#### **ABOUT THIS REPORT**

This report is the result of the collaborative efforts and partnership between the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), ASEAN Committee on Women (ACW), ASEAN Secretariat, and the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women (UN Women).

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#### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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# INTRODUCTION

Since 2021, the United Nations Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women has partnered with the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) periodically to produce the ASEAN Gender Outlook report. Following the approach of previous editions, the 2024 edition contains an analysis of each of the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) from a gender perspective. Where official SDG indicators do not provide sufficient insights for gender analysis, other measures are considered.

For each indicator, official statistics from each of the ASEAN Member States are used where available. In addition, this year's edition of the ASEAN Gender Outlook includes statistics from Timor-Leste, given the country is in the process of adhesion. As such, the regional aggregates provided in this report also include Timor-Leste except as noted. As different ASEAN Member States have different levels of gender data availability, not every country has been included in every graph. The availability and quality of microdata determine what can and cannot be inferred about inequalities in ASEAN Member States. In each case, it is only possible to assess who is being left behind if quality data exist.

This edition of the ASEAN Gender Outlook highlights new data where available, but also brings into focus the paucity of gender data and calls for greater investment in and prioritization of data collection and use to track progress towards gender equality and the achievement of the SDGs in ASEAN in line with the ASEAN framework for complementarities between the ASEAN Community Vision 2025 and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development.



An urban-rural divide persists regarding school completion rates, with women in urban areas attaining the highest levels of education

Almost 96 per cent of children in the ASEAN region complete primary education, and 85 per cent complete lower secondary education. However, only 64 per cent complete upper secondary education.<sup>17</sup> Girls are overall more likely than boys to successfully complete schooling at all levels, and the gender gaps widen at higher levels as boys, especially those in rural areas, are more likely to drop out (figures 7, 8 and 9). Besides bureaucratic and administrative obstacles, which are structural in some contexts, economic barriers, continue to be a key challenge to completing higher levels of education. Tuition and book costs, along with the cost of transportation and meals, may make it difficult for some households to keep their children in school. Importantly, the opportunity cost of attending school instead of working to earn an income or helping with farming and other household chores, is a key challenge and prevents many children from completing upper secondary education. This is particularly the case for boys, as they are likely to enter the labour market earlier than girls in the ASEAN region.<sup>18</sup>

Difficulties finding employment may also contribute to girls staying in school longer. While rural boys are more likely to find paid work in the agriculture sector or migrate to cities for construction work, many girls and young women struggle to find jobs. This may play in their favour as it encourages girls to complete secondary education, but once they graduate, many encounter difficulties to access employment opportunities. In 2023, an estimated 21.3 per cent of South-East Asian young women ages 15 to 24 were not engaged in education nor employment or training, compared to 14.0 per cent of young men.<sup>19</sup>

Investing in education remains a key priority as it can contribute substantially towards reducing school dropout. Investments are particularly needed in rural areas. At present, among ASEAN member States, Brunei Darussalam invests the largest share of gross domestic product (GDP) into education (4.1 per cent), followed by the Philippines (3.6 per cent) and Malaysia (3.5 per cent).<sup>20</sup> These investments are critical to promote safe and constructive educational environments. In 2021, an estimated 98 per cent of upper secondary education teachers in the region had the minimum required qualifications – one of the highest rates in the world.<sup>21</sup> However, large disparities are found across and within countries. While in Thailand and Viet Nam virtually every upper secondary school teacher has the necessary qualifications, in Indonesia only an estimated 39 per cent of male teachers and 36 per cent of female teachers do.<sup>22</sup> Discrepancies also exist between urban and rural areas in some countries, with less skilled rural teachers overall.

