



GENDER, EDUCATION AND TRAINING

This Thematic Brief provides quick guidance on the most important issues relating to gender and education in development programmes (including technical and vocational education and training: TVET)

This Brief is addressed to staff from development cooperation agencies who are involved in education programmes and projects.

Here they will find information on the most important gender issues at stake and how to address them, indicators that can be used to monitor whether a development programme is integrating gender dimensions, examples of gender-sensitive development actions and references to further information and tools related to gender and education (including TVET).

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Introduction

In the past 40 years, particularly since 2000, there has been a huge expansion in educational opportunity and literacy worldwide. The number of students enrolled in primary, secondary and tertiary education has more than doubled, from 647 million in 1970 to 1,397 million in 2009 (UNESCO, 2012). The gains for girls and young women have been particularly impressive, resulting in gender parity in gross enrollment in primary education in almost two-thirds of countries, and major increases in the number and proportion of women pursuing higher education in the Global North (Ibid.)¹.

Despite these developments, many developing countries do not yet enable girls to access education on an equal footing with boys, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa and parts of Asia. A range of gender inequalities persist in education, training and the labour market, which serve to undermine the free choice and prospects of young people, particularly young women.

Gender issues in education

Gender inequalities in education and TVET

- **Boys still have a slight edge in primary education enrolment in many developing countries.** Most countries in Africa and some countries in Southern Asia and Latin America have not yet achieved gender parity in primary education, with boys nearly always showing higher enrolment ratios (Map 3.3.1, UNESCO, 2012). However, there has been important progress towards universal education at the primary level and, in 2009, in all regions, the gross enrolment of girls in primary education was nearly equal to that of boys (Map 3.2.3, UNESCO, 2012)².
- **In general, the presence of girls falls as they move into secondary education in developing countries.** In some regions, girls' enrolment in secondary education is particularly low. For instance, in 2009, the gross enrolment of girls in secondary education was approximately 35% in Sub-Saharan Africa and just over 50% in South and West Asia³. In nearly all regions, the enrollment of girls in secondary education falls behind that of boys⁴ (Figure 4.1.1, UNESCO, 2012).
- **Girls are overrepresented amongst 'out-of-school children' worldwide, particularly in West and sub-Saharan Africa.** This includes enrolled students who have dropped out of school and those who never entered. In 2009, girls made up 53% of out-of-school children globally, and a majority of out-of-school children in all

¹ Indeed, in some countries, the discussion of gender equality in education also focuses on how to overcome the underachievement and drop-out of boys within general education, including parts of Latin America and the Caribbean (USAID, 2008).

² Using the gross enrolment ratio (GER) as the measure, in all regions in 2009, girls' gross enrolment was above 90% and boys' gross enrolment was above 95% at primary level. This ratio shows "the number of pupils or students enrolled in a given level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the population in the official age group for this level of education..." (UNESCO, 2012). In some cases, individuals will be enrolled in education who are outside the official age group for this level (e.g. repeaters), meaning that the GER can exceed 100% in some cases.

³ Using the gross enrolment ratio (GER) as the measure, see previous footnote for explanation.

⁴ Using the gross enrolment ratio as the measure. The exceptions are Latin America and the Caribbean and in East Asia and the Pacific.



regions apart from East Asia and the Pacific, and North America and Western Europe. Most countries with the highest out-of-school rates for female adolescents (more than 20%) are in Africa, including Senegal, Niger, Ethiopia and Tanzania (Map 4.4.1, UNESCO, 2012). Relatedly, in most low-income countries, young women are more likely than men to be represented amongst 'NEETs' (those neither employed nor in education or training) (ILO, 2014).

- **Some children face additional disadvantages in going to school**, such as those from the poorest households, with disabilities and/or from rural areas. For instance, only 2% of children with disabilities in developing countries are in school (UNGEI, 2012).
- **The under-representation of young women is a particular issue in TVET.** In nearly all countries, a higher share of male students at upper secondary level are enrolled in vocational education (Figure 4.3.1, UNESCO, 2012). For instance, in Africa, TVET students are normally young men, except in the secretarial and commercial areas (Gaidzanwa, 2008). According to research by Save the Children, there is very little focus on girls within TVE programming at post-primary level in Africa (Ibid.). In countries where informal employment is an important part of economy, such as West African countries, women also tend to be less likely to take part in apprenticeships with master craftspeople, learning through unstructured, on-the-job instruction (ILO, 2014).
- **In many developing countries, young women cannot access tertiary education as easily as men.** In Sub-Saharan Africa, South and West Asia, and the Arab States, women's enrollment at this level falls behind that of men⁵ (Figure 5.2.1, UNESCO, 2012).
- **Young women and men continue to concentrate around different subjects and sectors of training and employment.** In general, the under-representation of women is a particular issue within science, technology, engineering and maths (STEM) subjects. For instance, amongst tertiary graduates, men outnumber women in engineering, manufacturing and construction in 83 out of 84 countries with data (Figure 5.5.1, UNESCO, 2012). In developing economies, occupational segregation in the labour market is especially prominent amongst craft and trade-related workers (dominated by men), plant and machine operator and assemblers (dominated by men) and service workers and shop and market sales workers (dominated by women) (ILO, 2014). In Southern Asia, Northern Africa and Western Asia, women make up only 20% of non-agricultural workers; in Sub-Saharan Africa, they hold only 33% non-agricultural paid jobs (Arnot, 2010).
- **Educational disadvantage in the early stages can be cumulative, with impacts for later life.** For instance, two-thirds of the 775 million illiterate adults are women (UNESCO, 2013). In 2013, the share of illiterate women was higher than the share of men in all developing regions of the world (North Africa, Sub-Saharan Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean, Eastern Asia, Southern Asia, South-Eastern Asia, Western Asia, Oceania), at its most pronounced in Southern Asia (illiteracy rate for women was over 30%, against nearly 20% for men) and in Sub-Saharan Africa (illiteracy rate for women was approximately 14%, against around 9% of men) (ILO, 2014).

