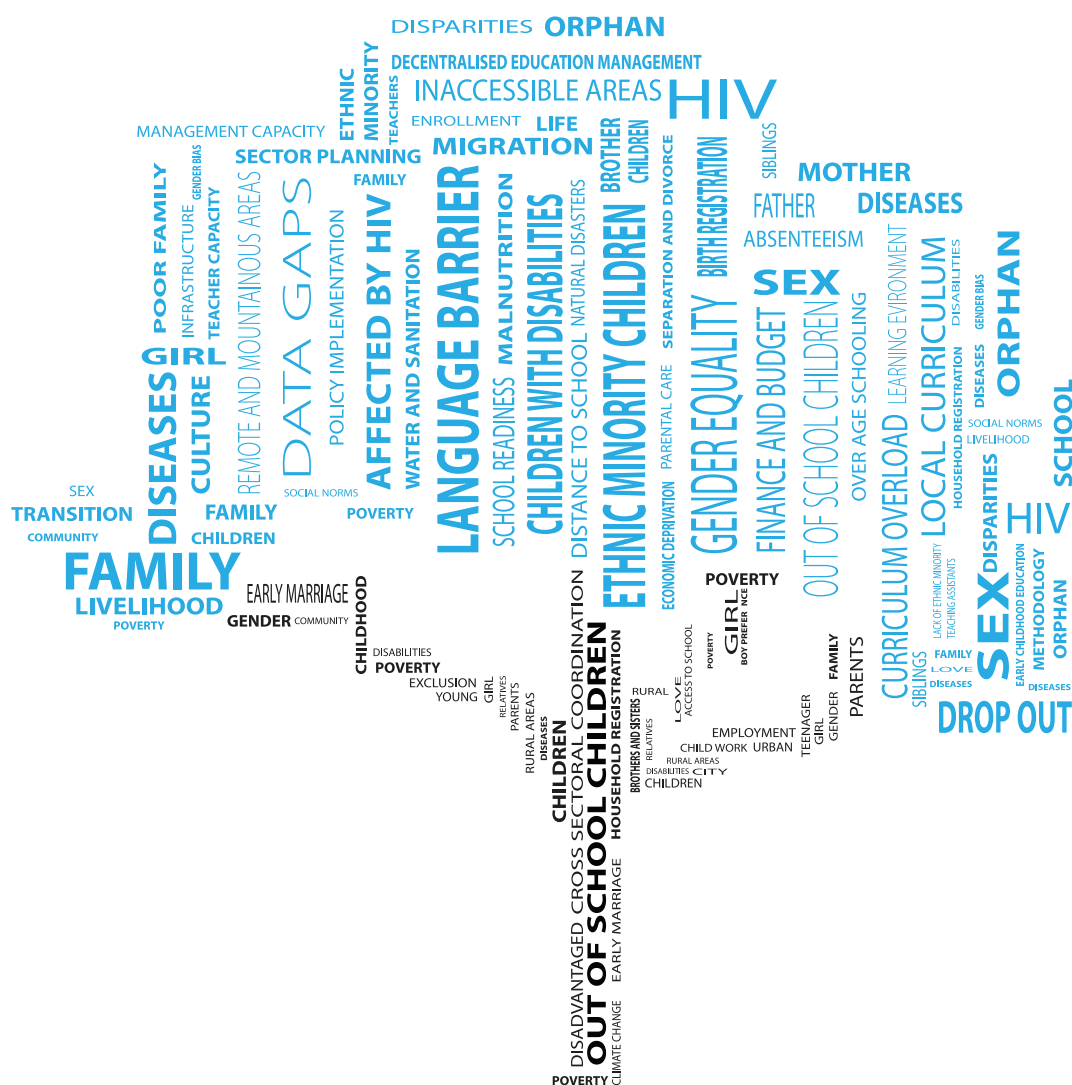


Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children



**MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
AND TRAINING**



OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN IN VIET NAM: A COUNTRY STUDY



UNESCO
INSTITUTE
for
STATISTICS

United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The report *Out-of-school Children in Viet Nam: A Country Study* aims to inform education management and planning and policy advocacy to achieve equity in education for all children, with a focus on disadvantaged children. The report also aims to inform policy research and planning by the relevant ministries, local authorities and research agencies of the Vietnamese government, and to satisfy the requirements for information by international organizations and others in an effort to reduce the number of out-of-school children in Viet Nam. UNICEF's East Asia and Pacific Regional Office, the UNESCO Institute for Statistics and global working teams have provided financial and technical support for the preparation of the initial draft of this report.

The content and structure of the report follows the guidance of the Conceptual Framework and Methodology and the Global Initiative on Out-of-school Children as designed by UNICEF and UNESCO Institute for Statistics. All of the data in the report is from the 2009 Population and Housing Census.

The international team in charge of writing the report includes Mr. Muhammad Quamrul Hasan, an independent consultant who delivered all the analysis on important quantitative data and also wrote the second chapter, and Ms. Elaine Furniss, an independent consultant who synthesized and systematized information for the report and was the author of the remaining chapters.

Starting in October 2012, Viet Nam's Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) with the focal point Department of Planning and Finance led the finalization of the report in coordination with UNICEF Viet Nam and with technical assistance from Mr. Nguyen Phong, a UNICEF consultant. Valuable comments and suggestions were made by relevant departments under MOET, central agencies such as the General Statistics Office, the Ministry of Labor, Invalids and Social Affairs, and the Ethnic Council of the National Assembly. Especially enthusiastic support was provided by the provincial Department of Education and Training, the District Bureau of Education and Training, the District/Commune People's Committees and relevant departments, and some primary, upper and lower secondary schools in the six provinces of Dien Bien, Ninh Thuan, Kon Tum, Ho Chi Minh City, Dong Thap and An Giang. These agencies and institutions helped to review the data, provide current information on the situation of out-of-school children in the localities, share experiences related to the implementation of the support policies, and comment on the report's contents and format. In addition, the information stated in the report that relates to school dropouts and children at risk of dropping out was further verified through interviews with parents and children who were out of school in the above-mentioned six provinces. During the finalization of the report, data analyzed in Chapter 2 was recalculated using MOET's age calculation method to make the Census data compatible and comparable to routine data collected by the education sector.

The Education Section at UNICEF Viet Nam provided comprehensive support for the whole process, from the drafting stage to the finalization and dissemination of the report. Valuable comments have been provided by UNICEF's East Asia and Pacific Regional Office, the UNESCO Institute for Statistics in Canada and in Bangkok, and various partners from the Education Sector Group such as the Belgian Technical Corporation, the Belgium Embassy in Ha Noi, UNESCO Viet Nam, and UNESCO's Regional Office in Bangkok.

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ACRONYMS

5DE	Five Dimensions of Exclusion
ADB	Asian Development Bank
ANAR	Adjusted net attendance rate
BOET	Bureau of Education and Training
DOET	Department of Education and Training
MOET	Ministry of Education and Training
MOLISA	Ministry of Labor, Invalids and Social Affairs
CMF	Conceptual and methodological framework for out-of-school children
CPFC	Committee for Population, Families and Children
CRC	Convention on the Rights of the Child
CWD	Children with disabilities
DPC	District People's Committee
FDS	Full-day schooling
GSO	General Statistics Office
GPI	Gender Parity Index
HDS	Half-day schooling
IEC	Information, education and communication
ISCED	International Standards on the Classification of Education
VHLSS	Viet Nam Households Living Standards Survey
NAR	Net attendance rate
NTP	National Targeted Program
ODA	Official Development Assistance
OOSC	Out-of-School Children
PCFP	Provincial Child Friendly Program
PPC	Provincial People's Committee
SAVY	Survey Assessment of Vietnamese Youth
SAPs	Social assistance programs
SEDP	Socio-Economic Development Plan
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
VND	Vietnamese dong

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The report *Out-of-school Children in Viet Nam: A country study* looks at the situation of out-of-school children between the ages of five and 14 years old including children who had never attended school or who had dropped out and children who attended five years of preschool, primary and lower secondary school and were at risk of dropping out, meaning children who were at risk of becoming out-of-school children (OOSC) in the future. It analyzes barriers and bottlenecks that restrict children's schooling opportunities and proposes recommendations to reduce the number of OOSCs and ensure equity in education and the right to education for all Vietnamese children. The report provides a national analysis with in-depth OOSC profiles for eight provinces: Lao Cai, Dien Bien, Ninh Thuan, Kon Tum, Gia Lai, Ho Chi Minh City, Dong Thap and An Giang.

The study was initiated within the framework of Global Initiative on *Out-of-school Children* following the guidance of the Out-of-school Children Conceptual and Methodological Framework (CMF) initiated by UNICEF and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics¹. The finalization of the study report was led by the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) of Viet Nam, and it was based on comments from relevant departments under MOET and the National Assembly's Ethnic Council, and with the participation of and support from the Provincial Departments of Education and Training, some District Bureaus of Education and Training, the Commune/District People's Committees, and relevant stakeholders and selected primary schools and lower secondary schools in the six provinces of Dien Bien, Ninh Thuan, Kon Tum, Ho Chi Minh City, Dong Thap and An Giang. In addition, valuable feedback from UNICEF Viet Nam, the UNICEF Regional Office for East Asia and the Pacific, the UNESCO Institute for Statistics, UNESCO Viet Nam, the UNESCO Regional Office and development partners such as the Development Cooperation Agency at the Belgian Embassy.

This report utilizes data from the 2009 Population and Housing Census as the single source of data. Out-of-school children in this report were analyzed by different characteristics, including age, gender, ethnicity, urban/rural residence, disability and migration. In this report, the age of the children was calculated in alignment with the method used by the education sector. For example, the five-year-old children in this report were children who were born in 2003 and turned five in 2008. Therefore, the data in the report is comparable with the relevant data collected by the education sector for the 2008-2009 academic year. The term disability in this report is interpreted as the inability to perform one of the following four functions: vision, hearing, mobility (walking) and memorizing/concentration. A person is defined as disabled if s/he was unable to perform one of the above functions, as partially disabled if s/he performed one of the above functions with difficulty or a high level of difficulty, and as "has no disability" if he/she performed all four functions without difficulty. The concept of migration is interpreted as the relocation from one district to another (either within or outside a province) within a period of five years by the time of the 2009 Census.

The main findings of the report are as follows:

- There were 14.3 million children between the ages of five and 14 as of 2008, 1.5 million of whom were aged five, 6.6 million were 6-10, and 6.2 million were 11-14.
- The percentage of children aged five attending preschool or primary school was 87.81 per cent. The percentage of out-of-school children aged five was 12.19 per cent, which is equivalent to 175,848 children.
- The percentage of children between the ages of six and 10 attending primary or secondary school was 96.03 per cent. The percentage of out-of-school children aged 6-10 was 3.97 per cent, which is equivalent to 262,648 children.

¹ Global Initiative on Out-of-school Children Conceptual and Methodological Framework (CMF) UNICEF and UIS (March 2011)

- The percentage of children between the ages of 11 and 14 attending school was 88.83 per cent, including 82.93 per cent attending lower secondary school and 5.9 per cent attending primary school. The percentage of out-of-school children aged 11-14 was 11.17 per cent, which is equivalent to 688,849 children.
- Total number of out-of-school children aged 5-14 was 1,127,345.
- The percentage of children who attended but subsequently dropped out of school increased dramatically as age increased. At 14, almost 16 per cent of the children in that age group had dropped out of school. At 17, which is the final year of upper secondary school, the dropout figure increased to more than 39 per cent.
- The percentage of children who had never attended school was relatively high, and it was especially high among some ethnic minority groups. The average figure of children between the ages of five and 17 who had never attended school was 2.57 per cent. Among the Mong, this figure was highest at 23.02 per cent. In other words, almost one quarter of all school-age Mong children had never attended any form of schooling.
- Over-age attendance at both primary and lower secondary schools was six per cent on average. However, further disaggregation to the provincial level showed high rates in some provinces, for example in Gia Lai and Dien Bien, where children were over-age for the grades they were attending.
- The percentage of out-of-school children in urban areas was higher than in rural areas. The difference increased as age increased. The OOSC rate disparity between rural and urban areas was not remarkable at the age of five, but it almost doubled among primary and lower secondary school age children.
- Gender disparity was rare or non-existent among primary school age children, except for the Mong and children with disabilities. It started to show once children reached secondary school age, especially among ethnic minority groups in which the number of boys who were out of school and the dropout rates for boys were higher than those for girls, except for the Mong, children with disabilities and migrant children. This may indicate a quality issue which involved, for example, the relevance of education in terms of skills development and gender responsiveness from an employment perspective.

Among most ethnic minorities, boys were usually more disadvantaged than girls, except for the Mong, among whom an opposite trend was observed. Mong girls had significantly less opportunities to attend school than boys, especially at the lower secondary school level. On Gender Parity Index (GPI) which is calculated by dividing the female statistics by male statistics, the ANAR GPI of girls (calculated by dividing female ANAR by male ANAR) was 0.85 per cent at the primary school age and only 0.56 per cent at the lower secondary school age. The lower secondary school net attendance rate among Mong girls was low, only 24.36 per cent, which is equivalent to only one out of every four lower secondary school age Mong girls attending secondary school and half of the Mong boys of the same age group attending secondary school. The OOSC rates among Mong girls of primary and lower secondary school age were 1.5 and two times higher than those for Mong boys respectively.

Gender disparity among children with disabilities was observed at primary and lower secondary school age. The ANAR GPI was 1.05 for children with disabilities of primary school age, and it was 1.73 for children with disabilities and 1.12 for children with partial disabilities of lower secondary school age. With these indexes higher than the gender parity range of 1.03, boys with disabilities had less opportunities to attend school than girls with disabilities at both the primary and lower secondary levels.

Gender disparity among migrant children was observed at lower secondary school age with the GPI of migrant groups at 0.95, which was lower than the gender parity range of 0.97. This meant that migrant girls of lower secondary school age were more disadvantaged than boys the same age.

Gender disparity was also observed among children of secondary school age attending primary schools. In each disaggregation, either by ethnicity or other criteria, the rate of boys who were of secondary school age attending primary schools was always higher than the rate for girls. This clearly shows that boys progressed more slowly than girls during the transition from primary to secondary school.

- There were some differences among migrant and non-migrant groups. Migrant groups consistently performed worse than non-migrant groups, and the difference also increased as age increased. Migrant families had a higher rate of OOSC among children age five than that of non-migrant families: 1.3 times higher at the age of five, 1.8 times higher at primary school age, and 2.4 times higher at lower secondary school age.
- Children with disabilities showed clear disadvantages in education, with very low enrollment and a very high out-of-school rate. The OOSC rate at the primary and lower secondary levels was about 25 per cent for children with partial disabilities and over 90 per cent for children with disabilities.
- The report shows great disparities among the eight selected provinces. The population of ethnic groups may have played an important role, but this was not always the case. An Giang had the lowest percentage of ethnic minority groups, but academic performance at school was often poor. In the better-performing Ho Chi Minh City, the out-of-school rate among children age five was 13.66 per cent, among children age 6-10 it was 2.35 per cent, and among children age 11-14 it was 9.92 per cent. In the worst performing province of Dien Bien, these figures were 22.3 per cent, 15.75 per cent, and 24.78 per cent respectively. Apart from the out-of-school rate, there were also differences in the rate of over-age attendance. The average over-age attendance at both primary and lower secondary schools was nearly six per cent. A further disaggregation to the provincial level shows a quite high rate of over-age attendance, for example, in Gia Lai it was 16.41 per cent at primary schools and 12.66 per cent at lower secondary schools, and in Dien Bien it was 15.92 per cent at primary schools and 21.73 per cent at lower secondary schools. In the four provinces of Lao Cai, Ninh Thuan, Kon Tum and An Giang, the over-age attendance rate was higher than the national average. Ho Chi Minh City had the lowest over-age attendance rate of all eight provinces, 2.10 per cent at primary schools and 3.86 per cent at lower secondary schools.

Excluded children (never enrolled, dropped out or at risk) were poor children, children living in remote areas, ethnic minority children, children with disabilities, working children, and migrant children. In addition, there were smaller numbers of children affected by or infected with HIV, orphans, street children, trafficked children and children in other special circumstances. These children were potentially at risk of dropping out, and a number of them had already dropped out.

A number of barriers and bottlenecks that were given as reasons for the profiles mentioned above. Demand-side economic and socio-cultural barriers affected children and families. Demand-side economic barriers were associated with poverty, which limited the ability to afford educational costs. Demand-side socio-cultural barriers to education were those which lessened a family's demand for their children to attend school. They were found in the family and community and in the traditions kept by families and within communities. In Viet Nam the big issues with regard to demand-side socio-cultural barriers are a lack of awareness of the long-term value of education and a lack of genuine family and community participation. Other demand-side barriers are discussed in detail in this report.

Supply-side barriers concerned bottlenecks related to infrastructure and resources, teachers, and the learning environment, which affected student enrollment and attendance. A recent study suggested that learning achievements among ethnic minority students were often more affected by school and teacher factors than the above-mentioned demand-side factors. A number of stakeholders said that

there remained issues related to the curriculum and child-centered approaches. Recent important developments in assessing children's learning achievements in literacy and numeracy provided very useful insights beyond grade attainment in the education system in Viet Nam. However, intense study, a heavy school workload and a lack of entertainment facilities were seen as sources of pressures on children, and as a result a proportion of ethnic minority and underperforming children failed to keep up and were at risk of dropping out of school.

Governance, the process in which decisions are made and implemented, influenced education outcomes. In a system seen by some commentators as having constraints in leadership capacity and accountability, it was in places where principals were actively managing their schools and involving parents and communities where real changes were being made. A lack of appropriate decision-making at lower levels of management in the education sector affected the learning outcomes of students. However, the development of a two-tiered society in which those who can pay receive quality education for their children while those who cannot receive the barest of education has done little to uphold the principle of equity for all.

There have been a number of useful innovations to move education forward, especially for those who are disadvantaged and for ethnic minority children such as tuition reduction or exemption policy. However, challenges in implementation, underlying economic constraints in families, and the fact that not all cash assistance reached the poor leave gaps in the provision of education to disadvantaged children. Examples are provided in this report.

There is the notion that many useful ideas have come via development cooperation and have not been expanded to operate across the country to support those who lack access to a good quality education. Innovative programs such as the provision of boarding, semi-boarding schools, access to mother-tongue-based programs, the use of ethnic minority teaching assistants and the introduction of full-day schooling are all appropriate and necessary to ensure that the remaining eight per cent of Viet Nam's children age 5-14 have access to education. However, such innovations will need to be taken over by government funding and extended throughout the country.

Due to the stark disparity between the Kinh and vulnerable ethnic minority groups in Viet Nam, there remains a long way to go to achieve positive imaging of minorities and disadvantaged children in textbooks and learning, and in the media in general, and to break down domestic cultural barriers.

Viet Nam has a number of social-protection programs, including social insurance and social welfare schemes, the latter including targeted programs and special schemes for war veterans and invalids among others. Poor people are covered by many social-welfare policies, however, the quality of these services remains low, especially in poor areas, and migrants in urban areas have only limited access.

Recently a number of agencies and researchers have put forward the notion of a family-based package of assistance that integrates and expands existing programs to serve as a foundation on which additional benefits can be built, depending on household characteristics, such as the number of working household members or the number and ages of children, with an aim to benefit the bottom 15 per cent of households in terms of wealth and assuming nationwide implementation. UNICEF also makes the point that social workers and other care workers are needed at the local level to ensure that needy families have access to welfare services.

There have been many reasons to applaud the development of education in Viet Nam over the past thirty or so years, and enrollment and completion have risen dramatically. Viet Nam has also increased funding levels for education in terms of percentage of the GDP beyond the levels of most countries in East Asia and the Pacific Region, though the budget remains limited and has not fully met the demand for educational development. Given the situation of out-of-school children as analyzed in the report, much remains to be done to address the multi-faceted challenges and barriers and ensure the right to education for all Vietnamese children. A number of recommendations to lessen the number of out-of-school children and to decrease the risk of dropping out of school are made in the conclusion of this report.



CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The report *Out-of-school Children in Viet Nam: A Country Study* is part of a regional study undertaken by UNICEF's East Asia and Pacific Regional Office. The initial drafting of the report was undertaken by an international team of experts. The finalization was led by the Ministry of Education and Training with assistance from UNICEF Viet Nam and a national consultant.

The report aims to highlight key issues of concern related to inequity in education in Viet Nam by analyzing the situation both in terms of the quantity and the characteristics of out-of-school children aged 5-14 years, children who had never attended school or had attended but dropped out; analyzing children who attended 5-year pre-school, primary, and lower secondary school but were at risk of dropping out; and analyzing the barriers and bottlenecks that prevented and restricted children from attending school. The report helps to enhance the awareness of OOSC and the barriers and bottlenecks, to improve education management and planning, and to strengthen policy advocacy to reduce the number of OOSC, contributing to realise the right to education of children in general and disadvantaged children in particular.

This report utilizes data from the 2009 Population and Housing Census. The analysis of the barriers and the recommendations was also based on findings from field consultations with representatives of educational managers, parents, children, local authorities and communities² in six provinces, Dien Bien, Ninh Thuan, Kon Tum, Ho Chi Minh City, Dong Thap and An Giang, from December 2012 to March 2013.

The analysis follows the model of the Five Dimensions of Exclusion as part of the Conceptual and Methodological Framework (CMF) for the Global Initiative on Out-of-school Children (OOSC) launched by UNICEF and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

The report includes five chapters. Chapter 1 gives an overview of the report; explains some of the geographical features of Viet Nam; describes the structure, management and financing of Viet Nam's education system; discusses the Global Initiative on Out-of-school children and the Five Dimensions of Exclusion model; and explains the methodology used for the study. Chapter 2 analyses the statistical profile of out-of-school children of pre-primary, primary and lower secondary age, as informed by the CMF developed by UNICEF and UNESCO Institute for Statistics. Chapter 3 studies the barriers or bottlenecks that caused a child to be excluded from education, including no or limited access to school, dropping out, and being at risk of dropping out. The analysis in this chapter was based on the results of quantitative and qualitative research on education in Viet Nam in recent years, as well as field surveys in the six above-mentioned provinces. Chapter 4 reviews and analyses policies related to OOSC and the shortcomings of those policies. Finally, Chapter 5 provides recommendations to address OOSC issues.

² In Dien Bien: DOET of Dien Bien, BOET of Tuan Giao district, Phinh Sang Primary School, Mun Chung Lower Secondary School
In Ninh Thuan: DOET of Ninh Thuan, BOET of Thuan Nam district, Gia Primary School, Van Ly Lower Secondary School
In Kon Tum: DOET of Kon Tum, BOET of Dak Glei district, Dak Long Primary School, Dak Long Semi-boarding Lower Secondary School
In Ho Chi Minh City: DOET of HCMC, BOET of Binh Tan district, Binh Tri Dong Primary School, Binh Tri Dong A Lower Secondary School
In Dong Thap: DOET of Dong Thap, BOET of Hong Ngu district, Thuong Thoi Hau A Primary School, Thuong Phuoc 2 Lower Secondary School
In An Giang: DOET of An Giang, BOET of An Phu district, C Quoc Thai Primary School, Khanh An Lower Secondary School



1.1. Some geographic and socio-economic features and the education system of Viet Nam

Viet Nam borders the Gulf of Thailand, the Gulf of Tonkin, and the East Sea as well as China, Laos, and Cambodia. It has a 3,444 km coastline and a total area of 331,210 sq km. Viet Nam is in a monsoon tropical climate zone with a combination of plains and upland terrain, and it is prone to natural disasters. Each year Viet Nam is subject to frequent typhoons along its long coastline and major flooding, particularly in the Mekong Delta, and it is at great risk of major impact of climate change.

According to the 2009 Population and Housing Census, Viet Nam is comprised of 54 ethnic groups, of which the Kinh (Viet) make up the majority (85,7 per cent). The main ethnic minorities are Tay (1.9 per cent), Thai (1.8 per cent), Muong (1.5 per cent), Khmer (1.5 per cent), Mong (1.2 per cent), Nung (1.1 per cent). Other groups make up 5.3 per cent, and 25 per cent of the population is aged 0-14 years, 69.5 per cent 15-64 years and 5.5 per cent of the population is aged 65 and over.

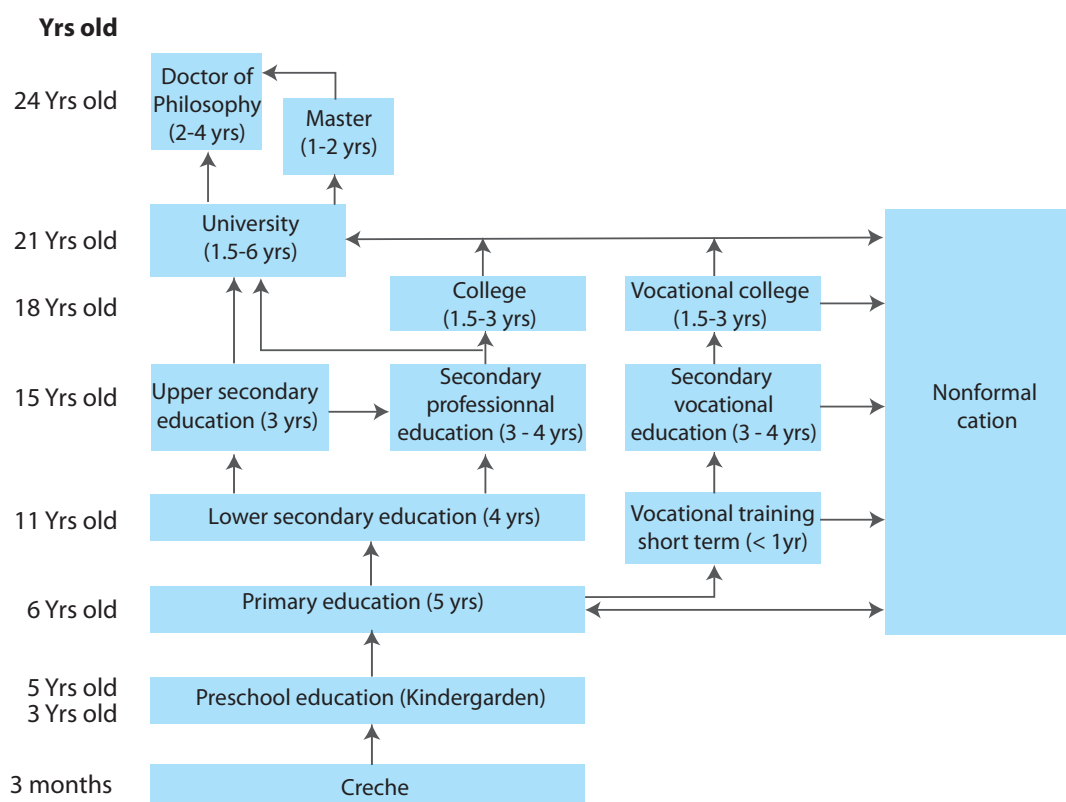
Viet Nam's literacy rates are high (94 per cent of the people over the age of 15 can read and write), 94 per cent of the population has access to clean drinking water, and 75 per cent of the population has access to an improved sanitation system.

Due to rapid economic growth over the past twenty years and a reduction in overall poverty rates, from 58.1 per cent in 1993 to 14.5 per cent in 2008 (GSO), Viet Nam was recognized as a middle-income country in 2010. Viet Nam joined the World Trade Organization in 2007, was a non-permanent member of the United Nations Security Council from 2008 to 2009, and chaired the Association of Southeast Asian Nations in 2010.

Viet Nam's national education system has five components: early childhood education, general education, vocational training, tertiary education, and continuing education.

Early childhood education includes nursery school (from three months to three years of age) and kindergarten (from three to five years of age). General education includes primary education (grades 1-5), lower secondary education (grades 6-9), and upper secondary education (grades 10-12), and there are entrance and final exams. Vocational or technical training is available as an alternative option to upper secondary education.

Figure 1.1 The structure of Viet Nam's national education system



Primary education is provided through main schools that may be complemented by satellite schools.³ Nearly all (98 per cent) main primary schools offer a complete grade sequence, from grade 1 to grade 5, while only 77 per cent of the satellite schools do so. Some 20 per cent of primary schools in Viet Nam offer only half-day schooling (25 periods per week). Each learning lasts only about 30-35 minutes. Viet Nam has one of the lowest amount of instructional time in primary school in the world, less than 700 hours of mandated instructional time a year. In remote areas, two primary school classes share one classroom, alternating morning and afternoon shifts. The same thing happens at secondary schools (they use several shifts and a system of main and satellite schools). This is changing through the adoption of full-day schooling, starting in urban areas.

Government investments for education in Viet Nam has increased over the past 25 years. The portion of the national budget allocated for education grew from seven per cent in 1986 to roughly 20 per cent in 2008. Viet Nam spent about 5.3 per cent of its GDP on education in 2008. This is high compared to the East Asian average of about 3.5 per cent. Per pupil expenditure in 2008 was also high, around 20 and 17 per cent of the GDP per capita for primary and secondary education in Viet Nam, respectively, compared to the East Asian average of about 14 per cent for both levels.⁴ However, the absolute figures of Viet Nam's spending on education are not high.

Education management for kindergarten, primary and lower secondary education is decentralized to the district level, and upper secondary education to the provincial level. The central Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) sets the curriculum, publishes the textbooks, and establishes rules on teaching and assessment. Expenses for early childhood education and general education (including primary, lower and upper secondary schools) are mostly paid for from the state budget. Most of Viet Nam's schools are government-operated schools, although increasingly the private sector in education is developing.

³ <http://en.moet.gov.vn/?page=6.7&view=3401>

⁴ World Bank, Viet Nam: High Quality Education for All by 2020, # 56085-VN, Vol. 1: Overview and Policy Report. Human Development Department East Asia and Pacific Region. World Bank (2011)

Until September 1989 general education in Viet Nam was free. Since then, however, only primary education has been free. Fees are collected for secondary education to contribute to the financing of educational activities.

Exemption from or the reduction of tuition fees and lunch subsidies are offered to children in difficult circumstances such as children with disabilities, children at ethnic minority boarding and semi-boarding schools, children belonging to very small ethnic minority groups, children of deceased or seriously-wounded soldiers, children in remote areas, and children in households certified as poor. Details on children who receive support are presented in Chapter 4.

1.2 Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children and the Five Dimensions of Exclusion

1.2.1 Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children

The Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children was initiated by UNICEF and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) in 2010, and it is expected to be implemented in 23 developing countries. The initiative aims to improve the statistics on and analyses of out-of-school children by thoroughly examining existing policies and the factors that contribute to educational exclusion in order to accelerate access to education and to address gaps in data, analysis and policy. The objective is to offer a more systematic approach to out-of-school children and to provide guidance for specific reforms in education, including the sector's management, planning and policy. A national study will be conducted in each country and the results will be synthesized in regional and global studies and shared at a global conference in order to seek more resources for equity in education.⁵

1.2.2 The Five Dimensions of Exclusion

The Five Dimensions of Exclusion is short for the Model of Five Dimensions of Exclusion from Education, which makes up the conceptual and methodological framework of the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children.

The 5DE are comprised of three dimensions that focus on out-of-school children and two that focus on children who are in school but are at risk of dropping out. According to UNICEF and UIS, the term exclusion for OOSC is interpreted as meaning that they are excluded from education, while the term for children at risk of dropping out is interpreted as being excluded in education as they have to face discriminative practices within the school, specifically:

Pre-primary education is represented by Dimension 1, which covers children of pre-primary school age who are not in pre-primary or primary school.

Primary education is represented by Dimension 2, which covers children of primary school age who are not in primary or secondary school.

Lower-secondary education is represented by Dimension 3, which covers children of lower secondary school age who are not in primary or secondary school.

Dimension 4 and 5 focus on school children who are at risk of dropping out. Understanding more about these groups of children is key to preventing them from becoming the out-of-school children of tomorrow (Lewin 2007). Dimension 4 covers children in primary school who are considered to be at risk of dropping out, and Dimension 5 covers children in lower secondary school who are considered to be at risk.

⁵ UNICEF and UIS, *Global Initiative on Out-of-school Children: Conceptual and Methodological Framework (CMF)*, UNICEF and UIS (March 2011)

The five dimensions are listed below in the box and displayed in the following figure.

The Five Dimensions of Exclusion (5DE)

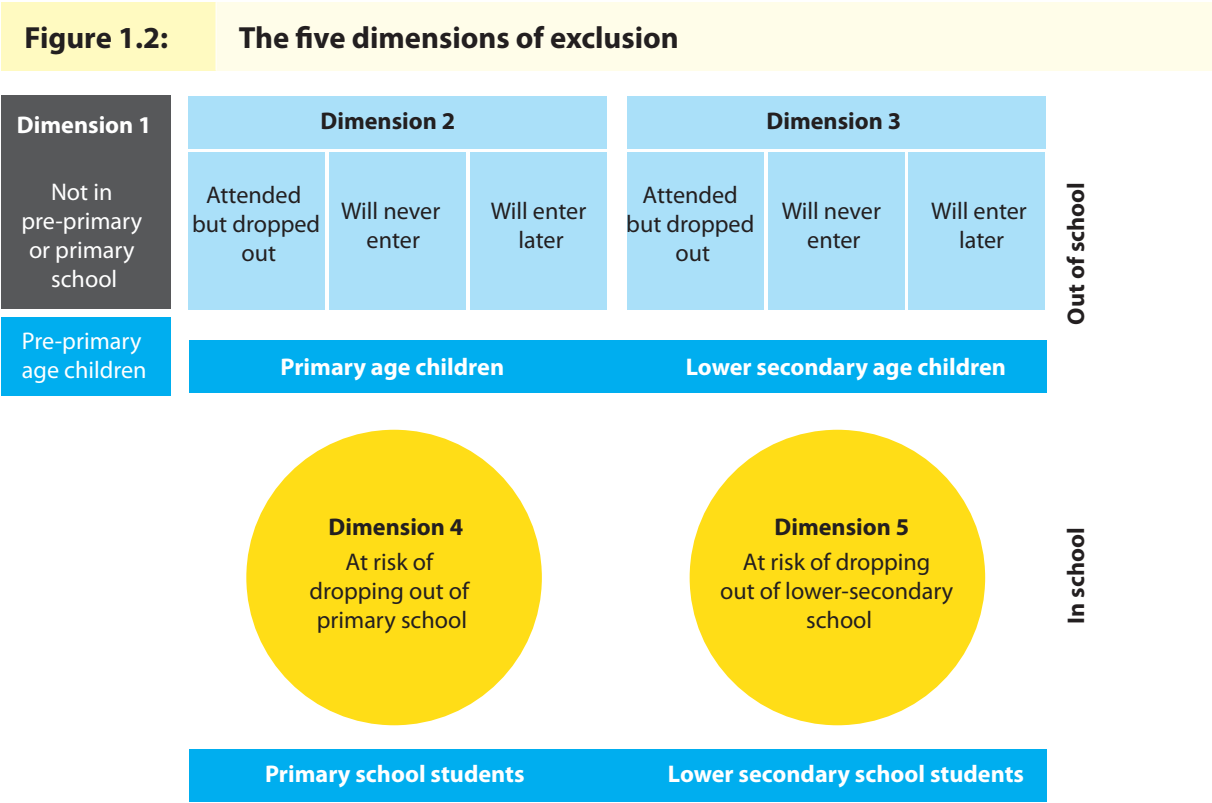
Dimension 1: Children of pre-primary school age who are not in pre-primary or primary school.

Dimension 2: Children of primary school age who are not in primary or secondary school.

Dimension 3: Children of lower secondary school age who are not in primary or secondary school.

Dimension 4: Children who are in primary school but are at risk of dropping out.

Dimension 5: Children who are in lower secondary school but are at risk of dropping out.



There are several important aspects to note regarding the 5DE. The distinct shape and color of Dimension 1 in Figure 1 reflects the notion that while pre-primary school is an important preparation for primary education, it is also distinct from formal programs at primary and higher levels of education. Dimension 1 represents a group of children who do not benefit from pre-primary education and who may therefore not be adequately prepared for primary education, placing them at risk of not entering into primary education or, if they do enter, at risk of dropping out. Children who attend non-formal or non-recognized pre-primary education programs should be identified as a distinct group when the data is available.

Each of the out-of-school Dimensions 2 and 3 is divided into three mutually-exclusive categories based on previous or future school exposure: children who attended in the past and dropped out, children who will never enter school, and children who will enter school in the future. Some out-of-school children of primary and lower secondary school age may be in pre-primary or non-formal education, and these children should be identified separately.

Children in Dimensions 4 and 5, those in school but at risk of exclusion from education, are grouped by the level of education they attend, regardless of their age: primary (Dimension 4) or lower secondary (Dimension 5). This is different from Dimensions 2 and 3, which group out-of-school children by their

age: primary (Dimension 2) or lower secondary (Dimension 3). The framework thus covers two different types of populations: the population of out-of-school children of school-going age, and the population of at-risk pupils of any age in primary or lower secondary school.

1.2.3 Report methodology

This report analyses the education situation of pre-primary children aged five, primary and lower secondary school children, and children who were in primary and lower secondary school regardless of their age. The report uses the model of Five Dimensions of Exclusion. The report structure follows the guidelines of the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children applied to national out-of-school children studies.

