Teacher Education Policies from Gender Perspective: The Case of Ghana, Nigeria and Senegal
Teacher Education Policies from Gender Perspective: The Case of Ghana, Nigeria and Senegal

Emebet Mulugeta
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# List of Acronyms

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<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CEDAW</td>
<td>Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women</td>
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<td>CMS</td>
<td>Christian Missionary Society</td>
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<td>CBOs</td>
<td>Community Based Organizations</td>
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<td>CoE</td>
<td>College of Education</td>
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<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education for All</td>
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<td>ENI</td>
<td>Ecoles Normales d’Instituteurs (Pre Service training Institute)</td>
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<td>FRN</td>
<td>Federal Republic of Nigeria</td>
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<td>GCE</td>
<td>General Certificate of Education</td>
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<td>GER</td>
<td>Gross Enrollment Ratio</td>
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<td>GPA</td>
<td>Grade Point Average</td>
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<td>GPI</td>
<td>Gender Parity Index</td>
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<td>IICBA</td>
<td>International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa</td>
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<td>JSS</td>
<td>Junior Secondary School</td>
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<td>MDGs</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
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<td>NCCE</td>
<td>National Commission for Colleges of Education</td>
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<td>NCE</td>
<td>National Certificate in Education</td>
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<td>NEEDS</td>
<td>National Economic Empowerment Development Strategy</td>
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<td>NPE</td>
<td>National Policy on Education</td>
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<td>NTEP</td>
<td>National Teacher Education Policy</td>
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<tr>
<td>PNDC</td>
<td>Provisional National Defense Council</td>
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<td>POA</td>
<td>Beijing Platform for Action</td>
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<td>PTAs</td>
<td>Parent Teacher Associations</td>
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<tr>
<td>SC</td>
<td>School Certificate</td>
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<tr>
<td>SCOFI</td>
<td>Projet pour la scolarisation des filles (Girls’ Education Project)</td>
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<tr>
<td>SSS</td>
<td>Senior Secondary School</td>
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<tr>
<td>SUBEBs</td>
<td>State Universal Basic Education Boards</td>
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<td>TESCOM</td>
<td>Teaching Service Commission</td>
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<td>TRCN</td>
<td>Teacher Registration Council of Nigeria</td>
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<tr>
<td>UME</td>
<td>University Matriculation Examination</td>
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<td>UNECA</td>
<td>United Nations Economic Commission for Africa</td>
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<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children Fund</td>
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<td>UPE</td>
<td>Universal Primary Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>UTTDBE</td>
<td>Un-Trained Teachers Diploma in Basic Education</td>
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<td>WASSCE</td>
<td>West African Senior School Certificate Examination</td>
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Foreword

The UNESCO International Institute for Capacity Building in Africa (IICBA) is a category one institute working on capacity development of teachers. In order to attain its objectives, IICBA works on various strategic objectives under which several projects are underway. These include: teacher policy development and implementation; research and advocacy, and capacity building of management of teacher education institutions. In all IICBA’s endeavors, gender is a cross-cutting issue in line with UNESCO’s mandate. Accordingly, a number of activities have been carried out in the area of gender equality as they relate to teacher education and, girls’ education in general. These include research, development of various modules on gender mainstreaming and training.

Many of the Sub-Saharan countries have been making efforts to meet the EFA goals and MDGs of achieving gender equality in education at all levels by 2015. Accordingly, progress has been made. However, it is noted that compared to boys more girls are still out of school. For example, according to UNESCO (2008), in Sub-Saharan African 72% of those girls has never been enrolled in schools compared with 55% of the boys. One factor associated with enrolment and success of girls in school is the availability of female teachers, especially in rural areas and in areas where we find small number of girls because of socio-cultural and religious factors. Therefore, one entry point to address this problem is ensuring the availability of female teachers that would encourage girls and serve them as role models and mentors.

Despite the argument that the teaching profession has become feminized, statistics show that in many African countries, we find less number of female teachers, especially at junior and senior secondary schools. In order to address the gender disparity in teachers, and thereby contribute to the chance of girls’ enrolment and success, one has to ensure that teacher development policies are gender responsive, in that they address the gender issues that constrain women from getting trained as teachers and progress in their career. It is with this in mind that the current assessment of teacher education policies was conducted in three West Africa countries: Ghana, Nigeria and Senegal.

The assessment highlights the gaps identified and the achievements registered in addressing gender issues in teacher education policies as well as other programs put in place to facilitate the development of teachers. It is hoped that the lessons learnt from this exercise will help IICBA, other similar institutes, and countries in general, to look at their teacher education policies and programs critically in the light of gender and enhance the mainstreaming of gender in teacher education policies and programs.

Arnaldo Nhavoto
Director
Acknowledgement

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I - Background

One of the international commitments that governments have entered is achieving the Education for All (EFA) goals, which were formulated in 1990 at the World Conference on Education for All, Jomtien, Thailand. EFA aimed to achieve gender equality in education by 2015. This commitment was renewed and affirmed in Dakar, Senegal, in April 2000. Goal 6 of the Dakar Framework for Action is eliminating gender disparities by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, and goal 2 gives emphasis to ensuring that by 2015, all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete free and compulsory education of good quality. Although progress has been observed in the enrollment of children, countries still need to take serious and sustained actions in order to be able to meet the EFA goals. The EFA global monitoring report 2010 indicates that the current trend of progress will put countries in a risk of leaving some 56 million children out of school in 2015 (UNESCO, 2010).

Improvement has been noted in closing the gender gap in school enrollment, especially in elementary education. However, the disparity still exists at all levels, and significantly at secondary and tertiary levels. UNESCO (2010) has remarked that the gender gap in elementary level is widest in sub-Saharan Africa. According to the same report, in 2007 the average Gender Parity Index (GPI) GPI for developing countries is 0.90. Twenty-eight countries had GPIs of less than 0.90, of these, 18 are in sub-Saharan Africa. These countries have not yet achieved the goal of gender parity in primary schooling set for 2005 (p. 64). The report further indicates that in 2007, 54% of the out-of-school children were girls, and girls are more likely not to go to school compared to boys. In 2006, globally, 53% of the out-of-school girls have never been to school compared with 36% of out of school boys.

The problem in Sub-Saharan Africa appears to be more serious. In this region, 72% of those girls not in schools have never been enrolled compared to 55% of the boys (UNESCO, 2008, p.64). In primary education, in 2007 the percentage of girls was 47, while the GPI stood at 0.85. In terms of secondary enrollment, in 2007 Sub-Saharan Africa registered low enrollment as well as low GPI, ratio of male to female enrollment. The GPI ranged from 1.21, the highest achieved by Cape Verde to 0.33 registered by Niger (UNESCO, 2010, p.78). Looking at the tertiary education, a bleaker feature emerges. While the enrollment has increased over the years, the persistent gender disparity still prevails. In 2007, the GPI was 0.66, with inter country variation showing 0.14 for Chad to 1.24 for South Africa (UNESCO, 2010, p. 378).

A similar gender gap is observed in teachers. In 2007 the percentage of female teachers in Sub-Saharan Africa was 44, with majority of the female teachers concentrated at primary level.

A number of factors cause this gender gap in education between the sexes. One important school related factor is the unavailability of female teachers that serve girls as role models and mentors. This is especially true in Sub-Saharan Africa where less proportion of women is found at all levels of education, especially at secondary and tertiary levels (Kelleher, 2011). The association of girls’ enrollment
to the availability of female teachers is demonstrated in a number of studies; female teachers enhance the gender parity in schools (UNESCO, 2008). “There is evidence to show a correlation between the number of women teachers and girls’ enrollment, especially in sub-Saharan Africa. In countries where there are more or less equal numbers of male and female teachers, there is close to gender parity in student intake” (Kirk, 2006, p. 1). Another study by Yelifign (2001) also revealed that girls are encouraged to take up and succeed in science and mathematics if they get supportive female teachers. “As to the girls who scored A’s and B’s in science subjects, they gave due credit to the teachers who supported and encouraged them and who were also their role models” (p. 103).

There are a number of reasons why the presence of female teachers boosts the attendance and success rate of female students. One can be that in communities where the cultures are conservative, having female teachers may encourage parents to send their daughters to school. The presence of female teachers in school can also facilitate the achievement of girls. Female teachers can serve as roles models demonstrating the possibility of taking up responsibilities other than the traditional roles given to women. This is, especially true in rural areas. Female teachers can also provide support and encourage girls to successfully complete their studies, listen to their problems and concerns, and offer advice on reproductive health issues, and advocate for the creation of physically and socially safe environment for female student (Kirk, 2006 ; UNESCO, 2008).

