Scaling up girls' education: Towards a scorecard on girls' education in the Commonwealth

by

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The views expressed in this paper do not necessarily reflect the official views of the Commonwealth Secretariat.

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The paper aims to chart aspects of the political, economic and social contexts in which scaling up of girls' education will take place in Commonwealth countries in Africa and considers what the implications of these contexts are for projects and programmes. The first section of the paper develops a scorecard to map Commonwealth countries in Africa with regard to the policy and social environment for girls ' education. It argues for the need for a publicly accountable criterion of what has been achieved and what needs to be done drawing on existing data sources and presents one way of developing a scorecard on this. The scorecard methodology is put forward as a way NGO coalitions, governments and Inter Government Organisations could develop a shared understanding of accountability and approach the task of assessing progress towards achieving the MDG. The second section looks at four case studies of how salient features of the political, economic and social context that appeared as important from the scorecard approach play out in local level examples of initiatives in primary and secondary education to promote access and retention. It assesses the opportunities and limitations for scaling up access and retention in both school phases these point to. The final section considers the implications of the case studies for the scorecard methodology and suggests some supplementary methodologies and measures that could contribute to a revised form of scorecard being developed as an accountable method of mapping progress.

A scorecard on girls' education in Commonwealth countries in Africa

One of the many difficulties in developing an understanding of how to take initiatives forward for improving access and retention in girls' education is the nature of the informational base we have available. While Education Departments in particular

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countries and the UNESCO and UNICEF annual reports go some way to providing the information from which progress can be assessed, there are a number of serious limitations with this data. Amongst these are problems about what it measures, the quality of data, and how accountable these measures and this data is.

The complex processes that take place in education, particularly with regard to its gender dynamics are not particularly amenable to analysis through 'simple' measures based on inputs and outputs to the system. The gender parity index (GPI) is an attempt to indicate the extent to which boys and girls are equally present at different levels in the education system. However a country can have a GPI of 1 indicating complete equality between boys and girls, but still have low rates of access, retention and achievement for girls and boys. The gender related EFA index takes account of the GPI, but not of other measures that have a bearing on gender equity such as how much powerful institutions take account of the views of women and men, allocate resources equitably to meet their differing needs, and take account of the intersections of public and private spaces in shaping conditions for equity in outcomes. Attempts to develop an alternative metric to assess gender empowerment in and through education and the intrinsic and instrumental value of education are in their infancy (Unterhalter and Brighouse, 2003). A very promising way forward is offered through developing a Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) in education which South African education officials are currently considering (Unterhalter, 2004). This may be more feasible in some countries than others. In developing a scorecard to consider where we are scaling up from in Commonwealth countries in Africa we have attempted to draw on some of this thinking on different approaches to measurement and considered how it could be utilised taking account of the data that currently exist.

We are painfully aware of the limitations of a scorecard methodology. It is an over-summarised representation of complex historical processes that can diminish an understanding of their effects. It represents the interrelationship between countries or regions as competitive – a culture of winners and losers – when they are deeply inter-related and in need of each other's support. It sets up an arbitrary board of scorers, usually who have little experience of delivery, to judge performance and tends to extinguish the processes of working towards achievement. These are compelling reasons not to proceed down this path of analysis either with regard to scorecards or measures of gender equity. However side by side with these arguments must be put the confusion that results from not knowing which countries or districts are improving gender equity in education, which areas need resources and why we deem this to be the case, and in what areas countries can learn from each other. These reasons, based on harnessing available resources to work together on developing a methodology for measurement of a problem of global significance seem to mitigate somewhat against the negative dimensions outlined above.

We have developed the approach outlined below not because we are convinced by a scorecard methodology, but because we want to contribute to a debate about a publicly accountable criterion of justice with regard to gender equity in education. Thus our analysis is offered partly in the hope that it will elicit useful critical discussion. We have tried to base the key assumptions of the scorecard in a general theory of human flourishing. For this we have drawn on Amartya Sen and Martha Nussbaum's capability approach and the experiences of the UNDP in operationalising this work in the Human Development Reports (Sen, 1999; Nussbaum, 2000; Fukuda

Parr and Kumar, 2003). But we wish to stress that we do not consider the utilisation of this or any other version of a scorecard as a substitute for detailed quantitative and qualitative research. That work must be conducted rigorously to provide a corrective to the simplifications and crude assumptions of any scorecard or league table approach. Only work at that depth will furnish the detailed knowledge of local contexts and actions necessary o take forward any of the very general directions the scorecard might point to.

An additional problem over and above these conceptual, ethical and methodological issues, relates the quality of data a scorecard draws on. The EFA assessments for 2000 and the strengthening of EMIS in many countries that followed have gone some way to addressing the problem of lack of information. But the quality and reliability of the data remains a matter of concern. In order to give a roughly comparable picture of countries we have used material from their 2000 EFA assessment reports (see Appendix 1). This is a static snapshot and important processes like the increasing number of children at school in Kenya since 2003 has not been adequately captured. In addition there are questions about the accuracy of data collected at the school level which casts doubt on the wide use made on figures on enrolment, intake and retention (Unterhalter and Brighouse, 2003; Page, 2004). There is a particular problem with data on Net Enrolment Rates (NER) because births are not registered in many countries. In addition much of the data publicly available is out of date. The UNESCO EFA monitoring report for 2003 uses data collected in 2000 and that is not comprehensive. In trying to put together as full as possible a picture for this paper we have had to complement UNESCO and UNICEF data with information held at country level which is sometimes nearly 10 years old. Despite the significance of the MDGs a shared sense of this importance has not been fully developed. (For example the *Beyond Access* project is located in a large institution with a world class reputation for its research, teacher education and professional development work in education yet very few of our colleagues have heard of the MDGs). The importance of charting progress and developing a detailed understanding at all levels of why data needs to be collected truthfully has often been given inadequate attention both at national and international level.

The existing measures of education performance like net enrolment rate and literacy rate are not widely used by education coalitions working to hold governments accountable for performance. This is partly because of their complexity. While a number of networks have done excellent work in explaining the measures used in the EFA assessments to a wider audience (see e.g. Elimu Yetu, 2003) these measures do not provide a clear enough indicator of a country's performance and change over time and they often have little connection with people's lived experience of education provision. As a result it is unlikely that popular campaigns will be waged with regard to the GPI in the same way they have been with regard to budget allocation for education.

Bearing all these difficulties of conceptualisation, measurement, quality and accessibility of data in mind we put forward in this paper a suggested methodology for a scorecard regarding girls' access to and retention in formal schooling. We have developed a scorecard approach to looking at girls' access to and retention in primary schools in Commonwealth countries in Africa in the hope that this might suggest how a popularly accountable measure of progress in these areas might be developed. As

such our work is tentative and exploratory, but attempts to draw on existing sources of data, because of the importance of developing an accountable measure to assess progress with regard to the MDGS.

We have not based our measures on the gender parity index, but on measures of girls' participation in and benefits from schooling. This is partly because, as discussed above, the GPI gives scant insight into the qualitative dimensions of schooling for girls and boys and the intersection of schooling with other areas of social policy. A second reason for our decision not to draw on the GPI is that an emerging consensus in studies in a number of countries suggests that when the quality of education improves for girls, it generally means it improves for boys too (Mlama, 2003; Muito 2003; Global Campaign for Education, 2003; Pattman and Chege, 2003). Therefore the scorecard is based on a number of key indicators with regard to girls' education rather than gender parity.

Table 1 presents our access, retention and gender equity scorecard for Commonwealth countries in Africa. The methodology used in developing the scorecard is outlined in Appendix 1. The scorecard has been developed to look at access and retention in broader ways than heretofore in that we are looking at not only numbers of girls who attend and remain in primary school, but also whether those girls are able to translate that attendance and retention into future schooling at a secondary level and healthy lives where they earn a reasonable income. Four widely used measures have been used to develop the score for girls' access to and retention in school. These measures are:

- girls' net attendance rate at primary school
- girls' survival rate over 5 years in primary schooling
- girls' secondary Net Enrolment Ration (NER)
- a country's gender development index (GDI)

These measures were selected because they point to access into primary schooling (net attendance rate) derived from household surveys, retention in primary schooling (survival rates), potential of the education system to generate teachers and managers with some concerns with gender equality (girls' secondary NER), and the possibilities for these women to survive and flourish as adults (GDI). We are aware of the considerable difficulties in using NER because of the inadequacy of birth registration information. We are also aware that retention in the last years of primary school is probably more important than the first 5 years, because this is when there is a higher rate of girls' drop out in Africa, but there is not countrywide comparable data on retention at the level. However these, like all the other measures, are a proxy and possibly there are better proxies for this available. The Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) would have been a stronger indicator of gender equity than the GDI, but the GEM has not been calculated for most countries in Africa; therefore the GDI was used. The measures were weighted so that primary attendance was only half as important as survival through 5 years of primary schooling and secondary NER somewhat more important than primary attendance, while the health and wealth dimensions of the society that the GDI points to was considered twice as important as primary attendance. The data for the scorecard has been largely based on government data collected by the UNESCO Institute of Statistics for the EFA Global Monitoring Report 2003, the UNICEF report on the State of the World's Children and countries'

own EFA assessments (UNESCO, 2003; UNECEF, 2003). (For full information see Appendix 1.)

Table 1 Scorecard on girls' primary access, retention and gender equity in Commonwealth countries in Africa

Country	Girls' primary access retention and gender equity score %	Rank
Botswana	78	**2**
Cameroon	15	**12**
Gambia		**10**
Ghana	39	**8**
Kenya	26	**10**
Lesotho	42	**7**
Malawi	26	**10**
Mauritius	81	**1**
Mozambique	20	**11**
Namibia	72	**3**
Nigeria	20	**11**
Seychelles	N/a	
Sierra Leone	N/a	
South Africa	66	**4**
Swaziland	60	**5**
Tanzania	39	**8**
Uganda	54	**6**
Zambia	36	**9**
Zimbabwe	42	**7**

Source: derived from calculations set out in Appendix 1

A number of issues arise from a consideration of Table 1. South Africa, with the largest economy on the continent, is not the country at the top of the league. Countries which rank quite high on the UNESCO EFA Development Index (Swaziland and Zimbabwe) do not rank so highly on this scorecard. While a number of countries in Southern and Central Africa have had longer histories of large numbers of girls in school than those of East and West Africa, Uganda scores higher than a number of these countries. Countries with long and devastating histories of war or repressive government are at or near the bottom of the league. Conversely, countries with long histories of democratic government are at the top (Botswana and Mauritius). Countries which, despite a history of war and undemocratic government, have paid attention to reconstruction also come near the top (Namibia, South Africa, Uganda). Countries with high levels of women's activism or concerns with gender equality, even if this is not necessarily in the sphere of education, like Uganda, Namibia, and South Africa, score higher than countries where there has been minimal mobilisation on these issues or where the mobilisation has been sporadic and generally 'top down'. Countries where economies have been squeezed by structural adjustment (Zambia, Zimbabwe, Kenya and Tanzania) are much lower in the league than they might have been given the resource infrastructure they built up in the 1970s and 1980s. Countries

with vast regional inequalities (Kenya, Ghana, Nigeria) score considerably lower than countries where regional inequalities are not an issue on this scale (Mauritius, Botswana, Namibia, Swaziland and Lesotho).

Table 2 attempts to map the policy climate for gender equality in education in each of the countries surveyed. It has been based on the accounts provided by governments in their EFA reports (UNESCO, 2000), specific policy papers compiled by governments and IGOs (Kenya, 2003; UNICEF, 2003) and reviews conducted by NGO coalitions (Global Campaign for Education, 2003; Elimu Yetu, 2003), academics and practitioners (Beyond Access, 2004). A series of enquiries by telephone, fax and email to officials in Education Departments in all the Commonwealth countries in Africa elicited very few responses (Appendix 2). The information on policies and legislation gathered from these different sources was analysed for two periods, that is the period immediately after Jomtein (1990-1995) and the period of the lead up to Dakar and its consequences (1996-2003). Countries that put in place legislation on gender equity in education and/or developed vigorous policy in this area backed up with well supported programmes were classified as having a vigorous policy approach (V). Countries that developed some policy, projects and programmes regarding gender equity, which may or may not have been accompanied by relevant legislation were classified as having a promising policy environment with some significant initiatives (S). Countries where there were only a few initiatives in policy, legislation or programmes were classified as having a limited policy environment (L).

