

Gender and Education Assessment, Papua New Guinea: A review of the literature on girls and education

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### List of acronyms and abbreviations

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| AGE | Accelerating Girls’ Education |
| ANCP | Australian NGO Cooperation Program |
| ANU | Australian National University |
| ARoB | Autonomous Region of Bougainville |
| BPfA | Beijing Platform for Action |
| CEDAW | Convention for the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination Against Women |
| CROP | Council of Regional Organisations in the Pacific |
| DHS | Demographic Health Survey |
| EFA | Education for All |
| EMIS | Education Management Information System |
| GER | Gross Enrolment Rate |
| GESI | Gender and Social Inclusion |
| GFP | Gender Focal Points |
| GoPNG | Government of Papua New Guinea |
| GPI | Gender Parity Index |
| GRB | Gender Responsive Budgets |
| HIES | Household Income and Expenditure Survey |
| ICCPR | International Convention for Civil and Political Rights |
| ICESCR | International Convention for Economic, Social and Cultural Rights |
| ILO | International Labour Organisation |
| LLG | Local Level Government |
| NCD | National Capital District |
| MDG | Millennium Development Goals |
| MTDS | Mid-Term Development Strategy |
| NDoE | National Department of Education |
| NER | Net Enrolment Rate |
| NRI | National Research Institute |
| ODW | Office for the Development of Women |
| OLPLLG | Organic Law on Provincial and Local Government |
| OLIPPAC | Organic Law on the Integrity of Political Parties and Candidates |
| PICT | Pacific Island Countries and Territories |
| PNG | Papua New Guinea |
| RPPA | Revised Pacific Platform for Action |
| SPC | Secretariat of the Pacific Community |
| SRGBV | School Related Gender Based Violence |
| TVET | Technical Vocational Education and Training |
| UNGEI | United Nations Girls Education Initiative |
| VSO | Volunteer Service Overseas |
| WASH | Water and Sanitation and Hygiene |

### Key terms and concepts used in this document

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Key terms and concepts from Universalising Basic Education (2009)** | |
| Access | Access to education can be improved through the provision of schools where there are none. Other strategies to improve access for girls include changes to laws or regulations preventing enrolment by some groups (such as pregnant girls). Access can also be addressed through ‘fee free’ education, construction of schools closer where girls live, on-time enrolment, provision of qualified teachers, flexible schedules (morning or afternoon school), and changed parental and community values about the importance of education for girls and other marginalised groups. Scholarships, particularly at higher levels of education and compensation for the opportunity costs of girls’ education such as provision of care for younger children (so that girls don’t have to stay home to look after younger siblings) contribute to improved access for girls. |
| Retention | More students staying on to complete higher levels of education is measured and described as a retention rate (or survival rate). Retention rates are different between urban and rural areas, between girls and boys and amongst marginalised groups such as the poor and disabled. Strategies to retain or get more girls to stay at school for longer, include addressing the above access factors, together with strategies to reduce drop-out. |
| Quality | Quality can be measured through both inputs and outputs. Inputs include the provision of text-books, learning materials, quality teachers and curriculum, and classroom facilities. Teacher education and training, and smaller class sizes all contribute to improved education quality. Education quality is usually measured by student performance on test scores and transition to higher levels of education. |
| Equity (and gender equity) | Gender equity is the process of allocating resources, programs, and decision making fairly to both males and females without any discrimination on the basis of sex and addressing any imbalances in the benefits available to males and females. Strategies to improve gender equity in education include mainstreaming of gender through the curriculum, teacher training materials and capacity development activities such as workshops. Other strategies include awareness raising for parents and community members about the importance of girls’ education. Gender equity is what we do to achieve gender equality. |
| Management | Policy development, planning and budgeting at school and DoE at central, provincial and district levels are essential for equity in education. Strategies to improve educational management include capacity strengthening and development of effective partnerships, effective leadership, school management and involvement of community members. Additionally, collection and analysis of sex-disaggregated data through effective EMIS and its use for educational planning and policy development are critical to improving educational equity and improved educational management. |
| **Other key terms and concepts** | |
| Causal attribution | Causal attribution is used to rule out other possible causes of the effect or impact of the intervention being measured. Causal attribution involves identifying what evidence would be consistent with a causal relationship, and then gathering and analysing data from different sources to determine whether the evidence matches this. |
| Counterfactual | The counterfactual can be identified by asking. ‘what would have happened in the absence of the intervention? To establish a counterfactual, a control group or comparison group can be established. A counterfactual can also be hypothetical. Sometimes it is possible to construct a ‘hypothetical counterfactual’ of what would have happened in the absence of the programme or policy by demonstrating that conditions would have remained the same. A counterfactual approach involves developing an estimate of what would have happened in the absence of a programme or policy, and comparing this to what has been observed in the presence of the intervention. |
| Gender | Gender refers to both women and men, not women alone. It refers to the social and cultural differences between women and men, girls and boys. These differences determine what is expected, allowed and valued by women and men, girls and boys in different cultures and contexts. Gender roles are learned through socialization processes; they are not fixed but are changeable. Gender systems are institutionalized through education systems, political and economic systems, legislation, and culture and traditions. The focus in changing gender roles is not on individual women and men but on the system which determines gender roles and responsibilities, access to and control over resources, and decision-making. Attempts to improve gender equality increasingly involve males based on the recognition that men need to be allies for gender equality because gender equality is not possible unless men change their attitudes and behaviour in many areas, for example in relation to reproductive rights and health. Gender systems in place in many contexts are negative for men as well as for women – creating unrealistic demands on men and requiring men to behave in narrowly defined ways. |
| Gender Equality | Gender equality is the outcome of gender equity and gender mainstreaming activities, that is the conditions where access to rights or opportunities is unaffected by gender. Gender equality refers to the equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men and girls and boys. Equality does not mean that women and men will become the same but that women’s and men’s rights, responsibilities and opportunities will not depend on whether they are born male or female. Gender equality implies that the interests, needs and priorities of both women and men are taken into consideration, recognising the diversity of different groups of women and men. This means ensuring that the perceptions, interests, needs and priorities of women and men (which can be very different because of the differing roles and responsibilities of women and men) will be given equal weight in planning and decision-making. Equality between women and men is seen both as a human rights issue. Equality between women and men has both a quantitative and a qualitative aspects. The quantitative aspect refers to the desire to achieve equitable representation of women – increasing balance and parity, while the qualitative aspect refers to achieving equitable influence on establishing development priorities and outcomes for women and men. |
| Gender Mainstreaming | Gender mainstreaming is not an end in itself, but a means to an end. Gender mainstreaming is an approach to achieve gender equality. It does not mean developing separate women’s projects within work programmes, or even women’s components within existing activities in the work programmes. It requires that attention be given to gender perspectives as an integral part of all activities across all programmes. This involves making gender perspectives (what women and men do and the resources and decision-making processes they have access to) more central to all policy development, research, advocacy, development, implementation. |
| Impact evaluation | Impact evaluation provides information about the impacts produced by an intervention - positive and negative, intended and unintended, direct and indirect. This means that an impact evaluation must establish what has been the cause of observed changes referred to as causal attribution. |
| Mixed methods | Mixed methods approaches to evaluation include both qualitative and quantitative methods working together in complementary ways. |
| Qualitative | The goal of qualitative research and evaluation is to understand issues or particular situations by investigating the perspectives and behavior of the people in these situations and the context within which they act. Qualitative data are gathered primarily from observations, interviews, participatory processes and documents, and are analysed by a variety of systematic techniques. This approach is useful in understanding causal processes, and in facilitating action based on the research results. Qualitative methods are primarily inductive. Qualitative methods may be combined with quantitative methods in conducting a study (mixed methods). |
| Quantitative | The goal of quantitative research and evaluation is to quantify or to measure changes by using numbers. Quantitative methods are less contextual and less participatory. |
| School Related Gender Based Violence | School Related Gender Based Violence refers to acts of sexual, physical or psychological violence inflicted on children in and around schools because of stereotypes and roles or norms attributed to or expected of them because of their sex or gendered identity. It also refers to the differences between girls’ and boys’ experience of and vulnerabilities to violence. |

### Executive Summary

This literature review is a deliverable from the Gender and Education Assessment conducted over the period April to June 2015 in Papua New Guinea (PNG).

The focus of the Gender and Education Assessment as a whole is to examine the contribution of Australian Aid to advancing gender equality, specifically girls’ education in PNG over the period 2010-2015 under the three aid modalities:

* Direct Funding Support
* Infrastructure
* Capacity Development

This literature review is one key output of the Gender and Education Assessment. It is required to summarise:

* Key issues identified nationally that impact on female participation and achievements in the education system;
* Prior national research that might explain inequities evidenced from the data analysis noting any regional (e.g urban/rural/sociolinguistic groups, provinces/income) differences;
* Strategies that have been tried nationally in the past to promote female participation in schools, teaching and school management, and assessment of their value (why they succeeded or not);
* International evidence of strategies that have been tried successfully in similar contexts to address the kind of inequities noted in the data analysis and the literature review.

The Gender and Education Assessment will feed into:

* The policy and planning framing of investments for the education sector by the Australian government.
* High level talks between the Governments of Australia and PNG regarding the Pacific Women Shaping Pacific Development initiative.
* UNICEF capacity development project targeting School Related Gender Based Violence (SRGBV) in selected schools.

In order to contextualise the Gender and Education Assessment as a whole, this literature review examines the social, political and economic contexts of Papua New Guinea from a gender perspective.

Women are disadvantaged in PNG socially, culturally, economically and politically. The prevalence of violence against women and girls is one of the highest in the world.[[1]](#footnote-1) Society values ‘big man’ leadership and women are absent from both formal and informal decision-making. There are fewer girls than boys at all levels of the education system, and women are under-represented in paid employment, especially in the formal sector.

PNG is a signatory to a number of international and regional agreements promoting gender equality. These include the Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)[[2]](#footnote-2); the Beijing Platform for Action (BPFA 1995)[[3]](#footnote-3) and others. On all of these, implementation has been weak. PNG submitted its first, second and third reports to CEDAW in 2010, 17 years after the due date.

The above international commitments are reiterated in national policies including the Constitution and subsequent national strategic plans and policies. Most recently, the country’s commitment to gender equality is articulated in the Gender Equity and Social Inclusion (GESI) policy of the PNG Department of Personnel Management. This policy provides impetus for government departments to address GESI issues in organisation and management by setting guidelines for public services and public servants to introduce GESI principles into policy and practice.[[4]](#footnote-4)

The national women’s machinery was established in 2010 consistent with CEDAW. The Office for the Development of Women (ODW) was allocated 0.01 percent of GoPNG’s total government budget in 2010, providing only salaries for staff and no funds for activity implementation. The National Council for Women does not receive any funds from government.

The *National Policy for Women and Gender Equality* 2011-2015 (2011) was developed from within the Department for Community Development and adopts a Gender and Development (GAD) Approach. It has 10 priority areas. It is understood that there are no funds allocated from government to implement the policy.

Within the education sector, there are sufficient gender policies and strategic plans for action to be taken to promote gender equality. However implementation has been weak, with no funds other than two salaries within the National Department of Education (NDoE), (a Gender and HIV Unit Manager and a Gender help desk officer) allocated to the task of mainstreaming gender across the entire education system.

This literature review uses the Government of PNG’s *Universal Basic Education Policy* *2010-2019* (UBE) and the *Australian Aid Education Delivery Strategy 2010-2015[[5]](#footnote-5)* as the organising and analytical frameworks for an analysis of the main issues impacting on girls’ education in PNG.

In order to frame this study, it was necessary to first define what was meant by the term ‘participation.’[[6]](#footnote-6) The key terms and concepts used in the UBE and the *Australian Aid Education Delivery Strategy 2010-2015;* access, retention, quality, equity and education management, specifically in relation to girls’ education in PNG are interpreted as follows, for this Gender and Education Assessment.

***Access:*** Access to education can be improved through the provision of schools where there were none previously. The change, or removal of a law or regulation preventing enrolment by some groups (such as pregnant girls) is also be a measure to improve access to education. Access can also be addressed through ‘fee free’ education, provision of qualified teachers, and changed parental and community values about the importance of education for girls and other marginalised groups.

***Retention:*** More students staying on to complete higher levels of education is measured and described as a retention rate. Presently, retention rates are different between urban and rural areas, between girls and boys and amongst marginalised groups such as the poor and disabled. Cohort Retention Rates (CRR) provide an indication of the efficiency of the education system as a whole.

***Quality:*** Quality can be measured through both inputs and outputs. Inputs include the provision of text-books, learning materials, quality of teachers and curriculum, and classroom facilities. Examination rates and test scores are often used as an output measure of educational quality.

***Equity:*** Strategies to improve gender equity in education include mainstreaming of gender through the curriculum, teacher training materials and capacity development activities such as workshops. Other strategies include awareness raising for parents and community members about the importance of girls education.

***Education management:*** Policy development, planning and budgeting at school and National Department of Education (NDoE) at central, provincial and district levels are essential for equity in education. Strategies to improve educational management include capacity strengthening and development of effective partnerships. Additionally, collection and analysis of sex-disaggregated data through effective EMIS and its use for educational planning and policy development are critical to improving educational equity and improved educational management

There is little literature on girls’ education from PNG and the Pacific more generally. In the absence of sufficient local and regional studies, the international literature from other developing countries is reviewed to identify the types of interventions that have been successful in other parts of the world to improve the access, retention, quality, equity and management of education for girls. This literature review focuses on studies for which there is strong empirical evidence to support claims of improvements to girls’ education. However, due to the absence of studies conducted in PNG and the Pacific, qualitative studies supplement the quantitative studies.

Together with the above, evidence from previous Australian Aid funded activities in the education sector in PNG are drawn upon to identify where Australian Aid has made an impact on girls’ education through past investments. As well, programs from other bilateral, multilateral donors and NGO’s are examined where documented evidence is available.

Evidence provided in this document strongly supports the conclusion that the key issues needing to be addressed are the affordability of education and the opportunity costs for girls’ education. Other interventions that have been shown to have strong impacts on girls education include fee free education, conditional cash transfers, school feeding programs, schools located near where girls live, flexible school schedules, WASH programs, girl friendly school cultures, improved teacher training and provision of information about post-school pathways. This information is summarised in the table overleaf.

Whilst there is no clear evidence in PNG or elsewhere that increasing the number, privacy and safety of girls’ toilets is effective alone, internationally WASH programs incorporating improved toilet facilities together with water supply and health training are shown to have a strong links to access and retention of girls in education. There is no conclusive evidence that links improved attendance by girls to menstrual hygiene management programs, however it was shown that girls spent less time washing clothing during menstruation and studies document that girls miss school during menstruation.

A summary from the international evidence from the literature about what works in girl’s education from is summarised on the table that follows.