To achieve gender parity in education in general, and teacher education in particular countries need policies, programs, and projects that allow the creation of an enabling environment. Policies, in this context, are guidelines that help governments to solve a certain social problem or a set of problems. Policies help states to translate their commitments such as EFA and MDG goals, and the provisions in the Beijing Platform of Action into concrete actions. By putting in place policies that are informed by research findings, governments are able to create opportunities for addressing concerns of all people, including marginalized groups such as women, children and the disabled, thereby actualizing their commitments. Accordingly, one area of intervention for governments to close the gender gaps prevailing in school enrollment and the gender disparities seen in the education of teachers is designing policies that are gender responsive or reviewing existing policies from the perspective of gender equality. These policies need to address relevant teacher education issues such as pre-service and in-service training; employment and deployment; certification and promotion; and housing, security and safety concerns, and taking into consideration the special needs of female and male teachers in each of these matters. Despite this, much has not been done to investigate the implication of teacher training policies, programs or the provisions included in national education policies to minimize gender disparities in teachers in the school system. Therefore, the current assessment aimed at carrying out this investigation.
II - Objectives

The general objective of the current assessment is to look into teacher policies or national education policies of three countries in West Africa (Nigeria, Ghana and Senegal) to critically analyze their provisions in addressing teacher issues in general and gender issues in teacher education in particular, in the context of working towards EFA goals.

Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of this assessment are to:

- See the context in the selected countries under which the issues of female teacher education are raised;
- Examine whether the national teachers’ policy identifies problems related to teacher recruitment, employment, deployment, upgrading, promotion, retention and other related issues;
- Assess if the policy addresses the gender dimension of the identified problems;
- Investigate whether the strategies included such as recruitment procedures, employment and assignment, promotion, and retention tackle issues of gender equality;
- Investigate if the policies and other related strategies include provisions to address the special gender needs of male and female teachers; and
- Propose recommendations that countries can consider for addressing the unique situation of the marginalized gender in order to improve the quantity and quality of teachers to help achieve EFA goals.

III - Methodology

This section of the report presents the procedures used in conducting the assessment. It discusses instruments, sampling, data collection and analysis.

1. Instruments and Data Sources

The assessment used both primary and secondary data. Since the analysis from secondary sources formed the basis for developing an assessment instrument, the first step taken was to gather and compile secondary data. Under secondary data sources relevant policies, programs, statistics, research findings and other related documents were looked at. A checklist was utilized in the attempt to analyze teacher education policies or national education policies critically from gender perspective.

An interview of individuals working in relevant organizations constituted primary data sources. The interview covered issues such as demographic characteristics of interviewees, their educational background; the position they hold in their respective organizations; gender issues in teacher training and career development; their opinion about existing teacher policy and/or provisions for teacher education in the national education policy; the provisions contained in the policies to address gender issues; the degree of implementation of these provisions; the challenges encountered in addressing gender issues, and their suggestions to make the existing policy gender responsive. In Nigeria, in addition to the interview, a survey was utilized.
2. Sampling of Organizations and Individuals

Purposive sampling procedure was used in selecting participants, the criterion being relevance to the issues at hand, i.e., teacher education policy, national education policy and their implementation, and gender perspective in teacher education policies and programs. Therefore, depending on the context of the three countries covered in the assessment, relevant departments in the Ministry of Education and other key organizations dealing with teacher training were included. For example, in Ghana District Director of Education; a principal of College of Teacher Education; the director of the Ghana National Education Campaign Coalition; the gender offices in the Ghana National Association of Teachers; the director of Teacher Education Division of the Ghana Education Service; the director of Policy, Budgeting, Monitoring & Evaluation in the Ministry of Education, and other relevant individuals were interviewed. In Nigeria directors of Teacher Education and their staff; deans/heads of Departments and staff of Faculties of Education; registry staff; Executive Secretary of National Council for Colleges of Education (NCCE) in the Ministry of Education; and representatives of the State Universal Basic Education Board (SUBEB) and Teaching Service Commission (TESCOM) were included. In Senegal the technical advisor of the Minister of Education in charge of gender issues; gender focal person in the Basic Education Project; representatives of Personnel Department and Department of Planning and Educational Reform in the Ministry of Education; Director of the Department of Primary Education; Teachers at the Department of Secondary Education; trainees in the Faculty of Teacher Education in the University of Dakar (for secondary education teachers); Female trainees at Teacher Training Institute of Dakar (for primary education teachers); Schools Headmasters at Dakar Regional Authority of Education, and Association of Parents of Students were interviewed.

3. Data Analyses

Descriptive statistics, more specifically percentages were used to analyze the data collected through the questionnaire. Data from interviews were analyzed through coding and recoding and discerning themes.

4. Reporting

The report was written based on the findings of the assessment results from Ghana, Nigeria, and Senegal as well as the study and analysis of relevant documents.
IV - Findings and Discussion

This section of the report presents findings from both secondary and primary sources. The findings from secondary data show the context in which teacher education has been operating in Ghana, Nigeria and Senegal. It highlights the situation that initiated countries to move towards gender equality and the obligations they have entered to promote gender equality in education in general, and in teacher education in particular. It also tracks the efforts that the countries have made to implement their commitments. It further describes the situation of teacher education as well as female teachers in the three countries.

The findings from the primary data go to the core of the report. It discusses the degree of gender responsiveness of teacher education policies in Ghana and Nigeria through the discussion of the basic components of the policies from gender perspective. Since, there has not been a teacher education policy in Senegal, the availability of provisions on gender and teacher education in different national instruments is looked at and these provisions and the efforts made critically investigated.

1. The context of girls’ education in Africa

Before the advent of Western forms of education, there existed indigenous forms of education in many African countries (Annin, 2009); and “learning was largely experiential as children learned by imitation and participation in ceremonies” (Egbo, 2000, p. 62). Egbo (2000) further argues that although traditional education was largely informal and less structured as compared to Western education, its design was appropriate for the needs of Africans.

In the views of Annin (2009) two main reasons have been cited by many scholars including Foster (1965) and Egbo (2000) to explain the introduction of Western education in Africa: first, as a medium for propagating Christianity and second, as a means of subjugating local authority to sustain the colonial administration. As cited in Annin (2009), Egbo strongly contends that “colonial education ... in Sub-Saharan Africa, were essentially Eurocentric, exploitative, assimilationist, discriminatory and hegemonic” (Egbo, 2000, p. 63). Thus, the type of formal education offered was to promote the interest of the colonial administration and not necessarily to empower the colonies (Annin, 2009). This was reflected in the lack of the colonial administration’s investment in education for all, which resulted in high levels of inequality in education for boys and girls, classes of people and people living in different geographical locations. Education for children was mainly organized in the castles where limited children of merchants, chiefs and a selected rich only had access, apart from children of the colonial officers. This actually set the standards for discriminations and deepened cultural accolade that had existed for boys’ education against girls.

In several scholarly arguments including the works of Foster (1965), Graham (1971) and Purvis (1991) and as explained by Annin (2009), the influence of the middle-class domestic ideology in the Victorian society helped to create and maintain gender stereotypes. It identifies femininity with domesticity, service to others, subordination and weakness while masculinity with life in the competitive world of paid work, strength and domination (Annin, 2009).
In Annin’s assertion, “it was this mind-set [the middle –class domestic ideology in the Victorian society] that limited the provision of education by the colonial administration ..., especially for girls” (Annin, 2009, p 45) which resulted in poor access and low enrollment of girls in schools during that period. It is important to also state that there had been several factors that dictated and directed girls’ education in colonial times apart from the attitudes and ideologies of the colonial administration. These factors include desire of mothers to keep their daughters at home to work with them, and the fact that education for girls was directed at preparing them to work at home and also to serve people. This is evident in the several home science curricula that were meant for girls in pre and post independence education curricula until recent reforms of equity, where boys also studied life skills and vocational skills.

As a result of all these historical, social and economic factors the gender gap in the three countries covered in the assessment is still visible. In order to address such types of gender gaps, countries have made commitments to international instruments that hasten the elimination of gender discrimination and enhance equality and equity in all spheres, including education.

2. International Commitments Entered by Countries to Address Gender Equality

After the groundbreaking work of Ester Boserup, ‘Women’s Role in Economic Development’ that shows women’s significant contribution to agriculture came out in 1970’s, a realization has been made that women can not be marginalized any longer and the need to address women’s issue in a systematic and comprehensive way was underlined. This had led to the call for international communities to take action in the area of legal and administrative reforms to incorporate women’s concerns into economic policies and practices (Brett, 1991 cited in Yared, 2010). Accordingly, a number of international instruments have been designed and commitments made. These include the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), the Education for All (EFA) goals, the Beijing POA, and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

The CEDAW recognizes that discrimination against women violates the principles of equality of rights and respect for human dignity and hinders women’s participation in economic, social, cultural and political life of their countries, thereby hindering the development of their countries. In order to eliminate discrimination, the CEDAW requests countries to incorporate the principles of equality and non-discrimination in their countries’ constitutions and other relevant legislations. It further demands that all legal instruments that perpetuate discrimination be abolished.