TABLE 2 Legislation and policy on gender equity in education in Commonwealth countries in Africa, 1990-2003

	Legislation and policies enacted 1990-1995	**Legislation and policies enacted 1996-2003**	**School access and retention score (derived from table 1)**
Botswana	**S**	**S**	78
Cameroon	**N/a**	**N/a**	15
Gambia	**L**	**S**	26
Ghana	**S**	**V**	39
Kenya	**L**	**S**	26
Lesotho	**N/a**	**N/a**	42
Malawi	**S**	**S**	26
Mauritius	**N/a**	**N/a**	81
Mozambique	**L**	**S**	20
Namibia	**S**	**V**	72
Nigeria	**L**	**S**	20
Seychelles	**N/a**	**N/a**	N/a
Sierra Leone	**N/a**	**N/a**	N/a
South Africa	L	S	66
Swaziland	**N/a**	**N/a**	60
Tanzania	**L**	**S**	39
Uganda	**S**	**V**	54
Zambia	**L**	**S**	36
Zimbabwe	**S**	**L**	42

V = Vigorous policy and legislation backed up by well supported programmes
S = Some policy and legislation backed up by some programmes
L = Limited policy or legislation with only some implementation
N/a= No information on policy or legislation available

Table 2 shows effects that are not surprising. Countries in the same region, with some similar social contexts, can have markedly different access and retention scores depending on the policy climate. Thus Uganda, with a vigorous policy approach to gender equity from the late 1990s has a much higher score than Tanzania, where there has been only some official concern with these issues in this period. Similarly Ghana with clear government concern in this area has a much higher score than Nigeria where concern has only manifested itself relatively recently. Namibia, with very strong ministerial concern in the latter period with gender equity initiatives, outranks South Africa where there has been only some work in this area.

What does this analysis tell us about the political, economic and social climate in which scaling up will take place? It points to a number of features outside the education system (narrowly conceived) that appear crucial in sustaining initiatives to enhance girls access to and retention in schooling. These are peace and democratic governance, a thriving women's movement or widespread concern with gender equity, a well supported and well resourced public schooling system where regional inequalities are being redressed and an integration of public policy with regard to

education, health and economic policy. Some key issues concern how much women and girls are included in the formulation of policy and programmes, how these initiatives conceptualise gender equality – for example does this only concern equal numbers in access and achievement – and how the interface between the private realm of the family and the public realm of schooling is managed. In the next section we present four case studies of initiatives to improve access and retention in primary and secondary schooling and consider how aspects of the political, economic and social context signalled through an analysis of the implications of the scorecard have supported or undermined these. We also consider what additional information might be required to make the scorecard methodology reflect key dimensions that appear at the local level. We return to this issue in the final section where we discuss additions to the scorecard and some implications for scaling up.

Case studies: Initiatives to improve access and retention

The four case studies have been selected as instances of the areas highlighted through the scorecard methodology as important dimensions with regard to developing the context in which scaling up might take place. These are:

i) a thriving women's movement or activism amongst women and public concern about gender equity
ii) well supported and well resourced public education
iii) integration of public policy in education, health and social welfare
iv) peace and democratic governance

In selecting the case studies we did not wish to look at best case scenarios which offered no link to countries that did not share those conditions. Thus the case studies have been selected to describe complex instances of local initiative with regard to primary and secondary education that have attempted to come to terms with opposition to gender equality as well as enthusiasm to redress this. The case studies are based in very different countries with different histories concerning gender equity in education. Botswana and South Africa are both countries where, for many decades large numbers of girls and boys have had access to schooling, even though there have been differences in the conditions at school in rural and urban contexts and across marked racial divides in South Africa. Uganda and Kenya are both countries in which gender equity with regard to access has been problematic for some girls in some regions. In both countries however in the last few years there have been very strong initiatives from government and civil society to take forward work in relation to gender equity. In each case study we have been concerned with some of the implications of the local contexts for thinking about pedagogy, management and administration, the connection between private and public concerns and the involvement of local activists concerned with gender equity. The four case studies selected are of:

i) women's activism and community engagement with gender equity and access in Wajir district, Kenya amongst a largely Islamic and pastoralist community
ii) the expansion of public schooling for girls and boys in Mukono District, Uganda
iii) attempts at local level integration of public policy in education, health and social welfare through the Diphalana initiative for pregnant school girls in Botswana

iv) the utilisation of peace and democratic governance to challenge sexual violence in schools in South Africa.

The case studies are preliminary examinations of these contexts and draw on interviews with a number of key informants in each country conducted in May 2004 and a brief review of secondary literature. They are intended to be suggestive of areas for future work and policy development, in scaling up rather than in depth studies in their own right. In terms of the argument of this paper they are primarily used to consider what additional material is needed to supplement the scorecard methodology.

1. Women teachers' activism and community mobilisation for gender equity in education: The Wajir Girls' Primary School, Kenya

Wajir Girls' Primary School was set up in 1988. It came about as a result of a road accident in 1986, when a bus ferrying girls from their homes in Wajir to a single sex boarding school in Garissa, 200km away, crashed killing the girls on board. This led to an outcry that there was no school for girls in the district, and fuelled by the desire to create such a school, the community in Wajir raised funds and the primary school was established two years later. The people whose daughters died in the road accident were relatively affluent civil servants living in Wajir, and were able to raise funds themselves and to mobilise other members of the community to do so. This was an instance of cost sharing in education, widespread at the time in *harambee*, or self help schools (Rose, 2003) The community raised money to construct the school and contributed materials and skilled labour. The Government assisted by providing the vehicles to collect stones for the building. Today the community continues to raise funds for the maintenance of the school while the Government pays the teachers.

Since its inception Wajir Girls' Primary School has been immensely popular. It started with 40 girls (in Classes 1 and 2), with the aim of 'boosting girl child education,' according to Habiba Mohammed-Shuria, who has been the headteacher over the past 16 years. It now has a total enrolment of 576 girls. Wajir is significant not just as an example of community self help, but of activism on behalf of girls' education in a district where there is very strong opposition to educating girls and many boys.

Wajir Girls' Primary School is the only one of 72 primary schools in the district which is a single sex girls school, and the enrolment of girls in the school is much higher than the other mixed primary schools. According to Mrs. Mohammed-Shuria, "If you look at the enrolment of girls they are very few, and in some schools you can get less than 100, 50 or 40. In some schools there are only 2 girls". In primary schools in Wajir district, there are on average 2 boys for every girl. Poverty contributes to gender disparities in enrolment with parents tending to prioritise their sons' over their daughters' education where they have to decide which of their children they can afford to send to school. The opportunity costs of sending daughters to school are high in terms of the domestic labour girls are expected to perform. Schooling is perceived by many parents as irrelevant given the power of assumptions that the primary identity of girls is as potential wives and mothers. These assumptions are problematic for girls, especially as they approach puberty, a time when they are believed to be at risk of pregnancy if they leave the protection of their homes for school. But in a district and a province in which girls have generally been kept out of

school Wajir has managed not only to maintain the original enrolment of the daughters of civil servants living in the town, but also to expand this.

When girls form a small proportion of learners in co-educational contexts they encounter particular difficulties. Girls who do attend school at puberty risk ridicule from fellow pupils. In a study conducted in 2003 on gender relations and identities among young people girls in Garissa, a neighbouring district to Wajir, spoke about the tensions between boys and girls in coeducational schools. Boys were sometimes verbally abusive towards girls and women. Those girls who attended secondary schools described themselves as 'heroines' and associated school with 'freedom,' but were also 'put in their place' by boy pupils who taunted them as their 'wives' and laughed at their breasts and hips. Not surprisingly, these girls kept a low profile in class, and did not mix with boys except where they were formally required to do so, a strategy which allowed them to minimise the risks of being condemned as 'too modern' (Pattman and Chege, 2003).

Given these cultural and economic processes which mitigate against girls' enrolment and participation in school (especially as they approach puberty) the growth of the Wajir school is remarkable. Its popularity is linked with the immense commitment, enthusiasm and dedication of the head and the other teachers and its status as a single sex school. As such it is an example of women's activism to mobilise support for girls' education in very adverse conditions.

Founding the school as a single sex primary school was related to the form of schooling for girls the community would accept. According to Mrs Mohammed-Shuria:

> The reason why we started a girls' school [was] because the community did not want the girls to mix with the boys. That is why the enrolment is high here. The cultural norm overlooks the girls. In our girl school now the environment is friendly and the teachers are trained to be very friendly to the girls.

Parents were less likely to send their daughters to mixed schools partly because they did not want them mixing with boys, but these schools were also much less girl friendly with boys tending to dominate and girls being on the periphery. In the environment of Wajir school the teachers have put in place a different set of relationships with their pupils and the families of the area. The teachers at Wajir Girls' Primary School have been trained, partly through UNICEF workshops, to promote gender equality by helping the girls in the school and by engaging with their parents and the community. Their commitment to promoting girls' rights in education and more generally is clearly demonstrated in the following extract from our interview with Mrs. Mohammed-Shuria:

> They [the teachers] are taught on how to encourage girls to come to school and most of the time they volunteer to go into the villages and sensitise the community. They identify problems of girls and how to assist them, we also extend our service outside our school, and advise girls in other schools by guiding them and closely monitoring them on their performance

The voluntary activities of the teaching staff extend to teaching girls during the holidays.

Mrs. Mohammed-Shuria spoke about the 'task force' of women teachers at the school and how they were not only committed to enhancing the confidence and self esteem of girls in the school, but were also involved in engaging with members of the community 'to sensitise them of the importance of girls' education'. Workshops for the community have been held, assisted by UNICEF. In this way, the teachers feel they are addressing their girl pupils holistically, not just as pupils but as people with particular backgrounds and obligations and commitments at home. Sensitising the community to the importance of girl's education has involved raising the issue of girls' rights more generally, and in the workshops teachers have critically addressed cultural norms and practices such as the demanding domestic obligations girls are expected to fulfil and female genital mutilation. In this context this work has made these women teachers into activists for gender equity.

Three quarters of the pupils in the school come from pastoral backgrounds and have come to Wajir town largely because of poverty. Poverty has been a powerful driving force behind urban growth in the region, and according to a study by Ian Leggett the town is a 'refuge' to which many nomadic people 'have moved in the hope that it will offer them a better future.' He suggests that many pastoralists, contrary to popular myths about the incompatibility of schooling with their values, attach importance to education as a way of opening employment opportunities (Leggett, forthcoming).

In 1991 a dormitory was built and some orphaned girls and girls with disabilities were admitted as boarders. There are now a total of 80 boarders who pay no fees. UNICEF has helped with the costs of bedding and food for boarders. According to the head teacher boarders generally perform much better in school activities than the day girls, Five of the first group of boarders admitted to Wajir Girls Primary School (some of whom have disabilities) have subsequently gained entry to university. Mrs. Mohammed-Shuria attributes this success partly to the fact that boarders do not have the obligations and responsibilities expected of girls in their homes. In addition the school has electricity which makes it easier to do school work in the evenings.

The commitment of the teachers to the rights of girls to enjoy the benefits of education and to develop their capabilities is a key element in the success and popularity of Wajir Girls' Primary School. Mrs. Mohammed-Shuria described how she and the other women teachers (six of the ten teachers are women; one is the deputy head) are very conscious of acting as role models for the girls and were pleased that the girls could see women in important positions. She stressed her concern to make schooling the norm for girls and create a 'girl friendly' school by engaging in a range of activities which went well beyond teaching the official curriculum and well beyond the school.

Many girls fail to complete their schooling, but the task force of teachers has been working with local chiefs, education officials and local leaders to develop appropriate policies, particularly to deter very early marriages and promote progression to secondary school. It seems that the experience of going to a single sex school has developed the confidence of many girls and perhaps made it more easy rather than more difficult for them to interact with boys in a secondary school environment. In

2003, 45 girls at Wajir Girls' Primary School took the National Standard exam for entrance into secondary school and 40 passed and went on to secondary school. However, most girls still do not complete their primary education, and, if they do so, only a minority go on to secondary education partly because of the prohibitive fees and because of parental concerns about their daughters mixing with boys.

