



Final Report for

Thematic Study on Education and Gender Equality

Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation

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Acronyms

CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
CRC	UN Convention on the Rights of the Child
CSO	Civil society organisations
DFID	United Kingdom Department for International Development
DME	Deprivation and marginalisation in education
ECCE	Early childhood care and education
ECD	Early Childhood Development
EFA	Education for All
EFA-FTI	Education for All Fast Track Initiative (previous name of the GPE)
EiE	Education in Emergencies
ESP	Education Sector Plan
FAWE	Forum for African Women Educationalists
GBV	Gender Based Violence
GCE	Global Campaign for Education
GDI	Gender Development Index
GEEI	Gender Equality in Education Index
GEI	Gender-specific EFA index
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
GIR	Gross Intake Ratio
GMR	Global Monitoring Report on Education for All
GPE	Global Partnership for Education
GPI	Gender Parity Index
GRB	Gender responsive budgeting
HRBA	Human Rights Based Approaches
IDPs	Internally displaced persons
INEE	Inter-agency Network for Education in Emergencies
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MOE	Ministry of Education
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
Norad	Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OECD-DAC	OECD Development Assistance Committee
OOSCI	Global Out-of-School Children Initiative
PTAs	Parent-Teacher Associations
SMCs	School Management Committees
SWApS	Sector Wide Approaches
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNGEI	United Nations Girls' Education Initiative
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development

Executive summary

Introduction

This study was commissioned by the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation and was based on a review of literature on issues of education and gender equality in the period 2000-2015.

Education is a high priority in Norway's development cooperation. Norway takes a rights-based perspective to education, and the 2003 strategy emphasises the importance of education reaching the most vulnerable groups, including girls, children in emergencies and children with disabilities.

Context and progress

Global movements and conventions have committed to rights in education and non-discrimination based on gender; in 2000, the Education for All (EFA) goals and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) reaffirmed and refocused that commitment. Since 2000, there has been increased global focus on results and effectiveness, gender mainstreaming, human rights-based approaches, public-private partnerships, education in conflict-affected and fragile states, and governance and accountability. Post-2015 discussions focus on learning and outcomes, teachers, skills and competencies, secondary education, pre-primary and equity.

The significant progress in access to education for both girls and boys since 2000, particularly at primary level, is marred by the slowing rate of progress over recent years and continuing low rates of survival, completion and achievement. Wide gender gaps remain in secondary, disadvantaging girls in most developing countries and boys in many middle income countries. Barriers which intersect with gender include poverty, harmful social or cultural norms, fear and reality of violence and low levels of achievement. Access and achievement patterns vary according to context, based around factors such as gender, disabilities, poverty, location, and conflict.

Key findings and recommendations

As the post-2015 agenda is being shaped it is important to both reassert the critical importance of the intrinsic value of education as well as its role in achieving other development outcomes, particularly broader gender equality outcomes.

1. We recommend that the international community renew commitment to gender equality in education, ensuring that both global and national targets and indicators are specific about gender equality in education. Such commitment should also reflect the need to encompass the scope of inequalities and to focus on inequity in education more broadly, bearing in mind that gender intersects with other dimensions of exclusion.

Global level interventions

Goal setting. Choices around goals, measurements and definitions for education have played an important role in international focus, donor commitments, resource distribution and therefore on national level support activities. In this context, more careful consideration could have been given to what gender equality meant in education and how it might have been measured. However, gathering a global consensus on very broad and context-specific issues like quality and equity has been extremely challenging.

Global partnerships. The efficiency and effectiveness of global advocacy movements and organisations in promoting education and holding national and international governments and agencies to account has improved since 2000. Partnerships for gender equality and education have been more successful where there was clear leadership, clear strategies to reach agreed goals, and coalitions of organisations with significant weight and working towards shared goals. Aligning global messages with national or regional priorities has not been straightforward: ensuring global messages were relevant across contexts whilst not diluting them has also been a challenge, and has depended upon the capacity of regional and national actors to promote and contextualise messages.

Collecting, disseminating and promoting data, lessons and good practice is therefore extremely important for informing global, regional and national dialogue.

2. We recommend improved leadership and accountability frameworks are developed for gender equality in education globally. Donors and national partners should improve their coordination of activities and allocation of resources, particularly in failing countries, and ensure a focus on gender and inequality is maintained. This should include the fostering of full and meaningful participation of a wide range of stakeholders to ensure effective and relevant policy formation and support implementation at all levels.

Monitoring indicators. The prominent mode of tracking progress, identifying gaps and providing analysis on the EFA targets has been the annual Global Monitoring Report (GMR), a valuable resource to researchers, practitioners and advocates. However, the GMR measures gender parity rather than gender equality, therefore omitting gendered school experiences. Alternative indications might include performance, subject choice and quality proxies, with links to other development or social goals such as employment. National and international data systems currently mask sub-national disparities and gender inequalities to the disadvantage of girls or of boys depending on location, age and wealth: more highly disaggregated data would provide a better picture of excluded groups, particularly in fragile and conflict affected states where data is often missing completely.

3. We recommend international support to national governments to strengthen data collection, analysis, disaggregation and interpretation from a gender perspective to better inform policies and programmes, particularly in fragile and conflict affected states.

4. We recommend the development of new indicators which better capture quality and gender equality in education. Indicators should also combine gender with additional exclusion factors such as poverty or location in order to reduce the biggest gender inequalities.

National level interventions

National partnerships. The Global Partnership for Education (GPE) provides a positive example of national stakeholder coordination to influence education policy; national civil society coalitions, UNGEI partnerships or FAWE chapters also provide platforms for context-specific campaigning and localised coordination of representative groups. Such national level bodies need to uphold their commitments to addressing gender issues whilst acknowledging other exclusion factors and ensuring their representation in policies and implementation processes. Representation of groups working with the most marginalised is essential to sharing knowledge of exclusion factors.

Gender policies. Many governments demonstrate a commitment to gender equality with explicit references in policies and ESPs, and in some countries there are specific-education policies for gender equality. As new initiatives, little is known about their impacts, but incorporation into policy indicates domestication and ownership of international policies at country level. However, caution must be taken to ensure that addressing gender and other excluded groups is based on evidence and analysis, rather than tokenistic inclusion: political will, budget allocation and capacity to mainstream gender in ESPs, develop relevant gender-specific indicators for the most excluded and monitor and evaluate progress towards gender equality in education are still lacking in a number of countries.

Female teachers' recruitment. Evidence suggest that increasing female teachers improves girls' enrolment; however, evidence to support assumptions about whether it improves girls' and boys' learning achievements and experience in school is inconclusive. Without sufficient training and support, female teachers are also likely to uphold negative or harmful social norms and gender stereotypes. Putting equal numbers of men and women at the front of the classroom has a value, in terms of positive gender role models and equality of opportunity in employment, but should be supported by other gender sensitive initiatives, including pedagogical training. Women remain under-represented, particularly at higher levels, in education leadership and decision-making positions, and more research on gender and educational leadership is needed to understand these dynamics and their implications for schools.

5. We recommend that robust evaluations of national policies and strategies aimed at reducing gender inequalities in education are conducted as a matter of course, including in countries or regions affected by conflict. Interventions and advocacy drives by international and national groups should be based on robust evidence and contextual needs assessments.

Financing gender equality. The introduction of free primary education in many countries resulted in an enrolment surge, enabling access particularly for the poor, girls and other marginalised groups but impeding quality as limited resources were stretched to meet the demand. Girls' lower enrolment and retention in secondary in most low-income countries persists even where free secondary education has been introduced, implying the lasting impacts of low quality and discrimination at primary, acting as a barrier to transition. Gender-responsive budgeting (GRB) initiatives have had mixed results in developing countries, due in part to a lack of financial capacity.

Social protection. There is evidence that social protection policies and programmes which complement education specific interventions have had positive results on gender equality in education, at least in terms of enrolment and attendance of girls. There is little research to date on the impact of the combination of specific social protection measures and specific education policies, particularly in the area of gender and education. There are also concerns about administrative capacity for such programmes in poorer countries, and the wider implications for gender relations within households with mothers are often nominated to receive and distribute the cash.

6. We recommend that national governments are supported to devise gender equality strategies that cut across all levels of education. This should include increased support to ECCE and pre-school provision as a strategy to reduce gender inequalities over time and help to redress gender inequalities at secondary level.

7. We recommend developing models for equity funding in education in order to increase equity in education opportunities for all children, including combining social protection and education measures to improve access for the most deprived girls and boys as well as developing research into educational outcomes of such interventions.

Community level interventions

Awareness raising. As the closest to out-of-school children, communities have traditionally been a key entry point to identify marginalised children, advocate education for all children, support to marginalised families or highlight local issues. Best practices include civil society supported radio and television shows, youth-led social media and work with religious and community leaders. In general, such wider community awareness has mostly been focussed on enrolment, usually girls' enrolment, and has failed to engage other bodies or sectors to address the complex interplay of socio-economic and cultural exclusion factors. Spaces for children to discuss gender issues appear to have a broader focus on gender roles and support children to recognise and challenge them. There is some evidence that such interventions can have impact outside of that direct space – girls' improved academic performance, for example – but where such gender-sensitive values contradict the norm in the community and the classroom there may be challenges.

Non-formal education. Initiatives based in the community can provide a more appropriate, flexible and adapted route to learning for some, though initiatives have tended to be limited in coverage and scale-up. Better understanding of the needs of marginalised groups is important to improve access to mainstream schooling where possible, and identify when alternative provisions are more appropriate for very specific needs.

School management committees (SMCs). SMCs provide an opportunity for members of the community to become involved in running their schools, improving transparency, accountability and engagement. SMC roles and levels of responsibility in school planning vary, particularly in the follow-up of gender equality issues at school level, and would benefit from additional research in different contexts. SMCs and other parental or community participation mechanisms in schools could have a much greater impact on gender equality issues in schools if best practices were replicated more thoroughly and if democratic principles in decision-making were better observed.

8. We recommend that national governments and donors are supported to improve cross-sector collaboration at national and decentralised levels and ensure the shared responsibilities across Ministries as part of their mandate for promoting and ensuring gender equality, ensuring gains in education are supported and sustained outside a school and beyond a child's educational career.

School practices

Teaching and learning. There has been no significant transformation in curriculum and textbook as instruments for developing or challenging gender norms, and sexism in learning materials remains prevalent across countries regardless of economic or gender equality status. Gender-responsive teaching relies on good quality teacher training and support, which consider teachers' own gender identity. Social norms and expectations outside of school can conflict with positive classroom practices, but few studies explore evolutions of norms in light of improved indicators on gender equality over time and the drivers behind those cultural changes.

School management. Systems can promote an inclusive environment through school level policies and charters, teacher management and the whole school environment. Programmes which develop whole school approaches to gender equality show effective results in terms of perceptions of safety and inclusivity, as well as improved academic performances for girls: however they tend to be resource-heavy and small scale. Components of gender responsive school management are yet to be fully defined and institutionalised.

9. We recommend improved gender analysis and the analysis of social institutions (laws, norms, attitudes and behaviours) informing programme and strategy development. This should include rigorous evaluation of gender teacher training programmes to tackle factors of resistance which prevent effective implementation in the school environment, and increased training on gender identity and gender equality issues for support service staff and school managers. Community interventions should also be developed to tackle harmful social norms and provide opportunities for formal and informal groups to change social practices.

10. We recommend that national governments and implementing partners collect qualitative data to complement statistical evidence sets of particular interventions, providing a more complete picture of gender relations and power dynamics.

Education in Emergencies (EiE). Gender imbalances in society tend to be amplified in times of conflict and gender vulnerabilities strengthened, particularly in terms of gender-based violence (GBV). The Education Cluster for EiE has demonstrated to some extent the effectiveness of cross-sectoral, cross-organisational collaboration. However, in general gender responsive programming tools for EiE continue not to be used systematically and consistently, creating gaps in gender analyses, gender appropriate strategy responses and M&E and constraining outcomes for boys and girls. More lessons need to be learned from gender specific EiE interventions, particularly female teachers' recruitment, Alternative Learning Programmes and GBV prevention and response.

Private education. The role of non-state providers in filling the gaps for the poorest children is increasingly acknowledged and supported by donors; but early evidence suggests that private provisions potentially widen gender gaps in access. There is a general lack of monitoring and research into equality, equity and quality in private schools.

11. We recommend that international and national bodies pursue on-going efforts to tackle the issue of violence in schools and specifically focus on gender-based violence for boys and girls, including homophobic bullying. Coordinated school-based and general gender-based violence reduction programmes in conflict and post-conflict countries could maximise learning and impact on young people's lives.

12. We recommend that gender equality issues before, during and after emergencies are prioritised by the international community through innovative and participatory cross-sectoral programmes. Education should play a key role in promoting gender equality before, during and after emergencies through content and model practices, including practices aiming at curbing gender-based violence.

1 Introduction

1.1 Introduction to the study

This study was commissioned by the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (Norad) and carried out between November 2012 and January 2013. The purpose of the study, as outlined in the Terms of Reference (Annex 1), is to analyse and assess the evidence base that exists on achievements, best practices and emerging issues related to education and gender equality in order to better establish the way forward with regards to gender equality in education.

The study was based on an extensive review of literature on issues of education and gender equality during the period 2000-2015. These were identified through the referrals in the Terms of Reference, E/C's internal library and systematic web and bibliographic searches.

Documents which provide a background to the key concepts, historical trends and situation today in gender and education were selected because they meet one or more of the following criteria:

- Alignment with Norad's focus and priorities, linking to partner organisations
- Global authority in the field: documents by UN organisations, development banks, high profile researchers
- In-depth analysis of specific areas: for example, research on overcoming specific barriers to accessing quality education for certain groups
- Focus on achievements or best practices: documents by implementers and their partners which analyse, evaluate and assess their contribution through specific interventions
- Focus on the post-2015 agenda: research and analysis on the structure of global commitments after the deadline for the MDG and EFA targets

Through these documents, interventions have been identified which address a range of issues, and represent different levels (macro, meso and micro), stakeholders and types of approach. The following criteria were used when reviewing interventions:

- The achievements of the interventions, as indicated by evaluations
- Examples of best practice, evidenced by recognition by government and non-government partners, other agencies and stakeholders, possibly scaling-up processes
- Examples of both interventions which take a holistic or cross-cutting approach and those which focus on specific issues
- Value-added to gender equality in education by these interventions: in terms of aspects such as rights, accountability, governance, data, sustainability

1.2 Report outline

The remainder of this section defines key terms used in this report. Section 2 looks at the context and progress, movements towards gender equality in education before 2000, and what the international priorities have been since. We provide an overview of the progress in education from 2000-2015, in terms of access, quality, gender parity and equality, and a brief introduction to Norway's contribution to the field.

Section 3 provides examples and analysis from interventions and research on education and gender equality at the global, national, community and school level. This section profiles prominent interventions at these levels, prioritising those conducted by Norad partners, including where possible evaluations, criticisms or alternative approaches. Key issues arising from these findings are identified at the end of each sub-section. The final section highlights remaining key issues and makes recommendations for moving forward.

1.3 Key concepts and definitions

Much of the terminology around gender is poorly defined or misunderstood. In this report, we use the following key definitions:

Gender

We use the term ‘gender’ as defined by UN women:

[Gender] refers to the social attributes and opportunities associated with being male and female and the relationships between women and men and girls and boys, as well as the relations between women and those between men. These attributes, opportunities and relationships are socially constructed and are learned through socialisation processes. They are context / time-specific and changeable. Gender determines what is expected, allowed and valued in a woman or a man in a given context. In most societies there are differences and inequalities between women and men in responsibilities assigned, activities undertaken, access to and control over resources, as well as decision-making opportunities. Gender is part of the broader socio-cultural context. Other important criteria for socio-cultural analysis include class, race, poverty level, ethnic group and age.¹

Gender equality

We also draw on UN women for the definition of ‘gender equality’:

Equality between women and men (gender equality) refers to the equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men and girls and boys. Equality does not mean that women and men will become the same but that women’s and men’s rights, responsibilities and opportunities will not depend on whether they are born male or female. Gender equality implies that the interests, needs and priorities of both women and men are taken into consideration, recognising the diversity of different groups of women and men. Gender equality is not a women’s issue but should concern and fully engage men as well as women. Equality between women and men is seen both as a human rights issue and as a precondition for, and indicator of, sustainable people-centred development.²

Gender mainstreaming

Since the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing 1995, the UN and national governments have a mandate to ‘mainstream’ (integrate) gender and monitor progress towards gender equality in all aspects of society. Gender mainstreaming, as a globally accepted strategy, is defined by the United Nations Economic and Social Council in 1997³ as:

“The process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women’s as well as men’s concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of all policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality.”

The gender mainstreaming approach is commonly understood as a set of policy decisions and implementation strategies at all levels of organizations aimed at identifying gaps in gender equality and developing activities to close those. It supports the promotion of gender equality at all levels, and does not exclude the need for targeted gender interventions. The international community has recognized various obstacles in practicing gender mainstreaming, including capacity for gender analysis, accountability mechanisms, limited resources and lack of political commitment.⁴

¹ UN Women, webpage <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/osagi/conceptsanddefinitions.htm>, last accessed 03/01/13

² UN Women, webpage <http://www.un.org/womenwatch/osagi/conceptsanddefinitions.htm>, last accessed 03/01/13

³ Agreed Conclusions 1997/2, Official Records of the General Assembly, Fifty-second Session, Supplement No. 3 (A/52/3/Rev.1), chap. IV, para. 4.

⁴ Review and Appraisal of the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action, 2005.

Gender analysis

The International Labour Organisation has a definition of gender analysis which is also used by UNESCO:

Gender analysis is a tool to diagnose the differences between women and men regarding their specific activities, conditions, needs, access to and control over resources, and access to development benefits and decision-making. It studies the linkages of these and other factors in the larger social, economic, political and environmental context.

Gender analysis entails, first and foremost, collecting sex-disaggregated data and gender-sensitive information about the population concerned. Gender analysis is the first step in gender-sensitive planning for promoting gender equality.⁵

Gender parity

Gender parity is a purely numerical concept. In education, achieving gender parity implies that the same proportion of boys and girls - relative to their respective age groups - have access to the education system and are able to participate in its different cycles.⁶ The Gender Parity Index (GPI) is used to measure the relative access to education of boys and girls by dividing the number of girls in school by the number of boys. It is used by international organisations to measure the progress of individual countries.

Gender identity

The Council of Europe define gender identity as:

a person's deeply felt internal and individual experience of gender, which may or may not correspond with the sex assigned at birth, including the personal sense of the body (which may involve, if freely chosen, modification of bodily appearance or function by medical, surgical or other means) and other expressions of gender, including dress, speech and mannerisms.⁷

Equity

Equity requires:

securing all children's rights to education, and their rights within and through education to realise their potential and aspirations. It also requires implementing and institutionalising arrangements that help ensure all children can achieve these aims.⁸

Fairness and inclusion are central to equity in education as we need to ensure that both individual (gender, disability or ethnicity) and socio-economic circumstances (living area, family income) are not an obstacle to access to and achievement in education and that all children can achieve basic learning outcomes.

Gender equity in education refers to fairness of treatment for girls and boys according to their respective needs, where treatment can be equal or different to ensure equivalence of rights, benefits, obligations and opportunities.⁹ While the critical importance of gender equity is recognised, in reality equity in education requires policies and interventions which go beyond gender to address other dimensions of marginalisation or exclusion.

⁵ International Labour Organisation (2000) ABC Of Women Worker's Rights And Gender Equality. ILO, Geneva. P47-48.

⁶ UIS Glossary: <http://glossary.uis.unesco.org/glossary/en/home>

⁷ Council of Europe (2010), Discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation and gender identity. Parliamentary Assembly, Committee on Equal Opportunities for Women and Men.

⁸ UNGEI-FTI Secretariat (2010) Equity and Inclusion in Education. A guide to support education sector plan preparation, revision, and appraisal

⁹ Adapted from <http://www.ifad.org/gender/glossary.htm>

2 Context and progress

2.1 Development trends in gender and education since 2000

2.1.1 Movements in education and gender equality towards 2000

The right to education was first guaranteed by Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and was further supported by the Convention against Discrimination in Education (1960). The main international human rights instrument in recent decades with regard to education was the International Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNCRC, 1989). In 1979, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) was adopted by the UN General Assembly, defining what constitutes discrimination against women and setting up an agenda for national action to foster greater equality, with article 10 guaranteeing equal rights in education.

The Beijing Platform for Action in 1995, a global framework to achieve gender equality, development and peace, called for action on twelve key issues, including education and training for girls and women. The Platform has been reviewed and amended every five years, led by the Commission on the Status of Women. The Gender and Development (GAD) paradigm was introduced during the process leading to the organisation of the Beijing Conference in 1995. The GAD approach promoted women as active agents of their own development and in transforming their socio-economic, political and cultural environments, supplanting the Women in Development (WID) approach which tended to see women as passive recipients of aid and development assistance.

In 1990, the World Conference for Education for All (EFA) was held in Jomtien, Thailand, led by UNESCO, UNDP, UNFPA, UNICEF and the World Bank. Commitments were made on universalising primary education and reducing illiteracy by the end of the decade. Little progress was made in the ten years that followed, and at the international conference in Dakar, Senegal in 2000, six internationally agreed education goals were established to meet the needs of all children, youth and adults by 2015. Of particular importance to this study is goal 5:

Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality.

Also in 2000, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were adopted by 189 countries: eight global targets across development sectors. Goal 2 is to achieve universal primary education, for girls and boys. Goal 3 aims to promote gender equality and empower women, with a target that again prioritises basic education: *"Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015."* MDGs 2 and 3 focus on access to basic education, overlapping with EFA goals 2 and 5, while the EFA agenda is broader, including learning needs of young people and adults, quality education and adult literacy.

2.1.2 International trends and priorities since 2000

Over the last decade, there have been changes in the global landscape in terms of politics, economics and aid which impact on gender equality in education. This section provides a brief overview of the important milestones and the trends in aid architecture, with specific look at partnerships, conflict affected and fragile states, the rights agenda, governance and accountability, and the post-2015 agenda.

Milestones 2000-2012

The EFA and MDG goals helped to build momentum around education, and particularly around gender disparities in enrolment, completion and achievement. Table 1 outlines milestones in relation to education and gender equality.

Table 1: Timeline of significant milestones for gender and education, 2000-2012

YEAR	ACTIVITY	SUMMARY
2000	UN Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI) established	Partnership of organisations; established to support MDG goals 2 & 3
	International Network for Education in Emergencies (INEE) established	Founded to improve inter-agency communication and collaboration for education in emergencies
2002	Global Partnership for Education (GPE) – formerly the EFA-FTI	A “global compact” between low income and donor countries, with a mission to help low income countries achieve the MDG and EFA goals.
2003	Beyond Access Project (Oxfam GB, Univ. of London and DFID)	Generating and critically examining knowledge and practice regarding gender equality and education to support MDG 2 & 3
2004	UNICEF “25 for 2005” Girls Education Campaign	Campaign aiming at accelerating progress towards the EFA 2005 parity target in 25 countries at risk of failure.
2005	Coalition for Adolescent Girls	Established to influence standards of practice across diverse sectors of programming to ensure that the needs of adolescent girls are met.
2005	Consortium for Research on Educational Access, Transitions and Equity (CREATE)	Research programme funded by DFID, analysing policy and practice to reduce educational exclusion and expand access to basic education.
2006	Pathways to Women's Empowerment established (funded by DFID/SIDA)	Network of academics, activists and practitioners working to advance women's empowerment locally, regionally and through global policy.
2007	United Nations Inter-Agency Task Force on Adolescent Girls	Supporting the efforts to develop policies and programmes to reach adolescent girls, particularly those who are marginalised
2008	International Task Force on Teachers (UNESCO)	Formed to address the teacher gap, in terms of policy, capacity and financing gaps.
	World Bank Adolescent Girls Initiative	Aims to help adolescent girls and young women make a successful transition from school to work
2010	UN Women established	Accelerating the UN's gender-related goals by focussing on gender equality and the empowerment of women
2011	Global Compact on Learning	Provides a policy agenda and series of concrete steps to advance learning for all girls and boys in the least advantaged parts of the world.
	Global Partnership for Girls and Women's Education (UNESCO)	Focuses on reaching illiterate or semi-literate adolescent girls and scaling up women's literacy programmes through strong corporate partnerships

Aid architecture

In many countries, aid contributions are an essential part of national education budgets, and therefore how donors conduct their activities is significant.