Regarding education, Article 10 lists out a number of measures that States need to take to ensure that women benefit equally and equitably at all levels of education, including the elimination of any stereotyped concept of the roles of men and women at all levels and in all forms of education, and the reduction of female student dropout rates and the organization of programs for girls and women who have left school prematurely. Article 11 further stipulates the rights to a free choice of profession and employment, promotion, job security, benefits, on-job and advanced trainings.
Another international commitment is achieving the EFA goals, which was formulated on the World Conference on Education for All, Jomtien, Thailand in 1990. The EFA aimed to achieve gender equality in education by 2015. This commitment was renewed and affirmed in Dakar, Senegal, in April 2000. The framework adopted in Dakar, called Dakar Framework for Action comprises six goals:

- Expand early childhood care and Education;
- Free and compulsory education of good quality by 2015;
- Promote the acquisition of life-skills by adolescents and youth;
- Expand adult literacy by 50% by 2015;
- Eliminate gender disparities by 2005 and achieve gender equality in education by 2015; and
- Enhance educational equality.

The Fourth World Conference on Women, which was held in Beijing in 1995 adopted the POA that contained 12 critical areas, among which education is one. The POA has included measures that countries need to take in order to ensure the equality of women in the area of education at all levels. Regarding tertiary education, under Strategic Objective B, the POA stipulates the elimination of gender disparities in access to all areas of tertiary education by ensuring that women have equal access to career development, training, scholarship and fellowship. It also calls for a gender-sensitive educational system in order to ensure equal educational and training opportunities and full and equal participation of women in educational administration and policy and decision-making. The elimination of gender stereotypes in curricula, textbooks for all levels of education including teacher training is emphasized. In relation to career development of teachers, it is mentioned that actions would be taken to ensure that female teachers and professors have the same opportunities as and equal status with male teachers and professors, in view of the importance of having female teachers at all levels and in order to attract girls to school and retain them in school.

The MDGs were adopted by world leaders in September 2000. They contain eight goals set to be achieved by 2015 with the aim of reducing poverty worldwide. The MDGs provide concrete, numerical benchmarks for tackling extreme poverty from many dimensions.

Goal 3 of the MDGs focuses on promoting gender equality and the empowerment of women, with Target 3a demanding the elimination of gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2005, and at all levels by 2015. The ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education is the indicator to be used to measure progress.

Most African countries have entered these commitments. In relation to the countries covered in this study, Ghana has signed the CEDAW in 1980, and ratified it in 1986, without reservations. Similarly, Nigeria and Senegal ratified the convention in 1985. Although Nigeria had ratified the convention, it was yet to integrate it in the laws of the country (UNECA, 2009). Accordingly, the countries have been undertaking activities in order to implement the commitments and also report to the CEDAW committee on the progress they have been making. However, none of the three countries reported to the Committee to the 47th session from 4 to 22 October 2010, in Geneva, Palais des Nations, Salle XVI.
Similarly, the EFA Goals, the Beijing and ICPD POAs have been embraced by all the three countries. The MDGs have also been used as a framework for writing the poverty reduction papers and sharpening their respective five year plans. In all these efforts the education of girls/women has been given a central position.

3. Implementation of Commitments

In implementing their commitments that they have made to the different international instruments, African countries have put in place a number of legal, economic and social measures, and the education and training of women has been considered as a major route in the effort to reduce poverty. More specifically on education, assessment carried out revealed that the most commonly applied measure taken in creating access of education to girls is the provision of free and compulsory education at the level of primary education (UNECA, 2010). This has been supplemented by other activities. In a similar vein, the countries under assessment have taken a number of steps described below.

Ghana

In relation to policy and legislation, in 1983, the government of Provisional National Defense Council (PNDC) in Ghana enacted PNDC Law 42 which stated that educational facilities at all levels were to be provided and made available to the communities since it was considered the responsibility of the state to provide such facilities. The Constitution that came out in 1992, in its Article 38 sub-section 2 states that the government, after the issuance of the Constitution, would develop a program that would be implemented in ten years for the provision of a Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education. Developing the document titled, “A National Vision for Girls’ Education in Ghana and A Framework of Action: Charting the Way Forward” was another effort made to implement international commitments. The document examines the persistent and regional disparities of girls’ education in Ghana and emphasizes the need for multi-pronged approach in order to ensure access and create situations for their success. The government of Ghana has also designed the National Action Plan Education for All: Ghana 2003-2015. In this document policy goal 10 talks about providing females with equal opportunities to access the full cycle of education. The goal contains specific activities as well as targets.

In addition to preparing program and plans, countries have taken concrete action. For example, UNECA (2010) mentioned that Ghana has put in place a school feeding program in collaboration with donors in order to increase the enrollment of children, and more specifically those of girls.

Nigeria

Similarly, Nigeria has been making efforts to address girls/women’s education. In response to the UN Declaration of International Year for Women, the Nigerian government adopted the UN Plan of Action for integrating Women into Development, which stipulated a number of measures. In year 2000, Nigeria designed the National Policy on Women, guided by the global instrument, such as the CEDAW (FRN, 2006). The focus of the National Policy on Women was, to a large extent, the pursuit of legal equality for women and men, and the removing of all obstacles to the social, economic and political empowerment of women (FRN, 2006). It underlines that all Nigerian women acquire basic education and enjoy the full benefits of contemporary living and contribute meaningfully to the development of the country.
Another measure taken to enhance women’s education is the designing of the National Policy on Gender in Basic Education. By end of 2005, Nigeria was unable to meet MDGs Goal 3 and EFA Goal 5; that is, achieving gender parity in both primary and secondary education by 2005. The reasons for this failure include lack of policy to raise teachers to respectability, unattractive schools, and more importantly the high rate of school drop-out for girls. Although more girls are in schools at the early age, dropout rate is high as they grow up because of extra chores at home, poverty leading to hawking, unsolicited pregnancy, early marriage, care for the aged and sick, lack of sanitation and water at school for care during the menstrual period (Marinho, et al, 2008).

The Policy on Gender in Basic Education (FRN, 2007) states, “a gender sensitive policy is one that will ensure that gender is systematically mainstreamed into all components of the education sector development” (p. 1). The policy goes further to state that “development in all its ramifications can only be guaranteed by quality education. Health and disease prevention, environmental sustainability and security, cannot be assured when a section of the population is not educated” (p. 1). It promotes gender sensitivity at all levels in pursuit of the National Policy on Education (NPE), and the attainment of EFA and MDGs targets. This is with the view to ensuring gender equality and equity in the delivery of all basic education programs in Nigeria.

National Economic Empowerment Development Strategy (NEEDS) is another positive initiative put in place by the government of Nigeria to support women’s education (FRN, 2004). NEEDS seeks to fully integrate women by enhancing their capacity to participate in the economic, social, political, and cultural life of the country.

To do so, the government intends, among others, to ensure equitable representation of women in all development initiatives by using affirmative action, and makes efforts to ensure that women represent at least 30 percent of the workforce, where feasible. It will also mainstream women’s concerns and perspectives in all policies and programs. The key issues that are of gender concern in NEEDS are first, the establishment of scholarship schemes at the secondary and tertiary levels to expand educational opportunities for female students where necessary, and second, expansion of adult and vocational education programs that caters for women beyond formal school age.

To implement affirmative action programs Nigeria is to allocate at least 2% of the Basic Education Budget for activities targeted at increasing girls’ access to education in schools where large gender gaps exist. Furthermore, the Federal Government of Nigeria encourages State Universal Basic Education Boards (SUBEBs) and State Ministries of Education to allocate a significant proportion of their education budget towards efforts to increase the girls’ access to basic education. Incentives for increased access of girls to basic education will include scholarship schemes for girls; provision of free uniforms and books; provision of sanitary pads for adolescent girls where distance to school is over 5 kilometers, and free good quality boarding facilities for girls. The policy states that it is mandatory for the new editions and new texts that are going to be used in schools to be censored for gender sensitivity. All-female boarding facilities will particularly encourage females’ enrollment in education at all levels, especially in the Northern part of Nigeria.

The Basic Education Policy also addresses the issue of retention, completion and performance. The Federal Government of Nigeria is to encourage State Governments
to establish Girls’ Second Chance Education Centers, where girls who drop out of school can continue learning academic subjects and specific technical skills and equally provide adequate facilities including provisions of equipment and facilitators’ salaries.