⁵ Using the gross enrolment ratio (GER) as the measure. Note that, on the global level, women are slightly more likely to be enrolled in tertiary education than men (Figure 5.2.1, UNESCO, 2012).



- **In many developing countries, a history of limited educational opportunity means that young people, particularly women, now lack the skills they need to enter employment.** For instance, 116 million young people (of the ages 15-24) never acquired primary education (UNESCO, 2013).
- **Even when the educational level of young women is equal to or exceeds that of men, they are unlikely to receive equal opportunities in the labour market,** particularly in developing countries (ILO, 2014). For instance:
 - There are a range of gender gaps in the labour market. Women trailed behind men in the employment-to-population ratio in all regions in 2011 (or latest year available), with the largest difference in North Africa, the Middle East and South Asia (Figure 1, ILO, 2014).
 - Occupational segregation by gender is often associated with lower status and pay for women, implying under-valuation of women's skills and work. For instance, 'feminized' professions, including clerical, service and domestic labour, are amongst the lowest paid in the world (Gaidzanwa, 2008).
 - There is some indication that women have less security in the labour market than men, partly as a result of their concentration in certain sectors. There are few reliable estimates, although women are generally considered to make up a majority of 'informal' workers⁶ in developing countries (UNGEI, 2012). For instance, in Sub-Saharan Africa, many women are subsistence farmers, unpaid family workers or own-account workers (with few social protections, etc.) (Arnot, 2010). There are also some signs that the financial crisis has pushed more women into vulnerable employment, particularly in countries with low female enrolment in education (UNGEI, 2012).
 - In both low-income and high-income countries, men tend to outnumber women within decision-making positions (ILO, 2014). For example, women account for less than 10% of senior officials and managers in Western Asia, Southern Asia, Northern Africa (Arnot, 2010).
 - Women may also have more trouble than men beginning businesses, normally due to having lower levels of access to productive assets, such as land, credit, networks and information (ILO, 2014).
- **Although teaching is generally a feminised profession, women are under-represented as teachers in key regions of the world, such as parts of Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa.** This restricts the pool of female role models for girls in education. In primary education, women's representation tends to be better – for example, women account for approximately 45% of primary teachers in South and West Asia and around 42% of primary teachers in Sub-Saharan Africa in 2009. However, at secondary level, they made up around 35% of teachers in South and West Asia and less than 30% in Sub-Saharan Africa in 2009 (Figure 8.1.1 and Figure 8.2.1, UNESCO, 2012). It is estimated that in 2010 women represented 30% of secondary school teachers in low-income countries (UNESCO, 2013).
- **When the female proportion of teachers is higher, teachers tend to receive lower average salaries,** symbolising under-valuation of women's capacities (Figure 8.3.1, UNESCO, 2012). Women also tend to be underrepresented in school management, even when their presence as teachers is strong (Ibid.).

⁶ "Although it is hard to generalize concerning the quality of informal employment, it most often means poor employment conditions and is associated with increasing poverty. Some of the characteristic features of informal employment are lack of protection in the event of non-payment of wages, compulsory overtime or extra shifts, lay-offs without notice or compensation, unsafe working conditions and the absence of social benefits such as pensions, sick pay and health insurance". International Labour Organisation, <http://www.ilo.org/global/topics/employment-promotion/informal-economy/lang-en/index.htm>



- **Unequal access to education and training perpetuates gender inequalities in the labour market, restricting the choices and bargaining power of women in particular.** For instance, many multinational corporations exploit women's willingness to accept any employment, offering work in the textile and clothing sectors characterised by long hours, little security and low pay (UNGEI, 2012). Poverty, illiteracy and domestic responsibilities can force many young women to enter into the informal sector, due to a lack of alternative prospects (Ibid.).

Several structural and cultural factors can explain gender inequalities in education

- **Traditional expectations of the roles and responsibilities of women and men can impact upon the educational pathways of girls and boys.** For instance, girls and young women may be expected to assume extra responsibilities, including (unpaid) farming work in the family and domestic tasks (such as cleaning, cooking and caring for siblings/unwell relatives⁷). In many African countries, girls are subject to a major domestic workload, with the possible end result that they will fail to complete education (UNESCO, 2012). Due to such expectations, as well as the limited opportunities for women in the labour market, the poorest households may not see girls' education as a worthy 'investment'. For instance, poorer families in the Asia-Pacific region often prefer to send boys to school, as educating girls brings with it the loss of domestic labour from the household and a potential loss of income – if they are unable to benefit from the early marriage of their daughter[s] (UNESCO and UNGEI, 2006). In much of Sub-Saharan Africa, the poor quality of primary schools facilitates the passage of girls into domestic work and marriage (Gaidzanwa, 2008).
- **Certain socio-cultural practices are particularly detrimental to girls' education, such as the early marriage/childbearing of girls and female genital mutilation (FGM).** Survey data from Sub-Saharan Africa suggests that 'union formation' (first marriage or cohabitation) is one of the most important factors that leads to the early school leaving of girls (Lloyd and Mensch, 2008). 'Schoolgirl pregnancy' also accounts for a lesser, but significant, share of female drop-outs (between 5% and 10%), partly because pregnant girls in many African countries are often required to stop school, at least on a temporary basis (Ibid.). Even when the law expresses permits the return of teenage mothers to school – as in Zimbabwe, South Africa and Botswana – in reality this may prove impossible if young mothers do not have a network of family members to provide care or financial assistance (Gaidzanwa, 2008)⁸.
- A range of institutional barriers restrict school attendance, many of which hit girls particularly hard. These include:
 - **Inaccessible school facilities**, located long distances from students' homes and in areas with poor transport infrastructure. For example, in Nigeria, Malawi, Uganda and Zambia, with each additional kilometre of distance tends to correlate negatively with the gross rate of secondary school attendance (Figure 8.4.2, UNESCO, 2012). Most poor households in Africa are in more

⁷ For example, girls in Africa are often expected to care for family members infected by HIV/AIDS (Gaidzanwa, 2008).

