

# THE INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF BUSINESS & MANAGEMENT

## Gender Mainstreaming

Nickson Moseti Ongaki

Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology, Kenya

### **Abstract:**

*Gender mainstreaming is a strategy for achieving the equality of women and men and stands for a policy of equality as an element of all fields of human life. The concept of "equal opportunities" is to be included as the universal guiding principle in all political decisions, measures and activities that touch on education. For example, women and men must be afforded equal treatment in the development of programmes and measures, in the allocation of funding, and in the implementation and evaluation of measures taken. Gender mainstreaming is based on the recognition that there is no such a thing as a gender-neutral policy. In other words, politics and government always have specific effects on women and men.*

*This paper examines the concept of gender mainstreaming as an innovative intervention in educational management. It does this by establishing why gender mainstreaming is an innovative strategy. Looked into also are the areas that need innovations in the provision of female education. Finally, the paper provides some possible recommendations that can be adopted to mainstream gender issues in educational management.*

### **1. Introduction**

Gender mainstreaming is a development strategy aimed at transforming existing inequalities between women and men in society, starting with the decision-making and implementation levels.

It is a policy tool to bring about gender equity through minimizing gender inequalities and involves 'gendering' programmes or interventions, policies, institutions, laws and policy-makers [i.e. the critical mass of policy implementers and decision-makers]. Gender mainstreaming in education is an innovation programme.

Mainstreaming, an approach aimed at making policy more gender sensitive, has been taken globally on board by countries with widely varying policy machineries. This social innovation was launched in the context of Beijing 1995 by a network of women's movement activists, academics and politicians sometimes referred to as State Feminists. As a policy strategy for change, it utilizes the language of efficiency current in circles hoping to rationalize public bureaucracy. Yet, because it deals with gender, mainstreaming also illustrates, in a particularly provocative way, some more general problems in political innovation.

### **2. Is Mainstreaming Really Innovative?**

According to Jirira [2007], gender mainstreaming as an approach can be seen as an innovation and the reason why it is attractive to other social movements is due to at least three reasons:

- First of all, it allows social issues to escape from policy ghettos in the margins, where the risk of elimination is high, by transforming a question from a vertical special issue to horizontal. Parallels are of course possible with environmental issues, which were the first to successfully manoeuvre this pathway.
- Secondly, mainstreaming is innovative as it spurs new policy instruments. Mainstreaming in effect only means doing policy with varied citizens in mind - but as it is framed in a rational public management language, the ambitions are tested and evaluated; continuous evaluation is one of the key demands of the mainstreamers. To do this, new policy instruments are demanded including the development of gender equality indicators gender proofing instruments, and methods to involve the entire organization in the effort.
- Finally, gender mainstreaming links an 'irrational' transformative social movement's goal – the end of sexual inequality – to rational public administrative tools. Mainstreaming and its implementation would denote using the tools of reason to gain power over the definition of women in a structure.

### **3. New Tools in Gender Mainstreaming**

One of the problems in the past was a lack of policy tools. To assess policy in terms of gender, some of the following issues need to be examined in every policy area, according to Rees [1998] and the Council of Europe [1998] group of experts under the leadership of Verloo [1994]:

- To what extent is a policy area conceived of in androcentric terms?
- What is the situation of women in the sector and are there gender disaggregated
- statistics available?
- Who is participating in policy decisions?

- What will the impact of proposed policy have on gender relations?
- How could a more gender sensitive policy be conceived of or 'visioned'?
- How will we know if we have been effective in pushing change?

(Rees 1998:177)

To do this assessment, instrumentation is necessary, but there may also need to be a new approach to policy making itself, demanding cultural changes and new actors. A number of tools and analysis techniques have been developed including: Gender Proofing, Gender Impact Assessment, Emancipation Effect Reporting, Gender Indicators, Checklists of Actions for Gender Mainstreaming (UNDP) and various benchmarking schemes. An example of the tools that have been considered as a weapon in the mainstreaming battle is Gender Impact Assessment (GIA).

#### 4. Areas that Need Innovations

The following areas have been identified in this paper as needing correcting if gender mainstreaming is to succeed in educational management.

##### 4.1. Presentation of Information in Textbooks

Women's self image and self-esteem is influenced by the content of the textbooks used in school (Graham-Brown, 1991). One of the reasons is that these reading schemes like the rest of children's and adult literature concentrate on the exploits of males. As a result, girls who read them have been schooled to believe as the rest of the society does that males are superior to females and better at everything other than domestic work. Therefore, the content in these books cannot but reinforce the damage that our society does to girls' self-esteem [Graham-Brown, 1991].

This results into a situation in which classroom experiences of the different areas of the curriculum may differ for girls and boys. This is because sex-biased examples and illustrations influence the attitude and behaviours of children and teachers [Centre for Mathematics at the Open University, in association with Inner London Education Authority, 1986].

Many textbooks and other teaching materials have pronounced sexist bias that discourages girls from thinking of themselves as good students or as suited to any but a few traditional occupations. Often books portray men as intelligent and adventurous, seeking employment in new exciting and profitable fields. Women on the other hand are depicted as passive, admiring and suited only for traditional roles – that is if they are shown at all [Kelly and Elliot, 1982].

