

**THE IMPLEMENTATION OF GENDER POLICY
PROGRAMMES IN SELECTED STATE UNIVERSITIES IN
ZIMBABWE**

by

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DECLARATION

I declare that **'The Implementation of Gender Policy Programmes In Selected State Universities In Zimbabwe'** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

Signature:

Date: 18 September 2011

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ABSTRACT

The study is a gender critical investigation of the implementation of gender policy programs in student admission in Zimbabwe state universities. The study locates itself in the student admissions section of these institutions, acknowledging the potential contributions of the practices and procedures in this section towards achievement of gender equality. The study focused on the nature of the implemented programs, the gender equality model pursued and how the programs are made part of the mainstream. The study employed a multi-pronged theoretical frameworks approach as its theoretical framework to determine feasible strategies in analyzing the research problem, choosing the research approach, deciding on the research methods, formulating the research questions and in drawing the conclusion to the study. A mixed method inquiry used the multiple case study survey, documentary analysis and interviews to gather data in two state universities. The study found that in spite of the state universities implementing gender policy programs as required by the Zimbabwe National Gender Policy (2004), gender inequalities persisted, and in the process the study revealed more barriers than successes encountered on the road to gender equality. This concurred with some of what was predicated from literature on the use of the adopted approaches to gender mainstreaming and models of gender equality pursued. The chief factor responsible for the inequalities was found to be the pervasive, deeply entrenched patriarchal conservatism, cultural stereotypes, biases and discriminations held by some actors in student admissions which marginalized gender equality and consequently, rendered the gender equality agenda elusive. The study identified the need for adoption of a wider conception of gender and gender equality and of a radical transformative approach in order to resuscitate the paralyzed gender equality mandate in student admissions. Apart from generating some new insights regarding theory, the study is also of value at an applied level: serving to support programs and sustainable plans for gender equality implementation in student admissions in universities. The main recommendation of the study is the need for a new shift in policy program implementation, and the study outlined the main cardinal points of this new paradigm.

KEY WORDS

Gender policy programs

Student admissions

Mixed method study

Zimbabwe state universities

Survey

Document analysis

Interviews

Gender equality implementation

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AAU	Association of African Universities
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
BDPA	Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action
BEAM	Basic Education Assistance Module
BU	Blackwell University
FAWE	Forum for African Women Educationist
FSN	Food Science Nutrition
GAD	Gender and Development
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency virus
ICT	Information Communication Technology
MMA	Mixed Method Approach
SARDC-WIDSAA	Southern African Research & Documentation Centre – Women in Development Southern Africa Awareness
SRC	Student Representative Council
SU	Stoneville University
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children’s Fund
VC	Vice Chancellor
WID	Women in Development
ZNGP	Zimbabwe National Gender Policy
ZWRN	Zimbabwe Women’s Resource Centre and Network

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CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND, PROBLEM IDENTIFICATION AND AIMS

1.1 GENDER AS A CONTEMPORARY EDUCATIONAL ISSUE

The question of gender, as a critical issue in various domains of society warranting global concern, was first brought to the fore by the United Nations (UN) in 1975, at the first world conference on women held in Mexico (UN 1975: 2). This was after the world states had realized that gender is a differentiating and structuring feature of society, like the variable concepts of class, race, ethnicity and economics (Kimmel 2003: 13). This eventually culminated in the treatment of gender as a fundamental social issue by the UN that has to be accommodated in all areas of social interactions, such as the school and the workplace (UN 1996:1). Aware of the cross-cutting importance of gender, emphasis on gender inclusiveness, that is, removal of all gender biases and discrimination was called for by the UN in all aspects of the economy (UN 1996:1). In this study gender bias refers to the tendency to be in favour of or against an individual or group on basis of their sex. Gender discrimination is the unfair treatment directed towards an individual or group on the basis of sex. Gender bias and gender discrimination have been shown by research to be major barriers to development (UNESCO 2003 /4: 14).

In relation to education, in 1995 the UN, at the Fourth World Conference on Women, challenged policy makers to analyze all aspects of the education system to ensure that the system contributes towards removal of gender biases and discriminations (UNESCO 2003/4: 14, UN 1996: 1-2). Chief education areas cited include areas of access to, achievement and retention. These cited areas are gendered because study after study (UNESCO 2003/4:19) has shown that the areas are key gatekeepers to boys and girls' achievement of equality in educational opportunities. The UN, at both the Fourth World Conference on Women in 1995 and at the 2000 conference on 'Girls Education Initiative' (UNESCO 2003/4:16), emphasizes that gender equality in education is integral to a rights-based approach to education and thus defines education as a human right. Engendering the cited three areas in relation to education was therefore called upon by the UN at almost all the major UN conferences on women and education (UNESCO 2003/4: 19). Subsequently, the UN emphasizes

gender equality in education as integral to a rights based approach to education, and therefore considers equal opportunity to education as a human right. Hence, the UN considers removal of gender bias and discrimination paramount in the field of education.

Since the 1975 conference, several other international agreements geared towards removal of gender bias and discrimination in education per se were concluded, which indicates the importance of gender issues in education. Prominent among these conferences are the following:

- *The UN Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)* in 1979. Article 10 of CEDAW deals comprehensively with education, covering such areas as the curriculum, gender stereotypes, continuing education, female drop out rates and programmes to redress this problem, among others (UN 1979: 1-18).
- *The UN Third World Conference on Women* held in Nairobi in 1985. This conference produced a thoughtful *Toolkit for Women*. In paragraphs 163 and 173 it deals with education which it defines as “the basis for the full promotion and improvement of the status of women...Special measures should be adopted to revise and adapt women education to the realities of the developing world...” Paragraph 168 emphasizes the need to strengthen centres and programmes of women’s studies (UN 1985: 2-21).
- *The 1990 Jomtein World Conference on Education for All*. Emphasis was put on the need by the world states to ensure equal educational access to boys and girls.
- *The Beijing World Conference on Women* held in 1995. Resolutions made are called the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action [here after BDPA]. The BDPA emphasizes gender inclusive education, that is, an education system that offers equal life opportunities to males and females. Gender mainstreaming was adopted at this conference as the internationally agreed strategy for attainment of gender equality and world states stressed gender mainstreaming into all policies and programmes. Gender mainstreaming in this study refers to a process of normalizing women’s and men’s presence on an equitable basis in any organizational or institutional endeavour. In the final analysis, gender perspectives become part of the normal perspective of that institution. Because of this, the BDPA, remains the most important international statement on gender equality (UNESCO 2003/4: 14,16; UN 1996: 1).

- *The 1996 Mid-decade meeting of the International Consultative Forum on Education for All.* This meeting was a follow up to the 1990 conference on Education for All that was held in Jomtein. The 1996 conference was a worldwide exercise carried out to assess progress towards the 1990 pledge for education for all. To begin with, the studies that culminated in the 1990 Education for All conference had shown that education leads to knowledge and empowerment. In a world in which knowledge plays an ever greater role, the UN sees the role of education as nothing less than the right to participate in the life of the modern world (US Department of Education Office for Civil Rights 1991: (i)). Aware of this power and potential of education, the UN, in 2000, called for this mid-decade conference to ensure that there was 'no room for complacency' on the road to education for all (UNESCO 2003/4:14). Hence the conference re-visited the revitalization of the goal of education for all, boys and girls.
- *The 2000 UN Girls' Education Initiative.* The aim of this conference was to look at the strategies that reduce the gender gap in schooling for girls and that give boys and girls equal access to all levels of education. The focus of the strategies was on countering gender discrimination in education. This was after the UN had realized that despite the initiatives and conferences by the world states, in developing countries especially, simply being born female resigned so many females to missed opportunities (UNESCO 2003/4:16). The meeting worked towards the removal of barriers on access to education and advocated for the empowerment of women. At national levels the meeting sought to influence decision-making to ensure that gender equity guides national education policies, plans and programmes (UNESCO 2003/4:16).
- *The 2000 Millennium Summit of the UN.* At this summit, leaders and heads of state signed the Millennium Declaration, setting a series of targets for global action against poverty by 2015 (Sweetman 2005: 3). The targets "comprise of quantitative goals, time targets and numerical indicators for poverty reduction, combating HIV, and improvements in health, education, gender equality, the environment and other aspects of human life" (Zimbabwe Progress Report to the UN 2004: 4). Target 4a of the Millennium Development Goal number

3 was broadly framed to promote gender equality in education at all levels by the year 2015 (Aikman, Unterhalter and Challender 2005: 44).

These are just some of the global initiatives towards gender equality in education but are not exhaustive of world efforts towards gender equality in education. Member states of the UN champion all decisions, undertakings and declarations made towards these global efforts. Since this study deals with state universities in Zimbabwe, the next section focuses on what Zimbabwe, as a member of the UN, is doing, (especially in university education) in the wake of the gender equality calls and initiatives by the UN.

1.2 ZIMBABWE AND GENDER

The 1998 UN Human Development Report on Zimbabwe described the entire country as a “highly unequal society” in terms of gender (Zimbabwe National Gender Policy [here after ZNGP] 2004: 1). Following this report and also in line with the international calls for gender equality, the first decade of 2000 has seen the emergence of gender as a priority issue in Zimbabwe (ZNGP 2004:1). The treatment of gender as a priority issue stems from the country’s membership of the UN and, as a member, it has an obligation to abide by the UN gender equality initiatives (ZNGP 2004: (i)). In an effort to transform the UN gender initiatives effectively to a country level, the Zimbabwe government drew up and adopted the national policy, (the ZNGP) to provide guidelines and institutional frameworks to implement its policies and programs at all levels of the economy (ZNGP 2004: (i)).

Thus, the ZNGP was developed and adopted by the Zimbabwe Government in 2004 out of recognition that there are gendered deficiencies in the operations of the Zimbabwe state as a whole (ZNGP 2004: 1). The rationale for ZNGP is that “as a signatory to regional and international conventions, protocols and declarations that promote gender equality and equity, Zimbabwe is obliged to come up with policies that promote equality of sexes” (ZNGP 2004: 1). A gender policy is a principle that guides decisions and achieves rational outcomes in terms of gender (Module 2 2006: 3-4). Unlike a gender rule or a gender law that compels and prohibits behaviours, a gender policy only guides action towards those that are most likely to achieve a desired gender outcome. Although it may have unintended consequences, the intended effect of a gender policy is usually to avoid some negative effect that might have been noticed in the organization/institution or to seek some positive benefit. A gender policy also includes methodologies and strategies for tackling the gendered

deficiencies in the institutions (March, Smyth & Mukhopadhyay 1999: 21). The methodologies and strategies for achieving the stated goals are herein called the 'gender interventions' or 'gender policy programmes' (Bunyi 2003: 4). (N.B. Throughout this thesis, program and programme are used interchangeably).

The ZNGP, emanating from the BDPA, fully endorses the BDPA resolution that gender mainstreaming into all policies and programs be the strategy through which gender equality can be attained (ZNGP 2004: 1, 3, 4).

