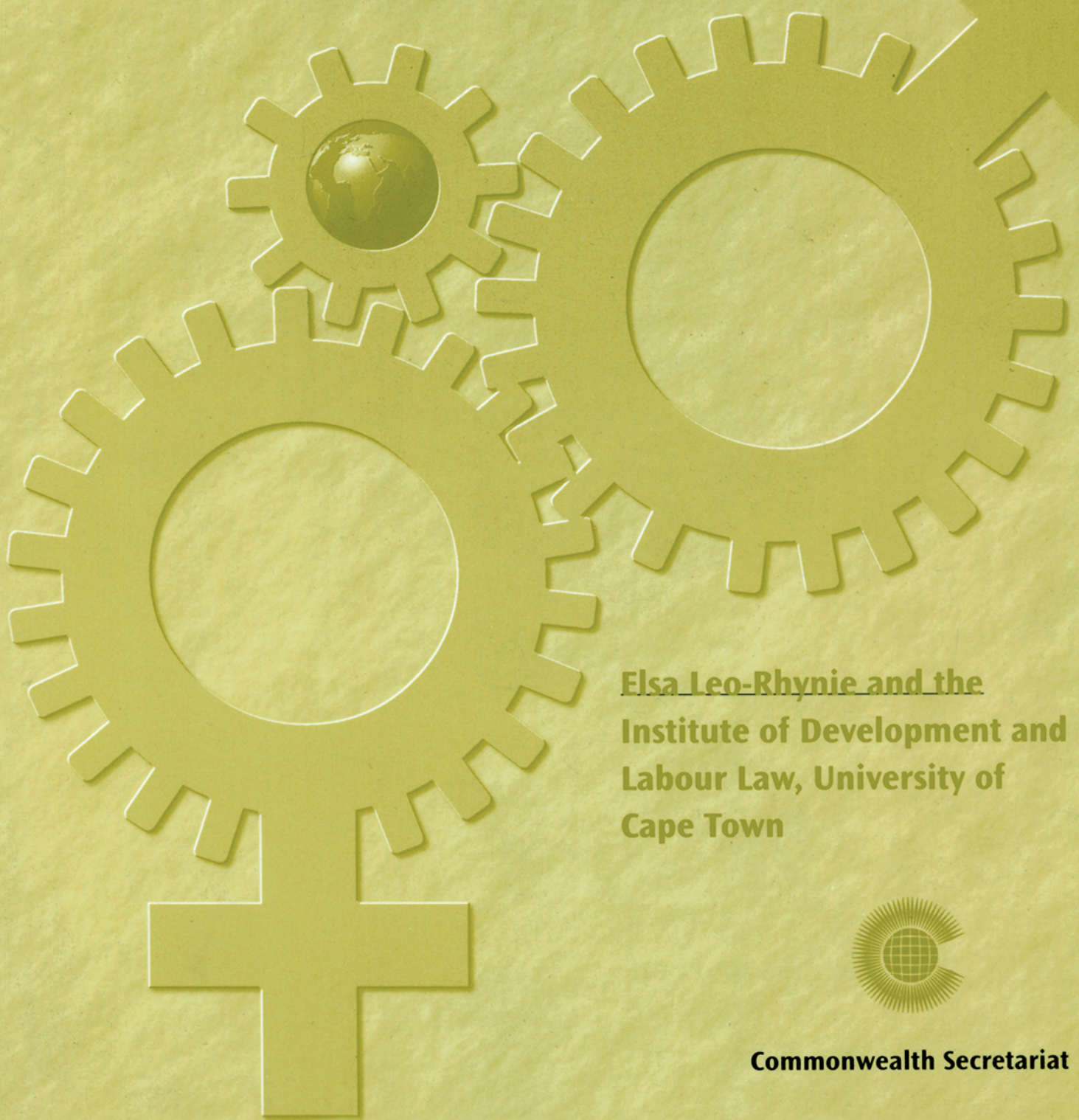


Gender Mainstreaming in Education

**A Reference Manual for Governments
and Other Stakeholders**



**Elsa Leo-Rhynie and the
Institute of Development and
Labour Law, University of
Cape Town**



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Commonwealth Secretariat

Gender Management System Series

Gender Management System Handbook
Using Gender-Sensitive Indicators: A Reference Manual for Governments and Other Stakeholders
Gender Mainstreaming in Development Planning: A Reference Manual for Governments and Other Stakeholders
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Marlborough House
Pall Mall, London SW1Y 5HX,
United Kingdom

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June 1999

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Designed and published by the Commonwealth Secretariat.
Printed in the United Kingdom by Abacus Direct.

Wherever possible, the Commonwealth Secretariat uses paper sourced from sustainable forests or from sources that minimise a destructive impact on the environment.

Copies of this publication can be ordered direct from:

Vale Packaging Ltd,
420 Vale Road, Tonbridge, Kent
TN9 1TD, United Kingdom
Tel: + 44 (0)1732 359387
Fax: +44 (0) 1732 770620
e-mail: vale@vale-ltd.co.uk

0-85092-598-3

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Preface

In 1996, Commonwealth Ministers Responsible for Women's Affairs mandated the Commonwealth Secretariat to develop the concept of the Gender Management System (GMS), a comprehensive network of structures, mechanisms and processes for bringing a gender perspective to bear in the mainstream of all government policies, programmes and projects. The success of the GMS depends upon a broad-based partnership in society in which government consults and acts co-operatively with the other key stakeholders, who include civil society and the private sector. The establishment and strengthening of gender management systems and of National Women's Machineries was the first of 15 government action points identified in the 1995 Commonwealth Plan of Action on Gender and Development.

This reference manual has been produced to assist member governments in meeting their commitment to implementing the Plan of Action. It is hoped that it will be used by development policy-makers, planners, field staff and others, in conjunction with other publications relating to the particular national context.

This manual is intended to assist readers in using a GMS to mainstream gender in the education sector. It is part of a Gender Management System Series, which provides tools and sector-specific guidelines for gender mainstreaming. This manual is intended to be used in combination with the other documents in the Gender Management System Series, particularly the *Gender Management System Handbook*.

The development of this manual and the other elements of the Gender Management System Series has been a collaborative effort between the Commonwealth Secretariat's Gender and Youth Affairs Division and many individuals and groups. Their contributions to the thinking behind the GMS are gratefully acknowledged. In particular, I would like to thank the following: all those member governments who supported the development of the GMS and encouraged us to move the project forward; participants at the first GMS meeting in Britain in February 1997 and at the GMS Workshop in Malta in April 1998, who provided invaluable conceptual input and feedback; and the Steering Committee on the Plan of Action (SCOPA). I am also most grateful to: the various consultants who wrote and edited the text of the manual, including Professor Elsa Leo-Rhynie, University of the West Indies, research assistant Diana Thorburn, staff of the Institute of Development and Labour Law, University of Cape Town, and Daniel Woolford, Consultant Editor for the GMS Series; and the staff of the Gender Affairs Department, Gender and Youth Affairs Division, Commonwealth Secretariat, particularly Ms Eleni Stamiris, former Director of the Division, who took the lead in formulating the GMS concept and mobilising the various stakeholders in its development, Dr Judith May-Parker who provided substantive editorial input, and Dr Rawwida Baksh-Soodeen, Project Co-ordinator of the Gender Management System Series, who guided the project through to publication.

We hope that this resource series will be of genuine use to you in your efforts to mainstream gender.

Nancy Spence
Director
Gender and Youth Affairs Division
Commonwealth Secretariat

1

Introduction

Education, Gender and Development

Education is universally recognised as playing a key role in sustainable social and economic development. Regardless of the ideology underlying approaches to development, education is always cited as a priority area for attention and the investment of resources.

“The benefits of education are by now well established. Education improves the quality of life. It promotes health, expands access to paid employment, increases productivity in market and non-market work, and facilitates social and political participation.”

Bellew and King, 1993: 285

That such benefits should be experienced by both women and men is fair and equitable. It is also increasingly recognised that ensuring that women receive education makes sense in terms of sustainable economic development. For example, the World Bank’s 1996 progress report on the implementation of its gender policies indicated that since 1985, there had been increased lending for education programmes benefiting women, reflecting the Bank’s recognition that educating women is one of the most important steps in promoting economic growth and development.

The education of women is particularly important given their reproductive role as homemakers and care-givers of children:

“Educated women have smaller families, fewer of their children die in infancy, and the children who survive are healthier and better educated. Moreover, educated women are better prepared to enter the paid labour force, which is critical to the welfare of the many female-headed households in developing countries.”

Bellew and King, 1993: 285

The education of girls and women is therefore an important investment, despite the precarious economic contexts within which many developing Commonwealth member countries have to provide for education. Not only does education have a significant multiplier effect, given the responsibility of women for socialising the next generation, it also enhances the potential of women for contributing to the social, economic and political aspects of national development. Education also has considerable potential, in its many dimensions and processes, for bringing about change which can redress imbalances between women and men as well as other social groups.

However, considerable gender inequalities exist in the education sector. These inequalities are found not only in indicators which can be readily obtained from population census data, such as literacy, enrolment, achievement and levels of schooling attained, but also in several other aspects of education which are of

concern in the pursuit of gender equality and equity, for example, management personnel in decision-making roles, curriculum content and reform, and teacher-student interaction.

Furthermore, current research on gender and education carried out internationally indicates that education, in its many facets of literacy, classroom interaction, curriculum, enrolment, attendance and achievement patterns, and teacher training, plays a significant role in perpetuating gender inequalities.

Gender, equality and equity

Gender refers to the socially constructed, rather than the biologically defined, sex roles and attributes of females and males. The 1995 Commonwealth Plan of Action on Gender and Development defines gender *inter alia*, as the socially defined/constructed differences between women and men that result in women's subordination and inequality in opportunity to a better life.

Gender refers to the historical and sociological relationships between women and men. If development is seen as an attempt to raise the quality of life of all people, gender in development works toward ensuring that the special needs of women vis à vis those of men, are met in this process. The approach presented in this manual recommends a process of gender analysis whereby differences in the status and experiences of women and men in education can be brought to light. In many cases, this may require specific measures to be taken so that women can enjoy the same rights, levels of achievement and standard of living that men do. The advantage of the gender approach is that it also brings to light situations in which it is men who are at a disadvantage – for example, the current under-achievement of young males in the educational systems of many Caribbean countries.

Although the terms gender equality and gender equity are often used interchangeably, they have come to have specific meanings. Gender equality refers to sameness or uniformity in quantity, amount, value and intensity of provisions made and measures implemented for women and men. Equality can usually be legislated. Gender equity refers to doing whatever is necessary to ensure equality of outcomes in the life experiences of women and men. Equity is difficult to legislate: identical treatment may satisfy the equality, but not the equity criterion.

Scope and Objectives of this Manual

The purpose of this manual is to provide guidelines for mainstreaming gender into the education sector, in particular the formal education sector (primary, secondary and tertiary education) of Ministries of Education.

The manual provides an overview of gender issues in the educational sector, including global and Commonwealth mandates for promoting gender equality. It examines such traditional indicators as literacy, enrolment, access to education and attainment, as well as other areas such as legal and administrative frameworks, the proportions of women in decision-making positions, resource allocation, curriculum development, and the organisation of schools and classrooms. It also examines ways in which gender inequalities are perpetuated through the education system.

The manual provides tools for gender analysis and proposes a number of policy interventions which governments may consider adopting, depending on particular national circumstances.

This manual is designed primarily for use by governments which are seeking to implement a policy of gender mainstreaming in their policies, plans and programmes. It is intended for use in the context of a Gender Management System, the gender mainstreaming model promoted by the Commonwealth to assist member countries in working towards gender equality and equity in government and in the broader civil society.

Gender Mainstreaming

Gender mainstreaming means the consistent use of a gender perspective at all stages of the development and implementation of policies, plans, programmes and projects. In the education sector, this would include not only the activities of governments, but also those of schools, colleges and education institutions, and, where appropriate, those of NGOs and the private sector as well.

Mainstreaming gender differs from previous efforts to integrate women's concerns into government activities in that, rather than 'adding on' a women's component to existing policies, plans, programmes and projects, a gender perspective informs these at all stages, and in every aspect of the decision-making process. Gender mainstreaming may thus entail a fundamental transformation of the underlying paradigms that inform education.

Why gender mainstreaming?

The concept of mainstreaming has developed out of a historical background of efforts to advance equality for women. In 1970, Ester Boserup used data and information on development projects in Third World countries to highlight the differential impact on women and men of development and modernisation strategies. Responding to this, liberal feminists in the United States advocated the use of legal and administrative reform to ensure that women and their concerns would be better integrated into economic systems. This led to the development of the women in development (WID) approach, based on the rationale that women constituted a large untapped resource which should be recognised as being potentially valuable in economic development.

The thinking behind the WID approach was strongly affected by the 'trickle down' and 'human capital' development theories of the 1960s and 1970s. These theories were based on the assumption that heavy investment in education systems and in the development of highly trained workers and managers would result in the transformation of 'backward', predominantly agricultural societies, into ones which were industrialised and modernised. The resultant improvements in living conditions, wages, health services, and education would then lead to a 'trickle down' effect in all sectors of the society, and it was assumed that women and men would benefit equally from these changes.

