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Increasing Women's Participation in Science, Mathematics and Technology Education and Employment in Africa

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INTRODUCTION

Education statistics in Sub-Saharan African (SSA) countries show that women continue to lag behind men in education in general and specifically in science, mathematics and technology (SMT) education. Also, education stereotyping continues, with women and girls tending to study programmes related to so-called "women's" occupations such as nursing, secretarial jobs and social work. Programmes in engineering, physics and the so-called "hard sciences" continue to be dominated by men and boys.

When formal education (in terms of schools) was introduced in SSA by the religious missionaries and colonial powers, girls were not allowed to go to school until much later. In Rwanda for example, girls were allowed to go to school 34 years after boys were. Even then, their school life was very much limited compared to that of boys (Allison *et al*, 2008).

^{*} The views expressed in this paper are those of the author and do not necessarily represent those of the United Nations.

The purpose of education during the colonial period aimed at creating citizenry that would support the needs of the colonial masters. However, after gaining political independence, the purpose for having educated citizens changed; development of the newly independent countries For example in 1946, the United Nations established the Commission on the Status of Women (UN-CSW) which is dedicated solely to gender equality and advancement of women in the UN member states.

Many SSA countries started commitments to address the gender gap in education and employment immediately after independence. Most efforts are dedicated to increasing the number of women in decision-making positions on the political front and increasing girls' access to primary and lower secondary education. SMT education and women's education are seen to be driving forces for attainment of development goals by many nations.

For example, Rwanda has attained gender parity at the level of parliament and is atop all nations by having the highest proportion (56%) of women legislators. SSA has an 18.7% share of women in parliament, second to Europe (with Nordic countries included) where 21.4% of women are parliamentarians. The Southern African Development Community (SADC) countries have pledged to attain 50% of women representation in parliament. The United Republic of Tanzania with 30.7% of women representation has committed to 50% in the next elections to take place in October this year. Driven by the Education for All (EFA) targets, the third Millennium Development Goal (MDG3) and poverty reduction strategies, many SSA governments in collaboration with developm

As of 2003, many African countries have launched plans to increase access to secondary schooling and to address education quality and gender equality issues. The Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA) is working on the understanding of what makes an effective school and best strategies that can be implemented in Africa. Early childhood education, adult education and higher education continue to be marginalised. From the Education for All Global Monitoring reports 2005 and 2006 (UNESCO), SSA has the largest proportion of illiteracy, with 50% of its adults being illiterate and 10 - 15 million school age children not in school in 2006, with more women illiterate and more girls out of school. Gender disparity in literacy rates is reported to have risen from 45% in 1970 to 75% in 2005. The ratio ranges from 20% in some countries to 90% in others. Out of 40 countries whose data were available in 2005 (EFA Reports 2005, 2006), only three had reached gender parity in literacy rates.

Most SSA countries are now implementing education for all in primary and secondary education. They believe that when women have equal access to education and go on to participate fully in business and economic decision making they are a key driving force against poverty. The major issue is the inability of the system to meet costs of education expansion and quality improvement especially in science and technology. Many SSA countries spend a relatively large proportion of their annual budget on education and the education expenditure as a proportion of gross national income (GNI) is also large. However a large part of this is a salary bill (sometimes up to 80%), and little is left to support expensive subjects like those of science and technology. Even at household level, it is estimated that over 60% of family cash income is spent on school fees, uniforms and exercise books. Under such environment, girls are more likely to miss out on the SMT education than boys.

According to the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), SMT education in Africa is confronted by challenges of participation, equity, exclusion, quality and relevance, resources and expertise. NEPAD and sub-regional groupings such as SADC have created policies, plans and even units that are dealing with development of systems and networks that will deliver affordable, quality, equitable and relevant SMT education in sufficient numbers. Many African States have developed national policies on SMT education. Common issues in these policies include demystifying science and technology, encouraging the enhancement of targeted funding to the sector, promoting female SMT education, building science and technology institutional and human capacity, protecting and promoting indigenous knowledge systems.

Despite the enabling policy environment and many initiatives that are being implemented to promote women's education in SMT disciplines, a number of social-cultural and institutional barriers continue to prevent girls and young women from attending schools and universities and from performing equally to their male classmates. Generally, female students continue to lag behind in educational achievement and access, especially in secondary and tertiary levels, where girls' enrolment, completion and achievement rates are lower.

