Gender equality in education: a select annotated bibliography

Prepared for the Education Division, Department for International Development (DFID)

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CONTENTS

I. Overview 1

1. Aims of the bibliography 1
2. Introduction 1
3. Themes of the bibliography 2
4. Information gaps 6
5. Summary 7
6. Consultation process 8

II. Annotated bibliography 9

1. Factors contributing to the gender gap in formal education 9
2. Formal education and women’s empowerment 18
3. Curriculum reform and the learning environment 21
4. Gender and maths, science and technology 26
5. Teacher education and school management 31
6. Non-formal education, adult literacy and informal training 34
7. Government and donor approaches to mainstreaming gender in education 41
8. Guidelines for monitoring and evaluation of gender and education 48
9. Examples of good practice and lessons learned 51

III. Further resources 57

1. Web resources 57
2. Series’ 60
3. Videos 61

Author index 62
I. **Overview**

1. **Aims of the bibliography**

BRIDGE was commissioned by the Education Division of the Department for International Development (DFID) to produce this bibliography on gender equality in education. The objective was to produce a practical and useful document to support DFID education advisers and those responsible for the implementation of education programmes and projects, to strive towards removing gender gaps in education by the year 2005.

- To incorporate material that spans the breadth of the gender and education agenda in developing countries. Where possible, materials were drawn upon which interpret education as a process that enables women to participate fully and equitably in society, and which provide policy recommendations towards achieving this goal. Without this, education will contribute little to reducing global poverty or increasing human development.
- To provide a synthesis of recent material in relation to various aspects of gender and education, with the specific aim of drawing out lessons learned and policy recommendations.
- To offer insights into new thinking on gender equality and education, by including topics broader in scope than solely basic education, such as school curriculum, teacher training, school management and the learning environment.
- To cover publications that address the role and content of non-formal education and training for women, approaches to gender mainstreaming and monitoring and evaluation.
- To provide supporting resources information, including websites, of networks and databases related to gender and education. With information growing so fast, it is a key resource for those who need to keep abreast with progress in this rapidly evolving field.

2. **Introduction**

At the 1990 World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien, Thailand, major problems facing primary education in developing countries were highlighted. In particular, progress towards increased access to school, improved quality and narrowing the gender disparity in enrolment at all levels was being hindered by several factors. These included the rising costs of education, high population growth rates, poor survival rates in school, inadequate planning and monitoring and decreasing allocation of national budgets towards education. The Conference set targets and objectives for achieving universal access to, and completion of, basic education by the year 2000, and a reduction in adult illiteracy by half by the year 2000, with emphasis on female literacy to significantly reduce the current disparity between male and female illiteracy rates. Since Jomtien, primary education has been a priority amongst governments and international agencies, mainly due to its perceived role in reducing poverty. In particular, increasing girls’ access to education has been a major policy goal. This is not only a reflection of the very stark gender disparities that exist in literacy rates and school enrolment and completion rates.

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1 This bibliography was researched and written by BRIDGE, Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex. The overview was written by Louise Hulton and Pauline Rose. Advisory support for this bibliography was provided by Pauline Rose and Nicola Swainson. Editing by Samantha Hung and editorial support from Hazel Reeves. The Further Resources section was compiled by Catherine Brown.
rates, but also partly reflects recognition of the benefits of education to the individual woman, her family and the community.

Research has shown, for example, that primary education is important for the improvement of economic and agricultural productivity. In addition, education, particularly of girls, has been found to be highly correlated with improvements in health, as well as reductions in fertility, infant mortality and morbidity rates. Education can empower women to play a greater role in decision-making, as an individual woman within her family, as well as at community and society level. The widely held belief that investment in girls’ and women’s education will result in broader development gains has inspired sponsorship of research on gender and education by international donor agencies over the decade. Given the low levels of enrolment and wide gender gaps in educational opportunities that exist in many Sub-Saharan African (SSA) countries, SSA has received high levels of support for their education sectors from donors keen to tackle the poverty agenda. In addition, the focus on SSA is also a reflection of the important role played by the Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE) in promoting issues related to gender and education in the region.

Despite this emphasis, evidence presented at the World Education Forum in Dakar in April 2000 indicated that, a decade later, progress towards achieving universal primary education targets was mixed. While there were some notable successes in parts of the Middle East and South Asia, on the whole targets were not met and, in some countries in SSA, population growth exceeded the increase in educational opportunities. As a result, one in six people in the world can neither read or write and over a fifth of children do not benefit from primary education - formal or otherwise. Two thirds of these children are girls. Even where children are enrolled in school evidence suggests that the quality of that education is far from optimal. Children may attend but still not achieve literacy (Hyde and Miske 2000, [52]). Consequently, the targets have been shifted, with the aim of achieving universal primary education of both boys and girls by 2015, and eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005. DFID’s International Development Targets support this commitment, placing emphasis on the need to ensure progress towards gender equality and the empowerment of women in order to eliminate gender disparities by 2005.

Most research efforts in the area of gender and education have focused on explaining the patterns of gender inequality and causes of gender gaps in education. In line with achieving goals of universal primary education by 2015, many donor agencies have been concerned with improving the access of girls to education. There is now an increasing awareness, however, of the importance of a need to address more qualitative issues that affect the outcomes of girls’ and women’s education, such as the relevance and gender bias of curriculum and assessment methods, teacher training and school management. Furthermore, there is recognition that education is more than simply becoming literate. In order to eliminate gender disparities successfully, education needs to empower girls and women, rather than replicate the inequitable power structures that exist in society as a whole.

3. Themes of the bibliography

The bibliography covers nine major themes. The themes were selected from the consultation process with DFID education advisors in the field, and in response to direct requests for information by the DFID education department. The material is located under the most relevant theme heading, although some documents cover more than one of the themes listed. Authors are
listed alphabetically at the back of the bibliography. Users can skim the bibliography thematically or look for work by author/s.

The themes are as follows:

1) Factors contributing to the gender gap in formal education
2) Formal education and women's empowerment
3) Curriculum reform and the learning environment
4) Gender and mathematics, science and technology
5) Teacher education and school management
6) Non-formal education, adult literacy and informal training
7) Government and donor approaches to mainstreaming in gender and education
8) Guidelines for monitoring and evaluation of gender and education
9) Examples of good practice and lessons learned

A brief commentary for each theme is outlined below.

**Factors contributing to the gender gap in formal education**

Literature on factors contributing to the gender gap in formal education refers to the challenges that limit girls’ access to, and achievement in education, relative to boys. Obstacles to this include high direct and opportunity costs of sending girls to school, as well as cultural and social barriers to their inclusion in formal education. In addition, the school environment itself is often found to be intimidating for girls. However, the relative importance of different factors is context-specific (Brock and Cammish 1998, [2]; Colclough et al. 2000, [3]; Logan and Beoku-Betts 1996, [7]; Swainson 1996, [10]; UNICEF 1999, [11]). Furthermore, drop-out through pregnancy is shown to be particularly important in some societies (Meekers and Ahmed 1999, [8]), and sexual harassment can also constrain girls’ continued participation and achievement in school (Leach and Machakanja 2000, [6]). These problems persist throughout the education system, with gender disparities even more stark at higher levels of education (Hyde 1998, [4]).

The majority of the literature available in this field is based on evidence from Sub-Saharan Africa and focuses on the disadvantage faced by girls in relation to schooling. While similar evidence is available in the context of South Asia, research on the Caribbean indicates that there is a need also to address the problems faced by boys (Kutnick et al. 1997, [5]). The literature identifies feasible strategies for addressing identified constraints, including recommendations arising from experience of existing projects. In particular, the literature highlights the need for a holistic approach to addressing gender issues in relation to education (Bendera 1999, [1]; Swainson 1996, [10]; UNICEF 1999, [11]).

**Formal education and women’s empowerment**

The broad message coming from research available is that schooling alone is not enough. The content and context of education is key to empowering women. In addition, broader cultural and social change is needed if educated women are to fully participate in the political, economic and social structures that influence their lives (Jayaweera 1997, [12]; Kumar and Vlassoff 1997, [13]; Longwe 1998, [14]).

**Curriculum reform and the learning environment**

The curriculum and the learning environment are also found to influence girls’ access and participation within schools, and their ability to learn in a secure environment. The available
evidence clearly indicates that programmes aiming to increase gender equity need to address the
structure and content of schooling to ensure it provides an enabling environment for girls’
inclusion and achievement in school. In particular, sensitivity of teachers in relation to their
interactions with girls and boys in the classroom can play a crucial role in providing girls with
the confidence to achieve their full potential at school (Brenner 1998, [15]; Maimbolwa-
Sinyangwe and Chilangwa 1995, [19]; Wamahi 1996, [22]). There is also a need to ensure that
school textbooks do not reinforce gender stereotypes evident in society more generally (Joshi
and Anderson 1994, 17]; Kabira and Masinjila 1997, [18]). Furthermore, one particular aspect of
the curriculum that deserves attention in many countries is how sex education is addressed,
particularly in circumstances where the impact of HIV/AIDS is on the increase, as is evident in
many SSA countries (Hyde 1999, [16]). Methodological issues are highlighted, in particular in
relation to the need for more in-depth qualitative and participatory approaches to ensure that
gender issues in educational processes are appropriately understood (Miske and Van Belle-
Prouty 1997, [20]; Sey 1997, [21]).

**Gender and mathematics, science and technology**

Given the gender imbalances in mathematics, science and technology, they deserve specific
attention. Factors affecting girls’ poor representation in mathematics, science and technology
courses, and their under-achievement in these areas, are examined, in particular in relation to
educational, social and cultural processes, and policy recommendations (Erossa 1996, [24];
FEMSA 1998, [25]). A specific example is provided on mathematics in schools, indicating how
it tends to be biased towards boys rather than acknowledging the ways in which girls and
women traditionally use mathematical concepts in their work (Harris 1999, [26]). Innovations
that can improve women's lives are also examined, including time saving devices or
technologies that improve productivity and efficiency (Commonwealth Secretariat 2000, [23]).
Growing attention is being focused on opportunities and challenges that women face within the
new information technology society. While information technology provides considerable
potential for women’s empowerment, a number of obstacles need to be overcome, including in
relation to women’s low levels of educational attainment which can hinder their use.
Recommendations are provided for action to encourage greater gender equality in this important
area (Karelse and Sylla 2000, [27]; Rathgeber 2000, [28]).

**Teacher education and school management**

Gender issues related to teacher education and school management highlight the possibility that
policy attempting to influence the intake, training, retention and progression of teachers is likely
to impact on male teachers and female teachers differently, and that this needs to be considered
when policy is formulated (Croft 2000, [29]). Sales (1999, [31]) provides a useful case study
from the Aga Khan Education Service, which examines strategies aimed at improving the
professional development and training of women teachers. Finally, Gaynor (1997, [30])
identifies priority issues such as the supply, deployment and career development of women
teachers. She draws lessons from promising interventions and provides some useful
recommendations.

**Non-formal education, adult literacy and informal training**

Given that so many adult women are illiterate, there is a need for non-formal education, adult
literacy and informal training to provide opportunities for those who have been excluded from
the formal school system. Adult literacy programmes can play an important role in societies
where females are traditionally excluded from economic, political and social arenas (Hussain
However, there is a need to understand existing literacy practices, and ensure that adult literacy programmes overcome stereotypical attitudes towards women’s knowledge and skills, and that they are designed around women’s existing practices, for example in relation to their role in income-generating activities (Rogers 1997, [39]; Robinson-Pant 2000, [38]; Yates 1997, [41]). ActionAid’s REFLECT approach provides an innovative example of addressing gender issues through adult literacy, using participatory methods (Cottingham et al. 1998, [33]). What is clear from Gugnani and Dikshit (1991, [34]) and Sandiford et al. (1995, [40]) is that adult literacy has an important role to play in enhancing women’s self-image, as well as in improving child health and survival. Non-formal primary education also plays an important role, although specific attention to gender-sensitivity of its delivery is also needed, as experience from BRAC indicates (Abrioux 1998, [32]; Rahman 1998, [37]). Leach (1999, [36]) meanwhile indicates the importance of training women with practical skills for employment and self-employment, and highlights the urgent need for policy-related research and evaluation of the most effective strategies to achieve this.

**Government and donor approaches to mainstreaming**

Government and donor approaches to mainstreaming deserve particular attention. Problems in donor agency approaches to addressing gender in education include lack of potential for sustainability of the programmes, and failure to address ways in which education systems need to be adapted to address gender inequities evident in society more generally (Leach 2000, [42]; Stromquist 1994, [45]). Furthermore, although governments in a number of countries are showing a commitment to addressing gender constraints in education by establishing posts for gender officers, they are often excluded from the mainstream planning process due to a lack of technical and financial capacity (Stromquist 1998, [46]). OECD/DAC (1998, [43]) provides some examples of donor agency efforts in mainstreaming gender equality into their work on education.

A lesson learnt is that there is considerable potential for gender issues to be mainstreamed into educational policies and planning through the use of sector-wide approaches (SWAs). Literature providing successful examples of this is limited at present. However, the report by Sibbons et al. (2000, [44]) provides a comprehensive evaluation of the extent to which gender equality objectives have been incorporated into the mainstream of SWAs in the education sector of three countries: Ghana, India and Uganda. The report identifies practical guidelines to ensure good practice in mainstreaming gender equality into the planning and implementation of education SWAs. Finally, Wazir (2000, [48]) discusses the important role that NGOs can play in educational delivery. Suggestions of ways in which NGOs could be successfully integrated into the mainstream educational process are provided, through coordination with international donors and national governments.

**Guidelines for monitoring and evaluation of gender and education**

A number of recommendations from the above themes relate to the need for high quality, sex-disaggregated data. Three key publications are available which provide practical guidelines for the collection, analysis and presentation of educational data to ensure successful monitoring and evaluation of gender and education. The report by UNESCO (1997, [51]) is designed for those concerned with monitoring development in education and in the reduction of gender disparities. The manual is essentially concerned with quantitative data, while CIDA (1996, [49]) includes a section devoted to both quantitative and qualitative indicators in education. Leo-Rhynie (1999, [50]) also provides practical guidelines and tools for governments and other stakeholders devoted to gender mainstreaming in education.
Examples of good practice and lessons learned

The final section represents examples of good practice and lessons learned from previous experience in terms of designing and implementing strategies aimed at eliminating gender disparities in education. This is arguably the most important material in the bibliography for education advisers and policy-makers. Unfortunately, there are relatively few good evaluations of such strategies, or publicly available documents devoted to examples of good practice. Hyde and Miske (2000, [52]) provides an extremely useful analysis of progress made since Jomtien in relation to girls’ education, and factors that have contributed to the success as a result of an increased focus on the issues. However, the authors note that major challenges remain and that political will and enhanced partnerships are crucial to ensure the achievement of international targets related to eliminating gender disparities in education. USAID's More but not yet better report (O’Gara et al. 1999, [56]) provides a comprehensive analysis of efforts in relation to gender and education since 1990, including lessons learned from their projects and recommendations for future work in the area. If readers only have time to read two inclusions in the bibliography they are strongly recommended to focus on these two!

Swainson (2000, [47]) provides an insightful review of gender policies in education in Malawi, Tanzania and Zimbabwe, suggesting that progress has been slower than hoped due to a number of factors, including insufficient dialogue between donors and governments. She makes a number of important recommendations for the improvement of the design and implementation of such policies in the future. More specifically, Kim et al. (1999, [54]) provide examples of World Bank-supported scholarship programmes in Pakistan, indicating the potential for success for increasing girls’ enrolment, and some of the problems associated with them, including the effect they might have on boys’ enrolment. Sibbons (1998, [55]) reviews the mixed experience of raising gender-awareness in a secondary education project in Nepal, particularly through training and workshops. This highlights the need to ensure gender-awareness among government officials and international advisors, which may be lacking. Finally, Kane et al. (1998, [53]) provide examples of ways in which participatory methods could help to improve the design of education policy, in particular to ensure that girls’ voices are heard.