There have been major shifts in the aid architecture in the decade under analysis. There has been an increased emphasis on results and effectiveness, following the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness 2005, and a move towards global partnerships and thematic funding streams to allow for coordination, complementarity and longer term planning. The Fourth High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness in Busan 2011 acknowledges the increasing complexity and range of actors involved in development cooperation, including the growing prevalence of south-south collaboration and sharing and it reiterates the need to improve the quality and effectiveness of development co-operation. There was also a commitment in Busan to accelerating efforts to achieve gender equality and empowerment of women through improved targets and data, and addressing gender equality and women's empowerment in all aspects of development efforts.

Donors tend to have clear commitments to gender parity and equality in education, through strategies and programmes of action, but the financial commitments of donor agencies is less clear:

disaggregated funding on gender and education is difficult to ascertain.¹⁰ Aid to education has stagnated since 2010, with many countries cutting aid budgets in response to the financial crisis.¹¹

Gender mainstreaming

The introduction of gender mainstreaming by donor agencies has had mixed results, often resulting in downsizing the gender approach.¹² However, important landmarks in gender mainstreaming at the donor level include the incorporated gender equality as a cross-cutting issue Paris Declaration, and the OECD-DAC's gender marker system to assess the contribution of development assistance to gender equality goals.¹³

The OECD identifies the following changes in aid goals and modalities since 1999 that have created new challenges for gender mainstreaming:

- The support of all UN member countries for the MDGs, one of which specifically concerns gender equality and empowering women
- A renewed emphasis on poverty reduction as the overarching goal of development co-operation
- An increased emphasis on country ownership of development processes and alignment of aid with partner government policy and structures
- A move from donor-generated projects to programmatic delivery of aid, for example, through sector-wide approaches and general budget support for Poverty Reduction Strategies (PRSPs).
- More emphasis on policy dialogue with partner countries, which strengthens understanding of mutual accountabilities and partner-country strategies and processes.¹⁴

The depth to which mainstreaming is implemented can be variable: though a detailed gender analysis is required in PRSP, reviews have found a disappointing level of attention to gender in PRSPs, with fewer than half of documents in the PRSP process including a detailed discussion of gender issues and limited and inconsistent gender analysis.¹⁵

Partnerships for education and gender equality in development

Across the development sector, partnerships with private providers are increasingly seen as an option to fill the gap left by under-resourced national governments and stagnating aid budgets. Private foundations and corporations already play an important role, with private actors providing the equivalent of 5% of what was spent by official donors on education in 2010. However, the majority of this spending did not fall under EFA priority areas,¹⁶ and there has been little transparency, accountability or assessment of motivations for private actors. There is a lack of evidence available in general about their scope and impact, let alone from a gender angle.

Collaborations between donors and the private sector are emerging quickly. UNESCO has partnerships on literacy, teacher training and girls' education with Procter & Gamble, Microsoft and the Packard Foundation¹⁷; DFID and the Nike Foundation initiated the Girl Hub in 2010 to help decision-makers and donors do more to address the needs and rights of adolescent girls.¹⁸ The latter came under criticism for lack of clarity on how it would achieve its goals, as well as gaps in

¹⁰ Ibid.

¹¹ UNESCO (2012) Global Monitoring Report on Education for All 2012: Youth, skills and work.

¹² Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs (2008), On Equal Terms: Women's Rights and Gender Equality in International Development Policy (2007-2008).

¹³ IDS (2009) After 2015: Gender Equality. Institute for Development Studies *In Focus* Policy Briefing.

¹⁴ OECD (2007) Gender Equality and Aid Delivery: What Has Changed in Development Co-operation Agencies since 1999?

¹⁵ Subrahmanian, R. (2006) Mainstreaming Gender for Better Girls' Education: Policy and Institutional Issues. UNGEI.

¹⁶ Ibid.

¹⁷ AusAid (2012) Australian Multilateral Assessment March 2012 on UNESCO.

¹⁸ ICAI (2012) Girl Hub: a DFID and Nike Foundation initiative. Independent Commission for Aid Impact.

accountability, financial management, planning, governance and policies, and monitoring and evaluation.¹⁹

Partnerships with private funds and corporations have enabled the implementation of projects and programmes in many cases, and there is increasing potential for partnerships for innovative and effective interventions to improve gender equality in education. However, this must be characterised by robust systems of transparency and management, with interventions based on evidence and learning from the wider development sector. Private investors can have their own agenda, and there is need for vigilance to ensure people are put before profit in market-based programmes.

Conflict affected and fragile states

Education aid for conflict-affected fragile states increased by 50% between 2005 and 2007, and humanitarian aid to education doubled between 2006 and 2008 to US\$235 million.²⁰ There is still a shortfall in the amount required to meet the need, and some governments have been criticised for the linking of security agendas with their humanitarian aid allocations.²¹

The New Deal for Engagement in Fragile States was endorsed by a number of countries and international organisations at the Fourth High Level Forum on Aid Effectiveness in Busan in 2011. The deal provides a new global direction for engagement with fragile states and a framework including a country-led common plan to transition out of fragility with shared goals and indicators.

While ‘education in emergencies’ and ‘education in fragile states’ have been covered by different agencies or community of practices throughout the decade, the Fragile State Working Group of INEE is attempting to join-up these two parallel streams. Such moves are critical in ensuring that ‘education in emergencies’ and ‘education and development’ are conceptualised as a continuum and that aid efforts during conflict and post-conflict are aligned with the requirements of (re)building an education system.

The rights agenda

A common understanding of rights-based approach was agreed by UN Member States in 2005, which included the mainstreaming human rights into activities and programmes. This shift to a human rights-based approach (HRBA) in development has been in response to the apparent failure of needs-based and service-delivery approaches in reducing poverty.²² The HRBA puts international human rights standards and obligations at the core of development processes, with a focus on key principles:

- Equality and non-discrimination
- Participation and inclusion
- Empowerment
- Accountability and rule of law

In relation to education and gender equality, the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child provides a reference framework for most countries, alongside other key Covenants and regional rights instruments. In education, the HRBA has led to a framework addressing the right to access education, the right to quality education, the right to respect in the learning environment, and ensuring equality of opportunity.²³ This has provided the basis for focus on a broader range of vulnerabilities, which often interact with factors such as gender to multiply discrimination: extreme poverty, disabilities, HIV/AIDs, ethnicity are examples of such factors.

¹⁹ Ibid.

²⁰ Save the Children (2010) Rewrite the Future: Three years on.

²¹ UNESCO (2011) Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2011: The hidden crisis: Armed conflict and education.

²² UNESCO/UNICEF (2007) A Human Rights Based Approach to Education for All.

²³ Ibid

Governance and accountability

More emphasis has been placed on governance and accountability in both aid and national budgets in the last decade, in line with an increasing focus on cost-effectiveness and transparency. The UN Convention against Corruption came into force in 2005, reflecting international recognition of corruption as one of the biggest obstacles to development, and triggering international and national actions to analyse corruptions and form policies and structures to fight it.²⁴ The education sector in most countries is allocated a large proportion of the national budget and accounts for large numbers of public sector staff and thus the opportunities for, and impact of, corruption are high.²⁵

Increasing public awareness of activities in the education sector has also had a focus on accountability -at different levels. At school level, there has been support for school management committees (SMCs) and parent-teacher associations (PTAs) in order to increase community governance and accountability of local schools. At national level, there has been an increasing use of gender responsive budgeting analysis by governments, civil society and non-governmental groups. The effectiveness of such interventions is explored in chapter 3.

Post-2015 agenda

Discussion on the post-2015 agenda and its implications for education internationally has increased as we approach the deadline of the MDG and EFA frameworks. However, there is an emphasis on full participation by governments and stakeholders, to avoid over simplification and encourage ownership and policy coherence at global, regional, national and sub-regional levels. The post-2015 UN Development Agenda is likely to be based around four key dimensions: (1) inclusive social development; (2) inclusive economic development; (3) environmental sustainability; and (4) peace and security.²⁶

Emerging trends from the debates and consultations that are taking place internationally, regionally and nationally include:

- Learning and learning outcomes
- Teachers
- Skills and competencies
- Secondary Education
- Pre-primary, and
- Equity²⁷

While most organisations in their proposition for a new global framework have acknowledged the need to keep both education or literacy and gender equality as priorities, there has been a general trend to merge gender with other factors of exclusion under an equity in education umbrella, following a rationale for more nuanced understanding of the barriers to access and learning for both girls and boys and for interventions targeting multiple exclusion factors for sustained changes.

²⁴ International Council on Human Rights Policy/ Transparency International (2010) Integrating Human Rights into the Anti-Corruption Agenda: Challenges, Possibilities and Opportunities.

²⁵ UNDP (2011) Fighting Corruption in the Education Sector: Methods, Tools and Good Practices

²⁶ UN (2012) Realising the future we want for all: Report to the Secretary General.

²⁷ Burnett, N., Felsman, C. (2012) Post-2015 Education MDGs. ODI & Results for Development, August 2012; UNESCO (2012) Education for All: Beyond 2015. Mapping Current International Actions to Define the Post 2015 Education and Development Agendas

2.1.3 Progress and challenges in education and gender equality since 2000

Access and completion

There has been significant progress in access to education for both girls and boys since 2000. The drive towards universal primary education, including legislation to make primary education free in many countries, has resulted in a significant boost in enrolment. However, whilst the number of out-of-school children has decreased overall since 2000, the rate of progress toward universal access to education has slowed somewhat and, in some countries, has begun to reverse. In sub-Saharan Africa, the total number of out-of-school children increased by 1.6 million between 2008 and 2010.

Globally figures suggest parity in primary school enrolment has been achieved, and in developing countries the GPI for primary education went from 0.91 in 1999 to 0.97 in 2010.²⁸ Despite this overall progress, 68 countries have not achieved gender parity in primary education, with girls disadvantaged in 60 of them.²⁹ In pre-primary education, gross enrolment rates remain below 50% at a global level and below 43% for developing countries. In general, equal numbers of girls and boys are enrolling in pre-school education, but, with public provision limited in many low-income countries, children from poorer families are largely unable to access ECD provisions, particularly in rural areas.³⁰ Transition to secondary also remains a challenge: in 47 out of 54 African countries, fewer than 50% of girls have a chance of going to secondary school, and girls are more likely to drop-out once in secondary.³¹ Girls are also disadvantaged in the Arab States and South and West Asia. In middle and high income countries, fewer boys than girls are entering secondary school: at lower secondary level, boys are less likely to enter in 33 countries, and in upper secondary they are disadvantaged in 75 countries.³² Boys are less likely than girls to enter secondary in only three low income countries (Bangladesh, Myanmar and Rwanda), but experiences from richer countries offer lessons for those with growing enrolments.³³

In many countries barriers to enrolment have been reduced, but survival to last grade remains elusive for poorer children.³⁴ Discrimination on the basis of poverty and gender follow different patterns in different countries: disparities may be wider at enrolment, completion, or remain significant through-out the educational process.³⁵ Reasons for drop-out are likely to be different for boys and girls. Where girls might be forced to stop their education due to early marriage or early pregnancy, boys might feel the pressure to contribute to the family income. Adolescent boys and girls will also react differently to school factors which “push” them out of school, such as harsh discipline, school climate and other child-unfriendly aspects of the school environment.

Marginalised groups

Although access to education has increased significantly since 2000, many of those increases have occurred in urban locations and among those belonging to higher socio-economic groups, masking the continuing marginalisation of certain groups: girls, children with disabilities or special needs, those from poor households and those living in rural and remote locations. Marginalisation in education varies by context, often mirroring and reinforcing wider forms of exclusion in society. Societal discrimination based on ethnicity, race, language or culture, and in some countries status

²⁸ UNESCO (2012) Global Monitoring Report on Education for All 2012: Youth, skills and work.

²⁹ In 17 there are fewer than nine girls in primary school for every 10 boys (though this is down from 33 countries in 1999). Ibid. Figure out of the 167 countries with data.

³⁰ UNESCO (2011) Global Monitoring Report on Education for All 2011: The hidden crisis: Armed conflict and education.

³¹ GCE/RESULTS (2011) Make it Right: Ending the crisis in girls’ education, Oxford, UK, Global Campaign for Education & RESULTS Educational Fund

³² UNESCO (2012) Gender overview: Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2012: Youth and Skills: Putting Education to Work.

³³ Ibid.

³⁴ UNESCO (2012), Global Monitoring Report on Education for All 2012: Youth, skills and work.

³⁵ UNESCO (2011), Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2011: The hidden crisis: Armed conflict and education.

and social identity (such as caste), can also present significant challenges to participation in education.³⁶ Often, these factors interact with gender: parents are less likely to encourage girls to go to school if they are in a remote area with a long, dangerous walk to the nearest school, for example. Children living in pastoralist communities face extreme disadvantage, with boys often relied on for tasks such as tending cattle and girls for domestic chores; there is also a disparity between formal education structures and nomadic lifestyles, in terms of timetabling and relevance of curriculum.³⁷

The true extent to which children with disabilities are marginalised from education is unknown: it is an issue which is largely hidden in many societies and reliable data is elusive; data disaggregated by gender is particularly lacking. However, it is understood that children with disabilities are one of the main groups still excluded from education, both in terms of access and learning. Such exclusion is increasingly recognised as caused primarily by social factors, a failure of society to respond rather than the medical conditions themselves.³⁸ Barriers remain at policy and system level, community level in terms of social stigma and negative parental attitudes and school level in terms of the lack of the infrastructure and human capacity to effectively support children's access and learning.³⁹ Girls with disabilities face multiple levels of discrimination, with less chance of entering school due to the low value given to educating both women and disabled people, and a higher vulnerability to physical and sexual abuse once in school.⁴⁰

Children living in fragile and conflict-affected states are among the least likely to be in school and most of these states will fail to meet any of the EFA or MDG education objectives. Globally, conflict-affected countries account for 42% of the children who are out-of-school, as children are less likely to enrol and more likely to drop-out of both primary and secondary education.⁴¹ Students, teachers and schools are directly threatened by violence, which can result in death, disability, displacement, or recruitment as child soldiers. Schools are closed during surges in violence, and infrastructure is damaged or destroyed, either as a target or as collateral damage. Girls are the most disadvantaged in these situations, with the effects of poverty interacting with fears about sexual violence and violence from groups opposed to gender equity.⁴² The psychological trauma of sexual violence can have devastating consequences for learning, and physical consequences – unwanted pregnancy, unsafe abortions, sexually transmitted diseases and other ill health – often result in drop out from school.⁴³ Providing quality education in refugee camps is a huge challenge, and girls are much less likely to attend primary and secondary provisions than boys in such situations.⁴⁴

Quality and learning

The need to understand why progress towards universal primary enrolment is slowing, and in some cases reversing, has led to a renewed focus on the quality of the teaching and learning experience for children in school. Increasingly, poor quality education is being linked to low learning outcomes and falling enrolment rates as poor parents see little incentive to send children to school when little learning takes place. An estimated 130 million children in school are failing to attain minimum learning standards.⁴⁵ As access to school has increased, so has the pressure on infrastructure,

³⁶ UNESCO (2010) Global Monitoring Report Education for All 2010: Reaching the Marginalised.

³⁷ Ibid.

³⁸ DFID (2010) Education for Children with Disabilities – improving access and quality. Guidance note, a DFID practice paper.

³⁹ Ibid.

⁴⁰ Save the Children (2002) Schools for All: Including disabled children in education

⁴¹ UNESCO (2011) Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2011: The hidden crisis: Armed conflict and education.

⁴² UNESCO (2011) Gender overview: Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2011: The hidden crisis: Armed conflict and education.

⁴³ Ibid.

⁴⁴ Ibid.

⁴⁵ UNESCO (2012) Global Monitoring Report on Education for All 2012: Youth, skills and work.

teachers, class sizes, textbooks and other limited resources; as a consequence, school environments have become less conducive to learning, feeling safe and developing personal and social skills.

Although overall learning outcomes are low across all groups in poor countries, there are disparities in learning outcomes according to gender, location and socio-economic status: poor, African, rural girls are the least likely to learn anything in school.⁴⁶ Global figures indicate that boys are falling behind girls in learning achievements, largely due to the effects of male underachievement in many middle and high-income countries at secondary level.⁴⁷ For both male and female students, inequalities between different groups are an important factor in academic progress. The gender gap, whether in favour of girls or boys, often widens for students in poor and/or rural areas.

The fear and reality of violence in school is a significant barrier to many, in addition to levels of learning achievements – particularly in the context of high opportunity costs to education such as paid and domestic labour. Where learning environments are harmful or there are low levels of achievement, this can influence the choices of pupils and their parents about attending.

2.2 History of Norway's commitment to education and gender equality; and overview of main channels

Education and health are high priority sectors in Norway's development cooperation,⁴⁸ and the education aid budget has doubled over the last decade. Norway takes a rights-based perspective to education, and the 2003 strategy emphasises the importance of education reaching the most vulnerable groups, including girls, children in emergencies and children with disabilities.⁴⁹

About half of Norway's development budget is channelled through multilateral organisations, with this set to increase over the next few years.⁵⁰ The bulk of funding is to UN agencies, including UNICEF, which receives 28% of its core funding from Norway. Norway divides its multilateral contributions almost equally between core and non-core funding, highlighting its commitment to core funding and its responsiveness to the need for greater flexibility in programme planning.⁵¹

Mainstreaming women's rights and gender equality is an important approach for Norway; as regards to education, Norway pledges to:

- support key UN organisations and initiatives that seek to realise the right of girls to complete primary, secondary and tertiary education; give women access to opportunities to learn to read and write; and promote training and good working conditions for women teachers at all levels
- seek to abolish school fees; promote incentives for sending children, particularly girls, to school; promote security and protection against abuse; and support the development of gender-sensitive teaching materials
- emphasise the need to address the gender dimension and promote women's participation in knowledge generation in development studies, in its development cooperation with higher education and research programmes
- direct particular attention to access to water and sanitation in the education sector, with emphasis on girls' and women's needs⁵²

⁴⁶ Ibid.

⁴⁷ UNGEI (2012) Why are Boys Underperforming in Education? Gender Analysis of Four Asia-Pacific Countries.

⁴⁸ Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs (2010) Action Plan for Women's Rights and Gender Equality in Development Cooperation (2007-2009) Extended for the period 2010-2013.

⁴⁹ Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs (2003), Education – Job Number 1: Norwegian Strategy for Delivering Education for All by 2015.

⁵⁰ Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs (2011) Norad's Strategy towards 2015: Results in the Fight Against Poverty.

⁵¹ OECD (2008) DAC Report on Multilateral Aid.

⁵² Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs (2010) Action Plan for Women's Rights and Gender Equality in Development.

Norway has a history of strong relationships with UN agencies, and in particular has had a unique partnership with UNICEF for many years. As earlier pioneers, Norway and UNICEF initiated a programme for the advancement of girls' education in 1996, which was showing positive results by 2003. With the support of Norway, along with other donors, girls' education was mainstreamed as one of UNICEF's five main priorities. Since then, accountability structures have improved, and the UN Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI) has been established.

Norway is the largest donor to UNICEF's Basic Education and Gender Equality, a thematic fund under focus area 2 of UNICEF's Mid-Term Strategic Plan, and the lead organisation of UNGEI. Norway pledged a 50% increase in funding to the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) in November 2011⁵³, stating its commitment to education objectives aimed at improving quality of education, access to children in fragile states and areas of conflict, early childhood education and care, and most especially to girls.

UNICEF, GPE and UNGEI are three agencies which have a comprehensive approach to their education objectives, from providing technical support and capacity building to shaping policy and advocacy. In addition, Norad works directly with non-governmental organisations, such as the Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE), to strengthen gender research in African education. Norway also supports basic education in Afghanistan, Burundi, Madagascar, Nepal, Pakistan and Palestine through bilateral support, working with local NGO partners or directly with the government.

⁵³ Global Partnership for Education (2011) Statement from Government of Norway at GPE Pledging Conference, Denmark, 8 Nov 2011: <http://www.globalpartnership.org/media/Replenishment/norway.pdf>

3 Interventions and research

3.1 Global level interventions

In this section we look at important interventions at the global level. This includes methods to measure gender equality and education, particularly in relation to the EFA and MDG goals, as well as global level advocacy groups and campaigns.

3.1.1 Measurements and Goals

International goals

An international agreement on the MDG and EFA goals represented a considerable commitment to global development and education. The goals have provided a platform from which governments, donors, advocacy groups and other stakeholders can rally funding and support for key education issues. The focus on primary education, particularly in the MDGs has resulted to some extent in channelling resources and commitment, undoubtedly a key factor in the improvements in access and gender parity in primary education.

However it has been recognised that the remit needs to be expanded because fewer resources reached other levels of the education system, whilst the demand for them was increasing. Early childhood development (ECD) has now been recognised as an important step for mitigating some of the effects of poverty on children's futures and preparing them for the later stages of schooling,⁵⁴ but less than half of all children are accessing pre-primary. At secondary level, there has been little progress in access, with girls still lagging behind in most indicators, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, the Arab States and South and West Asia.

'Gender' is a complicated and context-specific issue, and any global measurements and definitions are inevitably reductive. It is notable that, despite direct reference to the term in both the MDG and EFA framework, the concept of 'gender equality' is not actually defined in the Dakar Framework for Action.⁵⁵ Broadly, the term 'gender' has largely been used as synonymous with 'girls' or 'women'. This is perhaps because women and girls have been at a disadvantage in most regions, but recent attention boys' underachievement in middle and high-income countries has gone some way to widening the gender discussion.

Tracking progress of EFA goals

The Global Monitoring Report on Education for All (GMR) has tracked global progress towards the six EFA goals, publishing an annual report with consolidated national statistics and analysis on the progress, trends and continuing challenges and gaps.⁵⁶ Monitoring these trends is an important part of understanding progress, galvanising momentum and influencing the direction of aid, policy and practice at international and national levels. The GMR disaggregates most of the indicators by gender, with the exception of *wellbeing and care* indicators of early childhood care and education (ECCE) (*education* indicators in ECCE are disaggregated) and financial commitment to education.

Global monitoring presents obvious challenges in terms of the availability of reliable and comparable national statistics.⁵⁷ In addition, many gaps have been identified in setting and monitoring EFA goals, particularly in terms of measuring quality education and gender equality.

⁵⁴ UNICEF (2011) Basic Education and Gender Equality: Thematic Report 2011.

⁵⁵ Ibid.