This assumption began to be questioned in the 1970s, however, as the relative position of women over the two decades of modernisation had not only shown very little improvement, but had actually declined in some sectors. In most countries, women's enrolment in educational institutions, particularly at secondary and tertiary levels, was not as high as men's. As new agricultural technologies were developed and introduced, their use was usually directed at men rather than women, despite the fact that many women were involved in agricultural production. And in the formal industrialised sector, women were usually found in low-skill, low-wage, repetitive jobs, which in some cases threatened their health. This was partly due to their low levels of education, but also to the belief that they were not the primary wage earners for their families. Gradually, it became widely recognised that women's experience of

development was different from that of men, and research began to focus on women's views, opinions and experiences.

Initially, intervention programmes were designed using the women in development (WID) approach; providing services or introducing technologies which would reduce the workloads of women, so that they could participate more in educational and other opportunities offered by society. Very little work was done to try and determine *why* women had not benefited as much as men in the development process. There was an acceptance of the existing structures within society and an avoidance of any questioning of, or challenge to the origins of women's subordination. The WID approach also focused on sex as an analytical category without simultaneously examining the effects of race, class and culture; and the potential for, and actual discrimination and exploitation of women by women.

An alternative to the WID approach was offered in the 1980s: the gender and development (GAD) approach. This approach questioned the previous tendency to view women's problems in terms of their sex, i.e. their biological distinctions from men, rather than in terms of their gender, i.e. the social relationship between men and women in which women have been subordinated and oppressed. The GAD approach also emphasises the importance of taking into consideration class/caste and race/ethnic distinctions as these relate to gender. There is, however, the recognition that the concept of patriarchy – the process whereby societal power is generally invested in men, and the various structures of society consistently assign inferior and/or secondary roles to women – operates within as well as across classes/races to subordinate women.

The GAD approach supports the WID view that women should be given the opportunity to participate on equal terms in all aspects of life, but its primary focus is to examine the gender relations of power at all levels in society, so that interventions can bring about equality and equity between women and men in all spheres of life. The state is expected to assist in this process of promotion of women's emancipation, and has been called upon, for example, to assume the responsibility of facilitating women's participation in the productive sphere by providing social services such as child care, which women in many countries provide on a voluntary or private basis. The GAD approach also places strong emphasis on legal reform.

It has been noted that planning using the WID approach is much more popular than gender planning because it is less threatening (Moser, 1993). The WID approach is, however, an 'add-on' rather than an integrative approach to the issue. In the GAD approach, women are viewed as agents of change rather than as passive recipients of development assistance. The intervention strategies of a GAD perspective do not seek merely to integrate women into ongoing developmental initiatives; they seek to bring about structural change and shifts in power relationships, and in so doing, to eliminate gender biases at all levels.

Mainstreaming gender in the education sector

Key issues and challenges involved in engendering the education sector incorporate both WID and GAD perspectives. These issues include:

- ◆ obtaining a clear quantitative picture of gender roles and ratios in various levels and areas of the educational system using gender disaggregated data;
- ◆ identifying possible factors related to any gender gaps and inequalities identified, and planning for the elimination of these factors;
- ◆ assessing the special educational needs, immediate and practical as well as long term and strategic, of girls and boys, women and men, and planning specifically to meet these needs; and

- ◆ ensuring that women and men share equitably in the designing, planning, decision-making, management, administration and delivery of education, and also benefit equitably in terms of access, participation and the allocation of resources.

Whereas a WID approach addresses some of women's needs, it does little to break down existing stereotypes and male-oriented cultural patterns. Most authorities have difficulty accepting gender as an important planning issue. This has been attributed to the fact that, although in many countries, women's bureaux and ministries have been established, the decision-making processes are still largely male-dominated and gender-blind. When gender planning does take place, it still tends to be an 'add-on' type of activity, and also perpetuates gender stereotypes (Moser, 1989).

It is important in planning policies and strategies for mainstreaming gender in the education system, therefore, to consider the theoretical bases from which development projects for women originate – the shift in emphasis from women in development to gender and development has the potential for more efficient use of development resources, and greater long term benefits, since a major objective of the GAD approach is ensuring that women are empowered to affect development planning and implementation.

The process of mainstreaming gender thus includes:

- ◆ questioning the underlying paradigm on which the national policy, goals and objectives have been based;
- ◆ joint programming with other development entities, including other government ministries and departments, intergovernmental and non-governmental organisations (IGOs and NGOs);
- ◆ aligning with other entities' priorities, activities and critical issues;
- ◆ placing gender-sensitive women (and men) in strategic positions in policy-setting and decision-making;
- ◆ making women visible in all data; and
- ◆ providing training in gender analysis, methodology and awareness.

These are important elements in the mainstreaming of gender in education, which will be guided by overall national goals, objectives and priorities, but should specifically seek to:

- ◆ make explicit the importance of gender along with race/ethnicity and social class/caste as a factor for consideration in the process of education;
- ◆ ensure gender equity in access both generally, and in relation to studies which lead to better careers and job opportunities;
- ◆ overcome structural barriers, whether they be legal, economic, political, or cultural which may influence the access and/or participation of either sex in educational offerings;
- ◆ increase the awareness of the active role which women can and do play in development; and
- ◆ increase the participation of women in decision-making in the management and implementation of education.

2

Global and Commonwealth Mandates and Trends in the Education Sector

The mainstreaming of gender into all activities of government has received endorsement at the highest political levels. It is the central strategy of both the 1995 Commonwealth Plan of Action and the 1995 Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action. In addition, both these documents include specific references to the education sector.

Beijing and Education

The Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing (1995) agreed on universal principles of gender equity and the Commonwealth member states are all signatories to the Beijing Declaration. Specific priorities of the Beijing Declaration are, *inter alia*, that:

- ◆ women's rights are human rights;
- ◆ women should have access to and enjoy the same standards of living as men;
- ◆ women have the right to freedom of thought, conscience, religion and belief, and the possibility of realising their own vision of their potential;
- ◆ women should participate in all levels of decision-making and are to have access to power;
- ◆ men and women should share family responsibilities equally, and women should be free to control all aspects of their health, especially their own fertility; and
- ◆ women should have access to economic resources, including land, credit, science and technology, vocational training, information, communication, markets, and of course, the world of learning: literacy, schooling and formal and informal education.

The Beijing Platform for Action includes a section on the education and training of women. The strategic objectives identified in that section are:

- ◆ ensure equal access to education;
- ◆ eradicate illiteracy among women;
- ◆ improve women's access to vocational training, science and technology, and continuing education;
- ◆ develop non-discriminatory education and training;
- ◆ allocate sufficient resources for and monitor the implementation of educational reforms; and
- ◆ promote lifelong education and training for girls and women.

Recognising that non-discriminatory education contributes to more equal relationships between men and women, the Platform for Action identifies areas in which discrimination in education exists, including:

- ◆ customary attitudes;
- ◆ early marriages and pregnancies;
- ◆ lack of gender awareness on the part of educators;

- ◆ girls' domestic responsibilities and the reduced time they are allowed for education; and
- ◆ sexual harassment.

Discrimination in education resources is found in:

- ◆ inadequate and gender-biased teaching and educational materials;
- ◆ lack of adequate schooling facilities, particularly for girls' special needs;
- ◆ stereotyped images of women and men in educational materials and teaching;
- ◆ gender-biased curricula and teaching materials which reinforce traditional sex roles;
- ◆ gender-biased science curricula and texts; and
- ◆ insufficient resources for education, particularly for females.

The Platform for Action recommends strategies specific to each of the above, and advocates use of other avenues for change, such as exploiting the potential of the powerful mass media as an educational tool, and specifically targeting the involvement of women in technology education.

Commonwealth Mandates

The 1995 Commonwealth Plan of Action on Gender and Development sets as a strategic objective of member governments to “take positive and/or affirmative action to provide equal opportunities in educational institutions...”. To realise this and other strategic objectives, the Plan of Action proposed a number of action points that governments may wish to consider adopting, including action for human resource development – literacy, training and education, science and technology.

Specifically, the Plan of Action recommends the following actions:

- ◆ undertake diverse and special training as well as informal and formal education programmes directed at women, including programmes to strengthen their self-esteem; and
- ◆ encourage gender-inclusive curricula and devote particular attention to the participation of women in training-related programmes leading to occupations such as science and technology, industry and commerce.

The 1996 Commonwealth Women's Affairs Ministers' Meeting in Trinidad and Tobago reviewed progress in implementing the Plan of Action, and made further recommendations on its implementation. In particular, they recommended that Ministers of Education be requested to initiate more dynamic strategies for ensuring that women and girls are given equal access to educational opportunities, and participate more fully in training towards non-traditional occupations such as science, technology and commerce. They also recommended that additional resources be committed to distance education programmes such as those offered by the Commonwealth of Learning to help achieve these objectives.

A significant outcome of the meeting was the decision taken by Commonwealth Women's Affairs Ministers that member countries should be encouraged to achieve a target of at least 30 per cent women in decision-making in the political, public and private sectors by the year 2005. This proposal was endorsed by Commonwealth Heads of Government at their 1997 summit in Edinburgh.

Conferences of Commonwealth Education Ministers

Commonwealth Education Ministers, at their Thirteenth Conference in Botswana in 1997, commended the Secretariat for, among other activities, the pursuit of gender

Table 1 Educational Indicators for Selected Commonwealth Member Countries

Country	Adult Literacy Rate 1970		Adult Literacy Rate 1990		No. of Radio Sets per 1000 Pop. 1991
	f	m	f	m	
Australia	-	-	-	-	1268
Bangladesh	12	36	22	47	43
Botswana	44	37	65	84	122
Canada	-	-	-	-	1029
Ghana	18	43	51	70	268
India	20	47	34	62	79
Jamaica	97	96	99	98	420
Lesotho	74	49	-	-	32
Malawi	18	42	34	65	220
Malaysia	48	71	70	86	430
Mauritius	59	77	75	85	359
New Zealand	-	-	-	-	927
Namibia	-	-	-	-	127
Nigeria	14	35	40	62	173
Pakistan	11	30	21	47	90
Papua New Guinea	24	39	38	65	73
South Africa	-	-	75	78	303
Sierra Leone	8	18	11	31	223
Singapore	55	92	74	92	646
Sri Lanka	69	85	83	93	197
Tanzania	18	48	31	62	25
Trinidad and Tobago	89	95	93	96	492
Uganda	30	52	32	65	109
United Kingdom	-	-	-	-	1143
Zambia	37	66	65	81	81
Zimbabwe	47	63	60	74	84

Source: *The State of the World's Children 1995* (UNICEF, 1995)

equity in its education work programme, and proposed that attention be given, *inter alia*, to continuing to address gender concerns in the educational system, paying attention to the problems of both girls and boys. They also commended such Commonwealth programmes as higher education activities targeting women managers.

The Twelfth Conference of Commonwealth Education Ministers, in Pakistan in 1994, called on member countries to make special efforts to enhance the participation of girls and women in science and technology (p. 9, para.17). It also called for a priority investment in women and girls as an initiative in human resource development (p. 23, para. 85). Mention of lack of proper security for girls was listed as a reason for them being kept out of school (p. 30, para. 122).

No. of Television Sets per 1000 Pop. 1991	Primary Enrolment Ratio (Gross) 1960		Primary Enrolment Ratio (Gross) 1986-92		Primary Enrolment Ratio (Net) 1986-92		% Primary School Children in Grade 5 1986-92	High School Enrolment Ratio (Gross) 1986-92	
	f	m	f	m	f	m		f	m
480	103	103	107	107	98	98	99	83	81
5	31	80	71	83	74	64	47	12	25
16	43	38	121	116	95	100	84	57	50
639	105	108	106	108	99	98	96	104	104
15	31	58	69	84	-	-	69	29	47
35	44	83	84	112	-	-	62	32	54
131	79	78	108	105	99	100	96	66	59
6	109	73	116	97	62	77	65	31	21
-	26	50	60	72	50	47	46	3	5
149	79	108	93	93	-	-	98	59	57
217	90	96	108	104	87	90	98	56	52
443	106	110	103	104	100	99	94	85	83
21	-	-	126	112	-	-	53	47	36
33	31	54	62	79	-	-	65	17	24
18	11	39	30	54	-	-	48	13	29
2	15	24	65	76	78	66	69	10	15
98	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
10	15	30	39	56	-	-	-	12	21
378	101	120	107	110	100	100	100	71	70
35	95	107	106	110	-	-	95	77	71
2	16	33	68	70	50	50	79	4	6
315	108	111	96	96	90	90	89	82	80
10	18	39	64	78	58	51	-	8	16
434	92	92	105	104	97	98	-	88	85
26	40	61	92	101	83	80	-	14	25
26	65	82	118	120	-	-	94	42	54

Education and Gender in the Commonwealth

Literacy and enrolment are the two main indicators cited in the gender and development literature with regard to education. These factors are essential to, but not sufficient for, the achievement of gender equality and equity in a society.

Literacy

Literate people are better able to control, manage and improve their health, nutrition and education. Where women are most often the carers of children, their literacy translates into increased competence in looking after their children. Further, advances in women's education and lower fertility rates are closely related.