If we take the case of Rwanda, the state's development agenda has prioritised science and technology within the educational and development policies. At the same time, Rwanda believes gender equality of the country may act to further exclude female students unless additional actions are taken to promote women's participation in these fields. Addressing gender equality in the education system, with a focus on improving girls' educational performance and outcomes, is

crucial to meeting Rwanda's development goals and to protecting women's human rights within the country.

Although Rwanda has registered great achievement in gender parity on the political front, girls are still under-represented in government schools, and are instead in private universities which are more expensive, of lower quality and with few or no science and technology programmes. Girls' participation in public higher education institutions (HEI) ranges between 25% and 27% in Rwanda. Participation in SMT subjects at secondary school level ranges between 5% in technical subjects to 40% in biological and chemistry subjects while in overall SMT subject, girls account for 35%. Even in planning and projections, the targets to increase the number of women in SMT are generally very modest. For example Rwanda planned to promote women's SMT education as part of the country's vision to create a knowledge-based society. The set indicators are given in Table 1 below:

Table 1: Programme	Support of the	Education Sector	Strategic Plan, 2006 -	2010
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Indicator	2004 Baseline Level	2008	2010
% girls enrolled in mathematics in secondary school	22	26	33
% girls enrolled in chemistry in secondary school	35	40	45
% girls enrolled in 1 st year at tertiary level	20	25	30

Source: African Development Fund, Appraisal Report, 2006

INITIATIVES BY HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

Education bodies, especially the HEI, are also undertaking various initiatives to promote women's access, retention and completion of higher education in general and in SMT disciplines. At the level of HEI, the initiatives are both at individual institutional level and at regional networks level such as the Association of Africa Universities (AAU), the Inter-University Council for East Africa (IUCEA), the Africa Network of Science and Technology Institutions (ANSTI) among many others.

Although some of these efforts were already initiated in the 1970s, renewed focus on gender equality in HEI was intensified in the 1990s. These efforts have resulted in gender policies at country level and at HEI level, special policies and programmes focusing on girls and women education, policies focusing on specific gender-related issues such as gender-based violence, readmission of girls and women students who drop-out due to pregnancy and so on with the aim to create a gender-friendly environment for both men and women. However, women continue to lag behind men in higher education and particularly in SMT education.

Based on the Global EFA Monitoring Report of 2006 (UNESCO, 2005), tertiary education in Africa grew strongly in the period 1990/91 to 2002/03 as a result of policies of privatisation of higher education. The growth rate in the number of students per 100,000 inhabitants between 1990/91 and 2002/03 accelerated with the exception of three countries (Madagascar (-36%), Congo (-14%) and Zimbabwe (-1%)). Other countries registered an average increase in growth of 104% ranging between 18% and 970%. The growth, rates are, however, still very low when compared to other regions. Although the average tertiary level median gross enrolment ratio

School, Mbarara University of Science and Technology, Nkumba University) and Rwanda (The National University of Rwanda).

Although gender equality in the higher education sector has seen some improvements in students' enrolment, the average female enrolment continues to revolve around 30% of total students except for humanities and social sciences, disciplines where gender parity is observed. Moreover, stereotypes continue to manifest themselves. For example, nursing and social work programmes tend to have large proportions of women, even up to 95% while physics, mathematics and engineering programmes have low proportions of women, below 10%. It should be noted that selection to public HEI is not done by the HEIs themselves. Although the average for Uganda shows 51% of women, the majority of those women are in certificate and diploma programmes offering secretarial and social work education.

Table 3: Status of gender equality in student enrolment in selected HEI in IUCEA

HEI members of IUCEA	Total Students	Female	Female proportion of
		Proportion of	Science and
		Total	Technology Students
		students	

1-.000

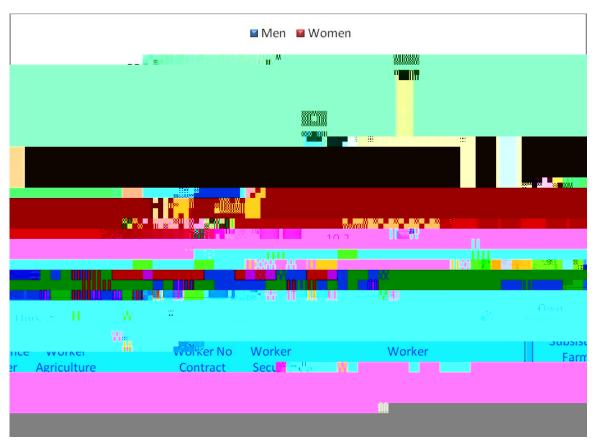


Figure 1: Main Occupation of Men and Women - Integrated Household Survey 2006, Rwanda