The total lack of women who are successful in non-feminine activities and jobs and who are independent ensures that girls with those aspirations will receive no encouragement. In the same way, boys who feel the need to express gentleness and nurturance will find no male models to emulate. In short, these schemes in no way question the correctness of a society, which deprives both sexes of the full expression of their capabilities. In fact they endorse a set of sex-roles that are even more rigid than our role division [Loban, 1980 as cited in Reedy and Woodhead, (Eds.), 1980]. A study conducted in Zambia found that although textbooks systematically treated men's activities as admirable, women appeared rarely and "primarily in domestic roles and were characterized as passive, stupid and ignorant [Hyde, 1989, p.34]. This way, girls perceive subtle messages from textbooks that guide them into traditional roles. From Togo, a survey of secondary school textbooks showed that many presented women and girls as subordinates, either excluding them or by making them passive victims of circumstances. In other instances they appeared to be actively dangerous, sometimes engaging in witchcraft [Beraimah, 1988, as cited in Albatach, and Kelly, 1988].

To Arnot [2002] school texts present a distorted model of women, which can only be construed as the ideological wing of patriarchy. She says that this pattern has three basic elements: women suffer from invisibility, when women appear, they are generally in low-status or second rate jobs, and there is an overriding emphasis on women's domesticity.

Sadker and Sadker [1980] reviewed 24 of the most popular textbooks used in pre-service teacher training programme during the period between 1973-78 in the areas of foundation of education, psychology of education and teaching methods in reading, language, arts, social studies, mathematics and science. They found that sexism was given less than 1% of the space, that sex-equality tended to be omitted or given incomplete treatment and that contribution of women to education were not even mentioned. They also found that science and mathematics texts showed the greatest imbalance in the treatment of boys and girls: boys are leaders, active, courageous; girls are mothers, helpful and subordinates.

Textbooks are characterized by their untouchable and apolitical nature. They are perceived as the truths of a de-classed cultural heritage the problem is that their position leaves unchallenged the status quo [Arnot 2002]. The problem is that the belief in textbooks is usually entrenched. It is not unusual for a teacher to tell pupils that something is right because a book says so, and that any attempt to correct a book is often met with disbelief [Science in Africa, 2005]. In fact Science in Africa [2005] asserts that belief in textbook information is one of the hindrances to teaching science in Africa.

Williams [1973] has what he terms "the selective tradition" which ensures that only certain knowledge is packaged into textbooks. He goes on to add that although feminists have challenged the androcentrism of knowledge as reproduced and legitimized in the university, little of this effort finds its way into the elementary and high school texts.

The problem with this kind of presentation of information in texts is that for girls from poor families, these may be the only books they see while growing up [Graham-Brown, 1991]. In fact, the Koech Commission was told that gender stereotyping in textbooks and other educational materials was also responsible for limiting girls' expectations and reinforcing negative self perception [Republic of Kenya, 1999].

According to Kabira and Masheti [1997] the use of nouns and pronouns in textbooks is an important indication of gender issues in textbooks. They say that in an analysis of textbooks one should be able to focus on how nouns and pronouns are used as means for identifying characters. One should be able to list gendered characters using the nouns and pronouns that refer to them and also

identify and list common nouns used in the text. They add that gendered pronouns should also be identified and quantified, and a special note made of the order in which they appear, i.e., how often does ‘she’ appear before ‘he’ and vice versa.

#### 4.2. Sports

In mixed schools boys tend to dominate playground space. In such schools boys are offered football, table tennis: things that keep them from trouble. Girls in turn have nothing to keep them from trouble. They just move around and chatter [Rilley, 1994].

Sports are powerful means of showing gender relations in schools. Burkerhoff [1991] found that male sports literally overtakes all other functions of schooling, rendering males godlike warriors at the centre of peer and adult interactions in the entire community. Young women enter the scene as cheerleaders – scantily clad, jumping up and down as godlike warriors score points.

#### 4.3. Sexual Harassment

Teachers and schools may fail to notice or deal effectively disruptive behaviour – such as bullying, name calling, verbal abuse and sexual harassment [Jones, 1985]. Studies have demonstrated that sexual harassment is prevalent in schools [Mahony, 1989], though not reprimanded by teachers [Draper, 1991, as cited in Woods and Hammersley (Eds.), 1993]. Rather, sexual harassment is often tolerated as a natural part of adolescence, or as part of normal “behaviour”. As Walkerdine [1989] noted, this may be part of the teachers’ every day reality to see.

In mixed schools, girls have to put up with verbal abuse containing direct anatomical references, particularly to “tits” and “bums” and are constantly humiliated [Wood, 1984; Riddel, 1989] through sexual taunts and insults. Sexual harassment is not confined to uninvited groping and grabbing, but extends to a range of interactions where boys exert power over girls and consequently deny girls rightful access to educational resources [like teachers’ time, classroom space, play areas], freedom of expression, and perhaps most damagingly, reinforce in girls the submissive and “sex object” roles in to which they are socialized by the family, the media and so on [Park, 1986 as cited in Inner London Educational Authority (ILEA), 1986].