Table 2 Gender-Related Development Indicators for Selected Commonwealth Countries

Country	Life Expectancy at Birth (Years), 1994		Adult Literacy Rate (%), 1994		Combined Enrolment Ratio (%), 1994		Earned Income Share (%), 1994	
	f	m	f	m	f	m	f	m
Australia	81.0	75.2	99.0	99.0	80.0	77.0	39.8	60.2
The Bahamas	76.5	70.1	97.7	98.4	77.0	73.0	39.5	60.5
Bangladesh	56.5	56.3	24.3	48.4	34.0	45.0	23.1	76.9
Barbados	78.2	73.2	96.6	97.9	76.0	74.0	39.5	60.5
Botswana	53.7	50.5	58.0	79.3	72.0	70.0	38.9	61.1
Cameroon	56.5	53.7	49.5	74.0	42.0	51.0	30.9	69.1
Canada	81.7	76.3	99.0	99.0	100.0	100.0	37.8	62.2
Cyprus	79.2	74.9	94.0	94.0	75.0	75.0	27.1	72.9
Fiji Islands	74.1	69.9	89.2	93.7	78.0	80.0	21.4	78.6
The Gambia	47.2	44.0	22.7	50.9	27.0	41.0	37.8	62.2
Ghana	58.5	54.8	51.0	75.2	38.0	50.0	43.5	56.5
Guyana	66.7	60.0	97.4	98.5	67.0	66.0	26.4	73.6
India	61.4	61.1	36.1	64.5	47.0	63.0	25.7	74.3
Jamaica	76.1	71.7	88.4	79.6	67.0	64.0	39.2	60.8
Kenya	54.8	52.3	67.8	85.2	54.0	56.0	42.0	58.0
Lesotho	59.4	56.8	60.9	80.3	60.0	51.0	30.3	69.7
Maldives	61.5	64.2	92.9	93.1	70.0	70.0	35.4	64.6
Malta	78.6	74.1	86.0	86.0	75.0	79.0	20.9	79.1
Malawi	41.5	40.6	40.4	71.7	63.0	71.0	42.0	58.0
Malaysia	73.5	69.0	77.5	88.2	63.0	61.0	30.2	69.8
Mauritius	74.2	67.4	78.4	86.8	62.0	61.0	25.4	74.6
Mozambique	47.5	44.5	22.1	55.8	21.0	30.0	41.3	58.7
New Zealand	79.2	73.6	99.0	99.0	96.0	91.0	38.8	61.2
Nigeria	52.6	49.5	43.8	66.1	44.0	55.0	29.5	70.5
Pakistan	63.3	61.3	23.3	49.0	25.0	50.0	20.8	79.2
Papua New Guinea	57.3	55.8	60.7	79.8	34.0	41.0	34.8	65.2
South Africa	66.8	60.8	81.2	81.4	82.0	80.0	30.8	69.2
Sierra Leone	35.2	32.1	16.7	43.7	22.0	34.0	29.7	70.3
Singapore	79.3	74.9	87.2	95.6	71.0	73.0	30.7	69.3
Sri Lanka	74.6	70.0	86.9	93.2	68.0	65.0	34.5	65.5
Swaziland	60.5	56.0	73.3	76.4	70.0	74.0	34.9	65.1
Tanzania	51.7	48.9	54.3	78.8	33.0	35.0	47.3	52.7
Trinidad & Tobago	75.4	70.8	97.2	98.6	67.0	67.0	29.7	70.3
Uganda	41.1	39.3	48.7	73.2	30.0	39.0	40.7	59.3
United Kingdom	79.3	74.1	99.0	99.0	86.0	85.0	35.0	65.0
Zambia	43.3	41.7	69.3	84.4	44.0	51.0	38.8	61.2
Zimbabwe	50.1	48.1	79.0	90.2	64.0	72.0	37.4	62.2

Source: Human Development Report 1995 (UNDP, 1995)

Literacy is a basic tool for upward social mobility and an improved standard of living. A literate person not only has access to a wider range of jobs, and to better-paying jobs, but with the ability to read and write, a person can take advantage of continuing education. Educational qualifications are key to improving one's standard of living. In terms of empowerment, a literate person has greater access to sources of knowledge, and is better able to participate in decision-making in the family, community and wider society. In uplifting women's and men's lives, literacy is thus a fundamental priority. While literacy rates for both men and women have increased over the past 20 years, there are still many Commonwealth countries where women's literacy is considerably lower than men's (see Tables 1 and 2).

Enrolment

Enrolment in school is, like literacy, crucial to bettering one's life. Again, the figures for both sexes have increased in the past 30 years. Moreover, the differential between males' and females' enrolment is decreasing.

In some Commonwealth countries there are more females enrolled in school, at all levels, than males. Thus, while the quest for gender equality in education rightly focuses mainly on young women and girls, a case of reverse bias could be argued were the situation of boys and men not addressed too, particularly in those regions of the Commonwealth countries where enrolment, attendance and achievement rates are increasingly lower for boys than for girls. Of the 25 countries listed in Table 1, just over half, 13, have higher ratios for female secondary school enrolment, and 12 have higher, equal or practically equal ratios for female primary school enrolment (see Table 1).

Such data have been cited in support of the male marginalisation thesis as proposed by Miller (1994). The inference is that girls' successes are gained at the expense of boys' opportunities; but in most instances, the girls are outperforming boys despite the many obstacles, structural and cultural, which girls experience in gaining access to, and participating in educational activities. In Jamaica, for example, the number of places allocated to boys and girls in high schools result in many girls being denied places, despite the fact that their performance in the Common Entrance Examination for high schools is better than that of boys who are given places (Leo-Rhynie, 1996).

Other indicators

Ostergaard (1992), while acknowledging the importance of such indicators as literacy and enrolment, which provide data on the education stock, expresses the need for information on the 'flow of education'; indicators such as attendance, transition and retention rates, continuation data, areas of specialisation, and non-formal education.

Furthermore, in order to gain a full picture of gender imbalances and inequalities in the education sector, as well as on how such inequalities are perpetuated through education, it is necessary to focus on such indicators as:

- ◆ management structures (i.e. female/male representation in decision-making at Ministry, School Board and institutional levels);
- ◆ access (e.g. male/female admissions at different levels);
- ◆ resource allocation (e.g. per capita expenditure on female and male students); and
- ◆ achievement (i.e. female/male performance in national examinations).

These are examined in greater detail in Section 5 and the Appendix.

3

Gender in the Education Sector

Gender inequalities and inequities are both manifested in the education sector and perpetuated through educational structures and processes. A number of issues have been identified which bear upon existing inequalities and their perpetuation within the education system. In examining these issues, it should be borne in mind that they are general trends rather than fixed norms. The situation varies from country to country and, even within one country, is constantly evolving.

Gender Role Socialisation

Various theories have been proposed to explain the complex process of gender role socialisation. It is generally agreed, however, that gender role socialisation begins in the family, and that nursery and primary schools continue the process as well as play a part in constructing gender through their organisation and practices. These processes and practices are then continued by the secondary and tertiary education system, though perhaps in different ways, as children progress into adolescence and then adulthood. The media, interaction with other children and other factors also contribute to the gender socialisation process (Measor and Sikes, 1992: 50).

Three different feminist perspectives on gender and education have been identified: the liberal, socialist and radical perspectives (Measor and Sikes, 1992).

- ◆ The liberal view is that education replaces ignorance and prejudice with knowledge and enlightenment. The major concern is with girls and women being allowed equal access to education, and the legal frameworks ensuring equity of access and equal opportunity in educational settings.
- ◆ The socialist perspective involves a commitment to social change with the objective of eliminating social class inequity as well as gender inequity. From this perspective, schools are seen as reproducing the status quo. The agenda here is primarily concerned with the ways in which education reinforces inequity, and methods which need to be implemented to resist or change this.
- ◆ The radical perspective works towards reforming the power relationships between girls and boys in the classroom, where it is assumed that boys dominate the classroom, to the girls' detriment. Similarly, the curriculum, in this view, is geared toward boys' interests, and teachers are found to favour boys over girls. Sexual harassment of girls by male students and teachers is another concern.

The post-modern feminist discourse, which is particularly applicable to gender and education in the varying countries and cultures of the Commonwealth, emphasises difference across race/ethnicity, class/caste and culture lines, and thus highlights the importance of gender analysis, policies and programmes which are sensitive to a country's social and cultural norms. It is recognition of the importance of this sensitivity which makes it very difficult to develop 'generic' gender analytic tools for use in a variety of countries. No single perspective is able to represent the variety and breadth of issues in

gender and education. Together, however, and informed by other perspectives, these approaches can help build a comprehensive picture of the multi-dimensional education process and its role in gender inequity. Any analysis or attempt to mainstream gender must employ a holistic approach, examining institutions and practices in depth.

School Organisation

The issue of coeducational versus single-sex schools has been the topic of some research. The findings are mixed, with some researchers reporting that the sex composition of the school makes very little difference to the achievement of female and male students, while others note significantly higher achievement for both sexes in single-sex schools. One recommendation is that for certain subjects, the best method of achieving equity is to teach the sexes separately, even though the school may be coeducational.

However, it is also argued that the splitting of pupils into groups on the basis of sex is usually justified not on educational grounds, but for reasons of organisational convenience, and that the convenience of sex-segregation is outweighed by the disadvantageous side-effect that it reinforces taken-for-granted views of 'innate' gender differences in interests and abilities. It is argued that sex segregation in school may reduce the opportunities pupils have to test gender stereotypes against the actual behaviour of classmates of the other sex. On this view, even if it does not occur frequently, the significance of sex-segregation in schools should not be underestimated because the few situations in which girls and boys are treated differently may assume a special importance with respect to evolving definitions of femininity and masculinity.

General Content and Structure of Schooling

The view that schools transmit our 'common cultural heritage' has given way to a recognition that out of the enormous range of ideas, values and knowledge available in any culture, only a fraction is selected as suitable for transmission in schools. The question then becomes: what are the criteria behind this selection, which social groups benefit from the inclusion of their forms of thought, and which social groups lose through the exclusion of their forms of thought?

There are persistent sex differences in educational processes within the schools, based on cultural beliefs about sex differences between women and men in both character and ability. Females and males are subjected to differential socialisation in mixed classrooms and are rewarded for different things. Females tend to learn 'femininity' instead of 'masculinity', i.e. they learn to be docile and subservient instead of independent and thoughtful.

Young women and men get very different kinds of preparation for work. At the secondary level, in job-training and in post-secondary education, young women and men choose to take courses that are predominantly filled with one sex or the other. Thus they enter the labour market with different skills and interests that lead to differential treatment by employers.

What is reproduced in school is a gendered society. What we want young people to learn in school is shaped by gender relations and by notions of what young men and women will do differently at work.

The distinction between women's knowledge and men's knowledge is deeply ingrained in the curriculum. Women's knowledge has been vocational, designed

for the practicalities of being a woman, designed for the private sphere. The rest of the curriculum has been designed to educate men for the public sphere.

Both the content and the structure of schooling and training have been designed to prepare young people for a male world. School has traditionally been a preparation for the public, productive sphere, ignoring the private sphere. Learning for family and personal life has been relegated to the family.

Curriculum

The curriculum, from pre-primary to tertiary level, has been subjected to analysis, and gender biases have been identified in the teaching objectives, the subject choices offered, and the teaching materials. Very often the persons developing, as well as those delivering the curriculum, are unaware of these biases and so the blatant as well as the subtle distinctions and discriminations persist.

Differentiated learning pervades the curriculum. There is a widespread built-in assumption that practical subjects for girls should relate to their future roles as mothers and home-makers, while boys are more likely to need preparation for entry into the world of formal employment, and curricular arrangements such as scheduling allow these differences to persist. Most areas of study exclude or trivialise women's contributions, experiences or knowledge. Frequently, different subjects are provided for girls and boys.

These differences can be maintained through tradition and custom. For instance, since adolescent girls may avoid maths and science courses and have lower achievement scores in these areas, they may be less prepared to enter the academic high schools once reserved for men. Girls are also less often exposed to shop and mechanics courses, which would prepare them to enter traditionally male vocational high schools. This problem is often exacerbated at college level. Some countries are addressing this problem by ensuring that both girls and boys are exposed to such classes as design and information technology as well as cookery/domestic science.

Even the teaching of the same subjects can have the effect of reproducing gender divisions. There are two ways in which teachers tend to perpetuate gender divisions between girls and boys in their classroom.

First, research on the way teachers divide their energies among their pupils has shown that there may be an unintended consequence of disadvantaging girls. Teachers tend to focus more attention on the boys than on the girls in their classroom. This has some important consequences:

- 1 Female students are less likely to be challenged and stretched academically, with serious implications for their future performance.
- 2 Because they are less likely than boys to be singled out as worthy recipients of the teacher's attention, girls feel less valued in the classroom, reinforcing other pressures that urge them to take a back seat in classroom activity.
- 3 This may in turn affect their confidence regarding speaking publicly, and thus their participation in politics and the public sphere.

Teachers should make a conscious effort to channel more of their attention and energies to quieter pupils. The neglect of quiet pupils in the classroom works, on the whole, to the disadvantage of girls.

It is only when teachers create an atmosphere in which girls and boys are, and know themselves to be, equally valued and equally welcome, that girls will be positively

encouraged to voice their opinions and ideas. There is evidence, moreover, that a teacher's encouragement is important to the student's career decision.

Secondly, the style of teaching in mixed classes may incline pupils to believe that the subject is more appropriate for one sex than the other.

Curriculum reform will require a fundamental reworking of what knowledge is valued in the curriculum, how that knowledge is made available and how it is taught.

Educational Materials

Much research has been conducted on this topic, and the implications have been noted of the intensive and extensive use of texts in which the stereotyping of gender roles is explicit. Sex stereotypes in society are reflected in sex inequities in curricular materials, which usually portray females and males differently. Textbooks and tests often depict women and men in traditional roles and in occupations that are even more sex-segregated than those they actually fill.

