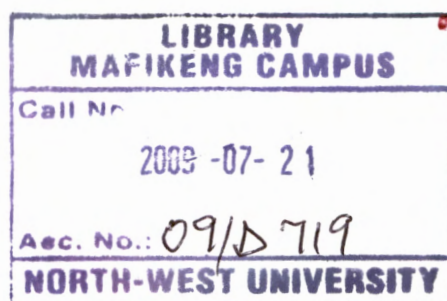


CURRICULUM AND GENDER IN TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES IN SWAZILAND: CHALLENGES FOR GENDER-SENSISTIVE PEDAGOGY



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SIPHO S. SHONGWE

October 2007



**CURRICULUM AND GENDER IN TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES IN
SWAZILAND: CHALLENGES FOR A GENDER-SENSITIVE PEDAGOGY**

A thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

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At the

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By

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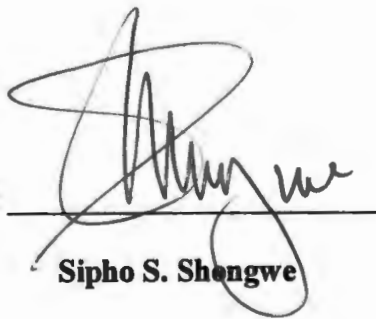
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DECLARATION

I declare that this dissertation is my own, unaided work. It is being submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, in the North-West University, Mafikeng Campus, Republic of South Africa. I also declare that all reference material contained in this study has been fully acknowledged.

SIGNATURE: _____



Siphso S. Shengwe

Date: 21/09/07

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CERTIFICATE OF ACCEPTANCE FOR EXAMINATION

This thesis, “Curriculum and Gender in Teacher Training Colleges in Swaziland: Challenges for Gender-Sensitive Pedagogy” written by Sipho S. Shongwe, is hereby recommended for acceptance for examination.

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FACULTY: EDUCATION

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DEDICATION

Dedicated to all the women in my life

Those in the past who taught me to be me

Those in the present who continuously shape my destiny

And to those yet to be born

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It is my sincere wish to record my gratitude to all people and institutions who contributed to the success of this research. They are too many to list here. I however would like to give special thanks to the following:

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ABSTRACT

This study reports on the extent to which colleges of education in Swaziland prepare student teachers to be gender-sensitive in their practice as teachers. It focused on two colleges, the Manzini Nazarene Primary College as the first teacher training college in the country (opened in 1936), and William Pitcher Secondary College as the main college training secondary school teachers. The sample population included seventy-eight student teachers, twenty-eight lecturers, two college principals and the Chief Inspector of Colleges. The problem areas of the study included, a) the extent to which gender issues were included in the first curriculum of colleges of education, b) the extent to which gender issues are included in the current curricula of colleges of education, c) the gender-related challenges facing those implementing the curriculum, and d) factors perceived to be associated with effective implementation of a gender-sensitive curriculum in colleges of education.

The topic was studied both from the historical and the contemporary perspectives. The historical analysis focused on the first years of establishment of teacher education in Swaziland. The perspective in this analysis was structural. Gendering in contemporary teacher education, both primary and secondary was approached from the curricula and agency perspectives. This included analysis of student teachers' encounters with sex-related issues and an analysis of their choice of teaching subjects. It also included the implementers of the curriculum investigating challenges they face and their perceptions of factors associated with effective implementation of a gender-sensitive curriculum in colleges of education. Special tools used to analyse gendering in the two perspectives were the culturally produced differences and their symbolic meanings and asymmetrical valuation.

The findings revealed that gender biases were highly visible in the first teacher education curriculum. These are still visible in the current colleges' curricula though the wording may have changed over time. Some of them include: female students orienting themselves to teaching young children in lower school levels, while male students orient to teaching older students in the higher levels of schooling; identifiable gender bias in

college textbooks; teaching approaches used by lecturers enhance gender biases and different career development objectives for students; factors such as the need for gender-related initiatives to address gender issues, and the need to address gender hierarchies in colleges. Envisaged constraints to implementing a gender-sensitive curriculum included: lack of resources; and uncoordinated efforts by lecturers to address gender issues through the curriculum.

Recommendations then included that: teachers and teacher educators should examine their syllabuses with the view of incorporating a gender dimension and the Ministry of Education should consider continuity in funding workshops, or programmes designed to make students and teacher educators to be gender sensitive in the area of instructional materials, teaching approaches and classroom management.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

UNESCO:	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UPD:	Universal Primary Education (UPD)
UNICEF:	The United Nations International Children's Education Fund
EVTC:	Elementary Vernacular Teachers' Course
J.C:	Junior Certificate
PTC:	Primary Teachers' Course
DPE:	Diploma in Primary Education
WPC:	William Pitcher College
UNDP:	United Nations Development Programme
OECDAC:	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development Assistance Committee (1993)
OSAGI:	The United Nation's Office of the Special Advisor on Gender Issues
EFA:	Education for All
DFA:	Dakar Framework for Action
AAUW:	Association of University Women Educational Foundation
IGCSE:	International General Certificate of Secondary Education
BOLESWA:	University of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland

CHAPTER ONE

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND BACKGROUND ORIENTATION

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Fundamental shifts that have occurred this century about what it means to be female and male show quite clearly that femininity and masculinity are not necessarily inherent categories that pre-exist in each individual. Rather, they are historically and socially constructed and connected categories, which are inscribed in social institutions, processes, and practices, including those of the school. Clark and Page (2004:34) argue that parents, care givers and other adults who interact with children routinely observe that gender differences 'appear' to emerge in even young children. What emerges as maleness or femaleness, change in fundamental ways over time, across cultures, and in different socio-economic circumstances.

Lips, (2000) in Clark and Page (2004:45) argues that it is early indeed that children show an awareness of the message that females are generally less interesting and important than males. The bearers of this message include parents, peers, and teachers. As for teachers in particular, they appear to be unaware of this problem. The reason might be that teacher preparation programmes have not formally adopted a gender concern yet, except for individual isolated initiatives. Therefore these 'gender differences' are deeply routed in socio-cultural institutions, processes and practices one of which is education. There is evidence from several international studies that indicate sex-related and systematic tendencies among teachers to interpret their pupils'

classroom behaviour and to support their growth (Brophy, 1985; Thorne, 1993; Sadker and Sadker, 1994). Sunnari (1997:86) makes a comprehensive summary of these studies. Some studies have confirmed that teachers consider girls appreciative, calm, co-operative and sensitive but less independent, less creative and less autonomous than boys (Sadker and Sadker 1992:66). The authors also observed that teachers are more inclined to; listen to and to give room when a boy is speaking while girls are interrupted. Teachers less often call a girl by her name and that teachers are inclined to ask girls factual questions while asking boys analytical questions. Teachers regard active verbal participation of girls as less important than their being attentive and ready to listen (Harris, Nixon and Rudduck, 1993).

Teachers spend more time with boys than with girls (Thorne, 1993), and that they consider boys, their behaviour, and their future more challenging (Kruse, 1992). Several researchers also show that surpassing actual behavioural norms is seen as relatively normal among boys and more abnormal and negative among girls, and that boys receive more praise and more criticism than girls (Kelly, 1988; Harris, et al., 1993; Thorne, 1993 in Sunnari, 1997).

On the other hand, it has also been confirmed through research that it is usual to have girls in school classes who are more responsible, more co-operative, and more careful than boys are. Further, girls seem to succeed better than boys do in schools in most of the subjects studied and the links between giftedness and the social environment have been proved (Reis, 1987:85).

Notably, some research studies have confirmed that the divisions and differences are not a dichotomy. In addition to the sex, differences in teachers'

assumptions about and relations with pupils are caused also, for example by social class and ethnicity (Davies, 1993). Randall, (1987) points out that those teachers' assumptions about, and their attitudes towards children are as a result of the influence of the learning subjects they study.

Using Swaziland as a case in point, a study by Okkelmo (1999) for the African Girls' Education Initiative (AGEI) programme aiming, *"to support girls' education by improving the quality of the teaching/learning process"* (Okkelmo, 1999:9) made important observations. Collecting statistics from the Ministry of Education and the UNICEF office in Swaziland, Okkelmo (1999) found that the gross enrolment rate and net enrolment rate for primary school equal when it comes to gender. The repetition rate was somewhat higher for boys (18% against girls 13%). An equal entry rate is also found in secondary schools. Because of this observation of equal enrolment and access to education in Swaziland, many educationists and policy makers Okkelmo met in Swaziland, held the view that there was no need to give the gender issue a priority within education. Through classroom observations and textbook analysis, Okkelmo (1999) found, however, that there were certainly reasons also in Swaziland to look into the gender issue in education.

First, little had been done before AGEI entered the Continuous Assessment programme (CA) to collect statistics disaggregated by gender. It was difficult to find out how many head teachers were women, how many men, how many of the dropouts were girls, how many boys, what grades girls got and what grades boys got.

Okkelmo (1999) found that the teaching style used was mostly teacher-centred and rather authoritarian. Looking at the quantitative aspects of the teacher-pupils interactions, they seemed to favour the girls who, according to Okkelmo (1999)'s data, got more of the teachers' attention than the boys did. Okkelmo (1999) found that girls participated more actively and took the initiative in teacher-pupil interactions more often than boys did. This was especially true when the pupils were answering questions asked by the teacher. A different picture seemed, however, to emerge in situations characterised by a more child-centred teaching style. In such situations, boys tended to participate more actively than girls did. Okkelmo (1999:193) discusses the authoritarian and teacher-centred teaching style and notes the following:

Acceptable adaptable-qualifications like obedience seem to be consistent with this teaching style, as well as with the qualifications of subordination taught to the female gender by the society as a whole. This may explain why girls interact more often when teacher-centred teaching is used. It also means that girls' frequent participation within this style consequently reinforce and maintain the subordinated role of females in society.

Ironically, frequent participation in a teacher-centred teaching style environment is therefore not advantageous to girls as it reinforces their blind subordination to instruction.

Okkelmo (1999) found that gender stereotyping in the Swazi primary schools, mostly happened through the hidden curriculum. For instance, the gender hierarchy pupils experience when the head-teachers and school-inspectors are men and teachers, especially in the lower grades sends the message that men are

supposed to be leaders. The hidden curriculum was also experienced through who got what chores to do for the teacher. Okkelmo (1999) found that the girls did twice as many of the domestic duties in the classroom, such as sweeping the floor, cleaning the blackboard, and handing out and collecting books, than boys did.

The author also found clear gender stereotypes in the textbooks. For example, the Dlamini family followed through the fifth grade pupils' English book seems to be modelled on the European stereotype of a nuclear family from the 1950s, in which the father is a breadwinner and the mother is the homemaker. In the Dlamini family the mother "got it right" because she gave birth to the boys before the girls. In addition, the older girl is told to iron her elder brother's trousers although she will be late for school. There is no question about her ironing the trousers; the issue is when she should do it. In the same textbook, Okkelmo (1999) also found that girls and women were depicted doing domestic work, along with a few boys, but no men. Males were portrayed more frequently than females in duties and employment outside the home. More than half of the portrayals of women in jobs are of women as teachers. The males are portrayed to occupy many more varied jobs (Okkelmo, 1999:33).

All these observations by Okkelmo (1999) in the above study indicate that all is not well in the education of children in Swaziland from the gender perspective. This study, 'curriculum, and gender in teacher training colleges in Swaziland' focuses at the training of these teachers through the teacher education programme.

1.1.0 A global historical background of gender-related issues in education

Truscott (1994:1) argues that our understanding of what it is to be a woman or a man, the degree of oppression between the sexes (and within the sexes), the degree of power each has and the ways society teaches or socialises its members to become women and men is historically and geographically specific. This means therefore, efforts towards eradicating gender inequality have historically differed across geographical and societal contexts.

In developing countries like Swaziland, programmes against gender inequality have often lagged far behind those in developed countries like the United States of America. One can conclude therefore that to millions of girls in Swaziland, gender inequality is a feature of the political, economic, and social conditions of where they live and often pervades their educational experience. Issues of gender equity and gender equality in education are rarely studied in most third world countries. This section reviews a historical background of gender issues in selected countries from three continents: Europe, America and Africa.

1.1.1 A historical background of gender issues in Finland's education system

A study by Sysiharju (1979) in Sunnari, (1997) traces the history of sex-related debates in Finland's education system. Through it, pertinent gender issues are raised. The study indicates that the central demands at the beginning of the first period in the 19th century are common to all developing countries. Mainly it was that women and girls of the upper social classes should have possibilities equal to those of men to attend institutional education. These demands were later extended to all social groups.

The 1970s ushered in a second historical phase. A report of the curriculum committee on comprehensive schools made a referral to sex in the section on handicraft. It made a proposal to eliminate the distinction between girls and boys in this subject. It argued that gender differences were a potential source of inequality.

As regards teacher education, the report on the education section of the equality committee drew attention to the female predominance among the teachers of the pre-schools and lower grades and discussed the need to recruit more men to these positions. Further, the report proposed that the future teachers undergoing basic education should be given information on "sex-roles." It argued that the efforts to attain equality between men and women should be introduced in teacher education and that the topic should be included in different subjects and especially in educational science. Because of these demands, some structures were introduced to address gender inequality and gender equity in Finnish education. The first law on schools that included the demand to promote equality and equity between sexes was the law on the development of upper secondary education issued in 1978. Another law, which was passed in 1986, obliged all authorities and institutions as well as other educational organisations to promote equality between the sexes.

Sunnari (1997) concludes that practical efforts of promoting sex-related equality in Finnish education were minimal until the 1990s, which marked the increase in research and discussion on them.

1.1.2 A historical background of gender issues in the United States of America's education system

Sadker and Sadker (1980) argue that in America, gender issues and inequality between sexes had never been addressed fully until the 1980s. To illustrate, in a study by the same authors involving an analysis of twenty four commonly used texts in American teacher training colleges published since 1972 found that twenty three of them gave less than 1% of space to gender issues, and a third didn't mention the topic at all. In a 1993 update on this theme, Titus (1993) analysed eight post-1990 teacher education textbooks and concluded that the most widely used foundations textbooks still do not include significant material on gender equity. In Michigan, a study survey by Mader (1994) of 30 administrators and 247 faculty members from 30 pre-service teacher education programmes state wide, confirmed that only 11% of the respondents reported extensive gender equity instruction and 38% reported minimal to no gender equity instruction.

Respondents thought gender equity should be taught more. They said more interest from students and colleagues and more coverage in the professional literature would help. A survey of 353 methods instructors in mathematics, science, and technology nationwide revealed that while three-fourths of the respondents said they taught gender equity, they did so less than two hours per semester. Respondents felt that specific teaching strategies would be most helpful and that gender equity was an important social issue (Campbell and Sanders, 1997).

It is only currently that the United States of America appears to be a success story in attempting to address the gender inequality issues in teacher education. A number of studies have prompted innovations to be put in place about structures and processes that promote gender equality and gender equity in these institutions. The following are highlights of what has been achieved to date.

According to Sanders, Campbell, and Steinbrueck (1996), a number of projects were carried out to achieve gender equality in teacher education which included the following: The Teacher Education Equity Project (1993-96) funded by the National Science Foundation (NSF), was conducted at the City University of New York Graduate Centre. Sixty-one professors of mathematics, science, and technology education from forty colleges and universities in twenty-eight states learned how to teach gender equity to their pre-service students and carried out mini-grant projects. Evaluation results indicated that 85% of the professors made significant improvements in their gender equity teaching behaviour, with a tripling of syllabi containing gender equity issues; materials for including gender equity in teacher education via classroom observations, action research projects, and student assignments are now becoming available (Sanders, Koch, and Urso (1996).

A state wide project, Integrating Gender Equity and Reform 1995-98, involved Georgia Institute of Technology as the lead institution among six other universities and organizations. This project intended to help teacher educators with materials and methods for teaching gender equity to pre-service teachers; the Teacher Education Mentor Project (1996-99) was designed to make gender equity instruction more systemically taught in mathematics, science, and technology

education programmes. Teams of teacher educators, partner school personnel, and others from seven colleges and universities participated. The Marymount Institute for the Education of Women and Girls in Tarrytown, New York, had a major focus on gender equity in teacher education. In 1996, the U.S. Department of Education's Gender Equity Expert Panel, including a sub-panel on teacher preparation, began work to design and implement a process for identifying, reviewing, and recommending promising and exemplary programmes, products, and practices to educators and community members.

1.1.3 Gender-related issues in Africa's education systems: a historical background

In the African context, in the 1960s, when most African states began to gain their political independence, there was considerable gender disparity in education. Girl's enrolment figures were very low throughout the continent in comparison to their male counterparts. To illustrate, in Kenya, up to the 1990s and after, considerably more boys than girls participated in education as the table below indicates:



Table 1: Trends of student enrolment in secondary schools in Kenya (1990 – 1998)

Year	No. of Girls	No. of Boys
1990	264766	353695
1991	268730	345788
1992	275690	353372
1993	236146	295160
1994	273400	336439
1995	290581	341807
1996	305327	352926
1997	323625	363848
1998	327098	373440

Source: Examination Council of Kenya, 1994

Table 1 indicates that enrolment figures tended to increase with the years after 1990. This has been due to purposeful plans of action by the government of Kenya, which has led to an increase in females in schools. However, there is still a small margin between the enrolment numbers of females and males. This is attributed to gender socialisation of the African child. From the moment the child is born, it is perceived as male or female. This biological trait makes such a difference for the rest of its life. The creation of maleness and femaleness in children starts with parents who are the first and largest influence. When parents have a female child, she is viewed as sweet and gentle. The parents will even hold their daughter closer than they will hold their son. As they grow older,

boys are encouraged to explore, while most girls are kept closer to their parents. The girls are taught different approaches to many different problems in life. They may not realise it but through their interactions with their children, they are encouraging them to grow into certain type of person based on their gender. The toys they are introduced to are even gender based. Toys for males encourage them to develop such abilities of spatial perception, creativity, competition, aggression, and constructiveness. Toys for girls encourage creativity, nurturance, and attractiveness in preparing them for marriage (Taiwo and Molobe, 1994). African tradition practices demanded that boys and not girls should be the ones going to school preparing them for leadership and to be providers for their families, while the female child is being prepared to nurture young ones (Mannathoko, 1997).

In May 1961, the United Nation's Universal Declaration of Human Rights and United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO)'s educational plans for Africa were announced in a conference held in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. A target was set to achieve 100% universal primary education in Africa by the year 1980. The implementation in the 1970s of the free and compulsory Universal Primary Education (UPD) scheme in several countries like Kenya, Nigeria, Zambia, Tanzania, and Liberia, which were signatories of that declaration, was in line with this United Nation's Plan.

The United Nations International Children's Education Fund (UNICEF) and the United Nations Educational Science and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) are among many other bodies that have sponsored affirmative moves, research, and conferences within Africa on the education of girls. One such conference was

the Pan-African Conference held in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso, in 1993. At this conference, it was observed that Africa was still lagging behind other regions of the world in female access to education. It was also noted that gender disparity existed in education in general and that there was need to identify and eliminate all policies that hindered girl's participation in education. To explain the fact that more boys than girls participated in education, a host of constraints were identified. African tradition topped the list as it was explained as one that attaches higher value to a man than a woman. The disproportion in boys and girls' participation in schooling was therefore linked to the age-long belief in male pre-eminence and female subordination. This condition was further aggravated by patriarchal practices, which gave girls no traditional rights to succession. Therefore, the same patriarchal practices encouraged preference to be given to the education of a boy rather than that of a girl.

This cultural situation was well assessed and outlined, because most parts of the continent held these beliefs. However, in terms of enrolment, this assessment probably failed to take into account those countries where there has been a marked improvement in the enrolment of girls. For instance, in some countries in southern Africa, Swaziland included, female enrolment levels actually exceeded that of males at both primary and secondary levels. This situation might be explained to be due to affirmative action programmes carried out.

However, one can further contend that the problems of girls in education are not just about enrolment figures but the practices on the ground. Achieving gender parity is just one-step towards gender equality in and through education. An education system with equal numbers of boys and girls participating, who may

progress evenly through the system, may not in fact be based on gender equality. A consideration of gender equality in education therefore needs to be understood as the right to education as well as rights within education and rights through education (Wilson, 2003). To understand and assess progress towards gender equality in education is, therefore, to interpret dynamic social phenomena.

The disparities in education in general also pervade teacher education, which in turn perpetuates them further.

1.1.3.1 A historical background of gender-related issues in South Africa's education system

In South Africa, women's issues have tended to be relegated to the back banner in favour of what were perceived as immediate and pressing national issues (Moletsane 2004:4). This author argues that the apartheid legacy of legislated race and class inequality has meant that women and girls carry the burden of multiple oppressions. Schools and other educational institutions responded and functioned as sites of the struggle against apartheid (Truscott, 1994). However, for teachers and teacher educators to be effective and active agents of that struggle, they needed to support and cooperate with varied transformation programmes (Sanders, 1996).

In the apartheid era, education policies strengthened racial segregation, differentiated and unequal education, and gender inequality for the various race groups. On gender inequality and teacher education in particular, in this era, was introduced the racist and sexist Bantu Education Act of 1954. This policy relegated women teachers to be seen as:

Much better fitted for handling young children...and as the great majority of Bantu children are to be found in lower classes of primary school, it follows that there should be more female teachers [at this level] than male teachers... (A speech made to Parliament by the then Minister of Native Affairs, H.F. Verwoed, in Trusscott, 1994:22).

Moletsane (2004) is of the opinion that traces of the above policy still live in contemporary education practices, for instance, more women teach the lower grades while most men either teach in higher levels or manage and monitor policy implementation in the education system and institutions.

Whatever interventions made in this era, they tended to privilege the fight against racism and capitalist exploitation respectively. As Trusscott (1994:52) argues, the fight for gender equality, girls and women's struggles against male domination, sexism in education, sexual harassment and other related practices, received very little attention.

The post-apartheid era has ushered in some success in the fight against gender inequality. This is in terms of policy change. The South Africa's gender and education agenda is informed by the goal of improving girls' access to education identified as a key world education policy. However, as Moletsane (2004) argues, in spite of these interventions, gender inequalities persist in education. For instance, gender relationships in schools remain unequal and skewed against girls and women teachers, specifically around issues of gender sexuality, and gender-based violence.

Thus there is a growing awareness of the need to take on more qualitative issues that affect girls and women's' education, such as the relevance and gender bias curriculum and assessment methods, teacher preparation, school management

and school governance together with the masculinity studies to address the boy child. Moletsane (2004) argues that for a curriculum to be said it addresses gender equity, it must consider both sexes. This is a move away from the dictates of a Feminism oriented curriculum that is biased towards the girl child.

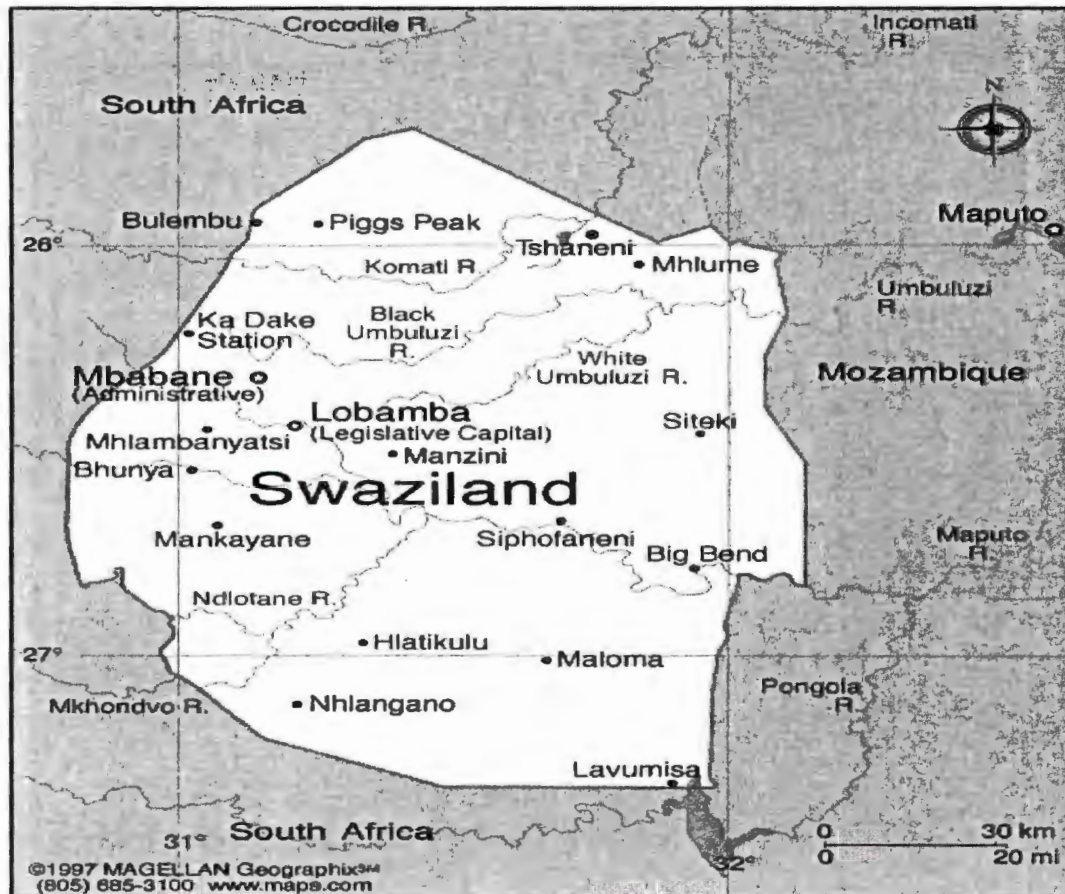
Concerning research and curricular interventions, Moletsane (2004: 6) shows that teacher educators and feminist scholars' attempt to challenge gender inequality in higher institutions of learning and schools seem uncoordinated. There is evidence of individual efforts in the form of single modules, one-off lecture slots, or optional courses. Integrated gender equity content across the curriculum is ideal but the least used even internationally. Instead, teacher education programmes tend to use strategies that reinforce rather than reduce gender-stereotyped ideas and gender-disciplinary practices by student teachers, which are subsequently replicated in the classroom. Swaziland shares the same experiences with South Africa. The following section focuses on Swaziland and the development of her education system with a background on gender perspectives.

1.1.4 Background to gender issues in Swaziland's education system

This section presents a factual and historical background of Swaziland and her education system as summarised by Matsebula (1987). There is a brief review of the present physical, economic, demographic and political profile of the country presented as a base for the emergence and development of the education system. This covers major developments of the education system over the time span from the beginning of the colonial era to the post-colonial era.

1.1.4.1 Swaziland: the country profile

Map 1: Current political map of Swaziland



Swaziland is a landlocked country on the shadows of the Southern African Plateau. She has a mean altitude of 1000 metres above sea level. She has a total area of 17,364 square kilometres. Countries bordering Swaziland are South Africa in the North, West, and South, and Mozambique in the East. Swaziland is a Sub-Tropical country with two thirds of its South Western to North Western land covered by highlands of the Drakensberg Escarpment. Her climate is tropical and the rain pattern decreases from the North Eastern and the Eastern highlands to the South Western and Western lowlands. The country has a population of about 1.1 million people composed of various but culturally

homogenous clans. The North West and Western regions are the most densely populated areas due to better soils and rainfall. These regions, which include urban and semi-urban areas, are therefore the most developed in terms of transport and communication infrastructure.

Majority of the people still predominantly depend on subsistence agriculture in rural areas, whilst the urban areas are rapidly growing due to urban-rural migration. Swaziland is made up of different clans, the majority being the ruling Dlamini group.

Historically, Swaziland was a British Colony in the colonial era from 1885 to 1968 when she gained her independence. This young independent country, underdeveloped, poverty stricken in terms of minerals, accounted for its late development. From its inception, the young government was faced with the challenge of providing social services to its people whose predominant economic activities were arable and pastoral agriculture. The small-scale mining of the 1960's to early 1970's was insignificant.

1.1.4.2 Historical, political, and economic status of Swaziland

In the early years of its colonial rule, the British expected that South Africa eventually would incorporate Swaziland. However, as South Africa intensified its apartheid policies after World War II, the British increased investments in education, medical care, and agriculture in an effort to help prepare Swaziland for independence. Swaziland gained independence in 1968 as a constitutional monarchy. King Sobhuza II, who reigned from 1921 to 1982, assumed absolute power in 1973. His son King Mswati III succeeded him in 1986. In October

1993, the first parliament was elected through the Tinkhundla system (Kuper, 1978)

Today, the principal ethnic group is the Swazi, and the official languages are English and siSwati. Cattle farming, mining, and sugar-cane industries account for the bulk of Swazi wealth. While most of the high-level economic activity is in the hands of non-Africans, indigenous Swazis are becoming more active as small entrepreneurs and are moving into mid-management positions. The majority of Swazis are subsistence farmers, and approximately 17,000 work in the South Africa gold and platinum mines. Almost every homestead has someone employed for wage income, and in recent years, new entrants into the labour pool have exceeded the number of new jobs created. This, coupled with South Africa's economic downturn, drought, and an alarmingly high population growth rate has resulted in a prolonged economic recession. To address these problems, after the October 1993 elections, the king formulated a national development plan that encouraged active participation to identify priority needs in both the private and public sectors. The government has accomplished little in the past year to increase transparency, accountability, or responsiveness to citizens' needs.

Political parties are still banned but the labour movement has become more vocal, strident, and visible in pressing for reform and change. Pre-1993 economic growth was led by investment, and a large part of the foreign investment came to Swaziland because of sanctions against South Africa. Since South Africa achieved majority rule, no major investment projects have been

completed in Swaziland. The government's main concern now seems to be to ensure that existing investors remain in Swaziland.

1.1.4.3 Background to Swaziland's education system

The development of 'western' education in Swaziland has its roots in the encounter between pre-colonial Swazi groups with missionaries (Matsebula, 1987). Reverend Allison opened the first missionary school (Wesleyan Methodist) at Sankolweni near Mahamba border post in 1844. This opened doors for many other missionaries who also started their work in the country.

Increasingly, as the U.S. Department of State (August 2000) rightly observed, the Kingdom of Swaziland recognizes the need to improve education in order to achieve sustainable economic development. Key objectives include ensuring universal primary education, reorienting primary curriculum toward practical subjects that will enable school leavers to move easily into employment opportunities within the country, and training teachers. Impressive gains have resulted from investments in education by the government and donors. The school system's capacity has expanded to the point where virtually all Swazis receive some primary education. Since 1968, the percentage of all primary school teachers that meet Swaziland's standard qualifications has increased from about 69% to nearly 100%. The government determined that investments in quality and efficiency are needed to improve the human resource base and cope with expanding enrolments, and the government is concentrating on the need to produce school leavers who can assume productive roles in the formal and non-formal economic sectors. These developments have also led to the increase of schools and hence the demand for teachers increased.

1.1.4.4 Development of Swaziland's teacher education system

This historical approach for this section presents a critical analysis of the development of teacher education in Swaziland. The focus is on forces that have, over the years, influenced policy formulation, and consequently the teacher education curricula. Particular landmarks are highlighted leading to the development of policy for teacher education.

By the 1900s, most schools in Swaziland had teachers who had been trained outside the country in South Africa. These were few in number to cope with the demand for education by emaSwati. In 1968 when the country gained independence, the new government inherited, at best, a sparse network of schools with hardly a systematic character (Kuper, 1978). Keeping up with the trend of generally slow development of education in the country, by the 1930s, there were only two lower primary teacher-training colleges, the Nazarene Teacher Training College that was established in 1936 and the Matsapha Teacher Training College established in 1953. These colleges had a low output of teachers for the lower primary level. This output was way below the required target. For example, in 1968 there were 1624 teachers half of whom 825 of them were untrained and a pupil-teacher ratio of 46:1 versus the government's long-term policy of pupil-teacher ratio of 35:1.

The teacher education programme in Swaziland shows both continuities and discontinuities with the past. Due to the increasing pressure to produce more teachers that are qualified quickly, teacher preparation programmes in Swaziland have undergone a number of structural changes.

The initial teacher-training programme in the Nazarene Teacher Training College was a one-year programme known as the Elementary Vernacular Teachers' Course (EVTC). Completing students of that course were qualified to teach the first four grades in the Primary Schools. In 1940, the course was improved by extending the training from one year to two years. In 1953, a two-year post Standard VII course called Primary Lower Teacher's Course (T4), a residential college course was introduced, taking entrants with either a Junior Certificate (J.C) or lower.

As schools began to produce more Junior Certificate graduates, the demand for higher qualified teachers increased. As a result, EVTC was phased out and an upgraded course was introduced in 1961 called the Primary Higher Teachers' Course (T3). It continued concurrently with the Primary Lower Teachers' Course until 1974 when the latter was also phased out. The T4 Course continued until 1986 under a new identity called the Primary Teachers' Course (PTC).