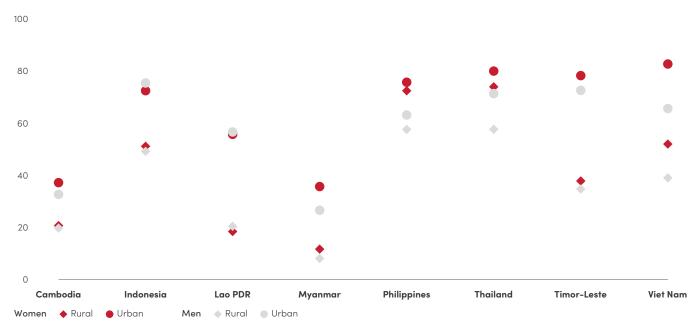
Additional barriers to learning have to do with basic facilities available in schools. Across the ASEAN region, 97 per cent of upper secondary schools have electricity, and 82 per cent have Internet access for pedagogical purposes, but only 72 per cent have computers for students. Importantly, only 68 per cent of schools have access to basic drinking water, and 70 per cent have access to basic sanitation facilities.<sup>23</sup> These infrastructural shortcomings may pose challenges for students, especially young girls, in the context of maintaining hygiene, especially during menstruation. Further investments in education across the region could provide opportunities for substantial achievements in this regard.



Who is left behind? Rural boys.

#### **FIGURE 7**

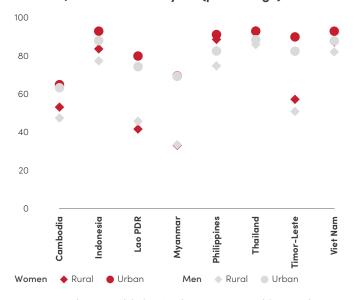
#### Upper secondary school completion rates by sex and location, latest available year (percentage)



Source: United Nations <u>Global SDG Indicators Data Portal</u> (Accessed 3 July 2024): Cambodia (2021), Indonesia (2017), Lao People's Democratic Republic (2017), Myanmar (2016), Philippines (2022), Thailand (2022), Timor-Leste (2016), Viet Nam (2021). Data with the necessary disaggregation was unavailable for the remaining countries.

#### **FIGURE 8**

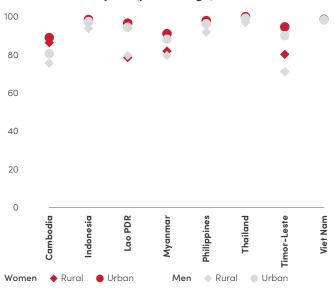
Lower secondary school completion rates by sex and location, latest available year (percentage)



**Source:** United Nations <u>Global SDG Indicators Data Portal</u> (Accessed 3 July 2024): Cambodia (2021), Indonesia (2017), Lao People's Democratic Republic (2017), Myanmar (2016), Philippines (2022), Thailand (2022), Timor-Leste (2016), Viet Nam (2021). Data with the necessary disaggregation was unavailable for the remaining countries.

#### FIGURE 9

Primary school completion rates by sex, location, latest available year (percentage)



**Source:** United Nations <u>Global SDG Indicators Data Portal</u> (Accessed 3 July 2024): Cambodia (2021), Indonesia (2017), Lao People's Democratic Republic (2017), Myanmar (2016), Philippines (2022), Thailand (2022), Timor-Leste (2016), Viet Nam (2021). Data with the necessary disaggregation was unavailable for the remaining countries.

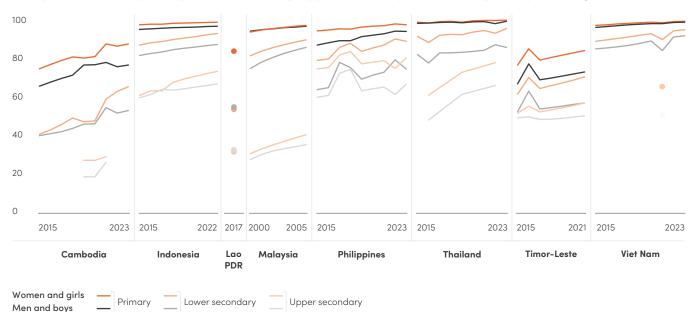


Infrastructure has played an important role in reducing adolescent birth rates in the region

Adolescent birth rates for girls age 15–19 years have decreased from 41 to 35 per 1,000 between 2015 and 2024 in South-East Asia.<sup>44</sup> Delaying the age at which young women deliver their first child is important, as it prevents them from dropping out of school, facilitates their career advancement, supports their overall health and builds their agency vis-à-vis their intimate partner. Several key factors are known to correlate with lower adolescent birth rates, including delaying the age of first marriage, access to contraceptives, affordable safe abortions and education opportunities.<sup>45</sup> The availability of infrastructure, such as schools, health facilities and transportation, enables many of these.