The following UNESCO definitions are used in the report:

- NAR stands for net attendance rate.
- The NAR at primary education is the net attendance rate at primary schools, which is the percentage of children in the official primary school age group who are in primary school.
- The NAR at lower secondary education is the net attendance rate at lower secondary schools, which is the percentage of children in the official lower secondary school age group who are in lower secondary school.
- ANAR stands for adjusted net attendance rate.
- The ANAR at primary education is the adjusted net attendance rate at primary schools, which is the percentage of children in the official primary school age group who attend either primary or secondary school.
- The ANAR at lower secondary education is the adjusted net attendance rate at lower secondary schools, which is the percentage of children in the official lower secondary school age group who attend either lower or upper secondary school.
- GPI stands for gender parity index, which is calculated by dividing the female statistics by male statistics.
- The ANAR GPI is the gender parity index of the adjusted net attendance rate. As described in CME, GPI values between 0.97 and 1.03 are usually considered gender parity. If the GPI for the ANAR is less than 0.97, girls are at a disadvantage. If the GPI for the ANAR is greater than 1.03, boys are at a disadvantage.
- The ANAR GPI at primary education is the gender parity index of the adjusted net attendance rate at primary level, which is the ratio of the number of girls to the number of boys at primary and lower secondary schools.
- The ANAR GPI at lower secondary education is the gender parity index of the adjusted net attendance rate at lower secondary level, which is the ratio of the number of girls to the number of boys at lower or upper secondary schools.



CHAPTER II

PROFILES OF OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN

This chapter analyses the statistical profile of out-of-school children of pre-primary, primary and lower secondary school age. The analysis follows the Out-of-School Children Conceptual and Methodological Framework developed by UNICEF and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics.

2.1 Data overview and analysis considerations

- The 2009 Population and Housing Census enumerated all the Vietnamese regularly residing in the territory of the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam at zero hour on 1 April, 2009. Details can be obtained from GSO Viet Nam publications.
- As per the 2009 Population and Housing Census, respondents were only given credit for the full years that they had completed by 1 April 2009 (a full year of age is 365 days). This calculation method is different than that used by the education sector, which calculates by deducting the year of birth from the current year. These different calculation methods resulted in a discrepancy in the data by the GSO and the education sector. To address this issue and ensure alignment with the schooling age calculation, age in this report was calculated based on the year of birth against 2008, meaning age was counted by deducting the year of birth as declared in the Census. For example, the five year old children in this report are those who reported they were born in 2003 (2008 minus 2003 = five years), and the 14 year old children are those who reported they were born in 1994 (2008 minus 1994). Therefore, the data in this report is comparable to the data used by the education sector for the 2008-2009 school year.
- The education-related question as asked in the 2009 Census included *Are you attending school, did you drop out or did you never go to school?* and there were three response options: *attending school, attended but dropped out and never went to school*. The responses formed the basis for analyzing the school attendance in this report.
- The profiles of out-of-school children were analysed by age group, five years old for pre-primary school, 6-10 years old for primary school and 11-14 years old for lower secondary school. The age of these groups were calculated as of 2008. The five year old age group includes children who were born in 2003, the 6-10 year old age group includes children who were born between 1998 and 2002, and the 11-14 year old age group includes children who were born between 1994 and 1997.
- Viet Nam has 63 provinces and centrally-governed municipalities (hereinafter referred to as provinces). However, only eight provinces were analysed in detail, including Lao Cai, Dien Bien, Ninh Thuan, Kon Tum, Gia Lai, Ho Chi Minh City (HCMC), Dong Thap and An Giang. All the other provinces were lumped into the category other provinces. The eight provinces were selected to reflect ethnic diversity, wealth distribution, and so on, in the opinion of different development partners (based on previous studies) and these were also locations where the current UNICEF-supported programs were being implemented.
- There were four questions in the 2009 Census related to disability of the major four functions: vision, hearing, movement (walking) and cognition (learning or understanding). These questions

were asked of members of the household who were aged five and over. Answers were based on self-evaluation and were classified into four categories: *No difficulty*, *A little difficulty*, *Very difficult* and *Unable*. A person was considered to be disabled if s/he was unable to do one or more of the four major functions and partially disabled if s/he reported having a little difficulty or that it was very difficult to perform any of the four functions. Those who reported having no difficulty doing any of the four functions were categorized as having no disability.

- There are five categories that describe a change of residential location in between the time of the Census and five years prior. The categories are *Same commune/ward*, *Another commune/ward in the same district/quarter*, *Another district/quarter in the same province*, *Another province* and *Abroad*. A person was considered to have not migrated if he/she had lived in the same commune/ward or another commune/ward in the same district quarter. The rest were considered to have migrated.

A migrant was interpreted as a person who changed his/her residential location from one district to another at least once during the five years before the 2009 Census. In Viet Nam people often move from a rural area to an urban area within one province or move from one less-urbanized province to a city outside their province.

However, there was a data limitation. There was no question regarding the purpose of the migration in the 2009 Census, which made it impossible to identify whether the migration was to look for a job in the city, for casual seasonal work or due to a natural disaster.

- As the 2009 Census does not have data on child labor, this chapter will not analyze the situation of working children.
- When analysing based on specific disaggregations, weighted cell values less than 50 were omitted from the tables (i.e. the value was changed to zero) as the sample size was too small. All related cells were left blank. For example, in terms of ethnicity the Muong in Lao Cai had only 31 children aged five and all of them attended preschool. As the observed sample was smaller than 50, all the analyzed cells related to this group were left blank. 100 per cent of those five children attended preschool, but this was not acknowledged in the report. One must be cautious when making conclusions based on cells with weighted values that are only slightly higher than 50 observations.
- There are 54 ethnic groups in Viet Nam. Kinh is the main ethnic group and all the other groups are considered to be minority groups.



2.2 Characteristics of school-age children

The male to female ratio was 51.5 to 49.5, the same as in the whole of Viet Nam. At different ages this ratio varied slightly, with the biggest deviation occurring in children younger than five (52.1 males to 47.9 females). Among children of primary and lower secondary school age, as will be shown later, there was a clear gender imbalance in the population. For every boy in the country, there were only 0.92 girls (i.e. 52 boys to 48 girls).

About a quarter of Vietnamese children aged 5 to 14 years old lived in urban dwellings. More than 80 per cent were ethnic Kinh. About 0.2 per cent of the children had disabilities, 1.5 per cent were partially disabled, and the rest, over 98 per cent of children, had no disabilities. Children from migrant families accounted for about three per cent of the population.

Table 2.1 presents children by age and school age group. There were almost 1.5 million (1,442,706) children aged five, 6.6 million (6,613,034) children of primary school age (6-10), and 6.2 million (6,166,798) children of lower secondary school age (11-14). This information was used in all later calculations. Table 2.2 presents the statistics with respect to age, gender and other groups.

Table 2.1: Population distribution of school-age children

Unit: People

Age	5 years old	6-10 years old	11-14 years old
5	1,442,706		
6		1,286,620	
7		1,325,677	
8		1,442,146	
9		1,285,156	
10		1,273,434	
11			1,428,699
12			1,484,086
13			1,613,055
14			1,640,958
Sub-total	1,442,706	6,613,034	6,166,798

Table 2.2 **Population distribution of school-age children***Unit: %*

		5 years old	6-10 years old	11-14 years old
Gender	Male	52.09	52.07	52.06
	Female	47.91	47.93	47.94
Urban/rural	Urban	28.83	25.28	24.39
	Rural	71.17	74.72	75.61
Ethnicity	Kinh	83.25	81.87	82.59
	Tay	1.65	1.86	1.99
	Thai	1.88	2.03	2.12
	Muong	1.33	1.41	1.51
	Khmer	1.41	1.53	1.51
	Mong	2.35	2.40	1.94
	Other	8.13	8.90	8.34
Disability	Disabled	0.16	0.19	0.24
	Partially disabled	1.25	1.23	1.61
	Not disabled	98.58	98.58	98.15
Migrated	Yes	3.54	2.58	2.22
	No	96.46	97.42	97.78

2.3 Dimension 1: Out-of-school children aged five

Dimension 1 of 5DE focuses on the OOSC aged five, covering children of pre-primary school age who do not attend a pre-primary or primary school.

Table 2.3 shows school attendance statistics for both pre-primary and primary school children who were aged five in 2008 (they were born in 2003). The table also shows the out-of-school rate for this age group.

Table 2.3**School attendance status of children aged 5**

Children Aged 5		OOSC (%)			Currently attending (%)			Total population (N)
		Never attended	Attended	Total	Attending pre-primary	Attending primary	Attending either pre-primary or primary	
Viet Nam		11.99	0.20	12.19	80.33	7.48	87.81	1,442,706
Gender	Male	12.08	0.21	12.29	80.19	7.52	87.71	751,534
	Female	11.88	0.20	12.08	80.48	7.44	87.92	691,161
Urban/ rural	Urban	12.82	0.17	12.99	82.05	4.96	87.01	415,905
	Rural	11.65	0.22	11.86	79.63	8.50	88.14	1,026,791
Ethnicity	Kinh	10.84	0.18	11.03	82.02	6.95	88.97	1,201,109
	Tay	3.50	0.11	3.61	88.32	8.07	96.39	23,809
	Thai	5.92	0.23	6.15	77.83	16.01	93.85	27,053
	Muong	3.00	0.26	3.26	84.59	12.15	96.74	19,201
	Khmer	36.13	0.87	37.00	53.50	9.50	63.00	20,344
	Mong	34.19	0.29	34.49	52.08	13.43	65.51	33,908
	Other	17.68	0.26	17.95	74.08	7.97	82.05	117,271
Disability	Disabled	82.71	0.40	83.11	15.56	1.33	16.89	2,350
	Partially disabled	29.91	0.71	30.62	64.03	5.34	69.38	18,093
	No disability	11.64	0.20	11.84	80.65	7.52	88.16	1,422,264
Migrated	Yes	16.06	0.39	16.45	78.89	4.66	83.55	51,090
	No	11.84	0.20	12.03	80.38	7.58	87.97	1,391,616

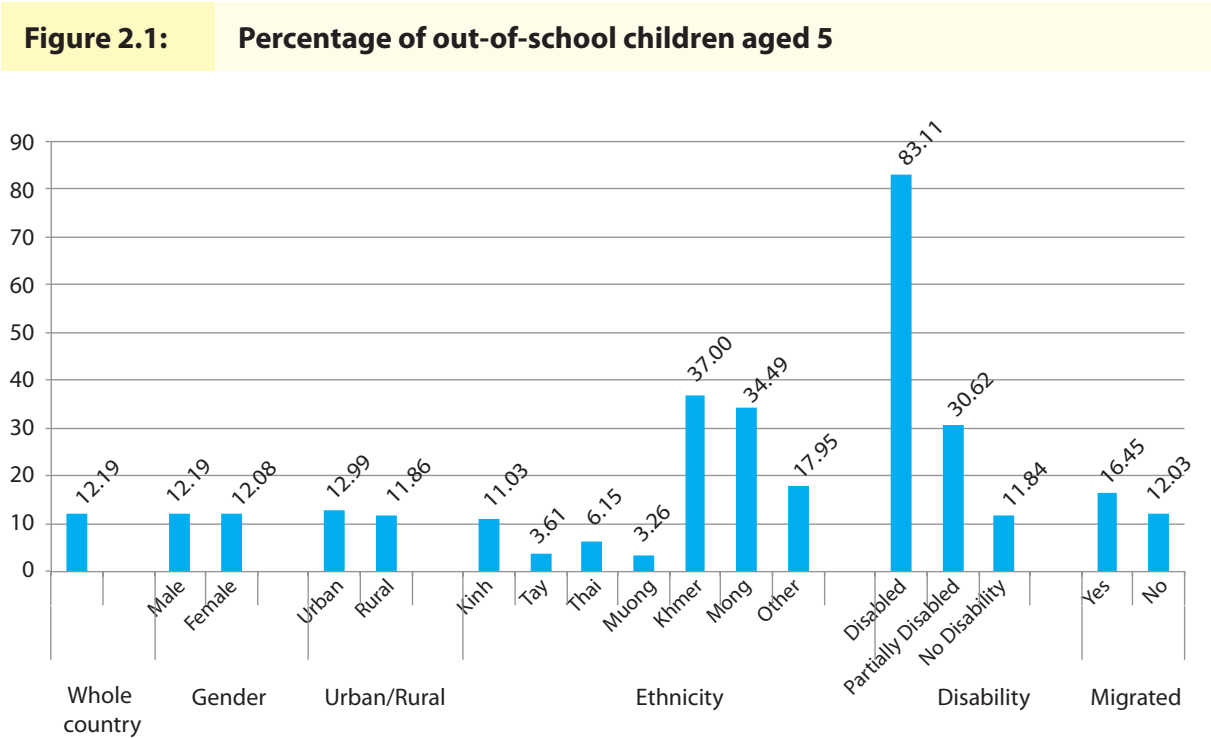
At the time of the 2009 Census (1 April 2009), there were a total of 1,442,706 children who were aged five, 87.81 per cent of whom attended school (80.33 per cent at a pre-primary school and 7.48 per cent at a primary school) and 12.19 per cent who did not attend school. The number of out-of-school children aged five was 175,848.

The ratio of OOSC was similar for boys and girls, 12.29 per cent and 12.08 per cent respectively. The urban and rural ratio of OOSC was also similar, 12.99 per cent and 11.86 per cent respectively.

There was a great disparity in the OOSC rate among the different ethnic groups. The lowest OOSC rate was for the Muong (3.26 per cent) and the highest OOSC rate was for the Khmer (37 per cent). The rate for the Mong was also relatively high (34.49 per cent). The OOSC ratios of these two groups were three times higher than those of the Kinh, which means one out of every three children aged five was not attending school.

The OOSC rate among the disabled and partially-disabled children was very high (83.11 per cent and 30.62 per cent respectively) compared to that among children with no disabilities (11.84 per cent). Children of migrant families had a higher OOSC rate than non-migrant families, 16.45 per cent and 12.03 per cent respectively.

Figure 2.1 gives graphical illustration of the relevant data for OOSC aged five.



2.4 Dimension 2: Out-of-school children of primary school age

The CMF defines children of primary school age as being in school if they had a primary or secondary school education (ISCED levels 1 and 2).

Children of primary school age who did not participate in education programs at ISCED levels 1 and 2 were considered as being out of school, including those who were in pre-primary school and those who had a non-formal education. Vocational training is not part of formal education system in Viet Nam.

The OOSC rate at primary school age is calculated below:

Percentage of OOSC = 100 minus the percentage of children in primary and secondary schools.

This section presents the analyses of the school attendance and the out-of-school children of primary school age.

2.4.1 School attendance of primary school age children

School attendance of primary school age children was measured in two ways:

- The percentage of primary school age children who were attending primary schools, which is the primary net attendance rate (NAR), and
- The primary adjusted net attendance rate (ANAR)

The difference between the NAR and the ANAR is that the ANAR also includes attendance at secondary schools (under-age attendance). Essentially therefore, the primary ANAR is the rate of primary school age children attending primary or secondary school.

Table 2.4 presents the primary net attendance rate.

Table 2.4		Primary net attendance rate (NAR)					
		Male		Female		Total	
		NAR (%)	Number (person)	NAR (%)	Number (person)	NAR (%)	Number (person)
Total		95.48	3,287,688	95.43	3,024,773	95.45	6,312,460
Age	6	92.79	621,138	92.65	571,847	92.72	1,192,985
	7	97.19	668,328	97.18	620,034	97.19	1,288,362
	8	97.41	734,580	97.38	670,000	97.40	1,404,580
	9	96.56	643,690	96.64	597,733	96.60	1,241,423
	10	93.13	619,951	92.99	565,160	93.06	1,185,110
Urban/rural	Urban	97.11	851,187	97.35	774,049	97.23	1,625,237
	Rural	94.92	2,436,500	94.79	2,250,723	94.86	4,687,223
Ethnicity	Kinh	96.88	2,735,682	97.06	2,514,252	96.97	5,249,933
	Tay	97.32	61,186	97.62	58,868	97.47	120,054
	Thai	93.01	64,179	92.45	60,193	92.74	124,372
	Muong	95.60	46,232	95.74	42,881	95.67	89,112
	Khmer	85.55	45,487	87.38	41,821	86.42	87,307
	Mong	78.33	64,006	66.59	51,253	72.64	115,259
	Other	88.91	270,916	89.96	255,506	89.42	526,422
Disability	Disabled	12.62	931	13.28	716	12.90	1,646
	Partially disabled	75.01	34,231	76.75	27,223	75.77	61,454
	No disability	95.93	3,252,526	95.79	2,996,834	95.86	6,249,360
Migrated	Yes	92.94	83,681	92.01	74,370	92.50	158,051
	No	95.54	3,204,006	95.52	2,950,403	95.53	6,154,409

Table 2.5 presents the primary adjusted net attendance rate (ANAR). Figure 2.2 gives a graphical illustration of the primary ANAR.

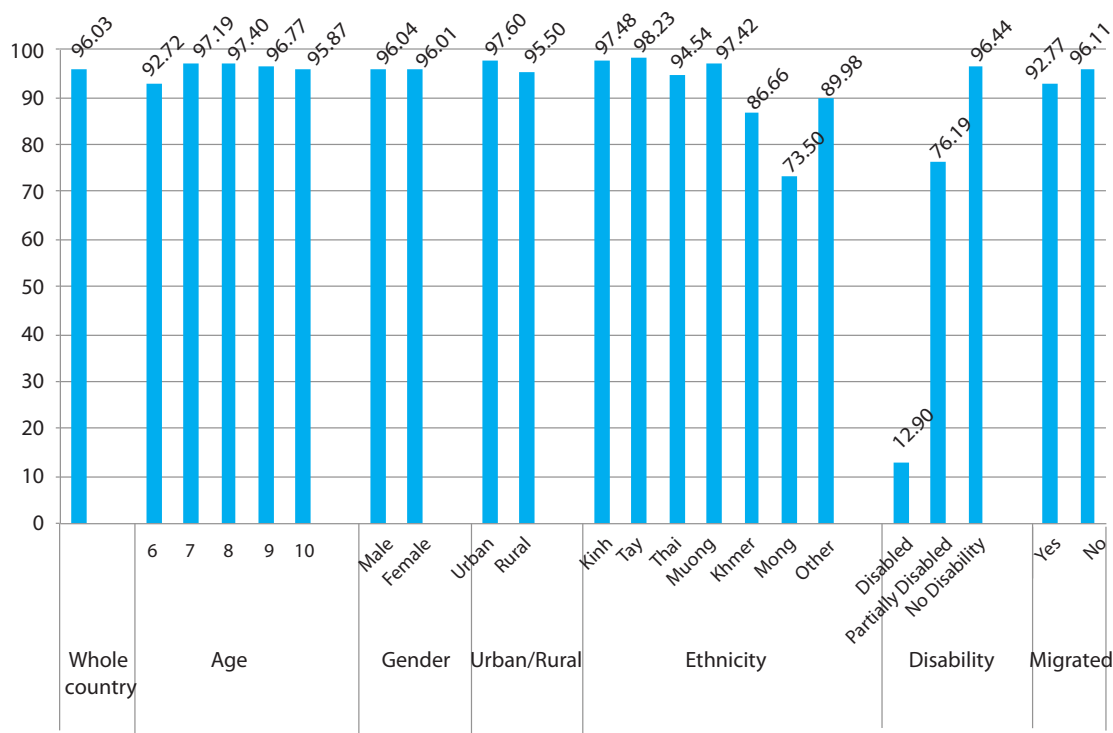
Table 2.5

Primary adjusted net attendance rate (ANAR) with GPI

		Male		Female		Total		ANAR GPI
		ANAR (%)	Number (person)	ANAR (%)	Number (person)	ANAR (%)	Number (person)	
Total		96.04	3,307,169	96.01	3,043,217	96.03	6,350,386	1.00
Age	6	92.79	621,138	92.65	571,847	92.72	1,192,985	1.00
	7	97.19	668,328	97.18	620,034	97.19	1,288,362	1.00
	8	97.41	734,580	97.38	670,000	97.40	1,404,580	1.00
	9	96.74	644,918	96.80	598,730	96.77	1,243,648	1.00
	10	95.87	638,205	95.86	582,607	95.87	1,220,811	1.00
Urban/rural	Urban	97.48	854,423	97.73	777,056	97.60	1,631,479	1.00
	Rural	95.55	2,452,746	95.44	2,266,161	95.50	4,718,907	1.00
Ethnicity	Kinh	97.39	2,749,943	97.59	2,528,011	97.48	5,277,954	1.00
	Tay	98.08	61,664	98.38	59,327	98.23	120,991	1.00
	Thai	94.77	65,397	94.30	61,394	94.54	126,791	1.00
	Muong	97.22	47,014	97.64	43,733	97.42	90,748	1.00
	Khmer	85.78	45,608	87.64	41,943	86.66	87,550	1.02
	Mong	79.42	64,898	67.22	51,739	73.50	116,637	0.85
	Other	89.48	272,647	90.51	257,069	89.98	529,716	1.01
Disability	Disabled	12.62	931	13.28	716	12.90	1,646	1.05
	Partially disabled	75.41	34,416	77.18	27,377	76.19	61,793	1.02
	No disability	96.50	3,271,823	96.37	3,015,124	96.44	6,286,947	1.00
Migrated	Yes	93.22	83,931	92.26	74,574	92.77	158,505	0.99
	No	96.12	3,223,238	96.11	2,968,643	96.11	6,191,881	1.00

Table 2.5 also presents the gender parity index (GPI), which is calculated by dividing female statistics by male statistics. In this case, therefore, the ANAR GPI is the result of the female ANAR divided by the male ANAR.

Figure 2.2: Primary adjusted net attendance rate (ANAR)



At the time of the 2009 Census, there were 6,350,386 children of primary school age (6-10 years old, born between 1998 and 2002) who were attending a primary or secondary school. They accounted for 96.03 per cent of the total group population.

The attendance rate versus age for this age group is shaped like a dome, with age six and 10 the lowest, 92.72 per cent and 95.87 per cent respectively, and age eight the highest (97.4 per cent). The net attendance rate presented was for the whole of primary education, not by grade level. It can be understood that the attendance rate of year six was low because many children aged six who were still in pre-primary school were not calculated, while over-age attendance among children aged 7-10 at primary schools was included as part of the primary net attendance rate. The low attendance rate of the children age 10 was due to children dropping out in the final grade, which will be discussed in Section 2.6 below.

Looking at the primary NAR and the primary ANAR at the national level, there was practically no difference in attendance between boys and girls. The NAR and the ANAR among girls were not much lower than the rates for boys (NAR: 95.43 per cent for girls and 95.48 per cent for boys; ANAR: 96.01 per cent for girls and 96.04 per cent for boys). However, further analysis shows a large discrepancy among Mong boy and girl children and among children with disabilities.

Of the seven ethnic groups analysed, the Khmer, the Mong and Other had ANAR rates that were lower than the national average, 86.66 per cent, 73.5 per cent and 89.98 per cent respectively. The Mong were the only group for which the NAR and the ANAR for girls (66.59 per cent and 67.22 per cent respectively) were lower than the rates for boys (78.33 per cent and 79.42 per cent respectively). The above rates along with the ANAR GPI for the Mong children (0.85, lower than the gender parity limit of 0.97) show that Mong girls had less opportunities to attend school than Mong boys.

Children with disabilities had a much lower primary ANAR (12.9 per cent), and the attendance rate for girls was higher than the rate for boys. With the primary ANAR GPI at 1.05, higher than the gender parity limit of 1.03, boys with disabilities had less opportunities to attend school than girls with disabilities.

Children of migrant families had a slightly lower attendance rate (92.77 per cent) compared to children of non-migrant families (96.11 per cent).

2.4.2 OOSC of primary school age

As presented in the Section 2.4.1, the OOSC rate for primary school age children was calculated using the formula in Section 2.4 as below:

$$\text{Percentage of OOSC} = 100 \text{ minus the primary ANAR}$$

At the time of the 2009 Census, there were 262,648 primary school age children who were out of school in Viet Nam, and this accounted for 3.97 per cent of the total group population. Statistics on boys and girls were similar, 3.96 per cent and 3.97 per cent respectively. The ratio in rural areas was almost twice the rate in the urban areas, 4.5 per cent and 2.4 per cent respectively.

Table 2.6 Percentage of out-of-school children of primary school age

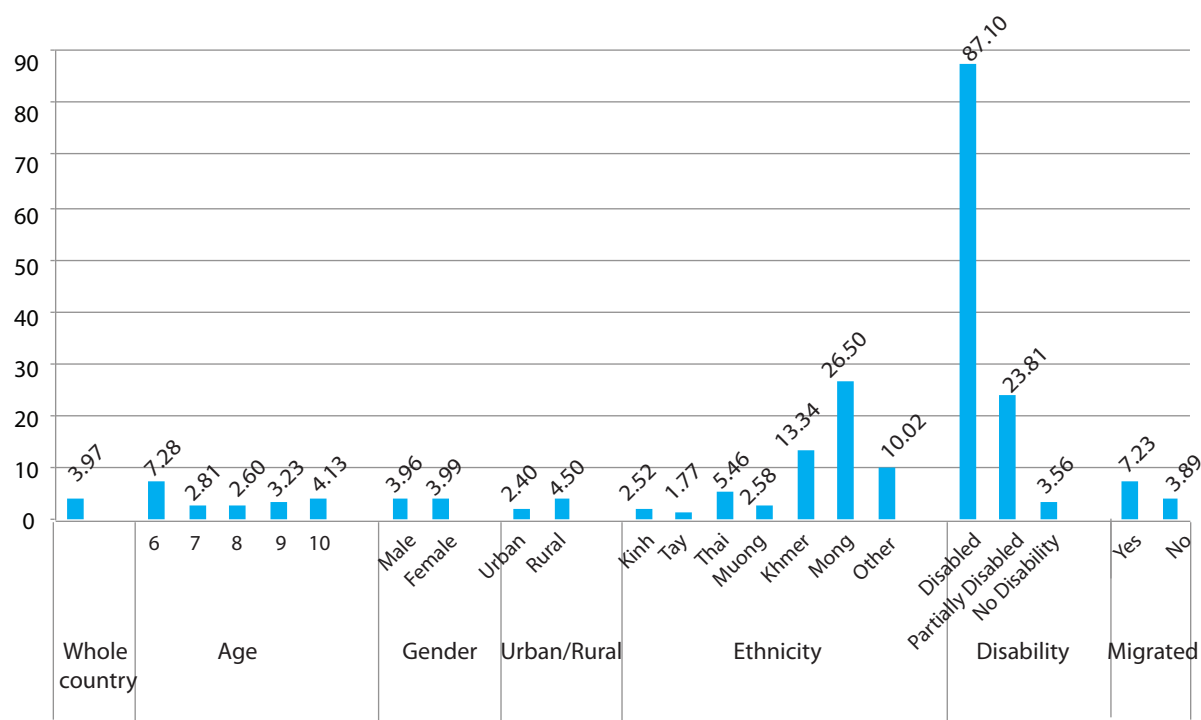
		Male		Female		Total	
		Ratio (%)	Number (persons)	Ratio (%)	Number (persons)	Ratio (%)	Number (persons)
Total		3.96	136,309	3.99	126,339	3.97	262,648
Age	6	7.21	48,256	7.35	45,379	7.28	93,635
	7	2.81	19,304	2.82	18,012	2.81	37,316
	8	2.59	19,559	2.62	18,007	2.60	37,566
	9	3.26	21,735	3.20	19,773	3.23	41,508
	10	4.12	27,455	4.14	25,167	4.13	52,622
Urban/rural	Urban	2.52	22,065	2.27	18,061	2.40	40,126
	Rural	4.45	114,244	4.56	108,277	4.50	222,521
Ethnicity	Kinh	2.61	73,725	2.41	62,505	2.52	136,229
	Tay	1.92	1,206	1.62	979	1.77	2,184
	Thai	5.23	3,607	5.70	3,712	5.46	7,319
	Muong	2.78	1,343	2.36	1,055	2.58	2,399
	Khmer	14.22	7,563	12.36	5,916	13.34	13,479
	Mong	20.58	16,817	32.78	25,228	26.50	42,045
	Other	10.52	32,047	9.49	26,945	10.02	58,992
Disability	Disabled	87.38	6,444	86.72	4,676	87.10	11,120
	Partially disabled	24.59	11,222	22.82	8,094	23.81	19,316
	No disability	3.50	118,643	3.63	113,569	3.56	232,212
Migrated	Yes	6.78	6,105	7.74	6,256	7.23	12,360
	No	3.88	130,204	3.89	120,083	3.89	250,287

The Tay had the lowest OOSC rate at 1.77 per cent. The Kinh and the Muong also had rates lower than the national average, 2.52 per cent and 2.58 per cent respectively. The Mong had the highest OOSC rate at 26.5 per cent, meaning that one out of every four Mong children of primary school age did not go to

school. 32.78 per cent (about one third) of Mong girls of primary school age did not go to school. The OOSC rate for the Khmer was 13.34 per cent.

87.1 per cent of the children of primary school age who had disabilities were not in school. In the case of partially-disabled children, this figure fell to 23.81 per cent. For children with no disabilities, the out-of-school rate was 3.56 per cent. The OOSC rate for migrant children was nearly twice that of non-migrant children, 7.23 per cent compared to 3.89 per cent.

Figure 2.3: Percentage of out-of-school children of primary school age



2.5 Dimension 3: Out-of-school children of lower secondary school age

The CMF states that children of lower secondary school age are considered as being in school if they attend a primary or secondary school (ISCED levels 1 and 2).

Children of lower secondary school age who do not participate in any education programs at ISCED levels 1 and 2 are considered as being out of school, and this includes those who are in pre-primary schools and those who receive a non-formal education.

According to the 2009 Census, there were a number of children of lower secondary school age who were receiving vocational training. This number was very small (1,101 children, accounting for 0.017 per cent of the lower secondary school age children) and did not affect the data in this analysis.

The OOSC rate for lower secondary school age children is calculated below:

The percentage of OOSC of lower secondary school age = 100 minus the percentage of children of lower secondary school age at primary and secondary schools.

This section presents the results of the school attendance rate and the rate of out-of-school children of lower secondary school age.

2.5.1 School attendance rate of lower secondary school age children

The school attendance rate of lower secondary school age children is reflected in three ways:

- The percentage of lower secondary school age children who were attending lower secondary schools, which is the lower secondary net attendance rate (NAR),
- The lower secondary adjusted net attendance rate, i.e. the percentage of lower secondary school age children attending lower secondary and upper secondary schools (the lower secondary ANAR), and
- The school attendance rate of lower secondary school age children attending primary school (Over-age).

Table 2.7 and Table 2.8 below display the lower secondary NAR and ANAR respectively. Figure 2.4 graphically illustrates the ANAR at lower secondary education.



Table 2.7

Lower secondary net attendance rate

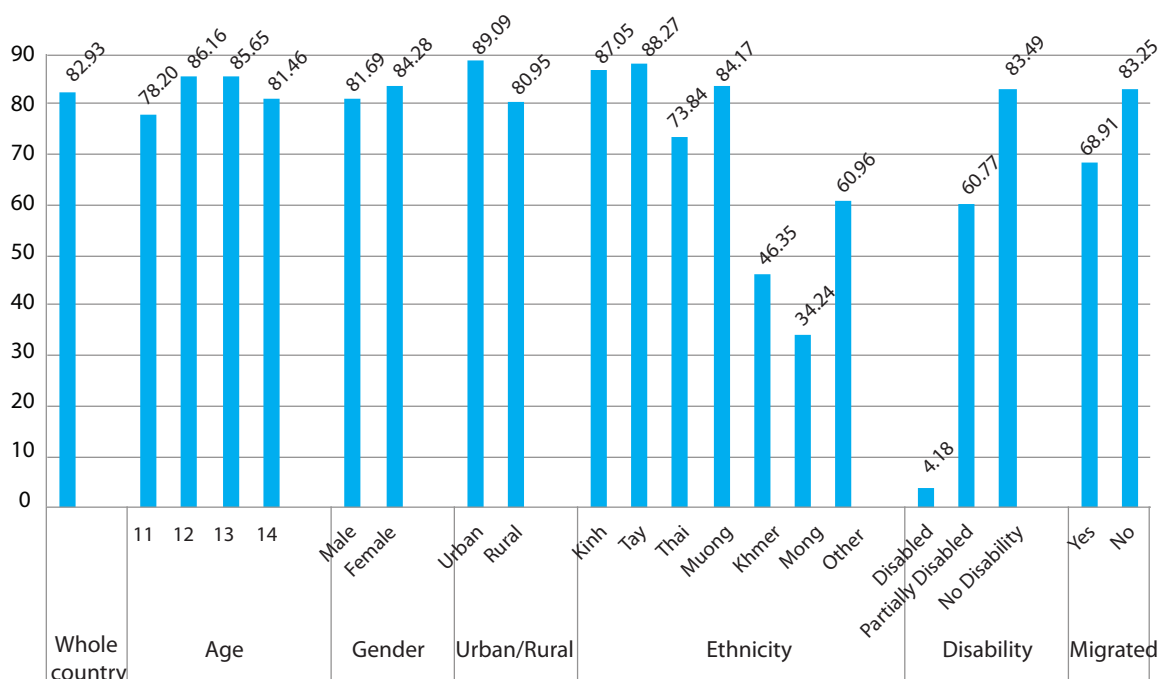
		Male		Female		Total	
		NAR (%)	Number (persons)	NAR (%)	Number (persons)	NAR (%)	Number (persons)
Total		81.36	2,611,949	83.87	2,479,548	82.56	5,091,497
Age	11	76.57	571,193	79.98	546,050	78.20	1,117,242
	12	85.34	658,033	87.05	620,679	86.16	1,278,712
	13	84.57	709,647	86.71	671,052	85.60	1,380,699
	14	78.80	673,076	81.57	641,768	80.13	1,314,843
Urban/rural	Urban	87.73	687,335	89.88	647,543	88.76	1,334,879
	Rural	79.30	1,924,614	81.93	1,832,005	80.56	3,756,619
Ethnicity	Kinh	85.32	2,264,534	88.14	2,149,922	86.67	4,414,457
	Tay	85.48	53,881	89.76	53,531	87.56	107,411
	Thai	73.87	50,159	72.61	45,466	73.27	95,625
	Muong	80.87	39,294	85.98	38,455	83.32	77,749
	Khmer	44.44	21,229	48.22	21,752	46.28	42,982
	Mong	43.24	26,872	24.24	13,968	34.10	40,840
	Other	58.47	155,979	63.18	156,454	60.74	312,434
Disability	Disabled	3.18	265	5.52	345	4.18	610
	Partially disabled	57.26	30,327	64.10	29,674	60.45	60,001
	No disability	81.97	2,581,358	84.35	2,449,529	83.11	5,030,887
Migrated	Yes	70.33	50,727	66.95	43,565	68.73	94,292
	No	81.61	2,561,222	84.25	2,435,983	82.88	4,997,205

Table 2.8

Lower secondary adjusted net attendance rate (ANAR) with GPI

		Male		Female		Total		ANAR GPI
		ANAR (%)	Number (persons)	ANAR (%)	Number (persons)	ANAR (%)	Number (persons)	
Total		81.69	2,622,662	84.28	2,491,654	82.93	5,114,316	1.03
Age	11	76.57	571,193	79.98	546,050	78.20	1,117,242	1.04
	12	85.34	658,033	87.05	620,679	86.16	1,278,712	1.02
	13	84.62	710,086	86.78	671,567	85.65	1,381,654	1.03
	14	80.00	683,350	83.04	653,358	81.46	1,336,708	1.04
Urban/rural	Urban	88.04	689,747	90.23	650,062	89.09	1,339,809	1.02
	Rural	79.65	1,932,915	82.36	1,841,592	80.95	3,774,507	1.03
Ethnicity	Kinh	85.66	2,273,626	88.55	2,159,856	87.05	4,433,483	1.03
	Tay	86.00	54,210	90.66	54,069	88.27	108,279	1.05
	Thai	74.38	50,508	73.25	45,869	73.84	96,377	0.98
	Muong	81.65	39,674	86.90	38,865	84.17	78,539	1.06
	Khmer	44.47	21,243	48.35	21,807	46.35	43,050	1.09
	Mong	43.41	26,975	24.36	14,039	34.24	41,014	0.56
	Other	58.64	156,425	63.46	157,150	60.96	313,576	1.08
Disability	Disabled	3.18	265	5.52	345	4.18	610	1.73
	Partially disabled	57.53	30,468	64.47	29,847	60.77	60,315	1.12
	No disability	82.31	2,591,929	84.76	2,461,462	83.49	5,053,391	1.03
Migrated	Yes	70.54	50,877	67.10	43,659	68.91	94,536	0.95
	No	81.95	2,571,785	84.66	2,447,995	83.25	5,019,780	1.03

Figure 2.4: Lower secondary adjusted net attendance rate (ANAR)



At the time of the 2009 Census, there were 5,114,316 children of lower secondary school age (11-14) as of 2008 (they were born between 1994 and 1997) who were attending a primary or secondary school, accounting for 82.93 per cent of the total group population.

The ANAR shows that the attendance rate at lower secondary schools was not as high as at primary schools. This indicator reflected the net attendance rate by level, not by grade. Therefore, the ANAR of children aged 11 was lowest because many children age 11 who were still in primary school were not calculated, while over-age attendance by children aged 12-14 at lower secondary schools was calculated in the lower secondary net attendance rate. The ANAR of children aged 14 was lower because there were more dropouts at this age.