In the ZNGP, specific strategies are designed to address sector peculiarities in order to provide a guideline for implementation of the national policy. By implementation herein is meant those actions directed at the achievement of set objectives set forth in prior policy decisions (Ornstein & Hunkins 1993: 175). The key set goals of the ZNGP are: "elimination of all negative practices that impede equality and equity of the sexes, mainstreaming gender in all aspects of the development process" (ZNGP 2004: 3). The broad strategy to be employed in the achievement of the set goals is gender mainstreaming in all sector departments, programs, projects and activities (ZNGP 2004: 4).

1.2.1 Zimbabwe Higher Education and Gender

Regarding education and driven by the need to work from an informed position, in 1998 the President of Zimbabwe constituted a Commission of Inquiry into education and training. The presidential Commission of Inquiry comprised prominent educationists (Nziramasanga 1999: 171). The task of the commission was to review the Zimbabwe education and training system in relation to the present and future needs of the country. One of the commission's aims was "to inquire into and report on issues of gender and gender equity as regards access to education at all levels and the formulation of appropriate remedial measures" (Nziramasanga 1999: 172). The report produced is known as the Nziramasanga Presidential Report on education and training of 1999. This report revealed that the Zimbabwe education system (from primary to tertiary levels) was highly unequal in terms of gender. One of its recommendations was to design effective policies and strategies to achieve gender equity in education.

The Nziramasanga report was adopted by the Zimbabwe Government and through the ZNGP, Zimbabwe higher education acknowledges the existence of gender gaps in the education sector and mandates universities to formulate own strategies that can close the gender gaps. Thus, this study

proceeds on the assumption that gender equality programs in Zimbabwe state universities are a reaction to the ZNGP demands for greater institutional gender responsiveness.

Mawere and Chikunda (2006: 1-15) evaluated the implementation of the ZNGP in Zimbabwe teachers' colleges. A succinct summary of their study's findings revealed that the teachers' colleges to a larger extent did not implement the demands of the ZNGP, and where they did, they did not have local policies to guide their operations on the ground and there was virtually no monitoring and/ or evaluation of the happenings on the ground. The departure with this study is that while the Mawere and Chikunda study is on implementation of the ZNGP in Zimbabwe teachers' colleges, this study focuses on the implementation of the ZNGP in Zimbabwe state universities admissions procedures and practices.

Earlier to the Mawere and Chikunda (2006: 1-15) study, in 2000, in a study conducted by the Ministry of Higher Education and Technology (Zimbabwe), a report produced showed that, though knowledgeable about the benefits and need for gender inclusive education policies and programs, the policy makers did not know what gender entailed in the development and implementation of such policies and programs (Ministry of Higher Education and Technology: Policy Makers Seminar on Gender Issues in Education in Zimbabwe. 26-29 September 2000: 4-5). To the best knowledge of this researcher no follow up studies were made to the report, hence the gap in development and implementation of gender policies and programs in Zimbabwe higher education remained. This is the gap that this current study seeks to fill.

Concurring with the Ministry of Zimbabwe study just cited above, Bunyi (2003: 3), working on 'Improving Tertiary Education in Sub-Saharan Africa' (including Zimbabwe) noted that there is "little in the available literature that shows that the impact of gender interventions are being measured, or even the details of what the interventions entail and the processes through which they are being designed and implemented." Bunyi, indeed, acknowledges that studies on gender interventions in universities have been done. In 2001, for example, the likes of Verdina Masanja, Deborah Kasente and Regina Karega researched such issues, (Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE) 2003: 4). Kasente (2001:5-13) describes the work done at Makerere university to mainstream gender, talking of gender structures institutionalised within the university, for example, setting up of gender studies departments. Karega (2001: 4-10) concentrates on the statistical overviews of Kenyatta, Dar es Salaam, Abdou Mounouni and Makerere universities according to students, staff and residences.

Masanja *et al* (2001) focus on issues considered critical if females are to participate more in universities. Masanja (2010: 1-13) focuses on increasing women's participation in science, mathematics and technology. These cited studies involve gender interventions and mainstreaming in universities and are selective rather than comprehensive. But Bunyi's concern was the dearth in data on the implementation processes of the initiatives employed to achieve gender equality. This is the gap filled by the current study.

Government educational institutions in Zimbabwe, as the state's agents of change are required to adhere to the demands of the ZNGP. This is why this study only involved state universities and not private universities, because only state institutions, as the state's agents of change, are mandatorily bound by the ZNGP (ZNGP 2004: 1). But the ZNGP does not prescribe what a particular university should do to address the issue of gender, choosing to leave it open for each university to do as it best thinks fits its situation. Leaving the choice of what policy programs to devise and adopt open to a particular institution is a credit on the part of the ZNGP, because such an approach is cognisant of grass root realities. Each university is unique and, as Ornstein and Hunkins (1993: 303) advise, it is prudent to resort to programs that are context specific because such situationally dictated programs do not run the risk of ignoring the situational realities, and hence remain relevant.

1.3 INVESTIGATION AND STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

1.3.1 Preliminary investigation of the problem

As a lecturer in the gender studies department at the Midlands State University, (Zimbabwe), this researcher became interested in the demand made by the ZNGP on state universities. In November 2007, March 2008, June 2008 and November 2008 she carried out a preliminary study, through the offices of the registrars, personnel, admissions and student affairs on what the universities were doing regarding this requirement by the ZNGP. The researcher thus heeded the advice of carrying out preliminary studies offered by Fairclough (1992: 230), who suggests that mapping phases/preliminary studies are necessary in choosing samples. The author goes on to suggest that "samples should be carefully selected on the basis of a preliminary survey of the corpus, taking advice where one can get it from those being researched...so that they yield as much insight as possible."

This preliminary investigation (which in actual fact was a mapping phase), helped the researcher in identification of the institutions researched.

Settling on student admissions

After the preliminary investigations of November 2007, March 2008, June 2008 and November 2008, this researcher embarked on another intensified preliminary study between the 3rd and the 12th of May 2010. This intensified preliminary study was carried out after the researcher had agreed with her supervisor on which two state universities to work with. Having sampled the two universities, the researcher realised that it was not possible to cover all the university areas of operation that employed gender policy programs since the researcher was not interested in sweeping surveys but in an in-depth inquiry. Hence, it was felt prudent to focus on only one university area of operation. Based on the results of this intensified preliminary study, a choice had to be made on which university area of operation to focus. The selection was guided by two main considerations: a) an area found common to the two sampled universities and b) an area that seemed most data rich in terms of operationalisation of the planned policy programs. The selected area was 'Student Admissions' into the university and into the various areas of study or academic departments. Thus, student admissions covers the whole process from entering a university, a faculty and finally a department.

1.3.2 Statement of the problem

Borrowing from both the results of the preliminary investigations of the problem (cf. 5.2) and from the research studies, especially by Mawere-Chikunda (2006: 1-15), the Ministry of Higher Education and Technology (Zimbabwe) (2000: 4-5) report and Bunyi (2003: 3-4), a need existed to investigate the gender policy programs in student admissions, especially to do with: their exact nature, their implementation, as well as their gender impact on the intended beneficiaries and on the envisaged goal of gender equality with a view to revitalization of certain policy programs or finding completely new directions if current endeavours do not completely yield desirable outcomes. This is the gap that this study filled and these cited areas of the gap formed the sub-research questions of this study. [The notion of finding new directions if current ones prove futile is borrowed from Beshu *et al* (1996: 3); Goezt (1997: 2) and Mbilinyi (2000: 3) who all encourage change in existing shifts if they do not yield desired outcomes.] Against that background the main research question to be answered was:

How effective is the implementation of gender policy programs in student admissions in Zimbabwe state universities?

Deriving from the above research question, the following sub research questions were necessary to set the boundedness of the stated problem more clearly:

1. What gender policy programs are employed in student admissions in the selected universities? What are the objectives of the policy programs? What are the gender dimensions of the objectives of policy programs?
2. What approaches to gender mainstreaming can be identified in the literature? What are their strengths and limitations in areas where they have been applied?
3. How are the gender policy programs mainstreamed in student admissions in the selected universities? What implementation challenges are faced? What steps have been taken, if any, to combat the obstacles?
4. What models of gender equality can be identified in the literature? With specific reference to the universities under study, which model of gender equality is invoked by the policy programs? What are the strengths and limitations of the models in countries and areas where they have been applied?
5. To what extent do the implemented policy programs close the gender gaps in student admissions?

1.4 AIMS OF RESEARCH

In view of the above research problem, the following were the aims of this study:

- To identify the gender policy programs employed in student admissions in the selected universities, establish their objectives as well as the gender dimensions of these objectives.
- To identify the approaches to gender mainstreaming in the literature and to establish the strengths and limitations of these approaches in areas where they have been applied.
- To analyze how the identified gender policy programs are mainstreamed in student admissions in the selected universities, establishing the implementation challenges faced and any combating strategies rendered.

- To identify models of gender equality in the literature and journey through the model(s) of gender equality invoked by the policy programs, as well exploring the strengths and limitations of the models in the countries and areas where they have been applied.
- To make an impact assessment of the gender policy programs employed in student admissions on the intended goal of gender equality.

1.5 CLARIFICATION OF TERMS

In this study, the key terms were: gender, gender mainstreaming, gender equality, gender policy programs and student admissions. Following are their meanings as understood within the context of this study.

1.5.1 Gender

Chapter two details the historical development of gender, how the word gender is used in development arenas, and in this study, providing also both the Eurocentric and Afrocentric views of the word. In this section, only a thumbnail definition of the word is offered. Connell (2002: 6) states that gender is the social and cultural categories of the biological fact of human sex differentiation. Put simply, it is the meaning given to one's sexual identity and not the state of one's sexual identity of male or female. While the state of one's sexual identity (i.e. sex) is fixed, the meaning given to one's sexual identity (i.e. gender) varies. This is because while sex is natural, gender is socially constructed and determined.

Gender encompasses beliefs, expectations, activities and attributes that a particular community considers appropriate for its men and women. As these beliefs, expectations and attributes vary from community to community, gender varies from community to community and in this study from university to university and even, from one department to another. In any community there is a gender norm - hence different notions of the 'real man' and the 'real woman' as masculinity and femininity are defined by different communities. In defining masculinity and femininity, the gender norms restrict the range of choices available to university males and females, more so in an African context where 'maleness' and 'femaleness' are considered mutually exclusive categories (Crawford 2006: 18; Kimmel 2003: 34). The gender norms describe the 'who' males and females are at the university and also tell the 'who' they should be. These messages are communicated, mostly in non-official ways, yet they are pervasive enough to produce a lasting impact on the university registrars,

deputy registrars, senior assistant registrars, faculty deans and departmental chairpersons' minds. This is why for this study the use of a mixed approach is judicious - to make the researcher understand not only the numbers (i.e. the solid structural information) but the motives, beliefs, expressions, opinions and reactions behind the participants' actions on a personal level. Motives, beliefs, expressions, opinions and reactions are dictates of gender. Hence, gender is thus inside and to understand it, one needs to understand people's beliefs and perceptions. Gender is therefore, the structural relationship between men and women, a social construct with inequalities shaped by social relations (Unterhalter 2004a: 1-2).