Despite the availability of legal and policy provisions much has not changed in the lives of women. Six years after the National Policy on Women was passed into law, situation reports on the quality of life of women, children and their households however, do not show that significant strides have been achieved in most of the outlined respects (FRN, 2006). The main reason for this is that gender inequalities remain pervasive in most Nigerian spaces particularly in the education sector.

**Senegal**

Similarly, within the framework of the international instruments, Senegal has taken a number of measures. Regarding gender equality issues in general, Senegal’s modern and formal legal instruments give equal status to men and women. Article 22 of the Constitution stipulates that each child, boy or girl, has the right to education. Article 25 rejects any form of job discrimination between men and women. These two principles serve as a constitutional basis to promote gender equality and equity in terms of inclusive education and open teacher recruitments.

The specific Law of Education (« Loi n° 91-22 d’Orientation de l’Education Nationale du 16 février 1991 modifiée et complétée par la Loi n° 2004-37 du 3 décembre 2004 »), in its articles 1 and 25 also stipulates provisions on gender equality and equity. Article 1 talks about the provision of education to both men and women to enable them to use their intellectual capacity and best judgments to participate in the fast growing science and technology to build their country (Article 1). Article 25 also explains the democratic nature of national education and that it needs to give equal opportunities to entry and success since each individual is entitled to relevant instruction and training with no discrimination based on sex, race, ethnic group, religion or nationality.

In order to translate the legal and policy provisions into practical actions, the education department has issued a Letter of Sector Policy elaborated and regularly updated through a wide consultative process, with participation of both central and local administration, civil society, and with inputs from the technical and financial partners in the sector. Covering the period 2008-2015, the latest version of this Policy Letter has dedicated one of its eight strategic objectives to “…inclusive education and elimination of disparities at all levels of education: inside and among regions, socioeconomic groups, sexes and urban and rural areas”. The Policy Letter, also, calls for “… implementation of alternative strategies to promote access and retention of girls in each of the seven levels in the education system: preschool, elementary, lower secondary, non-formal, upper general secondary, vocational and technical, and tertiary”.

In addition to these legal measures, a number of practical steps have been taken to enhance girls’ education. These include establishing the National Forum for Girls’ Education, which is chaired by the country’s president, and the launching of the program SCOFI (Projet pour la scolarisation des filles). One of SCOFI’s main objectives is increasing girls’ access to school as well as their retention.
Since 1995, among others, the following steps have been taken in order to address gender disparity in education. (Elaboration d’un Cadre de coordination des interventions sur l’éducation des filles, Ministère de l’Education, December 2006; Rapport bilan 1997-2007, Comité National Pour la SCOFI, Dakar, December 2007):

- Sensitizing communities about the importance of girls’ education;
- Bringing schools closer to the community;
- Building school facilities such as separate toilets for girls;
- Undertaking studies on stereotypes discriminating girls in the school environment, including the curricula, the teachers, etc.
- Collecting and distributing educational materials to school girls;
- Promoting a nationwide system of sponsoring of girls going to school; and
- Giving awards and scholarships to high performing girls.

Like the two countries a number of legal, policy and practical measures have been taken in Senegal in order to enhance girls’ education. However, not much has been seen in dealing, specifically with female teachers’ education and development.

4. Teacher Education

Teacher education has evolved and gone through several transformations in many parts of Africa. The influence of missionaries as well as colonial period is also evident. In Ghana the Basel Mission established a teacher-catechist theological seminary at Akropong in 1863, and later, a second one at Abetifi. These and the Roman Catholic teachers’ college at Bla (now Hohoe in the Volta region) were the only institutions for teacher-training education in Ghana until 1909.

In teacher education as in the establishment of schools, the government saw the need to supplement the efforts of the Missions. As a result, in 1909 it opened a training college in Accra, which became the teacher training center not only for Government teachers but for all mission schools who had no teacher training institutions of their own (Bame, 1972).

As discussed further by Bame (1972), the expansion in teacher training continued and a large number of teachers received professional training as more training colleges were established. In 1928, the government began to assist a training college for women at Cape Coast, which had been started by Roman Catholic Sisters. The government also encouraged the missions in their efforts by giving them grants to train female teachers. Available records show that in 1927, there were 927 certificated male teachers and 37 certificated female teachers.

In Nigeria the first teacher training institution is acknowledged to be the one set up by the Church Missionary Society (CMS) in 1855. The Christian Missions who initiated Western education in Nigeria appreciated the value of the teacher; they took his/her training seriously and made provision for adequate payment, respect and recognition. With the advent of colonization, the colonial administration introduced a register for teachers and by legislation provided for teachers’ standards (Omolewa, 2007). At independence, many teachers ventured into politics, invariably became policy makers and as policy makers, impacted the
quality of teacher preparation (Omolewa, 2007). However, most of the early teachers turned politicians/ policy makers were males. Consequently, gender issues were not taken into consideration, particularly in relation to teaching and teacher education.

By 1891 there were 84 teachers in the 30 assisted schools of the colony. There were no government institutions specifically aimed at training teachers but some of the students at the secondary schools were prepared for the teacher’s examination. In 1896, St Andrews College was established by the Church Missionary Society (CMS). The Baptist College of Ogbomoso that was established as a theological seminary turned its attention to teacher training in 1897. Wesley College was founded in 1905 at Ibadan by the Methodist Mission. The Awka C.M.S. Training Institution and the Hope Waddell Institute were established in 1902. All these happened in Southern Nigeria. In Northern Nigeria, Government established a school for the training of teachers in Nasarawa in 1909, in Katsinain in 1924, and in Bauchi in 1929 among others.

With the Universal Primary Education (UPE) in 1950s, there was expansion of some teacher training programs. But low output and low quality continued to affect teacher education particularly after the UPE was introduced in 1955.

In Senegal the first modern school was opened in 1817, and Ecole Des Notables was established in 1841 to educate civil servants and the sons of officials. At the time, general education aimed at educating administrators to fill the increasing number of posts available, and thus attention given to sectors such as agriculture including TVET and teacher education was not significant. According to Namuddu and Tapsoba (1993) teacher education in Francophone countries in general have some shortcomings. For example, they point out that very few universities have faculties of education; training in education, which is based on the French model, is provided in teacher training colleges, and focuses on classroom approaches; and further training in educational action-research for teachers is not conceived as a means of promotion and/or problem-solving, as promotion is based on years of service. This situation, to some extent, has affected the development of teacher education in Senegal.

5. Current Status of Teacher Education

Teacher education and training follow different systems in the three countries. In Ghana, Teacher Education is categorized into two: pre-service and in-service, which are offered by both Colleges of Education and Faculties of Teacher Education in Universities. The Pre-service training is the training offered by the Colleges of Education before teachers engage in their teaching career. Teacher Training Colleges have been upgraded to Colleges of Education to offer three-year Pre-service Diploma in Basic Education; the first two years are spent on the college campus, while the third year is spent in schools where the trainees are posted as interns and then mentored as they practice to teach, and continue their studies using distance education.

The in-service training as discussed in the Teacher Education Policy is targeted at upgrading teachers’ knowledge, skills, and competences through short courses, seminars, workshops, conferences, educational tours and exchange programs. Some of the Colleges of Education have been designated as centers for organizing
top-up courses through sandwich programs for certificate ‘A’ teachers to obtain the Diploma in Basic Education. These institutions also offer distance courses in Un-Trained Teachers Diploma in Basic Education (UTTDCE) for classroom teachers that are not trained.

The pre-service and in-service training are open to any qualified person. Admission requirements and procedures for selecting candidates for pre-service training are stipulated in Ghana’s draft teacher education policy. Accordingly, the academic requirements for entry into the colleges of education are as follows:

- Senior Secondary School Certificate/ West African Senior School Certificate Examination (WASSCE) with a minimum of aggregate 24 in 6 subjects including grade D or better in English Language and Passes in Mathematics, Science, and three other subjects.

- School Certificate (SC)/General Certificate of Education (GCE) Ordinary level with Credit in English Language, Mathematics, science subject and three other subjects with a minimum of Aggregate 24

Though the opportunity for training is open for both sexes, in reality women and men are not benefitting equally because of several challenges including low performance of females generally, and in mathematics and science which form part of the basic requirements specifically. In addition, infrastructure for females in the colleges of education limits the number of female trainees’ intake. The curriculum used in the training of teachers is adequate to achieve the objectives set in the teacher education policy but comes with some limited emphasis on gender education and sensitivity.

In Nigeria, the National Policy on Education (FRN, 1981) indicates that starting from 1998 the minimum qualification for teaching in primary school is National Certificate in Education (NCE). This is also required for teaching in Junior Secondary School (JSS). The certificate is awarded in Colleges of Education after three years of training.