Across the ASEAN region, investments in infrastructure have contributed to increasing completion rates at all levels of education since 2015<sup>46</sup>. More and more young women are completing upper secondary education, a critical period for them to learn about reproductive health and build their chances of accessing better paid jobs later in life. Thailand and Viet Nam have seen the fastest increases, although all countries have seen progress (figure 34). Malaysia leads the region by far in investments in education, both in absolute terms at more than \$14 million per year and as a percentage of GDP<sup>47</sup>. The region, however, has seen a downward trend in investments over recent years, which could reverse recent gains, especially in rural areas, where the availability and quality of education infrastructure is lower. When education infrastructure is not fit for purpose, rural girls are less likely to finish school, increasing their chances of teenage pregnancy. In Viet Nam, for instance, teenage pregnancy rates in 2002 stood at 7 per cent for those who had only completed primary education but dropped to less than 1 per cent for those who completed secondary education.

#### **FIGURE 34**



Completion rate for primary, lower secondary, upper secondary education, by sex (percentage)

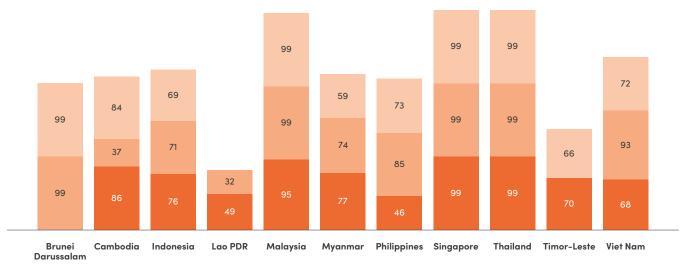
Source: United Nations <u>Global SDG Indicators Data Platform</u> (Accessed 3 July 2024). Data was unavailable for the remaining countries. For Malaysia, estimates from the Ministry of Education differ, and indicate that, in 2022, primary completion rates stood at 100 for girls and 99 for boys; while lower and upper secondary completion rates stood at 99 for both girls and boys.

In line with the availability of infrastructure, teenage pregnancy rates in rural areas were more than double the rate in urban areas. In Cambodia, 32 per cent of teenagers without education were mothers in 2022, compared to 14 per cent for those who had completed primary only, and 5 per cent for those who completed secondary; and rural girls, once again, had higher chances of getting pregnant before age 20 (7.5 per cent compared to 5.2 per cent in urban areas).<sup>48</sup> In both countries, education infrastructure in urban areas was far superior to that of rural areas.

Having a school within walkable distance that includes basic facilities such as electricity, running water and adequate toilets, encourages teenage girls to stay in school, especially during their menstruation, when basic sanitation infrastructure (that is, an improved toilet facility that is usable and single-sex), is a key prerequisite for their hygiene and safety. Across the ASEAN region, basic water infrastructure is available in almost every school in Singapore and Thailand, but only in 68 per cent of schools in Viet Nam and 49 per cent in the Lao People's Democratic Republic. In Cambodia, these facilities exist in 89 per cent of the schools in urban areas compared to 85 per cent of rural schools. Similarly, basic sanitation facilities are widely available in schools in Malaysia, but only in 32 per cent of schools in the Lao People's Democratic Republic. In Cambodis, these facilities can be and schools. In Cambodia, 42 per cent of urban schools have basic sanitation facilities, but only 36 per cent of schools in rural areas do (figure 35).

The association between infrastructure and development outcomes can be seen in figures 36 and 37, where the global human footprint is used as a proxy for infrastructural development<sup>49</sup>. A map of Cambodia shows that the degree of urbanization is negatively correlated with the adolescent birth rate (figure 36). Similar associations exist in Myanmar and Timor-Leste (figure 37).

#### **FIGURE 35**



Proportion of educational facilities (primary, secondary and tertiary education) with adequate infrastructure, by type, 2023 (percentage)

 Basic water services (improved and available)  Basic sanitation services (improved, usable and single-sex) Basic hygiene services (facility with water and soap)

Source: United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), 2024, Water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) data.