The perception among families in the Wajir community, according to Leggett, is that Wajir Girls' Primary School is a 'good' school, 'whether that means exam based academic performance or that the girls are more confident' (Leggett, 2001). This is reinforced, as Mrs. Mohammed-Shuria pointed out, by the successes of girls who have been educated at the school and gone on get jobs and to support their families. She noted:

> Through the creation of awareness [sensitising parents to the importance of educating their daughters] and after so many girls have gone to school and some are working, they are seeing the fruits of their education, and attitudes [as consequence of this] are changing…. Those who have started working are assisting their parents so they feel girls are more helpful than the boys because of their experience of schooling. That is helping the community to accept girls' education.

The popularity of the school has generated its own problems as the school's resources – classroom space, teachers, and texts – have failed to keep up with the growing numbers of pupils. One effect of this is to place even more demands on the time and energy of the teachers and to take advantage of their goodwill and dedication. There are only 9 classrooms for 15 classes, and 10 teachers for these 15 classes. This means that some classes are taught outside under trees. It also means that teachers do 'multi shifts' whereby they teach in the morning and return in the afternoon or combine classes. Seating space is restricted in the classrooms and there are not enough desks for all the pupils.

Wajir Girls' Primary School has been a success, partly because of the long standing commitment of the head and the women teachers at the school to the cause of girls' education and the in depth work they have done with the community to build acceptance for this. They have promoted girls' education using a school model particularly appropriate to the context in which they work – a single sex primary school with boarding facilities and a girl friendly pedagogy. Wajir Girls' Primary School is not without difficulties. It too has problems of retention, of inadequate resources, and over reliance on mobilising work of teachers. But what this case study indicates is that women's activism, even in areas where girls' education is viewed with considerable hostility, can work with local norms and model good practice and a good environment for girls that can overcome suspicions. There has been a fruitful negotiation between the private concerns of families and the public concerns of women activists, government officials and IGOs. While activism is not a substitute for an excellent programme for access and retention which require substantial government resourcing, it appears a very important component, working with local aspirations for education to build support for girls' education on which a well funded government programme can then build. Therefore drawing on women's activism offers considerable opportunities, although limits to this are set by difficulties in securing adequate provision of education.

2. Expanding public education: Mukono District, Uganda

Through the 1990s there has been a huge expansion in primary enrolment in Uganda. With the introduction of Universal Primary Education in 1997, which provided free primary education for the first four children in any family and importantly stipulated that these should not just be sons if there were also daughters, the numbers of children in schools has increased at a great rate. From 2000 gender became a key concern within the Ministry of Education with the launching of the National Strategy for Girls. A number of programmes working at district level have taken up gender as a key theme in their planning and practice.

Table 3 gives details of the increasing numbers of children in school and how the NER among girls and boys has virtually doubled over the past ten years.

Table 3 Primary NER by gender, Uganda, 1990-2000

	Number of girls 6-12 enrolled in school	Number of boys 6-12 enrolled in school	Total children 6-12 enrolled in school	Girls NER %	Boys NER %	Total NER %
1990	787,556	966,885	1,754,221	48	58	53
1995	988,076	1,092,206	2,080,282	52	58	55
1997	1,718,501	1,905,185	3,623,679	83	92	87
2003	2,916,551	2,894,087	5,810,638	99.9	99.7	99.8

Source: Uganda, 2000; Uganda, 2003

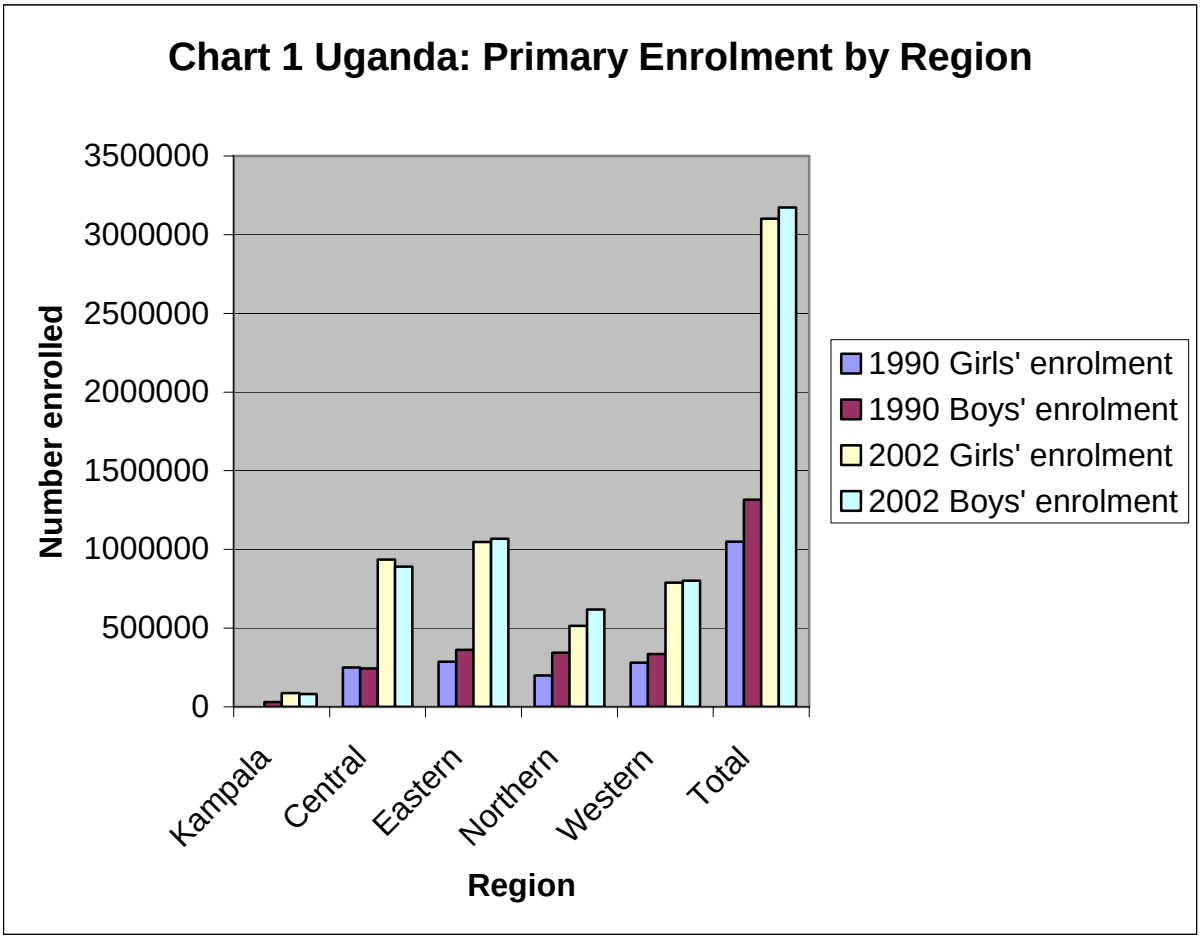
This huge expansion of access to primary education has been facilitated by vigorous government policy to support the access of children to school, partly by taking the burden of fees for the first four children off families and charging this against taxes. The huge public support for primary education for girls and boys has also facilitated this expansion, as has the actions of numerous NGOs working to support teachers, improve facilities and review curriculum. Development assistance through bilateral programmes and the work of intergovernmental organisations and international NGOs has also contributed to this success.

One feature of this expansion has been a concern to recognise the regional inequalities within Uganda and in developing programmes to expand access to consider reaching all regions. Table 4 charts changing regional dimensions of enrolment by district and Chart 1 represents this graphically.

Table 4 Primary regional enrolment by gender in Uganda, 1990 –2002

	Kampala	Central	Eastern	Northern	Western	Total
1990 Girls' Enrolment	33,900	250,183	286,372	198,451	281,257	1050193
1990 Boys' Enrolment	30,797	244,615	361,948	344,284	335,077	1316721
2002 Girls' Enrolment	88,005	934,977	1,047,448	515,295	788401	3,101,020
2002 Boys' enrolment	82,046	889,751	1,066,880	618,276	800844	3,172,248

Source: Derived from Uganda, 2000; Uganda, 2004; Appendix 4



It can be seen that the huge rise in primary enrolments has taken place for girls as well as boys and this rise has been evident in all regions, although the data is difficult to

interpret as it is based on enrolment, rather than attendance figures and regional GERs and NERs are not available. However differences in the scale of the regional expansion in enrolment are evident. While in the Central and Eastern region enrolments for boys and girls have more than doubled while in the Western and Northern regions they have just doubled. In the Northern region the rate of expansion for girls has been considerably larger than for boys. In the 1990 the numbers of children enrolled in primary school was low throughout the country. In 2002 the expansion of enrolments shows a much more uneven pattern.

There are 56 districts in Uganda, and of these 26 districts showed higher enrolment numbers for girls than boys in primary schools, and 8 higher enrolment numbers for girls than boys in secondary schools in 2003 (Uganda, 2004). These districts tend to encompass the main urban conurbations and the areas surrounding them. One of the districts with higher levels of girls' than boys' enrolment at both primary and secondary levels is Mukono, a relatively affluent district close to Kampala.

We have looked in some depth at Mukono to understand what features of the local context have contributed to the considerable growth in enrolments and retention. In the central region, of which Mukono is part, human development, as measured by indicators such as household expenditure, GDP per capita literacy rate, gross enrolment rate in primary school and life expectancy is particularly high compared to other regions of Uganda. In 1997, Mukono had the fourth highest human development index in the central region and ranked seventh out of the 56 districts in Uganda (UNDP, 1997). Mukono has been a district where considerable industrial growth has occurred accompanied by a growth in employment. The district has good transport and telecommunications infrastructure and this has encouraged the establishment of a number of large and medium sized enterprises including: Nile Breweries, The Sugar Co-operation of Uganda, Electric Cables, Power Engineering, Poly Bags Uganda and Coffee Processing. Because of its proximity to Kampala and excellent infrastructure Mukono has been chosen to pilot certain NGO projects promoting gender equity, thus raising the profile of such concerns in the district.

EMIS data from Mukono for 2002 and 2003 has been analysed in Appendix 3. The graphs below (Charts 2 and 3) show the high level of retention in primary school by boys and girls. While there is some reduction in numbers enrolled in higher primary classes the proportion of girls and boys who remain is the same.