Government National Development Plan 7 policy on teacher education began to place a greater emphasis on quality as opposed to quantity in education. Because of this, in 1987 a three-year Diploma Programme was introduced at the Nazarene Teacher-Training College. This signalled the phasing out of the PTC programme in the entire primary Teacher Training Colleges and the introduction of the three-year Diploma in Primary Education (DPE). This meant a change in status from a certificate awarding Teacher Training Colleges to a diploma awarding Primary Colleges of Education (Mbingo, 2005). The curriculum for this new phase has the following courses:

Group A - Professional component – Teaching Practice

Group B - Core Subjects: Languages group, Science group, Applied Science group, Social Science group. (Year 1 and Year 2 students do all subjects in this category, while Year 3 students choose a specialisation group).

Group C - General Subjects: Music, Art and Craft, Physical Education, Numerical Skills, Academic Communication, and Skills and Education. These are taught throughout the three academic years

The University of Botswana, Lesotho, and Swaziland was the main source of secondary school teachers for both the junior and senior levels. In 1962, the Matsapha Teacher Training College was upgraded to cater for the training of teachers for the secondary schools. It became known as William Pitcher Teacher Training College (WPTTC) after its founder Mr William Pitcher. The college was started in order to train a teacher who would be so versatile as to teach mixed ability groups of children.

Courses at the secondary level are based on the two-major subject specialisation. They comprise a broad range of subjects based on the Junior Secondary School curriculum. They include subjects like Physical Education, Home Economics, Guidance and Counselling, Music, Mathematics, Science, Languages, Religious Education, Social Studies, Communication and Study Skills, and Foundations of Education.

Each Subject Department offers both the content and methodology aspects of the course and each have two distinct curricula representing the content courses on the one hand and the methodology courses on the other. Two-thirds of the

scheduled time is allocated to teaching the content material and one-third to methodology by all Subject Departments. While the Foundations of Education Department teaches classroom skills in a general way, each subject department teaches the application of these skills within Junior Certificate level topics in their subjects.

1.1.4.5 A critical assessment of teacher education in Swaziland with a gender perspective

An analysis of the curriculum indicates lack of urgency to address gender issues. This is in spite of the philosophical expression underpinning it, which declares that, “it is dynamic in a sense that it is dictated by the changing needs of the teacher education in the country” (Ministry of Education Management Manual for Colleges of Education, April 2000:25).

The main objectives for teacher education in Swaziland for the National Development Plan 8 of 2001 are to:

- provide adequate training and development of primary and secondary teachers and the tutors/lecturers in the teacher training institutions
- sensitise teachers to cultural differences to facilitate interaction with children and communities with different cultural backgrounds
- link teacher training to curriculum development and ensure appropriate, relevant and quality training
- provide in-service training to improve teachers’ performance and school management capacities

- build and consolidate links with private institutions in order to share ideas on teaching and management techniques
- provide resources and support for teachers and education officers in the field

Among these objectives, no objective specifically addresses gender justice in teacher education institutions. One may argue that gender justice is implied in some of the objectives. Countries like South Africa explicitly stated objectives like, “to help teachers to reflect upon their own positions in society vis-à-vis gender, class, poverty, equity, and justice” (Chisholm, 2003a). This is an indication of commitment towards ‘correcting the wrongs of the past.’ Swaziland should show this kind of commitment.

An organisational overview of the pre-service education programme in Swaziland can be summed up in the following points in the words of Sunnari (1992b: 84-100):

- The programme has been designed, based on a ‘rationalised idea of activities’. Administration, research, teaching and studying are distinctly separate entities. Separation and division are implemented both vertically and horizontally. People working in each sector mostly only know ‘their own field of work’ and defend their autonomy in it, taking at the same time their “appropriate place” in the hierarchy of power relations.
- Autonomy is mainly realised in relation to others on the same hierarchical level and in a form that seems to be an obstacle to meaningful co-operation. For instance, a lecturer is supposed to take as given the content areas, objectives and schedules of the lectures she/he is to give. It is her/his task to plan the concrete contents and to give the lectures. It is not recognised that the lecturer should, for instance, be responsible for the extent to which her/his lecture is connected to or

overlaps with other lectures. Nor are the views underlying teaching and its content ever discussed publicly. Each lecturer takes care of her/his own sector without knowing the daily, weekly or even annual workload of the students.

- There is an established 'general' culture in the colleges of education and a great number of subcultures transmitted through various stories. New students seem to embrace quite quickly the 'general customs of the house' as well as their various variants. Associated with the above fact, is that there is a common ideal directing the students' day-to-day activities, which seems to be the "strategy to getting by."
- Working with a crowd and in a crowd and the particularistic nature of the study programmes make up a problem of their own. Education should provide equal challenges and developmental opportunities for everybody, but in practice only a few stand out in the crowd.
- Several practical arrangements of education support and strengthen the existence of an instrumental study orientation. However, the students are also expected to get interested in the subject matter. Besides, in spite of the institutional orientation contradictions, students' different orientations are determined mainly by their individual characteristics. On the other hand, process orientation in the context of production is not in itself sufficient to eliminate the instrumental valuation of studies. One of the central issues is why something is produced in the learning process that makes the processing and production real.
- The starting up and change of processes connected with people's ways of working take time and seem to require more extensive actions and a more extensive population than is provided by a single course. This is connected with

the fact that trying to accomplish change in one sector of an activity system triggers off pressures for change in other parts of the system and in sectors that cannot necessarily be anticipated beforehand.

Owing to students' different prior experiences and interests in teacher educational institutions, it may not seem possible to find a single way of studying which would be valid and meaningful for everybody. Instead, it seems to be necessary to develop different and flexible alternatives for organising the studies.

1.1.4.6 Swaziland's policies on gender and education

Currently Swaziland is pursuing the achievement of her vision 2021 of which one of its pillars is that the future Swaziland shall be a 'moral and tolerant nation'. Concerning gender justice, it states that no citizen of the future Swaziland will be disadvantaged, that is, the future Swaziland will have eradicated negative social attitudes towards the status and role of women and will be free from all forms of sexual harassment.

Steps towards achieving the national objectives of Vision 2021 are already in motion in other sectors of the country. In the educational front, through a series of government publications (National Development Plan 8) the following strategies for educational development are spelled out:

- Access and equity to education
- Effective preparation of students for life, citizenship and world of work
- Improvement and maintenance of equality of the education system
- Enhancement of the performance and status of the teaching profession

Analyses of these strategies indicate that there is no educational strategy specifically addressing gender justice. This is despite the fact that Swaziland has enthusiastically adopted and ratified various international Human Rights Conventions. This includes the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child of 1959's constitution that commits the government to protecting universal human rights, including the right to equality for all. Within the international education arena, Swaziland's gender and education agenda are also informed by the goal of improving girls' access to education. As a result, new policies have been put in place for the education of the girl child, viz. girls can now remain in school during pregnancy and can return right back to school after giving birth – something which was never easy to do before.

Regarding gender equality interventions, the focus is mainly on girls' achievement in Mathematics and Science (Ginsburg, 1988; Acker 1989; Chapman and Snyder 1989; Mannathoko and Youngman, 1991; Youngman, 1991b; Mannathoko, 1994). However, one can but agree with Jeff (1995) who argues that this strategy is inadequate and achieves very little. It is widely believed that girls historically have had difficulty with Science and Mathematics, which is misinformation and false assumption. For instance, this belief is based on the assumption that girls' historical difficulties were the result of lack of motivation, interest, abilities or self-confidence. One can but concur with the author that it is the status quo, rather than 'history' that needs to be challenged. Teacher education in Swaziland and elsewhere is part of the status quo hence the need for it to be critically analysed. Yet, very little has been done and has been achieved so far with regard to gender equality and gender equity in education. For example, in the study by Okkelmo (1999) cited above, it was

confirmed that gender stereotyping in the Swazi primary schools, mostly happened through the hidden curriculum, for instance, the example of a gender hierarchy pupils experience when the head-teachers and school-inspectors are men and teachers, especially in lower grades. The hidden curriculum was also experienced through who got what chores to do for the teacher. Okkelmo (1999) found that the girls did twice as many of the domestic duties in the classroom, such as sweeping the floor, cleaning the blackboard, and handing out and collecting books, than boys did. The 'hidden' curriculum in teacher training colleges should prepare the pre-service teacher to identify such practices and correct them. The curriculum, both formal and hidden, is critical in giving boys and girls a sense of their life chances.

The country's current priorities also aggravate the lack of urgency to address gender justice issues in the education front. For example, through findings presented at the World Education Forum held in Dakar in April 2000 (Hulton and Furlong; 2001) it was revealed that there was a slow progress towards achieving universal primary education targets by most African countries. In Sub-Saharan Africa in particular, population growth surpassed the rise in educational opportunities. In response to these findings, countries like Swaziland altered their targets for gender equity. As of now, the aim is to achieve universal primary education with 100% access to secondary school by 2021. This access to education deals with physical numbers (equity). What it does not guarantee is gender-sensitive pedagogical processes either in teacher education or in schools or the production of learning support materials and texts that are not only gender-sensitive, but also sensitive to the gender-inflicted

oppressions of class, disability, and sexual orientation. This indicates that issues of gender equality are not necessarily addressed head on.

There is evidence suggesting that gender inequalities persist in Swaziland's school education system. Gender relations in schools remain unequal influencing negatively on girls. To illustrate, in a study by Davis (2004), there was an indication that male teachers abused female students. In a survey of 560 girls, 67% said teachers had subjected them to, among other things, unsolicited touching, patting, or pressure for dates. 27% of the girls said they had been asked by their teachers to have sex with them and half of these revealed to have accepted for fear of victimisation if they refused.

Such situations reveal the need to prepare teachers to be gender-sensitive, be aware of gender issues and recognise them in practical situations and to prepare them to deal with such issues with justice, equity and human dignity.

1.1.5 Summary

This section has discussed two challenges for teacher education. The first challenge is for teacher education to support student teachers to orient themselves toward school pupils and their development. Secondly, the challenges to prepare student teachers to become conscious of gender inequity and sex-related issues, and promote gender justice in the schools and society they will work in. The latter is the focus of this research. Central to this discussion has been an attempt to establish that teacher education must offer an opportunity to introduce and expose pre-service teachers to critical gender analysis and a curriculum that addresses gender issues. This introductory section

therefore highlighted gender inequity manifestations in general educational practice, global and regional historical background to gender issues in educational settings of different countries. Focusing on teacher education colleges in Swaziland, discussed were the curriculum aims, policies and content concerning the extent to which gender equality and gender equity issues are addressed.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH PROBLEM AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Teaching as a profession involves more than just knowing one's subject and knowing the teaching techniques. Mahony (1995:13) argues that the problem lies with the refusal to accept that there is anything more involved in being a teacher than knowing your subject and learning the techniques of teaching. He sees learning how to teach as complex and as a result suggests that if the teaching profession's quality is to be protected, there must be developed a theory of teacher education in which "*we make, not only what we do but how we work and why explicitly*" (Mahony, 1995:13).

Teachers' professional qualifications and development is a widely debated and currently the most researched area (Fessler, 1985; Houston, 1990; Hargraves and Fullan, 1992). From such research, two challenges for teacher education are emerging. Fuller (1969) asserts that pupils' achievement, motivation, expressions, and satisfaction will not preoccupy student teachers' mind until they work in the profession. This claim is problematic because the teaching profession is justified, primarily, by pupils' learning and growth (Sunnari, 1997:1). The challenge here is that colleges' of education curriculum, structures

and processes should be geared towards preparing would-be-teachers to orient themselves towards pupils' learning and their growth from the beginning of their studies. The second challenge is connected to the first. The children to be taught by the student teachers prepared in teacher education colleges are boys and girls. Sunnari, (1997) rightly points out that there are tendencies to value different aspects of their growth and to educate them differently. Teachers' attention, attitude, and practices are some of the contributing factors to the construction of the differences between boys and girls. The challenge for colleges of education is to prepare their student teachers to become conscious of these tendencies and the necessity of promoting gender equity and gender equality in their practice as teachers.

Pre-service teacher education interventions are needed that provide opportunities for student teachers to confront their own gender socialisation and identities, to understand how gender discrimination takes place in schools and their role in addressing it. This comprehensive study aims at challenging the existing curriculum in Swaziland's Teacher Education Institutions with the intention of showing how it can exist in different forms, for example: on paper, as designed and documented; in the minds of the teacher educators who deliver it; as experienced by the trainees, and as perceived by external observers.



1.2.1 Statement of the problem

The focus problem of this study therefore was to investigate the question: To what extent do teacher-training colleges in Swaziland prepare student teachers to be gender-sensitive, to enable them to promote gender equity, and gender equality during their practice as teachers?

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The following research questions helped to focus the investigation of the problem:

- 1.3.1 To what extent were gender equality issues included in the first curriculum in teacher training colleges in Swaziland?
- 1.3.2. To what extent are gender equality issues included in the current curriculum in teacher training colleges in Swaziland?
- 1.3.3. What gender equality related challenges do those who implement the curriculum in teacher training colleges in Swaziland experience during the implementation process?
- 1.3.4. What factors are associated with effective implementation of a gender-laden curriculum in teacher training colleges in Swaziland?

1.4 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study aimed at investigating the extent to which the curriculum in teacher training colleges in Swaziland prepares pre-service teachers to create gender equality and equity within their classroom, to identify and to address gender inequalities in their practice.

The objectives for this research were to:

- 1.4.1 Investigate the extent to which the first curriculum of Teacher Training Colleges in Swaziland included gender issues

1.4.2 Assess the extent to which the current curriculum of Colleges of Education in Swaziland addresses gender equity, gender equality and gender-related issues

1.4.3 Identify challenges faced by lecturers in their attempt to prepare student teachers in teacher training colleges in Swaziland to be gender-sensitive

1.4.4 Document views, opinions and perceptions of the participants that could serve as a basis for establishing gender laden curriculum in colleges of education in Swaziland

1.5 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

The desire to undertake this research arose from the researcher's concern to contribute to the achievement of Swaziland's Vision 2021 objective of a 'moral and tolerant nation' through improvement of the gender equality and gender equity status. There is also a desire the researcher has, that of confronting his own gender socialisation and identities.

Teaching in a teacher education institution involves preparing student teachers for teaching practice. It follows therefore that the duties of lecturers in these colleges is to familiarise the students with classroom experience. One teaching approach that these lecturers have to overcome is the typical method of school learning, which seems to produce knowledge that is not applied outside the classroom walls and keeps the pupils passive. Lecturers have to start supporting the student teachers to grow a personal interest in the topics to be studied and to produce knowledge that will be understood and abilities to act instead of

knowledge only memorised. The teaching approach they should attempt to utilise lends itself in the Vygostian cultural-historical tradition known as 'ascending from the abstract to the concrete' (Sunnari, 1977:19). This method presents an attempt to organise the learning processes and environments in a way, which would take into account the basic assumptions on human beings, viz., learners create their own active relations to the world and its phenomena and construct theoretical tools to orient themselves and act in the world. This teaching approach differs from the currently utilised 'traditional' approach also used in schools.

Lecturers introduce student teachers to the world of pupils. These are boys and girls, which means the issue of gender fairness becomes critical. The use of the 'technicist' approach (knowledge-down) in teaching and the absence of a gender-sensitive curriculum in colleges of education are the main reasons warranting gender equality issues to be addressed at college level if there would be any improvement.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

It is hoped that this study, will contribute immensely in the curriculum change of teacher education in Swaziland by introducing a gender positive curriculum. Through it, pre-service teachers will be prepared to be gender sensitive and be able to identify gendered practices and relationships. They will be prepared to deal with such issues with justice, equity, and human dignity promoting ways in schools so to support the development of everyone's full citizenship in society.

The study will sensitise teacher education stakeholders towards gender justice, who will then influence colleges of education to develop and adopt ways of preparing student teachers to be able to support the development of such learning environments in schools which are free from heterosexism and stereotypes and whose atmosphere is democratic and free from hostility.

It is hoped that the study will help establish a research method for analysing and evaluating gender issues within the educational setting.

The study will help promote the following: a) help resolve common misconceptions, biases, and stereotypes against males and females; b) help promote democratic ideals; c) help mobilize human resources for gender equality development purposes.

1.7 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

This study focused on Swaziland's three teacher training colleges of education – one secondary level college (William Pitcher Training College) and the two primary level colleges (Nazarene Teacher training and Ngwane Teacher Training College).

This excluded the University of Swaziland faculty of education and the Swaziland College of Technology although these institutions also train teachers for the junior and senior secondary school levels. The teacher training colleges though affiliated to the University of Swaziland for quality standards cannot be studied together with the University because they are managed differently. They are directly under Government control while the University is a parastatal institution. This implies that programmes offered in colleges of education are

mainly Government initiatives while the University has autonomy to initiate their own programmes, guided by the dictates of the agreed syllabi in the schools. Preliminary investigations by the researcher revealed that gender studies initiatives are already underway at the university. For the Swaziland College of Technology, recommendations made based on data obtained from the three teacher training colleges can easily be generalisable to cover it.

The study investigated the extent to which the curriculum includes and addresses gender issues; what lecturers do to help prepare students to be gender-sensitive; what factors lecturers, student teachers, and policy makers consider as important for effective implementation of a gender-sensitive curriculum in colleges of education in Swaziland.

1.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Historical policy documents that established teacher education in the country demand special requests being made and not all are possible to be obtained. This limited the results in giving a full picture of how gender was addressed in those documents. Further, the researcher being a male and socialised as such is a factor that was likely to create barriers between him and the respondents especially during interviews involving both males and females. Some interpretations made may be bias. Literature review was of much value to guard against and limit any biases by utilising theory-based explanations to emerging issues.

1.9 CLARIFICATION OF OPERATIONAL CONCEPTS

This section addresses itself to clarifying key operational concepts that prominently feature in this research.

1.9.1 Gender

Sunnari (1997:6) argues that gender implies the view that there are socially, societal produced notions and interpretations of women and men, and that these notions shape the cultural context where one grows up as a woman or a man. These generated norms determine, for instance, which activities are normal, questionable, or abnormal for an individual. Connell (1987:6) has defined gender as a pattern of social relations that exists at multiple levels in and around schools, in institutional patterns, interpersonal relations, and in culture. The author continues to argue that gender relations divide, positioning people and actions as masculine and feminine, but also shape common frameworks of action. Further, gender relations are constantly under construction, contain significant tensions, and therefore have many possibilities of change.

Itzin and Newman (1995) argue that gender means the socially constructed and culturally determined characteristics associated with women and men. It means the assumptions made about the skills and abilities of women and men based on these characteristics, the conditions in which women and men live and work, the relations that exist between women and men, and how these are represented, communicated, transmitted, and maintained. They include sexual and social relations based on sexuality, and relations of power and control based on gender.

Iman, Mama and Sow (1997: 2) make a distinction between sex and gender. They claim that sex refers to physiological denotation - biology, hormones, chromosomes, and other related issues while gender connotes the social and historical constructions of masculine and feminine roles, behaviours, attributes, ideologies, etcetera which refer to some notion of biological sex. Gender therefore is seen as the process by which individuals who are born into biological categories of male or female become the social categories of men and women through the acquisition of locally defined attributes of masculinity and femininity. For this reason, Kabeer (1991) views gender as the social organisation of sexual difference.

In this study, gender refers to the social attributes and opportunities associated with being male and female and the relationships between women and men and girls and boys, as well as the relations between women and those between men. These attributes, opportunities, and relationships are socially constructed and are learned through socialization processes. They are context/ time-specific and changeable. Gender determines what is expected, allowed and valued in women or a man in a given context. In most societies there are differences and inequalities between women and men in responsibilities assigned, activities undertaken, access to and control over resources, as well as decision-making opportunities. Gender is part of the broader socio-cultural context.

1.9.2 Curriculum

According to Barrow (1982:3), the word “curriculum” is derived from the Latin language meaning “*the course or circuit that a race is to follow.... [It] implies the path or track to be followed or the course of study to be undertaken* [Emphasis mine].

Narrowly, curriculum is defined as ‘all subjects taught in an education institution’ (Webster’s Dictionary, 2000). Lumadi (2000:28) opens up this narrow view of the curriculum positing that a curriculum is the sum of experiences leading to the learning that occurs under the auspices of the school whether or not these are part of the written guide. It is Miller and Seller (1985:3) who then place the various definitions of curriculum along a spectrum: At one end, curriculum is seen merely as a course of study; at the other end, curriculum is more broadly defined as everything that occurs under the auspices of the school. In the middle of the spectrum, curriculum is viewed as an interaction between students and teachers that is designed to achieve specific educational goals.

In a sense, the curriculum defines for teachers the skills that students should learn established by the state or developed by a committee (McGinn and Borden, 1995). Curriculum, simply put, is a way of talking about what we want students to learn. Curriculum is the organization of teaching and learning (Moyles, Hargreaves, and Moyles, 1998). Curriculum is a planned, composite effort of a school to guide students toward predetermined learning outcomes.

In this study, curriculum is understood as signalling knowledge considered valuable and appropriate to be taught in learning institutions. It encompasses policy statements as well as syllabi used by educators. Curriculum concerns subjects that are taught and the hierarchies between subjects-what is considered core or high status and what is considered optional, peripheral, or low status. Curriculum also concerns teaching approaches. These tend to be embedded in ideas about how learners learn. Curriculum therefore is both a set of documents and a set of practices. Three areas of curriculum emphasis are identifiable: the intended curriculum, the taught curriculum, and the learned curriculum. In addition, there is the hidden curriculum and the null curriculum to be considered.

The phrase hidden curriculum draws attention to the idea that schools do more than simply transmit knowledge, as laid down in the official curricula. It is often used to criticize the social reality of schooling. Meighan (1981:23) defines the hidden curriculum as taught by the school, not by any teacher. Something is coming across to the pupils that may never be spoken in the English lesson or prayed about in assembly. They are picking up an approach to living and an attitude to learning.

Snyder's classic (1970: xii) book first discussed the hidden curriculum in higher education. He describes "*a hidden curriculum which to a great degree is the way in which the various participants played the game, read the cues, adapted to their immediate educational circumstances*". Perhaps the most descriptive definition is that provided by Sambell and McDowell (1998:391) who define the hidden curriculum as

“an apposite metaphor to describe the shadowy, ill-defined and amorphous nature of that which is implicit and embedded in contrast with the formal statements about curricula and the surface features of educational interaction.”

In this research, the concept of the hidden curriculum was employed to reveal and make manifest the undisclosed agendas of formal education in teacher education institutions. Once revealed, the hidden curriculum becomes negotiable and visible to all participants (teachers, students and society in general) allowing for remediation, change, defence, improvement or at least informed dialogue related to education process and structure.

The null curriculum on the other hand refers to that which is not taught, thus giving students the message that these elements are not important in their educational experiences or in our society. Eisner (1994) argues that schools have consequences not only by virtue of what they do not teach, but also by virtue of what they neglect to teach. What students cannot consider and what processes they are unable to use, have consequences for the kinds of lives they lead.

Eisner (1994:97) first described and defined aspects of this curriculum. He states:

...if we are concerned with the consequences of school programs and the role of curriculum in shaping those consequences...we are well advised to consider not only the explicit and implicit curricula of schools but also what schools do not teach.... What schools do not teach may be as important as what they do teach.... Ignorance is not simply a neutral void; it has important effects on the kinds of options one is able to consider, the alternatives that one can examine, and the perspectives from which one can view a situation or problems....

From Eisner (1994)'s perspective, the null curriculum is simply that which is not taught in schools. Somehow, somewhere, some people are empowered to make conscious decisions as to what is to be included and what is to be excluded from the overt (written) curriculum. Since it is physically impossible to teach everything in schools, many topics and subject areas must be intentionally excluded from the written curriculum. But this researcher's position on the "null curriculum" is that when certain subjects or topics are left out of the overt curriculum, school personnel are sending messages to students that certain content and processes are not important enough to study. Unfortunately, without some level of awareness that there is also a well-defined implicit agenda in schools, school personnel send this same type of message via the hidden curriculum.

1.9.3 Gendered

The Merriam Webster's Collegiate Dictionary (1996) defines gendered as having or making gender-based distinctions.

Itzin and Newman (1995:45) conceptualise the term gendered as alluding to the socially constructed and culturally determined characteristics [of any activity or undertaking] associated with women and men. This includes assumptions made about the skills and abilities of women and men based on their characteristics, the conditions in which women and men live and work, the relations that exist between women and men, and how these are represented, communicated, transmitted, and maintained.

Subrahmanian (1998) has conceptualised gender as referring to the construction of a social category of differentiation based on biological sex, for instance, a process by which biological differences between women and men are converted into processes of social differentiation that result in differential valuations of the capacities, skills, abilities, entitlements and rights of women and men. Expounding on the definition the author posits that such differences in value are as apparent in societies where girls are excluded from education relative to boys because of the devaluation of their socially constructed roles as carers, as they are in societies (like Swaziland) where the relatively higher academic achievement of girls remains unrecognised and undervalued in the wider economy. Thus even if opportunities are made available to women, and women make the best use of them, women may be prevented from exercising their full rights to these opportunities because of discrimination operating outside the sphere of education.

In this research, this is how gender is conceptualised in the interpretation and discussion of the results.

1.9.4 Gender Equality

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) cited in Subrahmanian, (1998) conceptualises gender equality from a comprehensive vision as including every aspect of personal and social development that arises from, and affects, the social norms, attitudes and behaviours that determine women's and men's distinct social roles and status. A holistic definition of gender equality encompasses such issues as human sexuality, male responsibilities and participation access to information and violence against women among others.

The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development Assistance Committee (1993) (OECDAC) has defined gender equality as meaning that women and men have equal conditions for realising their full human rights. They therefore have the potential to contribute to national, political, economic, social, and cultural development and benefit equally from the results. This global committee asserts that attaining gender equality demands recognition that current social, economic, cultural and political systems are gendered; that women's unequal status is systematic; that this pattern is further affected by race, ethnicity and disability; and that it is necessary to incorporate women's specificity, priorities and values into all major social institutions.

The United Nation's Office of the Special Advisor on Gender Issues (OSAGI) as cited in Subrahmanian (1998) defines gender equality as referring to the equal rights, responsibilities and opportunities of women and men and girls and boys. Equality does not mean that women and men will become the same but that women's and men's rights, responsibilities and opportunities will not depend on whether they are born male or female. Gender equality implies that the interests, needs and priorities of both women and men are taken into consideration while recognizing the diversity of different groups of women and men. Gender equality is not a women's issue but should concern and fully engage men as well as women. Equality between women and men is seen both as a human rights issue and as a precondition for, and indicator of sustainable people-centred development.

This study adopts this definition as it investigates the issues it addresses concerning the preparation of teachers. Gender equality does not mean that men



and women become the same, but that their opportunities and life chances are equal. The emphasis on gender equality and women's empowerment does not presume a particular model of gender equality for all societies and cultures, but reflects a concern that women and men have equal opportunities to make choices about what gender equality means and work in partnership to achieve it. Because of current disparities, equal treatment of women and men is insufficient as a strategy for gender equality. Equal treatment in the context of inequalities can mean the perpetuation of disparities.

1.9.5 Gender Equity

Gender equity, as the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development Assistance Committee (1993:33) defines it, refers to the process of being fair to women and men. The basic argument is that, to ensure fairness, measures must often be available to compensate for historical and social disadvantages that *“prevent women and men from otherwise operating on a level playing field.”* Subrahmanian (1998) refers to gender equity as a quantitative or numerical concept. This author is of the opinion that gender parity in education is easier to define, referring as it does to the equal participation of boys and girls in different aspects of education. Gender parity indicators are static, measuring the numbers of girls and boys with access to, and participating in education, at a particular moment of time; however, if viewed over different points in time, they can serve as dynamic indicators of change.

Fennema (1990) defines gender equity as the set of behaviors and knowledge that permits educators to recognize inequality in educational opportunities, to

carry out specific interventions that constitute equal educational treatment, and to ensure equal educational outcomes.

This study concurs and adopts Subrahmanian (1998)'s definition of gender equity with the basic understanding that achieved gender equity leads to gender equality.

1.9.6 Gender Stereotypes

Diekman and Eagle (2000) have conceptualised gender stereotypes as presenting a conventionally simplified and standardized conception or image concerning the typical social roles of male and female, both domestically and socially.

In other words, gender stereotypes are beliefs held about characteristics, traits, and activity-domains that are "deemed" appropriate for men and women. For example, traditionally, typical characteristics for women are piety, submissiveness, and domesticity, while authority, and social behaviour, are traits commonly associated with men. However, as the product of social activity, gender stereotypes are neither perpetual nor static. They are influenced by the social ideology and economic mode held at a certain period accordingly, and is changing, even at times reversing, with every significant social transformation. This study adopted this perspective of gender stereotypes.

Gender stereotypes occur when one applies generic attributes, opinions, or roles toward either gender. The Behavioural Research Institute (2003:13) has defined gender stereotypes identification as referring to the extent to which an individual identifies with the culture's gender stereotypes which are masculinity

and femininity. This deep-rooted identification pervades all social institutions, which include even the education of the youth, thus perpetuating the culture from one generation to the other.

1.9.7 Pedagogy

Simon (1981) has defined pedagogy as a science of teaching and learning embodying both curriculum and methodology. The fundamental concern of pedagogy is to relate the process of teaching to that of learning on the part of the child.

The Merriam Webster's Collegiate Dictionary (1996) simply defines pedagogy a theory of teaching and learning encompassing aims, curriculum, content, and methodology.

The National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (1998) of the United States of America defines content pedagogy as referring to the pedagogical (teaching) skills teachers use to impart the specialized knowledge/content of their subject area(s). Effective teachers display a wide range of skills and abilities that lead to creating a learning environment where all students feel comfortable and are sure that they can succeed both academically and personally. This complex combination of skills and abilities is integrated in the professional teaching standards that also include essential knowledge, dispositions, and commitments that allow educators to practice at a high level. This is how it is conceptualised in this research.

1.10 RESEARCH ASSUMPTIONS

The research attempts to look at the ideological or philosophical explanation as regard to why gender-laden education should be promoted in Teacher Education Institutions. The premise for this explanation includes that; there are a lot of ‘taken for granted’ assumptions that people may hold with regard to men and women in society about their abilities and capabilities, and that values, beliefs and ideas of people may result into formation of certain values and actions which are based on false premises.

The study therefore will focus on confirming the following:

- a) Stereotypes or biased beliefs, ideas, values, attitudes, images and actions of students in matters related to gender may be perpetuated through curriculum and classroom practices
- b) It is possible to help promote positive gender-laden ideas for a gender-balanced society through curriculum reform and classroom practices
- c) Through a variety of Declarations and Conventions, there are policies that are written in support for ideas about gender equality forming a part of the process of putting the curriculum into practice in Swaziland colleges of education
- d) There are gendered dimensions to the status of certain subjects in that subjects in which female students cluster have lower status than those which male students cluster.

- e) In the different Colleges of Education, there is a paucity of genuine interest in gender equity and gender equality issues by lecturers.

1.11 CHAPTER SYNTHESIS

This chapter provided a background of the study. It opened up the discussion on gender and the curriculum in teacher education institutions in general (globally) and in Swaziland in particular. The study investigated the extent to which teacher-training colleges in Swaziland prepare student teachers to be gender-sensitive, to promote gender equity, and gender equality during their practice as qualified teachers. Chapter two reviews literature on the topic in focus.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews literature, which includes theories underpinning the study and related studies that have addressed the problem directly or indirectly.

2.2 INTERNATIONAL ISSUES AROUND TEACHER EDUCATION

Stuart and Kunje (2000) have strongly argued that internationally, teacher education still exhibits signs of being neglected. They argue that it is often perched uncomfortably between secondary and higher education, and therefore enjoys neither the glamour of universities nor the political salience of schools. In ex-colonial countries, teacher training usually began under missionary auspices and was often the last sector to come under government control. Worldwide, the process of teacher education is under-theorised and has been under-researched compared with other sectors of education (Stuart and Kunje, 2000).

The above observation cannot be wholly accepted, as there are faculties of education in universities that provide teacher education. These do ‘enjoy the glamour’ as Kunje and Stuart, (2000) claim universities enjoy, therefore not the whole teacher education system suffers.

On the other hand, it is a fact that teacher preparation and development is a key feature in any education system, but perhaps this very centrality contributes to its near invisibility claimed by Stuart and Kunje (2000). For instance, this

system is perforce so closely intertwined with the rest of the system, viz., the secondary schools from which the pre-service teachers come; the primary and secondary schools to which they will go; the universities who trained the tutors (and teachers) and may validate the courses; the Ministry of Education that in various ways controls, deploys and remunerates the teachers. All this integration makes it difficult to study the curriculum of teacher education on its own, and equally difficult to make comparisons between countries. The professional preparation of teachers is not only related to the local school curricula but also to a much wider array of historical, political and cultural factors, including the perceived role of the teacher in society, current views of knowledge, and the level of economic development.