The NCE is also the qualification required for teaching in technical colleges, and for accessing grant for university level studies. The Technical Teacher’s Certificate requires one additional year of study. Several colleges also prepare students for Bachelor of Education (B.Ed) degrees at the universities with which they are affiliated. A B.Ed or single subject bachelor’s degree plus a one year teaching certification diploma is required to teach at the Senior Secondary School (SSS) level. Holders of specialized qualifications like the national diplomas awarded by polytechnics can be employed to teach in secondary schools and technical colleges. Instructors at teacher training colleges are required to hold at least a master’s degree, while university lecturers are required to hold a doctorate degree.

The requirements for the various teacher-training programs differ from one level to the other in terms of academic qualification. For admission to colleges of education, prospective candidates must have at least 3 credits in the Senior School Certificate including the subjects they want to study and two other passes. At the university level, the entry requirement is five credits, which must include the chosen major teaching subjects. In addition, prospective
college of education students are required to sit and pass the polytechnic/college of education matriculation examination, while prospective university students must pass the University Matriculation Examination (UME).

In Senegal, the situation of teachers is diverse with a certain complexity of profiles. There are three different types of teachers: volunteer/teachers; contractual/temporary teachers, and civil servant teachers.

Volunteers are teachers recruited for a contract of limited duration and earn less than traditional civil servant teachers. They teach in the primary schools as well as at the preschool level with no initial professional training. Earlier, volunteers were required to have secured the Brevet diploma (end of lower-secondary). However, recently they are required to obtain a Baccalaureate (end of upper-secondary). In 2009, the Ministry of Education decided to train all teacher volunteers in response to the demand from the trade unions.

Volunteers are present at secondary level (lower and upper cycles) as well, but under the name of temporary professors. Though the status is the same as for volunteers, temporary teachers are recruited with higher qualifications ranging from Baccalaureate to university degrees, and paid a little more.

The contractual teacher has an intermediate status between volunteer/temporary and full civil servant teacher. Contractual teachers are recruited among the volunteers and temporary professors who have served for at least two years and have secured a professional degree. They have better salaries than volunteers and temporary professors, but they still serve under contracts of limited duration and are still paid less than a regular civil servant teacher. From this transitory position they are progressively accommodated in the public administration as full civil servants. Until 2008, this accommodation was conducted not on systematic basis but, due to budgetary constraints, in proportion to the availability of civil servant teacher positions that are opened due to resignation, retirement or death of regular teachers. Since 2009, there is an agreement between government and trade unions regarding the systematic recruitment of all contractual teachers as full functionaries.

The professional training is provided in two types of teacher education institutions. For preschool and primary cycles, the teachers are trained in a network of pedagogical schools called “Ecoles Normales d'Instituteurs” (ENI). Each region has an ENI training school. The pre-service training takes one academic year (October of year N to June of Year N+1) and is a combination of theoretical teaching and practical immersion in real classroom situation. For secondary school, teachers are trained in a Faculty of Pedagogy within the University of Dakar. Teachers at the tertiary level of the education system are not subject to professional training. Their recruitment is based on academic degrees held and their progress in career is determined by their researches and scientific publications.

6. Female Teachers at Various Levels

In general, the three countries have lower number of female teachers, and female teachers are predominantly found at elementary and junior high school levels. For example statistics from Ghana shows that in the academic year 2008/09, though female representation is high at pre-primary level (84.2%), the number of female teachers dwindles as one moves to high school. A similar pattern is observed in
Senegal. In 2009, females represent only 30% of the teachers in primary education, 17% in secondary education, and presumably far less in tertiary education (Rapport National sur la Situation de l’Education, édition 2009, Ministère de l’Education.) Please see Table 1 below.

Table 1: Percentage of Female and Male Teachers at Various Levels (2009)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pre-primary</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of females teachers</td>
<td>84.2</td>
<td>36.2</td>
<td>25.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of male teachers</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>63.8</td>
<td>74.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of females teachers</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>17.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of male teachers</td>
<td>78.0</td>
<td>70.0</td>
<td>83.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Though a comprehensive data was not accessible from Nigeria, data from Ondo state reveals that despite the belief that the teaching profession is dominated by females, more male teachers are found at secondary level. Please see Table 2.

Table 2: Number of Secondary School Teachers by Gender in Ondo State in 2009

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Level</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Junior Secondary</td>
<td>2,396 (41.7%)</td>
<td>3,352 (58.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Secondary</td>
<td>3,622 (61.5%)</td>
<td>2,267 (38.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6,018 (51.7%)</td>
<td>5,619 (48.3%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Teaching Service Commission, 2010

The predominance of female teachers at pre-primary and primary levels has different implications. One is that female teachers teach at this level because of lack of qualifications. For example, in Senegal the volunteer teachers that are found at primary levels do not have any certification. Similarly, in Ghana according to the data from the Ministry of Education, in 2008/09, 22.6% of the female teachers at primary level did not have a professional training. It also implies that female teachers were not able to join universities to be trained as teachers because of the low point average they earned at the end of their secondary education.

As indicated in the background section of this report, this gender disparity in teachers has serious implications on the enrollment and success of female students, and by extension for the achievement of various commitments that countries have entered. This would be further elaborated in the next section.

7. Female Teachers and Female Students’ Enrollment and Performance

Studies reveal that the presence of female teachers has positive contribution to enrollment and success of female students. For example, according to a study conducted in Dhaka, Bangladesh, increase in the number of female teachers is one of the important factors in the enrollment and retention of girls in primary and secondary schools. The contributions, as shown by the study, include, increased class participation of female students; feeling of comfort and safety for girls; ease of understanding of girls by female teachers, and more inclination of mothers to talk to female teachers (Tapan, 2002).
Herz & Sperling (2004) further acknowledge the importance of female teachers for girls. Based on their evaluation of various programs, they contend that in certain cultures, or where girls’ enrollment rates are relatively low, far more girls will enroll if they can be taught by female teachers, particularly as they approach adolescence. They explained that in Africa and the Middle East, especially where conservative cultures prevail, female teachers play an important role of modeling for both the girls themselves and their parents.

Another study conducted on female university students who came from rural Ethiopia revealed that one of the factors that contributed to the success of these girls was the availability of female teachers. The girls in the study explained that when parents saw female teachers teaching and speaking publicly during school days, their parents aspired for their daughter to become like their female teachers. Many of the female students further indicated that in the absence of other female professionals in rural areas, their female teachers served as mentors and role models. In fact, one of the informants in the study mentioned that after her mother, the credit for her success goes to her female teacher (Emebet, 2004).

Based on a study in South Sudan, UNICEF (2008) also contends that one of the constraining factors for the enrollment and success of girls is the scarcity of female teachers. According to the study findings, “The absence of a critical number of female teachers in schools, therefore, leaves the older girls exposed forcing many to drop out of school” (p. 40). That being the case, the representation of female teachers at all levels including holding of administrative position is an issue that needs to be dealt with to achieve the internationally set goals as well as to ensure that the human rights of women to benefit from all sectors and levels are protected.

8. Teacher Education Policy from Gender Perspective

A policy is a framework or a general guideline developed to solve a certain social problem or to enable states to benefit from a resource to maximum level with minimum negative outcomes. A policy needs to be gender responsive in order to address the unique general and strategic needs of women that emanate from, mostly, the disadvantageous position they hold in a society in terms of access to and control over various resources as well as the multiple gender roles they play.

A policy has, at least, three basic components (Pal, 2002). These are: problem identification, policy goals and instruments. The problem identification component articulates the problems, the root and immediate causes of that specific problem. Problems usually come in sets and as a result the definitions consider different dimensions such as social, economic, and health. An example could be the HIV&AIDS problem that has various dimensions and implications. The identification and definition of problems might take a long time and could be the outcome of discussion at different levels. However, the actual policy does not include all these details.

The second component, goal is related to problems definitions. Goals are usually classified into general goals and specific goals. General goals are statements that are agreed upon by all. Specific goals are related to the general goal and contribute to its achievement.
The third component is the policy instrument or the means by which the problems are to be addressed in order to solve the defined problem, thereby to achieve the goal. Policy instruments answer the question, ‘how’. For example, HIV&AIDS policy might have education, care for people living with the virus, VCT, etc as instruments.

Looking at the different components, a policy is like a research project. This is to say that it should have internal consistency among the three major elements: problem definition, goals and instruments.