Overall the percentage of boys and girls attending school at the officially-right age for their grade were considered within parity range, although the GPI was at its limit, 1.03, which means that when the GPI is higher than that, boys are at a disadvantage. The ANAR for individual ages, both 11 and 14, showed a gender disparity, and there was a much higher percentage of girls in secondary school. The lower attendance rate for boys might reflect a quality issue, such as the relevance of education in terms of skills development or gender responsiveness from an employment perspective. The NAR for lower secondary schools shows that gender disparity is more obvious among minority groups. In most cases a higher percentage of girls were in grades appropriate for their age, except the Mong, for whom the NAR for girls (24.36 per cent) was lower than the rate for boys. One in four Mong girls of lower secondary school age were attending lower secondary school, and half of the Mong boys of lower secondary school age were attending lower secondary school. The Mong GPI was 0.56, far from the parity range, reflecting a great disadvantage for Mong girls.

Urban areas had higher ANARs than rural areas, 89.09 per cent and 80.95 per cent respectively. The biggest difference, however, was among the ethnic groups. The Tay rate was 88.27 per cent, 54 percentage points higher than the Mong rate, which was only 34.24 per cent. Three out of every ten Mong children attended lower or upper secondary school. The Khmer and Other groups were also low, 46.35 per cent and 60.96 per cent respectively.

Children with disabilities had a much lower secondary school attendance rate, only 4.18 per cent for children with disabilities and 60.77 per cent for children with partial disabilities. The GPI of children with disabilities and children with partial disabilities were 1.73 and 1.12 respectively, both of which were higher than the parity limit of 1.03, which means boys with disabilities had less opportunities to attend school than girls with disabilities.

The difference in attendance rate between migrant and non-migrant groups at lower secondary schools was larger than at primary schools. The ANAR for lower secondary school migrant children was 68.91 per cent and for non-migrant children it was 83.25 per cent. The attendance rate for migrant girls was lower than the rate for boys, 66.95 per cent and 70.33 per cent respectively. The GPI for the migrant group was 0.95, lower than the parity limit of 0.97, which means girls were at a disadvantage.

The lower secondary school ANAR is an important indicator of progress in education. It does not, however, include children who were not in a school appropriate for their age but were nevertheless attending school. Table 2.9 shows statistics for this group of children.

Table 2.9 Lower secondary school age children attending primary school

		Male		Female		Total		GPI
		Ratio (%)	Number (persons)	Ratio (%)	Number (persons)	Ratio (%)	Number (persons)	
Total		6.54	209,968	5.20	153,664	5.90	363,632	0.79
Age	11	17.90	133,512	14.82	101,181	16.43	234,693	0.83
	12	6.19	47,732	4.68	33,376	5.47	81,108	0.76
	13	2.39	20,077	1.70	13,150	2.06	33,227	0.71
	14	1.01	8,647	0.76	5,956	0.89	14,604	0.75
Urban/rural	Urban	3.61	28,295	2.89	20,837	3.27	49,132	0.80
	Rural	7.49	181,673	5.94	132,827	6.74	314,500	0.79
Ethnicity	Kinh	4.68	124,195	3.71	90,526	4.22	214,721	0.79
	Tay	5.92	3,732	4.26	2,539	5.11	6,270	0.72
	Thai	11.86	8,054	9.20	5,760	10.58	13,814	0.78
	Muong	7.43	3,611	4.46	1,996	6.01	5,606	0.60
	Khmer	15.78	7,539	14.20	6,404	15.01	13,943	0.90
	Mong	28.20	17,522	20.30	11,697	24.40	29,219	0.72
	Other	16.99	45,317	14.03	34,742	15.56	80,058	0.83
Disability	Disabled	4.84	403	3.85	241	4.42	644	0.80
	Partially disabled	9.64	5,105	6.61	3,060	8.23	8,165	0.69
	No disability	6.49	204,460	5.18	150,362	5.86	354,823	0.80
Migrated	Yes	5.64	4,071	5.07	3,301	5.37	7,372	0.90
	No	6.56	205,897	5.20	150,363	5.91	356,260	0.79

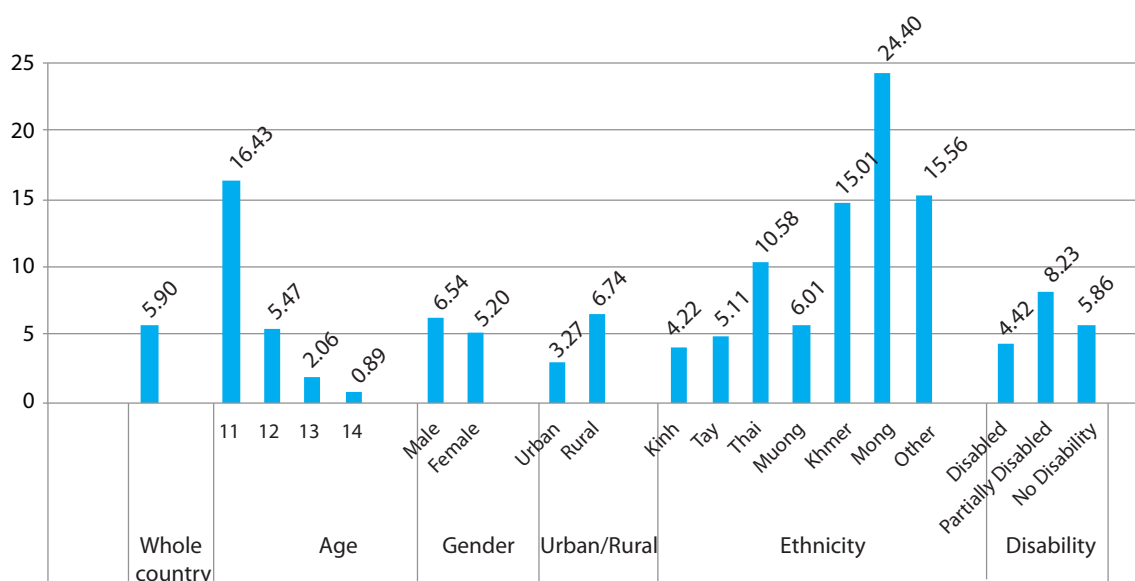
At the time of the 2009 Census, there were in total 363,632 children of lower secondary school age attending primary school, which was about 5.9 per cent of the total group population. The attendance rate at primary schools decreased quickly as age increased, i.e. attendance at primary schools was highest at age 11, it was lower for the 12 and 13 year olds, and it was lowest for the 14 year olds.

The different ethnic groups had very different results. The over-age schooling rate for the Mong was 24.40 per cent. In other words, almost one fourth of the lower secondary school age Mong children attended primary school. The rate among the Khmer was 15 per cent. The over-age schooling rate for the Kinh was lowest, at 4.22 per cent. Tay was another group with 5.11 per cent primary school attendance rate, lower than the national average.

Most strikingly, Table 2.9 shows a very clear difference between boys and girls. More secondary school age boys than girls remained in primary schools, and this was the case for every group listed in the table. This is worthy of consideration.

Figure 2.5 illustrates the number of lower secondary school age children attending primary school

Figure 2.5: Lower secondary school age children attending primary school



2.5.2 Out-of-school children of lower secondary school age

By CMF definition, out-of-school children of lower secondary school age are children who do not attend a formal primary or secondary school. As presented in Section 2.5.1, the OOSC of lower secondary school age is calculated below:

The percentage of OOSC of lower secondary school age = 100 minus the lower secondary school ANAR, minus the percentage of children of lower secondary school age in primary school.

The following table and figure display statistics on out-of-school children of lower secondary school age (11-14).

Table 2.10: Percentage of out-of-school children of lower secondary school age

		Male		Female		Total	
		Ratio (%)	Number (persons)	Ratio (%)	Number (persons)	Ratio (%)	Number (persons)
Total		11.77	377,698	10.52	311,152	11.17	688,849
Age	11	5.53	41,237	5.20	35,526	5.37	76,763
	12	8.47	65,278	8.27	58,987	8.37	124,265
	13	12.99	108,989	11.52	89,185	12.29	198,175
	14	18.99	162,193	16.20	127,453	17.65	289,646
Urban/rural	Urban	8.35	65,394	6.88	49,540	7.64	114,934
	Rural	12.87	312,304	11.70	261,611	12.31	573,915
Ethnicity	Kinh	9.66	256,291	7.74	188,759	8.74	445,050
	Tay	8.08	5,092	5.08	3,031	6.62	8,123
	Thai	13.76	9,340	17.55	10,987	15.57	20,327
	Muong	10.92	5,307	8.64	3,862	9.83	9,169
	Khmer	39.74	18,984	37.46	16,896	38.63	35,880
	Mong	28.40	17,648	55.34	31,886	41.36	49,534
	Other	24.38	65,035	22.51	55,730	23.48	120,765
Disability	Disabled	91.97	7,652	90.63	5,673	91.40	13,325
	Partially disabled	32.84	17,391	28.91	13,385	31.01	30,776
	No disability	11.20	352,655	10.06	292,093	10.65	644,748
Migrated	Yes	23.82	17,177	27.83	18,109	25.72	35,286
	No	11.49	360,521	10.13	293,043	10.84	653,564

The percentage of OOSC increased dramatically as age increased. 17.65 per cent of the 14 year olds were out of school. The national average of lower secondary school age children who did not have any formal schooling was 11.17 per cent, which is 688,849 children in total. The rate for boys was 11.77 per cent and for girls it was 10.52 per cent. The rate increased exponentially with age.

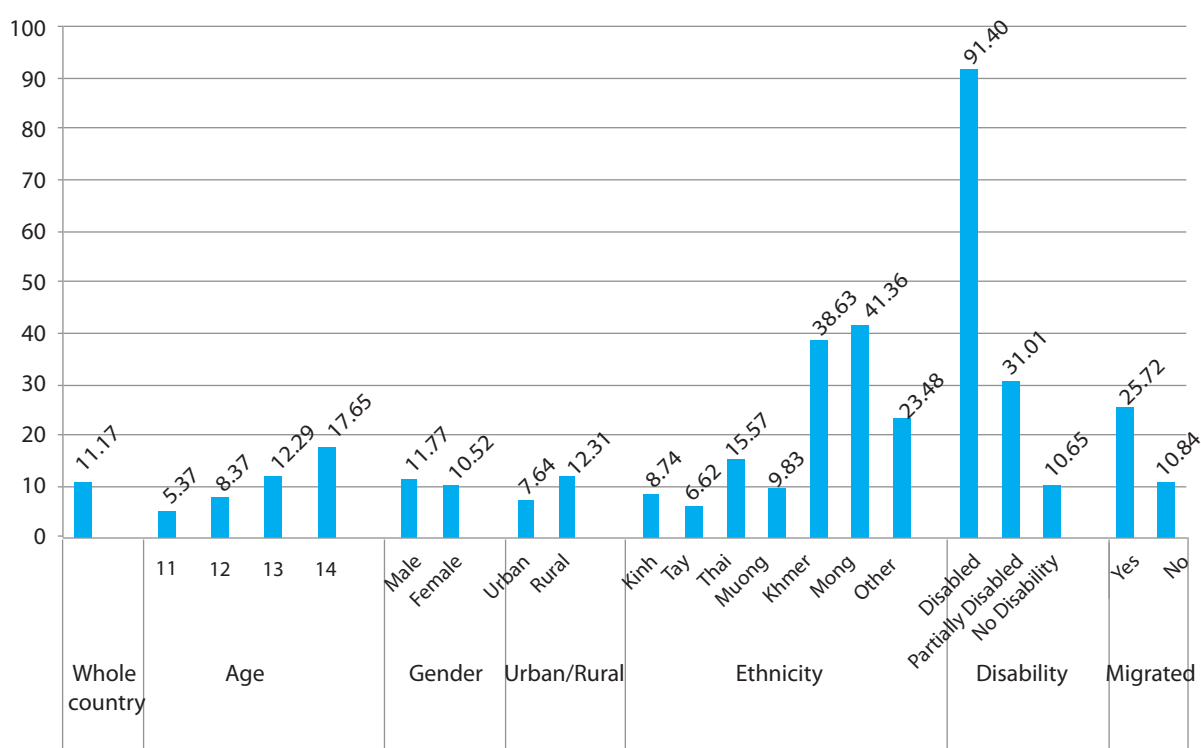
There were many more out-of-school children in this age group in rural areas than in urban areas, 12.31 per cent and 7.64 per cent respectively. The rural figure was almost twice the urban figure.

Among the ethnic groups, the Tay had the lowest out-of-school rate at 6.62 per cent. The Kinh and the Muong also had rates lower than the national average, at 8.74 per cent and 9.83 per cent respectively. The Mong had the highest out-of-school rate, at 41.36 per cent. In other words, more than one third of the lower secondary school age Mong children were out of school. The rate for the Khmer was similar at 38.63 per cent. The rate of OOSC for Mong girls was higher than the rate for boys at both primary and lower secondary schools, one and half times higher at primary schools (32.78 per cent for girls and 20.58 per cent for boys) and two times higher at lower secondary schools (55.34 per cent for girls and 28.2 per cent for boys). Over half the Mong girls of lower secondary school age had never attended school. Mong girls did not enjoy the same education equity as boys, especially at higher grades.

The majority of children of lower secondary school age with disabilities had not had any schooling. Their out-of-school rate was 91.4 per cent.

Children of migrant families performed much more poorly. Their out-of-school rate was 25.72 per cent. For children of non-migrant families the rate was 10.84 per cent.

Figure 2.6: Percentage of out-of-school children of lower secondary school age



The last table in this section lists the number of out-of-school children in Dimensions 2 and 3. The number of out-of-school children of primary school age was 262,648. For lower secondary school age, this was 688,849. In total, 951,497 children between six and 14 were out of school.

Table 2.11a: Number of children out-of-school, by age group and sex*Unit: people*

	Out-of-school children		
	Male	Female	Total
Dimension 2 Primary school age	136,309	126,339	262,648
Dimension 3 Lower secondary school age	377,698	311,152	688,849
Total	514,007	437,490	951,497

According to the Conceptual and Methodological Framework on Out-of-school Children, OOSC can be divided into three groups based on the previous educational experience, including attended but dropped out, never attended but will attend in the future and will never enter school. The key point is that not all OOSCs are excluded permanently from the education system. In some countries it has been observed that a high number of OOSCs will never go to school, but in some others the majority of OOSCs will enter school in the future. It is necessary to adopt different policies for dropouts or children who will never go to school. Among the dropouts, some may come back to school and some cannot due to their condition, and an appropriate policy response is needed.

Table 2.11b: Typology of Out-of-School Children*Unit: %*

	Out-of-School Children		
	Dropped out ⁶	May go to school in the future	Will never attend school
Dimension 2: OOSCs at primary age	29.5	49.9	20.7
Dimension 3: OOSCs at lower secondary age	85.1	0.1	14.7

As can be seen in Table 2.11b, half of the OOSCs of primary school age may attend school in the future (perhaps as an over-age student) while three tenths of the children had dropped out and one fifth of them will never go to school. 85 per cent of the OOSCs of lower secondary school age had dropped out and 15 per cent had never been to school and will never enter school in the future.

It is therefore important to adopt incentives to promote net attendance and to ensure that children start their primary education at the right age. In addition, it is necessary to have appropriate measures in place to support children who have already dropped out, especially those of lower secondary school age, e.g. children who dropped out to get married or migrated seasonally for casual work, and encourage them to go back to school so that they are not excluded permanently.

⁶ See definition in Section 2.6.1

2.6 Dimensions 4 and 5: Children at risk of dropping out

Dimensions 4 and 5 cover children in school who are at risk of dropping out, in other words, the potential OOSC of tomorrow. This report focuses on the children who were at the greatest risk of dropping out,⁷ including children aged 5-17 who were attending primary and lower secondary schools.

One simple way is to look at the at-risk children of yesterday, that is, children who recently dropped out of school. Understanding the profiles of children who were at risk of dropping out and then dropped out provides insight into the profiles of children currently at risk.

A dropout can be defined as a child who had attended school the previous year but did not attend school during the current year even though they were supposed to. Such dropout can be referred to as a single-year dropout. However, school attendance data for two consecutive years is required to determine if that is the situation.

The 2009 Population and Housing Census contained no such data, only the educational background of the OOSCs, the dropout rate and the over-age rate. Accordingly, this data will be used to analyze potential OOSCs in this section.

2.6.1 School dropouts aged 5-17

In this report dropouts can be interpreted as children who had once attended the school but were not attending school at the time of the 2009 Census. The dropout rate can be calculated by dividing the number of children who once went to school but were not attending school at the time of the Census by the total number of children.

Table 2.12a provides a summary of the attendance status of children aged 5-17. Either they were attending school, attended school before and dropped out, or had never been to school before.

⁷ UNICEF and UIS, *Conceptual and Methodological Framework – Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children*, March, 2011

Table 2.12a: Attendance status by age and other characteristics of children aged 5-17

Unit: %

		Never been to school	Attended but dropped out	Attending
Total		2.57	12.59	84.83
Age	5	11.99	0.20	87.81
	6	3.12	0.38	96.50
	7	2.10	0.52	97.37
	8	1.76	0.74	97.49
	9	1.57	1.64	96.80
	10	1.52	2.58	95.90
	11	1.48	3.87	94.65
	12	1.61	6.74	91.66
	13	1.69	10.55	87.75
	14	1.81	15.76	82.43
	15	1.72	26.89	71.39
	16	1.85	35.44	62.71
	17	1.80	39.17	59.02
Gender	Male	2.48	13.48	84.04
	Female	2.68	11.63	85.69
Urban/Rural	Urban	1.98	9.00	89.02
	Rural	2.78	13.80	83.42
Ethnicity	Kinh	1.67	11.28	87.06
	Tay	0.75	12.34	86.91
	Thai	3.09	18.69	78.22
	Muong	0.91	17.98	81.11
	Khmer	9.24	30.39	60.38
	Mong	23.02	16.13	60.86
	Others	6.24	19.30	74.46
Disability status	Disabled	82.00	8.37	9.63
	Partially disabled	16.43	15.71	67.85
	No disability	2.19	12.55	85.25
Migration status	Yes	3.51	32.20	64.29
	No	2.55	11.98	85.47

Out of the total number of children aged 5-17, 84.83 per cent were attending school. The attendance rate of children aged 5-17 was especially low among the Khmer (60.38 per cent), the Mong (60.86 per cent), children with disabilities (9.63 per cent), children with partial disabilities (67.85 per cent) and

migrants (64.29 per cent). The rates of all these groups were below 70 per cent, lower than the national average of 84.83 per cent.

Though both the Mong and the Khmer had a similarly low attendance rate, the profiles of the OOSCs among those two ethnic groups differed. Most Khmer OOSCs had attended school and then dropped out, whereas the majority of the Mong OOSCs had never been to school. Of all the ethnic groups, the Mong had the highest rate of children 5-17 years old who had never been to school at 23.02 per cent.

Children 5-17 years old with disabilities accounted for the highest number of children who had never gone to school (82 per cent). The attendance rate of children aged 5-17 with disabilities was the lowest at 9.63 per cent.

Table 2.12b: Percentage of school dropouts

Age	School dropouts	
	%	Number
5	0.20	2,922
6	0.38	4,880
7	0.52	6,939
8	0.74	10,708
9	1.64	21,012
10	2.58	32,874
11	3.87	55,295
12	6.74	99,984
13	10.55	170,229
14	15.77	258,656
15	26.89	483,859
16	35.44	620,373
17	39.18	692,665

At the time of the 2009 Census, there were over 55,000 children aged 11 year who had attended but later dropped out of school. Among the 14 year olds, the number of dropouts exceeded 250,000, and more than a third of the 17 year olds had dropped out, almost 700,000 in total.

Figure 2.7: Percentage of dropouts by age

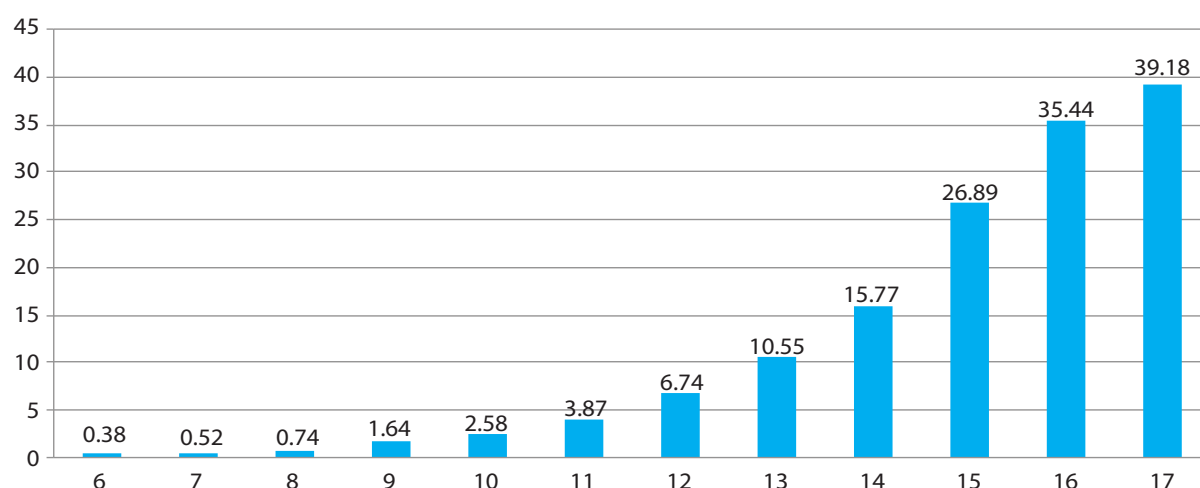


Figure 2.7 shows the percentage of dropouts by age and clearly shows that more children dropped out as age increased. At the age of 11, the dropouts were 3.87 per cent of all the 11 year olds. By the age of 17, however, 39.18 per cent, a little more than a third, had dropped out.

The following two tables present the dropout rates of primary and lower secondary school age children.

Table 2.13: Primary school age dropouts

		Dropped out (%)
Total		1.16
Age	6	0.38
	7	0.52
	8	0.74
	9	1.64
	10	2.58
Gender	Male	1.19
	Female	1.12
Urban/rural	Urban	0.84
	Rural	1.26
	Kinh	0.87
Ethnicity	Tay	0.65
	Thai	1.53
	Muong	1.03
	Khmer	4.60
	Mong	3.57
Disability	Other	2.59
	Disabled	2.57
	Partially disabled	3.45
Migrated	No disability	1.12
	Yes	2.98
	No	1.11

At the primary school age, the dropout rate was 1.16 per cent. The rates for girls and boys were similar. However, the rate in rural areas was higher than that in urban areas; the rates of the Khmer and the Mong were higher than those of other ethnic minority groups; the rate of children with disabilities was higher than the rate for children with partial disabilities and children with no disabilities; and the rate of migrants was higher than that of non-migrant children.

Table 2.14: Lower secondary school age dropouts

		Dropped out (%)
Total		9.47
Age	11	3.87
	12	6.74
	13	10.55
	14	15.76
Gender	Male	10.19
	Female	8.69
Urban/rural	Urban	6.71
	Rural	10.36
Ethnicity	Kinh	7.85
	Tay	6.00
	Thai	13.02
	Muong	8.91
	Khmer	32.37
	Mong	20.76
	Other	18.77
Disability	Disabled	8.72
	Partially disabled	14.30
	Not disabled	9.40
Migrated	Yes	23.05
	No	9.16

Among lower secondary school age children, the dropout rate was 9.47 per cent, eight times higher than the rate for primary school age children. The dropout rates for girls and boys were not similar as at the primary school age. The rates were higher for boys than girls, 10.19 per cent and 8.69 per cent respectively. The dropout rate in rural areas (10.36 per cent) was higher than in urban areas (6.71 per cent). The dropout rates for the Khmer (32.37 per cent) and the Mong (20.76 per cent) were higher than those of other ethnic minority groups (18.77 per cent). The rates for children with disabilities (8.72 per cent) and the partially disabled (14.30 per cent) were higher than those for children with no disabilities (9.40 per cent). The rate for migrant children (23.05 per cent) was higher than that of non-migrant children (9.16 per cent), and the difference was much greater than observed in primary school age dropout. The dropout rate for Khmer children was 32.37 per cent. In other words, close to one third of the lower secondary school age Khmer children had dropped out of school. The dropout rate of the Mong children was rather high at 20.76 per cent. The dropout rate was very high among migrant children at 23.05 per cent.

2.6.2 Educational attainment of school dropouts aged 5-17

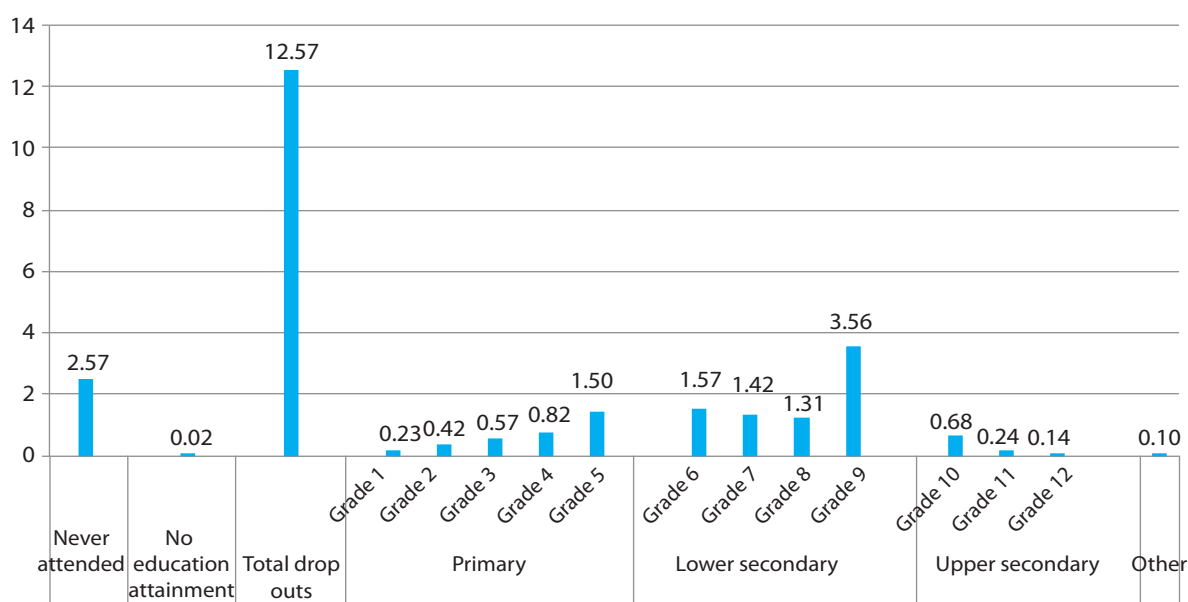
The educational attainment of school dropouts was the highest grade these children completed before dropping out.

Table 2.15: Educational attainment of out-of-school children (OOSC) aged 5 -17

		% children who attended but later dropped out by highest grade completed																	Unit: %	
		Never attended	No educational attainment	Primary school					Lower secondary school					Upper secondary school						Other types of school/ college/ university
				1	2	3	4	5	Total	6	7	8	9	Total	10	11	12	Total		
Total		2.57	0.02	0.23	0.42	0.57	0.82	1.50	3.54	1.57	1.42	1.31	3.56	7.87	0.68	0.24	0.14	1.06	0.10	
Age	5	11.99	0.15	0.04	0	0	0	0	0.04	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.01	
	6	3.12	0.03	0.31	0.04	0	0	0	0.35	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.01	
	7	2.10	0.01	0.14	0.33	0.02	0	0	0.51	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	8	1.76	0.01	0.16	0.20	0.35	0.02	0	0.73	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
	9	1.57	0.01	0.23	0.34	0.36	0.60	0.08	1.61	0.01	0	0	0	0.01	0	0	0	0	0	
	10	1.52	0.02	0.27	0.39	0.45	0.54	0.78	2.44	0.10	0.01	0	0	0.12	0	0	0	0	0.01	
	11	1.48	0.01	0.24	0.45	0.59	0.67	1.01	2.96	0.82	0.06	0.01	0	0.89	0	0	0	0	0	
	12	1.61	0.01	0.26	0.50	0.73	1.04	1.68	4.21	1.59	0.82	0.07	0.03	2.51	0	0	0	0	0	
	13	1.69	0.01	0.26	0.53	0.79	1.22	2.30	5.11	2.62	1.71	0.96	0.13	5.43	0	0	0	0	0	
	14	1.81	0.01	0.26	0.57	0.85	1.42	2.72	5.82	3.15	2.91	2.27	1.54	9.86	0.05	0	0	0.05	0.02	
	15	1.72	0.01	0.24	0.57	0.87	1.32	2.88	5.88	3.28	3.46	3.53	9.41	19.68	1.06	0.05	0.04	1.15	0.17	
	16	1.85	0.02	0.26	0.67	0.97	1.53	3.11	6.54	3.46	3.74	3.96	13.66	24.81	2.76	0.83	0.17	3.76	0.31	
	17	1.80	0.01	0.25	0.64	0.93	1.49	3.14	6.45	3.21	3.51	3.95	14.67	25.34	3.68	1.74	1.39	6.81	0.56	
Gender	Male	2.48	0.03	0.25	0.46	0.60	0.85	1.54	3.71	1.76	1.63	1.48	3.61	8.49	0.77	0.25	0.13	1.16	0.10	
	Female	2.68	0.02	0.20	0.38	0.53	0.78	1.47	3.35	1.36	1.20	1.13	3.50	7.20	0.59	0.22	0.16	0.96	0.10	
Urban/ rural	Urban	1.98	0.02	0.16	0.29	0.38	0.52	1.03	2.38	1.17	1.10	1.07	2.14	5.48	0.64	0.24	0.13	1.01	0.11	
	Rural	2.78	0.02	0.25	0.47	0.63	0.92	1.66	3.93	1.70	1.53	1.40	4.04	8.67	0.70	0.24	0.15	1.08	0.10	

About 2.57 per cent of the children between five and 17 had never attended school. Interestingly, among those who did attend school and achieved some educational attainment, two peaks existed for the final grade of primary school (1.5 per cent) and the final grade of lower secondary school (3.56 per cent). However, there was no peak for the final grade of upper secondary school, which is most likely due to the fact that 17+ year old children were not included here. This diagram indicates that a higher proportion of children completed a level of education and then dropped out rather than drop out in the middle of a school level.

Figure 2.8: OOSC aged 5-17 by grade completed



2.6.3 Over-age students

Over-age and repetition are important indicators of children at risk of dropping out. The Census has no information about grade repetition but it does have information about over-age. The tables below present the analytical results of over-age by grade.

According to a UIS recommendation, the calculation of over-age should allow two years older than the theoretically-right age for the grade. The cells highlighted in yellow and bold in table 2.18 represent children who were the right official age for the grade. All the cells above those highlighted in yellow represent under-age children and all the cells below over-age students.

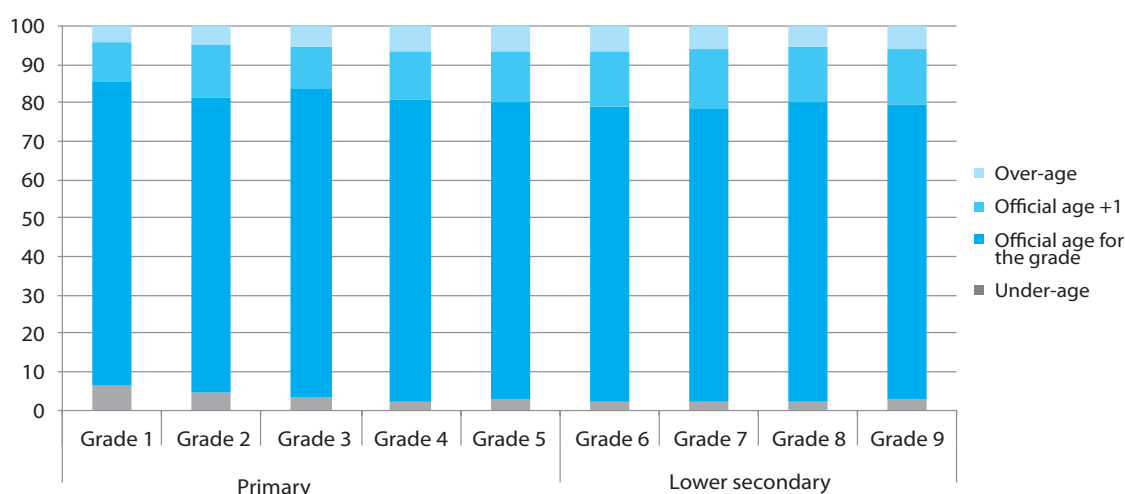
Table 2.16: Attendance rates at primary and lower secondary schools by age and grade

Age	Primary grades					Lower secondary grades			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
5	6.27	0.25	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
6	79.20	4.39	0.33	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
7	10.23	77.04	2.91	0.23	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
8	2.99	13.53	80.55	2.06	0.19	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
9	0.69	2.74	10.79	78.73	2.73	0.16	0.00	0.00	0.00
10	0.29	1.06	3.07	12.44	77.41	2.30	0.19	0.00	0.00
11	0.14	0.49	1.25	3.74	12.87	76.66	2.19	0.21	0.00
12	0.07	0.22	0.58	1.50	3.98	14.13	76.26	2.04	0.28
13	0.04	0.10	0.25	0.66	1.55	4.25	15.25	77.99	2.32
14	0.02	0.05	0.11	0.32	0.64	1.47	4.07	14.50	76.91
15	0.01	0.02	0.05	0.09	0.21	0.49	1.18	3.51	14.76
16	0.01	0.02	0.02	0.05	0.11	0.22	0.40	1.02	3.44
17	0.01	0.02	0.01	0.03	0.05	0.08	0.17	0.32	1.05
18	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.06	0.10	0.17	0.52
19	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.02	0.03	0.05	0.18
20	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.03	0.09
20+	0.02	0.04	0.05	0.08	0.16	0.13	0.14	0.15	0.44

To present the total number of under- and over-age students, Table 2.17 sums up the corresponding percentage statistics from Table 2.16. Figure 2.9 gives a graphical illustration of Table 2.17.

Table 2.17: Over-age and under-age by grade

	Primary school					Lower Secondary school			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Under-age	6.27	4.64	3.24	2.29	2.93	2.46	2.38	2.25	2.60
Official age for grade	79.20	77.04	80.55	78.73	77.41	76.66	76.26	77.99	76.91
Official age for grade +1	10.23	13.53	10.79	12.44	12.87	14.13	15.25	14.50	14.76
Over-age	4.31	4.79	5.42	6.54	6.80	6.75	6.11	5.26	5.73

Figure 2.9: Over-age in primary and lower secondary school grades

For over-age by grade, the figure ranges from the lowest, 4.31 per cent for grade one, to the highest, 6.8 per cent for grade five. About six per cent of the over-age students attended lower secondary schools, and most of them were in grade six. These over-age students, especially those in the final grade, were the ones at risk of dropping out and becoming the future OOSC. Appropriate and timely interventions should be taken to reduce this risk.

2.7 Analysis of selected provinces

This section presents an analysis of selected indicators for eight provinces based on data from the 2009 Census and surveys in the six provinces: Dien Bien, Ninh Thuan, Kon Tum, Ho Chi Minh City, Dong Thap and An Giang. They are presented in two different tables, four provinces in each table, for better display. The national figure is repeated in both tables for easy comparison of provincial data with national data.

Disaggregated analysis into small population groups generated small cell values, and this could cause distortion in the analytical results. This report took the following action for each of the disaggregated groups:

- a) If the number of observations (its population) was equal to or less than 50, the group was considered too small to be included in the statistical analysis. All the cells in relation to this group were left blank. For example, there were 31 Muong children in Lao Cai who were aged five, and all of them attended pre-primary school. However, since the population of this group was below 50, all the analytical cells related to this group were left blank. The fact that they had a 100 per cent attendance rate was not recorded.
- b) If its population was greater than 50, a group was statistically analyzed as usual. However, one must be cautious when making generalized conclusions from groups with values only slightly higher than 50 observations.
- c) In the analysis of children aged five and the attendance status of school-age children (5-17), the population was the total number of people who gave valid responses to the related questions. Since a small number of people did not give answers or gave invalid answers, this number was equal to or slightly smaller than the actual population number. In these cases, it was the total number of people who gave valid answers that was used.