Currently, teacher education is in transition in a number of countries, Swaziland included, though the movements are not all in the same direction, or for the same reasons. However, some common trends are notable. One such trend derives from changing views of learning. The shift from behaviourist to constructivist assumptions and theories has now reached teacher-training institutions and is particularly influential (Avalos, 2000). Related to this is the ideal of professionals who reflect on their own practice and take responsibility for continually developing and improving, that practice, has become a powerful image in many parts of the 'Anglophone world' (Schon, 1983). This links to a new emphasis on life-long learning, though such extended professional education tends to be resource-intensive, and presupposes certain cultural assumptions about personal autonomy and responsibility.



Another trend is towards bringing theory and practice into a more powerful relationship through partnerships, using mentor teachers, and school internship to complement the academic studies in college of education. Again, this presupposes a certain level of both infrastructure and professional development in the school system, which may not exist in less-industrialised countries. With these trends and challenges, facing teacher education is the issue of gender, gender equality, and pedagogy in teacher education institutions. The section below provides a brief conceptualisation of gender equality and gender equity, highlighting how these two concepts differ and compliment each other.

2.3 CONCEPTUALISATION OF GENDER EQUALITY AND GENDER EQUITY IN EDUCATION

Educational equity is taken to mean equal outcomes from education and not only equal opportunity to access to education. Murphy and Gipps (1994) give an overview of the development of various definitions of equality and equity and the movements with which they are associated. The authors argue that in Britain, the Equal Opportunities Movement worked within existing educational structures, whereas the Anti-sexist Movement sought to challenge the status quo at a more fundamental level, aiming to '*transform the patriarchal and ethnocentric nature of school structures and curricula*' (Murphy and Gipps, 1994:10). The experience of implementation led to the combination of strategies from both these viewpoints.

It was in the United States that debate focused more on the concept of equity and its link to justice, which may require going beyond giving equal treatment to people. The concern with educational injustice done to population sub-groups

like female students led to compensatory education, but this may now have given way to a more individualistic perspective as Murphy and Gipps (1994:13) put it ‘*underachievement is once again the responsibility of the individual rather than the educational institution*’. This ‘blame the victim’ approach denies the difficulties that groups of students face; analysing each individual case can mask solutions that could be found by studying larger-scale societal and global economic structures.

The Merriam Webster’s Collegiate Dictionary (1996) defines equity as “*freedom from bias or favouritism.*” More specifically, Sanders and Tescoine (2002:115) define gender equity as “*parity between males and females in the quality of life, academic life, and work outcomes valued by our society....*” In the educational context, Fennema (1990:54) defines gender equity as the set of behaviours and knowledge that permits educators to recognize inequality in educational opportunities, to carry out specific interventions that constitute equal educational treatment, and to ensure equal educational outcomes.

It is Subrahmanian (1998) in a paper entitled ‘Gender Equality in Education: Definitions and Measurements’ that the two concepts (gender equality and gender parity) are differentiated while at the same establishing a relationship between them.

The paper was developed as a short concept note for stimulating discussion on the meaning and measurement of gender equality in education. The terms gender parity and gender equality are reflected in one of the six Education for All (EFA) goals elucidated in the Dakar Framework for Action [2000] as follows:

- Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and
- achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality

The author asserts that it is important to work towards clarity on what is meant by gender parity and gender equality, bearing these new international commitments in mind, with reference to education, explore the linkages between them, and identifies the best mechanisms to measure progress towards these goals. Further, it is necessary to ensure that a clear analytical and operational distinction is maintained between concepts of gender parity and equality arguing that without which there is likely to be considerable slippage in the usage of these terms as well as the measurement of progress towards them as desired outcomes.

Subrahmanian (1998) is of the opinion that the Dakar Framework for Action (DFA) represents to-date the most important international political commitment towards promoting Education for All. Swaziland is part to this international commitment. These two goals, as Subrahmanian (1998) puts it, are distinguished as gender parity goals [achieving equal participation of girls and boys in all forms of education based on their proportion in the relevant age groups in the population] and gender equality goals [ensuring educational equality between boys and girls]. In turn, these have been characterised as quantitative/numerical and qualitative goals respectively. In order to consider

progress towards both types of goals, both quantitative and qualitative assessments need to be made of the nature of progress towards gender equality.

One can agree with the author then, considering the above goals, that achieving gender parity is just one-step towards gender equality in and through education. An education system with equal numbers of boys and girls participating, who may progress evenly through the system, may not in fact be based on gender equality. A consideration of gender equality in education therefore needs to be understood as the right to education, which is access and participation, as well as rights within education, which means gender-aware educational environments, processes, and outcomes, and rights through education, which refers to meaningful education outcomes that link education equality with wider processes of gender justice (Wilson, 2003). To understand and assess progress towards gender equality in education is, therefore, to interpret dynamic social phenomena.

In agreement with Subrahmanian (1998), a significant challenge thus relates to the collection of data, and its interpretation. Much in turn depends on how gender 'parity' and gender 'equality' in education are being defined. Despite this, there is still lack of a universally accepted definition of gender equality in relation to education goals that makes measuring progress towards its achievement hard if not impossible to achieve. Without clarity about what gender equality in education means, Swaziland's vision 2021 will be at best subject to contestation and dispute that is likely to cloud global consensus, and at worst leave this important goal unfulfilled for lack of clarity about what it is that constitutes progress on this front.

Concurring with Subrahmanian (1998) one can argue that gender equality rests on, but is not the same as, achieving gender parity, or females being represented in equal numbers as males in education, although the latter offers a 'first stage' measure of progress towards gender equality in education. Gender parity reflects 'formal' equality, in terms of access to and participation in education. 'Formal' equality can also be understood as equality that is 'premised on the notion of the 'sameness' of men and women, where the male actor is held to be the norm.

Subrahmanian (1998) argues that there are limitations of 'gender parity' indicators. One arises from the understanding that measuring access to and participation in education, whilst important, are limited indicators of change in education, as they do not by themselves tell us very much about processes of education. At best, they are first-order outcome indicators. Second, they are 'static' measures. A relational understanding of 'gender' requires recognition of the dynamic processes by which gender inequalities are constituted across different arenas of human life. Gender inequalities arise from the unequal power relations between women and men, and hence assessments of gender equality need to capture the relational dimensions of gender inequality. The author is further of the opinion that formal equality measures numerical 'gaps' between female and male outcomes. However, for equality to be achieved there is need for a definition that recognises that women and men start from different positions of advantage, and are constrained in different ways. Thus, achievement of substantive equality requires the recognition of *'the ways in which women are different from men, in terms of their biological capacities and in terms of the socially constructed disadvantages women face relative to men*

(Subrahmanian, 1998:76). This in turn, as the above author clarifies, depends on two further processes, indicators of which can tell how the equality of outcome has been achieved. These processes are the quality of experience of education, in terms of entering education, participating in it and benefiting from it. For gender equality to be meaningful, mechanisms for ensuring equality of treatment as well as equality of opportunity for men and women are important. The other process is commitment to non-discrimination, to ensure the erasure of social norms that construct women and men as unequal in value in terms of their contributions and entitlements, and to ensure that all social actors are committed to eliminating stereotypes and attitudes that reinforce and perpetuate inequalities in the distribution of resources between women and men. Assessing gender equality thus requires assessing whether fundamental freedoms and choices are as equally available to women as they are to men. This involves focusing on pathways to equality, extending the concern with treatment and opportunity to also focusing on agency and autonomy exercised by women in enjoying their freedoms.

2.4 A THEORETICAL BACKGROUND TO GENDER INEQUALITY AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATION

This study, having conceptualised gender equality, adopts a theory of gender inequality as propounded by Majcher (2004:4). This theory gives a framework of how gender inequality is sociologically constructed. The author asserts that within sociology, there are several theoretical approaches to the issue of education, such as structural-functionalism and Marxism. Stratification processes within societies are one of the core problems related to the education

within macro sociology and political economy with education being a mechanism of social selection and socialization, for instance, for the reproduction of the social division of labour. Processes of the institutional stratification are furthermore interesting also for the microanalysis.

In society, observable are not only unequal distribution of power, wealth, and knowledge but also several persistent patterns of such distribution. Discussions about social inequality were generally, for a long time, dominated by class perspective. Clark and Lipset (1991:23) in support of the theory agree that class models still explain social structure, social inequality patterns, sets of norms, opinions, motivations, styles of life and predict to a larger extent life chances of individuals, even if class paradigm may become less useful as class differences disappear.

Class and stratification theories that are interested in vertical social inequality have recently partially lost their popularity in social sciences but are used for the sake of this research and theorising on horizontal inequality, for instance, inequality based on the ground of gender, age, ethnicity, sexual orientation and many more. There is much more attention given nowadays to cultural and symbolic forms of social structure. Theory and empirical research shift their interest on different life styles and life courses integrating time dimension and individuals' freedom of action.

Studies of horizontal inequality in many cases switched effectively the interest from materialist forms of inequality, and culturalists opt for analysing culture as a force of both domination and resistance. Group identity supplants class interest as a medium of political mobilization and cultural domination supplants

economic exploitation as the fundamental injustice. However, material inequality has not yet ceased to exist, for instance, access to pay work, education, health services, power, leisure time and others are strongly differentiated, particularly concerning gender. Furthermore, it is often impossible to separate these two sorts of inequality. Gender inequality has its “class” as well as “culture” features. When occupation/production means, ownership structure, or division of labour roughly defines class structure, it constitutes the cornerstone of gender social structure. It is however, crucial to emphasise here that class and gender are not fixed concrete categories and are not autonomous either. They overlap, intersect, and fuse with each other in many ways. In institutional and everyday life any clear demarcation of specific forms of oppression and difference is constantly being disrupted.

Social scientists usually refer to gender as a dimension of an analysis; it is applied to embodied person as a mark of biological, linguistic, cultural difference. When gender theory is considered on one edge of the spectrum, other theories opt for essentialist reading of gender (feminists of “difference”). On the other edge gender difference is perceived as socially constructed, including the social construction of bodies (Butler, 1990). Some claim that gender itself is a relation, a set of relations and not an individual attribute. Others would argue that only feminine gender is marked while men are bearers of body transcendent universal personhood. Whatever the perspective, gender is a good indicator of social inequality and predictor of individuals’ life chances. It appears as social structure category with gender relations formulated in terms of segregation, hierarchy, and domination/subordination.

Thus, in theory, meritocracy determines stratification patterns in modern society, and in consequence, class, gender, and race of which these are neutral processes where in reality inequalities prevail (Goldthrope, 1996:14). The education sector exhibits the same characteristics.

Writing about gender and education in particular is often ambiguous, as theorists and feminists tend to disagree about the meaning of the concept. Women's unequal access and quality of access to education, paid work, careers, and power could be approached from different angles addressing macro-, mezzo-, or micro level of analysis. Generally, there are two models explaining gender differences: the 'deficit model', which emphasises the differential treatment of women, and the 'difference model', which emphasises the difference in the behaviour of women from males. Some theorists would additionally link materialist paradigm to a discussion on cultural domination with a major critic of andocentrism – that is the authoritative construction of norms that privilege traits associated with masculinity and devalue those associated with femininity. These models describe gender inequality and gender inequity existing in education.

2.5 INDICATORS OF GENDER INEQUALITY IN VARIOUS EDUCATION SETTINGS

There are general indicators of gender inequality in educational settings. To illustrate, in Swaziland and other third world countries the common notion is that males excel in mathematics, science, and technology and that females excel in the arts. This is in spite of the growing campaign against women discrimination in education and other spheres. Mannathoko (1995) argues that

the dynamic is all the more powerful in that, adults may not realize they are holding these beliefs and are acting on them. Subtle and unintended messages can create the idea among girls and boys that there are fields they cannot be successful in because of their sex. Children reflect and reinforce this attitude through their peer interactions.

Some studies have observed that gender-biased attitudes become a self-fulfilling prophecy, strengthened by the fact that many girls attribute their success as due to luck, which is fickle, while many boys attribute theirs to ability, which is reliable (American Association of University Women Educational Foundation, 1992-95:43; Mannathoko, 1995). This explains the general lower self-confidence, despite higher performance, of most girls in school and tertiary education. It is essential that pre-service students develop the ability to decipher these messages in order to counteract them.

A number of research studies have documented unequal and too often unfriendly classroom environment for girls and for some boys (Sandler, Lisa, and Roberta, 1996:33). Teachers are in control of the school environment. While teachers try to be fair, they are often unaware that they can show bias to their students. In a classroom observation study by Martin (1998), the conclusions were that teachers are more likely to be more accepting of boys who called out rather than raising their hands. Not only that, but girls were more likely to obey their teachers than boys are. It was apparent that the volume and tone that girls used was controlled more frequently than that of boys. Boys' play was frequently louder but only their negative behaviours were reprimanded. It was also interesting that when boys were asked to be quieter, it was as a group

rather than individuals. These types of restrictions in volume also limit the children's physical activities. In the studies cited above when teachers reprimanded boys for their behaviour, it was to end it, when they scolded girls for their behaviour, they would suggest another activity instead. This is a more controlling way of achieving the desired behaviour. Teachers often encourage girls to participate in gender specific activities, which are more structured. This promotes most girls to understand their role as females to be quiet and controlled.

Curriculum materials that are biased in language, content, and/or illustrations reinforce the idea that some fields are gender specific. Pre-service teachers need to learn to perceive the usually subtle but powerful cumulative impact of curriculum materials on girls' and boys' understanding of the world and their places in it, and to learn to teach in ways that enable students to relate to all aspects of the world without limitation (Rosser, 1990). To illustrate, Mannathoko (1995)'s study focusing on the images of women and men in curriculum texts in Teacher Education Institutions in Botswana revealed that the out of ten course outlines of programmes offered in the Department of Educational Foundations, only one had incorporated the issue of gender and that was the philosophical and sociological foundations of education course. The topic was (and still is) Education and Gender. However, the supportive references used in the course did not address gender issues. The same course is offered, though with some modification, in colleges of education in Swaziland and does not include gender issues save the only topic cited above.

Indicators of gender parity include that in many schools of education, the administration department faculty tends to have more males, which parallels principals especially at the high school level. The curriculum department faculties tend to have more females, which parallels classroom teachers, especially at the elementary level. Education deans and heads of departments are more likely to be male. This is mainly because such posts are positions of power (Mannathoko, 1995).

The above overall model perpetuates an unequal division of influence and reward in the education establishment. Preliminary investigation by the researcher has actually confirmed this state of affairs in teacher training colleges in Swaziland, for instance, out of the three-teacher training colleges, only one has a female principal.

According to Yuval-Davis (1997), in developing countries, the current ascendancy of the neo-liberal agenda for educational restructuring with its focus on competitive individualism and centralised control in financing, curriculum, and teaching has resulted in only paying lip service to gender equity. In this climate, gender justice is not yet perceived as a high priority item for faculties of education, which is never infused with a strong commitment to gender equity. Increased centralised control over classrooms, high-stakes standardised testing and punitive measures against 'under-achieving' students, teachers, and schools have taken centre stage.

Despite the talks about the quest for gender equality and common human rights, most women discursively continue to be viewed as caretakers, both within families and in the traditionally woman-identified professions such as teaching

(Yuval-Davis, 1997). These assumptions of mothering, femininity, and teaching continue to have profound impact on the organisation and material practices within schools, as in all other arenas. When teachers, both men and women, are prepared for their profession without an analysis and discussion of these dynamics, there is a strong likelihood that these relationships will simply be replicated. It is obviously important for teachers to understand the experiences of children and teachers in educational settings in terms of gender assumptions. Keeping these experiences in mind in teacher education programmes means asking future teachers to consider what equality of opportunity in classrooms and schools means for boys and girls.

The failure of teachers to account for gender equality may not be their fault. Kelly (2002) points out that most teachers have not been exposed to the possibility of gender inequity and gender inequality as issues. They should be trained in how to create gender equity/equality within their classroom, identify, and address gender inequalities in their practice. If teachers are usually unaware of the biased behaviours they exhibit through verbal interactions, eye contact, and body language, it means they cannot correct themselves. When pre-service teachers learn about these behaviours at the start of their career, gender bias is much more amenable to conscious control. This can be achieved through a curriculum change. The following section deals with how gender identities are constructed in an educational institution like a school.

2.6 CONSTRUCTION OF GENDER IDENTITIES IN AN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION

Posner (2004) conducted a study that focused on understanding how adolescent girls make sense out of and build their gender identities, and how the school, as an institution, plays a role in girl's gender creation. He used an ethnographic approach and interviews focusing on one high school in an urban area. This does limit the study and the applicability of the results to other areas. Nevertheless, very important issues are raised.

The author argues that identity concerning values and characteristics is an important factor influencing mental health. An individual's identity is formed in part by the messages received by significant others, including parents, teachers and peers. Societal beliefs about an individual's gender and ethnicity (among other reference points) also shape identity.

Through this study, Posner (2004) made the following conclusions about girl's gender construction in an institution: Lack of concrete biological knowledge about their bodies contributes to girl's loss of sexual self. This is coupled with most girls being given inaccurate sex-related knowledge about their own bodies by adults, which creates confusion and anxiety for them. DeBeauvoir, (1989:33) concurs with Posner pointing out that *"a woman is the theatre of a play that unfolds within her and in which she is not personally concerned."* This observation alludes to the female body as an object, separate and distinct from the person, or self. This means 'woman' is not only "other" as compared to men; she also feels her body "other" in relation to her "self." This leads to most women to lack sexual subjectivity, including a loss of self-esteem (DeBeauvoir,

1989). Although this observation may appear absolute, its strong elements can still be found in Swaziland. 'Cultural' practices pervade the school system wherein the girl child confronts a socialisation process similar to 'home'. Sex matters are left to adults and the 'classroom Biology lesson'.

Failure by the school to discuss "sex" directly means it contributes in the creation of a culture that "*allows for girls spaces through discourse around child birth*" (Posner, 2004:16). This perpetuates the idea of woman as, primarily, a child bearer and caregiver. Posner (2004) further asserts that at adolescence, girls suffer losses of confidence and self-esteem, especially in the area of school competence. Girls' lack of interest in Math and Science has been linked with drops in self-esteem (AAUW, 1991 in Posner 2004).

Posner (2004)'s conclusions appear to be strongly inclined towards making generalised statements about the construction of the girl child's identity in a school. The context of the study might differ from that of Swaziland. However, there are elements of 'truth' that are generalisable to the girl child in Swaziland. For instance, it is culturally taboo for adults to talk about sex-related issues in front of children, let alone with them. This trend may be changing in urban areas but more students are in the rural areas where 'Swazi culture' is still dominant. Some of these 'girls' later enrol into teacher education institutions to become teachers. Unless effective gender equality and gender equity programmes are put in place, a replication of the gendered view of man and woman occurs.

The section below highlights feminist theoretical perspectives that underpin gender identities of the female child. These perspectives are used in this study to interpret data collected from respondents.

2.7 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES UNDERPINNING GENDER DIFFERENTIALS IN TEACHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS: FEMINIST AND GENDER THEORIES AND PERSPECTIVES

Mannathoko (1995) in her study, 'Gender, Ideology, and the State in Botswana's teacher education' have a section that reviewed and analysed explanatory sociological theories. It is important in this research to address and review some of the theories Mannathoko (1995) highlighted. Such theories permeate this study as they are contrasted with prescriptive psychological and sociological theories that appear to be embedded into Swaziland's teacher education structure and interpersonal relationships. In concurring with Mannathoko (1995), it is observed that these theories are neglected yet they are embedded in teacher education structure and inter-personal relations. Feminism as a perspective is critical in the analysis of gender relations.

Since there are varied feminist theories, they can be grouped under the general headings of difference, inequality, oppression, and practice.

2.7.1 Theories of Difference

Mannathoko (1995) explained that theories of difference perceive women's situation as different from men's situation. The difference is explained in terms

of biosocial conditioning, institutional socialisation, and social-psychological linkages (Ruddick, 1989). As Mannathoko (1995) explains conservative biological explanations of gender differences traces the different personality structures of men and women to their different cognitive and affective processes.

Fenichel (1941) in outlining Sigmund Freud's Psychoanalysis theory echoed by Mannathoko (1995) traces the beginning of biological differences to when children discover their physiological differences. Other authors believe that these biological differences were laid down in early human evolution, which accounts for the instinctive emotional bond women have with their children, while men bond practically with other men. This line of thinking is elaborated by Rossi, (1980) who links different biological differences between men and women to different patterns of hormonally determined development over the human cycle.

This researcher then argues that these gender differences accounts for the different gendered play patterns in childhood, and the so-called "female mathematics anxiety," which develops into women's predisposition to care for children and nurturing men. Schools and teacher education institutions seem to perpetuate these theories of difference. For instance, there is evidence that college students and school pupils believe that certain subjects are exclusively for either males or females as Taiwo and Molobe (1994) have observed in a study in Botswana, and that primary school teaching is suitable for women since they are predisposed to caring for children. This is a 'myth' that has been passed from one generation to another.

The fundamental assumption of biological differences, as Mannathoko (1995) argues, is that the physiological make up of human bodies is the foundation of the social relations of gender. That means biology determines gender, and society reflects what nature determines. According to Goldberg (1993) in Mannathoko (1995), the hormonal differences between men and women account for differences in social behaviour, giving men an aggressive nature over the suppressed nature of women. This therefore accounts for the gendered division of labour and the patriarchal power structure.

Within these theories of gender difference are those that focus on institutional socialisation and social psychology. The institutional socialisation theory or sex role theory do emphasises women's distinctive functions in childbearing and rearing. However, it shifts away from the biosocial differences perspectives by arguing that the differences between men and women are because of responding to social expectations. As a result, sexual division of labour connects women to duties and responsibilities in the private sphere, viz., homemaker, mothering, and other social events. Within their private sphere, women develop particular interpretations of achievement, interests, values, including caring, giving attention to others (Johnson, 1978 in Mannathoko, 1995:4).

Although this theory raises pertinent issues concerning gender stereotypes of gender differentials, which entails analysis of sex roles as social constructs, cultural ideals, and curriculum contents, this researcher concurs with some of its critics like Connell, (1987) that it has its own weaknesses. For instance, they argue that this theory only focuses on attitudes and ignores the social realities that account for these attitudes resulting in a rigid dichotomy between men and

women. It tones down the politics of economic, domestic, and political power that males exercise over females. Social reality dictates that there is power relationship between male and female roles. This theory therefore has failed to explain power and social interest, it depends too much on attitudes and systematic misinterpretation of resistance, and depends on biological determinism and non-social perception, and has failed to explain the historicity of gender. In spite of the above-mentioned weaknesses of this perspective, in this research it will be utilised to analyse the social reality in teacher education institutions.

2.7.2 Socio-psychological theories: Post-structuralism

This theory is applied to loosely linked concepts about meaning, for instance, the manner in which meaning is struggled over, produced and the way it circulates among people. Meaning is viewed as dynamic, shifting as various institutional, cultural, linguistic, and social factors interact. Power therefore is a crucial link, as shifting power patterns influences meaning and in turn, power influences it. Meaning also affects human subjectivity, which also is viewed as shifting, multifaceted and contradictory (Mannathoko, 1995).

Discourses and curriculum texts are social institutions and cultural products, which make up post- structuralism. Proponents of this theory argue that it can be used to stimulate the political process of gender reform within both the gender order and gender regimes. According to Kenway, Willis, Blackmore, and Rennie (1994), schools, teacher education institutions and educational bureaucracies are social institutions; curriculum texts are cultural products; and pedagogy is interpersonal processes.

In this research actions and statements captured from respondents had to be interpreted and inferences made. This theory of meaning helped in analysing, for instance, the curriculum texts and the pedagogy processes.

2.7.3 Inequality theories

These are theories that underscore inequality explanations describing women's situation in terms of liberal feminism's view of unequal opportunity structures, and Marxian explanations of women's position as part of a complex class system of exploitation in terms of both gender and social class.

Liberal feminism, as a branch of inequality theories explains gender inequality as created by a system that restricts women's access to the "public sphere" by burdening them with 'private sphere' responsibilities like child rearing, housework and support of men. To them, sexism is a key force behind gender inequality. It is composed of discriminatory practices and prejudices against women, responsible for social restrictions and confining them from childhood so that they mature into adulthood as helpless, mindless, and dependent beings (Mannathoko, 1995).

This theory, though it can no longer be accepted wholly because of societal changes concerning gender and modernisation, still holds true, as there are still discriminations of women caused by prejudice practices. Using Botswana as a case in point Nyathi-Ramahobo, (1992), confirmed that in schools and tertiary institutions, female students still have a tendency of clustering around "soft" subjects like Languages, Home economics and other Social Science subjects while most male students take "pure" Sciences.

In this research, the above perspective featured prominently in investigating the assumption that there are gendered dimensions to the status of certain subjects in that subjects in which female students cluster have lower status than those which male students cluster. It helped to explain reasons for the ‘choice’ of subjects made by both male and female in teacher education institutions.

2.7.4 Theories of gender oppression

These are theories that describe women’s condition because of a direct power relationship between men and women in which men effectively implement those interests, which reinforce their control. According to Mannathoko (1995), Radical feminism, as a type of gender oppression theories, perceives gender oppression as a system of patriarchy, which is the most important structure of inequality. They contend that patriarchy is demonstrated in schools and TEIs through male domination in classes and female sexual harassment.

In this research, one of the assumptions made was that there are a lot of ‘taken for granted’ assumptions that people may hold with regard to men and women in society about their abilities and capabilities, and that values, beliefs and ideas of people may result into formation of certain values and actions which are based on false premises. Radical Feminism therefore helped to explain actions and utterances made by respondents. It helped the researcher to explain those actions and statements rooted in the socialisation process of the respondents.

The above selected theories were utilised in this study to explain, interpret, and provide analysis of sex roles as social constructs, cultural ideals, curriculum contents, and pedagogy processes in teacher education institutions.

The section that follows is an overview of research studies that have addressed themselves to gender and the curriculum in teacher education institutions. They analyse the challenges for pedagogy in these institutions.

2.8 REVIEW OF RESEARCH STUDIES ON GENDER, THE CURRICULUM AND PEDAGOGY IN TEACHER EDUCATION

This section critically analyses and reviews studies that are both directly and indirectly related to the study. Through them, pertinent gender issues that need to be addressed through this research are raised.

2.8.1 Gendered structures and processes in teacher education and challenges for Gender-sensitive pedagogy

A study by Sunnari (1997) aimed at investigating gendered structures and processes in Finland's Primary Teacher Education reveals pertinent information about issues of gender and teacher education for a country like Swaziland. The topic was studied both from historical and contemporary perspectives. The historical analysis focused on the first formation of primary teacher education in Finland and on the history of primary teacher education in Oulu. The perspective in the historical analysis was structural. It was focused through curricular analysis, including the curricular analysis of the first Finnish teacher seminar and the analysis of three annual curriculum of primary education in Oulu. Additionally, agency-based observations of students' minor subject choices over a number of years were made to compliment the observations.

Sunnari's (1997) study was developed through a developmental project and sub-studies through which she identified the problem of the study. During the



developmental project and its pedagogic progress, the author was involved in teaching a course to student teachers named “familiarisation with pupils” at Oulu Department of Teacher Education (1988-1989). She structured the project into three cycles: The first cycle involved arousing students’ interest towards children and gender issues by giving them knowledge and by trying to provoke debates on the issues during lectures. At this level the author had to subscribe to the ‘traditional’ approach wherein the ‘teaching–learning process is constructed in such a way that the students’ sphere of study was limited to the reception of ready-served knowledge and its active memorisation (Sunnari, 1997:20). A critical analysis of this approach indicates that the lecture themes remained on the level of intellectual debate without real or deeper connections with the practical actions of the students.

The second cycle involved supporting students to become conscious of the real pedagogic actions, and, as regards gender issues, to give them some insights into the issues as individual and social phenomena. The approach used by the author involved utilising a process and practise orientation and looking for possibilities to develop the students’ observation and reflection skills during school [teaching] practice. For these purposes, two abstract instruments were used, the concepts of “giving rules” and “control.” Students were required to monitor the other persons’ and their own ways of giving rules and controlling their actions and the pupils’ actions in pedagogic processes, to monitor the types of situations in which they performed the controlling and rule giving actions, and to reflect on how and why they performed them. The results were that students conceptualised their experiences and discussed them; they were able to “*deconstruct*” and “*reconstruct*,” and to “*re-observe*” and “*re-analyse*” issues

as a way of raising their awareness of the common and deeply hidden stereotypic notions of teachers' work in general and the gender issues in particular (Sunnari, 1997:25).

In the third cycle, the pedagogic core lay in flexible inquiry-oriented partnership relations between the author and the students. This means the author would enter the students' school practice processes as an inquiring partner. However, in the processes where the students conceptualised their experiences and discussed textbooks, the author would act as a background consultant. Students were also oriented to reflect on one-context experience in another context.

It further involved supporting the students to learn to reflect on their own actions in the context of the actions of their pupils. As to the gender issues, the attempt was to make them visible on different levels of pedagogic relations in teacher education.

Sunnari' study also included a historical analysis of the first formation of the curriculum of primary teacher education in Finland. The main data of these analyses consist of the writings of Uno Cygnaeus (1856-1861). He was the central person in the formation of the first Finnish teacher seminar. The main aim of such analysis was to reach deeper meanings of the gendered issues in the then curriculum and subsequent ones. The author wanted to find out what Cygnaeus's proposals were like, what he suggested concerning the education of female primary teachers, and how the proposals differed from the proposals concerning the education of male teachers. The contemporary curricula the author analysed, included the first curriculum of the first teacher seminar

(1860), the first academic curriculum (1954-1955) and the curriculum from the academic year 1988-1989, and the one for academic years 1989-1995.

The results of the first analysed curriculum offered the basis for the later analysis. The results of the analysis were as follows:

- Most of the students who are female orient to be teachers of small children, girls and boys while male students to be teachers of older pupils and especially boys.
- Female students orient to be qualified in various subjects taught in primary school. Male students orient to develop their qualifications according to their more personal orientation.
- There was a tendency among students [student teachers] to notice boys differently from girls, and to experience boys as more challenging and to interpret pupils' school success in sex-related ways.

One of the research questions focusing this study was to investigate the extent to which gender equality issues were included in the first curriculum of teacher education in Swaziland.

Sunnari (1997) concludes that the results of the study confirmed the conception of the position of gender as one component in determining one's status and position in education. Moreover, if we look, based on the curricular documents, at the change of the special societal tasks included in female teacherhood from the 1860s to the present day, the change seems to be from the task of the societal mother of a modern nation state towards a professionally qualified educator free from gendered division tasks. However, the picture changes when

the processes of everyday studies are included in the observation, for instance, the idea of motherhood seems to be included in female teacherhood even at the present. It is however, rather institutionalised motherhood: a commitment to serve other people as teachers, in as qualified a way as possible, without special emphasis on educating mothers for the home.

Sunnari (1997)'s study featured prominently in this current study. First, her study was conducted in a Finland, a country classified as a Third World country like Swaziland. Secondly, Finland appears to have a strong patriarchal-orientation though undergoing a fast-paced modernisation process like Swaziland. In the education front, though the context of Sunnari (1997)'s study location is different in terms of advancement, the development of education has followed almost the same pattern with Swaziland. In both locations, gender issues in education (teacher education in particular) are still grappled with.

2.8.2 Teacher education textbooks and gender issues

Zittleman & Sadker (2003) recently published an article entitled 'Teacher education textbooks: The unfinished revolution'. This article highlights one of the major challenges facing effective gender-laden pedagogy in teacher education institutions, which is the textbooks used. The authors completed a content analysis of twenty-three leading teacher education texts to determine what they had to say about gender and education. All texts were published between 1998 and 2001, and included five areas: Introductory/ Foundations in Education, and the methods texts in Reading, Social Studies, Science and Math. The line-by-line analysis (co-rater reliability was at 90 percent or higher) evaluated the inclusion and treatment of gender issues ranging from the

experiences and contributions of women (even mentioning a woman's name) to exploring strategies to eliminate sex-role stereotyping. They concluded that despite decades of research documenting gender bias in education, and the creation of resources to respond to such bias, these twenty-three teacher education texts devote only about three percent of their space to gender. In some texts, gender is not even on the radar screen.

Twenty years ago, teacher education texts devoted less than one percent of content to the contributions and experiences of women (Sadker and Sadker, 1980). Today, in the seven introductory/foundations books Zittleman and Sadker (2003) analysed, gender issues comprise 7.4% of content, a marked improvement. Unfortunately, many current texts provide limited, fragmented, and even inaccurate information on gender in education.