1.5.2 Gender mainstreaming

Adopted at the Fourth World Conference on Women in 1995 as the internationally agreed strategy for removal of gender bias and gender discrimination, gender mainstreaming has been identified in a number of ways. But, although there is a great deal of contestation surrounding the concept, there is a high degree of agreement about its purpose and its outcome. Gender mainstreaming "seeks to produce transformative processes and practices that will concern, engage and benefit women and men equally by systematically integrating explicit attention to issues of gender into all aspects of an organization's work" (Cornwall, Harrison and Whitehead 2007: 124). The main stream is the core stream into where other streams flow. Thus, put simply, to mainstream gender is moving gender from the periphery to the centre focus of any activity. When gender is made centre focus then it is not possible to ignore, fail to take account of, forget or overlook men's and women's issues. Gender equality is the ultimate goal of gender mainstreaming (Cornwall, Harrison & Whitehead 2007: 124). Thus, at the end of it, if evaluations reveal that there is no attainability of gender equality, it shows that there was and there is no effective gender mainstreaming. This points to the next term: gender equality.

1.5.3 Gender equality

Different dimensions of gender equality abound. What gender equality means and entails takes the shape of the conception of gender adopted. A narrow view of gender gives birth to a narrow view of gender equality, and a wider view of gender breeds a wider view of what gender equality entails. In this study, drawing from the adopted wider conception of the term gender, the wider conception of the term gender equality is taken. Gender equality cannot simply be seen as a matter of equal numbers or equal treatment (Derbyshire 2003: 3). Gender equality has strong critical qualitative

measures. It is about removal of all forms of discrimination (UNESCO 2003/4: 2; Unterhalter 2004a: 1-2) in the university student admission procedures and practices. Achievement of equal numbers only is known as '*parity democracy*' and on its own and of its own is never real gender equality but only a *prima facie change* (Unterhalter 2004a: 1-2). Real gender equality, known as *gender equality de facto* (Lombardo 2003:7) entails, not only attainment of equal numbers, but ridding the mainstream of all forms of discrimination. In this study, such forms of discrimination may include stereotyped attitudes of registrars, senior assistant registrars, deans of faculties and departmental chairpersons. Other forms of discrimination include students' attitudes and stereotypes that may need deconstruction like the gendered aspects of students' access and experience with simple and advanced technology. Derbyshire (2003: 3) maintains that it is not only important to ensure that girls as well as boys are accessing education, it is equally important to consider how they are accessing it - their abilities, their opportunities and their role and status in society. Touched by the ways male and female students access education, Greg Pyke, then the Senior Associate Dean of Admission officer of Wesleyan University (Arizona campus), said "If your life experience makes you value education, which mine does, then you care about who is getting access to education," (Pyke 2002:1).

It is the contestation of this writer that males and females who aspire to be admitted into the university may have different interests and priorities as a result of the socialization processes they have gone through and in order to enable them to reach their full potential, these differences need to be taken into account. Treating their applications the same may not lead to equal opportunity or equal outcome (Status of Women Canada 2005: 2). Hence, it is the feeling of this writer that any action to promote gender equality in the university gender program initiatives in student admissions should be devised on the basis of an understanding of male/female experiences and needs.

This wider definition of gender equality was precipitated by the context in which the term was used, the adopted theoretical framework and by the depth of the analysis needed by the study and these too justified the use of both quantitative and qualitative approaches in this study.

1.5.4 Gender Policy Program

In the context of this study, a gender policy program is a strategy or a procedure that is guided by policy, for implementation to achieve the goal of gender equality. Because the goal is gender equality, gender policy programs are sometimes called gender equality strategies or gender equality interventions (Bunyi 2003: 1- 4).

1.5.5 Student admissions

Student admissions, in this study, is taken to mean the process through which a student enters tertiary education at a university. Unlike in countries such as Australia, Nigeria, Austria, Switzerland, the United States and Belgium where student admissions into university is administered by a centralised unit (Steinberg 2002: 1-14), Zimbabwe does not have a centralized system for student admission to university. Being autonomous institutions, the state universities in Zimbabwe, like most in many countries, have their own unique set of criteria for selecting candidates for admission. In Zimbabwe as in the United Kingdom, students are not only admitted to university as a whole, but to a particular field of study.

1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1.6.1 Rationale for the chosen research approach

Chapter four details the study's research methodology. In this sub section only a preliminary overview is given. In the endeavour to determine the effectiveness of the implementation of gender policy programmes in student admission in Zimbabwe universities, the research began with a literature study before proceeding to an empirical investigation. The focus of the literature study was twofold. First, the literature study enabled an investigation of the international and regional trends in the contextualization of gender in higher education. Second, the literature study enabled a thorough enquiry into existing research in the field of gender and gender policy programs internationally and locally. In this regard the literature study helped the researcher demarcate the problem through assisting in the identification of the knowledge gap to be filled. Also, through conducting an enquiry of the research that had already been done in the field, the literature study helped the researcher not only with this necessary information but also with the choice and justification of the empirical research

methodology. A preliminary investigation of the research problem supplemented the literature study. In doing all this, the literature study enhanced the study's credibility.

After the literature study, the empirical investigation followed. The Mixed Method Approach (MMA) was used in empirical investigation. The choice of the MMA was precipitated by the kind of information/knowledge that the study sought to find. The information that the study sought to find included both quantitative and qualitative aspects of the gender gap in student admissions, a view dictated by the wide conception of a 'gender equality' adopted by the study. The MMA was found suitable because it encompasses "quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language in a single study" (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie 2004: 17). In line with Creswell's argument, the rationale for using the MMA in this study was that, "the quantitative data and results provide a general picture of the research problem, more analysis, specifically through qualitative data collection, is needed to refine, extend or explain the general picture" (Creswell 2010: 515). By including both the quantitative and qualitative approaches, the MMA became more comprehensive to finding answers to the research questions which one single method, (be it only qualitative or only quantitative) could not fully answer. This comprehensive approach served a threefold purpose:

- It became complementary as data was approached from more than one angle, thereby generating harmonizing insights that together created a bigger and better picture (Brannen 2004: 12).
- It was expansionist as the data from the different methods extended the breadth and range of inquiry (Brannen 2004: 12).
- It achieved triangulation as the data from the two methods were checked, validated and corroborated one another. The idea was to understand the phenomenon from different points (Johnson 2004: 21).

Following Johnson's (2004: 3) classification of the MMA, this choice was a partially mixed, sequential, concurrent MMA. The study was partially mixed because, while satisfying all the basic elements of a qualitative study, it did not do the same for the quantitative side. The chief element of a quantitative study that of attempting to determine predicative generalizations of a theory was totally left out as it was not the intention of the study. However, the study satisfied all the basic elements of a

qualitative study. These in this study included that: a) natural settings were key sources of data because the collected data was live and context specific, b) the researcher was the main instrument in both collection and analysis of data, c) the study was highly descriptive with emphasis on specifics, d) the study did not concern itself with proving or disproving set hypotheses and e) the study was concerned more with process than with only outcome and end product. The study was therefore partially mixed being qualitative dominant.

The study was sequential in that the survey and the interview came after documentary analysis and also that this documentary analysis guided some of what was looked for in the survey and the interview. The design was concurrent in that the survey data and interview data were collected at almost the same time.

The chosen research technique for this study was the case study. The case study was chosen because it is typically a strategy for doing research which involves an empirical enquiry that investigates a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources of evidence (Yin 1994: 13); Robson (1997: 146-147). The choice of this design was precipitated by the desire to examine the cases in detail and thus avoid sweeping survey statistics (Robson 1997: 146-147).

1.6.2 Background to the research sites

The researcher's decision to focus on Zimbabwe state universities as research sites has already been outlined in 1.2.1 and in these universities the aim of the study was an in-depth analysis of the implementation of gender policy programs in student admissions. Of the seven conventional state universities, only two were conveniently sampled (Thomas & Nelson 2001: 281). The choice of the two research sites for this study was mainly based on their gender endeavours revealed through the mapping phase of November 2007, March 2008, June 2008 and November 2008. Site A was chosen because it is a large university and on record for its claim to be a beacon for gender equality. Site B was chosen because it was relatively new, being established well after crafting of the Zimbabwe National Gender Policy. Hence there was objectivity in the sampling issue.

Drawing on the caution by Neuman (2003:196) on need to protect the rights and welfare of communities, anonymity of these universities was guaranteed by referring to the two sampled sites as Blackwell university (Site A) and Stoneville university (Site B). The anonymity was ensured so that the

rights and the welfare of the institutions were not violated. After another preliminary study of 3rd to 12th May 2010, a choice to focus only on student admissions was made.

Blackwell University (BU)

The university was established in 2000. The BU is explicit about its commitment to gender equality and equity in student admissions and recruitment policies (BU: Strategic and Business Plans 2001-2015). In 2006, the university came up with an institutional gender policy claiming to “ensure that the National Gender Policy cascades down to institutional levels, which process ensures operationalisation of the policy through identified programmes and activities” (BU Gender Policy, 2006: 2). The purpose of the BU policy is “articulating strategies designed to create and promote a supportive environment in the university for a rational and sustained approach to gender equity and equality” (BU Gender Policy 2006: 2). Document analysis was based on this document as well as on the BU Mission Statement.

Stoneville University (SU)

SU was established in 2002. The SU had no spelt out documents that dealt with gender per se. The university was guided in all its operations by the Strategic Plan 2008-2013. This study's document analysis was based on this document and on the institutional mission statement.

Having conveniently sampled the research site, in accordance with the case study tradition, the participants were then purposively sampled. The principle in purposive sampling is the researcher's judgments as to the typicality of the issue under investigation and the interest of the study. The interest of the study lay in “information rich participants” (Neuman 2003: 200) on basis of successful implementation of policy programs in student admissions. The study sample included the registrars/deputy registrars, senior assistant registrars, deans of academic faculties and chairpersons of selecting departments. These remain gatekeepers to males' and females' access to academic opportunities. They cannot and should not be ignored. This sample was extended in ways guided by the emerging findings to include the chairperson of the “Gender Committee”.

1.6.3 The role of the researcher

In this study the researcher assumed three fundamental roles. First, the researcher was the *prime instrument in data collection and data analysis* (even though with the assistance of a research assistant). In performing this role the researcher was guided by Hatch's (2002: 14) ideas about what is

crucial in qualitative data collection and analysis. Taking note of Hatch's ideas, the researcher described relevant aspects of the self, biases and assumptions as well as own expectations. The researcher kept track of personal reactions, through creation of a "researcher's reflective commentary" (Shenton 2004: 68). Through this 'reflective commentary' the researcher kept a clear record of her own initial impressions of each data collection session and patterns emerging in the collected data. This commentary played a role in monitoring the researcher's "progressive subjectivity", that is, monitoring the researcher's own developing constructions, thoughts and ideas which the researcher considers critical in establishing credibility (Shenton 2004: 68).

The second crucial role of the researcher in this study was that of *being a friend*. This role was realized with the researcher aiming to establish rapport in the opening moments of data collection, (especially the interview). In this study the researcher interacted with the respondents for at least twice (at most five times) during the research. The first time was when the researcher introduced herself and made an appointment for personal access to the respondent, establishing a relationship of trust between researcher and participant. The last time was when the researcher went back to the respondents for member checks.