⁸ Maternal mortality and pregnancy complications are also a leading cause of death amongst adolescent girls in developing countries. For example, see Conde-Agudelo, A. et al., 'Maternal-perinatal morbidity and mortality associated with adolescent pregnancy in Latin America: Cross-sectional study', *American Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology*, 2004, 192:342–349; Patton, GC., et al., 'Global patterns of mortality in young people: a systematic analysis of population health data', *Lancet*, 2009, 374:881–892.



remote, rural regions (Gaidzanwa, 2008). Distance is an issue for secondary schools in particular, which are often concentrated around urban areas (UNGEI, 2012). Due to additional restrictions on their mobility, girls can be especially affected by this. For instance, in some Asian countries, it is not acceptable for girls to be in public or to walk to school, due to the risk of assault or distance involved (UNESCO and UNGEI, 2006).

- **The unaffordability of education**, due to school fees as well as indirect costs (books, uniform, travel, etc.) (UNESCO and UNGEI, 2006). Again, this is especially an issue at secondary level, as it is unusual for low-income countries to offer secondary education for free (UNGEI, 2012). Such costs may serve as a particular disincentive for the poorest families to send girls to school, if they have doubts about the quality of the education and its capacity to deliver 'returns' in the long term (UNESCO and UNGEI, 2006).
 - **Rigid timetables and courses**, which make it hard for students to reconcile education with other responsibilities, such as the domestic tasks to which many girls are subject. The 'lockstep' approach⁹ particularly undermines students' ability to catch up on missed material (Richardson, 2012).
 - **Inappropriate buildings of schools and TVET providers**, lacking separate toilets and sanitary facilities for female students. For instance, the beginning of menstruation can result in the absenteeism of girls if adequate school facilities are not available – although survey results from Malawi indicate that this may not be the greatest cause of girls' drop-out from schools (Grant et al., 2013).
- **In some places, girls and young women are subject to threats of gender-based violence both within and on their way to school.** In parts of Southern Asia, militant groups such as the Taliban have systematically intimidated and attacked students and teachers, particularly targeting girls' schools and provoking the closure of many educational facilities (Ahmad, 2012). There have been recorded cases of matatu drivers harassing schoolgirls in Kenya; schoolbus drivers in Zimbabwe heckling girls (in some instances, refusing them entry onto the bus); and 'jackrollers' targeting schoolgirls in South Africa (Gaidzanwa, 2008). Violence/abuse by male teachers can also be a problem (Ibid.).
 - **Within male-dominated TVET centres, women may face additional obstacles to attendance.** For instance, prescriptive gender stereotypes may lead women to doubt their technical abilities and undermine their confidence within particular fields (Richardson, 2012). In some developing countries, it is not socially acceptable for men and women to work together in technical/ engineering roles, and TVET courses targeted at women focus on specific 'female' tasks, such as the clothing, food and health sectors (UNESCO and UNEVOC, 2011). In an international online discussion, some women in TVET reported experiencing exclusive masculinity, such as discouraging language from peers/teachers and few role models in the form of female teachers, trainers and leaders (ibid.). In addition, a lack of basic schooling can prevent many young women from meeting the entry criteria for TVET institutions, as occurs in Sub-Saharan Africa (Gaidzanwa, 2008). Many TVET bodies lack counselling/assistance to support students to get job placements, which may hit women particularly hard if they have fewer contacts and less awareness of a particular sector (UNESCO and UNEVOC, 2011). It is worth noting that the extra costs of TVET (equipment, work placements, etc.)

⁹ Here, the lockstep approach refers to the standardised, sequential method of proceeding through education. In some cases, this approach may be ill-suited to students who face additional barriers in accessing/staying in education. For example, a fixed order of curriculum and rigid entry criteria for each course may alienate children who had to interrupt their studies due to extenuating circumstances (e.g. early marriage, conflict, etc.).



mean that it accounts for a relatively small proportion of education in many African countries (Gaidzanwa, 2008).

- **Young women and men may not be educated in a gender-sensitive learning environment.** For instance, teachers, learning materials and the curriculum may serve to reinforce gender stereotypes and affect the aspirations and expectations of students in later life. Educational systems are not always empowering for girls, nor sensitive to their needs (UNESCO, 2012).
- **Gaps in legal provision can undermine the right to education, particularly for girls.** For instance, in 25 African countries, there is no compulsory school leaving age, meaning that girls from poor households may be forced into domestic service from a very young age, or face other forms of precarious employment (Gaidzanwa, 2008). Such gaps can also affect boys' right to education, although in different ways¹⁰.

How to address gender inequalities in education

For education and TVET programme to reach their potential, gender disparities must be addressed and effectively reduced. Education programmes need to be **gender-sensitive**, in the ways described below.

- Make use and creating demand for **sex-disaggregated data**, including on gross enrollment (at primary, secondary and tertiary levels), educational attainment, school completion and literacy (see 'Examples of gender-sensitive indicators' at the end for more).
- Ensure that **girls' and women's needs and priorities are voiced, understood and addressed**. For instance, when consulting school management committees, bear in mind that women may be underrepresented at this level, and that there may be a need to engage female teachers through another channel, in order to gauge their preferences. More generally, encouraging a good presence of female teachers, particularly at secondary level, may increase the confidence of girls to contribute in the classroom.
- **Avoid reinforcing gender inequalities**, by ignoring the existing gender relations and power disparities between women and men. Education programmes should focus not only on enrolment, but also on the length, quality and 'gender-sensitivity' of education. A USAID-supported project in Malawi prioritised girls' enrolment, without considering the learning environment itself, meaning boys continued to be assigned 'high-status' tasks (for example, timekeeping, bell-ringing) whilst girls typically had the role of keeping the furniture tidy/clean (USAID, 2008).
- **Plan gender-specific actions**, to address problems relating more particularly to one or the other gender, either as separate initiatives or as part of larger programmes. For instance, it may be necessary to consider grants, targeted scholarships, 'girls' days' and science camps for girls, in order to encourage their entry into non-traditional fields, including in TVET.