Within this study, a more critical discovery by Zittleman and Sadker (2003) was that current methods textbooks in teacher education institutions were unlikely to prepare teachers for subtle, and not-so-subtle, gender bias challenges. They found out that the sixteen methods texts they analysed devote just 1.3 % of their content to gender issues. One math and two reading texts offer no gender coverage at all. Although gender has been a central reading issue for both girls and boys, the four reading texts analysed devote only 0.3 % of content space to gender, the lowest percentage of any category in our study.

The authors argue that while significant research exists concerning gender bias in basal readers and children's literature, one would not learn it from these reading methods texts. In current basal readers, male characters outnumber females two to one (Witt, 1996), and Caldecott books tell more male-centred

stories (61%) than female (39%), (Davis and McDaniel, 1999). Although female characters do appear in newer roles such as doctors, lawyers, and scientists, stereotypes persist. Females are often the passive observers, watching their active brothers at work and at play, and focused on domestic life (Davis and McDaniel, 1999; Witt, 1996). Boys remain in the traditional role as well, unlikely to nurture or stray from typical male careers (Evans and Davies, 2000). Not one reading methods text analysed offers a strategy for confronting such stereotypes.

The above study has a bearing on this current research as it provides a background against which the curriculum in teacher education institutions in Swaziland was analysed. The section that follows documents perceptions students have towards curriculum subjects and future careers. Some of these students end up in teacher education institutions. Their perceptions are a challenge to pedagogy.

2.8.3 Gender dimensions of the perceptions of subject and career choices of students

The focus of this study by Taiwo and Molobe (1994) aimed at investigating the perceptions of Botswana Senior secondary School students concerning subjects and career choices by gender. The authors open their discussion by asserting that it seems the debate on gender parity and equity focus primarily on access, disregarding both the process and the outcomes. It is high time that evaluation and monitoring strategies take on board issues of quality in terms of education outcomes, checking if both sexes benefit equally from basic/universal education

programs. The success of basic education should be measured by quality completion by both girls and boys.

The Government of Botswana, on realizing the importance of scientific and technological development in the country's economy, devised a means of encouraging as well as attracting young Batswana to participate in mathematics, science and technology through implementation of a new bursary system. The government awarded scholarships to all students in the tertiary institutions regardless of their choice of career.

Since 1995, the scholarship system is based on work force needs of different sectors of the economy in the country. Most of the prioritised fields are science-based such as architecture, technology, land surveying, agricultural engineering, medicine, radiography, ecology, dentistry, system analyst, mineralogy, zoology, actuarial studies, radiology, computer technical instruction, pharmacy, physiotherapy, aeronautical engineering, metallurgy, basic sciences, geology, mathematics and science. According to the university calendar, good pass in mathematics is a pre-requisite for almost all the above-mentioned disciplines (University of Botswana, 2006). Therefore, a good performance in mathematics gives one an opportunity to participate in the government scholarship scheme.

According to the authors of this study, *“it is because of their poor mathematics performance at the end of basic education that girls do not have equal chances of participating in scholarship set aside for science-related careers which lead to high-paying jobs”* (Taiwo and Molobe, 1994). To buttress their argument, the authors reviewed the trends of student enrolment in education institutions in Botswana. They argue that traditionally, girls and boys received differentiated

treatment. The stereotyped roles were reinforced by the formal education which was introduced by the missionaries. This was evident in the students' allocation of practical subjects in the school curriculum. For example, girls were offered knitting, weaving, washing and ironing and were taught by volunteers. On the contrary, boys enrolled in carpentry and building, and were taught by qualified teachers. It is worth mentioning here that girls' education was deemed unnecessary and unimportant by the missionaries (Duncan, 1989). On the other hand, boys' education was a priority and thus measures were taken to increase their enrolment especially at secondary level. However, this trend existed even after independence especially in the early years between 1965 and 1980.

Table 2: Participation of girls in secondary schools from 1965 to 2004.

Year		Form 1	Form 2	Form 3	Form 4	Form 5
1965	N	601	364	213	84	45
	F	292	155	78	28	14
	%F	48.6	42.6	36.6	33.3	31.1
1970	N	1 336	1 199	826	292	252
	F	644	588	386	116	97
	%F	48.2	49.0	46.7	39.7	38.5
1975	N	4 295	3 672	2 511	917	706
	F	2 411	2 085	1 270	348	278
	%F	56.1	56.8	50.6	37.9	39.4
1980	N	6 081	5 160	4 194	1 602	1 288
	F	3 665	2 992	2 433	692	501
	%F	60.3	58.0	58.0	43.2	38.9
1985	N	10 577	10 455	6 772	2 277	2 091
	F	5 706	5 912	3 765	913	879
	%F	53.9	56.5	55.6	40.1	42.0
1990	N	22 198	17 023	6 839	6 286	4 546
	F	12 645	9 218	3 335	3 115	2 017
	%F	57.0	54.2	48.8	49.6	44.4
1995	N	35 987	53 426	9 517	9 330	8 179
	F	19 586	19 410	4 811	4 580	4 076
	%F	54.4	54.8	50.6	49.1	49.8
2000	N	38 418	38 401	37 609	19 372	18 305
	F	19 755	19 805	19 817	10 372	9 385
	%F	51.4	51.6	52.7	53.5	51.3
2004	N	40 592	39 411	37 571	20 749	20 235
	F	20 768	20 094	19 472	9 487	10 788
	%F	51.2	50.1	51.8	45.6	53.2

Source: Government Statistics, 2004; Key: N (total number of students); F (number of female students); % F (proportion of female students)

As can be observed from table 2 the general trend is that there are more boys than girls in senior secondary school enrolment. This low participation of girls in secondary schooling may be the cause to reducing their chances of participation in higher education, particularly in mathematics and science-related subjects that may lead to high paying salary jobs. The results of the study showed that when the sample's subject choices were analysed according to gender:

- The male students preferred Science and related subjects to all other subjects in the school curriculum. They expressed dislike for most Arts and languages subjects.
- In contrast to the boys, the girls preferred the Arts and Languages to any other groups of subjects in the curriculum.
- On career/profession choices, the same trend was observed with males preferring Science-related careers/professions that included engineering, medicine, aeronautics and agriculture. They expressed dislike for careers like teaching, police force, and hotel and catering. Girls on the other hand preferred the more service-based careers/professions like nursing, teaching, hotel and catering. They expressed dislike for careers in agriculture, and most of the science-based careers.

A critical analysis of these results may be that the sample was too small for the results to be generalisable to other areas even inside Botswana. In addition, the study did not interrogate the background of these students. A stratified random sampling procedure could have been more suitable as the respondents could have been selected from the various backgrounds they are familiar with. For

example, a child whose parents are teachers is more likely to choose teaching as a career regardless of whether the child is male or female.

On the other hand, the results of this study echo results from similar studies in other locations (Duncan, 1989). One of the assumptions underpinning this research is that there are gendered dimensions to the status of certain subjects in that subjects in which female students cluster have lower status than those which male students cluster.

The above studies highlight challenges facing gender-sensitive pedagogy in teacher education institutions.

2.9.0 ATTEMPTS TO ADDRESS GENDER EQUALITY PEDAGOGY – BASED CHALLENGES IN TEACHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

The section below highlights attempts that have been made in different locations to address these challenges. It also highlights attempts that can be employed to achieve a gender-sensitive pedagogy.

2.9.1 The quest for gender awareness and sensitivity in secondary schools and colleges: the development and evaluation of integrated teaching/learning modules on gender in Namibia

The study above by Phiri (1993) located in Namibia focused on confirming that stereotypes or biased beliefs, ideas, values, attitudes, images and actions of students in matters related to gender may be perpetuated through curriculum and classroom practices. In addition, it is possible to help promote positive gender laden ideas for a gender-balanced society through curriculum reform and classroom practices.

Special objectives of the study included the following:

- To document views, opinions and perceptions of the participants, which could serve as a basis for establishing, gender laden education in schools and colleges in Namibia
- To develop modules that could be used to promote gender awareness and sensitivity in secondary schools and colleges
- To identify possible module content, teaching strategies, patterns of classroom management, and instructional materials that may be suitable and effective in promoting gender awareness and sensitivity
- To define and refine a research process which could be used as a guideline or a module framework for promoting gender awareness among participants
- To find out the ‘participants’ opinions and perceptions regarding module content, teaching strategies, instructional materials and evaluation procedures and
- To investigate the extent to which the modules or part thereof could be assimilated or integrated into the Mathematics, Geography, English, and Social Studies subjects

The study targeted students and lecturers of colleges of education of Namibia. Further, the study focused on Grade 9 learners and teachers in all educational regions. In its main phase (i.e. Phase 4) fifty-two (52) classes totalling 1359 learners participated.

The study’s research techniques included the following phases:

- i) The orientation analysis. This technique was applied at the beginning of the study. Through consultations with the reference and target groups, the problem and objectives of the study were refined.
- ii) Participation analysis. This method operated within workshop setting and the purpose was to promote gender awareness and sensitivity among participants. The technique involved administering a series of exercises
- iii) Other techniques employed included observation of actual teaching episodes and video recording of lessons and interviews.

The study revealed that:

A wide range of gender biases exist in Namibia's educational system. This was evident at various levels as follows:

- a) The participation analysis revealed that many teachers and college lecturers were biased against women. For example, many participants held the view that discrimination based on gender was normal, that men should do certain jobs, and only women should do others. In some situations, women were biased against themselves
- b) It was clear that gender biases were widely spread among learners
- c) Some aspects of the curriculum were evidently gender insensitive
- d) Some of the teaching approaches used by college lecturers and teachers enhanced gender biases

- e) In some cases, instructional materials such as textbooks promoted gender biases.

The study also revealed that it is possible to introduce a gender-laden education intended to enhance gender awareness and sensitivity. This was evident in the following phases:

- a) Through the participation analysis, it was possible to change or modify the attitudes of many teachers towards several issues pertaining to gender
- b) Through engendered lessons, many learners became gender aware and sensitive

Based upon the results of the study, the following recommendations were made:

- That the Ministries of education should distribute widely the gender sensitising booklet with the view of promoting gender awareness and sensitivity in the educational system. This booklet contains important guidelines that can be used by any educationist who wishes to promote gender awareness and sensitivity. For example, the booklet highlights how gender awareness and sensitivity could be enhanced among teacher educators, teachers, and learners. For instance,
 - a) conducting workshops similar to the ones used in the study
 - b) introducing engendered classroom organisation and interaction;
 - c) conducting introductory lessons on gender;

- d) focussing on gender issues within the existing syllabus topics;
 - e) introducing gender issues career guidance;
 - f) analysing gender issues in instructional materials and
 - g) conducting research projects on gender issues.
- Teachers and teacher educators should examine their syllabuses with the view of incorporating a gender dimension by:
 - i) Including the introductory themes on gender; and
 - ii) by exploring gender issues within some of the topics of existing syllabus
 - Capacity building centres should be established in all educational regions intended to train teachers and teacher educators (including at the University of Namibia) in gender-laden education.
 - Data banks should be established containing useful statistics and publications on gender issues.
 - Research should be stepped up in the area of gender with particular emphasis on passing on research skills on gender to participants.
 - The Ministries of Education in collaboration with external donors should consider continuity in funding workshops, or programmes designed to make students and teacher educators to be gender sensitive in the area of instructional materials, teaching approaches and classroom management.
 - As part of the implementation of gender-laden education in schools, colleges and University of Namibia, it was recommended that:

- a) Teacher educators themselves be gender sensitive through gender awareness and sensitisation programmes.
- b) Teacher educators and teachers should employ engendered patterns of classroom organisation and interaction, and
- c) Engendered teaching approaches should be employed.

This study reveals pertinent issues and recommendations some of which could be adopted and adapted in Swaziland' Teacher Education. This was a state-wide study with generalisable results. The methods used in the study and the target population make its results and recommendations to be valid and reliable enough to be generalised to other settings outside Namibia.

In the section that follows is an attempt to analyse factors that need to be addressed in order to implement an effective gender-laden curriculum in teacher education institutions.

2.9.2 Factors associated with effective implementation of a gender-sensitive curriculum in teacher education

Povey (2000:1)'s premise for a gender critical pedagogy in colleges of education is the rejection of the "technicist model" which involves delivering the curriculum prescribed at a higher level as effectively as possible. He argues that such a model is not congruent with a gender critical teacher education programme. Cited in Povey (2000), Giroux (1992:68) buttresses the same idea by positing that, *"To be gender critical, a curriculum must cancel the erasure of*

gender from understanding how knowledge is produced, and transformed and promote the eradication of gender inequalities.”

Povey (2000) holds the view that becoming an effective classroom practitioner effectively engaged in gender work cannot be separated from one's development as a critical, reflective, transformative intellectual, someone who is able to look behind the taken-for-granted. It is the job of a critical teacher education curriculum to enable practitioners, student or otherwise, to make explicit their own gender theories and those of others, and to subject them to independent analysis and judgement. This is because the influences on “our constructions of gender are not generally open, easily understandable and non-manipulative” (Povey, 2000). Secondly, practice need not necessarily precede theory if it is to be subjected to independent critical judgement by the student or practitioner. Developing a gender sensitive, theoretical understanding about and informed by one's own practice must therefore be central to teacher education for change. Thirdly, as Ruddick (1998:205) argues, in order to commit themselves to change teachers must reflect on their own experience of schooling, higher education and teaching, and on the view of knowledge that these experiences have yielded.

The teachers who can claim to ‘own the problem of change’ are those who recognise a potentially creative dissonance that they are prepared to confront and deal with. Effectively, the constructivism teaching approach is the best choice for achieving this. The following are some specific factors that need to be considered to implement a gender-sensitive curriculum in teacher education institutions:

2.9.2.1 Constructivism approach as a factor

Constructivism has as its basic principle on the idea that a learner comes to class with certain preconceptions of how the world is structured and ordered. These preconceived structures are sometimes valid, invalid, or incomplete. As Bishop and Carpenter (1993:147) state, the learner will formulate her/his existing structures only if new information or experiences are connected to knowledge already in memory. The student, in order for it to become an integrated and useful part of her /his memory must personally draw inferences, elaborations, and associations between old insight and new information. This is in direct contrast to the 'technicist' approach through which knowledge is 'transferred' from teacher to learner.

Constructivism, according to Avalos (2000:11) considers that knowledge acquisition is primordially an activity handled by the learner with little external guidance. This means human knowledge and experience entail the active participation of the individual. According to Bishop and Carpenter (1993:149), there are two main principles that form the foundation of constructivism:

Principle one states that knowledge is not passively received, but is actively built up by the recognising subject.... Principle two states that the function of cognition is adaptive and serves the organisation of experiential world, not the discovery of onto logical reality.

While the first principle can be easily verified and is widely accepted, the second one is problematic. It is a product of a belief devotion that some constructivism theorists do not subscribe to. However, these theorists agree on

principles underpinning the acquisition of knowledge through constructivism. As Clements and Battista (1990:34) point out, learners learn through the following stages:

- Knowledge is actively created by the learner and not passively received from the environment. The learner reflects on actions performed on numerous sets of objects
- Learning is a social process in which the learner grows into the intellectual life of those around her/him. Thus, the constructivist classroom is seen as a culture in which students are involved not only in discovery and in invention of knowledge but in a social discourse involving explanations, negotiations, sharing and evaluation. This is termed social constructivism.

These authors posit that social constructivism, as part of constructivism is an educational philosophy professing that students actively construct knowledge through discussion, experimentation, and observation and building their own representation of understanding. This theory is an offshoot of Vygotsky's Social Development Theory whose main argument is that social interaction plays a fundamental role in the development of cognition. According to Vygotsky (1978:57), *"Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first on the social level and later on the individual level, first between people and then inside the child. This applies equally to voluntary attention, logical memory, and to the formation of concepts."*

Another theme propounded in the Social Development theory states that the potential for cognitive development is limited to a certain life span called the

‘zone of proximal development.’ Full development during each specific life span depends upon full social interaction, for example through adult guidance or peer collaboration.

In teacher education colleges, student teachers can effectively be prepared to be critical, reflective, transformative intellectual individuals who are able to look behind the taken-for-granted using the constructivism approach.

2.9.2.2 Curriculum change as a factor

Curriculum change means transforming all design components and altering the values and beliefs upon which they are based. Taba, (1962) suggests that, “*to change a curriculum means in a way to change an institution.*” This is so because it involves major alterations in values, people, society and culture, and basic assumptions. Therefore, curriculum change occurs only very gradually and is (usually) vehemently resisted (Zais, 1976:19). This means any educational plan that places, for instance, gender equity, gender equality at the core of the teaching-learning process, and treats these as valuable attributes of social and personal life to be actively promoted constitutes curriculum change.

Curriculum change is far more comprehensive and encompassing than curriculum improvement. The latter occurs when relatively minor modifications are made in some select components of the curriculum but not in its underlying assumptions or its overall organisational structure. Curriculum improvement (innovation) essentially involves only refinement of the status quo with minimal alterations of value orientation. Curriculum change on the other hand transforms the ideological and methodological centres of the instructional planning process.

It comprises approaches to education that teach students to deconstruct policies and practices that ignore, denigrate, exploit, or oppress diverse ethnic, racial, gender stereotyping and social groups and to develop social action skills to transform society and secure greater freedom, equality and justice.

The history of teacher education colleges in Swaziland has indicated only curriculum innovation whereby adjustments were made in for instance, the extension of the duration of a programme of study and addition of new courses (Mbingo, 2005). A complete curriculum change has not yet been done. All that has happened since independence has been curriculum innovations of the post-independence teacher-training curriculum. The state of curriculum development in Swaziland has been rather *ad hoc* from the beginning, because there were no set policies on curricula changes, explicit policy documents and general change of orientation. Such forces as world trends on curricula innovations, examination boards, and teaching practice informed and dictated these changes. However, as discussed in later sections of this research, whatever innovations have been made so far do not consider gender as a critical area in Swaziland Colleges of Education.

This researcher opines that at this stage of the development of teacher education in Swaziland, the curriculum innovation process is enough to be utilised to introduce the necessary changes if the need arises. With changes in the whole school system from the Ordinary O'level Examinations to the 'new' International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE), any other change may throw the education system into more chaos than it is in already.

The section below highlights some analytical approaches that need attention when implementing a gender-laden curriculum in a teacher education institution.

2.9.3 Some analytical approaches necessary for implementing a gender-sensitive pedagogy in teacher education institutions

2.9.3.1 The curriculum

This researcher concurs with Lumadi (2000) who conceptualises a curriculum as the sum of experiences leading to the learning that occurs under the auspices of the school whether or not these are part of the written guide. His observation embraces the three areas of curriculum identifiable as the intended curriculum, the taught curriculum, and the learned curriculum. In addition, there is the hidden curriculum and the null curriculum to be considered. When talking curriculum change therefore, a starting point could be Eraut's (1976) model of curriculum design, which looks at the interrelations between aims, objectives, content, teaching/learning methods and materials, and assessment. This is useful for evaluating the extent to which the programme embodies a consistent and coherent curricular strategy.

The actual content of professional curricula, however, is a more complex matter than this model allows for, involving selection from a number of different areas, and a strategic balancing of different academic and practical components. Shulman (1987)'s categorisation of the 'knowledge base of teaching' for analysing some of the academic elements comes in handy. Skill development can take very different forms, and has to be studied both in college and in school. Finally, the theory-practice relationship is a key issue. As has already



been mentioned above, teacher preparation/development programme can only be understood in context, so it is of essence to look at its historical antecedents and identify some of the factors influencing its present form. The relationship of the teacher training colleges to the government on the one hand, and to the school system on the other, is also relevant. It is for this reason that one of the research questions for this research focuses on analysing the historical development of the curriculum in teacher education colleges in Swaziland. This analysis focused on the extent to which gender issues were included in the first and subsequent curricula and making a comparison with the current curriculum.

2.9.3.2 Some theories of teaching and learning at the teacher education level

Avalos (1991) posits that teacher education programmes, like other curricula, are built up around various theories of learning, though these are not always made explicit. Two broad perspectives can be usefully distinguished: The 'behavioural' and the 'constructivist'. The behavioural position considers that knowledge (learning) is acquired through carefully designed processes of communication (teaching) and that its success rests on the skills, competencies, or behaviours of the communicator (the teacher). While the opposite position (constructivism) "...considers that knowledge acquisition is *primordially an activity handled by the learner with little external guidance*" (Avalos, 1991:11). There are of course many intermediate positions where teachers and learners are seen to be contributing in different ways to the teaching/learning processes, which are here termed 'interactive' (Sutherland, 1992).

Avalos (1991:11) comments that: *'The dominant theory of teaching [in training colleges] in many developing countries is linked to the behavioural approach to*

learning.” However, under Northern/Western influence primary school curricula are being developed that require a more interactive or even constructivist approach. It would seem important that these changes should be reflected in the teacher education programmes and indeed, one can but agree that they should actually start there.

2.9.3.3 The role of the teacher/lecturer

Stuart and Kunje (2000:13) rightly comment that current discourse in teacher education in Anglophone countries of the North/West often makes a broad distinction between ‘teacher as technician’ and ‘teacher as reflective practitioner’. The technician is seen as having a restricted role, his/her job being to deliver the curriculum – which is prescribed at a higher level – as effectively as possible. On the other hand, the reflective practitioner is expected to play a more extended role that may include developing the curriculum to suit the context evaluating and trying to improve her own practice, and mentoring new teachers. They continue to argue that in the developing countries of sub-Saharan Africa today, the role of primary or secondary teachers is usually closer to that of the technician, for a variety of obvious reasons. However, the discourse of reflective practice is increasingly used in the context of reform, and if teachers are to be involved in school-based training, the teacher’s role must indeed expand. This is true of the pedagogy in Swaziland teacher education institutions. As will be elaborated in later sections, the technicist approach does not accommodate critical learning for the learner. It restricts the learner to receiving and recalling information given by the lecturer. The lecturer dominates the interaction between her/him and the learner.

2.9.3.4 The authoritarian versus the dialogic stance

Perhaps a more relevant distinction to be made in the African context is between the teacher as the unquestioned source of knowledge, and the teacher as co-enquirer. Concurring with Tabulawa (1997), this can be seen to have two aspects, epistemological and social. In traditional societies, knowledge was seen as something fixed, finite and to be handed down, rather than something to be explored, questioned and developed along new lines. The elders were respected because they had this knowledge, and could teach it to the young, whose role was to listen rather than ask questions.

Tabulawa (1997) argues that these deeply rooted cultural assumptions have contributed to the resistance to educational change in African classrooms, particularly where this involves the idea of teacher and learner entering into dialogue and pursuing enquiries together. This seems pertinent to teacher education, particularly if one accepts Schon (1983)'s dictum that the teacher's expertise lies less in routinely applying theoretical knowledge than in framing problems in new ways, carrying out experiments in action, and finding appropriate solutions in unique situations. New developments like the Constructivism approach to teaching challenges this routine of applying theoretical knowledge.

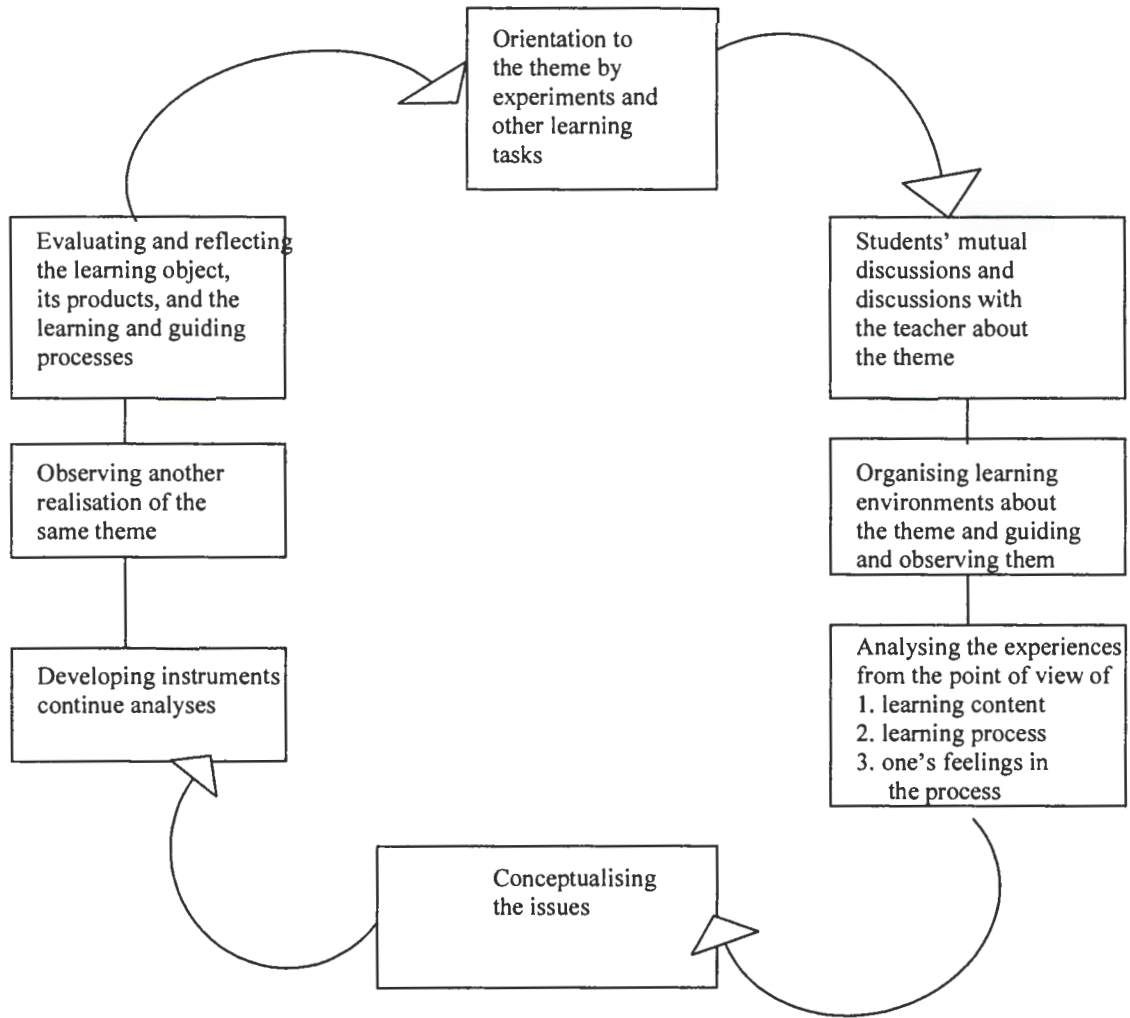
2.9.4 The self-reflexivity gender-based approach to implementing pedagogy in teacher education institutions

A gender-critical teacher education preserves the sense of organization. Elliot (1991:18) is of the opinion that for a teacher, a personal understanding and the

decisions derived from it are grounded in awareness of the self as an active agent in the situations to be understood, and therefore as one who is capable of influencing the lives of others. Equally, teacher educators who are gender-sensitive are such active agents. They are able to draw attention to the dissonance and conflicts between their own rhetoric and practice with respect to gender issues, and to offer a model of a way of knowing that they bring to bear on their own dilemmas, that is, where they offer exemplification of self-reflectivity, they contribute towards the possibility of change.

Explicit self-reflexivity of lecturers in teacher education contributes to students' capacity, in turn, to critique their own teachings selves, to have some knowledge of how such selves are constructed in the context of learning to teach and to recognise '*how the selves we produce constrain and open the possibilities of creative pedagogies*' (Britzman and Deborah, 1991:2). In this model, the teacher does not only become the supporter of students' study processes but involves in empowering them to strengthen their power over their studies and to strengthen their power to participate actively in decision-making concerning the contents of the studies, their evaluations and the ways of studying issues. Figure 1 shows an adapted version of the self-reflexivity model.

Figure 1: The widened model of experiential learning (self-reflexivity model).



Source: Adapted from Sunnari (1997:30).

The model indicates that students develop their reflective skills. It requires the teacher to not only use the concepts of *rule giving* and *control* but deliberately shifting the students' conscious attention to their emotions while trying to support the development of their reflective skills (Fonow and Cook 1991).

The following section presents two ideal gender-laden teacher education curriculum.

2.10 EXAMPLES OF ‘CURRICULA’ IN TEACHER EDUCATION

INSTITUTIONS: THE GENDER-LADEN CURRICULUM

Presented below is the curriculum conceptualised as subjects taught in the colleges of education. Two sampled gender-laden courses are presented as examples of how the curriculum in teacher education institutions can be constructed to be gender-sensitive. The curriculum, both formal and hidden, is critical in giving boys and girls a sense of their life chances. Much of the general literature has focused on female under-representation and performance particularly in maths and the physical sciences, the gap between school performance and work, and how the curriculum shapes these processes through subject content, physical provision, and the gendered construction of knowledge, classroom interaction, and appropriate assessment methods.

It is worth noting that in the two courses gender issues are addressed differently. The first course is designed specifically to address gender issues, while in the second course gender issues are addressed from within.

2.10.1 First Course

2.10.1.1 COURSE TITLE:

The Gender-Sensitive Curriculum

2.10.1.2 Course Description:

Analysis of gender stereotyping. Development of gender-sensitive curriculum and curricular materials. Critical inquiry into gender as a multicultural concept and the ways in which gender issues have an impact in schooling.

2.10.1.3 Course Objectives:

The student will:

1. Analyse and evaluate gender stereotypes and their possible influence on the construction of personal identity and societal role expectations
2. Analyse gender bias in educators' beliefs/behaviours, classroom interactions, and educational institutions
3. Construct gender sensitive curricular materials
4. Explain the interactions among gender, race/ethnicity, age, class, sex, religion, and disability

2.10.1.4 Subject Matter Content:

1. Male and female stereotypes across cultures
2. Gender issues across professions impacting schooling
3. Gendered curriculum: textbooks and trade books, teacher/student communication, disciplines and testing, technology
4. Alternative school structures (e.g., single-sex schools)
5. Historical overview (e.g., patriarchy, capitalism, domination)

2.10.2 Second Course

2.10.2.1 Course Title

Elementary School Curriculum

2.10.2.2 Course Description

Study of the elementary school curriculum, its relationship to society, and present practices in schools

2.10.2.3 Course Objectives

The student will:

1. Identify and examine basic components of curriculum construction and implementation
2. Compare and contrast current traditional and non-traditional curriculum models
3. Analyse elementary curriculum practices in relation to the following:
 - a. Social issues and trends
 - b. Inclusion
 - c. **Multicultural and gender-sensitive education.**
 - d. Educational policy
4. Evaluate elementary school curriculum guides.
5. Construct or revise part of an elementary school curriculum guide.

2.10.2.4 Subject Matter Content

1. Curriculum design, implementation and delivery strategies
2. Traditional and non-traditional curriculum models
3. Social and political impact on the design and delivery of curriculum
4. Elementary school curriculum guides

This researcher, basing on the above treatment of the subject of gender in the two subjects above, posits that Swaziland has not yet given gender issues in her teacher education curriculum a priority. This point is further developed in the next section where the researcher synthesises the implications of the research studies results reviewed to contextualise this study.

2.11 IMPLICATIONS OF REVIEWED RESEARCH RESULTS ON GENDER EQUALITY AND GENDER EQUITY FOR SWAZILAND TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGES

Various research studies have been used mainly to make a critical evaluation of benefits and challenges of a gender sensitive curriculum in initial teacher education. This has enabled the researcher to present a theoretical framework upon which colleges of education in Swaziland need to base their understanding of what to do and expect to gain. As Fullan (1982:98) argues: *‘An innovation cannot be sustained unless there is a shared understanding of its purpose, rationale, and process.’*



The reviewed literature's implications for Swaziland colleges of education helped in exploring some connections between the politics of gender and teacher education curriculum and pedagogy internationally. The studies reviewed used ethnography, career histories, and document analysis and survey questionnaire to examine the interaction between gender, curriculum, and pedagogy. Of interest in these studies is the focus on gender dimensions within the context of the formal and hidden curricula of teacher education institutions, and lecturers' conceptions of curriculum knowledge interaction with their gender-based perceptions. It is the focus of this study to find out if there has been any attempt to innovate the curriculum in colleges of education to be gender sensitive.

The following synthesised conclusions based on the various research findings revealed that messages regarding gender issues that student teachers are receiving from lecturers are at times contradictory, complex, and gender-bias. The findings indicate that in teacher education institutions' classrooms, interactions between students and lecturers are gendered. The findings demonstrate that gender inequalities in the curriculum and pedagogy have local and global dimensions. Global gender inequalities in the curriculum prevail across national frontiers; a worldwide sexual division of labour forms the boundaries. The broad patterns of gender based injustices that occur but take a different form at the micro-level in local educational institutions such as schools and colleges.

As has been observed in reviewed researches, curriculum texts and course outlines depict masculine narratives and discourses of male knowledge.

