetuate the same gendered division of labour. The concessions provided for women are reflective of the ‘patronising’ approach of the state, where a financial subsidy during training or post-placement is meant to perhaps "level the playing field". This not just falls woefully short in addressing structural barriers to women’s participation, it also fails to therefore make fundamental shifts within the skills that are offered on training to women. For example, while majority of livelihood skill programmes are designed around what are considered traditionally feminine roles (cooking, tailoring, craft, beautician etc.),
these are not necessarily remunerative for women.

There is for instance, no recognition of the reality of violence against women and how it impacts upon their participation in skills programmes or their ability to undertake jobs later on. Lack of gender disaggregated data, gender sensitive mechanisms to ensure implementation then does not provide for any meaningful participation from the women. It also makes it more difficult to undertake any meaningful in-depth analysis of women’s participation in these trainings. Yet, the FGDs undertaken with women show clearly their enthusiasm and willingness to try “novel” trainings. They also show clearly the real possibilities of change where such a mechanism is made available.

We recommend a clear gendered analysis within the policy framework that is incorporated right through – from access, mobilization, types of trainings made available, learning pedagogy and placements. This will enable a much more comprehensive response to women’s needs for skills training that can yield remunerative incomes, and not just marginal returns for increased hours of work to an already overloaded day.

Policy framework on skills and livelihood should also clearly have a thrust on non-traditional livelihoods, that clearly are more remunerative and have a greater potential for enabling women to make transformative changes in her life as evidenced in the primary findings.

7. Creating infrastructure to ensure sustained work participation
Women who work are negotiating multiple challenges due to the gendered socio cultural norms. Also, they have to balance between their productive and reproductive roles i.e. negotiate the community pressure on women to marry or fulfill their reproductive roles as against education/training or a career. Primary data also revealed that men are not happy that women are "eating into men's space" as women venture in NTL. In the community, "character assassination from other people including from other women" of women who defy conventions is commonplace. These along with additional challenges on the work front where the lack of safety, basic infrastructural facilities like toilets in ‘public’ places and the attitude of a male dominated work space that scorns women makes it difficult for women to sustain work.

Therefore we recommend the need to create more gender sensitive policy initiatives to help women sustain their foray into livelihoods, push for creating institutional structures like community crèches to assist women in maintaining the balance between work and childcare responsibilities, initiatives for safety and hygiene for women at workspaces and in public spaces like safe and hygienic toilets etc.
B. Indonesia Country Study

Indonesia

GDP opportunity from advancing women’s equality

$135 billion added to annual GDP by 2025 or 9% over business-as-usual GDP by 2025

Gender inequality today

Level of gender inequality: Extremely high (0–0.30), High (0.30–0.75), Medium (0.75–0.85), Low (0.85–1.00)

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<th>Asia Pacific average</th>
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<tr>
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<td>Physical security and autonomy</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>0.96</td>
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Potential measures to capture the GDP opportunity

Government
- Legislate and enforce greater protection for women (e.g., mandate paternity leave and prevent sexual harassment)
- Continue to expand access to infrastructure to reduce unpaid care work
- Increase instruction in digital skills and entrepreneurship in the early years of secondary school
- Invest in shifting attitudes about the role of women in society and work (e.g., awareness campaigns)

Companies
- Promote diversity policies (e.g., business case, diversity targets and flexible work options)
- Educate and activate networks of male champions and of women’s learning groups
- Drive digital access, skills development, and business training for female entrepreneurs

Overview of context

Indonesia is the third largest country in the Asia Pacific region and the largest economy in South East Asia\(^ \text{192} \), with a population of 258.71 million in 2016, projected to grow to 279.05 by 2022\(^ \text{193} \) and an average growth rate of 5.4 per cent\(^ \text{194} \). As an emerging middle-income country, it is ‘the world’s most populous nation, the world’s 10\(^{th} \) largest economy in terms of purchasing power parity and a member of the G-20’; a nation that cut the poverty rate to more than half between 1999 and 2016\(^ \text{195} \) although the rate of poverty reduction has now stagnated.