2.7.1 Some features of the population

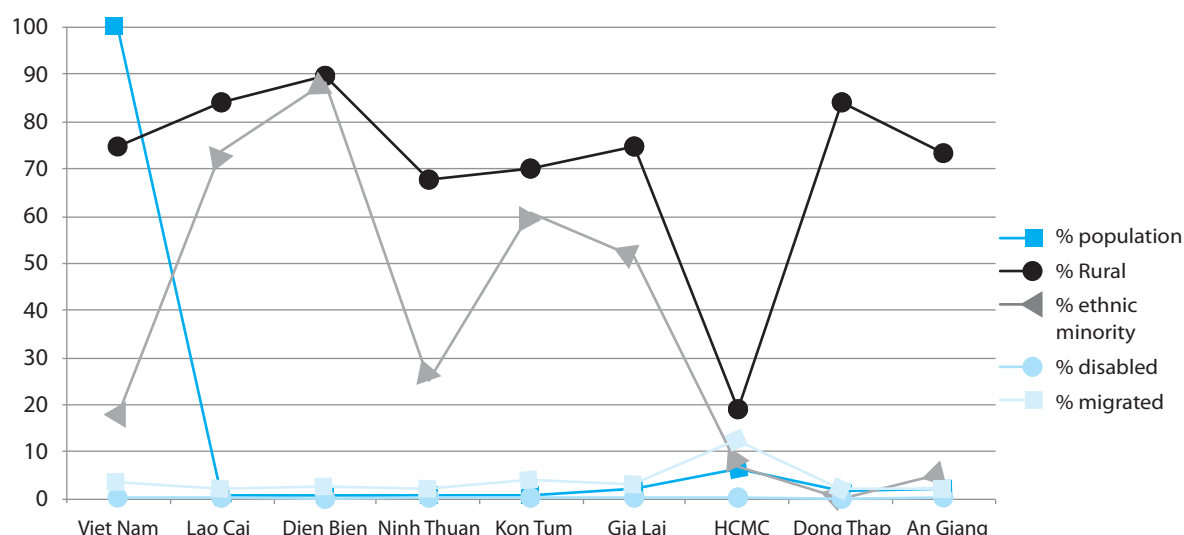
Table A 2.3.1 and Table A 2.3.2 in Annex 2 provide the population distribution in the eight selected provinces. To simplify the tables, Table 2.18 is used to present the percentages. From Table A 2.3.1 and Table A 2.3.2 in Annex 2, the cells with a population below 50 can be identified.

Table 2.18: Provincial population distribution

Unit: %

		Viet Nam	Lao Cai	Dien Bien	Ninh Thuan	Kon Tum	Gia Lai	HCMC	Đồng Tháp	An Giang
Provincial Population		100.00	0.91	0.80	0.84	0.70	2.10	6.25	1.94	2.47
Urban/rural	Urban	25.25	15.78	10.26	32.36	29.79	25.08	81.04	15.75	26.57
	Rural	74.75	84.22	89.74	67.64	70.21	74.92	18.96	84.25	73.43
Ethnicity	Kinh	82.32	25.96	11.86	74.83	39.40	48.51	93.08	99.85	94.30
	Tay	1.90	13.78	0.23	0.02	0.68	0.75	0.04	0.00	0.00
	Thai	2.05	0.35	32.47	0.02	0.59	0.11	0.01	0.00	0.01
	Muong	1.45	0.14	0.07	0.02	1.06	0.33	0.03	0.00	0.01
	Khmer	1.51	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.18	0.03	4.67
	Mong	2.20	30.93	44.68	0.00	0.00	0.22	0.00	0.00	0.00
	Other	8.58	28.84	10.69	25.10	58.27	50.06	6.66	0.12	1.00
Disability	Disabled	0.21	0.16	0.13	0.22	0.25	0.26	0.15	0.14	0.18
	Partially disabled	1.40	1.85	1.62	1.43	1.71	1.13	1.87	0.93	0.59
	No disability	98.40	97.99	98.26	98.34	98.04	98.61	97.98	98.93	99.23
Migrated	Yes	2.53	1.37	1.85	1.20	3.06	2.45	11.60	1.17	1.29
	No	97.47	98.63	98.15	98.80	96.94	97.55	88.40	98.83	98.71

Figure 2.10: Distribution of population (5-14 year olds) by province



Of the eight selected provinces, Ho Chi Minh City was the most populated. It was also the most urbanised, with only 19 per cent of its 5-14 year olds living in rural areas.

Dien Bien had the highest percentage of ethnic minorities. The other three provinces that had ethnic minority population that was much higher than the national average were Lao Cai, Kon Tum and Gia Lai, all above 50 per cent.

The percentage of migrant children was relatively small except in Ho Chi Minh City, where 11.6 per cent of the children were of migrant background.

2.7.2 School attendance status

Table 2.19a and Table 2.19b present the attendance rate of children aged five by province. To simplify these tables, Table 2.23 presents only the combined attendance rate, i.e. the percentage of children who attended either pre-primary or primary school. The profile for Viet Nam showed that 12.19 per cent of the children age five did not attend any school, 80.33 per cent attended pre-primary schools, 7.48 per cent attended primary schools, and 87.81 per cent attended either pre-primary or primary schools (80.33 per cent attended pre-primary schools and 7.48 per cent attended primary schools). This same way of presentation is repeated for each province. All eight provinces are displayed in the same table, with national statistics as a reference point. Table 2.20 shows that 11.54 per cent of the five years old in Lao Cai did not attend school, in Dien Bien 22.30 per cent of them did not attend, and the national average was 12.19 per cent. This shows that preschool attendance in Dien Bien was not as good as in Lao Cai. One out of every five children of preschool age in Dien Bien did not go to school. Many Mong children age five did not attend pre-primary school, 17.85 per cent in Lao Cai and 35.78 per cent in Dien Bien.

Table 2.19 a: Attendance rate of children aged five by province

	Viet Nam				Lao Cai				Dien Bien				Ninh Thuan				Kon Tum			
	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Pre-primary or primary	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Pre-primary or primary	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Pre-primary or primary	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Pre-primary or primary	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Pre-primary or primary
Total	12.19	80.33	7.48	87.81	11.54	79.78	8.68	88.46	22.30	63.51	14.19	77.70	16.13	75.00	8.87	83.87	7.32	90.20	2.48	92.68
Gender	Male	12.29	80.19	7.52	87.71	10.14	80.95	8.91	89.86	22.51	62.93	14.56	77.49	17.56	73.63	8.82	82.44	7.68	89.56	2.76
	Female	12.08	80.48	7.44	87.92	13.05	78.52	8.43	86.95	22.07	64.15	13.78	77.93	14.62	76.46	8.92	85.38	6.93	90.89	2.18
Urban/rural	Urban	12.99	82.05	4.96	87.01	6.02	89.05	4.93	93.98	4.12	88.25	7.63	95.88	11.28	82.51	6.21	88.72	8.01	88.82	3.17
	Rural	11.86	79.63	8.50	88.14	12.67	77.88	9.45	87.33	24.56	60.44	15.00	75.44	18.61	71.17	10.22	81.39	7.01	90.82	2.17
Ethnicity	Kinh	11.03	82.02	6.95	88.97	5.83	88.31	5.86	94.17	3.20	90.75	6.05	96.80	12.61	80.19	7.20	87.39	4.76	92.85	2.40
	Tay	3.61	88.32	8.07	96.39	6.57	83.96	9.47	93.43	0.00	100.00	0.00	100.00				0.00	86.58	13.42	100.00
	Thai	6.15	77.83	16.01	93.85	0.00	100.00	0.00	100.00	7.05	80.06	12.89	92.95				0.00	91.23	8.77	100.00
	Muong	3.26	84.59	12.15	96.74	0.00	100.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	100.00				0.00	100.00	0.00	100.00
Disability	Khmer	37.00	53.50	9.50	63.00												0.00	100.00	0.00	100.00
	Mong	34.49	52.08	13.43	65.51	17.35	72.21	10.45	82.65	35.78	46.98	17.25	64.22							
	Other	17.95	74.08	7.97	82.05	11.99	78.88	9.13	88.01	26.85	58.55	14.60	73.15	26.64	59.51	13.85	73.36	9.40	88.19	2.42
	Disabled	83.11	15.56	1.33	16.89	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	81.17	18.83	0.00	18.83	52.68	47.32	0.00
Migrated	Partially disabled	30.62	64.03	5.34	69.38	35.20	59.12	5.69	64.80	45.70	51.86	2.43	54.30	30.42	58.17	11.41	69.58	18.80	77.11	4.09
	No disability	11.84	80.65	7.52	88.16	10.99	80.27	8.74	89.01	21.92	63.73	14.35	78.08	15.65	75.47	8.88	84.35	7.05	90.48	2.46
	Yes	16.45	78.89	4.66	83.55	9.83	87.90	2.27	90.17	30.14	57.47	12.39	69.86	11.50	86.53	1.97	88.50	12.32	86.22	1.46
	No	12.03	80.38	7.58	87.97	11.57	79.63	8.80	88.43	22.12	63.65	14.23	77.88	16.21	74.80	8.99	83.79	7.12	90.36	2.52

Table 2.19b: Attendance rate of children aged five by province

	Gia Lai				HCM city				Đông Thap				An Giang				Other provinces			
	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Pre-primary or primary	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Pre-primary or primary	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Pre-primary or primary	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Pre-primary or primary	Not attending	Pre-primary	Primary	Pre-primary or primary
Total	18.11	79.35	2.55	81.89	13.66	83.55	2.79	86.34	15.89	78.48	5.64	84.11	22.71	70.25	7.04	77.29	11.42	80.53	8.04	88.58
Gender	Male	19.72	78.06	2.22	80.28	14.05	83.06	2.89	85.95	16.68	77.96	5.36	83.32	24.80	68.38	6.81	75.20	11.39	80.52	8.09
	Female	16.31	80.78	2.91	83.69	13.24	84.08	2.68	86.76	15.02	79.04	5.95	84.98	20.48	72.25	7.27	79.52	11.46	80.54	8.00
Urban/rural	Urban	7.83	89.40	2.77	92.17	13.76	83.50	2.74	86.24	20.24	74.59	5.17	79.76	25.70	68.72	5.58	74.30	12.53	81.83	5.64
	Rural	21.62	75.91	2.47	78.38	13.24	83.78	2.98	86.76	15.02	79.25	5.73	84.98	21.53	70.85	7.61	78.47	11.06	80.10	8.83
Ethnicity	Kinh	4.11	93.79	2.10	95.89	13.43	83.79	2.79	86.57	15.91	78.44	5.65	84.09	22.19	70.87	6.94	77.81	10.42	82.07	7.51
	Tay	3.92	96.08	0.00	96.08	0.00	100.00	0.00	100.00									3.44	88.51	8.05
Ethnicity	Thai	23.61	76.39	0.00	76.39								0.00	100.00	0.00	100.00	6.03	77.42	16.55	93.97
	Muong	2.10	97.90	0.00	97.90	15.00	85.00	0.00	85.00								3.25	84.42	12.33	96.75
Disability	Khmer	0.00	100.00	0.00	100.00	45.91	54.09	0.00	54.09	0.00	100.00	0.00	100.00	33.93	56.23	9.84	66.07	37.18	53.26	9.56
	Mong	42.46	57.54	0.00	57.54													37.45	49.41	13.14
Disability	Other	31.10	65.88	3.02	68.90	17.12	79.89	2.99	82.88	0.00	100.00	0.00	100.00	32.18	61.81	6.01	67.82	15.90	74.79	9.31
	Disabled	67.13	32.87	0.00	32.87	76.96	23.04	0.00	23.04	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	83.69	14.74	1.57
Disability	Partially disabled	25.61	73.71	0.68	74.39	24.62	74.37	1.01	75.38	35.44	62.55	2.01	64.56	43.69	50.29	6.02	56.31	31.01	63.05	5.94
	No disability	17.91	79.51	2.58	82.09	13.42	83.76	2.82	86.58	15.63	78.69	5.68	84.37	22.56	70.40	7.05	77.44	11.05	80.87	8.08
Migrated	Yes	10.19	87.14	2.67	89.81	15.51	80.94	3.55	84.49	15.61	84.39	0.00	84.39	34.82	58.71	6.47	65.18	16.77	78.02	5.22
	No	18.36	79.09	2.54	81.64	13.39	83.93	2.68	86.61	15.89	78.36	5.75	84.11	22.53	70.42	7.04	77.47	11.27	80.61	8.13

Table 2.20:

Attendance rate of pre-primary and primary school children aged five by province

		Attending Pre-primary or Primary									
		Viet Nam	Lao Cai	Dien Bien	Ninh Thuan	Kon Tum	Gia Lai	HCM city	Dong Thap	An Giang	Other provinces
Gender	Total	87.81	88.46	77.70	83.87	92.68	81.89	86.34	84.11	77.29	88.58
	Male	87.71	89.86	77.49	82.44	92.32	80.28	85.95	83.32	75.20	88.61
	Female	87.92	86.95	77.93	85.38	93.07	83.69	86.76	84.98	79.52	88.54
Urban/rural	Urban	87.01	93.98	95.88	88.72	91.99	92.17	86.24	79.76	74.30	87.47
	Rural	88.14	87.33	75.44	81.39	92.99	78.38	86.76	84.98	78.47	88.94
	Kinh	88.97	94.17	96.80	87.39	95.24	95.89	86.57	84.09	77.81	89.58
Ethnicity	Tay	96.39	93.43	100.00		100.00	96.08	100.00			96.56
	Thai	93.85	100.00	92.95		100.00	76.39			100.00	93.97
	Muong	96.74	100.00	100.00		100.00	97.90	85.00			96.75
	Khmer	63.00				100.00	100.00	54.09	100.00	66.07	62.82
	Mong	65.51	82.65	64.22			57.54				62.55
	Other	82.05	88.01	73.15	73.36	90.60	68.90	82.88	100.00	67.82	84.10
Disability	Disabled	16.89	0.00	0.00	18.83	0	32.87	0	0.00	0.00	16.31
	Partially disabled	69.38	64.80	54.30	69.58	81.20	74.39	75.38	64.56	56.31	68.99
	No disability	88.16	89.01	78.08	84.35	92.95	82.09	86.58	84.37	77.44	88.95
Migrated	Yes	83.55	90.17	69.86	88.50	87.68	89.81	84.49	84.39	65.18	83.23
	No	87.97	88.43	77.88	83.79	92.88	81.64	86.61	84.11	77.47	88.73

Table 2.20 shows that Kon Tum has the highest attendance rate in children aged five at 92.68 per cent, whereas An Giang has the lowest rate at 77.29 per cent. An Giang also has the biggest gap between five year old boys and girls (four percentage points more girls in school than boys).

The disparity between urban and rural areas was the largest in Dien Bien with the urban rate at 95.88 per cent and the rural rate only 75.44 per cent, a difference of 20 percentage points.

Some of the ethnic minority groups had different attendance rates in different provinces. 82.65 per cent of the Mong children aged five in Lao Cai attended schools, but only 64.22 per cent of the Mong in Dien Bien did. 66.07 per cent of the Khmer children aged five in An Giang attended pre-primary schools, which means that one out of three Khmer children aged five in An Giang did not attend pre-primary school. The children in the other ethnic groups also had a much higher attendance rate in Lao Cai (88.01 per cent) than in Dien Bien (73.15 per cent).

Figure 2.11 gives a graphical illustration of the attendance rate of children aged five by province as presented in Table 2.20. The best performing province was Kon Tum (92.68 per cent) and the worst was An Giang (only 77.29 per cent).

Figure 2.11: Pre-primary or primary school attendance rate of children aged five by province

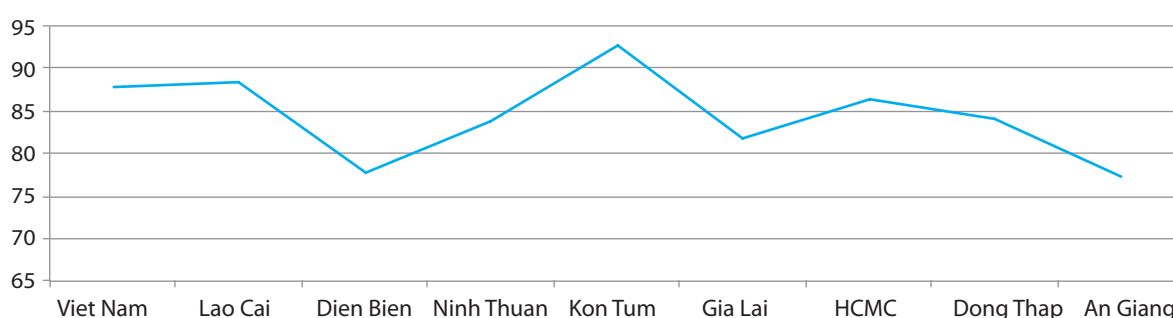
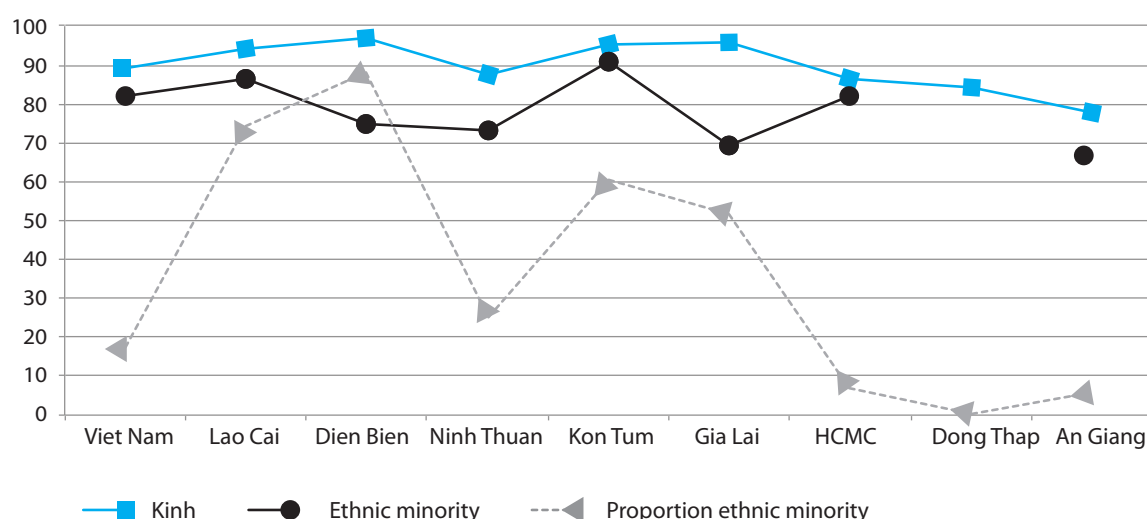


Figure 2.12: Pre-primary or primary school attendance rate of children aged five by ethnicity



Note: Dong Thap does not have this indicator as there were only 42 ethnic minority children aged five.

Figure 2.12 presents the attendance rates of the Kinh children aged five in different provinces. They are compared with the average attendance rates of all the ethnic minority children aged five in these provinces.

Kinh is the main ethnic group in Viet Nam and more than 80 per cent of the people in Viet Nam are Kinh. A comparison of the results for the Kinh with the average of all the ethnic minority groups indirectly shows the results of ethnic minority children. The larger the difference between the black line, which represents the average of all the ethnic groups, and the blue line, which represents the Kinh only, the larger the deviation of the ethnic minority attendance rate.

In Dien Bien, for example, the Kinh children aged five performed much better than the provincial average. The ethnic minority groups therefore had much lower attendance rates. Table 2.20 shows that only 64.22 per cent of the Mong children living in Dien Bien attended pre-primary or primary school while 96.80 per cent of the Kinh children attended pre-primary or primary school.

Included in Figure 2.12 is also the population distribution of the minority groups, which was calculated by taking 100 and subtracting the Kinh population percentage. Figure 2.12 shows clearly that not all provinces with a high ethnic minority population had a low attendance rate for the ethnic minority children aged five. In Kon Tum, for instance, ethnic minorities made up 60.6 per cent of the population, yet the attendance rate of ethnic minority children aged 5 is similar to that of Kinh children.

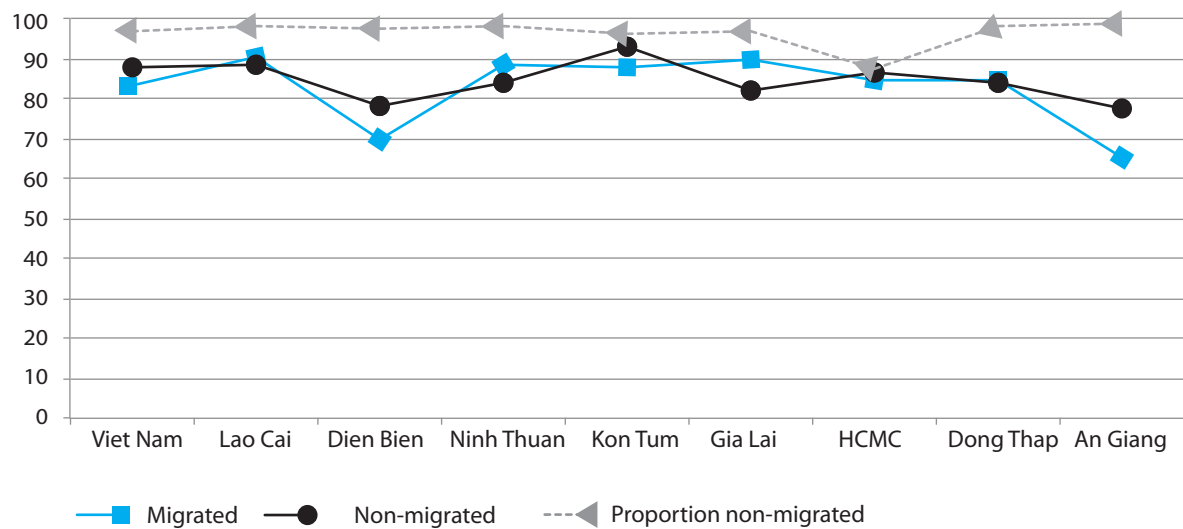
Overall, five year old pre-primary children from Kinh families had a better than average attendance rate. However, in An Giang, where the majority children aged five were Kinh, the attendance rate was 77.29 per cent, which was far below the national average.

The population of five year old children with disabilities was too small for any analysis. In general, the attendance rate of children with no disabilities was higher than that of children with partial disabilities. The lowest discrepancy was observed in Ho Chi Minh City, Gia Lai and Kon Tum (about 1.1 times higher), and the highest discrepancy was observed in Lao Cai and Dien Bien (about 1.4 times higher).

However, one must be cautious when reading and generalizing the statistics on children with partial disabilities as the number of cases of children with partial disabilities in each province was very small.

Figure 2.13 compares the attendance rate of migrant and non-migrant children. Again, in this figure the percentage of the non-migrant population is displayed as a comparison. Of the eight provinces only Ho Chi Minh City had a relatively high migrant population (above 10 per cent). In the rest of the provinces only two to four per cent of the children were migrants.

Figure 2.13: Percentage of children aged five attending pre-primary or primary school (migrant)



Even though most provinces had similar percentages for the migrant population, attendance rates of migrant and non-migrant children varied from province to province. In Lao Cai the attendance rate for migrant children aged five was higher than the rate for non-migrants, but in Dien Bien the opposite was true. In Ho Chi Minh City, where the percentage of migrant children exceeded 10 per cent, the attendance rate among migrant children was slightly lower (84.49 per cent) than the rate for non-migrant children (86.61 per cent).

However, one must be cautious when reading and generalizing the statistics on migrant children, as the number of cases of migrant children in each province (except in Ho Chi Minh City) was very small.

The next sets of tables and graphs present the primary school ANAR, the lower secondary school ANAR, and the primary school attendance rate of children of lower secondary age in the eight provinces.

Table 2.21: Primary ANAR by province
Unit: %

		Viet Nam	Lao Cai	Dien Bien	Ninh Thuan	Kon Tum	Gia Lai	Tp. HCMC	Đông Thap	An Giang
Total		96.03	90.45	84.25	91.92	94.20	87.58	97.65	95.54	92.46
Age	6	92.72	83.42	76.47	89.85	89.62	78.68	96.84	92.23	87.41
	7	97.19	91.86	87.16	93.72	96.18	90.33	98.54	97.05	95.12
	8	97.40	93.20	87.25	94.06	96.21	90.65	98.35	97.62	95.68
	9	96.77	92.23	85.41	92.59	94.90	89.70	97.72	96.01	93.66
	10	95.87	91.21	84.76	89.25	93.94	87.93	96.61	94.18	89.40
Gender	Male	96.04	92.07	87.30	90.73	93.78	86.40	97.61	95.22	91.87
	Female	96.01	88.74	81.02	93.22	94.67	88.88	97.71	95.88	93.09
Urban/rural	Urban	97.60	97.40	98.07	96.55	96.91	95.49	97.82	96.10	93.86
	Rural	95.50	89.18	82.76	89.75	93.13	85.12	96.95	95.44	91.95
Ethnicity	Kinh	97.48	98.96	98.58	95.97	98.75	98.41	97.73	95.53	92.88
	Tay	98.23	97.46	98.62	100.00	98.04	97.68	100.00		
	Thai	94.54	95.95	96.00	62.43	96.61	100.00	100.00		100.00
	Muong	97.42	94.46	100.00	100.00	99.15	94.90	93.31		100.00
	Khmer	86.66			100.00		100.00	67.36	100.00	85.59
	Mong	73.50	80.20	73.25			86.67	100.00		
	Other	89.98	91.39	83.35	80.64	91.22	77.79	97.17	100.00	85.27
Disability	Disabled	12.90	4.45	15.36	2.60	0.00	13.86	19.10	10.92	10.49
	Partially disabled	76.19	77.19	70.82	74.31	69.28	64.28	83.87	67.29	52.63
	No disability	96.44	90.75	84.58	92.29	94.89	88.03	97.97	95.82	92.84
Migrated	Yes	92.77	92.02	66.83	97.74	89.96	94.75	95.15	87.93	86.13
	No	96.11	90.43	84.58	91.85	94.34	87.41	97.98	95.63	92.55

Figure 2.14: Primary school ANAR by province and ethnicity

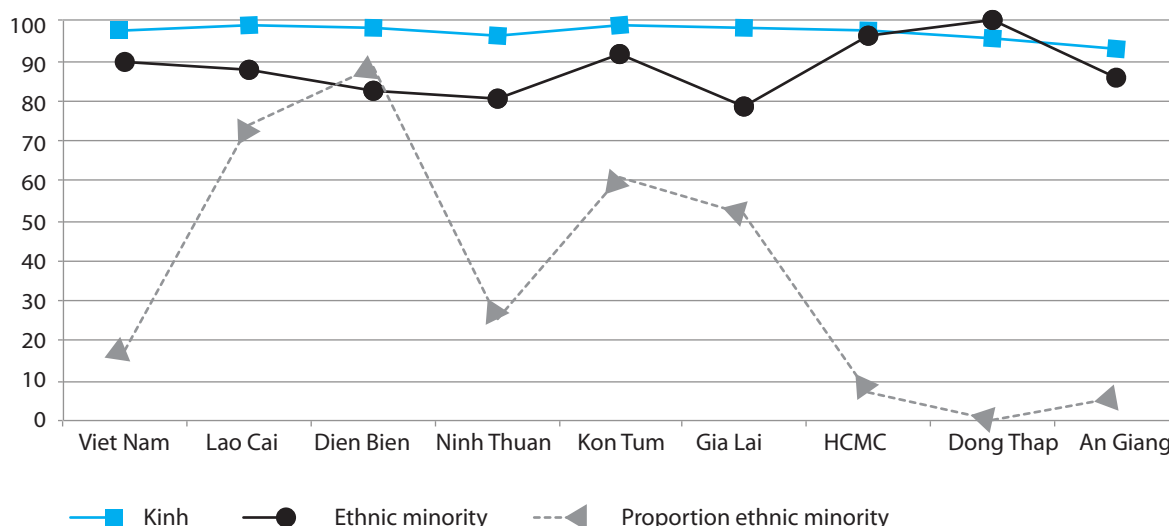


Figure 2.14 takes the same approach as in Figure 2.12 when displaying the primary school attendance rate. The dashed line represents the percentage of ethnic minorities.

In every province except Dong Thap, children of Kinh families had a higher primary school ANAR than the provincial average. The difference was most obvious in Lao Cai, Dien Bien, and Gia Lai.

Of the eight provinces selected for analysis, Lao Cai and Dien Bien were the only two provinces with a primary school ANAR among girls that was much lower than the rate for boys. Dien Bien had the largest gap between the Kinh and the ethnic minority children. The primary school ANAR for the Kinh was 98.58 per cent and the average primary school ANAR of all the ethnic minority groups in the province was 82.44 per cent. The lower average is obviously a result of the low primary ANAR among the Mong children (73.25 per cent). In Lao Cai, the primary school ANAR for the Kinh was 98.6 per cent and the primary ANAR of the Mong was 80.2 per cent. One out of five Mong children of primary school age was out of school. In general, the Mong had the lowest primary school ANAR of all the ethnic groups in the three provinces where Mong people lived: Lao Cai, Dien Bien and Gia Lai.

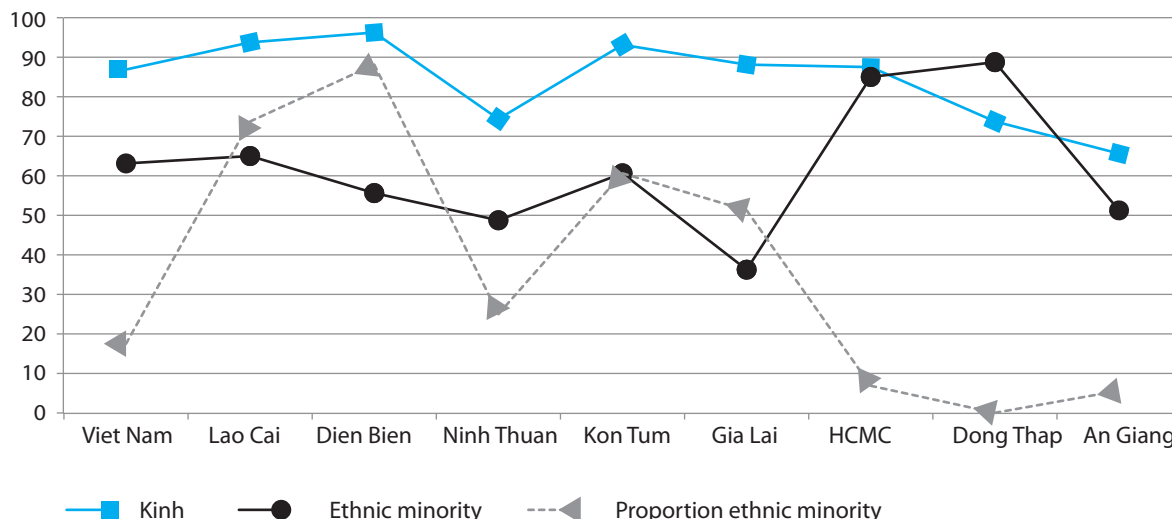
The primary school ANAR of children with disabilities in the whole country was only 13 per cent, with low rates in three provinces: Kon Tum (0 per cent), Ninh Thuan (2.6 per cent) and Lao Cai (4.45 per cent). The primary school ANAR by province for children with no disabilities was 1.3 times higher than that of children with partial disabilities, with the highest difference in An Giang.

Table 2.22:

Lower secondary school ANAR and primary school attendance by province

		Viet Nam		Lao Cai		Dien Bien		Ninh Thuan		Kon Tum		Gia Lai		HCMC		Dong Thap		An Giang	
		Primary attendance	ANAR	Primary attendance	ANAR	Primary attendance	ANAR	Primary attendance	ANAR	Primary attendance	ANAR	Primary attendance	ANAR	Primary attendance	ANAR	Primary attendance	ANAR	Primary attendance	ANAR
Age	Total	5.90	82.93	9.59	72.91	14.55	60.67	8.42	68.04	10.23	73.85	14.51	62.91	2.67	87.40	6.93	73.61	8.47	64.55
	11	16.43	78.20	24.57	64.40	30.92	50.90	21.53	65.36	25.24	67.07	33.33	52.28	7.48	88.68	19.84	72.59	23.25	62.87
	12	5.47	86.16	9.52	75.82	14.99	62.36	9.29	72.09	10.58	76.76	16.45	64.75	1.95	90.69	6.11	78.09	7.78	70.48
	13	2.06	85.65	3.94	78.26	8.58	65.51	3.52	69.60	4.91	77.93	6.09	69.34	0.94	88.19	1.53	76.68	2.42	66.20
Gender	14	0.89	81.46	1.57	72.68	4.23	63.61	1.33	65.07	1.68	73.26	2.62	64.83	0.53	82.27	0.90	67.03	1.03	58.50
	Male	6.54	81.69	10.04	75.76	15.86	67.13	9.19	63.85	10.96	70.46	15.48	60.18	2.78	86.56	7.46	71.26	9.11	62.75
	Female	5.20	84.28	9.10	69.88	13.09	53.45	7.57	72.63	9.44	77.55	13.48	65.82	2.56	88.32	6.35	76.25	7.80	66.46
	Urban	3.27	89.09	2.74	91.51	3.31	91.93	4.97	78.96	4.70	84.93	5.18	85.31	2.78	88.52	4.57	83.13	6.30	73.67
Urban/rural	Rural	6.74	80.95	10.88	69.40	15.91	56.90	10.08	62.78	12.76	68.79	17.89	54.81	2.21	82.62	7.36	71.88	9.24	61.33
	Kinh	4.22	87.05	2.14	94.02	1.73	96.43	5.97	74.15	2.36	92.90	4.80	88.22	2.60	87.61	6.94	73.59	8.25	65.38
	Tay	5.11	88.27	4.23	86.84	0.00	91.09	0.00	85.57	6.76	77.80	6.19	83.64	0.00	68.16				
	Thai	10.58	73.84	3.25	89.79	7.87	77.84	0.00	100.00	4.35	90.51	9.90	76.52	0.00	100.00			0.00	100.00
Ethnicity	Muong	6.01	84.17	0.00	96.63	0.00	100.00	0.00	100.00	3.31	79.15	5.31	81.45	0.00	100.00			0.00	75.35
	Khmer	15.01	46.35					50.26	49.74			9.16	90.84	9.66	15.89	0.00	27.40	12.62	49.85
	Mong	24.40	34.24	16.12	50.03	23.07	38.48					24.39	42.74						
	Other	15.56	60.96	12.94	68.08	19.17	46.83	16.29	48.37	16.29	59.46	25.32	34.72	3.40	87.36	0.00	96.61	10.65	55.44
Disability	Disabled	4.42	4.18	3.04	1.92	26.31	0	0.00	0.00	0.00	9.51	1.18	0.77	4.15	3.71	6.78	2.04	2.66	0.00
	Partially disabled	8.23	60.77	7.85	56.13	14.21	43.06	7.99	53.98	15.83	41.67	9.16	41.98	4.19	78.99	8.60	47.97	9.28	33.90
	No disability	5.86	83.49	9.64	73.45	14.55	61.03	8.45	68.44	10.15	74.60	14.61	63.32	2.63	87.77	6.92	74.06	8.48	64.87
	Yes	5.37	68.91	5.18	84.39	11.68	47.66	6.30	79.57	8.03	72.44	7.94	74.33	3.34	70.40	9.21	57.98	8.96	45.65
Migrated	No	5.91	83.25	9.64	72.77	14.60	60.89	8.45	67.90	10.30	73.89	14.68	62.62	2.59	89.60	6.91	73.77	8.47	64.76

Figure 2.15: Lower secondary school ANAR by province and ethnicity



The lower secondary school ANAR represents the percentage of lower secondary school age children attending lower and upper secondary grades. The difference in the ANAR between ethnic groups was much larger at lower secondary level than at primary level. The biggest gap was in Dien Bien, where 96.43 per cent of the Kinh children attended grades appropriate for their age, but only 38.48 per cent of the Mong children did. Figure 2.15 shows that the provinces with a high minority population, Lao Cai, Dien Bien, Kon Tum and Gia Lai, all had a large gap between the Kinh and the ethnic minority children in lower secondary school attendance.

Figure 2.16: Lower secondary school age children attending primary school by province and ethnicity

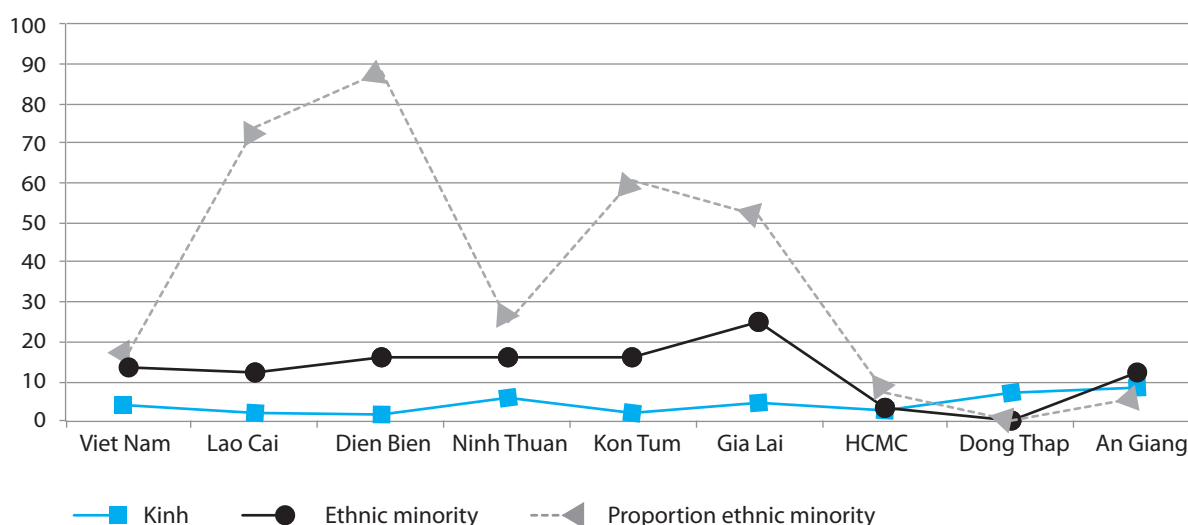


Figure 2.16 shows that in the four provinces where there were large gaps in the lower secondary school ANAR, the percentage of Kinh children of lower secondary age who attended primary school was much lower. In other words, the ethnic minority groups had a much higher rate of lower secondary school age children attending primary grades. These statistics indicate either a late start or slower progress at school.