4. Information gaps

Despite an extensive consultation process and thorough review of available information sources, a number of gaps in the literature are evident. Although there is increasing recognition of a need to address issues beyond educational access, this literature continues to dominate. However, a more recent shift to examining broader issues in relation to gender and education is becoming evident. Materials in some key areas were found to be limited, notably in relation to gender and curriculum reform and forms of assessment. There was also relatively limited gender-specific material devoted to teacher training and school management and community participation. However, more general texts often contain some information on the gender aspects of these issues. Furthermore, the impact of HIV/AIDS is a key challenge to programmes and projects devoted to increasing girls’ access to education and providing quality education. Literature addressing the importance of including sex education within the curriculum as a means of reducing transmission does exist. However, very little rigorous information is available addressing the wider impact of HIV/AIDS on the provision of education, in particular in relation
to the retention of girls in school, and the strain on already stretched educational systems that will result following the death of large numbers of trained staff.²

Existing literature reflects the assumption that education starts at primary level, despite the fact that by the time a child reaches primary school age, essential foundations are already established. Essential broadening of the definition of basic education to include early childhood education in families, communities, creches and kindergartens, was stated and committed to at both Jomtien in 1990 and Dakar in 2000. Yet little is known about gender issues in early childhood education and socialisation. No entries were identified for this bibliography, therefore there is a need for future research in this area.

Finally, the process of implementing a project, evaluating its success, writing up findings and recommendations and disseminating material is necessarily lengthy. As a result much of what is still to learn about the process of integrating gender into education projects and programmes is not yet available. This is reflected in the fewer than desired examples of good practice and lessons learned.

5. Summary

It is evident that donors and governments recognise gender as a priority issue in education, and have placed an increased emphasis on understanding and addressing gender constraints. It is clear that, since 1990, the initial focus on access to education has widened as a result of the widespread recognition that access is only part of the key to human development. Quality education has been given increased priority, although consensus appears to be lacking among donor agencies and government ministries as to what exactly quality entails. As programmes and projects progress over time, and lessons learned over the last decade become evident and are strategically integrated into future initiatives, the possibility of achieving international targets in education becomes more realistic. The bibliography highlights that there is an ever-growing literature on issues related to gender and education although, given the relative youth of many of the initiatives in this area, these are only now reaching a stage at which their progress can be reviewed. As O’Gara et al. (1999, [56]) notes, it is not realistic to evaluate fully the sustainability and impact of programmes aimed at increasing girls’ access to quality education at this still early stage in a complex process.

However, there is no room for complacency. Political will, vision and the need for sufficient and appropriate resources stand out as key to gender equity in education. Despite the considerable attention that has been paid to gender and education, there is a danger of donor and government fatigue as other priorities come on to the agenda and shift the focus to other issues. Given the complex interplay of gender in all aspects of the education system, a continued and reinforced commitment is essential to ensure that gender disparities in education are eliminated. It is hoped that this bibliography will be a useful resource for those faced with the difficult task of incorporating gender considerations into all aspects of their work on education.

² The DFID-sponsored study currently being undertaken by Paul Bennell, Karin Hyde and Nicola Swainson examining the impact of HIV/AIDS on education in SSA will help to shed some light on these issues.
6. Consultation process

The content of the bibliography in part reflects the outcome of an extensive consultation process that was undertaken in advance of the selection of material. The consultation had two main aims. The first was to assess the needs of education advisers within DFID and others in this field. The second was to tap into the expertise of individuals and organisations working on gender and education research and policy. The outcome of these two consultations provided a broad picture of the information needs of those working in gender and education policy and practice, as well as recommendations of case studies, reports and policy reviews that might be included. The final selection of material was an iterative process, drawing on the expertise of various individuals. In reality, there is a great deal of general material on education in the context of developing countries. It was more difficult to locate high quality and relevant studies devoted specifically to gender and education. In some cases, similar issues were discussed in a range of publications. In such situations, the most relevant material was selected to avoid duplication.

In addition to the consultation process an extensive review of library catalogues, gender databases and donor literature was undertaken. Libraries at the Institute of Development Studies (University of Sussex) and the Institute for Education (University of London) hold key resources. ELDIS and ID21 provide extremely useful tools for searching for relevant materials available on the internet (see ‘Further resources’ section).

A number of institutions and individuals were extremely helpful in identifying priority areas to assist with the selection of relevant materials. In particular, we would like to thank Mairead Dunne (University of Sussex Institute of Education), Marc Friedrich (Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex), Karin Hyde, Fiona Leach (University of Sussex Institute of Education), Emma Bell and Erin Murphy Graham (BRIDGE, Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex), Anna Robinson-Pant (University of East Anglia), Ramya Subrahmanian (Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex), Nicola Swainson, Elaine Unterhalter (Institute of Education, University of London) and Caroline Winter (World Bank). We are also grateful for the advice and feedback from DFID on the process, in particular from Louise Banham, Jonathon Baxter, Hazel Bines, Phil Evans, Barbara Payne, Eric Woods, Michael Ward and Shona Wynd.
II. Annotated bibliography

1. Factors contributing to the gender gap in formal education


Tanzania’s efforts to address issues affecting girls in education are reviewed in this chapter. Three broad headings are used: (i) the impact of economic and social factors on girls’ education; (ii) interventions by government and other organisations on gender and education; and, (iii) the extent to which women and girls have been empowered by, rather than being mere ‘objects’ of interventions. It argues that the continued economic crisis and structural adjustment programme are undermining efforts toward the realisation of gender equality in primary schools. The reintroduction of school fees has affected parents’ ability to meet the costs of education, but this has hit girls’ participation more than boys’ through the practice of male-preference. A variety of Tanzanian institutions are attempting to address such gender issues in education, including the Ministry of Education and Culture, which has been involved in a number of gender initiatives, including the setting-up of a gender unit to coordinate, monitor and conduct research into such issues. The debate on girls’ education has been led by female academics at the University of Dar es Salaam, who have drawn national attention to issues such as the need to strengthen girls’ participation in science and mathematics. Gender inequalities are economically ‘inefficient’ in education, as educated girls are more likely to enter the labour force and contribute to the national economy. Women’s increasing involvement in the informal sector gives them more financial power within the household, and in turn greater influence over decision-making around education, particularly for their daughters. Issues relating to girls’ education therefore need to be put in the context of society as a whole, rather than narrowly conceived as sector specific.


The social, economic, religious and other factors influencing the extent of female participation in formal educational institutions in seven developing countries – Bangladesh, Cameroon, India, Jamaica, Sierra Leone, Vanuatu and the Seychelles – are examined in this report. It aims to inform future project design, with a view to increasing the levels of female participation in countries where it lags behind that of males. Nine inter-related factors that affect female participation are identified and include:

- Geographical location of the school (may adversely affect girls’ access more than boys).
- Socio-cultural factors that reflect patriarchal (male-dominated) ideas, e.g. early marriage and girls’ heavier domestic and subsistence workload.
- Religious factors (indirect but overall positive effect on female participation in education).
- Education factors such as lack of resources, low teacher quality and morale, lack of female primary teachers in rural areas and gender bias in teaching materials.

The following range of policies to address the problem are recommended:

- Increase support to non-governmental organisations (NGOs) involved in non-formal primary education projects which positively discriminate in favour of girls.
• Eliminate gender bias (e.g. stereotypical images of females and males) from textbooks and other learning materials.
• Pursue projects to raise male awareness of the economic benefits to families and communities of increased participation of girls and women in educational and income-generating activities.


The roles of poverty and ‘adverse cultural practice’ in perpetuating the gender gap in educational participation evident in many developing countries are explored in this paper. It is argued that while there is large variation in total school enrolment rates between developing countries, this is not fully explained by differing levels of development. The paper seeks to discover whether country variations in terms of the gender gap have the same cause as variations in total enrolments, or whether these two phenomena have different causes that interact. For example, if differences in girls’ and boys’ access and school achievement were caused primarily by poverty, the gender gap would be expected to disappear as a country’s developmental state improved. If, however, variation in the gender gap and total enrolments across countries were caused by factors other than poverty, each problem would require its own set of policy interventions. A simple model to unpack the relationships between poverty, schooling and gender inequality is used. Drawing from case studies in Ethiopia and Guinea, it is found that a wide variety of cultural practices negatively affect girls’ educational participation, relative to boys’. These work at household, school, market and state levels and include early marriage of girls, household gendered division of labour limiting girls’ available time, and how the expected gender roles for girls of ‘wife and mother’ are not seen as being enhanced by education. As incomes (national and household) rise so will total enrolment, and gender gaps will eventually be reduced. Without specific interventions to address adverse cultural practices, however, the gender gap will persist for longer, and qualitative inequities in school outcomes between girls and boys are likely to remain.


Africa continues to have the lowest overall levels of tertiary education enrolment and the lowest proportion of female tertiary enrolment. However there has been a significant rise in female enrolment since 1980. However, increased numbers of female faculty members and administrators has not risen at an equal pace with female enrolment. Women are choosing not to pursue higher education careers because tertiary environments can be unsupportive or even hostile towards them. This paper directly addresses some of the important factors that impact upon the participation of women in the tertiary sector and provides useful case studies from institutions in Sub-Saharan Africa to support women on campus. It examines the reasons why females should be better represented in all areas and outlines the Forum for African Women Educationalists’ (FAWE) strategy for promoting such participation.

Although educational disparities between boys and girls start much earlier than at tertiary level, increased involvement and respect for women in tertiary education will help to enhance participation of women as students, teachers, researchers and administrators, and improve the
tertiary environment. The FAWE strategy is based around three principles of policy and research, strengthening of leadership and capacity building, and supporting networking for promoting female participation. Women’s representation in higher education was examined around five specific areas: access; participation; pedagogy (the theory of teaching); administration and management; and networks. These are considered crucial points of intervention for policy-makers and educationalists.

Main findings for each area include:

**Access**
- Women tertiary students mainly come from privileged homes (in terms of education and income). The cost of tertiary education contributes to women’s lower student representation, and they are less likely to be able to repay loans due to their relatively lower earning power after graduation.
- Competition for scholarships is high, and high grades needed often disadvantage girls who frequently have lower academic performance than boys.
- Accommodation is a serious issue for female students to ensure their physical safety.

**Participation**
- Male and female students are predominantly enrolled in subject areas considered traditionally suitable for their sex.
- Sexual harassment limits opportunities for women to participate and, in some extreme cases, has grown to such levels where even security guards have raped female students.

**Pedagogy**
- Tertiary students are increasingly graduating without marketable qualifications and often have to be trained further before they are employable.
- Financial and staffing restraints are compromising the quality of tertiary education provided.

**Administration and management**
- The advertising, the interviewing process and labour conditions after recruitment tend to disadvantage women (e.g. favouritism and nepotism (preference for relatives), questions asked in interviews, availability of maternity leave).

**Networks and linkages**
- Institutions acting alone have a lesser impact on increasing female participation, and many women are already connected with an organisation of some kind.

The following interventions are recommended:

**Access**
- Explore strategies for expanding the number of qualified women from which higher education institutions can select students, teachers and administrators. This can be done through the careful use of affirmative action policies (promotion and prioritisation of one group of applicants over others), or by increasing the gender-sensitivity of scholarships and loans (e.g. quotas for females, loan counselling and guidance, broader range of subject areas, wider publication of availability).
- Adapt tertiary environments to make women and men feel comfortable in them, e.g. provision of security, procedures to report harassment.
- Establish and maintain a system of collecting meaningful disaggregated information that tracks career paths and options for women and men.
Participation

- Encourage women and men to enrol in courses that are not traditionally considered ‘female’ or ‘male’ subjects respectively.
- Institution must take a strong stand against sexual harassment and enforce laws against offenders.

Pedagogy

- Pay attention to maintaining relevance (i.e. courses that teach knowledge and skills that can be used in the labour market with minimal further training and orientation) and quality (particularly the quality of the teaching, courses and the degree itself) for effective tertiary courses.

Administration and management

- Establish and maintain clear and transparent systems of recruitment that reward work and merit rather than being based on favouritism and unfair opportunities.

Networks and Linkages

- Enter strategic partnerships with organisations which have similar objectives to facilitate an increase in the levels of female students and administrators.
- Form alliances between campus and civil society to promote the participation of women and link their struggle to gender issues in the wider community.


Reasons why girls in the Caribbean do better at school than boys, when in most other developing countries the reverse is true, are addressed in this report. It examines the relationship between pupils’ sex and school achievement in Barbados, St Vincent and Trinidad. Quantitative surveys were used to assess gender differences in school achievement across the three islands. These were supported by qualitative case studies to provide insights into classroom processes, interaction, and how success is encouraged. Caribbean countries have good (if not universal) access to primary education and a large proportion of the population has access to post-primary schooling. It is argued that variation in school achievement among these countries is explained largely by the socio-economic status of parents. A clear secondary factor, however, is sex of the pupil: in all three countries girls consistently out-performed boys in both primary and secondary schools across social classes, in most subjects and across various types of stratified schools. Boys have few positive role models and have a higher secondary school drop-out rate than girls. Father’s absence, poor quality of education, and lack of help with homework may be critical in the educational experience of boys. Within schools case studies showed practices that could overcome or magnify these distinctions in attainment (between sexes and between children of different parental occupations). The formal and competitive atmosphere within classrooms in non-prestigious schools encouraged high achievers and discouraged lower achievers (mainly boys); whereas the culture of prestigious schools overcame gender and class differences among pupils. Educators should look to school placement and activities within the classroom as arenas that may be used to enhance boys’ attainment, knowing that societal attitudes, and parental behaviour, will affect achievement as well.
Adolescent girls in four schools studied in Zimbabwe frequently encountered both sexual and non-sexual forms of abuse. In the coeducational (both boy and girl pupils) schools studied, this abuse took the form of aggressive sexual behaviour, intimidation and physical assault by older boys; sexual advances by male teachers; and physical punishment and verbal abuse by both female and male teachers (on boys as well as girls). In the all-girls’ secondary school, verbal abuse of girls by teachers was common. Girls were also subject to sexual advances in the proximity of the schools, in particular from so-called ‘sugar daddies’ (older men who seek to lure girls into sexual relationships with money or gifts). Such behaviour went unchecked and was considered ‘normal’ within the schools, suggesting that violence within the schools had become ‘institutionalised’, and mirrored patterns of behaviour which exist in society. Abusive behaviour towards girls in school needs to be seen in the context of how society gives power to men over women, and addressed as part of a movement to raise the status of women as equal citizens, to ensure that abusers are prosecuted.

The study took place in three coeducational junior secondary schools and one all-girls’ secondary school during 1998-1999, representing rural, semi-urban, and urban areas. Findings were based on in-depth interviews with 112 girls, mostly aged 13-15, supplemented by interviews with boys, teachers and head teachers, parents and some government officials.

It was found that:

- Sexually abusive behaviour towards girl pupils was widespread in coeducational schools, the perpetrators being both older male pupils and male teachers. Both groups often used money and gifts to attract the girls.
- Sexually abusive behaviour towards girls was seen by pupils and teachers as an inevitable part of school life, reflecting the pattern of male/female behaviour at home and in society generally. Lack of action to punish offenders (by school leadership or the Ministry) reinforced this perception.
- Verbal abuse was used by almost all teachers (male and female) and used more frequently towards girls than boys. Physical punishment was widely used against girls (despite it being banned) in coeducational schools.
- Girls were exposed to abusive behaviour by male strangers on their way to and from school, in the form of propositions or sometimes assaults.
- ‘Sugar daddies’ are known often to frequent areas near the schools.
- Family poverty, widespread breakdown of the traditional family, and peer pressure all made girls particularly vulnerable to abuse, by being easily tempted to accept money from male pupils, teachers or ‘sugar daddies’.
- Girls did not view school as a secure and comfortable place in which to live and learn, and participated less in class to avoid unwanted attention from male teachers. Their movement around the school was restricted by fear of being bothered by older boys.
- The recently introduced subject of Guidance and Counselling has been ineffective in teaching girls about personal and sexual development, due to a lack of trust in teachers, and ineffective teacher training. Girls remain ignorant about puberty and sexuality.
- Boys expressed alarmingly negative and biased opinions about girls.