⁵⁶ All reports are available at <http://www.unesco.org/new/en/education/themes/leading-the-international-agenda/efareport/reports/>. Last accessed 08/01/2013

⁵⁷ UNESCO (2011) What is the Education For All Global Monitoring Report? UNESCO, Paris. Available at <http://www.unesco.org/new/fileadmin/MULTIMEDIA/HQ/ED/GMR/pdf/diverse/10questions.pdf>

A gender-specific EFA index (GEI) has been developed to measure goal 5 on gender parity and equality - which aims to eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary and achieve gender equality, “with a focus on ensuring girls’ full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality”.⁵⁸ The GEI is a calculation based on an average of the gender parity indexes of the primary and secondary gross enrolment ratios and the adult literacy rate. Critics suggest that measurements which only include gender parity information provide a picture of entry, and not what happens in terms of participation, survival, completion and achievement.⁵⁹ They do not tell us about the process of education, or about the dynamic of contextual factors of unequal power relations.⁶⁰ Further, they tell us little or nothing about gender disparities in conjunction with other factors of exclusion such as location, disability, age and location.

In 2010, the GMR developed the Deprivation and Marginalisation in Education (DME) index, a tool which documents different dimensions of marginalisation using a number of different measures. The DME establishes a benchmark for ‘education poverty’.⁶¹ It assesses educational poverty through data on wealth and gender, identifying people in the bottom 20% of the national distribution in terms of years in school, highlighting the powerful influence of social circumstances and inequalities caused by wealth and poverty, rural and urban divides. The DME found that gender, poverty, language and culture often combine to produce an extremely heightened risk of missing out on school.⁶² Such an indicator allows deeper assessment of barriers to accesses and how to address them.

EFA Goal 6, which focuses on improving the quality of education, including learning outcomes in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills, is measured using proxy indicators of pupil to teacher ratio and survival rates to grade 5. These indicators are not disaggregated by sex. They tell us little about learning achievements, and how these achievements have come about.

Beyond parity measures

Subrahmanian suggests that gender equality should be assessed by rights to education, rights within education and rights through education.⁶³ She points to measures which are relatively easy to obtain and yet go beyond conventional parity measures, such as exam performance and subject choice as indications of gendered experience in schools, but emphasises the importance of careful analysis based on contextual understanding and unpacking of figures. ‘Rights within education’ can also be assessed through supply side, quality indicators - pupil-teacher ratio, teacher training etc. - as well as through family and social indicators which can influence educational experience. Subrahmanian discusses the complexities of rights within education and the methodological and conceptual problems of linking educational outcomes with other development or social goals. However, understanding how education can act as a vehicle for empowerment and improved gender equality in society can help improve these processes; looking at the relationship between education and employment for men and women, for example in countries where men are at an advantage in employment opportunities even though women outperform them in education. Subrahmanian concludes that a multi-dimensional approach is necessary for ensuring gender equality in education.⁶⁴

Where attempts to measure learning outcomes and identify gender disparities have been made, particular challenges arise. Whilst data from demographic and health surveys show young women leaving school with fewer literacy skills than their male counterparts, regional assessments for

⁵⁸ UNESCO (2011) EFA Global Monitoring Report 2011 - The hidden crisis: Armed conflict and education, UNESCO: Paris

⁵⁹ Unterhalter, E., Challender, C., Rajagopalan, R. (2005) Measuring gender equality in education. Beyond Access: Transforming policy and practice for gender equality in education. Oxfam GB.

⁶⁰ Subrahmanian, R. (2005) Gender equality in education: definitions and measurements. International Journal of Educational Development 25, 2005, 395-407.

⁶¹ Fewer than four years of education, a minimum required for basic literacy, is defined as education poverty, fewer than two is considered extreme education poverty.

⁶² UNESCO (2010) Global Monitoring Report on Education for All: Reaching the Marginalised. UNESCO.

⁶³ Ibid

⁶⁴ Ibid

monitoring quality in basic education, such as the Southern and Eastern African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) or the Programme on the Analysis of Education Systems (PASEC), either show minimal gender differences in learning outcomes or girls outperforming boys in reading in many countries in Africa. However, analysis conducted on available African national examination data points to a gender gap in favour of boys at the end of primary and secondary school.⁶⁵ In addition to questions about data validity, this raises issues about the quality and fairness of national examinations, which act as a gatekeeping mechanism for transition to the next level of education.⁶⁶

Alternative measures of assessing gender equality in education

The Gender Equality in Education index (GEEI) was developed in response to gaps left by the GMR measures as part of Oxfam's Beyond Access Project.⁶⁷ It draws together data gathered by UNICEF on girls' attendance at school, by UNESCO on girls' achievement in primary school and access to secondary school, and by UNDP on the gender development index (GDI). The GEEI therefore includes the numbers of girls who attend and remain in primary school, as well as an assessment of whether those girls are able to translate their attendance and retention into future secondary schooling, healthy lives, and reasonable incomes (indicated by the GDI component). The index is weighted so that girls' survival over five years in primary school and the capacity of women to survive into adulthood, retain literacy, and earn a decent livelihood (signalled by the GDI) are twice as important as attendance in primary schools, and girls' enrolment in secondary school as 50 per cent more important than attendance.⁶⁸ Such weighting puts the emphasis on the purpose and consequences of education rather than viewing attendance as an end in itself, as conventional measures tend to.

The GEEI was applied to Commonwealth countries in Africa, and revealed that of the 16 countries analysed, for 7 the GEEI rating had decreased between 1993 and 2001. Only in Uganda were there significant gains, in the context of huge government and civil society mobilisation for gender equality in education. Analysis across Africa, Asia and Latin America, reveals similar trends in GEEI rating, depending on factors such as a history of war and reconstruction, levels of functioning democracies, and women's mobilisation and political participation. This analysis also shows that larger economies do not necessarily equate to higher scores. The authors argue that the GEEI provides an insight into how far the countries need to go to meet the MDG targets, and what resources would be needed. The measure has also been used in reports by UNGEI and the Commonwealth Secretariat.

Key issues

- Choices around goals, measurements and definitions for education play an important role in international focus and donor commitments, which in turn have a significant influence on what happens at national level (as we have seen, e.g., by the focus on primary). The international benchmarks are therefore extremely powerful, and careful consideration needs to be given to what gender equality means in this context and how it might be measured. However, gathering a global consensus on very broad and context-specific issues like quality and equity could be extremely challenging.
- The GMR has been a critical tool for tracking progress, identifying gaps and providing analysis. Gender parity does not measure gender equality, however, as it fails to tell us about the different experiences of schooling for girls and boys and how these are gendered.
- More highly disaggregated data would give us a better picture of the multiple barriers to access, particularly in terms of excluded groups; essential to reaching those groups still out-of-school.

⁶⁵ Postles, C. (2012) *Girl Friendly Teaching: Investigating the classroom practices that promote girls' learning*. Plan UK: London.

⁶⁶ UNGEI (2008) *Towards Gender Equality in Education: Progress and challenges in Asia-Pacific Region*, p.2.

⁶⁷ Ibid.

⁶⁸ Unterhalter, E., Challender, C., Rajagopalan, R. (2005) *Measuring gender equality in education. Beyond Access: Transforming Policy and Practice for Gender Equality in Education*. Oxfam.

- There are useful examples of how this might be done, coming primarily from the academic world. However the use of alternative measures remains limited despite the different perspectives they provide to the debate on gender equality progress in education.

3.1.2 Global advocacy groups and campaigns

Since 2000, a number of organisations and movements have galvanised around promoting education and holding national and international governments and agencies to account. Most of these organisations have national presence and influence through country offices or national membership.

United Nation's Girls Education Initiative

The United Nation's Girls Education Initiative (UNGEI) was launched at the World Education Forum in 2000, with a mandate to narrow the gender gap in primary and secondary education by 2005 and to ensure that, by 2015, all children were able to complete primary schooling, with equal access to all levels of education for girls and boys.⁶⁹ Three strategies guide UNGEI's activities, though the focus varies across regions and levels: (i) advocacy and policy influencing (ii) technical outputs and capacity development, and (iii) strengthening partnerships for girls' education and gender equality.⁷⁰

Initial activity of UNGEI was slow, particularly at international level (country level partnerships began forming within a year after its launch). With global partnerships in general being a new concept, and no other partnerships on education and gender in existence, UNGEI struggled to find consensus on its role and functionality. The focus on gender and girls' education as an area for action was also met with some resistance at the time. Substantial time was therefore needed to advocate for the necessity of the partnership, and to determine priorities, roles and mechanisms.⁷¹

After the establishment of organisational structures, the adoption of a strategy and greater engagement with international partners, UNGEI became more involved with national education ministries and national planning processes. A strategic partnership with FAWE enhanced understanding of girls' education issues at the local level in African countries.⁷² Globally UNGEI has grown into its role as a critical voice of accepted discourse around gender equality and education, such as through its annual gender reviews of the GMR which highlight any gaps, omissions or misinterpretations. It also plays an important role of knowledge broker in gender and education.

Regional level partnerships and operations have proven more challenging, with no set model and limited success in most cases. The exception is the East Asia and Pacific (EAP) regional office, which has had an operating partnership at regional level since 2002 using a model which includes specific regional partners and specific goals. The regional coordination in EAP was found to play a critical role in UNGEI's effectiveness and resulted in improvements in policy dialogue, evidence-based advocacy work and a stronger network of committed partners, which can to some extent be attributed to UNGEI activities in the region.⁷³ Because gender inequality in education has different regional patterns of enrolment and achievement for girls and boys, regional partnerships have a key role to play in terms of providing relevant and contextual support to country partnerships, as well as translating their experiences up to the global level.

⁶⁹ UNGEI (2010) UNGEI AT 10: A Journey to Gender Equality in Education

⁷⁰ Ibid.

⁷¹ UNGEI (2012) Formative Evaluation of The United Nations Girls' Education Initiative. UNGEI, New York.

⁷² Ibid

⁷³ Ibid.

Evaluation of UNGEI's work

According to a global evaluation in 2011, UNGEI has made strong progress in its three goal areas:

- **Policy dialogue and advocacy:** UNGEI makes a significant and visible contribution to global-level dialogue and advocacy around girls' education and gender equality. It does this through coordinating with other agencies and EFA processes, in particular the GPE, organises prominent events, and produces tools, studies and publications to promote good practice in girls' education and gender equality. UNGEI contributes to, and reviews, the GMR from a gender perspective.
- **Good practices:** UNGEI has become more systematic in its approach to good practices, with enhanced capacity and understanding of what constitutes good practice, more consistent dissemination, progress tracking, and greater institutionalization. UNGEI engages with other networks and organisations to produce research and documentation, including toolkits and guidelines, and their website is now populated with documentation and resources. It supports country and regional level offices to document and disseminate good practice.
- **Partnership building:** The UNGEI partnership has become stronger and has established itself as a respected actor in the global arena with a clear role in moving forward the girls' education and gender equality agenda. This has been achieved through improved internal structures and mechanisms, including a formal set of working groups and a clear vision and goals, and ensuring the right mix of and coordination of partners.⁷⁴

Global Campaign for Education

The Global Campaign for Education (GCE) is a civil society movement, established in 1999, underlined by the principle of education as a basic human right and with the mission to make sure that governments act to deliver the right of everyone to a free, quality, public education. Comprised of members from national, regional and international civil society organisations, teachers' unions and child rights campaigners, it has over 80 national coalitions. Activities are primarily based around campaigning, mobilising pressure from all sectors and holding governments and international institutions to account.⁷⁵ GCE also launched the Civil Society Education Fund to support national education coalitions, ensuring increased engagement in the GPE process.⁷⁶

GCE campaign areas include gender discrimination and girls' education, and the GCE has a seat at various global fora including UNGEI.⁷⁷ GCE co-authored the *Make it Right for Girls* report in 2011, focussing on the challenges still faced by girls in terms of education and advocating a rights' based approach focussed on the "4As".⁷⁸ The report shows an ongoing disadvantage for girls in terms of availability – particularly in sub-Saharan Africa and particularly at secondary level - and takes a deeper look into the challenges associated with accessibility, acceptability and adaptability, areas largely associated with quality in terms of learning environment, gender sensitive pedagogies and structural obstacles that education needs to respond to. In 2012, GCE published a report on *Gender Discrimination in Education* examining the nature of gender discrimination and the responsibilities of states in overcoming it, using case studies and preliminary research findings.⁷⁹

The 2007 mid-term review found that gender is an area the GCE has addressed, though GCE members had mixed responses to this assessment: some seeing it as a key achievement, whilst others felt the missed deadline of the 2005 gender parity goal attracted little attention.⁸⁰ These

⁷⁴ Ibid.

⁷⁵ Global Campaign for Education (2013) Webpage: About us <http://www.campaignforeducation.org/en/about-us>. Last accessed 03/01/2013.

⁷⁶ Civil Society Education Fund (2012) Civil society advocacy: good practice case studies. Global Campaign for Education/ African Network Campaign for Education.

⁷⁷ Curly, C., Martin, A., Lewer, D. (2007) Global Campaign for Education: Mid-Term Review. Firetail Limited/GCE.

⁷⁸ Global Campaign for Education and RESULTS Education Fund (2011) *Make It Right: Ending the Crisis in Girls' Education*.

⁷⁹ Global Campaign for Education (2012) *Gender Discrimination in Education: The violation of rights of women and girls*.

⁸⁰ Curly, C., Martin, A., Lewer, D. (2007) Global Campaign for Education: Mid-Term Review. Firetail Limited/GCE.

different experiences are perhaps attributable to the GCE's bottom up, Southern-led approach, which is dependent to a large extent on the activities of national members. GCE has little influence over the status or effectiveness of such national groups, but rather provides a facilitation role for cascading down global messages and providing support for national civil society coalitions to advocate on education for all.

Plan International: Because I Am A Girl

A flagship priority for Plan International over the last few years has been the *Because I Am A Girl* campaign, which calls for prioritisation of - and action to support - girls' access to and completion of basic and secondary education, through improved funding; an end to child marriage and gender-based violence; and increased participation of boys and girls to make decisions and hold leaders to account.⁸¹ The campaign is supported by a range of global partners, including UN bodies, GPE, GCE and private corporations.⁸²

The campaign was officially launched on 11 October 2012, the first international day of the girl, but was preceded by a series of reports on the State of the World's Girls, which have been published annually since 2007. These reports have profiled issues and obstacles to girls' accessing their rights to achieve their potential, and education has been an important focus throughout: the 2012 report focussed on *Learning for Life*. The reports call on a range of expertise, collaborating with and profiling the work of various organisations and academics, with representation including UNGEI, UNICEF and UNESCO and a range of donor organisations, NGOs and academic institutions.⁸³ The reports aim to provide tangible proof of the inequalities which still exist between boys and girls and to support the *Because I am A Girl* campaign with specific girl-oriented evidence, providing recommendations "for the campaign to take forward in partnership, to ensure that every girl gets at least nine years of quality education and is able to realise her full potential"⁸⁴.

Plan was the first major organisation to call for an international day of the girl, and was instrumental in building a coalition of support, which was later adopted by the UN. Plan's support for this movement was based on the belief that an international day recognising girls would bring global focus to their basic rights and make them more visible on the global platform; that it would help achieve the MDGs on gender equality and enable girls to gain an equal position in society, both as an intrinsic right and as an instrument to break poverty.⁸⁵ The results of this campaign are yet to be seen, but it serves as a powerful platform to track girls' progress and highlight ongoing challenges for informing, mobilising and lobbying on the global and national arenas.

The language of this campaign is 'girls' rather than gender equality: aiming to address the silence around girls' needs and rights; and arguing that girls need to be treated differently from boys and from older women. Plan also addresses the issue of gender in the 2011 report entitled *So, What about the Boys*, stating the boys and men have a role to play in protecting and promoting the rights of girls, as well as suffering the consequences of negative gender stereotyping themselves.⁸⁶

⁸¹ Plan (2012) Webpage: Because I am A Girl, Plan's Goals. Available at <http://plan-international.org/girls/plans-goals.php?lang=en>, last accessed 04/01/2013

⁸² Plan (2012) Webpage: Because I Am A Girl, Supporting Partners. Available at <http://plan-international.org/girls/supporting-partners.php?lang=en>, last accessed 04/01/2013

⁸³ Plan (2012) Because I am A Girl: State of the World's Girls 2012: Learning for Life. Plan International.

⁸⁴ Ibid. Page 152.

⁸⁵ Plan (2012) Webpage: Day of the Girl. Available at: <http://plan-international.org/girls/day-of-the-girl.php?lang=en>, last accessed 04/01/2013.

⁸⁶ Plan (2012) Because I am A Girl: State of the World's Girls 2011: So, What about boys? Plan International.

Global campaigns on violence against children in school

Following the publication of the UN Report on Violence Against Children,⁸⁷ many organisations have worked in the last half of the past decade on issues of violence against children in school. Plan ran a global campaign, Learn Without Fear; ActionAid implemented the Violence Against Girls in School (VAGS) multi-country programme; UNICEF conducted studies in many regions and countries and supported the development of national protocols to identify and report violence in and around schools. Work on violence in schools has usually been carried out jointly by the protection and the education sectors. Protection and education programmes in Save the Children for instance have joined efforts to re-issue the pledge to end violence against children in and around schools.⁸⁸

Regional multi-agency initiatives have also taken place, such as the Education and Child Protection initiative established in 2008 between Action Aid, Plan West Africa Regional Office, Save the Children Sweden West Africa and UNICEF West and Central Africa Regional Office, which collaboration among other things led to the *Too Often in Silence* series, a major advocacy tool at regional level.

These national, regional and global initiatives had a strong focus on gender in their research and advocacy activities. They showed how both boys and girls were suffering from corporal punishment in school, preventing them from developing and learning correctly; how girls were particularly victims of sexual harassment and sexual violence; or how Koranic scholar boys could be exposed to exploitation. They also exposed how gender, age, ethnicity and other characteristics such as disability could combine to expose children of different sex and age to different forms of violence.⁸⁹

These campaigns, carried out jointly with national alliances of civil society organisations and other stakeholders, have resulted in raising awareness against gender-based violence in schools and in establishing a number of legal framework and policy changes, at national, district or school level (for example, the penalisation of sexual harassment or violence in school or the prohibition of corporal punishment in education institutions).

Out-of-school Children Initiative

Addressing the issue of out-of-school children presents many challenges: these children are by definition excluded, on the outskirts of society, facing discrimination or marginalisation from their community and their school. Even understanding of the scope of the problem - who these children are and how they can be reached - is therefore extremely difficult. Household-based measures of school participation have been traditionally used, but these are collected infrequently and are subject to data quality issues and differing definitions and methodologies.⁹⁰

In 2010, UNICEF and the UIS launched the Global Out-of-School Children Initiative (OOSCI), which aims to reduce the number of out-of-school children and address disparities through improving data and identifying bottlenecks to develop context appropriate policies and strategies.⁹¹ The Initiative highlights the difficulties of addressing the needs of out-of-school children suffering multi-dimensional disparities that often cut across sectors, as well as the additional costs associated with addressing multiple disadvantages. The goal of the Initiative is to address these challenges and support countries in reducing the number of out-of-school children, primarily by improving statistical information and analysis and developing complex profiles that reflect the multiple deprivations and disparities. National studies have identified profiles of out-of-school children where sex, age, location and household characteristics are combined to provide a better, more nuanced,

⁸⁷ United Nations – Secretary General (2006) Report of the independent expert for the United Nations Study on Violence against Children. (A/61/299). New-York: United Nations.

⁸⁸ Save the Children (2011) Ending Violence Against Children In and Around School. Policy Brief.

⁸⁹ Antonowicz, L. (2011) Too Often in Silence, A report on School-based Violence and West and Central Africa. UNICEF. ActionAid, Plan, Save the Children.

⁹⁰ UIS/UNICEF (2005) Children out of school: measuring exclusion from primary education.

⁹¹ UIS/UNICEF (no date) Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children.

understanding of the dynamics of education exclusion, including gender. Such analyses have enabled the clear identification of situations in which girls as well as boys were at risk of not enrolling or of dropping-out. Bottleneck analyses have resulted in the identification of demand and supply side factors affecting enrolment and retention of both boys and girls. Reviews of social protection measures focusing on education have in some cases identified good practices which aim at reducing the gender gap. Based on this new knowledge, the OOSCI and follow-up regional initiatives have now started supporting countries in developing policies appropriate to context along with district and school-based interventions.

Key issues

- Global advocacy initiatives have provided a critical voice for pushing gender – particularly access to education for girls – up the international agenda. Such a role should be maintained to hold international bodies to account on their commitments.
- Aligning global messages with national or regional priorities is not straightforward: ensuring global messages are relevant across contexts whilst not diluting them can be a challenge. Partnerships like UNGEI and GCE rely on regional and national actors to both promote and contextualise messages: ensuring there is capacity to do this should not be underestimated.
- Messages must go in both directions: gender dynamics and equality issues have very different manifestations across cultures and communities. Collecting, disseminating and promoting data, lessons and good practice is therefore extremely important for informing global, regional and national dialogue. South-South partnerships are an important emerging practice in this, as recognised at the Busan conference on Aid Effectiveness.
- Partnerships for gender equality and education have been more successful where there was clear leadership; clear strategies to reach agreed goals; and coalitions of organisations with significant weight and working towards shared goals.
- Positive lessons can be drawn from the inter-agency collaboration around the issue of violence against children, of which gender-based violence in schools was a strong component. This resulted in strong advocacy activities at national level and policy changes.

3.2 National level interventions

This section looks at national networks, partnerships and advocacy groups and their roles in promoting gender equality in education, providing an overview of interventions at national level around gender responsive education policy, planning and budgeting.

3.2.1 National networks, partnerships and advocacy groups

Global Partnership for Education

For the 46 developing countries that are signed up, the Global Partnership for Education (GPE – previously the EFA Fast Track Initiative or EFA-FTI) can act as an important national hub for coordination and policy and decision making.⁹² The principle of the GPE is for developing countries to lead the development and implementation of their own education strategies and policies, with a partnership between the government, donors, non-governmental organisations, civil society groups, and the private sector. Through a coordination of all education efforts, the GPE creates and funds education strategies to help children have access to education and to learn.⁹³ As a multilateral funding mechanism, with aid effectiveness as one of its founding principles, the GPE provided US\$2.4 billion in financial aid between 2004 and 2011.⁹⁴ Between 2002 and 2011, Norway pledged

⁹² Global Partnership for Education (2011) All Children Learning Report 2011. GPE, Washington

⁹³ Ibid.

⁹⁴ Global Partnership for Education (no date) 10 things about the partnership. GPE, Washington.

US\$253.44 to the GPE⁹⁵, and in 2011 Norway committed to increasing their contribution by 50% to approximately NOK 150 million per year.⁹⁶

An external mid-term evaluation in 2008 of the then EFA-FTI found that partner countries were performing better than non-partner countries, and that it has successfully maintained a focus on country ownership, principles of aid effectiveness. However, financing for basic education in low-income countries remained well below what was needed, resulting in a large number of children still out of school, particularly in fragile states.⁹⁷ There had not been a systematic approach to encouraging a proactive stance on gender, but in some countries donors had played an important role in pushing for a more strategic focus on gender issues.⁹⁸

Indicators used in GPE reports to measure progress in girls' education tend to focus on parity, but at national level, interventions tend to include both quality and access interventions. The GPE supports the development of and implementation of Education Sector Plan (ESPs); and the incorporation of gender and/or girls' education as areas for priority and intervention come through that development process. The most common intervention related to gender equality that have been included in ESPs and country plans is the idea of mobilising communities to send their girls to school by increasing awareness through the media and religious leaders. The plans also include a broad range of national initiatives such as targeted financial support and school feeding programmes; improving gender-sensitivity of the curricula and teacher development; ensuring learning environments are healthy, safe and free of gender-based violence; and the introduction of laws and policies that support girls' education in terms of violence, as well as access for marginalised or older girls.⁹⁹

Performance in girls' education of 30 GPE countries

A 2011 report, *Fast-tracking Girls' Education*, outlines the progress of 30 countries which joined the GPE (then EFA-FTI) before 2008 and outlines their performance in girls' education.¹⁰⁰

The report assesses these countries in terms of access indicators, girls' gross enrolment ratio (GER) and grade 1 intake ratios (GIR), and gender parity indexes of GER and GIR. It finds 12 of these countries to be high performance, meaning that they have sustained already high levels of girls' enrolment and gender parity since joining the GPE. Seven countries were rated as 'good performance countries', those which have actually increased girls' enrolment. Eight countries show 'mixed performance', four of which have seen a decline in girls' enrolment since joining the GPE – Gambia, Kyrgyzstan, Liberia and Moldova.