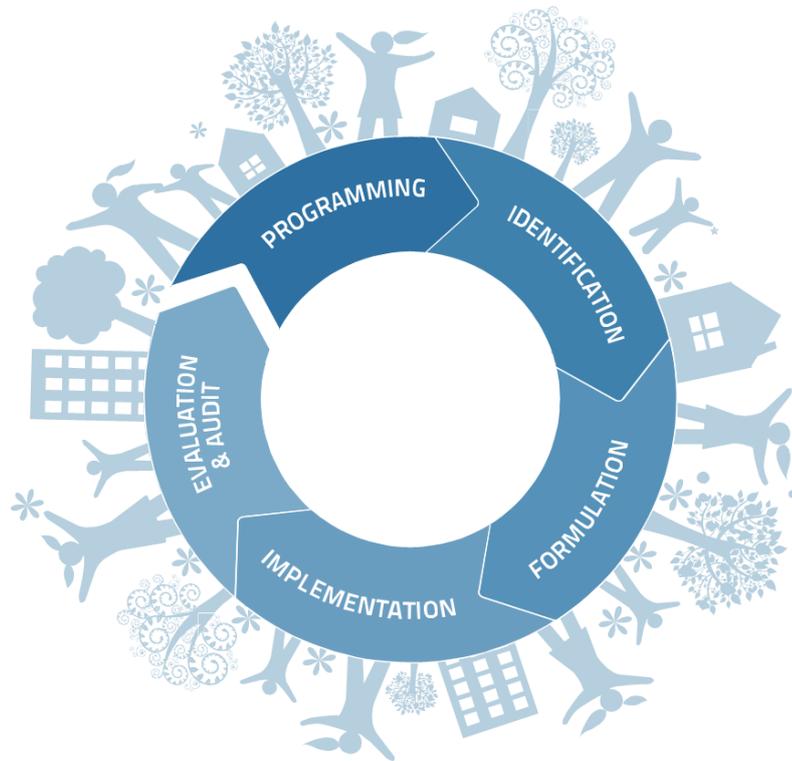
¹⁰ For instance, in the Asia-Pacific region, boys aged 15 and over may be overrepresented amongst child labourers in 'hazardous labour'. At the same time, it is important to recognise that much of girls' labour is invisible and thus uncounted (domestic service, unpaid agricultural labour, etc.). See UNESCO and UNGEI, 2006.



- **Adopt longer term “transformative” perspectives**, supporting women’s participation in decision-making and changing prevalent negative attitudes on women’s leadership capacities and social roles.
- **Engage boys and men**, creating awareness on gender disparities and proving the benefits of gender equality in education for communities. There are numerous studies demonstrating the wider benefits of girls’ education, including poverty reduction; better maternal, sexual and family health; improvements to household nutrition; more effective protection against HIV/AIDS; and stronger national productivity (UNESCO and UNGEI, 2006; UNESCO, 2012; USAID, 2008). As a positive example of engaging boys and men, a USAID-support project in Ethiopia sensitised boys to the many issues that prevent girls from accessing education. This led the boys to support the work of their female peers and not to consider girls as intellectually weak (USAID, 2008).
- When planning small-scale projects on women or gender equality, see them as part of larger scale programmes to transform the role of education and training within society, making it a more democratic, relevant and inclusive institution. There are many ways of reaching out to diverse groups of young people – not only girls and young women, but also boys from poor households and/or rural areas; children with disabilities; and children from the lower socio-economic classes/caste. Positive approaches include mobile training, open/distance learning, flexible timetable/course options, public transport systems, and mechanisms to engage the community in the management of schools. For instance, UNESCO’s Village Training Centres for Development have been particularly successful in Kenya at encouraging community ownership of education and training (UNGEI, 2012). Quality is central to encouraging equality, as poor or disadvantaged children may have less support with education at home (for example, fewer books or illiterate parents). This makes school all the more important for improving their learning outcomes and life prospects. Without high-quality education, it is not possible to challenge inequalities (USAID, 2008).



A roadmap for gender mainstreaming in education development programmes



Gender equality considerations should be integrated throughout the whole cycle of development planning. There are multiple facets to consider when promoting gender equality in education, such as enrolment practices, the development of curriculum, the approach of teachers, the learning styles/environment, safety levels (at and on the way to school), technology use, and the division of resources between educational facilities.

This Section proposes a roadmap for gender mainstreaming in the various phases of a programme – or project - lifecycle.

1. [Analysis, programming and identification of country strategies](#)

Programming and identification are strategic moments to promote education and training programmes which serve to redress gender inequalities and enhance the inclusivity and relevance of education in society. The most essential steps are:

- To keep gender equality in the policy dialogue agenda;
- To carry out gender sensitive analysis for the diagnostic stage.

Dialogue and negotiations related to education should:

- Be grounded in the shared objectives of the global policy agenda for education and development, and in common respect of the human rights framework (including gender equality): Millennium Development Goals 2 and 3; the proposed



Sustainable Development Goals¹¹ (due to be finalized Autumn 2015); the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW); the Beijing Platform for Action (critical areas B and L); the World Declaration on Education for All (1990); United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC) (1989); ILO Minimum Age Convention, (1973, No. 138); ILO Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention (WFCL), (1999, No. 182); Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948).

- Align with the country commitments (laws, policies, strategies) to promote gender equality and the right to education.
- Analyse the different roles and take-off positions of women and men in education and training, and use sex-disaggregated data in diagnostic studies. Gender country profiles or other sectoral studies should be used or commissioned.
- Systematically involve and support “gender stakeholders”, from Government, donors and civil society, at all stages. This can include gender coordination groups, gender focal points in education, training and skills forecasting ministries, parent-teacher associations, school management committees, teachers' unions, TVET providers, employers, NGOs and gender experts and representatives of rural women's groups, cooperatives, unions and CSOs.
- Build on previous and current initiatives to promote gender equality in the sector or in contributing sectors, map existing needs and financing gaps, and avoid duplication of efforts.
- Assess whether the institutions who will be responsible for programme management and service delivery have resources and capacities to promote gender equality and plan for competence development initiatives, including at service delivery level.
- Take into account the need to reach all young people, including those who face additional barriers to education, such as those from ethnic minorities, those affected by conflict (e.g. ex-child soldiers), street children, child labourers and children whose relatives have HIV/AIDs.