As a vast archipelagic nation Indonesia comprises more than 17,000 islands with significant variations in the level of development and cultural norms across its expanse. There are over 300 distinct ethnic and linguistic groups with more than 700 spoken languages. This diversity is acknowledged in Indonesia’s national motto: Bhinneka Tunggal Ika – ‘Unity in Diversity’. Indonesia has experienced sustained and robust growth over most of the past three decades\(^ \text{196} \) but inequality has been rising since 2000 and by 2016 had reached the highest level since measures began\(^ \text{197} \). Indonesia is not alone in this mix of economic growth and growing inequality, with the establishment by World Economic Forum (WEF) of the Inclusive Development Index (IDI)\(^ \text{198} \) and increasing recognition in so-called advanced economies that ‘growth models pursued for the past four decades have delivered more income inequality, wage stagnation and precariou work, all of which threaten future expansion’\(^ \text{199} \). However, the 2018 IDI ranks Indonesia 36\(^{th} \) among 74 emerging economies, noting that despite its ‘remarkable reduction in poverty’, Indonesia ranks a low 61\(^{st} \) on the inclusion pillar rankings\(^ \text{200} \), with 28 million Indonesians living below the poverty line and approximately 40 per cent more of the total population classified as vulnerable.

Indonesia follows a 20-year economic development plan (Rencana

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192 The geographic grouping of Southeast Asia comprises Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, the Lao People’s Democratic Republic, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, and Viet Nam
198 See: World Economic Forum (WEF) 2018, The Inclusive Development Index 2018 https://www.weforum.org/reports/the-inclusive-development-index-2018 ‘The Inclusive Development Index (IDI) is an annual assessment of 103 countries’ economic performance that measures how countries perform on eleven dimensions of economic progress in addition to GDP. It has 3 pillars; growth and development; inclusion and; intergenerational equity – sustainable stewardship of natural and financial resources.’
Pembangunan Jangka Panjang Nasional (RPJPN - National Long-Term Development Plan 2005-2025) that is segmented into 5-year medium-term plans (RPJMN (Rencana Pembangunan Jangka Menengah Nasional) each with different development priorities. In line with Indonesia’s ambitious plans to improve urban services, the focus of the current third phase medium-term development plan (2015 to 2019) includes infrastructure development and social assistance programs related to education and health-care, with the “100-0-100” target aiming to provide access to clean water to 100% of urban households, reduce urban slums to zero, and provide access to improved sanitation to 100 percent of urban residents. The Australian Government supported Indonesia Infrastructure Initiative (IndII) program provided gender equality inputs for the RPJMN.

Presidential Instruction Number 9/2000 (INPRES 9/2000) mandates Gender Mainstreaming in National Development, requiring that all government agencies at national and local levels mainstream gender into planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of all policies and programs. Presidential Instruction No 3/2010 and other ministerial regulations stipulate efforts on equitable and inclusive development.

According to the Asian Development Bank (ADB), growth in Indonesia is forecast to accelerate, supported by strong investment and domestic consumption. The 2018 report comments that: The government’s commitment to boosting infrastructure and improving the business environment should support stronger investment. Public investment is expected to peak in 2018, especially for projects in energy and transport and those tied to the 2018 Asian Games in Jakarta and Palembang in August.

However, a cautionary note was added: The application of new technologies will boost productivity, but at the same time it will displace certain types of jobs. This transition will require a skilled workforce and could put the less skilled at a disadvantage. The challenge for governments is to ensure that workers are equipped with foundational skills to enable lifelong learning and have the specialized skills required for working with new technologies. Governments must act to enhance and adapt skills development, labor regulation, social protection, and income redistribution.