Recommendations emerging from pupil and teacher workshops and supplemented by suggestions from school heads and Ministry officials, include:
• Take steps to change the school culture of violence and complacency by enforcing effective disciplinary measures against teachers and pupils who are abusive.
• The Ministry should enforce rules on the use of physical punishment, monitor its use and make school heads responsible for injuries suffered by pupils and complaints by parents.
• Create a more friendly, supportive and positive environment in schools to build trust between girl pupils and teachers, encourage girls’ personal development and better understanding between boys and girls, e.g. individual guidance and counselling for girls, effective and participatory Guidance and Counselling lessons.
• Encourage school-based initiatives focusing on awareness-raising amongst staff and students about the seriousness of abuse (as an unlawful act) and identification of reporting strategies for victims (e.g. participatory workshops in schools run by NGOs experienced in working with abused women).
• Develop national and regional initiatives to address issues surrounding school-based abuse, including an action plan for targeting schools.
• Support civil society organisations in lobbying and advocacy work to bring abuse to the forefront of government policy agenda in the field of education and health.
• Provide funding for additional research into the effects of abuse on girls’ learning and achievement.
• Investigate and address the abuse of boys in schools, and the bullying of girls by girls.


Women’s participation in the educational systems in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) are examined in this article. It uses both economic and sociological perspectives, and seeks to substantiate the widely held belief that gender inequalities permeate these educational systems and rectify the lack of systematic analyses to support such ideas to date. Social and cultural factors are identified and analysed under three headings: (i) policy factors which result from government interventions in education; (ii) educational quality factors (curriculum, teacher attitudes and expectations, textbooks and teaching/learning materials); and (iii) cultural and societal expectations of gender roles. It is found that gender inequality is prevalent in women’s education across middle and low income countries in SSA, but this is not due solely to the reduction in social welfare expenditures as a result of structural adjustment programmes, as is often asserted. Instead, economic factors may only have an indirect effect, which exacerbates the gender bias in women’s educational participation caused, to a varying extent, by socio-cultural context. In other words, it is the interaction between economic and socio-cultural factors that causes the gender gap. Any improvement in women’s educational participation has to be accompanied by a change in socio-cultural values and perceptions. Policy recommendations to achieve this objective fall under four headings: school requirements; teacher training; career guidance; and, parental and community participation.


High rates of pregnancy-related school drop-outs are a feature of many Sub-Saharan African countries. In some regions of Botswana, half of all schoolgirl drop-outs are caused by pregnancy. This is due to a combination of school policies that require the expulsion of pregnant girls and the difficulty of combining motherhood with formal education. Becoming
pregnant while at school has important long-term negative socio-economic impacts on young women, the community and ultimately the national economy. Avoiding pregnancy while at school, and ensuring that girls who do become pregnant while at school continue to attend, is therefore a key area requiring attention. The paper represents a study of national data from the Botswana Family Health Survey together with focus group interviews, providing a picture of the prevalence of pregnancy related school drop-outs, identifying some key factors that affect levels of pregnancy and factors that help young mothers return to school.

In Botswana extensive male labour migration to South Africa and high male death rates mean that a large proportion of women live in female-headed households. The welfare of these families in particular is partly dependent on women’s level of education, as this is closely linked to the likelihood of her employment in formal wage employment. Pregnancy is one of the main reasons female students are prevented from achieving their desired level of education. Ten per cent of female students in Botswana will drop out as a result of pregnancy before completing primary school. Over 25 per cent drop out before completing junior secondary school and 40 per cent before completing senior secondary school. Use of contraceptives at first intercourse is the most important factor associated with reducing pregnancy-related drop-outs, as sexual activity starts at a relatively early age. Over seven per cent of girls have experienced sexual intercourse before the age of fifteen. Primary and secondary schoolgirls who used contraceptives when they became sexually active are only half as likely as other girls to drop out of school as a result of pregnancy. This clearly illustrates that far from perpetuating the problem of schoolgirl pregnancy, knowledge of family planning actually reduces the risk of a girl becoming pregnant.

In Botswana few girls who drop out from school as a result of a pregnancy return. Legally they are not allowed to reapply for readmission to school until their child is one, and they are not allowed to return to their former school. Parental support and availability of parental resources appears to be crucial in enabling girls to return to school. Despite being excluded from school for at least one year, girls who did return to school were quite successful, and most completed either primary, junior secondary or senior secondary school.

It is therefore recommended that policy-makers and educationalists concentrate not only on reducing the level of schoolgirl pregnancy but also on policies that encourage and facilitate the return of those who have dropped out due to pregnancy.


70 percent of girls in Ghana enrol in basic education, as opposed to 84 percent of boys, and at higher educational levels, even fewer girls are represented. This gender discrepancy is mirrored in the female to male ratio in the composition of the teaching force. Drawing from life history interviews with female teachers and girls in Ghana, this research identifies problems and solutions to girls’ access to education at three levels (the home, economy and school). It argues that cultural dimensions should be incorporated into educational development, research methodology, and interventions to address gender inequality in schooling. Culture is defined in this article as ‘knowledge and ideas that give meaning to beliefs and actions, and the tools which evaluate actions’. Culture has significant influence on the existence of gender gaps in education, how they are investigated, and how interventions should be designed.

Main cultural dimensions affecting girls’ education were identified as:
• Kinship (social interaction of family relationships), descent (family roots, parental lineage) and extended families in girls’ home lives has implications for their schooling e.g. young rural female relatives are often fostered out as maids and carers of younger children, girls’ duties include water and wood collection.

• Families expect children to acquire six core values (godliness, respect, honour, hospitality, gratitude and national pride), which may lead them to question what is taught at school e.g. parents’ belief that longer-term education increases the likelihood of girls losing their virginity and rebelling.

• Increased out-migration of men from rural areas has made it more difficult for female-headed households to educate daughters.

• The introduction of school fees has made parents more critical of the cost-benefit of girl’s education when they can contribute to family income, placing more pressure on girls to achieve high. Dropping-out of school can be caused by the levying of even very low costs.

• The quality of school environments play a large part in encouraging girls to stay in school, yet lessons are typically teacher-centred, content-driven, passive (e.g. students copy into a book), and memory-based, with minimal interaction or flexibility for individual student needs.

• Teachers perceive their lack of respect and status to be a greater problem than the learning outcomes of their students.

Recommendations to better incorporate the above cultural factors into education policy include:

• Pay particular attention to development of non-formal education provision for girls working as domestic servants and girls with heavy workloads.

• Increase attention to core family values (e.g. respect for elders) when developing child-centred teaching methodologies.

• Increase flexibility of school timetables and re-evaluate vocational training options for girl children, drawing from the creative ways girls currently juggle the relationship between work and school.

• Re-examine the supports available for poor families to send girls to school e.g. provision of safety nets.

• Extend the concept of protecting the ‘girl child’ to the ‘girl child at risk’ so as to acknowledge her vulnerability to processes which lead to school dropout.

• Increase attention to the ‘culture of the classroom’ and the limitations presented by teacher attitudes, style and methodology.

• Give more importance to the educational experiences of children in school and solutions provided by them.

• Improve the position of teachers through better conditions of service and development of professional practices within schools.


The literature on what causes gender inequalities in education, as well as on policy and interventions designed to address factors influencing girls’ participation in Malawi, Zambia and Zimbabwe is reviewed in this report. Information and analyses to facilitate the design and implementation of interventions in order to improve girls’ educational outcomes in these countries is provided. International evidence concerning the benefits of female education and the nature and extent of gender disparities in the Southern Africa region are examined, and main
factors which underlie these gender inequalities identified. Selected strategies to promote the education of girls and women in Africa are evaluated for their effectiveness, and promising initiatives highlighted. Due to the social and economic benefits of female education, donor agencies are increasingly regarding primary education as a ‘good investment’, both generally and from a gender perspective. Although it is important that the ‘efficiency’ benefits of female education are recognised, it is essential that education is also seen as a basic human right. Rather than being the ‘objects’ of policy, women themselves should become empowered through being part of the process of social and political change.


Efforts of the international community to provide a high quality education for all children as a human right are reported on in this annual publication, which includes a section on gender and education in the first chapter. It states that “girls’ right to a high quality education is often denied, even to those who reach the classroom”. The curricula (both official and hidden) can transmit messages that girls are less important than boys. Male and female teachers alike may favour boys in terms of praise, attention, and providing opportunities for leadership. Gender-sensitive learning and teaching also needs to tackle problems relating to the physical environment of schools, such as lack of school places, or appropriate sanitary facilities. Although there is global concern over girls’ lack of access to quality education, in some regions boys’ enrolment is lower than girls’, and their drop out rates higher. This is the case in Lesotho and Mongolia, where traditionally boys tend the herds, and also in the Caribbean where girls stay in school longer and significantly out-perform boys at primary and secondary levels. Policy recommendations to promote girls’ education and enhance the quality of teaching and learning for all children include:

- Recruit female teachers and sensitise teachers to gender and child rights.
- Eliminate gender-biased images and examples in textbooks and learning materials.
- Involve parents and communities in achieving gender sensitivity in education.
2. Formal education and women’s empowerment


The assumption that education automatically leads to women’s empowerment is questioned in this paper. Data from the 1995 United Nations Human Development Report (UNHDR) and findings from select country studies are used to explore the relationship between education and economic, political and social empowerment in Asia. Two groups of countries are examined: those with relatively high female literacy and primary school enrolment but less even access and use of secondary and tertiary education (e.g. Hong Kong, Singapore, Thailand, Malaysia, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, Indonesia, China, Korea); and those with low rates of female literacy and enrolment at all levels (e.g. India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Afghanistan, Cambodia). Women’s increased education does not lead to a corresponding equivalent increase in UNHDR indicators of women’s empowerment. Education alone is inadequate to counter the economic and social constraints that perpetuate gender inequalities. Yet excluding females from education works to reinforce their disadvantage and unequal power to men in society.

Despite different levels of educational attainment between the two groups of countries, gender roles, stereotypes and assumptions are ingrained in educational materials and school environments of both groups. A relationship is not evident between educational attainment and female economic activity or women’s share of earned income. Nor is there any clear trend between women’s representation in leadership and educational levels of women in the countries examined. The under-representation of women in technology and technical-related jobs is a clear outcome of society’s gendered perception of appropriate employment, which does not channel women into such training. The current status of education throughout Asia continues to build upon, rather than break down barriers to women’s economic empowerment, by directing women into traditionally female jobs with relatively lower earning power than traditionally male jobs, even in countries where female literacy is high.

Gender relations within the family tend to improve with higher levels of education. Yet many university educated women in South Asian countries have internalised negative gender traditions (e.g. dowry, virginity tests and domestic violence) as ‘normal’, and accept such gender inequality within their marriages and families. The situation is no more encouraging in the field of political participation. Countries with high levels of female literacy and educational attainment (e.g. Korea) have equally low levels of female political participation as those of low-income countries (e.g. Pakistan, Nepal). This suggests that political participation of women does not necessarily flow on from increased levels of literacy, education, or income.

Class and gender continue to determine women’s opportunities and occupational mobility. Women are not a homogeneous group and women with equivalent levels of education but from different social groups display very different patterns of employment. Women from higher socio-economic groups are able to move upwards in the labour market, while women from poorer backgrounds are limited to low pay and low skill jobs. Evidence also shows that men continue to experience higher upward mobility in the job market than women who have equivalent educational qualifications.

It is widely recognised that female education is associated with declining fertility levels. However there is growing evidence that this association is not direct but complex. This paper draws data from two previous studies conducted in rural villages in the North and West of India that explore the relationship between female education and fertility. It argues that studies have been unable to establish a relationship, and challenges the often held assumption that increasing female education automatically leads to social changes such as a reduction in gender disparities and an increase in the use of modern contraceptives.

Reasons for the absence of a relationship between female education and fertility decline relate to the content and quality of education and the everyday circumstances of women’s lives. The content of education in study villages is of little relevance to advancing the status of rural girls and women. Although the content may be relevant to their daily lives, with the bulk of adult literacy classes focused on stereotypical female issues of housework, childcare and family planning, it does not challenge their gender roles but reinforces the norm of women as housewives and mothers. Educational content does not help women understand or question their disadvantaged position relative to men, or the male-dominated social, political and economic systems that restrict them. Unsupportive parents, excessive domestic responsibilities, uncommitted teachers and poor infrastructure further hamper girls’ opportunities.

A range of cultural beliefs and practices in these two communities maintain and promote the gender status quo, e.g. ghungat (covering of the face in the presence of non-related men or male family members older than one’s husband). Women have little control over contraception available in the villages (mainly female sterilisation) as it is only generally used after they have borne the desired number of children, especially sons. As long as prevailing gender relations go unchallenged, women’s education alone will do little to alter gender relations, and economic opportunities for women will remain limited. Education (e.g. literacy campaigns) can act to change social trends (e.g. fertility) if it is implemented with an accompanying long-term commitment to transforming gender relations (e.g. women have greater control over decisions relating to childbearing).


Empowerment of women is broadly defined as being concerned with collective action to overcome gender inequality. A narrower definition of women’s empowerment - that of individual self-reliance – does not incorporate broader political and ideological dimensions of women’s advancement. This article identifies the main elements of a programme of education for women’s empowerment with these different definitions in mind. It does so by contrasting education necessary to ensure women’s empowerment broadly defined with ‘schooling for subordination’ (process of educating women to accept entrenched gender-based discrimination in customs, law and society). For education and training to empower women it needs to reverse the values and beliefs which have been embedded within the conventional school system. Increased schooling will not automatically bring about women’s advancement, as is commonly-believed. There is little evidence that women’s lack of formal schooling is a factor in women’s lower socio-economic status and subordinate position in the political arena. Zambia is used to illustrate this point.
Will women with schooling and training begin their own independent movement to challenge the male dominance of the political system? Far from having this effect, schools are institutions grounded in the values and rules of a male-dominated society in the business of schooling for subordination. Schools teach girls to accept the ‘naturalness’ of male domination and therefore produce women who are self-reliant rather than empowered. Through their very structures and processes, prevailing patriarchal authority (male leadership) is established and internalised as normal. It is important to explore current systems of ‘schooling’ girls and training women that may actually contribute to their continued subordination rather than empower them, particularly in the context of planning educational reform. Education alone will not empower girls and women as long as the content and context of the educational system perpetuates current gender relations. Interventions therefore need to consider reforms that challenge the power structures within current educational system as well as extending access to women. Such interventions include radical forms of gender training which ask participants to view the world differently by identifying gender inequalities which they previously thought were ‘normal’ and regard them as morally unacceptable, then form collective action to end such discrimination.

In order to educate for empowerment, schooling and training should:

- Teach participants to work collectively rather than as individuals.
- Encourage students to question achievement of gender equity in social and political environments and the continued need for change.
- Guide learners to look for political interests of leaders and male-dominated society that are behind what is usually regarded as ‘normal’ gender norms.
- Facilitate recognition that policies for gender equality command direct political opposition and that public institutions may not be working in the interest of female public.
- Develop strategies for working in the context of political confrontation and to counter bureaucratic resistance to gender equality policies.
3. Curriculum reform and the learning environment


A framework for examining gender differences in classroom settings and interaction is developed in this article. Data from ethnographic research conducted in a selected sample of urban and rural elementary schools in Western Liberia is analysed to examine how educational innovations impact on girls and boys in different ways. As in many other African countries, girls have higher drop out rates than boys, and women have lower rates of literacy. Although patterns of classroom interaction in Africa have not been the subject of much research, evidence points to the possibility of important gender differences in behaviour in Liberia. Classroom interaction is significantly different from interaction at home for all participants, but social organisation of schools requires girls to make a bigger adjustment. Male and female teachers tending to sit in separate groups at break-time, lunch and assembly demonstrate this. Boys and girls sitting in separate areas in the classroom, and playing in separate groups during break-time echo this. Girls are in a minority from the first grade in rural areas and from the second grade in urban areas. In addition, most teachers are male. Girls are particularly reluctant to speak in class, and this increases as they progressed up the grades. Socio-cultural norms of appropriate behaviour placed greater demands on girls than boys. For example, traditional Vai culture requires women to cover their thighs. The physical education uniform, however, is shorts and a T-shirt for both boys and girls, which resulted in a high degree of absenteeism amongst girls on physical education day each week.


By the end of 1998 the World Health Organisation (WHO) announced that the number of people infected with HIV/AIDS worldwide was over 33 million. All of the 15 countries that ranked highest in HIV prevalence are in Sub-Saharan Africa, where 50 per cent of those infected are under the age of 25. Not only are girls and young women suffering the impact of HIV/AIDS disproportionately, but the goal of universal primary education is significantly threatened. An estimated minimum of 25 per cent of personnel in sectors like education is expected to die within the next 10 years. This paper highlights the need for those working within the field of education, specifically the Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE), to recognise the impact that HIV/AIDS is having on the objective of promoting the education of girls and women. Key facts about HIV/AIDS, answers to commonly asked questions, and details and contact information about a range of projects, services, activities and resources by and for women in Africa are included in the appendices.