Although women are not completely invisible in curriculum texts, their visibility, and narratives are confined to their role as appendages of men. The classification of disciplines according to their importance to the state and society is contributing to gender stratification because the male students dominate the high status disciplines and female students are marginalised in low status disciplines.

2.12 SYNTHESIS OF THE CHAPTER

In this chapter, the introduction highlighted international issues surrounding teacher education. The emphasis was on the near invisibility of teacher education that has led to issues like gender being left unattended and understudied. The section also conceptualised gender equity and gender equality. This helped during fieldwork and data discussion in identifying and analysing gender inequity and gender inequality issues arising from the curriculum of teacher education institutions in Swaziland.

A brief highlight of gender issues were presented as a background to gender issues under investigation in Swaziland's teacher training colleges. In addition, gender theories underpinning the construction of gender differentials in teacher education institutions were discussed.

This was followed by a brief discussion of studies that investigated institutional gender construction of girls, followed by a brief highlight of studies that have investigated the nature of gendered structures and pedagogical processes in teacher education institutions. Principles underpinning a more gender-sensitive curriculum in teacher education were briefly highlighted. Also presented were

analytical approaches that need to be considered and utilised to analyse and address challenges arising from the curriculum attaining in the colleges. Chapter 3 outlines the research design, methods for collecting data, research instruments, procedures, and data analysis procedures.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes firstly, the research design. It provides a justification for its choice. Secondly, it outlines the methods to be used, highlighting their suitability and limitations with explanations on how limitations were overcome. Thirdly, it discusses instruments used and how they were constructed and tested for reliability and validity. Fourthly, it explains the sample and sampling procedures and fifthly, it provides an attempt to explain the structure of data collection, how and when the data was collected and analysed.

3.2 THE RESEARCH DESIGN

There are two perspectives of interpreting social reality, namely, the qualitative and the quantitative. When analysing the assumptions of these two types of enquiry, one realizes that they have a direct implication for the methodological concern of researchers. They present complementing ontologies, epistemologies and models of human beings, which, in turn, demand more than one research methods to complement each other (Cohen and Manion, 1995; Bailey, 1982). According to Blaxter, Hughes, and Tight (2001:65) while quantitative research may be mostly used for testing theory, it can also be used for testing hypothesis and theories, even though it is mostly used for theory generalisations. Quantitative data often include quantification, for instance statements such as more than, less than, most, as well as specific numbers. Quantitative approaches

can collect qualitative data through open-ended questions. The following section explains the research design where these two perspectives of interpreting social reality are discussed.

The research approach used for this study lends itself mainly to a qualitative inquiry through an interpretative framework although the quantitative inquiry will also help in collecting and interpreting specific data.

3.2.1 The qualitative paradigm

The qualitative approach also known as ‘naturalistic inquiry’ is often associated with research that is carried out in an interpretive framework (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992). According to Sherman and Webb (1994), human behaviour is shaped in context and therefore events cannot be understood adequately if they are isolated from their contexts. The approach looks for culturally derived and historically situated interpretations of the social life-world. Interpretivism is often linked to the thought of Max Weber (1864 – 1920) who suggests that in the human sciences we are concerned with understanding in comparison to explaining process rather than ‘facts’. Interpretivism has many variants, for example, hermeneutics, phenomenology, and symbolic interactionism. The approach is characterised by ‘a concern for the individual’ (Cohen and Manion, 2001:22).

The fundamental concern of this approach is to be aware of the subjective world of human experience as the interpretive approach recognises that some aspects of knowledge are ‘socially construed’. This epistemological directness allows for a wider exploration of human perceptions and sensitivity to other

people's viewpoints. The object and aims of those studied are given high priority. The researcher is encouraged to respect the nature of the social world, and endeavour at all times, to '*be true to the phenomenon under study*' (Clarke and Dawson, 1999:57). Cohen and Manion (2001:23) argue that in order to retain the integrity of the phenomenon being investigated efforts are made to get inside the person and understand him/her from within.

The qualitative research design allows the researcher to observe human behaviour in its natural settings to study the social setting '*to understand the meaning of participants' lives in the participants' own terms*' (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994:209). The participants are given an opportunity to speak for themselves, and as Ellen (1984) explains, studying social interactions in natural surroundings leads to discovery of the social meanings that interaction has on participants. Brown and Dowling (1998) in support of this paradigm argue that the perspectives of participants are developed through an interactive process. The way participants construct their perceptions remains a dominant feature of the qualitative approach.

To understand perceptions of student teachers and lecturers on gender issues and on how the curriculum can promote gender sensitivity, the researcher used interpretive approach since it permits probing and depth of understanding. The qualitative inquiry allows for the optimum exploration of the participants' attitudes and feelings. As Cohen and Manion (2000) declare, qualitative inquiry seeks insight into human experience thus limiting the role of factual data about human beings. Through this approach, an experience is taken and studied as a whole, holistically attending to all features of experience. This holistic

understanding of an experience requires the researcher to be aware of the boundaries of the experience studied.

Qualitative researchers utilise smaller samples that allow in depth study of the phenomenon, a feature, which is perceived by those, opposed to this methodology as a shortcoming. They argue that it is a limitation since it is not possible to generalise from such small sample. Its strength lies in that data collected is analysed and reported rather than placing a lot of emphasis on measurement as is with a quantitative approach. It is also criticised what Bernstein (1983:57) calls '*the overriding concern of phenomenologists and ethno-methodologists with the meanings of situations and the ways in which these meanings are negotiated by the actors involved*'. He continues to point out that "*what is overlooked about these negotiated meanings is that they presuppose a structure of meanings (and their history) wider than the area of negotiation. Situated activities presuppose a situation; they presuppose relationships between situations; they presuppose sets of situations.*"

The point in this argument is that the very process whereby one interprets and defines a situation is itself a product of the circumstances in which one is placed. And one important sector in such circumstances that must be considered is the power of others to impose their own definitions of situations upon participants. In this study, the use of the power sensibility tool ensured that the relationship between the researcher and the researched should not be oppressive, nor objectify the researched (Oakley, 1990:19). A questionnaire was used which helped in avoiding direct contact between the researcher and the researched.

In summary, the qualitative paradigm has the following key features, which were utilised in this study:

- Using natural setting as the direct source of data and the researcher is the key instrument
- Being descriptive. The data collected are in the form of words or pictures rather than numbers
- Qualitative researchers are concerned with process rather than simply with outcomes or products
- Qualitative researchers tend to analyse data inductively
- Meaning is of essential concern to the qualitative approach (Bogdan and Biklen, 1992:32).

These positive key qualities of the qualitative study design were used to capture the experiences of participants.

3.2.2 The quantitative paradigm

The development of qualitative research methods should be understood against the on going debate between ‘positivism’, and ‘naturalism’. Positivist forms of enquiry collect facts and study the relationship of one set of facts to another. It is also defined as a numerical method of describing observation of material and characteristics and results are in quantifiable measurements.

Cohen and Manion (2001) hold the view that knowledge in the social world is hard, objective and tangible where the researcher is perceived as playing an observer role. It contains two foremost orienting ideas: Firstly, that human

behaviour is essentially ruled and governed; secondly, that human behaviour can only be investigated by the methods of natural sciences. This paradigm therefore holds that reality is fixed and that knowledge consists of explanations and predictions. It argues that the goal of research should be verification of outcomes (LeCompte and Preissle, 1993:46). Cohen and Manion (2001:23) posit that this paradigm is driven by the different conceptions of theory and believes that the behaviour of the observed depends on external stimuli.

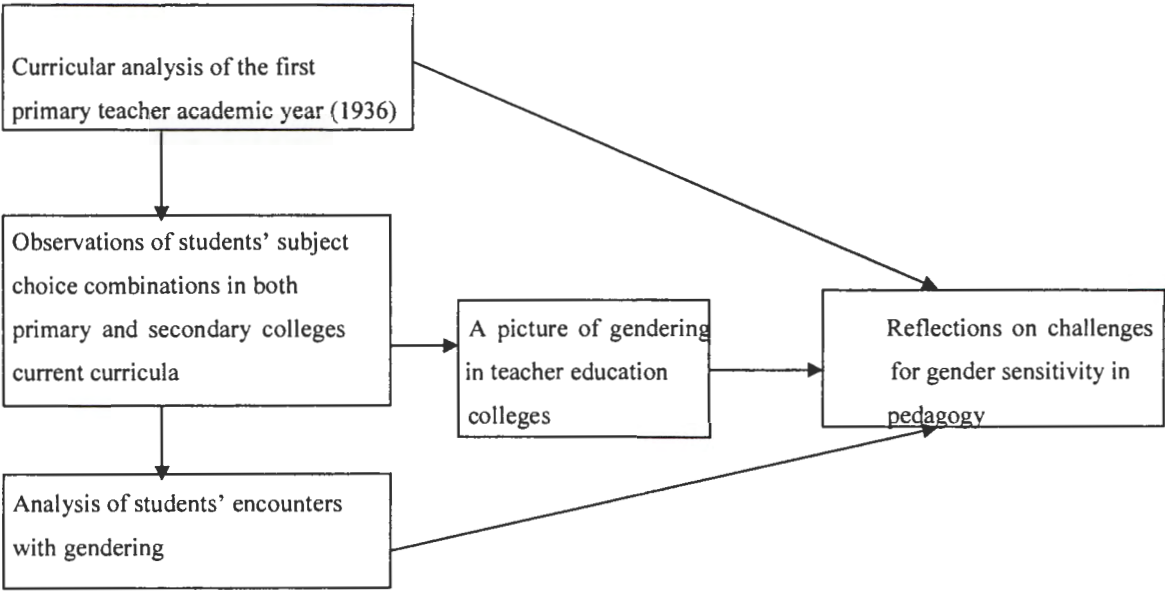
The quantitative paradigm has its limitations. According to Brown and Dowling (1998), the quantitative approach holds that events of research may be deliberately constructed. According to these authors, this is an imposition of a particular bias on the world. This research paradigm is often criticised for making claims about events that occur in natural settings when its methods of collecting data are set up or structured (Macmillan and Schumacher, 1989). It is also criticised as impersonal and that it often fails to address participants' concerns (Creswell, 1998). Supporters of the 'naturalist' paradigm argue that the quantitative approach is not suitable for studying all human behaviour. This is an inadequate approach to adopt if one wants to understand the process of constructing beliefs, values and meanings that people engage in.

Both paradigms were useful in this study. The premise is that both approaches are concerned about social action and its patterns, subjective experiences, conditions influencing action and experience (LeCompte and Preissle, 1993). Pragmatists argue that a false dichotomy has been created between these two approaches. One can but concur with them when they point out that researchers must make the most efficient use of both paradigms in understanding social

phenomena (Creswell, 1994). In fact, as Sherman and Webb (1994:11) say, “different modes of qualitative and quantitative inquiry can be used in the same research study since a phenomenon may require a more comprehensive perspective in which the considerations that qualitative researchers raise that of intent and worth... are as much a part of the discussions as are measurement and analysis.”

This indicates that both paradigms are used to complement each other effectively as was the case in this research. Figure 2 shows the design model of the study as will be elaborated upon elsewhere in the report:

Figure 2: The design model of the study



Source: Adapted from Sunnari (1997:35)

3.3 RESEARCH METHODS

This study intended to go beyond the formal neutrality on gender issues to interpreting the phenomenon of gender and the challenges originating from it. Sources of its methodological choices on collecting and analysing data were the activity-theoretical approach towards human beings and the feminist orientation towards research.

3.3.1 The activity-theoretical source

The choice for this method is based on the understanding that it is not only biology that determines human growth and personality, nor the external contexts of people (Sunnari, 1997). These are both present in human development but there is a link to unite them. Human beings have active relations towards the ideal and material world and towards themselves as part of that world. These relations are presumably ‘culturally, historically and situation-specifically mediated, systemic and non-dyadic entities’ (Sunnari, 1997:5). As the author above argues, one can also assume that human life and its different manifestations are characterised by ‘movement and change and at the same time by the phenomena of constancy and encapsulation’ (Miettinen, 1993 in Sunnari 1997:5)

3.3.2 The Feminist synthesis orientation source

In correspondence with the feminist orientation research approach, the current synthesis step of women research was used because it considers gender an issue that is involved in societal existence and also in the personal lives and the mutual relations of men and women. It is characterised by a view of ‘*relational*

approaches to the questions of gender and sex...It views women as both subjects and subordinated' (Saarinen, 1992:127). In addition, as this author argues, it tries to penetrate beyond the one-dimensional dichotomy of viewing the man as subjecting and the woman as being subjected in society. It poses the question of how gendering human relations based on asymmetrical power relationships restrict the life and subjective world of the different parties of the relations.

Analysis of gender in this study was based on the assumption of it being a systematic phenomenon. Tools used were the phenomena of building, maintaining and rebuilding differences and divisions and their symbolic meanings. For the qualitative perspective then, tools included the action orientation approach popular with feminist researchers (Acker, 1990; Olsen, 1994), the reflectivity (Acker, et. al., 1991; Harding, 1992), shifting attention to emotions (Fonow and Cook, 1991; Olsen, 1994), power sensibility (Fonow and Cook, 1991; Olsen, 1994), the use of individual and social histories (Acker et al., 1991), and changing of the status quo (Mies, 1994). These tools are widely used in qualitative research (Kemmis, 1988).

The action orientation allows for a critical re-examination and reformulations of the action agenda (Acker, Barry and Esseveld, 1991), which involve discussions of sensitivity of political, and policy issues and the critical analysis of experience. Reflectivity can be defined as a tendency to reflect upon, examine critically, and explore analytically the research process with its varied components. It is also used to gain insight into the assumptions about gender relations underlying the conditions and process of research. Cohen and Manion (2001:25) defines reflectivity as *"the way in which all accounts of social*

settings –descriptions, analysis, criticisms- and the social settings occasioning them are mutually interdependent”. Reflexivity is used with another notion called indexicality which Cohen and Manion (2001:25) defines as *“the ways that actions and statements are related to the social contexts producing them; and to the way their meanings are shared by the participants but not necessarily stated explicitly.”*

Indexical expressions are thus the designations imputed to a particular social occasion by the participants in order to locate the event in the sphere of reality. The power sensibility tool refers to the question of power as related to such matters as the methods of acquiring knowledge and the relationship between the researcher and the researched. The premise is that the relationship between the researcher and the researched should not be oppressive, nor objectify the researched (Oakley, 1990). Although this cannot be completely eliminated, an attempt shall be made to take the questions seriously and consciously minimise the power differentials in the research relationships.

In summary, the study methods were underpinned by the following presuppositions: The central position of action in human learning; the mediatedness between people and the world influencing the ways in which people understand and interpret each other and the phenomena around themselves; movement and change and a tendency of encapsulation; gender issues seen as a component present in every social order, and also the subjectivity of human beings in experiencing the world and themselves and in making interpretations and discussing them (Sunnari, 1997).

The method that was applied for collecting and analysing data therefore was that of a descriptive research. This has been a popular methodological approach in projects where the central goal has been to develop gender-sensitive and equity promoting pedagogical theories and practices (Maguire and Weiner, 1996).

3.4 CHOICE OF RESEARCH AREA

There are three colleges of education in Swaziland. These are the Nazarene Primary College, the Ngwane Primary College, and the William Pitcher Secondary College. There are other teacher training institutions like the University of Swaziland that train teachers for high school level and the Swaziland College of Technology, which trains teachers in technical subjects for all levels of education.

Map 2 is a map of Swaziland showing the geographical distribution of these teacher-training institutions:

- S1** William Pitcher Secondary Teacher Training College is situated in Manzini and caters for secondary school teacher
- P2** Manzini Nazarene Primary College is also situated in Manzini. It caters for primary school teachers
- P3** Ngwane Primary Teacher Training College is situated in Nhlangano. It is a primary teachers' college
- H4** University of Swaziland is situated in Matsapha. It caters for both secondary and high school teachers.

- T5** Swaziland College of Technology is situated in Mbabane. It caters teachers for all levels of education in technical subjects.

Map 2: A map of Swaziland indicating the distribution of teacher training institutions. (2005)



Map Key:

- | | |
|---|--|
| S1 William Pitcher College | P2 Manzini Nazarene Primary College |
| P3 Ngwane Primary College | H4 University of Swaziland |
| T5 Swaziland College of Technology | |

The study focused on two colleges of education, the Manzini Nazarene Primary Teacher Training College and William Pitcher Secondary Teacher Training College.

3.5 POPULATION DESCRIPTION

The population used in any study is dictated by the nature of the approach adopted for the study. Population in this research is presented as a defined universe. It is all the members of a group from whom a smaller number is drawn for study purposes. Travers (1978) points out that in testing any hypothesis (or assumptions in the case of this study) by statistical means, an assumption is made that the observation recorded represents a sample drawn from a defined universe by methods that do not involve bias. The student teacher population was from colleges of education. Table 3 indicates the total enrolment figures by gender in the three teacher education colleges.

Table 3: Pre-service teachers enrolment in three teacher-training colleges (2007)

College	Student Population		
	Male	Female	Total
William Pitcher College	123	219	342
Nazarene College	128	146	274
Ngwane College	114	120	234
Total:	365	485	850

Table 4 and Table 5 indicate enrolment figures at WPC and Nazarene colleges by level and gender for the year 2007:

Table 4: Pre-service students enrolment by level and gender (William Pitcher College)

Year Group	Male	Female	Total
Year 1	45	68	113
Year 2	46	83	129
Year 3	32	68	100
Total:	123	219	342

Source: Students' Records (2007) WPC

Table 5: Pre-service students enrolment by level and gender (Nazarene College)

Year Group	Male	Female	Total
Year 1	28	64	92
Year 2	38	48	86
Year 3	44	52	96
Total:	110	164	274

Source: Deputy Principal's Office: Students Records (2005) Nazarene College

3.5.1 3rd Year Students

The first target group in this study consisted of completing student teachers (3rd Year Students) from the two colleges. The sample consisted of both male and female students. The choice for this group was because these students had gone through the pre-service programme, both the theoretical and practical aspect.

Although their colleges differ according to educational level focus, for instance a primary college and a secondary college, the training of teachers follow the same pattern. They are all exposed to foundation courses and the same teaching subjects. The only difference is in the arrangement of the course outlines done by the different lecturers handling the different courses. This therefore means that the students are exposed to the same theories and knowledge. They have experienced the real classroom experiences during their practice teaching. Largely, these students have encountered gender and sex-related equality issues in their different contexts.

3.5.2 College lecturers

The second target group were college lecturers. These included college Principals, Heads of Departments and subject lecturers, both male and female. Table 6 and Table 7 show staffing at the two colleges used in this study:

Table 6: Staffing at the Nazarene Primary College according to subjects offered and by gender (2007)

Subjects	Males	Females	Total
Art and Craft	1	0	1
Communication & Study skills	1	1	2
Education	1	1	2
Maths	1	0	1
Science	1	1	2
Music	1	0	1
Physical Education	1	0	1
Agriculture	1	0	1
Home Economics	0	2	2
Teaching Practice	0	2	2
English	1	2	3
SiSwati	0	2	2
Social Studies	1	1	2
Religious Education	0	2	2
Totals:	10	14	24

Source: Manzini Nazarene College of Education – Prospectus 2005

Table 7: Staffing at William Pitcher Secondary College of Education according to subjects offered and by gender

Subjects	Male	Female	Total
Art	1	0	1
Communication & Study skills	1	2	3
Education	1	2	3
Maths	2	1	3
Science	1	2	3
Music	0	1	1
Teaching Practice	0	2	2
Computer Education	1	0	1
English	1	2	3
SiSwati	0	3	3
Social Studies	2	1	3
Religious Education	0	1	1
Totals:	10	17	27

Source: William Pitcher College of Education – Prospectus 2007

This group was targeted because of its critical characteristics like the nature of training, qualifications, teaching task, and gender. Lecturers shape teacher education to be what it is today. Their perceptions, socialisation, and backgrounds are transferred to the novice teachers who in turn transfer them to the child in the classroom.

3.5.3 The Chief Inspector of colleges of education

The last target was the chief inspector in charge of teacher education in the country. This individual is an embodiment of the Ministry of Education. As a mouthpiece of the ministry, he is the custodian of policies governing the programme. His perceptions echo what the ministry perceives to be right or wrong, or what needs to be done or not done.

3.6 SAMPLE SIZE AND SAMPLING PROCEDURES

The sampling procedure used for sampling the population in this study was the stratified random sampling wherein the selection was in such a way that sub-groups in the population based on gender are represented in the sample in the same proportion that they exist in the population. According to Travers (1978), the simple method of obtaining a sample from a population is that of obtaining a random sample, which is a sample in which every sector of the population has an equal chance of being selected.

The research sample composed of seventy-eight 3rd Year student teachers, thirty-six college lecturers, and one chief inspector of colleges of education.

3.6.1 Student teacher sample from Manzini Nazarene College of Education

There are ninety-six Third Year students composed of fifty-two (52) females accounting for 54% of the total population and forty-four (44) males accounting for 46% of the total population. The sample breakdown was as follows:

❖ Thirty-nine student teachers

- a) Eighteen (18) (41%) male students from a total population of forty-four male students. B) Twenty-one (21) out of a total of fifty-two (52) female students.

Table 8 is a summary of the sample.

Table 8: Summary of the student sample population from the Nazarene College

Gender	Total Population	Sample Population
Male	44	18 (41%)
Female	52	21 (41%)
Total:	96	39 (41%)

3.6.2 Students teacher sample from William Pitcher College of Education

There are one hundred (100) Third Year students composed of fifty-one (51) females (51%) of the total population and forty-four (49) males (49%) of the total population.

❖ Thirty-nine students

- a) Nineteen (19) (39%) were sampled from a total of forty-nine (49) students.
b) Twenty (20) (41%) female students out of a total of fifty-one (51) female students.

The total sample was 39 (41%) students as Table 9 summarises the sample.

Table 9: Summary of the sample population from the William Pitcher College

Gender	Total Population	Sample Population
Male	49	19 (39%)
Female	51	20 (41%)
Total	100	39 (39%)

3.6.3 Sample population of lecturers

❖ Thirty-eight lecturers

a) Twelve Heads of Departments were selected, i.e. $(1 \times 6 \times 2 = 12)$.

b) twenty-four subject lecturers were selected using the snowball sampling procedure, wherein the Heads of Departments identified two subject lecturers (preferably one male and one female) from each subject department where applicable, i.e. $(1 \times 12 \times 2 = 24)$

The overall intended sample of lecturers inclusive of both Heads of Departments and the two Principals came up to thirty-eight. Table 10 presents a summary of the sample.

Table 10: Summary sample for teacher education personnel

Colleges	Total	Sample %
William Pitcher:		
Lecturers	27	12 (44)
HoDs	06	06 (100)
Principal	01	01 (100)
Total:	33	19 (58)
Manzini Nazarene:		
Lecturers	24	12 (50)
HoDs	06	06 (100)
Principal	01	01 (100)
Total:	31	19 (61)
Department of Colleges:		
Chief Inspector	01	01 (100)

3.6.4 The Senior Inspector, Colleges of Education

The Senior Inspector of Colleges of Education responded to an open interview.

3.6.5 Key materials

These included the following documents from the colleges of education and the Department of Tertiary Education:

- Ministry of Education Policy documents from the Teacher Training Department that established teacher education

- The first (1932 and 1953) and contemporary academic curriculum of 1986 and 1988) respectively.
- The subject course outlines
- College manuals and prospectus documents containing the philosophy and structures of these institutions

3.7 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS AND PROCEDURES

A range of both qualitative and quantitative instruments of collecting data was used in this study. The instruments included an interview schedule, a questionnaire, and document analysis.

The basic expectation in this study was for the structures and processes in colleges of education to complement each other in making up a picture of the gender system. In collecting data therefore, the focus of the study was on the policy documents that established teacher education and those currently used to 'run' these institutions, and the subsequent academic curriculum attaining in them.

Focusing on the processual perspective, the first criterion was to analyse the effects of the two main tasks of the colleges of education as public educational institutions: reproduction and production of qualities and socialisation of people in society (Sunnari, 1997). This involved interviewing lecturers to solicit their perceptions on pedagogy in colleges of education. It also involved analysing curriculum materials used.

The second criterion was to try to develop some insight into the world of student teachers and into their ways of seeing the gender issues.

This was attained firstly, through analysing student teachers' major/minor subject choices, and secondly, through analysis of student teachers' responses to a questionnaire about their encounters with gender and sex-related issues in the classroom.

3.7.1 The interview schedule

An interview schedule for lecturers in colleges of education was designed to triangulate the questionnaire. The interview is an important source of collecting data in qualitative research. It is easy to learn from participants. Interviews are generally supposed to provide researchers with information about participants' ideals and preferences, their beliefs and attitudes. They are important tools for a researcher to check the correctness of the impressions gained through other methods such as observations. Most authors agree that interviews are conducted to find out things that cannot be seen or heard such as the interviewees' inner state, the reasoning behind their actions and feelings. During the interview participants are made to reveal their inner thought processes. They further suggest that as interviews are conducted, the researcher notes what is being omitted so as to pick up any gaps and hesitations that occur during the interview (Oppenheimer, 1992: 67; Descombe, 1998:202).

Cohen and Manion (2001:268) highlight the following as purposes of an interview in a research:

- It may be used as the principal means of gathering information having direct impact on the research objectives



- It may be used to *'follow unexpected results, to validate other methods, to go deeper into motivations of respondents and their reasons for responding the way they do'* (Cohen and Manion, 2001: 268).

The purpose of the interview approach in this study was to understand the underlying socialisation gendered traits individuals have and their impact on their outlook, beliefs and formed opinions about gender issues. If openness between the researcher and respondents is successfully developed, the researcher will get access to interviewees' perspectives.

The researcher used a standardised open-ended interview, asking predetermined questions and explaining any misunderstandings experienced by the interviewees. As Cohen and Manion (1989) posit, the more structured specific questions facilitate the collection of the most appropriate information. The response made by the respondents is compared and put in the context of common group beliefs and themes. Further, open-ended questions *'allows the interviewer to probe, so that they may go into more depth if he chooses or clear up any misunderstandings'* (Cohen and Manion, 1989:313). One weakness of this method is subjectivity and bias on the part of the interviewer (Cohen and Manion, 2000:273).

On a critical note, one concurs with Wainwright (1997) who points out that not all critical ethnographers would agree with the definition of social critique, although, most would presumably agree that critical ethnography entails synthesising the subjective testimony of informants with a broader historical and structural analysis. However, this synthesis of the insights that traditional ethnography provides into the subjective experience of everyday life, with the

historical and structural insights offered by social critique, is by no means easy to maintain. It is mainly so because it entails combining two quite separate and possibly incompatible formulations of validity. The possibility always remains that the analysis will slide into either a top-down deductive approach in which a pre-existing theory is simply legitimated by the selective and biased use of ethnographic data, or else into a superficial and particularistic account of the views of respondents.

Giving explanatory primacy to the testimony of informants would appear to undermine the validity of social critique by contravening the injunction to look beneath the surface of everyday appearances at all times; whilst a broader historical and structural analysis might contradict the traditional ethnographer's claim that valid research does not impose a priori theoretical constructs.

The solution to this dilemma lies in ensuring that the analysis is informed by both strands of inquiry, for example, that issues emerging from participant observation or qualitative data can be placed in an historical and structural context, and that problems identified in the academic literature can influence the direction of the qualitative study. As such, critical qualitative research entails a constant inter-weaving of inductive and deductive logic. The researcher does not set out to test a pre-conceived hypothesis, neither does he adopt an entirely open-ended approach, instead the researcher begins by observing the field of study, both as a participant observer and as a reviewer of academic literature. From the synthesis of these sources, a research agenda emerges that can be pursued by a mixture of observation and theoretical work.

The key to managing this unstable dialectical relationship between ethnographic observation and social critique is to re-conceptualise validity in terms of reflexive practice. Reflexivity refers to the researcher's conscious self-understanding of the research process (Hammersly and Atkinson, 1983), or more specifically, to a sceptical approach to the testimony of respondents and to the development of theoretical schema. The purpose of reflexivity is not to produce an objective or value-free account of the phenomenon, because qualitative research of this kind does not yield standardised results.

This reflexive management of the research process in the pursuit of validity applies to each stage of the research process, from establishing relations in the field to writing up the conclusions. Rather than presenting taxonomy of qualitative techniques, participant observation and in-depth interviewing are presented as the main exemplars of the ethnographic approach (Wainwright, 1977).

3.7.2 The questionnaire

3.7.2.1 Advantages of using a questionnaire in this study

For purposes of this study a questionnaire was designed to have both open and closed ended items for student teachers. As Rosier (1990) argues, this exercise can be trusted to measure the study's variables. According to Oppenheimer (1992) cited in Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000:247) closed questions can generate frequencies of response amenable to statistical treatment and analysis while open-ended questions allow the respondents to express their opinions on issues. Supporting this point is Wilson and MacLean (1994:165), who point out that open-ended questions evoke a fuller and richer response. They go beyond

statistical data into the area of hidden motives that lie behind attitudes, interests, preferences, and decisions.

3.7.2.2 Disadvantages and ethical considerations in using questionnaire in this study

There are ethical considerations that were taken when using the questionnaire instrument in this study. It is acknowledged that a questionnaire is intrusive in the life of the respondent. The participant is expected to sacrifice his/her valuable time to complete it. A questionnaire requires private and personal information about the respondent (Cohen and Manion, 2000:26).

3.7.2.3 How the disadvantages were overcome in this study

Due to the sensitive nature of data drawn from the questionnaires, participants' consent to participate in the questionnaire's completion was sought. Although the respondents were encouraged to complete all parts of the questionnaire, they were advised to leave out any item that they felt uncomfortable to attempt. The completion of questions was not very time consuming since they were few qualitative open-ended questions. The researcher personally handed out the questionnaires to student teachers and therefore they were able to seek clarification. In addition, all the respondents answered the same set of questions.

3.7.2.4 The questionnaire validation and reliability testing

The questionnaire was submitted to the two promoters of this study to check for face validity and content validity, clarity and relevance to the purposes of the study. Based on their comments and the pilot test results for reliability,

modifications were made accordingly. This is important because, as Cohen, et. al. (2000:130-132) state, through trial testing content validity, which is the adequate representative coverage of test objectives in the test item is tested. Criterion-related validity, which is where a high correlation exists between the scores on the test and the scores on other accepted tests of the same performance, is also tested. The construct, which is the clear relatedness of a test item to its proposed construct/unobservable quality or trait, demonstrated by both empirical data and logical analysis and debate is established. Finally, concurrent validity, which is where the results of a test concur with the results on other tests or instruments that are testing/assessing the same construct or performance similar to predictive validity but without the time dimension of the instruments, is also tested.

The questionnaire instrument was piloted at the University of Swaziland's Faculty of Education. The test was intended to reveal flaws in the instruments. The Cronbach's coefficient Alpha test was used. Literature underscore the importance of reliability testing asserting that it reflects the extent to which the instrument is free of error variance (Rosier, 1990). The standard error of measurement obtained during a reliability test allows the researcher to estimate the range within which the individual's score falls. Calculations of the reliability index gave a reliability coefficient alpha of .74 in determining the clarity, readability, and precision of expression. This rendered the instrument reliable and therefore findings could be generalisable.

3.7.2.5 Categories of the questionnaire

The questionnaire had the following sections:

- **Section A** (Independent Variables): This section was used to seek information on the respondent's personal background. Variables considered included bio data such as gender, age, marital status, and teaching subjects.
- **Section B** (student teacher's encounters with gendered situations during their teaching practice and their perceptions of a gendered curriculum): This section sought information from students on how they understand the concept of a gendered curriculum and their attitudes and beliefs towards this form of a curriculum. It documented their encounters with gendered sex-related issues.

3.7.3 Document analysis

The researcher did a critical analysis of documents relevant to the study. The use of documents and other written materials offer useful support to observation and interview methods. Document analysis is a non-interactive, indirect, and obstructive measure that is commonly referred to as content analysis. The data contained in documents are in a permanent form and can be subjected to re-analyses. Document analysis allows the reliability checks and replications of studies. Written or printed materials stand in for researchers in places and at times, they find it difficult or impossible to be present personally. Document analysis allows the researcher to gather data through interviews and observations may not have captured. Documents can help reconstruct events. Since this is an educational research, policy documents, curriculum documents, syllabi and other relevant documents were used as sources of data.

When documentary analysis is used, one has to be aware that the documents might be partial or limited since they were written for different purposes. It is important to guard against any form of bias and distortion that may result from

the use of such documents. Descombe (1998:170) cautions, “*Documents can owe more to the interpretations of those who produce them than to an objective picture of reality.*”

For this study, document analysis was useful, as it provided insight into the extent to which gender issues were addressed in the first curriculum and policy documents that established teacher education in Swaziland. The current curriculum and subjects syllabi also provided the state of the art at present with regard to gender. These documents indicated areas of enquiry.