**Summary of international evidence for interventions to support girls’ education**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Intervention | Reported impact on girls education | Strength of Evidence |
| Elimination of fees | Elimination of fees has a strong impact on girls’ access and retention and promotes equity in education. It addresses the issue of affordability of education. | Strong |
| Conditional cash transfers | Conditional cash transfers have strong impacts on girls’ access and retention and promotes equity in education. It addresses the issue of affordability of education and the opportunity costs of sending girls to school. | Strong |
| No or free school uniforms | This intervention has a strong impact on girls’ access, retention and promotes equity in education. It addresses the issue of affordability of education. | Strong |
| School feeding programs | This intervention has a greater impact on girls increased access and retention (but not in crowded environments). It addresses the issue of affordability of education and the opportunity costs of sending girls to school. | Promising |
| Community based care for younger siblings | Provision of care for young children near schools addresses the issue of affordability of education and the opportunity costs of sending girls to school. | Unclear |
| Build schools closer to where girls live | This intervention has a strong impact on girls’ access and retention and promotes equity in education. It addresses the concerns of girls’ safety and reputations. | Strong |
| Community involvement in local schools | There are different results in different locations. Done properly, the impact is potentially strong. | Promising |
| Flexible schedules for safe schools | This intervention has a strong impact on girls’ access, retention and promotes equity in education. It addresses the issue of the opportunity costs of education for girls. | Strong |
| WASH and separate and private toilets | The evidence is strong for combined WASH programs (together with improved sanitation infrastructure) on girls’ access and retention. This intervention promotes equity in education. There is no evidence on toilets alone having the same impacts. | Strong/ Unclear |
| School culture | Girl friendly schools and a quality mix of combined school level reforms have a strong impact on girls’ access, retention, quality, and equity and school management. School Related Gender Based Violence (SRGBV) needs to be addressed to improve school cultures for girls. | Strong |
| More women teachers | The presence of women teachers have impacts on improving access, retention, quality and equity for girls. | Promising |
| Improve teacher education and training levels | Improved teacher education and training is good for all students and promotes quality education. It has a strong impact on girls’ access, retention and promotes equity in education. | Strong |
| Curriculum, teaching and out of school learning | This intervention is promising for access, retention and quality and promotes equity in education because it addresses parents’ concerns about the value of education for girls. | Promising |
| Provide adequate books and supplies | Girls were reported to benefit more than boys from the supply of text books and resources. | Promising |
| Provide information about post-school pathways | This intervention is promising for access, retention and equity because it addresses parents’ concerns about the value of education for girls | Strong |

### 1. Introduction

This literature review is one key deliverable from the Gender and Education Assessment conducted in Port Moresby from March to June 2015. The assessment focuses on Australia’s investment in the education sector in Papua New Guinea (PNG) and aims to inform Australian Government’s education program about the impact of investments involving gender and education over the period of the *Australian Aid Education Delivery Strategy 2010-2015*.[[7]](#footnote-7) The focus of the assessment is on the primary years of education (grades 2 to 8), which is where Australian Aid has been focusing its inputs over the period 2010-2015.

The Gender and Education Assessment as a whole generates lessons and recommendations on how to improve girl’s access to education and aims to inform the Australian Aid Program and PNG Government stakeholders on investments towards improving gender equality in education. As well, the Assessment will identify how future investments could secure improved educational outcomes for girls and young women in PNG. An overview of the Gender and Education Assessment as a whole is included here as Annex 1.

The purpose of the Gender and Education Assessment is to analyse the impacts of the Australian Aid Program’s investments aimed at strengthening girls’ participation in education and, overall, in society. The Australian Aid Program through the *Australian Aid Education Delivery Strategy 2010-2015* provides support under three modalities:

Direct Financial Support (DFS): Under this modality, funds are provided direct to basic education providers (national, provincial and district) through the Department of Education (DoE) financial management and reporting systems and Imprest accounts, within existing government systems. Proposals for activities are submitted to Australian Aid Program using the DoE Project Formulation Document and agreed processes.

Specialised Services Provision (Infrastructure) (HEPF): Under this modality, Australian Aid provides funds for the design, contracting and construction of basic and secondary education facilities (classrooms, teacher housing, dormitories, libraries, school infrastructure such as ablution blocks, and teacher colleges). Procurement and distribution of teaching and learning resources to schools such as learning and other materials are included under this modality.

Capacity Development Facility (CDF): This modality provides high quality technical, operational and logistical assistance to the education sector as prioritised by Australia and GoPNG. This assistance includes long and short term advisers to the DoE as well as short courses and other professional development activities.[[8]](#footnote-8)

This literature review is one key output of the Gender and Education Assessment and it is required to summarise;

* Key issues identified nationally that impact on female participation and achievements in the education system;
* Prior national research that might explain inequities evidenced from the data analysis noting any regional (e.g urban/rural/sociolinguistic groups, provinces/income) differences;
* Strategies that have been tried nationally in the past to promote female participation in schools, teaching and school management, and assessment of their value (why they succeeded or not);
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The Gender and Education Assessment will feed into:

* The policy and planning framing of investments for the education sector by the Australian government
* High level talks between the Governments of Australia and PNG regarding the Pacific Women Shaping Pacific Development initiative.
* The UNICEF capacity development project targeting School Gender Based Violence (SGBV) in selected schools.

This literature review firstly provides an overview of the current context in PNG from a gender perspective. The political, economic and socio-cultural contexts are examined to situate the literature review and analysis. Resources allocated to implement policies are examined to identify the ways in which the Government of Papua New Guinea (GoPNG) supports implementation of gender equality, consistent with stated international and national commitments. Section 2 of this literature review then focuses more closely on the education sector at national level and includes the Autonomous Region of Bougainville. In section 3 the focus is on issues impacting on the five key issues identified in *The Universal Basic Education Policy 2010-2019* and the *Australian Aid Delivery Strategy 2010-2015* as they impact on access, retention, quality, equity and management in education.[[9]](#footnote-9) Section 4 includes a summary of previous activities conducted by Australian Aid, multi-lateral and bi-lateral donors as well as NGO development partners aimed at improving gender equality in education. The international literature is examined in section 5 and identifies specific strategies for improving education of girls.

Research on girls and education in the Pacific region is very limited. It is necessary to look much more broadly to experience from other countries to identify activities that have been shown elsewhere to support girl’s education. This document concludes by recommending some areas of focus for subsequent inputs by Australian Aid.

### 2. Context

#### 2.1 Social and cultural context

Papua New Guinea is a diverse and rugged country with hundreds of ethnic and cultural groups spread over different ecosystems. The population comprises Non-Austronesians, Austronesians, Melanesians, Polynesians, Asians, and Europeans. In 2011 the population was 7.8 million and was widely dispersed.[[10]](#footnote-10) The majority of people live in the highlands (38 percent), a further 28 percent in the north coast region of the mainland, 20 percent in the south coast region and 14 percent in the Islands.[[11]](#footnote-11) The population is young, with 40 percent under the age of 15 years while 20 years is the median age. This is a result of high fertility, approximately 4.6 children per woman.

Social and cultural relationships are based on the ‘wantok’ system whereby family and clan members are expected to support each other. In practice this means that a person who is employed may have responsibility for a number of other family or clan members who are unemployed. The pressures of the wantok system are increasing, with the system under pressure from modern demands and the increasing burden of support.

Women’s social status is lower than that of men. Women face barriers in the social, cultural, political and economic spheres. PNG is a patriarchal society, characterised by ‘Big Man’ domination of position, power and wealth. Nepotism is an important feature of how the system works, with recipients of rewards being indebted to the leader. Female leaders are rare, with only seven ever elected to the PNG parliament. There are presently only 3 female members in the current parliament.

Legislation aimed at reserving seats for women in the National Parliament based on CEDAW Temporary Special Measures and Millennium Development Goal 3 (MDG) to address gender equality and women’s participation in leadership and decision making was not passed in 2012.[[12]](#footnote-12) There are few women in positions of power, either elected or appointed. Some women do have limited amounts of power through membership of Christian churches. Christianity is practiced alongside more traditional belief systems. Whilst membership and leadership positions in the churches may give women some social power, it does not translate into any other benefits or rewards.

The Papua New Guinea Millennium Development Goals report notes that ‘funding for MDG 3 related activities is low. About 80 percent of all projects devised to promote gender equality and empowerment of women that have been endorsed by the National Women’s Council (NWC) have not been funded. Moreover, no funding is available for a gender disaggregated database in Office for the Development of Women (ODW).’[[13]](#footnote-13)

Women’s literacy, education and employment rates are lower than those of males, and violence against women is reported to be one of the highest in the world. Sixty-eight percent or more than 2.3 million women in Papua New Guinea have experienced violence, One third, or 1.13 million, were subjected to rape and 17 percent of sexual abuse involved girls between the ages 13 and 14.[[14]](#footnote-14) According to the United Nations (UN) half of all sexual abuse victims are under 15 years of age, while one in five age assault victims are aged between 16 and 20.[[15]](#footnote-15) & [[16]](#footnote-16)

It is not expected that PNG will meet the MDG goals number 2 & 3 that focus on universal basic education and women’s empowerment.

#### 2.2 Political context

PNG gained independence from Australia in 1975 and operates as a parliamentary democracy under the Westminster system. The ‘custom’ law (Underlying Law Act) together with the Constitution is the basis for all law in PNG. There is one national chamber of government with 109 members, one member each from the 19 provinces and the National Capital District (NCD), and one member each from the 89 open constituencies. Since the 1995 introduction of the Organic Law on Provincial and Local Government (OLPLLG), national and provincial levels of government are combined into one legislative chamber. The OLPLG and the Organic Law on the Integrity of Political Parties and Candidates (OLIPPAC) were intended to improve women’s access to decision making process through election, however, implementation has been weak as a result of cultural differences, where power is still rooted in ‘communal-primordial sentiments over legal-liberal requirements.’[[17]](#footnote-17)

While women do contest the national level elections, few are elected. There have only been seven women elected at national level since independence and this is despite the introduction in 2007 of the Limited Preferential Vote System (LPV), thought to favour women. In the forthcoming Bougainville election scheduled for mid-2015 eight women are contesting the election for constituency seats.[[18]](#footnote-18)

Legislation to reserve seats for women at national level was defeated. It was not only defeated but 21 members left the chamber. Only one member who remained in the chamber voted against the Bill, while 58 supported the Bill.[[19]](#footnote-19) At local levels, the OLPLLG makes provision for reserved seats for women. Out of the 20 provinces, only eight of the 20 allocated seats were filled.[[20]](#footnote-20)

Wards are the lowest level of government. Usually, a ward is one or more small villages, represented by a LLG Councillor. The regional member usually serves as Governor. There are 319 wards in PNG, each ward has a Ward Committee comprising five members. It is mandated that two committee members must be women. Each ward committee nominates a representative to the LLG Council. In the 2013 election approximately 40 to 50 women were elected. Women’s representation in LLG councils is through the appointed members. Every rural LLG (290) appoints two women representatives to the council. There are 29 urban LLG’s and three seats for appointed council members which can be women or men.[[21]](#footnote-21) Reports suggest that LLG’s have not implemented the law effectively relating to women’s representation.[[22]](#footnote-22)

The Autonomous Region of Bougainville has its own Constitution (2005) and in contrast to the PNG Constitution, it makes provision for three reserved seats for women in the House of Representatives. It also recognises marginalised groups in society, including women and girls.

#### 2.3 Economic context

Unemployment and poverty are extremely high. The majority of the population, around 80 percent are engaged in subsistence/semi-subsistence agriculture. Land tenure is customary and owned by communities.[[23]](#footnote-23) These land holdings are the source of a range of cash crops including coffee, tea, copra, coca and palm oil. There are limited transport options, with many communities lacking even basic financial and public services. Air travel is expensive and the lack of transport options limits growth in rural areas. There is a natural resource based sector export economy, but overall the formal sector employs around 135,000 people, with about half of these employed in the private sector. Formal sector employment is concentrated in the NCD.

It is estimated that 70 percent of the population live on less that $1 a day. This is significantly higher proportion of the population than other countries in South East Asia and the Pacific. The skills base is low and there is a working age population of around 2.4 million people out of a population of 5.2 million.[[24]](#footnote-24) There were 76,000 public servants in 2007, 25 percent women. Women are under-represented in leadership in the public sector with only 12 percent occupying positions such as departmental secretary or deputy. In the private sector, few women are in management positions in medium to large sized businesses.

###### 2.3.1 Women’s share of employment

Women’s share of jobs in the formal sector in urban areas is concentrated in the public sector. Alarmingly, the 2009-2010 Household Income and Expenditure Survey (HIES) reports that women in the formal sector ‘report average net monthly pay that is less than half that reported by men (K 682.17 for women and K1402.12 for men).’[[25]](#footnote-25) PNG has ratified 24 International Labour Organisation (ILO) Conventions including Equal Remuneration (n. 100). World Bank adds, ‘for the conventions it has already ratified, and the commitments made at regional and international levels, PNG has yet to adopt any action plan to implement them.’[[26]](#footnote-26)

The 2006 Demographic and Household Survey (DHS) and the 2000 National Census provide the most up to date information on women’s labour force participation.[[27]](#footnote-27)

Women’s lower representation in formal employment is a result of their generally lower levels of secondary and post-school education. Women are also constrained by their gender roles and the expectation that men should hold senior positions. When women work, some male partners become jealous and this results in violence in the home. While there are few women employed in the formal labour market, 59 percent of women in the rural sector are engaged in production of food, catching fish and selling goods, however, men’s earnings in this sector are still higher than women’s.[[28]](#footnote-28) The rate of women’s participation in agricultural production in the five highlands provinces is more than 70 percent while the NCD has the lowest Labour Force participation rate, 32.6 percent for women.[[29]](#footnote-29) Key problems impacting specifically on women in taking goods to market are safety concerns as well as the poor sanitary conditions at the markets themselves. A lack of ablution facilities, also presents threats to public health.[[30]](#footnote-30)

The recently released *National Informal Sector Policy 2010-2015* focuses on increasing financial inclusion. The policy document defines financial inclusion as ‘access to formal financial institutions and services.’[[31]](#footnote-31) Only eight percent of the population is described as financially included as a result of low population densities and the rugged terrain that presents difficulties in providing services.Women do not have access to financial resources such as land title and are disadvantaged in relation to family, marriage and inheritance laws, practices and assets.[[32]](#footnote-32) There is increased attention to the creation of services, support groups and other strategies to support women entrepreneurs through the development of a Small and Medium Enterprise Policy, the establishment of Women in Business Association and the development of some financial products by banks.[[33]](#footnote-33) This is unlikely to help rural women whose main needs with regard to financial services are thought to be mobile banking, microfinance, savings and remittance schemes.[[34]](#footnote-34)

###### 2.3.2 Gender Responsive Budgeting

Gender Responsive Budgeting (GRB) is a process that facilitates an assessment of the gendered impacts of government budgets. This does not imply separate budgets for women or men, rather, the process aims to break down or disaggregate the government’s mainstream budget according to its impact on women and men, different groups of women and men (such as rural or urban). The aim is to understand better how policy and funding decisions benefit different groups of women and men, girls and boys. A GRB assessment of a budget reveals how the government’s policy objectives such as gender equality are funded through the budget. GRB analysis provides a powerful assessment of the government’s priorities whether or not policy commitments are supported through budgetary allocations. It is possible to assess the national budget, and also to examine sector budgets to identify how the sector translates its policies into resource allocation.

The progress of GRB implementation in PNG was reviewed and it was found that there has been little progress in translating policy to improved gender equality through allocation of resources.[[35]](#footnote-35) GRB can ‘contribute to the development of a comprehensive monitoring framework – through a set of gender sensitive indicators – to assess results and progress towards national gender equality commitments.’[[36]](#footnote-36) There is a lack of political will to develop appropriate targets and indicators or to adequately resource the national machinery of women. There are also few women or civil society organisations with knowledge of the budgets process and therefore, resourcing at national and sectoral level remains un-assessed. There is one exception to that rule. The PNG Education Advocacy Network (PEAN) conducted a school budget tracking survey and whilst the focus was not on gender, the report did identify the main sources of funding to schools, the problems schools have in accessing funds and the ways in which spending is allocated within the schools. Schools reported a lack of confidence and knowledge of financial record management processes for the preparation of acquittals and financial reports, which are delayed because of delays in funds being received by the schools.[[37]](#footnote-37)

Because of the overall inaction on gender responsive budgeting, it is not possible to determine with any accuracy the amount of resources directed to support the GoPNGs’ gender equality commitments and allocations through line budgets of ministries.

#### 2.4 Regional commitments to gender equality

At a regional level, PNG is a member of the Pacific Island Nations and the South Pacific Community. The *Revised Pacific Platform for Action* (RPPA 2005-2015) is based on the Beijing outcomes and international commitments to CEDAW.[[38]](#footnote-38)

There are four strategic areas for action agreed to by Pacific Island nations:

* Mechanisms to promote the advancement of women.
* Women’s legal and human rights.
* Women’s access to services.
* Economic empowerment of women.