Gender dimensions of the impact of HIV/AIDS which disadvantage women include: their greater physiological risk of infection; stigmatising of female sex workers as carriers of the disease; economic dependence on men that makes them less able to negotiate safe sex; economic decline that has forced many women to sell their bodies for resources; and emotional and physical burdens of women’s role as carers for the sick. Younger women are particularly vulnerable as they have more sexual partners, they are increasingly subject to coerced sexual activity, and older men are increasingly seeking younger girls in the mistaken belief that they are less likely to be HIV-positive.
Compelling reasons for providing compulsory sexuality education to adolescents and pre-adolescents in schools include:

- Infection rates among women aged 15 to 24 are double that of men, therefore classrooms provide a captive audience of the correct target age.
- The threat of AIDS has created a need to teach radically different attitudes to sexual behaviour in order to avoid infection.
- A significant proportion of children are sexually active by their mid-teens and less likely to use condoms, and adolescents are alarmingly ignorant about basic biological reproduction facts.
- Most parents are unprepared and hindered by custom, knowledge and embarrassment to provide such information to their children.

Successful school-based sexual education programmes include interventions to help delay first sexual intercourse, protect sexually active youth from sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) (including HIV) and pregnancy, and take into account the reality that young people’s sexual health is informed by a wide range of sources.

The following strategies are proposed for FAWE Programme Areas and organisations working with gender and education:

- Strengthen FAWE membership and affiliates, e.g. provide training materials on HIV/AIDS for National Chapters, particularly in areas such as sexual negotiation.
- Strategic resource planning, e.g. encourage the collection of HIV/AIDS-related data and school-specific mortality/morbidity rates.
- Strengthen female leadership at the tertiary level, e.g. encourage FAWE university members to conduct research on the impact of AIDS education.
- Experiment and demonstrate, e.g. develop and disseminate model curriculum on sex and HIV/AIDS education (in collaboration with partners such as UNICEF).
- Advocate and disseminate information, e.g. actively promote sex education.
- Build and strengthen networks for change, e.g. mobilise governments and other stakeholders towards policy change in education, health, employment and law that acknowledge the impact of the pandemic.


The considerable attention given to educational opportunities for girls and women in Nepal by the international donor community is acknowledged in this paper, but it argues that despite numerous policy documents and proposals, few real strategies address issues of implementation. It focuses on gender inequality in textbooks and school organisation in Nepalese primary schools. Textbook analysis confirmed that pictures of males and females, proper nouns, common nouns, and pronouns, and examples used, all reflect and reinforce this male-dominated society. Mathematics books were particularly male-oriented. Factors to do with school organisation, classroom interaction, and teacher behaviour also perpetuate gender bias against girls, such as girls sitting at the back of the classroom, girls lining up behind boys outside the classroom, and women teaching lower grades and ‘softer’ subjects. Short and long-term implementation strategies to overcome the gender bias in primary textbooks and school organisation include:
• Introduce guidelines for textbook writers to facilitate the production of non-sexist educational materials.
• Provide in-service gender sensitisation programmes for primary school teachers.
• Introduce an initial teacher education course unit on equality of opportunity education.
• Sensitise male-dominated community organisations to the importance of education for girls.


Commissioned by the Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE) to raise awareness of policy-makers, curriculum developers, textbook writers, and teachers to the dangers of a gender-blind curriculum, this handbook provides a simple gender guide for reviewing and analysing textbooks, and other educational resources. It also goes beyond the official curriculum to consider gender dimensions of the ‘hidden curriculum’, extra-curricula activities and resources, and space utilisation. The framework uses both quantitative and qualitative methods to explain the gender map of curricula, and the possible implications for the learner. Research has shown that school textbooks are often biased in their portrayal and perpetuation of gender roles and relationships. Apart from learning the technical aspects of the subject content, children will pick up implicit gendered messages from the text about what people do, how they relate to one another, and how the world is constructed. In this way, textbooks serve as socialising agents. It follows that in any written, visualised, or spoken text a gendered vision of the world is presented. For example, if in a text girls are consistently shown as helping parents in the home with little visibility of boys in the same roles, it is probable that learners would take this as representing the desirable norm. The effect can be to constrain both girls’ and boys’ considered options.


Evidence that girls in Zambian primary schools perform relatively poorly compared to boys is investigated in this research report. Qualitative techniques are used to examine how girls and boys interact with teachers and each other in the classroom, and the perceptions of teachers and parents about girls’ and boys’ learning processes. Besides what happens in the classroom, other school practices, out of school activities, and situations perceived to influence girls’ progress at school are also looked at. In general, at Grade 6 primary level, girls have less interaction with teachers compared to boys, particularly in rural areas. Often boys were invited to answer questions without putting up their hands, while girls with their hands up were ignored. Teachers attributed girls’ lack of verbal interaction in the classroom to fear of being ridiculed due to difficulty in expressing themselves in English (the official language of instruction). Classroom participation among younger girls at Grade 4 primary level, however, was greater than that of boys’. This indicates that girls’ level of classroom interaction declines as they progress to upper primary levels. Pupils were given school duties based on their sex: girls were assigned to tasks such as sweeping classrooms and cleaning toilets, while boys were expected to pick up papers and water gardens. Girls were harassed by their male peers and even threatened for performing better than boys in class. Policy recommendations from the above include:

• Reward teachers for producing high achiever girls and boys.
• Stream subjects on the basis of sex.
• Develop guidelines on what constitutes sexual harassment and corresponding penalties.


How the quality of formal education can be improved to encourage girls’ participation in the context of the African, male-centred, coeducational classroom is examined in this paper. It reviews the findings from qualitative research conducted mostly in Africa, and considers the impact of the nature of classroom interactions, teacher attitudes and expectations, assigned tasks and responsibilities, and school organisation, on girls’ education. This is in contrast to the more quantitative, economic-focused research which has dominated policy formulation on girls’ education. Findings give the impression of ‘an environment of discouragement’. It is argued, however, that the insights provided can be used to inform policy design to develop ‘an environment of encouragement’ for girls, and enhance quality teaching and learning for all children. A gender-based approach to education policy planning and implementation (GAP) is proposed. Key characteristics of the GAP include: (i) collection and analysis of qualitative classroom and school-based data; (ii) using pedagogical-focused (teaching theory) data to design and implement policy at all levels of the education system; and (iii) active participation of teachers, administrators, parents, and community members in decision-making processes. Programmes that have incorporated elements of the GAP in Guinea, Egypt, and Malawi are described.


Findings of a pilot study of classroom observations and participatory learning for action activities (COPLAA) undertaken in four Malawian primary schools are presented in this report. The study looked at girls’ classroom experiences using adapted classroom ethnography and Participatory Learning and Action research techniques, and was designed to assist teachers in classroom evaluations. It compares girls’ and boys’ perceptions of their classroom experiences, and their interactions. Exercises were also conducted to elicit teachers’ attitudes towards student learning and performance. It was found that pupils of both sexes have negative views of women teachers. Girls come to school 45 minutes earlier than boys in order to complete their school chores. School furniture affects girls’ participation in class (e.g. girls are reluctant to sit on the floor because of the risk of personal exposure, and teachers disinclined to ask girls questions because they take so long to adjust their dresses when they stand up). Participatory methodologies can be used with great success by teachers in the classroom, and can help identify that teachers themselves are sometimes part of the problem affecting girls’ participation.


Male-biased, or patriarchal, ideas and practices found in the home and in schools are identified in this chapter as key factors in the construction and reproduction of gender inequality in formal education in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA). These ideas and practices, in relation to education
processes, can be described as the ‘pedagogy of difference’. This culture of difference is examined in the pre-colonial, colonial and post-colonial periods, drawing primarily on the Kenyan context. Despite the rich socio-cultural and historical diversity across SSA, difference can be found in all countries, influencing how boys and girls are differently exposed to and treated in the education systems. Difference is transmitted not only through textbooks and teaching and learning materials, but also by teachers themselves, many of who replicate the male-dominant ideas to which they have been exposed. Unless we are to replace this culture of difference with a ‘pedagogy of empowerment’, the gender gap in African education will continue to widen. Commitment is required from all stakeholders - policy-makers, curriculum developers, educators, textbook publishers and writers, parents, girls and boys - to bring about attitudinal and structural change.
4. Gender and mathematics, science and technology


In 1999, the second pan-Commonwealth workshop addressing ways of improving the socio-economic conditions of landless rural and urban poor women was held in Dhaka, Bangladesh. The workshop focused on how to empower and tackle poverty amongst target groups through the development of models and guidelines for functional non-formal education (NFE). In relation to the use of science and technology. Non-formal education is ‘functional’ when designed to equip students with basic skills to increase employment opportunities (e.g. income generation skills, training in processing of raw materials, how to organise production for increased productivity, market and credit activities). The importance of empowering women with literacy and productive skills, and how non-formal education can boost women’s productivity through the use of technology in the absence of access to formal education is highlighted.

Technology in this context refers to the range of skills and knowledge that can be applied to production, in addition to technological equipment. Landless rural and poor women face serious difficulties in meeting their basic needs and that of their families. Lack of job opportunities, commercialisation of agriculture and unequal access to land in rural areas force many women (and men) to migrate to cities. Yet those who migrate are often illiterate, poor, and vulnerable. Improving women’s knowledge and use of appropriate technologies in critical (e.g. tray dryers for cashew nuts in Sri Lanka), especially as women are increasingly significant earners of family income for a large number of urban and rural households. Functional non-formal education, with access to and use of technology, can build the capacity of women to adapt to technological change, apply new skills to their daily production, and introduce time and labour-saving devices. It also has a more important role of assisting women fight negative attitudes and values that keep them dominated, and dependent on a society that favours men.

This publication is based on workshop outcomes. It contains lesson units, for use by facilitators of NFE training, containing models and guidelines on training materials, concepts and methods to improve knowledge and skills by access to and use of technologies. Practical country examples (Bangladesh, Fiji, India, Kenya, Namibia, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Tanzania, Uganda) and case studies illustrate how technology can be introduced and adapted, in relation to deeply entrenched gender inequality, and barriers to improving the status of women.

Workshop participants made the following main recommendations:

- Bias policies in favour of rural landless women and urban poor women through technology training before implementation of NFE programmes.
- Orient education policy towards women’s equality, with particular emphasis on NFE, and credit policy to poor women.
- Incorporate the costs and financing of NFE centres into national budgets, through the education ministry, NGOs and community-based organisations. Ultimate NFE responsibility must lie with governments.
- Decentralise planning processes to be increasingly based on analysis of data collected through participatory methods, drawing on women’s participation.
- Incorporate technology into NFE programmes, with emphasis on appropriateness, skill development for market, entrepreneurial opportunity, and evaluation of impact. Provide
adequate training for NFE organisers, facilitators and managers with access to and use of technology.

- Share positive experiences on functional NFE with other developing countries.
- Emphasise functional aspects of programmes and provide appropriate skills training during delivery. Assess needs of target group before implementing a programme, with reference to culture, market and non-market activities, social and gender structures and relations.
- Provide a forum for various stakeholders to discuss common NFE procedures and implementation to build partnerships with common goals.


The male over-representation in science and technology activities and professional careers in Mexico is generally believed to be the result of boys’ greater suitability to this type of work. This belief is challenged in this paper. It seeks to understand whether social and cultural influences inhibit the science and technology skills and attitudes of girls. The process by which such skills and attitudes are developed was studied in a 5th Grade mixed student group in Mexico City. Under similar socio-economic and educational conditions, girls aged between 11 and 12 have developed greater science and technology skills and abilities than boys in the same age group. This suggests that girls’ choice of not pursuing university, preference for ‘soft-subjects’ (non-technical) and avoidance of science and technology generally, has little to do with ability. Educational, social and cultural processes reinforce traditional female roles and the perception that men have a natural ability for science and technology. Equal opportunity for women requires recognition of their scientific and technological potential from childhood. It is recommended that this study is replicated to include a wider sample, other countries, and possibly a cross-cultural perspective. The conclusions need to be used as a basis for educational policies oriented to women’s science and technology career development.


The underachievement of girls relative to boys in science, mathematics and technology (SMT) subjects is commonplace in many African countries, and becomes particularly apparent at the upper primary level. This booklet focuses on the influence of girls’ attitudes on their performance in these subjects. It argues that girls’ participation and performance in SMT is affected by how they see these subjects in relation to their current and future roles, by the attitudes of other students (especially male peers), and by the attitudes of teachers, parents and the wider community. Reasons underlying these attitudes and how they inter-relate are explored in order to facilitate the design of appropriate interventions to address the problem. Data from Cameroon, Ghana, Tanzania and Uganda from a pilot phase of a project is used to improve the participation and performance of girls in SMT subjects in primary and secondary schools. It was found that teachers have a negative perception towards girls’ participation in these subjects, which manifested itself in the way they treated female pupils during SMT lessons. This was apparent in the kinds of questions asked of girls, the degree of interaction with girls in the classroom, and the nature of the practical exercises and visual aids used. Parents have different
attitudes towards sons’ and daughters’ participation in SMT subjects, preferring girls to take
subjects seen as relevant for their future roles as wives and mothers. Boys themselves do not see
girls as suited to what they consider to be the more difficult learning tasks involved in SMT
subjects and tend to monopolise equipment, dominate discussions and actively discourage girls’
participation.

Policy recommendations include:

- Introduce activities to raise the profile of women in SMT-based professions in the eyes of
  the community.
- Sensitise boys and girls to the capabilities of female students.
- Gender-sensitise teachers through training.
- Provide scholarships as incentives to girls who do well in SMT subjects
- Assign more female teachers to teach SMT subjects at the upper primary level.

Little (eds), Education, Cultures and Economics: Dilemmas for Development, London:
Falmer Press: 315-25

Mathematics carries prestige in education, due to its unique position in economics and society
and the high status that it holds in daily life. Historically maths has been assumed to be a
masculine activity despite the fact that women have always undertaken jobs that require them to
be numerate. Only about 30 years ago was the belief challenged that girls and women cannot do
mathematics. Research has since changed from assumptions that females are naturally unable to
handle mathematics, to attempts to understand the social conditions that lead to their lower
mathematical achievements. This paper explores the social nature of mathematics. Contrary to
the public image of mathematics as objective and neutral, this paper argues that it is in fact
socially formed, and the teaching of mathematics needs to be reshaped to empower learners, and
use concepts relevant to their real lives. There is huge potential for collaboration between
women’s development and maths education projects, yet they are initiated and supported
through separate avenues.

Mathematical skills acquired through needlework are seldom accredited. Often parallel courses
for men (carpentry and motor mechanics) and women (needlework) are run but the teaching of
mathematics is usually only explicit and sometimes accredited in carpentry and motor mechanic
courses. One barrier to change is that aid funding does not generally encourage the crossing of
traditional boundaries. Reform is needed to allow the accreditation of projects that combine
gender and development, textile skills and mathematics. Partnership between mathematics
education and women’s development would allow for new positive initiatives for economic and
education development drawing from traditional female cultural activities. Problems of
translating this into practice in women’s development often results from limited resources of
women’s groups, lack of support from international academia, and the craft-focus of teaching
staff in donor-funded textile projects. Even where the teaching of numerical skills is included, it
tends to use a traditional approach.

The accepted masculinity of mathematics and the accepted femininity of needlework as
intellectual opposites were challenged in 1980 by the ‘Common Threads’ tour of 23 countries.
This carried the main message that traditional women’s work has always incorporated
mathematics. This message was aimed at women’s development projects through which many
women are taught textiles as a means to improve economic independence. If needlework
involves mathematical activity, then it should be possible to point out, teach, develop and give due credit to the inherent mathematics involved.