The secondary school ANAR of children with disabilities for the whole country was only four per cent, with low rates in Ninh Thuan, An Giang, Lao Cai and Gia Lai. The lower secondary school ANAR by province for children with no disabilities was 1.4 times higher that of children with partial disabilities, with the highest difference in An Giang and Kon Tum, and the lowest in Ho Chi Minh City.

2.7.3 Out-of-school children

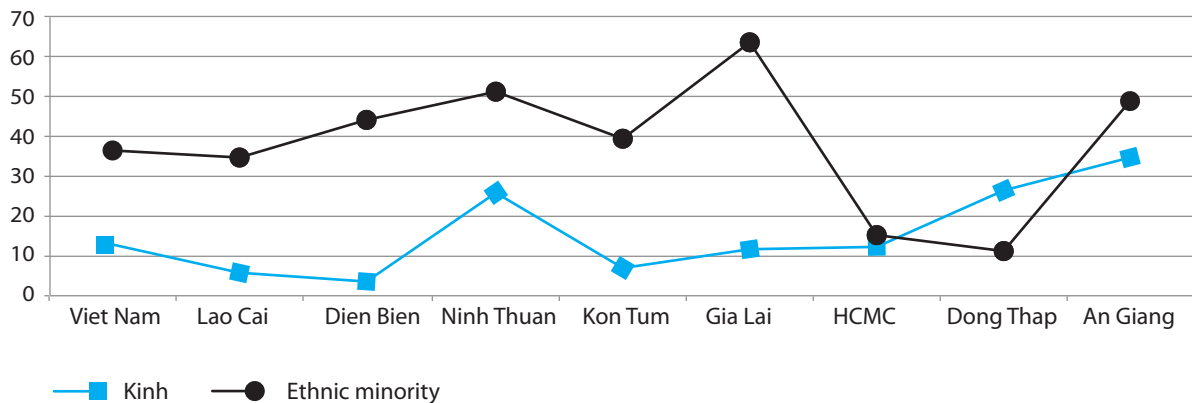
The next sets of tables and graphs present the out-of-school rates of primary and lower secondary school age children.

Table 2.23: OOSC rate at primary school age by province

Unit: %

		Viet Nam	Lao Cai	Dien Bien	Ninh Thuan	Kon Tum	Gia Lai	HCMC	Dong Thap	An Giang
Age	Total	3.97	9.55	15.75	8.08	5.80	12.42	2.35	4.46	7.54
	6	7.28	16.58	23.53	10.15	10.38	21.32	3.16	7.77	12.59
	7	2.81	8.14	12.84	6.28	3.82	9.67	1.46	2.95	4.88
	8	2.60	6.80	12.75	5.94	3.79	9.35	1.65	2.38	4.32
	9	3.23	7.77	14.59	7.41	5.10	10.30	2.28	3.99	6.34
	10	4.13	8.79	15.24	10.75	6.06	12.07	3.39	5.82	10.60
Gender	Male	3.96	7.93	12.70	9.27	6.22	13.60	2.39	4.78	8.13
	Female	3.99	11.26	18.98	6.78	5.33	11.12	2.29	4.12	6.91
Urban/rural	Urban	2.40	2.60	1.93	3.45	3.09	4.51	2.18	3.90	6.14
	Rural	4.50	10.82	17.24	10.25	6.87	14.88	3.05	4.56	8.05
Ethnicity	Kinh	2.52	1.04	1.42	4.03	1.25	1.59	2.27	4.47	7.12
	Tay	1.77	2.54	1.38	0.00	1.96	2.32	0.00		
	Thai	5.46	4.05	4.00	37.57	3.39	0.00	0.00		0.00
	Muong	2.58	5.54	0.00	0.00	0.85	5.10	6.69		0.00
	Khmer	13.34			0.00		0.00	32.64	0.00	14.41
	Mong	26.50	19.80	26.75			13.33	0.00		
Disability	Other	10.02	8.61	16.65	19.36	8.78	22.21	2.83	0.00	14.73
	Disabled	87.10	95.55	84.64	97.40	100.00	86.14	80.90	89.08	89.51
	Partially disabled	23.81	22.81	29.18	25.69	30.72	35.72	16.13	32.71	47.37
Migrated	No disability	3.56	9.25	15.42	7.71	5.11	11.97	2.03	4.18	7.16
	Yes	7.23	7.98	33.17	2.26	10.04	5.25	4.85	12.07	13.87
	No	3.89	9.57	15.42	8.15	5.66	12.59	2.02	4.37	7.45

Figure 2.17: OOSC rate at primary school age by province and ethnicity



Of the four provinces with a high ethnic minority population, three of them (Lao Cai, Dien Bien and Gia Lai) exhibited a large difference between the Kinh children and the ethnic minorities. In Lao Cai 1.04 per cent of the Kinh children of primary school age were out of school and 19.8 per cent of their Mong peers were out of school. In Dien Bien the difference was more obvious with 1.42 per cent of Kinh children of primary school age and 26.75 per cent of the Mong children of the same age being out of school.

In Dien Bien there was a big difference in the OOSC rates for migrant and non-migrant children (33.17 per cent and 15.42 per cent respectively). Migrant children of primary school age in the province were almost twice as likely to be out of school than non-migrant children.

Figure 2.18: OOSC rate at primary school age by province and migration status

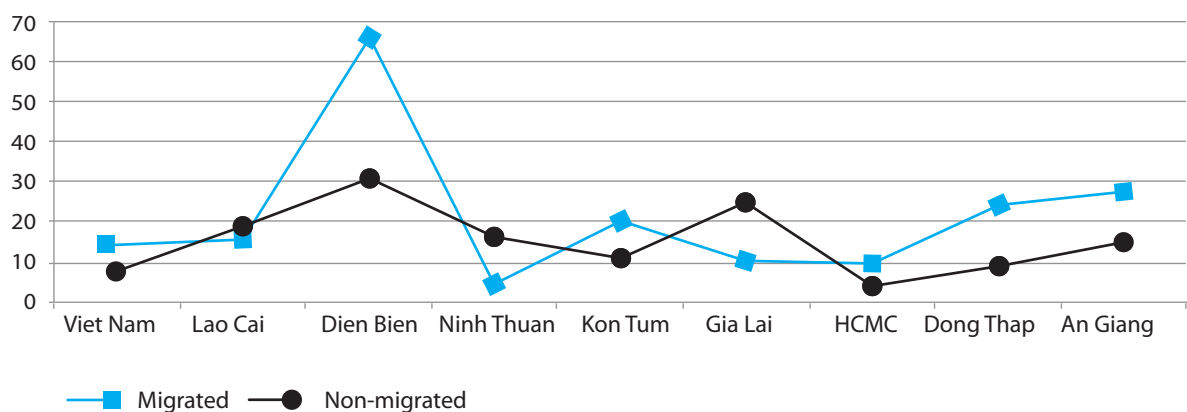
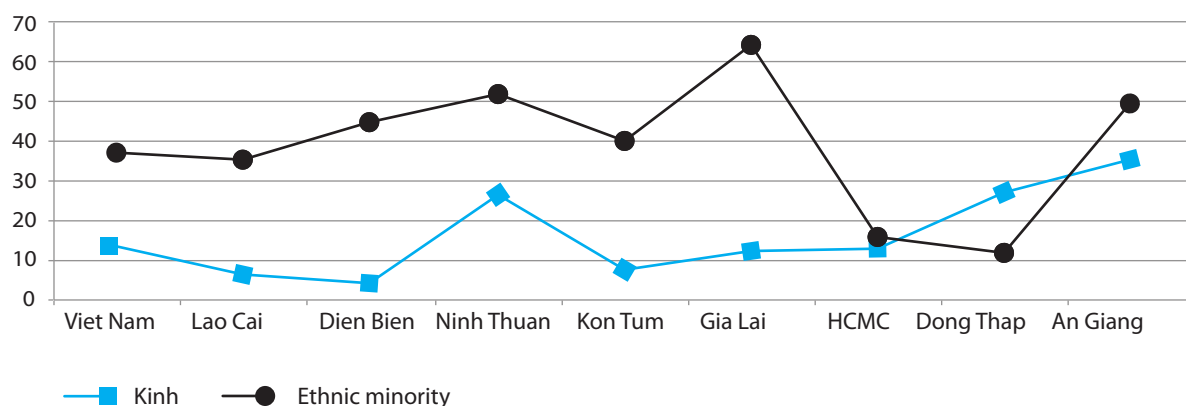


Table 2.24: OOSC rate at lower secondary school age by province
Unit: %

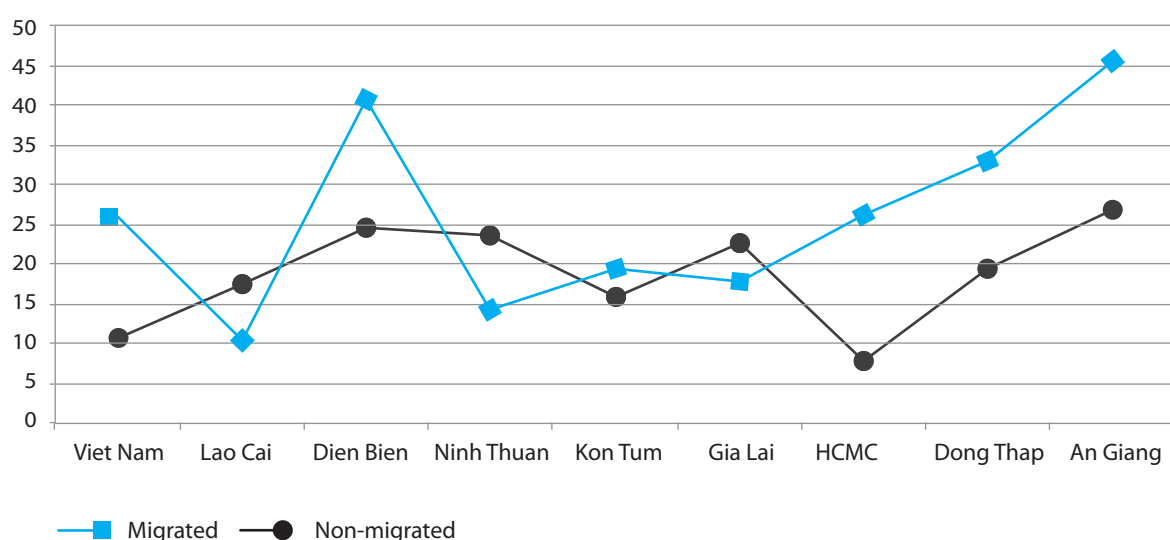
		Viet Nam	Lao Cai	Dien Bien	Ninh Thuan	Kon Tum	Gia Lai	HCMC	Đông Thap	An Giang
Total		11.17	17.51	24.78	23.54	15.91	22.58	9.92	19.45	26.98
Age	11	5.37	11.03	18.18	13.11	7.69	14.39	3.85	7.57	13.89
	12	8.37	14.66	22.65	18.62	12.66	18.80	7.36	15.80	21.74
	13	12.29	17.81	25.90	26.88	17.16	24.57	10.86	21.79	31.38
	14	17.65	25.75	32.16	33.61	25.06	32.55	17.20	32.07	40.47
Gender	Male	11.77	14.20	17.00	26.95	18.58	24.34	10.66	21.28	28.14
	Female	10.52	21.02	33.46	19.79	13.00	20.70	9.12	17.40	25.74
Urban/ rural	Urban	7.64	5.74	4.76	16.07	10.37	9.51	8.70	12.30	20.03
	Rural	12.31	19.72	27.20	27.14	18.44	27.31	15.16	20.75	29.43
Ethnicity	Kinh	8.74	3.84	1.84	19.88	4.74	6.97	9.79	19.46	26.38
	Tay	6.62	8.92	8.91	14.43	15.44	10.18	31.84		
	Thai	15.57	6.96	14.29	0.00	5.13	13.58	0.00		0.00
	Muong	9.83	3.37	0.00	0.00	17.54	13.25	0.00		24.65
	Khmer	38.63			0.00		0.00	74.44	72.60	37.53
	Mong	41.36	33.84	38.45			32.86			
	Other	23.48	18.98	34.00	35.34	24.25	39.95	9.24	3.39	33.91
Disability	Disabled	91.40	95.04	70.89	100.00	90.49	98.05	92.14	91.18	97.34
	Partially disabled	31.01	36.02	42.73	38.02	42.50	48.86	16.82	43.43	56.83
	No disability	10.65	16.91	24.43	23.11	15.25	22.07	9.60	19.02	26.65
Migrated	Yes	25.72	10.43	40.67	14.13	19.53	17.74	26.26	32.81	45.38
	No	10.84	17.59	24.50	23.65	15.81	22.70	7.81	19.32	26.77

Figure 2.19: OOSC rate at lower secondary school age by province and ethnicity



Again in the four provinces with a high ethnic minority population, the OOSC rate among the Kinh children of lower secondary school age was much lower than the average for all the ethnic minorities, which indicates a much higher OOSC rate among ethnic minority children of lower secondary school age. It must be noted, however, that Kon Tum, a province with a 60 per cent ethnic minority population, had a narrower gap than Gia Lai, a province with a 50 per cent ethnic minority population. A closer look at Table 2.24 shows that there was a group of Mong children in Gia Lai but not in Kon Tum. Children from other ethnic groups performed poorly in Gia Lai (39.95 per cent) compared to those in Kon Tum (24.25 per cent). In Dien Bien 38.45 per cent of the Mong children and 1.84 per cent of the Kinh of lower secondary school age were out of school. In Lao Cai the discrepancy was 33.84 per cent for the Mong children and 3.84 per cent for the Kinh children of the same age group. This again indicates an inequity in education for Mong children. In An Giang the OOSC rate for Kinh children of lower secondary school age was 26.38 per cent, the highest rate among the eight provinces, and the rate for the Khmer children out of school was 37.53 per cent, which shows that An Giang was a “lowland” in education compared to other provinces in the Mekong River Delta.

Figure 2.20: OOSC rate at lower secondary school age by province and migration status



It is worth noting that the OOSC rate at lower secondary school age in Ho Chi Minh City was much higher among migrant children (26.26 per cent) than among non-migrant children (7.81 per cent). This is important as the migrant children population in Ho Chi Minh City made up to nearly 13 per cent of the five to 14 year olds, which was about 112,000 children.

2.7.4 Dropouts and over-age students

As mentioned before, dropout and over-age attendance were the main reasons for children being out of school. In this report dropouts are defined as children who once attended school and were not in school at the time of the 2009 Census. The next set of tables present the attendance rate. As in previous tables, the national average is listed as a reference point for the provinces that follow. The children were divided into three groups: never attended, attended but dropped out and currently attending.

Dien Bien had the highest percentage (12.19 per cent) of children of primary school age who had never attended school (Table 2.28), and most of those children were Mong. 21.87 per cent of the Mong primary school age children had never attended school, accounting for more than one fifth of the Mong primary school age children. The figure in Lao Cai was 11.36 per cent, which means one out of every 10 Mong children of primary age had never been to school.

Among migrant children of primary school age in Dien Bien there was a higher than average percentage of children who had never attended school, 23.96 per cent, almost double that of non-migrant children of the same age group in the province (11.97 per cent).

Table 2.25a: Attendance status of primary school age children by province (1)

Unit: %

		Viet Nam			Lao Cai			Dien Bien			Ninh Thuan			Kon Tum		
		Attending	Dropped out	Never attended	Attending	Dropped out	Never attended	Attending	Dropped out	Never attended	Attending	Dropped out	Never attended	Attending	Dropped out	Never attended
Total		96.83	1.16	2.01	92.86	2.12	5.02	85.89	1.92	12.19	92.75	2.45	4.81	95.66	1.76	2.58
Age	6	96.50	0.38	3.12	95.19	0.49	4.32	84.61	0.61	14.78	93.45	0.90	5.65	96.43	0.34	3.24
	7	97.37	0.52	2.10	92.28	1.03	6.69	87.24	0.70	12.06	94.08	0.98	4.94	96.52	0.82	2.67
	8	97.49	0.74	1.76	93.40	1.30	5.30	87.30	1.11	11.59	94.17	1.95	3.88	96.36	1.25	2.39
	9	96.80	1.64	1.57	92.23	3.32	4.46	85.41	2.81	11.78	92.75	3.27	3.98	94.90	2.87	2.24
	10	95.90	2.58	1.52	91.21	4.50	4.30	84.77	4.49	10.75	89.33	5.01	5.65	93.94	3.68	2.37
Gender	Male	96.84	1.19	1.97	94.47	1.92	3.60	88.99	1.60	9.41	91.56	2.81	5.63	95.31	1.81	2.88
	Female	96.82	1.12	2.06	91.15	2.33	6.52	82.62	2.26	15.12	94.04	2.05	3.91	96.06	1.69	2.25
Urban/rural	Urban	98.07	0.84	1.09	97.82	1.00	1.18	98.57	0.32	1.12	97.50	0.97	1.53	97.74	0.97	1.29
	Rural	96.41	1.26	2.32	91.95	2.33	5.72	84.53	2.09	13.38	90.52	3.14	6.34	94.84	2.06	3.09
	Kinh	98.10	0.87	1.03	99.25	0.32	0.44	99.12	0.35	0.53	96.61	1.45	1.94	99.34	0.35	0.31
	Tay	98.82	0.65	0.54	98.05	1.31	0.64	98.62	1.38	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	99.15	0.85	0.00
Ethnicity	Thai	96.19	1.53	2.28	97.42	1.47	1.10	97.04	1.22	1.74	62.43	37.57	0.00	99.15	0.00	0.85
	Muong	98.26	1.03	0.72	100.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	99.15	0.00	0.85
	Khmer	87.89	4.60	7.52							100.00	0.00	0.00			
	Mong	76.56	3.57	19.87	84.66	3.98	11.36	75.38	2.75	21.87						
Disability	Other	91.71	2.59	5.69	94.14	1.97	3.88	85.79	1.96	12.25	81.98	5.21	12.81	93.24	2.69	4.07
	Disabled	14.21	2.57	83.23	4.45	0.00	95.55	15.36	0.00	84.64	2.60	0.00	97.40	0.00	2.28	97.72
	Partially disabled	79.89	3.49	16.62	79.91	3.85	16.24	73.74	4.70	21.55	79.96	3.47	16.58	73.76	7.03	19.20
	No disability	97.20	1.12	1.67	93.15	2.10	4.75	86.20	1.88	11.92	93.06	2.44	4.51	96.31	1.66	2.03
Migrated	Yes	93.81	2.99	3.20	93.99	1.55	4.46	68.17	7.87	23.96	97.74	0.50	1.77	91.98	1.36	6.66
	No	96.91	1.11	1.98	92.84	2.13	5.03	86.23	1.81	11.97	92.69	2.47	4.84	95.78	1.77	2.45

Table 2.25b:

Attendance status of primary school age children by province (2)

Unit: %

	Viet Nam			Gia Lai			Ho Chi Minh City			Đông Thap			An Giang		
	Attending	Dropped out	Never attended	Attending	Dropped out	Never attended	Attending	Dropped out	Never attended	Attending	Dropped out	Never attended	Attending	Dropped out	Never attended
Total	96.83	1.16	2.01	89.84	2.55	7.61	98.00	1.10	0.90	96.29	1.86	1.85	93.58	3.10	3.32
Age	6	96.50	0.38	3.12	89.25	0.45	10.30	98.08	0.37	1.55	95.66	0.44	3.90	92.73	6.40
	7	97.37	0.52	2.10	91.08	0.88	8.05	98.68	0.51	0.81	97.29	0.67	2.03	95.42	3.23
	8	97.49	0.74	1.76	90.92	1.47	7.61	98.47	0.74	0.79	97.77	1.12	1.12	95.84	2.54
	9	96.80	1.64	1.57	89.72	4.07	6.21	97.79	1.58	0.64	96.01	2.85	1.14	93.72	2.20
Gender	10	95.90	2.58	1.52	88.00	6.06	5.93	96.64	2.76	0.60	94.20	4.57	1.23	89.42	2.39
	Male	96.84	1.19	1.97	88.66	2.76	8.57	97.96	1.11	0.93	95.94	2.09	1.97	93.04	3.55
Urban/rural	Female	96.82	1.12	2.06	91.12	2.31	6.57	98.04	1.09	0.87	96.66	1.61	1.73	94.17	3.07
	Urban	98.07	0.84	1.09	96.20	0.90	2.90	98.14	1.00	0.87	96.51	1.55	1.94	94.52	3.15
	Rural	96.41	1.26	2.32	87.85	3.06	9.08	97.40	1.55	1.05	96.24	1.92	1.84	93.24	3.38
	Kinh	98.10	0.87	1.03	98.95	0.40	0.66	98.07	1.06	0.87	96.28	1.86	1.86	93.93	3.08
Ethnicity	Tay	98.82	0.65	0.54	98.33	0.99	0.68	100.00	0.00	0.00					
	Thai	96.19	1.53	2.28	100.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00			100.00	0.00	0.00
	Muong	98.26	1.03	0.72	97.59	2.03	0.38	93.31	0.00	6.69			100.00	0.00	0.00
	Khmer	87.89	4.60	7.52	100.00	0.00	0.00	67.36	14.16	18.47	100.00	0.00	88.28	4.26	7.47
Disability	Mong	76.56	3.57	19.87	86.67	7.67	5.66	100.00	0.00	0.00					
	Other	91.71	2.59	5.69	81.59	4.46	13.94	97.61	1.41	0.99	100.00	0.00	86.07	8.23	5.70
	Disabled	14.21	2.57	83.23	14.54	1.33	84.13	19.10	8.22	72.68	10.92	0.00	89.08	10.49	89.51
	Partially disabled	79.89	3.49	16.62	68.79	4.58	26.63	86.43	4.04	9.53	71.43	4.31	62.09	4.03	33.88
Migrated	No disability	97.20	1.12	1.67	90.26	2.53	7.21	98.28	1.05	0.67	96.54	1.84	1.61	93.92	2.98
	Yes	93.81	2.99	3.20	95.71	2.73	1.57	95.83	2.79	1.38	88.62	4.35	7.03	89.85	7.92
	No	96.91	1.11	1.98	89.70	2.54	7.76	98.28	0.89	0.84	96.38	1.83	1.79	93.64	3.25

In these provinces, the dropout rate at the lower secondary level was generally much higher than that at the primary school level, especially for the final grade. In Ninh Thuan nearly 28 per cent of the students aged 14 had dropped out. The figure in Gia Lai was 27.3 per cent, in Dong Thap it was 29.8 per cent and in An Giang it was 37 per cent. In Lao Cai and Dien Bien nearly 20 per cent of the children aged 14 had dropped out of lower secondary school.

The difference was most evident among ethnic minority children, children from migrant families and children from rural areas. The lower secondary school age children in An Giang (Tables 2.26a, 2.26b) had the lowest attendance rate at 73.06 per cent. This low attendance rate was due to the high dropout rate at 24.14 per cent. The dropout rate was high among all the ethnic groups, including the Kinh (23.84 per cent), the Khmer (29.92 per cent) and others (29.38 per cent). The dropout rate was also high among migrant children at 37.45 per cent. In other words, one in three lower secondary school age migrant children attended but dropped out of school. In Dong Thap 19.19 per cent of the rural children of lower secondary school age had dropped out, nearly twice the number in urban areas. In Ho Chi Minh City nearly 24.69 per cent of the migrant children of lower secondary school age had dropped out.

In Dien Bien 15.67 per cent of Mong children and 19.32 per cent of children from other ethnic minority groups of lower secondary school age had dropped out, but only 1.58 per cent of Kinh children of the same age had dropped out. In Lao Cai 22.4 per cent of Mong children and 3.18 per cent of Kinh children of lower secondary school age had dropped out. In Dien Bien 22.78 per cent of Mong children of lower secondary school age and 11.4 per cent of Mong children of the same age in Lao Cai had never attended school. There was an obvious gender disparity in Dien Bien with 18.3 per cent of the lower secondary school age girls and only six per cent of boys of the same age never attending school. In Ninh Thuan 20.3 per cent of rural lower secondary age children had dropped out, compared with 13.4 per cent for urban children of the same age group. In Kon Tum 18 per cent of migrant children of lower secondary school age had dropped out. In Gia Lai the dropout rate among rural children of lower secondary school age was 20.9 per cent and the figure in urban areas was 7.36 per cent.

Table 2.26a: Attendance status of lower secondary school age children by province (1)

Unit: %

	Viet Nam			Lao Cai			Dien Bien			Ninh Thuan			Kon Tum		
	Attending	Dropped out	Never attended	Attending	Dropped out	Never attended	Attending	Dropped out	Never attended	Attending	Dropped out	Never attended	Attending	Dropped out	Never attended
Total	88.87	9.47	1.65	82.54	12.78	4.68	75.24	12.92	11.84	76.52	18.10	5.38	84.11	14.08	1.82
Age															
11	94.65	3.87	1.48	88.97	6.62	4.41	81.82	7.38	10.79	87.00	8.08	4.92	92.36	6.20	1.44
12	91.66	6.74	1.61	85.37	10.61	4.03	77.38	10.99	11.63	81.45	13.44	5.11	87.36	10.53	2.11
13	87.75	10.55	1.69	82.19	13.05	4.76	74.11	13.63	12.25	73.16	21.03	5.80	82.84	15.20	1.96
14	82.43	15.77	1.81	74.38	20.16	5.46	67.87	19.48	12.65	66.43	27.98	5.59	74.94	23.31	1.74
Gender															
Male	88.28	10.19	1.53	85.83	11.24	2.92	83.01	10.95	6.04	73.16	20.91	5.93	81.44	16.48	2.07
Female	89.51	8.70	1.79	79.03	14.41	6.56	66.56	15.12	18.32	80.21	15.02	4.77	87.01	11.45	1.54
Urban/ rural															
Urban	92.41	6.71	0.88	94.38	4.42	1.20	95.24	3.67	1.09	84.04	13.49	2.47	89.63	9.58	0.79
Rural	87.73	10.37	1.90	80.31	14.35	5.34	72.83	14.04	13.14	72.90	20.32	6.78	81.58	16.13	2.29
Kinh	91.31	7.86	0.84	96.27	3.18	0.54	98.16	1.58	0.25	80.19	17.24	2.57	95.30	4.37	0.33
Tay	93.40	6.00	0.60	91.12	7.63	1.25	91.09	8.91	0.00	85.57	14.43	0.00	84.56	15.44	0.00
Thai	84.46	13.02	2.52	93.04	5.31	1.66	85.76	11.79	2.45	100.00	0.00	0.00	94.87	5.13	0.00
Ethnicity															
Muong	90.19	8.91	0.90	96.63	3.37	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00	82.46	17.10	0.44
Khmer	61.39	32.37	6.24							100.00	0.00	0.00			
Mong	58.67	20.76	20.57	66.18	22.40	11.42	61.55	15.67	22.78						
Other	76.56	18.77	4.67	81.03	15.09	3.88	66.02	19.32	14.66	64.69	20.91	14.40	75.75	21.26	2.99
Disabled	8.82	8.72	82.46	4.96	6.41	88.63	29.11	9.12	61.77	0.00	8.56	91.44	9.51	7.25	83.24
Partially disabled	69.83	14.40	15.77	64.78	18.97	16.24	57.36	16.70	25.94	63.29	14.21	22.50	57.50	19.65	22.85
Disability															
No disability	89.38	9.40	1.23	83.11	12.66	4.23	75.59	12.86	11.55	76.92	18.19	4.89	84.77	13.99	1.24
Yes	74.50	23.06	2.44	90.35	5.66	3.99	59.33	16.52	24.14	87.11	11.86	1.03	80.47	18.00	1.53
Migrated															
No	89.20	9.17	1.63	82.45	12.86	4.69	75.52	12.86	11.63	76.40	18.17	5.43	84.21	13.97	1.83

Table 2.26b: Attendance status of lower secondary school age children by province (2)

Unit: %

	Viet Nam			Gia Lai			HCMC			Dong Thap			An Giang		
	Attending	Dropped out	Never attended	Attending	Dropped out	Never attended	Attending	Dropped out	Never attended	Attending	Dropped out	Never attended	Attending	Dropped out	Never attended
Total	88.87	9.47	1.65	77.44	17.31	5.25	90.15	9.07	0.78	80.58	17.88	1.54	73.06	24.14	2.80
Age															
11	94.65	3.87	1.48	85.62	9.05	5.33	96.15	3.32	0.52	92.46	6.36	1.17	86.15	11.54	2.31
12	91.66	6.74	1.61	81.20	13.78	5.02	92.70	6.55	0.75	84.21	14.43	1.36	78.26	19.13	2.61
13	87.75	10.55	1.69	75.44	19.06	5.50	89.20	9.92	0.88	78.24	20.35	1.41	68.62	28.48	2.90
14	82.43	15.77	1.81	67.52	27.32	5.16	82.99	16.06	0.96	68.00	29.81	2.19	59.64	36.98	3.39
Gender															
Male	88.28	10.19	1.53	75.67	19.13	5.20	89.40	9.64	0.96	78.75	19.54	1.71	71.90	24.92	3.18
Female	89.51	8.70	1.79	79.34	15.36	5.31	90.97	8.44	0.59	82.64	16.02	1.35	74.28	23.31	2.41
Urban/ rural															
Urban	92.41	6.71	0.88	90.52	7.36	2.12	91.34	8.01	0.65	87.83	10.66	1.51	80.03	17.70	2.27
Rural	87.73	10.37	1.90	72.71	20.90	6.39	85.05	13.60	1.35	79.27	19.19	1.54	70.60	26.41	2.99
Kinh	91.31	7.86	0.84	93.06	6.35	0.59	90.30	8.94	0.77	80.57	17.89	1.54	73.66	23.84	2.50
Tay	93.40	6.00	0.60	89.82	9.73	0.44	68.16	31.84	0.00						
Thai	84.46	13.02	2.52	86.42	13.58	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00				100.00	0.00	0.00
Ethnicity															
Muong	90.19	8.91	0.90	86.75	13.25	0.00	100.00	0.00	0.00				75.35	24.65	0.00
Khmer	61.39	32.37	6.24	100.00	0.00	0.00	25.56	66.92	7.53	27.40	72.60	0.00	62.47	28.92	8.61
Mong	58.67	20.76	20.57	67.14	27.92	4.95									
Other	76.56	18.77	4.67	60.06	29.44	10.50	90.76	8.52	0.72	96.61	3.39	0.00	66.09	29.38	4.53
Disabled	8.82	8.72	82.46	1.95	9.49	88.56	13.18	5.18	81.64	8.82	5.74	85.44	2.66	14.50	82.85
Disability															
Partially disabled	69.83	14.40	15.77	51.14	20.73	28.13	83.44	8.12	8.44	57.78	24.49	17.72	45.15	24.63	30.22
No disability	89.38	9.40	1.23	77.96	17.29	4.76	90.46	9.10	0.44	81.00	17.83	1.17	73.37	24.15	2.48
Yes	74.50	23.06	2.44	82.26	15.75	1.98	73.93	24.69	1.38	67.19	28.36	4.45	55.02	37.45	7.54
Migrated															
No	89.20	9.17	1.63	77.32	17.34	5.33	92.25	7.04	0.71	80.72	17.77	1.51	73.26	23.99	2.75

Table 2.27 and Table 2.28 present the over-age situation in the provinces.

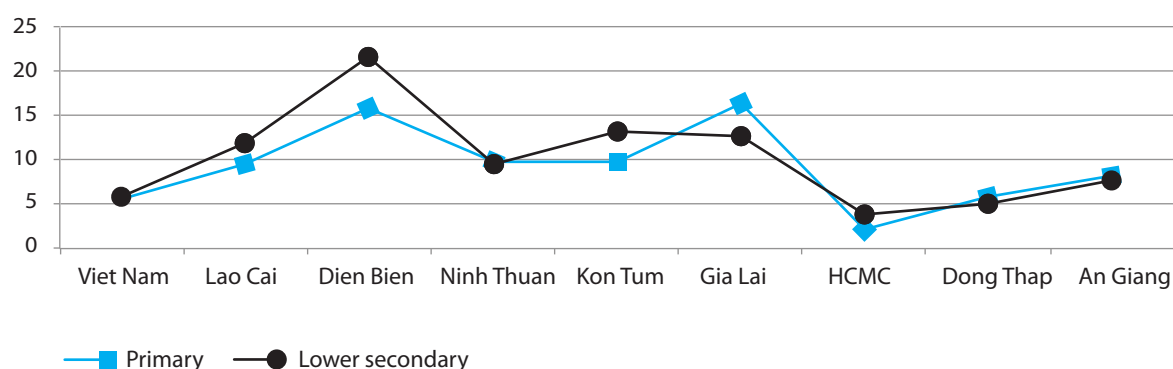
Table 2.27: Over-age in primary schools by province

	Viet Nam	Lao Cai	Dien Bien	Ninh Thuan	Kon Tum	Gia Lai	HCMC	Dong Thap	An Giang
Under-age (%)	3.93	6.52	7.95	3.89	1.41	0.93	1.07	1.56	1.90
Official age for the grade (%)	78.61	66.08	57.02	70.59	72.26	61.44	91.15	78.32	71.23
Official age +1 (%)	11.94	17.94	19.11	15.79	16.47	21.22	5.68	14.35	18.56
Over-age (%)	5.52	9.46	15.92	9.73	9.86	16.41	2.10	5.77	8.31
Total number of children (person)	6,779,518	61,697	54,591	56,510	50,052	146,658	428,996	130,245	166,082

Table 2.28: Over-age in lower secondary schools by province

	Viet Nam	Lao Cai	Dien Bien	Ninh Thuan	Kon Tum	Gia Lai	HCMC	Dong Thap	An Giang
Under-age (%)	2.42	5.02	5.74	1.55	0.99	0.50	0.59	0.61	1.01
Official age for the grade (%)	76.96	62.56	50.38	68.37	65.50	65.18	85.82	78.89	72.82
Official age +1 (%)	14.66	20.37	22.15	20.44	20.34	21.66	9.72	15.42	18.57
Over-age (%)	5.97	12.05	21.73	9.63	13.16	12.66	3.86	5.09	7.60
Total number of children (person)	5,519,553	45,318	35,161	40,280	34,330	86,492	322,306	94,023	106,242

Figure 2.21: Over-age in lower secondary schools by province



Over-age was at around six per cent on average in Viet Nam for both primary schools and lower secondary schools. By disaggregating the statistics into provinces, however, one sees the existence of much high over-age figures, e.g. in Gia Lai (16.41 per cent at primary schools and 12.66 per cent at lower secondary schools) and Dien Bien (15.92 per cent at primary schools and 21.73 per cent at lower secondary schools). The four provinces of Lao Cai, Ninh Thuan, Kon Tum, and An Giang had over-age attendance rates that were higher than the national average. Of the eight provinces, Ho Chi Minh City had the lowest rates, 2.10 per cent at primary schools and 3.86 per cent at lower secondary schools.

Of course the severity of over-age depended not just on the percentage of over-age children, but also on how many years older these over-age children were. This study's field work revealed that over-age at school was one of the factors that discouraged students from staying at school, made them drop out and become out-of-school children. Further disaggregation will be needed to identify the extent of the situation.

2.8 Summary of the findings

This section reports the key findings related to OOSC aged five to 14, based on data collected during the 2009 Census.

- There were about 14.3 million children between the age of five and 14, of which 1.5 million were five years old, 6.6 million were 6-10, and 6.2 million were 11-14.
- The figure of children aged five who were attending preschool or primary school was 87.81 per cent. 175,848 children aged five (12.19 per cent) were out of school.
- The figure of children aged 6-10 attending primary or secondary school was 96.3 per cent. 262,648 children aged 6-10 (3.97 per cent) were out of school.
- The figure of children aged 11-14 attending school was 88.83 per cent. 82.93 per cent attended lower secondary school and 5.9 per cent attended primary school. 688,849 children aged 11-14 (11.17 per cent) were out of school.
- The total number of out-of-school children aged 5-14 was 1,127,345.
- The percentage of children who attended but subsequently dropped out of school increased dramatically with age. Almost 16 per cent of the 14 year olds and 39 per cent of the 17 year olds had dropped out of school.
- The number of children who had never attended school was high, and it was especially high for some ethnic minorities. Nationwide 2.57 per cent of the children aged 5-17 had never attended school. For the Mong, the figure was 23.02 per cent. In other words, almost one quarter of all school-age Mong children had never had any form of schooling.
- Over-age attendance at both primary and lower secondary schools was six per cent on average. However, a further breakdown to the provincial level shows very high over-age attendance in some provinces, for example in Gia Lai and Dien Bien.
- The number of children out of school in rural areas was higher than in urban areas, and the difference increased with age. The OOSC rate disparity between rural and urban areas was not remarkable at the age of five, but it was almost twice for children of primary and lower secondary school age.
- Gender disparity in school attendance among primary school age children was small or non-existent, except for the Mong and children with disabilities. It began to show once children reached secondary school age. This was especially true for ethnic minorities (except for the Mong, children with disabilities and migrant children), among whom more boys than girls had dropped

out or were out of school. This may indicate a quality issue such as the relevance of education in terms of skill development and gender sensitivity from an employment perspective.