There is only one key action relating to gender and education under women’s access to services, ‘revising school curriculums and text books to ensure they are free of gender stereotyping.’[[39]](#footnote-39)

Progress on monitoring the RPPA is through the Triennial Conference of Pacific Women. The last meeting was held in 2013. The Conference called for Pacific Island Countries and Territories (PICTs) to:

* Adopt measures that ensure that girls have equal access to primary, secondary and tertiary education, especially in rural and remote areas, and areas of great hardship.
* Adopt measures that promote respect for the safety of women and girls in the school environment, including measures to prevent as well as to respond to School Related Gender Based Violence (SRGBV).
* Encourage training and education institutions to expand choices for women and girls in accessing technical and vocational education and training (TVET), and higher education.
* Put in place inclusive policies to accommodate pregnant young women and mothers to complete their education.
* Request countries and CROP agencies to support greater research and gender analysis with strategies to address the root causes of the lower retention and achievement rates of boys in some PICTs.
* Disseminate data regarding Pacific women’s access to education and to support initiatives that address all barriers – civil, political, social, cultural, economic and physical – faced by women, young women, and girls, including those with disabilities, to access all levels of education.
* Support improvements in the quality of education towards strengthening literacy and numeracy rates, and noted that South Pacific Board for Educational Assessment (SPBEA) and the Forum Education Ministers have initiated work in this area.
* Review school curricula and all teaching materials in order to eliminate gender stereotypes and all forms of discrimination.
* With the support of Council of Regional Organisations in the Pacific (CROP) agencies and development partners, to implement initiatives for (a) the ongoing professional development of teachers and vocational trainers, and (b) a core basic teacher training programme that includes compulsory areas in family health and comprehensive sex education, counselling and working with those with special needs.
* Request the Forum Education Ministers’ Meeting, and all other regional ministerial fora, to include a gender perspective in the development of all education policies and programmes.
* Request CROP agencies to provide research on the quality of training and professional development, particularly in the area of health education.
* Conduct research into the obstacles to women’s access to decent work, even after investments made in higher level and tertiary studies, and identify links between higher education and employment outcomes for women.
* Request that all school buildings improve access to people with disabilities on their campuses and in their distance learning programmes.
* Request PICTs’ education systems to include climate change and gender in school curricula.[[40]](#footnote-40)

The monitoring and reporting arrangements in place are unclear. The RPPA is due for review again in 2015.

#### 2.5 Policy context for gender equality in Papua New Guinea

The PNG Constitution and its Bill of Rights guarantees equal rights. According to the Secretariat of the Pacific Community (SPC) it does not define discrimination, nor does it have a specific anti-discrimination clause to guarantee equality between women and men.[[41]](#footnote-41) PNG is signatory to the key international instruments that support improved gender equality. These include the Convention for the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW ratified in 1995); Beijing Platform for Action (1995); Commonwealth Plan of Action for Gender Equality (2005-2015) and the Pacific Plan (2005);[[42]](#footnote-42) International Convention for Social, Economic and Cultural Rights (ICESCR ratified 2008); International Convention for Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR ratified 2008); Millennium Development Goals (MDG’s 2000); UN Security Council Regulations 1325, 1820, 1888 and 1889.[[43]](#footnote-43)

Having ratified the above agreements, PNG is obliged to implement them. PNG submitted its first report to CEDAW in 2010 to cover the initial, second and third reporting periods. The report was 17 years overdue. In the committee meeting to discuss the report, the committee asked about the funding provided to the Office for the Development of Women (ODW), the GoPNG responded that the ODW has 14 staff, headed by an Executive Director and had at that time a recurrent budget of PGK 480,000. Available information indicates that apart from staff salaries and the provision of an office, there are no program resources allocated to the ODW. SPC (2012) indicates the budget for ODW in 2009 was 0.009 percent rising to 0.01 percent of the total government budget in 2010. The National Commission for Women does not have any salaries paid and operates from a staff member’s home.[[44]](#footnote-44)

The CEDAW committee, in its questions to the PNG delegation to the 46th session of CEDAW raised the issue of pregnant girls being denied education through expulsion from school.[[45]](#footnote-45) In its response to the CEDAW committee, the GoPNG indicated that girls are not prohibited by law from attending school if pregnant, but they leave because of discrimination by school authorities, other students, parents and community members. The girls themselves feel ashamed because culturally, it is not acceptable for a pregnant girl to be at school.[[46]](#footnote-46) Other issues raised by the Committee included the sexual abuse of girls by teachers, gender based violence of girls, and the need for text book and curriculum reform.

Despite being signatory to CEDAW and other international agreements, little progress appears to have been made implementing gender equality policy in PNG.

#### 2.6 Development planning

The GoPNGs’ Vision 2050 reiterates the equal rights as articulated in the Constitution, specifically drawing attention to the need to overcome gender disparities. The *PNG Development Strategic Plan 2010-2030* articulates the gender equality goals and includes specific indicators on women and gender equality.[[47]](#footnote-47) The *Medium Term Development Strategy 2011-2015* (MTDS 2010) is the GoPNG plan for economic and social development. [[48]](#footnote-48) The MTDS states, ‘gender inequality is a severe threat to future development in PNG … PNG’s gender culture must continue to be unpacked and interventions must be sensitive to PNG ways.’[[49]](#footnote-49) It includes a number of specific gender targets to the year 2030. Relevant to the gender and the education sector, targets include improved rankings on the Gender Development Index and Gender Empowerment Index, improved gender parity at all levels of education and adult literacy and increases in women’s employment. The Education Sector Strategic Plan 2011-2030 is based upon Vision 2050.[[50]](#footnote-50) Gender Parity Index on 1 throughout the formal education system is the target for 2030. The recently released *National Education Plan: Quality learning for all 2014-2019,* has Gender Parity Index targets of 1 for elementary education, 0.95 for Primary and 0.95 for Secondary education by 2019.[[51]](#footnote-51)

Education targets in MTDS include fee free education, and targets for gender parity in basic education and completion rates at year 8 (49.4 percent) in 2015 and close to 100 percent in 2030.[[52]](#footnote-52) The *National Policy for Women and Gender Equality* (2011-2015)focuses on equal opportunities, equal treatment and equal entitlements.As mentionedabove, this policy has 10 priority action areas and no funds for implementation.

The *Gender and Social Inclusion* (GESI) policy was released in 2015.[[53]](#footnote-53) It provides an overarching framework for gender equality and social inclusion both across the public service and in service delivery to citizens. It stipulates actions to be taken under 11 areas, two of which are immediately relevant to the education sector; women in decision making, and education, training and learning. The GESI policy specifically focuses on the organizational mechanisms to promote gender equality and social inclusion through personnel management, therefore its focus is different to the National Policy for Women and Gender Equality. The GESI policy emerged from the governance program of support provided by Australian Aid through the governance program.

The GESI policy has clear implications for the NDoE (and other government departments). It may provide the impetus needed to focus attention on gender and social inclusion across the administration through raising general awareness of gender and social inclusion issues amongst public servants.

### 3. Gender and education in Papua New Guinea

This section provides an overview of the key policies in education in PNG, aimed at improving gender equality in education.

#### 3.1 Education policy

The *Universal Basic Education Plan 2010-2019* (2009) is based on the *National Education Plan 2005-2014* (2004), which is derived in turn from the *Medium Term Development Strategy 2010-2015* (MTDS 2010). The over-arching goal of the UBE (2010-2019) is:

All children of school age must enroll in school, complete nine years of basic education and should have learnt skills, knowledge and values covered in the basic education curriculum.

The *Universal Basic Education Plan 2010-2019* (2009) is explicitly linked to the international commitments made by PNG, including:

* Convention on the Rights of the Child (ratified by PNG in 1989)
* Education for All (1990)
* Millennium Development Goals (2000)

And it cites MDG goals and targets 2 and 3 as of particular importance:

**Goal 2:** Achieve universal basic education.

Target 3: Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling

**Goal 3:** Promote gender equality and empower women.

Target 4: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and at all levels of education no later than 2015.

Together with the above, the Dakar Framework, Education for All (EFA) Goal 5 is specifically targeted at gender:

**Goal 5:** Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005 and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls’ full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality.

Three further EFA goals are directly relevant to the present discussion. They are:

**Goal1:** Expanding early childhood and care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children.

**Goal 2:** Ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and compete free and compulsory primary education of good quality.

**Goal 6:** Improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence of all so that recognized and measurable learning outcomes are achieved by all, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills.[[54]](#footnote-54)

*Universal Basic Education Plan 2010-2019* identifies three key gender equity issues facing education in PNG. These are:

* Lower participation of girls, especially at the higher levels of education.
* Drop-out rates are higher for girls than boys.
* Poor participation of females in decision making in the education system.[[55]](#footnote-55)

Despite the above, itmakes no specific budget allocation for gender, stating:

As has been seen earlier there are not huge differences in terms of gender at the basic education level. The more significant differences are in the post primary and tertiary sectors of education.

It is hoped that many of the strategies outlined earlier will help in closing whatever the gender gap in terms of education opportunities. In particular, the strategy related to water and sanitation is designed specifically to attempt to keep girls in school. There will be a number of other strategies developed in order to achieve this and these will include the establishment of gender focal points in all provincial education administrations.[[56]](#footnote-56)

The above statement is concerning. Whilst gender parity in basic education at national level has improved, when the data is disaggregated to provincial, district and school level, it is clear that many girls are missing out on basic education in particular locations. It is also important to note that Gender Parity Index is calculated from Gross Enrolment Ratios. While this is an international standard measure, in countries like PNG with large numbers of over age enrolments in basic education, the true picture may be somewhat different. Regardless, the above quotation does not demonstrate a strong commitment to gender and education while historical budgetary allocations indicate low priority to gender equity issues, despite the existence of a sound policy framework.

#### 3.2 Education sector gender policy

The DoE has an *Equal Employment Policy* (2009) and has had a gender and education policy for a number of years. The *Gender Equality in Education Policy* (2002) is supported by the *Gender Equity in Education Policy: Guidelines for Implementation* (2002), and the *Gender Equity Strategic Plan* *2009-2014* (2009).

The Autonomous Region of Bougainville (ARoB) has its own education plan, *Sustainability and Self -Reliance* *2007-2016* and *Policy for Gender Equality, Women’s Empowerment, Peace and Security* (n.d.).[[57]](#footnote-57) The Bougainville policy is based on the *PNG National Policy for Women and Gender Equality* *2011-2015*. It is interesting to note that the ARoB policy identifies the need for gender responsive vocational courses, and the need for strategies of female retention in education, yet there are no actions, target or indicators that might suggest that gender equality in education is a priority area. The ARoB policy notes that, ‘as stated in the Bougainville Education Plan, implementation of the policy (PNG Gender Equity in Education) has been slow-moving with little or no resources allocated to support it.’[[58]](#footnote-58) Despite this noted absence in the national policy implementation, the Bougainville policy does not identify any actions about how improvements to gender equality in education might be achieved.

A recent comparative study conducted for the Education Capacity Development Facility (ECDF) does however show that ARoB fares well in gender parity in basic education:

* Net enrolment rates (NER) ranked at 10 nationally,
* Survival rates to the end of the basic education cycle, ranked at 3 nationally.[[59]](#footnote-59)

High gender parity in the Islands region is thought to be a result of the longer history of colonisation in that region and the early establishment of schools.[[60]](#footnote-60) It could also be that many of these are matrilineal societies.[[61]](#footnote-61)

Despite the above policy frameworks at a national level providing clear direction for attention to gender equality in education, information provided by interviewees for this assessment indicated that the gender policy and strategic plan had not been distributed and many staff, including those at provincial and district levels, with school personnel unaware of the policy framework.[[62]](#footnote-62)

The Department of Educations’ *Gender Equity in Education Strategic Plan* *2009-2014* identifies four main principles:

* Participation and partnership.
* Capacity building.
* Sustainability.
* Gender mainstreaming.[[63]](#footnote-63)

Its aim is to improve the indicators for gender equity in the education sector by:

* Building the capacity of the DoE to collect, analyse and interpret sex-disaggregated data that can then be used to develop divisional gender equality action plans.
* Mainstreaming gender equity activities and targets into divisional planning.
* Developing the professional capacity of DoE staff by implementing improved personnel management systems, policies and training programs.
* Providing gender sensitization training and awareness, with the incorporation of violence against women training.
* Building and/or strengthening alliances and linkages with stakeholders to support gender initiatives on a range of gender issues.
* Developing appropriate gender based indicators from corporate and strategic planning (such as the Universal Basic Education and National Education Plans).

The *Gender Equity in Education Strategic Plan* *2009-2014* provides clear direction for programs and activities to address the identified gender issues by each division in the education system within each of the principles above. It identifies the establishment of gender Focal Points (GFP) in each division under the leadership of the Assistant Secretary, and the development of a Gender Action Plan (GAP) for each division as key strategies to improve gender equity in education. Each division is required to include gender equity related activities in the Department’s Annual Operational and Financial Plan.[[64]](#footnote-64) Progress on the above actions has been slow.[[65]](#footnote-65)

The Plan also identifies the responsibilities of NDoE offices regarding the Strategic Plan. It provides a clear and succinct summary of each division’s responsibilities for gender equity from within UBE, including targets and indicators. Sufficient policy framework is in place through which to advance gender equity. The Gender Equity Strategic Plan has recently been evaluated by UNICEF, however this report was not public at the time of writing.

Despite the above, and whilst there is some knowledge of gender issues in education at senior levels of DoE, few resources have been allocated to address the identified issues. Donors originally provided the impetus for the establishment of the gender unit within NDoE and have supported the development of policies, and provided other resources. When donors have shifted attention away from gender, the impetus for action has also shifted.[[66]](#footnote-66) The gender unit is isolated within the department and at the time of writing a restructure was taking place. It appeared that the gender unit might be transferred from its current temporary location to the Guidance and Counselling service.

Similarly, the NDoE has a behavior management policy that clearly states the rights of all children to learn in an environment free from any forms of harassment. It stipulates the responsibilities of all school community members in supporting both the rights and responsibilities of students to an environment conducive to learning.[[67]](#footnote-67)

The gender unit is not routinely consulted on issues of curriculum, teaching materials or any other issues. The unit is isolated within the bureaucracy and has no strategic connections or linkages with other parts of NDoE. Currently, UNICEF is providing funds and training materials to develop a system of Gender Focal Points, however in the absence of any other activities or resources and in isolation from systemic changes, it is not likely to be a success.

The above has summarised the gender equality policy framework in Papua New Guinea and in the education sector specifically. The section below focuses on the issues that have been identified in PNG as impacting on the education of girls. This section draws on the available literature from PNG.

#### 3.3 Issues impacting on the education of girls and young women in Papua New Guinea

In order to discuss the issues impacting on the education of girls, it is necessary to unpack some key terms. Terms like gender equality, gender parity, participation, access and retention are all discussed and it is necessary to be clear about the specifics of the problem before attempting to arrive at any solutions. Key terms used in *Universalising Basic Education 2010-2014* and the *Australian Aid Delivery Strategy 2010-2015* are:

* Access.
* Retention.
* Quality.
* Equity.
* Management.[[68]](#footnote-68)

The subsections below firstly summarise what is meant by the term and provides information from educational research in PNG to describe the present situation for girls. It is important to note that here has been very little research that focuses specifically on the education of girls. Where the evidence points to issues for girls and boys, this is stated.

###### 3.3.1 Access

Access to education can be improved through the provision of schools where there were none previously. Other examples of changes that might need to be made to improve access for girls include changes to laws or regulations preventing enrolment by some groups (such as pregnant girls). Access can also be addressed through ‘fee free’ education, construction of schools where girls live, on-time enrolment, provision of qualified teachers, flexible schedules (morning or afternoon school), and changed parental and community values about the importance of education for girls and other marginalised groups. Scholarships, particularly at higher levels of education and compensation for the opportunity costs of girls education such as provision of care for younger children (so that girls don’t have to stay home to look after younger siblings) contribute to improved access for girls.