The range of skills that citizens need to be able to participate fully in the information society is examined in this chapter. It highlights reasons why women, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa, have unequal access despite the many potential benefits. It reviews the range of skills and education that women require in order to bridge these gaps and recommends ways to address gender imbalances in this field. The fundamental obstacle to African women’s participation in the information society is their lack of educational opportunities. Additional factors include: lack of female representation in decision-making positions; lack of women’s employment in technical fields; English being the dominant language of information and communications technology (ICTs) with women less likely to have a working ability in English; and women’s relatively low levels of access to computer literacy courses. The type of information needed, how accessible it is, whether it is gender-sensitive, and the availability, adaptability and user-friendliness may also pose barriers to women’s use of information system technologies. Like any tool, ICTs need to be managed carefully or they could work to subordinate and marginalise African women further, unless steps are taken to recognise their specific needs and overcome the obstacles that prevent their full and equal participation in the information society.

To take advantage of the ICT revolution African women need training in the following:

- Development of information systems and how to use them to gain access to information and disseminate knowledge.
- Appropriate skills to enable them to influence decision-making.
- Preparation for entry into senior management, and training to enable them to integrate women’s concerns into policy and act as role models for girls.
- Basic technical skills, e.g. keyboarding, emailing, searching and networking.
- Needs identification and how to locate, use, evaluate, process and generate information.

The following is recommended:

- Take into account women’s time and availability when designing training programmes to ensure access.
- Introduce ICTs into organisations and locations where women are involved so that ICTs become an accessible part of their lives.
- Help women understand and articulate their information problems and needs as well as access information training.
- Telecentres (places which facilitate and encourage the provision of public and private information-based resources, e.g. internet access, and which support local development) need to consider women’s access and cater for their needs.
- Draw from gender and culturally sensitive approaches and support materials to develop new initiatives.
- Tackle the more difficult task of developing a critical-learning and information culture (where receivers analyse the value of information) in addition to advancing women’s technical expertise, to enable women to critically evaluate information sources and ICTs as tools to advance social causes through training.
• Ensure women are equipped through training to occupy decision-making positions and to inform policy.
• Undertake gender audits to identify women’s different positions and information needs, and to highlight the positions women occupy in the information industry.
• Provide more information technology support workers to work with women’s groups.


The current state of the telecommunications sector in Africa is examined in this paper and it is argued that future development of this sector needs to ensure that social and gender issues are taken into account. The paper was presented at a conference on ‘African Women and Economic Development: Investing in our Future’ in April 1998 in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The potential of information communications technologies (ICTs) in Africa is huge. Benefits of appropriate development of the ICT sector for women include greater access to practical information on income-generating activities, agricultural production methods, health, and the organisation of women’s groups. ICTs have been shown to provide women with the opportunity to share ideas and experiences and mobilise support. However, it is clear that much needs to be done to sensitisise and train women, provide necessary hardware and develop appropriate content. As with previous technologies, the traditional pattern of male domination towards the development of ICTs continues, and women are greatly under-represented in this sector. Greater efforts are necessary to involve girls in science and technology at an early age if they are to participate in the ICT revolution as women.

There is a need to combine information transferred through ICTs with more traditional ways of communicating knowledge. The use of ICTs as tools needs to be re-thought, together with a reorganisation of existing knowledge and databases. The International Centre for Agroforestry Research in Nairobi is developing a system to electronically send information on soil conservation and good farming practices to a community in Uganda. This project intends to ‘humanise’ the scientific information and share it with local women’s groups through stories and drama. This provides an example of how ICTs can be used to disseminate scientific knowledge, which is then relayed to the target group in a language that is meaningful to them.

Therefore ICTs offer significant potential benefits to African women, but they need to be included in all levels of decision-making with regard to ICT use and development, rather than being passive participants and receivers of disseminated information.
5. Teacher education and school management


The current gender gap in education might partly be explained by the differential impact that the teacher education policy in Malawi has on men and women. The research on which the paper is based formed part of a study of primary teacher education, a sub-study of the Multi-site Teacher Education Research Project (MUSTER)\(^3\). Women were found to be under-represented as in the teaching profession, both as teachers and teacher educators. Women are concentrated in the lower primary grades that are perceived to have lower status than higher levels. The relatively low numbers of women in the teaching profession and the underqualification of many female teachers is attributed to the historic lack of equity in access to primary and secondary education for girls.

Given the government’s stated aim to increase female participation at all levels, policy-makers need to consider the possibility that education policies will affect men and women differently. For example, the proposed policy of increasing the level of qualification required for teacher trainees from two to fours years of secondary school is likely to discriminate against women who have less opportunity to gain qualifications than men.

Main findings include:

- From 1980 to 1995 female enrolment in teacher training colleges was around 38 per cent of total enrolment. Government policy at this time reserved only a third of boarding places at residential colleges for women.
- Women comprise 36 per cent of tutors in college.
- The limited level of English of female trainees restricts their gains from intensive teacher training courses.
- Most teachers still have an image of infant teaching as a job for a ‘motherly’ woman, or a job that is given to women.
- Female qualified teachers mainly work in urban schools and only a quarter work in rural schools.

A number of strategies that may improve the quality of primary education through a well-qualified and gender equitable teaching force include:

- Improve participation by teachers, teacher training college tutors and other stakeholders in policy-making.
- Do not raise the initial teacher education entry point prerequisite in the short or medium term, to allow time for girls’ access to and achievement in secondary education to improve.
- Consider English language support for student teachers to increase their fluency, accuracy, expression and confidence in speaking (the official language in schools).
- Increase the proportion of boarding places available to women at teacher colleges.
- Initiate support for teachers as they upgrade their qualifications while in post (in light of the many responsibilities that women have outside of the workplace).

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\(^3\) MUSTER is a collaborative research project between the Centre for International Education at the University of Sussex Institute of Education, and educational research institutes in Ghana, Lesotho, Malawi, South Africa, and Trinidad and Tobago. The project is sponsored by DFID.
• Incorporate issues of supporting girls and women teachers in upper primary standards into the professional training of teachers.
• Recognise work experience as well as professional qualifications of teachers.


In most developing countries women are under-represented in school management and decision-making positions, earn less money than their male counterparts, are confined to low-status positions and have limited access to professional advancement. This report is aimed at educational planners and managers in developing countries and seeks to understand the situation of female teachers and identify key issues for their supply and career development. It is argued that equality in postings, training, support services and promotional opportunities for women and men are essential for the effective employment of teachers. To provide genuine equality of opportunity the system itself must be sensitive to gender issues.

Lessons learned about gender issues in the teaching profession include:

• Teaching increasingly attracts a substantial proportion of women worldwide. Countries with minority female participation tend to be least developed, have greater employment competition, and historically lowest school enrolment rates for girls.
• Women teachers are concentrated at lower levels and lower grades of education, and are under-represented in mathematics, science and other technical subjects.
• Women often work part-time in education, and lack conditions of employment and status of full-time colleagues.
• There is a lack of in-depth research on the impact of teachers’ sex on student achievement.
• Supply of women teachers is influenced by socio-cultural factors (e.g. usual female career paths), safety of school environments, multiple demands on their time, the male domination of school management, and relative value of teaching as a profession (lower qualified women enter the profession as men leave).
• Women teacher trainees are limited in number due to entry requirements, design of teacher training by men, gender-biased content of courses (few cover gender issues) and constraints to further studies due to family obligations.
• Women teachers may be negatively affected by rural postings which require them to relocate away from their families, absenteeism due to family responsibility, sexual harassment, and assignment of non-teaching ‘female supportive’ tasks (e.g. hospitality).

The following are specifically recommended:

• Enhance the supply and effective employment of women teachers, e.g. lowering age-restrictions for entry to the profession.
• Reduce gender differences in subjects studied in teacher training.
• Improve the status, condition and career development of women teachers, e.g. review rules and regulations on posting, transfers and promotions for possible gender bias.
• Use appropriate research methodology, e.g. involve women teachers and utilise teachers’ unions and organisations in research to investigate options for promoting gender equity in teaching.
• Promote gender-sensitive educational policy-making, management and planning, e.g. maintain sex-disaggregated records on teachers.
The Aga Khan Education Service (AKES) is an organisation with the specific aim of meeting the needs of female students and is particularly influential in Northern Pakistan where it runs 128 schools. In villages with an AKES school the female primary enrolment rate is 85-90 per cent. Teaching provides the great majority of formal sector jobs available to women in this region, yet women remain largely under-represented in all but the most junior positions. This paper provides insight into some of the cultural, social and institutional barriers to women's access to the teaching profession and their development within it. It examines the experience of the Field Based Teacher Development Programme (FBTDP) developed by AKES in 1994 to facilitate professional development of female teachers and address the need for localised training of women in remote areas.

Professional development through teacher education such as that provided by the FBTDP can bring about greater empowerment in three ways. It can increase teacher knowledge and skills to enhance effectiveness in the classroom, facilitate teacher participation in decision-making in the school and community, and open the possibility for teachers to assume positions of responsibility within the educational hierarchy. In practice, women within AKES may be empowered in the first sense through training, but remain relatively powerless in the other two senses. At present, career development is based on seniority, formal qualifications and other forms of status such as family background. An additional barrier to women’s professional development is the disruptive nature of training in its current form, which carries significant costs for women. Costs may be financial and social in a society where community disapproval acts as a barrier to accessing training which is located away from the local area and is associated with high opportunity cost (lost benefits from time spent on alternative productive activity) for women attendees. These barriers restrict women’s further education beyond the basic level of training provided by the FBTDP.

To address the above, the following is recommended for AKES:

- Make the attainment of a Bachelor of Education (BEd) degree more accessible to women teachers than it is currently.
- Refine the system of teacher appraisal and promotion to one based more on merit, practical skills, experience and commitment, to benefit women who may not have paper qualifications or other forms of status.
- Provide realistic compensation for both trainers and attendees in order to persuade women and their families of the worth of further professional development.
6. Non-formal education, adult literacy and informal training


Key issues that need to be addressed when trying to encourage participation of illiterate girls in a health education programme in Kabul, Afghanistan are highlighted in this paper. Moves towards encouraging the participation of children in research and project activities require appropriate methodologies that take into account the particular context. Socio-economic, political and cultural factors all impact on the extent to which children’s participation is possible, and in turn make some methods more appropriate than others. Girls in Kabul are constrained by the fact that they live in an area of conflict, and under a discriminatory patriarchal (male dominant) system, which severely limits their opportunities to contribute to their own development. Not only are girls prohibited from learning to read and write, but it is also illegal to use pictures of humans or animals in teaching, which constrains common participatory learning activities. To overcome this, girls were asked to bring objects that could help to communicate their thoughts. The following three main concerns need to be considered if increasing the participation of girls in health education is a programme objective:

- Analysis of the ethics of the trade-off between the benefits of girls’ increased participation and the potential risks to their safety from involvement in a culturally sensitive project.
- Development of participatory learning methods, appropriate to the context of Kabul and the aims of the project.
- Development of specifically designed monitoring techniques.


The principles and advantages of REFLECT, a participatory approach to adult literacy and social change, in the promotion of women’s rights and gender equality are outlined in this article, and good practices from evaluation of three pilot projects in Uganda, Bangladesh and El Salvador are highlighted. REFLECT is based on concepts from the philosophy of Paulo Freire, and uses Participatory Learning and Action (PLA) techniques to discuss and analyse the knowledge of participants on topics of local concern. The REFLECT literacy teacher facilitates discussion of a topic of concern within the class, introducing literacy and numeracy skills, while encouraging analysis of relevant power relationships and social stratification. Evaluations of the three pilot programmes provide findings that can be used as a framework for analysing the outcomes of other literacy programmes. REFLECT’s approach to gender equality is to sensitise both men and women to gender issues. Points of good practice are found at the individual, group, and community levels. Segregated REFLECT groups for women and men can come together to share their analyses, often highlighting their differing perspectives on the same issue. In mixed groups, however, careful facilitation is needed to ensure that in discussion the voices of women, and other less powerful groups, are not excluded or marginalised.
In 1987 The National Literacy Mission (NLM) was established in India. One of the key assumptions of this programme was that participation in adult education would increase the status of women. This paper reports the findings of an evaluation of the NLM’s adult education programme for the whole of the Union Territory of Delhi, which tried to establish whether the status of women did actually increase as a direct result of this programme. This evaluation compared those who had participated in the programmes (‘neo-literates’) with a control group of illiterate women who had migrated to Delhi over the previous three years and who currently live and work in the same area. It sought to identify changes in behaviour among ‘neo-literate’ women after the literacy programme, and compare this with reported behaviour change by the illiterate group after migration to Delhi. Results indicate that although the literacy programme did have some positive effect on the lives of ‘neo-literate’ women, this was limited.

It was found that:

- Participation in adult education did not improve women’s job prospects. In practice, illiterate women had a slight advantage due to their experience and training.
- ‘Neo-literate’ women did not show any greater awareness of how to avoid exploitation in the marketplace when purchasing goods. More illiterate women kept household accounts, although in their minds rather than on paper like the ‘neo-literate’ women.
- Participation in the programme did not improve attitudes towards cleanliness and family planning. Powerful media campaigns and day to day social interaction have been more successful at changing the behaviour of illiterate migrants to Delhi.
- There was no distinction between the two groups in the probability of sending daughters, as compared to sons, to school.
- Literacy had no impact on women’s ability to influence men’s behaviour with regard to drinking, smoking or gambling.
- Women who attended literacy classes had a more positive self-image than the illiterate group and it increased their self-confidence, which in turn positively influenced a number of indicators of status, e.g. geographical mobility, level of understanding, ability to express themselves, take responsibility and make decisions. They were also more likely to confront their husbands.
- Significantly more ‘neo-literate’ women benefited from locally provided childcare and women’s welfare programmes, which suggests that involvement in the programme contributed to their ability to identify and use these services.

In order to increase the impact of literacy training, it is recommended to:

- Exploit the possibility of mutual learning of skills amongst learners for building-up of group cohesion and participation.
- Place special emphasis on building self-confidence and development of positive self-images in curriculum-content and teaching-learning methods.
- Encourage learners’ participation in local welfare centres for women and children.
- Promote awareness about women’s rights at both literacy and post-literacy stages.
- Incorporate discussions on controversial subjects in adult education, e.g. exploitation at work, husbands’ drinking and gambling.
Despite successive governments expressing the importance of education for women and girls in Pakistan, its ratio of female literacy lags far behind that of other countries at similar levels of development. This paper argues that the value the Pakistani patriarchal socio-cultural system places on female literacy and education must be examined. Women in Pakistan are excluded from economic, political and social power. Due to women’s limited power in broader society, far less value is attached to girls’ education relative to boys’. Since girls leave home after marriage and families plan on marrying girls at an early age, this discourages parents from investing in their education. Even when families do invest in their daughters’ education, girls have little time to study at home due to the household and childcare responsibilities assigned to them. As a result of these factors, girls often drop out of primary education and literacy programmes. The rigidity of gender roles in Pakistan is reflected in the value placed on female education and literacy, limiting personal development, social mobility, and the acquisition of vocational skills. Enhancement of female literacy in Pakistan should be pursued by creating an awareness of the need for cultural change regarding the status of women in society. Gender inequality in broader society needs to be taken on board by policy-makers before attempts to improve women’s educational experience can succeed, as state commitment to women’s empowerment in Pakistan is a vital prerequisite.

The urgent need for policy-related research and evaluation of the most effective strategies for training women with practical skills for employment and self-employment is highlighted in this review. The reality of formal education and training in most of the developing world is that it neither acknowledges the heavy involvement of women in economic activity, nor does it provide them with relevant skills. In addition the gendered nature of the curriculum strengthens the social and economic constraints that work against the equal participation of women in an already competitive and discriminatory labour market. The expansion of non-formal education programmes aimed at adults or adolescents who have failed in formal primary or secondary school, has also failed to provide women with marketable skills while income generation projects continue to focus on traditional feminine skills without attempting to address women’s subordinate position in society.