The survey of the 1,345 women graduates of SMT disciplines (Aderemi, 2009) established the areas of employment to be (i) research and development (44%) which includes quality control, (ii) administration (37.5%) (iii) academics (9.4%), (iv) manufacturing and production (4.9%), (v) finance (3.4%), (iv) medical (0.5%) and (vii) security/solicitors (0.1%). The majority (53%) of respondents were married, and they indicated that their mobility was restricted by or linked to

HEI member of IUCEA	Total	Female	Female	Female
	Staff	• •	• •	proportion of
		of total	of	academic
		staff	academic	science and
			Staff	

The deep rooted socio-cultural factors and widespread gender blindness will continue to constrain women's representation in Governments, political parties, employment in general and in science and technology enterprises. Concerted efforts are needed to address these factors in a systematic long-term strategy.

A CASE OF GENDER MAINSTREAMING AT THE UNIVERSITY OF DAR ES SALAAM

Since 1974, UD introduced affirmative action to ensure women's access to UD after the introduction of two year community services by secondary school leavers prior to joining tertiary education. This had led to a huge decrease in women's enrolment. Women in SMT disciplines were admitted directly at UD. In the 1980s many women's groups were established at UD addressing issues of women students' and staff's access to and participation in UD activities. These led to the introduction of gender curricula. By 1994, there were 17 groups coordinated by the Gender Management Committee of which four addressed SMT disciplines.

In 1993, UD started an institutional transformation programme under which it undertook a gender audit in 1994 and started to implement gender mainstreaming since 1994 with a policy approved in 1996. A Gender Dimension Committee was set up in 1996 to institute gender equality and equity at UD through a gender mainstreaming strategy. Ten years later, in 2006, the Gender Dimension Committee was replaced with the University of Dar es Salaam Gender Centre. The Gender Centre adopted the approach of conducting research and policy reviews, undertaking specific affirmative action programmes, undertaking institutional and individual capacity building for gender mainstreaming and forming networks and linkages.

Gender mainstreaming at UD is implemented as an integral policy strategy for promoting equal opportunities. It aims at mobilising all general policy programmes and practices to support the purposes of gender equality and equity. The strategy undertakes specific measures to promote the advancement of women but it also aims to ensure that all structures, values, programmes, policy strategies and core functions are organised in such a way that they equally serve the needs and interests of both women and men. The ultimate aim is to establish a culture in which students and staff members feel comfortable and respected, irrespective of sex and thereby allowing individual talents to develop in the direction that suit them best. Continuous gender-sensitive assessment is carried out to determine the level of intervention from basic "gender sensitivity" to comprehensive, targeted gender programmes on the specific needs and priorities.

Specific programmes undertaken by the UD Gender Centre include gender sensitisation and raising gender awareness to increase the proportion of gender-sensitive men and women students and staff; establishment of an undergraduate scholarship programme, establishment of affirmative action to increase access and performance of women in mathematics, science, and technology education; establishment of early–childhood centre facility, revising and enacting policies and laws to address gender concerns such as gender-based violence, inequalities in opportunities and benefits, etc. Access to a gender-friendly atmosphere and environment coupled with a large group of gender sensitive students and staff through the gender mainstreaming process has contributed largely to the creation of a gender-sensitive community at UD. A clear

mechanism and timeframe is in place for monitoring and evaluation of the performance of the various processes and interventions. The external institutional audit of UD also looks at the progress towards gender equality.

These initiatives have led to a notable increase in women students' enrolments and retention at UD, from below 15% in 2004 to about 50% in 2008 in non-science discipline and from 7% in 2004 to 28% in 2007/8 and above 30% in 2009/2010 in science and engineering.

The initial ten-year phase (1994–2003) of the UD gender mainstreaming strategy focused on the quantitative aspect of gender equity aiming to attain gender balance in students' enrolment and staff recruitment and retention. Monitoring of gender equality among students was done and was enhanced by the production of sex-disaggregated data on applications, subject choice, retention, and attainment. A variety of affirmative actions were put in place by teaching units to ensure students' gender equality targets were attained. Monitoring of staff was done by production of sex-disaggregated data on recruitment, promotion and age profiles.