Chart 2: Male and Female Retention in Primary School, Mukono District 2002-3

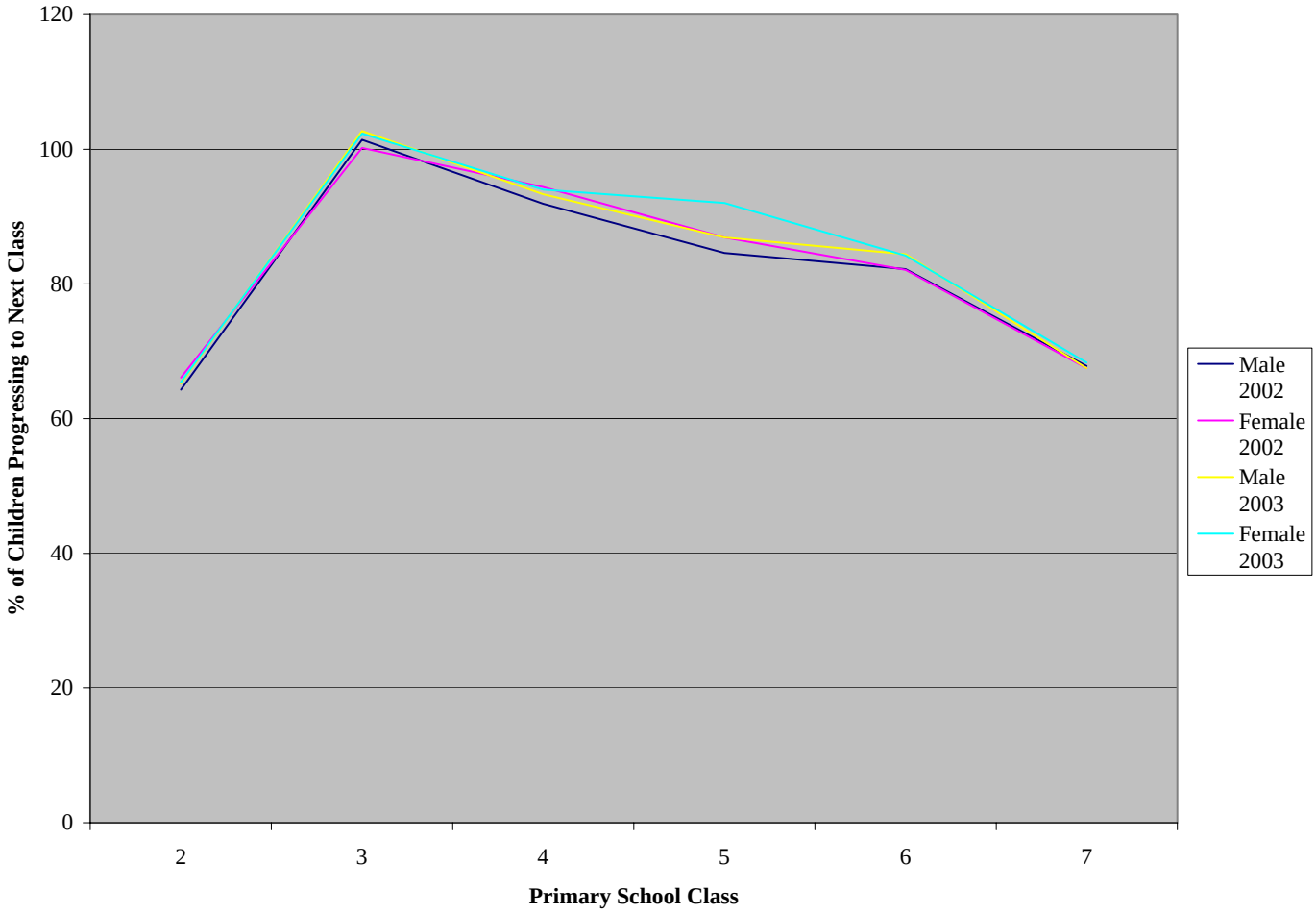


Chart 3: Male and Female Retention in Secondary School, Mukono District 2003

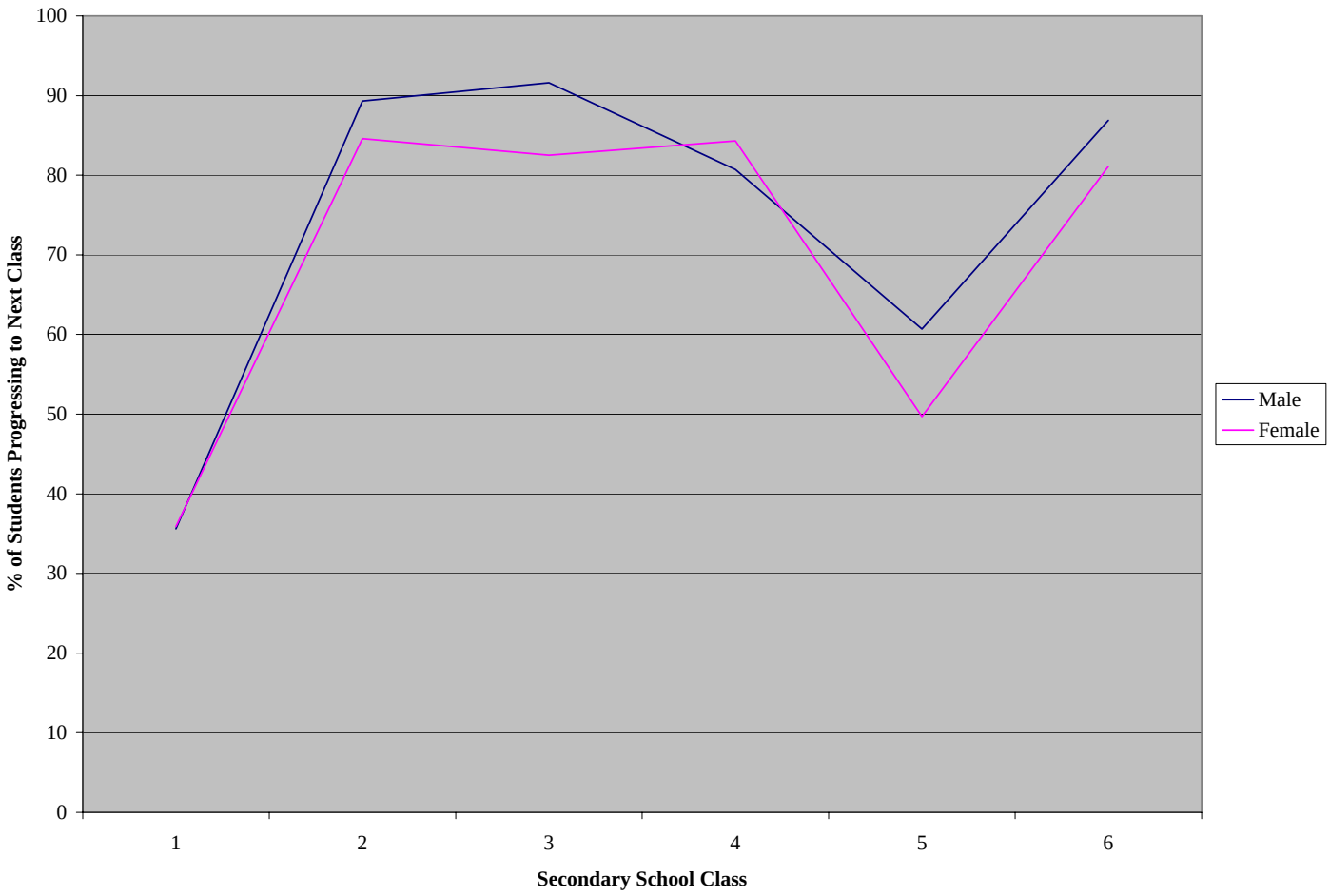


Chart 3 shows that for the first two years of secondary school in this district there is gender parity in progression, however fewer girls than boys progress in the upper years of secondary school, while the proportion of boys progressing to the final two years of secondary school does fall, the proportion of girls falls much more sharply, to just 50% of those enrolled in senior 4.

The high levels of retention in school in Mukono have been attributed by representatives of UNICEF and FAWE in Uganda to the high value which parents living in this peri-urban area attach to girls' education, either because they have themselves had some years of schooling or because they anticipate work in the formal sector for their daughters and know that this requires school education. The relative affluence of women and men in the district, where employment rates have been good, means that they can afford the school uniforms and the school meals.

The picture in Mukono points to dividends in terms of girls' access to and retention in school that derive from parents who are educated with good employment prospects. The supportive policy environment amplifies these effects as can be seen from the ways in which teacher training for the district contributes to enhanced understanding of gender equity initiatives.

With the introduction of UPE in 1997 there was a huge expansion in enrolment and hundreds of untrained or licensed teachers were employed to meet the new demands. A number of teacher development projects were initiated. Some, like the Teacher Development Management Scheme (TDMS) were introduced nationwide. TDMS has been operating at the Shimoni College in Kampala and has a specialist concern with promoting gender equality in education and conveying information about HIV/AIDs. TDMS has been particularly well received by student teachers at the College about 75% of whom are women from Mukono. As part of the work of TDMS co-ordinating tutors are utilised as important mediators between policy makers and teachers and between policy makers and representatives of the community and parents. They sensitise teachers to the gender dynamics of classrooms and the kinds of identities and relationships boys and girls forge at school. Students are encouraged to see their pupils holistically as sons and daughters of parents with particular views about education and the rights and obligations of boys and girls.

The deputy principal of the College, Mrs. Rose, outlined the practice:

> Boys and girls are supposed to be given equal opportunity and the facilities in schools must cater for boys and girls. They must not sideline the girls. This has born fruit. It came under the policy of UPE. TDMS has to take it out in the field. At the beginning of every term holiday the tutors in the core PTCs go out and get some training in selected topics where they get national training and then they go in the field. They could be encouraging the girl child in the field, or gender or HIV/AIDS, anything that we want to put across is actually put across through TDMS.

Teachers on the programme encourage rural and urban parents, like those in Mukono, to articulate their problems and concerns. For example, while trying to persuade parents to value the importance of education for their daughters as well as their sons, teachers must listen to criticisms parents might level against schools for not being appropriate or safe places for their daughters. In Mukono parents have raised questions about school facilities and sometimes accuse the schools of not helping girls to improve, or not encouraging them to do mathematics.

The expansion of enrolment and retention for boys and girls in Mukono is part of a national trend, but it has some salient local features. Firstly, the growth of employment in the district gives a clear indication to parents of opportunities that can flow from schooling. Secondly the mediation of government policy on gender equity through an active engagement of teachers in a programme like TDMS, as put into practice in Mukono, leads to teachers' dialogue with parents and allows a space for disagreements and concerns to be raised. Thirdly the integration of gender equity issues into teacher training points to the long term sustainability of initiatives, even were there to be an economic downturn and the labour market push factors into schooling might diminish. Lastly, the linking of work on gender equity in schooling with discussion of protection against HIV/AIDs in TDMS as put into practice in Mukono makes for co-ordinated public policy.

In Mukono we therefore see opportunities provided by the government's policy initiatives on gender equity and expanded public provision being complemented by

economic development, pedagogic innovations in teacher training and community dialogue. However there are some limits on the agenda for gender equity this provides, particularly with regard to the higher number of girls than boys leaving secondary school. There is also a question as to whether in times of industrial downturn the aspiration for girls and boys' education that has been nurtured by economic growth in Mukono would be sustained. The regional differences with regard to the expansion of enrolments in Uganda point to the importance of taking account of different political economic and social contexts as scaling up takes place. Nonetheless Mukono confirms the importance of government policy on access and retention for girls, linking with teacher development initiatives and strategies for economic growth.

3. Local projects for the integration of public policy: the Diphalana initiative in Botswana

The Diphalana initiative is an example of how concerns across a range of social sectors - health, education and social welfare - can be integrated to provide an imaginative response to the issue of schoolgirl pregnancy. This case study brings out some of the complexities of scaling up in a terrain marked by sharply differing views on gender equity and schoolgirl pregnancy.

Unmarried pregnant girls in Botswana bear a burden of stigma. An unmarried girl who is pregnant is referred to as 'tshenyo' meaning defiled, spoilt, or damaged, and the child born out of wedlock is called 'letlaleanya' meaning the 'one who comes feeding' or illegitimate. Chilisa (2002) notes how these sorts of assumptions impact negatively on the social life of unmarried pregnant girls and their sense of self worth. This exclusion can have powerful repercussions with regard to retention in school for these girls and possibly their children.

Legislation introduced in 1978 requires pregnant girls to withdraw from school as soon as they know they are pregnant. It allows for re-entry, but stipulates that this 'shall be at least one calendar year after cessation of pregnancy and subject to the written approval of the Minister' (Botswana, 1978, 58-68). If the girl is to resume her studies, this must be in a different school than the one from which she was withdrawn. Pregnant girls may not sit school exams 'until at least six months after such pregnancy has ceased.' Schoolboys who are fathers of children are also required by law to be withdrawn from school, but the time a boy has to stay away from school is not specified. Unlike the mother, he does not have to attend another school when he returns. These stipulations are viewed as a deterrent to pregnancy, and as a means to ensure that the health of the mothers is restored and babies cared for. However questions have been raised about whether the needs of young mothers and their children have been adequately addressed by this legislation. A young mother who returns to a school as stipulated is likely to find herself attending school much further away from her home, where she knows fewer people and where she is likely to be more cut off from her baby. If she does not return to school and fails to take her exams, her prospects of finding good employment are much diminished.