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207 Ibid, p. x
According to a 2016 World Bank report, equity in growth in Indonesia has been elusive, with growth primarily benefiting the wealthiest 20 per cent of the population and so leaving the remaining 80 per cent behind. Long term growth is at risk as is weakened social cohesion due to the historically high levels of inequality, with inequality rising faster in Indonesia than most of its East Asian neighbours. The report identifies four main drivers of rising inequality in Indonesia (inequality of opportunity; unequal jobs; high wealth concentration and low resilience) and four key action areas for long term policy commitment (improving local delivery; promoting better jobs and skills training opportunities for the workforce; ensuring protection from shocks and using taxes and government spending to reduce inequality now and in the future). The World Bank is now encouraging Indonesia to pursue fiscal policy to foster inclusive growth, to spend ‘better’ in priority areas.

Increasing demand for and a shortage of skilled workers along with a widening gap between skilled and unskilled wages increases inequality, with workers and potential workers from poorer backgrounds having limited ability to access decent work. This, accompanied by limited access to ‘second chance’ skills training opportunities for those seeking work and those trapped in low paying jobs including in the informal economy, compounds the disadvantage. The informal economy is usually associated with decent work deficits, low quality of jobs, working poverty, low productivity, discrimination and exclusion, insecurity and vulnerabilities in the labour market, and, as such, a major challenge both to individuals trapped in its confines, but also nations seeking to enhance opportunities for decent work. Strategies for more inclusive growth including access to better jobs are fundamental to reducing poverty.

Indonesia has a large share of workers employed in low skilled occupations especially in the services sector, as well as large numbers of micro and small enterprises (MSME), with almost 75 per cent of employed people working for households, individual businesses and/or in the informal economy. A recent study conducted for ADB recognises that given Indonesia’s rapid urbanization and associated rapid increase in low-productivity jobs and imbalance between demand and supply of human capital, education and training for skills in demand are key for sustaining productivity growth, with quality and relevance being critically important. Moreover, while acknowledging the positive correlation between education, wage premiums and incomes at household level, it argues that for many, ‘education is a ticket to regular, formal sector work … and has contributed to lower levels of unemployment … especially (for) women’; that, given gender segregation of the labour force, ‘improvements in education, oriented toward skills and the labor market, are important both at the micro and macro levels.’

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208 World Bank, 2016, Op Cit
209 Ibid, p4; pp. 11-32
212 Ginting, E; Manning, C & Taniguchi, K, (Eds.), 2018, Enhancing productivity through quality jobs. Manila, ABD
213 Baker J.L. & Gadgil, G.U. (Eds.), 2017, Op Cit
214 Ginting et al, 2018 Op Cit, p xi
215 Ibid, pp. xxii, 16
Context - continued


Data from various sources shows that despite some improvements, there is gender inequality in nearly all social, economic, political and cultural dimensions in Indonesia. It is among the three ASEAN countries with a Gender Inequality Index (GII) that remains high, in spite of the implementation of various gender equality programs (Human Development Report, UNDP). …

The government is focusing on two key areas for economic development. Firstly, the creation of decent jobs by investing in labour-intensive industries; building infrastructure like education and healthcare for these; increasing opportunities for marginalised groups like people with disabilities, and senior citizens; and getting micro and small-scale businesses access to better skills, finances and technology. The second area is sustainable livelihoods development, which is being done by fostering partnerships between the government at the national and sub-national level with the private sector/national and local public enterprises for capacity building programmes for the poor; and getting such groups access to capital and assets.

For gender mainstreaming in particular, the government is focusing on three key aspects: improving the quality of life and strengthening the role of women in development; increasing protection for women against all forms of violence, including trafficking; and building institutional capacity for gender mainstreaming. ...

There has been a substantial gender gap in labour force participation over the years. Data from the National Labour Force Survey (Sakernas, 2016) showed that of the total of 45.8 million workers/employees in 17 employment sectors, 64% are men and 36% are women. The monthly pay gap between female and male workers is still relatively wide at Rp 1.427 million for women and Rp 1.795 million for men. (Sakernas, or National Labour Force Survey). Further, 30.83% of female workers are unpaid workers, who are housewives or helpers of business owners. Indonesia is a labour-sending country, mostly as migrant domestic workers and labourers due to their lack of education and skills.