2. Formulation and budgeting

- The results of gender analysis should be used to tailor the formulation of programmes and projects. The formulation phase is particularly important, as it affects all subsequent phases of the programme (implementation, monitoring and evaluation. To do, one must follow the steps described below.
- Design objectives and activities to address gender gaps identified and include them in programme documents, plans, logical frameworks, financing agreements and budgets.
- Include and budget for initiatives to address specific needs and constraints faced by young women and men, including long-term capacity building of women in self-confidence, public speaking and leadership skills. It is also valuable to consider ways of incentivising women teachers to work in remote regions or urban slums, in order to improve the presence of female role models in these areas.

¹¹ Proposed SDG 4 is "Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all"; proposed SDG 5 is "Achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls". <https://sustainabledevelopment.un.org/sdgsproposal.html> [accessed August 2015].



- Allocate resources for gender mainstreaming, capacity building and awareness raising at all levels and in ways that are adapted to the needs of different target groups (for example, parents, teachers, training instructors, students, programme staff, TVET providers, marginalised communities, indigenous women). It is important to ensure that male teachers, particularly in educational facilities with a low presence of young women (for example, TVET institutions), receive training on 'girl-friendly' teaching methods (UNESCO and UNGEI, 2006)¹².
- Commit to pursue a strategy for continued gender mainstreaming in the programme (donor and country led processes). This may be formalized in an action plan which should then clearly assign responsibilities, resources and results to be achieved, as part of the broader programme's result chain.
- Establish formal mechanisms of consultation with gender stakeholders.
- Design and budget for participatory and gender-sensitive monitoring processes, particularly at service delivery level e.g. assessments of changes introduced to the curricula, use of gender-sensitive indicators to monitor enrollment, completion, subject choice, etc.
- Define performance monitoring frameworks and processes which can capture progress in gender-related objectives. For instance, creating girls' advisory committees can be a positive mechanism through which teachers can monitor the presence of girls over time.
- In direct budget support initiatives, include gender indicators in financing agreements between donor and recipient countries (e.g. minimum representation of girls in schools and/or STEM subjects, specific attendance targets for girls and boys from rural areas and/or poor households, equal representation of women and men in particular training courses, minimum representation of each sex in school management committees).
- Respect equal opportunity principles in management arrangements and establish accountability structures for gender mainstreaming at programme level.

3. Implementation and monitoring

At this stage what is planned in relation to gender equality should be maintained, monitored and corrected as needed. The most important points to consider are:

- Continued coordination, dialogue and consultation on gender equality within working groups on education and training; with institutional stakeholders (such as the gender units of the relevant ministries) as well as with a broader range of actors from civil society.
- Effective monitoring of the progress of the various gender dimensions of the programme and sub-programmes, including at service delivery level, collecting opinions and experiences of girls, boys, women and men (students, teachers, parents and individuals from the wider community).
- Integration of gender in joint sector reviews and policy dialogues (particularly at the level of the SWAP committee);
- Monitoring if resources planned for gender equality are spent, and if not, why.

¹² For example, see Gender Equity Strategies: Girl Friendly Teaching Checklist http://ineesite.org/uploads/documents/store/doc_1_89_Girl_Friendly_Teaching_Checklist.doc [Jackie Kirk, SoE/SBEP Gender Equity Support Program, September 2004]. This was developed



4. Evaluation

- Terms of Reference of (mid-term) evaluations should require gender expertise in the evaluation team and give account of the differential impacts of an education programme on young women and men, identify potential negative impacts on each, and offer recommendations and lessons learned useful to further pursue gender equality in education and training.
- Evaluators and monitors should be able to use participatory evaluation techniques and sex-disaggregated beneficiary assessments of service delivery.
- Evaluations should also build on past gender evaluations of programmes in the education sector, for instance, considering the most effective interventions for preventing early school leaving of girls.

GENDER TOOLS FOR THE DIFFERENT AID MODALITIES

An ample selection of analytical and planning tools useful at each phase of the development cooperation cycle, according to the different aid modalities, is available in the “Aid Modalities” Section of the EU Resource Package on Gender Mainstreaming in Development Cooperation.

The following Section offers a list of gender-analysis questions that can be used in Programmes related to education and training.

Questions for gender analysis in education and training¹³

Gender analysis helps acquire a different perspective on the complexity of a development context, and understand how to better address other forms of social inequalities. It looks at how economic and social structures at multiple levels can reinforce, or help overcome, gender inequalities and imbalances in power relations between women and men.

DIFFERENT LEVELS OF GENDER ANALYSIS

Macro analysis looks at national level law, policy and decision making, including trade and finance policies and national development plans. It helps identify how education and training programmes can contribute, or hamper, broader development strategies. It assesses whether legislation or policies related to education, training and skills development contribute to gender inequalities, or to their elimination. It is particularly useful when programming or identifying development cooperation strategies, programmes and projects.

For example:

Analysis at macro level may reveal that national laws enshrine the universal right to education. If so, this strengthens the case for a development programme that removes the practical barriers to this vision..

¹³ More on gender analysis is available in the EU Resource Package, Section “Building Blocks”.



DIFFERENT LEVELS OF GENDER ANALYSIS

Meso level analysis looks at markets, institutions, services, infrastructures which serve as a link between laws/policies and people, enabling them to benefit (or be excluded) from policy effects: communication and transportation systems, health services, education, decentralized public services (revenues, rural development, land registration), credit institutions, markets and extension systems.

This is particularly useful at programme formulation, as it also assesses the extent to which gender roles, relationships and cultural issues can influence the effectiveness of service delivery and other policy and programme implementation mechanisms.