According to most definitions, sexual harassment is any unwanted sexual attention from peers, subordinates, supervisors, customers, clients or anyone the victim may interact with in order to fulfill job or school duties. The range of behaviours include verbal comments, subtle pressure for sexual activity, leering, pinching, patting and other forms of unwanted touching [Eaton, 1994]. The problem is that policy makers focus on the guns-and-knives school violence but do not include sexual harassment as a school violence issue [Marshall, 1997] and so the problem goes unhighlighted and unresolved. Sexual harassment to policymakers and school administrators is often not a legitimate issue which needs to be addressed in schools [Ortiz and Marshal, 1988 as cited in Boyan, (Ed.), 1988]; Riger, 1991], confirming this saying as true, “for the master’s tools will never dismantle the master’s house” [Lorde, 1984, p.112].

Sexual harassment has a negative academic effect on girls who attend mixed schools. In a 1993 AAUW [American Association of University Women] survey in American schools, the most common effects of sexual harassment reported by girls were: not wanting to talk much in class, not wanting to come to school and finding it hard to pay attention in school. Sexual harassment is not confined to the classroom. Studies have found that girls in mixed school experience substantial amounts of sexual harassment in the playground [Mahony, 1989; Thorne, 1993].

#### 4.4. Unbalanced Curriculum

A very serious problem in secondary schools is in the choice of subjects. To many educational researchers this happens mainly to girls when educated together with boys. Kelly [1981] says that each sex when educated with the other at puberty is driven by developmental changes to use subject preference and possible subject choice as a means of ascribing its sex role.

It has been shown that many pupils do not study a balanced curriculum, that there are wide differences between the curricula studied by pupils in different schools and that the curricula choices made by the less able and girls are likely to be fairly restricted [Smith and Tomlinson, 1989].

Girls are more negatively affected by the nature of classroom environment than do boys. 79% of the times when teachers need assistance in carrying out demonstrations, they ask boys [Jensen and Kiley, 2000]. Consequently, many girls find the science classroom chilly and male-dominated and full of jokes that demean women [Ng’ang’a, 2004].

#### 4.5. Academic Performance

Apart from choice of non-traditional subjects, girls also tend to perform better in girls’ only schools. Research from several countries shows that girls tend to perform better in a variety of subjects ranging from languages to mathematics if they attend all girls’ schools especially at the secondary school level [Jimenez & Lockheed, 1989; Blackstone & Weinrich-Haste, 1980]. In the 2003 KCSE results, a time when ranking of schools in national summative examinations was being done, out of the top 50 schools, boys’ schools were 27; girls’ schools were 16 while the mixed schools were represented by only 7 schools. The best mixed school, Kabarak High School was in position 13 while the best girls’ school was position 4. [KNEC, 2003].

The Koech Commission [Republic of Kenya, 1999] observed that girls perform better when they are on their own. This observation puts emphasis on the fact that that when boys and girls learn together girls are disadvantaged. This is manifested in poor academic performance. As a result of poor performance in assignments and internal examinations they end up dropping some key subjects.

#### 4.6. School Dropout Rates

In a study conducted by Achoka on secondary school cohorts in Kenya between 1990 and 2002, it was found that dropout rates for ten cohorts ranged between 10% and 50%. The highest drop out rate for the girls was 50% in the 1997 - 2000 cohort while that of

the boys was 30% in the 1992 - 1995 and 1998-2001 cohorts. Most importantly, every cohort suffered not less than 10% dropout rate. In 1997/00 cohort, 50% of the girls dropped out. In 1990/93, 1992/95 cohorts, 30% of enrolled girls dropped out. Similarly, 30% of boys enrolled in 1990/93 and 1998/01 cohorts dropped out. Average dropout rate for the boys was 17% while for the Girls it was 21%. According to Achoka [2007] these are very high percentages.

However in addition to the high dropout rates in both cases, it is undisputable that girls bear the brunt of failure to complete their education at both levels of education.

In most developing countries, girls do not receive the same educational opportunities as boys [Maendeleo Ya Wanawake Organization, the Academy for Educational Development and the Johns Hopkins University Center for Communication Programs, 1999]. Even when given the opportunity to be educated, the girls typically face formidable barriers to the completion of their studies. For example, while virtually all girls in Kenya are initially enrolled in primary school, approximately 65% of them drop out before completing Standard 8. Some of the causes of school dropout in the country include early marriage, pregnancy, lack of gender appropriate facilities in schools (such as latrines), low self-esteem, lack of money, harassment by male teachers and fellow students, and the low value placed on the education of girls by their parents and society in general [MYWO et al., 1999].

#### 4.7. *The Day School*

To Herz, Masooma, Subarao and Raney [1991], opportunity costs of children's time in school is a constraint to female education, which in most poor families are likely to be higher for girls. These researches continue and say that poor families rely more on each family member to contribute to the family's survival. The opportunity costs include lost chore time, children have forgone earnings, and especially for girls – mother's forgone earnings.