The report states that lack of progress in these countries is down to the short time since Education Sector Plan (ESP) implementation, which may take a while to show results, and as well as further assessment of specific barriers to girls' accessing and staying in school. Yemen joined the GPE in 2003, and has implemented an ESP focussing on boosting girls' education in rural provinces, blending traditional and innovative mechanisms, yet progress has been slow, and the report cites a need for 'renewed debates on how to accelerate increases for girls'.¹⁰¹

GPE has a central role in really making sure that gender is mainstreamed into both the formation and implementation of ESPs. There are great strengths in the nationally-led approach which brings together such a broad range of actors and interests, with the potential to identify and address

⁹⁵ Global Partnership for Education (2011) All Children Learning Report 2011. GPE, Washington.

⁹⁶ Global Partnership for Education (2011) Statement from the Government of Norway. Pledging Conference, Copenhagen, Denmark, 8 November 2011.

⁹⁷ Cambridge Education/ Mokoro/ Oxford Policy Management (2010) Mid-Term Evaluation of the EFA Fast Track Initiative Final Synthesis Report. Volume 1 – Main Report.

⁹⁸ Cambridge Education/ Mokoro/ Oxford Policy Management (2010) Mid-Term Evaluation of the EFA Fast Track Initiative Final Synthesis Report. Volume 1 – Main Report.

⁹⁹ Ibid.

¹⁰⁰ Fast-Track Initiative (2011) Fast-tracking Girls' Education: A Progress Report by the Education for All Fast Track Initiative.

¹⁰¹ Ibid.

specific challenges and needs to gender equality in the country in question. There has not been a consistent approach to this so far, but the 2012-2015 Strategic Plan makes specific commitments. Broader objectives include covering fragile and conflict affected states; learning, literacy and numeracy; teacher effectiveness; and external and domestic funding support to education. Objective 2 is: “All girls in GPE-endorsed countries successfully complete primary school and go to secondary school in a safe, supportive learning environment”.¹⁰²

GPE strategy for girls’ education (objective 2)

The strategy acknowledges the multiple barriers to girls’ education, and the marginalisation of girls particularly those in disadvantaged groups. It states that gender-equality strategies should be embedded within a wider context, and therefore, under objective 2, plans to focus on:

- poor learning levels as a trigger for accelerated dropouts for girls from school, working with UNGEI to establish indexes for gender equity and quality, including for reading and numeracy
- teacher effectiveness, including finding more qualified and effective female teachers and ensuring gender sensitive teaching practices
- ensuring that partner education sector plans are gender responsive and include strategies to decrease gender inequality in education
- working with UNGEI and others on targeted support to countries with high gender imbalances and allocating specific funding for activities that address those imbalances, and
- improving gender parity in school management and system management, promoting the inclusion of more qualified women in senior system administration and school principal roles.¹⁰³

The goal will be measured using: (i) gender parity in transition to secondary education, (ii) parity in reading and numeracy results by grade 3, and (iii) percentage of staff members in management positions in the education sector who are women. Though teacher quality is covered under objective 4, there are no specific indicators on gender ratios of teachers, teacher training or gender sensitive pedagogies.

The commitment to gender equality in the Strategic Plan is significant. The specific reference to UNGEI demonstrates a willingness to work with gender experts to strengthen GPE’s approach. Tracking the effective implementation of this strategy will be important in moving forward.

National civil society movements

Civil society coalitions on EFA exist at national level in many countries, and are coordinated by regional level networks and the GCE. At regional level, these include the African Network Campaign for Education for All (ANCEFA), Asia South Pacific Association for Basic and Adult Education (ASPBAE), Campaña Latinoamericana por el Derecho a la Educación (CLADE), Arabic Campaign for Education for All (ACEA), among others.¹⁰⁴ The nature and focus of national campaigns is context dependent, working to address the challenges arising in the country in question, and levels of activity and effectiveness can be extremely variable. Many national campaigns have strived for increased gender equality in their country, following the GCE’s focus on gender discrimination and girls’ education. Coalitions have been successful in unifying the voice of disparate civil society groups and systematically mobilising communities and effecting change at government level.

¹⁰² Global Partnership for Education (2012) Strategic Plan 2012-2015. GPE.

¹⁰³ Ibid

¹⁰⁴ See <http://www.campaignforeducation.org/en/members> for a more comprehensive list of national and regional networks.

Successful national coalitions for gender equality in education

- **Bolivia:** The Bolivian Campaign for the Right to Education and partners have helped ensure that the new National Education Law affirms the promotion of education free of patriarchy and a new law against violence in schools is currently being discussed in Parliament. Civil society organizations are also campaigning for a new curriculum to be agreed, based on gender equity, for both primary and secondary.
- **Tanzania:** TENMET, the national education coalition, was involved in a campaign on the right to land for women and its impact on girls' education. TENMET and various civil society organizations are also engaged in campaigning and advocacy for improved education and girl friendly policies, resulting in raised awareness and a re-entry policy for pregnant girls. Community-level budget tracking initiatives have been initiated, following allocation of resources which empower girls and women in education.¹⁰⁵
- **Pakistan:** Pakistan's National Education Coalition (PCE) campaign demanded governmental intervention on violence against women and girls, and the coalition has participated in preparatory work for laws criminalizing violence against women.¹⁰⁶ The shooting of school-girl and education campaigner Malala Yousafzi in October 2012 prompted global attention and further campaigning has been led by the group on rights for girls to education in Pakistan.¹⁰⁷

UNGEI country level partnerships

Country partnerships of UNGEI provide a platform for national knowledge sharing and coordination, and support to governments, although their strength varies across countries (of the 51 partnership countries, 33 have an active partnership, 10 have ceased to exist, and 8 reported never having had a UNGEI partnership).¹⁰⁸ Some countries have chosen alternative names for their partnership, as they see the 'UN' label as off-putting - or because they wish to incorporate wider gender issues rather than focus exclusively on girls.

The main activities at national level include advocacy and sensitisation on gender issues, and training and capacity building (particularly the training of female teachers and of all teachers on gender issues). Activities include media campaigns; material development and dissemination; sharing good practices; school level activities (advocacy and training, improving school infrastructure); and provision of financial support and grants. However, country-level partnerships have had less focus than might be expected in terms of coordination between government and other stakeholders or in promoting preschool or secondary education. Finding resources for field-level activity implementation, securing commitment by partners, issues of capacity and lack of monitoring and evaluation have also been challenging for these national level partnerships.¹⁰⁹

UNGEI country partnership case studies

The UNGEI evaluation conducted case studies in four countries: Egypt, Nepal, Nigeria and Uganda. In both Nigeria and Uganda, there were systems and policy drivers in place towards improving girls' education before the UNGEI partnership was established, as well as a history of partner and stakeholder coordination. As a result, these partnerships were more effective than in Egypt and Nepal where there were more challenging policy environments and few existing mechanisms for coordination. In these strong partnerships in Nigeria and Uganda, considerable evidence was found of policy influence and impact, and in both countries the partnerships are considered important actors at national and decentralized levels; and good practices have been identified and disseminated to have an impact on decision-making and implementation.

In Nepal, UNGEI was rated as having made a modest contribution: policy influence was limited in scope and

¹⁰⁵ GCE (2012) Gender Discrimination in Education: The violation of rights of women and girls, p. 5 & 12.

¹⁰⁶ GCE (2012) Gender Discrimination in Education: The violation of rights of women and girls, p.16.

¹⁰⁷ GCE (2013) Webpage: Malala Day: Take Action for Girls in Pakistan. Available at <http://www.campaignforeducation.org/en/news/global/view/474-malala-day-take-action-for-girls-in-pakistan>, last accessed 08/01/2013.

¹⁰⁸ UNGEI (2012) Formative Evaluation of The United Nations Girls' Education Initiative. UNGEI, New York.

¹⁰⁹ Ibid.

effectiveness; there was little effort in generalising good practices; and the partnership itself has suffered from lack of commitment, leadership and clear decision-making.

In Egypt, UNGEI evolved differently, focussing on gender issues at primary level, on which it has been successful. However, it has not been effective at engaging in wider gender issues in education and is not seen as a forum for discussion on girls' education and gender equality issues.¹¹⁰

Overall, UNGEI country-level partnerships have proved to be an effective mechanism for coordination, policy impact and good practice in programming in countries where there is an enabling environment. How to create the conditions to shape the environment so that such partnerships can be more effective needs further deliberation. Other aspects to be considered are how the global and regional partnerships can best support national-level partnerships to play a greater coordinating role; how they can help to strengthen advocacy strategies and ensure greater efficiency and effectiveness of partners' activities.

Forum for Women Educationalists (FAWE)

FAWE has a growing regional network, currently with national chapters in 34 countries across Africa. Membership includes female ministers of education, vice-chancellors, senior education policy makers, prominent educationalists; as well as both female and male education practitioners, researchers, gender specialists and human rights activists at national level. National chapters have an important role in advocacy at country level. FAWE's 2008-2012 strategic plan identifies an objective to build the capacity of weaker FAWE national chapters to improve functionality in programme administration and implementation; and to strengthen their capacity at advocacy, in terms of fostering policy dialogue and influencing reform as well as documenting successes. The strategic plan outlines that the Regional Secretariat should have a greater role in leadership, coordinating, monitoring and evaluation in future.¹¹¹

FAWE conducts advocacy at policy level, seeking to influence education policies for greater gender-responsiveness, and has been successful in getting national governments to agree on policy measures which promote gender equality in education including: re-entry to school for adolescent mothers; affirmative action for admission to higher education; government bursaries for underprivileged girls; and removal of tax on sanitary towels.¹¹² FAWE conducts community level advocacy and mobilisation around girls' education, working with mothers' clubs and engaging with the media, and partners with international campaigns for global advocacy. FAWE has also conducted activities which have been shared and scaled up to national levels and to other countries in Africa. Such interventions include the FAWE Centres for Excellence, the Tuseme approach and a gender-responsive pedagogy model, which are discussed in detail in the following sections.

FAWE's work is well recognised as a significant actor in the field of gender and education. FAWE national chapters are perceived as the channels through which FAWE meets its objectives and a key element of its strategy from the outset. Success is perhaps attributable to the grass-roots approach, allowing relevant identification and national action on issues in girls' education.

Key Issues

- These examples demonstrate the importance of coordination and complementarity between the players at national level. Partnerships provide an opportunity for a wider group of stakeholders to influence education policy, through a louder and more representative voice.
- The four partnerships profiled here are increasingly pooling their resources and working together – GPE plans to work with UNGEI to ensure gender is a major component of ESPs; UNGEI has

¹¹⁰ Ibid.

¹¹¹ FAWE (no date) FAWE Strategic Plan 2008-2012.

¹¹² FAWE (2009) Webpage: Policy Advocacy. Available at <http://www.fawe.org/activities/advocacy/policy/index.php>. Last accessed February 2013.

drawn on FAWE's knowledge and experience; and all work in collaboration with networks of smaller civil society organisations.

- Many lessons have been drawn during the past decade on components of successful national-level partnerships in general and for gender in education in particular. These include: thorough assessment of the enabling environment; identification of entry points for national dialogue; representation and maintenance of interests of all parties while working towards shared goals; capacity development strategies to strengthen collaborative work and financing.
- Reaching the children that are still out-of-school requires local-level knowledge that is held by organisations working with the most excluded groups. GPE, UNGEI and other national coalitions need to uphold their commitments to addressing gender issues whilst acknowledging other exclusion factors and ensuring their representation in policies and implementation processes.

3.2.2 Gender responsive education policy and planning

Gender equality in education policies

Most countries make explicit reference to gender equality in education policies– through increasing awareness, targeted interventions and scholarships, gender sensitive teaching and learning approaches. However, the level of gender analysis in ESPs is often found to vary considerably. Gender is usually not explored in relation to other dimensions of disadvantage or exclusion, and countries are likely to have specific objectives on school enrolments but not on gender equality in the rest of the education process. Systematic planning for capacity-building and institutional development for addressing gender inequality is generally neglected, especially for ongoing gender analysis, gender mainstreaming or gender-sensitive monitoring and evaluation.¹¹³ Simply incorporating aspects of exclusion is not enough: a comprehensive analysis and understanding of what the issues are and how to address them is necessary to uphold the rights of all children.

In some countries specific policies to address gender equality in education have been developed but rigorous research studies and evaluations of such policies and their impacts are lacking to date, with the exception of cash transfer and similar programmes (see section 3.2.3), although these tend to focus on results in terms of access and retention as opposed to greater gender equality issues.

Policies with gender equality in education goals have increasingly moved from broad mainstreaming approaches to stand-alone gender in education policies or policies on specific gender issues in education. Uganda, for example, had integrated strong gender components in existing education policies, but disparities persisted, particularly in terms of completion rates which were much lower for girls. Further policies aimed at accelerating girls' education were elaborated, including the creation of a gender desk at the Ministry of Education in 2007. The process of formulating a policy for re-entry of pregnant girls and child mothers commenced in 2008 and the Gender in Education Policy was launched in 2010.¹¹⁴ Similarly in Nigeria, a Policy on Gender in Basic Education and implementation guidelines were developed. The policy has been used to inform the development of state Strategic Education Sector Plans and the Strategic Education Sector Operational Plans; and strategies identified in the policy and in the education sector plans are being integrated into education budgets.¹¹⁵ Policy changes favouring girls' education have resulted in an increase in the enrolment and completion rates for girls as well as higher transition rates to junior secondary school.¹¹⁶ Overall there is a lack of rigorous research on the effectiveness of policies specific to gender and education policies, although the existence of such policies in itself implies to some extent the commitment to closing gender gaps in education.

¹¹³ Cambridge Education/ Mokoro/ Oxford Policy Management (2010) Mid-Term Evaluation of the EFA Fast Track Initiative Final Synthesis Report. Volume 1 – Main Report.

¹¹⁴ UNGEI (2012) Formative Evaluation of The United Nations Girls' Education Initiative: Uganda Report.

¹¹⁵ UNGEI (2012) Formative Evaluation of The United Nations Girls' Education Initiative: Nigeria Report.

¹¹⁶ Ibid.

There are good examples of countries taking action at policy level on homophobic bullying and discrimination within the education sector. Such policies are usually part of an array of interventions aimed at enforcing national level rights and instruments and legislative frameworks and regulations. Common interventions to combat homophobic bullying in education have included training manuals for teachers, curriculum reviews and work with school directors and management teams to support the development and implementation of anti-discriminatory school-based policies.

Example policies targeting homophobic bullying and discrimination in education

In South Africa, discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation is prohibited by the Constitution and the Equality Act. As a result, the Department of Education's Social Cohesion and Equity in Education Unit developed a training manual for school governance staff which includes a section on sexual orientation. It also worked jointly with the National Religious Leaders Forum to include the right not to be discriminated against on the basis of sexual orientation in a teacher manual on school culture.

In El Salvador, a Presidential Decree prohibits discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation of gender identity. The government's Secretariat for Social Inclusion responsible for its implementation works directly with the Ministry of Education to raise awareness on homophobic bullying and to encourage school directors to address the issue.

In Brazil the MOE, in partnership with CSOs, has been implementing the *Schools Without Homophobia* programme, which among other activities sets up multi-stakeholder meetings and social movements at regional level on combating homophobia in schools. The programme included a review of the curricula to incorporate sexual and gender diversity and development of teacher training modules to support its implementation in safe schools.¹¹⁷

Policies and national legislative guarantees which protect the rights of children regardless of sex, gender or sexual orientation are a crucial backbone to gender equality. They initiate discussion on how to ensure such protections are carried through to schools and communities, and provide a framework for people to understand and advocate for their rights. When governments adopt such policy and legislation, they can be rightly seen as a victory for gender equality – however, this should not be perceived as the end of a process, but rather the beginning. Huge gaps between policy and implementation exist in many countries and policies need to be supported by clear strategies for and monitoring of their implementation.

Female teacher recruitment

Although qualified and well-trained teachers are essential to ensuring that quality education is available to all, many low-income countries are experiencing a chronic shortage. In sub-Saharan Africa alone, an estimated two-million additional primary teachers will need to be recruited to maintain the current workforce and to achieve the goal of universal primary education.¹¹⁸ There is a particular shortage of female teachers in many low-income countries, especially at higher levels of education. In South and West Asia, 46% of primary school teachers and 35% of secondary school teachers are female. In sub-Saharan Africa, only 29% of secondary school teachers are female.¹¹⁹ This shortage of female teachers is particularly significant given evidence pointing to a link between female teachers and increased girls' enrolment, retention and improved learning outcomes.¹²⁰

There is evidence that increasing the number of female teachers improves enrolment and retention of girls in schools, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa; where there are more or less equal numbers of

¹¹⁷ UNESCO (2012) Good Policy and Practice in HIV and Health Education. Booklet 8: Education Sector Responses to Homophobic Bullying.

¹¹⁸ UIS (2011) The Global Demand for Primary Teachers. 2011 Update. UNESCO.

¹¹⁹ UNESCO (2011). EFA Global Monitoring Report 2011. The hidden crisis: Armed conflict and education, UNESCO: Paris

¹²⁰ Rawal, Shenila and Kingdon, Geeta (2010) Akin to my teacher: Does caste, religious or gender distance between student and teacher matter? Some evidence from India, Institute of Education Department of Quantitative Social Science Working

male and female primary teachers, there is close to gender parity in student intake.¹²¹ In Senegal, for example, Makwati *et al* found through a statistical analysis of all schools that female teachers resulted in more girls in the classroom, particularly in rural areas and in the last three years of primary school.¹²²

Some research shows that the presence of female teachers contributes toward creating a more ‘girl friendly’ and supportive environment in which girls’ needs are more likely to be understood and addressed. It is also symbolically important for the gender balance of school staff to reflect that of students and to provide girls with positive role models.¹²³ Such factors are important quality aspects, contributing to the schooling experience and an inclusive environment for girls and boys.

However, research in, for example, Uganda and Pakistan, shows that female teachers are not necessarily more supportive of girls in schools and might not be aware of gender concepts and debates.¹²⁶ Teachers are themselves subject to social norms and gender identities, and female and male teachers have the potential to reinforce stereotypical images of girls and boys (discussed further in section 3.4.1). Studies have shown that better training of teachers of both sexes is more effective than simply employing more female teachers in terms of creating an atmosphere in which girls and boys are more open to discussing concerns and obstacles they face in school.¹²⁷

The Sarva Siksha Abhiyan (SSA) in India, a flagship government programme for Universal Elementary Education, introduced female teacher recruitment as a key strategy to close the gender gap in education.¹²⁴ A research study in 2008 in the context of the India SSA found mixed results in terms of learning outcomes: female teacher classrooms tend to perform better in language but there are no such benefits for mathematics, and these benefits are not higher for girls than boys. The findings also indicate that the benefits of female-headed classrooms over male-headed classrooms may be limited to specific sub-groups of teachers, such as early-career teachers with fewer years of experience. The study concluded that gender and student achievement may be mediated by the subject taught and the teacher’s own background.¹²⁵

Further, assumptions that female teachers improve the learning achievements of girls in particular are not substantiated by conclusive evidence. Where an improvement in girls’ learning achievement has been evidenced (such as in small pilot studies), it has gone alongside good working conditions for the female workers, opportunities for training and qualifications, job security and promotion.¹²⁸ In addition few studies have managed to date to untangle teachers’ gender identities from other possible contributing criteria to learning outcomes for boys and girls in developing countries.

In many poor countries, in response to the shortage of teachers, recruitment of community, contract or para-teachers has taken place. These teachers are characterised by lower levels of education and training, lower salaries and conditions of employment, and can be recruited and mobilised quickly. A large proportion of such teachers are female, addressing the under-representation of women teachers, but critics argue that such a trade-off needs closer examination and more evidence to support the assumptions on which it is based. Many comparative research studies have concluded

¹²¹ Kirk, J (2006) The Impact of Women Teachers on Girls’ Education. UNESCO.

¹²² Makwati G., Audinos B., Lairez T.(2003) The role of Statistics in Improving the Quality of Basic Education in Sub-Saharan Africa, ADEA Biennial Meeting, Grande Baie, Mauritius.

¹²³ Ibid.

¹²⁴ Ministry Of Human Resource Development, Department Of Elementary Education & Literacy (2004) Arva Shiksha Abhiyan: A Programme For Universal Elementary Education. Manual for Planning and Appraisal. Government of India.

¹²⁵ Chudgar, A., Sankar, V. (2008) The relationship between teacher gender and student achievement: evidence from five Indian states. Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education, 38:5, 627-642

¹²⁶ UNESCO (2006) The Impact of Women Teachers on Girls’ Education. Jackie Kirk.

¹²⁷ Unterhalter (2012) A Convenient Myth, in Plan (2012) Because I am A Girl: State of the World’s Girls 2012: Learning for Life, page 80.

¹²⁸ Ibid.

that the impact of community, contract or para-teachers was not negative on students' learning when compared with regular teachers.¹²⁹ However these studies rarely acknowledge the specific components which might explain these results, such as understanding and use by locally recruited teachers of students' mother-tongue; regular teacher attendance due to community supervision or contracts renewed annually; and community support particularly in remote areas and conflict regions where teacher retention is an issue. Studies also lack analysis of the gendered process of education.

Female teacher recruitment cannot be seen as a 'magic bullet' solution to girls education and training both male and female teachers on gender sensitive pedagogies and environments is equally, if not more, important. Female teacher recruitment must be matched by improving teachers' status, training and employment conditions before the association between gender and achievement can be completely understood.¹³⁰ However, achieving a gender balance in the teaching force at all levels of education is a critical element to prevent the masculinisation or the feminisation of the working force and to ensure that boys and girls are exposed to a variety of approaches, teaching styles and role models.

Women in leadership and decision-making positions

The Beijing Platform for Action outlines the importance of equal participation of women and men in decision-making and therefore in political life, yet women remain underrepresented in leadership positions across the world, including in the education sector. The primary cause of this underrepresentation is the continuation of long held societal attitudes: assumptions women make poor leaders, direct harassment and exclusion of women in the work place, and seemingly gender neutral policies that nevertheless hinder women who must balance work and family commitments. The underrepresentation of women results in the replication of existing male dominated work and organisational patterns; the loss of the talent and experience of the large numbers of women who have failed to progress from the lower ranks of education; and of course, inequalities in social justice.¹³¹

Uganda and female educational leadership

Sperandio looks specifically at the secondary school sector, where there have been a number of enabling factors for increasing women's representation in leadership: increase in single sex girls' schools, with expectations of female-led administration; a recommendation accepted in a Government white paper in 1992, which stated that in coeducational schools, either the Head or Deputy Head should be a women to help curb female harassment in schools and meet the special needs of girls; and affirmative action policies in favour of women and marginalised groups, including a policy that 30% of applicants hired for school position should be women. The reasons for the under-representation of women, despite the positive environment, mirror those found in other countries (both developed and developing):

- a lack of women who have the minimum qualifications needed for application for leadership positions: due to the limited number of girls both completing education to degree level and opting for a career in secondary education
- a lack of interest by qualified candidates in leadership positions: graduates have better paid and more secure options available outside the education sector, and there is a lack of female role models

¹²⁹ Muralidharan, K., Sundaraman, V. (2010) Contract Teachers: Experimental Evidence from India. Working Draft. 24 May 2010. And Duflo, E., P. Dupas, and M. Kremer (2010): "Pupil-Teacher Ratios, Teacher Management, and Education Quality: Experimental Evidence from Kenya," MIT

¹³⁰ Unterhalter (2012) A Convenient Myth, in Plan (2012) Because I am A Girl: State of the World's Girls 2012: Learning for Life, page 80.