3.7.4 Data triangulation

Triangulation is the use of multiple data collection methods, sources or theories in a study. Multiple observers, theoretical perspectives, sources of data and methodologies are combined in this approach. This concept is based on the assumption that any bias inherent in any one data source, investigator, and method would be minimised when used with more than one data sources, investigators, or methods (Creswell, 1994:39). Triangulation was suited for use in this study since both qualitative and quantitative approaches allow for many kinds of sources of obtaining data that can be further used to crosscheck data gathered. It is assumed through triangulation the reliability of the findings will be increased. For this study therefore, the questionnaire and interviews were used as a pair. These approaches when used together to investigate the same issues helped to cross check findings and ensures reliability. As Coffey and Atkinson (1996:14) is of the opinion that, “... *the more we examine our data from different viewpoints, the more we may reveal or indeed construct their complexities.*” That sums up well the importance of triangulation.

3.8 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Raw data seldom provide a direct answer to a research question or a direct test of a hypothesis. Such answers emerge only when the data are organised, the patterns that exist within them are identified, and the meaningfulness and significance of those patterns are assessed (Cohen et. al., 2000:298). For this study therefore, data collected through the questionnaire, interviews and document analysis was subjected to both qualitative and quantitative analysis. Data collected through the questionnaire were analysed descriptively using frequency tables, percentages and analysis to help elicit: the degree to which the curriculum in colleges of education addresses gender equality and gender equity and sex-related issues; and the degree to which lectures sensitise student teachers towards gender issues. The qualitative data given in the interview were analysed through making inferences and interpretations of statements made, and summarised as opinions and suggestions where applicable. Below is an analysis framework:

Table 11: Qualitative and quantitative analysis of the data in relation to the research questions

Research questions	Types of items	Means of data collection	Analysis	
			Qualitative	Quantitative
1.To what extent were gender issues included in the first curriculum in Swaziland's colleges of education?		Document analysis	Interpretative implications	
2. To what extent are gender issues included in the current curriculum in Swaziland's colleges of education?		Document analysis	Interpretative implications	
3. What challenges do those who implement the curriculum in teacher education institutions experience during the implementation process with regard to gender?	Closed and Open ended questions	Interview	Interpretative implications	Frequency
4. What factors are associated with the implementation of a gender-sensitive curriculum in colleges of education?	Open and closed ended questions	Questionnaire, Interview	Interpretative implications	Frequency

3.9 CHAPTER SYNTHESIS

This chapter has described; the design, methods and instruments used for data collection, the population and procedures for selecting the sample population and for collecting data, and described methods for data analysis. Chapter four deals with the data analysis and interpretation.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents data analysis and interpretation. The main purpose of the investigation was to explore the extent to which teacher education colleges in Swaziland prepare pre-service teachers to become gender sensitive. The following research questions were addressed through the data:

- a) To what extent were gender equality issues included in the first curriculum in teacher training colleges in Swaziland?
- b) To what extent are gender equality issues included in the current curriculum in Swaziland's colleges of education?
- c) What gender equality related challenges do those who implement the curriculum in teacher training colleges in Swaziland experience during the implementation process?
- d) What factors are associated with effective implementation of a gender-laden curriculum in teacher training colleges in Swaziland?

To answer these questions the following instruments were used to collect data:

- a) Policy and official documents from teacher training colleges that helped to trace the historical development of teacher education in Swaziland with respect to gender.

- b) A questionnaire for student teachers through which the researcher determined if these students are sensitised to gender issues
- c) An interview schedule for lecturers in colleges of education and the Chief Inspector of Colleges of Education through which the researcher ascertained views and perceptions of the implementers of the curriculum on a gender-laden curriculum.

The researcher dealt with the data obtained from student teachers and the lecturers and Chief Inspector of colleges separately. The data from college lecturers, college principals and Heads of Departments was combined and analysed according to the six categories presented in Table 24. Information from the Chief Inspector that related to policy was dealt with independently. After the data was analysed and interpreted, conclusions regarding the extent to which colleges of education prepare student teachers to be gender sensitive were drawn.

4.1 Details of analysis

4.1.1 Document analysis

Below is the research question addressed through data collected from policy and official documents from the colleges of education:

4.1.1 To what extent were gender issues included in the first curriculum of teacher training colleges in Swaziland?

From the Nazarene College of Education, the documents consulted included:

4.1.1.1 The constitution of the Nazarene Teacher Training College. This document contained the philosophical perspective of the college since its inception in 1936. It outlined the colleges' vision and mission statement; its aims and objectives; the functions and the governance of the college.

Analysis of data provided by this document indicates that the teacher education programme was started under the guidelines of a temporary statute issued in 1936 and was permanently established in 1940. The one-year Elementary Vernacular Teacher's Course (EVTC) was the first qualification to be offered by the college. At this time, the college was a boarding school. A primary school, called "a practising school" within the institution was established. This school included both lower and upper primary levels. The lower primary was for children aged 5-9 years, while the upper primary was for children aged 10-15 years.

Results revealed that the entrance regulations of the college did not contain family background as a criterion for entrance.

However, with regard to gender equality, the programme emphasised different personal growth objectives for the male and female prospective teachers, but also most visible were those sex-related curricular differences, which emerged in its initial stage. One of these was in the area of division of female and male student teachers into teachers for small children and teachers for older children respectively.

The female student teachers were oriented to work in the lower and upper primary schools, while the males were oriented to work in the upper schools. It

was through policy that female students were assigned to teach the lower primary for children aged 5-9 years, while the upper primary for children aged 10-15 years was assigned to the male students. The kindergarten was also the responsibility of the female students.

4.1.1.2 Students' prospectus (1936 – 1974 documents). These documents were used in the study to analyse the entrance requirements and subjects offered in this era.

Having enrolled at the college, both women and men followed the same syllabus with the exception of a few subjects. This exception was very significant as it is evidence of entrenched gender biasness. For example, women did Home Economics, which was not done by men. The implication was that this subject suited women as it dealt with caring for the home and children. Men concentrated on the 'masculine' subjects like Physical Education. It is worth noting that the content for these subjects was not necessarily gendered. Examples are the objectives of the then Physical Education, which stated that it provides:

- Experiences that promote the normal physical growth and development of students
- Experiences to develop understanding of basic motor behaviour in relation to sport and physical fitness
- Participation in activities which improve and apply skills in game situations
- Opportunities for students to participate in coeducational and co-recreational activities.

- A range of activities that are selected and taught in light of individual needs, interests, and abilities of students
- Experiences to develop self-confidence and leadership abilities

The sex-related differences were hidden in these objectives, especially the last two. Primarily, these differences did not seem to be based on different assumptions concerning learning by men and women. Instead, they seemed to be connected especially with the tasks in the actual pedagogical practice. For example, these objectives indicated to students that the ‘activities’ within the subject are gender specific and that is why female students, even within the Physical Education subject preferred to choose to play ‘women’ sports like netball. Male students on the other hand preferred games that are ‘more physical’ and automatically assumed leadership roles like refereeing and sports administration. This indicates that there was no deliberate attempt to ensure that both genders are given equal opportunities to be developed by the subject.

4.1.1.3 The Nazarene Teacher Training College manuals (1936 – 1974). These documents contain the day-to-day operations of the college, staffing and general regulations for students in that period.

An analysis of the ‘general regulations’ for students presented the norm control and everyday chores of the students in the college. The sex-related differences in the institution appear in these differences in the moral code and control. Female and male students were instructed differently. For example, female students had to be protected against immorality and actions that were in contradiction to the prevailing norms. These immoralities and actions included: town visits; boys’ hostels being out of bound for girls; pregnancy and; visitors.

The most obvious protection attempt was through the employment of more 'women' lecturers as Table 12 indicates staffing at that time.

Table 12: Staffing according to subjects offered and by gender at the Nazarene College (2005)

Subjects	Males	Females	N=36
Art	1	0	1
Communication & Study skills	1	1	2
Education	3	2	5
Maths	2	3	5
Science	1	4	5
Physical Education	2	0	2
Agriculture	1	2	3
Home Economics	0	3	3
Teaching Practice	0	2	2
English	0	2	2
SiSwati	1	2	3
Social Studies	0	1	1
Religious Education	0	2	2
Totals:	12	24	36

They were 12 (33%) males of the total staff and notably this trend is continuing. In addition, regulations were stricter for women than for males, for instance, policy dictated that a pregnant female student was expelled with immediate effect no matter whether the student was married or not. Yet policy was silent on male students who were parents. This strict moral control of women gave

them less freedom and made them more subordinated and this is what society teaches and expects.

Documents collected and analysed from William Pitcher Secondary College of Education for the years 1953 when the college started to 1986 when the two-year Primary Teachers' Certificate course was phased out included the following:

4.1.1.4 Students' prospectus and college manuals for the 1984/1985 academic year.

These documents describe the subjects offered in this period and entry requirements for students.

An analysis of these documents at face value does not show any gender differences. Experts in the field of education who were careful with the wording drew up the curriculum for secondary school teaching. For example, one of the rules on selection of students for admission states that those (students) who meet the requirements are then grouped according to subject preferences. This is a gender-neutral statement but the results are gendered.

Courses at the William Pitcher College were based on the double major specialisation. They comprised of a broad range of subjects based on the secondary school curriculum as follows: Physical Education, Home Economics (offered only to women teachers), Mathematics, Science, Languages, History, Geography, Communication and Study Skills, and Foundations of Education.

Each subject department offered both the content and methodology aspects of the course and each have two distinct curricula representing the content courses on the one hand and the methodology courses on the other. Two-thirds of the

scheduled time was allocated to teaching the content material and one-third to methodology by all subject departments. While the Foundations of Education Department teaches classroom skills in a general way, each teaching subject department teaches the application of these skills within Junior Certificate (JC) level. This subject offering is still used at the college.

An analysis of the first curriculum at WPC indicates that there was no deliberate effort to address gender issues. An example is the practice of choosing teaching subjects by male and female students. Table 13 indicates these choices made by students in the academic year 1984/1985:

Table 13: Year 1 students' subject choices at William Pitcher College of Education (1985)

Subject	Males %	Females %	N=93
Geography-History	28 (68)	13 (32)	41
English-SiSwati	07 (28)	18 (72)	25
Maths-Science	10 (67)	05 (33)	15
Home Economics	0 (0)	12 (100)	12
Totals:	45	48	93

Students chose their teaching subjects from Year 1. The Geography-history combination was popular with the males (68%) while female students (72%) of all the students who chose it dominated the Languages combination. Males (67%) dominated the Mathematics–Science combination as female students ‘ran away’ from it. The researcher was a student at the college during this academic

year and can attest to the fact that the male lecturer who was teaching the Mathematics course was not very kind to 'female' students doing Sciences.

Home Economics at this time was a special course designed for already qualified primary school teachers who had taught it in primary schools. They were being prepared to teach it in secondary schools. Since no male had done it in the primary college, no male did it for secondary schools. This gendered clustering around certain subjects indicated that although policy was gender neutral, it was also silent on how to address this gender inequality trend.

Another example is the regulations in the college manual with regard to rules for students. They seemed to be applicable to all students equally. These included disciplinary procedures, appeals procedures, admissions, transfers and withdrawal by students. There were however an exception of some rules that could be interpreted as gender bias to the female students. For example, the rule that pertained to conditions of accommodation in the hostels. It stated that in the event of pregnancy, the student would forfeit accommodation in the hostels. This was not directed to male students, some of whom were the ones who impregnated the girls, yet the female students always found themselves affected by this regulation.

In summary then the most visible elements of the gendered curriculum in the first stages of teacher education in Swaziland were the following:

- Different aims for personal growth
- Sex and grade-based division of prospective teachers
- Differences in study subjects

- Moral code and normative control.

There was no deliberate attempt to address gender inequality issues hence they were not formally and purposely included in the first curriculum.

4.1.2 To what extent are gender equality issues included in the current curriculum in Swaziland's colleges of education?

Gender issues visible in the first curriculum of teacher education institutions in Swaziland were used to observe the current curriculum in teacher education institutions. The Manzini Nazarene Teacher Training College curriculum documents for the year after 1975 and the curricula of William Pitcher Teacher Training College for the academic years after 1988 to the present were the core materials analysed. The years 1975 and 1988 are significant for both colleges respectively. Teacher education in Swaziland underwent a notable change, for instance, the two – year Primary Teachers' Certificate at Nazarene was replaced with the current Primary Teachers' Diploma, while at William Pitcher College the two-year Secondary Teachers' Certificate was phased out in 1986, and the current three-year Secondary Teachers' Diploma was introduced in the 1997/1988 academic year.

From the Nazarene Primary College of Education, the following documents were analysed to answer the research question above:

4.1.2.1 The 2005 Review Document. This document comprehensively documents the policies, philosophy and general regulations for both staff and students of the college. It captures the past practices and the new in both structural and pedagogical processes. Through this document, it was possible to trace any

changes in the curriculum, and to ascertain the extent to which gender issues are included. The areas analysed included the following:

i) Student enrolment

The results from this document indicate a continuity of the past, although with less visible words in the form of policies. The obvious example is student enrolment.

Table 14: Pre-service teacher's enrolment at the Nazarene college (2007)

College	Male %	Female %	N=353
Nazarene College	126 (36)	227 (64)	353

The 2005 Review Document confirms that enrolment statistics indicates that women outnumber men at 64% in the college. The reality is that although the number of applicants has increased for both males and females, there are more female students who are admitted than males. The college is not making any extra effort to recruit more males because of the belief that males do not last long in teaching, let alone in the primary school level. Traces of the belief that women are better suited for younger children are evident. In the document there is a tracer record of teachers in the system, some of which graduated from the Nazarene College.

Table 15 and Table 16 contrast primary and secondary school teachers between the years 1985 – 1991 to confirm this trend:

Table 15: Primary school teachers (1985-1991)

Year	Male	%	Female	%	Total
1985	1,545	(22)	5,435	(78)	6,980
1986	1,625	(22)	5,699	(78)	7,
1987	1,661	(22)	6,043	(78)	7,704
1988	1,752	(22)	6,350	(78)	8,102
1989	1,698	(20)	6,591	(80)	8,289
1990	1,852	(20)	7,410	(80)	9,262
1991	1,876	(19)	7,828	(79)	9,704

Table 16: Secondary school teachers (1985-1991)

Year	Male	%	Female	%	Total
1985	772	(56)	596	(44)	1,368
1986	958	(59)	661	(41)	1,619
1987	1,082	(59)	738	(41)	1,820
1988	1,200	(60)	804	(40)	2,004
1989	1,370	(55)	1,103	(45)	2,473
1990	1,775	(57)	1,366	(43)	3,141
1991	2,025	(59)	1,408	(41)	3,433

Source: Education statistics, Central statistics office 1989, 1990/1

The data presented in the Tables 15 and 16 above confirm the trend of more women teachers teaching in the primary school with an average of 78%, while their male counterparts dominate in the secondary school levels with an average of 59%.

4.1.2.2 The curriculum blueprint (1986) and students' prospectus (2007).

These documents describe the entry requirements for prospective teachers and subjects currently offered. The requirement still demands that students choose two teaching subject electives as their teaching subjects at the third year level. Subjects grouping offered in the college have not changed much from that which was offered in the first curriculum. The only change is the format in which the subjects are presented. They are now modularised. The analysed categories were:

i) Students' subject choices

Table 17: Third Year student' subject choices at Manzini Nazarene College (2007)

Elective	Males	%	Females	%	Total
Applied Science	12	(48)	13	(52)	25
Languages	10	(40)	15	(60)	25
Sciences	14	(56)	11	(44)	25
Social Studies	12	(48)	13	(52)	25
Totals:	32		68		100

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Table 17 above indicates that male students especially favour the Maths and Science combination, which accounts for 56% of the total choices made for this elective group. Notably, this is a much-improved trend than in the first

curriculum. A follow up to this development revealed that there was a deliberate effort by the college to consider gender when admitting students into the Science related subject combination. The 'gender' in this context referred to female applicants. There was a deliberate move by the college to admit more girls into the Sciences. This has been a Ministry of Education initiative.

The trend with subject combinations like the Applied Sciences, Social Studies and the Languages is constant with female students dominating within a percentage range of 52% and 60%. Home Economics, which is included in the Applied Sciences group, is especially favoured by female students hence they are clustering around this group.

ii) Subject content

Most subjects and mostly those that could easily deal with gender issues are still very silent on these issues. One such subject is Home Economics. It is offered to cater for the primary schools. The objectives for the subject state that the Home Economics programme is based upon:

- An analysis of the needs of Swaziland's society
- The interests and abilities of the students

The content of the subject as indicated in the course outline include broad topics like:

- Foods
- Clothing
- Responsible parenthood

- The use of resources
- The role of the teacher

The roots of this subject are in the work activities done outside the proper study subjects like housekeeping and home caring associated with women. The main noticeable change towards gender equality is that this subject is in the current curriculum and is done by both sexes. However, the trend set in the first curriculum continues: women still dominate. It is worth noting that the colleges concerned have recently made an effort to include the male students in the programme. One such inclusive policy states, “*students in levels 1 and 2 take Home Economics as a compulsory module and when they get to the third level, only those who intend specialising in the Applied Sciences (Home Economics and Agriculture) will take the module*” (Mbingo, 2005:46). This policy indicates that males do not willingly take the course. Nevertheless, this is a significant move by the college towards addressing gender issues through the curriculum.

It is also evident that although the content appears to be gender neutral, there is no deliberate effort to address the issue of gender inequality in it through inclusion of gender equality topics.

Another subject in the curriculum in the primary college of education is Art and Craft. All students do this module. Its main objectives are:

- To help develop students’ sensitivity to aesthetic values
- To enrich the lives of the students’ personality
- Provide the students with the necessary experience to conduct Art and Crafts programmes in the schools

- It helps students to understand Swaziland's cultural heritage
- It assist student teachers in the production of teaching aids

The content of the Art and Craft subject encompasses the following broad areas:

- The basic skills and understanding of Art and Crafts
- Art and Craft projects and activities
- Teaching Aids production

Analysis of the objectives and content indicates that no topic addresses gender inequality or gender issues in the above subject.

From the William Pitcher Secondary College of Education, the following documents were consulted and analysed:

4.1.2.3 The curriculum blueprint (1986) and students' prospectus (2007). These documents provide courses for the 'new' three-year Secondary Teachers' Diploma qualification. The prospectus document describes the entry requirements for prospective teachers and subjects offered. The following areas were analysed in the documents:

i) Courses content

In the secondary level college of education in particular, the curriculum of the academic year 1988/89 appears neutral on paper. The descriptions for all subjects offered are the same for both sexes. An example is the Foundations of Education course content:

Year One

- Introduction to Foundations of Education and Teacher Education. This is an introductory section of the course where key concepts are presented. It traces the history of teacher education
- Instructional Design and Implementation. It deals with the theory of pedagogy
- Human Growth and Development. It deals with theories of human growth and development especially the faculties of learning.

Year Two

- Guidance and Counselling. This introduces learners to guidance and counselling skills they will utilise during their teaching practice
- Teaching Practice. This is the practicum exercise for students in the real classroom
- Human Learning. It introduces students to theories of learning
- Educational testing, measurement and evaluation. It introduces students to assessment of academic performance in the classroom

Year Three

- Educational Administration
- Sociology of Education
- Philosophy of Education
- Curriculum: Theory and Practice

Analysis of the content for this course at face value indicates that both sexes are equally catered for. However, gender biasness reveals itself in the actual message carried in the concepts learnt in the course. Some examples include that:

- In tracing the history of teacher education women do not feature much. The paragraph below is an extract from one of the student's notes at the college:

Specific training for teachers was originated in France (1685) by St. Baptist de la Salle. Teacher training spread rapidly in Europe as a result of the work of August Hermann Francke and Johann Pestalozzi and through the influence of the monitorial system. Germany established the first curriculum for teacher training in the 18th cent. From Europe, the monitorial training method spread to the United States (c.1810).

Within this brief paragraph, three men are named as responsible for the development and spread of teacher training. A gender conscious lecturer would have come with a different list and paragraph.

- The majority of the Philosophers studied are male. The main text used for the Philosophy of Education course is a book written by Akinpelu (1981). Some of the Philosophers presented as contributors to educational ideas include men like Plato, Aristotle, Isocrates, Rousseau, Pestalozzi and others for the pre-Twentieth Century period, and men like A. N. Whitehead, E. W. Blyden, J. K. Nyerere and others for Twentieth Century era. A new list needs to be drawn that will include women educational thinkers.

- In the course 'Educational administration', the practice on the ground, which the lecturer must use as real life examples, indicates that most administrators, especially in higher levels of education are mostly male.

A few sub-topics that deal with gender issues in Foundations course are in the Sociology of Education component. Its content includes the following topics:

1. The contribution of Sociology to the study of Education
2. African Indigenous Education and Colonial Education
3. Functions of education
- 4. Education and inequality**
5. Teaching as a profession
6. The school as a social system
7. The school in the community
8. Education and social change
9. Forms of Education

The highlighted topic directly deals with gender equity and equality issues in the community. This is where lectures claim to be sensitising students towards gender biases and gender stereotypes. Below are objectives of the topic. Students should be able to:

- Identify the main sources of social inequality in Swaziland/Africa
- List and describe with examples the different classes in modern society
- Discuss with examples, how class and other factors (e.g. gender, language, ethnicity, etc) influence students' achievement and ultimately social mobility
- Explain some ways in which education can reduce or increase social inequality.

Teaching this topic takes between four and six hours. As a Foundations course one would expect that such issues be given more time since it prepares student teachers to manage their students in the schools. A better option could be a gender sub-course within the Foundations of Education course as the researcher has presented an example in literature review chapter (see pages 101-102).

ii) Students' choices of subject electives

In the secondary college of education, students choose two teaching subject electives as their specialisation. They make these choices independently. Analysis of the choices made by students indicates clearly that male students cluster around 'masculine' subjects (preferably science based subjects) while female students cluster around 'soft' subjects as indicated by table 18 showing students' choices at William Pitcher College. To permit a comparison between the female and male students, the numbers given in the tables are percentages. The percentages refer to the proportions of choices in each combination out of all chosen subject electives of the sex in question.

Table 18: First Year student' choice of subjects at WPC (2007)

Electives	Male	%	Female	%	Total
Practical subjects	8	(30)	19	(70)	27
Languages	10	(32)	21	(68)	31
Sciences	17	(65)	09	(35)	26
Social Sciences	10	(34)	19	(66)	29
Total:	45		68		113

Table 18 indicates that male students especially favoured the Maths and Science combination in Year 1, which accounted for 65% of the total combination choices.

The trend with subject combinations like Social Sciences (which includes History and Geography and Religious Education) and the Languages is constant with female students dominating with 66% and 68 % respectively. Notable also is the domination of women (70%) in the Practical Subjects. This is because subjects in this group include Physical Education, Music and Home Economics. Home Economics is especially favoured by female students hence their clustering around this group. The subject choices are still gendered and the colleges need to realise that and try to address the situation.

iii) Gender content coverage in curriculum textbooks

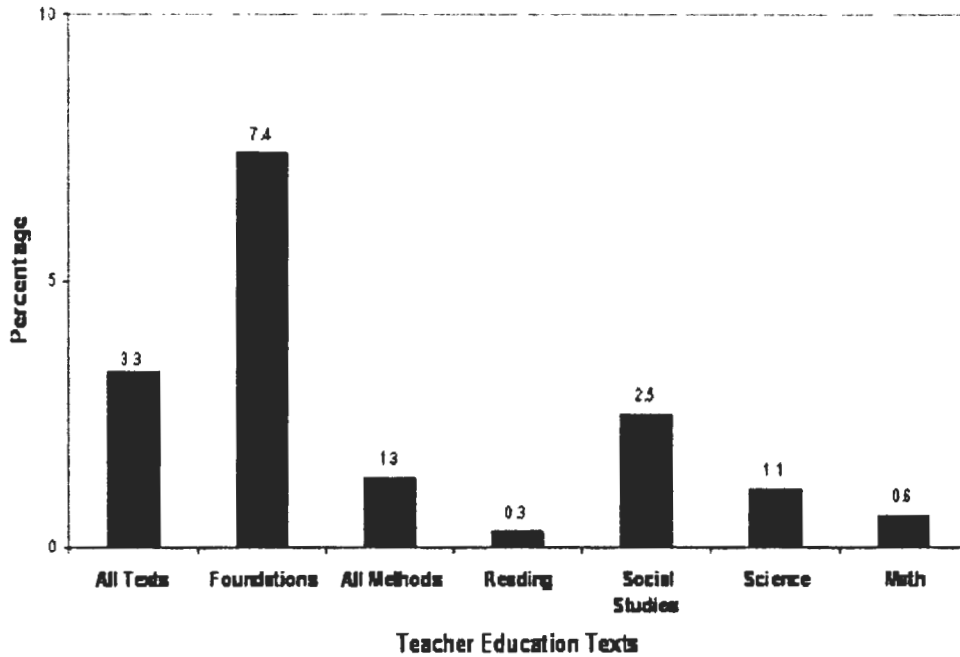
The 1998/89 academic year curriculum of the William Pitcher College was analysed and showed a gendered picture in terms of materials used in the pedagogical processes. Ten course outlines of teacher education programmes were analysed. Out of these ten course outlines, only one had incorporated a topic on gender in the outline. This was the Foundations of Education course and the topic is 'Education and Inequality'. However, the supportive references used in the course do not address gender issues.

The researcher carried out a content analysis of six prescribed texts used in different courses to determine what they had to say about gender and education. All texts were published between 1995 and 2003, and included five areas: Foundations of Education, Teaching Methodology texts, Social Sciences (History and Geography), Science, and Mathematics.

The line-by-line analysis evaluated the inclusion and treatment of gender issues ranging from the experiences and contributions of women (even mentioning a woman's name) to exploring strategies to eliminate sex-role stereotyping.

Figure 3 indicates coverage of gender as percentage of text content in colleges of education.

Coverage of Gender as Percentage of Text Content



Gender content (frequency counts of mention of the women gender issues, engendered statements and engendered pictures or illustrations) in all the textbooks was approximated to be at 3.3%. Foundations of Education through the Sociology of Education component covered approximately 7.4% on average. The Social Studies (for primary colleges) covered an average of 2.5%. This is of great concern as this course is critical to addressing gender issues as they affect the social life of the people.

In summary, there is a clear parallel between the historical and current gendered phenomena in the teacher education programme in Swaziland. The current curriculum also:

- Emphasises different aims for personal growth
- Allows for gender differences in study subjects

- The curriculum perpetuates gender stereotypes, gendered values and gendered social expectations through textbooks content.

4.2 Questionnaire returns analysis an interpretation of variables

Below is the research question addressed through the questionnaire:

4.2.1 What gender equality related challenges do those who implement the curriculum in teacher training colleges in Swaziland experience during the implementation process?

Seventy-eight questionnaire copies were distributed to Third-Year students' sample in the study in the two colleges. Out of the seventy-eight questionnaires, seventy-two copies were completed and returned from the colleges. Returned questionnaires had missing data in some sections but were still usable. Table 19 shows the response and non-response to different sections of the questionnaire, expressed as percentage of the original number of copies initially distributed:

Table 19: Response and non-response to different sections of the questionnaire

Questionnaire section	Response			Non-response		
	M	F	Tot. %	M	F	Tot. %
Demographic						
○ Gender	31	41	72 (92)	0	0	0
○ Experience	31	41	72 (92)	0	0	0
○ Qualification	31	41	72 (92)	0	0	0
○ Age	31	41	72 (92)	0	0	0
○ Teaching subjects	31	41	72 (92)	0	0	0
Variables						
○ School or teaching situations	28	40	68 (74)	3	1	4 (6)
○ Teaching practice experiences	31	41	72 (92)	0	0	0
○ Encounters with sex related issues	28	38	66 (85)	3	3	6 (8)
○ Actions to realise sex-related issues	23	22	45 (58)	8	19	27 (38)
○ Gender equity education	31	41	72 (92)	0	0	0

The demographic section of Table 19 indicates that all respondents responded to questions relating to demographic data in the questionnaire. Responses to key variables are summarised below:

- a) School or teaching situations variable.** Students were to respond to the question, *‘have you met in school or teaching situations/things that it would be necessary to study in respect of gender equality and gender equity?’* Sixty-eight (74%) students responded to the question, while four (6%) did not respond. Among the four non-responsive students, three of them were males. This trend may pre-empt that these male students did not take note of gender-related issues because males in

general may not be directly affected by such issues as much as females do.

- b) Teaching practice experience:** All seventy-two (100%) students responded. The responses are dealt with in details in section 4.2.3.
- c) Students' encounters with sex-related issues during teaching practice:** Six (8%) students did not respond at all, among them were three females and three males. An explanation for this general non-response is provided in the discussion of results section (see section 5.4).
- d) Actions to realise sex-related issues variable:** This was the least responded to variable. Twenty-seven (38%) students including eight males and nineteen females ignored it. The question sought to document opinions of student teachers on what could be done to sensitise teachers to be aware of gender-bias issues in a school situation. The conclusion that can be reached based on the data presented is that the student teachers have not been sensitised on such issues hence they could not offer any opinion on the matter.
- e) Gender-equity education variable:** All seventy-two (100%) students responded offering what they consider as factors associated with effective implementation of a gender-sensitive curriculum in teacher education institutions in Swaziland.

4.2.2 Detailed analysis of the demographic data

Table 20 is a statistical computation to provide the biographical patterns of the respondents. The information is necessary to know the characteristics of the respondents who participated in the study. This data helped in establishing the profile of the student teachers trained at the teacher education colleges in Swaziland. These results were discussed in details below.

Table 20: Frequencies and percentages of respondents by demographic data

Variable	Frequency	%
Gender	Male 39	50
	Female 39	50
Total:	78	100
Age:	Below 21 0	0
	22-25 70	90
	26-30 05	6
	31+ 03	4
Total:	78	100
Marital Status	Single 72	92
	Married 06	8
Total:	78	100

4.2.2.1 Gender

The respondents constituted of a fair number of males and females. Table 20 shows that there were 39 males (50%) and 39 females (50%) from the two colleges who participated in the study. This was however not a correct representation of the actual enrolment figures. The parity in the sample was done for purposes of getting as many qualitative ideas as possible rather than the quantity frequencies of answers. Significantly though is that female students enrolment in the secondary college of education has increased over the years. This confirms Shongwe (1999)'s observation in a similar study carried out in Botswana Junior Secondary Schools that the trend has shifted from that of women only dominating primary schools to women increasing in number in the junior secondary schools. This is an important step towards correcting gender imbalance quantitatively in the different levels of teacher education.

4.2.2.2 Age

The above analysis indicates that most student teachers in the third year level of study in colleges of education are in the 22-25 years age range, which accounts for 90% of the returned questionnaire. This indicates a younger crop of teachers who are generally exposed to the current issues of gender equality. A relevant teacher education curriculum needs to be one that builds on this general knowledge to equip this group of youth that is mainly from the school system and is soon going to rejoin it, to be gender-sensitive.

4.2.2.3 Marital status

The age range of students in colleges of education is becoming more youthful as observed above. This is confirmed by the single marital status of the students, which accounts for 92% against the 8% married students. These young teachers are exposed to new developments and theories concerning gender issues. Their perspective on such issues is different from the 'old' teachers already in the field. When sensitised to be gender-sensitive at the colleges, they can effectively change the status quo in the schools by being influential and exemplary to their students.

4.2.3 Student teachers' encounters with gender and sex-related equality issues

In the student teachers' questionnaire (Section B), one of the main questions sought to find out about whether the students had encountered issues connected with gender equality in the schools in which they were doing their teaching practice. The precise formulation of the question was, *"Have you, during your teaching practice period, encountered anything or situation connected with gender equality between the sexes or differences/similarities between the sexes that has somehow occupied your mind?"*

In analysing the responses, the following categories constructed and adopted from Sunnari (1997) in a similar study were utilised: 1. Exceptional choices/cases; 2. Topics of discussion due to characteristics/developmental stage/behaviour of boys and girls, and 3. Teacher-pupil relations; and 4. other.

4.2.3.1 Responses from female students

All forty-one (41) female students who responded in the returned questionnaire wrote that they had encountered issues of gender and equity, though six of the students could not specify any particular issues to be analysed.