The third role of the researcher was that of *being a collaborator*: A role the researcher achieved through holding frequent collaborative sessions with the research assistant (cf. 4.4.3.1). Through these collaborative sessions, the vision of the researcher was widened as the other person brought in his insights, perceptions, opinions and experiences. Probing from the research assistant helped the researcher recognize own biases and preferences (Shenton, 2004: 67). This probing was much in line with the study's theoretical framework. Thus, working with the research assistant involves the researcher in a reciprocal and exchange relationship.

1.6.4 Ethical requirements

The researcher ensured that ethics of research were observed by remaining honest and keeping the research information private and confidential throughout the study and ensuring protection of the rights and welfare of the respondents using the following procedures:

- The respondents knew how the researcher could be contacted.
- No confidential data was recorded before the researcher informed the participants well before hand.

- A consent letter was given to all respondents (copy attached, i.e. appendix A) to sign as acknowledgement that they have agreed to participate in the study.
- Respondents were not deceived in any way. The nature of the research and how the information was gathered and used were explained to the respondents through the consent letter as well as verbally.
- Respondents were not compelled to reveal their names or write them on questionnaires. In fact, fictitious names of the institutions and individual participants were used, which did not in any way link the participant to the data, to ensure total anonymity.
- Participation in the study was voluntary. Under no circumstances were the participants forced to participate. All those who participated signed the consent form.

1.6.5 Phases of data collection

The first data collection phase was the preliminary investigation. This data helped the researcher's choice of which universities to include as the research sites and the population for the study. The second data collection phase was the empirical investigation. The process of data collection for this empirical investigation was extensive, drawing on multiple sources of data (documents, interviews and questionnaires) and from multiple sites of data (BU and SU) as is characteristic of a case study research (Creswell 2010: 62). The first phase of this empirical data collection was content analysis of the documents that guided gender program implementation in the institutions. Document analysis was made against the six central issues that guide any gender policy analysis. These six central issues were gleaned from the works of Murison (2004: 2-10); Leo Rhynie (1999: 26, 28-30), and Hannan (2008: 1-8). In brief these six principal issues were:

- **Commitment search:** answering the question: How committed is the policy to the goal of gender equality? A search was made right from the tone of the policy to the implicit and explicit cognizance of the differences between the two sexes.
- **Mechanism identification:** answering the question: How is the achievement of the objective measured and verified?
- **Resource allocation:** answering the question: What resources are availed to support the quest for gender equality?
- **Internal tracking:** answering the question: What measures are put in place for regular periodic checks of progress towards the goal of gender equality?

- **A central gender mainstreaming unit:** answering the questions: Who guides and coordinates the overall gender mainstreaming process? What is the gender know-how and capacity of this network of staff?
- **Underlying paradigm:** answering the question: What are the underlying paradigm audit and its implications for gender equality attainment?

Survey and interview data were collected at almost the same time. Survey data was collected through the questionnaires. Fifty-three questionnaires were distributed to chairpersons of selecting departments. The questionnaires were appropriate for this group of participants because the participants were educated and literate, and also that the sample size for this group of participants was quite large. The questionnaire contained thirty closed and open ended questions. Questionnaires were personally handed to the respondents by the researcher and the research assistant. Questionnaires were filled in at the convenience of the respondents and definite arrangements were made for their collection.

Interviews were all conducted face to face by the researcher for the sake of ensuring consistency in the research process. Interviews were semi-structured consisting also of closed and open ended questions. Semi-structured interviews were compatible with the study in that they offered the registrars, senior assistant registrars, deans of academic faculties and departmental chairpersons a chance to express their views, perceptions, attitudes and experiences on the issues that concern them in relation to student admission practices and procedures rather than the researcher imposing own views on them (Deem 2002: 840). This allowed for the participants' expressions, (i.e. hearing their interest, needs and concerns in their own voices) and had the added merit of deepening the scope of an understanding of the issues. Interviews were audio taped to get a correct verbatim record (Deem 2002: 840) unless it was not in the interest of the participant. In all, twenty-one interviews were carried out plus one interview-cum-discussion of an emerging participant. Such a small sample is appropriate for the case study research design and the critical interpretive gender critical theory. Of these interviews, fifteen were audio taped. These interviews were, where possible, transcribed soon after the sessions so that any emerging data shaped the formulation of further questions as well as reformulation of some initial questions. Interview participants included the two deputy registrars, the two senior assistant registrars, five executive deans of academic faculties and twelve departmental chairpersons and a chairperson of the gender committee. All interviews took place in the offices of the participants, a task made possible by the fact that all the interview respondents, by virtue of their positions at the

institutions, had offices of their own. Following Dzimiri's (2004: 28) advice, the transcriptions were dated using a computer word processor and saved in computer files for easy retrieval and as form of back up to the paper documents that were printed.

Together, the interview files, the completed questionnaires and the analysis from the documents formed the researcher's case study data base and were well stored and maintained in such a way that any external person would be able to trace information back to the source.

1.6.6 Data analysis procedure:

Data from the empirical investigation was analysed in phases as it was collected, then insights from the three phases were brought together to produce an understanding as regards each of the sub research questions and eventually the main research question. Guided by Wolcott's (1994:10-11) views on broad data analysis, in all the three phases, analysis of data moved beyond a mere careful and systematic way of identifying themes and factors from the phenomenon under investigation, to a point of making sense of the data by reaching out for understanding and explanations beyond what could be explained with a degree of certainty. Again, in all phases, the data was analysed from within the gender critical theory which was one of the theoretical perspectives that underpinned the study (cf. chapter two). The essence in each case was to scan and sift the data to get direct and indirect, overt and covert as well as explicit and implicit gender messages from the data. First to be analyzed were the documents and this analysis guided much of what was collected through the survey and the interview.

The documents were evaluated against the central issues of gender policy analysis advanced by Murison's (2004: 2-10) fourteen point framework of gender mainstreaming; Leo Rhynie's (1999: 26, 28-30) guidelines for conducting gender impact analysis and Hannan's (2008: 1-8) analysis of achievements and challenges of gender mainstreaming. The authors provide elements of strategically effective action for gender implementation which advocate the central issues that lay foundation principles that guide analysis of policies for gender mainstreaming. The institutional documents were analysed against the six adopted and adapted cardinal considerations that were made from insights from these authors (cf. 1.6.5).

In all, forty-eight questionnaires (90, 6%) were returned and the survey analysis was based on these. Quantitative data from these questionnaires was analysed using descriptive statistical procedures,

involving in the main, the mode, percentages, frequency tables and graphs at the first level of analysis, and the chi square test results to establish associations of variables at the second level.

The study adopted the view of qualitative data analysis as a “systematic process of coding, categorizing and interpreting data to provide explanations of a single phenomenon of interest” (McMillan and Schumacher 2006: 364). Qualitative data was analysed qualitatively using steps advanced by scholars such as Maxwell (1996:45), McMillan and Schumacher (2006:320) and Strauss and Corbin (1998:107-111). The main qualitative strategy advanced by these authors broadly involved first collating data into a manageable form before constructing a narrative around the data. Steps taken to collate the data into a manageable form mainly followed Ray McDermott’s four recognisable steps of qualitative data analysis (Strauss and Corbin 1998: 107-111). The four adopted steps included: first, contextual coding where and when the principal types of the provided responses were examined. This was made possible by the reading and re-reading of the responses several times in order to get the sense of the whole. Second, the demarcated segments of analysis as groupings created out of the coding led to formulation of categories (groups of similar issues). Third, relationships between the categories were established. These formed the patterns and trends. Fourth, interpretations of data, (i.e. making meaning and sense of the data) were done to enable drawing of conclusions from the data. Interpretation of the data was made possible by the researcher’s theoretical logic (Hitchcock and Hughes 1995: 298). This theoretical logic was from literature studies, and from the continual interactions with the data. It was an iterative process, moving back and forth from data to literature, to methodology.

1.6.7 Validity and reliability of data

Leedy (1997:168) and Shenton (2004:63) emphasise the need to maintain validity and reliability to ensure trustworthiness of the data. The following strategies briefly show how validity and reliability was ensured:

- The purpose of the study was made clear to the participants.
- Participants took part in the study willingly and knowingly. Each signed a consent form (Appendix A).

- A relaxed atmosphere engulfed the research process since participants were interacted with at least twice during the whole research process.
- The questionnaire and the interview were pilot tested as a measure of validity.
- Concerning the questionnaire, in most cases, almost same questions were asked in a slightly different manner as a measure of reliability.
- All interviews were conducted by the researcher to ensure accuracy and consistence of the research process.
- Triangulation of data via the data sites, data instruments and data sources all enabled creation of a rich picture of attitudes and behaviours of the actors in student admissions (Shenton 2004:65; Lincoln and Guba 1985: 283).
- Concerning the interview especially, iterative questioning was employed to enable picking up of likely falsehoods in the collected data.
- Prolonged engagement with data from the mapping phase of November 2007 enabled the researcher to be immersed in the issues.
- Engagement of a peer de-briefer assisted the researcher to widen her own vision as the insights and perceptions from the peer de-briefer were brought to bear on the researcher's vision. This was in line with gender critical theory which values questioning of assumptions to avoid one-dimensional views of issues. This also allowed co-creation of knowledge.
- Member checks (also known as participant validation), a situation where the informants were asked to read interview transcripts and written portions of their dialogues with the researcher to make them consider whether their words meant what they intended (Shenton 2004: 68) added credibility to the study.
- Thick descriptions of the data were made especially by way of direct quotations where necessary so that the voice of the researcher could reach the reader.

1.6.8 Limitations of the study

Due to constraints of time and finance, as a full time lecturer, it was extremely difficult to divide time between normal duties and research hence the sample size was limited to two state universities.

It was not possible to extend the study to other state universities in the country; hence the results may not be generalized beyond the two universities involved in the study. However, based on Borg and Gall's (1996: 62) 10% - 20% acceptable sample, the sample size of two out of the seven conventional state universities (28, 6%) was a true representation.

Moreover, since the study was carried out with deputy registrars, senior assistant registrars, deans of academic faculties and their departmental chairpersons, at BU and at SU of 2010-11, whose experiences of gender policy programmes may be different from those of the other years within the same universities, the results may not be generalized beyond this particular group. Generalizability of the findings to the other groups and universities is therefore impaired; it can only be done cautiously. A replicated study of other year groups would probably produce more consistent results.

1.7 CHAPTER DIVISION

The study is organized around the following chapters:

In **chapter 2**, the historical development of 'gender' is unfolded and the theoretical perspectives that underpin the study are provided. These theoretical perspectives are used as guiding principles and as frameworks of criticism on the effectiveness of gender policy programmes' implementation in student admission.

As approaches to gender mainstreaming and models of gender equality are found critical in the implementation of gender policy programmes and also key determinants to the effective implementation of a gender programme, **chapter 3** is devoted to these issues. Gender mainstreaming as a strategy is not an end itself, but a means to achieving the goal of gender equality. Like any strategy, it is only as good as its implementation. Studies done on some of the key research ideas are also included. The chapter also provides some of the gender equality evaluation models against which the effectiveness of the implementation of gender policy programs in student admissions is measured in chapter 5.

Chapter 4 gives a detailed explication of the research methodology, providing the rationale for the choice of the research methods and methodology that were used to establish the effectiveness of the implementation of gender policy programmes in student admissions in selected Zimbabwe universities. The chapter elaborates on how the three phases of the empirical data collection were carried out. The chapter also details steps that were followed on analysis of data, phase by phase. Catering for ethical issues and ensuring of validity and reliability of the instruments and the data are also explicated.