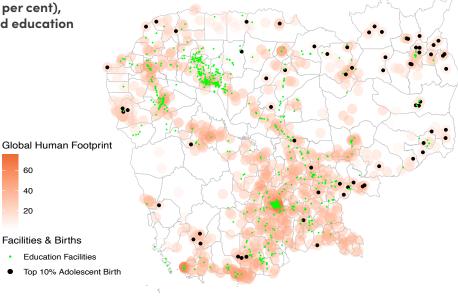
**Who is left behind?** Teenage girls in remote areas.

#### **FIGURE 36**

Geographical distribution of clusters with high adolescent birth rates (top 10 per cent), level of global human footprint, and education facilities, Cambodia

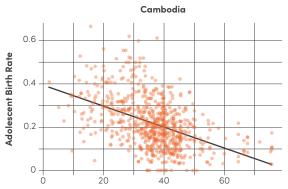
Note: The Global Human Footprint Index is the relative human influence in each terrestrial biome, expressed as a percentage and topographic basemap.

Source: DHS Cambodia (2021-2022), DHS Philippines (2022), DHS Myanmar (2015-2016), DHS Timor-Leste (2016), integrated with geospatial data from Wildlife Conservation Society (WCS), Center for International Earth Science Information Network (CIESIN) Columbia University, 2005, Last of the Wild Project, <u>Version 2</u> and United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs, 2024, Humanitarian OpenStreetMap Team (HOT).

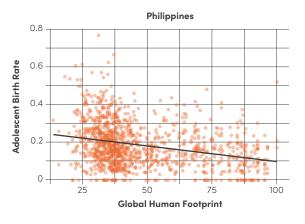


#### **FIGURE 37**

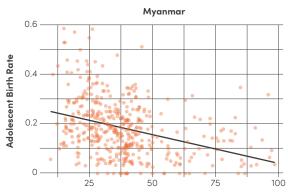
#### Association between adolescent birth rates (percentage) and global human footprint index (linear regression)



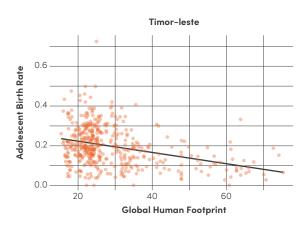




Note: See endnotes for measures of association depicted in the scatterplot.<sup>50</sup>



**Global Human Footprint** 





ASEAN is one of the world's safest regions, and gender sensitive law enforcement and security are important to preserve safety

At 1.8 victims of intentional homicide per 100,000 people, South-East Asia is one of the world's safest regions. For women, this rate stands at 0.6, compared to 2.9 for men.<sup>68</sup> The rates of other types of crimes, such as theft, fraud and drug use, also remain well below the global averages<sup>69</sup>. In recent years, however, the region has seen a worsening sense of safety among its population. When asked whether they felt less safe now than five years ago, a significant amount of people responded that they do, with women more likely than men to have a decreasing sense of safety. In Myanmar, as many as 34 per cent of women felt less safe, together with 33 per cent of men, possibly as a result of the ongoing unrest in the country. In Thailand, 33 per cent of women felt less safe, compared to 24 per cent of men, while in Malaysia, 25 per cent of women and 20 per cent of men felt less safe. In all countries except for the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Malaysia and Singapore, the poorest women were the most likely to feel less safe than before (figure 57).

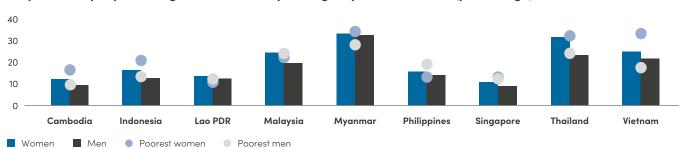
The COVID-19 pandemic, which caused economic disruptions across the region and had people fearing for their health, is a key contributor to these feelings (in Viet Nam, for instance, 63 per cent of women noted COVID-19 or health concerns were key risks). Furthermore, as a result of the global economic downturn that ensued, some people may have resorted to illicit activities to maintain their livelihoods (in Myanmar, 22 per cent of women noted crime as a concern compared to 14 per cent in the Philippines) (figure 58). During lockdowns and other periods when many people were confined to their homes, global environmental crimes such as wildlife trafficking increased.<sup>70</sup>