In 1996 a pilot scheme, known as Diphalana, was initiated to enable school girl mothers to continue with their education, without taking a substantial break while

their babies were cared for at school. The project began in response to concerns about the numbers of school drop outs, including those relating to pregnancy in Mahalapye, a large village in central Botswana. These were among the highest in the country. Questions were raised in Mahalapye about what happened to girls who were forced out of school because they were pregnant, and whether this made them more susceptible to becoming pregnant again, and also to contracting HIV/AIDS.

Mr. Mompati Merafhe, the MP for Mahalapye, approached UNICEF, who were funding a YWCA programme for teenage mothers in Gaborone, for help in developing a project. After consultations which included the village leadership and the Ministry of Education, the Diphalana initiative was proposed. This aimed to retain schoolgirl mothers in their school and to integrate them with other children and give them life skills teaching which, it was hoped, would help to prevent them from becoming pregnant again. After inquiries by Mr. Merafhe about where the scheme could be piloted, the head teacher at Pekenene Community Junior Secondary School, who had a strong commitment to gender equity issues, volunteered her school . Land was allocated by local government for building a nursery at the school where young mothers would be able to leave their babies while they attended lessons. In response to this community initiative the Ministry of Education waived the legislation relating to schoolgirl pregnancies for Pekenene School and allowed the schools' resources to be drawn on to facilitate the running of Diphalana.

In the eight years the scheme has been in operation, pregnant schoolgirls have been allowed to continue at Pekenene for as long as they wish. Most take some time off school for maternity leave. Schoolwork and other resources are then sent to their homes. The school has developed a curriculum with some distance education modules that can be followed at this time. When girls are certified fit to return to school by a doctor, they return with their babies. The school has crèche facilities which can take babies as young as 4 months. The school employs baby sitters to care for the young children while the schoolgirl mothers are in class. Nappies and milk are provided. At break and lunchtimes the young mothers breast feed their children. The Diphalana project requires that the father, if he is at school, share the responsibility of looking after the baby at break and lunch times. According to the headteacher the effect of this has been to deter boys acting 'irresponsibly' and engaging in casual sex.

> The boys thought that they were saying I won't be caught making a girl pregnant. Because the policy was that if a boy here makes a girl pregnant then the baby is at the centre. Then during break both him and the girl will go and check on the baby ….that was deterrent enough you know.

Boys and girls are taught parenting skills by community members and teachers. In addition they are educated about HIV/AIDS and ways of engaging in safer sex. However, unlike many schools in Botswana, family planning services were not provided at the school and condoms were not issued. The sex education programme is not, according to the head teacher, moralistic or judgmental, but aims to encourage young women to protect themselves and not to engage in unprotected sex again.

> It's [the project] made it easier [to address them]. We do talk to the girls. We educate them. We take it from the point of view that someone might have engaged in unsafe sex that is why they have fallen

> pregnant. And even if it is the case are we going to punish the person or are we going to show that this was mistake and learn and others also accept it was just a mistake and the mistake addressed instead of making it seem like they have committed a very serious crime.

Fears that Diphalana would lead to an escalation of schoolgirl pregnancies at Pekenene were unfounded. When the project started in 1996 there was one pregnancy in the school, and another in 1997. In 1998 there were no pregnancies. Between 1999- 2001 there were four to five pregnancies for each year. These figures compare favourably with the two other junior secondary schools in Mahalapye which have had 34 and 44 pregnancies respectively for the years 1996-2001 compared with 17 for Pekenene (Mafele et al, 2001). Many requests from parents of pregnant daughters at other schools to join Diphalana have been received, but have had to be turned down in view of Government policy on this.

The head teacher has been concerned to integrate the schoolgirl mothers into school, so that they have not been made to appear different and abnormal.

> We don't want them to wear maternity dresses because if they are wearing maternity dresses then it will be a public thing like she is pregnant why is she wearing something that's different from others, because they wear uniform like everyone else. So we just say buy uniform...If it is small we ask the parents to buy bigger to accommodate them as they grow. We also in class are careful as to how they are being treated. We treat them as normal as we don't make any special conditions for them. We try and accommodate them and support them.

Both pupils and teachers have had a number of workshops to sensitise them to the issues and overcome the inclination to stigmatise pregnant girls. Initially there was some opposition from some pupils and teachers to the initiative, but this has started to wane. According to the head teacher:

> A change of mindset was needed – change of attitude of teachers and students to accept that there can be someone who is pregnant who can go on in that school and they can help that person throughout supporting because previously if someone falls pregnant there would be those you know teachers not feeling comfortable teaching someone who's like that. [But now] It is our way of life we are just positive about it. We don't even think we are different from the rest of the school. We have embraced it. It's our way of life. Even the boys have accepted it.

This view of changing perceptions amongst teachers and pupils needs to be set against some opposition to the initiative from parents and officials. These took the view that an initiative which was not punitive would fail to act as a deterrent, and would even encourage girls to get pregnant again. The head teacher recalls:

> …A lot of opposition at the beginning, [much emotion] from parents, from the Ministry. Nobody thought it would have a positive impact. They thought it would encourage girls to get pregnant, they thought it was going to be a school known for pregnancy. But at the end of the day the project has been

> good. Mostly the men were totally against it. Some parents who are mothers were also against it. It only becomes an eye opener when it is my child who falls pregnant and then I start to worry that she is going to loose her chance for education.

But while tolerance of the project has increased it has been a sensitive issue to elicit community support for. A UNICEF evaluation report compiled in 2001 praised the project but noted the lack of community mobilisation and support. The report found that Pekenene students were targeted and abused by some members of the community, notably working men, because their school was 'known to have a facility that takes care of their babies.' The community had not participated, as was hoped, in fundraising, and there had been a tendency to rely on UNICEF for funds. The report noted 'indifference…on the part of the district leadership' and a 'lack of involvement 'in the project 'at grass roots level.' It was suggested that this might stem from a feeling that the Project, because it was restricted to one school in the district, did not benefit the community more generally (Mafela et al, 2001).

Despite quite strongly divided views in Mahalapye on the Diphalane initiative, in 2000 a circular was passed by the Ministry of Education which reduced the stay away period for pregnant students throughout the country from 12 to 6 months. There are divided views on whether this relaxation has resulted from the success of the Diphalane initiative or not. However what it does indicate is a concern by the government to move beyond its 1978 policy and facilitate retention for pregnant schoolgirls with a focus shifting aware from blame and punishment and more toward the future prospects of the girls and their children.

A number of key issues arise from this case study. Firstly, gender equity initiatives generally evoke strong feelings of support and opposition touching so centrally on areas where private views intersect with public policy. However adventurous approaches and risk taking in public policy can sometimes shift private perceptions. These very local initiatives can often best go to scale if the links between education and health work are maximised (this was only partly the case in Diphalana). Gains may be very slow and require considerable investment in time, money and energy plus a strategy to ground the initiative in some community and government support in order to develop sustainability. Again, despite the revised government circular, this was only partly achieved in Diphalana. As in Mukono and Wajir, however, we see initiatives to promote girls access and retention being accompanied by innovation with regard to pedagogy (the distance versions of the curriculum) and the important contribution made by women with strong commitments to gender equity, like the head teacher at Pekenene. Creativity around public policy at the health, education and social welfare interface therefore creates opportunities for gender equity initiatives, but these are constrained because of strongly held local views against gender equity initiatives that need time to negotiate and change.

4. Building on peace and democratic governance: Challenging sexual violence in schools in South Africa

South Africa provides a case study of some of the difficulties entailed in sustaining concern with gender equity in education. Racism, sexism and the violent repression of student uprisings in South Africa from 1976 were particularly pernicious features of

the apartheid regime. The demand that gender equity be addressed as a key part of building a new society was widely accepted as the negotiations for peace and democratic government took place and specific concerns with gender equity were written into key policy documents (ANC, 1994; NEPI, 1993; Kallaway et al, 1997; Morrell and Moletsane, 2002). The Constitution of 1996 provided a very clear framework for gender equity giving expression to the views of a wide range of organisations that articulated demands for gender equity in many areas of policy existed in the early 1990s. (Bazzili, 1991; Masngaliso, 2000; Goetz and Hasim, 2002)

Because of the good levels of girls' enrolment, attendance and completion of schooling at all levels, access and retention in education were not the major focus of attention in the demands of either gender activists or education campaigners (Chisholm, 2004). However the absence of a gender equitable curriculum, inadequate focus on gender with regard to pedagogy and the high levels of sexual violence reported in schools were matters of considerable concern. In 1996 a Gender Equity Task Team (GETT) was appointed by the Minister to advise on appropriate structures to address these and related issues concerning girls' experience in schooling (Wolpe, Quinlan, Martinez, 1997). This initiative was one of a range of measures put in place to give concern with gender a high profile. These included the establishment of the Office on the Status of Women in the President's office, the appointment of a Gender Commission, the development of a number of courses in gender and women's studies in higher education institutions and the popularisation of a Women's Budget to make the budget more sensitive and accountable to the needs of women (Budlender, 2000; Baden, Hasim, Meintjes, 1998).

GETT reported in 1997 recommending the establishment of a Gender Equity Unit in a key decision making position in the Department of Education and that resources be put into Gender Focal Points in all the provincial Ministries of Education (Wolpe, Quinlan, Martinez, 1997, 229-251). However these recommendations were not fully implemented. The Gender Equity Unit was not accorded the status and power recommended in the report and the gender machineries in provincial ministries often lacked expertise and influence (Ramagoshi, 2004).

The constrained positions of the gender machineries in relation to the proposals outlined by GETT did not mean that all concern with gender was sidelined in the national and provincial Departments of Education. In 1999 the Department of Education flagged the importance of improving treatment of women and girls in schools as a key objective in the struggle to build awareness and halt the HIV/AIDs epidemic (South Africa, 1999). However, in effect, in the initial stages too little money and training was allocated to lifeskills education to ensure the development of insights into gender equity and capacity to build schools that were responsive to the needs of boys and girls (Moletsane et al, 2002; Harrison, 2002). From 2000 the Department co-ordinated an extensive revision of the Curriculum with some prominence given to the importance of gender equity as part and parcel of a general concern with inclusion and human rights (Chisholm, 2003). In 2002 a guide for teachers on issues of gender in schools was published, although distribution was not extensive (South Africa, 2002).

These initiatives were undertaken in a climate where there was widespread concern at high levels of sexual violence in school, reported in a number of studies using a range

of different methods (Jewkes et al, 200; Jewkes et al, 2002; Human Rights Watch, 2001; Unterhalter, 2003). In addition studies of teachers' careers, the gender regimes of schools, and participation in School Governance Bodies highlighted persistent forms of inequity in schooling (Chisholm, 2002; Kent, 2004; Unterhalter et al, 2004; Adams and Wahid, 2003; Soudien, 2003).

Thus despite the positive gains that came from peace and the development of democracy the gains of the mid 1990s did not go to scale. Activists in the women's movement who had been a key force in the anti apartheid democratic struggle became absorbed in institution building for the new state and found themselves in senior positions in government, higher education and the corporate sector. The grassroots connection and accountability and the mobilising tactics of the 1980s and the early 1990s were not maintained. Education, once a site of mass opposition, became a space for the consolidation of new government programmes on the curriculum and forms of school governance. Gender was a muted theme. Women did not use School Governing Bodies to advance demands concerning gender equity and the gender budget initiative did not look at Education spending.

The high levels of sexual violence that accompanied the considerable achievements of democratisation and deracialisation of schooling were a matter of considerable concern Some commentators have begun to pose questions as to whether the increase in reported sexual violence might be a form of backlash against women's entry into some positions of power and authority, women's access into in higher education and the success of girls in school. This backlash might be partly driven by the uneven outcomes of peace in South Africa. Economic rewards from democracy have not been equally distributed in the society, where unemployment remains as high as 40% in some areas. In conditions where job opportunities have not expanded uniformly and where social development has been uneven, it may well be that women and girls who make gains through school and work become an accessible target for anger and frustration.