Throughout most of Sub-Saharan Africa and southern Asia, the heavy work burden of rural women may force them to keep their daughters at home to help them with care of younger siblings, time consuming tasks on the farm, and such household chores as cleaning, cooking, and collecting fuel [Herz et al. 1991]. In Nepal, studies have documented that the demand for girls' labour exceeds the demand for boys' labour by half [Jamison and Lockheed, 1987]. This status quo prompted Ela Gandhi, grand daughter to the Mahatma to argue that women are oppressed on the basis of gender, class and race. She further adds: "Gender allows us to let boys go and play outside while the girl remains inside helping the mother. This way, we teach males to depend on females for their upkeep [Nation Reporter, Friday, August 19<sup>th</sup> 2005, p.6].

In general, girls do more chores than boys. They care for siblings, fetch wood and water and help in other ways that ease mother's drudgery. They also contribute to household production by caring for animals, pounding grain and so forth. Families seldom depend so heavily on boys. In practice the picture for sons in many communities is different from that for girls. Sons do fewer chores at home and so do not liberate either parent to earn more [Herz, et al. 1991].

Considering that girls in poor families have to perform more chores, the boarding option may not be as attractive to poorer families as to relatively well off parents. The latter may prefer boarding schools for reasons other than distance, such as better quality education [Begum, Akhter and Rahman, 1988]. As a result, many poor families prefer that their daughters attend day school to help in family chores. Research from Malawi shows that girls in day schools may spend more time than boys on household chores and spend less time the first hour after school on studies and relaxation [David and Kanyuka, 1990]. This double burden of school and chore time is hardly ideal, but it may be a practical necessity as a start. As economic circumstance change to increase women's earning capability, the returns to female education will rise and traditions requiring girls to do more chores than boys may change.

#### 4.8. *The Menstruation Cycle*

Menstruation is a normal, natural process that occurs in all healthy adolescent and adult women who haven't reached menopause. Girls begin to menstruate normally between eight and twelve years. In the lifetime of a woman, she has to manage 3,000 days of menstruation. For her basic schooling period [in primary and secondary school] the number of such days is 450 [Qumrun and Rokeya, 2006]. The knowledge and life skills required to maintain a healthy menstruation life are usually learnt from families, neighbours and the school in childhood. Women and girls need to change their sanitary napkins three or four times a day during the period of menstruation especially in the first three days.

With just one latrine in a school, the experience is that this sole latrine tends to be locked and reserved for the exclusive use of the teachers only. Where there are two latrines, one is locked and reserved for use by the teachers and the other is used by both boys and girls. In such cases girls, especially, during their menstrual period are often unwilling to use the latrines and make their own (often unhygienic) arrangements or simply skip school [Qumrun and Rokeya, 2006]. In fact a study carried in Mtito-Andei Division shows that one cause of girls' drop from school is lack of latrines [Mutua, 2002]

### 5. **The Methods of Innovations**

The rest of the world can learn from how Europe is gender mainstreaming. Although they such measures do not confine themselves to education but to the whole spectrum of life, they can be adopted to the education sector. The region has adopted the following innovative methods.

#### 5.1. *The Use of Experts*

In Europe, the European Commission has made a relatively limited use of experts in the implementation of mainstreaming, primarily to author a small guide for Gender Impact Assessment to be used by government officials and provide specialized advice [the National experts delegated to the Employment and Social Affairs Department] are a case in point - and come disproportionately from Northern Europe, even outside the EU. There was an expert from Norway 1996-9 with substantial

experience in Norwegian gender policy. Thus the Commission only partially follows the recommendation of the Council of Europe that it use actors normally involved in policy making. Bureaucrats who have been appointed as responsible for Equal Opportunity policy within their units are to control policy emanating from their units. However, one of the showpieces of mainstreaming, the integration of gender thinking in the European Structural Funds and the European Funds for Regional Development was assisted by an external expert who notes that the success was primarily due to “active support in terms of financial and human resources” (Lausberg, 1999, p.2). Further, the internal bureaucrats in most divisions only use about 10% of their time for gender issues.

### 5.2. *The role of the Gender Mission*

The European Union bases its gender mainstreaming engagement on a number of statements of formal commitment, and has been strengthened in the foundation of its claims by the commencement of the terms of the Treaty of Amsterdam in May 1999. A high level group of Commissioners was appointed in 1995 to follow gender issues, which symbolizes commitment from the top to the gender mission. However, informants are critical about the engagement of many of the members of this group. Woodward [2001] has given an example of a scandal and resignation of the Santer Commission. The European Parliament noted the lack of knowledge about gender issues at the highest level of decision-making and recommended giving this highest priority [1999]. Formally, there is commitment to a gender mission, but informally there is no really widespread network of femocrat policy entrepreneurs. They are instead located in pockets of gender awareness and commitment close to policy areas of traditional ‘female’ concern [gender, development, education to some extent, and recently Research and Science Policy]. Many would agree with Swiebel [1999], who states that there is “for a longer time an apparently growing disorientation in which the emancipation policy at the European level has fallen. A clear vision is lacking...what is European emancipation policy really all about?” [Swiebel, 1999, p.6].