Access for girls in PNG

In PNG, many girls are not enrolled at the age of 6 years. Social and cultural practices favour boys’ education over that of girls. There are greater opportunity costs in sending girls to school. Girls are often required to care for younger siblings while their parents work in agriculture. Parents may delay the enrolment of girls for the above reasons, together with the cost of fees and other educational costs. A recent study by the National Research Institute (NRI) and the Australian National University (ANU) *A lost decade?* reports that total enrolments have grown as a result of the fee free education policy.[[69]](#footnote-69) ‘The share of girls among enrolled students rose sharply from 30 to 46 percent. This implies that the number of girls enrolled in primary school grew over the decade by 144 percent, and the number of boys by only 22 percent.’[[70]](#footnote-70) This has created a number of other problems, including high levels of absenteeism, with schools incentivised to enroll students because the subsidy is based on enrolments not on attendance. There are insufficient classrooms and other facilities for the number of school age children. As well, teacher housing is not available in all areas meaning that getting qualified teachers, especially female teachers, into remote areas is difficult.

Prior to the introduction of fee-free education, girls were often enrolled late. This is because of the higher opportunity costs of girls’ education. There is no information presently about the impact of fee free education on the on-time enrolments of girls. However, late enrolments means that girls reach adolescence during their primary level education. This presents a number of problems, firstly, parents may withdraw them from school fearing safety, both on the way to and from school and within the school itself.

As the girls mature, they become marriageable, and early marriage is common in PNG. Whilst data is poor, Plan International cites a 2004 UNICEF study that claims that 4,503 girls between the ages of 10 to 14 years had been married lived in rural areas, while 633 lived in urban areas.[[71]](#footnote-71) These figures were based on 2000 year estimates. The same report suggests that some young girls are sold to workers in the logging and extractive industries. When girls marry, they do not continue their education. According to United Nations Girls Education Initiative (UNGEI) 22 percent of girls in PNG are married before the age of 18 years.[[72]](#footnote-72)

A second key problem with late enrolment and the onset of puberty is the lack of appropriate water and sanitation facilities for adolescent girls. They may choose not to go to school because of the difficulty of managing menstrual hygiene in the absence of appropriate facilities.

It is important to note that gender parity in education enrolments does not mean gender equality has been achieved, it is merely a first step in access to education. Being enrolled in education does not mean that students are actually attending and enrolment figures do not provide any information about educational experiences, that is, what actually happens when girls are in school. With this caveat in mind, the Gender Parity Index (GPI) is calculated using Gross Enrolment Ratio. This means the GPI calculation includes all students including those who are over age enrolments. The GPI for the years 2009 to 2014 for elementary, primary and secondary education is shown in table 1 below.

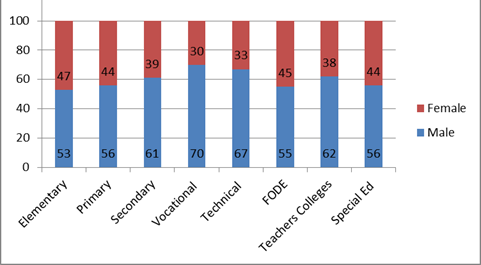
**Table 1: Gender Parity Index, PNG 2009-2013**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Year levels | 2009 | 2010 | 2011 | 2012 | 2013 |
| Elementary (years P-2) | 0.86 | 0.90 | 0.90 | 0.91 | 0.90 |
| Primary (years 3-8) | 0.78 | 0.83 | 0.84 | 0.83 | 0.81 |

Sources: PNG Education Indicator Dashboard[[73]](#footnote-73)

Gender disparity in enrolments increases at higher levels of education, which is why there needs to be a focus on getting girls to stay on at school to complete basic education and transition to higher levels. Despite the gains made over the past decade, NDoE data for 2015 shows that the enrolment of girls in schools at all levels still presents challenges.

**Chart 1: Education enrolments by sector and sex (2015)**



Source: EMIS data 2015.

As shown in Chart 1, above, girls are outnumbered at al levels of education. The low numbers of girls in elementary and primary educaiton has impacts on the number of girls at higher levels of education. The end impact is that fewer girls and women are eligible to enrol in teachers colleges or pursue higher education or formal sector employment. There are other impacts on society as a whole through health of children and families and in the economy.

Boarding schools, as a response to increasing access for girls present their own set of problems. Research by Nongkas, Tivinarlik & Maybanks reports issue of poor maintenance, overcrowding (with some female students reported to be sleeping on the floor), lack of study spaces, outside ablution facilities (which presents problems for girls going to the bathroom at night), poor behavior amongst students in the dormitories, lack of privacy and secure storage space for personal belongings, staff untrained for providing emotional support for students, and a lack of support to enable girls who become pregnant to return to school.[[74]](#footnote-74) Other issues included the poor quality of food available to boarders. One student in the above study reported, ‘we eat brown rice and tin fish. That’s all, nothing else. For breakfast is one hard-man biscuit, with tea. The tea has no sweet what-so-ever, just pure black tea and for lunch is the same as dinner, brown rice and tinfish.’[[75]](#footnote-75)

###### Whilst there is no clear data about drop-out of girls from these schools, it is reported in the 2006 Demographic Health Survey that the rate of teenage pregnancy amongst 13 to 19 year olds was 13 percent.[[76]](#footnote-76) It is estimated is that 1 out of every 20 female students at boarding school get pregnant each year.

###### 3.3.2 Retention

More students staying on to complete higher levels of education is measured and described as a retention rate (or survival rate). Presently, retention rates are different between urban and rural areas, between girls and boys and amongst marginalised groups such as the poor and disabled. Retention data in PNG is only available at Provincial level, therefore it is not possible to determine if policies such as fee free education are impacting on improved retention of girls.

Cohort Retention Rates (CRR) provide an indication of the efficiency of the education system as a whole. Strategies to get more girls to stay at school for longer include the above access factors and together with strategies to reduce drop-out. Girl friendly schools are schools where there are private toilet facilities, curriculum materials that portray girls positively, female teachers, supportive home environment and teachers that understand the different learning styles of girls and boys.

Retention of girls in PNG education system

Recent analysis of year 8 exam data by Voluntary Service Overseas (VSO) estimate that 35 percent of students who enroll in elementary school sit the year 8 exams.[[77]](#footnote-77) Whilst it is not compulsory to sit the exams, it is reasonable to suggest that there is low survival of students to the end of the basic education cycle. What is interesting is that ‘in almost every province has more boys than girls sitting the G8 exam.’ Milne Bay is the only province where more female than male students sit the exam. VSO predicts that if student growth per year continues as it has for 2011 to 2013 this gap will only become larger.’[[78]](#footnote-78)

Research by Accelerating Girls Education (AGE) identified a number of factors impacting on the retention of girls in the education system, in addition to the cost of fees that impacts on both access and retention as discussed above. The research argues that parents themselves believed that the problems were with the girls themselves with absenteeism and drop-out related to poor hygiene at the school and pregnancy. Harassment of girls by both teachers and male students were also cited as a reason for girls dropping out of school. Girls fear physical and sexual assault on a daily basis from a number of different threats, identified by AGE as ‘drug addicts, bigger boys in the school, men from the enemy tribe and others, especially when they witness such incidents in their school or in their community.’[[79]](#footnote-79)

Coupled with this, a lack of awareness on the part of parents, teachers and administrators about the how low levels of education means low levels of employment for women and consequently, lower health, economic and educational outcomes for subsequent generations. The bride price was also identified as a constraint to retention. According to AGE, education is not considered to add value to the bride price. Walking to and from school and attending school present risks to the virtue of girls whose monetary value declines if they are considered to have been violated in any way. When a girl marries, she joins her husbands’ family and investments in the girls’ education are thought to bring benefit to her husbands’ family, rather than her own. Parents therefore see the monetary investment in girls’ education as wasted.[[80]](#footnote-80)

Poor sanitation and hygiene at the school were reported as contributing to girls drop-out and high levels of absenteeism. At the time of writing the above report, it was found that that many schools lacked water and safe, private sanitation facilities. ‘The older girls who have their monthly period have the biggest difficulty. Without any water, they smell. Because of this, they become the butt of jokes. The embarrassment they suffer forces them to just stay at home and miss lessons which again results in poor performance in school.’[[81]](#footnote-81) This same study reports the condition of poorly maintained pit latrines, common toilets for girls and boys and a lack of privacy and safety provide further disincentives for girls to remain in school. A PNG study reported that ‘the highest contributing factors to female absenteeism was the lack of appropriate female ablution facilities.’[[82]](#footnote-82)

In PNG, it was reported that the major contributing factor to absenteeism among primary students was illness and hunger. Students were reported as going without breakfast and lunch. In sites where students had adequate nutrition, illness was not a major contributing factor to absenteeism. Food shortages are particularly acute in near urban areas where there is insufficient land for gardening.[[83]](#footnote-83) Whilst the report about dormitory life in PNG secondary schools raises the issue of lack of feed for students, it makes no recommendations about how boarding schools in particular should meet the nutritional requirements of young people in their care.[[84]](#footnote-84)

Curriculum is a key site for contestation of stereotypes and gender norms. There are conflicting reports about what has been done to ensure that all texts are free from gender stereotypes and materials that reinforce existing gender inequalities.[[85]](#footnote-85) Some reports suggest that there is a paragraph in the teacher subject guides that addresses gender equality.[[86]](#footnote-86) Curriculum materials are available to teachers on the TISER site.[[87]](#footnote-87)

###### 3.3.3 Quality

Quality can be measured through both inputs and outputs. Inputs include the provision of text-books, learning materials, quality of teachers and curriculum, and classroom facilities. Teacher education and training, and smaller class sizes all contribute to improved education quality.

Quality of girls education in PNG

Examination rates and test scores are often used as an output measure of educational quality. The year 8 examination data for the years 2011-2013 has recently been digitised.[[88]](#footnote-88) The year 8 examination data is not comparable between years because it is not standardised. However, it does provide an indication of how different girls and boys in different districts have performed in any one year on the same test. This data and findings should be read and interpreted with caution because data was not available for all schools and there are concerns about its accuracy.[[89]](#footnote-89) From the exam data submitted, it is possible to say:

* Milne Bay is the only province that has more girls than boys sit the exam.
* The average age of boys sitting the exams is a year older than girls who sit the exam (girls are 16, boys are 17).
* Southern Highlands has the lowest Gender Parity Index, but good exam performance.
* Government school students who sat the exam performed better than students at Church Agency schools.
* Demonstration schools are not the best schools if test scores are used as a measure of quality.
* No student performed better than 50 percent in any test.
* The written exam data was skewed, indicating a problem with the exam itself.[[90]](#footnote-90)

*A lost decade?* questions whether the increase in enrolments has impacted on quality of education, meaning that students don’t attend because of poor quality teaching. The authors report in 2012 boys were more likely to be absent than girls and their absences are longer than those of girls. There are differences between provinces; 47 percent of girls missed more than 10 days compared to 29 per cent of girls in East New Britain province missing more than 10 days. In Enga province, girl’s absences doubled between the first survey conducted in 2002 and the second in 2012. [[91]](#footnote-91)

The above report compared the availability of text books in grade 5 & 6 in language and maths in 2002 and again in 2012. The authors report a 16 percent average increase in availability of texts with 31 per cent of teachers of Grade 5 classes reporting that there were sufficient texts in 2012, compared to 24 per cent in 2002.

There is considerable difference between provinces with West New Britain having the lowest number of both English language and maths text books available per school. Enga has the highest number of Grade 5 math texts and East New Britain the highest number of Grade 6 maths texts. Eastern Highlands and NCD have the highest numbers of Grade 5 and Grade 6 language texts respectively. Despite the increased number of texts available, the increased enrolments means that there are now 2.2 students per text in 2012 compared to 2.0 in 2002.[[92]](#footnote-92) UBE 2010-2019 has a target of one text per student by 2019.[[93]](#footnote-93)

Parents withdraw their daughters from school because of this lack of materials, which were supposed to be purchased from fees paid by parents. The report by AGE states that the shortage of text books means that students have to share books. This has other implications for girls, because ‘when girls share the books with a boy, the boy intimidates the girls and gets to take the book home. The girls end up not being able to read the lessons and do the assignments resulting in poor performance in school.’[[94]](#footnote-94)

This view is supported by PNG research that concludes that insufficient desks, chairs and textbooks contribute to student absenteeism and withdrawal from school. Other factors included hunger, illness, teachers’ absenteeism, inadequate learning resources, involvement in household activities, disinterested, seasonal and cultural activities, poor parental support, rainy season, transport, water security and family problems.[[95]](#footnote-95)

Quality of school infrastructure and availability of classrooms, teacher housing, toilets for students, availability of libraries are reported to have improved over time. However, there are still many schools and teacher housing made from traditional materials. During the period 2002-2012, *A lost decade?* reports that all schools had reported access to drinking water.[[96]](#footnote-96) In 2012, only 60 percent of schools had sufficient toilets for female and male students. More schools (27 percent) had access to electricity in 2012, compared to 17 percent in 2002.

Teacher housing still need greater investment. The number of houses has increased over the decade, however, only 58 per cent of teacher houses made of permanent materials in 2012 and there is still a shortage of accommodation for teachers. It is thought that as a result of the poor quality housing and lack of options for teachers, only 25 percent of grade 5 teachers were interested in continuing teaching, compared to 80 per cent of head teachers.[[97]](#footnote-97) If teachers are suffering low motivation, this is likely to impact on the quality of education that is delivered to students.

The numbers of ghost teachers have declined over the decade, meaning that salaries being paid to teachers are for teachers who are actually teaching. Teacher absenteeism is reported to have improved; 15 percent absenteeism rate in 2002 compared to 13 percent in 2012.[[98]](#footnote-98) However, increased enrolments have put pressure on teachers with 36 students per working teacher in 2012, an increase from 31 in 2002. *A lost decade?* reports that in some provinces the student teacher ratio is higher, because ‘teachers are working in schools close to key resources even though they are posted elsewhere.’[[99]](#footnote-99)

###### 3.3.4 Equity

Strategies to improve gender equity in education include mainstreaming of gender through the curriculum, teacher training materials and capacity development activities such as workshops. Other strategies include awareness raising for parents and community members about the importance of girls education.

Equity in girls education in PNG

Whilst the *Gender and Education Policy* (2002) and the *Gender Equity in Education Strategic Plan 2009-2014* (2009) have been in place for some time, reports suggest that implementation has not actually commenced in any meaningful way. Few specific resources have been provided to support implementation, and a lack of resources, together with low level capacity for implementation, and a rather ambitious agenda, has meant that the plan represents another lost opportunity to advance gender equity in education. Without adequate resourcing, the rhetoric of senior officials within the NDoE is rather meaningless. Indeed, the absence of Divisional Gender Action Plans or gender activities within the NDoE work plan as stipulated in the Strategic Plan is indicative of the absence of any demonstrable interest in addressing gender equality in NDoE.

However, one major achievement of NDoE is the collection of sex disaggregated data and the development of the *Dashboard* that facilitates access to most data at provincial and district level and some school level data. There are clear problems with the timely return of data from schools to provincial and central offices, therefore the data sets are incomplete. How this information is analysed and contributes to strategic planning, particularly for girls education is unclear.[[100]](#footnote-100)

Parental attitudes to education of girls, and poor parental support are identified by teachers in PNG as a major contributing factor for female withdrawal from school.[[101]](#footnote-101) This view is supported by AGE which adds other factors including low awareness on the part of other community members and education officers about the importance of education for girls. The authors call for more nurturing of girls and greater understanding of the issues faced by girls, in order to gain their trust and encourage them to enroll and remain in school.’[[102]](#footnote-102)

School related gender based violence

The issue of girls being unable to learn in safety is an equity issue that needs specific attention. A recent study in PNG by Kend (2013) examines the issue of School Related Gender Based Violence (SRGBV) from the perspective of girls themselves. He found that 49 percent of the girls felt safe at school, while 31 percent felt unsafe and a further 20 percent felt safe ‘sometimes’. In the classroom, 50 percent of girls reported feeling unsafe. Boys reported significantly higher feelings of safety, 84 percent reported feeling safe, only 6 percent felt unsafe and a further 10 percent felt safe ‘sometimes’. Girls’ feelings of fear were highest near toilets, sports fields and school gates. Only 2 percent of girls felt safe around toilets.