Chapter 5 provides the research findings regarding the implementation of gender policy programmes in student admissions at the two institutions (from the preliminary findings to the empirical data findings). The empirical findings were first presented phase by phase, before giving an overview of the findings as related to the sub-research questions and the main research question. The gender equality evaluation models outlined in chapter 3 were brought to bear on the final extent and ratings of the effectiveness of the implemented gender programs towards the intended goal of gender equality.

Chapter 6 is the final chapter. The chapter includes a summary of the main findings and recommendations that emanated from the study. Based on the research findings, a devised implementation model forms part of the recommendations. The contributions of the study to both theory and practice are also provided.

1.8 CONCLUSION

The chapter introduced the research study, centering mainly on giving a conceptual background to the study, stating the research problem, giving research aims as well as a preliminary overview of the research methodology. Primarily, the chapter described the research problem and situated it within the context of its setting. The chapter also highlighted operational definitions of key terms, an organizational structure of the study and a conclusion.

The next two chapters comprise a literature review: chapter two concentrating on the conceptual and theoretical perspectives and chapter three on literature that directly focused on the research ideas.

CHAPTER TWO

CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON GENDER

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter looks at the conceptual and theoretical perspectives that underpin this study. The theoretical perspectives offered in this chapter provide logical explanations for why things may be happening the way they do in the Zimbabwe state universities. The researcher uses these perspectives not only as guidelines but also as frameworks for the criticism of existing practice and procedures in student admissions in the selected institutions. Due to the intention to explore and capture the gender motives and beliefs behind the participants' practices and procedures in student selection comprehensively, this study adopted a multi-pronged theoretical approach, where insights from several perspectives are brought to bear on the phenomenon (Haralambos & Holborn 2004:13-15). Each of these frameworks provides its own toolbox of ideas in explaining the phenomenon. It is also borne in mind that none of the adopted theoretical frameworks is without its fair share of criticism and also that none encompasses all reality; a combination of the different insights avoids simplistic solutions to the problem under investigation.

In line with Haralambos and Holborn (2004: 8), this study takes the view of a theoretical framework as a statement or group of statements established by reasoned argument based on known facts, intended to explain a particular fact or event. The particular fact explained in this study was 'The implementation of gender policy programs in student admissions in Zimbabwe state universities.' The driving question is: How effective is the implementation of gender policy programs in student admissions?

For this study, gauging the effectiveness of the implemented gender policy programs called for an exploration and capturing of meanings, motives, perceptions, beliefs, experiences and attitudes of the actors in student admissions as regards their student admission practices and procedures (cf. chapter 1). Differentiating between a practice and a procedure is borrowed from Foster (1990: 31). By practice is meant the performance on which the actors' actions are based in student selection. By procedure is meant the actors' ways of directing student selection in their universities (Foster 1990: 31).

For easy reference, reviewing this literature is structured in the following manner: Section 2.2 deals with the historical paths followed in the development of gender as a development issue focusing on use and significance of these historical paths on the current study; Section 2.3 focuses on the conceptual meaning of “gender” giving both the Eurocentric view as well as the African view of the concept; Section 2.4 settles on a variety of approaches that have been adopted to carry out gender analysis of education centering mostly on the implications thereof for the current study; and Section 2.5 is an agglomerated analysis of theories of gender inequalities, again emphasising on how this analysis informed this study. The chapter ends with a conclusion in 2.6.

2.2 THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF GENDER

The focus of this study is on the implementation of gender mainstreaming policy programs in student admissions in Zimbabwe state universities. Universities are exit doors of formal education into the world of work for those that go through them. Education is a development issue (UN 1996: 2) and the issue of gender and education is an outgrowth of the issue of gender and development. In the light of this, the researcher finds it prudent to start the chapter with a discussion of the issue of gender and development.

The modernization theory of development of the 1960s is the theoretical basis of the issue of gender and development (Visvanathan *et al*/1997: 4). Development here is taken in its simplest form - an attempt to raise the quality of life of all groups in society. All groups in a modern society should, to a considerable extent, exhibit an increase in skill capacity, freedom, creativity, self discipline, responsibilities and material well being. By all groups in this study is roughly meant males and females (Visvanathan *et al*/1997: 16). According to the modernization theory of development, one of the key characteristics of a modern society is sensitivity to the oppression of women and other vulnerable groups. Yet, in the so called modern societies, the works of scholars such as Ester Boserup, a Danish economist, showed that the situation of women as a group was not improving. Writing on modernization, Boserup showed, in her book, *The Role of Women in Economic Development*, that women are a diverse group in terms of ethnicity, class, religious and national orientation (Visvanathan *et al*/1997: 4; Ramji: 1997: 1). Despite their diversity, they can be perceived as a group that is subjected to social marginalization and inequality. Such works concluded that women throughout the entire world shared the same experience of unequal treatment compared to their male counterparts. While societies were getting better in terms of development, women’s contribution

to development was ignored, their labour was undervalued and most of their capacities controlled, exploited and harnessed by men. In fact, in some cases, the development process appeared to be contributing to the deterioration of the women's position (Visvanathan *et al*/1997: 4; Ramji: 1997:1). Position herein simply means social status. The benefits of the so called development, (which had been erroneously assumed would trickle down to them, i.e. women and their households) did not trickle down to them (Mosse 1993:160). Although the works of people like Ester Boserup had concentrated on only the economic side, it was felt that in all aspects of society, women lagged behind men. The two key questions raised by this revelation were:

- Why are the benefits of modernization not trickling down to women?
- What can be done to make women benefit from modernization? (Visvanathan *et al*/1997: 6-8.)

Pressure was put on the UN to look into the failure of women to benefit from development. The UN responded in 1972, by calling the first ever world conference on women. It was not until 1975 that the first ever world conference on women was held in Mexico, under the theme of "Equality, Development and Peace". Some of the key objectives of this world meeting were:

- To define a society in which women participate
- To devise strategies whereby such societies could develop (UN 1975:1).

The World Bank commissioned studies that would look into these two issues as well as other studies on women and development. The UN General Assembly urged governments to pursue policies which ensured the incorporation of women in the planning process (Visvanathan *et al*/1997: 8).

The first development path to pursue this issue of women and development was devised by the American Liberal feminists under the title: Women in Development (WID) approach. Following is a brief exposition of the main tenets of this approach to development.

2.2.1 The WID Development Approach

The WID approach, in trying to answer the two questions about women and development, saw the problem as the exclusion of women from the mainstream development projects and so criticized the welfare approaches of the modernization process for failure to incorporate women into mainstream development programmes (Mosse 1993:161). WID's diagnosis saw the solution as lying in focusing only

on women as an analytical and operational category, integrating them into ongoing developmental strategies, fitting them into existing social structures and dealing with women's needs exclusively. By fitting women into existing social structures (through access to employment, credit, training and labour market) (Moser 1993:3,63) within their societies, WID made itself an "add-on" approach that served only to accept without questioning or challenging the origin of women's subordination (Verloo 2001:3). This was its greatest weakness and this, high among other factors, sowed the seeds of its failure. Acceptance of the gendered social structures meant perpetuations of the inherited inequalities as WID did not explore the nature and source of women's oppression (Ramji 1997:2). Thus, formed by the liberals, the central traits of the liberal philosophy informed WID's acceptance of capitalism as a panacea for addressing women's inequality without questioning the source of the inequalities. For this, the WID approach was faulted by socialist feminists for contributing to the perpetuation of cheap labour and women's subordination, because women formed the bulk of the cheap labour force (Moser 1993:63). Founded in the modernization theory, Visvanathan *et al* (1997: 10) criticizes WID for being limited only to the economic level and not to the social aspects of gender inequality.

It is not surprising, when WID came to be evaluated in the late 1970s, its limitations were already glaring and by 1980 when the second world conference on women was convened in Copenhagen to assess the progress made since the first world conference in 1975, it had become very clear that WID had failed to achieve its goal (UN 1980: 3). Women had remained a marginalized group and in some cases their marginalization had worsened. In the context of gender and development, marginalization is taken to mean a process whereby a sex group is left out of prevailing activities due to some characteristics inherent in it (i.e. the sex group) which are perceived by the other sex group as unfit to partake in what is transpiring. Marginalization implies a peripheral social standing through the exercise of power by the dominant group (Mosse 1993: 161-162). Evaluative studies on the effectiveness of WID showed five ways in which women had remained marginalized. These were: exclusion from consideration, insufficient resources, invisibility in the value chain, peripherisation via competition and lack of representation (Mosse 1993: 161-162). Women were still grouped together with the sick, the disabled and the old who were seen as helpless, weak and vulnerable. Thus, although the intention of WID was to make women count, women were not accounted for. It (WID) in fact, made women further marginalised. The other reason that made women more subordinated and further marginalized was WID's focus on women only (Ramji 1997: 3). This created tension, suspicion and hostility among most men and this rendered women more unimportant, powerless and insignificant

(Ramji 1997: 3). The creation of tension, suspicion and hostility in an African set up could be expected because singling out women only opposes the African theme of 'solidarity.'

Of interest to this study is the extent to which the implementation of gender policy programs incorporates the WID ideas. Learning from the weaknesses of the WID approach, it is this study's endeavour to see whether the policy programs are mere "add-on" to the existing social structures and whether, like the failed WID approach, the policies and programs focus only on women. Right from policy assessment to fieldwork, these issues are explored and scrutinized.

Clearly, the women's position of inequality was not alleviated by WID and as planners grew less and less confident in WID, outcries for a more nuanced approach were made. Admittedly, when member states met in 1980 during the second world conference on women to assess progress on the issue of women and development, there was a growing outcry for adoption of other developmental approaches that would show more transformational change on the issue of women benefiting from development (UN 1980:6). Deliberations at this second world conference also entailed the reasons for the failure of WID in order to obtain insight into new approaches. Debates at this conference, on the attested inadequacies of WID's women targeted interventions led to the realization that WID's non confrontational and separatist approach was the main reason for its failure (Razavi & Miller 1995:1). Member states realized that WID had only addressed the welfare side of women's needs, concentrating on only their practical needs (i.e. the perceived immediate necessities women identified in their socially accepted roles in their particular societies e.g. shelter and food). These needs, where met, alleviated the inadequacies in women's material conditions, but did not call for or achieve any changes in the overall social structures and factors that gave rise to those inequalities. Learning from this shortfall of WID, this study endeavours to determine to what extent the implementation of the gender mainstreaming policy programs analyses the dynamics and structures of the gender imbalances within the institutions under study.

Learning from WID failures, it was hence felt that the new approach should shift focus from 'women exclusively' to the 'social relationship between men and women.' This social relationship was found to encompass social attributes, behaviours, expectations, responsibilities, associations, values, beliefs, roles and opportunities associated with being male or female. The word '**gender**' was adopted there to refer to the socially acquired notions of masculinity and femininity and the new adopted approach came to be called the "**Gender and Development**" (**GAD**) approach because of its mandate to

“focus on the socially constructed basis of differences between men and women and emphasises the need to challenge existing gender roles and relations” (Reeves & Baden 2000: 33).