The second phase (2004 - 2013) is an outcome-focused gender equality strategic plan to demonstrate equal treatment of women and men in policy-making, services, education (teaching, learning and research) and employment. For example, staff monitoring is undertaken throughout the recruitment and promotions process, and data on applications, short listing and outcome by gender are produced. This data will assist in identifying whether any occupational segregation exists. Surveys, participatory studies and stakeholder consultative forums obtained qualitative and quantitative data on the staff and student body. The data were examined to inform the strategic plan, to determine issues that were particular to a group and to identify realistic and achievable gender equality objectives. Annual consultations are held with staff, students and other stakeholders to establish the effectiveness of the strategic plan and inform subsequent plans. The gender equality policy and plans aim to promote equality of opportunity for all men and women working and studying at the University, or applying to do so; foster an environment in which unlawful discrimination and harassment are not tolerated; and encourage full participation within the university community.

The university has made much progress towards attainment of set gender equality goals, which are already modest. For example, some targets and affirmative action prescribe a 30% limit instead of 50%. Programmes to increase the number of women in science and technology disciplines provide support for a small number of women. A large proportion of scholarships made available for women end up being diverted to men because gender-related constraints are not addressed.

CHALLENGES IN EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT AND WAY FORWARD

More efforts have been devoted to gender equality in undergraduate education. A full investigation of gender equity in higher education requires that we look at all aspects of the academy, not simply at undergraduate degrees. At the master's and the doctoral level, as well as the institutional leadership level, women are greatly underrepresented.

In an attempt to improve gender balance in SMT postgraduate education at UD, exclusive scholarship schemes for women have been introduced since the early 1994 to date. Women can compete for the general scholarship schemes as well. Despite having enough qualified women, a large proportion of the scholarships ends up going to men because the women do not apply even when solicited to do so. Here is a case of gender blindness. It is assumed that women do not pursue master's and doctoral degrees because they lack scholarships. It is not enough to make funds available, it is important to establish why women do not take up these opportunities before making the interventions.

A flexible programme to support women to do PhDs has recently been introduced at the National University of Rwanda (NUR) in order to support women who have been stuck at the master's level for many years. When I was writing the proposal for having the programme funded by the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (Sida), I interviewed more than 43 of these women and established that they did not do their PhD because of insecurity in marriage (87%), having young children they could not leave behind (64%), not wanting to do their Ph.D. in Rwanda because of home chores (93%), not wanting to do their Ph.D. in Europe or America because of lack of support at home and of the foreign environment for their children (89%), and carrying the burden of the family since their husbands were also studying (53%). The first batch of seven women got funding in 2009. Six registered in neighbouring countries where they would take their young children with them and their house girls as well. The language and culture in the neighbouring countries is similar to Rwanda's. Their husbands would be able to visit them on weekends. One registered in Sweden; she would visit Sweden for one month every year and would not take her two children with her. The age of the children ranged between several months to 11 years old. To my dismay, it was decided (influenced by the funding agency) that the second batch (2010) would register in Sweden under normal conditions. This has deterred many of the targeted women to apply. Even if allowed to take their young ones, at night and week-ends they would have to struggle to take care of their children and do their studies. Reviewers of the proposal raised many queries about the quality etc. Here we see that a resistance to flexibility prevails, even from those perceived to be at the forefront of gender sensitivity.

Analyses of academic staff statistics conducted at UD show that women's success rates are as good as men's, yet women tend to apply in smaller numbers for academic and senior positions. Women take two to ten years longer for promotion than their male counterparts. While making efforts to increase the numbers of female staff we must first address the slower career mobility for women in higher education.

Science and technology enterprise has long been dominated by men, and the male perspective in policy development, performance evaluation, and interpersonal interactions generally prevails. Work by women is frequently undervalued. Women's unequal childcare and family responsibilities account for some of this differential. Each of these issues leads to a cumulative disadvantage for female employees in SMT.

Domestic issues and responsibilities constitute primary challenges that female science and technology professionals face which affects their performance and progress at work. For example, women are more affected by the low salaries in the science and technology domains.

While male counterparts can earn extra money by going on field trips and working late hours, most women are not likely to do so.

We are yet to see an environment at the work