The South African case study signals themes that have recurred in the previous examples. The failure to address gender equity as both an issue of public policy and private concern may have contributed to a climate in which sexual violence can easily go unchecked because the resources to challenge this in terms of ideas, people and perceptions have been insufficiently mobilised. This climate is probably exacerbated by continuing inequalities between provinces and within localities with regard to resources for education. While concerns with gender equity in curriculum change and new pedagogies have been developed on paper, inadequate resources have been allocated to put these into practice in teacher education programmes and in new learning materials. The management and administration of gender equity through bureaucratic structures in provincial and national departments of education has been only a partial success. These units, without a connection with a women's movement and locally based gender activists, have not been able to realise their potential. This case study points to important opportunities for scaling up provided by a climate of national reconstruction and supportive moves by government. But the limitations on this are indicated by the need to pay attention to sustaining initiatives such as gender machineries through backward linkages into popular mobilisation and forward strategising with senior decision makers. In the absence of these linkages gains made in one phase may become weakened in a later phase.

Conclusion: Towards a better scorecard

The analysis from the case studies has helped to highlight some key missing features from the scorecard as it currently exists. The existence of a women's movement or other forms of mobilisation for gender equity by NGOs or CBOs seems a key component of the success of initiatives like Wajir and Diphalane. The lack of communication between women and gender activists and policy makers appears one of the reasons the gender equity dynamic of the 1990s in South Africa has faltered. It therefore appears that paying attention to scaling up will also entail paying attention to women's mobilisation, the inclusion of women in key decision-making bodies and a continued dynamic dialogue between the two. In the future development of any scorecard this might well be an important measure.

All the case studies provided examples of innovative pedagogies associated with the initiatives to enhance access and retention: the emphasis of a girl friendly pedagogy in Wajir, the use of teachers to communicate government policy in dialogue with communities in Mukono, the development of a distance module in Pekekane and the extensive curriculum change in South Africa. The current scorecard methodology has no space for mapping this creative drive. While curriculum and pedagogy initiatives will always be local and specific, noting them appears another important dimension of mapping the terrain in which scaling up will happen.

The mediation of public policy across private anxieties of families with regard to marriage, puberty and sexuality was a feature of all the case studies. These cultural and social dimensions are very hard to measure. All pointed to ways in which the quality of schooling offered and the opportunities that existed for dialogue about this was either able to allay local anxieties or take away some of the hostility within this was framed. The failure to undertake this process from the grassroots level in South Africa may be linked to some of the backlash in terms of sexual violence. Thus a key other dimension that requires consideration in any scorecard is an analysis of social and cultural relations and the opportunity for dialogue, debate and the exploration of differences, particularly with regard to the public-private interface.

In conclusion we want to stress that in drawing up the scorecard presented in the first section we have aimed to suggest a means of assessing progress toward the MDGs in ways that are publicly accountable, take account of local diversity and provide some kind of map of how progress on scaling up can be assessed. We have interpreted access and retention more broadly than just numbers in school. We have sought to develop a methodology for scoring that highlights how access and retention are part of a progression toward greater gender equity in a society. Our case studies have highlighted additional areas that a scorecard might need to build in to make it more sensitive to local contexts, but at the same time a useful form of assessing social justice and gender equity in education across Commonwealth countries.

Appendix 1 Calculating the scorecard on girls' primary access retention and gender equity

The scorecard was constructed using four measures deemed useful as indicators of girls' access to and retention school. The indicators selected were girls' primary attendance, girls' survival rate over 5 years of primary schooling, girls' secondary NER and the Gender Development Index (GDI).

Table 5 provides the information with regard to all these measures for the Commonwealth countries in Africa using data from the EFA Monitoring Report 2003, Unicef's *State of the World's Children 2003* and the Human Development Report 2003 and countries' own EFA 2000 assessments where necessary.

Table 5: Selected indicators of girls' access to and retention in education c 2000

	Net girls' primary school attendance % 1992 – 2002	Girls' survival rate over 5 years in primary schooling % 2000*	Girls' secondary NER 2000*	Gender Development Index (GDI)
Botswana	85	89.0	63.0**	0.611
Cameroon	71	N/a	N/a	0.488
Gambia	40	62.8**	23.2	0.457
Ghana	74	65.2	28.3**	0.564
Kenya	73	45.8	22.8**	0.488
Lesotho	68	80.5	25.7	0.497
Malawi	73	42.6	22.8**	0.378
Mauritius	94.5***	78.7	65.4	0.770
Mozambique	47	37.2	7.6	0.341
Namibia	78	92.9	43.8	0.622
Nigeria	54	50##	28#	0.450
Seychelles	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a
Sierra Leone	39	N/a	24.0	N/a
South Africa	84	62.5**	67.0**	0.678
Swaziland	71	85.4	47.2	0.536
Tanzania	51	93.2	4.6**	0.396
Uganda	87	94.3	10.1**	0.483
Zambia	67	78.1	17.7**	0.376
Zimbabwe	86	73.1	38.7**	0.489

Source: UNESCO, 2003; UNICEF, 2004; UNDP, 2003; Kenya, 2000; Malawi, 2000; Nigeria (2003); Seychelles, 2000; Tanzania, 2000; Uganda, 2000; Zambia, 2000; Zimbabwe, 2000;

*Where no figure for 2000 is available the latest year given in the countries' EFA monitoring reports have been used. These are generally 1997 or 1998, but the Malawi NER is for 1995 and the Nigeria NER for 1996.

** UNESCO Institute for Statistics estimate

*** No UNICEF figure on primary school attendance is available for Mauritius. The girls' primary NER for 2000 has been used instead (extracted from UNESCO, 2003).

No secondary NER available. Secondary GER has been used extracted from UNICEF, 2004

Estimate based on UNICEF, 2003; Nigeria, 2000.

On the basis of the information contained in Table 5, a scoring system was developed on a scale of 1-5 with regard to the four different measures. The thinking with regard

to the scoring system was related to the 2015 MDG and the Beijing Declaration of 1995 as follows:

Table 6: Criteria for scoring achievements with regard to access and achievement in girls' education

Score	Criteria to achieve the score
5	Excellent conditions. Already at or extremely well positioned to achieve gender equity in 2015 and fulfil the aspirations of the Beijing declaration
4	Very good conditions. Substantial achievement with regard to gender equity and well on the path to achieving 2015 goal with regard to access, some gains needed with regard to improving retention
3	Good conditions. Achievement towards 2015 evident, but further work necessary with regard to access and retention
2	Poor conditions. Achievement towards 2015 slow. Considerable and intensive work needed with regarded to access and retention
1	Very poor conditions. 2015 unlikely to be reached without massive mobilisation on all fronts to secure access and achievement

Using the criteria outlined in Table 6, the following scoring system (Table 7) was developed with regard to the indicators in Table 5.

Table 7: Scores and indicators

Score	**Net girls' primary attendance**	**Girls' primary survival rate**	**Girls' secondary NER**	**GDI**
5	90% and above	90% and above	60% and above	0.800 and above
4	80-89%	80-89	50-59	0.700-0.799
3	70-79	70-79	40-49	0.600-0.699
2	60-69	60-69	30-39	0.500-0.599
1	59% and below	59% and below	29% and below	Below 0.499

On the basis of the scores developed in Table 7 all the countries were given raw scores in the four areas of measurement (Table 8).

Table 8: Raw country scores in 4 areas of measurement

	Score on net girls' primary attendance	Score on girls' primary survival rate	Score on girls' secondary NER	GDI score
Botswana	4	4	5	3
Cameroon	3	N/a	N/a	1
Gambia	1	2	1	1
Ghana	3	2	1	2
Kenya	3	1	1	1
Lesotho	2	4	1	1
Malawi	3	1	1	1
Mauritius	5	3	5	4
Mozambique	1	1	1	1
Namibia	3	5	3	3
Nigeria	1	1	1	1
Seychelles				
Sierra Leone	1		1	
South Africa	4	2	5	3
Swaziland	3	4	3	2
Tanzania	1	4	1	1
Uganda	4	5	1	1
Zambia	2	3	1	1
Zimbabwe	4	3	2	1

The raw scores in Table 8 were then weighted in order to develop an overall percentage score. The weighting was designed to reflect the relative importance of the measures with regards to indicating improvements in access and retention. The following modifiers were applied:

Girls' Primary attendance x 1.25
Girls' survival rate in first 5 years of primary schooling x 2.5 (twice as important as attendance)
Girls' secondary NER x 1.75 (slightly more important than primary attendance as an indicator of progression and potential to educate future women teachers and administrators with concerns for gender equality)
GDI x 2.5 (twice as important as primary attendance as an indicator of women's status in the society)

Table 9: Weighted scores in four measures and final scorecard

	Net girls' primary attendance (Score Table 8 x 1.25)	Girls' primary survival rate (score Table 8 x 2.5)	Girls secondary NER (Score Table 8 x 1.75)	GDI (Score Table 8 x 2.5)	Scorecard total (sum of weighted measures divided by 4)
Botswana	5	10	8.75	7.5	7.813
Cameroon	3.75	N/a	N/a	2.5	N/a
Gambia	1.25	5	1.75	2.5	2.625
Ghana	3.75	5	1.75	5	3.875
Kenya	3.75	2.5	1.75	2.5	2.625
Lesotho	2.5	10	1.75	2.5	4.188
Malawi	3.75	2.5	1.75	2.5	2.625
Mauritius	6.25	7.5	8.75	10	8.125
Mozambique	1.25	2.5	1.75	2.5	2.000
Namibia	3.75	12.5	5.25	7.5	7.250
Nigeria	1.25	2.5	1.75	2.5	2.0
Seychelles	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a	N/a
Sierra Leone	1.25	N/a	1.75	N/a	N/a
South Africa	5	5	8.75	7.5	6.563
Swaziland	3.75	10	5.25	5	6.000
Tanzania	1.25	10	1.75	2.5	3.875
Uganda	5	12.5	1.75	2.5	5.438
Zambia	2.5	7.5	1.75	2.5	3.563
Zimbabwe	5	7.5	3.5	2.5	4.625

Appendix 2: Copy of letter sent to Commonwealth Education Departments requesting information on policies and legislation and selected replies

To: 20 May 2004

The Ministries of Education

Dear Sir/Madam

We have been asked by the Commonwealth Secretariat to undertake a research project to look at the patterns of gender equality and inequality in education in Commonwealth African Countries. To this end, it would be much appreciated if you could provide some information on the following questions. We would be very grateful if you could also let us know the appropriate websites which we can access to obtain necessary data on these questions.

1. Is there any constitutional or other legal legislation on compulsory primary education?

2. Are fees charged for primary education? Or if it is 'free' are there other charges in primary school (e.g. do the parents pay for materials, uniform etc.)?

3. What about fees or other charges in secondary school (grateful if you could refer this to the appropriate department if it is not possible for you to provide the information)?

4. Have gender budgets been established in your country or are there specific policies aimed at promoting gender equality or is their a commitment by government to gender mainstreaming in education? If so please give examples.

5. What education policies have been introduced, if any, which are aimed at enhancing the quality of education. Do any of these have implications for enhancing gender equality or not?

6. What kind of modalities exist in your country for delivering policy? Could you please comment on the extent to which any of the following occur in your countries, giving illustrations and examples of these where they exist

   a) specialised gender equality in education units at national or sub-national level
   b) staff training in education departments in gender equality
   c) gender budgeting in education
   d) good flow of information within country or gender equality in education

7. Are there forms of popular mobilisation in support of girls' education or gender equality in education? Could you please give examples of any of these in your countries?

   a) existence of lobbying and campaigning groups at national and sub-national level
   b) NGOs concerned with local level provision
   c) extent of networking between countries and with IGOs

8. In your country are there figures which give a breakdown by region for access and retention rates at primary level for girls and boys? If so, could you please give statistics for the regions in your country with the highest and lowest rates of access and retention for girls in primary schools.

The study is expected to be completed in three weeks' time. It would be much appreciated if you could provide whatever information you have access to (or your colleagues in other departments of the Ministry) on the above questions at your earliest convenience, and if possible before **30 May**?

We very much look forward to hearing from you. If you would like to contact anyone for more information about this study or for any points of clarification please get in touch with me or Dr R Pattman (email r.pattman@ioe.ac.uk, tel. 02076126798)

Thanking you in advance for your cooperation in this matter.