The study identified a number of different forms of violence. Most violence was perpetrated by males against females, however there was evidence of some violence between older females and younger females and older males and younger males. Violence took a number of forms. Most prevalent was verbal abuse, other forms described by students included bullying, harassing, swearing, hitting, beating, kicking, pushing, stealing, yelling, isolating, assaulting, fighting, bashing, injuring, raping, fighting, inducing, abusing. Violence includes older students forcing younger students to smoke marijuana and violence on students by parents.[[103]](#footnote-103) A factor that might be contributing to the high levels of violence perpetrated by older children on younger children might be the high levels of over-age enrolments in PNG schools.[[104]](#footnote-104)

###### 3.3.5 Management

Policy development, planning and budgeting at school and DoE at central, provincial and district levels are essential for equity in education. Strategies to improve educational management include capacity strengthening and development of effective partnerships, effective leadership, school management and involvement of community members. Additionally, collection and analysis of sex-disaggregated data through effective EMIS and its use for educational planning and policy development are critical to improving educational equity and improved educational management. School leaders together with teachers have key roles in the development of girl friendly schools.

Management issues impacting on girls education in PNG

Surprisingly, there are higher numbers of males employed in the education sector at all levels than females. This is in contrast with many other countries where education is considered to be a female occupation. The upper echelons are male dominated, in keeping with the cultural context that values ‘big man’ leadership. Patterns of leadership and seniority are consistent with other countries.

Because girls and young women have not been able to complete basic or secondary schooling, they are not able to be selected for teacher training colleges (as shown previously in Chart 1). As a result, low gender parity in education at previous levels of education results in low numbers of female teachers. Teacher data for 2015 for all levels of education is shown below.

**Table 2: Teachers by grade level and sex 2015**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Grades | Male Teachers | Female Teachers | Total | Teacher-Student Ratio |
| Preparatory | 3,598 | 3,377 | 6,975 | 1:48 |
| Elem 1 | 3,539 | 2,890 | 6,429 | 1:43 |
| Elem 2 | 3,590 | 2,479 | 6,069 | 1:40 |
| Total | **10,727** | **8,746** | **19,473** | **Elementary Ratio 1:44** |
| Grade 3 | 1,939 | 2,662 | 4,601 | 1:42 |
| Grade 4 | 2,023 | 2,359 | 4,382 | 1:41 |
| Grade 5 | 2,070 | 2,072 | 4,142 | 1:38 |
| Grade 6 | 2,196 | 1,857 | 4,053 | 1:35 |
| Grade 7 | 2,383 | 1,618 | 4,001 | 1:31 |
| Grade 8 | 2,647 | 1,511 | 4,158 | 1:27 |
| Total | **13,258** | **12,079** | **25,337** | **Primary Ratio 1:36** |
| Grade 9 | **3,074** | **1,993** | **5,067** | **1:31** |
| Grade 10 |
| Grade 11 |
| Grade 12 |
| Vocational Courses | **749** | **440** | **1,189** | **1:35** |
| GRAND TOTAL | **27,808** | **23,258** | **51,066** |  |

Source: EMIS 2015.

It is interesting to note that male teachers also out-number female teachers at elementary levels of education. Working with children, especially young children is regarded in many cultures as a female occupation and given the strong masculine culture, it is surprising to see that this data goes against anticipated trends. Possible explanations for the male domination of education are that teaching is one of the few formal sector occupations available in PNG.[[105]](#footnote-105) It was also reported that because of the low number of places in senior secondary schools a number of year 9 and 10 males take up the opportunity of scholarships for elementary teaching. Nominations for these scholarships are made by communities, and consistent with cultural and community values, the names of qualified females are not put forward.[[106]](#footnote-106)

The numbers of female teachers have increased over the decade. A doubling of the percentage of female Head Teachers or acting Head Teachers between the 2002-2102 is reported. Of course, this varies between provinces with NCD having the highest percentage of female head teachers, 66 percent in NCD compared to 3 percent in Enga province.[[107]](#footnote-107) In their study of absenteeism and retention in PNG, it was stated that ‘the appointment of mostly male head teachers may have some bearing on the dearth of decisions to support female students’ welfare in schools.’[[108]](#footnote-108)

Teacher morale is also likely to be affected by salary and this in turn impacts on quality education. It takes teachers an average of 17 hours to access their pay and travel to the bank costs them an average of K288 per trip. There are reports of problems with payments, teachers being paid incorrect allowances. Up to 33 per cent of teachers sought other jobs to supplement their salaries.[[109]](#footnote-109) Within the NDoE itself, males occupy senior management positions as shown in Table 3 below.

**Table 3: Leadership in DoE by sex (2015)**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Section** | **Top Management Team** | | **Middle Management** | | **Support** | | **Technical** | | **Totals** | |
|  | **F** | **M** | **F** | **M** | **F** | **M** | **F** | **M** | **F** | **M** |
| **CDA** | - | 1 | 2 | 5 | 10 | 13 | 21 | 28 | 33 | 47 |
| **CES** | 1 | - | - | - | - | - | 2 | - | 3 | 0 |
| **EX** | - | 5 | - | 1 | 8 | - | 1 | 1 | 9 | 7 |
| **FA** | 1 | - | 1 | 3 | 12 | 9 | 1 | 6 | 15 | 18 |
| **GES** | 1 | - | 2 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 9 | 8 |
| **HROD** | - | 1 | 1 | 4 | 20 | 19 | 10 | 7 | 31 | 31 |
| **IA** | - | 1 | 1 | - | - | - | 2 | 2 | 3 | 3 |
| **ICT** | - | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | - | 1 | 3 | 4 | 6 |
| **NCDES** | - | 1 | - | 1 | 2 | 7 | - | 7 | 2 | 16 |
| **OLA** | 1 | 1 | - | 1 | 9 | 12 | 5 | 6 | 15 | 20 |
| **PD** |  | 1 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 2 | - | 3 | 3 | 9 |
| **PPCR** | - | 1 | 3 | 7 | 9 | 5 | 7 | 14 | 19 | 27 |
| **S & G** | - | 1 | 4 | 32 | 7 | 2 | 22 | 102 | 33 | 137 |
| **TCI** | - | 1 | 4 | 8 | 2 | - | 4 | 13 | 10 | 22 |
| **TE** | - | 1 | 2 | 4 | 3 | - | 11 | 4 | 16 | 9 |
| **TOM** | 1 | - | 1 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 7 | 8 |
| **TSC** | - | 7 | 3 | - | 3 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 9 | 10 |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| **Total** | **5** | **23** | **27** | **78** | **94** | **75** | **95** | **202** | **221** | **378** |

Source: Establishment Register: Positions Occupancy – 4th Quarter 2014.

The table above shows that the majority of women employed in NDoE are in support or technical positions. As shown in table 4 below, women occupy only 36.9% of all positions in DoE, and only 0.8% are in top management positions. It is clear from the data that women occupy very few decision making or leadership positions.

**Table 4: Summary of positions in NDoE**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Top Management Team** | **Middle Management** | **Support** | **Technical** | **Totals** |
| **Female** | 5 | 27 | 94 | 95 | 221 |
| **Male** | 23 | 78 | 75 | 202 | 378 |
| **Female** | 0.8% | 4.5% | 15.1% | 15.9% | 36.9% |
| **Male** | 3.8% | 13.0% | 12.5% | 33.7% | 63.1% |

Source: Establishment Register: Positions Occupancy – 4th Quarter 2014.

The data for women in leadership at provincial and district levels is not available centrally.

### 4. Previous education programs in PNG aimed at improving gender equality

A number of donors and bilateral partners have made contributions to improving gender equality in basic education in PNG.

#### 4.1 UNICEF – Child Friendly Schools

There is little information about the impacts of Child Friendly schools in the education of girls in PNG.[[110]](#footnote-110) The Accelerating Girls’ Education (AGE) initiative was the focus of a case study.[[111]](#footnote-111) Under this activity, girls were not required to pay school fees and UNICEF provided text books and practical subject equipment. AGE used the following criteria to select girls for participation in the program.

* Had left school because of non-payment of fees.
* Came from abusive homes.
* Were over-aged.
* Were from broken homes.
* Had single parents.
* Lived with non-biological parents.
* Were in other difficult situations.[[112]](#footnote-112)

The project itself was reported as problematic because there were insufficient materials and the increase in female students put pressure on the schools. The planned life skills activities could not be conducted because of a lack of availability of equipment and funds for cooking and sewing activities. As well, when the school site was revisited, affordability was still an issue, ‘male students were given first preference over females when decisions were made on school fees.’ [[113]](#footnote-113)

#### 4.2 World Vision International

World Vision programs in PNG are funded in part from the Australian NGO Cooperation Program (ANCP). They have commenced implementation of the Channels of Hope program that focuses on family violence in Madang and Port Morseby. Activities in the school sector are focused on WASH programs and learning centres in elementary and primary schools. The learning centre program provides school preparation activities.[[114]](#footnote-114) There was no data available on the success of WASH programs in PNG.[[115]](#footnote-115)

#### 4.3 Australian Aid

Australian Aid is the largest bilateral donor to the education sector in PNG. There have been 5 major projects implemented over the period 1997 to 2008. The Office of Development Effectiveness (ODE) completed a review of Australia’s contribution to the education sector in PNG over the above period. The report of that review, *Improving basic education services to the poor in Papua New Guinea* (2009) provides some insights into the contribution to improved gender equality in the education sector in PNG as summarised in the table below.[[116]](#footnote-116)

**Table 5: Summary of Australia’s contribution to improved gender equality in education over the period 1997 to 2006**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Project/Program | Duration | Goal | Gender activities/ outputs and outcomes. |
| Basic Education Delivery Project (BEDP) | 2004 -2010 | Contribute to effective implementation of quality and equitable primary schooling | * Community engagement * Gender mainstreaming * District Women Facilitators (but not sustainable) |
| Education Capacity Building Project (ECBP) | 2004 -2010 | Strengthen the capacity of the education system at the national, provincial and district agency levels to achieve quality improvements in service delivery | * No gender focus * Few female advisers |
| Curriculum Reform Implementation Project (CRIP) | 1999 -2006 | Improve the relevance and quality of education provided to school students | * No gender achievements noted in ODE 2009 * There is some evidence that CRIP developed the Gender Policy for DoE |
| Primary and Secondary Teacher Education Project (PASTEP) | 1999 -2005 | Contribute to socioeconomic development by raising the quality and relevance of teacher education to meet the requirements of the Education Reform Agenda | * Design included a ‘gender equality program’ * Gender issues were raised * Gender policies established for teacher education |
| Elementary Teacher Education Support Project | 1997-2004 | Assist the PNG government to provide a sufficient number of appropriately trained elementary teachers to meet the requirements of education reforms | * No gender achievements noted in ODE 2009 |

Source: ODE (2009)

According to ODE, the main problem with Australian Aid over that period is that while the programs have a substantial list of inputs and outputs, ‘the difficulty comes when evidence is sought for the impact of these activities on the enrolment, retention, completion and performance of PNG children, especially those who are most disadvantaged.’[[117]](#footnote-117)

The 2009 stock-take of gender equality in the Australian Aid program, notes ‘the Basic Education Development Program was the only one that saw gender equality as central to the activity’s success.’[[118]](#footnote-118)

The Office of Development Effectiveness reports a number of concerns in its conclusion:

* ‘Overall, the gender equality work that is occurring in most projects is largely peripheral and rarely influences the strategic direction’ (OECD 2099: 33).
* ‘Gender monitoring is not followed through effectively at the country level (ODE 2009: 33).
* ‘Far greater attention needs to be given to gender equality. This requires quite specific and detailed appraisal.’ [[119]](#footnote-119)

It was not possible to locate other reports on the above-mentioned programs.[[120]](#footnote-120)

### 5. Evidence from PNG and other countries about strategies to improve girls’ education

A number of resources are available that provide information about the kinds of strategies that have been shown to improve the education of girls. The sections below provide more detailed information from the literature about the success of each intervention. There is surprisingly little published about PNG and the Pacific region generally and even less published in internationally refereed journals. In the absence of specific examples from the Pacific it is necessary to draw on examples from other regions. Many studies are focused on primary education and secondary education and the transition between primary and secondary levels of education. Given the transition points are when the majority of girls drop-out of school, it is important that these studies are also considered. Evidence summarised below is from four key sources.[[121]](#footnote-121)

#### 5.1 Affordability

###### 5.1.1 Elimination of fees (access, retention, equity)

Elimination of school fees has been shown to increase the enrolment of girls. Fiji introduced fee free basic education in 2014 in response to falling enrolments at the time of the coup in 2000.[[122]](#footnote-122) It was not possible to locate any data on the impact the policy has had on enrolments of girls, although it is reported that Fiji has reached gender parity in enrolments at primary and secondary levels, but not at tertiary level.[[123]](#footnote-123) In Uganda, enrolment of girls increased from 63 to 83 percent with the introduction of fee free education. Impact was also amongst the poorest quintile of girls (increasing from 46 percent to 82 percent). Asian countries including Indonesia have achieved near universal enrolment from fee-free education together with increasing the numbers of schools and maintain class sizes through employing more teachers. It was reported in the PNG study that girls were harassed by staff because their parents had not been able to pay fees. The shaming of girls by writing their names in a public place with the amount owing caused eventual drop-out.[[124]](#footnote-124) International evidence concludes that elimination of fees had a strong impact on both participation and learning of girls.[[125]](#footnote-125)

###### 5.1.2 Conditional cash transfers (access, retention, equity)

Scholarships, stipends and conditional cash transfers are important to address the indirect costs of education such as opportunity costs can have a strong impact on the education of girls. Available evidence shows that when cash transfers are conditional, they have a stronger impact than non-conditional cash transfers. This type of intervention has been used extensively in all parts of the world. The PROGERSA or Oportunidades program in Mexico pays families for each child in school. Payments are age based, increasing as the child gets older. The payments are contingent on children maintaining 85 percent attendance rates. Free health services are also provided when children regularly attend clinics and education sessions. This program had a strong impact, particularly on the transition of girls from grade 6 to secondary levels. In Brazil, a scholarship is paid per family, rather than for child. The average monthly payment is $40 per family and a bonus payment is made when children are promoted to a higher grade. An evaluation of this program showed that none of the girls whose families were enrolled in the program dropped out of school. The relationship between effective targeting of cash interventions to groups most in need and areas of high drop-out for girls is strong for both participation and learning.[[126]](#footnote-126) ‘Conditional cash transfers were found to be more effective in improving girls’ enrolment than non-conditional transfers, however, unconditional transfers can have a positive impact on reducing teen pregnancy and early marriage.’[[127]](#footnote-127)

###### 5.1.3 No or free school uniforms (access, retention, equity)

Indirect costs such as uniforms can add significantly to the costs of education for poor families. Replacing a school uniform with a ‘color code’ can reduce costs for families. Stipends can also be provided to fund a range of indirect costs such as the program in Bangladesh that increased the enrolment of girls in rural areas to almost double the national average. The Bangladesh Rural Action Committee (BRAC) program provided stipends for girls in grades 6 to 10 to cover the costs of fees, exam costs, text books, school supplies, uniforms, transport and kerosene for lamps. The program was extended to include all students, but girls’ enrolments rose faster than those of boys.[[128]](#footnote-128) A study in Kenya that provided free school uniforms on a lottery basis resulted in a 44 percent reduction in school absences by both girls and boys.[[129]](#footnote-129)

###### 5.1.4 School feeding programs (access, retention, equity)

School feeding programs contribute to off-setting the opportunity costs of sending children to school. Whilst not an activity targeting girls alone, in Kenya, provision of school feeding programs increased school attendance by 30 percent and test scores by 0.4 standard deviations.