In the ASEAN region, which was one of the world's quickest to overcome the economic struggles associated with the pandemic, authorities were also quick to resume seizures of illegally traded wildlife. For instance, Thailand confiscates more illegally traded tigers and their parts than any other country globally (223 over a 10-year period). Malaysia seizes more pangolins (20,854 over 12 years) than any other country in Asia. A substantial amount of the world's elephant tusks seized globally (35,000 kg over four years) were destined for Viet Nam.<sup>71</sup> As the region is both a supply and demand market for wildlife parts, environmental law enforcement together with ramping up of sensitization efforts are proving critical. In Thailand's Kui Buri national park, for instance, outreach events were held to raise awareness and discourage people from poaching, after which poaching pressure was assessed through camera traps and interviews with locals, 67 per cent of whom noted a decline in poaching.<sup>72</sup> Advocacy and law enforcement interventions are essential to ensure the safety of nearby rural populations. Similar approaches are needed for other crimes, such as amphetamine and human trafficking, which are a concern in some countries in the region and may also be contributing to the decreasing sense of safety.

Furthermore, ensuring that women, including those living in rural areas, are able to contribute to law enforcement and security is essential to enhance safety within and beyond the region. Women's participation in security forces has the potential to contribute to more inclusive approaches that consider the needs and implications of security actions for women and men. When it comes to wildlife trade, women and men typically play different roles (selling versus smuggling, for instance), so having law enforcement agencies that consider these differences may prove effective. Similarly, women from the ASEAN region play important roles in sharing the region's good practices regarding safety and peacekeeping with other countries. Over the past five years, the region has increased its overall share of military experts and staff officers contributed to peacekeeping missions. In the Philippines, more than 50 per cent of these experts are women in 2024. In Thailand, this rate stands at 30 per cent (figure 59). When it comes to peacekeeping troops, women account for less than 20 per cent in all countries. In Viet Nam and Cambodia, peacekeeping troops have the region's highest representation of women (figure 60).



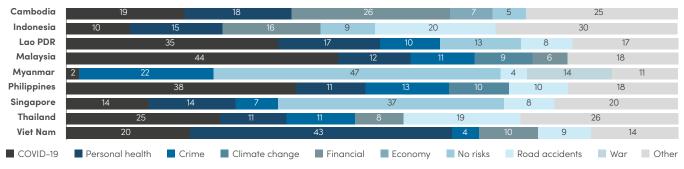
#### Proportion of people feeling less safe than 5 years ago, by sex and wealth (percentage)



Source: Lloyd's Register Foundation, 2022, 2021 World Risk Poll. Data was unavailable for the remaining countries.

#### **FIGURE 58**

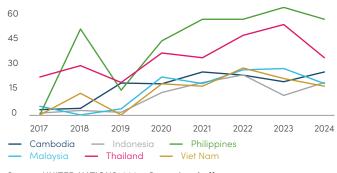
#### Great source of risk to safety in daily life identified by women (percentage)



Data source: Lloyd's Register Foundation, 2022, 2021 World Risk Poll.

#### **FIGURE 59**

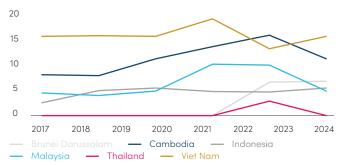
Proportion of women military experts and staff officers contributed by ASEAN Member States to peacekeeping missions (percentage)



Source: UNITED NATIONS, 2024. Operational effect and women <u>peacekeepers</u>: Addressing the gender imbalance. Data was unavailable for the remaining countries.

#### **FIGURE 60**

Proportion of women troops contributed by ASEAN Member States to peacekeeping missions (percentage)



Source: <u>United Nations Peacekeeping</u> (Accessed 30 April 2024). Data was unavailable for the remaining countries.



Who is left behind? Poorest rural women.