As regards textbooks, research has indicated that there are no sex differences in the kinds of environment in which female and male children are portrayed, but there are differences in the environments portrayed of adults:

- ◆ Adult females were much more often portrayed in the home, and adult males were more often found outdoors, in business, and at school. Social studies, literature and history syllabuses failed to give full due to the range of activity of both sexes, and incorporated values and assumptions that downgrade and devalue women's experience and achievement.
- ◆ As regards illustrations in textbooks, white males are overly represented and shown in a much wider range of occupations than females.
- ◆ The research also indicated that in test materials, as with textbooks, there was a vast over-representation of content related to males.

The adverse effect of sex-stereotyped educational materials on children's occupational aspirations may be assumed. Thus the production of texts which provide alternatives to those in use, and the training of teacher educators so that they can develop and share a critical perspective even when they are forced to use such texts, is vitally important.

Perceptions and Attitudes

Gender inequalities in the education sector are perpetuated by the perceptions and attitudes of a number of different stakeholders.

Girls' own perceptions

Young women may be unwilling to deviate from sex-role norms during adolescence or to take classes judged inappropriate for them because of peer pressures and the attitudes of male classmates. Furthermore, income differences between women and men, inadequate provision of public child-care facilities and the predominance of families with a traditional division of labour are all part of the world young girls know. Their experience takes on meanings that lead to an expectation that traditional patterns will be continued. Elements of domestic gender relations and norms still shape the way they see acceptable options. Any attempt to show young girls that the world is constructed in a way that might be changed, involves not just talking to them, but also showing them that conditions can indeed be altered. Therefore,

political movements need to push for institutional change that demonstrates the possibility of change in the broader society.

There is also the problem of girls' lack of career planning. The more definitely girls plan their working careers, the more their occupational choices will resemble those of men. Planning for a continuous attachment to the labour force will move women in the direction of men's jobs. Young women's changed responses would change the context in which young men have to act. Being confronted with young women who expect equal relationships or no relationships will produce a changed set of rewards and sanctions for male behaviour, thus requiring young men to accept young women as their equals.

Parental attitudes

Parents' lack of awareness about the benefits of education and training girls for girls plays a role in perpetuating gender inequalities. Research has indicated that there is an inter-generational transmission of behaviours and attitudes. Therefore, it is important for parents to develop a positive attitude towards education for their daughters.

Career counselling

Career counsellors have tended to hold traditional attitudes about appropriate occupations for female and male students, discouraging non-traditional aspirations and channelling women into sex-typical occupational choices.

Employers' attitudes

The relationship between education and the labour market requires careful attention. It would not help women to diversify their education and training if no one would employ them once they were qualified. Employers' attitudes often result in discouraging job prospects for young, educated women.

When asked for an explanation for employment patterns, employers cited poor education in inappropriate subjects. This, they thought, was possibly the result of poor career advice. Traditionally, only a small number of women have been educated in scientific or industry-oriented subjects, affecting employers' perceptions of their suitability for training. This is important because employers do not offer only jobs but opportunities for on-the-job training. Those with approved backgrounds are therefore higher up in the queue for recruitment. Employers' preconceptions of women make them treat women (as a group) as a poor investment and this will be reflected in recruitment. Women face discrimination in certain professions because it is expected that they may become pregnant or have children to care for.

Sex-Based Harassment

This area of research is fairly recent but is yielding much information which previously had remained hidden. The research points to the abuse which many female students suffer as members of mixed sex classes, and the lack of sanctions applied to male students and even in some cases male teachers who are guilty of this behaviour. The harassment of young female teachers by male students has also been documented.

Sex-based harassment, which can include a range of behaviours, is based on the presumption of power relations which discriminate against girls and women. Sex-based harassment relegates girls and women to an inferior position relative to boys and men, and makes a female feel embarrassed, frightened, hurt or uncomfortable

because of her sex. The impact on the social and educational experience of girls can be devastating. In some cases girls escape either by ceasing to attend particular subjects or by leaving the school altogether.

Girls at Risk

Another problem relates to girls who are at risk. These include pregnant teenagers or teenage mothers, girls assisting their mothers with domestic tasks, girls suffering from domestic violence or physical or sexual abuse, girls suffering from serious health problems and homeless girls.

Girls at risk experience school-related problems because the curriculum, teaching practice and organisation of schools do not meet their needs. These girls get lower grades and may passively or even actively opt out of schooling.

Vocational Training

Vocational education programmes have traditionally been sex-segregated, channelling males and females into different courses. While females are trained predominantly in health, home economics, and office and business programmes, males can be found primarily in technical preparation, the trades and agriculture.

Enrolment in such programmes has a very significant impact on subsequent employment. Women are also under-represented in apprenticeships because they are less likely to learn about programmes, to qualify, and to be selected. The third and most important source of training occurs on the job. Female jobs are less likely than male jobs to provide on-the-job training.

Informal Interaction Among Students

Although this takes place on a continual basis it is very often facilitated through clubs and societies, sport and other out of classroom activities. Many of these clubs are single-sex, for example Boy Scouts and Girl Guides, so leadership opportunities exist for both male and female students – although they do tend to occur in the context of gender-stereotyped activities. Where clubs are mixed, it is often the case that leadership is dominated by one sex and the club is often seen as being a ‘male’ club, (e.g. the science club) or a ‘female’ club, (e.g. the cookery club). The gender of the club is usually perceived in stereotypical terms.

4

Strategies and Processes for Mainstreaming Gender in the Education Sector

The Gender Management System

To assist member governments in mainstreaming gender into their activities, the Commonwealth is promoting the Gender Management System (GMS), an integrated network of structures, mechanisms and processes designed to make government more gender-aware, increase the numbers of women in decision-making roles within and outside government, facilitate the formulation of gender-sensitive policies, plans and programmes, and promote the advancement of gender equality and equity in the broader civil society.

The enabling environment of a GMS

The establishment and operation of a Gender Management System requires an enabling environment. There are a number of interrelated factors that determine the degree to which the environment in which the GMS is being set up does or does not enable effective gender mainstreaming. These determining factors of the enabling environment include the following:

- ◆ political will and commitment to gender equality at the highest levels;
- ◆ global and regional mandates such as the Commonwealth Plan of Action, the Beijing Platform for Action and CEDAW;
- ◆ a legislative and constitutional framework that is conducive to advancing gender equality;
- ◆ the presence of a critical mass of women in decision-making roles;
- ◆ an autonomous civil society and the role it can play in advancing gender equality;
- ◆ adequate human and financial resources; and
- ◆ donor aid and technical assistance, such as that provided by multilateral and bilateral agencies.

GMS structures and functions

The structural and functional elements of the GMS can be summarised as follows:

- ◆ a Lead Agency (usually the Ministry of Women's/Gender Affairs or other National Women's Machinery), which initiates and strengthens the GMS institutional arrangements, provides overall co-ordination and monitoring, and carries out advocacy, communications, media relations and reporting;
- ◆ a GMS Management Team (consisting of representatives from the Lead Agency, core government ministries such as Finance, Development Planning, Public Service, and Legal Affairs, and a representative of civil society), which provides leadership for the implementation of the GMS, defines broad operational policies, indicators of effectiveness, and timeframes for implementation;
- ◆ Gender Focal Points (senior staff in core and sectoral ministries), which co-ordinate gender activities (e.g. training), promote gender mainstreaming in all activities in their respective sectors, and sit on the Inter-Ministerial Steering Committee (see below);

- ◆ an Inter-Ministerial Steering Committee (whose members are representatives of the Lead Agency and the Gender Focal Points all ministries), which ensures that gender mainstreaming in government policy, planning and programmes in all sectors is co-ordinated and that strong linkages are established between ministries;
- ◆ a Parliamentary Gender Caucus (consisting of women and gender-aware male parliamentarians), which carries out awareness raising, lobbying, and promoting the participation of women in politics; and
- ◆ representatives of civil society (a National Gender Equality Council, academic institutions, NGOs/professional associations, media, the private sector and other stakeholders), who provide inputs to gender analysis, monitoring and evaluation (via academic institutions and NGOs), and to policy and planning (via the National Advisory Council).

GMS processes

The processes involved in implementing a Gender Management System include developing and implementing a national Gender Action Plan, which should include provisions for setting up or strengthening the GMS structures and mechanisms, and for engendering core ministries and sectoral policy and planning. Normally spearheaded by the Ministry of Women's/Gender Affairs or other national women's machinery, the Gender Action Plan should include specific guidelines for setting up Gender Focal Points and mainstreaming gender into the regular policy, planning and implementation cycles of the Ministry of Education. These cycles have five main phases, and a gender perspective needs to be integrated in each phase:

- 1 Gender analysis: this involves analysing the status of women vis-à-vis men in the sector and examining the impact on women and men of education policy.
- 2 Policy development and appraisal: establishing gender priorities according to individual national circumstances, developing policy options to address gender imbalances, and appraising options to determine their gender impact.
- 3 Gender-aware action plans: the output of policy development is a plan which should have a clearly defined gender dimension.
- 4 Implementation: the implementation of the engendered work plan takes place as part of the normal functioning of government.
- 5 Monitoring and evaluation: this involves reviewing key indicators on the status of women in the national context in the education sector, and feeding the findings into the next planning cycle.

Prioritising Goals

The prioritisation of goals and areas for action in mainstreaming gender depends to a large extent on the source of the expressed need for change and the triggers for this change. In most instances, mainstreaming is initiated through a policy statement. Such policy statements usually emanate from a development plan or strategy that has benefited from gender-sensitive intervention – by non-governmental organisations, development agencies, women's organisations and/or women and men who have convinced the government of the advantages, and indeed the necessity for such change.

In some instances, the change is triggered by the requirements of international agencies that insist on countries meeting certain conditions relating to gender equity, and make these conditions a prerequisite for the granting of financial assistance. In such a 'top-down' scenario, the institutional environment may be required to implement change advocated by policy directives, and institutions may respond differently to these requirements. Responses can range from enthusiasm to a cautious acceptance and a willingness to comply, or even to strong resistance.

Sometimes the call for change comes from within individual institutions (a 'bottom-up approach' to mainstreaming). The process here could involve a group of teachers and/or students identifying the need for change in a variety of areas, and working towards effecting this change. In such a situation, changes at the classroom, staff room and local institutional level, such as in access, participation, resource allocation and achievement of male and female students may precede and trigger mainstreaming in institutional management and the policy environment.

The objectives of such localised action are usually targeted at bringing about change within the institutional environment and possibly also working towards having this recognised as a model for change in other institutions. The often quasi-subversive action involved in bringing about such change is usually highly motivated, and can greatly facilitate a national thrust towards gender equality if the persons initiating the change are co-opted to be members of the institutional arrangements for gender mainstreaming, such as a Gender Management System. The ultimate goal is usually to influence policy as it relates to a large number of institutions, and provision of a local success story can assist in the framing of such a policy and its recommendations

Legislative change, for example in the form of a Code of Regulations establishing a framework around which other changes can be developed, may come first; or changes in attitudes brought about by increased awareness of gender issues may result in calls for, and the implementation of, legislative change.

Gender Awareness Training

Gender mainstreaming may necessitate the provision of significant educational input in the form of gender awareness training, geared towards changing established cultural norms of behaviour and obtaining acceptance of new and different goals and objectives. Such training should be developed around hard data – both quantitative and qualitative – from which training needs may be ascertained, and must be conducted at different levels.

This training should be designed to achieve the following goals:

- ◆ assist staff in developing alternative perspectives on gender issues;
- ◆ build capacity in gender analysis;
- ◆ ensure that a gender perspective is included in the policy-setting and decision-making processes; and
- ◆ permit the framing of appropriate policy guidelines and directives to advance gender equality.

Gender awareness training should also reach beyond government institutions to involve all stakeholders – teachers, parents, students (particularly in tertiary level institutions), places of worship and religious organisations (where these are sponsors of schools), and non-governmental organisations and community groups who have a strong influence on the opinions, attitudes and behaviours of persons in small communities.

Involving Other Stakeholders

Whether the triggers for mainstreaming are 'top-down' or 'bottom-up', the involvement of all the key stakeholders in the system is crucial. The commitment of those who are part of the process, and/or who are influential in the implementation of the process, is essential if success is to be realised. In the setting of policy, a broad consultative group which includes all stakeholders will ensure their involvement, and hopefully also their agreement and commitment to the demands of the policy

agreement. Stakeholders should be part of the membership of both the National and Institutional Consultative Committees in order to facilitate their involvement in the implementation process. It is only when this is assured that the implementation process can be fully examined and the priority areas for action decided upon. The stakeholders very often also provide some of the resources necessary for the full implementation and so their 'buy-in' to the process becomes vital.

In the bottom-up scenario, the stakeholders' concurrence with the change will also be crucial if it is to be moved from the local to the institutional and policy levels. Initiators of the change in this case, therefore, will have to lobby the stakeholders, individually or collectively, and work towards gaining their support.

5

Guidelines for Conducting a Gender Impact Analysis

Countries differ tremendously in levels of development, in degree of gender asymmetry, and in cultural and traditional attitudes to gender. Moreover, gender intersects with social class/caste, race/ethnicity, culture/religion and age as a basis for inequity, subordination and discrimination in access to opportunity, and all of these factors are manifested differently in different countries. Measuring gender inequity and prescribing for gender equity is thus a highly complex and country-specific, as well as a fluid and dynamic process.