The literature on training for women points to the following significant lessons learned for training women in the informal sector:

- Education and training alone are not enough to increase their participation in the labour market on equal terms to men, as gender discrimination continues in the labour market.
- An integrated approach is required, which provides a supportive environment for women, e.g. provision of training along with employment in production.
- Access to credit may be more important than training, as women may need only small amounts to start a small business, yet lack capital.
- Women need other support services, as well as training and credit, if they are to start and sustain income generation, e.g. legal and business advice, childcare.
• One-off training programmes and training in technical skills are insufficient. Opportunities to re-train and upgrade skills are needed for ongoing career development.
• Traditional ‘female’ skills (e.g. embroidery) offer little opportunity for sustainable income and women need help to break into new areas of economic activity.
• Women need training in personal and social development (e.g. building of self-confidence, ability to express themselves, and positive self-images), which leads to essential attitude and behaviour change.
• Literacy and numeracy are essential for women to pursue any type of employment, as is access to information.
• Training methods must be appropriate for women who lack time and mobility, and possess little experience in learning environments.
• Successful women can act as convincing trainers and role models.
• Group training has important benefits of increased self-esteem, mutual support and group mobilisation.

In view of the above, the following recommendations are made for women’s education and training in the informal sector:

• Initiate and enforce policies and programmes that encourage girls to enrol and to stay in formal schooling. Remove constraints on equal participation of girls at all levels of education through influencing changes in socio-cultural attitudes that determine people’s perceptions of appropriate female roles.
• Legislate to remove discriminatory employment practices and ensure equitable employment and self-employment opportunities for women.
• Move beyond offering training in skills which reinforce women’s position in low skill and low pay jobs, and provide flexible training, which responds to women’s different economic needs, e.g. direct informal sector training for women.
• Recognise that the provision of technical skills must be supplemented by business, management and marketing skills.
• Initiate policies that will improve women’s access to markets, raw materials, credit, and training, geared to local markets and technologies.
• Realistically assess what is feasible in training and employment for women, with regard to demands on women’s time and their need to generate profit.
• Address the broader issues of women’s self-development through business skills training and include sessions on gender-awareness, assertiveness and confidence building.
• Provide gender training to agency staff and make structural changes in agencies to achieve a more equitable gender balance.


Analysis of the provision of non-formal primary education to women and girls by the Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) demonstrates the extent to which gender-awareness must permeate the whole organisation if it is to meet its aims. Because BRAC’s outreach involves women teachers and fieldworkers, the programmes are very popular. However, without women teachers and fieldworkers who are prepared to go out into rural areas and interact with those targeted by the programme, girls and women will not cooperate. The primary education programme has provided educational opportunities particularly for young women; and because it is so popular it gives BRAC women employees more power to press for
the improvement of their conditions of service internally. Progress has undoubtedly been made by BRAC, but only 23 per cent of BRAC’s staff are female, a ratio significantly disproportionate to the sex ratio of the people it tries to help. BRAC’s management structure also remains clearly gendered, and although it is acknowledged that the needs of female employees differ from those of male colleagues in the workplace, women working in the organisation still have to wait for ‘permission’ from male superiors to implement changes that address their needs.


Women’s experiences of literacy and literacy learning in rural Nepal are examined in this paper, which argues that the complexity of women’s situation is often ignored in discussions of gender and education. The research focuses on interpretations of literacy and gender by different groups of people, and how they reacted to literacy interventions by an international aid agency. Three kinds of literacy practices are considered in which women perceived as ‘illiterate’ participated – existing everyday practices (such as religious reading), new everyday practices (such as account-keeping introduced for women’s groups), and the literacy class. Everyday literacies were learnt informally at home often through husbands, brothers or children, and regarded as a distinct activity in comparison to new literacy practices and the literacy class. New literacy practices, introduced by the agency, were seen by both women and men as symbolising the agency’s authority, and not of great practical benefit, since many of the functions were already performed orally, or by memory. Women did not regard literacy as necessary in their existing roles as mothers or wives, or as a skill that could generate new employment opportunities. They did, however, welcome the chance for self-expression, felt they gained a new identity through becoming students and gaining new skills, and valued the social space that the class gave them for interaction with women of different castes. Prior to the introduction of a new literacy programme it is first necessary to understand existing literacy practices and attitudes of different groups towards them.


The effectiveness of women’s literacy classes that have built-in income-generating components are reviewed in this booklet, by drawing upon case studies from Bangladesh, Egypt, India and Kenya. On the evidence of the literacy programmes reviewed, it is argued that, in practice, the approach of attaching a programme of income generation skill learning to literacy instruction does not work. In such programmes, income-generating activities assume greater importance than the learning of literacy skills in the lives of women participants. Failure of these programmes is attributed largely to the fact they are designed around the assumption that participating women need to learn two new sets of skills - literacy and income-generating skills - in order to transform their lives. This fails to recognise that these women are already engaged in literate and livelihood sustaining activities. Literacy needs to be seen as ‘a set of culturally determined practices’, in which both literate and illiterate persons participate. A fresh approach to literacy education and skills training, which acknowledges women in these programmes are already engaged in such activities, is recommended. Programmes should be designed around women’s existing practices to help them to do what they are already doing better. In particular, there are valuable benefits in localising literacy programmes, and providing on-going training for village-level instructors.
The connection between women’s education and child health and survival is well established, but their causal relationship is not entirely clear. It is difficult to distinguish between the direct effects of education and those of social and economic advantages associated with those able to receive schooling in less developed countries. This is partly due to data only being available for formal schooling. This paper attempts to address this gap in knowledge by using data from Nicaragua to examine the impact on child survival and nutrition of women’s literacy from adult education, as opposed to formal schooling. In 1980 a major initiative, called Cruzada Nacional de Alfabetizacion (CAN), or National Literacy Crusade, aimed at eliminating adult illiteracy, was launched in Nicaragua. The campaign is estimated to have helped nine per cent of Nicaraguans over the age of 10 to acquire literacy skills through adult education. This study compares the health and survival of children of three distinct groups of women: those who are illiterate; those who became literate through attending primary school as children; and those who acquired literacy through adult education. The impact of socio-economic factors on child survival and health of these groups was also examined.

Survival was significantly higher amongst children of women who became literate in adulthood than those of illiterate women. Survival chances of children born to women who had attended adult education were better if they were born after their mothers had attended the programme. Adult education therefore does play a critical role in child health and survival, independently of other social and economic advantages. Despite the fact that mass education campaigns often face widespread criticism, literacy skills for adult women have a profound effect on their ability to notice and intervene when a child fails to thrive. Whether this literacy reduces children’s risk of mortality by altering women’s patterns of health-seeking behaviour, or lowers their risk of malnutrition by improved feeding practices, is not entirely clear. However, the fact remains that some combination of the two improves children’s chances of survival.

Policy implications of this study are important. Adult education is associated with significant child health benefits and this needs to be reflected in the design of health education programmes for women.

How different literacy skills are embedded in wider power relations, notably those of class and gender, is examined in this paper. It is based on the analysis of ethnographic fieldwork conducted in southern Ghana during the pilot phase of a national functional literacy campaign. It is argued that donor discourses (patterns of speaking about a subject) tend to build a simplistic stereotype of illiterate women that undermines the considerable knowledge and skills of unschooled women, and creates a false distinction between ‘vulnerable’ non-literate women and the more ‘empowered’ literate women. Such stereotypes disguise diversity among non-literate women, in terms of class and the differential impact illiteracy has on their lives. Failure to take into account such diversity can hamper the success of literacy programmes, particularly if they fail to target very poor women, who face the greatest barriers in attending literacy classes. The use of participatory planning processes in the design of non-formal education programmes is
recommended to overcome the stereotype of illiterate women in donor discourses, and in turn to address the real needs of women in broader terms.
7. Government and donor approaches to mainstreaming gender in education


In this critical assessment of the role of development agency policies in education, it is argued that agencies are unlikely to adopt the radical stance needed to bring about wide-reaching social and educational change. The contradiction in policies that aim both to increase access to and quality in education and training, as well as aim to reduce public costs is challenged. Current policy environments within donor agencies and international development banks are reviewed. It concludes that initiatives to decentralise educational financing and control, introduction of cost sharing mechanisms and community involvement in running schools, and deregulation and privatisation of training, are all likely to undermine attempts to increase girls’ participation in education.

In practice the drive for greater efficiency and reduced costs has proved stronger than the commitment to gender equity in education. This partially explains why the Jomtien goal (1990 World Conference on Education for All, held in Jomtien, Thailand) of increasing girls’ participation in education has met with such disappointing results. Issues of gender have been dealt with separately from the main education debate and pushed to the margins of the policy debate, becoming little more than rhetoric. For progress to be made, the two strategies of economic efficiency and increased gender equity need to be integrated and approached simultaneously. This requires that gender analysis be incorporated into all stages of policy development and implementation.

To date, approaches used by education programmes to address gender inequities have been narrow, simplistic and largely ineffective, as they have lacked any clear understanding of gender relations in society or the role that school plays in perpetuating unequal gender power relationships. Agencies such as the World Bank have unquestioningly taken schools to be unproblematic and spaces of equal opportunity for both girls and boys. The reality is that the way schools are managed and organised reinforces the message that society values women less than men. For example, girls are often excluded from taking certain subjects, textbooks depict highly stereotypical gender roles, sexual harassment continues, and women are under-represented in senior positions. Without a collective recognition at the level of the state of the gender biases that exist in all aspects of life, there can be no real change within schools. Change can only be brought to schools through interventions that address not only the provision of education but also its processes.

It is recommended to:

- Remove wider discriminatory practices which subordinate women to men, and encourage women’s participation in all spheres of life through awareness campaigns, political lobbying by women’s organisations, and promotion of positive female role models.
- Carry out gender analysis of internal practices and structure of educational institutions and those that fund and support education programmes. Gender policies in education will only be sustainable if accompanied by broader social changes.
- Pursue gender equity strategies in education, e.g. gender-sensitive teacher training, gender-appropriate textbooks and materials, democratic school management with female teachers in key positions, programmes to address sexual harassment and promote girls’ self-esteem.
It is more likely that such crucial approaches will originate from communities rather than development agencies, such as the World Bank, which are led by economic priorities.


Compiled to facilitate the OECD/DAC 21st Century strategy by strengthening its focus on gender equality in education, this report identifies efforts by eight bilateral agencies (including DFID) and one multilateral (UNICEF) to mainstream gender equality in their work on education. In addition, a country case study of donor efforts and co-ordination was carried out in Kenya. It includes analysis of policy design, and project and programme development. Positive examples are identified, particularly in relation to practical methodologies and tools used, as well as possible constraints. Development agencies make use of different strategies at different levels in their attempts to strengthen gender mainstreaming in education. At project level, these include reducing distance to school, increasing the number of women teachers, improving teacher training, lowering cost to parents, development of curricula relevant to girls, increasing parental and community understanding of the need for girls’ education through participatory approaches, collection of sex-disaggregated data, and supporting multiple delivery systems (including non-formal). At the programme level strategies include education reforms and more sector wide approaches, scholarship programmes, and policy dialogue. In terms of institutionalising mainstreaming strategies in donor agencies, decentralisation of educational administration and planning, gender specialist staff, and the involvement of gender specialists in education are recommended.


The extent to which gender equality objectives have been incorporated into education Sector Wide Approaches (SWAp)s in Ghana, India and Uganda, is evaluated in this report. Good practices in mainstreaming gender equality into the planning and implementation of education SWAp sill is identified. A SWAp is a sustained partnership, led by national authorities, involving different arms of government, civil society, and donor agencies, which aims to focus on the development of a particular sector. Cross-cutting issues such as gender can be mainstreamed across sectors if incorporated into such an approach.

The context for SWAp is clearly uneven with only Uganda displaying all the indications of a truly Sector Wide Approach. However all three countries display common features such as the tendency to focus on ‘gendered access’ (e.g. proportion of male and female enrolment and completion) more than ‘gendered quality’ (e.g. appropriateness of curriculum for girls and boys, sex stereotyping of textbooks). Donor communities were not unified in their approach to gender mainstreaming, and key donor agency representatives in all three countries displayed little commitment to promoting a gender mainstreaming approach. A disproportionate emphasis was placed on basic education, so limiting the potential for promoting gender equality for the long-term. Differences of experiences between countries were also evident in relation to: understanding of gender issues; coherence and leadership in overall sector policy; form and history of commitment to gender goals; context and approach to poverty reduction; and size, scale and complexity of national social, political and administrative structures.
Principle lessons learned from this study are:

- Transition to an effective SWAp (where all parties are involved in a coordinated approach) should enable an enhanced capacity to promote gender mainstreaming throughout the sector.
- Strong general national policy framework, political commitment and an institutional framework that is wide-reaching and donor backed, is key to maximising the potential of an education SWAp to promote gender equality.
- ‘Mainstreaming’ needs to be recognised as a process that permeates the whole programme, more than simply increasing the number of girls at schools. It needs to confront issues such as gendered quality and structures of male power and authority that impede gender equality.
- During the process of formulating SWAp policy it is important to identify constraints and obstacles to success, and integrate strategies to overcome them.
- There is a need for clearly defined and locally specific goals that cover gender dimensions of educational access, retention, and achievement, and to have sufficient resources to tackle these goals.
- Systems of information that can produce sex-disaggregated information need to be developed and used.
- ‘One size’ does not fit all and careful gender analysis is needed at all levels.
- SWAps are strongest when they act as a vehicle to promote decentralisation of decision-making and empower local solutions, e.g. through community participation and consultation.

A two-pronged gender mainstreaming approach is required, whereby analysis of gender relations is used together with a specific focus on girls’ education throughout all sector institutions. Sustainable gender mainstreaming needs a supportive constituency within national institutions involved in the SWAp process. Recommendations identified for improving the impact of education SWAps on gender equality include:

- Shift focus from gendered access to a gendered approach to quality and longer term educational outcomes.
- Strengthen the commitment to gender equity in SWAps from central to local institutions.
- Use the SWAp process to create space for bottom-up pressure for enhancing gender equity.
- Improve the diagnosis of gender issues within sector programmes, and apply this diagnosis to the development of policy measures.
- Allow for diversity of approaches to promoting gender equity at the local level within the SWAp framework.
- Improve the capacity of SWAps to tackle constraints on gender equity which lie outside education sector institutions.
- Encourage decentralised responsibility for analysis and policy development through capacity building at school and community level, supported by responsive district administrations.
- Develop improved approaches to reducing gender bias within key institutions relating to education, including community level structures and local and national structures of political representation, as well as sector institutions.
- Strengthen methods and institutional capacity to monitor the achievement of gender equality outcomes.
- Strengthen commitment, co-ordination and consistency of approach to gender mainstreaming in the donor community.
45. Stromquist, N., 1994, ‘Gender and basic education in international development cooperation’, *UNICEF Staff Working Paper No 13*

The work of 15 international development agencies - two multilateral agencies and the rest bilateral - in the area of basic education for women is analysed in this study. It follows a similar study conducted in 1986, and is based on both interview and documentary data conducted in 1993. By the early 1990s most agencies had gender and basic education policies supported by organisational structures and procedures to help with their implementation. Key advances in terms of translation of gender policy into practice include: increased numbers of women recruited, generally and in Women in Development (WID) units; training of agency personnel in gender issues; and, increased research to provide empirical evidence as to women’s subordinate status in many developing countries. However most projects assume a ‘conflict-free world’ in which the major constraint is seen in terms of women’s lack of access to schooling, and a lack of appreciation by parents and important stakeholders in the community as to the benefits of educating women. This focus on access as the key issue has resulted in an absence of interventions that aim to move women’s education from satisfying their basic needs, towards seeking women’s greater empowerment and autonomy. Policy recommendations that flow from this study include:

- Develop gender-sensitive curricula.
- Sensitise teachers to gender issues in education.
- Draw from the potential of non-formal education to facilitate the empowerment of women.
- Develop gender-focused projects to challenge existing cultural practices.


Over the last two decades most governments have established Women in Development (WID) units (also known as women’s machineries). These units work to incorporate gender issues into public policy. Their remit is to improve the conditions of women in all sectors of society by monitoring government work and suggesting appropriate actions. Education is usually considered one of a range of multi-sectoral WID unit activities. This article examines the impact of 48 WID units in developing countries on the formulation and implementation of educational policies and priorities that affect girls and women, through analysis of primary data collected in 1993-1994 and secondary sources.

To be successful in the promotion of gender issues WID units must carry out a comprehensive educational task which covers not only formal education, but also non-formal education and the mass media. In practice, WID units give much greater attention to issues linked to social welfare and the satisfaction of urgent basic needs by women. Units that did specify educational activities indicated that these focused primarily on the provision of literacy in combination with income generation, health, nutrition, family planning and related issues. This focus indicates that the educational work of WID units tends to be directed towards poor and less educated women. In addition much of the educational content of activities revolved around domestic roles.