Another macro-level gender equality indicator is the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM). This is computed based on women’s representation in parliament and the labour force. From 2010 to 2013, Indonesia’s GEM increased from 68.2 to 70.5. This is attributable to a higher percentage of women occupying first to fifth echelon positions in 2014 (July) compared to 2010.

However, women remain disproportionately underrepresented, and their participation in decision-making processes at various levels remains negligible. From the results of the 2014 elections, women account for only 17.32% of legislators, which is an 18.04% drop from the outcomes of the 2009 elections (KPU, 2014). This is partly due to the shortage of qualified women to run for public office, lack of public trust in female politicians, dominant patriarchal orientation, and the mass media’s lack of

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216 Yayasan, 2018, ‘Contextual overview of Indonesia, pp. 7-9 (Précis)
interest in promoting women’s political potential.

In the past 10 years, micro, small and medium-scale businesses run by women have most resilient against monetary, economic, food and energy crises befalling the world, including in Indonesia. Female owners of Micro, Small and Medium Enterprises therefore should be given the necessary support. (Republika.co.id, 2015).

Women play an important role in Indonesia’s economy, be it in fulfilling household needs or developing the national and local economies. Women’s economic roles are duly recognised not only by the government, but also by other stakeholders, including the private sector, NGOs and other community organisations. Data from the Ministry of Cooperatives and Small and Medium-Scale Enterprises (SME) showed that in 2015 60% of 52 million SME owners across Indonesia were women. Data from the same year also revealed that 46.03% of women work as professionals, technicians and in leadership positions. Indonesia’s micro-enterprises contributed 30.25% to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). According to 2015 data, women’s contribution to the economy grew by 36.03%.

Women run most micro-businesses in conventional economic sectors such as trade, food processing and services. The socio-cultural system considers women as secondary bread-winners and limits their agency. This further restricts women’s access to resources and information to engage in economic activities. Though a wide range of women’s economic empowerment initiatives and programs have been developed, their impact remains insignificant.

Between 2006-2012 the number of poor households headed by women (PHHW) has increased by 1.09%, whereas poor households headed by men (PHHM) decreased by 1.09%. TNP2K (National Team for the Acceleration of Poverty Reduction) found that the depth and severity of poverty is worse for PHHW than in PHHM. The depth of poverty in PHHWs has fallen by a mere 19% compared to 25% in PHHMs. Various social protection and poverty eradication programs, including those targeting women as beneficiaries, have been implemented, yet PHHW’s access to these programs remain limited (RPJMN, 2015-2019). This is consistent with the results of a community-based welfare monitoring survey conducted by PEKKA in 111 villages across 17 provinces in Indonesia in 2013. It showed that more than half the families in the first and second quintiles (very poor) are headed by women.

It is therefore important to probe into whether economic empowerment programmes implemented so far have effectively addressed the challenges facing women. Do existing policies, regulations and funding schemes give women the opportunities to develop their skills and capacities in securing decent work? Are there specific policies for marginalised groups such as women household heads? Are gender issues included in various women’s economic empowerment programmes? How do ministries and institutions translate Indonesia’s medium-term development mission into programmes implemented on the ground?

**Recommendations**

**The Government**

1. In every programme document and government project, it is necessary to make sure that marginalised women
are explicitly stated as the programme or project beneficiary.

2. All economic empowerment programmes for women must be accompanied with social empowerment and women’s leadership development, including efforts to boost self-confidence, enhance negotiation skills, and the ability to make the right business decisions, including on the use of gains or profits.

3. Every programme and project should include more in-depth training on business management, making sure that women understand and are capable of applying their knowledge.

4. Apart from skills training, facilitation is essential to economically empower women and to ensure that they have the necessary assistance in managing their businesses well.