In the effort to see the gender responsiveness of teacher education policies in Ghana and Nigeria, the different components of these policies have been investigated for their gender responsiveness. However, since Senegal does not have a teacher education policy, the various provisions given to teacher education in related instruments have been looked at from gender perspectives.

a. Gender Responsiveness of Teacher Education Policies

As indicated earlier, one of the major components in a policy is the problem identification, which some policies call background. It identifies a problem (problems); explains why it is a problem, how the issues affect different groups of individuals, such as men and women, children and adults, rural and urban residents differently, and shows the links with the country’s current development agenda and various international, regional and national commitments. It also presents statistics, for example a social problem related to employment presents the patterns of employment in the various sectors, both formal and informal employment, the qualification of employees, the different positions held by different employees, and payment structure. In addition to providing the general pattern of the problem, this section also needs to present gender disaggregated data that enables individuals see the gender gaps, as well as, if necessary, case studies illustrating gender gaps as well as the economic, social, political and personal implications.

The background in teacher education policies of both Ghana and Nigeria do not discuss the gender issues that are apparently visible. One of these is the gender disparity (in favor of male) in teachers, especially at secondary level (please see Tables 1 and 2, page 21). The causes of this disparity have not been discussed since the problem was overlooked in the background section. The assessment conducted reveals that the lack of required points to enter universities as indicated in Ghana, Nigeria and Senegal is one of the reasons for the low qualification of female teachers and their concentration at preprimary and primary levels. The high dropout rate, especially at secondary schools as observed in Senegal is another reason for the gender disparity. A number of other factors have also been mentioned. In Senegal the socio-cultural factors have been highlighted in addition to other causes, "Males outnumber females among the teaching staff for socio-cultural reasons; women are basically regarded as housewives, guard family values and are burdened with domestic tasks...." (SCOFI coordinator, Department of Elementary Education, Ministry of Education, Senegal, Personal Communication).

None of the policies discuss the various problems female teachers encounter during deployment as well as during their
career advancement, despite the existence of these problems. For example, in Nigeria it was highlighted that after graduation, problems related to assignment of female graduates away from their family is a serious challenge. This was indicated to be a problem by 56% of the survey respondents in the assessment. Their deployment in rural areas was also mentioned as a problem, which requires careful considerations that address the needs of schools for female teachers in rural areas as well as the welfare of female teachers. A similar situation was mentioned in Ghana. For example refusal to be deployed in rural areas on the part of female graduates; unwillingness to be separated from husbands; harassment during deployment period were mentioned by some respondents; and difficulty on the part of male teachers trained as early childhood educators due to preference for female teachers were problems listed out.

A central issue in career development is in-service training. The assessment conducted in the three countries revealed that male and female teachers do not benefit equally and equitably from in-service trainings. For example, an interviewee from the Senegal Ministry of Education explained that more male teachers get in-service training compared to female teachers. Similarly, in Ghana it was revealed that female teachers may not benefit as much as male teachers from in-service training due to, among others, lack of support from partners and responsibility of care for their little children. In Nigeria 65% of the survey respondents indicated that problems related to marital responsibilities interfere with the opportunities for in-service training for female teachers. It was further elaborated that most married women are often reluctant to go for formal in-service training which is lengthy and may take them out of their home as it will affect their responsibilities at home. For instance, one of the respondents said, "If wives leave home for school, their husbands will take another wife to take care of them".

Sometimes a policy might identify a specific issue as a problem and thus as a driving force for its development. For example, the Ghana National Teacher Education Policy (NTEP) gives central emphasis to quality. It focuses on teacher quality, development, motivation, promotion and retention. The major objective of the policy is to ensure that teachers are trained and recruited to teach to world class standards and to continue to develop their competences over their entire careers (Federal Ministry of Education, 2010). Despite the fact that all the issues raised: quality, development, motivation, promotion and retention have gender dimensions, the policy is silent on the issue. The gender dimension is missing in many of the components of the policy, such as the background, presented as ‘Situation of Teacher Education in Nigeria’ and the policy process.

In summary, a critical review of the Ghana and Nigeria policies reveals that their introductory sections, which present and articulate the problem do not take into account the different positions, needs and experiences of women and men in the elaboration of the policy problems. Furthermore, the NTEP of Nigeria doesn’t say whether the women’s as well as the men’s concerns are raised and their voices represented in the policy process, which is an important dimension in the gender based analysis of policy (Gender Based Analysis, 1998).
b. Policy Objectives

The background section of the policy forms the foundation upon which the policy objectives are based. Since none of the policies clearly addressed gender issues in teacher education and development in their background, this concern is missing in the policy objectives as well. This is despite the existence of problems in teacher education and development, and that these problems have gender dimensions. For instance, the roadmap for Nigerian education sector (2009) clearly indicated that the major challenges facing education include inadequate number of qualified teachers and uneven distribution of teachers between urban and rural schools, poor remuneration and motivation, low teachers support (FRN, 2009, p. 28). Most of these unqualified teachers are women. It also states that a large number of teachers with certificates below the NCE (38.75%) still abound in the system. In the North-East and North-West regions, this figure is about 70%. Again most of these are women. However, the policy objectives of the NTEP, presented below, do not aim to tackle these problems which are highly differentiated by gender.

- create adequate incentives to attract competent people into the teaching profession;
- ensure rigorous admission and graduation requirements and apply them consistently;
- ensure that teacher education institutions are well equipped both in human and material resources;
- ensure that teachers have sufficient mastery of content and varied methods of teaching that are subject-specific, including teachers for Special Needs Learners;
- ensure structured, effective and supportive supervision of teaching practice and induction as well as certification and licensing;
- produce sufficiently trained teacher educators capable of imparting and modeling desired knowledge, skills and attitudes;
- motivate teachers and provide opportunities for their continuing professional development, retention, advancement and improvement in their chosen career; and
- ensure that teachers constantly upgrade their skills in order to remain competent and relevant.

As stated earlier, it should be noted that these objectives are not gender responsive.

A similar lack of gender perspective is observed in the draft teacher education policy of Ghana. The policy aims, among others, to establish areas of professional standards for developing teachers’ ability to adopt reflective teaching approaches to enhance the quality of lesson delivery in kindergarten, primary, junior high, senior high schools and technical and vocational institutions; and promote awareness of the importance of teacher welfare and working conditions to raise the value and social status of pre-tertiary teachers in Ghana. As indicated earlier, the issue of quality mentioned in the first objective is closely linked to female teachers as female teachers are found to be less trained and less likely to benefit equally from in-service and other types of training while on job. In the same vein, the welfare and working conditions of women has a gender dimension due to several social, economic and cultural factors.
Regarding policy objectives, Commission Status of Women (1996) states that policy objectives need to articulate gender concerns specifically and visibly. Addressing gender concerns may require different provisions in order for women and men to benefit from the outcomes of the policy equitably. Conscious efforts need to be made for outcomes to eliminate economic, social and cultural barriers that prohibit the equitable situation of men and women. It is further explained that situations that need different outcome indicators in order to capture the different realities of women and men need to be given attention. Specific monitoring and accountability for outcomes of both women and men should be stipulated in the policy outline since the traditional approach is built on the male norm, and overlooks women.

**c. The Policy Instrument**

Though some policies may not clearly state the policy instrument as such, all the listed out means by which objectives are to be attained are considered as policy instruments. These include the necessary structures that need to be laid down, the financing source and system, and actual activities to be undertaken in order to achieve the policy objectives.

In the Nigeria National Teacher Education Policy, the instruments are presented as policy statements. The first deals with attracting competent people into the teaching profession through adequate incentives, which include scholarship schemes for students that are enrolled in teacher education, rural/disadvantaged posting allowance, incentives for science education. Though these measures can attract more students into teacher education, some of whom might be female teachers, there are gender issues that need to be considered in order to ensure that females benefit equally and equitably from the provisions. For example, accessibility of information about the provisions; gender sensitiveness of committees or other organs that decide on the provisions; and physical accessibility of offices or organizations that implement these provisions are factors that enhance or deter the benefits of females. Literature confirms the fact that when finances are limited, it is the girl-child that loses out of education. Therefore, especially the scholarship scheme has a potential to encourage women's enrollment at all levels.