WID units tend to dedicate more effort to the education of adult women than to the education of young girls in the formal sector. Only 17 per cent of WID units reported addressing primary schooling and 20 per cent secondary schooling. The limited importance placed on formal education is further illustrated by the finding that 15 per cent of WID units had not heard of the
Education for All (EFA) initiative and over half reported no involvement in it. EFA is a major initiative by donor agencies and governments to bring equality, quality and efficiency to basic education. In terms of educational policy, the work of WID units in formal education is weak and fails to give enough importance to the ideological functions of schooling. Only one-fifth of educational priorities of WID units dealt with questions of curriculum content and schooling experience.

WID units have generally not been assigned sufficient human and financial resources, and lack authority with other ministries. Therefore they have limited influence over the work of education ministries and mainstream school educational programmes. Formal education is also given relatively less importance than social welfare and health concerns, as it is not considered a priority of most WID units under their restricted budgets.


The design and implementation of gender policies in Malawi, Tanzania and Zimbabwe are reviewed in this paper, with focus on how gender disparities in education have been incorporated into policy design and other interventions. It shows how interventions to redress these inequalities have been affected by political and organisational constraints. Donors including Department for International Development (DFID), the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA) and United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF), have introduced a variety of measures over the past 10 years to reduce gender disparities. But progress has been slow, and deep-rooted problems remain with poor educational outcomes and low self-image for girls. Slow progress is blamed on unnecessary bureaucratic delay, lack of effective dialogue between donors and government, and the fragmented and uncoordinated nature of the interventions.

Until the early 1990s education policies lacked any gender analysis, and interventions to address inequalities were restricted to strategies such as limited sponsorship programmes, quota systems, and changing regulations on pregnancy (to allow girls to return to school). Although donor agencies have since made concerted efforts, much remains to be done and some contradictions are evident in their approaches. For example, donor support for cutting social sector budgets is unlikely to encourage priority for gender issues amongst senior officials, and donors have focused on primary education whereas greatest gender inequalities are at higher levels. Donor funded research has also often been more oriented to meeting donor interests and priorities rather than the goals of communities. Despite widespread commitments to international agreements on gender equality, key education policy-makers are predominantly male, and gender ministries (or gender units) have lacked influence to promote gender equality in education. The role of women’s NGOs can be crucial in challenging the established male dominated norms and providing an enabling environment for gender reforms in education. Initiatives are likely to run into trouble unless gender advocates are active both inside and outside government ministries. The clear prioritisation of gender by donors and governments is important but donor approaches tend to be fragmented.

Recommendations made in light of this review include:

- Encourage greater transparency of processes in formulating gender education policies within government and donor agencies, and promote greater use of participatory methods.
Institutionalise gender more effectively in ministries of education, e.g. through strategically placed gender units. Ministries should collect existing research material in order to avoid duplication, and improve monitoring and evaluation by introducing gender-sensitive indicators linked to clear targets and objectives.

NGOs should become more actively engaged with governments in lobbying for women’s rights.

Pay more consistent attention to designing curriculum and teacher training that benefits girls.

Donors and governments need to consider the limitations of attempts to promote girls’ access to education systems that are fundamentally biased (i.e. gender bias in curriculum and teaching).

Shift the emphasis away from project to programme aid and budgetary support for a more coherent approach to overall reform of education systems, at the same time as increasing gender equality.

Donors need to co-ordinate to avoid duplication of efforts and work closely with national governments to support their efforts to clearly articulate education and gender goals.

Create flexible partnerships between NGOs, governments and donors to improve efforts to promote gender equality in education, and place gender interventions as part of a long-term, wide-ranging process of social and political reform.


The rapid growth of non-governmental organisations (NGOs) in India and the disappointing performance of government education services encourage a re-think of the role that NGOs should and can play in delivering education. This chapter offers some important insights on the role that Indian NGOs can play in increasing female access to education. Because NGOs are not independent but are driven and given direction by donor agencies, the role of international donor agencies is also examined. NGOs are often hindered by their size, ability to network effectively, ability to deliver uniform quality education, and reliance on outside donors. The chapter explores what NGOs can do to improve the access of girls to basic education. Two main approaches to date have been those that seek to enhance the supply of girls’ education and those that seek to create demand. NGOs role in education can be defined in relation to their view of education as a right of the child, their separate niche to (rather than substitute for) government services or agencies in the delivery of formal education, and focus on demand for education through local advocacy and mobilisation.

NGOs have a particularly important contribution to make for gender equal education in four key areas:

- Creating good practice - considerable work has been done to develop gender-sensitive strategies in education with grassroots participation.
- Agenda-setting - putting pressure on public and policy-makers to give higher priority to girls’ and women’s rights to education.
- Networking - positive examples of collaboration with civil society (e.g. private schools, universities, trade unions, private sector and government) are increasing.
- Social movements - community participation and social mobilisation for more equal education, particularly at the micro-level.
As NGOs do not work in isolation but are dependent on funding, international donors have an important role to play in strengthening NGO ability as effective agents of change through the following:

- Donors should co-ordinate programme development to be supportive of NGOs. Donor input needs to be coherent, focused, encourage sustainability and an awareness of the wider NGO context.
- Donors need to be committed to forging true NGO partnerships through which each party offers their particular expertise to an equal partnership that is optimal to both and achieves objectives (in this case better access to education for women and girls).
- Donor NGOs in India also need to work together to co-ordinate their activities rather than working in isolation on a large number of separate projects.
- Donors must formulate a clear vision and establish some kind of consensus among the numerous debates on women’s access to education. This is crucial to developing appropriate strategies to tackle the current situation.
8. Guidelines for monitoring and evaluation of gender and education

49. CIDA, 1996, *Guide to Gender Sensitive Indicators*, Hull, Quebec: Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA)

Designed to help CIDA staff understand how to use gender-sensitive indicators, this guide is useful for measuring impact of CIDA’s development initiatives, but also has wider relevance to monitoring and evaluating development programmes in general. It reviews techniques for choosing appropriate indicators and discusses specific methodological approaches to measuring and using them at the project level, highlighting the importance of combining quantitative and qualitative indicators. Quantitative indicators rely on more formal survey data and relate to the measures that can be quantified such as the number of people who own a sewing machine in a village. Qualitative indicators, on the other hand, rely on less formal methodologies and can be defined as people’s judgements and perceptions about a subject. Essential criteria for selecting indicators are outlined, followed by a review of specific gender-sensitive indicators relating to education, health, participation and empowerment.

Project or programme indicators are categorised into five groups of: risk/enabling indicators (influence of external factors); input indicators (resources allocated); process indicators (achievement during implementation); output indicators (identify intermediate results, e.g. mid-term review); and outcome indicators (longer-term results). The most important points for developing and selecting indicators include:

- Indicators should be developed in a participatory fashion, including all stakeholders wherever possible.
- They must be relevant to the needs of users, clearly defined and easy for users to understand.
- All indicators should be sex-disaggregated.
- Both qualitative and quantitative indicators should be used.
- They should be technically sound.
- They should measure trends over time.
- The ultimate focus should be on outcome indicators (long-term results).

An example of a project with a main objective to ensure socio-economic and gender equality in access to primary education is used to illustrate the use of gender-sensitive indicators. Various primary education baseline data, against which progress can be measured, can be collected in relation to a range of quantitative and qualitative indicators such as the following:

**Risk/enabling indicators**
- Government support gauged by analysis of official attitudes.
- Popular community support gauged by attendance and analysis of comments at meetings.

**Input indicators**
- Amount of project funding.
- Degree of community input to project planning, by socio-economic grouping and sex.

**Process indicators**
- Net and gross enrolment rates by socio-economic grouping and sex.
- Drop out rates by socio-economic grouping and sex.
- Parental views of benefits of schooling.
**Output indicators**
- More equitable employment of women and men teachers.
- Equitable school completion rates by socio-economic grouping and sex at end of donor intervention.
- Improved perceived gender content in the curriculum.

**Outcome indicators**
- Improvements in status of boys and girls from poorer groups, in terms of health and employment.
- Changes in community and parental perceptions of the desirability of having children from poor households and girls educated.


Guidelines for the mainstreaming of gender in education are provided in this manual, intended primarily for use by governments in policy formulation, planning and implementation. It defines the role of gender mainstreaming as the “consistent use of a gender perspective at all stages of the development and implementation of policy, plans, programmes and projects”. The first section presents an overview of global and Commonwealth mandates for the promotion of gender equality in education. The second examines indicators of gender equality in education systems – literacy, enrolment, access to education, and attainment – and less considered areas – legal and administrative frameworks, the proportion of women in decision-making positions, resource allocation, curriculum development, and the organisation of schools and classrooms. The third suggests a range of strategies and processes for gender mainstreaming in the education sector, the fourth outlines tools for gender analysis in education, and the fifth suggests a range of policy interventions. Finally, case studies from Ghana, Jamaica, Pakistan and Zambia are provided. Key elements for the mainstreaming of gender in education include:

- Make gender an explicit concern in the educational process together with race/ethnicity and social class/caste.
- Obtain a clear quantitative picture of gender roles and ratios in various levels and areas of the educational system using sex-disaggregated data.
- Identify possible qualitative factors that explain any gender gaps reflected in education sex-disaggregated data, and plan interventions to address them.
- Overcome structural barriers - legal, economic, political or cultural - to educational access and participation.
- Ensure equity of access generally, particularly in study areas that lead to better careers and job opportunities.
- Increase women’s participation in decision-making processes in the management and implementation of education.

This resource is a guide to collecting, presenting, monitoring and analysing sex-disaggregated education data, and is targeted primarily at producers of education statistics in education ministries and national statistical offices. It also offers practical advice for the interpretation of data in support of decision-making, useful to policy-makers, administrators and managers of educational programmes concerned with the reduction of gender inequalities. Justification for collecting sex-disaggregated educational statistics and indicators relate to the need to identify the main reasons for gender inequality in education and the need to assess their effect on social and economic development. Population censuses, household sample surveys, periodic school surveys and administrative files routinely collect quantitative information ranging from rates of school attendance to teachers’ salaries and examination results. These can be used to identify key reasons for inequality and to measure the impact of an intervention on girls’ and boys’ education. Alternative ways of calculating and presenting gender inequality in literacy and schooling, such as absolute or relative terms (as a percentage or a ratio), and graphic representation of information (e.g. pie charts and bar graphs) are suggested.

A range of inter-related aspects are examined which affect: demand for and supply of education; the way in which people access and participate in education; the quality of teaching and learning; efficiency of education systems; learning outcomes; and impact of education on individuals and communities. Central to all of these is the issue of gender equality, which may be difficult to analyse from aggregated statistics, which are not designed to analyse potential gender differences.

Gender issues in education and gender analysis can be reflected in indicators such as:

- Different levels of literacy (e.g. rates, percentages, total numbers, ratios).
- Disparity in school participation (e.g. gross enrolment ratios, retention rates).
- Geographical variations of enrolment (e.g. gender gaps by country or region).
- School survival (e.g. intake rate in a particular year compared with the number in the cohort reaching Grade 5).
- Index of gender segregation by fields of study (e.g. broad field of study by sex).
- Utilisation of thematic maps (particularly suited to showing proportions of certain trends and illustrating changes over time).
- Gender-equity-sensitive indicator (GESI) - recently developed by the UNDP, which integrates gender into measures of absolute achievement for inter-country comparison.
- Correlation between education and other socio-economic factors.
- Country statistical profiles (e.g. National Score Card which has been proposed by FAWE as a tool to compile basic statistics on the participation of girls in education in Sub-Saharan Africa).
9. Examples of good practice and lessons learned


At the World Conference on Education for All (EFA) in Jomtien, Thailand, in 1990, a Framework for Action was developed which identified targets for universal access to and completion of basic education. This included a 50 per cent reduction of adult literacy by the year 2000, with emphasis on female literacy to reduce gender disparity. Ten years later, this thematic study reviews the accomplishments in girls’ education since Jomtien. It outlines the major global trends, identifies the main lessons learned, emerging issues and priorities for the next 10 to 15 years. There remain obstacles to access for millions of children, and significant efforts are required to scale-up support for girls’ education.

Progress has been mixed. On the positive side there has been almost universal acceptance of and commitment by most countries to girls’ education. Significant progress has been made within countries in identifying obstacles to girls’ education and identifying strategies to overcome these obstacles. On the other hand there have been cases where educational investments into girls’ education has actually had the effect of decreasing girls’ educational access rather than increasing it. At the regional level parts of the Middle East have demonstrated that it is possible to get girls into school. South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa, however, despite some gains continue to present some of the most difficult challenges.

Political will is key not only to increasing access for girls but for eliminating some of the non-educational obstacles such as poverty, tradition, discrimination and legal systems. Strong and committed leadership at every level is crucial to making the changes. Leadership support can be provided through a supportive forum that provides leaders with sufficient practical information and convincing ongoing research evidence, to support positive changes. A systematic approach to reforms so girls are no longer excluded from basic education is necessary for sustainability and to address issues of quality, equity and demand. This can be facilitated by the formation of extended and expanded partnerships (e.g. civil society, private sector).

New challenges that have emerged since Jomtien include:

- Gender-sensitive education and specific programming for girls’ education are critical for ensuring Education for All.
- Policy must include marginalised and excluded groups – not only from school but also from effective learning within school.
- HIV/AIDS threatens the hard won gains of the past decade for girls’ education and seriously compromises future targets, as girls are disproportionately affected.
- Extending quality education to include learning how to learn in a safe, secure, gender-sensitive and protective learning environment.
- Globalisation threatens to exacerbate poverty among the poorest and increase existing gender inequalities, as women are already the bulk of the poor.
- Information and communication technologies (ICTs) challenge girls’ and women’s education, as they are less likely to benefit from these technologies.
- Religious fundamentalism is a growing challenge to girls’ education (e.g. Taliban movement in Afghanistan).
- Conventional education statistics need to be replaced with sex-disaggregated data so that the above challenges and their impacts may be monitored.
To best overcome barriers to girls’ education:

- Set priorities, as all issues cannot be addressed simultaneously. Some can be set globally, but good local level analysis is important to address cultural and locally specific barriers.
- Address the critical issue of simple access to basic education for millions of children, the majority of which are girls. Collection and monitoring of sex-disaggregated data is crucial for this.
- Apply lessons learned in closing the gender gap and educational quality carefully and strategically, taking into account the local context.
- Shift to persistent and innovative larger scale efforts, instead of previously limited small-scale approaches.
- Foster new partnerships and seek significant resource mobilisation.
- Increase attention to including girls who are poor, with disability, engaged in child labour, affected by HIV/AIDS or conflict.


The application of Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) research techniques to issues relating to girls’ education in The Gambia are examined in this chapter, with some additional lessons from Eritrea and Mauritania. While most donor agencies are giving special attention to improving girls’ participation in the education system, they are hampered by lack of information and resources to help them identify the constraints in a particular region, and in turn the most appropriate interventions. Using participatory techniques, the research highlighted the interplay of socio-economic and socio-cultural constraints to girls’ education. Community participation in the PRA process allowed voices of girls and women - usually marginalised from the decision-making processes - to be heard by the village. The success of the Government’s ‘education for all’ strategy was called into question as girls, denied access to primary education, spoke with feeling about how their exclusion had limited their life opportunities. Even though education is seen as a way of escaping the poverty trap, this was seen as a route for boys rather than girls. High schooling costs triggered choices based on ‘returns on investment’, and inevitably the returns were seen as higher for boys. Concerns were expressed that educated girls were not marriageable. This information strongly influenced the reshaping of Gambian education policy to improve girls’ primary enrolment, retention and performance through the following:

- Boost the number of women in teaching.
- Develop non-sexist teaching materials.
- Encourage girls to take up science, maths and technical subjects.
The performance of the Balochistan Rural Girls’ Fellowship Programme in Pakistan is examined in this paper, which forms part of a series from the Girls’ Education Thematic Group in the Education Department of the Human Development Network. As part of Pakistan’s effort to attain universal primary education by 2006 several pilot projects were initiated that targeted girls’ enrolment in Balochistan. Given the serious budgetary constraints, it is unlikely that the government will be able to build enough schools to ensure universal access to primary education. Projects have therefore been designed to use partnerships with local neighbourhoods or communities in order to encourage in-kind or monetary support. One such project used a three-year subsidy per enrolled female student to induce entry of private schools into urban slum areas of Quetta, the capital of Balochistan. Opening of these schools was found to sharply increase enrolment of both girls and boys.