5. There is a need for sustainable programmes and financing for women’s economic empowerment.

**Private Sector**

1. Through CSR programmes, the private sector can facilitate building the capacity and strengthening the leadership of marginalised women.

2. The type of training and education provided must be tailored to local needs and context, including with regard to resources.

3. The private sector can link marginalised women with the market, providing them with access to business and employment opportunities.

**Organisations Including Women’s Organisations**

1. The need for community organisations, especially women’s groups, to keep track of government policies and programme financing mechanisms to ensure maximum benefit for marginalised women.

2. Women’s organisations can advocate for more budget allocations for the education of marginalised women.

3. Women’s organisations need to work alongside the private sector and community groups to develop programmes that generate benefit for marginal groups.

4. Women’s organisations need to develop an advocacy platform for marginalised women by adopting the SDGs framework as its basis.

**Donors**

1. Donor countries and agencies should give priority to the economic empowerment of marginalised women by allocating grant aid in a sustainable manner.

2. The need to support women’s organisations in developing an advocacy platform and agenda for capacity building and widening access to economic resources for marginalised women.

3. The need to ensure the implementation of SDGs with adequate, sustainable financial support.

**Community**

1. Members of the community need to organise themselves in order to explore various accessible resources for expanding their economic potential.

2. Members of the community need to organise themselves to advocate for policies and budget allocations needed to strengthen the capacity of marginalised women.

3. The need to gather field data and facts for advocacy material.
Annex Two

SDGs, Targets and Indicators of interest to this report, in order of relevance

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<th>Sustainable Development Goal 4</th>
<th>Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all.</th>
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<td><strong>Targets</strong></td>
<td><strong>Indicators</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>4.3</strong></td>
<td>By 2030, ensure equal access for all women and men to affordable and quality technical, vocational and tertiary education, including university.</td>
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<td><strong>4.4</strong></td>
<td>By 2030, substantially increase the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship.</td>
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<td><strong>4.5</strong></td>
<td>By 2030, eliminate gender disparities in education and ensure equal access to all levels of education and vocational training for the vulnerable, including persons with disabilities, indigenous peoples and children in vulnerable situations.</td>
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<td><strong>4.6</strong></td>
<td>By 2030, ensure that all youth and a substantial proportion of adults, both men and women, achieve literacy and numeracy.</td>
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<td><strong>4.7</strong></td>
<td>By 2030, ensure that all learners acquire the knowledge and skills needed to promote sustainable development, including, among others, through education for sustainable development and sustainable lifestyles, human rights, gender equality, promotion of a culture of peace and non-violence, global citizenship and appreciation of cultural diversity and of culture’s contribution to sustainable development.</td>
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Source: [https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdg4](https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdg4)
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<tr>
<td><strong>5.1</strong> End all forms of discrimination against all women and girls everywhere</td>
<td><strong>5.1.1</strong> Whether or not legal frameworks are in place to promote, enforce and monitor equality and non-discrimination on the basis of sex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5.4</strong> Recognize and value unpaid care and domestic work through the provision of public services, infrastructure and social protection policies and the promotion of shared responsibility within the household and the family as nationally appropriate</td>
<td><strong>5.4.1</strong> Proportion of time spent on unpaid domestic and care work, by sex, age and location</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **5.5** Ensure women's full and effective participation and equal opportunities for leadership at all levels of decision-making in political, economic and public life | **5.5.1** Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments and local governments  
**5.5.2** Proportion of women in managerial positions |
| **5.B** Enhance the use of enabling technology, in particular information and communications technology, to promote the empowerment of women | **5.B.1** Proportion of individuals who own a mobile telephone, by sex |
| **5.C** Adopt and strengthen sound policies and enforceable legislation for the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of all women and girls at all levels | **5.C.1** Proportion of countries with systems to track and make public allocations for gender equality and women's empowerment |