¹³¹ Sperandio, J. (2011) Creating and supporting women's leadership in education: charting the effects of international, national and organizational cultures. Gender equality in education: Looking Beyond Parity, IIEP evidence based policy forum, 3-4 October 2011, Paris. UNESCO/IIEP.

among teachers of adolescent girls

- hidden barriers to women applying for, and being appointed to leadership positions: understanding the system and how to be promoted, male domination of appointment and selection processes, lack of women role models and mentors in educational leadership¹³²

There has been a lack of gender research studies and audits in the field of educational leadership. Though gender differentiated statistics for teacher employment are now widely available from most national education authorities, statistics giving the gender distribution of school administrators and educational decision-makers at the national level are not routinely computed and disseminated.¹³³ Sperandio argues that frameworks and models need to be developed for further research and examination of the factors that affect women's aspiration and access to leadership positions – in order to provide insight into the context-specific and complex nature of gender roles, national policy and organisational structures.¹³⁴

Equal access for women in decisions making positions remains elusive, as does the representation of other marginalised or minority groups. Action needs to be taken at national level to understand more about the causes of this under-representation and to address it. As with female teachers, this is essential to fulfilling gender equality commitments, as well as providing a balanced input into educational policies, plans and strategies which represent the interests of all pupils.

Key issues

- Incorporation of gender equality into education sector plans and policies ensures that international commitments are domesticated and owned at country level. Caution must be taken to ensure that addressing gender and other excluded groups is based on evidence and analysis, rather than simply being included as tokenistic. A specific policy or plan on gender and education can highlight such commitment. However, there has been little external evaluation of the content or impact of such policies to date.
- Challenges remain in ensuring that ESPs are informed by thorough gender analyses and reliable disaggregated data. Political will and capacity of governments to mainstream gender in ESPs, to develop relevant gender-specific indicators for the poorest and most excluded boys and girls and to monitor and evaluate progress towards gender equality in education, are still lacking in a number of countries although they are pre-requisite for achieving gender goals in education.
- Gaps between policy and practice are likely to remain or even increase - without sufficient plans, political will or resources to support national policies and to ensure that they are disseminated and implemented at school and community level. However at minimum, these policies provide a basis for raising awareness of people's rights to improve accountability and push for change.
- Affirmative action on female teacher recruitment remains a debated issue, and though evidence suggests improved access, the evidence on whether it improves girls' and boys' learning achievements is mixed. Without sufficient training and support, it is unlikely that the recruitment of female teachers in and of itself will do much to challenge current gender status quo. Putting equal numbers of men and women at the front of the classroom has a value in itself, however, in terms of positive gender role models and equality of opportunity. More research on gender and educational leadership is needed to better understand the dynamics and the implications for school education.

¹³² Ibid.

¹³³ Sperandio, J. (2011) Creating and supporting women's leadership in education: charting the effects of international, national and organizational cultures. Gender equality in education: Looking Beyond Parity, IIEP evidence based policy forum, 3-4 October 2011, Paris. UNESCO/IIEP.

¹³⁴ Ibid.

3.2.3 Gender responsive budgeting and social protection measures

Gender responsive budgeting

According to Oxfam, gender-responsive budgeting (GRB) is an attempt to:

*Ensure that gender-related issues are considered and addressed in all government policies and programmes, and specifically in the budgets allocated to implement them.*¹³⁵

The first analysis of government budgets from a gender perspective took place in Australia in the 1980s. This process was replicated by South Africa and the Philippines in 1995 and over 60 other countries by 2003.¹³⁶ GRB processes vary from country to country, depending on the political and social conditions, motivations for carrying it out and the actors involved, but fundamentally it relies on an analysis of the budget in gender terms for informing change or revision. Frameworks for GRB assessments tend to be categorised as: gender-targeted expenditure (actions that are specifically directed at improving gender equality); staff-related employment-equity expenditures (promoting employment equity amongst public servants); and mainstream/ general expenditures.¹³⁷

Gender-targeted expenditure might include interventions that reduce the cost burden, for example providing fee exemptions or scholarships for poor students at education levels where fees still apply. Some countries have introduced interventions which meet the indirect education costs or opportunity costs, such as cash transfers, scholarship programmes, free food, textbooks or uniforms, but there can be challenges around the management and transparency of such programmes.¹³⁸ Direct cash transfers to families have been tried in several countries, often conditional on a girl's regular participation in school, and studies show that these measures have a positive impact on girls' school attendance.¹³⁹

The Oxfam report produces a set of recommendations for governments and NGOs on GRB in education. For governments, these include supporting free primary education programmes; mainstreaming gender equality in all education programmes; monitoring and evaluating the success of such mainstreaming; ensuring the sustainability of gender-specific initiatives funded by donors; carefully considering the balance of expenditure between tertiary, secondary and primary education sectors in terms of reducing poverty and achieving gender equality; and ensuring the concern to advance girls' education does not obscure the need for support to other neglected areas. It recommends that NGOs work with the education sector to develop and act upon GRB processes, and encourage employees, schools and local organisations to conduct their own GRB exercises.

GRB in Nepal

An example of GRB in the education sector can be taken from Nepal, where the Ministry of Finance introduced GRB in 2007-8 and required all ministries, departments, and project and programme units to submit assessments on their expenditure according to three categories: directly gender responsive, indirectly gender responsive and neutral.¹⁴⁰ A study on GRB by the MOE helped to assess the current situation of gender equality in the education sector, broadly finding that gender and inclusion had been adequately addressed in the primary education sub-sector. Interventions (and therefore budget lines) included improving education management through a SWAp model; increasing female teachers through quotas and scholarship incentives; increasing focus on community involvement and management; scholarships and incentive programmes for girls and other groups marginalised due to ethnicity or caste. Gender sensitisation of books, curriculum and teacher methodology and training had also taken place. There were some challenges: the study revealed that personnel at district and school level perceived gender as synonymous with scholarships to girls and girls'

¹³⁵ Oxfam (2007) Gender-Responsive Budgeting in Education. Education and Gender Equality series, no.7. Oxfam GB.

¹³⁶ Ibid.

¹³⁷ Ibid.

¹³⁸ UNGEI/UNICEF (2009) Towards Gender Equality in Education: Progress and challenges in Asia-Pacific Region.

¹³⁹ Ibid.

¹⁴⁰ Ministry of Education (Nepal), UNESCO and UNICEF (2010) A study on gender responsive budgeting. UNESCO & UNICEF.

toilets. Scholarships themselves created problems, the number received was often smaller than the target, and controversy arose as well-off girls or members of certain ethnic or caste groups might get a scholarship, but a poor boy from another poorer group would not. Data did not adequately address gender and diversity, and other initiatives were not implemented as planned. The tertiary sector was largely neglected in gender terms.

In terms of GRB process, there were challenges of integration into the MOE systems of planning, programming, budgeting, implementation and monitoring. There was a lack of clarity about the concepts and methodology of GRB, and as such, the scoring system was not being used as intended and classifications were applied inconsistently. The scoring system and the criteria under each category also posed problems, including aspects which were not relevant to education and omitting other aspects that were, and not relating to gender mainstreaming and inclusion indicators currently used by the Ministry.

GRB has enabled the securing of more funds for the promotion of gender equality and women's empowerment overall and has been successful in ensuring budget allocation at all levels for the implementation of specific gender equality interventions in education, such as the reduction of school based violence (for example, in Ecuador).¹⁴¹ However the implementation of GRB concepts and processes remain challenging for a number of countries.

Fee-free education

The momentum behind universal primary education which stemmed from the MDGs and EFA goals led in many cases to countries abolishing primary school fees, in some cases almost overnight.¹⁴² This resulted in huge influxes in enrolments, stretching the already limited resources of governments in low income countries and reducing quality as class sizes grew whilst teachers, learning materials and infrastructure did not. However, with poverty being a major barrier to access in many countries, particularly for girls, taking away this fee opened up education to many children. For example, Malawi introduced free primary education in 1994, and saw net enrolment rates for girls go from 58% in 1994 to 73% in 1996.¹⁴³ Removing the fee barrier is an example of a GRB initiative, targeting both girls and boys, but benefitting the worst-off groups the most.

Kenya experienced similar initial leaps in enrolment figures on introduction of free primary education in 2003, and a study conducted in 2005 established there was a higher intake of newly-enrolled girls compared to boys, including new entrants and returnees.¹⁴⁴ However, there was considerable negative impact on quality in Kenyan schools and, one year after implementation of free primary education, enrolment rates began to drop. A major challenge was the age of pupils, with only a quarter in the correct grade for their age and 44% overage by 2 years or more, affecting levels of learning and increasing drop-outs, particularly for girls (who anyway become more vulnerable as they reach adolescence and therefore a perceived marriageable age).¹⁴⁵

Increasing primary enrolment has led, to some extent, in increased demand for secondary school places but girls still lag behind in low income countries. Some governments have expanded access by including lower secondary as part of the 'basic' education stream, which is free and compulsory (for example in Rwanda). Sutherland-Addy found that:

When lower-secondary education turns largely into a continuation of primary education and constitutes extended basic education, it benefits girls, not only in terms of providing access to upper secondary education, but it has more externality effects and return on investment than provision to less mature primary school-age children. These benefits include lower fertility rate as girls remain in

¹⁴¹ UNESCO (2010) Gender Responsive Budgeting in Education - Advocacy Brief.

¹⁴² Riddell, A (2003) The introduction of free primary education in sub-Saharan Africa. Background paper prepared for the Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2003/4 Gender and Education for All: The Leap to Equality. UNESCO.

¹⁴³ Ibid

¹⁴⁴ UNESCO (2005) Challenges of implementing free primary education in Kenya: Assessment Report. UNESCO Nairobi.

¹⁴⁵ Ibid.

*school (when they reach puberty) within a continuous process; life skills acquisition allows them to contribute to better family care and better nutritional habits.*¹⁴⁶

Free secondary education has been recently introduced in a number of countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. Again in Kenya, where free secondary education began roll-out in 2009, research by the CREATE project suggests that there was little improvement in the proportion of girls' enrolment compared to boys' after introduction of fee-free secondary education – even though enrolment overall increased, the gender gap did not shrink. The study suggests that the gaps in access originate in primary school, where girls' enrolment and performance is lower than boys.¹⁴⁷ Abolishing fees can help increase access, but quality and learning environment must be considered alongside it to ensure survival, achievement and transition to the next stage.

Social protection measures

There is evidence that social protection policies and programmes which complement education-specific interventions have had positive results on gender equality in education, at least in terms of enrolment and attendance. Increased income security enables households to pay costs associated with school, and reduces the cost of children on the family income. Cash transfers can also improve nutrition, helping children to learn better, though evidence on learning outcomes in relation to such measures is inconclusive.¹⁴⁸

The improvements of enrolment and attendance are seen in both conditional and unconditional cash transfers, whether they are specifically related to children or not. There is very limited evidence to ascertain whether or not the conditionality, as opposed to a well-designed and implemented transfer in its own right, contributes to the positive educational results observed in CCT programmes.¹⁴⁹ In either model, cash transfers put decisions making on priorities into the hands families. Evidence supports this position, for example, in an unconditional cash transfer pilot programme run by UNICEF in Liberia, an early assessment confirmed that families know their own needs, with most households in some communities using the transfers to pay educational expenses for their children, and in others, particularly where better and cheaper schooling is available, households tend to invest the transfers in food production.¹⁵⁰

Bangladesh Female Secondary School Stipend Programme

A highly profiled and researched example is that of the Female Secondary School Stipend Programme in Bangladesh, which aimed to increase girls' enrolment and retention in secondary schooling and assist them in passing the Senior School Certificate (SSC) examination. The programme also sought to enhance their employment opportunities as primary-school teachers, extension workers, health and family planning workers and NGO workers. Based in an NGO initiative, the government launched a nationwide stipend programme in 1994, with support from the World Bank, the Asian Development Bank and Norad.¹⁵¹ There was an initial emphasis on closing the gender gap in access, but gradually elements of quality were also introduced. Free tuition and stipends are awarded to all eligible female secondary-school students enrolled in recognized institutions outside the metropolitan areas, with conditions including 75% attendance, 45% achievement on learning grades and remaining unmarried.¹⁵² The programme increased the secondary school certificate pass rate for girls receiving the stipend from 39% in 2001 to nearly 63% in 2008.¹⁵³

¹⁴⁶ Sutherland-Addy, E. (2008) Gender Equity in Junior and Senior Secondary Education in Sub-Saharan Africa. World Bank working paper no. 140. Washington, D.C.

¹⁴⁷ Ohba, A (2009) Does free secondary education enable the poor to gain access? A study from rural Kenya. Create Pathways To Access, Research Monograph No 21.

¹⁴⁸ DFID (2011) Cash Transfers: Literature review. UKAID.

¹⁴⁹ Ibid.

¹⁵⁰ UNICEF (2011) Liberia: Transformative transfers: Reaching the most vulnerable through social cash transfers. Case Study on Narrowing the Gaps for Equity. UNICEF WCARO.

¹⁵¹ UNESCO (2003-4) Global Monitoring Report on Education for All: The Leap to Equality.

¹⁵² Ibid.

Cash transfers are still in their early stages, and have mostly been pioneered and researched in middle-income countries in Latin America. It is yet to be seen whether poorer countries, particularly those in Africa, will have the administrative capacity and systems to manage them effectively. Even in Mexico and Brazil, the low quality of many services in health and education severely limits the effects of these conditional cash transfer programmes.¹⁵⁴

There has been a lack of analysis on the impact of cash transfers on gender relations within households, particularly as in many cases, cash transfers rely on the women in the household to receive and distribute the money. Such programmes place an additional burden on women, and rely on assumed traditional roles which perceive women as little more than an altruistic, caring entity.¹⁵⁵

Key issues

- GRB was mostly piloted in developing countries in education in the past 15 years, with mixed results. The case of Nepal exemplifies the problems arising due to a lack of financial capacity to make GRB a reality in many countries.
- Policies aiming at waiving fees have had a significant impact in increasing enrolment and in some cases increased gender parity. However, due to the lack of financial capacity in many settings, the impact on quality has been severe. This in turn has impacted on girls' access to and retention in secondary education, where in most cases, there has been little reduction in gender disparities.
- Social protection measures are a relatively new practice and have shown some successes in addressing opportunity costs to send children and particularly girls to schools. There is little research to date on the impact of the combination of specific social protection measures and specific education policies, particularly in the area of gender and education.

3.3 Community level interventions

This section will look at some interventions which have taken place at community level to taken challenges in gender equality.

3.3.1 Out-of-school children and alternative education measures

Keeping children in school

Reasons for children and young people being unable to access basic education are complex and multi-faceted. One of the most prevalent causes for children not entering or staying in school is poverty, which often intersects with gender: families have to prioritise between children to meet costs of schooling, or negotiate opportunity costs such as paid and unpaid work. Harmful social norms or cultural practices can also limit educational opportunities: in some countries, practices of early marriage cause girls to leave school or not enter secondary; in others, boys are more likely to enter the workforce at an early age and stop attending school.¹⁵⁶ Recent out-of-school children studies in West and Central Africa highlight other related factors such as child fostering practices, sex of the household leader and other family demographics factors.¹⁵⁷ Other research shows that over 70% of out-of-school girls in developing countries come from "socially excluded" groups.¹⁵⁸

Strategies for tackling out-of-school children and drop-out therefore emphasise the importance of community-based interventions. This can include identification or support to children at-risk of dropping-out; mentoring schemes for at-risk students with community adults, young people or

¹⁵³ DFID (2011) Cash Transfers: Literature review. UKAID.

¹⁵⁴ Molyneux, M. (2008) 'Conditional Cash Transfers: A 'Pathway to Women's Empowerment'?', Pathways to Women's Empowerment Working Paper 5, Institute of Development Studies.

¹⁵⁵ Ibid.

¹⁵⁶ Ibid.

¹⁵⁷ UNICEF WCARO (forthcoming) Regional Out-of-School Children Report for Western and Central Africa.

¹⁵⁸ Lockheed, M. (2010) Gender and social exclusion. Education policy series, International Academy of Education.

mothers' groups; community-based sports and homework clubs. Another focus (supported mostly by NGOs and CSOs) has been to promote the involvement of children themselves in advocacy activities targeting parents and leaders about the enrolment of marginalised boys and girls and girls' education. There is anecdotal evidence of girls and boys brought back to school following children's interventions with particular families, for instance in Plan's work.¹⁵⁹

Mothers' clubs

Mothers' clubs are often used as a strategy for keeping girls' in school. In Burkina Faso, for example, the Burkinabé Response to Improve Girls' Chances to Succeed (BRIGHT) aimed to increase girls' educational attainment in Burkina Faso via the construction of schools and complementary interventions. Amongst these interventions was a mobilisation campaign with communities, and a literacy and micro-project management training programme for uneducated mothers. This programme was intended to help mothers prioritise their girls' education and mothers were also trained to become mentors for female pupils, creating close relations between learning mothers and the school children. Similarly mothers' clubs in the Gambia aim to promote community participation and create opportunities for women to contribute to the promotion of access, retention and performance of girls in schools. Mothers in these clubs identified the needs of their daughters, and carried out appropriate income-generating activities for resources which can help to support those needs. By 2006, there were about 90 of these clubs across the country.

Community schools

The literature identifies three main categories of interventions to tackle out-of-school children and drop-out: prevention, response and compensation. In addition to the examples of community participation provided above, community-based ECD provision (prevention intervention) and non-formal second chance education (compensation intervention) should be highlighted as critical community-level interventions to tackle out-of-school children.

Non-formal or second chance education initiatives often provide a more realistic route to learning for out-of-school children, providing services which are more adapted to the specific needs of the learner: flexible time-tables and approaches, more relevant curricula or pedagogies, more accessible locations and so on. UNICEF has supported a number of such initiatives, for example providing education to nomadic and pastoral communities in Eritrea, Somalia and Sudan, boasting large numbers of attendees, although in all cases less than 45% were girls. In Afghanistan, Community-Based Schools have provided access for children in hard-to-reach areas and for those excluded on account of physical or social barriers: despite hardships and conservatism fuelled by the insurgency movement, more girls than boys are now in these classes.¹⁶⁰

Alternative education provisions

An early example of a successful non-formal, second-chance education programme is the Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania (COBET), initiated in 1999 by the MOE and supported by UNICEF Tanzania aimed at children who have either never enrolled or dropped-out of primary school, especially married adolescent girls.¹⁶¹ It aims to mainstream school-age children back into the formal system. It is characterised by child-centeredness, community participation, flexibility and relevance and integration with other sectors, with a focus in particular on health and HIV/AIDs. Initially in just two districts, it was rolled out nationally and, by 2006, 556,000 out-of-school students - or 8% of the primary school-age population - had been enrolled in COBET centres.¹⁶² Similarly in Bangladesh, BRAC schools - second chance centres for rural children with low

¹⁵⁹ Education for Change (2009) Thematic Evaluation of Plan work in Primary Education. Plan International.

¹⁶⁰ UNICEF (2011) Thematic Report 2011: Basic Education and Gender Equality.

¹⁶¹ Macpherson, I (2007) Tanzania: Non-formal Education. Country profile prepared for the Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2008.

¹⁶² Plan (2012) Because I am A Girl: State of the World's Girls 2012: Learning for Life.

access to education especially girls (about 65% of graduates are female) - have a high success rate in providing quality primary education which results in the vast majority of its pupils transferring to government run secondary schools.¹⁶³

Key issues

- Beyond poverty, factors keeping children out-of-school include social norms which dictate roles for boys and girls or prioritise other activities. Community level mobilisation can support those families and children making difficult choices or highlight and address issues.
- Communities are closest to out-of-school children, and provide a channel for identifying them, as well as sensitive and relevant ways of reaching and supporting them. Equally, though, communities can hold social norms and values which embody exclusion, and changing such values can be a long and gradual process.
- Mothers' clubs and other mentoring schemes have proven successful in keeping boys and girls in schools. However such initiatives have rarely been effectively scaled up as they often rely on the motivation of individual women in given communities.
- Community-based schooling is a valuable approach to providing flexible and relevant schooling to some excluded groups. However, the examples in this chapter come from pilot projects or initiatives with limited geographical coverage. Despite an array of good, innovative and combined practices at community level, sustainability and scaling-up have not always followed.
- There are questions around whether alternative provisions are a stop gap or a long term solution. Where second chance education provides education for young mothers, for example, is this because the state is failing in implementing re-entry policies, or because the social and logistical challenges of returning to school are too many for returnees? Better understanding is important to inform government policies which can work both to improve access to mainstream schooling and identify where alternative provisions are required to meet very specific needs.

3.3.2 Combating negative gender roles

Community awareness

Civil society organisations have an important role in raising awareness around gender roles and equality in education through advocacy and campaigning activities. The UNGEI partnerships in Uganda, Nigeria and Pakistan have all used radio or television shows for discussions on issues of gender equality and education. The use of the radio means the most remote districts can be reached, and discussions have included topics such as girls returning to school after pregnancy and why educating girls is important. Children, female role models from the community and UNGEI district committee members facilitate the discussions.¹⁶⁴

Community level interventions have also included the enactment of bye-laws by chiefs or other traditional governance structures to support increased enrolment and attendance, particularly by girls. Religious leaders can be galvanised to support sensitive and culturally charged issues around gender and education.¹⁶⁵ In Afghanistan, development and humanitarian agencies work closely with religious leaders and Imams across the country regularly promote girls' enrolment through Friday worship.¹⁶⁶ In Jordan, a UNICEF safe schools campaign initiated in 2009 raised awareness of violence by teachers against children through community-based meetings as well as celebrations and

¹⁶³ Ibid.

¹⁶⁴ UNGEI (2012) Formative Evaluation of The United Nations Girls' Education Initiative.

¹⁶⁵ For example, work by Plan International, such as in Sokode, Togo, see <https://plan-international.org/where-we-work/africa/togo/where-we-work/sokode/>, last accessed 07/01/13.

¹⁶⁶ UNICEF (2012) Partnering with Religious and Community Leaders.

religious activities, a robust media-based coverage and traditional communication channels such as mosques, religious leaders and community drama.¹⁶⁷

Child-led advocacy

Girls Making Media is a three-year project established in 2010 by Plan International in Ghana, Liberia, Sierra Leone, Togo and reaching more than 560 adolescent girls and 140 adult journalists. It aims to strengthen the capacity of adolescent girls engaged in children's and youth organisations, advocating against discrimination and gender-based violence through diverse forms of media and establishment of a core group of female youth speakers. The project hopes to increase girls' opportunities to access media-related jobs, to train adult female journalists in issues facing adolescent girls in West Africa, and to increase public awareness of the needs of adolescent girls in the region. It is primarily focused on girls, but 25% of membership of the clubs is open to boys. The project provides the electronic hardware, as well as the opportunity to meet and interview local and national figures, with a focus on women journalists, government officials and businesswomen. A key component is the wide distribution of the media produced by girls.¹⁶⁸

Save the Children has long been a strong proponent of child-led advocacy. It conducted a campaign in the Indian state of Orissa against corporal punishment, in collaboration with UNICEF and other NGOs. Children were involved in planning the advocacy strategy through analysis of existing policies and systems to identify opportunities for change, and forming alliances with other agencies and networks. Direct consultation with 35 children, 12 girls and 10 boys, took place at the local level, discussing how physical and humiliating punishment affected their lives. Awareness was raised with parents, teachers, government officials and the media through wall writings, letters, theatre, meetings and workshops, and one group of children made a film about corporal punishment which was shown in the community to raise the issue with adults. Achievements of the campaign included the raising of the subject at the State Legislative Assembly, with children presenting their views, and strong coverage by the media. In August 2004, the Chief Minister of Orissa issued a Government Order banning corporal punishment in schools.¹⁶⁹

A wide range of actors are supported to both advocate and receive advocacy messages, from community and religious leaders, to parents, to girls and boys themselves. Communities are therefore receiving messages from their peers, rather than from an external or removed entity (such as a national government). Further, capacity of those advocating the messages is also increased, and therefore, in the case of child advocates, demonstrating they can perform actions not necessarily attributed to their traditional gender role.