2.2.2 The GAD Development Approach

The approach was developed by socialist feminists. The approach assumes that the unequal power relations between males and females prevent equitable development by denying women’s full participation in development (Mosse 1993:164). While WID diagnosed women’s problems as ‘insufficient participation’ in a benign development process, GAD sees the real problem as the ‘imbalance of power between men and women’ hence its challenging WID’s focus on women in isolation from men, and outside the context of men-women power relations. GAD thus focuses on ‘gender’ rather than ‘women’, and changes the approach of looking at women in isolation (as WID did) to looking at gender relations (Moser 1993:3). Clarifying the difference, Ankebo and Hoyda (2003:11) say that “the term ‘gender’ perceives men and women as socially constructed categories, whereas the term ‘woman’ refers to women in terms of their ‘sex’- which is their biological differences from men.” Thus, whereas WID did not challenge the existing social structures or causes for these, GAD focuses on questioning the institutional basis of the imbalance of power between men and women (Moser 1993:63).

According to the GAD approach, this imbalance of power between men and women does not operate in a social vacuum, but is a product of the patriarchal ways in which most societies are organized and constituted. Thus, here the patriarchal roadblocks of tradition, customs, values and norms of these societies are the underlying causes of gender inequalities. Patriarchy is a set of social relations between men and women, with a material base, and is hierarchical. It establishes interdependence and solidarity which enables men to dominate, oppress and exploit women (Kabeer 2003: 73). The patriarchal social institutions and hierarchies entrench men’s superiority and supremacy as regards decision making, access and control of resources, politics and power. The approach sees gender relations as determinants of women’s position in society and not as immutable reflections of a natural order but as socially constructed patterns of behaviour (Hannan 2003: 1-14). This is why the arch enemy of this approach is patriarchy and why the key mandate of the approach takes a full scale analysis of the patriarchal relations with the aim of challenging them.

To this effect, the major objective of GAD is ensuring men and women’s empowerment. Empowerment is thus central to the GAD approach and is recognition of the importance for men and

women to be able to make choices that contribute to change and equality. Empowerment, in the GAD context, is a process whereby individuals or groups become aware of how power structures, processes and relationships operate in their lives and gain skills, self- confidence and strength to challenge the resulting gender inequalities (Kabeer 2003: 73; Hannan 2003: 1-14). This process of empowerment involves changing consciousness, identifying areas needing change, developing strategies and action to monitor these actions and their outcomes. Thus, unlike the WID approach before it, the GAD approach is gender analysis driven (Mosse 1993:164). Gender analysis involves looking systematically at the different impacts of development on men and women and continuously asking how a particular activity, decision or plan will affect men differently from women (Status of Women Canada 2005: 4 & 6; March *et al*/1999: 18). This is the greatest strength of GAD because it seeks to remove inequalities through taking men and women as active agents of change rather than as passive recipients of it. In this current study, one of the aims is to examine how the implementation of the gender policy programs in Zimbabwe state universities are embedded in the GAD approach.

The GAD approach is of great importance to this study because it focuses on intervening to address unequal gender relations which prevent gender equality through focusing on male and female practical and strategic needs. Strategic needs are non material necessities that relate to structural changes in society regarding men and women's status and equity (Status of Women Canada 2005: 3). As the universities purport to entrench a gender perspective, the GAD approach is most important to this study.

2.3 UNDERSTANDING GENDER

To define gender is an enormously complex matter and the researcher can only attempt a thumbnail sketch in order to examine the way gender is used in the arena of gender studies. Gender is an overused term, the meaning of which remains unclear to many. This is because not all scholars use the term gender in the same way, thus creating a multiplicity of meanings surrounding the word. Etymologically, gender initially existed as a grammatical category, derived from the Latin word *genus*, roughly translated as 'kind' or 'sort' (Hawkesworth 1997: 650-652). Originating within Europe, the term gender has been universalized. Since this study concentrates on Zimbabwe state universities and Zimbabwe is an African country, the Eurocentric views of gender are discussed together with the African views to establish points of convergence and departure. Oyewumi (2002: 2-3) warns that

Europe should not be used to define Africa for to do so would obscure much which is at stake. But what is gender? The following subsection attempts to answer this question.

2.3.1 What is gender?

Citing a multitude of scholars, Hawkesworth (1997: 650-652) shows a multiplicity of the meanings of the word gender and shows the expanded meaning of the concept. Scholars, like Spender (1980: 13), take gender as an effect of language. This current study, as an outgrowth of gender and development, takes the meaning as used in developmental circles. In this study gender refers to the social and cultural construction of maleness and females and not to the mere state of being male and female in its entirety (Connell 2002: 6; Lorber 1994:4). This study's view concurs with Borgatta and Montgomery's (2000: 1057) conception of gender. These authors put forward the view that gender is not only the social meanings given to being either male or female but includes also all the derivatives of these social meanings like: expectations associated with the character of man and woman; attitudes, beliefs, aptitude and likely behaviours of men and women, roles and responsibilities expected of each sex, as well as relationships and associations considered normal by society. This current study took this view of gender and the intention and focus of the study is on accessing the social meanings of the selected participants' purposes, actions and experiences in their student selection practices and procedures. Due to these derivatives of gender, Borgatta and Montgomery (2000: 1057) continue to say that in any society, there is therefore 'a normal man' and a 'normal woman'. Accommodating the 'real man and real woman' dimension, Hesse-Biber and Carger (2000: 91) define gender as "what society considers to be proper behaviours and attitudes for its males and females" and continue to condense the definition to "how a person's biology is culturally interpreted and valued".

Baumann (2003: 3) concurs with the definitions and argues that gender determines the differences in the way resources, opportunities, rights and power are granted, allocated and distributed between men and women in society and also the interests and needs of men (Thorne 1993:18) and women. In so doing, gender organizes the relationships between men and women.

Taking a cue from these characteristics of gender, various authors, such as Barret (1980: 18) and Baumann (2003:4) use gender and its characteristics to explore, analyze and evaluate various social phenomena. Barret (1980: 18, 21) used gender to analyze the organization of relations between men and women in society. Hawkesworth (1997: 651) used gender to explore the distribution of resources,

burdens and benefits in society. Butler (1990: 6) used gender to account for individual identity. This study makes a departure from these studies and uses gender to evaluate the effectiveness of implemented gender policy programs in student admissions in selected Zimbabwe state universities. In using gender in this way, this study borrowed from scholars like Wenger (1998: 145-150) and Baumann (2003: 4) who take gender as a 'performative social practice' hence a 'central organizing principle' which affects and governs the 'how people think', the 'how people feel' and the 'what people believe in'. For this reason, this current study, although employing the MMA, is mainly qualitative in approach - to enable access to the how the selected participants think, feel and believe in, as regards their practices and procedures in student admissions.

Hawkesworth (1997: 655) classifies gender performativity into two groups. The two groups are: gender as a mode of explanation; and gender as an analysis category. Though making use of both modes, this study, because of its focus and intention, focused more on gender as an analysis category than a mode of explanation. Hawkesworth (1997: 655) explains an analysis category as a heuristic device that performs functions in a research program. In this study gender is a heuristic device because it illuminates an area of inquiry (cf. chapter 1). This area of inquiry is gender policy program implementation. Again as a heuristic device, in this study gender directed the framing of questions/items that were used in the investigation.

Guided further by Hawkesworth's (1997: 657) advice that gender as analysis category should 'bring out meanings to understand connections', this study decoded meanings of the selected participants' actions and experiences in student admissions in order to understand the connections between the implementation of gender policy programs and the intended goal of gender equality. This study's intention and purpose as well as its understanding of the concept gender, dictated the theoretical perspectives that underpinned it.

2.3.2 The Eurocentric view of gender

Oyewumi (2002: 1-4) in a work, *Conceptualizing gender: The Eurocentric perspective*, says the roots of gender can be traced as far back as the days of modernization. A hallmark of this modern era was the establishment and expansion of European/American cultural hegemony throughout the world. Nowhere is this felt like in the production of knowledge about "human behavior, societies...and cultures" (Oyewumi 2002:1). In this same work, Oyewumi goes further to show that gender privilege,

an essential part of European ethos, was embedded in this culture of modernity and the nuclear family was the acceptable type of family during this era. The notion of womanhood that emerges from the nuclear family is equated to the concept of wife, hence Oyewumi defines a nuclear family as “a single family household.....centered on a subordinated wife, a patriarchal husband and children” (Oyewumi 2002: 2). This contrasts with the African view of a family. Although the nuclear type of family has been universalized, it is not universal. It is very alien to Africa because in Africa, it is lineage not the nuclear that is considered a family. It is therefore unfortunate that feminist conceptualization of gender starts with the Eurocentric family and never transcends the narrow confines of this type of family.

What the researcher is trying to point out is that arguments here point to the Eurocentric foundations of the term ‘gender’, hence the term’s foundation in European/American ideologies. “When African realities are interpreted based on these Western claims, what we find are distortions, obfuscations in language and often a total lack of comprehension due to the incommensurability of social categories and institutions” (Oyewumi 2002: 4). Quoting works from such scholars as Kwesi Yankah in *Okyeame*, Ifi Amadiume in *Male, Daughters, Female, Husbands* and Tsitsi Dangarembga in *Nervous Conditions*, Oyewumi (2002: 4-5) is at pains to show that in some African societies some women have patriarchal powers and status. Now are these men? These conceptions confound the Western mind because, according to the Western gendered understanding, the social role of wife is inherent in the female body (Oyewumi 2002: 4). Such an example presents challenges to the unwarranted universalisation of Eurocentric gender discourses, therefore gender analysis interpretations “should therefore derive from social organization and social relations paying close attention to specific cultural and local contexts” (Oyewumi 2002: 4). The word of caution from this author, is that, we need to be very careful when African realities are interpreted based on Western ideas and she concludes that when this is done, what we find are mostly distortions. The African Development Bank (2001: 2) in its gender policy sounds the same word of caution, noting that Africa has pronounced region specific characters that are of direct relevance to its socio-political and economic development. Gender interpretations do not mark therefore a universal sisterhood - thus, the cultural specific forms of social inequalities should always dominate gender analysis.

However, borrowing from the works of Oyewumi (2002: 4) and the African Development Bank (2001:6), although Eurocentric perspectives are presented in this chapter, the African perspective is

also included to show the links or points of departure on the views advanced and the possible implications this might have for policy and program implementation in Africa, hence in Zimbabwe state universities. Following are brief explanations of African themes and philosophical principles that are used in this study as a guide to the African worldview, that is, the African way of thinking and of relating to the world (Hallen 2003:1-6).

2.3.3 The African World View and Gender

To understand the conception of gender in Africa, one has first to understand the African worldview. The African worldview of gender is enshrined in the African philosophy of life. By African philosophy here is meant the nature and meaning of existence, that is, the reality and knowledge from an African perspective. Following are some of the major benchmarks of the African worldview as given by such authors as Hallen (2002: 1-6), Higgs (2003: 5-22), Sifuna (1994: 2-10) and Fafunwa (1994: 3-24).