Most typically, the encounters were connected with sex-related treatment. Fourteen of the students wrote about these gender issues. Some of the typical responses are summarised in Table 21:

Table 21: Categories of sex-related encounters reported by female students

Category	Responses
1. Exceptional choices/cases	<i>"I was a class teacher for a form 1 class. In my class, one boy out of forty-six chose to do Home Economics. Everyone made fun of him. When I asked him, he said at home he is the only boy with four sisters. To him Home Economics was the most useful. I agree with him, boys must learn to do things for themselves."</i>
2. Topics of Discussion due to characteristics/developmental stage/behaviour of boys and girls	<i>"In the town schools like mine, girls are losing their character. They do not behave the way girls should"</i>
3. Teacher-Pupil relations:	
3a. Favouring treatment of girls/unfair treatment of boys	<i>"When a boy has done something wrong, he is punished physically on the spot. If it's a girl, there is more verbal chastisement than corporal punishment"</i>
3b. Favouring treatment of boys/unfair treatment of girls	<i>"A boy can be allowed to talk and talk. When it is a girl, she is asked to be clear and to the point"</i>
3c. Favouring/unfair treatment of boys or girls	<i>"I know one male History teacher who hated us girls. He belittled all women and we all suffered while boys were his favourites. We found out later that he was divorced"</i>
3d. Gendered treatment of girls and boys by a other teachers	<i>"It is no secret that teachers take note of bright and noisy students (usually boys). Reserved students (boys and girls) are usually ignored in class."</i>

a) Exceptional choices/cases: In this category, the respondents mostly seemed to advocate the need to expand the perspectives concerning the choices of subjects studied as indicated by the response in category 1. In some of these responses, the argument was that for some of the students, in spite of a wish for a personal and exceptional choice of a subject, sometimes it was never fulfilled because of peer pressure.

b) Characteristics/developmental stage/behaviour of boys or girls: In this category, the respondents expressed a concern for girls' behaviour/characteristics. The gist of the matter was that girls are losing 'character'. In elaborating this claim, one respondent was concerned about girls using 'girlish tricks' to win favours from male teachers.

c) Teacher-pupil relations: Responses on the encounters of unequal treatment in school concentrated on the teacher-pupil relation. Respondents reported cases of teachers' favouring or disfavouring pupils. These pupils said to be favoured were mainly either girls or boys. The statements concerning explicit favouring of girls or of boys differed from each other as to their contents. The cases where the respondent wrote about having encountered particular favouring of boys mainly concerned learning activity. Their responses indicated that it was possible for boys to answer more vaguely in class and get away with it. Boys were encouraged to be different. More initiativeness and activity were expected from boys than from girls. Active vocal girls were said to be 'forward' 'aggressive' or 'impertinent'.

4.2.3.2 The male students' responses

Thirty-one (31) male students responded to the questionnaire. Their most typical answer was a mention of not having encountered any cases of sex-related inequality or inequity. Some of them did write about these encounters, for instance "*the increased disturbing behaviour of girls*" puzzled them.

4.2.3.3 Summary of themes in the questionnaire

There were two main themes in the students' writings on their encounters with gender issues.

- a) On exceptional choices, five students wrote about exceptional choices in Home Economics. All claimed that they could have chosen it but were afraid of being ridiculed by friends.
- b) As regard unfair treatment, its agents were said to be teachers and its targets either girls or boys. The contents of the descriptions differed depending on whether the target was a girl or a boy. For instance, a female student respondent remarked that strict female teachers are unfair mainly to girls, while a boy remarked that 'soft' male teachers are after the girls. Being strict is acceptable to boys, while girls feel comfortable with kind understanding teachers, which boys label as 'sissy teachers' if they are male.
- c) In the cases where the respondents wrote about having encountered particular unfair treatment targeted towards girls, the students wrote about study activities. The cases where the respondent reported having noticed boys to be the targets of unfair treatment concentrated on social relations, for instance, on boys' disturbing behaviour and its consequences, a boy can be shouted at loudly to keep quiet, while a girl would be talked to. For the same wrong action, boys will be considered as misbehaving, while girls will be considered as surpassing the given norms, which is more serious.

In summary, data show that the emphasis of the female and male students' responses differed from each other. Answers from the female students mainly concentrated on aspects of pedagogical and other human relations and learning activities. The male students' answers on the other hand focused on exceptional personal choices of subjects, and about girls' disturbing behaviour. This latter answer from the male students was also present in the female students' answers. The concern raised by both sexes seems to be that some girls are surpassing the given norms or behaving in a way that appeared unacceptable. No student of either sex wrote about boys making the students similarly puzzled as with the girls. This indicated that the students were influenced by societal socialisation or expectations of differentiated treatment of males and females.

4.3 Analysis of lecturers' interview

Data collected through the interview addressed the following research question:

4.3.1 What factors are associated with effective implementation of a gender-laden curriculum in teacher training colleges in Swaziland?

4.3.1.1 The sample analysis

Subject lecturers interviewed were 16 (67%) together with the twelve Heads of Departments, the two Principals from the colleges and the Chief Inspector of Colleges. Table 22 provides a summary of the sample for lecturers and teacher education personnel:

Table 22: Summary sample for lecturers and teacher education personnel

Colleges	Number of lecturers and teacher education personnel		
Lecturers	Male	Female	Total
William Pitcher:			
Lecturers	3	4	7
HoDs	4	2	6
Principal	1	0	1
Total:	8	6	14
Manzini Nazarene:			
Lecturers	3	6	9
HoDs	4	2	6
Principal	0	1	1
Total:	7	9	16
Department of Colleges:			
Chief Inspector (colleges)	1	0	1

The results indicate a general trend in that there are more females in primary colleges than in secondary colleges. Nevertheless, as the data presented indicate, at William Pitcher, out of the 14 lecturers in the sample, eight, which is 57% of the lecturers are males while six (43) are females. At the Nazarene College, out of the sample of sixteen (16) lecturers, nine (56%) were female while seven (44%) were males. This observation is very significant in that these lecturers are the ones implementing the curriculum. Their age, socialisation background and level of education interplay to produce a teacher expected to function effectively in society.

4.3.1.2 Qualification of lecturers (Manzini Nazarene College of Education)

Table 23: Qualification of lecturers (Manzini Nazarene College)

Qualification	Number of lecturers
B.Ed	3
BA+PGCE	3
B.Sc + PGCE	2
B.A. Lib	1
M.Ed	4
B.Sc + PGCE	2
M.Phil	1
Total:	16

The same range of qualifications is typical of lecturers in the other colleges of education, including William Pitcher College. The Ministry of Education policy dictates that the minimum qualification for teaching in a teacher training college is a first degree. The data presented in Table 23 indicate that lecturers, regardless of gender, meet the criteria for teaching in teacher education colleges. This is significant to note because the education level of the lecturers can be assumed to have exposed them to the academic understanding of gender issues and how to handle them when dealing with their students.

4.3.2 Details of the lecturers' interview analysis

In order to ascertain lecturers' understanding or awareness of gender issues, they were required to respond to a number of questions. Through their responses, it was possible to identify, what they consider as challenges to them in delivering the curriculum, and what they perceive to be factors associated with implementation of a gender-sensitive curriculum in colleges of education. Table 24 presents the interview schedule indicating the main areas from which the questions and probes were based and the main questions they responded to:

Table 24: Interview schedule for lecturers

Main Area	Main Question
1. Patterns of career development	Can you tell me how you came to be a lecturer at this college?
2. Training for the job	Have you had any training for the job of teacher educator?
3. Perception of their job	What do you find most rewarding about your work here as a female/as a male?
4. Perceptions of 'good teaching' and the 'good teacher'	Can you describe the best teacher who taught you?
5. Perceptions of trainees	What do you think motivates young people to go into teaching nowadays?
6. Personal and/or espoused teaching/teacher training theories	How does being a teacher educator compare with being a classroom teacher?
7. How they deliver their part of the curriculum	Can you describe a typical day in your life at the college?
8. Perceptions of changes	In what ways do you consider the course you teach to be helping in achieving Swaziland's Vision 2021?

Responses to the above questions were summarised according to the themes presented in the categories. The responses selected were the most striking and common ones.

Below are recurring statements from most of the interviewees who responded to the questions:

a) Patterns of career development -

“I love teaching. My mother was a teacher” (A primary college female lecturer)

“I trained as a teacher and I was transferred here after getting my M.Ed degree” (A male lecturer – WPC)

“I have always liked teaching, but not the very small children. College is better because the students are adults” (A male lecturer- Nazarene College)

The two male respondents focused on external rewards for choosing the teaching career. Their responses indicate that for them as males, they are best suited to be at the higher levels of education. The female teacher is in her comfortable zone, which is teaching.

b) Perception of their job

“It’s very disturbing that men dominate the administration in these colleges. Females are capable as well. Why is it difficult for women to get promotions to positions of power?” (A female college principal- Nazarene).

Male lecturers gave vague answers. They seemed to find everything frustrating about their job, always yearning for new jobs outside teaching.

c) Perceptions of ‘good teaching’ and the ‘good teacher’

“My standard three teacher at primary. She was the best. I think women are best suited for that level. They are patient and caring.” (A secondary college male lecturer). A further probe revealed that she was ‘very’ strict.

All the respondents had someone they considered as their ‘teacher’. Usually for men, it was the most ‘feared’ while for women it was the most ‘affectionate’ understanding teacher.

d) Perceptions of student trainees

“Teaching is not for a particular gender. If one is good, he/she is just good.” (A female secondary college Head of Department (Languages)). This was a general response from all the respondents. It was an indication that the lecturers are aware of gender issues, hence, they avoided to appear gender-biased.

e) Personal and/or espoused theories of teaching/teacher training

“It is easier to teach adults because they do most of the work themselves.”
(History male lecturer - WPC)

Answers for this part were generally vague. It is possible that the respondents did not see its relevance to gender issues. On the other hand, it is possible that the question was more direct to their practice as individuals and thus viewed as intrusion (See Appendix 2 for the question probes). Nevertheless, from the few responses, it was revealed that lecturers are aware of the potential and capability of their students to be taught using more inquiry methods, which is what a gender-laden curriculum demands.

f) How they deliver their part of the curriculum

“Resources are the main problem. They are very scarce e.g. we have very poor libraries. Therefore, students cannot research. We give them what we have. We also have a lot to do here on top of our teaching timetable”. (Science lecturer – WPC)

Lecturers went on blaming the system for not taking teacher education seriously. What really transpired was that they do not employ a variety of teaching approaches that will make their students independent learners. These demand a lot of time and preparation on the part of the lecturer.

g) Perceptions of changes

“Gender issues are not adequately addressed in our courses. We just touch and go on them. A full course on gender would be of great help even to us lecturers.” (Head of Foundations – Nazarene College - Male)

The results express perceptions lecturers have about gender issues. They all seemed to see the need for initiatives towards including gender equality issues in teacher education programme.

4.3.3 Interview analysis for the Chief Inspector of Colleges of Education

The Chief Inspector was to respond to open-ended questions broadly on areas like:

- a) The status of colleges of education and gender issues.** The Inspector admitted that the focus of the Ministry of Education had all along been gender equity rather than equality. This included issues of equal access to

schooling for both girls and boys. On that score the Ministry of Education has made some remarkable progress.

b) The extent to which gender issues are included in the curriculum in teacher education. In this area, the inspector indicated that he needed more updating by the practitioners. He did not have any information on this issue. This was a disturbing revelation. Gender issues are at the forefront especially with the escalating number of cases of teachers abusing pupils in Swaziland. One would expect all stakeholders in teacher education to be looking for solutions.

c) Factors/constraints associated with effective introduction of a gender-sensitive curriculum in colleges of education. The inspector highlighted a number of factors, like qualified teaching staff, workshops to in-service lecturers, resources that include the time factor. Constraints could be lack of all the above.

In summary, for factors perceived to be associated with effective implementation of a gender-sensitive curriculum in teacher education colleges, lecturers and teacher education personnel expressed the need for curriculum change.

On the actual implementation processes of the programme, a number of hindrances were identified, that include among others, the attitude of policy makers towards the whole issue of gender perspective and lack of resources.

4.4 CHAPTER SYNTHESIS

In this chapter, information obtained has been presented, analysed and interpreted. From the respondents' answers, a picture of a gendered curriculum and gendered practices in teacher education colleges emerged. The conclusions drawn from this chapter are discussed with the overall conclusion in chapters five and six.

4.4.1 To what extent were gender equality issues included in the first curriculum in teacher training colleges in Swaziland?

Data collected from various official documents from colleges of education indicated that gender equality issues were not included in the first curriculum. Gender biases therefore included: Different aims for personal growth; sex and grade-based division of prospective teachers; differences in study subjects and moral code and normative control.

4.4.2 To what extent are gender equality issues included in the current curriculum in Swaziland's colleges of education?

Data indicates that there is continuity between the current curriculum and the first curriculum in teacher education concerning gender inequality. Differentiated enrolment statistics in the primary and the secondary colleges indicate this. For instance, Female enrolment accounts for up to 64% against 36% of male students. Students' subject choices are still gendered with male students clustering around Science-oriented and masculine subjects while female students cluster around 'soft' subjects like Languages, Home Economics

and Social Sciences. Textbooks used in colleges are still gender-biased with an average of 3.3% gender coverage.

4.4.3 What gender equality related challenges do those who implement the curriculum in teacher training colleges in Swaziland experience during the implementation process?

Data have shown that the student teachers themselves are a challenge to pedagogy because they are socialised to uphold the patriarchal orientation that subscribes to male domination. Data also indicated that lecturers themselves come from the same background and are struggling to confront their own gendered socialisation.

4.4.4 What factors are associated with effective implementation of a gender-laden curriculum in teacher training colleges in Swaziland?

Data have revealed factors such as an initiative to introduce a gender programme in teacher education colleges, training workshops for lecturers on gender issues, and resources for pedagogical processes.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter gives a synopsis of the study. The study was designed as a qualitative inquiry using an interpretative framework and hence interpretative procedures dominated in the analysis. Quantitative and analytical procedures were used in the analysis to complement the interpretative procedures. This section therefore seek to discuss the results as obtained through the student teachers' questionnaire, the lecturers and Ministry of Education personnel, and through policy and official documents from colleges of education. To accomplish this, the data collection instruments items are grouped into themes, which provide answers to the relevant research questions.

5.2 GENDER IN CURRICULA STRUCTURES: A STATE-LEVEL HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

It was just over 70 years ago, that teacher education began in Swaziland. It began at the same time for women and men. Because the guidelines defined for primary teacher education at that time have remained the essential guidelines even for later teacher education, it becomes imperative to find out the initial expectations for women then. It is also important to find out what the first curriculum was like and what its gender system was like. These are pertinent questions addressed by the section below. However, it first provides some pedagogical background and discusses briefly the contemporary educational

situation and the pedagogical discussions underway in Swaziland at the time before the first stage of teacher education.

5.2.1 Pedagogical backgrounds

The emergence of Swaziland's school system included three stages of fundamental changes. The changes appear to have followed the resolutions of societal conflicts between numbers of powerful interest groups. The first period of the transition took place in the pre-colonial period. At that time, the missionaries and the 'Swazi traditionalists' both had their conflicting interests in the organisation of instruction in Swaziland. The second phase of transition occurred during the colonial period up to independence (1968). At this time, Swaziland was a British colony administered in the Republic of South Africa. The third period of transition took place after independence when Swaziland was at crossroads where there were conflicting interests of economy and the emerging industry on one hand, and the interests of missionaries on the other.

Before the missionary period, Swaziland was a traditional state and the society was stratified along the lines of ruling power. The 'estates' were represented in the traditional echelons of power and the representatives were men. Moving from one social class to another was difficult. The majority of the people were farmers who worked in their rural homes. Division of labour was strictly along the lines of gender. Men were responsible for providing for their families while women raised children and looked after their homes. This trend continued even after the coming of the 'wage' era.

The introduction of 'western' education in Swaziland in the twentieth century further strengthened this dichotomy between males and females. Education and salaried jobs was almost exclusively the prerogative of boys and men. At first missionaries were the main organisers of education and the education given by it was based on the principles of Christianity, and the actual objectives were to achieve general literacy and such knowledge of the Christian doctrine as was required for full membership of a congregation. Entrance into this education was possible for both sexes.

The missionaries' main interest in the development of education in Swaziland had to do mainly with the need to convert the local people to the Christian religion. The locals were taught how to read and write only so they could read the Bible. Missionary education was not only narrow but also acted as a way of transmitting Christian values and 'western' values. Missionary education did not concentrate on practical worldly subjects such as building and carpentry. This compounded the conflicts between the Swazi people and the missionaries as the former felt their 'way of life' was undermined. The colonial Government at the time did not commit itself to developing education in the Protectorate.

The narrow scope of missionary education curriculum was soon seen as a let down by the Swazi people who soon expressed their dissatisfaction and advocated for a broader practical oriented curriculum. This demand led to the building of 'self-help' independent tribal schools at primary level, initiated by the then rulers. These schools became known as National Schools. The then

missionary schools later on tried to widen the scope of their curriculum, for example, St Josephs was opened in 1914 with a practical-oriented curriculum.

It was in 1904 that the colonial government began to show commitment in the education of the 'natives'. The colonial government sought to reform education in the Swazi Protectorate between 1928 and 1945 after it was evident that the missionaries could no longer bear the financial burden of education. In 1935, the colonial government finally took total control of education in the Protectorate even though a few schools remained under missionaries. The Department of Education was instituted that became responsible for formulating all educational policies and for the supervision of schools. Mr. William Pitcher became the first Director of Education.

During all these developments in the education arena, there had been lower-level schooling for girls especially those from the lower social classes. There was need for change and hence the establishment of a few girls' schools in the likes of Mbuluzi Secondary School – a boarding school in 1923 that was one of missionary initiatives. The girls of the ruling class were mainly educated in the 'Royal family schools' like Zombodze National School and Swazi National School respectively.

Vocational education was not extensive. The University of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland gave qualifications for higher offices in government, which was mainly male-dominated. From the 1950s onwards, the demands to develop vocational education began to grow. The first technical oriented school opened

in 1954, and an agricultural college started at Luyengo as part of the University of Botswana, Lesotho, and Swaziland. Students who enrolled at these institutions were predominantly men. The women were not educated to work outside the home but in the home. The first women's occupation with actual vocational training and with an idea of working outside the home was that of a nurse, whose education in the Nazarene Mission started in the late 1920s.

The secondary level boys and girls' school systems seem to have provided an important reference system for the construction of the curriculum for teacher education. The main objective for the education of boys was to prepare them to 'get a job', whereas the girls were educated to 'take care of their families'. Traditionally, it was argued that the calling of a woman was to be a mother, a wife and a homemaker; hence, for girls the emphasis was learning modesty, chastity, diligence, patience and other similar skills. Girls were not kept for long in school, the justification being that girls should be prevented from growing up in a wrong direction. Education, which would not take place within one's social class, could result in such wrong directions.

5.2.2 The main tendencies in the new pedagogic orientation

In Swaziland, the typical institutional style of learning was routine learning by heart, keeping the pupils passive and did not afford them to try to understand the issues studied. The theoretical main tendencies in the discussions on contemporary needs to make changes in the pedagogy were the neohumanistic

and philanthropic traditions. The question of women's education features in both of these discussions.

The main pedagogical difference between the philanthropic and the neohumanistic lines of thought was that the neohumanists emphasised the development of intelligence through classical sciences, whereas, especially the Pestalozzian-oriented philanthropists emphasised the significance of new subjects, and the practical use and benefit of all studies. Both of these tendencies criticised the contemporary way of learning, which was considered mechanical and tended to make the learner passive.

Of particular interest here, is the stance on women and education adopted by proponents of the neohumanists in the likes of Hegel. The underlining principle in this orientation was that the human "form" does not automatically make an individual a human being. On the contrary, the process of education continuously shapes the individual. Thus, the outcome of schooling is to make learning more than a mere routine acceptance of tradition. However, institutional education cannot do very much. The human being is constrained by his/her birth and he/she inherits the knowledge and customs of a particular family and society. These matters are more important for human growth than institutional education (Snellman, 1929c in Sunnari, 1997). Therefore, as regards institutional education of women, the argument is that women should be educated according to their social status, for the home, because the natural forum for women was the home and the instinctive, subjective, and

conventional upbringing of children. The main goal of institutional education of women according to the neohumanistic orientation is to give them enough general humanistic education to make them better understand and support the societal duties of men, as well as supporting the schooling of their children.

The next question was about the content women were to learn. The neohumanists argued that the underlying principle is that the school should promote knowledge. Therefore, for women, Moral education and the development of skills are tasks of the homes (Snellman, 1928b in Sunnari, 1997). Notably, this orientation for a long time, acquired a predominant position in Swaziland's academic circles.

On the other end of the continuum, the philanthropic-Pestalozzian educational orientation dates back to the propositions of Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778). Rousseau was a significant source of views pertaining to the lives and civilisation of women. For instance, Rousseau's notion of a woman was that of a mother and a joy to her husband at home. He talked of 'private' and 'public' spheres of life wherein the sphere of women was the private. Women should be denied a formal public position, but do need education to be powerful in their own sphere, the family, he argued (cited in Sunnari, 1997). The woman's duty was to subordinate her independent aims and interests to a higher goal, the ethical life of people.

A comparison of the neohumanistic and the philanthropic traditions from the perspective of women's education reveals many similarities. Both of these

approaches emphasised the family as the woman's domain, although their argumentation differed. Both traditions also brought up the need for women's education, and both traditions considered that this should serve the benefit of the family. As to what girls and boys – women and men- should learn, the two approaches differed significantly. The neohumanists' tendency was based on the general view that both men and women should get a similar humanistic education, but in accordance with their social status. In the philanthropic tradition, schooling was seen as a general tool for upward development of the whole population. Schooling and the school curriculum should vary according to sex, because of the different duties of women and men (Sunnari, 1997).

In Swaziland, ingredients of both Rousseau and Pestalozzi's general pedagogical ideas had been visible throughout the phases education in this country has undergone. In the National Education Review Commission of 1975, underlined is the need to allow natural growth, the importance of science and the significance of the learner's own experiences in learning. It also emphasises the importance of being familiar with the child being educated. Apart from developing the child, the goals of education also included the benefit and good of the nation and humanity. In line with the Pestalozzian views, there is a strong emphasis in Swaziland of the education of the girl child. One of the current goals of education is *"to support girls' education by improving the quality of the teaching/learning process"* (Okkelmo, 1999:9). These are good intentions for using education to achieve gender equality. The difficulty is with interpreting the statement *"both men and women should get a similar humanistic education,*



but in accordance with their social status” as expressed by the neohumanists (Sunnari, 1997:45). In Swaziland, gender differences are deeply routed in socio-cultural institutions, processes, and practices one of which is education. The section below is an analysis of the curriculum in teacher education highlighting challenges for pedagogy in these institutions.

5.3 GENDER AND CURRICULUM IN SWAZILAND’S TEACHER EDUCATION: CHALLENGES FOR PEDAGOGY

The main thrust in this section is to address two combined challenges: the challenge to support student teachers to orient themselves towards children from the beginning of their studies, and the challenge connected with gendering and gender-sensitive promoting pedagogy.

5.3.1 To what extent were gender equality issues included in the first curriculum of teacher training colleges in Swaziland?

Teacher education in Swaziland began with the opening of the Manzini Nazarene Teacher Training College. It began at the same time for women and men and constituted one of the first forums of vocational education for women. As such, it signified an important breakthrough in the prevailing notion that women were destined to stay at home, although the decision to educate oneself to become a teacher also meant contradictions to these women’s personal futures. As Sunnari (1997) puts it so succinctly, the education of female teachers was linked to women’s duties to work at home and to raise children. Women’s special task in their role of bringing up children was to inculcate basic

values needed for the then societal orientation, and to give the children a strong and healthy start for their future.

The teacher education programme was set against such a background as above and therefore emphasised different personal growth objectives for the male and female prospective teachers, as a result there were visible sex-related curricular differences, which emerged in its initial stage.

One such area of gender difference was the division of female and male student teachers into teachers for small children and teachers for older children respectively.

The female student teachers were oriented to work in the lower and upper primary schools, while the males were oriented to work in the upper schools. This gendered practice led to the belief that primary schools are of lesser value in status as a result males became reluctant to enrol in primary colleges. Teaching in a primary school or lower levels of education has come to be associated with 'women', and this notion evolved to encompass the teaching as a profession.

Another area was the differentiated choice of subjects students had to do. They were subjects that were for each specific gender. These choices were later given value as the most important and the less important because the subjects came to be associated with a certain gender.

The meaning and impact of that practice can be interpreted through the theories of difference. Such theories perceive women's situation as different from men's situation. The difference is explained in terms of biosocial conditioning, institutional socialisation, and social-psychological linkages (Ruddick, 1989). This echoes Sigmund Freud's Psychoanalysis theory that traces the beginning of biological differences to when children discover their physiological differences. Rossi, (1980) links different biological differences between men and women to different patterns of hormonally determined development over the human cycle. One can argue that the fundamental assumption of biological differences is that the physiological make up of human bodies is the foundation of the social relations of gender. That means biology determines gender, and society reflects what nature determines.

With this theoretical background in mind, it is easy to explain the reasons why female students, 'soft' subjects while male students choose 'hard Sciences' subjects. The message carried over is that women's situation are different from men's situation. The difference is explained in terms of biosocial conditioning, institutional socialisation, and social-psychological linkages (Mannathoko, 1997). This strengthens cultural practices that pervade the school system wherein the girl child confronts a socialisation process similar to 'home'.

As regards to actual pedagogical studies, the sex-related differences were also clear. Primarily, the differences did not seem to be based on different assumptions concerning learning by men and women. Instead, they seemed to

be connected especially with the tasks in the actual teaching practice. In principle, school teaching practice had similar contents for both sexes but more often than not, the female students were relegated to teaching lower classes, while the males were assigned upper classes. This hidden curriculum message was that female students were suited to teaching lower classes, which unfortunately was regarded as of lower status.

The sex-related differences in the institution also included differences in the moral code and control. Female and male students were instructed differently. For example, female students had to be protected against immorality and actions that were in contradiction to the prevailing norms. Regulations were stricter for women than for male. One can then conclude that the stricter moral control of women gave them less freedom and made them more subordinated. This subordination has relegated women in general to be followers than take initiatives to be leaders also. The assumption that has been created is that men must lead and women follow. If the curriculum in teacher education is silent on gender issues, this assumption continues and becomes the norm.

From the societal viewpoint, the state-level establishment of a coeducational teaching profession and the provision of the necessary education signified a breakthrough in the prevailing notion that women were destined to stay at home. The breakthrough was, however, only partial. The education of female teachers was linked to the women's duties in the home.

5.4 GENDER IN CURRENT STRUCTURAL AND PEDAGOGICAL PROCESSES IN SWAZILAND'S TEACHER EDUCATION COLLEGES

The question to answer next is; to what extent are gender equality issues included in the current curriculum in Swaziland's colleges of education?

The researcher concludes that discussions and studies on gender and sex-related equity issues in the educational setting have been rarely studied in Swaziland compared to countries like South Africa and the Western world. They have also been included only exceptionally in curricula as evident from the data analysis presented elsewhere in the report. The investigation exercise has revealed that schools are comfortable with an ideology of neutrality, which seems to influence the thinking on the topic areas. Okkelmo (1999), who carried out a gender related study in Swaziland, agrees that schools' personnel assume that they treat pupils equally and without sex-related differences. Mazibuko, (1998) is convinced that even those teachers who are determined to treat the sexes equally find it hard to change. The same ideology have characterised the topic area in Swaziland's colleges of education.

Epstein and Johnson (1994:34) capture the mood well:

A school culture of silence exists, which discriminates by failing to recognize differences. It posits a very and unambiguously heterosexual world. In this way, the dominant form is made to appear normal, natural, and the subordinate form perverse, remarkable, and dangerous.

The argument is that failure to address gender inequality issues has made gender bias practices appear normal and cultural, and thus acceptable.

Results from historical documents that established teacher education in Swaziland reveal hierarchies within the system. As already mentioned elsewhere in this report, these hierarchies entrench gender inequalities and have historical roots that can be traced back to the colonial era.

At independence in 1968, most teachers in schools from primary level upwards were female. Other public spheres were dominated by men educated in 'western education' during the colonial period, for instance, the civil service where they worked as clerks and interpreters.

Primary level teaching was always a stepping-stone to other high-level professions for men. Women automatically occupied the 'low' status vacant positions left by men populating the primary school level. It was the result of this 'shift' in occupations, that a pattern was established in student enrolment in primary teacher training institutions.

Almost 40 years after independence, enrolment statistics indicate that women still outnumber men by an average of 65% in primary colleges (See Table 14 for the Nazarene College).

The difference in numbers (disparity) may not necessarily indicate gender inequality *per se* but the message behind. Sutrahmanian (1998) is of the opinion that there are limitations of 'gender parity' indicators. One arises from the

understanding that measuring access to and participation in education, whilst important, are limited indicators of change in education, as they do not by themselves tell us very much about processes of education. At best, they are first-order outcome indicators. Second, they are 'static' measures.

This investigator agrees with the opinion that formal equality measures numerical 'gaps' between female and male outcomes. The Chief Inspector of Colleges acknowledged in the interview that gender parity is the main focus for the Swazi Government at the moment. However, for equality to be achieved there is need for a definition that recognises that women and men start from different positions of advantage, and are constrained in different ways. Thus, achievement of substantive equality requires the recognition of '*the ways in which women are different from men ...in terms of the socially constructed disadvantages women face relative to men*' Subrahmanian (1998:4). This in turn depends on other processes, for instance, mechanisms for ensuring equality of treatment as well as equality of opportunity for men and women. The other process is commitment to non-discrimination, to ensure the erasure of social norms that construct women and men as unequal in value in terms of their contributions and entitlements. Assessing gender equality thus requires assessing whether fundamental freedoms and choices are as equally available to women as they are to men. This involves focusing on pathways to equality, extending the concern with treatment and opportunity to also focusing on agency and autonomy exercised by women in enjoying their freedoms

(Subrahmanian, 1998). These are gender equality issues a teacher education curriculum should address if it is to be considered effective and relevant.

Another area of concern revealed by data is that some policies in teacher education institutions at the beginning of the 1980s are still defined by the policies of the 1930s when teacher education started. Such policies include the ‘unwritten’ but practiced policy of giving female teachers the lower levels/classes. Tables 15 and 16 contrasts primary and secondary school teachers between the years 1985 – 1991 to confirm this *status quo* in schools.

This practice can best be understood through the claims of the Socio-psychological theories: Post-structuralism perspective. This theory is applied to loosely linked concepts about meaning, for instance, the manner in which meaning is struggled over, produced and the way it circulates among people. Meaning is viewed as dynamic, shifting as various institutional, cultural, linguistic, and social factors interact. Meaning also affects human subjectivity, which also is viewed as shifting, multifaceted and contradictory (Mannathoko, 1995).

Therefore, the dynamic of having female teachers clustering the lower levels of school education, while their male counterparts cluster the upper levels, though not by compulsion, remains a social and cultural expectation in Swaziland. One can argue that this classification of levels according to their importance to the state and society is contributing to gender stratification because the male

students dominate the high status levels and female students are marginalised in low status levels.

Although women are not compelled to teach these lower levels, however, it is an institutional expectation underpinned by the socialised belief that women are best suited to caring and bringing up children. This therefore means that women discursively continue to be viewed as caretakers, both within families and in the traditionally woman-identified professions such as teaching (Yuval-Davis, 1997). These assumptions of mothering, femininity, and teaching continue to have profound impact on the organisation and material practices within schools, as in all other arenas.

Course content with respect to gender in colleges of education is another indication that gender issues are not a priority in teacher education institutions in Swaziland.

The researcher concurs with Rosser, (1990) who believes that curriculum materials that are gender biased in language, content, and/or illustrations reinforce the idea that some fields are gender specific. It is true that pre-service teachers need to learn to perceive these usually subtle but powerful cumulative impact of curriculum materials on girls' and boys' understanding of the world and their places in it, and to learn to teach in ways that enable students to relate to all aspects of the world without limitation.

One can argue that although the content in most subjects appears to be gender neutral, there is no deliberate effort to address the issue of gender inequality in it. This confirms one of the assumptions that undergird this study which states that stereotypes or biased beliefs, ideas, values, attitudes, images and actions of students in matters related to gender may be perpetuated through curriculum and classroom practices.

Using Botswana as a case in point, an example of an otherwise gender-neutral teacher education (as it is the case with this subject in Swaziland colleges of education) course can be singled out. The example below reveals how gender issues are addressed within the course.

The Art course content for level 1 in particular includes such topics as:

- Background to Art Education in Botswana
- Why Teach Art?
- Development of work into two dimensional forms
- **Art and population and family**
- **Figure life Issues: Gender, race and environment**
- Teaching aids production
- Classroom management

This course indicates a deliberate inclusion of gender related topics by the curriculum planners. This helps in avoiding the assumption that lectures will infuse it in their teaching because there are no guarantees.

In the secondary level college of education in particular, the curriculum of the academic year 1988/89 appears neutral on paper. The descriptions for all subjects offered are the same for both sexes. One can but argue that the disappearance of sex-related differences from the curricular text does not necessarily signify an elimination of sex-related differences from the contents of a subject.