For example:

Analysis at meso level may reveal that the rigid order and structure of courses excludes many young people who had to interrupt their studies, due to early marriage, pregnancy, conflict, natural disasters, the death of a family member or other circumstances. Married adolescent girls are known to be a particular group of individuals at risk of leaving school early. Adopting flexible timetables, 'fast-track' education options and back-to-school policies may be a way to support these – and other – individuals to develop core skills/training and gain the necessary educational qualifications to enter into more secure employment or further education.

Micro level analysis studies people: women and men as individuals, and the **socio-economic differences** between households and communities. It considers women and men's roles, activities and power relations within the household and the community, and how these influence their respective capacities to participate and benefit from development programmes. It is particularly useful at formulation, implementation and monitoring levels.

For example:

Analysis at micro level may reveal that girls have a high domestic 'workload' that takes up a significant amount of their time, undermining their ability to undertake education and training. For instance, in many developing countries, girls and women are responsible for collecting water for household use and sanitation, often located long distances from their homes. In these cases, it is imperative to convince families of the long-term benefits of enabling girls to join/stay in education, whilst also acting to avoid the reinforcement of gender inequalities amongst adults (i.e. avoiding an increase in older women's workload).

The following section proposes guiding questions for gender analysis in education and training at macro, meso and micro levels.



Macro level

Macro level. Policies and laws

- What gender equality commitments have been made by the government, for instance in the framework of the Beijing Platform for Action, CEDAW, the SDGs? Is there a law and/or a policy on gender equality in the country?
- Do national education policies reflect these commitments through awareness of inequalities between girls and boys and women and men? Do they outline the means to address them, recognising the universal right to education?
- Are there gender policies and action plans in education and TVET? Do national education programmes and sub-programmes align to and support these gender plans?
- Are there policies and action plans to tackle the impact of gender stereotypes on the choice of subjects, occupations and sectors?
- Do current policies, laws and regulations address women's and men's needs separately? Do they have discriminatory provisions? Do they have measures for equal opportunities and women's rights (e.g. compulsory school leaving age for both boys and girls; equal pay legislation in employment)?
- Do skills development policies include measures to extend training opportunities to diverse groups (for example, young women from rural areas, migrants, people with disabilities, etc.)?
- Is the social and health protection system inclusive of women (e.g. right to maternity care)? Are certain groups excluded (e.g. women in the informal economy)?

Macro level. How are decisions made in national-level institutions?

- Are there decision makers (in Government, Parliament) who are ready to champion gender equality and women's enrollment in – and empowerment through – education?
- Are governmental institutions responsible for women's and gender issues, involved in decision-making at national policy and planning levels?
- Are there gender thematic groups that could be involved in sector level consultations?
- Are there gender focal points within education and training ministries?
- To what extent do national-level institutions consult community-level and professional organisations over education and training priorities? Are these channels inclusive of women's (and girls') voices?

Macro level. Data and information

- Are there policy documents or agreed gender assessments that information and statistics on the gender gaps and priorities in education and training?
- Are sex-disaggregated data available on gross enrollment (at primary, secondary and tertiary levels), school completion rates, literacy levels, educational attainment, etc? Does this data allow for a breakdown by region (urban/rural)?



Note: See 'Examples of gender-sensitive indicators' below for more details of possible sex disaggregation.

- Have similar education programmes/projects been implemented in the country? Were gender-sensitive evaluations carried out? What are good examples of girls' empowerment in education and training? Which attempts to achieve gender equality were failures (e.g. because they were taken over by men or had adverse effects on girls/women)?
- What data exists on the prevalence of socio-cultural practices that may undermine the right to education for girls and boys, for example, early marriage/childbearing, child labour? How can this be used to inform and target the programme more effectively?
- What other causes are there of gender differences in school enrollment, completion, etc.?

Macro level. Monitoring frameworks

- How is the country faring on gender equality targets established at international level (for example, MDGs 2 and 3; critical areas B and L of the Beijing Platform for Action)?
- Has the government developed indicators that allow for monitoring progress in education and training from a gender equality perspective? Which data exists to show the impacts of the programme/project for girls and boys/women and men?
- Has there been a gender analysis of government spending on education in general and on TVET in particular (e.g. the percentage of GDP spending)? Does the government have a system to track the gender sensitivity of development programmes?
- Is it possible to have a benefit incidence analysis by sex of beneficiaries? (method of computing the distribution of public expenditure across different demographic groups, such as girls, boys, women and men.)
- In sector budget support modality, can payments be linked to progress made on the gender objectives and gender indicators? Is part of the budget earmarked for specific gender equality objectives?
- Are there mechanisms at school level to monitor the gender balance amongst students, e.g. girls' advisory committees?

Meso level

Meso level. Service provision

- Are there plans to improve the outreach capacity of local schools to poor communities and in particular to girls and young women (E.g. open and distance learning, mobile training options for students in remote areas)?
- How 'gender-sensitive' is the national/regional curriculum? For example, do students encounter non-stereotypical representations of women and men at work? Does it teach students that all fields/subjects are open to them, regardless of sex? Does it include comprehensive education on sexuality and gender-based violence?



- Are teachers trained in gender sensitivity?
- Are there transport options available for students living in remote areas? If so, are these safe for girls and young women, or do they face risks of threats/gender-based violence? If not, what risks might they face in going to school?
- Are there separate and appropriate sanitary facilities for boys and girls?
- Are teachers' unions and/or NGOs able to promote the rights of women working in education?
- What is the representation of female teachers/TVET instructors within the target community? Are they also represented in school management committees?
- Is education provided free of charge, at both primary and secondary levels? Can parents receive any support with the indirect costs of education (uniform, books, etc.)? If school fees are in place, which individuals/households does this affect negatively?
- Is there a gender balance in programme and project implementation units? At which levels?
- Will training enhance women's productive capacity, as well as their marketable skills and income-earning potential?
- What are the typical sectors of employment for women and men? How do the salaries/working conditions compare? What are the training/skills requirements for these sectors?