Spaces for girls and boys to discuss gender and education issues

Some social justice researchers have argued that good quality education is highly contextual and includes capabilities that an individual, community or society has reason to value – potentially including such factors as autonomy, critical thinking and emotional intelligence.¹⁷⁰ The right to an education that prepares children to live in a gender equitable society is also enshrined in the UN CRC. Gender and discrimination issues occur both in and outside of school, and some interventions have tried to create a space (usually outside the formal classroom) for girls and boys to discuss such issues in a safe and gender-sensitive environment.

The examples in the box below show how participants can benefit from understanding gender roles and how they can learn to identify and challenge negative situations. In addition to this content, actual participation of these children and young people shows positive results for their confidence and ability to express themselves – all three examples use innovative and participatory approaches.

¹⁶⁷ Ibid.

¹⁶⁸ Plan (2012) *Because I am A Girl: State of the World's Girls 2012: Learning for Life*.

¹⁶⁹ Save the Children (2007) *Advocacy Matters: Helping children change their world*. An International Save the Children Alliance guide to advocacy.

¹⁷⁰ Tikly, L. (2010) *Towards a Framework for Understanding the Quality of Education: EdQual Working Paper No.27*. EdQual/University of Bristol.

TUSEME, TEGINT and MAN

Tuseme, Swahili for ‘let us speak out’, was started by the University of Dar es Salaam and scaled up by FAWE, and is now used in 13 sub-Saharan African countries.¹⁷¹ The Tanzanian government committed to mainstream the approach in secondary schools with support from FAWE, aiming to reach all regions by 2015.¹⁷² Tuseme was established to address negative gender relations, which are learned as children and lead to girls and women accepting their inferior status.¹⁷³ Tuseme uses a theatre for development approach to empowering secondary school girls to identify and analyse the problems that hinder their social and academic development, to speak out and express their views about the problems, and to take action to solve them. The same process is also used to empower boys to understand their unequal gender positioning, and to support and accept gender equality as a human right. Community engagement and participation is a key part of the approach. FAWE states that Tuseme has proved to be effective in building girls’ confidence, assertiveness and self-esteem; enhancing girls’ ability to analyse and challenge systems and situations that negatively affect their welfare; and improving girls’ academic performance.¹⁷⁴

An important activity under ActionAid’s **Transforming Girls Education in Nigeria and Tanzania (TEGINT) project** was the formation and ongoing activities of girls clubs (including training club facilitators, monitoring and awareness-raising activities), which showed positive outcomes for enrolment, retention and basic knowledge of gender and HIV/AIDS.¹⁷⁵ The ‘Basket of Tools’ for this programme provides separate methodology and facilitation guidelines for working with: girls; boys; teachers; parents, School Management Committees and Parent Teacher Associations; the local community; and policy makers. All toolkits include sections on understanding gender and gender roles, and confronting HIV/AIDS.¹⁷⁶ The endline study of the project found that in both Tanzania and Nigeria, girls benefit from clubs through learning about gender and girls’ rights, having fun and gaining confidence, and that girls in clubs demonstrate a better knowledge of gender equality and HIV/AIDS, and greater levels of confidence to challenge violence.¹⁷⁷

In Jamaica, the **Male Awareness Now (MAN) project** targets 128 at-risk, marginalized males from inner-city communities.¹⁷⁸ It offers young men (aged 14-24) vocational skills, life skills training, male health forums, guidance and community activities, in an attempt to steer them away from drugs and gun crime, which are prevalent for this demographic.¹⁷⁹ The project started with street children in 1989, but now works alongside schools and provides a medium to engage varying groups about interpretations of masculinity from the perspective of the individual, family and community through a range of interactive and expressive activities.¹⁸⁰ Key enabling factors for the success of the MAN project have been the active participation of the young men in the design of the project, leading to a sense of ownership and an opportunity to identify key masculinity issues for discussions, to share the project model and their experience with adults, and to monitor and evaluate project implementation. In addition, the ongoing involvement of the parents in the project provides space for dialogue and bonding amongst participants and their parents, and community spirit and interest is fostered in the project. The skills component of the project instils a sense of pride and accomplishment in participants.¹⁸¹

¹⁷¹ FAWE (2005) Empowering girls through the Tuseme “Speak Out” girls’ empowerment programme. FAWE News, Volume 13, Number 4, October - December 2005.

¹⁷² Ministry of Education and Vocational Training (2010) Education Sector Development Programme: Secondary Education Development Programme II 2010-2015. The United Republic of Tanzania.

¹⁷³ FAWE (2005) Empowering girls through the Tuseme “Speak Out” girls’ empowerment programme. FAWE News, Volume 13, Number 4, October - December 2005.

¹⁷⁴ Ibid.

¹⁷⁵ ActionAid (2011) Transforming Education for Girls in Nigeria and Tanzania (TEGINT): Mid-Term Review, Final Report.

¹⁷⁶ ActionAid (2009) A basket of tools for Transforming the Education of Girls in Nigeria and Tanzania.

¹⁷⁷ ActionAid/IOE (2012) Transforming education for girls in Nigeria: Endline research summary report; ActionAid/IOE (2012) Transforming education for girls in Tanzania: Endline research summary report.

¹⁷⁸ Obra Partnership for Youth (no date) Best Practice Profile: Children First – Male Awareness Now. Available at <http://www.obrayouthalliance.org/sites/default/files/BP%20CF.pdf>. Last accessed 08/01/2013.

¹⁷⁹ Christian Aid (no date) Webpage: A first for Children in Jamaica. Available at <http://www.christianaid.org.uk/whatwedo/partnerfocus/children-first-award.aspx>, last accessed 08/01/2013.

¹⁸⁰ Obra Partnership for Youth (no date) Best Practice Profile: Children First – Male Awareness Now. Available at <http://www.obrayouthalliance.org/sites/default/files/BP%20CF.pdf>. Last accessed 08/01/2013.

¹⁸¹ Orlando, M.B. and Lundwall, J. (2010) Boys at Risk: A Gender Issue in the Caribbean Requiring a Multi-Faceted and Cross-Sectoral Approach. Special Series: Doing Gender in LAC, Number 158, June 2010. World Bank.

Key Issues

- Outside of the school setting, engaging children and the wider community in discussions about gender is important. Wider community awareness has mostly been focussed on enrolment, encouraging communities to ensure girls and boys are enrolling and attending in school and, in general, they have been advocating girls' enrolment.
- Spaces for children to discuss gender issues appear to have a broader focus on gender roles and support children to recognise them and challenge them. There is some evidence that such interventions can have impact outside of that direct space – girls' improved academic performance, for example – but where such gender-sensitive values contradict the norm in the community and the classroom there may be challenges.
- There seems to be a lack of research or analysis on social norms. Understanding the role of negative social norms in terms of access - the gender-based barriers to attending school - and learning - how harmful social practices are challenged or reinforced within the school - is essential to ensuring the communities are supportive, rather than in conflict. Parents, families and communities play an important part in a child's informal learning outside of the school, and inconsistent messages about gender are confusing and potentially harmful.

3.3.3 Parental involvement in school management

School management committees

School Management Committees (SMCs) or school boards have in many countries become a compulsory requirement for schools, particularly in countries rolling out school grant programmes. SMCs are school based management structures whose membership and mandate are usually defined by law or official regulation. SMCs have an accountability focus which is not limited to spending of public funds, but includes educational quality aspects such as monitoring teacher attendance and time on task. Most countries have a quota system in place to ensure female participation in SMCs. Although representation and participation of women in local education structures such as SMCs and PTAs has been an area of focus in the past decade, women remain under-represented and have little weight or power in decision-making.

NGOs, UNICEF and the World Bank have worked closely with or trained SMCs and PTAs across the world including on aspects of gender and education, seeing them as duty bearers with a mandate for quality education, as well as potential advocates of participation in and supply of education, able to hold education officials, schools, teachers, families and communities to account.

Transforming Education in Nigeria and Tanzania (TEGINT)

One of the ActionAid TEGINT project's five objectives is to "facilitate capacity building and ongoing support to school management committees and wider community addressing girls' rights in education and HIV/AIDS." In both Nigeria and Tanzania, national policy supports SMCs, and the project supported capacity development of SMCs, including training on planning and budgeting, and identifying and creating solutions to school challenges. SMCs met regularly to report on outreach to disadvantaged children and out-of-school children. Evidence suggests that schools with strong, capable SMCs have better girls' attendance and performance. However, in these schools, men continued to outnumber women in SMC training by over a third, and overall they tended to be fewer in number and less vocal than men, despite TEGINT's commitment to women in leadership. Very few SMCs report formal monitoring of teacher attendance, teacher performance, and children's performance, and some SMCs have a low capacity to support girls' education.¹⁸²

Aikman and Rao argue that community-school engagement plays a key role in ensuring quality in education, through activities such as monitoring teacher attendance; ensuring girls go to school and

¹⁸² ActionAid (2011) Transforming Education for Girls in Nigeria and Tanzania (TEGINT): Mid-Term Review, Final Report.

are safe; or bringing moral support and recognition of the value of schooling.¹⁸³ They highlight, however, the importance of ensuring that communities are convinced of the relevance and responsiveness of education to their lives. There are also potential limitations caused by culture or politics which mean that decentralisation and participatory decision-making may in reality only result in managerial and administrative autonomy, rather than enhancing accountability, transparency and the flexibility to meet the diverse needs of learners. The balance of power within the community is often replicated in SMCs, for reasons of availability of, for example, poor women, and the power (or lack thereof) they hold to mobilise other people or resources. Mothers' groups are often established where SMCs do not provide an opportunity for full participation; but these are informal spaces that lack official recognition, and women lack access or influence in official, institutional spaces.¹⁸⁴

Key issues

- SMCs have been a useful channel for decentralisation of funds, and increasing transparency, accountability and engagement. Their role in school planning and particularly in follow-up of gender equality issues at school level varies and would benefit from additional research in different contexts.
- SMCs and other parental or community participation mechanisms in schools could have a much greater impact on gender equality issues in schools if best practices were replicated more thoroughly and if democratic principles in decision-making were better observed.

3.4 School practices

3.4.1 Positive teaching and learning practices for girls and boys

Many have argued that there has been little international focus on the 'black box' of the classroom. It is important to comprehend what girls and boys are being taught about themselves in school, whether education institutions allow all pupils effective participation, and whether the existing gender roles, power structures and social dynamics are enhanced or diminished by schooling.¹⁸⁵

Curriculum and textbooks

Curriculum and textbooks are intrinsically linked with educational quality and the development or perpetuation of gender norms in society. Training teachers in gender sensitive approaches is unlikely to make a significant difference if the curriculum itself remains gender biased or gender neutral. In some countries there are also challenges around parents' perceptions that the curriculum is promoting ideas that are at odds with prevailing social norms.¹⁸⁶

In an article for UNESCO, Blumberg argues that not enough attention has been paid to issues around gender bias in textbooks and curricula in pursuit of the EFA goals; these issues have been eclipsed by the focus on access.¹⁸⁷ He argues that, as textbooks take up the majority of class time for both teachers and students, these should be an important focus; however, there is little research on the effects of gender bias in textbooks on girls' and boys' patterns of educational and occupational achievement. Research on the scope of such sexism shows that it is prevalent in many countries, regardless of level of economic development or level of gender equality (as measured by the GDI),

¹⁸³ Aikman, S., Rao, N. (2010) Quality Education for Gender Equality: Background Paper for the Quality Education Stream E4 Conference. Engendering Empowerment: Education and Equality. UNGEI.

¹⁸⁴ Ibid.

¹⁸⁵ Aikman, S., Unterhalter, E., Challender, C. (2010) The education MDGs: Achieving gender equality through curriculum and pedagogy change. *Gender & Development*, 13:1, 44-55.

¹⁸⁶ UNESCO (2003) Global Monitoring Report on Education for All 2003/4: Gender and Education for All: the Leap to Equality.

¹⁸⁷ Blumberg, R.L. (2007) Gender bias in textbooks: a hidden obstacle on the road to gender equality in education. Background paper prepared for the Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2008. UNESCO.

and it persists after years of efforts in many nations no matter what other progress has been made in terms of gender relations in society. Gender bias looks similar across all continents, and tends to be characterised by aspects such as under-representation of females; use of male words to mean all of humanity; traditional gender stereotypes about the activities of males and females in the occupational and domestic spheres; and traditional stereotypes about the traits and activities of males and females.¹⁸⁸

Examples of interventions to curb gender bias in textbooks and curricula

UNESCO produced a methodological guide on promoting gender equality through textbooks aimed at those responsible for preparing or revising textbooks, including ministries of education and publishing bodies, to show how gender inequality is constructed in textbooks through the curriculum and to provide tools to revise textbooks or use existing textbooks critically, whether in the teacher/learner relationship, among individuals involved in the textbook chain (from design to use) or outside the school in families and the community. The guide outlines the importance of textbooks in terms of quality education, EFA and gender equality and advocates critical reviews of textbooks to be conducted.¹⁸⁹

The Gender in Education Network in Asia Pacific countries (GENIA) was established in 2003 and designed a toolkit on gender equality in education, which has been updated regularly to reflect developments.¹⁹⁰ The toolkit is used by GENIA members (gender focal points of ministries of education) to sensitise and train their national counterparts, and is available online. The tools are divided into three sections: raising gender awareness; a gender responsive educational environment, and gender responsive educational management. It includes a series of tools on gender responsive educational environment.¹⁹¹

Curricula and textbooks can not only avoid gender bias and negative gender stereotyping, but they can actively promote gender equality and play a major role in changing a large number of gender-related practices, norms and beliefs, including sexual abuse and violence against women and girls.¹⁹² Toolkits can help provide governments or critical non-state actors with a starting point for addressing this important aspect of school life and provide guidance at all levels from curriculum development to textbook procurement. However they are often only partially used and many reviews of curriculum and textbooks from a gender perspective have resulted more in the eradication of basic gender clichés rather than leading to the creation of materials enabling boys and girls to understand the complexities of gender dynamics and to challenge these. This area has been largely ignored in recent years in education and development, despite the clear role of textbooks and curricula in transmitting gendered messages and shaping gendered attitudes.

Gender responsive pedagogy

Inside the school and classroom, what is taught, how it is taught and by whom can all impact on the quality of the learning experience for boys and girls and can mean that boys and girls experience the same class differently. Beyond measurable academic performance outcomes such as national exams and skills assessments, the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes that education systems and schools convey through the formal curriculum are also related to how gender roles and identity are constructed, which, in turn, contribute to how girls and boys can experience education differently.

Teachers are themselves located within gender social relations, and have their own social identities.¹⁹³ Relations in the classroom and in the school are often marked by social divisions, such

¹⁸⁸ Ibid.

¹⁸⁹ UNESCO (2009) Promoting Gender Equality through Textbooks: A methodological guide. UNESCO.

¹⁹⁰ UNESCO Bangkok (2009) Gender in Education Network in Asia-Pacific (GENIA) Toolkit: Promoting Gender Equality in Education. UNESCO.

¹⁹¹ Ibid.

¹⁹² UNGEI (2011) Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2011: A Gender Review. UNGEI.

¹⁹³ Aikman, S., Unterhalter, E., Challender, C. (2010) The education MDGs: Achieving gender equality through curriculum and pedagogy change. *Gender & Development*, 13:1, 44-55.

as race, class, ethnicity and gender. Gender inequalities in a classroom might be manifested in teachers' biased perceptions of boys being trouble makers, or teachers' low expectations of the intellectual abilities of girls.¹⁹⁴ Gender relations in society can feed into assumptions about what is appropriate for boys and girls to learn and thus inform pedagogical relationships. Aikman *et al* state that "*curricula, historical and geographical contexts play a crucial role in shaping these assumptions, and creating the conditions in which an agenda for gender equality does or does not develop.*"¹⁹⁵

Aikman *et al* suggest the following factors which should be included for a pedagogy that promotes gender equality, to encourage increased ability among students to identify, criticise and challenge misconceptions, prejudices and stereotypes:

- changes to the curriculum and to classroom organisation that allow for increased participation of girls and women (and other under-represented groups of students)
- encouragement of critical questions about the curriculum and what counts as school knowledge
- a breaking down of hierarchies and power-networks that exclude girls and women, whether they are students or teachers
- greater understanding of the conditions that lead to bullying, racism, sexism, and homophobic behaviour, and more successful forms of intervention
- greater valuing of students' experience and knowledge, and closer involvement of students in planning and evaluating their educational work¹⁹⁶

Gender responsive pedagogy: FAWE

FAWE developed the Gender-Responsive Pedagogy (GRP) model to address the quality of teaching in African schools and to address the issues of unequal participation for girls and boys. FAWE define a gender responsive school as "one where the academic, social and physical environment and its surrounding community take into account the specific needs of both girls and boys" and where, in pedagogical terms, teaching methodologies, teaching and learning materials, classroom interaction and management of academic processes is also gender responsive.

Teachers, as central of the teaching and learning process, are required to incorporate gender approaches into all processes, of lesson planning, teaching, classroom management and performance evaluation. The physical environment of the classroom, in terms of the infrastructure and lay out, also effects girls and boys in different ways and can be arranged to encourage participation of certain groups. FAWE emphasise the importance of a gender responsive school management system to enable and support GRP, in terms of schools rules and regulations, providing gender responsive teaching and learning materials and providing human resources for and teacher training in GRP.¹⁹⁷

Other marginalisation factors also need to be considered in terms of learning and teaching in the classroom. Children with disabilities, orphans, migrants, poor children, HIV infected and affected children and children for whom the language of instruction is not their mother tongue are all marginalised by traditional teaching methods.

Several guides and toolkits have been developed to promote inclusion in schools. The quality considerations identified by UNGEI's Equity and Inclusion guide focus around the equitable delivery of education, again through factors at the school level such as enabling infrastructure and environment; curricula and textbooks that promote inclusion; and teachers trained for knowledge

¹⁹⁴ Ibid.

¹⁹⁵ Ibid, p48.

¹⁹⁶ Ibid.

¹⁹⁷ FAWE (2006) Gender Responsive pedagogy. ADEA Biennale 2006: Effective Schools and Quality Improvement. Working document.

and skills in being inclusive.¹⁹⁸ Save the Children have developed a guide for NGOs to support more inclusive school systems in developing countries, which looks at examples of how the organisation has worked with disabled children, children from poor or very remote areas, girls excluded from school, children from minority ethnic groups, and children in countries affected by conflict. Their experience underlined how education systems tend to be inflexible and discriminatory.¹⁹⁹

Gender-based pedagogy needs to be understood in conjunction with content in learning on gender equality and inclusion. Life skills education is seen as important for young people to negotiate and mediate challenges and risks and enable productive participation in society through personal, interpersonal and cognitive psychosocial skills. UNICEF has supported life skills education in formal and informal schools in developing countries, covering specific topics around HIV prevention, sexual and reproductive health and, increasingly, issues of personal development, citizenship and disaster risk reduction.²⁰⁰ Awareness of gender inequalities and gendered roles is often raised through the content of life skills programmes, allowing exploration of gender issues in relation to, for example, violence and health. Beyond this, opportunities and conducive environments (both in and beyond the classroom) to challenge and develop alternative gender relations and gendered identities tend to be limited.²⁰¹

Gender responsive pedagogies, then, require teachers to re-evaluate their own gender position and how they relate to their pupils because of gender or other factors of disadvantage. This process needs to be supported by gender sensitive curriculum, textbooks and participatory approaches and needs to be applied across the whole school, not just in specific subjects or spaces.

Gender responsive school management

Messages of gender equality can be undermined if they are not supported and reflected by the school. School managers and management systems therefore need to provide and protect an inclusive environment.

In many countries, decentralisation of education systems means that district and school level managers have taken over responsibilities for administering school finances, to increase responsiveness to local needs and to subject schools to more effective local oversight that makes them more accountable to the community.²⁰² Increased power at school level means increased responsibilities. Management has a role to ensure that boys and girls are not discriminated against, that boys and girls respect each other and that the whole school is gender responsive. Schools have the power to develop school level policies and charters that are respectful of all students and promote gender equality. Policies may reflect or enforce national policies, such as re-entry policies for young mothers, or respond to a specific need in the community, for example by providing scholarships for deprived pupils.

Where SMCs have real responsibilities for school planning, there are opportunities for gender equality issues to be raised and institutionalised in school plans. In Ethiopia for instance, a school self-evaluation framework enables school boards to assess education issues in their school with the participation of all school stakeholders. Gender issues around enrolment, retention, achievement, violence and well-being are included in the framework and could be translated into concrete objectives and activities. In Ethiopia and elsewhere, however, the thoroughness of the school self-

¹⁹⁸ UNGEI, EFA-FIT (2010) Equity and Inclusion in Education: A guide to support education sector plan preparation, revision and appraisal.

¹⁹⁹ Save the Children (2008) Making Schools Inclusive: How change can happen.

²⁰⁰ UNICEF (2012) Global Evaluation of Life Skills Education Programmes. UNICEF.

²⁰¹ Ibid.

²⁰² Antonowicz, A., Lesne, F., Wood, J. (2010) Africa Education Watch: Good Governance Lessons for Primary Education. Transparency International.

evaluation exercise and the robustness of school plans often depend on the quality of school leadership and the existence of NGO or CSO support throughout the process.

Evaluations of SMC support and school self-evaluation are often embedded in evaluations of broader interventions. Additional research could be conducted on this topic to better identify enabling environment factors and entry points as well as good practices to overcome barriers and resistance to the take up of gender equality issues at school level.

School based policies and interventions against school-based and gender-based violence

For many teenage girls, the school can represent a hostile environment in which they are intimidated by male teachers and students and where there is a threat of sexual violence and abuse. In conflict situations, gender-based violence is more likely to be prevalent but may be more difficult to address.²⁰³ Education practitioners may be reluctant to discuss gender equality and gender based violence because it may be deemed as interfering, culturally insensitive or imposing Western values.

Good practices have been documented in relation to school level policies and interventions against school-based violence and gender-based violence in schools. Such practices can be part of general violence prevention policies or be specific to gender-based violence (see box below). Interventions have mostly focused on school-level regulations; codes of conduct for students and teachers; protocols for reporting cases of violence; and inter-sector collaboration at local level for prevention and response to school and gender-based violence. The work around gender-based violence in schools has benefitted from good practices around child protection and the growing importance of child protection on the national and international agenda, particularly in the past decade. The gender responsiveness of child protection mechanisms and their impact on girls and boys could be another area for further investigation.