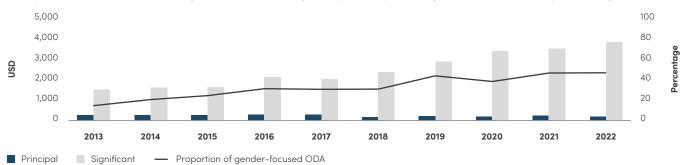
Gender-related aid flows to ASEAN countries are increasing, but allocations mainly targeting gender equality have dwindled in the past decade

Over the past decade, official development assistance (ODA) to support gender equality and women's empowerment in the ASEAN region has increased substantially, both in absolute and relative terms. An estimated 47 per cent of all ODA allocated to the region in 2022 was targeted toward advancing gender equality, up from 14 per cent in 2013. In absolute terms, this translated into \$3.8 billion for interventions that had gender equality as a significant objective in 2022, and almost \$178 million for interventions squarely targeting gender equality and women's empowerment as their principal objective. Although the increasing amount of funds allocated to gender issues overall is very welcome, the gender emphasis of ODA investments has diluted over the years. The total investment in projects targeting gender equality as a principal objective stood at \$256 million in 2013, roughly \$78 million more than in 2022 (figure 61). Compared to other countries in the region, the ODA package of the Philippines had the greatest emphasis on gender equality: 74 per cent of ODA focused on gender as either a principal or significant objective. Myanmar received the largest share of ODA for gender as a principal objective (figure 62).

These interventions have been critical to advance gender equality and women's empowerment across the region. They have supported activities to build women's agency to participate in negotiations and decision-making, to reduce their exposure to violence and, to a lesser degree, to promote the collection of gender-related data and statistics, among other initiatives. Given the ongoing crisis in Myanmar, the country has received the largest amount of allocations to women's rights organizations, movements and government institutions (almost 9.7 million United States dollars), which are working towards promoting women's empowerment and participation in decision-making and governance (figure 63). Similarly, substantial investments have been made towards eliminating violence against women (almost 9.3 million United States dollars allocated to Myanmar). In Timor-Leste, where rates of gender-based violence have remained high over the past two decades, substantial investments have been made to address this issue (almost 4.7 million United States dollars allocated to Timor-Leste) (figure 64).

#### **FIGURE 61**

Total allocations of ODA for gender equality and women's empowerment (millions of United States dollars) (left) and proportion of ODA that is gender focused (right), by principal or significant objective (percentage)

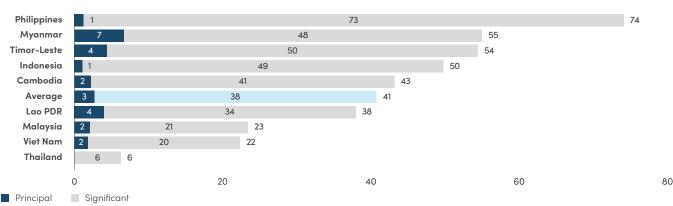


Note: The amounts for both principal and significant objective investments are based on the aggregate data from nine countries (Cambodia, Indonesia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Malaysia, Myanmar, the Philippines, Thailand, Timor-Leste and Viet Nam). Brunei Darussalam and Singapore are not ODA recipient countries. Principal objective: Gender equality is an explicit objective of the activity and fundamental to its design i.e., the activity would not have been undertaken without this objective (e.g. dedicated funding). Significant objective: Gender equality is an important, but secondary, objective of the activity; it was not the principal reason for undertaking the activity (e.g. funding that integrates/mainstreams gender equality).

Source: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Development Assistance Committee (DAC), Creditor Reporting System. (Accessed 8 July 2024).

Continuing and expanding these investments is critical to sustain the gains achieved across the ASEAN region, including on key issues such as women's participation in decision-making, poverty reduction, food security and access to digital and emerging technologies. In addition, increased investments are needed to support the genderenvironment nexus. Globally, only slightly more than 55 per cent of climate-related bilateral ODA has gender equality objectives.<sup>73</sup> In the ASEAN region, where climate change, marine degradation, forest loss and air quality remain key issues requiring urgent attention, increasing the share of climate-related ODA that advances gender equality and women's empowerment can have transformative effects. Linked to this, ramping up efforts towards supporting the collection of gender data, including on environmental issues, remains a key priority.