In relation to quality improvement, both admission and graduation requirements that are thought to augment quality have been stipulated. These requirements are uniform for both males and females. This similar treatment of male and female candidates is likely to perpetuate the gender disparity in education, especially at secondary level. Many countries including Ethiopia have put in place affirmative action which allows female candidates to enroll in Colleges of Teacher Education with a Grade Point Average (GPA) less by certain points than required from male candidates. Though there is a lot of argument against such type of measures with the assumption that it compromises quality, affirmative action complemented by appropriate support such as tutorial and other life skills training is likely to offset these differences at the second and above years of study (Fentaw, 2001). Another measure could be the establishment of all female teacher education institutions to eliminate factors related to religious and socio-cultural constraints, especially in the disadvantaged and underserved areas such as the Northern regions of Nigeria.
The other area covered in the Nigerian policy is curriculum and instruction. The curricula for teacher education, ECCE, PE, JSE are elaborated. The subjects that are required at all levels for a student to graduate from CoE and Faculty of Education are spelt out. It also includes instruments for monitoring and evaluation, with the ultimate aim of quality control. The principle is for teachers to have sufficient mastery of content and subject-specific method of teaching. The quality of knowledge to be impacted is also to be effectively monitored. This section has not taken gender issues into consideration either. The inclusion of gender issues in teacher education curriculum has been an area of discussion for quite some time now and studies support the inclusion. For example in Anikweze, et al, (2005)’s study a significant proportion of respondents supported the inclusion of gender issue in teacher training institution (Anikweze, 2005). Since teacher education makes an important space where the multiplying effects of knowledge acquired in the institution is very high, considering gender in the curriculum would be an important component of addressing gender issues in teacher education and beyond.

Another area covered in the Policy is teaching practice and induction. Despite the contention that female graduates have problems related to deployment because of family and socio-cultural factors, the policy doesn’t address these problems. A similar lack of consideration is observed in certification as well. The assessment shows that female teachers’ career progress could be discontinued due to child birth and child rearing responsibilities. However, the policy stipulates that recertification of every registered teacher by the Teacher Registration Council of Nigeria (TRCN), based on evidence of continuing academic and professional development, shall take place every two years, without any consideration to the challenges that female teachers may face due to other roles such as reproductive that they take up.

With regard to well trained teacher educators who are capable of imparting and modeling desired behavior, the policy does not mention about the gender disparity that exist at tertiary level and the need to close this gender gap, through ensuring increased number of female students.

One central issue covered in the policy is funding. It is indicated that increased funding is needed to implement the policy. However, since the policy has not mainstreamed gender in any of its components, this section also overlooks the need for gender related activities, such as awareness raising, support to female trainees and other related activities requiring funding. In addition, in setting the criteria for selection of proposal requesting funding for different activities that contribute to implementing the policy, one of the criteria mentioned is the participation of Parent Teacher Associations (PTAs), Non-Government Organizations (NGOs), and Community Based Organizations (CBOs) in the proposed activities, while women’s organization have not been mentioned explicitly. Therefore, similar to other policy issues, the funding has also failed to integrate the gender dimensions. This observation is supported by respondents included in the Nigerian assessment. Thirty-three (77%) of the respondents mentioned that there was not financial commitment to address gender issues, while 09 (21%) respondents indicated that the financial commitment is only in the area of scholarship.
Teachers’ policy must remove obstacles that prevent any of the two sexes particularly the female from benefitting from teacher education provision and teacher employment. This will make the teacher education environment gender friendly and facilitate admission of more females into teacher education institutions and thereby putting in place more female teachers particularly where there are socio-cultural inhibitions on female’s exposure. Policies must be put in place to compensate for historical and socio-cultural disadvantages that may prevent either of the sexes, women in particular from sharing a level playing field. If this is done, there would be gender equality in teacher employment and deployment. Beyond this, the policy should have in-built into it, affirmative action by government to ensure that married female teachers are employed and deployed to where their husbands are domiciled. This practice is presently embraced by the National Youth Service Scheme, whereby married female corps members are posted to where their husbands reside.

One of the strategies listed out in the policy to ensure quality is setting strict admission criteria. Regarding admission to pre-service training, the policy sets the same criteria for both male and female candidates despite the fewer number of female teachers found at all levels and the various international and regional commitments Ghana has made to ensure gender equality in all spheres. Supporting the gender disparity in teacher training, one of the interviewees indicated that most teacher training colleges admit 60% males and 40% females because, practically, most women applicant hardly make equal grades with their male counterparts in the basic subject requirements. Provision is made to female candidates to enter using lower points than male candidates only to access courses if they fail to be admitted in teacher education colleges.

Similar to Nigeria, the instruments or strategies contained in the Pre-tertiary Teacher Professional Development and Management Policy framework of Ghana show a lack of gender responsiveness. For example, under the socio-economic status of teachers, it stipulates that the provision of suitable accommodation, incentives and other inducements will receive attention. However, despite the many claims by interviewees in the assessment that female teacher have many gender related concerns such as the issue of families, safety and harassment, the policy does not address these concerns.

Regarding promotion similar to Nigerian policy, one of the criteria mentioned by the draft policy is the number of years in career progression. Though this is one of the basic criteria, it does not take into account the number of years female teachers might spend on childbirth and maternity leave. In relation to the cost of financing, the provision that all training costs to be borne by teachers including in-service training would disadvantage female candidates and teachers since, in times of economic constraints, it is men that are given priorities. Therefore, some kind of reinforcement or consideration needs to be considered to encourage more female candidates and teachers to benefit from the various programs.
One of the central spaces to ensure gender mainstreaming in education is teacher training. Regarding curriculum, the draft policy states that programs provide curricula and modules to facilitate learning. In this line, no mention is made regarding gender. The Policy also talks about the different committees that will be formed to facilitate in-service training at various levels. The composition of these committees has also been explained. Similar to other issues, no mention is made about the inclusion of women. Unless it is explicitly stated in policies about the number of women in such type of committees, the issue of gender in both structures and operation will remain marginalized. The assessment also shows that there are no specific and explicit gender provisions made in the policy concerning deployment, retention, promotion, certification and in-service training.

As mentioned earlier, Senegal does not have a separate teacher education policy. However, a number of provisions have been made in the various national legal instruments that address gender issues in education. For example, Senegal’s modern and formal legal instruments give women equal opportunity to those of men in the society. Article 22 of Constitutional Law stipulates that each child, boy or girl, has the right to education; Article 25 rejects job discrimination between men and women. The current Law of Education, adopted in 1991 and revised in 2004, stipulates gender equality, especially in its articles 1 and 25. So does the current Letter of Educational Policy, which covers the period 2008-2015. In practice, however, women appear to be suffering some residual inequities in various domains.

Following these provisions a number of strategies have been put in place to enhance girls’ education. These included:

I. Organizing a national Forum devoted to education of girls and chaired by the President of the Republic – 1995;

II. Launching of the Pro-girl Education Project (Projet pour la scolarisation des filles), known in its French acronym of “SCOFI” – 1995;

III. Since 1996, the Forum of African Women in Education (FAWE) has been developing programs to enhance girls’ education, with a focus on secondary level, where girls are sponsored and granted scholarships;

IV. Civil society movement on girls’ schooling also called SCOFI, launched between 1995 and 1997 by female teachers in the country;

V. Projet Education des Filles en Mathématiques et Sciences (FEMSA) devoted to encouraging enrolment of girls in science streams, and;

VI. Since 2006, under the United Nations Girls’ Education Initiative (UNGEI), a regional UNGEI network has been established in Dakar; multilateral and bilateral agencies, and civil society organization are working together to provide support to girls’ education.

Initiatives such as SCOFI have indirect impacts on the recruitment of female teachers. As the project improves girls’ access to school, it contributes to the increase in the stock of women who will be able to fulfill the requirements needed for a teaching career. Aside from this, there is no positive discrimination to promote access of women to teaching positions. Confirmation of this observation is given by the SCOFI coordinator in the Department of Primary Education: “The public policies on career and in-service training are agent-oriented, with no respect to gender or other similar
consideration... There is no any kind of discrimination in this regard; female teachers are promoted when they fulfill the required professional criteria, and the same requirements apply to men”.

The ENI teacher training institutes are equally open to males and females. The requirements in terms of diplomas are the same for men and women. The in-service training and other ad hoc processes of training are also equally open to all teachers. However, certain practices aiming to facilitate the teaching career of women are observed. They mainly concern the managing of the geographical mobility of the teachers. In general the administration avoids deploying female teachers in remote areas. This practice tends to create concentration of the few female teachers in schools located in urban area, while rural schools could be devoid of female teachers. Furthermore, when women get married and ask to be redeployed near where to their spouses live, they generally get positive responses. But this provision applies to male teachers’ mobility also.

Efforts are being made to ensure that curricula are free from gender stereotypes. In 2007, a special Unit was created within the Planning and Reform Division in the Ministry of Education to coordinate the pro-girl education strategies. The Unit has developed gender sensitive curricula for the teacher training institutes. It has also trained the management of the regional teacher training institutes in gender sensitive curricula. This review of curricula of the training institutes does show an initiative in the direction of gender responsiveness. However, a lot more needs to be done. In this regard, an interviewee pointed out, “…in practice, these gender sensitive innovations are still at pilot level and are not yet implemented at wider scale”.