Another indication of gendered socialisation of students in teacher education is when they make their subject choices. Analysis of the choices indicates clearly that male students cluster around 'masculine' subjects (preferably science-based subjects) while female students cluster around 'soft' subjects (see Table 17).

Taiwo and Molobe, (1995) confirming this gendered choice of subjects in a study conducted among senior school students in Botswana, stresses that a good pass in mathematics is a pre-requisite for almost all Science-related disciplines. Therefore, a good performance in mathematics gives one an opportunity to further her/his studies leading to a 'good' job. Because of the girls' reluctance to do Science/Maths related subjects, they do not have equal chances for science-related careers that lead to high-paying jobs.

Another disturbing picture data revealed in this study was that lecturers' priority in teacher education institutions was to 'finish' the course outline and prepare students for examinations. They therefore resort to approaches that lead to lecturer-class better known as the 'technicist approach'. It involves delivering

the curriculum prescribed at a higher level as effectively as possible. With such approaches, gender issues are bound to be relegated to the background.

Mannathoko (1995) brings a new perspective to argument by pointing out that gender-bias perceptions of lecturers on the tension between gender and teaching methods are reinforced by development psychology theories of child centred learning. She argues that an overwhelming majority of male and female lecturers believe that in the classrooms what affects student learning is authoritarian teacher-centred teaching and child-centred teaching methods not gender-sensitive pedagogy. The majority of male and female lecturers are not aware of the fact that in certain contexts it is important to focus on gender matters during the teaching process, rather than learner-centred teaching. This is a plausible observation and has been supported elsewhere in the report with an assertion that gender-related topics can be infused into otherwise gender-neutral courses.

This researcher views the technicist approach as detrimental to gender equality in the classroom and argues that it develops acceptable adaptable-qualifications like obedience as well as with the qualifications of subordination taught to the female gender by the society as a whole.

5.4.1 Summary

The analysis of the formal curricula showed that they have been almost similar for both sexes since the 1970s, and that from this point of view they allow an

interpretation of gender-neutral structures. But sex-related differences in the teaching subject choices indicate that in spite of the formal similarities, the curricula have actually been gendered, and that there is a clear parallel between the historical and current gendered phenomena in the teacher education programme in Swaziland. Analogously to the orientation of their colleagues in the 1930s, the female students of the present day also seem to orient more typically than male students are to be teachers of small children. On the other hand, they have characteristically attempted to acquire qualifications in more varied subjects taught at school than males typically have. Male students have oriented to teach higher grades.

These persistent gender-related trends in education can be conclusively viewed as connected with the more general societal gender-related tendencies in horizontal segregation. Formal education therefore does not necessarily mean gender-free education.

5.5 CHALLENGES FACING IMPLEMENTERS OF THE CURRICULUM IN TEACHER EDUCATION COLLEGES WITH RESPECT TO GENDER

The next question to ask is what challenges face implementers of the curriculum in teacher education colleges with respect to gender?

The researcher argues that the prospective teachers enrolled at the colleges of education are the first challenge. These young adults come from a gendered

social background. The implementers of the curriculum in the colleges are to determine the extent to which the student teachers are aware of issues connected with gender and sex-related equality in educational environments and attempt to help to ‘unlearn’ gender biasness. The following observations from data can be made:

- There is a deep gendered message about subject choices discussed elsewhere in this report. Students and schoolchildren get the message that some subjects are best suited for males or for females. This has led to girls clustering around the so-called ‘soft’ non-science subjects while the boys daringly cluster around ‘the hard’ science subjects.

This practice determines the pattern of career choices and development in their adult life. Today this gender dichotomy has seen women being very few in positions of power, and this has a negative impact on the country’s development.

- The girl child carries the message into her adult world where she remains in the ‘private sphere’ of her home and family. Women therefore mainly cluster around jobs that will not take them away from the ‘family’ hence teaching is usually the best choice. Other choices include essential service jobs like nursing, fashion and design and home care. For duties in the ‘public sphere’, women must depend on men.
- Boys are socialised to take lead. The expectation about boys is that very little can be done about their behaviour. Such behaviour is not expected

from girls. The teachers who teach them come from such institutions where the female teachers have specific expected norms and rules of behaviour. Boys grow up to 'make' the rules while the females grow up to 'obey' them. This is the message sent through gender hierarchy practices like having men dominating as school principals, school inspectors, ministers and members of parliament.

These are issues a gender-laden curriculum in teacher education needs to address fully as a priority.

In summary, data confirm the conception of the position of gender as one component in determining one's status and position in education. On the basis of the curricular documents, at the change of the special societal tasks included in female teacher hood from the 1900s to the present day, the change seems to be from the task of the 'societal mother' of a modern nation state towards a professionally qualified educator free from a gendered division of tasks (Sunnari, 1997). However, when the processes of everyday studies are included in the observation the picture changes. The idea of 'motherhood' seems to be included in female teacher hood even in the present era of teacher education (Mayer, 1996a). It is, however, as Sunnari (1997:146) puts it "*Institutionalised' motherhood: a commitment to serve other people as teachers, in as qualified a way as possible, without a special emphasis on educating mothers for the home.*"

The above quotation indicates the continuing trend of gendering in teacher education and hence a challenge facing implementers of the curriculum and a challenge for pedagogy.

5.6 FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH EFFECTIVE IMPLEMENTATION OF A GENDER-LADEN CURRICULUM IN TEACHER EDUCATION COLLEGES IN SWAZILAND

The findings indicate that lecturers are aware of the need for addressing the gender issues at college level. A statement like, “*gender issues are not adequately addressed in our courses. We just touch and go on them. A full course on gender would be of great help even to us lecturers*” (Head of Education – Nazarene College (Male) February 2007) testifies to this claim. Within this claim is the condition.

Gender issues can be addressed through a full gender course introduced at colleges of education. Sunnari (1997:146) who echoes this in literature posits that “*The development of gender sensitivity in pedagogy...means a higher-order and flexible perspective which challenges one to pay attention to gender in order to prevent sexual bias and promote equality and equity in supporting human growth as an everyday pedagogical and context-bound praxis....*”

A gender-sensitive curriculum, as the one described by Sunnari (1997) above, presupposes:

- Situated knowledge and a theoretical framework of gender and sex-related equality and equity issues
- Linking of social structures, cultural issues and individual and group experiences and considerations in the observations
- A serious and respectful attitude towards each person's experiences and feelings on both an individual and a group level, projects of analysing them for raising consciousness of the issues, and an orientation towards critical awareness as a form of consciousness (Taylor, 1995 in Sunnari, 1997:149).
- An atmosphere of empowerment, caring and respect characterising the mutual pedagogical and other personal relations and the institutional culture (Riddell, 1992:45)
- Intellectuality and, as a presupposition for it, a research and inquiry orientation, openness and possibilities to test and change perspectives, and as part of intellectuality, a search for and analysis of the studied issues instead of trying to transmit knowledge or to use ready made models to solve problems
- Courage to encounter uncertainty and complexity in pedagogical relations and processes, and courage to deal with complexities, to seek for ethically meaningful and flexible perspectives to deal and live with, and to overcome them (Taylor, 1995)
- Orientation to reflect critically on and in action, and connected with it, an ability to make explicit one's own position and the

beliefs and impacts associated with it. One's own actions need to be examined in one's own social context and in the contexts of the partners in the pedagogical relations

- Critical reflection on the objectives of public education of boys and girls, and their teachers' education on institutional, cultural, and individual levels
- Critical observations of the contents of the study subjects from the perspective of gender.

Another factor is the need to eliminate gender hierarchies in teacher education. Gender hierarchy sends the message that males are dominating in leadership positions. Liberal feminism, as a branch of inequality theories explains gender inequality as created by a system that restricts women's access to the "public sphere" by burdening them with 'private sphere' responsibilities like child rearing, housework and support of men. To them, sexism is a key force behind gender inequality. It is composed of discriminatory practices and prejudices against women, responsible for social restrictions and confining them from childhood so that they mature into adulthood as helpless, mindless, and dependent beings (Mannathoko, 1995).

This condition perpetuates the notion that women should remain in their 'private sphere' which Sunnari (1997) labels institutionalised motherhood. This defeat all attempts made to critically reflect on gender biases even in teacher education institutions.

Policy custodians in the Department of Teacher education expressed a view that because there is relatively equal enrolment of the sexes and access to education in Swaziland, gender issues were given the priority within education (Okkelmo, 2003). This poses a problem in the success of a gender-sensitive curriculum as an analysis of the objectives of education from the Ministry of Education revealed that there is no urgency to address gender issues within education.

Another problem raised by the Department of Teacher Education was the unavailability of resources to insert a 'new' programme in the already packed syllabus. Resources needed include funds, personnel, and space to run the course. Personnel need training which will involve funding. An ideal solution to this dilemma could be infusion of gender issues into the different subjects. However, as Moletsane (2004:6) argues about research and curricular interventions in South Africa, teacher educators and feminist scholars' attempt to challenge gender inequality in higher institutions of learning and schools seem uncoordinated. This is true about Swaziland. There is evidence of individual efforts in the form of single modules, one-off lecture slots, or optional courses. Integrated gender equity content across the curriculum is ideal but the least used even internationally. Instead, teacher education programmes tend to use strategies that reinforce rather than reduce gender-stereotyped ideas and gender-disciplinary practices by student teachers, which are subsequently replicated in the classroom.

5.6.1 Summary

Analysis of the students' questionnaire has revealed female students as mainly concentrating on aspects of pedagogical and other human relations and hence the learning activities. The male students on the other hand wrote about exceptional personal choices of subjects, and about girls' disturbing behaviour. This latter answer from the male students was also present in the female students' answers. The concern raised by both sexes seems to be some girls surpassing the given norms or behaving in a way that appeared unacceptable to the students. No student of either sex wrote about boys making the students similarly puzzled as with the girls. This is echoed by international studies. Many other research results have also shown that it is typical for teachers to view boys as needing more activities than female students in school need. Girls are also expected to behave according to the given norms while boys more often surpass them.

On factors perceived to be associated with effective implementation of a gender-sensitive curriculum in teacher education colleges, lecturers expressed the need for such a curriculum change development. It would have significant benefits one of which is concerning students' orientation to reflect critically on and in action, and development of an ability to make explicit one's own position and the beliefs and impacts associated with it. One's own actions need to be examined in one's own social context and in the contexts of the partners in the pedagogical relations.

On the actual implementation processes of the programme, a number of hindrances were identified, that include among others, the attitude of policy makers towards the whole issue of gender perspective. There were however, a number of favourable conditions that could be considered for effective implementation of the curriculum.

5.7 SYNTHESIS OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter dealt with the description and discussion of data. It addressed the research questions that focused the study. The main highlights included a discussion of gender in teacher education structures and processes wherein results presented were historically based highlighting the extent to which gender issues were included in the first curriculum of teacher education. This was comparatively analysed with the extent to which gender issues are included in the current curriculum. The discussion also included challenges face by those implementing the curriculum in the teacher education institutions. Underpinning the whole discussion was a critical analysis of challenges facing implementation of a gender sensitive-curriculum in colleges of education. Chapter six reports on conclusions and recommendations. It further presents areas of research that needs to be followed up.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter concludes the study by presenting conclusions, implications, recommendations, and suggestions for further research areas on gender and the curriculum in teacher education.

6.2 CONCLUSIONS

The basic objective of the research was to study gender and the curriculum in teacher education colleges in Swaziland. The topic was studied from both historical and contemporary perspectives. The historical analysis focused on the first formation of primary teacher education in Swaziland. The perspective in the historical analysis was structural. Gendering in contemporary teacher education, both primary and secondary was approached from the perspective of curricular structures and agencies. The first of the agency-based perspective was concerned with student teachers' encounters with gender and sex-related equity issues. The second perspective concerned the implementers of the curriculum and their perceptions of factors associated with effective implementation of a gender-sensitive curriculum in colleges of education.

6.2.1 Tools and materials used in the study

The main reference in the analysis of the first teacher education college in Swaziland was the first academic curriculum that set the tone for subsequent ones. The main references in the analysis of the history of teacher education in the country were the curricula.

Special tools used to analyse gendering in this study were, “culturally produced differences and their symbolic meanings and asymmetrical valuation” (Sunnari 1997:155). As regards the tool of differences, it showed both its fruitfulness and its limitations especially in the curricular analyses. Sex-related differences in the curriculum were highly visible historically. Currently they are not. However, as already argued elsewhere in the report, the disappearance of the sex-related differences in the text of the curriculum does not mean a disappearance of gendering in the curriculum.

6.3 MAJOR FINDINGS

The following summarises major findings derived from the study:

6.3.1 Educating women for motherhood

The findings of the historical gendered structures of Swaziland primary teacher education are in many respect similar to international findings, for instance, the basic goal in educating girls was to educate them for motherhood.

International findings also show that the special societal task included in women's teacherhood at the time of its establishment was connected with societal motherhood and domestic duties.

6.3.2 Different personal growth objectives for male and female students

Female students orient towards educating small children while male students orient towards teaching older children at higher education levels

6.3.3 Gender biases

A wide range of gender biases exist in Swaziland's educational system in general and in teacher education in particular. This was evident in the results, which indicated that:

- a) Many teachers and college lecturers were biased against women. For example, many participants held the view that discrimination based on gender was normal and that men and women should do certain jobs exclusively. In some situations, women were biased against themselves;
- b) It was clear that gender biases were widely spread among learners
- c) Some aspects of the curriculum were evidently gender insensitive
- d) Some of the teaching approaches used by college lecturers and teachers enhanced gender biases

- e) In some cases, instructional materials such as textbooks promoted gender biases

Lecturers and administrators of the teacher education programme expressed the benefits of a gender-laden curriculum as outlined below. The course presupposes:

6.3.4 Gender equality and equity issues

Situated knowledge and a theoretical framework of gender and sex-related equality and equity issues

6.3.5 Linkage

Linking of social structures, cultural issues and individual and group experiences and considerations in the observations

6.3.6 Consciousness

A serious and respectful attitude towards each person's experiences and feelings on both an individual and a group level, projects of analysing them for raising consciousness of the issues, and an orientation towards critical awareness as a form of consciousness

6.3.7 Empowerment

An atmosphere of empowerment, caring and respect characterising the mutual pedagogical and other personal relations and the institutional culture

6.3.8 Research and inquiry orientation

Intellectuality and, as a presupposition for it, a research and inquiry orientation, openness and possibilities to test and change perspectives, and as part of intellectuality, a search for and analysis of the studied issues instead of trying to transmit knowledge or to use ready made models to solve problems

6.3.9 Encountering uncertainty and complexities

Courage to encounter uncertainty and complexity in pedagogical relations and processes, and courage to deal with complexities, to seek for ethically meaningful and flexible perspectives to deal and live with, and also to overcome them (Taylor, 1995).

6.3.10 Critical reflection and observations

Orientation to reflect critically on and in action, and connected with it, an ability to make explicit one's own position and the beliefs and impacts associated with it. One's own actions need to be examined in one's own social context and in the contexts of the partners in the pedagogical relations; critical reflection on the objectives of public education of boys and girls, and their teachers' education on institutional, cultural, and individual levels; and critical observations of the contents of the study subjects from the perspective of gender.

The main challenge for gender-sensitive pedagogy as derived from the responses of those who administer and implement the programme in teacher education institutions were the following:

6.3.11 Access to education in Swaziland

Expressed views were to the effect that because there is relatively equal enrolment of the sexes and access to education in Swaziland, there was no need to give the gender issue a priority within education

6.3.12 Gender awareness

An analysis of the goals/objectives of education from the Ministry of Education revealed that there is no urgency to address gender issues within education. There is no clear policy guiding the implementation of gender awareness activities in teacher education

6.3.13 Resources

Unavailability of resources to institute a 'new' programme in the already packed syllabus

6.3.14 Uncoordinated attempts

Uncoordinated attempts to challenge gender inequality in teacher education colleges by teacher educators.

6.4 IMPLICATIONS

Implications from the study are that:

6.4.1 Teacher education institutions' curriculum

Teacher Education Institutions' curriculum knowledge is reproducing the dominant patriarchal culture. As argued in preceding sections, curriculum texts and course outlines depict masculine narratives and discourses of male knowledge. Although women are not invisible in curriculum texts, their visibility, and narratives are confined to their role as appendages of men

6.4.2 Quality training

The tendency among teachers (and teacher educators) to notice boys differently from girls, and to experience boys as more challenging and to interpret pupils' school success in sex-related ways still exists. It is for this reason that the quality training of student teachers in particular must go beyond offering gender awareness but must deal with helping them to learn how to confront their own personal knowledge and understand how the gender stereotypes within this personal knowledge are at the core of their resistance to gender reform

6.4.3 Theory and practice

There is a gap between theory and practice concerning gender sensitiveness by some education practitioners in teacher education.



6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations emerge from the conclusions and implications derived from the findings. These recommendations will generate a debate that will culminate in positive actions taken towards addressing gender issues in the country's education system. Some of the recommendations therefore are outlined below. They are arranged according to the research questions that focused the study:

6.5.1 To what extent are gender equality and gender equity issues included in the current curricula in teacher training colleges in Swaziland?

6.5.1.1 Course content

Teachers and teacher educators should examine their syllabuses with the view of incorporating a gender dimension by: i) including the introductory themes on gender; and ii) by exploring gender issues within some of the topics of existing syllabus.

6.5.1.2 Ministry of Education

That the Ministry of Education in collaboration with external donors should consider a continuity in funding workshops, or programmes designed to make students and teacher educators gender sensitive in the area of instructional materials, teaching approaches and classroom management.

6.5.1.3 Gender awareness programmes

As part of the implementation of gender-laden education in colleges of education, it is recommended that: a) teacher educators themselves be gender sensitive through gender awareness and sensitisation programmes. b) Teacher educators and teachers should employ engendered patterns of classroom organisation and interaction, and c) engendered teaching approaches be employed.

6.5.2 What challenges do those who implement the curriculum in teacher training colleges in Swaziland experience during the implementation process?

6.5.2.1 Capacity building

Capacity building centres should be established in all educational regions intended to train teachers and teacher educators in gender-laden education.

6.5.2.2 Data Banks

Data banks should be established containing useful statistics and publications on gender issues.

6.5.2.3 Research

Research should be stepped up in the area of gender with particular emphasis on passing on research skills on gender to participants.

6.5.3 What factors are associated with effective implementation of a gender-laden curriculum in teacher training colleges in Swaziland?

6.5.3.1 Gender-sensitising publications

That the Ministry of education should develop and distribute widely gender sensitising publications with the view of promoting gender awareness and sensitivity in the educational system. These materials should contain important guidelines that can be used by any educationist who wishes to promote gender awareness and sensitivity. For example, a published booklet should highlight how gender awareness and sensitivity could be enhanced among teacher educators, teachers and learners such as:

- a) Conducting workshops
- b) Introducing engendered classroom organisation and interaction
- c) Introductory lessons on gender
- d) Focus on gender issues within the existing syllabus topics
- e) Introducing gender issues career guidance
- f) Analysing gender issues in instructional materials, and
- g) Conducting research projects on gender issues.

6.6 RECOMMENDED FOLLOW-UP RESEARCH AREAS

The findings have suggested challenges for further research in the following areas:

6.6.1 Female study processes in colleges of education

A study that will investigate study processes of female students in the different colleges of education and, connected with this, the question of whether the processes are overburdening and whether there are gendered reasons for it.

6.6.2 Significance of teacher education with regard to gender

A study to investigate the effectiveness of teacher education from the viewpoint of gender. This could be a tracer study addressing itself to qualified teachers who have been exposed to gender issues.

6.6.4 Cultural environments of school environments with respect to gender

A study to investigate the cultural study environments of different school subjects, especially cultures of the subjects where gendering has been most obvious historically in Swaziland.

6.6.5 Pedagogical relationships

A study investigating issues of sexuality and sexual harassment in pedagogical relationships.

6.6.6 Resources division in education

A study assessing the division of resources of education and the changes in the resources in the contemporary societal change from the viewpoint of gender in teacher education institutions. This study could help establish the extent to which both sexes access resources in these institutions.

6.7 CHAPTER SYNTHESIS

This chapter has documented major findings of the study highlighting benefits of a gender-sensitive pedagogy in teacher education colleges and constraints to implementing a gender sensitive curriculum. It also highlighted implications of the findings and recommendations in accordance with answers to the research questions. Further investigations into this area of study were identified.

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APPENDIX 1

Gender and curriculum in Swaziland’s Teacher Training Colleges: Challenges for a gender-sensitive pedagogy

1.1 Questionnaire for student teachers

Purpose

The purpose of this questionnaire is to get to know your experiences and encounters with gender and sex-related equality and equity issues and how you interpreted them during your teaching practice. The questionnaire collects data to assess and analyse gender issues and the extent to which teacher education colleges prepare students to be gender-sensitive during their teaching practice. Please answer the questions as accurately as possible because your response is critical to conclusions to be reached and recommendations to be by the researcher. Instructions on how to respond to the items are provided at the beginning of each item. All information given will be treated with strict confidentiality.

1.1 SECTION A:

1.1.1 Biographical data: In this section (i-vi) please give information about yourself by ticking in the appropriate box or kindly fill in the blanks where necessary.

i) Gender:	Female	☐
	Male	☐

- ii) Age [Last birthday] _____ Years
- iii) Marital status:
- | | |
|---------|----------------------|
| Single | <input type="text"/> |
| Married | <input type="text"/> |
| Other | <input type="text"/> |
- iv) What is your subject specialisation combination? a) _____
- b) _____

1.2 SECTION B: Please answer all questions as best as you can. Use the spaces provided.

1. Have you met in school or teaching situations/things that it would be necessary to study in respect of gender equality and gender equity?
- | | |
|-----|----------------------|
| Yes | <input type="text"/> |
| No | <input type="text"/> |

If your answer is yes, please explain your observations.

2. What kind of action do you think should be taken in order to realise sex-related issues, problems or challenges in school or in the college?

3. Do you think that gender equality education would be a necessary course in teacher education? Please give reasons for your answer.

4. What are your experiences of the teaching practice period? What did you like most?
What did you not like?

5. Have you, during your teaching practice encountered anything connected with equality or equity between the sexes that you noticed? Please explain your answers.

1.3 SECTION B: Categories of student teachers, encounters with gender equality issues in the classroom during their practice teaching.

Please describe your classroom/school experiences for each of the following:

i) Exceptional cases made by students on subject selection.

ii) Particular behaviour of boy(s) and girl(s).

iii) a) Favouring treatment of girls/unfair treatment of boys.

b) Favouring treatment of boys/unfair treatment of girls.

iv) Gendered treatment of girls and boys by other teachers.

Thank you for your time. Should you need to elaborate on any of the sections of this questionnaire kindly use the space below or the back of the pages

Appendix 2

Interview Schedule for College Lecturers

Purpose

The purpose of this interview schedule is to get to know your experiences and encounters with gender and sex-related equality and equity issues and how you interpret them in your practice. The interview aims to collect data to assess and analyse gender issues and the extent to which teacher education colleges prepare students to be gender-sensitive during their teaching practice.

Biographical data

i) Gender: _____

ii) Qualification: _____

Focus Area	Questions
<i>1. Patterns of career development</i>	Can you tell me how you came to be a lecturer at this college? Probes: - were you previously a teacher at primary, secondary, senior school? - Why did you go into teaching in the first place? - Why did you move to teacher education? - Can you remember anyone who was particularly influential in your career decisions?

	- I see there are x males and y females at this college. Is this a better career for men or for women? - Is it equally easy for women to get promoted?]
2. Training for the job	- Have you had any training for the job of teacher educator? Probes: - When you first started as a lecturer, how did you know what to do? - was there anyone who showed you, or acted as a role-model for you? - were you able to draw on skills learnt elsewhere? - have you attended any in-service courses, workshops or other programmes of study? - What kinds of in-service training, or professional development, would be most helpful to you?
3. Perception of their job	- What do you find most rewarding about your work here as a female/as a male? Probes: - Can you give me an example of something that made you feel satisfied as a female/as a male? - What do you find most difficult as a female/as a male?

	- Can you give me a recent example that you found upsetting or frustrating?] - If you were given a second chance, would you choose a different career? Why? Why not?
4. Perceptions of 'good teaching' and the 'good teacher'	- Can you describe the best teacher who taught you? Probes: - What made him/her so good? - And the worst teacher you remember? - what made him/her so bad? - what do you think a person needs in order to be a good teacher?
5. Perceptions of trainees	- What do you think motivates young people to go into teaching nowadays? Probes: - Is it mainly a job for women or for men? - Do you think the motivation is different? Why? - Are women as likely to be promoted as men?] - Can you describe the best student teacher you have ever taught? - can you say what it was that made him/her so good?

	- What do you think prevents all your students from achieving such a high standard? (Motivation? academic level? course too difficult? teachers born not made, gender?)
6. Their own personal and/or espoused theories of teaching/teacher training	- How does being a teacher educator compare with being a classroom teacher? Probes: - do you find it easier, more difficult? - What do you think is most useful in helping a student to learn to teach? - content or 'methods' course? (The 'theory courses' (education foundations, professional studies etc). - What about the teaching practice?] - What is the most interesting book or article you've read recently about teacher training? - what was in it, why it was interesting, if they have used the ideas? - What are the three most important things a young teacher needs to learn? - How far does your course help them learn these things?

	which parts of the course are most useful to them?]
7. How they deliver their part of the curriculum	Can you describe a typical day in your life at the college? Say, a day last week? Probes: check details such as:- the workload: contact hours and other duties teaching styles/methods: lectures, seminars, tutorials, practicals what resources they have available, what they use
8. Perceptions of changes	In what ways do you consider the course you teach to be helping in achieving goals of Vision 2021? Probes: does it have a different philosophy? What sort of teacher will it produce? What changes would you like to see made in the course? How do you think the College will have changed in ten years' time? What is the main current problem the curriculum of Teacher Education Colleges? Why it is a problem?

	- If you had power to improve the curriculum of the college, what new courses would you include and why? - To what extent are gender issues addressed by your course? - What do you consider as ideal factors necessary for the effective implementation of a gender-sensitive curriculum in teacher education colleges?
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APPENDIX 3

Interview Schedule for the Department of Colleges

Gender and the Curriculum in Swaziland's Teacher Training Colleges: Challenges for a gender-sensitive Pedagogy

The purpose of this interview schedule is to get to know your experiences and encounters with gender and sex-related equality and equity issues and how you interpret them in your practice. The interview aims to collect data to assess and analyse gender issues and the extent to which teacher education colleges prepare students to be gender-sensitive during their teaching practice.

1. What are your views concerning the handling of gender issues in Swaziland?

Probes:

- Is the Government doing enough?
- what activities are done towards gender issues?

2. Do you find it necessary to introduce gender studies in the colleges of education?

Probes:

- What possible benefits?
- What are possible constraints?

3. In your opinion, do you think initial teacher training in the country prepares pre-service teachers to be gender-sensitive?

Probe:

- Are there any policies on gender that underpin the present curriculum?

4. What do you think is the best method of introducing gender issues into colleges of education in Swaziland?

Probes:

- How far are gender issues addressed in the current curriculum?
- Are there any follow-ups to assess the extent of inclusion and addressing of gender issues in the curriculum?

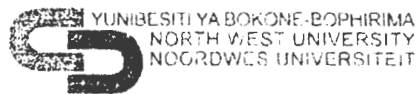
5. Do you think the lecturers in the colleges of education are capable of handling gender issues effectively?

Probe:

- What has your Department done to ensure that lecturers are ready?

**Appendix 4: Letter from School of Postgraduate Studies requesting permission
on behalf of the researcher to undertake the study**

FACULTY OF EDUCATION



OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR

School of Postgraduate Studies

Tel: +27 18 389 2441 / 2500

Fax: +27 18 389 2038

083 736 2231

E-Mail: Lumadim@uniwest.ac.za

**REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT PhD RESEARCH:
IN CURRICULUM STUDIES**

I wish to confirm that Siphon Shongwe is currently registered for PhD in the School of Postgraduate Studies, North West University, Mafikeng Campus.

Siphon need to collect data for his research from various Teacher Training Colleges in Swaziland. I therefore request that he be given the necessary assistance in this regard

Thank you in anticipation of your cooperation and assistance.

Yours faithfully

DR MW LUMADI

DIRECTOR: SCHOOL OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES



MAFIKENG CAMPUS
Private Bag X2046, Mmabatho, South Africa, 2725
Tel: (018)389-2111 • Fax: (018)382-5775
Internet: <http://www.nwu.ac.za>



Appendix 5: Researcher's letter requesting colleges of education's permission to
undertake the study

University of Swaziland

Tel.: Matsapa 5184011, 5184747, 5184545
Kwaluseni Campus Tlx.: 2087 WD
Fax: 5185276
E-mail: UNISWA

Kwaluseni
P'Bag Kwaluseni
Swaziland
Southern Africa



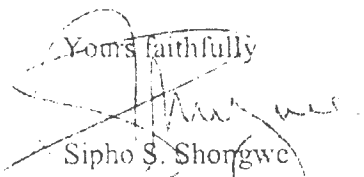
TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I wish to ask your permission to collect data from you towards the completion of a research on Gender and Teacher Education in Swaziland.

The research is towards a PhD in Curriculum Studies.

I would therefore be grateful to receive your co-operation and assistance in this regard

Yours faithfully


Sipho S. Shongwe
(Lecturer – UNISWA)

University of Swaziland

Tel.: Matsapa 5184011, 5184747, 5184545
Kwaluseni Campus
Tlx.: 2087 WD
Fax: 5185276
Tlgrm: UNISWA



Kwaluseni
P/Bag Kwaluseni
Swaziland
Southern Africa

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH TOWARDS PhD IN CURRICULUM STUDIES WITH THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH WEST – SOUTH AFRICA

This serves to confirm that Mr. Sipho Shongwe is a lecturer in the Faculty of Education's Department of Curriculum and Teaching at the University of Swaziland.

Mr. Shongwe needs to collect data for his research towards a PhD in Curriculum Studies from Teacher Training Colleges in Swaziland.

We therefore humbly request you to give him the necessary assistance in this regard.

Thank you in anticipation of your co-operation and assistance.

Yours Faithfully

Mr. D. Manyatsi

Head of Department – Curriculum and Teaching

Appendix 7: Letter of permission from the Chief Inspector of Colleges

LETTER OF REQUEST

To: Colleges of Education

The Principals

Lecturers

From: Mr. Peterson Dlamini

Chief Inspector – Colleges of Education

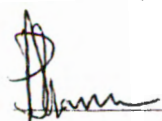
Date: 09/07/07

Re: **Letter of Request**

Mr. Sipho S. Shongwe (Lecturer- University of Swaziland) is conducting a research for his doctoral thesis. The purpose of this study is to investigate gender and the curriculum in teacher education colleges in Swaziland.

This office has no objection in allowing him to gather information from the respondents pending arrangements made between him and yourselves. Kindly assist him in anyway you can.

Yours truly,



Mr. P. Dlamini
Chief Inspector-Colleges of Education

Appendix 8: Letter of permission from William Pitcher Secondary College of

Education



William Pitcher College

Tel: (+268) 505-2081/2
(+268) 505-4672/7
Fax: (+268) 505-4690

P.O.Box 87
Manzini
Swaziland

9th July, 2007

Sipho S. Shongwe
University of Swaziland
Private Bag 004
KWALUSENI.

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

We acknowledge receipt of your application to conduct research that will investigate:

- ❖ Investigate the extent of gender inclusiveness teaching at colleges.
- ❖ Investigate the extent to which college lectures are gender aware.

You are granted permission to conduct research data collection in Secondary Schools for your research entitled:

Gender and the Curriculum in Teacher Training Colleges in Swaziland. Challenges for a gender sensitive pedagogy.

You are however informed that the findings of your research should only be used to for professional development.

You are reminded to submit a copy of your final report to the William Pitcher College.

Thank you.


T.N. MALANGWANE
PRINCIPAL

University of Swaziland

Tel.: Matsapa 5184011, 5184747, 5184545
Kwaluseni Campus Tlx.: 2087 WD
Fax: 5185276
Hlrm: UNISWA



Kwaluseni
P Bag Kwaluseni
Swaziland
Southern Africa

9 July, 2007

Faculty of Education
School of Postgraduate Studies
North West University
Mafikeng
South Africa

Sirs

RE: PH. DISSERTATION OF MR. SIPHO SHONGWE

I certify that I had made the proof-reading of the dissertation of Mr. Siphon Shongwe, entitled

Curriculum and Gender in Teacher Training Colleges in Swaziland: Challenges for a Gender-Sensitive Pedagogy.

and I found that except for a few minor correction the dissertation was, in my opinion, acceptable.

Prof. R. J. Cazziol
Educational Foundations