The first step is to gather relevant data on education. As mentioned previously, enrolment, literacy and even achievement statistics cannot reveal the entire picture. In developed countries, for example, where data show gender equality in education, there may still exist textbooks and/or curricula which portray gender stereotypes and which influence girl students to choose less self-sufficient career paths, thus increasing the likelihood of their dependency on men. Another possibility is that the content and methodology of science subjects may be biased toward male students and their learning patterns. Measuring variables such as these should take place on a local as well as a national level, and is important in planning interventions to bring about change.

Gender Analysis Frameworks

Three major gender planning/analytical frameworks are noted in the literature on gender and development:

- ◆ The Harvard Framework, developed by Overholt *et al* (1985), concentrates primarily on gathering gender-disaggregated data, so as to have a clear quantitative picture of gender roles and ratios. Other quantitative data, such as age, resources, benefits and time spent on activities are also important in the construction of this picture. This method also identifies possible factors relating to gender asymmetries and analyses these in relation to the data.
- ◆ The Moser method, based on Molyneux (1985) and Moser (1989), builds on the concepts of practical and strategic gender needs. Practical needs refer to women's immediate needs, 'special' needs that are often overlooked by development planners and policy-makers. Examples are the provision of child care facilities, or the introduction of technology to alleviate onerous domestic chores. Strategic needs are those which are more concerned with long term emancipation and empowerment for women, and may not directly affect or involve women in need. Examples are legal provisions designed to achieve gender equality. To these concepts is added the tool of classifying women's activities into three main groups: reproductive work, productive work and community managing activities. Distinguishing what women do in each of these roles, what they need to deal better with these roles, and what could possibly be done in the long term to restructure these roles so they are more equitably shared with men, comprises the basis of this method.

- ◆ The Women's Empowerment Framework, described by Longwe and Clarke (1994), can be linked to the DAWN (Development Alternatives with Women for a New Era) network, which advocates women's participation and control in decision-making and development planning. Women's ability and freedom to control their lives, and to have a say in the changes to their world, are tantamount to women's empowerment and equity with men. This may be described as a grassroots approach in that it seeks to have women whose lives are to be affected by development policies participate directly in the formulation and decision-making of these policies. This involves the sensitisation of women, and mobilisation of women to participate at all levels of decision-making.

Each method focuses on different indicators of gender inequity/inequity, and prescribes different measures for action toward change. They all have their advantages.

These guidelines propose the use of a number of indicators which reflect an acceptance of the value of aspects of all three frameworks. The indicators are classified into three main categories:

- ◆ the policy environment;
- ◆ the institutional environment; and
- ◆ the critical policy indicators.

Analytical tools for obtaining data using these indicators are provided in the Appendix.

The Policy Environment

These indicators will assess the adequacy of the statement of policy as it relates to gender, the involvement of institutions which could provide technical assistance in the framing of the policy, the gender composition of management, as well as the legal and other mechanisms in place to support the policy in its implementation and review.

The policy environment reflects the extent to which the policy-making/executive level management of the country's educational system is ready to integrate gender into its goals, objectives, plans, programmes, projects and activities. This readiness is demonstrated in the gender balance of the power structure and policy-making bodies of the Ministry of Education, School Boards, and the gender representation in decision-making. It is clearly indicated in policy documents/statements and practices that explicitly acknowledge and reflect issues relating to gender; for example, in the Code of Regulations, in promotional opportunities, and in compensation.

Gender analysis of an education system requires the involvement, at the levels of policy-making, management and administration, of women and gender-aware men who are sensitive to practical as well as strategic gender needs, and who can take an active role in trying to meet these needs. Legislation is a powerful tool in the achievement of this objective.

Indicators relating to the policy environment are:

Clarity and suitability of the policy statement with regard to gender

- ◆ the policy statement;
- ◆ the role of research and academic institutions in policy formulation, review and implementation;
- ◆ implementation problems; and
- ◆ the policy review.

The nature of management/decision-making

- ◆ composition of management;
- ◆ representation in decision-making;
- ◆ Code of Regulations;
- ◆ compensation;
- ◆ promotional opportunities; and
- ◆ institutional autonomy.

The Institutional Environment

The implementation of an education policy which has gender objectives requires an institutional environment which is sensitive and receptive to meeting the special needs of girls and boys. The institutional environment reflects the extent to which an individual institution is aware of and ready to implement programmes and practices to address gender issues and promote gender equity. This readiness is demonstrated by the gender composition of School Boards, the gender composition of staff, their working conditions, and the development and implementation of specific policies such as those relating to subject choices available to female and male students, and sexual harassment.

Examination of these indicators will involve the collection of sex-disaggregated data to obtain a clear quantitative picture of the roles which women and men play in the institution, and the provisions made and resources allocated to meet the specific needs of female and male students. Internal and external perceptions of gender equity at the institution are also explored.

The indicators relating to the institutional environment are:

- ◆ representation in decision-making;
- ◆ staff composition;
- ◆ working conditions;
- ◆ sexual harassment; and
- ◆ internal and external perceptions.

Critical Policy Indicators

These indicators provide detailed data which can point to and guide the nature of interventions which need to be made in order to effect meaningful change. They assess gender differentials in provision, access, allocation of resources, participation and achievement/impact within the educational system. The critical policy indicators are:

Nature of the educational provision

- ◆ level.

Access

- ◆ eligibility criteria.

Participation

- ◆ enrolment;
- ◆ legislation;
- ◆ curriculum;
- ◆ learning environment;

- ◆ co-curricular activities;
- ◆ student promotion; and
- ◆ dropout/continuation.

Resources

- ◆ teaching staff;
- ◆ cost; and
- ◆ decision-making regarding resource use.

Achievement/Impact

- ◆ literacy;
- ◆ achievement at primary, secondary, tertiary levels;
- ◆ specific subject/course/programme achievement; and
- ◆ placement of male/female graduates.

6

Policy Interventions

Gender Analysis of the Data

The data obtained using the critical policy indicators will provide both quantitative and qualitative information that is crucial in the development of a gender-sensitive educational policy, and must be considered together in the formulation of policy recommendations and operational objectives. Figure 1 provides a simple example.

The need for flexibility

Countries vary widely in terms of educational indicators as well as cultural, social and economic specifics. These guidelines are intended, not to provide blanket generalisations covering this wide diversity, but rather to be adapted and prioritised according to countries' specific national circumstances.

The process of interpreting the data and translating it into practical techniques for prioritising areas for policy intervention must therefore be responsive to local cultural norms and practices, and must meet the needs of the people in that setting. The guidelines that should be selected and utilised are those that are particularly suited to the individual country situation. Important considerations in this regard are:

- ◆ the needs in the particular setting;
- ◆ priority considerations, given the triggers for change;
- ◆ the extent of the willingness to change; and
- ◆ resources available to effect the change.

The data generated from the research on critical policy indicators must be relied upon to guide priorities in specific settings. In Figure 2, an example demonstrates the difference which a knowledge and understanding of the particular setting makes in the interpretation of quantitative data. The example also underlines the importance of obtaining qualitative information as a supplement to quantitative data.

The quite different actions called for in these two situations where precisely the same quantitative data are observed, emphasise the need for flexibility and examining the context in the planning and mainstreaming processes, as well as the necessity for detailed information and data analysis.

Even in a single setting, the available data are often differently interpreted, and can create problems in terms of policy direction. Barbara Bailey (1997) presents quantitative data on education in the Caribbean, which show the obvious gap in favour of females in literacy at both secondary and tertiary levels of education in the region. This and other similar quantitative data have been used by Errol Miller (1994) to justify a male marginalisation thesis, and have led to calls for an examination of male under-achievement in education in the Caribbean. Lindsay (1997) challenges this on the basis of the author's reliance on quantitative data and a narrowly focused methodological approach. She deplores the lack

Figure 1 Using Quantitative and Qualitative Data in Policy-Making

Quantitative Data	Qualitative Data	Recommendations	Policy
More boys than girls do science and mathematics at secondary and tertiary levels. This gender difference is significant.	Science options are offered at the same time as home economics and office procedures. Girls are channelled into the latter options.	Subject options should be available to both male and female students; where choices are offered these should not reflect sex stereotypes.	Male and female students should have equal access to all subjects in the curriculum. Within five years, the number of girls doing science at secondary and tertiary level should double.
	Science texts refer to scientists in masculine terms, and do not feature women as scientists.	Examples of female scientists should be identified and deliberately introduced in class discussions.	Detailed textbook analysis and review should be undertaken, with a view to developing and bringing into use, within five years, texts which are gender-sensitive, and which do not retain old gender stereotypes.
	Mathematical problems are usually framed in terms of 'masculine' activities.	Attempts should be made to develop equivalent mathematical problems using 'non-masculine' examples.	
	Most science teachers are men.	Attempts should be made to employ more female science teachers.	More women should be encouraged to become science teachers.
			The number of female science teachers should double in five years.
	In science classrooms, male teachers rarely interact with female students, and such interaction as occurs is usually demotivating for the girls. Boys have a similar experience in home economics and office procedures classes where the teachers are predominantly female.	Gender awareness training must be provided in teacher training colleges as well among practising teachers.	Within three years, all teacher education institutions must integrate gender issues into their courses and ensure that graduates are knowledgeable about gender issues, how these operate and affect the learning process. Practising teachers must participate in summer programmes designed to increase their awareness of these issues and their effects. This should be accomplished in five years.

Source: Leo-Rhynie, 1996

of in-depth investigation and analysis which would bring to light deeper underlying issues. Bailey, discussing the data she presents, which have been used in support of the male under-achievement lobby, notes that:

“These data have been taken as an indication that equality of educational opportunity for women is not an issue in the Caribbean and that women are the privileged group in this respect. Little attention is being given to the fact that in spite of this supposed privilege, women in the region ultimately are at a greater disadvantage in the market-place and in the home. The gender gap in favour of females at the tertiary level merely indicates that men need lower levels of education than women do to enter the labour market. A study conducted by the UN Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (UNECLAC) and the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) in

1995 found that women need to have 4 more years of schooling in order to compete for salaries similar to those of men. This has been confirmed by World Bank studies which show that even though women in Latin America and the Caribbean enjoy equal opportunity for education as men, women generally are paid less even when they have the same education and length of work experience.”

Bailey, 1997: 22

Figure 2 Examples of Two Different Situations with the Same Quantitative Data

Country A			Country B		
Quantitative Data	Qualitative Data	Policy Priority	Quantitative Data	Qualitative Data	Policy Priority
Ratio of girls to boys at secondary school increased from 1:3 to 1:1 over the previous five years	Perception by boys that school is not relevant to their adult lives, and their plans for the future	Examination of the curriculum to assess its usefulness/ relevance to the male student population and revision where indicated	Ratio of girls to boys at secondary school increased from 1:3 to 1:1 over the previous five years.	Increase in school building programme over the past five years has created more secondary school places, especially for girls	School building programme to continue with emphasis on places for both girls and boys
	Boys not attending school in order to work and earn in the informal sector	Determining how to encourage boys to attend school: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ legislative solution ◆ media awareness programme ◆ positive male role models 		Media programmes encouraged parents to allow their daughters to complete secondary education	Media programmes to continue
	Girls interested in school, encouraged by mothers to qualify themselves. Teenage pregnancy rate down.	Strengthen the initiative and encourage more young women to attend school. Increase family planning services.		Great interest shown by both girls and boys in completing secondary schooling and accessing tertiary level education	Devise strategies to maintain the level of interest and build motivation

Source: Leo-Rhynie, 1996

The Policy Statement

Using the results of the gender analysis, a policy statement should be formulated in consultation with a wide range of stakeholders. The policy formulations should be made the subject of community meetings, board meetings, staff and student meetings, home-school association meetings, past students associations meetings; and it is through this discussion that the priorities for particular communities and specific institutions should be agreed. One approach to this would be to send a letter to all schools, universities and training institutions referring to the problems outlined above and policy options to address them, and to request students, staff and other workers to discuss these policy guidelines and make proposals on how to implement them.

The policy document must be explicit in terms of what is required and the system must be supportive of those requirements. Where a top-down strategy is employed, establishing a policy environment in which gender has clearly been taken into

account should be a priority objective. A policy document which emanates from a policy environment that is not obviously gender-aware and gender-sensitive, but which merely seeks to fulfil external requirements, may have very little effect. The decision-making hierarchy of the Ministry of Education for example, should reflect the numerical gender balance being required of School Boards and institutional staff complements.

Policy documents emanating from Ministries of Education ought to:

- ◆ be clear;
- ◆ state goals which are desirable at a national level;
- ◆ include a timeframe for achievement of these goals so that progress can be measured;
- ◆ focus on the more strategic and long-term gender needs of the system. The short term, practical needs can usually be met through operational objectives set at the local level; and
- ◆ include proposals which are enforceable, particularly where legislation is involved. Where, for example, compulsory attendance is being legislated for all students, of both sexes, up to age 16, there must be mechanisms to ensure that this is monitored and that there are sanctions for those who do not comply.

Resource Allocation

The Ministry of Education should also have the resources to implement those recommendations and policies that are national in scope. So, for example, when there is a requirement that the curriculum of the teachers' colleges include a gender focus within a three-year time span (policy statement), the resources need to be available to prepare the teacher educators to develop their knowledge in this area, to carry out the necessary curriculum review and to integrate gender in their programmes of study (institutional objectives).

The fair and equitable allocation of the benefits of education is influenced by an understandable focus on other major areas of concern, such as issues of quality and relevance, declining financial resources, the reduction in the status of the teaching profession, the perceived fall in educational standards, the speed with which technological change is taking place, and the importance of new technology in development. In many Commonwealth countries, these concerns have to be addressed in a context of significantly reduced resources (Sangster, 1994: 205).