However, important to note, is that these major benchmarks of the African worldview are not as intact in contemporary times; as products of social activity, they cannot be perpetual or static. Globalisation and electronic networks have stimulated cultural infusion, dilution and cross-pollination such that it is problematic to define a 'real African culture', that is, a standardized conception of the African worldview. An African worldview has been and is influenced by the social ideology and economic mode held at a particular point in time (Diekman & Eagly 2000:1171) and is therefore influenced by significant social, political and or economic transformation. Regarding gender in particular, the social and economic transformation inspired by the feminist movement has advocated social, political and other rights equal to those of men and women's increased participation in the paid labour force (Diekman & Eagly 2000:1171). This too has had an effect on the traditional African worldview.

Therefore, in the ensuing discussion, an endeavour has been made to point out the dynamics of the African worldview, a worldview which constantly undergoes progression.

2.3.3.1 Solidarity

Solidarity denotes oneness, unity and togetherness in people. The individual person is always seen as part and parcel of society. In this unity there is a clear hierarchy. Some of the African proverbs allude

to this. Usually age and some relations determine the hierarchical order (Hallen 2002: 1-6). The community is primary, it comes first, is more superior and more important than the individual. What is good for society must come first and the individual just has to follow. This forces African people to work continuously together for the common good of their societies, anyone who does not respect this is an outcast, and such an individual is ostracized as an outsider. All individuals work very hard to enhance social cohesion and work in harmony to achieve goals with no conflict. It is important for this study to note that from this view, anything that may counter this idea of a 'clear hierarchy' of social power and suggest a crossing of floors in relation to social power is bound to face challenges (Sifuna 1994: 1-10; Baker 1986: 10).

However, it should also be noted that while the social structure transcends the wishes or behaviours of any particular individual and tends to exercise pressure on the individual's decisions to conform, today this is not always the case. The rampant corruption going on as revealed in the media shows that the solidarity according to conventional African worldview is fast eroding.

2.3.3.2 Holism

African tradition sees the world as one organic whole. Things are not separate in the African worldview - an aspect they refer to as holism, the guiding principle here being that the whole is greater than the sum of its parts (Hallen 2002: 1-6). It is important for this study to take note of this theme that, since it is society that is more important than the individual, anything (such as the Eurocentric sentiments) that comes with ideas that the individual is bigger and should come before society may be bound to face challenges (Baker 1986: 12).

Holism is also constantly undergoing social transformation. The conservative African culture, with its emphasis on the might of society over the individual, is slowly eroding with the advance of human rights. In its place a new order where individuality supersedes the community has already begun to emerge. This is marked by a call for the respect of individual rights and freedoms ostensibly guaranteed by the social order as contained in the UN Charter of Human Rights (Jensen 1996: 2; cf. 2.4.2.2).

2.3.3.3 Participation

Participation in community issues by all individuals is imperative. Life is seen as a total package not as a menu, and individuals, males and females, are not supposed to choose what they desire (Hallen 2002: 1-6). This ensures fullness of experience and full participation for the benefit of the society and not just the individual. Participation could, however, facilitate criminal involvement, for example, murder or stealing. This negative involvement is supposed to bring an automatic curse upon the perpetrator. Punishment for bad participation may sometimes come to the individual or to the community. The community therefore has to prevent perpetrators from doing bad acts. Society is always bigger than the individual and as such males and females participate in the community issues. Men and women who do not partake as expected by society may be negatively labeled. So the Eurocentric idea that even a female may function as a soldier and defend her country may not go down well with this theme where the society associates only males with gun carrying and defense.

However, like the other benchmarks of the African worldview, 'participation' has not been immune to social reexamination. With the emergence of the call to equality made by liberal feminism, females have crossed the traditional gender boundary as they make their participation significant in almost all social activities (Diekman & Eagly 2000: 1177). This has resulted in gender role similarity and this constitutes one of the significant factors that has stimulated the social transformation of the African worldview. The British liberal philosopher, Mary Wollstonecraft is widely regarded as the pioneer of this social liberal transformation as expounded in her book: *A Vindication of the Rights of Women* (Grigsby 2008: 108; Jensen 1996: 2; Koerner 1985: 14; cf 2.4.2.2). The current move towards gender equality and reduction of sex segregation as regards participation in areas of employment, finance, education and marriage is observable.

2.3.3.4 Personhood

Personhood is given to the individual by society. It is not natural but acquired from the community (Hallen 2002: 3). It is conferred on someone for the quality of the individual. This personhood is earned by the quality of an individual not just from mere existence as according to the Eurocentric viewpoint. When a child is born, he/she is not regarded as a full human being until, in most societies, a ceremony or a rite, for example, initiation into the community guarantees his/her personhood. The child remains an incomplete individual until initiated into the community. The fact that society gives personhood shows that it is not automatic and society can withdraw the personhood in certain circumstances. The personhood is given to acknowledge the qualities one displays and when one

changes the quality of life, the personhood can be withdrawn. The individual is therefore excommunicated as a process of healing and re-establishment of self-worth. In this way, personhood then becomes something, like clothing one puts on, hence society can undress it and one remains naked as far as personhood is concerned. Hence, the common African saying that so and so is not a person. This personhood is linked to the community, hence sayings, such as “A person is a person because of people”. A person is dependent on the community for survival, personhood, existence, knowledge, and learning. Personhood is thus important because it preserves *hunhuism* (i.e. humanness), maintains harmony, and enforces morality and self-identity because, according to this view, people would fear being stripped of their personhood. This is a great departure from the Eurocentric view of a personhood which sees every human being as a full person right from a young age and thus personhood is guaranteed for everyone. It is considered to be an inalienable characteristic of everyone; hence it cannot be taken away by anyone. In the Eurocentric view, society is not more important than the individual, hence the emphasis on human rights. Thus, the African view of personhood, although strongly defended by Edmund Burke (the first major proponent of conservative thought) for upholding traditional social values rooted in community and continuity (Koerner 1985:14; cf.2.4.2.1), has come under a blistering critique by feminist movements, for violating among other things, articles 1 and 16 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights [hereafter UDHR] adopted by the United Nations General Assembly on December 10, 1948. Article 1 declares that “All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights...” Article 16 proclaims that “Men and women of full age,...are entitled to equal rights.” (UDHR 1948: 1, 5). Feminists claim that such principles, though hailed by the African worldview, pose barriers that eviscerate individual rights and freedoms (Jensen 1996:2; cf. 2.4.2.2). Because of the influence of such feminist ideas, a numbness and muteness about rights in Africa generally is being dissolved.

The African view of gender stems directly from these African themes and a common thread that runs through all these themes is the lack of separation of sex and gender. In all these themes sex and gender are taken as synonyms - being born male meaning being born a ‘man’ and being born female meaning being born ‘a woman’. The argument of Simone de Beauvoir (1949), in her book, The Second Sex, that, “one is not born, but rather becomes a woman” through socialization and that socialization that can be manipulated not to create men and women but equal beings in relation to social relations between the two does not have any place in the traditional African way of life. From the discussed African themes, the researcher finds that there is no difference between gender and sex;

the two are taken as **natural** (i.e. God-given, biologically and innately determined); **fixed** (i.e. as exclusive to a particular group, males or females and does not change over time); **and universal** (i.e. concerns everyone in society). This is the researcher's own view, based on her interpretation of the African themes of life. According to Eurocentric views, gender and sex are different and while nothing can be done about sex, something can be done in relation to gender. Unlike the African view, according to a Eurocentric view, gender is learnt and never biologically determined; it is not fixed but very dynamic, hence it varies with both time and context and is not universal. It does not, like sex, equally apply to all men or all women.

The Eurocentric view came later than the African view (Ngara 2007:7) and was brought to bear on the African view. As the two are not mutually accommodative of each other, there is always a challenge when foreign values and views are used to define Africa in gender arenas (Oyewumi 2002: 4; Ngara 2007: 7-20). Thus, Oyewumi (2002: 1-5) is very cautious of the Eurocentric view being used to evaluate gender in African circles, and says that when this happens “...what we find are distortions... and often a total lack of comprehension due to the incommensurability of social categories and institutions” (p. 4). When the Eurocentric view proposes removing gender segregation, it does not make much sense in the traditional African circles, where sex segregation locates its males and females separately. Same social status or enjoyment of same equal rights conflicts with the African view which maintains a social stratification with men on the top stratum even in such minor matters as the sitting arrangement. The traditional African men sit on stools with their women sitting on the mats. This portrays pseudo superiority of men and with it, authority and power. Even their traditional symbols of power like spears and axes are not items women use. Now to argue that a woman can use a gun or don a mining helmet just like a man may suffer rejection latently and involuntarily. In an African view, society is organized in ways that result in ‘women exclusive’ and ‘men exclusive’ lives, specifically, because they were born female or male and this is ingrained in the people's way of life and influences their behaviours, actions, perceptions, values associations, relationships and attitudes. For this reason, the present study adopts the mixed method approach and is mainly qualitative - to enable this researcher to access these social attributes. The study adopts the ‘descriptive and evaluative case study’ as its research design – to comprehensively describe and evaluate these social attributes.

Throughout this study, these aspects of the African view are brought to bear on many arguments, countering the Eurocentric view, supporting a certain pattern of thought or compromising or enhancing application of certain ideas and happenings. This is because the universities under study are situated within this African worldview.

The following section is going to look at the role of education on gender from both the African view and the Eurocentric view.

2.4 THE IMPACT OF EDUCATION ON GENDER

It is important to discuss the socializing role of education and its impact on gender, because some of the deductions that this study makes are interpreted in terms of the theoretical perspectives of this role. The role of education has been scrutinized from a variety of positions giving rise to competing schools of thought. Firstly, the African principles that inform traditional African education are discussed; secondly, the Eurocentric view is discussed. This reflects the historical sequence whereby Eurocentric education came with colonisation and was imposed on an already existing system of knowledge (Ngara 2007: 8-9). Following is a subsection on the African philosophical principles that informed traditional education and their impact on gender.

2.4.1 African Philosophical Educational Principles and Gender

There are various conceptions of the phrase, 'African Philosophy of Education'; this study adopts Hallen's (2002: 1-10) conception. According to Hallen (2002: 2), the "African Philosophy of Education is a focus on Africa and its cultures, identities, values and new imperatives for education." African Education, Hallen maintains, must systematically displace European ways of thinking, feeling and being and consciously replace them with ways that are germane to its own cultural experience. African thought, Hallen maintains, demands the application of its universe, its logic and its own criteria of rationality. Only the key constitutive principles of African Philosophy of Education as provided by this author are discussed in this study. Their implications for this study are also be touched on. These are discussed in the following paragraphs.

2.4.1.1 Communalism

African traditional education was communal in nature and it was virtually everyone's responsibility to see to the education and upbringing of the child. Emphasis is placed on cooperation not competition

because what should be promoted is unity and coherence. Mbiti (1990: 141) maintains one of the important African principles is knowledge that “I am because we are and since we are therefore I am”. Oneness is nurtured along communal lines and this oneness is the foundational assumption that perfects the well being of the community and its entirety. The freedom of the individual is completely subordinated to the interests of the clan and a human being is seen as an integrated whole. Broadly, education in African universities should, among others, lend some support to humane values and a sense of community. The weakness of this principle is that it stifles individual talent, hinders development and progress and discourages individuals from working hard because achievement is not theirs but for the benefit of the community.