Among the ethnic minorities, boys were often more disadvantaged than girls, except for the Mong. Mong girls had significantly less opportunities to attend school than boys, especially among those of lower secondary school age. The ANAR GPI of girls was 0.85 per cent at primary schools and only 0.56 per cent at lower secondary schools. The lower secondary school net attendance rate for Mong girls was low, only 24.36 per cent, meaning only one out of every four Mong girls of lower secondary school age attended lower secondary school. The percentage for Mong boys was 50 per cent. The OOSC rates for Mong girls of primary and lower secondary school age were 1.5 and two times higher than those for boys respectively.

Gender disparity occurred among children with disabilities of both primary and lower secondary school age. The GPI at primary schools was 1.05 for children with disabilities. The GPI at lower secondary schools was 1.73 for children with disabilities and 1.12 for children with partial disabilities. This is higher than the gender parity limit of 1.03. Boys of primary and lower secondary school age with disabilities had less opportunities to attend school than girls with disabilities.

There was gender disparity among migrant children of lower secondary school age. The GPI of the migrants was 0.95, which is lower than the gender parity limit. This means migrant girls of lower secondary school age were more disadvantaged than boys of the same age.

Gender disparity also occurred among children of secondary school age who were attending primary school. In each disaggregation, by ethnicity or other criteria, the rate of boys of secondary school age attending primary schools was always higher than the rate of girls. This shows that boys progressed more slowly than girls during the transition from primary to secondary school.

- There were some differences among migrant and non-migrant groups. Migrant groups consistently performed worse than non-migrant groups, and the difference increased with age. Migrant families had a higher rate of OOSC aged five than non-migrant families. It was 1.3 times higher at the age of five, 1.8 times higher for children of primary school age and 2.4 times higher for children lower secondary school age.
- Children with disabilities were clearly disadvantaged. They had a very low enrollment rate and a very high OOSC rate. The OOSC rate at primary schools and lower secondary schools was about 25 per cent for children with partial disabilities and up to 90 per cent for children with disabilities.
- The report shows great differences across the eight selected provinces. Ethnicity sometimes played an important role, but this was not always the case. An Giang had the lowest percentage of ethnic minorities, but its attendance rates were often the worst. To give an example of provincial differences, in Ho Chi Minh City the out-of-school rate among children aged five was 13.66 per cent, among children aged 6-10 it was 2.35 per cent, and among children aged 11-14 it was 9.92 per cent. In Dien Bien, the figures were 26.3 per cent, 15.75 per cent, and 24.78 per cent respectively. In addition to the OOSC rate, the rate of over-age attendance also showed much disparity. The average over-age attendance rate at both primary and lower secondary schools was nearly six per cent. However, a breakdown to the provincial level showed that over-age attendance was quite high, for example in Gia Lai (16.41 per cent at primary schools and 12.66 per cent at lower secondary schools) and Dien Bien (15.92 per cent at primary schools and 21.73 per cent at lower secondary schools). The provinces of Lao Cai, Ninh Thuan, Kon Tum and An Giang had higher over-age attendance rates than the national rate. Ho Chi Minh City had the lowest over-age attendance rate of all eight provinces, with 2.10 per cent at primary schools and 3.86 per cent at lower secondary schools.



CHAPTER III

BARRIERS AND BOTTLENECKS

This chapter studies the barriers and bottlenecks that can cause a child to be excluded from education. The analyses were based on the results of recent quantitative and qualitative research on education in Viet Nam, as well as field surveys in six provinces: Dien Bien, Ninh Thuan, Kon Tum, Ho Chi Minh City, Dong Thap and An Giang (hereinafter referred to as the six surveyed provinces). The barriers and bottlenecks may be derived from the demand side concerning children and their parents and the supply side of education, which also involves other stakeholders such as communities with different cultural norms and practices and the agencies governing the socio-economic development processes at all levels.

3.1 Economic barriers concerning the demand side of education

There were economic barriers which lessened school attendance: poverty, economic costs related to education, the opportunity cost of child labor, migration or the interruption of family work due to climate change.

BIG ISSUE: AFFORDABILITY

3.1.1 Poverty was the major economic barrier affecting school attendance

Poverty is associated with an unstable income, and children and families are not always able to afford to go to school. The first and second Survey Assessment of Vietnamese Youth (SAVY), conducted in 2003 and 2008 respectively, showed that one of the reasons for adolescent dropouts was that they had no money for school fees.

Similarly, according to the Surveys on Living Standards conducted during 2002-2010 (this type of survey was conducted by the GSO every two years), difficult circumstances and high costs were cited as major reasons children dropped out of primary school. The 2010 survey results revealed that among the 20 per cent of the population with the lowest income, 7.8 per cent of children 15 years old and above had never attended school was. This figure is only 1.3 per cent among the 20 percent of the population with the highest income - that was six times lower. Poverty was a barrier to school attendance.

The results for the surveys in the six provinces also ranked poverty as the biggest barrier preventing children from attending school. One of the reasons why the OOSC rates of children aged five and lower secondary school age children were higher than the OOSC rate of primary school age children is because a number of families could not afford the cost of education as only primary school was free of charge.

According to London (2011), solving inequalities in early childhood education means eliminating the close relation between income and education and addressing the relation between parents' education

qualifications and their children's schooling. More than 80 per cent of well-off family households let their children attend early childhood education; similarly, and 83 per cent of the mothers who had completed high school let their children attend early childhood education. On the other hand, less than 50 per cent of mothers who had not finished high school let their children attend early childhood education.⁸

The poverty-related barrier was a greater problem for ethnic minorities because their poverty rate was higher than that of the Kinh.

3.1.2 Child labor was the second economic barrier affecting school attendance. The barrier increased as a child got older.

According to the Survey on the Family in Viet Nam 2006, 25.8 per cent of the families had children aged 7-14 engaged in self-employed trade and production. The ratio of child work was high in families with a low income, families that lived in rural areas, and families with parents who had little education. People in the Northwest had the lowest level of income and the highest level of poverty, thus they had the highest percentage of child work for the family income (except wage labour), with 54.7 per cent among children aged 7-14. For children aged 7-14 who were frequently involved in self-employed labor to help support the household, this practice significantly affected the amount of time spent on education and their learning outcome.

According to the Living Standards Survey in Viet Nam 2010, "I have to work to support my family" was the main reason for the high rate of dropouts and children who had never attended school. This reason was given by about 10 per cent of the communes where children had dropped out of or never attended primary school. This figure increased to 25 per cent at lower secondary schools. SAVY 2 revealed that among adolescents and youths aged 14-25, this barrier increased and was equivalent to the poverty barrier.

The surveys in the six provinces showed that children who had to work to support their parents often felt exhausted, performed poorly at school, got bored and dropped out. Children who joined their parents for seasonal wage labor also experienced disruption in their schooling. Upon return to their hometown, they fell behind at school and then dropped out.

The situation analysis of children in Dien Bien province sees child labor as frequently associated with a temporary absence from school during peak agricultural seasons and as one of the main causes of permanent discontinuation from school. Working children were less likely to benefit from extra classes offered outside regular school hours. Children who found it difficult to keep up often felt inferior and decided to stop going to school. When family members were in need of care, girls were pressed by their parents to drop out of school more frequently than boys.⁹

Dropping out of school due to child labor in Lao Cai

"...As we know, in this commune and others nearby, children only complete primary education and then they leave school. They usually follow other friends to do different kinds of work. They want to help their parents with their supplementary incomes. They follow each other to sell peddled wares to customers. Many children don't want to go to school because they like to sell wares to earn money for themselves and their family. Some parents even think that working is better for their children than attending school. The quality of education of the children in high mountainous areas is certainly lower than in delta areas because many children who have completed their primary education don't know how to write ..."

Group focus discussion with commune officials at Lao Chai commune, Lao Cai province¹⁰

8 Education in Vietnam: Historical Roots, Recent Trends and Education in Vietnam: An update. J.D London (2011) Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies, p.34

9 Situation analysis of children in Dien Bien Province. Dien Bien Provincial People's Committee and UNICEF (2010)

10 Child Labor in Eight Provinces/Cities in Viet Nam. ILSSA, RCFLG and ILO (2009)

3.1.3 Migration for employment

The results of the Survey of Urban Poverty conducted in Ha Noi and Ho Chi Minh City in 2009 revealed that 2.3 per cent of the children 10-14 years old had dropped out to work. Six out of every 100 children age 10-14 in the poorest families had dropped out and begun to work. 15 out of every 100 migrant children age 10-14 had to stay home and work. The tuition fee exemption and reduction policy did not apply to poor migrant people. Migrant children found it difficult to enter public schools. The percentage of migrant children from poor families studying at private schools was high (36 per cent). This shows that the lack of a permanent resident certificate was a barrier for children if they wanted to study at public school. The cost of education was a burden for the poor in general and migrant families in particular because they had to pay for additional school fees in addition to the tuition.

The Situation Analysis of Children in An Giang showed that migration affected the lives of children, including dropouts. Short-term migration of rural families for seasonal work led to the non-attendance of their children. The dropout rate among children from families that moved around and worked as transporters or as vendors on a river was higher than among those from other families in the province.

Results from the surveys in the six provinces showed that children who moved with their family across the border for wage work or to another province to work in industrial zones had to leave school temporarily or drop out. In addition, unstable employment and accommodation for migrant families adversely affected the school attendance of their children.

3.1.4 Climate change and disasters

Viet Nam is considered to be one of the more vulnerable countries with regard to climate change, ranking the thirteenth most vulnerable country in the world in a recent study.¹¹ Droughts, floods, landslides, and salination of the soil make rural life difficult in many parts of Viet Nam. In An Giang, for example, the Situation Analysis on Children made the point that children in migrant households in general, and children in households affected by flooding in particular, were especially prone to dropping out of school.¹²

Survey results from the six provinces showed that in Ninh Thuan the damage caused by natural disasters had adversely affected the schooling of children. Extreme weather patterns and natural disasters resulting from climate change also had an impact on education and on family economic conditions, therefore delaying the return of children to school after a disaster.

3.2 Socio-cultural barriers concerning the children and parents of children who want to attend school

BIG ISSUE: RECOGNITION OF THE LONG-TERM VALUE OF EDUCATION

There are several socio-cultural barriers that prevented children from attending school and cause them to stay out of school. These barriers include children not wanting to attend school; a lack of parental care; not having a permanent resident certificate; cultural norms that place females in a subordinate position to males; and a social bias towards ethnic minorities.

3.2.1 Children do not want to go to school

A number of children did not want to go to school. According to the Survey on Living Standards 2002-2010, this was one of three major reasons why children dropped out of primary or lower secondary school. The reasons were *economic difficulty/too expensive, children unable to learn/do not want to go to school, and parents do not care about their children's education*.

¹¹ <http://maplecroft.com/about/news/ccvi.html>

¹² Situation analysis of children in An Giang. An Giang People's Committee and UNICEF

In the first and second Survey Assessment of Vietnamese Youth (SAVY), *do not want to learn any longer* was the third highest reason given by adolescents and youth after *no money for tuition fees and must work for family*.

The surveys in the six provinces revealed many reasons why children did not want to go to school such as: a low level of recognition of the value of education among children and parents, thinking that attending school made no difference; poor results at school; being over-age and thus feeling ashamed among peers; class repetition; and wanting to play rather than go to school. In addition, several reasons concerning the education system (the supply side) such as a lack of a stimulating learning environment; bullying; violence; a language barrier that prevented children from understanding and led them to perform poorly; a failure on the part of teachers and managers to care for underperforming students who were at risk of dropping out; and poor quality of inclusive education for children with disabilities. These reasons will be further discussed in the following sections of this report.

3.2.2 Children with disabilities

Disability is a specific form of exclusion. MOLISA (2008) estimated the number of children with disabilities aged 0-18 was 662,000 (equivalent to 2.4 per cent of the total number of children this age).¹³ About 75 per cent of the children with partial disabilities and 90 per cent of the children with disabilities of primary and lower secondary school age did not attend school.

The barriers to able-bodied children were aggravated in the case of children with disabilities. Moreover, special facilities to facilitate the access of children with disabilities to school were yet to be established or fully completed, for instance poor physical facilities; constraints and challenges of inclusive education; inconsistency in the definitions of children with disabilities among different sectors; constraints in cross-sectoral collaboration; and motivational issues among teachers.

3.2.3 Lack of parental care and attention to children's learning

A lack of parental care and attention to children's learning is one of the major reasons children dropped out. According to the Surveys on Living Standards conducted during 2002-2010, nearly 60 per cent of the communes with primary school dropouts and 52-56 per cent of the communes with lower secondary school dropouts linked the problem to a lack of parental care and attention. This figure was particularly high in mountainous and remote communes, and was worryingly increasing year by year.

According to the Survey on the Family in Viet Nam 2006, only 27.8 per cent of the mothers and 10.7 per cent of the fathers spent more than three hours per day with children under 15. Although learning environment and parental attention for children are very important, a relatively high percentage of the fathers (21.5 per cent) and the mothers (6.8 per cent) did not have time for or pay attention to their children's education. The situation was worse in urban areas (22.8 per cent) than in rural areas (17.2 per cent). The rate was 35 per cent for parents with a low level of education and 11 per cent for parents with a high level of education such as a university degree.

The Survey on the Family in Viet Nam in 2006 showed that 14.4 per cent of the adolescents age 15-17 thought that they were doing well at school and that their parents showed no response or importance. The ratio was higher among ethnic minority adolescents (25.9 per cent) and in the Northwest (30.2 per cent). This was probably due to poverty. The percentage of children from better-off families who were given gifts, monetary bonuses or travel opportunities as incentives to study was two to five times higher than the percentage of poor families.

Lack of parental care meant low levels of recognition of the value of education, and the opportunity cost of child work to support the family increased the dropout rate, particularly when the children reached an age when their labor was economically valuable.

One of the reasons for the lack of parental care for their children's education was that the parents

¹³ Situation analysis of children in Viet Nam. p.24, UNICEF Ha Noi (2010)

were not fully aware of the value of education. People living in poverty did not always recognize the root causes of their poverty, and this was perpetuated by a lack of education. Other causes of a lack of parental care was that the parents were too busy working. According to the Survey on Family 2006, nuclear families (parents and children) accounted for the majority (63.4 per cent) of families. These families did not have support from the grandparents when both parents were at work, so they did not spend much time with or care for their children. The surveys in the six provinces confirmed similar results. However, the issues of inadequate awareness of the value of education needs further research given that other relevant data was not available for analysis in this report.

According to the survey results in Dien Bien, Kon Tum and Ninh Thuan, some families did not register the birth of their children, which affected the accuracy of age reporting and school attendance at the official age later on in their lives. As stated by some teachers, only when children began to attend school did they find out that they did not have a birth certificate. They then helped these families to obtain birth certificates, which were required for school enrollment.

3.2.4 Poor results at school

Poor results at school can mean that children lose confidence and eventually drop out. According to survey results in the six provinces, children who had learning difficulties revealed that they could not keep up with the lessons, especially when there was high volume to learn across the different subjects. Some students reported that they received no supplementary follow-up classes to help them keep up with the lessons. As stated by the principle of Truong Van Ly Lower Secondary School in Thuan Nam District, Ninh Thuan Province, students with poor results at primary school, especially ethnic minority students, had difficulty catching up in the sixth grade, which is at the beginning of lower secondary school, since the teaching and learning methods were completely new to them. This may be a reason why children dropped out.

This was especially a concern for ethnic minority students and other poor students who often did not have parental support when doing homework or they were not encouraged to study. Some had teachers who were either unresponsive or poorly qualified compared to their urban counterparts from richer wealth quintiles. Language barrier was another reason for the poor academic results of ethnic minority students.

3.2.5 Children in unregistered households

Children in unregistered households did not have full access to basic social services, including education.

Urban Poverty Studies in Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City 2009 (UPS 2009) showed that migrant workers without an official permanent resident certificate had less formal education than non-migrants. The percentage of migrant children attending public schools was lower than the number of non-migrants (64.6 per cent compared to 82.4 per cent). The Surveys on Living Standards conducted in 2006, 2008 and 2010 showed similar trends. UPS 2009 pointed out that the rate of migrant children who benefited from a reduction of or were exempt from tuition fees, contributions for infrastructure and other costs was lower than that of non-migrant children (21 per cent compared to 27 per cent). Noticeably, only 97.3 per cent of the children aged 10-14 (lower secondary school age) were literate. This indicated that some children this age either were not attending school or had not completed primary education.

3.2.6 The cultural norms in some ethnic minority communities placed women and girls in a subordinate position to men

The cultural norms in some ethnic minority communities placed women and girls in a subordinate position to men. This exacerbated gender inequities and was one of the reasons for dropping out early and early marriage among ethnic minority girls. In ethnic minority communities, traditional kinship systems can put social and economic pressure on teenagers.¹⁴

14 Situation analysis of children in Ninh Thuan. Ninh Thuan People's Committee and UNICEF.

The surveys in the six provinces confirmed that in ethnic minority families with many children, the mothers were often illiterate and the daughters had little education, dropped out and got married early.

3.2.7 Early marriage is a reason why young girls dropped out in some communities

According to the Survey on the Family in Viet Nam in 2006, early marriage still exists. 0.1 per cent of the girls under the legal age of 18 and 0.2 per cent boys under the legal age of 20 were married. The rate was higher in rural areas than in urban areas (0.3 per cent compared to 0.2 per cent).

According to MICS4 (2011), 0.7 per cent of the women aged 15-49 were married or had a de facto marriage before the age of 15, and 12.3 per cent of the women aged 20-49 were married or had a de facto marriage before the age of 18.

The highest rate of early marriage was observed in the Northwest, followed by the Northeast and the Central Highlands, all of which were regions with high poverty rates and a large population of ethnic minorities. Early marriage occurred more often in poorer households and among people with little formal education. Surveys conducted in the six provinces also noted early marriage being most common in the Northwest and the Central Highlands.

Early marriage led to giving birth at an early age and then discouraging school attendance. According to SAVY 2, 1.3 per cent of the women aged 16 and 4.8 per cent of the women aged 17 had given birth to their first child.

The Situation Analysis of Children (2011) in Ninh Thuan provided an example of cultural practices among the Raglay communities along the southeastern coast, where girls were pressured to get married early. Traditionally after getting married, a boy went to live in his spouse's home so that the girl's family would have additional labor and a higher income.

It should also be noted that early marriage was one of the causes of the rise in number of out-of-school children, mostly of upper secondary school age. The cases of out-of-school children in lower grades were isolated cases and not significant.

3.2.8 Cultural stereotypes define ethnic minority people as deficient and not like the Kinh majority and that one ethnic minority group is superior to others

The World Bank's Country Social Assessment on Ethnicity and Development in Viet Nam provided examples of how settlement programs had been implemented to allow the Kinh to move into areas inhabited by ethnic minorities "to teach ethnic minorities how to develop." Viewing minority people as being unworthy of credit or taking out large loans was another example of cultural stereotyping. There was also the danger that one size fits all social development programs could contribute to the misapprehension that ethnic minorities need to become more like the Kinh to overcome their "backwardness."

The surveys in the six provinces showed that in Ninh Thuan the Raglay did not look up to the Cham teachers, and they expected their teachers to be from their group or the Kinh. Some teachers and staff perceived that more successful ethnic minority role models were needed to eliminate stereotypes and encourage ethnic minority children to study.

3.3 Barriers and bottlenecks on the supply side

There were bottlenecks in the supply of education that influenced school enrollment and attendance. They were related to infrastructure and resources, teachers, textbooks and school management. It is important to note one of the findings in the World Bank report High Quality Education for All, Vol. 2 that ethnic minority students' achievement appears to be more affected by "school and teacher features" than household features (p. 130).

BIG ISSUE: RELEVANCE, INCLUSIVENESS, LACK OF CHILD-CENTRED APPROACHES

3.3.1. School infrastructure

Barriers in school infrastructure concern the quantity and quality of schools and classrooms; inadequate physical facilities for children with disabilities; distance to school and a lack of a means of transportation; and a lack of clean water and sanitation facilities. These barriers had a remarkable impact on schooling opportunities and schooling commitment, at least at the end of each education level, as well as on the learning environment, and thus increased the challenges related to out-of-school children.

A lack of schools and low-quality schools in remote and mountainous areas

According to the 2011 Survey on Agricultural and Rural Development, 99.5 per cent of the communes in Viet Nam had a primary school, 92.9 per cent of the communes had a lower secondary school, and 96.3 per cent of the communes had a kindergarten/pre-primary school. This means there remained a number of communes which had no pre-primary, primary or lower secondary school. There were 51 communes in the country without a primary school, 15 of which were in the Northern Midlands and mountainous areas, 17 in the North Central and Central Coastal regions and 10 in the Central Highlands. In the provinces of Cao Bang, Bac Kan, Gia Lai and Quang Nam some three per cent of the communes did not have a primary school. Many schools in remote and mountainous areas did not have enough satellite sites and good quality classrooms. According to the 2011 Survey on Agriculture and Rural Areas, the percentages of concrete and semi-concrete schools in 2011 were 73 per cent and 26 per cent respectively. These rates at lower secondary schools were 85 per cent and 14.2 per cent, and at upper secondary schools they were 92.6 per cent and 7.0 per cent. In some provinces such as Tuyen Quang, Binh Thuan, Tay Ninh, Tra Vinh, Vinh Long and Hau Giang less than 50 per cent of the primary schools were concrete. In particular, provinces such as Tuyen Quang, Son La, Dien Bien and Hau Giang had more than five per cent of the schools which were not concrete or semi-concrete facilities.

There is a lack of schools, and especially classrooms, for early childhood education. With only one kindergarten in each commune and kindergartens in inappropriate locations (due to geographical characteristics), the system has failed to meet the needs of the people. This has had an impact on the school attendance of children aged five, particularly among ethnic minorities and in remote areas. Kindergartens were very poor in terms of infrastructure. It was quite common to combine kindergartens with primary schools in some provinces.

In many provinces, including the six surveyed ones, there are a shortage of classrooms for full-day schooling. Implementation of the project on national standard schools in 2010-2020 has been slow.

There are a limited number of places for children to attend boarding school at the district level. The Dien Bien Situation Analysis included the following comments from local people in Thanh Xuong Commune: "Some applications for a full boarding school are accepted, but some are not because the kids are not prepared for such a school. Good primary school exam results are necessary to be admitted to a secondary boarding school. Students who have performed poorly from the start of schooling can never go. Last year, two kids were accepted from this commune and this year only one. The number of kids who are admitted is very small. When they are not accepted at a full boarding school, some enroll at other schools in their area and some don't and give up school."¹⁵

Poor teaching and learning conditions and a lack of learning materials and textbooks is common in some provinces, limiting the effective application of new teaching methods.

In general, schools in Viet Nam are not equipped with facilities to meet the needs of children with disabilities, such as a lift and paths for wheelchairs. This has been one of the major difficulties while trying to implement an inclusive education policy.

¹⁵ Situation analysis of children in Dien Bien Province. Dien Bien Provincial People's Committee and UNICEF (2010)

Distance to school and a lack of means of transportation

According to the 2010 Survey on Living Standards, the average distance to the nearest primary school was 2.5 km, and the average distance to the nearest lower secondary school was 2.8 km. In remote and mountainous areas this distance was greater. For example, in the Northwest the distance to primary and lower secondary school was 4.7 km and 5.3 km respectively. In the Central Highlands the distance was 3.3 km and 3.6 km respectively.

According to the Surveys on Living Standards during 2002-2010, distance to school was cited by key commune officials as the second group of causes of dropout, following the first group of causes including difficult circumstances/too expensive, lack of parental attention to a child's education and children do not have the capacity to learn/do not want to go to school. On average in about 10-15 per cent of the communes, primary and lower secondary students dropped out due to the great distance to school. In the Northern Uplands and Central Highlands this occurred in more than 20 per cent of the communes. In addition to distance to school, sometimes geographic barriers such as mountains and rivers were contributing factors, especially during the rainy season.

Baulch et al (2009), using the Surveys on Living Standards from 1993-1998 and 2006, found that ethnic minority children in the Northern Uplands were more likely to drop out during the transition from a satellite village school to the main school (grades 2 or 3), compared to dropouts during the transition between primary and lower secondary or lower secondary and upper secondary school as observed among ethnic minorities in other areas.¹⁶

According to the surveys in the six provinces, some lower secondary students were enrolled at but then dropped out school because the distance to school was over 10 km and they could not afford a bicycle or bus tickets. Long distance to school was also a challenge for teachers and staff who found teaching at remote satellite schools constraining due to limited facilities, though main schools in remote areas were in the same situation. Some teachers had to travel a long distance to school every day without receiving any additional allowance. The monitoring and oversight of satellite schools by school principals was limited due to transport challenges, affecting the quality of supervision and support for teachers and students.

According to the Surveys on Living Standards conducted during 2002-2010, bicycle was the most common means of transportation to school for primary school students (58 per cent) and about 40 per cent of the children walked to school. In the Northwest, up to 80 per cent of the children walked to school. A long distance to school for primary and lower secondary school children (especially primary school children), lack of a means of transportation, and challenging road conditions in remote mountainous and island areas (2011 Survey on Agriculture and Rural Development) explain why a high number of children were not attending school or had dropped out of primary or lower secondary school.

A lack of clean water and sanitation facilities

The table below on basic school infrastructure during the 2009-2010 school year shows a big shortage of clean water and sanitation facilities in every region except for the Red River Region. This was a serious problem given the very important roles of clean water and sanitation in school. In Viet Nam, more than 80 per cent of all diseases are water born, such as diarrhea, typhoid, parasites and hepatitis. The water is polluted by micro-organisms that adversely affect the health of people, especially the elderly and children.¹⁷ A number of studies point to the central importance of access to water and sanitation and the availability of separate sanitation facilities for girls and boys, especially during puberty, and with consideration for children with disabilities (Oxfam, 2011). Safe drinking water at school and at home is important for students as it provides protection from water-born diseases, such as diarrhea.

¹⁶ *Ethnic Minority Poverty in Viet Nam*. Baulch, B., Nguyen Thi Minh Hoa, Nguyen Thi Thu Phuong and Pham Thai Hung, World Bank (2009)

¹⁷ *Study on the Correlation Between Household Environmental Sanitation, Household Water Supply, Mothers' Hygiene Behavior for Children under Five and the Status of Child Nutrition in Viet Nam*, Ministry of Health and UNICEF (2010)

The Situation Analysis of UNICEF in 2010 showed very poor sanitation at schools in the rural areas. Most schools did not have a place for students to wash their hands. This shows that privacy, child-friendliness, gender appropriateness and especially relevance for children with disabilities were not given due attention when the school was built.¹⁸

The surveys in the six provinces showed that except for Ho Chi Minh City, water quality and sanitation at schools was very poor, especially in Dien Bien and Kon Tum. This affected the learning environment in general and the boarding activities of students and teachers in particular.

Table 3.1: Basic school infrastructure in the 2009-2010 school year

	% of schools with electricity	% of schools with hygienic water	Average number of latrines per school	Average number of students per latrine
Primary school				
Nation-wide	64.7	61.9	1.4	322
Red River Delta	78.1	74.7	1.7	303
Northern midlands and mountainous areas	46.1	56.0	1.2	269
North Central and Central coastal areas	66.8	51.0	1.0	406
Central Highlands	65.0	49.2	0.8	596
South East	61.2	65.0	2.4	293
Mekong River Delta	69.1	72.2	1.6	282
Lower secondary school				
Nation-wide	63.4	55.8	1.2	425
Red River Delta	75.6	70.4	1.5	304
Northern midlands and mountainous areas	57.2	44.6	1.0	315
North Central and Central coastal areas	49.0	42.1	0.8	642
Central Highlands	66.9	50.2	1.1	563
South East	51.6	59.2	2.1	462
Mekong River Delta	83.0	75.2	1.4	464

Source: MOET

18 An analysis of the situation of children in Viet Nam. UNICEF Ha Noi (2010)

3.3.2. Teachers

Lack of teachers

The surveys in the six provinces showed that was often a shortage of pre-primary teachers for full-day schooling in remote and resource constrained areas. There was a shortage of teachers at primary schools as well, and many satellite schools did not have teachers who are specialized in primary school education. At lower secondary schools there was no shortage in terms of total number, but there was a shortage and a redundancy of teachers for the different subjects.

A lack of ethnic minority teachers, especially from local ethnic groups, was quite common in ethnic minority areas. Training for village-based teachers had not addressed this issue, and there was also a quality issue.

Quality of teachers

A number of teachers were not very motivated to do their work and lacked professional competence, resulting in limited teaching quality and a failure to stimulate students, especially in rural, remote and ethnic minority areas. New teaching methods had not been effectively implemented and had no impact on student performance. Capacity for inclusive education was limited, and teacher training was of low quality.

Some teachers had proper certificates recognizing standards but their actual capacity was limited. There was a big difference in teacher quality in remote and urban areas.

Policies for teachers

Appropriate salary and working conditions were crucial incentives to motivate teachers and staff to serve in remote areas, where living and teaching conditions were not adequate.

However, the incentives for teachers and staff were not adequate and this negatively affected their enthusiasm and motivation. According to the surveys in the six provinces, in remote areas, a follow-up visit to encourage students to return to school involved travel expenses and a huge effort on the part of the teachers. However, they received no support for this effort. There were limited policy provisions for teachers serving in multi-grade classes and classes with children with disabilities. Teachers were often not willing to teach classes with students with disabilities because this required further investment and effort and incentives were limited. There were no policies on the management of boarding facilities at boarding and semi-boarding schools, thus there were no allowances for cooks, health care workers, guards and managers, and there were no allowances for the homeroom teachers and staff who assumed additional responsibilities to look after the students at boarding facilities. While there were policies for investment in boarding facilities, many provinces failed to provide resources. Kindergarten teachers had a very heavy workload with many young children in multi-grade classes, but they were not treated in the same way applied for primary school teachers teaching multi-grade classes. It was difficult to implement rotation schemes for teachers, especially in provinces where there were a high number of extremely disadvantaged communes. For example, of the 97 communes in Kon Tum, 51 communes were extremely disadvantaged and subject to Program 135.

Ho Chi Minh City had a shortage of pre-primary school teachers. Regulations required two teachers for every 30 children, but in reality two teachers had to teach 45 children. Similar situations were found at primary and lower secondary schools, where teachers had to teach classes with 60 students because the number of students had increased rapidly. Teachers had to work longer hours marking students' papers, which limited the amount of attention they could give to individual children, especially those with learning difficulties. Working longer hours without additional allowances impacted their level of enthusiasm and quality.

3.3.3. School management

Some shortcomings in terms of school management had negative impacts on the quality of teaching and learning, the academic results of students, dropouts and school enrollment.

Pursuit of exaggerated achievements (in response to pressure to report success)

The pursuit of exaggerated achievements of grade transition, graduation rate and ranking was common in many provinces. Several primary schools in extremely disadvantaged communes in ethnic minority areas reported high rates of grade transition and completion, over 90 per cent, even though teachers had determined that only 50 per cent of the ethnic minority students met the competency standards. (Group discussion with teachers at Gia Primary School, Phuoc Ha Commune, an extremely disadvantaged commune in an ethnic minority area, Thuan Nam district, Ninh Thuan Province). Grade transition not only failed to solve knowledge gaps but also made students fall behind even more in higher grades. When entering grade six, the first grade of lower secondary school, children were faced with different teaching and learning methods and a heavier curriculum load. These students often faced many challenges at school that demotivated them and put them at high risk of dropping out. At the same time, this challenge has required the schools where these students attended, to provide additional tutoring to help them survive grade six without dropping out.

Challenges in school management

The high rates of out-of-school children might be correlated with poor management practices. The focus was mainly on those who were enrolled at and currently attending school, thus gaps remain in tracking school-age children, especially disadvantaged children such as children with disabilities. In remote areas where children accompanied their parents to fields up on a mountain, a follow-up visit to ensure enrollment was not easy. School management at far-away satellite schools was also very challenging. Many areas were prone to floods, which interrupted education and affected supervision and oversight. A rapid increase in the migrant population in big cities made it difficult to ensure adequate classrooms for all children, especially migrant children in difficult circumstances.

Guidance in inclusive education had been not effectively implemented due to a lack of data needed for management, inconsistencies in definitions of disabilities across sectors, and poor cross-sectoral coordination. This was the case when a child needed some certification of disability.

In theory, school principals had autonomy and power, but this is often not the case in reality. Besides, school principals in many locations had limited capacity. Coordination among schools, the local party and authorities was poor and ineffective in accelerating enrollment for children.

Decentralized education management faced many challenges. The budget allocation for education was managed very differently in different localities. In general, the education sector did not have full control of the entire education budget and therefore they were unable to take charge of delivering the education mandate. In addition, education expenditures were mostly for salaries and thus investments in education activities were limited. Provinces faced a shortage of educational managers, and in the context of decentralized management the sector did not have full authority in personnel recruitment.

Limited access to full-day schooling for vulnerable students

Full-day schooling was being scaled up throughout the country and this was good news for vulnerable students. The schools utilized the additional time to work on math and Vietnamese and to teach subjects for which there was limited instructional time at half-day schools such as music, art, foreign language and information technology. In addition they provided extra classes for students who performed poorly. Some parents were asked to pay tuition for the extra classes, administrative management costs and lunch for the children. There were differences among schools and regions. The World Bank report High Quality Education for All states:

As full-day schooling is based on cost-recovery, its development is concentrated primarily in urban and more affluent areas of the country. Rural and disadvantaged areas where school infrastructure is constrained and families cannot pay for the teachers' additional costs lag behind.

As a result of the above policy, the share of primary education students in full-day schooling (at least 30 periods per week) increased from 43 per cent in 2003-2004 to 59 per cent in 2008-2009, which is substantial. However, there was full-day schooling in less than half of the poorest districts. The rate was 31 per cent in rural areas and 32 per cent for ethnic minority students. The poorest districts had a somewhat faster than average increase given the very low initial levels, but the gap remained significant. Variations in full-day schooling were very significant within districts and communes, and they were evident even within schools.¹⁹

In Ho Chi Minh City, due to pressure resulting from an increase in the migrant population, some schools had to reduce the scale of full-day schooling to ensure sufficient classrooms for all the children in the area, regardless of residential status. Due to a shortage of classrooms, schools failed to meet the demand for full-day schooling. Therefore, children from better-off families or families with residential certificates usually had more opportunities for full-day schooling. This prevented the participation of vulnerable children, who had learning difficulties and needed more support and care from their teachers.

Discrimination, bullying and violence

According to the second SAVY, 22 per cent of the students said that sometimes teachers punish students by threatening or scolding them. In the past, physical violence and verbal abuse were sometimes used by teachers to punish students. Nowadays such behavior is not accepted in an educational environment and is considered a violation of a child's rights and a violation to Viet Nam's Education Law.

Focus group discussions with teachers and students in the surveys in the six provinces revealed that discrimination against children with disabilities still occurred sometimes. Many teachers believed that the learning environment was restrictive and made students feel afraid of their teachers and not dare to ask questions when they did not understand something.

3.4 System analysis

Some systemic issues posed challenges to policies, management and technical work at the marco level, making it challenging to ensure the provision of good quality education to all children.

3.4.1 Curriculum requirements were difficult to achieve

Children found the curriculum difficult to absorb and the workload heavy. It was even more challenging for children with language barriers. The field survey in the six provinces showed that due to a high workload, both teachers and students had to race to complete the curriculum. Several teachers reported that they did not have enough time to give individual attention to students, especially low performers. Just keeping up with the curriculum was difficult enough. Teachers moved on without making sure that students really understood what was taught. Good teachers were those who knew how to link the known world of the children with the new knowledge and the context in schools. Inexperienced teachers often applied poor teaching methods, failed to teach the concepts in the students' language, and did not check the comprehension of the students. Teaching methods had not been fundamentally reformed and did not have much impact on learning performance. In addition, there was a lack of entertainment and physical activities to stimulate learning. Therefore, in a number of locations, the poor quality of teaching has discouraged children, especially ethnic minority children, resulting in children dropping out.

Some provinces failed to develop local content for the curriculum as required by MOET, and teachers did not have adequate professional knowledge and failed to incorporate local cultural values and make

19 Viet Nam: High Quality Education for All, Report No. 56085-VN Volume 2: Analytical Report, Human Development Department East Asia and Pacific Region, p. 82, World Bank (2011)

the learning content more relevant to the ethnic minority children. This issue has aggravated the quality problem, resulting in a high risk of children being discouraged in learning and thus dropping out.

Spending time taking extra classes and paying the high cost of school fees made education a burden for children and their parents. There was widespread dissatisfaction with the curriculum. J.D. London wrote: "Today Viet Nam's leaders frequently speak of their intent to develop a 'knowledge economy.' This stands in stark contrast with the current thrust of prevailing pedagogy and practice, where the emphasis is still on rote memorization and attempts to innovate are actively or structurally discouraged."²⁰

3.4.2 Education was not delivered in the mother tongue

Language was a barrier to learning for ethnic minority children, affecting comprehension among ethnic minority students and their academic results, therefore reducing their confidence in communication and learning. Many believe that language barrier was the biggest challenge to learning for ethnic minorities, followed by the quality of teaching and the distance to school. Ethnic minority teachers accounted for only eight per cent of the teachers, and there were not enough of them in places where they were much needed. (World Bank, 2009).