It is important, however, that the allocation of these resources does not benefit one group to the detriment of others. Where resources for education are already limited, considerations of gender in education policy and planning should be made a priority, so that resource allocation can be equitably made. Cultural factors, which often exert a critical influence on the involvement of females and males in the education process, should also be considered and addressed.

Policy Framework and Action Points

There follow a number of action points which governments may wish to adapt to suit their national circumstances and use in the formulation of policies, plans, programmes and projects.

School management, teachers and school staff

- ◆ organise gender training/planning workshops for teaching staff, in co-operation with school management, parents associations and teachers unions, in order to provide school staff with an understanding of the construction of gender;

- ◆ develop binding guidelines and disseminate them to all educational and training institutions;
- ◆ publish a newsletter containing information and data on gender and education;
- ◆ establish, for all staff, selection and promotion criteria that include specific expectations in relation to the achievement of gender equity;
- ◆ develop materials to assist teachers with assessment and evaluation procedures, including examples of assessment tools that consider the different experiences, interests and aptitudes of girls;
- ◆ encourage teachers to change their practice in a particular way, through, for example, promotion or allocation of resources; and
- ◆ ask schools to submit a plan of action to achieve gender equality and equity, and an annual report on progress made in this respect.

School organisation and practice

- ◆ ensure that the school dress code enables girls to engage in sport and active play;
- ◆ establish staffing procedures to ensure that women are represented in leadership positions;
- ◆ ensure that the timetable provides girls with real flexibility in their subject choice; and
- ◆ provide for the physical needs of each girl in relation to privacy, hygiene and clothing.

Curriculum

- ◆ ensure that gender considerations are included in all educational and training curricula, thus providing a curriculum which in content, language and methodology meets the educational needs and entitlements of girls and which recognises the contributions of women to society and values female knowledge and experience;
- ◆ include in the curriculum a range of teaching methods which best promote the active participation of girls in learning;
- ◆ provide access for girls to all areas of the curriculum, and establish the skills and confidence necessary to utilise this access;
- ◆ in partnership with the school community, provide information on conception, contraception, pregnancy, childbirth, child rearing, parenting and relationships;
- ◆ develop a curriculum which critically examines the gender distribution of work in families, households and paid work, and the relative values attributed to these different kinds of work by society; and
- ◆ provide advice on subject choices to ensure that girls do not limit their training and employment opportunities by the patterns of their study.

Educational materials

- ◆ ensure that textbooks and tests are gender-sensitive as regards the language, images and examples used therein.

Career counselling and guidance

- ◆ sensitise people engaged in career counselling on gender issues, thus ensuring that they also direct women to sex-atypical occupations;
- ◆ disseminate information to students and parents about career counselling and vocational guidance;
- ◆ devise a career guidance programme to encourage bright girls to further their education in areas where they are traditionally under-represented, such as technical and scientific areas; and
- ◆ guide boys and men also into 'female' occupations, which could eliminate gender segregation in jobs.

Girls' perceptions and attitudes

- ◆ stimulate girls to plan on working careers by changing their expected time allocations to both the labour force and home and their own perceptions of their roles and capabilities;
- ◆ establish mechanisms for identifying, supporting and monitoring girls at risk; and
- ◆ provide programmes for school teachers, counsellors and parents in order to enable them to understand those issues which place girls at the risk of not completing their education, issues such as income support, housing and childcare.

Parents' attitudes and involvement

- ◆ set up parent-teacher organisations to increase the awareness among parents of the benefits of educating and training girls and to involve parents more with schooling in general; and
- ◆ engage parents and the community in the development of programmes and materials that enhance and develop awareness of the impacts of gender construction.

Employers' attitudes

- ◆ induce employers to change their attitudes and practices as regards gender and the perceived roles of women. This could be done by requiring that contractors tendering for government contracts do not discriminate on the basis of gender and take affirmative action to ensure non-discriminatory treatment in recruitment, training and upgrading of minorities, or by threatening to enforce action by government agencies on the basis of anti-discrimination legislation.

Sex education

- ◆ give advice to young girls and boys on avoiding unwanted pregnancies and on reproductive health, including protection against HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases.

Sex-based harassment

- ◆ develop programmes that teach girls and boys effective communication and conflict resolution skills;
- ◆ develop policies at school level to demonstrate that sex-based harassment is unacceptable behaviour and ensure that it is punished; and
- ◆ provide programmes and materials that inform school and wider communities about the underlying causes of sex-based harassment and its impact on the education of girls.

Vocational training

- ◆ prohibit discrimination in vocational education and apprenticeship programmes;
- ◆ take affirmative action to recruit more women to vocational education and apprenticeships;
- ◆ ensure that girls are familiarised with vocational education and apprenticeships, set up orientation programmes and provide connections with potential employers; and
- ◆ require government contractors to provide on-the-job training opportunities for women or to participate in training programmes that include women and minorities.

Affirmative action

- ◆ put in place a programme to give preference to women in terms of education and training and career advancement until such time as women are available in sufficient numbers and at sufficiently high levels to ensure fair competition.

Image of women

- ◆ devise strategies to project a more positive image of women's working abilities and promote their entry into non-traditional occupations. Non-governmental organisations can play an important role in reorienting society's and men's attitudes to acceptance of new employment roles for women.

7

Commonwealth Country
Case Studies

From a limited sample survey of four Commonwealth member states, it appears that the inclusion of gender in the planning and policies of education varies considerably. Reviewed in this section are the policies for Zambia, Ghana, Jamaica and a regional policy for the Caribbean community (CARICOM), as well as a project for girls' education in Pakistan.

An examination of the status of education for women and men in the four countries identified points to the existence of very different situations which probably influenced the statements of policy and the concerns of educational policy-makers (see Table 3).

Table 3 Educational Indicators for Selected Countries

Country	Literacy Rates Enrolment Gross				Primary Enrolment Gross 1986-1992		High School Enrolment Gross 1986-1992		Females per 100 Males 1986-1992	
	Female		Male		f	m	f	m	2ndry	3iary
	1970	1990	1970	1990						
Ghana	18	51	43	70	69	84	29	47	64	22
Jamaica	97	99	96	98	108	105	66	59	107	149
Pakistan	11	21	30	47	30	54	13	29	41	22
Zambia	37	65	66	81	92	101	14	25	59	39

Source: UNICEF, 1995

Jamaica's educational indicators demonstrate the high levels of involvement of women in the educational process; at the tertiary level, they outnumber men significantly, and there is total enrolment of both male and female students at primary level. The levels of literacy for both women and men have remained high and stable over the twenty-year period 1970–1990, and this situation has probably resulted in a certain lack of urgency about gender planning. Examination of the needs of the boys and men in the system, and the identification and assessment of factors affecting their under-achievement, would, however, be an important aspect of gender planning in this country. It would also be useful to examine how women's perceived advantage in the educational system affects their future career prospects vis-à-vis those of men in Jamaica.

In the other countries, there has been significant progress between 1970 and 1990 in terms of literacy for both women and men, but the percentage of literate women still remains significantly below that of men. The data point to under-representation of girls and women at every level of the education system, and this demands

improvement of access for, and participation of, women. The policy statements examined and the project outlined demonstrate an understanding and recognition of this as a central focus.

Ghana

The Ghanaian Programme for the Provision of Free, Compulsory and Universal Basic Education by the Year 2005 (1994), identified two gender-specific causes of non-attendance at school: early marriages for girls, and discrimination against girls by parents and guardians. The policy also contained an entire section on girls' education, which again pointed to these socio-cultural factors as being responsible for the low enrolment and attendance rates of girls.

Although the policy diagnoses the problem, and states the "need to focus special attention to ensure that there is increased enrolment of girls in basic schools", the identification and recommendation of measures designed to create family and community awareness, and to remove or reform attitudes which have been identified as the major inhibitors to girls' involvement in education need to be stressed as a response.

This policy both recognises the existence of a gender imbalance in education and makes a diagnosis of the problem. The difficulties of identifying the strategies necessary to correct the problem, which need to be targeted to situations existing outside the formal education system, are clearly demonstrated here, and are a concern in many countries.

Jamaica and CARICOM

The Five Year Education Plan for Jamaica 1990–1995, and the CARICOM Regional Policy on Education (1993) are two examples of policies which contain little recognition of gender as a variable which requires attention in the planning of education. These documents, which cover all levels of the education system, do not present any examples of gender-sensitive policies, nor do they provide any indication that gender has been considered in the majority of decisions made about education.

The Jamaica Plan makes three brief references to gender in the text of the document, but none of these is supported by a plan of action. With regard to one of the critical indicators, attendance rates at secondary schools, the document notes that the attendance rate for boys is 65%, while the corresponding figure for girls is 68-69%. The under-achievement of boys in the Jamaican education system is a serious cause for concern, but figures such as these reflect a commendable comparison to other gender differentials in education in Jamaica (see Tables 1 and 2).

At the end of the document, a summary of development issues is presented, and in one objective related to Personal Development, is listed the need to "strengthen programmes to promote gender equity". The schedule does not, however, indicate any guidelines, programmes or projects designed to achieve this objective.

The final mention of gender is in Schedule B, in which projects falling under the Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) programme are listed. A major activity for the proposed project of a Mechanical Engineering Skills Training Institute was the "construction of a facility for the training of young persons – male and female."

In the CARICOM education policy, the major mention of gender is also related to the regional TVET programme. This programme was formulated with a great deal of input from two Caribbean regional women's organisations, and the national TVET programmes are administered and monitored by a regional TVET authority.

The CARICOM policy document mentions gender twice elsewhere in the document. At the primary education level, the policy identifies the poor performance of boys as a serious concern. At the tertiary level, the establishment of "gender equity in training, recruitment and decision-making processes" is stated as being necessary for improvement at that level. There is no indication as to how such equity could be achieved.

In the Caribbean, particularly Jamaica, males have lower literacy, enrolment, attendance and achievement rates than females. The absence of a gender analysis in the preparation of these plans suggests that this situation is not a major concern of policy-makers.

The CARICOM policy was formulated by a task force comprising seven men and two women, and the criticism may be made that women were under-represented in the policy development process. The same cannot be said, however, for the Jamaican education plan, which was developed by a team of twelve women and nine men. Four women and one man made up the drafting committee, and three women and one man made up the editorial committee. Although all four groups were chaired by men, the absence of a gender perspective in the development of the plan cannot be attributed to a lack of female representation, and points to the need for gender sensitivity training for both sexes and at the highest levels.

Pakistan

A 1989 report on a Primary Education (Girls) Sector Project in Pakistan provides an example of an intervention aimed specifically at girls in education. Pakistan has one of the lowest literacy rates in the world, particularly for females (see Tables 1 and 2).

This project provides a good example not only of a strategy aimed at addressing gender inequity in education, but also of the constraints which (a) socio-cultural and religious factors, and (b) economic factors impose. Pakistan's education sector as a whole is under-resourced, and targeting girls' education is simply not able to attract the necessary resources.

Four main factors are identified as restricting girls' access to education in Pakistan. These are the poor education system in general, lack of facilities (schools and schoolrooms, desks, etc.) for girls' schools (boys and girls are educated separately), lack of female teachers (only female teachers can teach girls), and religious and socio-cultural customs.

The project aims to provide more physical facilities, improve the education sector as a whole, and to train more women to be teachers. The problem of addressing the social attitudes which are fundamental to the lack of facilities, lack of female teachers, and the restrictions to girls' education again prove to be difficult in terms of identifying solutions. Admittedly, this is a complex and sensitive area for development intervention. Nevertheless, strategies toward societal change in a context such as this are vitally important if programmes and projects are not to have only limited effect.

Zambia

The Government of Zambia's National Policy on Education (1995) provides a good example of mainstreaming gender into education policy. The ideological framework is set in the preamble of the policy, where a commitment to gender equity in terms of two critical indicators, school enrolment and school management, is stated. Throughout the policy document, tables and figures present sex-disaggregated data, and gender is addressed in areas such as curriculum and school management.

The guiding philosophy of the document does not explicitly mention gender or any other social category, but speaks of the creation of "total human beings" who exercise "tolerance for other people's views – in defence of individual liberties and human rights". The priority objectives are placed in immediate, short, medium and long term categories and gender concerns are addressed at two priority levels. In the short term (1995–2000), "achieving gender equity in school enrolment and in management posts at all levels of the education system" is a stated objective, while "attaining gender parity in enrolment in maths, science and technical subjects at all levels" is a long term (after 2015) goal.

The profile of the educational system provides summary data, and notes:

- ◆ two-thirds of the illiterate adults in the country are women;
- ◆ gender gaps in enrolment, completion and repetition rates at the primary level;
- ◆ gender gaps in enrolment at secondary schools, including boarding schools; and
- ◆ the small number of women who are headteachers.

A section in the Plan is devoted to equity, and gender is identified as an issue, along with age and socio-economic status. Specific gender issues identified include:

- ◆ the decreasing enrolment of girls as they progress through the education system;
- ◆ the channelling of girls into non-technical, traditionally female subject areas;
- ◆ the under-representation of women in universities and teacher training colleges, but the decreasing gender disparity in enrolment in teacher training colleges;
- ◆ the socio-cultural factors which contribute to female dropout, such as early marriage, pregnancy, heavy household chores, long distances to school; and
- ◆ the limited availability of boarding places for girls despite research evidence that girls' performance is better when they are enrolled in boarding schools.