In general, some efforts are underway in education to make policies more or less responsive to gender issues. However, the mobilization of female teachers appears to be not sufficient. There is still a wide gap between men and women among the teaching staff. In 2009, females represent only 30% of the entire stock of teachers in primary education, 17% in secondary education, and presumably far less in tertiary education (Rapport National sur la Situation de l’Education, édition 2009, Ministère de l’Education.) Despite this visible disparity, there is no specific legal instrument to close the gap.
V - Summary and Conclusions

The assessment set out to investigate the degree of gender responsiveness of teacher education policies in Ghana, Nigeria and Senegal. In the process it looked at the historical context of education in general and teacher education in particular. It revealed that, as in many other African countries, modern education in the three countries was promoted by missionaries as well as colonizers. In both cases, girls'/women's education was not given priority and when it did, the education was based on stereotypical gender division of labor, which tracked women to areas where they would be prepared mainly as wives, mothers and homemakers. This has contributed to the historical gender disparity observed in the three counties.

As part of the modern education, teacher education followed a similar pattern. Women came later in the profession than men and the training of women as teachers was not given priority. As indicated earlier, it was only in Ghana that a separate institute for training of female teachers was established in the 1920's. In Nigeria, at independence many of the men trained as teachers joined politics and became policy and decision makers, which excluded women from raising their concerns in the policy process, and thereby instituting the gender disparity. Currently, teacher education institutions are expanding and the number of trained teachers has been increasing in all the three countries.

All the three countries have ratified/signed the major international legal instruments that address gender equality. These instruments contain commitments, some have set targets, and others have clearly presented the measures that countries have to take in order to ensure gender equality in education. The Beijing POA has stipulations specifically addressing gender and teacher education. Taking these instruments as a framework, the three countries have formulated national instruments to address gender equality issues. For example, Ghana has a document that sets vision for girls’ education including a framework of action. Its National Action for EFA also contains the provision of equal education at all levels as one of the 10 policy goals. Similarly, Nigeria has come up with several instruments including the National Policy on Women and the Policy on Gender in Basic Education specifically addressing gender issues. In Senegal, provisions related to gender equality and elimination of discrimination in education, and the implementation of alternative strategies to increase girls’ access and retention at all levels have been included in the Letter of Sector Policy written for the period 2008 – 2015. In addition, the constitution of these countries including and other major development programs address gender and education issues.

However, despite these initiatives, the gender disparity among teachers is still glaring, especially at secondary level. This disparity could also be region or area based. For example, in Nigeria a high degree of gender disparity is seen in the Northern regions compared to the Southern part. One of the reasons is that the various national instruments designed in these three countries do not address the gender issues in teacher education specifically; the issues include the problems female candidates encounter in joining training institutions, especially the degree level
training as a result of low performance; the lack of gender responsiveness in teacher education curriculum; the different problems they encounter during training such as harassment; the social issues that arise during deployment; the multiple roles that women take up during their career that affect their further training and advancement, etc. According to the findings of this study, among the different documents that address education and women’s education, it is only the National Policy on Gender in Basic Education of Nigeria that has mainstreamed female teachers’ concerns into its components.

Coming more specifically to the teacher education policy, the policies from Ghana and Nigeria reveal that no gender equality issues have been discussed in the background section that elaborate the problems the policy aims to address. This is characterized by the lack of discussion of the gender gaps that are prevalent at all levels, especially at secondary level; the various challenges female teachers encounter in relation to deployment, in-service training, promotion and other career development issues; and the lack of gender disaggregated data.

In the same vein, none of the policies address gender equality in their objective sections. Since the gender issues are missed in the problem section, the objective section reflects a similar gap, which leads to the lack of gender responsiveness in the policy instrument and strategy.

Based on the above analysis the following conclusions could be drawn:

- The historical context of the three countries has set the pattern for gender disparity in education;
- All the countries have made international commitments to promote gender equality in general and gender equality in education in particular;
- In order to attain gender equality, a number of national instruments have been designed by the countries addressing gender and education issues;
- However, none of these instruments except one prepared by Nigeria address gender equality issues in teacher education;
- In the same vein, the teacher education policies formulated by Nigeria and Ghana lack the gender perspective that would help eliminate the gender gap in teachers observed in all the countries.
VI - Recommendations

The equal and equitable participation of women in teaching and their career development is an issue that deserves attention for two reasons: the first is that following the various international commitments countries have entered into, including the 1948 Human Rights Convention, women have a right to participate in and benefit from the teaching career equally to those of men. The second reason is that studies have established the link between the availability of female teachers and the enrollment and retention of female students. Therefore, countries need to take steps to ensure that female teachers are important players in the field of teaching. In order to facilitate this, based on the current assessment, the following actions are suggested.

- Increase the awareness of relevant stakeholders about the prevalent gender disparity in teacher education and the importance of female teachers to the enrollment and success of female students using different media such as discussion forums;
- Highlight and widely disseminate information about the international commitments countries have made about addressing gender issues in teacher education;
- Integrate gender issues in training programs organized on the issues of teacher education and development policy conducted by IICBA and other institutions; and
- Encourage Ministries of Education to revise existing teacher education policies in the light of gender issues and others to develop gender responsive teacher education policies.
References


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Appendix

Appendix 1: Checklist

Checklist for Assessing the Gender Responsiveness of Teacher Education Policies

Policies vary in their content depending on the nature of the problems they are dealing with, and also the type of organization that formulates the policy. However, all policies need to have at least three basic components: problem definition, goals and the instruments through which the goals are to be achieved. But other components include organizational setup to implement the policy including accountability, reporting systems and monitoring and evaluation.

In our analysis of policy, we will be looking at:

- Whether the policy we assess contains these three basic components;

  - Problem identification: Problem identification is sometimes equivalent to the background section of the policy. In looking at the problem we need to pay attention to the following and other relevant points:

    - Does the section exhaustively cover the issues of teacher education in the country?

      - The context of teacher education – economic, social, cultural, political and institutional context;

      - Discussion on the availability of teachers to enable countries to meet international goals such as EFA, MDG, and in general to provide quality education to children as well as adults supported by sex disaggregated data;

      - Discussion of gender gaps in teacher training and teachers, if there is and an explanation for the prevailing gender gap;

      - Issues of teacher trainee selection – required qualification, sensitivity to gender disparity and availability of mechanism to increase female or male teacher trainees depending on the type of gender disparity;

      - Pre-service training, quality, accessibility to both men and women;

      - Availability of support systems such as loan and bursary schemes to needy male and female candidates;

      - Appropriateness of the available curriculum to the existing demand, and the gender responsiveness of the curriculum;

      - Employment of teachers, areas of work, the issues of employment of female teachers;
- Assignment of teachers and their distribution over urban and rural areas;
- Promotion of teachers including the gender responsiveness of the promotion mechanisms;
- Retention of teachers;
- Issues of in-service training for teachers, including access to both male and female teachers, and supporting data including gender disaggregated data and discussion of various mechanisms including the use of distance education;
- Opportunities for career development in teacher education for both men and women; and
- Required assessment such as certification and its impact on both male and female teachers.

- Goals are related to problems definitions. They are usually classified into general goals and specific goals. General goals are statements that are agreed upon by all. Specific goals are related to the general goal, and contribute to the achievement of the general goal.
  - In relation to goals we will be looking at whether the goals, especially the specific goals address issues of gender that were raised in the background or problems identification section.

- The third component is the policy instrument or the means by which the problems are addressed in order to solve the defined problem, thereby achieve the goal. Policy instruments answer the question, ‘how’. In our context, we will be looking at whether the instruments or strategies included address the needs of both men and women. For example,
  - Ensuring gender sensitive recruitment processes:
    - Availing information about recruitment ensuring that both men and women would have access;
    - Putting in place affirmative action;
  - Ensuring convenient training environment for both men and women,
    - Gender responsive curriculum
    - Creating equal access to resources such as reference materials, financial support and scholarships, etc. for both men and women;
    - Ensuring safety and security issues in the campus;
    - Ensuring equal and safe housing for trainees, especially for women;
    - Availing policies to promote gender equality issues; and
    - Any other relevant strategies or instruments.
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○ Placement:
  ▪ Taking into consideration the different needs of men and women graduates in assignment, such as taking care of housing, security and safety issues;

○ In service training:
  ▪ Ensuring equal and equitable opportunities for both men and women;
  ▪ Putting in place mechanisms that enable women to get in-service training such as distance learning;
  ▪ Ensuring that information on opportunities for in-service training reach both men and women; and
  ▪ Existing efforts to eliminate the hidden curriculum that might negatively affect male or females in teacher training.

○ Retention:
  ▪ Mechanisms to enhance teachers job satisfaction, such as teachers salary, convenient working environment, equal participation in decision making, etc;

○ Promotion:
  ▪ Availability of equal and equitable criteria for promotion.