With very best wishes

Yours sincerely

Rajee Rajagopalan

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LETTER 1
From Mr. J. Afrani, Director PBME, Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports (Ghana)
31 May 2004

Re: Letter requesting information for Commonwealth Secretariat Study

Please note that in 2003 the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports published the Education Strategic Plan (ESP), which is intended to be the strategic framework and guide for education sector development over the plan 2003-2015. Also the Ghana Proposal for Inclusion into the Education for All Fast Track Initiative (EFA FTI) was finalised and accepted by local and international donors in early 2004. Gender equity is an issue given high priority within the ESP and EFA FTI documents, in line with commitments to the achievement of the MDG of gender parity in enrolments by 2005. Copies of the ESP and EFA FTI documents are also attached.

1. Is there any constitutional or other legal legislation on compulsory primary education?
Article 38 of the Ghana Constitution requires government to provide access to Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) and resources permitting, to Senior Secondary, Technical and Tertiary Education.

The MoEYS launched FCUBE in 1995 with the goal of improving access to quality basic education over the 10 years to 2005. In 1995 (1994/1995 academic year) the primary level GER was 75.9% (Male- 81.3%, Female-70.5%) and this had increased to only 79.9% in 2002 (2001/2002 academic year) (Male-83.7%,Female-76.2%).

2. Are fees charged for primary education. Or if it is 'free' are there other charges in primary school (e.g. do the parents pay for materials, uniform etc.?)
Tuition is free at the primary level but there are other costs associated with primary schooling:

- Levies charged by district assemblies (local authorities responsible for infrastructure provision/maintenance) – including cultural levy, sports levy, development levy
- Costs associated with provision of school uniform
- Costs of providing exercise books and pencils

The Education Strategic Plan (published 2003) introduces the idea of a capitation grant, which will be paid to schools based on their enrolment to replace district levies charged to parents, as a step further in ensuring that primary education is 'free'. This is to be piloted in the 40 most deprived districts of the country (ranked according to performance in key education indicators) starting in the 2004/2005 academic year.

3. What about fees or other charges in secondary school (grateful if you could refer this to the appropriate department if it is not possible for you to provide the information)

Again tuition is free in secondary schools, however students are expected to contribute a textbook user fee, boarding fees (which cover food and accommodation), and pay for stationary materials.

4. Have gender budgets been established in your country or are there specific policies aimed at promoting gender equality or is their a commitment by government to gender mainstreaming in education? If so please give examples.

The MTEF for education is planned around ten policy goals. Two of these were added during ESP preparation, including policy goal 10 'Provide girls with equal opportunities to access the full cycle of education'. In this way, policies aimed at improving gender equality are budgeted for. Included within these budgets are for example, IEC programmes to sensitise communities on the importance of formal education for girls, promoting the use of 'girls clubs' within schools, training for Girls Education Unit and district teams.

5. What education policies have been introduced, if any, which are aimed at enhancing the quality of education? Do any of these have implications for enhancing gender equality or not?

Policies to review and redesign curricula across the levels to ensure that its culturally, socially and academically relevant to the needs of the child, business/industry and the nation are included within the ESP. A component of this will be ensuring that curricula are not in anyway gender stereotyped/biased.

6. What kind of modalities exist in your country for delivering policy. Could you please comment on the extent to which any of the following occur in your countries, giving illustrations and examples of these where they exist:
a) specialised gender equality in education units at national or sub-national levels
There is a Girls Education Unit established within the Headquarters of the Ghana Education Service, and especially trained designated staff within Regional and District Education Offices.

b) staff training in education departments in gender equality
There are no specific staff training programmes for gender equity – but staff across the Ministry and Ghana Education Service are very aware of the problems of gender inequities and committed to improving gender equality. The ESP has been widely disseminated and desk officers of both the Ministry and GES are clear on the priority outlined in the ESP and EFA FTI proposals, to achieving gender parity – firstly at the primary level, but ultimately across the sector.

c) gender budgeting in education
As mentioned above, there is a specific policy goal within the MTEF budget framework geared towards implementing strategies and activities aimed at reducing gender disparities.

d) good flow of information within country or gender equality in education
The Education Management Information System produces an Annual Report on Statistics and Planning Parameters for Basic Education in Ghana from data compiled during the Annual Education Census, and this includes information on female enrolments as compared to male enrolments, the proportion of female teachers and disparities in GERs. The information collected can also be used to calculate completion rates etc. all disaggregated by district and gender.

7. Are there forms of popular mobilisation in support of girls' education or gender equality in education? Could you please give examples of any of these in your countries:
a) existence of lobbying and campaigning groups at national and sub-national level
b) NGOs concerned with local level provision

c) extent of networking between countries and with IGOs

Girls' education, and reducing gender disparities, are popular areas in which many stakeholders in the sector are involved. The majority of our development partners, are to some degree, working on issues related to improving gender parity – with the 2005 target of the international development goal in mind. Examples include:

- UNICEF – Provision of material support to girls in needy areas (e.g. bicycles, school bags, exercise books, pencils)
- UNWFP – Provision of food rations (cereals and edible oils) to girls in primary schools.
- USAID – Sara initiative, which supports the establishment of girls clubs in schools.

8. In your country are there figures which give a breakdown by region for access and retention rates at primary level for girls and boys? If so, could you please give statistics for the regions in your country with the highest and lowest rates of access and retention for girls in primary schools.

In Ghana there are 10 regions, grouping together a total of 110 districts.

The following table ranks the 10 districts according to the Gender Parity Index for the academic year 2002/2003 (calculated as female GER/male GER), and presents enrolment (access) data:

	POPULATION			**ENROLMENT**			**GER**			**GPI**
Region	**TOTAL**	**MALE**	**FEMALE**	**TOTAL**	**MALE**	**FEMALE**	**TOTAL**	**MALE**	**FEMALE**	
Upper West	112,169	57,794	54,375	78,122	39,886	38,236	69.6%	69.0%	70.3%	1.02
Upper East	180,210	93,489	86,721	131,596	68,363	63,233	73.0%	73.1%	72.9%	1.00
Eastern	376,734	191,992	184,742	336,769	175,918	160,851	89.4%	91.6%	87.1%	0.95
Greater Accra	409,697	198,704	210,993	327,453	163,613	163,839	79.9%	82.3%	77.7%	0.94
Central	294,748	148,367	146,381	273,483	141,707	131,776	92.8%	95.5%	90.0%	0.94
Ashanti	637,312	320,181	317,131	513,005	266,533	246,472	80.5%	83.2%	77.7%	0.93
Western	349,613	176,034	173,579	304,472	159,759	144,713	87.1%	90.8%	83.4%	0.92
Volta	294,572	148,417	146,155	237,068	125,081	111,987	80.5%	84.3%	76.6%	0.91
Brong-Ahafo	327,282	164,836	162,446	271,119	143,567	127,552	82.8%	87.1%	78.5%	0.90
Northern	343,606	168,727	174,879	240,260	136,203	104,056	69.9%	80.7%	59.5%	0.74
NATIONAL	3,325,943	1,668,541	1,657,402	2,713,346	1,420,631	1,292,715	81.6%	85.1%	78.0%	0.92

In addition the following table highlights the five districts with highest GPI and five districts with lowest GPI in 2002/2003 academic year:

District Name	Region	POPULATION			ENROLMENT			GER			GPI
		TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	
5 districts with highest GPI:											
Builsa	UER	14,684	7,805	6,879	13,221	5,936	7,285	90.0%	76.1%	105.9%	1.39
Sissala	UWR	17,300	8,958	8,342	10,944	4,924	6,020	63.3%	55.0%	72.2%	1.31
Nadawli	UWR	16,224	8,430	7,794	14,967	7,377	7,589	92.2%	87.5%	97.4%	1.11
Bawku West	UER	16,710	8,991	7,719	7,604	3,933	3,670	45.5%	43.7%	47.5%	1.09
Lawra	UWR	15,927	8,111	7,816	11,899	5,905	5,994	74.7%	72.8%	76.7%	1.05
5 districts with lowest GPI:											
Tolon-Kumbungu	NR	26,052	13,314	12,738	16,646	10,319	6,327	63.9%	77.5%	49.7%	0.64
Yendi	NR	24,425	12,323	12,102	16,283	9,995	6,289	66.7%	81.1%	52.0%	0.64
Savelugu-Nanton	NR	17,540	9,055	8,485	11,330	7,137	4,193	64.6%	78.8%	49.4%	0.63
Gushiegu-Karagu	NR	23,592	11,663	11,929	11,020	6,970	4,051	46.7%	59.8%	34.0%	0.57
Tamale	NR	40,349	14,810	25,539	52,334	28,604	23,729	129.7%	193.1%	92.9%	0.48

Retention rates are unavailable – but Primary Completion Rates (PCR) are available by region, and disaggregated by gender. The following table ranks the regions in terms of Gender Parity in Primary Completion (GPC). PCR is calculated as non-repeaters in P6/population aged 11. GPC is calculated as female PRC/male PCR.

Region	POPULATION AGED 11			P6 NON-REPEATERS			PCR			GPC
	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE	
Ashanti	97,289	49,963	49,953	71,562	37,849	33,713	73.6%	75.8%	67.5%	0.89
Brong-Ahafo	50,368	25,783	24,585	34,990	19,205	15,785	69.5%	74.5%	64.2%	0.86
Central	45,564	23,505	22,059	38,158	20,110	18,048	83.7%	85.6%	81.8%	0.96
Eastern	59,400	30,827	28,573	44,765	24,010	20,755	75.4%	77.9%	72.6%	0.93
Greater Accra	65,776	31,503	34,273	51,528	25,606	25,923	78.3%	81.3%	75.6%	0.93
Northern	48,980	25,893	23,087	23,742	14,909	8,833	48.5%	57.6%	38.3%	0.66
Upper East	26,140	14,027	12,113	11,911	6,376	5,535	45.6%	45.5%	45.7%	1.01
Upper West	16,221	8,614	7,608	7,386	3,304	4,082	45.5%	38.4%	53.7%	1.40
Volta	45,356	23,488	21,868	32,669	17,454	15,215	72.0%	74.3%	69.6%	0.94
Western	52,713	26,831	25,882	41,073	18,939	22,134	77.9%	70.6%	85.5%	1.21
NATIONAL	507,806	260,433	250,000	357,783	187,761	170,022	70.5%	72.1%	68.0%	0.94

LETTER 2

From Ministry of Basic Education, Sport and Culture, Republic of Namibia

REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA

MINISTRY OF BASIC EDUCATION, SPORT AND CULTURE

DIRECTORATE OF PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT
Private Bag 13186, WINDHOEK, Namibia

Tel: 061 – 2933334
Enquiries: Raimo (EMIS)
Date: 14 June 2004

Fax: 061 – 2933932
E-mail: draimo@mec.gov.na

Institute of Education
Attention: Dr. Rob Pattman

Re: Patterns of gender equality and inequality in Education in Namibia

Your letter dated the 20 May on the above subject has reference. I have tried to be short and address the questions in the same fashion used by yourself. The answers will therefore correspond to your questions in the letters referred.

1. Compulsory education is a Constitutional right in Namibia. Article 20 provides that *"All persons shall have right to education"* and that *"Primary education shall be compulsory and the State shall provide reasonable facilities to render effective this right for every resident within Namibia by establishing and maintaining State schools at which primary education will be provided free of charge"*[2].

   Further, the Education Act 16/2001 was brought into the scene to strengthen the said article and set the mechanism of ensuring that quality education is rendered to its recipients.

   Namibia is also party to UNESCO led Education for All and is very much committed to ensure that all children of school going age, and including adults with the will to learn has access to quality, equitable and democratic education to equip them and allow them to partake and compete in current development.

2. Learners pay minimal charges to their schools into the School Development Fund. This is the money that goes directly to the school to allow day-to-day running of the school. Learners whose parents are unable to pay might be fully or partially exempted. The afore-mentioned Act also makes provision of the Education Development Fund, to cater for the needy learners to ensure that they receive the education they deserve and are not discriminated against in any form.
   Textbooks, learning materials, etc. are provided free of charge by the government. Parents, however, are responsible for supplementary materials, school uniforms, money needed for various activities, such as education tours, etc.