#### **FIGURE 62**



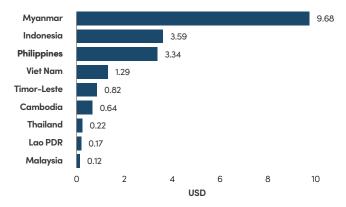
#### Proportion of gender-focused ODA as a share of total ODA, 2022 (percentage)

Note: Total ODA in this figure is from OECD-DAC donors

Source: OECD-DAC Creditor Reporting System. (Accessed 8 July 2024). Brunei Darussalam and Singapore are not aid-recipient countries.

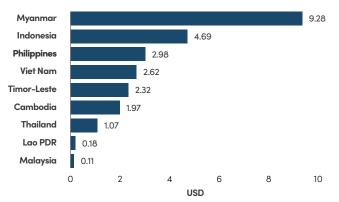
#### **FIGURE 63**

Amount of ODA allocated to women's rights organizations, movements and government institutions, 2022 (millions of United States dollars)



### FIGURE 64

Amount of ODA allocated to end violence against women and girls, 2022 (millions of United States dollars)



Note: Total ODA in this figure is from OECD-DAC donors. Source: OECD-DAC Creditor Reporting System. (Accessed 22 July 2024). Brunei Darussalam and Singapore are not aid-recipient countries. Note: Total ODA in this figure is from OECD-DAC donors. Source: OECD-DAC Creditor Reporting System. (Accessed 22 July 2024). Brunei Darussalam and Singapore are not aid-recipient countries.



## Who is left behind?

People who no longer benefit from investments that primarily target gender.

# **ENDNOTES**

- 1 Adjustments have been made to account for inflation. These figures represent adjusted USD, purchasing power parity. Source: <u>United Nations Global SDG Indicators Data Platform</u> (Accessed 6 July 2024).
- 2 UN Women and Pardee Center for International Futures, 2023, <u>Gendered analysis of the impact of climate</u> change on poverty, productivity and food insecurity: A technical report.
- 3 ASEAN, 2022, Promoting decent work and protecting informal workers.
- 4 UNDP, 2010, <u>Women's command over assets: Addressing gender inequalities</u>. Asia-Pacific Human Development Report Background Papers Series 2010/10.
- 5 ASEAN, Statistics Web Portal.
- 6 The poverty estimates showcased in this chapter may differ from those showcased in the SDG database. This is because these predictions have been made using modelling. They build on Pardee's International Futures model, which estimates poverty rates based on per capita household consumption, adjusted for inflation and purchasing power. This estimation is grounded in a log-normal distribution of household income. For the model, initial poverty rates are sourced from survey-based data provided by PovcalNet (World Bank, 2021). Variations in the Gini coefficient influence income distribution, thereby affecting the model's outputs. Household income and consumption levels are further adjusted through the economic module's dynamics. Additionally, the model employs a top-down approach to project the future impacts of climate change on poverty. This contrasts with the World Bank's 2016 approach, which utilizes bottom-up micro-simulation techniques, leading to differences in the estimates produced by IFs model and the World Bank. For a comprehensive overview of the methodology, please refer to UN Women and Pardee Center for International Futures, 2023, Gendered Analysis of the Impact of Climate Change on Poverty, Productivity, and Food Insecurity: A Technical Report.
- 7 United Nations, 2024, Global SDG report, statistical annex.
- 8 OECD. Food insecurity in Asia, no time for complacency. FAO, 2018. Regional Overview of Food security and nutrition. Available from: <u>https://openknowledge.fao.org/server/api/core/bitstreams/25a5f0d7-ae53-42b2-8c8e-d8a5ca967bea/content</u>
- 9 UNDP, 2010, <u>Women's command over assets: Addressing gender inequalities</u>. Asia-Pacific Human Development Report Background Papers Series 2010/10.
- 10 UNICEF, 2023. Undernourished and overlooked: A global nutrition crisis in adolescent births and women.
- 11 See <u>www.unicef.org/nutrition/maternal</u>.
- 12 United Nations, 2024, Global SDG report, statistical annex.
- 13 United Nations, 2024, <u>Global SDG report, statistical annex</u>. Estimates for South-East Asia have been used in lieu of ASEAN region for all estimates derived from this source.
- 14 Ibid.
- 15 Ibid.
- 16 WHO, 2023, Global report on neglected tropical diseases 2023.
- 17 United Nations, 2024, <u>Global SDG report, statistical annex</u>.
- 18 United Nations, 2024, <u>Global SDG report, statistical annex</u>. The proportion of children aged 5-17 years engaged in child labour in Eastern and South-Eastern Asia is 4.5% for girls and 7.7% for boys (SDG 8.7.1).
- 19 United Nations, 2024, Global SDG report, statistical annex.
- 20 Latest estimates pertain to 2022. World Bank, <u>Government Expenditure on Education, (% GDP)</u> (Accessed 27 May 2024).
- 21 United Nations, 2024, Global SDG report, statistical annex.
- 22 United Nations Global SDG Indicators Data Platform (Accessed 6 July 2024).
- 23 United Nations, 2024, Global SDG report, statistical annex.
- 24 Ibid.