A Global Food for Education Program resulted in increased enrolments of 10 percent overall, and for girls by 11.7 percent. The program operated in 31 countries until 2004. It is now the McGovern-Dole International Food for Education and Child Nutrition Program.[[130]](#footnote-130) In some areas the program resulted in increases in enrolments of 32 percent. An evaluation of school feeding programs in Lao PDR provided limited evidence of increased enrolments, but in Burkina Faso, girls enrolment increased by 5-6 percent after one year, but there was not a similar impact on the enrolment of boys.[[131]](#footnote-131)

The World Food Program targeted girls’ enrolment and their analysis of case studies in Cameroon, Morocco, Niger and Pakistan indicate that the school feeding program together with take home rations for girls increased enrolment by 50 percent.[[132]](#footnote-132) International evidence concludes that school feeding programs had a promising impact on girls’ enrolments and participation, but results were negative in crowded environments.[[133]](#footnote-133)

###### 5.1.5 Community based care for younger siblings (access, retention, equity)

Many girls in the developing world are required to look after young siblings or perform household tasks while parents work. Provision of community based care for young children can free up these girls for attending school addressing the opportunity costs of child care while parents work. A Kenyan study found that when the cost of child care increased by 10 percent, girls school attendance fell by 13 per cent. In India, pre-school centres were established near local schools in an effort to promote early childhood education and support the attendance of older girls at school. Whilst there is no data to support impacts on girls’ education, the intervention is reported to have introduced poor children to the school environment. In Nepal, a program aimed at early childhood development and parental training boosted the attendance of girls. The enrolment rates for girls from lower castes is reported to equal those of boys from the higher castes.[[134]](#footnote-134)

#### 5.2 Build schools with community support and flexible schedules

###### 5.2.1 Build schools close to girl’s homes (access, retention, equity)

Construction of schools in underserved areas had an impact on girls’ enrolment. This is strongest where there are safety concerns in relation to travelling to school. A program in Afghanistan constructed village-based schools in underserved areas and found that girls benefited disproportionately, with the gender gap in enrolments eliminated in one year and the differences in test scores between girls and boys narrowed by one third in the same time.[[135]](#footnote-135) A study in India showed that the probability of a girl enrolling in school drops by 1-2 percent if the distance to primary school increases marginally, while a study in Malaysia shows that the lack of a secondary school nearby reduces the chances of a girl attending by 17 percentage points.

Similarly, Indonesia has been able to increase enrolments by providing schools closer to home. Egypt’s construction of rural schools increased girls’ enrolment by 60 percent in a decade, and whilst gender parity was not achieved at that time, girls’ participation increased from 35 percent to 42 percent. A World Bank study across 9 countries showed that proximity to school was important in improving girls’ enrolment in different countries, but the impact was not universal.[[136]](#footnote-136) ‘Provision of additional schools in underserved areas has an impact on girls’ enrolment, particularly where safety concerns associated with distance to school are significant.’ The relationship between this intervention and girls participation is reported as strong. [[137]](#footnote-137)

###### 5.2.2 Community involvement in local schools (access, retention, quality, equity, management)

The Bangladesh Rural Action Committee (BRAC) program supports the transition of children from community based schools to the public system.[[138]](#footnote-138) BRAC operates formal and non-formal schools and follows the government curriculum. BRAC and other NGO’s were asked to assist the Government of Bangladesh (GoB) when government schools in rural areas had become dysfunctional. BRAC was allocated 44 community schools to work with. BRAC trained teachers in its approach, mobilized communities and implemented supervisory structures. Free text books were provided to students in Grades 1-5 by the Government of Bangladesh and provided some funds for classroom rehabilitation. Following the success of this activity, BRAC established 11 formal primary schools to demonstrate how non-formal approaches work in formal schooling environment. Girls are strongly represented in the student population, with 65.6 percent of students.[[139]](#footnote-139) BRAC is a partner in the Australian Aid funded Basic Education in the Autonomous Region of Muslim Mindanao (BEAM 2).[[140]](#footnote-140)

One school in the PNG study involved parents in the construction of a community garden that helped to provide nutritious meals for students. Parents unable to pay school fees were provided with opportunities to work in the school to pay off school fees and another program involved working with parents on setting aside money for future school fees. Another school helped students of poor families to find jobs in local businesses to help them to support themselves. Whilst many of these strategies were aimed at secondary school students, it does demonstrate that schools are capable of working effectively with communities to address issues of attendance and retention. The study concluded, ‘school sites that had good community support made good progress in their campaign to improve school attendance and school retention.[[141]](#footnote-141)

Other evidence points to some disturbing trends in community involvement in schools. A study in Mali and another in India showed how powerful elites excluded others and used their engagement in school decision making to reinforce power of already dominant groups. This contrasts with evidence showing that the involvement of women in Nigeria and Tanzania on school management committees and in school governance relating to gender equality and inclusion was associated with improved confidence of girls to report instances of gender based violence. In India, one study shows that women in leadership at village levels has a positive impact on girls schooling and learning outcomes as measured by achievement.[[142]](#footnote-142) A report of a Pakistan study focused on community involvement in establishing community ‘genderless’[[143]](#footnote-143) rural schools. Within 12 months, 198 community schools had been established and ‘an astonishing 87 percent of girls enrolled in community schools compared to the provincial average of 18 percent.’[[144]](#footnote-144) The establishment of community schools in Mali, Africa, Columbia and Bangladesh have all resulted in dramatic improvements in girls enrolments.[[145]](#footnote-145)

Involvement of women in school governance and community mobilisation and leadership is a promising approach that has positive impacts on girls’ confidence, empowerment, learning and participation.[[146]](#footnote-146)

###### 5.2.3 Flexible schedules for safe schools (access, retention, equity)

Flexible schooling schedules can mean that children, including girls who may be required to help out with seasonal harvest can attend school if flexibility is applied to daily school hours as well as term times.[[147]](#footnote-147) Studies from Bangladesh, China and Columbia report the use of flexible school schedules and hours to enable children who work to attend school. BRAC in Bangladesh established satellite schools that operated for 2.5 hours per day using women teachers and a timetable that allowed rural children to continue work. Girls comprised 63 percent of enrolments and less than 1 percent of students dropped out. In Pakistan, parents lobbied for double sessions with boys and girls attending half a day each. This together with employment of female teachers enabled more girls to attend school and was a culturally appropriate strategy in this context.[[148]](#footnote-148)

#### Make schools more girl friendly

###### 5.3.1 Separate and private toilets (access, retention, equity)

A systematic review of the literature found that, of the studies examined, there were none that assessed the impact of separate sex toilets on either educational or health outcomes.[[149]](#footnote-149) The review did examine studies of WASH programs, however there was insufficient evidence to be able to separate the provision of separate sex toilets with other WASH interventions.

Four studies focusing on infrastructure improvements and the effects on girls’ education were identified. A Malawi study explored the effects of type of toilet, cleanliness and water supply at school. The study looked at absenteeism in schools where hygiene facilities had been provided and the authors reported that there was no gender gap in absenteeism amongst girls in the 14-16 year old age group. Other studies were not able to establish a clear relationship between provision of toilets alone as improving girls’ enrolment or absenteeism.[[150]](#footnote-150) One study in Burkina Faso in 2012 reports on a combined intervention – toilets for girls and boys, canteens, take home rations and provision of text books as increasing enrolment of all students by 20 percent and test score improvements of 0.45 standard deviations. It was not possible to identify the effects of any one intervention from the others.

A review of a program focusing on reducing student absences through the provision of a school-based water treatment, hygiene and sanitation program was described as having a positive impact on reducing absenteeism of girls.[[151]](#footnote-151) Evaluation of female experiences in boarding schools in PNG recommends the construction of inside toilets and ablution facilities together with provision of shower curtains and improved staff presence in dormitories as strategies to improve security and privacy for girls and to protect girls from pregnancy.[[152]](#footnote-152)

In PNG, a water and sanitation program was developed to address the issue of girls dropping out of school because of poor water and sanitation projects. Girls worked with program implementers in ‘knowledge sharing workshops’ to identify their needs. The girls developed their own solutions to the problems and were provided with technical assistance to make them a reality. A further important part of this program was that the girls helped to raise the issue of drop-out because of menstruation amongst male decision makers at the school. Whilst the men were clearly uncomfortable discussing the issue, they had not previously understood the importance of the impacts on girls’ education. ‘One result was that when asked to priortise a number of school projects, the males rated very highly the construction of female showers and simple incinerators to dispose of sanitary towels.’[[153]](#footnote-153) A further successful program was implemented between ATprojects and Nautilus Minerals at one elementary and 2 primary schools. Whilst the activity did not specifically target female students, the evaluation showed that students used the new facilities.[[154]](#footnote-154) Integrated water, sanitation and hygiene interventions are shown to have promising impacts on girls’ attendance and participation.[[155]](#footnote-155)

Menstruation management programs

A number of studies focus specifically on menstruation management, however, there is little or no conclusive evidence on this topic. Department for International Development (DFID) reports one study in Nepal that provided girls with menstrual cups as a strategy to manage menstrual hygiene. While this activity did not show any links with improved attendance, girls spent less time washing their clothes during menses.[[156]](#footnote-156) A second literature review identified 4 studies focusing on menstrual management, 2 of which were in developing countries (Tanzania and South Africa). The studies documented the discomfort felt by females in school during menses such as inadequate privacy such as broken toilet doors and fear of sexual attacks, difficulty disposing of materials and insufficient water and sanitation facilities at school together with the cost of sanitary materials and underclothes. Girls also reported that travelling to and from school was difficult and that they reported missing school during menses.[[157]](#footnote-157) The issue is not simply about attendance at school but also about the health issues that arise from improper menstrual hygiene that may cause severe reproductive health issues.

###### 5.3.2 School culture (access, retention, quality, equity, management)

Many of the interventions described as necessary for girl friendly schools relate to the infrastructure issues described above and attitudes of teachers, safety and harassment in the school. A study in Birkina Faso reports on the construction of girl friendly schools. There were three key approaches. The infrastructure component included construction of 3 classrooms, 3 teacher houses, separate toilets for girls and boys, a borehole and pump for clean water, two multipurpose halls, one office, one storage room, student and teacher desks and chairs, bookshelves and a playground. The next set of interventions targeted school feeding for all students, take home rations for girls (conditional upon 90 percent attendance), school kits and text books. The third part of the intervention targeted awareness raising of parents about the importance and benefits of girls education, adult literacy programs for mothers and capacity building for school officials. As well, the program aimed to place more female teachers in program schools and teachers and ministry staff were provided with training in gender sensitivity. The program was successful at increasing the enrolment and attendance of girls’ and the test scores of all students in the schools. As well, the study noted a reduction in children’s performance of household tasks.[[158]](#footnote-158)

Girl friendly schools and a quality mix of combined school level reforms have a strong impact on girls’ participation and a promising impact on girls learning and empowerment.[[159]](#footnote-159) Experience from PNG schools to address high levels of student absenteeism and retention were based on ‘effective school leadership, good school management, accountability for school finances, strong commitment from all stakeholders and strong community involvement in addressing the issues that affected the students’ school attendance and retention.’[[160]](#footnote-160) In contrast, lack of shared vision amongst staff, poor team work and leadership and divisions between staff and a lack of consensus are reported as having contributed to poor attendance and retention of students in their study in PNG. One school involved in the study had identified the factors contributing to student absenteeism and drop-out and had a plan that involved talking to students and their parents when problems emerged.[[161]](#footnote-161) This school had a counselling programs in place to support students at risk of drop-out as indicated by a high level of absences.

School Related Gender Based Violence (SRGBV)

School environments free from harassment are argued to support girls to remain in school longer. Girls are subjected to a number of different forms of harassment from teachers, other students and community members. Harassment takes many forms, including sexual harassment, peer pressure, bullying, and child abuse.[[162]](#footnote-162) Plan International recently conducted a five country study in Asia (Cambodia, Indonesia, Nepal, Pakistan and Vietnam) and found that inequitable attitudes of students is a main driver of SRGBV. Violence was perpetrated by peers, teaching and non-teaching staff. They report that intervention from bystanders and reporting were low. Plan recommends a multi-level approach addressing barriers at individual, community, school and policy levels in order to address SGBV in a sustained way.[[163]](#footnote-163)

Plan provides detailed recommendations to address SRGBV under three headings.

* Policies and laws
* Services and structures to ensure protection
* Behaviours and attitudes

The full list of recommendations is appended to this document as Annex 2.

USAID reviewed programs in Botswana, Cameroon, Ethiopia, Ghana, Malawi, Peru, South Africa, Tanzania and Zimbabwe. An extensive summary list of key recommendations from the literature is included here as Annex 3. There are five key areas where action has been taken, summarised below.

* Curriculum development:
* Identified as the most pressing need, curriculum in all academic areas needs to educate both girls and boys about sexual health and the male/female power dynamics underlying gender violence.
* Life skills programs that change male control of sexual knowledge and access to it to enable adolescents to be aware of alternative constructions of love and sexual practice, including abstinence.
* Comprehensive sexuality programs.
* Life skills training to help adolescents to make informed decisions, communicate effectively and develop self-management and coping skills.
* Human rights education perspectives that help students respect the rights of girls and boys.
* Youth leadership:
* Promoting positive behaviours and relationships through youth participation and leadership.
* Teacher training:
* Teacher training colleges need to include courses that explore ways in which gender discrimination can be challenged in schools
* Men need to learn how women feel when they are harassed and teachers need to raise awareness of others about sexual violence.
* Teachers need to be confident and comfortable using any curriculum materials (as summarised above)
* Advocacy and community outreach:
* National media campaigns conducted by Ministries of Education to raise public awareness of sexual and physical abuse in schools and the negative consequences for students, especially girls.
* Parents and community members need to know the correct procedures to report cases.
* HIV and AIDs programs need to highlight the vulnerability of women and girls to HIV and AIDS.
* Policy:
* Clear policy framework that defines, prohibits and carries penalties for acts of school related gender based violence.
* Policy interventions that improve the management of schools
* Regulations so that schools have the means of responding to and reporting violence.
* Multi-sectoral responses to violence, rather than the school acting in isolation.
* Effective policy implementation to follow policy development.