[2] Article 20 (1) and (2) of the Constitution of the Republic of Namibia

3. For Secondary Education, parents are responsible for School Development Fund, Hostel fee (if applicable), Uniform and other dues needed for their educational programs. The provision of stationeries, textbooks and other supplies remains, however, the responsibility of the government. As for Primary Education, parents who are unable to afford payments can apply for exemptions. This includes money for external examinations as well. The government heavily subsidizes all learners on the examinations.

4. Namibia has no gender budget per se. However, issues coming up that need the government intervention and assistance are dealt with on merits. There are policies in place to promote gender equality in all spheres of life, education included. A National Gender Policy and National Plan of Action on Gender do exist. Article 10 of the Constitution of the Republic of Namibia also guarantees for equality and warrants against discrimination of any kind. Read together with Article 20, it nicely promoted gender balances in education.

5. Education At, Act 16/2001 was introduced with the aim of enhancing the quality of education. Not only will it reinforce the spirit of Article 20 of the Constitution, but went further to advocate for the compulsory school attendance, and even protecting pregnant young women to remain in schools until sometime before their delivery dates. It also guarantees the return of such girls to school a year after they have breastfed their babies. A clear policy of pregnant schoolgirls does exist.

6. Several modalities are in place. On (a) and (b): Cabinet decision 21/11/98/010 created the Gender Focal Points in all government institutions. This officer should be on the managerial level to ensure that gender issues are echoed and taken into consideration at every decision reached. The National Development Plan (NDP II) has dedicated a whole chapter (chapter 36) to ensure that there is a full and equal participation of men and women of all ages in development processes at all levels.

   (c) Gender budgeting in education does not exist. Issues are, however, taken on board as they rise and own merits.

   (d) Target (Goal) 4.7 in the National Plan of Action as well as Goal 9 of the National Gender Policy all stress on Information, Education and Communication to ensure that all people have the knowledge and information to empower themselves and to participate in decision-making and development. They also promote gender awareness at all levels to encourage balance and non-stereotyped portrayal of women to decrease discriminatory practices and attitudes. The use of neutral and language that is gender sensitive is very much on the increase making information acceptable to its recipients without feeling that it is meant for one gender only.

7. Mobilization:
   (a) Probably the most vocal campaigning and mobilizing group at all levels is the Ministry of Women Affairs and Child Welfare. Although the name sound feminine, the Ministry is tasked to take care of Gender issues per se.

   (b) Girl child clubs and working groups on National, Regional and school levels do exist. They are working closely with FAWENA and NGOs, with FAWENA being the probably most vocal one in terms of coordination and international flavor.

   (c) FAWENA is charged with this responsibility.

8. The figures given in another attachment are 2001 figures, being the most current available ones.

Please do not hesitate to come back should there be any query.

Yours truly,

R.B.A.N. Dengeinge
CEO - EMIS

Appendix 3: EMIS Data on Enrolments in Uganda

Enrolment by class in Mukono District, Uganda 2002 and 2003

Table 10.1 Primary enrolments by gender and class 2002

	Pr.1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total
Male	28,651	18,447	18,711	17,190	14,546	11,959	8,111	117,615
Female	30,230	19,959	19,998	18,870	16,390	13,463	9,089	127,999
Total	58,881	38,406	38,709	36,060	30,936	25,422	17,200	245,614

Table 10.2 Primary enrolment by gender and class, 2003

	Pr. 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total
Male	26454	17266	17727	16589	14413	12166	8206	112,825
Female	27862	18220	18622	17520	16132	13596	9289	121,241
Total	54318	35486	36349	34109	30545	25762	17495	234,064

Table 10.3 Secondary Enrolment Mukono District 2003

	Sec.1	2	3	4	5	6	Total
Male	2919	2608	2390	1930	1172	1136	12,155
Female	3335	2882	2379	2007	998	809	12,410
Total	6254	5490	4769	3937	2170	1945	24,565

Source – Uganda, 2003

Table 10.4 Retention in primary school in Mukono District by gender, 2002-3: Children enrolled in a higher grade as a percentage of children enrolled in the year below

Primary grades	Grade 2 enrolment as a % of Grade 1	Grade 3 enrolment as a % of Grade 2	Grade 4 enrolment as a % of Grade 3	Grade 5 enrolment as a % of Grade 4	Grade 6 enrolment as a % of Grade 5	Grade 7 enrolment as a % of Grade 6
Male 2002	64.3	101.4	91.9	84.6	82.2	67.8
Female 2002	66.1	100.2	94.4	86.9	82.1	67.5

P 2003	Grade 2 enrolment as a % of	Grade 3 enrolment as a % of	Grade 4 enrolment as a % of	Grade 5 enrolment as a % of	Grade 6 enrolment as a % of	Grade 7 enrolment as a % of

	Grade 1	Grade 2	Grade 3	Grade 4	Grade 5	Grade 6
Male 2003	65.2	102.7	93.3	86.9	84.4	67.5
Female 2003	65.4	102.3	94	92	84.2	68.3

Source: Derived from Tables 10.1-2

Table 10.5 Retention in secondary school in Mukono District by gender, 2003: Children enrolled in a higher grade as a percentage of children enrolled in the year below

S 2003	Secondary 1 as a % of Grade 7	Secondary 2 as a % of Secondary 1	Secondary 3 as a % of Secondary 2	Secondary 4 as a % of Secondary 3	Secondary 5 as a % of Secondary 4	Secondary 6 as a % of Secondary 5
Male	35.6	89.3	91.6	80.7	60.7	86.9
Female	35.9	84.6	82.5	84.3	49.7	81.1

Source: derived from Table 10.6

Table 10.6
Primary enrolment by gender for districts and regions, 2002 & 2003
Source: Minister of Education and Sports Statistics, District Profiles, 2002 & 2003

Central Region 2002

	Male	Female	Total
District			
Kalangala	1695	1620	3315
Kayunja	55, 425	58,440	113,865
Kiboga	42,489	43,256	85,745
Luwero	89,514	93,311	182,825
Masaka	115,838	122,280	238,118
Mayuge	62,319	64,567	126,886
Mpigi	74,616	79,696	154,312
Mubende	100,210	101,820	202,030
Mukono	117,615	127,999	245,614
Nakasongola	27,688	29,784	57,472
Rakai	69,086	70,410	139,496
Sembabule	32,064	34,780	66,844
Waikiso	101,192	107,014	208,206
Total	889,751	934,977	1,824,728

Central Region 2003

	Male	Female	Total
District			
Kalangala	1883	1825	3708
Kayunja	55,811	58,343	114,154
Kiboga	41,895	43,790	85,685
Luwero	89,998	86,217	169,215
Masaka	112,183	117,247	229,430
Mayuge	60,805	63,292	124,097

Mpigi	73,677	76,555	150,232
Mubende	103,666	104,695	208,361
Mukono	112,823	121,241	234,064
Nakasongola	22,332	23,018	45,350
Rakai	70,869	72,323	143,192
Sembabule	38,772	42,028	80,800
Waikiso	92,976	97,219	190,195
Total	877,690	907,793	1,785,483

Kampala 2002

	Male	Female	Total
Kampala	82,046	88,005	170,051

Kampala 2003

	Male	Female	Total
Kampala	74,857	79,442	154,299

Western Region 2002

	Male	Female	Total
District			
Bundibugyo	31,477	28,946	60,423
Buskengi	122,300	125,403	247,703
Hoima	42,283	42,331	85,614
Kabale	80,899	83,484	164,383
Kamwenge	33,642	32,588	66,230
Kanungu	31,076	31,754	62,830
Kyenjojo	51,255	48,261	99,516
Masindi	59,732	54,077	113,809
Mbarara	166,374	169,771	336,145
Nebbi	73,660	59,621	133,281
Ntunganno	63,573	65,158	128,731
Rukungiri	44,573	47,007	91,470
Total	800844	788401	1,589,245

Western Region 2003

	Male	Female	Total
District			
Bundibugyo	31,980	30,435	62,415
Buskengi	125,483	128,427	253,910
Hoima	48,663	46,113	94,776
Kabale	80,373	82,292	162,665
Kamwenge	36,606	34,479	71,085
Kanungu	30,898	31,159	62,057
Kasese	84,848	86,887	171,735
Kyenjojo	52,956	48,936	101,892
Masindi	67,031	60,178	127,209
Mbarara	173,971	76,630	350,601
Nebbi	80,500	64,963	145,463
Ntunganno	62,559	63,859	126,418
Rukungiri	41,784	43,899	85,683
Total	917,652	798,257	1,715,909

Eastern Region 2002

	Male	Female	Total
District			
Apac	127,498	108,899	236,397
Bugiri	68,042	66,657	134,699
Busia	40,621	40,196	80,817
Iganga	123,521	133,713	257,234
Jinja	51,988	54,802	106,790
Kaberamaido	23,515	22,453	45,968
Kamuli	109,042	110,329	219,371
Kapchorwa	34,452	34,518	68,970
Kumi	68,803	63,227	127,030
Mbale	120,395	121,926	242,321
Moroto	11,263	9371	20,634
Nakapiripiriti	11,079	11,143	22,222
Pallisa	79,738	77,962	157,700
Ratakwi	NA		
Sironko	49,635	50,318	99,953
Soroti	58,620	57,594	116,214
Tororo	88,668	84,340	173,008
Total	1,066,880	1,047,448	2,114,328

Eastern Region 2003

	Male	Female	Total
District			
Apac	133,368	116,684	250,052
Bugiri	71,110	69,511	140,621
Busia	42,547	42,330	84,877
Iganga	126,533	135,649	262,182
Jinja	54,606	57,030	111,636
Kaberamaido	23,780	22,432	46,212
Kamuli	113,045	115,071	228,116
Kapchorwa	35,506	35,749	71,255
Kumi	67,971	66,826	134,797
Mbale	131,777	132,949	264,726
Moroto	9996	8,258	18,254
Nakapiripiriti	10,398	11,378	21,776
Pallisa	84,852	81,285	166,137
Ratakwi	NA		
Sironko	53,076	52,090	105,166
Soroti	63,906	62,391	126,297
Tororo	90,912	86,606	177,518
Total	1,113,383	1,096,239	2,209,622

Northern Region 2002

	Male	Female	Total
District			
Adjumani	22,211	20,066	42,277
Arua	172,952	153,313	326,265
Gulu	82,185	68,164	150,349
Kanugu	NA		
Kitgum	52,935	43,405	96,340

Kotido	31,089	26,286	57,475
Lira	115,280	99,415	214,695
Moyo	18,185	16,376	34,561
Pader	68,379	50,228	118,607
Yumbe	55,060	38,042	93,102
Total	618,276	515,295	1,133,571

Northern Region 2003

	Male	Female	Total
District			
Adjumani	22,450	20,427	42,877
Arua	190,768	171,347	362,115
Gulu	92,932	78,048	170,980
Kanugu	NA		
Kitgum	58,604	48,629	107,233
Kotido	34,408	31,455	67,863
Lira	128,951	113,031	241,982
Moyo	20,742	18,824	39,566
Pader	77,756	57,818	135,574
Yumbe	66,480	49,554	116,034
Total	693,091	589,133	1,282,224

Southern Region 2002

	Male	Female	Total
District			
Kibale	58,855	57,323	116,178
Kibarole	49,190	49,702	98,892
Kisoro	32,369	29,394	61,763
Total	140,414	136,419	276,833

Southern Region 2003

	Male	Female	Total
District			
Kibale	63,153	60,709	123,862
Kibarole	51,892	51,380	103,272
Kisoro	34,815	32,330	67,145
Total	149,860	144,419	294,279

Table 10.7 Comparison of primary enrolment by gender for the regions (2002 and 2003)

	Male 2002	% total enrolment	Female 2002	% total enrolment	Male 2003	% total enrolment	Female 2003	% total enrolment
Region								
Central	889,751	48	934,977	52	877,690	49	907,793	51
Kampala	82,046	48	88,005	52	74,857	48	79,442	52
Western	800,844	50	788,401	50	917,652	53	798,257	47
Eastern	1,066,880	50	1,047,448	50	1,113,383	50	1,096,239	50
Northern	618,276	54	515,295	46	693,091	54	589,133	46
Southern	140,414	50	136,419	50	149,860	50	144,419	50

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