### 5.3. *Gender Sophistication*

Nonetheless, the work of the Equal Opportunities Cell and its network of contracted academic feminists and former and present national experts is a rich and fairly sophisticated source of ideas. The very spread of the idea of mainstreaming through a variety of projects with EU support is an indication that the institutions of the European Union provide a kind of a bench-mark level of sophistication in gender issues for some countries. The problem is that this sophistication remains in a feminist ghetto. Further, the sophistication is watered down when it comes to influencing the gender mission, which is related to the previous point. The European Parliament’s [1999] review of mainstreaming progress indicates that the parliament “is disappointed that the measures that have thus far been taken have had little visible influence on the commission policy, with the exception of policy areas where there was already a long tradition and knowledge present on the promotion of equal opportunities for men and women”. While the experts of the Commission recommend sophisticated state of the art policy for others, their own versions for their own internal testing seem very rudimentary, and stop at the question level, never proceeding to transformation. Policy makers in the Commission are asked simply in the SMART instrument – [Simple Method to Assess the Relevance of Policies] “Is gender relevant to your policy area’ and if so ‘How do you integrate gender concerns in the policy area’?” [Council of Europe 1998, p.62].

### 5.4. *The role of Contest and Resistance*

From all quarters [informants in EU and lobby groups such as the European Women’s Lobby, European Parliament] there is a uniform criticism that mainstreaming and gender concerns do not touch the core areas of European Union policy and spending, such as agriculture, foreign policy, competition, environment and transport.

Even more disturbing is the fact that despite consistent lobbying “the great ambitions [of gender mainstreaming] do not stand up in relation to the tangible realities” [Swiebel 1999, p.5]. The big new policy questions such as Agenda 2000 and the expansion to Eastern Europe [Bretherton 1999, 2001] hardly mentioned the notion of women or gender, although this has been rectified to some extent with the ambitions of the new Community Strategy on Gender Equality 2001- 2005 [European Commission Employment & Social Affairs, 2001].

There is substantial resistance in the core cultures of the institutions of the European Union to allowing gender to escape from the Equal Opportunities ghetto. This is symbolized by the extremely slow movement in appointments of women to higher decision-making posts in the bureaucracy, but even more dangerously by the way that mainstreaming is being utilized by some forces in the institutions. The special sector of the European Social Funds for women’s employment will in the future lose its earmarked ‘women’s money’ status to see the issue ‘mainstreamed’ across the employment policy. The European Parliament’s own Commission on the Rights of Women narrowly escaped being disbanded at the end of the 1998 legislature, as allied men blithely claimed that with mainstreaming, they no longer had a function [Women of Europe, 1999].

These factors will make the success of gender mainstreaming as transformative policy innovation quite difficult in the European Union setting, despite the presence of strong voices to move forward and external pressure from lobby groups such as the European Women’s Lobby.

Based on this preliminary discussion of the European Union case in terms of these factors, the following are suggestions for further investigation inside organizations, adding an additional factor to the list of variables. These can also be adopted in Kenya.

- Conduct in-depth studies to collate best practices for gender mainstreaming at national and local level. This could take the form of baseline studies so that a clear understanding of the matter on the ground is understood. This shall ensure that the identified measures to be adopted are successful but not end up as failure.

- Support pilot gender analysis and mainstreaming work aimed at enhancing local level capacity to scale up their activities on gender with the participation of all stakeholders in conjunction with Local communities. As the people on the ground get involved in gender mainstreaming issues, the formulated policies gain acceptance in such areas.
- Develop a Training Manual on Gender for use on how to go about ‘mainstreaming’ in schools. The manuals should also address specific gender issues [e.g. in sports provision]
- Undertake Gender Training workshops at regional level to build capacity, expertise and competence: and create a ‘critical mass’ of experts to be used in promoting gender issues
- Provide training for Ministry of Education officials working at district level and lower levels as well as local communities on gender budgeting and gender mainstreaming on a continuous basis. Education officials need training because they are the ones who supervise educational programmes in schools. They should for example ensure that not only is teaching going on well in schools but also that co-curricula activities, among the sports are provided to both sexes without girls being reduced to mere spectators. The training and involvement of local communities in gender mainstreaming is important in that they are the perpetrators of activities that are detrimental to girls’ education.
- Deploy diverse capacity building interventions for experts, and local communities by organizing exchange visits by key education stakeholders who are the parents, teachers, principals, Board of Governors [BOG] to visit schools and education areas where mainstreaming programmes have successfully been implemented for benchmarking so that the best practices can be introduced to those education areas and schools lagging behind. Capacity building can also be promoted through the organizing of workshops and seminars for the exchange of ideas. The stakeholders together with policymakers and education experts can come with the best methods of gender mainstreaming in the education sector.
- The educational system can also play a meaningful role in shaping and influencing the dominant perceptions about women in society. School principals and headteachers, boys and girls in secondary schools need more gender sensitization if they are to play a meaningful role in shaping and changing gender relationships in schools. This is because it has been shown in this paper that teachers and boys perpetrate discrimination against girls. In turn, any discrimination against girls in schools is done under the very supervision of headteachers who are the administrators in their schools. Their involvement therefore is important if policies to promote gender mainstreaming programmes in the education sector are to succeed.