The above report also notes that research is needed to provide evidence on the direct impact of violence on educational outcomes.[[164]](#footnote-164)

Factors identified as contributing to high levels of feelings of safety amongst students in PNG were identified as:

* Effective discipline, promotion and respect for gender equality
* The roles of school leaders in establishing this culture supported by strong school rules and disciplinary action;
* A system of shared leadership including student leaders;
* School staff understanding UBE, gender policies of NDoE and the rights of girls to education in an environment free from harassment, violation and threats of physical or sexual violence.[[165]](#footnote-165),[[166]](#footnote-166)

A School Behavior Management Policy is in place in PNG, however poor implementation in some locations, including in boarding schools, means that these facilities are not safe places for girls or other students. As noted in the PNG study into girls’ experiences in boarding schools, the issues need to be addressed by ‘holistic approaches to student support are required, which means teaching staff need to take responsibility for supporting students both in class and after class.’[[167]](#footnote-167)

#### 5.4 Focus on quality education

###### 5.4.1 Provide more women teachers (access, retention, quality, equity)

A number of studies produced different results. A study in India shows that girls’ participation was improved when there were female teachers at primary school. Improvements for girls appear to be stronger in secondary schools. In Botswana, girls had higher learning outcomes in English, and both girls and boys benefitted from more time in school and female teachers. An American study reported increased performance by girls in mathematics in primary school and reduced levels of maths anxiety when they were taught by a woman. A five country African study showed that girls in 5th grade made larger knowledge gains when taught by a woman, however none of the evidence points to causal links.[[168]](#footnote-168)

A number of studies point to increased enrolments by girls, particularly adolescent girls in cultures that require separation of the sexes when taught by female teachers. In Mozambique and Botswana, due to the shortage of trained female teachers in rural areas, voluntary or interim teachers were hired along with the development of plans to improve recruitment and in-service training. In many countries, teaching is one of the few occupations open to women. Bangladesh, India and Pakistan have introduced quotas for hiring female teachers and in India the enrolment of girls increased by about a half when females were hired as ‘second’ teachers in classes in non-formal schools.[[169]](#footnote-169) Provision of women teachers is reported by as having a promising impact on girls’ education and learning, but more evidence is needed.[[170]](#footnote-170)

###### 5.4.2 Improve teacher education and training levels (access, retention, equity)

Teachers are critical in prevention of drop-out amongst girls. Evidence shows that girls persisted at school longer when there were more experienced teachers, even in rural areas. Longer teacher training, including in-service teacher training, had an impact on girls’ drop-out rates. A study in Egypt found that teacher in-service training had a greater impact on girls’ drop-out rates, prior to completion, but there was not a difference in boys’ drop-out rates. Girls were more seriously affected by teachers with less inclusive attitudes than boys in Kenya, and this related to attitudes as well as their beliefs about girls capacities and ability to achieve.[[171]](#footnote-171)

Teachers own education is important given that teacher-training courses focus mainly on teaching methods and low qualifications of teacher trainees may be detrimental to students.[[172]](#footnote-172) In Swaziland, improvements to teacher training programs focusing on curriculum and participatory teaching methods, establishing resource centres, improving teacher trainer quality together with teacher feedback improved girls’ enrolments. In contrast to the above, young women in local communities were trained to teach because of a shortage of teachers willing to be posted to rural areas. The Indian study found that with programmed curricula, training and community support that these community teachers could be effective. Formal training of teachers through pre-service and in-service in ‘subject content, pedagogy, management and with regard to gender equality and gender sensitive pedagogy, and informally to develop attitudes of inclusion and tolerance, plays a significant role in reducing girls drop-out.’ This relationship is reported as having a strong impact on girls’ participation, and promising impacts on learning and empowerment.[[173]](#footnote-173)

###### 5.4.3 Getting more women into teaching (access, retention, quality, equity, management)

Affirmative action strategies can be used to get more women into teaching. As noted elsewhere, the main problem with women’s access to teacher training is that they don’t have the prerequisite educational qualifications to get into mainstream programs and this is a result of their lack of access and retention at lower education levels. The Beijing Platform for Action strategic objective B3 calls for actions to:

* Provide recognition to non-formal educational opportunities for girls and women in the educational system, and
* Ensure access to quality education and training at all appropriate levels for adult women with little or no education, for women with disabilities and for documented migrant, refugee and displaced women to improve their work opportunities. [[174]](#footnote-174)

Research in Africa found that female teachers make a significant difference to girls’ education in developing countries.[[175]](#footnote-175) They argue that in order to get more women into teacher training, focus needs to be directed to the specific barriers faced by female teachers. Low levels of previous education, poor conditions in rural areas, patriarchal cultures, poor working conditions (such as women being given culturally ascribed tasks), male teachers who question the legitimacy of female teachers and discrimination, together with low salaries are barriers faced by women. Strategies to increase the supply of female teachers include interim or alternative training programs, however, caution is needed. ‘Alternative programs should only be used if they include mechanisms that allow teachers to become well trained and provide them the opportunity to be successful and high quality, well paid teachers.’[[176]](#footnote-176) However, once more women teachers are trained and employed, the focus of attention needs to be directed at the other identified issues including discrimination in the workplace and other structural issues.

###### 5.4.4 Curriculum, teaching and out of school learning (access, retention, quality, equity)

Parents were more prepared to send their daughters to secondary school in Kenya if they could study maths and science.[[177]](#footnote-177) Increases in enrolments of girls and boys in Brazil, Swaziland and Uganda were evident when the curriculum was reformed beyond the basics and made more relevant and encouraged problem solving.

Girls benefit more when learning is group based. A study in Bangladesh showed that year 9 girls benefitted more than boys when maths instruction used collaborative learning approaches.[[178]](#footnote-178) Learning outside of the classroom through activities such as clubs, homework programs and NGO programs resulted in improve academic achievement. When out of school activities focused on girls building confidence through activities such as public speaking and rights the impact on participation, learning and empowerment is strong. A study based on the TEGINT (Transforming Education for Girls in Nigeria and Tanzania) program provided evidence that ‘the level of teachers’ qualifications and engagement with training in participatory learning and girls’ clubs are associated with enhanced empowerment of girls, as evidenced by the latter’s confidence to articulate problems they encounter in school, and the identification of possible solutions and approaches to tackling gender based violence.’[[179]](#footnote-179) Group learning for girls’ and use of complementary programs and spaces which are features of the out of school activities provide strong evidence of impacts on girls’ participation, learning and empowerment.[[180]](#footnote-180)

One school in the PNG study divided students into four teams with each team having responsibility for tasks each day. If the tasks for the day were incomplete (such as non-attendance at a sporting event, work parade or incomplete tasks) points were deducted from the teams score. The program had an impact on school attendance and discipline and positive impacts on students’ motivation, attendance and retention. Parents noted improvements in student’s behavior, appearance, work and punctuality.[[181]](#footnote-181)

A PNG action research study reports on one school that encouraged students in grades 5 and 8 to start their own income generating activities so that they could become self-reliant. The activity occurred in the context of the ‘making a living’ subject offered in upper primary school. The teacher wrote to the bank and requested that students be able to open bank accounts to save for future needs. Out of 55 grade 8 students, 45 had opened accounts with the Bank of the South Pacific. There is an indication that schools can be effective when they have a vision for the future and school is related to real life experiences.

A number of studies have focused on curriculum and educational resources that portray girls and women as active rather than passive. Studies in Kenya and Ethiopia reviewed the curricula and found that while males were portrayed as leaders and in active roles, girls and women were portrayed as passive, ‘breast feeders, pretty or pregnant.’[[182]](#footnote-182) Together with the above, the attitudes of teachers are critical in setting high expectations of girls. A number of studies reported by UNICEF together with a further study from Kenya and Nigeria showed that girls were influenced more than boys by teachers’ views and girls underperformed when expectations of them were low. Evidence from studies shows that teacher training focused on developing attitudes of inclusion and tolerance is a promising strategy for empowerment of girls’ in education.[[183]](#footnote-183)

###### 5.4.5 Provide adequate books and supplies (access, retention, quality, equity)

Textbooks are reported to promote achievement in Africa and South Asia, and while research is limited, it suggests that a lack of books and educational resources makes parents reluctant to send their daughters to school. A study in Peru reported that when text books were supplied free to primary schools, girls were 30 percent more likely to enroll, but the same was not true for boys.[[184]](#footnote-184) In one of the few studies in PNG, reading and school libraries are identified as motivating factors for school attendance. However, the authors found that not all schools have libraries while collections are out of date, poorly organized and under-stocked. This finding does not relate specifically to improving girls education.[[185]](#footnote-185)

###### 5.4.6 Provide information about post-school pathways (retention, quality, equity)

Two studies focused on post basic education provided evidence of information provision about employment returns to schooling as having a strong relationship with improved participation of girls. This intervention was reported to have a strong effect on girls’ participation.[[186]](#footnote-186) This view is supported by United Nations Girls Education Initiative (UNGEI) and is interpreted here to mean ensuring that parents, teachers and community members understand the economic gains to be made from improving the education outcomes of girls. This is part of strategies to raise awareness in communities about the economic and social returns of education of girls.[[187]](#footnote-187)

### Conclusion

This literature has been hampered by the lack of evidence about education in general and girls’ education in from PNG and the Pacific more generally. The lack of evidence is quite surprising given the substantial inputs from Australian Aid and other donors to the education sector in PNG over a significant number of years. As a result, there may be instances where the identified interventions may not be culturally appropriate. However, this does not mean that they should not be trialed to see if they can make an impact on girls education in PNG.

What is clear is that it will be a combination of a number of different interventions that is likely to produce results. For example, as shown with the construction of separate and private toilet facilities, it is not the construction of these facilities in isolation that has produced results, but the combination of the infrastructure facilities together with WASH programs that have been shown to be effective.

The table below is the conclusion of this literature review. The interventions discussed in this literature review are summarised together with the ‘strength of evidence’ that has been reported as producing impacts on girls’ education. Systematic planning based on a sound Theory of Change and Theory of Action can provide a strong basis for future interventions to improve girls’ education in PNG.

**Table 4: Summary of international evidence for interventions to support girls’ education**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Intervention | Reported impact on girls education | Strength of Evidence |
| Elimination of fees | Elimination of fees has a strong impact on girls’ access and retention and promotes equity in education. It addresses the issue of affordability of education. | Strong |
| Conditional cash transfers | Conditional cash transfers have strong impacts on girls’ access and retention and promotes equity in education. It addresses the issue of affordability of education and the opportunity costs of sending girls to school. | Strong |
| No or free school uniforms | This intervention has a strong impact on girls’ access, retention and promotes equity in education. It addresses the issue of affordability of education. | Strong |
| School feeding programs | This intervention has a greater impact on girls increased access and retention (but not in crowded environments). It addresses the issue of affordability of education and the opportunity costs of sending girls to school. | Promising |
| Community based care for younger siblings | Provision of care for young children near schools addresses the issue of affordability of education and the opportunity costs of sending girls to school. | Unclear |
| Build schools closer to where girls live | This intervention has a strong impact on girls’ access and retention and promotes equity in education. It addresses the concerns of girls’ safety and reputations. | Strong |
| Community involvement in local schools | There are different results in different locations. Done properly, the impact is potentially strong. | Promising |
| Flexible schedules for safe schools | This intervention has a strong impact on girls’ access, retention and promotes equity in education. It addresses the issue of the opportunity costs of education for girls. | Strong |
| WASH and separate and private toilets | The evidence is strong for combined WASH programs (together with improved sanitation infrastructure) on girls’ access and retention. This intervention promotes equity in education. There is no evidence on toilets alone having the same impacts. | Strong/ Unclear |
| School culture | Girl friendly schools and a quality mix of combined school level reforms have a strong impact on girls’ access, retention, quality, and equity and school management. School Related Gender Based Violence (SRGBV) needs to be addressed to improve school cultures for girls. | Strong |
| More women teachers | The presence of women teachers have impacts on improving access, retention, quality and equity for girls. | Promising |
| Improve teacher education and training levels | Improved teacher education and training is good for all students and promotes quality education. It has a strong impact on girls’ access, retention and promotes equity in education. | Strong |
| Curriculum, teaching and out of school learning | This intervention is promising for access, retention and quality and promotes equity in education because it addresses parents’ concerns about the value of education for girls. | Promising |
| Provide adequate books and supplies | Girls were reported to benefit more than boys from the supply of text books and resources. | Promising |
| Provide information about post-school pathways | This intervention is promising for access, retention and equity because it addresses parents’ concerns about the value of education for girls | Strong |

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**Annex 1: Overview of the Gender and Education Assessment**

**Annex 2:** Plan International (2015) Are schools safe and equal places for girls and boys in Asia: Research findings on School-related gender based violence in schools. URL <https://plan-international.org/files/global/publications/campaigns/a-girls-right-to-learn-without-fear-english.pdf> (access date 30 May 2015)

**CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

Policy interventions and programmes must be supported by sufficient and credible data on the nature and scope of school-related gender- based violence. The findings from this multi-country research provide compelling evidence to urgently prioritise programming on school-related gender-based violence in Asia. Patriarchal norms prevailing in social institutions will continue if we are not made aware of them and taught how to challenge them. This recognition has to permeate both policy- making as well as socialisation processes. As children start recognising and challenging these norms, and speaking out against violence, support must be provided at the school, community and government levels to offer adequate and efficient response systems that are regularly monitored and periodically evaluated.

In concurrence with the findings, policies and programmes to prevent and respond to SRGBV must be comprehensive, integrated, multi-sectoral and long term. These policies and programmes need to address barriers at all levels, including at the individual, community and family, as well as institutional and policy levels. The main recommendations emerging from the research are as follows:

**Policies and laws:**

* Undertake comprehensive reviews of all education-related policies and advocate for inclusion of gender equality and prevention of gender- based violence in policies and operational plans.
* Strengthen legislative frameworks to ensure that they explicitly protect all children from violence, including SRGBV.
* Institutional arrangements, procedural protocols and codes of conduct must be mandated by policy. These should clearly outline appropriate and proportionate sanctions for SRGBV.

**Services and structures to ensure protection:**

* Establish a response mechanism that is school based. It can build on existing forums within the school and have specialised services, such as that of a trained professional counsellor or child protection expert. Teachers and existing student support platforms could be, however, the first step of response for which they require specific training. A referral system with legal, social and psychological support must be set up to support the reporting and response to specific complaints.
* Map existing stakeholders in the community and link school-based mechanisms to community-based child protection mechanisms.
* Teachers and school administrators must be well trained, equipped and supported to prevent and respond to gender-based violence in and around schools. Include gender transformative content in teacher trainings and other school-based orientation forums for teachers and parents.
* Raise awareness of positive discipline and alternative non-violent child rearing approaches with both teachers and parents.
* Strengthen the interface between schools, parents and the larger community through engagement with school management committees and parent-teacher associations. Have school-initiated awareness and capacity-building events on the issue of SRGBV to re-energise their interaction.
* Law enforcement, judiciary and child protection authorities, the transportation sector, and civil society organisations must be partners in addressing the vulnerability of children to and from school grounds.
* Identify key teachers and school-based management structures or bodies, such as School Management Committees (SMCs) and Parent Teacher Associations (PTAs), and build their capacity to recognise and address SRGBV.
* Use existing forums, such as school/child clubs, as platforms to include children in raising and challenging SRGBV and provide specific training to the mentors who lead them.
* Conduct safety audits with the participation of children to regularly monitor school infrastructure and check the physical aspects of a ‘safe’ school.

**Behaviours and attitudes:**

* Recognise girls and boys as key participants in developing solutions to address school-related gender-based violence.
* Engage with young girls and boys using a gender-transformative approach. This approach is based on evidence that construction, and reconstruction, of gender and harmful notions of masculinity need to be addressed. Gender norms and roles start forming at a young age through various socialisation processes. The gender- transformative approach involves using a combination of the cognitive- affective approach and life skills to engage girls and boys in collective critical self-reflection and enables them to recognise and challenge inequitable gender norms and the use of violence in their everyday lives. A pivotal feature of this approach is that it goes beyond knowledge provision to creating safe spaces for discussion, to challenge entrenched beliefs and behaviours, and has been found to be effective in changing attitudes.
* Undertake curricula review and revision both for students and teacher training institutes, but go beyond the review to have specific transformative programmes that enable individuals to recognise ‘everyday acts’ that are acts of violence, and challenge them.
* Engage teachers (and non-teaching staff) proactively; build perspective and skills to have equitable attitudes and abilities to respond to SRGBV appropriately. Provide hands on support to teachers. Currently, discourse on gender and violence is not integral to school or teachers’ training curriculum.
* Ensure inclusion of gender analysis, as well as an understanding of different forms of SRGBV, as a necessary and inclusive part of school cu[[188]](#footnote-188)rricula through classroom-based sessions or Group Education Activities for both girls and boys and school-based campaigns.
* Given that boys appear to have more rigid and stereotypical attitudes, conduct specific sessions targeted at boys on positive masculinities.
* Use examples of positive role models to suggest practical possibilities and viable alternatives of change and egalitarian processes.
* Focus on emotional forms of violence through school-based campaigns such as ‘stop verbal abuse day’ to publically denounce certain forms of behaviour in schools.
* Organising school and community-based meetings and campaigns to engage with community-level stakeholders, including community groups, religious leaders, and women/girls groups and men/boys groups/clubs.

Policies and programmes to achieve gender equality and prevent gender- based violence need to be as much about empowering girls as they are about redefining masculinity and ideas of manhood. Widely accepted ideas of masculinity and power have the use of violence at their core, where boys are groomed for engaging in violence from a young age and revel in the use of power ‘over others’. As long as this notion of violence remains central to relationships, including between peers, with adults, and in future adult relationships, the move to prevent gender-based violence will remain incomplete.