Source: [https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdg5](https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdg5)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sustainable Development Goal 8</th>
<th>Promote sustained, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, full and productive employment and decent work for all</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Targets</strong></td>
<td><strong>Indicators</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>8.3</strong></td>
<td><strong>8.3.1</strong> Proportion of informal employment in non-agriculture employment, by sex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promote development-oriented policies that support productive activities, decent job creation, entrepreneurship, creativity and innovation, and encourage the formalization and growth of micro-, small- and medium-sized enterprises, including through access to financial services</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>8.5</strong></td>
<td><strong>8.5.1</strong> Average hourly earnings of female and male employees, by occupation, age and persons with disabilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By 2030, substantially increase the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>8.6</strong></td>
<td><strong>8.6.1</strong> Proportion of youth (aged 15-24 years) not in education, employment or training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>By 2020, substantially reduce the proportion of youth not in employment, education or training</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>8.8</strong></td>
<td><strong>8.8.1</strong> Frequency rates of fatal and non-fatal occupational injuries, by sex and migrant status.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protect labour rights and promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular women migrants, and those in precarious employment</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: [https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdg8](https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdg8)
### Sustainable Development Goal 1
End poverty in all its forms everywhere

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Targets</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.4.1 Proportion of population living in households with access to basic services</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By 2030, ensure that all men and women, in particular the poor and the vulnerable, have equal rights to economic resources, as well as access to basic services, ownership and control over land and other forms of property, inheritance, natural resources, appropriate new technology and financial services, including microfinance.

**1.B** Create sound policy frameworks at the national, regional and international levels, based on pro-poor and gender-sensitive development strategies, to support accelerated investment in poverty eradication actions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.B.1 Proportion of government recurrent and capital spending to sectors that disproportionately benefit women, the poor and vulnerable groups</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: [https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdg1](https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdg1)

### Sustainable Development Goal 10
Reduce inequality within and among countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Targets</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>10.2.1 Proportion of people living below 50 per cent of median income, by age, sex and persons with disabilities</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By 2030, empower and promote the social, economic and political inclusion of all, irrespective of age, sex, disability, race, ethnicity, origin, religion or economic or other status.

**10.3** Ensure equal opportunity and reduce inequalities of outcome, including by eliminating discriminatory laws, policies and practices and promoting appropriate legislation, policies and action in this regard.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10.3.1 Proportion of the population reporting having personally felt discriminated against or harassed within the previous 12 months on the basis of a ground of discrimination prohibited under international human rights law</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**10.4** Adopt policies, especially fiscal, wage and social protection policies, and progressively achieve greater equality.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10.4.1 Labour share of GDP, comprising wages and social protection transfers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: [https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdg10](https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdg10)
About ASPBAE

The Asia South Pacific Association for Basic and Adult Education (ASPBAE) is a regional network of more than 200 civil society organisations and individuals operating in around 30 countries of the Asia-Pacific. ASPBAE works towards promoting the right to quality education and transformative and liberating lifelong adult education and learning for all. Through its work, ASPBAE lobbies with governments to uphold education as an empowering tool to combat poverty and all forms of exclusion and discrimination, enable active and meaningful participation in governance, and build a culture of peace and international understanding.

ASPBAE’s core strategies are Policy Advocacy, Leadership and Capacity Building, Building Strategic Partnerships, and Institutional Strengthening. … ASPBAE forges partnerships with civil society global and regional networks advancing the right to education and lifelong learning. … It is the regional focal point in UNESCO’s Collective Consultation of NGOs on Education 2030 (CC NGO Ed2030). …

ASPBAE is an NGO in official relations with UNESCO with Associate status and is on Roster Status with UN ECOSOC (Economic and Social Council). It works closely with several UN agencies such as UNESCO, especially its offices and institutes in Paris, Bangkok, and Hamburg, with UNICEF, UN ESCAP in Bangkok, and UN DESA in New York.

217 ASPBAE website: [http://www.aspbae.org/node/1](http://www.aspbae.org/node/1)

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