## 6. Recommendations

This paper makes the following recommendations:

### 6.1. Presentation of Information in Textbooks

Measures to curb this problem include the following

- Authors and publishers of school textbooks should be informed on the need to present information in textbooks in a gender sensitive manner. Different activities like caring for babies, cooking, driving – those activities everyone is familiar with, even young children – should not be depicted as being exclusive of one sex. The father can be presented while cooking and the son can be shown taking care of the baby. Later the mother can in turn drive the family in the family car.
- Authors and publishers should also be educated on the use of gender neutral pronouns such he/she, she/he or s/he instead of the common practice of using “he” whenever a pronoun for an identified noun is required for example for teacher, doctor, engineer, etc.

### 6.2. Sports

Holistic education includes physical education. Schools should ensure the provision of sports opportunities to boys as well as to the girls. The problem of provision sports to girls can be solved in the following ways

- School administrators especially in mixed schools should ensure that girls are not ignored in the provision of sports facilities as well as sports space.
- The need for availability of space cannot be overlooked because many times the balls, nets, clubs, etc may be there for girls. But the boys may hog all the space, thus deny girls the chance to exercise their right to play.
- Education officials like the Quality and Standard Officers [QASO’s] should make examining girls’ sports facilities and girls’ actual participation in sports activities an inspection item.

### 6.3. Sexual Harassment

Stringent measures should be adopted in order to eliminate this vice from learning institutions. The following measures should be adopted

- Girls and young women should be sensitized on the forms that sexual harassment – both from their peers and teachers / lecturers – can take. They should be made aware that even seemingly harmless gestures like a pat on the back especially from males is a form of sexual harassment because of the feelings it is supposed to arouse.
- They should then be encouraged to report any untoward behaviour such as sex for marks or any other pressures for sex from their teachers / lecturers.
- An opinion box where the anonymous student can drop sensitive information in confidence especially those complaints touching on teachers / lecturers. Such information can be used to track down the activities of amorous teachers / lecturers.

#### 6.4. Unbalanced Curriculum

It is a problem that can be solved in the following ways

- At the secondary level one of the best way of tackling this problem would be to separate the girls and boys by having schools for boys and schools for girls only. This way the girls would not be constantly reminded by the boys that the sciences and mathematics are not girls' subjects.
- Strong careers departments should be established in secondary schools to advice girls on career prospects and the combination of subjects necessary for them. This will make girls avoid dropping subjects on the basis that they are not girls' subjects.
- School managers should offer a large number of subjects especially the sciences as a way of diversifying the curriculum offered in their schools.

#### 6.5. Academic Performance

This problem can be overcome through

- The establishment of all girls' schools to provide education to girls.
- Quotas are crucial. Indeed, they may be the way forward if we are to see a visible increase in terms of numbers of women especially at university level where both males and females have to compete for fixed number of slots with the males. So far men take a large share of university slots compared to their female counterparts. For example, for the 2010/11 academic year, 20,073 students were admitted for university entrance. Of these, girls were only 7,820 translating to 39% [Siringi, 2010]. The use of quotas is an affirmative action to female education.

#### 6.6. School Dropout Rates

This problem in turn can be overcome in the following ways

- Constructing those facilities needed by girls, e.g. latrines
- Schools to provide sanitary towels to girls in both primary and secondary schools

#### 6.7. The Day School

It is a problem that can be overcome through

- Establishing more boarding schools for girls
- Establishing bursary funds from private sources to augment those by the government to enable girls from poor areas and poor families access education at boarding schools which offer quality education than the day schools.

### 7. Conclusion

Gender relations is a thorny and sensitive issue. The world today is replete with anti-women policies perpetrated by the patriarchal wing of the society. However, this need not be so. In order for development to be realised the world over, both men and women have to be adequately equipped to make their contribution on an almost equal basis. Education is one tool for equipping the sexes for this task. This paper has explored the origin of gender mainstreaming. It has shown that gender mainstreaming is an innovative intervention measure. The paper has also identified new tools in gender mainstreaming advising that for gender mainstreaming to succeed, experts must be incorporated as well as setting aside funds for the exercise. The paper has established that many areas in females' education need innovations. Therefore examined also are the methods that can be applied for the innovations. Finally the paper has recommendations on the way forward in gender mainstreaming in educational management.

### 8. List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

- AAUW : American Association of University Women
- BOG : Board of Governors
- EU : European Union
- FAWE : Forum for African Women Educationists
- GIA : Gender Impact Assessment
- ILEA : Inner London Educational Authority
- KCSE : Kenya National Examinations Council
- KNEC : Kenya National Examinations Council
- MYWO : Maendeleo Ya Wanawake Organization
- QASO : Quality and Standard Officers
- SMART : Simple Method to Assess the Relevance of Policies
- UNDP : United Nations Development Programme
- WHO : World Health Organization

### 9. Definitions of Key Terms

- **Gender:** in its wide sense, gender is the set of characteristics that are seen to distinguish between male and female entities, extending from one's biological sex to, in humans, one's social role or gender identity. As a word, it has more than one valid definition. In linguistics, it refers to characteristics of words. In ordinary speech, it is used interchangeably

with "sex" to denote the condition of being male or female. In the social sciences, however, it refers specifically to socially constructed and institutionalized differences such as gender roles. The World Health Organization (WHO), for example, uses "gender" to refer to "the socially constructed roles, behaviors, activities, and attributes that a given society considers appropriate for men and women".