Policy recommendations also include a section on gender equity which focuses on the education of girls. The recommendations include:

- ◆ adopting measures to remove gender disparity in access, progression and accomplishment at all levels of the education system;
- ◆ penalising persons guilty of sexual harassment;
- ◆ enacting legislation to punish parents and guardians who withdraw children from school prematurely;
- ◆ giving a comparative advantage to girls in their selection to higher grades; creating more boarding places for girls;
- ◆ establishing special bursary schemes for girls, and providing awards and scholarships for girls in technical subjects;
- ◆ readmitting girls who may have been forced out of school prematurely;
- ◆ enacting legislation to punish any adult who has carnal knowledge with a pupil;
- ◆ strengthening guidance and counselling programmes in an attempt to change socio-cultural attitudes which can hinder the educational progress of girls;
- ◆ increasing the enrolment of female teacher trainees in mathematics, science and technical subjects; and
- ◆ advocating and working to change parents' and guardians' attitudes to girls domestic labour, so that they can have time to study.

Other policy guidelines refer to the curriculum, where it is stated that absence of gender bias must be ensured; and to the management of the education system, where “equitable sharing” of management positions between men and women is recommended.

The gendered nature of this policy document is evident, and it speaks to both equity and equality issues. The action to be taken in the implementation of some of the policy guidelines is not very clearly spelt out, but the intent is evident, and hopefully it will be followed up at various levels through action committees, and through the proposed partnerships with various sectors and agencies, as well as the community. It was stated in the plan that the issues identified had been gleaned through wide consultation across the country, so presumably women and men had contributed to the identification of problems and issues presented, and would therefore be willing to work towards bringing about change.

In a special project to upgrade the management behaviour of headteachers, which is part of a larger Zambia Education Rehabilitation Project (ZERP), one of the eight members of the project team was appointed to ensure the mainstreaming of gender throughout the project. The focus on gender in the statement of the project objective of creating a gender balance in terms of the numbers of headteachers, as well as in other areas of school management reflects the ‘equality’ concern. Gender sensitivity and awareness training comprised an entire component of the project’s training objectives, and would be expected to provide a framework within which the issue of gender could be addressed at the level of school management, in the hope that this would be important in establishing a school climate in which gender issues were central to decision-making in all activities.

Conclusions

Even where education policies appear to address gender inequity, attention to gender at the level of governmental decision-making and resource-allocation is often still limited, if it exists at all. While it is a step forward to say that a certain measure has considered gender inequity, that this will actually happen is still not necessarily the case.

This is not simply the fault of unwilling government officials, or even, in many instances, a lack of resources. Even where policy-makers might truly be concerned with gender, policy implementers may not be equipped and/or willing to make gender a priority or even an issue. In the case of education, implementers include school administrations, education ministries (which in some cases, e.g. Canada, are often decentralised entities each run by regional authorities), academics (who are key in curriculum development and textbook content and methodology), school boards, principals and teachers.

Pursuing gender equity is important. Providing for and improving education is a priority for all governments. Education is central to the pursuit of gender equity, and therefore it is important to address gender in education policy, but the problems inherent in pursuing these objectives are those of national/cultural differences, availability of resources and priorities.

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Appendix

Analytical Tools and Guidelines for Conducting a Gender Impact Analysis

The purpose of these tools is to provide a guide to carrying out a gender impact analysis of government policies, plans, programmes and projects in the formal and non-formal educational sector. The information can be used in the formulation of and/or making changes in policies and plans, in the planning of interventions, and in the evaluation of programmes and projects designed to reduce the gender gaps identified.

These guidelines identify certain key indicators pertaining to gender analysis of the education sector, and they constitute an attempt to capture and summarise data on these indicators of gender equity.

To guide the process, a series of key questions have been posed. Care should be taken to provide the relevant data to allow for a comprehensive analysis of each indicator. Different indicators will be more relevant to different tasks, e.g. an analysis of a policy document would focus on the section entitled The Policy Environment, while a curriculum project would focus on the relevant portions of the section entitled Critical Policy Indicators. These are generic tools, and it is fully recognised that the cultural specifics of different regions may yield other factors which are important indicators of gender equity and which are not represented in this instrument. Data on these should also be collected, recorded, and analysed.

Responses to the questions posed in the instruments will yield the data necessary for analysis of the gender impact of policies, plans, programmes and projects. These and other issues which may have surfaced during the data gathering, as well as those which may be particularly relevant to the cultural environment, must be assessed in terms of their actual and/or potential impact on gender equity. The analysis must both diagnose and prescribe. It must:

- 1 identify gender gaps where these exist;
- 2 proffer reasons for, as well as identify the implications of these gaps;
- 3 recommend key actions that could be taken to ensure the progressive, and in some cases, immediate closure of the gaps.

The guidelines and instruments can be used as one-time assessment tools, or they can be used to provide baseline information prior to planning an intervention project or programme. Use of the tools at the end of the programme or project will allow for a pre/post intervention comparison, and an evaluation of its impact.

The Policy Environment

Clarity and suitability of the policy statement with regard to gender

- 1 Is there an education sector policy? Yes No
- 2 Is there any policy related to gender in this sector? Yes No
- 3 Is this gender policy stated or unstated? Stated Unstated
- 4 If the gender policy is stated, indicate, circling the appropriate number, the extent to which each of the following describes the statement:

clear	5	4	3	2	1
effective	5	4	3	2	1
unclear	5	4	3	2	1
faulty e.g. prescribes home economics for girls and woodwork for boys	5	4	3	2	1
implemented	5	4	3	2	1

5= to a very great extent; 4= to a great extent; 3= to some extent; 2= to a minimal extent; 1= not at all.

- 5 To what extent is the stated policy an effective tool in terms of guiding the goals, plans and activities at all levels of the educational system as they relate to gender?

Level	5	4	3	2	1
Primary					
Secondary					
Tertiary					

5= to a very great extent; 4= to a great extent; 3= to some extent; 2= to a minimal extent; 1= not at all.

6 Which of the following critical indicators of gender equity does the policy address?

Indicators	Mentioned and addressed in detail	Mentioned and addressed, but not in any detail	Mentioned but not addressed	Neither mentioned nor addressed
Primary				
Provision				
Access				
Participation				
Resources				
Achievement				
Secondary				
Provision				
Access				
Participation				
Resources				
Achievement				
Tertiary				
Provision				
Access				
Participation				
Resources				
Achievement				

7 Is the policy stated for a specific time period or is its life indefinite?

Specific time period Length of period

No time period specified

8 How effective are the mechanisms for (a) implementing (b) reviewing and (c) changing the policy when necessary?

(Is there, for example, an Implementation Committee which has the responsibility of translating policy directions into working objectives and devising programmes to ensure the achievement of these objectives? Is there a Review Board, Academic and/or Research institutions which collect data, and make periodic assessments and recommendations? Is there an Advisory Body which can use the information from the Review Board to consult with policy-makers, academic institutions and research institutes when changes in policy are necessary?)

Mechanisms	VE	E	NTE	NE
Implementing the policy				
Reviewing the policy				
Changing the policy				

VE = Very effective; E = Effective; NTE = Not too effective; NE = Not at all effective

9 What are the problems presented by the gender aspects of the policy?

10 What are the barriers to the full implementation of the gender aspects of the policy as stated?

Nature of Management/Decision-Making

11 What is the gender composition of the Ministry of Education staff?

	No. of Women	Percentage of Total	No. of Men	Percentage of Total
Minister of Education				
Parliamentary Secretary (-ies)				
Permanent Secretary				
Chief Education Officer				
Senior management (please list sub-groups)				
Middle management (please list sub-groups)				
Clerical/secretarial				
Ancillary staff				
Other; please state and indicate gender makeup				

12 What is the gender composition of School Boards?

Posts	No. of Men	Percentage of Total	No. of Women	Percentage of Total
Primary				
Chairpersons				
Deputy Chairpersons				
Secretaries				
Treasurers				
Members				
Secondary				
Chairpersons				
Deputy Chairpersons				
Secretaries				
Treasurers				
Members				

13 Draw diagrams to indicate the reporting relationships

- (a) at the Ministry of Education
- (b) between the Ministry of Education, the School Boards and the School Principal
- (c) between the School Principal and the Staff

For each post on the diagram, write in M or F to indicate whether the person in the post is male or female.

14 What is the male/female representation in decision-making at the Ministry of Education? on School Boards? in tertiary level institutions?

	No. of Men	No. of Women
Ministry of Education		
Primary School Boards		
Secondary School Boards		
Tertiary level Institutions (list separately if necessary)		

15 Does a Code of Regulations exist to guide the management and operations of schools?

Yes No

To what extent does this Code reflect the gender policy of the Ministry of Education?

To a very great extent ; to a great extent ; to some extent ; minimally ; not at all

16 What are the male/female differentials in salaries and benefits; at different age levels?

Age Levels	Male Salaries & Benefits		Female Salaries & Benefits	
	<i>Average Salary</i>	<i>Benefits (list separately if necessary)</i>	<i>Average Salary</i>	<i>Benefits (list separately if necessary)</i>
Under 25 years				
25 to 34 years				
35 to 44 years				
45 to 54 years				
55 years and over				

17 What are the male/female differentials in appointments at Education Officer, Senior Education Officer, Chief Education Officer, at different age levels?

Age Levels	Education Officer				Assistant Chief Education Officer			
	No. of Women	Percentage	No. of Men	Percentage	No. of Women	Percentage	No. of Men	Percentage
< 25								
25-34								
35-44								
44-54								
>55								
	Senior Education Officer				Chief Education Officer			
	No. of Women	Percentage	No. of Men	Percentage	No. of Women	Percentage	No. of Men	Percentage
< 25								
25-34								
35-44								
44-54								
>55								

18 What formal mechanisms exist to challenge the management, e.g. trade unions?

19 What informal mechanisms are used to challenge management, e.g. demonstrations, lobby, petitions etc.?

How frequently are such methods employed ?times per year on average;

Persons involved : staff ; students ; parents ; other, please specify

Is gender a priority issue in any of these challenges? Yes No

20 How much effective autonomy can individual institutions exercise?

21 Who recruits, rewards, disciplines and manages staff?

	Ministry of Education	School Board	Principal/ Vice Principal	Head of Department
Primary				
Recruits				
Rewards				
Disciplines				
Manages				
Secondary				
Recruits				
Rewards				
Disciplines				
Manages				

22 What are the male/female differentials in appointments at Senior Teacher/Head of Department/Vice Principal/Principal level, at different age levels?

Age Levels	Principal				Vice Principal			
	No. of Women	Percentage	No. of Men	Percentage	No. of Women	Percentage	No. of Men	Percentage
Primary level								
< 25								
25-34								
35-44								
44-54								
>55								
Secondary level								
< 25								
25-34								
35-44								
44-54								
>55								
	Senior Teacher				Head of Department			
	No. of Women	Percentage	No. of Men	Percentage	No. of Women	Percentage	No. of Men	Percentage
Primary level								
< 25								
25-34								
35-44								
44-54								
>55								
Secondary level								
< 25								
25-34								
35-44								
44-54								
>55								

23 Does a system of mentoring and succession sequence planning exist?

Primary level schools

all most some few none

Secondary level schools

all most some few none

Tertiary level institutions

all most some few none

all = 100%; most = 65% to 99%; some = 35% to 64%; few = 1% to 34%; none = 0%.

24 Where such programmes exist to what extent are they gender-sensitive?

To a very great extent ; to a great extent ; to some extent ;
minimally ; not at all .

Please explain and/or give examples:

25 What problems does the level of autonomy allowed each institution create in terms of monitoring gender policy?

The Institutional Environment

Level of institution – primary secondary tertiary

Representation in decision-making

- 1 What is the gender composition of the management team/School Board?

Posts	No. of Women	Percentage of Total	No. of Men	Percentage of Total
Chairperson				
Deputy Chairperson				
Secretary				
Treasurer				
Members				

- 2 What is the male/female institutional representation on the management team or School Board?

	No. of Women	Percentage of Total	No. of Men	Percentage of Total
Staff numbers in the institution				
Student numbers in the institution				
Staff representation on the Board				
Student representation on the Board				

- 3 What proportion of men and women are represented in the academic teaching cadre, in the administrative/secretarial staff, and in the ancillary staff?

Posts	No. of Women	Percentage of Total	No. of Men	Percentage of Total
Principal				
Vice Principal				
Heads of Department				
Senior Teachers				
Teachers				
Administrative staff				
Secretarial and clerical staff				
Ancillary staff				

- 4 What are the highest qualifications of the women and men on the academic/teaching staff?

Qualifications	No. of Women	Percentage of Total	No. of Men	Percentage of Total
Doctoral degree				
Master's degree				
Bachelor's degree				
Teacher training/other specialist training				
School leaving qualifications e.g. A-levels				
Other: please indicate				

Working conditions

- 5 What are the problems faced in attracting:
(a) qualified women to work in the institution?

- (b) qualified men to work in the institution?

What are the problems faced in retaining:

- (c) qualified women in the institution?

- (d) qualified men in the institution?

- 6 What constraints and problems do:

- (a) men face in the institution?

- (b) women face in the institution?

Sexual harassment

7 Does a Sexual Harassment Policy exist? Yes No

8 If yes, does the Policy address the following issues?

	Yes	No
Harassment which may occur within the learning environment between male and female students		
Strategies for dealing with sexual harassment at the institutional level		
Strategies for dealing with sexual harassment at the Ministry of Education level		

9 Over the past year, how many instances of sexual harassment has the institution been aware of?

How many of these have been reported?

How many of these have been:

(a) female complaints of male harassment?

(b) female complaints of female harassment?