- 25 International Parliamentary Union (IPU), 2024, Parline database (Accessed 27 May 2024).
- 26 PU, UN Women, 2023, Women in Politics: 2023.
- 27 United Nations, 2022, United Nations Population Prospects.
- 28 Philippines Demographic and Health Survey (DHS), 2022.
- 29 Cambodia DHS (2021-22), Philippines DHS (2022), Myanmar DHS (2015-16) and Timor-Leste DHS (2016).
- 30 Refers to ever-partnered women and girls age 15–49 years. United Nations, 2024, <u>Global SDG report,</u> <u>statistical annex</u>.
- 31 Author's calculations based on data for all four countries in the region with data. These aggregates must be interpreted with caution.
- 32 Indonesia, Myanmar, Philippines and Viet Nam conducted either pilot time use surveys or included select questions in other surveys, but nationally representative and comparable estimates remain unavailable.
- 33 Regional aggregates for 2015 are derived from the closest available country estimates for that year. Estimates for each country are obtained from the <u>Global SDG Indicators Data Platform</u>.
- 34 Regional aggregates for 2015 and 2023 are derived from the closest available country estimates for that year. Estimates for each country are obtained from the <u>Global SDG Indicators Data Platform</u>.
- 35 Refers to STEM graduates from tertiary education (university or similar). Aggregate was calculated utilizing latest available data point for each country, which varied between 2016 and 2019. As such, these shares are expected to be slightly higher at present. According to the available data, Malaysia and Brunei Darussalam are the only countries where there are more female than male graduates in this field. Source: <u>World Bank Gender Data portal</u> (Accessed 6 July 2024)
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- 41 The aggregate refers to South-East Asia as the closest regional aggregate for the ASEAN region.
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- 45 Past studies have shown that education is strongly correlated with lower adolescent birth rates. Women in rural areas are more likely to have higher adolescent birth rates due to limited access to educational resources, particularly in sexual health education (See <u>Hamilton et al., 2016</u>). Also, low income, low parental education, and disadvantaged neighbourhoods significantly contribute to higher teen birth rates (See <u>Penman-Aguilar et al., 2013</u>).
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Adolescent birth	(1) Cambodia	(2) Myanmar	(3) Philippines	(4) Timor-Leste
Global_Human_Footprint	-0.005***	-0.002***	-0.002***	-0.003***
	(0.122)	(0.0003)	(0.0002)	(0.0004)
Constant	0.394***	0.273***	0.265***	0.279***
	(-0.013)	(0.013)	(0.008)	(0.012)
R-squared	0.219	0.124	0.08	0.11
Observations	700	441	1,185	455
Adj. R-squared	0.218	0.122	0.08	0.11
Residual Std. Error	0.104 (df = 698)	0.108 (df = 439)	0.111 (df = 1183)	0.095 (df = 453)
F Statistic	195.491*** (df = 1; 698)	61.887*** (df = 1; 439)	102.731*** (df = 1; 1183)	57.763*** (df = 1; 453)
Standard errors in parentheses *** $p < 0.01$ , ** $p < 0.05$ , * $p < 0.1$				

Standard errors in parentheses \*\*\* p<0.01, \*\* p<0.05, \* p<0.1

Source: Cambodia DHS (2021–22), Myanmar DHS (2015–16), Philippines DHS (2022), Timor-Leste DHS (2016). Data was unavailable for the remaining countries.

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