Good practices around school-based interventions to curb violence

- **Development of school-based code of conduct.** In Cote d'Ivoire, Save the Children's *Rewrite the Future Programme* initiated the development of school-based codes of conduct based on extensive community and children training and participatory planning. The process provided a space for communities to talk about sensitive issues around corporal punishment and sexual abuse.²⁰⁴
- **Training on guidelines on sexual harassment and abuse.** In the Gambia, the Ministry of Education with the support of UNICEF and NGOs developed a set of guidelines aiming at identifying, preventing and reporting on sexual abuse in schools. Both teachers and children were trained based on the content of the guidelines between 2007 and 2009 and there was anecdotal evidence of an increase of reported case of sexual abuse in schools.²⁰⁵
- **Young people support services.** These may cover reproductive health services, counselling for abused children and children victim of bullying or sexual harassment. The development of such services requires cross-sector collaboration between schools, local education authorities and local social and health services, NGOs are often included in these partnerships, providing services themselves or facilitating collaboration between actors.

Sexual abuse and corporal punishment are not the only form of gender-based violence faced by students. Homophobic bullying can be defined as bullying on the basis of perceived sexual orientation or gender identity.²⁰⁶ Homophobic bullying can take many forms, from insults by teachers and students to physical attacks, to social isolation, to virtual bullying via blogs and social networks. Both boys and girls can be victim of homophobic bullying, but boys are more likely to be

²⁰³ INEE (2010) Gender Equality in and through Education: Pocket Guide to Gender. INEE.

²⁰⁴ UNICEF, Plan West Africa, Save the Children Sweden West Africa and ActionAid (2010) Too Often in Silence. Addressing violence in schools. Selected initiatives from West and Central Africa.

²⁰⁵ Ibid.

²⁰⁶ UNESCO (2012) Good Policy and Practice in HIV and Health Education. Booklet 8: Education Sector Responses to Homophobic Bullying.

perpetrators.²⁰⁷ Although there is little research to date in developing countries, some data is available for middle income countries, particularly in Latin America, where 68% of lesbian, gay and bisexual learners reported homophobic bullying in Chile, 61% in Mexico and 66% in Peru. Gay men are often more likely to be bullied. In South Africa, a survey showed that among school leavers, 68% of gay men and 42% of lesbians reported that they had experienced homophobic bullying at school. There is also evidence across the world that homophobic bullying can lead to poor attendance, poor performance and drop-out.²⁰⁸

There are some examples of policies supporting gender identity. In Thailand some education institutions have implemented policies and practices to meet the needs of lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender learners, such as flexible choice on uniforms and “rainbow” toilets that are not labelled for male or female.²⁰⁹

Overall these initiatives have been pilot projects or results of collaboration with civil society and there is a need to institutionalise such practices at all levels of the education system.

Whole school approaches to improving learning

There are strong examples of approaches to improving the whole school from a gender-sensitive perspective, which incorporate response to access and learning challenges for girls and boys. These approaches have considered learning holistically, and address infrastructure, children’s well-being (physical, mental and developmental), pedagogical approaches, individualised support and teachers’ professional development. Other characteristics of successful whole school approaches to improving learning have been their small scale, their flexibility and community participation and support.

FAWE’s Centres of Excellence

FAWE has used gender responsive models in its Centres of Excellence (COEs) which have been set up to address challenges in the physical environment (school infrastructure), the academic environment (teaching and learning processes) and the social environment (community and cultural surroundings of the school). COEs adopt a holistic, integrated approach towards addressing the problems in girls’ education by creating an enabling learning and teaching environment in the school and ensuring community involvement in the promotion of girls’ education. Girls who graduate from a COE should have strong capabilities in terms of academic outcomes; confidence and self-expression; diagnosing and solving problems; knowledge of historical, cultural and current events and their rights; physical and psychological health; participation in community and society.

COEs have resulted in improved enrolment, retention and pass rates through higher participation and performance, lower levels of early marriage and teenage pregnancy than other schools as well as increased involvement of girls in decision-making and support from community leaders and the government.²¹⁰ These impacts, particularly the improvements in academic performance, are attributed to empowerment and increases in self-confidence through the Tuseme process, the guidance and counselling desks established in the schools and life skills workshops taken around leadership, assertiveness, decision making and critical thinking.

Teacher training on gender responsiveness enabled teachers to respond more effectively to the specific needs of girls, resulting in increased attention to gender issues within school plans and processes, and improved attitudes to girls. Teachers were also trained in participatory methods, improving interactions between teachers and pupils. In terms of school management, subject panels improved teamwork and child-centred approaches were introduced to maintain discipline.

Community engagement resulted in a mobilisation of resources to improve infrastructure, as well as to

²⁰⁷ Ibid.

²⁰⁸ Ibid.

²⁰⁹ UNESCO (2012) Good Policy and Practice in HIV and Health Education. Booklet 8: Education Sector Responses To Homophobic Bullying

²¹⁰ FAWE (2006) Best practices in centres of excellence.

support the most deprived households to send their girls to school. National governments have supported the centres, and introduction of positive policies has supported the centres. FAWE acknowledge several challenges and lessons gained from the process including the issue of the school presenting messages on some gender-based practices which conflict with the messages coming from communities.

Girls Education Initiative Partnership in Egypt

In Egypt, a GEI partnership was launched at the end of 2002. One of its key objectives was to establish girl-friendly schools and classrooms by 2007, and by 2007, 711 girl-friendly schools had been inaugurated enrolling mostly girls.²¹¹

A large motivator in this project was providing schools in small, remote communities. As with FAWE's COE, the classroom set-up is emphasised as an important basis: large classrooms, moveable furniture for a range of seating plans and group work options (particularly important for these often multi-grade and multi-ability classes), light and airy space, children's work and educational posters on the walls.

Classes are led by young, female facilitators, normally recruited from the local area, and therefore well trusted by the community, and with a university degree or diploma (but no official teacher training). The pedagogy has been observed as being participatory, democratic and inclusive, with critical and creative thinking encouraged. The high quality teaching has been attributed to knowledge transfer from existing community schools, particularly if facilitators were themselves graduates of such schools; careful selection of facilitators on criteria of age, origin and a healthy psychological profile; short, intensive pre- and in-service training on participatory methodologies, curriculum delivery and assessment; and the monitoring and evaluation role of supervisors, who also provide weekly face-to-face support for the facilitators.²¹²

A similar emphasis on gender sensitivity and participatory pedagogies is incorporated into the principles of UNICEF's child friendly schooling, emphasising approaches to meet the different learning needs of marginalised children, as well as on the physical environment as an enabling and safe space. A global evaluation of CFS found that female students consistently placed more emphasis and importance than their male counter-parts on the safe, inclusive and respectful climate, student-centred learning environments and emotionally supportive climates, showing the critical importance of whole school holistic approaches to learning issues.²¹³

These initiatives demonstrate how gender-sensitivity can be embedded in all parts of teaching and learning, and how this can have a positive impact in terms of both academic and social outcomes. The Egypt example shows how this can be done through a small-scale, non-formal approach, responded to the specific needs of rural communities. The FAWE and UNICEF initiatives demonstrate how ordinary government schools can be made into safe and encouraging learning environments for all pupils, indicating the potential for these approaches to be incorporated across the board. However, though governments have been supportive of all three projects, none have been taken to scale in their entirety. In addition, most of these approaches tend to focus on girls and there is little research on gender-responsive learning strategies for boys in developing countries. Another challenge is the lack of teacher capacity in child-centred approaches and the financial and time implications for scaling-up. Similarly, financial constraints are a challenge for the scaling-up of infrastructure and material resources. The issue of the disconnect between the values that the school is teaching and the values of communities or society can present challenges, particularly in terms of how girls manage in an oppressive reality (outside school) if they have been taught they are equally capable and valuable members of society as men.

²¹¹ Sultana, R. (2008) The Girls' Education Initiative in Egypt. UNICEF

²¹² Ibid.

²¹³ UNICEF (2009) Child Friendly Schools Programming: Global Evaluation Report. UNICEF.

Key Issues

- How curriculum and textbooks can positively contribute to gender equality in education remains elusive in all societies. Despite donor support to curriculum and textbooks reviews from a gender perspective, such exercises have not resulted in significantly transforming the ways gender is talked about and experienced by boys and girls.
- Gender-responsive teaching relies on good quality teacher training and support, and must take into account the teachers' own gender identity. Teachers bring cultural and social norms into the classroom with them, and training should consider these as well as teachers' prior training in traditional methods which may be a hindrance to embracing participatory approaches. Further consideration should also be taken on how social norms and expectations can conflict with positive practices in the classroom: if girls and boys learn to expect equal treatment, how do they respond to a society characterised by continuing discrimination? There are few studies which explore evolutions of gender norms in light of improved indicators on gender equality overtime and the drivers behind those societal and cultural changes.
- Gender imbalances are embedded through all aspects of teaching and learning, and therefore action to address those imbalances needs to consider everything from the learning environment to pedagogy to textbooks. Examples of whole school approaches show effective results: however they tend to be resource-heavy and small scale, and there are no examples of such initiatives being mainstreamed nationally.
- Components of gender responsive school management are yet to be fully defined and institutionalised. Good practices in terms of gender-responsive school planning remain isolated and dependent on the willingness of individuals and the support of NGOs. There are good examples, however, of school-based policies and interventions in tackling school-based violence and gender-based violence in schools and in promoting tolerance.

3.4.2 Providing education where the state fails

Accessing school in emergencies

In emergencies where schools have been closed or destroyed, or in situations of a high influx of refugees or internally displaced people, temporary education provision is often provided or supported by NGOs or UN bodies. Interventions have been coordinated since 2007 by a multi-agency Education Cluster and typically include a mix of hardware and software support, advocacy and risk assessment. Although there is no gender-specific cluster, the Education and Protection Clusters have sub-groups focusing on gender issues and a cross-Cluster Gender-Based Violence Working Group is often established.

Similar challenges in the emergency situations arise as in other contexts in terms of gender equality, though they are exacerbated in conflict settings and there are gender-differentiated risks, vulnerabilities and capacities in emergency situations. In addition, in most emergency situations, girls' educational opportunities are more limited than boys'.²¹⁴

Girls' access, retention and learning in education are particularly affected by the lack of safety on the way to school, greater pressure to marry or to engage in transactional sex when the livelihoods of families have been destroyed, and weak gender responsive teaching and learning. The teaching force suffers a lack of training, poor status and pay and a deficiency of women teachers in emergencies and post-conflict. Girls are also particularly vulnerable to gender-based violence and sexual abuse in camps. Boys' access, retention and learning in conflict time are particularly threatened by armed forces recruitment and pressures to support families' livelihoods.²¹⁵

²¹⁴ Kirk, J (2006) Education in Emergencies: The Gender Implications. Advocacy Brief. UNESCO Bangkok.

²¹⁵ Ibid.

The INEE has a Working Group on Gender in Education in Emergencies (EiE) which has been active in the past decade in advocating for gender issues in education and emergencies and in developing training materials used in EiE related training. The Minimum Standards on EiE provide key principles and examples to support gender responsive planning and implementation for education in emergencies. The INEE guide to gender also provides strategies for gender-participation, coordination and analysis, for equal access and gender-responsive learning environments, and for gender-responsive policies for teaching and learning. The guidebook emphasises that the challenges of gender discrimination cannot be tackled by sectors working in isolation, particularly in emergency situations. Sectors such as protection, health (including sexual and reproductive health), water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH), nutrition, emergency shelter, early recovery, all provide essential services that contribute directly and indirectly to an inclusive learning environment.²¹⁶ The IASC Gender Marker Initiative, which includes reviews and coding of projects according to gender criteria, aims to strengthen gender analysis and gender mainstreaming in risk assessments, project development and implementation and monitoring and evaluation. The initiative also aims to systematically address gender in Consolidated Appeal Processes.

Despite the needs to address issues of gender and EiE, several evaluations reported the lack of systematic gender analysis and mainstreaming in interventions.²¹⁷ There is therefore a need to ensure that the breadth of gender responsive tools for EiE is systematically and consistently used in order to strengthen response interventions from all partners.

DRC Education Cluster

In the Democratic Republic of Congo, for example, the Education Cluster provides schooling to internally displaced persons (IDPs), through supplying primary school kits and materials, teacher training and resources, as well as temporary classroom construction and examination fee waivers.²¹⁸ In one instance, a UNICEF education programme identified that displaced girls were dropping out of school because the water points were too far, so they did not have time to collect water for their family and attend school. There was also an inadequate supply of menstrual kits, so adolescent girls were unable and unwilling to attend school during menstruation. UNICEF therefore worked with colleagues in the WASH, NFI, Emergency Shelter, Health and Protection Clusters to overcome these barriers, addressing the matter through inter-sectoral coordination.²¹⁹

A critical issue in emergencies is gender-based violence (GBV), which is often exacerbated in times of distress, conflict and disasters. Good practices to tackle this complex issue include human rights education interventions to children and communities, participatory development of codes of conduct for teachers and students, child and youth participation in awareness raising and protection mechanisms and psychosocial support, including counselling for boys and girls who have been exposed to or affected by GBV. Building-up an evidence base for effective interventions in GBV prevention and response in emergencies, including in education would be useful.

Widely spread GBV in emergencies is also a strong reason for intensifying the work on GBV and gender equality in time of peace so as to limit its acuteness during emergencies. The promotion of human rights education in schools and communities pre-emergency is key, including a focus on relationships between boys and girls, men and women, child protection and women's rights.

Other education specific issues where better practices are needed as well as better documentation of existing effective practices include:

²¹⁶ INEE (2010) Gender Equality in and through Education: Pocket Guide to Gender. INEE.

²¹⁷ UNICEF (2010) Progress Evaluation of UNICEF's Education in Emergencies and Post-Crisis Transition Programme.

²¹⁸ UNICEF (2009) Humanitarian Action Democratic Republic of The Congo In 2009.

²¹⁹ INEE (2010) Gender Equality in and through Education: Pocket Guide to Gender. INEE.

- The recruitment of female teachers (as several reports highlight the critical importance of recruiting female teachers in emergencies²²⁰);
- Planning for Alternative Learning Programmes (ALP), including accreditation, certification and transition to formal systems. While ALPs have enabled the schooling of thousands of children during and after emergencies, a recent UNICEF evaluation exposes some of the shortcomings of these programmes otherwise well established²²¹;
- Psychosocial support enabling to reduce the education-related vulnerabilities for boys and girls, including building-up resilience, psychological counselling activities and protection, health and social services related measures which contribute to better access, retention and performance in schools and reduce boys and girls vulnerabilities due to emergencies.

Huge challenges remain in providing education in emergencies. Cluster activities require a high level of coordination across agencies that may have their own agenda and planning processes. The Education Cluster has had “varying levels of success in mainstreaming cluster lead responsibilities” across countries and organisations.²²² The biggest gap in all education in emergency provisions is lack of resources, and the huge amount of funding to respond quickly and effectively to very challenging situations. Education is often not at the top of the agenda in emergencies, but education in emergencies and gender issues within it have become a key topic on the international education agenda in the past decade, which is an important achievement. The INEE guideline highlights that programming for gender equality does not necessarily require a lot of extra resources and that small measures integrated into programmes can be important steps forward.²²³ High levels of coordination also help to increase resource efficiency and effectiveness.

Private and community schooling

With government resources stretched in low income countries, the role of non-state providers filling in the gaps, particularly for the poorest children, is increasingly acknowledged.²²⁴ Donors such as the World Bank and DFID are implementing initiatives to help the government support these non-state providers as a route to education for all. Community-based organisations providing non-formal initiatives for out-of-school children are discussed above (3.3.1): increasingly, private schools are also providing formal education for the poorest as an alternative to over-subscribed and under-resourced state provisions.

Research exploring the impact of non-state education providers on social justice in terms of exclusion/inclusion, choice and equity non-state actors in Pakistan and India highlighted the vast expansion of the private sector in the last 20 years, particularly in urban areas. Even with very low fees, the cost still represents a barrier to many of the poorest households, particularly in Pakistan.²²⁵ The study found that girls are less likely to enter school at all, but if households do decide to send them to school, they are less likely to be enrolled in a private school than are boys. In India the government requires that private schools are non-profit, and that 25% of places are for children belonging to economically and socially weaker sections of the society. Despite this, disparity remains: a higher percentage of girls in India are enrolled in public school compared to boys, and a higher percentage of boys in private school. Though girls are just as likely to access education, then,

²²⁰ UNICEF (2010) Progress Evaluation of UNICEF’s Education in Emergencies and Post-Crisis Transition Programme; Kirk (2006) Education in Emergencies: The Gender Implications. Advocacy Brief. UNESCO Bangkok.

²²¹ UNICEF (2010) Progress Evaluation of UNICEF’s Education in Emergencies and Post-Crisis Transition Programme

²²² Save the Children (2012) Lessons in Leadership: Save the Children’s Experience of Co-leading the Education Cluster.

²²³ INEE (2010) Gender Equality in and through Education: Pocket Guide to Gender. INEE.

²²⁴ See, for example, Tooley, J. (2005) Private schools for the poor: education where no one expects it.

²²⁵ Jamil, B.R., Javid, K. and Rangaraju, B. (2012) Investigating Dimensions of the Privatisation of Public Education in South Asia: Case Studies from Pakistan and India. ESP Working Paper Series, Special Series: the Privatisation in Education Research Initiative, 2012 No. 43. Open Society Foundations.

households are more likely to spend money on boys, though this may vary by area and income group.

A study using longitudinal data from Andhra Pradesh, India, shows that the uptake of private schooling has increased dramatically since 2002, but that girls and children from rural areas or lower socioeconomic backgrounds continue to be under represented.²²⁶ The gender gap increases with age, particularly in urban areas: there is little difference in early years of schooling, but this widens as children get older and especially as they leave primary school. Data suggest that in urban areas, girls' chance of being enrolled decreased to less than 50 per cent at age 15 from almost 65 per cent at ages 9 and 10. For poor rural families, the gender gap is evident much earlier. This suggests that traditional gendered division of school enrolment are now being played out through gender-linked private versus government school choices.

These studies show that gender inequalities in private education may be more prevalent in societies where there is likely to be a male preference. In addition to cultural factors, increased household contributions to education increase the expectation for return on that investment, and boys are assumed to have higher future economic returns.²²⁷

Though there is some evidence of high quality non-state provision where schools are supported or managed by NGOs which implement gender-sensitive pedagogies and teacher training,²²⁸ this is harder to establish for one-off, low-cost private schools. Nevertheless, they are often perceived as being higher quality, a reason for families to make the investment and move their children from state provisions,²²⁹ but teachers are often poorly paid and untrained.²³⁰

Key Issues

- Gender imbalances in society tend to be amplified in times of conflict and gender vulnerabilities strengthened. Girls are also usually less likely than boys to benefit from education opportunities. Addressing gender equality in education in emergencies should be a priority of the Education and Protection Clusters and of the emergency response in general.
- Gender responsive programming tools for education in emergencies continue not to be used systematically and consistently, creating gaps in gender analyses, gender appropriate strategy responses and M&E and constraining outcomes for boys and girls.
- GBV has been recognised as a major problem during emergencies. More evidence on effective strategies curbing GBV in general and in education in emergencies in particular is needed.
- More lessons need to be learned from specific EiE interventions such as successful strategies for female teacher recruitment, Alternative Education Programmes and psychosocial support to boys and girls addressing their respective education-related vulnerabilities.
- The rise of low cost public schools to serve for the poorest children needs to be treated with caution: its impacts on equality and inclusion are not yet known. The evidence so far suggests inequalities are played out in terms of access because of the cost barrier, but quality and equity in the classroom is unknown, and in the majority of cases, unmonitored.

²²⁶ Woodhead, M., Frost, M., & James, Z., (2012) Does growth in private schooling contribute to Education for All? Evidence from a longitudinal, two cohort study in Andhra Pradesh, India. International Journal of Educational Development (in press).

²²⁷ Ibid

²²⁸ Asadullah, M., Nazmul, C. (2008) Madrasas and NGOs: Complements or Substitutes? Non-State Providers and Growth in Female Education in Bangladesh. World Bank.

²²⁹ Woodhead, M., Frost, M., & James, Z., (2012) Does growth in private schooling contribute to Education for All? Evidence from a longitudinal, two cohort study in Andhra Pradesh, India. International Journal of Educational Development (in press).

²³⁰ Jamil, B.R., Javid, K. and Rangaraju, B. (2012) Investigating Dimensions of the Privatisation of Public Education in South Asia: Case Studies from Pakistan and India. ESP Working Paper Series, Special Series: the Privatisation in Education Research Initiative, 2012 No. 43. Open Society Foundations.

4 Remaining issues and recommendations for moving forward

4.1 Remaining issues

4.1.1 Education and gender equality: an unfinished agenda

Although the GMR 2012 states that parity has been achieved globally in primary, this masks massive disparities across and within countries and 61 million primary aged children, 53% of them girls, are still out of school. Fragile and conflict affected states remain the furthest behind on achieving education for all. Data on learning achievement from a gender perspective varies depending on the type of indicator used, the level of disaggregation and the sample of countries, suggesting we need to know much more on barriers to learning for both boys and girls in different contexts. The learning from the past decade can be that despite significant progress in reducing gender gaps and promoting gender equality in education, a lot still remains to be done. In short, gender equality in education remains an unfinished agenda.

This agenda has, however, evolved throughout the decade and is now being shaped differently in the years running up to the deadline of 2015 from the EFA and MDG goals launched in 2000. While up to 2005-2007 gender was very much focusing on girls' education, with the increased importance of the rights-agenda, the focus has shifted from one specific group of marginalised children, girls, to a broader focus on marginalisation and exclusion. This is illustrated for instance by UNICEF global initiatives. While in the years running to 2005 UNICEF was strongly advocating for girls' education with the "25 by 2005" Girls' Education Campaign and the "Go Girls! Education for every Child" Campaign, in 2010 the focus had shifted to exclusion more generally and to intersections of inequalities with the Global Out-of-School Children Initiative. Analytical frameworks such as the OOSCI or the CREATE framework on addressing exclusion which it is drawn from enable more nuanced analysis of gender inequalities in education: by profiling students not attending or at risk of not attending education throughout the school cycle, according to overlapping exclusion factors where gender dynamics play differently according to age, location, family structure and school practices.

Another aspect of that shift is from access to learning outcomes, with the realisation that gender parity in enrolment does not reflect gendered experiences within and beyond school. This increasing focus on quality across the board in education is important and true gender equality cannot be achieved without it. However, going forward into 2015, this must not be at the expenses of the access gains made over the last decade particularly in primary.

Although the concept of "gender" is still widely used as synonymous with the oppression of women and girls, the recent focus on drop-out, the increasing rates of boys' underachievement at higher levels of education and homophobic bullying which seems to affect boys more than girls have all resulted in more comprehensive gender analyses. But this is only the beginning. What remain missing overall are debates and activities on gender identities and gender equality and exploring the implications of such concepts, including in more traditional societies. This might explain why gender equality in education has largely been internationally driven, lacking ownership and commitment among national governments, schools and communities in many countries.²³¹ Further, in most donor

²³¹ Unterhalter, E., North, A., Parkes, J. (2007) Gender Equality and Women and Girls' Education, 1995-2010: How much is there a space for hope? Paper for UNESCO 15 year Review of the Beijing Platform of Action.

and high income countries gender equality is far from achieved according to most indicators: models on gender equality are therefore lacking in any context.

4.1.2 Transforming social norms: a sensitive agenda

We have learned more over the past 15 years about how social institutions – norms, laws, attitudes and practices which mostly discriminate against women and girls - lead to unequal results in development outcomes.²³² However, whether discussions continue to focus on women and girls or to focus on gender equality more broadly, there remains a general lack of analysis and understanding of the variety of social norms and how they differ from moral norms; of how collective expectations maintain some social norms over others; of what motivate boys and girls and men and women to comply with social norms; and how this play out in the society overall and in education in particular. This is not only about girls' and boys' capabilities in terms of access and retention in school where they can learn in a safe and conducive environment, but links to wider questions of gendered roles in adult life, in terms of families, employment and leadership.