The Community Support Programme (CSP), which aims to establish girls’ schools in rural areas where there is at least one educated woman to serve as teacher, was simultaneously implemented in 500 rural villages. Where a CSP school was successfully established enrolment of both boys and girls in rural villages increased. However, the limited supply of educated women who could qualify as teachers in some villages - Balochistan has a female literacy rate of just eight per cent - hindered the programme’s general adoption in rural areas.

In response, the Government of Balochistan instituted a rural equivalent to the Quetta Urban Girls’ Fellowship Programme - the Rural Fellowship School Experiment - which attempted to subsidise the creation of private girls’ schools. Village Education Committees (VEC) of parents were organised. It was their responsibility to open a school, hire a teacher, monitor school progress and set school policies. They were offered a subsidy of 100 rupees a month per enrolled girl aged 5-10. Schools were also offered start-up packages of textbooks and supplies. Challenges faced by the largely illiterate VEC, including finding a suitable teacher, were significant.

It was found that:

- While the rural girls’ project did succeed in increasing the proportion of girls in school, enrolment of boys did not increase, and there was evidence that it may even have resulted in a reduction of boys’ schooling in some villages.
- Creation of new girls’ schools in urban areas relaxed constraints on boys’ schools. This was because fewer girls took places in existing schools, and boys were allowed to enrol in the girls’ schools. Therefore both girls and boys enrolment increased sharply as a result.
- Modest fees charged by the Rural Girls’ Fellowship Schools made it more costly to enrol boys in the Girls’ Fellowship School than the Government Boys’ School.
- Poor parents who were asked to pay even the most modest fees to educate girls are unlikely to pay if school quality is considered poor.

In villages that did not have potential female teachers, VEC’s sometimes hired teachers from outside the village. Other villages decided to hire male local teachers to overcome this problem. Therefore academic qualifications of teachers varied between villages, as male teachers tended to be more qualified than females.
In Nepal, marked differences in educational outcomes exist between male and female students from different regions. This is partly the result of a combination of Nepal’s geographical and socio-economic diversity and the variety of attitudes that exist towards education. The system across the country appears to favour males access, participation and achievements. This paper describes the way in which the Nepal Secondary Education Development Project (NSEDP), attempted to address these gender-related differences through the introduction of two distinct but complementary training initiatives. The mixed experiences of these two approaches provide revealing insight into the obstacles that can delay or even prevent real change.

The central aim of the NSEDP was to increase overall levels of enrolment, attendance and performance, but with a particular emphasis on girls. The first training initiative addressed the negative attitudes of teachers to girls’ education. To this end, a training unit on ‘gender issues in teaching’ was included in the in-service teacher-training programme. Despite positive results achieved in the initial training of master teacher trainers (those who go on to train other teacher trainers), no gender-training material was included in training notes that were distributed to training centres for use during in-service courses. This was because the training co-ordinator (an assigned government officer) decided that it was not relevant. An international adviser on science education supported this view. Gender-awareness among government education sector officials and their international advisors was disappointing. Attempts were made to train project and ministry staff, support the appraisal of interventions, and help with amendments to some activities. Only after considerable persistence by the social development consultant, gender-awareness was included in the training.

The second approach of the NSEDP to raising awareness of gender issues was through a series of workshops to develop strategies to improve the quality of education in Nepal. One was held in each region of the country, to reflect the diversity of issues from different regions. Participants included parent representatives of school management committees, teachers, head-teachers, teacher trainees, supervisors and district and regional ministry educational officers. The overall objective of the workshops was to devise practical steps, relevant to particular localities, to address constraints to educational achievement identified by the participants. In order to avoid the reluctant or defensive response anticipated from education sector staff, gender-awareness was not an explicit objective in the title of the workshop, nor was it stated as a theme. This was possible as the difference between the educational outcomes of the male and female sectors in Nepal is so marked that its identification by participants as a problem was considered almost guaranteed. Workshop participants expressed a clear articulation of constraints to girls’ schooling and practical suggestions for policy options and community strategies to address constraints. Therefore disguising gender training into sector-specific workshops is helpful for overcoming resistance (mainly male) among policy-makers to discussing gender issues.
Over the last decade USAID has developed programmes and policies in a range of countries with the aim of increasing girls’ access to education, improving the quality of that education and strengthening the institutions that support primary education. This evaluation of its programmes and policies in this area is based on a literature review and findings from field studies in five countries (Guinea, Guatemala, Malawi, Nepal and Pakistan) as well as a country desk study of Egypt and issue-oriented research in Bolivia and Thailand. Five key questions helped structure the evaluation: what are the best ways to get girls into schools?; how can the quality of girls’ education be improved?; what are the best ways to help girls complete basic education?; how are boys affected by efforts to improve girls’ education?; and, what are the critical features of approaches that lead to sustainable outcomes? Answers to these questions form the basis of the report, identifying challenges, and programme and policy approaches that have been shown to be effective. USAID experience indicated that increasing access and participation of girls is still a major challenge, as is the need to improve the quality of education that they receive.

Key findings include:

- Low primary enrolment for girls remains a key challenge, partly due to poor geographical access to schools, safety concerns, cost involved and priority for boys’ education.
- High drop out rates among girls were common in all case study countries.
- Increasing school enrolment has a generally negative impact on education quality as education systems struggle with difficulties of recruiting, training and supervising large numbers of new teachers, constructing, supplying and maintaining new schools. This then leads to low retention rates and poor outcomes, particularly for girls.
- Children of mothers who attended literacy and empowerment programmes in Nepal repeated less grades less often than their peers - an outcome which supports the importance of mothers’ role in the education of their children.
- Boys often benefited from improved access and participation as a result of initiatives aimed at meeting girls’ schooling needs.
- Attempts to scale-up programmes to make curriculum gender neutral and train teachers in gender equity are hampered by lack of common definition of educational quality, difficulties of implementing educational quality nationally, and the difficulties in measuring, monitoring and rewarding educational quality.
- Policy dialogue between donors is impeded by the absence of a common vision, lack of political support, dialogue with stakeholders and a policy framework to help facilitate quality improvements at local level.

Main recommendations for the above include:

- Reform of basic education systems to increase the supply of primary schools and increase government investment in primary education.
- Restructure and strengthen educational institutions (private and public).
- Locate schools near girls and design schools that are acceptable for them (e.g. with women teachers).
- Engage community participation and minimise obstacles to girls’ participation (e.g. safety concerns, costs of schooling and girl-friendly regulations).
- Actions to improve girls’ education need to be both top-down from government policy level, and bottom-up from community level.
• Policy initiatives need to institutionalise commitment, investments and incentives, and popular visions and expectations of girls’ schooling need to be shaped by political and other leaders.
• Increase policy dialogue and a common donor agenda for approaching quality girls’ education.
III. Further resources

1. Web resources

International coverage

a) Gateways

ELDIS - Education section
http://nt1.ids.ac.uk/eldis/educ/educ.htm
Links to over 90 online documents and key organisations focusing on gender and education.

Gender, Science, Technology Gateway - Education section
http://gstgateway.wigsat.org/TA/education.html
Provides links to a range of sex-disaggregated databases of statistics (including UNESCO), full-text articles and reports on gender issues in science and technology education, and general formal and non-formal education/training.

Literacy Online
http://www.literacyonline.org/
Gateway to electronic resources and tools on adult literacy worldwide, searchable by topic/theme (e.g. women and literacy) and country/region. Provides access to International Literacy Explorer http://www.literacyonline.org/explorer/, a teacher training tool for basic education including descriptions of projects focusing on gender and development.

See also: UNESCO Education Information Service (below).

b) Bilateral/multilateral agency & NGO sites

Early Childhood Care and Development
http://www.ecdgroup.com/
International resources including training and case study materials on the management of early childhood care programmes.

OECD/DAC Gender Equality Group
Provides access to full-text policy statements, reports and publications on gender equality from OECD/DAC member agencies, including Reaching the goals in the S-21: gender equality and education, Volume 1 (in PDF format).

Partnership on Sustainable Strategies for Girls’ Education
http://www.girlseducation.org/
Inter-agency group comprising DFID, Rockefeller Foundation, UNICEF and the World Bank. Includes a searchable database of articles and reports, access to sex-disaggregated data for primary, secondary and tertiary education, projects and programmes of partner and other bilateral and multilateral agencies, and good practice cases.
UNESCO Education Information Service
http://www.unesco.org/education/
Provides an excellent gateway to online materials. It features online sex-disaggregated data (on enrolment, educational attainment and teaching staff), information on women-targeted programmes, full-text online materials on education, and links to other sites.

UNICEF
http://www.unicef.org/
Includes the full online version of The state of the world’s children 1999: education. Also a world map of indicators which reports sex differences in literacy rates, and primary and secondary school enrolment ratios: http://www.unicef.org/statis/

A list of gender and education resources is available on the UNICEF Education Initiatives page http://www.unicef.org/programme/education/girl_bib.htm

USAID Advanced Basic Education & Literacy Programme
Links to a variety of publications about policies, strategies and activities for improving women’s and girls’ education in different countries.

The USAID site also provides access to the Global Education Database 2000, a downloadable database of international education statistics including UNESCO and DHS statistics: http://www.usaid.gov/educ_training/ged.htm

World Bank

A good range of full-text online papers on access and equity in education are available on the Bank’s education pages at: http://www.worldbank.org/html/extdr/educ/edu_equi/access.htm

c) Research

ID21 Education
http://www.id21.org/education/
Includes summaries of gender and education research, and the March 1999 issue of Insights on gender and education.

d) General

British Library for Development Studies (BLDS)
http://www.ids.ac.uk/blds/
Contains over 300 references to printed and online material on gender and education.

Institute of Education Library
http://www.ioe.ac.uk/library/librarycatalogues.html
Contains over 300 references to printed material on gender and education.
**World Data on Education**
http://www.ibe.unesco.org/Inf_Doc/Nat_reps/wdepfome.htm
Prepared by the International Bureau of Education (IBE) this is a searchable database containing country level educational sector profiles of 144 countries. Includes links to general and official information sources on education, including statistics and indicators.

**Sites relevant to specific regions**

a) **Africa**

*Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA)*
http://www.adeanet.org/
A network of African ministries of education, development agencies, education specialists and researchers, and NGOs active in education. The website includes details of ADEA’s working groups, including the Working Group on Female Participation in Education:

Also provides access to the *Statistical profile of education in Sub-Saharan Africa* (SPESSA), a Windows-based programme including sex-disaggregated education data for Sub-Saharan Africa at: http://www.bellanet.org/partners/adea/spessa/en_spessa.html

See also: Series’ (below)

*Female Education in Mathematics and Science in Africa (FEMSA) Project*
http://www.fawe.org/femsa/myweb/Defaultold.htm
Provides information about the project and contact details for FEMSA centres in participating countries.

*Forum of African Women Educationalists (FAWE)*
http://www.fawe.org/
An organisation whose membership includes women government ministers of education and women directors of education, working across Sub-Saharan Africa to support girls and women to acquire education. Website includes online versions of the *FAWE Newsletter*, list of publications and contact details of FAWE National Chapters.

b) **Asia**

*Literary Resource Centre Network*
http://www.accu.or.jp/literacy/lrc/index.htm
Reports on literacy projects targeting women and girls in Asian countries.

c) **Latin America**

*Inter-American Council for Integral Development (CIDI)*
http://www.cidi.oas.org/stromindice.htm
Offers some full-text articles on gender and education in Latin America.
2. Series’

**African Academy of Science publications** including research reports, discussion papers and other publications from AAS on the research priorities for the education of girls and women in Africa listed at:

**Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA)**
Lists publications available to order focusing on female participation from FAWE, FEMSA, African Academy of Sciences/FEMED Project, and the Partnership for Strategic Resource Planning in Africa.

**Commonwealth Secretariat Education Department Gender in Education Papers**
Occasional papers on a variety of topics relating to gender and education, available from:
Commonwealth Secretariat, Education Department, Marlborough House, Pall Mall, London SW1Y 5HX, UK. Email: info@commonwealth.int.

**DFID Education Papers**
A series of research papers published by DFID Education Department, including a number focusing on gender and education. Summaries of the papers can be viewed on the ID21 website (see above).

**FAWE Working Papers, Girls’ Education Series, and Books**

**FEMSA Research Reports**
List available on FAWE website at: [http://www.fawe.org/Contents/publications.html](http://www.fawe.org/Contents/publications.html)

**Gender and Education**
A journal mainly covering UK issues, but also includes articles about education policy in the South. There is a charge but a free inspection copy can be viewed online at:
[http://www.carfax.co.uk/gee-ad.htm](http://www.carfax.co.uk/gee-ad.htm)

**Gender and the Digital Divide Seminar Series Papers**
3. Videos


For more videos on gender and education see the following websites:

*Forum of African Women Educationalists (FAWE)*
http://www.fawe.org/Contents/publications.html

*World Bank*
Author index

This index lists all authors whose work appears in this bibliography, alphabetically by surname. Where an author appears on a piece of work as the second, third, fourth, etc., author, they are listed with a cross-reference to the main index entry (that of the first author mentioned on any given piece of work). Numbers after the authors’ names and the year of publication refer to the page on which their work can be found.

Abrioux, E. (1998), 34
Alderman, H. See Kim, J. et al. (1999)
Bendera, S. (1999), 9
Benoliel, S. See O’Gara, C. et al. (1999)
Brenner, M.B. (1998), 21
Brock, C. and Cammish, N.K. (1998), 9
Bruce, L. See Kane, E. et al. (1998)
CIDA (1996), 48
Commonwealth Secretariat (2000), 26
Cottingham, S., Metcalf, K. and Phnuyal, B. (1998), 34
Croft, A. (2000), 31
Erossa, V. (1996), 27
Female Education in Mathematics and Science in Africa (FEMSA) (1998), 27
Gaynor, C. (1997), 32
Harris, M. (1999), 28
Hussain, N. (1992), 36
Hyde, K.A.L. (1998), 10
Hyde, K.A.L. (1999), 21
Hyde, K.A.L. and Miske, S. (2000), 51
Jayaweera, S. (1997), 18
Jules, V. See Kutnick, P. et al.. (1997)
Kane, E., Bruce, L. and O’Reilly de Brun, M. (1998), 52
Kim, J., Alderman, H., and Orazem, P.F. (1999), 53
Kumar, A. and Vlassoff, C. (1997), 19
Layne, A. See Kutnick, P. et al.. (1997)
Leach, F. (1999), 36
Leach, F. (2000), 41
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leach, F. and Machakanja, P., with Mandoga, J.</td>
<td>(2000), 13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leo-Rhynie, E.</td>
<td>(1999), 49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logan, B.I. and Beoku-Betts, J.A.</td>
<td>(1996), 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Longwe, S.H.</td>
<td>(1998), 19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meekers, D. and Ahmed, G.</td>
<td>(1999), 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metcalf, K.</td>
<td>See Cottingham, S. et al. (1998)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O’Reilly de Brun, M.</td>
<td>See Kane, E. et al. (1998)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD/DAC</td>
<td>(1998), 42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orazem, P.F.</td>
<td>See Kim, J. et al. (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phnuyal, B.</td>
<td>See Cottingham, S. et al. (1998)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rathgeber, E. M.</td>
<td>(2000), 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robinson-Pant, A.</td>
<td>(2000), 38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rogers, A.</td>
<td>(1997), 38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rose, P.</td>
<td>See Colclough, C. et al. (1998)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales, V.</td>
<td>(1999), 33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sey, H.</td>
<td>(1997), 24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sibbons, M.</td>
<td>(1998), 54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stromquist, N.</td>
<td>(1994), 44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stromquist, N.</td>
<td>(1998), 44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swainson, N.</td>
<td>(1996), 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swainson, N.</td>
<td>(2000), 45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tietjen, K.</td>
<td>See O’Gara, C. et al. (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>(1997), 50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>(1999), 17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wamahiu, S.P.</td>
<td>(1996), 24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wazir, R.</td>
<td>(2000), 46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yates, R.</td>
<td>(1997), 39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>