Kinh teachers did not sufficiently learn the language of their students. This was really a challenge to the students in the first grades at primary school, particularly the children who had not attended a pre-primary school at the age of five in order to learn Vietnamese. When ethnic minority children started school, they were taught in a language that they did not understand. Most teachers did not know the students' language. It was very difficult for them and the students as the teaching went on in Vietnamese without any explanation in the mother tongue. Lessons were difficult, students did not understand or only partially understood them, and no one helped them study at home. Some children completed the first or second grade before dropping out. Those who survived continued to face this barrier in the following years.

Surveys in Ninh Thuan, Kon Tum and Dien Bien showed that children who faced a language barrier did not keep up with the lessons and learning activities in the classroom. In interviews many children had difficulty expressing themselves and stated they were afraid of the Vietnamese subject and literature. Even some students at lower secondary schools faced a language barrier.

3.4.3 Gaps in data and information for analyses of ethnic minority groups and other vulnerable groups

Specific data disaggregation was needed for some ethnic groups but it was missing in the data analyses. The situation was similar for children with disabilities, migrant children and children affected by HIV/AIDS, all of whose barriers were multidimensional. In addition, the lack of a common definition among relevant government agencies of some statistical indicators such as disability was also a barrier to the collection, analyses and dissemination of data on out-of-school children.

Surveys in the six provinces showed that gaps in data collection and analyses remained at different levels of the education system. Reports usually lacked data disaggregated by specific groups of disadvantaged children so as to reflect the disparity in their access to education. Such data was needed for targeted management and technical interventions to ensure children's access to education and to improve the quality of education. Certain information on specific categories of children was being collected and recorded separately, yet this had not been integrated into routine data collection for management and planning purposes.

²⁰ Education in Viet Nam: Historical Welfare Regimes and Education in Viet Nam. J.D London, Update Series Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies, p.32 (2011)

3.5 Governance, capacity and financing

3.5.1 Governance and capacity bottlenecks

The recent World Bank report *High Level Quality Education for All* (2011) suggested that the education system “remains weak in leadership capacity and accountability mechanisms.”²¹ The report went on to say that test scores were much higher in schools where principals were more actively engaged in observing teachers. Where parents were actively involved and making contributions to the school, their children were more likely to do better, and the school could benefit from the extra help and resources. This was particularly true for children in vulnerable groups. “The traditional lack of interaction between principals and teachers and the current weak role and lack of capacity of parent teacher associations in Viet Nam indicate the country’s immediate need to improve school governance through greater principal and community involvement.”²²

At meetings with the Ministry of Education and Training and development partners in Ha Noi, the consensus was that there was often a bottleneck in the administration of education at the district and commune levels. Low level managers did not proactively take action for change, which resulted in a lack of decision-making where it was most urgently needed: at the school and classroom level. This was perhaps related to the concept that even with a decentralised system, instructions still needed to come from the central level. This left little room for innovation and change at the grassroot level. The Parent Teacher Associations often experienced similar situations. In ethnic minority communities, the limited interaction between ethnic minority parents and Kinh teachers during their daily lives was noted. In a sociological survey in Dak Nong province in 2005, researchers noted the following:

“Except for two teachers at a provincial boarding school who lived on the school campus in Gia Nghia, all the Vietnamese teachers who talked to us had homes by a road near a major intersection. Some kept a small convenience shop. This was also true for most of the Vietnamese and other non-local teachers, including the Tay and the Nung, who recently settled in the region. Apart from their salaries, teachers and their families also received income from other activities. In terms of both geographical location and livelihood, Vietnamese teachers had little if any connection with the M’Nong. That is perhaps the reason any trip to a M’Nong village is often highlighted in their narrative as an extraordinary record of their dedication: They would have to go out their way to reach their critical masses. M’Nong parents, likewise hardly come into contact with their children’s teachers.”²³

3.5.2. Financial bottlenecks

The portion of the state budget allocated for education reached 20 per cent in 2008. By far the greatest amount was assigned to personnel expenditure. According to the surveys in the six provinces, mountainous provinces like Dien Bien had a higher number of teachers due to a scattered population and a low number of children per class, resulting in high salaries and allowances. Budget allocation was based on the population and it was stabilized for a three-year period. Budget allocation on this basis is not appropriate in sparsely-populated areas.

Spending on teaching, learning materials and equipment for innovation of the curriculum was insufficient. To deal with this, some costs were shifted to households.

The state had permitted the development of private pre-primary and secondary schools, called non-public or people-founded schools, and it shifted much of the responsibility for the financing of education to households. Fees for education increased as students progressed through the grades, and for those enrolled in non-public or semi-public schools, fees could be several times higher than fees at public schools. However, it was the system of contributions for school upkeep and renovations that made education expensive for poor people even when they were exempt from paying fees. In

21 Viet Nam: *High Quality Education for All*, Report No. 56085-VN Volume 1: Human Development Department East Asia and Pacific Region, p. 16, World Bank (2011).

22 Viet Nam: *High Quality Education for All*, Report No. 56085-VN Volume 1: Human Development Department East Asia and Pacific Region, p. 16, World Bank (2011).

23 *Education in Viet Nam: Historical Welfare Regimes and Education in Viet Nam*. J.D London, Update Series Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies, p.32 (2011)

addition, the informal economy provided by extra tutoring put an increased burden on households. The value of having an education to improve one's economic conditions and the competitive nature of public examinations made private tuition a necessity, albeit an expensive one, for most Vietnamese secondary school students. The introduction of full-day schooling was a way in which the state could shift the financing of education to households. Schools could introduce full-day schooling if parents paid for it. For ethnic minorities and other poor students, the national targeted programs of the state such as the Program for Poverty Reduction and Program 135 provided assistance for the construction of schools and offered an exemption from school fees for poor and ethnic minority children. There were conditional cash grants as well to assist in sending children to preschool (70,000 VND per month) and semi-boarding school (140,000 VND per month). Other kinds of grants had been recently introduced such as lunch subsidies, rice subsidies, and special allowances for children from very small ethnic minority groups and semi-boarding students. However, a number of commentators and managers agreed that despite these state contributions, the costs of sending a child to school remained exorbitant for many parents. In addition, the implementation of support policies was often delayed due to complicated procedures, and as a result the trust of the people was lost. The following graph explains the ratios of household expenditure for education over the past few years:

Figure 3.1: Education expenditure per capita by type of expenditure



Source: GSO, Survey on Living Standards 2002-2010

This means that many children cannot attend school because of economic constraints and the need to support their family.

3.6. Analysis of barriers and bottlenecks

The major barriers to out-of-school children related to the demand side included poverty, children having to work, migration, a lack of parental awareness of the long-term value of education, and a lack of parental attention to their children's education. The barriers related to the supply side included a lack of physical facilities, especially pre-primary schools, the distance to school, a shortage of teachers, teachers' capacity and policies, the curriculum and language barrier, and school management and

financing. Poor performance at school, not wanting to go to school and finally dropping out might have been due to the barriers related to the children themselves and their families, as well as barriers related to the supply side or both.

Recent studies suggest that direct and clear interaction between qualified teachers and good managers at school were precious assets that could improve the situation for disadvantaged children.

When the cost of education was shifted to the families, poor children could no longer afford a good quality education. This was the same for boys and girls, and children were likely to seek employment when education became too expensive.

The disparity in educational attainment between the Kinh and other ethnic groups, between rural and urban areas and remote communities showed inequalities in educational opportunities amidst increasing wealth disparity and gaps in social economic development across regions. Closing the gaps and inequalities in education is not the responsibility of the education sector alone. Effort at the macro level is needed to reduce social inequalities.

A possible solution is to understand the social and cultural characteristics of ethnic minority children in remote areas who have dropped out as well as to have a relevant curriculum that is appropriate for the local cultural and social background instead of forcing ethnic minorities to change and be more like the Kinh.

The gaps between the Kinh and vulnerable ethnic minorities will continue to grow. Ways of imaging minorities and other disadvantaged children positively and powerfully in textbooks and learning, and in the media in general, will go a long way to breaking down in-country cultural barriers.



CHAPTER IV

POLICIES RELATED TO OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN

This chapter analyzes policies relevant to many issues related to out-of-school children and links them to exclusion from education in order to reflect the shortcomings in policies and to inform more effective interventions.

Policies aimed at removing the barriers and bottlenecks related to out-of-school children and the Five Dimensions of Exclusion should be placed within the broader framework of poverty reduction. There are two types of policies:

- The first type of policies includes education policies that directly address the issues of out-of-school children, and
- The second type of policies includes social protection and insurance policies related to education and out-of-school children.

4.1 Policies which address out-of-school children (OOSC) issues

4.1.1 Education policies

Viet Nam has adequate education policies to maximize enrollment of children aged 5-14 in school, and priorities are given to vulnerable children and children from disadvantaged areas. These contribute to the reduction of out-of-school children. Policies here are understood in broad terms covering laws and sub-law documents.

The assurance of equity in access to pre-primary, primary and lower secondary school education is stated in the constitution and relevant laws of Viet Nam.

In the 1992 Constitution of the Socialist Republic of Viet Nam, revised in 2001, Article 36 clearly states that the State gives priority investment to education and encourages different sources of investment for education. Priority is reserved for education development in mountainous and ethnic minority areas and in regions with special difficulties. The 2013 Constitution, which was recently approved by the National Assembly, continues to affirm this position.

The Law on Education of Viet Nam (2005) outlines regulations for the development of a child-friendly learning environment, in which the education approaches are to stimulate interests and enjoyments in learning for the students. The law regulates the students who are entitled to preferential priority treatment in care and access to education, including children at preschools and primary schools, the poor, ethnic minority children, children from families living in extremely disadvantaged areas, children subject to priority policies, children with disabilities and other beneficiaries of social welfare.

The Law on Protection, Care and Education of Children (2004) highlights the regulation on non-discrimination and consideration of the best interest of children; assurance of education rights of children in general and of children in special circumstances in particular.

The Law on Gender Equality (2006) ensures equal treatment and prohibits gender-based discrimination.

The Law on Legal Assistance (2006) provides for free legal assistance to children in special circumstances.

The Law on Persons with Disabilities (2010) stipulates that the State shall facilitate learning opportunities for people with disabilities that are appropriate for their capabilities and needs.

Since 2010 the policies to maximize the enrollment of children aged 5-14 have had a great impact. These policies are not only focused on the most advantaged children. They also support teachers through salary and other incentives and professional development, and they help to develop and upgrade school facilities.

Firstly, government education policies aim to enroll children by constructing schools and/or satellite sites which are close enough to the children's homes and provide free primary school education. The government also tries to provide an adequate number of teachers and keep school fees at affordable levels by providing scholarships and fee reductions for those who cannot afford the cost of school. It also offers healthcare and nutrition services, enhances the quality of school resources, including teacher quality through in-service training and standardized certification, and it provides full-day schooling for both early childhood and general education. The policies have worked well and achieved remarkable results.

The section below summarizes some key policies:

Decision No. 62/2005/QĐ-TTg, made on 24 March 2005, is a policy that supports universal lower secondary school education. It regulates the exemption and reduction of tuition fees and contribution fees, and provides for the provision of textbooks and learning materials to disadvantaged children, e.g. ethnic minorities, children from poor families, children with disabilities and orphans.

Decision No. 82/2006/QĐ-TTg, made on 14 April 2006, regulates the adjustment of Government scholarships for ethnic minority students and students studying at ethnic minority secondary school boarding schools and pre-university schools.

Decree No. 134/2006/ND-CP, made on 14 November 2006, regulates the mechanism of nominations for teacher training programs at universities, colleges and vocational schools in the national education system.

Decision No. 152/2007/QĐ-TTg, made on 14 September 2007, provides for priority scholarships to students and pupils.

Decision No. 157/2007/QĐ-TTg, made on 27 September 2007, provides for micro credit for students.

Decision 85/2010/QĐ-TTg, made on 21 December 2010, regulates provisions of support for primary and lower secondary school students at ethnic minority semi-boarding schools.

Decision 1640/QĐ-TTg, made on 21 September 2011, approved the scheme "Strengthen and develop the ethnic minority boarding school system from 2011 to 2015."

Decision 2123/QĐ-TTg, made on 22 November 2010, approved the scheme "Educational development for very small ethnic minority groups from 2011 to 2015." It is aimed at children from very small ethnic minority groups that live in poor households, attend preschool at public kindergartens, and receive cash support equivalent to 30 per cent of the average minimum salary/child/month. Students from poor households who study at village schools receive cash support equivalent to 40 per cent of the

average minimum salary/pupil/month; students from poor households who study at ethnic minority primary and lower secondary semi-boardings schools receive cash support equivalent to 60 per cent of the average minimum salary/pupil/month; students from poor families who study at district-level ethnic minority primary and lower secondary boarding schools receive cash support equivalent to 100 per cent of the average minimum salary/pupil/month; pupils from poor families who study at provincial-level ethnic minority primary and lower secondary boarding schools and inter-grade lower and upper secondary ethnic minority schools receive a scholarship equivalent to 100 per cent of the average minimum salary/pupil/month; pupils and students from poor families who study at pre-university schools, faculties, universities, colleges, and vocational schools receive a scholarship equivalent to 100 per cent of the average minimum salary/student/month; and the duration of support is 12 months a year.

Decree 61/2006/ND-CP, passed on 20 June 2006, regulates policies for teachers and management staff at specialized schools and in extremely disadvantaged areas.

Decree 49/2010/ND-CP, passed on 14 May 2010, stipulates the exemption of school fees and provides for subsidies for educational costs and a mechanism for the collection and utilization of school fees at mainstream educational institutions for the 2010-2011 school year to the 2014-2015 school year.

The decree has been revised, addressing several shortcomings and including further provisions regarding children of poor families and children in ethnic minority areas and mountainous areas who were attending school. Such revision is reflected in Decree No. 74/2013/ND-CP which regulates the exemption and reduction of school fees covering the following groups of beneficiaries:

"Children who study at preschools, primary and secondary schools who live in poor households (as defined by the government), ethnic minority students who study at vocational training schools and universities and who come from poor households, and students from very small ethnic minority groups in extremely disadvantaged areas."

Decision No. 239/QĐ-TTg, made on 9 February 2010, approved the scheme "Universal five year preschool from 2010 to 2015." The beneficiaries of this decision include five year old children attending kindergarten whose parents are residing in border and mountainous areas, island communes, and communes with extremely difficult conditions; orphans who lost both father and mother, homeless children; and children with disabilities suffering economic hardship whose parents are considered poor by the State.

Decision No. 60/2011/QĐ-TTg, made on 26 October 2011, stipulates policies for the development of early childhood education from 2011 to 2015. The beneficiaries of these policies are: kindergarten children five years of age who benefit from support policies as regulated in Decision No. 239/QĐ-TTg; ethnic minority kindergarten children who benefit from preferential policies as regulated in Decision No. 2123/QĐ-TTg; kindergarten children 3-4 years of age whose parents reside in border or mountainous areas, island communes, and communes with extremely difficult conditions; orphans who lost both father and mother; homeless children; and children with disabilities suffering economic hardship receive cash assistance of 120,000 dong a month from the State for meals at school. The support is provided when school is in session, but no more than nine months a year.

Decision No. 12/2013/QĐ-TTg, made on 24 January 2013, stipulates policies to support upper secondary school students living in areas with extremely difficult conditions. The beneficiaries of these policies are ethnic minority students at secondary schools, Kinh students from poor households living in communes or hamlets with extremely difficult conditions who live at a boarding school due to the distance to the school or because it is a bit difficult to get to the school due to the terrain. The support for meals and board is 50 per cent of the average minimum salary/nine months/pupil.

Decision 36/2013/TTg, made on 18 June 2013, regulates a rice subsidy policy for students at schools in extremely disadvantaged regions. The beneficiaries of this policy include primary and lower secondary school students studying at ethnic minority semi-boardings schools; students boarding at primary and

secondary semi-boarding schools in extremely disadvantaged areas; ethnic minority students whose parents or guardians have permanent residential registration in extremely disadvantaged areas and who do not benefit from the boarding policy and whose houses are far away from school and are unable to commute back and forth within a day and are studying at upper secondary schools and multi-level schools. Each student receives 15 kg of rice per month for nine months.

Decision No. 66/2013/QĐ-TTg stipulates policies to support educational expenses for ethnic minority students studying at universities.

Decision No. 711/QĐ-TTg, made on 13 June 2012, stipulates the “Education Development Strategy from 2011 to 2020” and sets the objectives for early childhood education for five year old children in 2015 and 2020, including the objective to reduce malnutrition at kindergartens; objectives related to primary, lower and upper secondary school enrollment at the officially-correct age and the enrollment of children with disabilities; the objective to renovate textbooks and the curriculum so that they are lighter, more stimulating and relevant to ethnic minorities.

Decision No. 1019/QĐ-TTg, made on 5 August 2012, approved the scheme “Assistance for people with disabilities from 2012 to 2020” and set objectives related to the enrollment of children with disabilities who are able to learn; the development of curriculum and learning materials; professional training for management staff involved in inclusive education for children with disabilities; capacity development for teachers delivering inclusive education for children with disabilities; learning materials for students with disabilities; and sign language materials for primary and secondary schools.

Directive No. 02/CT-TTg, issued on 22 January 2013, regulates the implementation of Conclusion No. 51 made by the Central Community Party Executive Committee, which is concerned with human resource planning in education; effective universal early childhood education for children five years of age; strengthening the results of universal primary and lower secondary school; addressing the maintenance of deteriorating and temporary schools in remote, mountainous and ethnic minority areas and areas with extremely difficult conditions; implementation of incentive policies for teachers and education managers, especially those in remote, ethnic minority areas and areas with extremely difficult conditions.

As a result of these policies, especially tuition exemption and subsidies for school materials and lunch at school, many children 5-14 years old in very difficult circumstances remained in school, thereby reducing the dropout rate.

The field survey in the six provinces showed that tuition exemption and the cash support policy for primary and secondary school students whose families resided in border communes, upland and remote areas, on islands, and in communes with difficult socioeconomic conditions helped reduce the risk of dropping out for many children at Thuong Thoi Hau A Primary School (near the Cambodian border), Hong Ngu District, Dong Thap Province and Gia Primary School, Phuoc Ha Commune (a very disadvantaged commune), Thuan Nam District, Ninh Thuan Province.

However, in addition to the positive impact of these policies, there remain many constraints and problems that need to be addressed.

Firstly, some targets were difficult to achieve and some of the objectives of the Project on Universalization of Early Childhood Education were not achieved, e.g. the 2010 target to have 100 per cent of the children aged five attending public schools in disadvantaged areas or the 2012 target to have 90 per cent of the ethnic minority children in disadvantaged areas attend full-day schooling. Some communes in upland and ethnic minority areas were still without a kindergarten. By 2012 the plan to subsidize lunch had not been fully implemented, especially in disadvantaged areas. There was shortage of infrastructure and facilities at preschools, and there was a quality issue. The 2015 target for nutrition was difficult to achieve.

Secondly, the level of support was low. The level of support was not enough to attract children to school, especially lower secondary school students, when economic difficulties or immediate economic benefits had a stronger influence on their decision to remain in or leave school. The lunch subsidy was low, and there was no provision for kitchen utensils, cooks or dining space. Therefore, it was difficult to prepare lunch for the children. As a result the children went home for lunch and only a few came back for the afternoon classes. An alternative was to provide milk instead of meals to children aged five, but this created problems, especially in multi-grade classes where children age 3-4 did not receive milk. Incentive policies for teachers teaching in remote, extremely disadvantaged areas were not attractive enough ensure their dedication.

Thirdly, mode of support, e.g. whether support should be in kind or in cash and whether it should be delivered to households or managed by schools, requires further consideration so as to overcome shortcomings in administration and to maximize the impact of the policy support. (Key implications include the possibility of parents misusing cash support and the fact that some households do not need the learning materials and textbooks provided by the schools because they already have these items.)

Fourthly, challenges remain in the implementation of support policies. Delays in disbursements (subsidies for tuition reduction or exemption) and complicated procedures made the policies less responsive to the immediate difficulties families faced for which the support was needed. Many agencies were in charge of implementing the same policy, which led to an uncoordinated effort, overlapping and delays. Some provinces did not fully comply with the policies for primary and lower secondary school teachers who taught classes with children with disabilities, e.g. a reduction of teaching periods and a pay raise ahead of schedule. Furthermore, the existence of many different policies sometimes caused confusion. A student could benefit from various policies and scholarships, and some policies took a long time to take effect. There were no guidelines to administer small grants from organisations and philanthropists that targeted a particular group so as to clarify the scope of coverage and to avoid confusion on the part of those not receiving the grants.

Fifthly, a lack of shared understanding among people of support policies resulted in a breakdown of trust and competition. People even took their children out of school in reaction to what they perceived as the unfair treatment (e.g. some students received lunch subsidies while others in the same class did not). Communication was necessary to ensure clarity in regard to rationale, intended beneficiaries and specifics of the coverage.

4.1.2 Targeted education programs

National targeted programs provided effective support for primary and lower secondary school students. Government report No. 211/BC-CP, issued on 17 October 2011, "Implementation results of the National Target Program 2006-2010," affirmed the contribution of these programs to education. Viet Nam has achieved and sustained universal primary education across the country and is heading towards universal primary school education at the official age, and universal lower secondary school education was achieved in 2010. As a result of universalization, the rate of out-of-school children decreased.

The aim of these programs was to reduce poverty, and ensuring access to education was seen as a sustainable poverty reduction measure, especially for ethnic minority groups. More details of the national target programs related to education are presented in Annex 2. According to Baulch et al, (2009) Viet Nam's policies and programs are seen to have targeted ethnic minorities in three ways: by location, household economic status, and ethnic minority.

- The first approach, used by Program 135, wherein price and transportation subsidy policies and some components of Program 143, targeted communes in extremely disadvantaged areas without noting the ethnicity of households living in those communes. Regional programs, such as Programs 168, 173 and 186, worked the same way, though at a more aggregated level, and they proved useful when clear divisions into geographic regions could be identified based on different production, settlement and social conditions.

- The second approach targeted households based on their economic status. For example, the successors to Program 143 and many education and health exemptions specifically targeted households that were classified as poor or hungry. Some programs (such as Programs 134 and 139) added ethnicity as additional criterion for poor households to qualify for benefits and exemptions.
- The third approach, wherein the program Support Ethnic Minority Households in Especially Difficult Circumstances and some provincial initiatives targeted specific ethnic minority groups, typically those having very low populations and living standards.”²⁴

4.1.3 Decentralisation and education management

The education law states that the State should manage the national education system; focus on the quality of education; decentralise education management; and strengthen the autonomy and accountability of educational institutions. Decentralisation in education management means greater autonomy to local government and educational training institutions. Local authorities are responsible for budget allocations to basic education and locally-managed training institutions. The Ministry of Education and Training is responsible for the management of early childhood education and primary and secondary education, and the Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs manages vocational education. District People’s Committees are responsible for managing primary and lower secondary schools, and Provincial People’s Committees are responsible for upper secondary schools. The Provincial Department of Education and Training provides education sector management support to the Provincial People’s Committees. The District Bureau of Education and Training provides management support to the District People’s Committees. However, education management remains a challenge for the MOET and management practices need to be strengthened so as to increase the capacity and autonomy of schools, teachers and education managers and efficiency in education delivery.

The Situation Analysis of Children in Viet Nam (UNICEF 2010) made the point that “recently, increasing attention has been paid to the problem of corruption in the education system, with cases being reported by the national media. There is some evidence of various forms of corruption, including paying bribes to ensure students receive good marks, demanding that parents pay fees for extra classes, and unethical practices in the recruitment and promotion of teachers. To eliminate cheating and academic corruption, MOET took the initiative in 2007 to undertake the Two No’s campaign “No cheating and no false records.”²⁵

On a bright note, the issue of management and governance was noted by J.L London (2011), who described a website called www.edu.net.vn that is managed by MOET. Vietnamese from across the country engage in debate and discussion with policy leaders. This kind of policy dialogue is hard to find in much wealthier and ostensibly more democratic countries.²⁶

4.1.4 Policies to eliminate economic barriers and improve living standards

The World Bank Analysis places a big emphasis on the social reasons why ethnic minorities have poorer financial gains than their Kinh counterparts in the same remote areas. This diagram outlines how difference becomes a disadvantage.²⁷

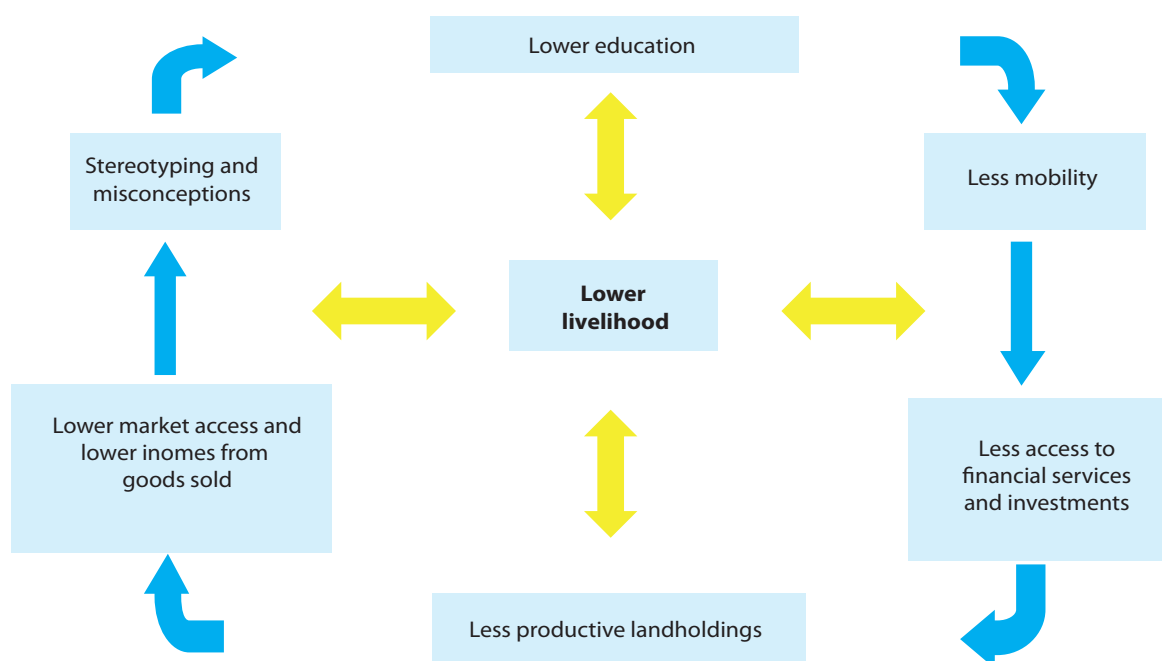
24 *Ethnic Minority Poverty in Viet Nam*. p.47 onward, Baulch, B, Nguyen Thi Minh Hoa, Nguyen Thi Thu Phuong and Pham Thai Hung, World Bank (2009)

25 *An analysis of the situation of children in Viet Nam*. p. 173, UNICEF Ha Noi (2010)

26 *Education in Viet Nam: Historical Roots, Recent Trends*. London, Jonathon D.(Ed) *Education in Viet Nam*, Viet Nam Update Series, Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies (2011)

27 *Country Social Analysis Ethnicity and Development in Viet Nam, Summary Report*. The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development and the World Bank, p. 24 (2009)

Figure 4.1: The difference between ethnic minorities and Kinh



Policies and strategies related to families and communities that affect education were linked to the provision of loans, access to markets and the provision of land and the ways in which ethnic minorities act in these contexts.

Access to credit

Ethnic minority households reported a huge demand for credit, but often they did not get access to large amounts of credit the way that Kinh in similar regions do. The World Bank Country Social Analysis explained how ethnic minorities were more vulnerable to predatory lending in the informal sector (private money lenders) and how they were also more likely to pay high interest when purchasing goods on credit. The following example from the Country Social Analysis explains how:²⁸

How informal sector lending leads to indebtedness

Traders in one commune in Dak Lak extended credit to ethnic M'Nong to buy inputs prior to the corn planting season, taking advantage of lending in cash but then converting the amount to be repaid to the equivalent value in corn if commodity prices were high. For example, if the price of the previous year's crop was VND 700,000/ton, the Kinh traders lent M'Nong households VND 700,000 (\$42) and then collected one ton of maize from them after the harvest.

The traders never accepted repayment in cash if there was a rise in prices from season to season. In 2005, the price was 700,000 VND per ton of corn, but in 2006 it had risen to 1,400,000/ton (\$84). With repayment in maize, the traders got 100 percent interest after six months. If they worked with cash only, they would likely only charge around five percent interest a month without protest from the minority households that the interest was too high. The M'Nong also needed to purchase rice to eat in the lean months before the harvests (July, August, and September in Dak Lak). Each household needed about 250 kg of rice per month to cover their shortfall, so they borrowed 50 kg bags of rice from a local Kinh trader to get them through. Then, at maize harvest time in October, the trader collected 250 kg of corn from the farmers for every 50 kg bag of rice. Corn in 2005 fetched a price of 1,300 VND/kg. That meant the trader had essentially charged 325,000VND for a 175,000 VND bag of rice. Since the trader did not deal in actual cash, however, the profits were not so noticeable.

Source: Field Notes, World Bank Country Social Analysis

²⁸ Country Social Analysis Ethnicity and Development in Viet Nam, Summary Report, p 32, The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development and the World Bank (2009)

However, the analysis went on to say that there was cause for hope given a large expansion in the availability of credit in the past five years reaching minority households. The majority of the households surveyed by the Country Social Analysis had been able to take out a loan. However, minorities borrowed less frequently than the Kinh and the Hoa, took out smaller loans, and were more vulnerable to cycles of debt in the informal sector.

Land access

Since 1993, as per the Land Law, families have secured the right to use land. Ethnic minorities often faced more constraints in productive capacity. They were more reliant on upland farming systems and reported lower rates of agricultural investment, with resultant lower productivity. Much of their land was often forested and yet forestry made only a small contribution to household incomes. Therefore, poverty reduction through access to land remained limited.

Market access and poorer returns from markets

Ethnic minority farmers sold more low-value crops and lacked value-added processing and value-chain linkages for their produce; minority representation in the non-farm sectors and off-farm employment was low; minorities reported barriers to access in the marketplace, and were sometimes taken advantage of by Kinh traders; and petty trading, even at the village level, was dominated by Kinh traders (Shanks, 2009).

4.2. Social insurance and protection related to education and out-of-school children

4.2.1. Social insurance programs included pensions on a pay as-you-go basis, and they included short-term sickness benefits, unemployment allowances, and maternity and disability benefits that were available to 56 per cent of the population. The main beneficiaries were poor households, public servants, and social policy target groups. However, benefits usually only accounted for four per cent of a household's total income due to small contributions and low allowance levels. There was another inequality: 40 per cent of the social protection funds were given to 20 per cent of the richest quintile while 20 per cent of the poorest quintile only received seven per cent of the total funds. Challenges included low compliance rates, especially in the non-public sector, lack of financial viability, and limited access of the poor to voluntary social insurance. In 2009, 20 per cent of labor force participated in social insurance, nine per cent of the elderly received a pension. The majority of rural laborers did not participate in any kind of social insurance.

4.2.2. Health insurance coverage has expanded rapidly in recent years with the extension of free health insurance to disadvantaged groups and all children below the age of six.

4.2.3 Social assistance programs

Challenges to social assistance programs include the fact that only 1.3 per cent of the population received cash transfers, with a level of support equal to about 50 per cent of the minimum standard of living. There were low quality social services in poor areas, and migrants in urban areas had only limited access to these services.

4.2.4 Planned strategies 2011-2020

MOLISA (Ministry of Labor, Invalids and Social Affairs, 2011) developed a series of social protection strategies for 2011-2020 with the following key principles:

- *Universal*, all people have the right to be safeguarded and to have access to the social protection system.
- *Sharing*: Based on the redistribution among poor-non poor, among old and younger generations.

- *Equitability and sustainability*, binding responsibilities and benefits, between contribution and benefits
- *Promoting responsibility of individuals*, families and communities in ensuring the social protection.
- *Special support* for poor and vulnerable groups to ensure a minimum subsistence level in case of temporary or permanent loss or reduction of income;
- *International cooperation on ideas*.

A discussion paper by UNICEF and the World Bank provided some suggestions for strengthening social assistance programs for Viet Nam's poor. The authors saw social assistance as combining three major objectives:

- Protection of the chronic poor;
- Prevention of adverse effects caused by economic or other shocks; and
- Promotion of human capital for long-term poverty reduction through investing in children.²⁹

The authors suggested that it would be useful to roll together existing social transfers into a single "family package" which integrated and expanded existing programs to serve as a foundation upon which additional benefits could be included, depending on household characteristics such as the number of household members working and the number and age of children. They presented a series of scenarios of a social assistance program designed for the bottom 15 per cent of households, assuming nationwide implementation.

However, the proportion of recipients of social protection among vulnerable groups was low and this had flow-on effects on children at risk of dropping out of school. (Roelen, 2010, p. 124).

Table 4.1: Distribution of social welfare

	% of poor in social welfare beneficiaries	% of non-poor in social welfare beneficiaries	Total
Monetary poverty			
Total population	22.1	77.9	100
Children	38.0	62.0	100
Multi-dimensional poverty			
Children	44.4	55.6	100

Source: Author's calculations from VHLSS 2006

Roelen, 2010, p.132

Roelen noted that the receipt of social welfare is biased towards specific demographic groups that do not necessarily have the largest prevalence of poverty. Especially in rural areas, the Northwest region and among ethnic minorities, the percentage of children receiving social welfare was smaller than the

29 A protection, Prevention and Promotion Program for Viet Nam's Poor: Some ideas for strengthening social assistance to help secure a minimum living standard for all. pp. 3-4, unpublished paper, World Bank and UNICEF (2011)

percentage of children living in poverty (p. 140). The evidence did not suggest a strong beneficial impact on children's lives. (Roelen, 2011).

Roelen suggested the introduction of child-targeted benefits which could be category-defined such as belonging to a particular ethnic group. In addition, she suggested that because the social protection systems were clearly linked to formal employment, children in families in the informal sector were not reached through formal schemes of social protection. Therefore, children that lived in households with workers in the informal market, children of unregistered migrants, and children outside of any family setting needed special consideration.

4.2.5. Capacity gaps in social protection

UNICEF's Situation Analysis (2010) saw that a key challenge in child protection in Viet Nam was the absence of a strong and efficient social protection system, the lack of professional social services with the capacity to respond to vulnerable children, and the absence of a continuum of services that could assure the protection of children at all times across the range of child protection issues. During this study, a number of capacity gaps were identified in the child protection system:

- An absence of a network of village collaborators involved in childcare and protection activities, including a lack of funding for this network; a lack of professional social workers at the community level; and local people with social work skills and experience;
- Commune authorities and village heads found it difficult to accurately assess and follow up on child protection needs in the community, and the commune legal cadres had difficulty in keeping up to date with birth registration requirements;
- Commune authorities, community leaders and local communities lacked experience with more effective approaches to dealing with new and emerging social issues and child protection issues (e.g. HIV/AIDS and drug abuse); and
- The justice sector had a limited number of staff at the district and commune level to adequately follow up on birth registration procedures.

4.2.6 Overarching analysis and implications for education

There were relatively adequate educational policies and economic barrier elimination policies that helped to improve living standards, and social protection policies that helped families access basic social services like education. However, there remained children who were out of school, especially in mountainous, remote and ethnic minority areas.

Limited resources was one of the reasons why some major objectives set in those policies that were intended to boost enrollment for children in difficult circumstances were not achieved. This explains why the levels of support were not high enough to attract those children to school. Moreover, the mode of support remained inappropriate and there were constraints in the implementation of these policies, and a lack of shared understanding among people of different support policies resulted in competition, comparison and a decrease of trust. Some people even stopped their children from going to school because of the unfairness that they perceived. This was another factor which constrained efforts to reduce the number of out-of-school children.

Often poor people did not know about the availability of social-protection programs, and very often there was no conditionality regarding school attendance built into social welfare programs. Most importantly, social protection programs did not reach the poorest groups, and in such families education was often perceived as having a lower value than economic survival, and how this plays out will depend on the vagaries of cash markets which change from year to year, and ethnic minority families sometimes had less access than Kinh families in the same area. Their access depended on macro-economic regulations as well as the implementation of supporting policies and directions from different management levels.



CHAPTER V

RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The recommendations below are based on the analyses of the profile of out-of-school children in Chapter 2, on the barriers and bottlenecks described in Chapter 3, consultations at the central level, and field surveys in the six provinces: Dien Bien, Ninh Thuan, Kon Tum, Ho Chi Minh City, Dong Thap and An Giang.

These recommendations are for both the demand and the supply sides, for policies and future interventions that address the barriers and bottlenecks, to ensure education equity for all children, especially the right to education for out-of-school children and children at risk of dropping out.

5.1. Recommendations related to children and parents

Awareness of the value of education in communities and among parents, particularly those without education, should be enhanced via specific measures, e.g. communication about the long-term value of education and the value of life-long learning, to change perceptions that disadvantaged children, especially children with disabilities, should not go to school. In addition, the advantages of attending continuing education centers should be explained to children who are not enrolled at formal schools, and teachers should be trained to enhance their capacity to communicate with parents about the values of education and to increase awareness among parents of child rights and the legal requirements and entitlements of birth registration.

In ethnic minority areas, targeted investments in education for ethnic minority students should be continued to promote role models, and early marriage should be discouraged.