(c) male complaints of female harassment?

(d) male complaints of male harassment?

10 How are complaints of sexual harassment dealt with?

Internal and external perceptions

11 To what extent do persons working in the institution perceive it to be gender-fair?

(All staff, or a representative sample of staff of the institution should be asked to respond to the following two items on a brief questionnaire, and their responses should be collated and analysed.)

11.1 The following items have three possible responses: W = women mainly; M = men mainly; E = women and men equally. Tick the response which best reflects your views on the particular item.

For whom does your institution provide the following:

(a) education and training opportunities	W <input type="checkbox"/>	M <input type="checkbox"/>	E <input type="checkbox"/>
(b) recognition for good work	W <input type="checkbox"/>	M <input type="checkbox"/>	E <input type="checkbox"/>
(c) promotional opportunities	W <input type="checkbox"/>	M <input type="checkbox"/>	E <input type="checkbox"/>
(d) participation in decision-making	W <input type="checkbox"/>	M <input type="checkbox"/>	E <input type="checkbox"/>
(e) freedom to use one's own initiative	W <input type="checkbox"/>	M <input type="checkbox"/>	E <input type="checkbox"/>
(f) up-to-date technology	W <input type="checkbox"/>	M <input type="checkbox"/>	E <input type="checkbox"/>
(g) opportunities to exercise leadership in one's workgroup	W <input type="checkbox"/>	M <input type="checkbox"/>	E <input type="checkbox"/>
(h) opportunities to exercise leadership within the institution	W <input type="checkbox"/>	M <input type="checkbox"/>	E <input type="checkbox"/>
(i) authority over resources	W <input type="checkbox"/>	M <input type="checkbox"/>	E <input type="checkbox"/>
(j) on-the- job challenges for which one has responsibility	W <input type="checkbox"/>	M <input type="checkbox"/>	E <input type="checkbox"/>
(k) opportunities for mentoring	W <input type="checkbox"/>	M <input type="checkbox"/>	E <input type="checkbox"/>
(l) career development	W <input type="checkbox"/>	M <input type="checkbox"/>	E <input type="checkbox"/>
(m) support staff	W <input type="checkbox"/>	M <input type="checkbox"/>	E <input type="checkbox"/>

11.2 The following pairs of adjectives describe extreme views. Five points have been inserted between these extremes. Assess your institution in terms of its attitude to women and men using these adjective pairs and the five intervening points as a continuum. Circle the number which indicates your opinion of where you think your organisation would fall on this continuum, in terms of its attitude to women and men.

Attitudes to women

Empowering	1	2	3	4	5	Hostile
Nurturing	1	2	3	4	5	Exploitative
Respectful	1	2	3	4	5	Disrespectful
Confidence-building	1	2	3	4	5	Repressive
Progressive	1	2	3	4	5	Conservative
Encouraging team-building	1	2	3	4	5	Fostering competitiveness
Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	Unfriendly

Attitudes to men

Empowering	1	2	3	4	5	Hostile
Nurturing	1	2	3	4	5	Exploitative
Respectful	1	2	3	4	5	Disrespectful
Confidence-building	1	2	3	4	5	Repressive
Progressive	1	2	3	4	5	Conservative
Encouraging team-building	1	2	3	4	5	Fostering competitiveness
Friendly	1	2	3	4	5	Unfriendly

12 To what extent do persons external to the institution perceive it to be gender-fair?

(Representatives of the Parent-Teachers Association, Past Students' Association, as well as members of the community should be assembled in focus groups and the previous two items used as discussion points. The responses and opinions expressed should be recorded and analysed.)

Critical Policy Indicators

Nature of the educational provision

Provision made for school places at primary, secondary and tertiary levels

Level	Number of Available Places		
	Female Students	Male Students	Total
Primary			
Secondary			
Tertiary			

1 Where there are differences related to gender, how is the difference justified?

2 (a) Are there schools which cater to female students exclusively? Yes No

If yes, how many and at what levels?

Primary; secondary; tertiary.....

(b) Are there schools which cater to male students exclusively? Yes No

If yes, how many and at what levels?

Primary; secondary; tertiary.....

Access and participation

3 What are the criteria for entry to school at:

Primary level?

Secondary level?

4 Do more girls or boys satisfy the criteria for entry at primary level? Girls Boys

Do more girls or boys satisfy the criteria for entry at secondary level? Girls Boys

What percentage of those who satisfy the criteria are actually accepted for entry?

(The data relating to this question should be provided for different types of secondary schools and different faculties/departments of universities and other tertiary level institutions.)

Level	No. Satisfying Criteria		No. Accepted for Entry	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Primary				
Secondary				
Tertiary				

5 Describe any mechanism(s) which exist to ensure that equal numbers of girls and boys attend at:

Primary level

Secondary level

6 Is there compulsory education for girls? Yes No

At what level(s)? Primary Secondary

Is there compulsory education for boys? Yes No

At what level(s)? Primary Secondary

How is compulsory education monitored and ensured?

7 What are the enrolment figures for female and male students in primary and secondary education? (Give the year in which the data were collected and if there are different types of secondary schools, identify these and give the enrolment figures for each.)

Level	Enrolment (Year of Survey.....)		
	Female Students	Male Students	Total
Primary			
Secondary			

8 What are the attendance figures for female and male students in primary and secondary education? (Give the year in which the data were collected and if there are different types of secondary schools, identify these and give the attendance figures for each.)

Level	Attendance (Year of Survey.....)		
	Female Students	Male Students	Total
Primary			
Secondary			

9 What are the normal criteria for entry to tertiary level education?

Identify ways in which entry requirements/qualifications may discriminate against male or female students. (If, for example, technical drawing is a requirement for doing architecture, yet this is not taught in girls' schools).

- 10 What are the enrolment figures for male and female students in tertiary level education? (If there are different types of tertiary level institutions, identify these and give the enrolment figures for each.)

Tertiary Level Institutions	Enrolment		
	Female Students	Male Students	Total

- 11 Describe any different provisions made for male/female students which would facilitate one over the other (e.g. the provision of boarding facilities for either male or female students exclusively could facilitate the participation of that group).

Primary level

Secondary level

Tertiary level

- 12 Describe any cultural practices which interfere with the access, and/or participation of female or male students in the educational process.

(a) Cultural practices affecting female participation:

at primary level

at secondary level

at tertiary level

(b) Cultural practices affecting male participation:

at primary level

at secondary level

at tertiary level

13 Who was involved in formulating the curriculum:

at primary level?

at secondary level?

14 To what extent do the aims and content of the curriculum reflect gender biases? Do textbooks and other teaching materials portray traditional female/male stereotypes? *(Detailed analyses of the curriculum content, principal texts and other teaching materials should be conducted to assess levels of gender bias and stereotyping.)*

15 What are the levels of female/male participation in subjects/courses/programmes at secondary and tertiary levels?

Subject/Course/Programme Areas	Student Participation	
	Female Students	Male Students
Secondary		
English literature		
Mathematics		
History		
Physics		
Chemistry		
Biology		
Accounts		
Foreign language		
Tertiary		
Medicine		
Law		
Education		
Engineering		
Computer science		
Humanities		
Management		

16 Is there a state or a school policy which makes specific reference to subject offerings for female/male students? *(Give details.)*

17 To what extent is there a relationship between subjects being pursued by larger numbers of female students and larger numbers of male students and:

(a) the gender division of labour?

(b) occupational gender stereotyping?

(Information on item 17, the learning environment indicator, will need to be collected during classroom observations in different type schools.)

18 To what extent do teachers make an effort:

(a) to provide equal attention to female and male students?

(b) to avoid sexist and discriminatory comments, examples and behaviour in their classrooms?

(c) to use a variety of teaching styles? *(Do they concentrate on styles which are more suited to the learning styles of either male or female students?)*

19 List co-curricular activities which exist for female and male students

Co-Curricular Activities	Participation	
	Female Students	Male Students
Primary		
Secondary		

20 List all gender exclusive co-curricular activities e.g. sports, clubs, societies

Gender Exclusive Co-Curricular Activities	
Female Students Only	Male Students Only
Primary	Primary
Secondary	Secondary

21 What is the female/male composition of the management and membership of student-run clubs or societies?

Student-Run Clubs/Societies	Management		Membership	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Secondary				
Tertiary				

22 Are there policies governing the mechanism for student promotion: from primary to secondary; from secondary to tertiary; as well as within the primary and secondary systems?

Primary to secondary promotion:

Mechanism:

Does this mechanism discriminate in any way against girls? (*explain*)

boys? (*explain*)

Secondary to tertiary promotion:

Mechanism:

Does this mechanism discriminate in any way against:

women? (*explain*)

men? (*explain*)

23 What are the dropout rates at primary, secondary and tertiary levels of female/male students? *(Different types of secondary schools may have different dropout rates and these should be calculated separately. Different programmes at tertiary level will be of different duration, so dropout will have to be calculated for each independently.)*

Level	Entry Enrolment of Cohort (Year.....)		Graduation Enrolment of Cohort (Year.....)		Dropout Rate	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Primary						
Secondary						
Tertiary						

24 What are the possible factors accounting for gender differentials in dropout rates?

Level	Factors Affecting Female Dropout	Factors Affecting Male Dropout
Primary		
Secondary		
Tertiary		

25 What is the female/male graduation rate from secondary school? *(Record the completion rates of girls and boys for different types of secondary schools, for at least three years.)*

Secondary School Type	No. of Graduates Year 1		No. of Graduates Year 2		No. of Graduates Year 3	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
School type 1						
School type 2						
School type 3 etc.						

Resources

26 To what extent do teacher education programmes include components which create an awareness of gender issues and concerns? *(Supply a list of relevant courses, and indicate the years in which they were first taught. The level of importance attached to the issues should be carried out through (a) an analysis of these courses, and (b) interviews with teachers.)*

Have any in-service or staff development workshops addressed these issues with practising teachers? *(Supply a list of such courses together with the numbers of female and male teachers attending.)*

27 What is the nature of the financial support provided for institutions at primary, secondary, tertiary levels?

Average cost in US\$ (Year.....)	Primary		Secondary		Tertiary	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Government provision						
Parent/Family provision						
Private support funds						
Institution fundraising						

28 What are the criteria used for the assignment and distribution of resources: at Ministry level?

at institutional level ?

at primary level?

at secondary level?

at tertiary level?

- 29 Does the mechanism in place present problems for monitoring gender policy?
(Give details)

Achievement impact

- 30 Female/male literacy rates : Female%; Male%.
- 31 Female/male differentials in terms of entry for and success in achievement tests at primary, secondary and tertiary levels. *(All examination data should be analysed. The tables below provide a sample of how the data could be recorded. In all instances the year for which the results have been obtained should be noted. It is often useful to compare the results over a five or ten year period to identify trends.)*

Primary level achievement tests

Year	Entries			% Passes		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total

Secondary Level	Examination Data (Year)					
Subjects	Female		Male		Total	
	Entry	Passes	Entry	Passes	Entry	Passes

Tertiary Level	Examination Data (Year)					
Subjects	Female		Male		Total	
	Entry	Passes	Entry	Passes	Entry	Passes

(The data should be analysed to answer the following questions: Is female/male achievement at secondary and tertiary levels similar in specific subject areas and in specific courses and programmes? What is the relationship of the subjects, courses, programmes pursued, and qualifications gained, to the division of labour along gender lines to jobs available and to remuneration granted?)

- 32 To what extent are there female/male differences in the development of social attitudes and values?

(Students who are about to graduate could be involved in focus group discussions or asked to write essays which seek to elicit their knowledge and understanding of broad socio-economic-political-cultural aspects of society, and to determine their commitment to changing inequitable yet traditionally inscribed female/male roles. School and other records or a self report questionnaire could be used to document involvement in the leadership of their educational institutions as well as in community settings. Skills such as articulateness in public/formal settings could be assessed through debating competitions, and/or public speaking competitions. Assessment of the data emerging from these activities should be analysed on a gender basis.)

- 33 How readily do graduates find employment? Are female/male graduates with similar qualifications employed at similar levels, with similar salaries and benefits? *(Tracer studies are needed to provide these data. Such studies may be done by schools, colleges and universities as part of their normal record-keeping, while in other situations, no such records may be available. Sampling secondary school and university graduates from specific years and exploring these issues should provide usable data.)*

Gender Mainstreaming in Education

A Reference Manual for Governments
and Other Stakeholders

Gender mainstreaming is the current international approach to promoting equality between women and men.

It is based on the recognition that gender inequality operates at all levels and in all sectors of society, and thus needs to be addressed in the mainstream. It aims to ensure that women and men benefit equitably from all that society has to offer, and are equally empowered to affect its governance and decisions.

The Gender Management System (GMS) is a holistic and system-wide approach to gender mainstreaming developed by the Commonwealth, for the use of governments in partnership with other stakeholders including civil society and the private sector. The GMS is a comprehensive network of structures, mechanisms and processes to enable governments and other organisations to contribute to gender equality through all policy-making, planning and activities.

This reference manual has been produced to assist governments and other stakeholders in mainstreaming gender in the education sector. It is also available in an abridged version under the title *A Quick Guide to Gender Mainstreaming in Education*.

Other topics covered by publications in the Gender Management System Series include:

- Concept and methodology of the GMS
- Using gender-sensitive indicators
- Development planning
- Finance
- The public service
- Trade and industry
- Agriculture and rural development
- Information and communications
- Equal employment opportunities policy



Commonwealth Secretariat

ISBN 978-1-84859-686-3



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