In recent years more work has been conducted on including men and boys in activities promoting gender equalities, resulting in individual change of perceptions in many cases. However these initiatives have mostly remained small scale and NGO-driven whereas they would need to be taking place nationally to sustain changes in the future. These projects have often focused on reproductive health and HIV and on gender-based violence. Frameworks to bring them within the school and education spheres are still to be developed and scaled up, based on some embryonic good practices at school level.²³³

This work on social institutions and gender has also to some degree explored issues relating to the perception of children and youth in society, of their psychological and physical development and of the role they should play in shaping their future. There has been increased interest in adolescence as a development stage and in how boys and girls experience this phase of development differently in different parts of the world. Combined work on sex and age provides more nuanced understanding of different types of factors of exclusion throughout people's life cycle, from birth to old age.

With the right to participate a core pillar to the CRC, and with the proportion of youth drastically increasing in some regions, the participation of children and young people has considerably increased over the past decade although usually driven by the international community, NGOs and CSOs. Despite some very good examples of sustained changes resulting from child participation, good practices remain at local level and overall the participation of youth has remained limited. Improving child participation and youth involvement in local and national democratic processes cannot be done without gender dynamics being recognised, analysed, discussed and acted upon in order to reduce risks of inequalities perpetuation.

A lack of analysis of social norms contributes to international and national messages and programming conflicting with the local experience, resulting in ineffectiveness, inefficiency and even hostility to new or challenging concepts. Participation of children, parents and communities can help close the gap between international and national policy and programming and the reality on the ground, helping to increase relevance and ownership and allow interventions to be contextualised to minimise potential conflict.

Challenging social norms and working for their transformation is a pre-requisite for improving processes around teaching and learning, pedagogy, participatory and transparent management and leadership in education. Where values are aligned, teachers have better capacity to develop their own gender identities, higher aspirations taught in school are realistic when they go into society,

²³² <http://www.oecd.org/dev/povertyreductionandsocialdevelopment/measuringprogress towardsgenderequality.htm>

²³³ For example, Plan (2011) Because I Am A Girl: So, what about boys? The State of the World's Girls 2011.

families are supportive of learning and gender sensitive environments, and there is higher understanding and therefore accountability of government and schools on policy and practice.

4.1.3 Challenges and gaps in measuring progress in access and learning outcomes

We know much more in 2013 about various barriers to access and performance for boys and girls in selected countries than in 2000, from the variety of indicators now being used and the improved reliability of statistical analysis. Pledges for systematic sex-disaggregation of data have resulted in most agencies and governments providing separate education data for boys and girls. However sex-disaggregation on more complex indicators remains a challenge, and use of varied indicators to inform policy development remains extremely limited in education sector plans for instance.

To conduct sound gender analyses and analyses of exclusion factors in education, data needs to be disaggregated across the education system, not only for gender but also for location, district, ethnicity, disability, poverty quintiles and other factors of exclusion such as child labour, migration etc., in line with a broader definition of exclusion. Although “the need to know more” should not paralyse efforts to devise solutions for identified problems relating to gender equality and education, better analysis and interpretation of existing data, and better use of this data for programming is necessary.

For learning outcomes existing indicators and data are also weak. First, there is no common agreement internationally on learning outcomes or whether we should focus heavily on literacy and numeracy or include other types of outcomes around behaviour and attitudinal changes. Second, agreement has not yet been achieved on meaningful indicators which would provide important information on a combination of learning inequalities depending on students’ sex, location and wealth for instance, or depending on critical components of their education environments (qualified teachers, time on task, textbooks). World Bank economists have proposed that the post-15 agenda be focussed on the Millennium Learning Goals: however, while these would provide an indication of equality in terms of learning outcomes, they would omit (and possibly be detrimental to) other quality aspects, such as learners’ experiences or the content and processes of learning.²³⁴ Both processes and outcomes need to be considered, then, for a clearer picture of gender equality in the classroom.

4.1.4 Education working with other sectors to improve gender equality in education

Education systems have a unique position in society, with the potential to challenge and shift gender norms, to empower and promote the individual capacities and rights of children. Creating a school in which this is possible, through gender sensitive pedagogies and enabling learning environments, is extremely significant. However, it must be linked with gender responsive approaches in other sectors. As we saw in some of the model schooling approaches, empowering children to overcome the gender norms and stereotypes in the classroom is one thing, but when they finish school, they are likely to be faced with continuing discrimination in society, because of limitations of the labour market or expectations of their family or community.

Attempts to mainstream gender across government agendas, for example through PRSPs, have left many gaps. Health and education sectors tend to have more discussions about gender, but issues of violence, water supply and sanitation, agriculture, land rights, rural development, safety nets and food security, and the environment have received very limited gender analysis.²³⁵ These issues need to be considered, both as enablers of access to education as many of them are pre-requisites to girls and/or boys being able to attend school, and as bases for a holistic approach to improving gender

²³⁴ Barret, A.M (2009) The Education Millennium Development Goal Beyond 2015: Prospects For Quality And Learners. EdQual Working Paper No. 13.

²³⁵ Subrahmanian, R. (2006) Mainstreaming Gender for Better Girls' Education: Policy and Institutional Issues. UNGEI.

equality across society. Governments and donors must consider how gender initiatives can ensure that pupils are empowered in the school environment, whilst ensuring opportunities in wider society for all pupils to fulfil their potential.

4.2 Recommendations

4.2.1 International commitment to gender equality in education

1. We recommend that the international community renew commitment to gender equality in education, ensuring that both global and national targets and indicators are specific about gender equality in education. Such commitment should also reflect the need to encompass the scope of inequalities and to focus on inequity in education more broadly, bearing in mind that gender intersects with other dimensions of exclusion.

As the post-2015 agenda is being shaped it is important to both reassert the critical importance of the intrinsic value of education as well as its role in achieving other development outcomes, particularly broader gender equality outcomes. A concrete outcome of the debate of the post-2015 EFA agenda should be a clear and shared definition of gender equality in education.

2. We recommend improved leadership and accountability frameworks are developed for gender equality in education globally. Donors and national partners should improve their coordination of activities and allocation of resources, particularly in failing countries, and ensure a focus on gender and inequality is maintained. This should include the fostering of full and meaningful participation of a wide range of stakeholders to ensure effective and relevant policy formation and support implementation at all levels.

The lack of clear leadership on gender equality in education and of an accountability framework at both international and national levels has contributed to the missed target on gender parity in primary education in 2005. This was compounded by an overall lack of leadership for gender equality internationally and too few aid effectiveness mechanisms and partnerships to address the issue.

Greater coordination between donors, international agencies and NGOs; a clearer accountability framework for gender equality at national level; and better leadership and allocation of resources should be dedicated to narrowing the gender gap particularly in countries which have not reached the MDG and EFA gender related goals and targets. Effective national mechanisms such as local education groups exist for this: ensuring representation and participation of a range of key stakeholders, whilst maintaining a focus on meaningful inclusion of gender in policy formation and analysis is important.

Good lessons have been learned from successful regional partnerships such as UNGEI's regional partnership in the Asia-Pacific. As gender inequalities and issues in education might have a strong regional or sub-regional foundation, governments and the international community should develop partnerships which could address enduring or emerging regional issues. Partnership members would better benefit from the sharing of research reports and policy initiatives which are more relevant to their country context.

Measurement and data

3. We recommend international support to national governments to strengthen data collection, analysis, disaggregation and interpretation from a gender perspective to better inform policies and programmes, particularly in fragile and conflict affected states.

Better use of existing data and systematic disaggregation will facilitate better targeting of interventions to reduce: (i) sub-national disparities, particularly between urban and rural areas but also between districts (ii) gender inequalities to the disadvantage of girls or of boys depending on location, age and wealth. With more disaggregated data, hitherto disregarded issues will become

more visible to both governments and citizens. Strategies to address these will be more targeted and therefore more successful in responding to specific gender inequalities in specific communities or for specific age groups. This is equally, if not more, important in fragile and conflict affected states, where statistics are often missing completely. Information gaps related to sex and age can restrict critical decision-making during humanitarian response, or render programmes ineffective or even harmful²³⁶, so improving data collection and ensuring its disaggregation by gender and other exclusion factors would help inform programming and development in such areas.

A critical step in the recognition of the importance of disaggregation would be gender audits of national education statistical reports and the identification of bottlenecks in data flows preventing systems from successfully capturing disaggregation in their reports and analysis. Drawing on and expanding the work already done in UNESCO's Deprivation and Marginalisation in Education datasets may be a useful starting point.

4. We recommend that new indicators are developed which better capture quality and gender equality in education. Indicators should also combine gender with additional exclusion factors such as poverty or location in order to reduce the biggest gender inequalities.

To meaningfully measure progress on gender in education in forthcoming years, new indicators, which better combine the overlapping barriers faced by boys and girls should be developed. Indicators and targets combining dimensions of exclusion such as sex and wealth or sex and location would help to shape the strategies needed to address inequalities. These indicators should be systematically included in household surveys, such as MICS, and gradually built into national statistics reports. Based on a newly agreed definition of gender equality in education, a framework of indicators could be developed in order to measure educational experience in terms of quality and progress in a more holistic and nuanced manner.

4.2.2 Improving national strategies and interventions

5. We recommend that robust evaluations of national policies and strategies aimed at reducing gender inequalities in education are conducted as a matter of course, including in countries or regions affected by conflict. Interventions and advocacy drives by international and national groups should be based on robust evidence and contextual needs assessments.

Often initiatives and advocacy are based on received wisdom or quick, convenient solutions to an extremely complicated problem, for example around the need to increase the number of female teachers or to build separate latrines for boys and girls. Previous sections show that unless these interventions are placed within a gender equality enabling environment, they often do not lead to desired or appropriate results or result in broadening inequalities.

The multiple initiatives conducted across the world at local and school level have resulted in a wealth of good practice in how to improve the educational experience of boys and girls locally. However there is little solid evidence of national policies which have significantly improved gender equality in education, beyond enrolment and retention. There is therefore the need to evidence more rigorously and systematically national policies and strategies that resulted in sustained change in terms of reduction of the gender gap (understood holistically).

Reaching the most marginalised girls and boys requires specific, contextual knowledge; and meaningful engagement of a wide range of actors on policy formation and implementation is essential to garner the necessary skills, expertise and experience.

6. We recommend that national governments are supported to devise gender equality strategies that cut across all levels of education. This should include increased support to ECCE and pre-

²³⁶ INEE (2010) Gender Equality in and through Education: Pocket Guide to Gender. INEE.

school provision as a strategy to reduce gender inequalities over time and help to redress gender inequalities at secondary level.

Education development efforts in the past decade have focused on primary and basic education. But gender equality goes beyond the artificial categorisation of education levels and should be conceptualised within a framework recognising education as a continuum. Children who have benefitted from ECCE or pre-school programmes are better prepared for primary and less likely to dropout in later years. ECCE and pre-school are also critical in helping parents to understand their support role in the learning of their children. With the increased recognition that challenging gender roles must start at an early age, there is a double rationale to focus on the expansion of ECCE and pre-school as a strategy for reducing the gender gap in education overall.

The lack of secondary education opportunities also constrains access and retention in primary school, particularly for girls, as they have limited prospects of attending or completing secondary school. Moreover it is demonstrated that gender inequalities in access, retention and learning at secondary level is much more varied and nuanced than at primary level. Tackling the different issues pertaining to gender equality in secondary education seems a logical step to undertake in the post-2015 era.

Lastly there is a need to better research alternative education provision for the most marginalised boys and girls and for adolescents who have dropped-out of school; examining how alternatives - whether short-term programmes or parallel systems - complement formal education provision.

Equity funding for greater gender equality in education

7. We recommend developing models for equity funding in education in order to increase equity in education opportunities for all children, including combining social protection and education measures to improve access for the most deprived girls and boys.

There is a need to combine social protection and education programmes in the most deprived areas to positively impact on the lives of boys and girls and on their schooling. There has been research on these topics but we need more examples of best practices to inform policy making in different settings, particularly around universal versus targeted mechanisms and the institutionalisation of such schemes in resource-scarce environments.

Building on the work done in GRB, models of equity funding for education are being developed and tested in some countries, in order to reduce inequalities and to ensure that children have equal chances to succeed. While some mechanisms are looking at redistribution of education resources across regions or districts, others, particularly in relation to school funding, are weighting specific criteria (such as the proportion of girls or boys out of school in the area; the number of children with disabilities; or number of children from a migrant/traditionally discriminated ethnicity background) to ensure equity of education opportunities. More research and more evidence is needed in developing country contexts on how such funding systems are positively impacting (or not) on reducing gender inequalities.

4.2.3 Working beyond the school

Cross-sectoral approach

8. We recommend that national governments and donors are supported to improve cross-sector collaboration at national and decentralised levels and ensure the shared responsibilities across Ministries as part of their mandate for promoting and ensuring gender equality, ensuring gains in education are supported and sustained outside a school and beyond a child's educational career.

Achieving gender equality in education and more generally education for all should not be the sole responsibility of the education sector, given the complex interplay of socio-economic and cultural

exclusion factors which explain why girls or boys are discriminated in certain contexts or situations. There is a need to advocate for a broader understanding of the issue of out-of-school children and discrepancies in learning outcomes or educational experiences and to support a shift in thinking towards holistic solutions to tackle these issues.

There is a need for a closer collaboration between ministries in charge of education (formal and non-formal), health, social welfare, gender, women and children, justice, youth and sports, employment and labour and rural development or equivalent. There is the need for all these ministries to take responsibility, at their level and within their capacities, for ensuring that both boys and girls can access and achieve in the education system and beyond.

There is also a need to better share practices across sectors in the area of gender equality. Much work has been done under the umbrella of HIV and AIDS prevention and response projects around masculinities and feminities and gender relationships. How or whether this learning has transferred to other sectors, such as the education sector, is unclear to date.

Support activities focusing on the transformation of social norms

9. We recommend improved gender analysis and the analysis of social institutions (laws, norms, attitudes and behaviours) informing programme and strategy development. This should include rigorous evaluation of gender teacher training programmes to tackle factors of resistance which prevent their effective implementation in the school environment, and increase training on gender identity and gender equality issues for support service staff and school managers. Community interventions should also be developed to tackle harmful social norms and provide opportunities for formal and informal groups to change social practices.

Improvements of gender equality in education are entwined with improvements in gender equality in society overall. To transform hindering social norms, gender analysis must incorporate structural factors and the gendered nature of society; understanding traditions, norms and values in which schools operate.²³⁷ To be successful, interventions should better acknowledge and address social norms at play in behaviour change and develop strategies that will promote organised group change of social practices. This is particularly important in order not to create a mismatch between values promoted within the school and at home and to enable empowered young boys and girls to feel that they are respected and supported by the society as they move into adult life.

It is important to recognise the different needs of boys and girls at different stages of their lives and in different contexts and to understand these in conjunction with socio-economic, cultural, disability and gender identity issues. While the school infrastructure, curricula and materials are important, the behaviour and attitudes of staff, including teachers, service staff and managers, are even more critical.

Efforts to reduce the gender gap, even in countries where it is very small, must include better awareness from staff of students' needs from a gender perspective. To be effective, school psycho-social and career guidance services; support mechanisms for students with behaviour issues, special learning needs and disabilities; and management practices and communication between adults and children all need to be gender-responsive.

Although some work has been done on gender equality teacher training there is a need to broaden the scope of participants to include other school actors as well as to learn lessons on the real impact of such training programmes and the necessary conditions for these to be fully effective and bring about sustained change. Training should include more attention to the identities of teachers and their perception of their own gendered role in society. This endeavour, although ambitious, is a

²³⁷ Leach, F. (2003) Practising Gender Analysis in Education.

necessary condition for boys and girls to feel respected in the school environment and is important to education retention and drop-out prevention strategies.

4.2.4 School-based practice

10. We recommend that national governments and implementing partners collect qualitative data to complement statistical evidence sets of particular interventions, providing a more complete picture of gender relations and power dynamics.

Despite the international push for hard data and evidence to justify policy, strategy and funding choice, there is a need to recognise the importance of qualitative data and of acknowledging the voices of boys and girls in relation to their experience of - and hopes for - education. Such data, often found in evaluation and research studies of programmes and projects commissioned by international agencies and NGOs, provides critical information on local interventions and their relevance in the lives of individual boys and girls.

4.2.5 Violence and emergencies

11. We recommend that international and national bodies pursue on-going efforts to tackle the issue of violence in schools and specifically focus on gender-based violence for boys and girls, including homophobic bullying. Coordinated school-based and general gender-based violence reduction programmes in conflict and post-conflict countries could maximise learning and impact on young people's lives.

School-based violence is a worldwide issue which affects boys and girls differently and which systematically undermines child and adolescent development and performance. A lot of the violent acts committed in or around school are gender-based or have a gender dimension due to the sex of the perpetrator and of the victim. Gender-based violence is often fuelled by community and societal violence or gender-based discriminatory practices and can be particularly fierce in conflict, crisis, post-conflict and post-crisis countries. Such violence can be the result of harmful norms and values of gender roles, and can contribute to reaffirming them.

12. We recommend that gender equality issues before, during and after emergencies are prioritised by the international community through innovative and participatory cross-sectoral programmes. Education should play a key role in promoting gender equality before, during and after emergencies through content and model practices, including practices aiming at curbing gender-based violence.

Emergencies represent a time of increased risk to boys' and girls' schooling and personal safety, and the widest gender gaps remain in conflict affected and fragile states. Education and gender in emergencies has becoming an increasing focus of international priorities, but a huge gap remains in the resources needed to effectively promote gender equality in EiE situations. Providing education in emergencies is extremely challenging, but best practice guidelines (such as that produced by the INEE) show how gender equality can be mainstreamed into activities. Ensuring that the promotion of gender equality and human rights is embedded into curricula and pedagogy across contexts is important to establish a basis which can be developed and reinforced should an emergency occur.

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- Fawe: <http://www.fawe.org/activities/advocacy/policy/index.php>
- Global Campaign for Education: <http://www.campaignforeducation.org/en/about-us>; <http://www.campaignforeducation.org/en/news/global/view/474-malala-day-take-action-for-girls-in-pakistan> ; <http://www.campaignforeducation.org/en/members>
- Plan International: <https://plan-international.org/where-we-work/africa/togo/where-we-work/sokode/> ; <http://plan-international.org/girls/plans-goals.php?lang=en> ; <http://plan-international.org/girls/supporting-partners.php?lang=en>
- UNICEF: http://www.unicef.org/education/gambia_37892.html
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Annex 1. Terms of Reference

Thematic Study on Education and Gender Equality

Background

Over the past decade there have been important achievements in terms of gender equality in selected countries. Gender parity in primary school enrollment has been achieved in many countries.

Despite these achievements there are still complex issues that have an impact on girls' and boys' participation and benefits from schooling and gender equality that need to be addressed. There is a need to look at gender equality in terms of equal opportunities, participation, teaching practices, learning outcomes, transition to secondary education including technical and vocational education and life-long learning.

Gender equality is identified as a priority for Norway's development assistance to education. Norway is the largest donor to UNICEF's thematic fund for basic education and gender equality. This includes support to UNGEI, and Norway is also a member of the Global Advisory Committee (GAC) of UNGEI. Furthermore, Norway supports gender equality through the Global Partnership for Education (GPE), Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE), bilateral agreements with a few countries and support to Norwegian NGOs (such as Save the Children and Norwegian Refugee Council).

It is against this background that Norad would like to commission a study on the theme of education and gender equality which will result in a document that based on evidence provides concrete suggestions on how education can continue to promote gender equality beyond 2015.

Purpose

What are the emerging challenges in the field of gender and education at primary and secondary school level and how do we address them?

In light of the emerging need to further address gender equality in the "post 2015 agenda" for education, the main purpose of this study is to analyze and assess the evidence base that exists on achievements, best practices and emerging issues related to education and gender equality. This is in order to better establish the way forward with regards to gender equality in education. .

Scope of Work

Based on an analysis of key documents (research, studies, reports) related to education and gender equality, the consultant will:

- Provide a brief overview of key concepts (gender equality, equity, mainstreaming, inclusive education etc.) and main channels for Norwegian education and gender equality work (UNICEF, UNGEI, GPE and FAWE) Outline historical trends as well as the situation today in the field of gender and education.

- Provide a brief overview and analysis of research, studies and reports related to education and gender equality from the period 2000 to 2012. This should include an identification of best practices within the field of education and gender equality and an assessment of the “value added” of the interventions discussed. The main focus shall be on primary school level interventions, but secondary school level interventions shall also be assessed. The overview may distinguish between micro, meso and macro level approaches. Country examples may be used in the analysis.
- Identify key issues that need to be addressed in order to promote an education system that adequately addresses gender equality. Based on the findings make suggestions for how these issues best can be addressed. This will include issues that are relevant for the development of the “post 2015” agenda and issues that are relevant to the entire education system. This will conclude with concrete suggestions for future work.

Expected outcome

The outcome of this study will be a report covering the aspects mentioned above. In addition the report should contain references to key documents related to education and gender equality. The report should be about 30 pages including a short executive summary.

Working modalities

The main method to be applied for the work is to conduct a desk review of documents. A list of key documents has been included in this TOR, but the consultant should also identify other documents especially research related to education and gender equality that could be used in this study.

The time frame of this consultancy is set to a total of 25 working days. The working days may indicatively be divided as follows:

- 10 days to conduct review of relevant documents
- 10 days to prepare a draft report. After receiving the draft report Norad should provide comments within 10 working days
- 5 days to finalize the report and conduct a presentation of the report at Norad

A brief inception report which includes a list of key documents to be analyzed will be presented to Norad for approval within the first 5 days of work.

The consultant should have the following qualifications:

- Excellent knowledge of research within the field of education and gender in developing countries.
- Expertise in conducting studies and reviews as well as in report writing
- Knowledge of Norway’s policies and strategies for development cooperation within the field of education

Personal research experience within the field of gender and education will be an asset.

Literature:

The study will refer to Norwegian policy documents including:

White Paper no 11, on Equal Terms, 2008

Action Plan for Women's Rights and Gender Equality in Development Cooperation (2007-2009) Extended for the period 2010-2013.

Education – Job number 1, 2003

The consultant shall identify key documents in the area of gender and education from the period 2000 to 2012. However, documents from interventions of particular importance for Norwegian may include:

UNICEF:

- Thematic reports of UNICEF's Basic Education and Gender Equality Programme
- Too often in silence. A report on school based violence in West and Central Africa

UNGEI:

- Formative Evaluation of UNGEI.
- UNGEI at 10. A Journey to Gender Equality in Education

GPE:

- All Children Learning Report 2011
- Equity and Inclusion Guide, April 2010
- Fast-tracking Girls' education

FAWE:

- Evaluation of Fawe's Gender-Responsive Pedagogy Model
- Evaluation of FAWE's Centre of Excellence (COE) Model

Bilateral:

- Gender Audit of Nepal's School Sector Reform Programme

Civil society:

- Rewrite the future (Save the Children)

Other documents:

- Relevant EFA GMR
- The Global Gender Gap Report 2011 (World Economic Forum)
- Empowerment: A journey not a Destination (DFID)

In addition to these documents a search for relevant research publications, tools and resources should be drawn from websites of the agencies listed above as well as other agencies/research institutions including UNESCO and the World Bank. Norad may assist in accessing the mentioned literature, if necessary.