- **Innovation:** this is the introduction of new ideas or methods into a process of doing something. It may refer to incremental, emergent or radical and revolutionary changes in thinking, products, processes, or organizations. innovation is an important topic in the study of economics, business, entrepreneurship, design, technology, sociology, and engineering.
- **Management:** in business areas and human organization management is an activity of getting people together to accomplish desired goals and objectives. It comprises planning, organizing, staffing, leading or directing, and controlling an organization [a group of one or more people or entities] for the purpose of accomplishing a goal.

## 10. References

1. Achoka, J. S. K. [2007]. In search of remedy to secondary school dropout pandemic in Kenya: role of the principal. Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology.
2. American Association of University Women [AAUW] [1993]. Hostile hallways. Washington D. C.: AAUW.
3. Arnot, M. [2002]. *Reproducing Gender: Essays on Educational Theory and Feminist Politics*. London: Routledge Falmer.
4. Begun, K., S. Akhter and S. Rahman [1988]. An Evaluation of BRAC'S Primary Programme, in Bellew, R. and King, E. (1991). *Promoting Girls and Women's Education: Lessons from the Past*. PHREE Working Paper No. 715. Washington D.C.: World Bank.
5. Bretherton, Charlotte [1999]: Preparing for the EU's Eastern Enlargement: A Strong Need for Gender Mainstreaming? Unpublished Paper – private communication - John Moores University of Liverpool.
6. Bretherton, Charlotte [2001]: Gender Mainstreaming and EU Enlargement: Swimming Against the tide? *Journal of European Public Policy* (8:1), pp. 60-81.
7. Beraimeh, K. L. [1988]. Gender and Textbooks: An African case study, in Albatash, P. G. and Kelly P. G. {Eds.}. *Textbooks in the third world: policy, content and context*. New York / London: Garland.
8. Blackstone, T. and Weinrich-Haste, H. [1980]. The right school for girls. *New Society*, 17 February.
9. Burkerhoff, C. [1991]. *Between Classes*. New York. Teachers College Press Centre for Mathematics Education at the Open University in Association with Inner London Education Authority [1986]. *Girls into Science*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
10. Council of Europe [1998]: *Gender Mainstreaming: Conceptual Framework, Methodology and Presentation of Good Practices*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe EG-S-MS (98) 2.
11. Draper, J. [1991]. We're Back with Gobbo, in Woods and Hammersley, M. (Eds.) 1993. *Gender and Ethnicity in Schools: Ethnographic Accounts*. London: The Open University.
12. Eaton, S. [1994]. Sexual Harassment. at an Early Age: New Cases Are Changing the Rules For Schools. *The Harvard Education Letter* (ISSN 8755-3716) 127-142.
13. European Commission Employment & Social Affairs [2001]: *Towards a Community Strategy on Gender Equality*. Vol. COM/2000/335 final. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.
14. European Parliament [1999]: Resolution A4-0072/99 Verslag over het voortgangsrapport van de Commissie inzake de follow-up van de mededeling 'Integratie van de gelijke kansen voor vrouwen en mannen in alle communautaire beleidsvormen en acties' (COM (98)0122-C4-0234/98)' 19 February.
15. Fif – Report: Erfolgreiche Wissenschaftlerinnen in der Eu – Forschung [2007]. Konferenz Gender in der Forschung – innovation durc Chancengleichheit, Berlin, 18 – 19 April 2007
16. Graham-Brown, S. [1991]. *Education in the Developing World: Conflict and Crisis*. London: Longman.
17. Herz, B., Masooma, H. Subbarao, K. and Raney, R. [1991]. *Letting Girls learn: Promising Approaches in Primary and Secondary Education*. World Bank Discussion Papers Washington D.C.: The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development/World Bank.
18. Hyde, K. [1989]. *Improving women's education in sub-Saharan Africa: A review of the literature*. PHREE Background Paper Series 15. Washington DC: World Bank.
19. Jamison D. and Lockheed, M. [1987]. Participating in Schooling: Determinants and Learning Outcomes in Nepal. *Economical Development and Cultural Change* 279-306.
20. Jensens, R.A. and Kiley, T.J. [2000]. *Teaching, Leading and Learning: Becoming Caring professionals*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
21. Jimenez, E. and Lockheed, M. [1989]. Enhancing girls learning through single-sex education: evidence and a policy conundrum. *Educational Evaluation and Policy analysis*, Vol. 11, No. 2: 117 – 142.
22. Jirira, O. K. [2007] In Collaboration with the Federation of Canadian Municipalities (FCM) (on behalf of study team). A Regional Study of Innovations in Gender Mainstreaming at National and Sub-National Levels. Paper presented at the Municipal Development Partnership for eastern and Southern Africa (MDP-ESA) Regional Workshop on HIV/AIDS and Gender, at the Holiday Inn, Harare, Zimbabwe, 21-23 March 2007
23. Jones, C. [1985]. *Sexual Tyranny in Mixed Schools*, in Weiner, G. (Ed.) (1985). *Just a Bunch of Girls: Feminine Approaches to Schooling*. Milton Keynes: Open University Press.