Institution-based and systemic processes that reinforce and perpetuate inequities and violence need to be recognised and challenged. School- focused efforts must be accompanied by policy advocacy and community- based awareness building. It is desirable that school-based programmes be set-up in communities that have strong rights-based community organisations so that the efforts can be complemented and synchronised.

Gender equality and gender-based violence need to be an explicit focus in all education policies, and incorporated as a ‘learning’ component within the school curriculum. The community-based component not only creates a larger public discourse on gender equality and non-tolerance of violence, it will also improve safety on the way to school. The process of questioning and changing attitudes and behaviours needs a peer supportive environment and institutional backing. It also needs to be monitored rigorously to ensure that outcomes are realised and evidence of change is generated.

**Annex 2:** Summary of Key recommendations contained in literature review USAID (2008) Unsafe schools: A literature review of school-related gender based violence in developing countries. <http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PNACU253.pdf> (access date 30 April 2015) (p 25-26).

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| **AGENTS** | **RECOMMENDATIONS** |
| **Schools need to:** | - Develop a clear strategy that tackles gender inequalities in school. It is important to have a whole school approach that allows teachers, pupils, and administrative  staff to work together on common goals for making schools safe;  - Promote a more supportive culture by facilitating and enforcing the reporting of abuse, reducing bullying and corporal punishment, providing effective  counseling, and encouraging constructive and equal relationships between students via positive role-modeling and explicit curricula and teaching/learning materials (i.e., life-skills-based sexuality education programs with a gender and human rights perspective or peace education);  - Become less authoritarian and more supportive of pupils’ personal development.  The introduction of student councils and democratic management and the  promotion of student participation in the design and implementation of certain  school activities could facilitate this;  - Foster collaboration with relevant NGOs working on rape, sexual assault, child abuse, domestic violence issues, or HIV/AIDS and sexuality education for the  purposes of providing training, counseling, and advocacy services within the school;  - Consider engaging peer educators (adolescents or young adults who can visit schools to talk to pupils about sexual violence and other issues that concern them), as is currently being done in some instances with HIV/AIDS education. This is an effective way of encouraging more positive and consensual relationships between male and female pupils; and  - Ensure that safe and secure toilet facilities are available to both boys and girls. |
| **Teacher training**  **programs need to:** | -Increase instruction of future teachers on gender equity, including understanding the negative impact SRGBV has on the ability of girls and boys to succeed in school, and provide them with strategies to challenge gender discrimination and to stop sexual harassment before it escalates to violence;  - Develop in-service training programs for experienced teachers on the prevention of, and response to, gender-based violence in their schools. Offer these workshops throughout the country. Appoint a faculty member within each teacher training college to coordinate training and research efforts;  - Help teachers explore their own attitudes and personal experiences regarding gender based violence, sexuality, and HIV/AIDS so they can be more effective in working with their students and colleagues;  - Encourage teachers to view themselves as the protectors of children rather than people taking advantage of them by placing greater emphasis on ethical standards of behavior so that they understand the seriousness of abusing the trust that has been placed in them; and  - Educate teachers on their responsibilities under any code of conduct that is developed. |
| **Education**  **ministries need to:** | - Adopt a national plan of action for gender-based violence in schools;  - Provide guidelines to schools detailing the appropriate response to allegations by students of rape, sexual assault, or harassment, whether by teachers or fellow students, including sections relating to: 1) the creation of accessible school procedures by which students can make confidential complaints; 2) the prompt and effective investigation of such complaints; 3) prompt and appropriate disciplinary action including due process protections for the persons alleged to have perpetrated the offense; 4) referral to the criminal justice system; and 5) support services;  - Develop a code of conduct for teachers and students that expressly prohibits gender violence in schools. The code of conduct should be distributed to all schools and its contents widely publicized among those in the education system. Teachers should be obliged to follow the code of conduct as part of their employment contract;  - Recruit and deploy female teachers;  - Implement and support comprehensive sexuality/sexual health education in schools, placing violence against women as an integral part of the content;  - Collaborate with other ministries and civil society (including the private sector) in national campaigns on the radio and TV, and in print media on the negative effects of SRGBV, including how to prevent it and where teachers, students, and parents can turn for help; and  - Create an enabling policy environment so that local schools, communities, and NGOs can adapt both formal and non-formal education models to make the commute to and from school safe and secure for children. |
| **Communities and**  **parents need to:** | - Raise community awareness and promote community support for educating girls and work closely with schools, ministries, and NGOs to tackle violence in the  home, within communities, and in schools;  - Incorporate traditional leadership to advocate for a clearly articulated and  enforced policy on the issue of abuse;  - Hold teachers and administrative personnel accountable for their conduct with students. School committees and PTAs need training and support so that teacher performance and conduct can be monitored and the whole schooling process be more transparent and accountable. Some international agencies such as USAID already have training programs to strengthen school committees and PTAs. Tackling the issue of abusive behavior by teachers and pupils should be an explicit component of such training programs; and  - Expand services for victims of sexual violence |

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64. Department of Education, Papua New Guinea (2009b). [↑](#footnote-ref-64)
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75. Nongkas et al (2014:33). [↑](#footnote-ref-75)
76. National Statistical Office (2009). [↑](#footnote-ref-76)
77. J Edwards, personal communication with VSO, Port Moresby, 23 April 2015 and email 27 April 2015. VSO estimates that roughly 250,000 students start elementary each year and that exam scores were provided for approximately 90,000 students. A further estimate is that information from 74 percent of the actual Grade 8 exams were included. Therefore any information on exam scores needs to be interpreted with a great degree of caution. [↑](#footnote-ref-77)
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79. Accelerating Girls Education (2004) *Establishing Child Friendly Schools in 6 provinces*. URL. <http://www.ungei.org/resources/files/age_png_cfs_finalreportx6provinces.pdf>

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81. AGE (2004:12). [↑](#footnote-ref-81)
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84. Nongkas et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-84)
85. J Edwards interview notes with Gender Unit Staff 10 April 2015. [↑](#footnote-ref-85)
86. J Edwards interview notes with Gender Unit Staff (10 April 2015). An analysis of the curriculum and teacher texts is outside of the scope of this assessment. [↑](#footnote-ref-86)
87. There are 2 teacher units on gender equity on the website see <http://www.education.gov.pg/TISER/documents/pastep/ge-1-gender-equity-lecturer.pdf> (access date 7 May 2015). These were developed through PASTEP. [↑](#footnote-ref-87)
88. Kuijlaars, C., & Jones, R., (2015) [↑](#footnote-ref-88)
89. J Edwards meeting notes and email communication with VSO 23and 27 April 2015. [↑](#footnote-ref-89)
90. J Edwards meeting notes with VSO, Port Moresby, 23 April 2015 and email 27 April 2015. [↑](#footnote-ref-90)
91. Howes et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-91)
92. Howes et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-92)
93. The Australian Aid Program distributed text books between 2010 and 2013. The DoE now has responsibility for distribution of text books. [↑](#footnote-ref-93)
94. AGE (2004: 11). [↑](#footnote-ref-94)
95. Paraide et al (2010). [↑](#footnote-ref-95)
96. This claim is questionable based on the field work undertaken for the Gender and Education Assessment. [↑](#footnote-ref-96)
97. Howes et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-97)
98. Howes et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-98)
99. Howes et al (2014: 48). [↑](#footnote-ref-99)
100. A further part of this gender and education assessment is to identify the contributions of the Capacity Development Fund to improvements to girls’ education. [↑](#footnote-ref-100)
101. Paraide et al (2010). [↑](#footnote-ref-101)
102. AGE (2004: 10). [↑](#footnote-ref-102)
103. Pes Wilson Kend (2013) *How school leaders address violence against girls/women and its significance for the implementation of Universal Basic Education in Papua New Guinea*. Master of Educational Leadership thesis. University of Waikato, New Zealand. [↑](#footnote-ref-103)
104. Presentation by Oscar Onam, Port Moresby, 29 April 2015. [↑](#footnote-ref-104)
105. J Edwards interview notes, 23 April 2015. [↑](#footnote-ref-105)
106. J Edwards interview notes, 18 May 2015. [↑](#footnote-ref-106)
107. Howes et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-107)
108. Paraide et al (2010: 50). [↑](#footnote-ref-108)
109. Howes et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-109)
110. J Edwards meeting notes 1 May 2015. There have been some evaluation studies but these have been internal to UNICEF and not available for review. It was reported informally, that the programs were unsustainable and ended when donor support ceased. [↑](#footnote-ref-110)
111. Paraide et al (2010). It is unclear which year level the girls were when the project started. The case study document states, ‘It was found that females who completed Grade 8 continued on to lower secondary (grades 9 and 10), and some progressed to upper secondary grades (grades 11 and 12).’ [↑](#footnote-ref-111)
112. Paraide et al (2010: 26) [↑](#footnote-ref-112)
113. Paraide et al (2010: 27). [↑](#footnote-ref-113)
114. J Edwards meeting notes, 28 April 2015. [↑](#footnote-ref-114)
115. Requests for evidence based reports focussing on PNG were made to Live and Learn and World Vision International of specific interventions in PNG. [↑](#footnote-ref-115)
116. Office of Development Effectiveness (2009) *Improving the provision of basic education services to the poor in Papua New Guinea: A case study*. Canberra. AusAID [↑](#footnote-ref-116)
117. ODE (2009:23). [↑](#footnote-ref-117)
118. Ferguson, S (2009) *Equality matters are everybody’s business: Improvements in gender equality within the PNG Australian aid program, 2009*. Port Moresby. AusAID. The 2015 Stock-take was not available at the time of writing. [↑](#footnote-ref-118)
119. ODE (2009: xiv). [↑](#footnote-ref-119)
120. While AusAID archives were searched, it was not possible to locate any reports either online or at post. [↑](#footnote-ref-120)
121. Unterhalter, E. & A. North, M. Arnot, C. Lloyd, L. Molestane, E. Murphy-Graham, E. Parks, M. Saito (2014) *Interventions to enhance girls’ education and gender equality: A rigorous review of literature*. URL. <https://www.gov.uk/government/publications/girls-education-and-gender-equality> (access date 21 April 2015); Herz, B., & G. B. Sperling (2004) *What works in girls education? Evidence and policies from the developing world*. Council for Foreign Relations. URL. [www.cfr.org/content/publications/attachments/Girls\_Education\_full.pdf](http://www.cfr.org/content/publications/attachments/Girls_Education_full.pdf) (access date 18 April 2014); United Nations Girls Education Initiative (2005) *‘Scaling up’ good practices in girls’ education*. Paris: UNESCO; Birdthistle, I., & K. Dickson, M. Freeman L. Javidi (2011) *What impact does the provision of separate toilets for girls at schools have on their primary and secondary school enrolment and completion? A systematic review of the evidence*. London: EPPI-Centre, Social Science Research Unit, Institute of Education, University of London. A limited number of reports from PNG are also summarised below, including Paraide et al (2010) and Kend (2013). [↑](#footnote-ref-121)
122. Education in Fiji (2015) URL. <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Education_in_Fiji> (access date 1 May 2015). [↑](#footnote-ref-122)
123. Island Business (2013) *Fiji will not meet thee MDG goals by 2015*. URL. <http://www.islandsbusiness.com/news/fiji/2622/fiji-will-not-meet-three-mdg-goals-by-2015/> (access date 26 April 2015). [↑](#footnote-ref-123)
124. Paradire et al (2010) [↑](#footnote-ref-124)
125. Unterhalter et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-125)
126. Herz et al (2004). [↑](#footnote-ref-126)
127. Unterhalter et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-127)
128. Herz et al (2004). [↑](#footnote-ref-128)
129. Unterhalter et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-129)
130. United States Department of Agriculture (n.d.) *Countries and Regions*. URL. <http://www.fas.usda.gov/regions> (access date 21 April 2015). [↑](#footnote-ref-130)
131. Unterhalter et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-131)
132. Herz et al (2004). [↑](#footnote-ref-132)
133. Unterhalter et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-133)
134. Herz et al (2004). [↑](#footnote-ref-134)
135. Unterhalter et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-135)
136. Herz et al (2004). [↑](#footnote-ref-136)
137. Unterhalter et al (2014: 2). [↑](#footnote-ref-137)
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139. BRAC (2012b) Primary schools. URL. <http://education.brac.net/primary-schools> (access date 21 April 2015). [↑](#footnote-ref-139)
140. BRAC (2013) *BEAM-BRAC Philippines opens 600 additional schools in ARMM for SY 2013-2014.* URL. <http://philippines.brac.net/media-news/184-beam-brac-philippines-opens-600-additional-schools-in-armm-for-sy-2013-2014> (access date 21 April 2015). [↑](#footnote-ref-140)
141. Paraide et al (2010: 23). [↑](#footnote-ref-141)
142. Unterhalter et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-142)
143. Genderless is understood to mean co-educational. [↑](#footnote-ref-143)
144. Herz et al (2004: 57). [↑](#footnote-ref-144)
145. Herz et al (2004). [↑](#footnote-ref-145)
146. Unterhalter et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-146)
147. Herz et al (2004). [↑](#footnote-ref-147)
148. Herz et al (2004). [↑](#footnote-ref-148)
149. Birdthistle et al (2011). The study identified 5,082 through database search and hand searching and screened on title and abstract, 406 were screened on full text and 73 coded to see if they answered the key research questions. [↑](#footnote-ref-149)
150. Unterhalter et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-150)
151. A number of other studies were not included in the literature review conducted by Unterhalter et al (2014) because they did not meet the criteria for inclusion. [↑](#footnote-ref-151)
152. Nongkas et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-152)
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154. Layton, S. (n.d.) Evaluation report: Rasirik Elementary School and Labour Primary School. Unpub. [↑](#footnote-ref-154)
155. Unterhalter et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-155)
156. Department for International Development (2013) *Water, Sanitation and Hygiene: Evidence paper*. UK. DFID. <http://r4d.dfid.gov.uk/Output/193434/> (access date 15 May 2015). [↑](#footnote-ref-156)
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159. Unterhalter (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-159)
160. Paraide et al (2010: xix). [↑](#footnote-ref-160)
161. Paraide et al (2010). [↑](#footnote-ref-161)
162. Paraide et al (2010). [↑](#footnote-ref-162)
163. Plan International (2015) *Are schools safe and equal places for girls and boys in Asia: Research findings on school-related gender based violence in schools*. URL. <https://plan-international.org/files/global/publications/campaigns/a-girls-right-to-learn-without-fear-english.pdf> (access date 30 May 2015). [↑](#footnote-ref-163)
164. USAID (2008) *Unsafe schools: A literature review of school-related gender based violence in developing countries*. <http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PNACU253.pdf> (access date 30 April 2015). [↑](#footnote-ref-164)
165. Kend (2013). [↑](#footnote-ref-165)
166. J Edwards meeting notes, 1 May 2015. In PNG UNICEF has commenced a study with Goroko University on SRGBV. [↑](#footnote-ref-166)
167. Nongkas et al (2014: 13). [↑](#footnote-ref-167)
168. Unterhalter et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-168)
169. Herz et al (2004). [↑](#footnote-ref-169)
170. Unterhalter et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-170)
171. Unterhalter et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-171)
172. Herz et al (2004). [↑](#footnote-ref-172)
173. Unterhalter et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-173)
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178. Hossain & Tarmizi 2012 cited in Unterhalter et al 2014. [↑](#footnote-ref-178)
179. Unterhalter et al (2014: 36). [↑](#footnote-ref-179)
180. Unterhalter et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-180)
181. Paraide et al (2004). [↑](#footnote-ref-181)
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183. Unterhalter et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-183)
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185. Paraide et al (2004). [↑](#footnote-ref-185)
186. Unterhalter et al (2014). [↑](#footnote-ref-186)
187. UNGEI (2005). [↑](#footnote-ref-187)
188. [↑](#footnote-ref-188)