Meso level. Decision making and consultation

- If the programme envisages support to community-based organisations in education (such as parent-teacher associations, school management boards), are women represented and in which levels/roles? Which women?
- Are gender equality institutions and structures at local level being involved?
- Which institutions will be consulted as to the skills development needs within the country? Do these institutions include women and – if not – how can their presence be increased? Do TVET programmes in 'feminised' sectors receive equal resourcing and value?
- How will poor women in particular receive information about nonformal education/training opportunities? Can networks be used to increase their presence?
- If the programme includes mechanisms to increase access to productive resources, training, local markets, or employment, are there provisions to promote equitable access (E.g. for example, reserving a minimum share of training places for each sex)?

Meso level. Data collection and monitoring processes

- Which data can be collected throughout the programme to monitor the impacts for girls, boys, women and men? Who will be responsible for collecting this data, and how frequently? Will they be trained in participatory, gender-sensitive data collection techniques? For instance, will schools be sensitised to the importance of breaking down attendance and completion data by sex?



- How will consultation processes be organised at various levels? Will both women and men be involved in community level consultation processes? How are girls' and women's interests going to be represented? Is there a need to set up new fora?
- Are adequate resources allocated for participatory consultation, monitoring and sex-disaggregated beneficiary assessments of services?
- Are data collected at this level disaggregated by sex? What is the capacity of the national statistical office, and of enumerators, to collect sex disaggregated data and produce gender sensitive statistics?
- Does the monitoring and evaluation system explicitly consider the impacts on women?

Micro level

Micro level. Gender division of tasks and labour

- What is the impact of girls' and women's unpaid work on their opportunity to engage in education, training and/or paid work?
- Are children involved in household work? Which different tasks are allocated to girls and boys? If so, how does this affect their access to education and training?
- Are girls and boys engaged in child labour? If so, how does this affect their access to education and training? How can community organisations and social protection be engaged to challenge child labour?
- How does the gendered divisions of tasks and labour differ between regions (e.g. urban/rural) and households (e.g. rich, poor)?
- What are women and men's traditional activities in the community? How do these affect the expectations/aspirations of the next generation?

Micro level. Gender relations: Access and control over resources

- What are the general economic and demographic conditions of the household? Of the community? What are men and women's main sources of income?
- How do the educational resources of households differ, for example, learning materials, literacy of parents, financial resources etc.? Are there any differences between women- and men-headed households?
- Which factors influence access to and control over resources (for example, age, sex, wealth, ethnicity, peri-urban versus rural locations, education level, networks and patronage)?
- Are there gender inequalities in access to and control over resources and benefits? For instance:
- At the household level, who takes decisions about resources and activities, including the education of children? Are there signs that boys' education receives priority?
- At the community level, how are decisions made about educational resources and activities? Are there signs that boys' education receives priority?



- Is the education of girls seen as a help or hindrance to marriage? How will education affect practices such as dowries? How do these considerations affect decisions over children's education, particularly within poor households?
- What are the public transport options for girls, boys, women and men? Are these universally accessible, regardless of gender, or are there obstacles to use (e.g. restrictive fees, risks of gender-based violence)?
- If community-based organisations exist, (e.g. cooperative, traditional sociocultural organisation, religion-based etc.), are women members? Do they participate? At which level? If not, why not?

Micro level. Perceptions about gender equality

- How does the community respond to gender-based violence (for example, sexual harassment at or on the way to school) and traditional practices that undermine access to education (such as early marriage and female genital mutilation)?
- Are girls and women aware of their rights? Are they able to voice them in the community or with service providers?
- How should the project deal with cultural norms that separate women and men (for example, separate buildings)? Note that if separate infrastructure are in place, these should be of equal quality and receive equal attention/resources, etc.
- Are boys and men openly resistant to gender equality? Are there groups of men who are more supportive/resistant than others? Who can influence them?
- How might other socio-cultural norms restrict the access of girls to education and training, for example limited mobility, dress customs, etc.?
- What are the causes of gender differences in school enrollment, completion, etc.?
- Do textbooks and other education materials promote gender stereotypes?
- Is it socially acceptable for girls and women to enter into 'non-traditional' fields and mix with men, for example technical and engineering roles?



Gender sensitive indicators for the education sector

Gender sensitive indicators aim at ‘creating awareness of the different impacts of a development intervention on men and women, taking into consideration their socio-economic and cultural differences.’ (FAO, n.d. – Gender sensitive indicators for Natural Resources Management). Gender sensitive indicators reveal valuable information to identify the specific problems faced by women and men; to assess the extent of gender inequalities in access to and use of resources and services in education, and provide the basis for evidence-based policy-making processes (FAO, n.d.).

The table below provides some examples of gender-sensitive indicators in education and TVET.

Area/Sub-sector	Indicator
Enrolment and attainment in education and training	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Pre-primary enrolment ratio (%), by sex Primary net enrolment ratio (%), by sex Out-of-school children, by sex Secondary enrolment ratio (%), by sex Out-of-school adolescents, by sex Primary gender parity index Secondary gender parity index Access to specialised training programmes (vocational, technical and professional) at the secondary level and above, by sex Percentage of young people in education, in employment and Not in Education, Employment or Training (NEETs), by sex and age group Top performers, by sex and subject Low-achieving students, by sex and subject Expected years in education from age 5 through age 39, by sex Participation in formal and/or non-formal education, 25-64 years old, by gender Differences in earnings between female and male workers, by educational attainment and age group
Literacy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Adult literacy rate (%), by sex Youth literacy rate (%), by sex
TVET	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Enrollment, by sex, in vocational education Enrollment by sex and type of TVET course Completion rate, by sex, in TVET courses Spending on TVET as a proportion of general education budget