The roles of the Parents Associations, the Women's Union, education promotion groups and similar associations in coordination with schools should be promoted to manage and encourage out-of-school children to return to school.

Education inequalities could be reduced by extending the implementation of national target programs such as the Poverty Reduction Program and Program 135. Where conditions allow, economic burdens (such as tuition fees, contributions to school infrastructure and the costs of extra tutoring and things like health check-ups and uniforms) faced by extremely disadvantaged households should be lessened. Equitable access for all ethnicities could be ensured by providing equal market access and employment opportunities or, when that fails, social protection mechanisms. In addition, incentives could be provided to students through different initiatives such as scholarships and rice subsidies.

Preventive measures could be strengthened to reduce the number of children who join the workforce, for example (1) sustain progress in ensuring access to secondary school, especially for girls; (2) intensify support measures so that children temporarily absent from school, or children just making the transition to lower secondary school, can catch up and complete schooling; (3) continue to raise awareness among local communities and parents; (4) strengthen the commitment by local authorities to safeguard the right to education of children by restricting private enterprises from hiring children for casual work.

5.2. Recommendations related to teachers

Develop short-term and long-term training programs to train and recruit an adequate number of ethnic minority and local teachers using appropriate methods such as nominations, distribution, and rotation.

Invest in improving the quality of teacher training so as to improve the quality of teaching, including inclusive education and differentiated instruction. Develop policies that focus on improving teaching methods, especially in ethnic minority, rural and remote areas, and areas with children from the poorest families, so that they are more interactive and stimulating. Strengthen training for teachers about the language, culture and customs of the communities in which they teach. Use the local language and culture as criterion for the assessment of teachers in schools in ethnic minority areas.

Address motivational issues through incentives for teachers, and strengthen the quality of tuition and support for underperforming students and those at risk of dropping out. Link teacher qualifications to salary scales and teacher promotion with evaluation of professional standards.

Review, revise and supplement incentives for teachers, especially those teaching classes with children with disabilities and those teaching multi-grade classes in kindergartens and at primary schools. Provide allowances for teachers and managers working at remote schools in mountainous areas. Provide allowances to facilitate home visits by teachers in remote areas to encourage students to go back to school. Ensure adequate housing for teachers serving in remote and resource-constrained areas.

5.3. Recommendations related to schools

Continue making investments in school infrastructure and give priority to kindergartens, especially in ethnic minority and remote areas in the Northwest, the Northeast, the Central Highlands and the Mekong Delta Region. Priority should also be given to ensuring clean water supply and the construction of sanitation facilities in schools. Build satellite secondary schools that mirror satellite primary schools in order to bring secondary schools closer to many more children in remote areas. Change the strategy from “Bring children to schools” to “Bring schools to children” and ensure that schools are close to where children live, especially during their first years at school. This policy should be further extended to lower and upper secondary schools since the distance from home to school is one of the major reasons children drop out of school. In the first semester of the 2012-2013 school year at Thuong Phuoc Lower Secondary School, Hong Ngu District, Dong Thap Province, a female student had performed well at school and had a strong interest in school, but her family was poor and her bicycle broke down and they had no money for a new one, so she used public transport for the ten-kilometer journey to school at a daily cost of 30,000 dong (20,000 dong for transportation back and forth and 10,000 dong for lunch). After a period of time, she had to drop out because her family could not afford the daily expenses. If there had been a school close enough to her house, she would not have dropped out. Continue to develop ethnic minority boarding schools, and along with inclusive education for children with disabilities, develop more educational institutions for children with disabilities, including special schools. Provide sufficient teaching materials and textbooks, and gradually improve facilities and the learning environment for children with disabilities.

Apply child-centered teaching methods and engage teacher assistants from villages to serve as a language bridge between students who speak the local language and teachers who speak the language of the ethnic majority (replicating the Oxfam UK projects in Lao Cai, Tra Vinh and Dak Lak; the Save the Children UK projects in Quang Ninh and Dong Thap; and the Mother tongue based Bilingual Education project by MOET in collaboration with UNICEF). Provide guidance for the channeling of students at the beginning of the school year to other learning options, and strengthen quality assurance of follow-up tutoring (to be provided by experienced teachers) for low performers to enable them to keep up. Work with problem students and prevent them from inducing other students to be distracted from their studies, which could lead to them dropping out.

Expand and improve the quality of semi-boarding schools, including people-based semi-boarding schools in the most remote and mountainous areas.

Develop new technologies to provide education in remote areas, e.g. digital school radio, which is an idea worth considering. Viettel should extend their Internet coverage to more remote schools. MOET should work on the development of digital learning materials in ethnic minority languages as well as Vietnamese.

5.4 Recommendations related to management

Recommendations for the management of OOSC are divided into three categories: (1) education planning and policy development; (2) implementing organization; and (3) monitoring and evaluation.

5.4.1 Education planning and policy development

OOSC-related issues should be integrated into education sector planning from the central to the local level. This is necessary to systematically address OOSC issues and promote equity in education. Planning capacity should be improved at all levels, with an increased focus on the right to education of out-of-school children.

Sector planning should be based on adequate data and analysis of the education situation of children, especially disadvantaged and out-of-school children, to inform the development of specific objectives and management and technical measures. Provincial Departments of Education and Training (DOETs), District Bureaus of Education and schools should coordinate with each other to address barriers related to out-of-school children, and resources should be allocated to address barriers related to OOSC. Aggregate figures and analyses of children might mask disparities and inequities in education faced by some groups of disadvantaged children, and if they go unnoticed, education managers and policy makers might not look for appropriate solutions and measures to combat those disparities and inequities.

Revamp educational management at the local level in order to improve capacity and promote autonomy and ownership at the local level among teachers and educational managers.

Provide guidance for the development and delivery of local curriculum as per the instructions provided by the MOET. Textbooks should reflect cultural diversity and be relevant to ethnic minority people in terms of images, cultural characteristics and customs. Textbook reforms should focus on reducing the curriculum load and strengthening life-skills education. Develop positive and powerful images of ethnic minority groups for textbooks, and educate the mass media so that they can help to eliminate cultural stereotypes and barriers.

5.4.2 Implementation

Identify and propose timely solutions that address the duplication and overlap of policies. Ensure timely disbursements that are aligned with the school calendar. DOETs should proactively make proposals to the People's Committees for the necessary resources to deliver the education mandate. Undertake resource mobilisation from philanthropists and do not take contributions from parents. Effectively implement the two circulars on supporting inclusive education for people with disabilities, e.g. eliminate age limits at schools, offer tuition reduction and exemption, provide special treatment during assessment, and provide textbooks and school equipment.

Encourage full-day schooling at all schools with a support system for children from the poorest families and ethnic minority children, and provide lunch at kindergartens for children aged five as well as at primary schools and full-day schools with semi-boardings arrangements.

Ensure transparency and due engagement of relevant stakeholders when providing scholarships to students at district ethnic minority boarding schools and manage frustration expressed by any group. This includes transparency in communication concerning specific policy provisions for parents, especially ethnic minorities.

Implement management measures to create a child-friendly learning environment. Create spaces for recreational activities and physical exercise (e.g. a playground) and promote extra-curricular activities (e.g. music and sporting events) in order to stimulate learning among ethnic minority children and children with disabilities in an inclusive environment. Implement the slogan “Each day in school is a happy day.”

Thoroughly address the shortage of full-time staff at the DOETs and the District Bureaus of Education according to regulations in Decree 115 on decentralised education management.

5.4.3 Monitoring and evaluation

The monitoring and evaluation of the achievement of planned targets should align with the indicators for out-of-school children. Ensure tracking if implementation of the measures would address the barriers constraining the education of those children. Ensuring the availability of accurate and sufficient data on OOSC and dropouts is important in situation monitoring as it serves as an evidence base for management and policy advocacy to realize the right to education of those children.

Strongly fight the pursuit of exaggerated achievements at primary schools when conducting graduation assessments, especially for ethnic minority children.

5.5 Recommendations related to policies

It is important to close the disparity gaps among regions, which result in OOSC-related barriers and issues, through targeted policies and measures relevant to each geographical area, for example in the Northern Midlands, mountainous areas and the Mekong Delta. Contextualize central-level educational directions with the reality at subnational levels. Make sure that all new social protection strategies reflect a child focus. Study policies for tuition exemption for children aged five at pre-primary schools.

Ensure inclusive education policies by considering the needs of all children in a classroom regardless of ethnicity or disability. Research appropriate teaching methods to enhance inclusive education.

Review the relationship between employment and education for ethnic minority children and children in remote areas, learn from the lessons of successful interventions, and identify additional measures to create more learning opportunities for those children. Conduct policy advocacy by sharing knowledge of the benefits of the Mother-tongue-based Bilingual Education project with partners, including the Ethnic Council of the National Assembly, the Central Committee of the Communist Party, the Committee for Ethnic Minorities and MOET, to expand the Mother-tongue-based Bilingual Education project with a detailed action plan and budget to ensure that ethnic minority children are adequately prepared for school and thereby help to reduce the number of out-of-school children in the short and long term. Reduce class size for classes with 100 per cent ethnic minority students to enhance the quality of care and education.

Develop policies and mechanisms for teachers and managers teaching at ethnic minority semi-boarding schools and schools with semi-boarding students. Develop mechanisms for the recruitment of health workers, cooks, and guards at those schools.

For areas with low density, it is important to address the inappropriateness in the budget allocation formula, which is based on population head count.

5.6 Recommendations related to the education system

Ensure quality education for all regardless of their ability to pay. Continue to review solutions to effectively reduce the curriculum load for ethnic minority children.

Ensure the implementation of Decree 115/2010/ND-CP regarding the responsibility of the State to provide education consistently across the country; research the amendment to the Law on the State



Budget in order to more effectively decentralize financial management; and ensure that delivery of the education mandate comes with the assurance of the necessary human and financial resources.

The provinces shall review and improve or develop a local curriculum that integrates ethnic minority cultural values.

Strengthen statistical data on out-of-school children by first reviewing current practices for statistical data collection related to OOSC and then identifying areas in need of improvement. In the long-term, the education sector should:

- Coordinate with the General Statistics Office to address discrepancies in the data on age group populations; strengthen the coordination between the central and local levels regarding the collection, analysis and publication of statistics on OOSC. This includes institutionalising the utilisation of data from the mid-term population survey and a periodic Census for OOSC analysis in the education sector.
- Research integrating data from universalization surveys with routine education data for sector planning and management purposes. It is important to incorporate the collection of data on out-of-school children, dropouts and disadvantaged children such as children with disabilities and ethnic minorities.
- Obtain data on disparities in access to education and educational results, including gender disaggregated data on enrollment and completion of primary and lower secondary education of boys and girls; additional disaggregated data on health care, nutrition and child protection among ethnic minorities and the poor, including children with disabilities, orphans, abandoned children and single-parent and poor households as these characteristics are attributed to out-of-school children; and data on migrants.
- Coordinate with MOLISA and other sectors to obtain better quality data on the number of children potentially doing hazardous jobs and identify solutions to address the problem if it exists. It is important to incorporate data on child protection issues in order to obtain a full picture of the children's situation concerning issues such as HIV/AIDS, child abuse and drug use.

5.7 Conclusions

Viet Nam has made remarkable achievements in education and will achieve the millennium development goals related to education by 2015. However, more efforts are needed to bring benefits to a significant group of children who remain disadvantaged in education and whose right to education has not been realized.

It is important to note that unless education is extended to all citizens, an under-educated, under-skilled society will not be able to afford the expense of supporting an aging population. This is an economic catalyst for good quality education for all. All people have the right to a good quality education regardless of their ethnicity, gender, place of residence, social status or economic standing.

The fact that disadvantaged children remain out of school, particularly children with disabilities, ethnic minority children, migrant children and poor children, presents a challenge to the education sector and the development of Viet Nam. It is expected that insights from the Report on the Study of Out-of-school Children will inform the effort to address these challenges and achieve equity in education.

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ANNEX 1:

POVERTY REDUCTION PROGRAMS IN VIET NAM TARGETING EDUCATION

From A Mapping Exercise: Poverty reduction programs and policies in Viet Nam (pp. 19-25) Jones R., Tran Thi Hanh, Nguyen Anh Phong and Truong Thi Thu Trang, UNDP Ha Noi (2009)

Access to education

A considerable number of poverty reduction projects aim to bring poor and ethnic minority students to education by reducing fees and offering subsidies as well as by supplying financial support for transport and boarding or by building boarding accommodation near schools. A significant number also aim at developing school buildings and renovating buildings and classrooms where needed throughout many projects targeting one school per commune and district.

Table A 1.1:
Education support components and policies

Type of support	Component/Project	Description (Beneficiaries, support details, approach)
Infrastructure (new construction, concretization of facilities, equipment)	Infrastructure components/P 135-II	- Beneficiary: P135 communes - Financing sources: - National state budget - Local state budget - Details: - New or upgraded classrooms (demand based)
	Infrastructure in poor coastal communes / NTP-PR	- Beneficiary: poor coastal communes - Financing sources: - National state budget - Local budget - Details: - New or upgraded classrooms (demands based)
	Infrastructure components/ resolution 30a, TT 109/109/ TTLB-BTC-BGD-DT	- Beneficiary: 62 poor districts - Financing sources: - National state budget - Local budget - Community contribution - Enterprises - ODA - Government bonds - Details: - Upgraded or new classroom (demand based) - People-based boarding school
	Infrastructure components/ Regional SED programs	- Beneficiary: six regions - Financing sources: - National state budget - Local budget - Details: - District and commune infrastructure projects
	Concretization/ NTP-Education for All	- Beneficiary: Schools throughout the country - Financing sources: - National state budget - Local budget - Government bonds - Details: - Construction of schools and classrooms at the district and commune level

Type of support	Component/Project	Description (Beneficiaries, support details, approach)
Support for poor students, ethnic minorities, textbooks, notebooks and food	Support for poor students/NTP-PR,QD 20/2007/QD-TTg	1. Beneficiary: poor students 2. Financing sources: no direct budget allocation 3. Details: 3a. Tuition exemption or reduction
	Loans/NTP-PR, QD 20/2007/QD-TTg	1. Beneficiary: poor students 2. Financing sources: 2a. From VDB 3. Details: 3a. Loan for food 800,000VND/HH/month
	Support for ethnic minority students/QD 112/2007/QD-TTg, TT 06/2007/TT-UBND	1. Beneficiary: minority children at kindergartens and boarding schools 2. Financing sources: 2a. National state budget 2b. Local budget 2c. Community contribution 2d. Enterprises 2e. ODA 2f. Government bonds 3. Details: 3a. Support for food, textbooks and notebooks (140,000 VND/month for nine months for boarding school students and 70,000 VND/month for kindergarten students) 3b. Poor parents (1 million VND/a time/HH)
	Support for poor students/TT 43/2007/TTLT-BTC-BGĐT, 2/5/2007	1. Beneficiary: poor students 2. Financing sources: 2a. National state budget 2b. Local budget 3. Details: 3a. Scholarship equal to 80 per cent of the basic salary
Support for teachers and education managers	Housing/Resolution 30a, TT 109/109/TTLB-BTC-BGD-DT	1. Beneficiary: teachers in remote areas 2. Financing sources: 2a. National state budget 2b. Local budget 2c. Community contribution 2d. Enterprises 3. Details: 3a. Housing
	Direct support/Circular 06/2007/TTLT-BGDDT-BNV-BTC dated 27/03/2007	1. Beneficiary: teachers in the most disadvantaged areas 2. Financing sources: 2a. National state budget 2b. Local budget 3. Details: 3a. Support 5 litres of drinking water/teacher/month 3b. Support to travel cost

Type of support	Component/Project	Description (Beneficiaries, support details, approach)
Support for minorities in the most disadvantaged areas	Nominations for universities/ CT-GDCMN, Decree 134/2004/ND-CP	1. Beneficiary: minority upper secondary education graduates in the most disadvantaged areas 2. Financing sources: no direct budget allocation 3. Details: 3a. Textbooks and notebooks 3b. Scholarship equal to 80 per cent of the basic salary 3c. Nomination without exams
	Teaching minority languages/ NTP-Education for All	1. Beneficiary: minority students of small populations 2. Financing sources: 2a. National state budget 2b. ODA 3. Details: 3a. Delivering curriculum and textbooks 3b. Training for teachers in minority languages
Eliminate illiteracy and enhance universal education	Continuing education/ NTP-Education for All	1. Beneficiary: illiterate and lower secondary education undergraduates 2. Financing sources: no direct budget allocation but support provided through giving salaries to teachers at continuing education centers 3. Details: Non-official courses on basic education
Vocational training for the poor	Vocational training/ NTP-PR	1. Beneficiary: groups of HHs in poor communes 2. Financing sources: 2a. National state budget 2b. Local budget 2c. Enterprises 3. Details: 3a. Vocational training linked to the generation of jobs in state farms model 3b. Vocational training linked to overseas jobs model
	Vocational training/P 135-II	1. Beneficiary: groups of minority HHs in P135 communes 2. Financing sources: 2a. National state budget 2b. Local budget 2c. Enterprises 3. Details: 3a. Vocational training linked to the generation of jobs

Type of support	Component/Project	Description (Beneficiaries, support details, approach)
	Vocational training/ Resolution 30a	- Beneficiary: groups of HHs in P135 communes and other communes in 62 poor districts - Financing resources: - National state budget added to non-P135 communes in 62 poor districts - Local budget - Enterprises - Details: - Vocational training linked to the generation of jobs - One vocational training center per district with boarding facilities for students from remote areas
	Vocational training, Mekong Delta Support Project	- Beneficiary: poor HHs in poor communes from Mekong delta - Financing sources: - Local budget - Financial support from VBP - Details: - Concessional loans to vocational trainees (max. 3 million VND/person)
Laborers abroad	Labor export/ Resolution 30a	- Beneficiary: P135 communes and other communes in 62 poor districts - Financing sources: - National state budget added to support the non-P135 communes in 62 poor districts - Local budget - Enterprises - Details: - Support vocational training - Teaching foreign languages and improving knowledge - Loans
	Support Mekong Delta workers	- Beneficiary: poor HHs in poor communes from Mekong Delta - Financing sources: - Local budget - Financial support from VPB - Details: - Concessional loans to support labor export (max 20 million VND/worker)
Loans for job creation	Support Mekong Delta	- Beneficiary: groups of HHs in poor communes from the Mekong Delta - Financing sources: - Enterprises - Financial source from VBP - Details: - Loans for job generation (max. 10 million VND, zero interest for three years) - Support for changing one's livelihood (a grant of three million/HH)

14 projects and sub-components provided support for access to education, and four of the projects supported the right of ethnic minorities to access education. There was a significant mixture of support, including five infrastructure projects, three of which focused on upgrading classrooms. Four projects supported access to school through the exemption of schools fees or access to books and boarding. Again the majority of financing came from the state budget and local budget contributions. Two projects were unfinanced: the exemption of fees for the poor (NTP-PR) and access to universities.

Vocational training and improved access to employment

Several poverty reduction projects placed significant importance on vocational training and employment generation and NTP-PR and Resolution 30a were responsible for the largest proportion of the work. Vocational training support has been one of the most difficult poverty reduction interventions to implement. Viet Nam's mainstream vocational training system has numerous weaknesses throughout and it is therefore understandable that it has difficulty in serving the poor despite the number of programs and the level of support.

ADDITIONAL TABLES

Table A.2.1:

Child population by age

Age	<5	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	17+	General	Total (N)
Viet Nam	8.5	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.9	1.9	2.1	2.1	2.1	68.8	100.0	85789573
Gender	Male	52.7	52.2	52.0	52.0	52.1	52.0	52.2	52.0	52.0	52.0	51.8	51.9	51.7	48.3	49.5	42482549
	Female	47.3	47.8	48.0	48.0	47.9	48.0	47.8	48.0	48.0	48.0	48.2	48.1	48.3	51.7	50.5	43307024
Urban/Rural	Urban	28.2	28.5	27.3	25.7	25.5	23.2	24.5	24.5	24.6	24.2	24.3	24.3	26.3	31.2	29.6	25374262
	Rural	71.8	71.5	72.7	74.3	74.5	76.8	75.5	75.5	75.4	75.8	75.7	75.7	73.7	68.8	70.4	60415311
Kinh	82.6	83.2	82.4	82.2	82.3	81.8	80.9	82.2	82.3	82.6	83.0	83.3	83.6	84.7	87.2	85.8	73600054
Tay	1.8	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.8	2.1	2.0	1.8	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.2	1.9	1.9	1616666
Thai	2.1	1.9	2.0	2.0	1.9	2.0	2.1	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.0	1.6	1.8	1530235
Ethnicity	Muong	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.4	1.4	1243911
	Khmer	1.4	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.5	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.4	1191974
Mong	2.5	2.3	2.5	2.4	2.3	2.5	2.4	2.2	2.1	1.9	1.7	1.5	1.4	1.2	0.9	1.3	1085697
Other	8.1	8.1	8.4	8.7	8.8	9.1	9.5	8.7	8.7	8.3	7.9	7.6	7.4	6.6	5.6	6.4	5521036
Disabled	N/A	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.5	384561
Partially disabled	N/A	1.4	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	9.3	7.4	5785684
Not disabled	N/A	98.4	98.6	98.7	98.6	98.6	98.4	98.4	98.2	98.1	98.0	98.1	98.1	98.1	90.1	92.1	72340475
Yes	N/A	3.7	3.2	2.8	2.6	2.4	2.2	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.9	4.1	5.1	7.8	6.6	5205648
No	N/A	96.3	96.8	97.2	97.4	97.6	97.8	97.9	97.8	97.8	97.7	97.1	95.9	94.9	92.2	93.4	73305072
Migrated																	

Table A.2.2.1:

Population distribution of school-age groups by ethnic background (1)

	Viet Nam			Kinh			Tay			Thai			
	5	6 - 10	11 - 14	5	6 - 10	11 - 14	5	6 - 10	11 - 14	5	6 - 10	11 - 14	
Age	5	1469140	0	0	1222114	0	0	24884	0	0	28436	0	0
	6	0	1308518	0	0	1078372	0	0	23307	0	0	26539	0
	7	0	1302865	0	0	1071412	0	0	23891	0	0	26241	0
	8	0	1423428	0	0	1170954	0	0	24926	0	0	27277	0
	9	0	1353717	0	0	1106936	0	0	24285	0	0	27423	0
	10	0	1257209	0	0	1016982	0	0	25869	0	0	26981	0
	11	0	0	1407872	0	0	1157854	0	0	27542	0	0	27964
	12	0	0	1468681	0	0	1208885	0	0	27004	0	0	30682
	13	0	0	1590014	0	0	1313949	0	0	32437	0	0	33295
	14	0	0	1598533	0	0	1327172	0	0	34164	0	0	35011
Gender	Total	1469140	6645736	6065100	1222114	5444656	5007860	24884	122277	121147	28436	134462	126951
	Male	52.2	52.1	52.0	52.2	52.1	52.1	52.1	51.0	51.4	52.3	51.6	51.9
	Female	47.8	47.9	48.0	47.8	47.9	47.9	47.9	49.0	48.6	47.7	48.4	48.1
	Urban	28.5	25.5	24.4	32.3	29.0	27.6	12.7	11.0	10.2	6.6	5.9	5.7
	Rural	71.5	74.5	75.6	67.7	71.0	72.4	87.3	89.0	89.8	93.4	94.1	94.3
Region	R.1 Northern Midlands and Mountains	12.1	12.2	11.9	4.8	4.5	4.5	83.1	81.2	82.5	64.9	64.6	60.6
	R.2 Red River Delta	21.3	20.3	20.1	25.2	24.3	23.9	2.6	2.5	2.7	0.0	0.0	0.0
	R.3 North and South Central Coast	21.5	23.0	25.7	22.8	24.6	27.7	1.0	1.1	1.1	32.2	32.5	36.9
	R.4 Central Highlands	7.2	8.2	7.9	5.1	5.9	6.0	8.3	9.0	8.1	2.6	2.6	2.3
	R. 5 Southeast	15.6	14.3	13.2	17.6	16.2	14.7	2.6	3.4	2.9	0.2	0.2	0.2
	R. 6 Mekong River Delta	20.6	20.2	19.2	22.8	22.6	21.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0

		Viet Nam			Kinh			Tay			Thai		
		5	6 - 10	11 - 14	5	6 - 10	11 - 14	5	6 - 10	11 - 14	5	6 - 10	11 - 14
8 provinces	Lao Cai	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.3	0.3	0.3	6.0	6.7	6.5	0.2	0.2	0.1
	Dien Bien	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	12.2	12.7	12.6
	Ninh Thuan	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Kon Tum	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.2
	Gia Lai	2.1	2.2	2.0	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.0	0.9	0.8	0.2	0.1	0.1
	HCM city	7.6	6.5	5.7	8.6	7.5	6.4	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Dong Thap	1.9	1.9	2.0	2.3	2.3	2.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	An Giang	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.9	2.9	2.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Disability	Other	82.7	83.5	84.8	83.5	84.6	85.7	92.6	91.9	92.2	87.2	86.8	86.9
	Disabled	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2
	Partially disabled	1.4	1.2	1.6	1.3	1.1	1.6	1.8	1.5	1.8	2.0	1.8	2.1
	Not disabled	98.4	98.6	98.2	98.5	98.7	98.2	98.0	98.4	98.0	97.9	98.1	97.7
Migrated	Yes	3.7	2.6	2.2	4.0	2.9	2.4	2.0	1.5	1.2	2.8	2.4	2.0
	No	96.3	97.4	97.8	96.0	97.1	97.6	98.0	98.5	98.8	97.2	97.6	98.0

Table A.2.2.2

Population distribution of school-age groups by ethnic background (2)

	Muong			Khmer			Mong			Other			
	5	6 - 10	11 - 14	5	6 - 10	11 - 14	5	6 - 10	11 - 14	5	6 - 10	11 - 14	
Age	5	19,873	0	0	20,406	0	0	34,497	0	0	118,930	0	0
	6	0	18,125	0	0	19,679	0	0	32,173	0	0	110,323	0
	7	0	18,734	0	0	18,500	0	0	31,307	0	0	112,780	0
	8	0	19,467	0	0	22,741	0	0	32,784	0	0	125,279	0
	9	0	17,781	0	0	21,329	0	0	33,397	0	0	122,565	0
	10	0	18,668	0	0	19,219	0	0	30,559	0	0	118,931	0
	11	0	0	20,273	0	0	21,198	0	0	30,997	0	0	122,044
	12	0	0	20,811	0	0	22,811	0	0	31,036	0	0	127,452
	13	0	0	24,367	0	0	23,976	0	0	29,643	0	0	132,347
	14	0	0	25,763	0	0	22,771	0	0	26,760	0	0	126,891
	Total	19,873	92,775	91,214	20,406	101,469	90,756	34,497	160,219	118,437	118,930	589,879	508,734
	Male	51.0	51.9	52.0	51.1	52.4	51.6	51.5	51.4	52.1	52.3	51.7	51.9
	Female	49.0	48.1	48.0	48.9	47.6	48.4	48.5	48.6	47.9	47.7	48.3	48.1
	Urban/rural	Urban	4.7	4.0	3.8	15.4	14.4	15.2	1.4	1.4	1.7	12.4	11.8
Rural		95.3	96.0	96.2	84.6	85.6	84.8	98.6	98.6	98.3	87.6	88.2	87.8
R.1 Northern Midlands and Mountains		62.6	61.4	58.5	0.1	0.0	0.0	92.2	91.6	91.7	30.6	29.5	30.7
R.2 Red River Delta		6.8	6.2	5.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.7	2.8	2.8
Region	R.3 North and South Central Coast	25.8	27.9	31.7	0.1	0.1	0.1	4.0	4.6	4.6	18.6	18.6	18.2
	R.4 Central Highland	3.7	3.6	3.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	3.7	3.7	3.7	32.5	33.7	31.8
	R.5 Southeast	1.1	0.8	0.8	3.9	3.5	4.3	0.1	0.1	0.1	10.1	10.2	11.0
	R.6 Mekong River Delta	0.0	0.0	0.1	95.9	96.2	95.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.0	2.6	2.5

			Muong			Khmer			Mong			Other		
			5	6 - 10	11 - 14	5	6 - 10	11 - 14	5	6 - 10	11 - 14	5	6 - 10	11 - 14
8 provinces	Lao Cai		0.2	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	13.8	12.7	12.6	3.1	3.0	3.2
	Dien Bien		0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	16.1	16.5	15.8	1.0	1.0	0.9
	Ninh Thuan		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.2	2.5	2.5
	Kon Tum		0.5	0.5	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.9	5.0	4.5
	Gia Lai		0.4	0.5	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2	13.1	13.1	11.2
	HCM city		0.3	0.1	0.1	1.2	0.6	0.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.6	4.7	4.9
	Dong Thap		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	An Giang		0.0	0.0	0.0	6.3	7.8	7.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.3	0.3
Disability	Other		98.6	98.6	98.8	92.4	91.6	91.4	69.9	70.6	71.4	70.6	70.4	72.5
	Disabled		0.3	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.2	0.2
	Partially disabled		1.5	1.5	1.7	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.7	1.8
	Not disabled		98.2	98.4	98.2	98.9	98.8	98.7	98.4	98.4	98.4	98.1	98.2	97.9
Migrated	Yes		1.2	0.8	0.7	2.4	1.3	1.8	2.2	2.1	1.9	2.0	1.5	1.5
	No		98.8	99.2	99.3	97.6	98.7	98.2	97.8	97.9	98.1	98.0	98.5	98.5

Table A.2.3.1

Population distribution by province (1)

	Viet Nam			Lao Cai			Dien Bien			Ninh Thuan			Kon Tum		
	5	6 - 10	11 - 14	5	6 - 10	11 - 14	5	6 - 10	11 - 14	5	6 - 10	11 - 14	5	6 - 10	11 - 14
Age	5	1469140	0	0	13779	0	0	12015	0	0	10846	0	10243	0	0
	6	0	1308518	0	0	12151	0	0	11210	0	0	10601	0	9950	0
	7	0	1302865	0	0	12083	0	0	10434	0	0	10510	0	9155	0
	8	0	1423428	0	0	12945	0	0	11799	0	0	12017	0	10720	0
	9	0	1353717	0	0	12596	0	0	11664	0	0	11105	0	9745	0
	10	0	1257209	0	0	12102	0	0	10755	0	0	11008	0	9230	0
	11	0	0	1407872	0	0	13175	0	0	11185	0	0	12549	0	9557
	12	0	0	1468681	0	0	12649	0	0	11579	0	0	12771	0	9948
	13	0	0	1590014	0	0	13787	0	0	11457	0	0	13701	0	10253
	14	0	0	1598533	0	0	13577	0	0	10956	0	0	14081	0	10443
Gender	Total	1469140	6645736	6065100	13779	61877	53188	12015	55861	45178	10846	55241	10243	48800	40201
	Male	52.2	52.1	52.0	53.6	51.3	51.8	53.1	51.4	52.7	51.5	52.2	52.3	52.3	52.1
Urban / rural	Female	47.8	47.9	48.0	46.4	48.7	48.2	46.9	48.6	47.3	48.5	47.8	47.7	47.7	47.9
	Urban	28.5	25.5	24.4	17.4	15.4	15.8	11.1	9.7	10.9	34.6	32.0	31.4	28.5	31.0
	Rural	71.5	74.5	75.6	82.6	84.6	84.2	88.9	90.3	89.1	65.4	68.0	68.6	71.5	69.0
	Kinh	83.2	81.9	82.6	27.0	25.0	26.6	14.3	11.1	12.4	76.2	73.6	41.0	37.5	41.1
Ethnicity	Tay	1.7	1.8	2.0	10.8	13.3	14.8	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.6	0.8
	Thai	1.9	2.0	2.1	0.4	0.4	0.3	28.8	30.6	35.4	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.6	0.6
	Muong	1.4	1.4	1.5	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.9	1.0	1.2
	Khmer	1.4	1.5	1.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Mong	2.3	2.4	2.0	34.5	33.0	28.0	46.2	47.3	41.4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Disability	Other	8.1	8.9	8.4	27.1	28.2	30.2	10.4	10.7	10.5	23.8	26.4	56.9	60.2	56.4
	Disabled	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.2
	Partially disabled	1.4	1.2	1.6	1.3	1.7	2.2	1.1	1.6	1.7	1.5	1.2	1.7	1.6	1.9
	Not disabled	98.4	98.6	98.2	98.4	98.3	97.6	98.8	98.2	98.2	98.1	98.6	97.9	98.1	97.9
Migrated	Yes	3.7	2.6	2.2	2.1	1.4	1.2	2.4	1.9	1.6	1.9	1.1	4.1	3.2	2.7
	No	96.3	97.4	97.8	97.9	98.6	98.8	97.6	98.1	98.4	98.1	98.9	95.9	96.8	97.3

Table A.2.3.2:

Population distribution by province (2)

	Gia Lai			HCMC			Dong Thap			An Giang		
	5	6 - 10	11 - 14	5	6 - 10	11 - 14	5	6 - 10	11 - 14	5	6 - 10	11 - 14
Age	5	30717	0	0	111143	0	0	28032	0	0	36879	0
	6	0	28465	0	0	96286	0	0	24916	0	0	31257
	7	0	28132	0	0	86933	0	0	24498	0	0	33466
	8	0	31681	0	0	94241	0	0	28877	0	0	36883
	9	0	31354	0	0	88115	0	0	27184	0	0	34310
	10	0	28093	0	0	69052	0	0	22465	0	0	29645
	11	0	0	29457	0	0	83473	0	0	28119	0	35581
	12	0	0	29912	0	0	85198	0	0	30134	0	38252
	13	0	0	31728	0	0	88989	0	0	31228	0	38554
	14	0	0	28927	0	0	88541	0	0	29368	0	35737
	Total	30717	147725	120025	111143	434627	346200	28032	127939	118848	36879	165563
	Male	52.3	52.0	52.0	51.8	52.3	52.3	52.3	51.8	52.6	52.1	51.9
	Female	47.7	48.0	48.0	48.2	47.7	47.7	47.7	48.2	47.4	47.9	48.1
Urban/rural	Urban	25.9	23.6	26.4	79.3	81.3	81.2	16.9	16.0	15.5	27.2	26.7
	Rural	74.1	76.4	73.6	20.7	18.7	18.8	83.1	84.0	84.5	72.8	73.3
	Kinh	47.6	46.1	51.2	94.7	93.4	92.4	99.8	99.9	99.9	95.6	94.3
	Tay	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Thai	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Ethnicity	Muong	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Khmer	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.5	4.8
	Mong	0.3	0.2	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
	Other	50.9	52.5	47.3	5.0	6.4	7.3	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.9	0.9
	Disabled	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.2
Disability	Partially disabled	1.5	1.1	1.1	1.7	1.4	2.5	1.2	0.7	1.1	0.6	0.5
	Not disabled	98.3	98.6	98.6	98.2	98.4	97.4	98.7	99.2	98.7	99.3	99.1
Migrated	Yes	3.2	2.4	2.4	13.4	11.6	11.2	2.1	1.2	1.0	1.4	1.5
	No	96.8	97.6	97.6	86.6	88.4	88.8	97.9	98.8	99.0	98.6	98.5

Table A.2.4: Population of children aged five

		Total	Male	Female
Age	5	1469140	766312	702828
Urban/rural				
	Urban	418530	219903	198627
Ethnicity	Rural	1050610	546409	504201
	Kinh	1222103	637978	584126
	Tay	24884	12968	11916
	Thai	28436	14863	13573
	Muong	19873	10126	9747
	Khmer	20405	10427	9979
	Mong	34497	17770	16727
Disability	Other	118942	62180	56762
	Disabled	2424	1410	1014
	Partially disabled	20352	10853	9499
Migrated	Not disabled	1446365	754049	692315
	Yes	54527	28358	26169
	No	1414613	737954	676659

Table A.2.5: Population of children aged 6-10

		Total	Male	Female
Age	6	1308518	680403	628115
	7	1302865	677104	625761
	8	1423428	742083	681345
	9	1353717	705344	648373
	10	1257209	654310	602899
	Total	6645736	3459244	3186492
Urban/rural	Urban	1692883	886529	806354
	Rural	4952854	2572716	2380138
Disability	Kinh	5444656	2838680	2605976
	Tay	122277	62354	59923
	Thai	134462	69364	65098
	Muong	92775	48175	44600
	Khmer	101469	53158	48311
	Mong	160219	82394	77825
	Other	589879	305120	284758
	Disabled	12517	7208	5309
	Partially disabled	81268	45872	35396
Migrated	Not disabled	6551951	3406165	3145786
	Yes	175939	92635	83304
	No	6469797	3366609	3103188

Table A.2.6: Population of children aged 11-14

		Total	Male	Female
Age	11	1407872	735505	672368
	12	1468681	763253	705427
	13	1590014	827588	762425
	14	1598533	830530	768002
	Total	6065100	3156877	2908223
Urban/rural	Urban	1482577	772977	709599
	Rural	4582523	2383900	2198623
Ethnicity	Kinh	5007860	2608675	2399184
	Tay	121147	62277	58870
	Thai	126951	65865	61086
	Muong	91214	47438	43776
	Khmer	90756	46800	43956
	Mong	118437	61719	56718
	Other	508734	264103	244632
Disability	Disabled	14225	8065	6160
	Partially disabled	96336	51496	44840
	Not disabled	5954539	3097316	2857222
	Yes	134201	70708	63493
	No	5930899	3086169	2844730



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