24. Kabira, W.M. and Masinjila, M. (1997). ABC of gender analysis. Nairobi: Forum for African Women Educationists (FAWE).
25. Kelly, A. [Ed.] [1981]. The Missing Half. Manchester: Manchester University Press.
26. Kelly, G. and Elliot, C. [Eds.] [1982]. Women's education in the Third world: Comparative perspectives. Albany, New York: State University of New York Press.
27. KNEC [2003]. KCSE results analysis. Nairobi: KNEC.
28. Lausberg, S. [1999]: Gelijke kansen bevorderen door een globale aanpak De Draad van Ariadne, No. 9, February, pp. 2-3.
29. Loban, G. [1980]. In Reedy, S. and Woodhead, M. [Eds.] [1980]. Family, work and education. Suffolk: Open University Press.
30. Lorde, A. [1984]. Sister Outsider. Freedom, GA: Crossing Press.
31. Marshall, C. (1997). Feminist Critical Policy Analysis 1: A Perspective from Primary and Secondary Schooling. London: The Falmer Press.
32. Mahony, P. [1989]. Sexual Violence and Mixed Schools, in Jones, C. and Mahony, P. (Eds.) (1989). Learning our Lines: Sexuality and Social Control in Education. London: The women Press.
33. Maendeleo Ya Wanawake Organization [MYWO], the Academy for Educational Development and the Johns Hopkins University Center for Communication Programs [2007]. Reducing Reproductive Health Barriers to Primary School Completion among Kenyan Girls. Educational Research and Review Vol. 2 (7), pp. 236-244
34. Mutua, L. W. [2002]. An investigation of factors affecting KCPE performance: A case study of Mtito-Andei Division, Makueni District. Unpublished M.Ed. degree project, University of Nairobi.
35. Nation Reporter, [2005, August 19]. Women work double shifts, asserts Gandhi's relative. Daily Nation, Friday, p.6.
36. Ng'ang'a, L. [2004 March 5]. Women can break the mould. Daily Nation, p. 8.
37. Ortiz, F.I. and Marshall, C. [1988]. Women in Educational Administration, in Boyan, N. (Ed.) (1988). Handbook of Research in Educational Administration. New York: Longman.
38. Park, S. [1986]. Girls and Sexual Harassment – an Issue of Schooling Policy, in Inner London Educational Authority (ILEA) (1986) (Ed.) (1986). Secondary Issues. London: ILEA.
39. Qumrun, N. and Rokeya, A. [2006]. Addressing special needs of girls Challenges in school. Paper presented in SACOSAN II, 2006 at Islamabad, Pakistan
40. Rees, T. [1998]: Mainstreaming Equality in the European Union. London: Routledge.
41. Republic Kenya [1999]. Totally Integrated Quality Education and Training (TIQET) for Unity, Equality and Development: the commission of Inquiry into the Education System of Kenya (The Koech Report). Nairobi: Government Printer.
42. Riddell, S. [1989]. Pupil Resistance and Gender Codes. Gender and Education 1 (2): 183-197.
43. Riger, S. [1991]. Gender Dilemmas in Sexual Harassment; Politics and Procedures. American Psychologist, 46(5), 497-505.
44. Riley, K. A. [1994]. Quality and Equality: Promoting Opportunities in Education. London: Cassel.
45. Sadker, M and Sadker, D. [1980]. Sexism in teacher education texts. Harvard Education Review, 50[1]: 36 – 46.
46. Science in Africa [2005]. Trouble with Teaching Science in Africa. Standard Newspaper, Thursday, School and Career, April, 7, 2005, p.15.
47. Siringi, S. [2010, February 27]. Female students narrow gap in varsity selection. Daily Nation, p.11
48. Smith, D. J. and Tomlinson, S. [1989]. The School Effect: A Study of Multi-Racial Comprehensiveness. Oxford: Pinter Publishers LTD.
49. Swiebel, J. [1999]: Mainstreaming als verdwijntruk. Lover 26:2, pp. 4-8
50. Thorne, B. [1993]. Gender and play: girls and boys in school. Buckingham: Open University.
51. Verloo, M. and Conny R. [1994]: Gender Impact Assessment: The Development of a New Instrument in the Netherlands. Impact Assessment 14 (1), pp. 3-20.
52. Walkerdine, V. and the Girls and the Mathematics Unit [1989]. Counting Girls Out. London: Virago.
53. Williams, R. [1973]. Base and Superstructure in Marxist Cultural Theory. New Left Review, 82: 3-17.
54. Wood, J. (1984). Groping Towards Sexism: Boys' Sex Talk, in A. McRobie and Nava, M. (Eds.) (1984). Gender and Generation. London: Macmillan.
55. Women of Europe (1999). The Deneutralisation of the European Parliament's Committee on Women's Rights, No. 86, May/June.
56. Woodward A. E. [2001]. Gender Mainstreaming in European Policy: Innovation or Deception? Discussion paper FS I 01 – 103 October 2001 ISSN Nr. 1011-9523