Area/Sub-sector	Indicator
Teaching and school leadership	<p>Number and percentage of female and male teachers trained, by content area (e.g., planning, management, and teaching methods)</p> <p>Percentage of women and men holding primary, secondary, and tertiary teaching positions (public and private systems)</p> <p>Percentage of women and men in senior teaching, management, and curriculum review positions (e.g., supervisors, principals, vice-principals, and heads of departments)</p> <p>Percentage of female and male teachers in rural and remote areas, and the percentage of qualified teachers (to minimum standards)</p> <p>Number and type of incentive and support programs for recruitment, training, and career advancement, including those aimed at increasing the number of qualified female and male teaching staff in rural areas</p> <p>Share of women in school management and in leadership positions</p> <p>Student to teacher ratio in boys-only, girls-only and mixed sex schools</p>
Gender-sensitive learning environment	<p>School dress codes enable girls to participate in sport and active play</p> <p>Number and type of activities undertaken in schools and other educational institutions that raise awareness about violence against women and girls and promote the rights of women and girls</p> <p>Gender analysis of teaching and learning materials (e.g., the promotion of gender equality and positive images of girls and boys, and their abilities and aspirations)</p> <p>Number and percentage of male and female staff trained on gender issues in education (preservice or in-service)</p> <p>Prevention of all forms of gender-based violence (GBV) integrated in the national curriculum</p> <p>Existence of a national policy on GBV in (and to/from) schools that specifically considers risks to girls, boys, young women and men</p> <p><i>Through specially designed surveys:</i></p> <p>Changes in girls' aspirations about education, employment, and gender equality, and the reasons for changes (e.g., measured in perception surveys or focus group discussion)</p> <p>Changes in boys' views about girls' education, employment, and gender equality, and the reasons for changes</p>
Sexuality education	<p>Percentage of women and men aged 15-24 who correctly identify ways of preventing the sexual transmission of HIV</p> <p>Percentage of women and men aged 15-49 who had more than one sexual partner in last 12 months reporting use of a condom during last sexual intercourse</p> <p>Percentage of students, by sex, who receive sexuality education in school</p> <p>Percentage of teachers, by sex, trained in teaching sexuality education</p>



Area/Sub-sector	Indicator
Educational infrastructure and school places	Number of schools upgraded or constructed that reduce the distance for poor girls and boys to travel to school Number of hostels and dormitories constructed or upgraded, and number and percentage of girls and boys benefiting Student latrine stance ratio by sex Proportion of educational institutions that provide private and safe sanitation and boarding facilities for girls and boys, including those living with disabilities, by level of education Proportion of teacher housing provided to female teachers in rural and remote areas, by level of education Number of new or upgraded facilities designed to improve the learning environment (e.g., libraries, laboratories, and sports facilities)
Employment patterns	Percentage of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector Percentage of women and men wage and salary workers Employment in the informal sector, by sex Employment of women and men by sector: agriculture, industry, or services
Agricultural extension	Number of women and men participating in farming field schools per quarter Percentage of women and men extensionists amongst government, NGO and private services providers Number of years of formal education of farmers, disaggregated by sex Percentage of women amongst total scientists, technicians and researchers in government agricultural institutions and universities

Source: Asian Development Bank, 2013; FAO, IFAD, World Bank, 2008; SIDA, 2010; UNESCO, 2013; OECD Data Portal; NPA/UN-JPGE, 2012

Examples of gender-sensitive projects in education

Several development and cooperation programmes have successfully addressed the issue of gender inequalities in education. Some examples are provided in the table below, and additional documents gathering good practices are listed in the following page.

Programme/project	Challenges	Gender Strategy	Source
<p>Preventing and Combating the Trafficking of Ethnic Minority Girls Through Education in Yunnan Province, China</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Lack of middle (lower secondary) schools and teachers in remote regions with large numbers of people from ethnic minority populations (middle schools often in townships (expensive to send children there, due to board, transport, etc) - Schools not well-suited to local language or culture; curricula not matched to local employment needs - Many girls did not complete middle schools, as families often expect girls to carry out domestic chores at home - After some time at home, many girls migrated to cities or other countries to seek work, facing risks of trafficking/poverty 	<p>2004 project of Jiangcheng, Menghai, Menglian and Yuanyang counties, China. Part of ILO's Mekong Sub-Regional Project to Combat Trafficking in Children and Women, partnering with All China Women's Federation and the national Education Departments</p> <p>Approach:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Providing direct support for ethnic minority girls in the four countries to pay for their transport/fees in schools; promoting their return to village to teach others about risk of trafficking - Introduction of trafficking, gender equality, HIV/AIDS, public health to the curriculum - Sensitisation of teachers/headteachers to concerns of ethnic minority girls 	<p>UNESCO and UNGEI, 2006</p> <p>http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0014/001465/146557e.pdf</p>
<p>Skills Development Training Programme for Female Civil Engineering Graduates, Gaza</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Lack of women in the construction industry in Gaza Strip - Negative stereotypes as to the technical abilities of women 	<p>Launch of the Skills Development Training Programme by the Community Service and Continuing Education Deanship (CSCED) of Islamic University of Gaza (backed by ILO and Spanish Government)</p> <p>Approach:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Training for women engineering graduates with qualified trainers (on managing construction projects, software and financial skills, etc.) - Work experience placements for women engineering graduates (each of 3-4 months), in 70 construction businesses in Gaza Strip; resulted in employment of many of the women in their host companies 	<p>ILO, 2014</p> <p>www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/---ifp_skills/documents/publication/wcms_244380.pdf</p>

Programme/project	Challenges	Gender Strategy	Source
Girls Primary School Sector Project (1996), Pakistan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Community disapproval of mixing of girls and boys at schools, and teaching of girls by male teachers - Restricted participation of girls in primary education 	<p>Approach:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Creation of Community Model Schools (CMS) for girls in rural regions - Five women teachers in each CMS, trained through the project and supplied with safe and close accommodation - Encouraging community participation in running of schools. For example, project set up new (separate) committees for women and men, to be involved in managing CMS (recruitment, safety, attendance, etc.). 	<p>Asian Development Bank, n.d.</p> <p>http://www.adb.org/publications/gender-checklist-education</p>



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