2.4.1.2 Essentialism

This principle maintains that education must provide knowledge of essential values which have emerged from the past (Baker 1986: 21; Sifuna 1994: 32). These emphasised values are therefore everlasting and are passed from generation to generation through oracy. Every major element of culture is inherited from a distant past, preserved relatively unchanged in the present, and will be passed on as normative to the future. The education system is shaped in such a way that it automatically provides learners with essential values like *ubuntu* (Ndebele and Zulu) or *botho* (Sotho) or *hunhu* (Shona), all of which denote humanness. Like any other education it also produced deviants who fail to fit properly. The benefit of this principle is that it emphasizes the importance of goodness, so as to create connectedness, mutual respect and dignity. Its limitation is that it prevents development as it is retrogressive.

2.4.1.3 Pragmatism

Education has a function to the immediate, present and not distant future and for life itself. This education is for both induction into society and preparation for adulthood. This education instills social responsibility, job orientation, political, spiritual and moral values (Sifuna 1994: 35). Education is therefore a manual activity with intellectual training because, by and large, it is an integrated experience that marries physical training with character building (Sifuna 1994: 35). Its main weakness is that it is gender discriminatory as it emphasises separate education styles for girls and boys.

2.4.1.4 Holism

Sifuna (1994: 36) says through this principle, the 'real man' and 'real woman' were built. The real man is expected to build his own home, defend his family, be producer of basic needs and participate as a man in all community activities. The real woman is expected to do all household chores and assist in the upbringing of the family. Baker (1986: 233) and Fafunwa (1974: 17) say everyone had his or her own place and there are no failures and dropouts. The weakness of this principle is that it reduces efficiency.

These African worldviews are brought to bear on many arguments in this study. Africa of today, suffers from the combined legacies of the discussed principles that inform its traditional education and of colonialism which was accompanied by a Eurocentric view. Now the questions to ask are: Are the traditional principles still standing untainted? This is most unlikely because the new does not bear a strong resemblance to the old. Has the Eurocentric view replaced the whole of the African view? Again this is unlikely. Then which knowledge system is at play? What is the adopted version of gender equality? What is the gender mainstreaming strategy adopted? These questions helped the researcher situate the study within an African perspective since the universities studied are African.

The following section examines the Eurocentric role of education on gender.

2.4.2 Eurocentricism and Gender

From a Eurocentric perspective, the role of education provided by the school and the impact on gender has been scrutinized from a variety of positions, giving rise also to competing schools of thought. Different approaches have been adopted to carry out the gender analyses of education. These approaches have different foci and different outcomes on understandings of gender policies and gender interventional programs. In this study, only the major three of these approaches are summarized. These are: the conservative functionalist approach, the liberal approach and the radical conflict/ transformative analysis. The study does not venture into specifics of what the approaches entail as this is not its focus. The concern here is with the gender dimensions of the approach. These approaches were developed specifically to deal with the role of education on society, but the analysis was further extended to cover the role of education on gender (Holland & Eisenhart 1992: 26; Van der Veen 2006: 5).

2.4.2.1 The Conservative Functionalist Tradition and Gender

This approach combines the central traits of the conservatism and functionalist inclinations to gender and starts with the assumption that society and its institutions like education, are made up of interdependent parts that are all working together, each contributing some necessary activity to the functioning of the whole system (Henslin 1998: 12; Barnard & Burgess 1996: 139). This concurs with the African philosophy of holism, which sees the whole as greater than the sum of its parts. According to this approach, educational institutions are vital components of the total society and their vitality is defined from the viewpoints of their purposes in the whole system and all parts complement each other. The assumption, with this theory, is that a smooth running stable system is well integrated. Shared values among members of the institution are important components and these help keep the particular institution in balance (Barnard & Burgess 1996: 139).

University education is seen as serving to socialize its males and females to adapt to the economic, political and social institutions of their society in a way and manner that serves society's continuation and survival. The education that the university provides serves as proving ground for ability and hence a selection agency for placing university males and females in different status according to their capacities. Its primary role is therefore to sift, sort and grade men and women who go in terms of their talents and abilities so that they fit existing social practices and requirements. The approach is pro-capitalist and promotes meritocracy, that is, "success or failure in the system as well as position in the system depends on individual merit and achievement" (Barnard & Burgess 1996: 139). Talented or less talented, all accept this inequality as right and proper, knowing that they had a fair and equal chance and what they got is what they are worth and deserve. According to Kingsley Davis and Wilbert Moore (Holland & Eisenhart 1992: 27), staunch subscribers to this view, gender inequality, like any other social inequality, is therefore, very right, proper, necessary and functional as it contributes to the overall social stability. Gender inequality is therefore beneficial to society. Edmund Burke, considered to be one of the first major proponents of conservative thought hails this approach for holding what he calls 'the power of rationality and the natural equality of humans that respects the traditional social values rooted in community and continuity', (Jensen 1996:2; Grigsby 2008: 108). Talcott Parsons and Robert Bales, without explicitly endorsing the traditional gender roles, contend that women and men take complementary roles, thus implying that a division of the tasks by gender is necessary, beneficial and functional (Van der Veen 2006: 5).

In this view, education, (in this case higher education) should produce certain kinds of men and women, that is, they should construct certain kinds of femininity and masculinity so as to meet the

demands of the dominant economic system. The approach thus openly protects the *status quo* which is gendered and unjust. By assuming this, Mbilinyi (2000: 10) notes that this analysis “ignores the depth of sexism in power relationships within education institutions”. By ignoring this depth of patriarchy, this approach, however, produces and reproduces relations of domination and subordination.

Critics of this approach, such as Hawkesworth (1997: 681) and Holland and Eisenhart (1992: 27) are quick to fault it for its insensitivity and blindness to the power of sexism, and its “tendency to mask power and a conservative propensity to legitimatise the status quo....rendering transformative strategies either inconceivable, utopian or impracticable” (Hawkesworth 1997: 681). The approach’s analysis of gender is seen only as promoting the interests of the dominant sex group and unobtrusively reproducing a non rebellious subordinate sex group who are only too willing to take a subordinate place in the institution and whose mindset and view of society justifies the ‘sex role theory’ of patriarchal hierarchy. Though criticized by the likes of Holland and Eisenhart (1992: 27) who call this “cultural arbitrary” and by Ankerbo and Hoyda (2003: 7-9) who, like the famous French sociologist, Pierre Bourdieu, call the same “symbolic violence”, Mbilinyi (2000: 10) notes that this approach is very common, especially in Africa. The researcher thinks that this could be because the approach links to fundamental African views and is the backbone of the central claims of the virtues and viabilities of the African philosophy of education. An African society consists of a defined set of distinct groups each with its own world life and there is both a theoretical and practical orientation appropriate to each sex group.

A gender program embedded in this thinking sees as central the primary function of the initiative of a program as passing on the knowledge and behaviours considered necessary for maintaining order at the particular institution and in the wider society served by the institution. The analysis determines the transmitted moral and occupational education, sort of discipline and values seen as necessary for survival of the institution. Through sifting of these and other issues, this study, in its final analysis, will determine the extent to which the espoused policy programs are embedded in this perspective and what implications this has on the goal of gender equality.

2.4.2.2 The Liberal Reformist Tradition and Gender

This tradition has been chosen because it appears to be halfway between the two extremes chosen (i.e. the conservative functionalists and the radical conflict transformative tradition). The approach is

reformist strictly, not transformative, because in offering solutions for erasing gender inequalities, it advocates alterations within the existing *status quo* and not for a total transformation of the *status quo* (Zagarri 2001: 123-130; Giddens 2003: 692). The British philosopher Mary Wollstonecraft is widely regarded as the pioneer of this tradition (Grigsby 2008: 108; Jensen 1996: 2; Koerner 1985: 14). Adherents of the approach blame the conservative functionalists for being blind to gender, claiming that such gender blindness poses “barriers to gender equality” as it in turn “eviscerates the individual rights and freedoms”(Jensen 1996: 2). They also blame the radical conflict transformative approach for going too far in challenging a system which they believe does not need to be fundamentally changed, but only fine-tuned to redress a balance for women (Zagarri 2001: 125). Like the WID approach to which they gave birth, the tradition believes in only ‘adding on’ women issues into the existing system for they believe that gender inequalities are produced by women’s reduced access to civil rights, such as education and employment (Giddens 2003: 692). What is needed is a reform of policies and the legal frames so that these civil right issues, such as access to education, are distributed the same to all groups in society, male and female. This way equality, they believe, can be attained. In accordance with true liberal thinking, to this approach, gender equality can be attained within the existing socio-political frameworks. The underlying assumption in this analysis is that provision of information is adequate to change the system and gender equality can be attained within the existing capitalist framework. This approach, like the previous one, thus openly protects the *status quo* which is gendered and unjust and for this, it is critiqued in the same manner as the previous one. While acknowledged for not being gender blind, the approach does not address the underlying causes of women subordination, hence it cannot offer a comprehensive solution. The approach treats the symptoms and not the causes of the problem. It is, thus, like the previous approach, equally guilty of ignoring the depth of sexism in power relationships within education institutions (Mbilinyi 2000: 10). By ignoring this depth of patriarchy, this approach, however, like the previous one, produces and reproduces relations of domination and subordination. That is why gender equality forerunners, such as Woodward (2008: 66), are quick to criticize this approach by questioning the extent to which it is possible to merely insert gender concerns in an organizational setting designed with male domination and female subordination in mind. The study finds this question pertinent, because until a few decades ago, many universities were for men, hence even the male gendered language that clearly does not specify women, such as ‘freshmen class, Bachelor’s degree and Masters’ degree. If the gendered *status quo* is endorsed, then clearly the approach errs first.

This approach is most common in Africa and worldwide (Mbilinyi 2000: 10). In comparison with the previous approach, Mbilinyi (2000: 10) notes that this analysis has made major contributions to raising the visibility of women in education circles.

2.4.2.3 The Radical Transformative Tradition and Gender

In contrast to both the liberal reformist approach and the functionalist approach, the radical transformative approach assumes a tension in society and its parts, created by competing interests of individuals and groups. The central traits of the radical approach, transformative education and the conflict perspective form the backbone of this approach. This approach focuses on the reproduction theory where the school/university is perceived to be a state ideological apparatus, reproducing values, attitudes, behaviours and practices expected by society (Mbilinyi 2000: 11).

The approach rejects the functionalist rhetoric that education is a gateway to social and academic opportunity. On the contrary, it views the university functions and education as a gateway to gender inequality and both its official and unofficial business serves this function. In this analysis, education maintains both class and gender differential reproduction, through justifying the inequalities, and by fostering the belief that success depends essentially on the possession of ability or appropriate skills (Blackledge & Hunt 1991: 32). The analysis does not agree that gender stratification and selection (i.e. structural ranking of males and females that perpetuates unequal socio-political power) is functional for society or that it serves as a source of stability, but rather advocates the view that the differentiation will inevitably lead to instability and social change. The analysis sees gender differences as a reflection of the subjugation of one group (women) by another (men) (Van der Veen 2006: 5).

The difference between the liberal reformist tradition and the radical transformative approach lies in the former favouring the stratification of the social system and the latter disapproving the capitalist gender differentiated society which is being reproduced. While the functionalists see gender inequality and other social inequalities as necessary, the latter sees it as a source of conflict and necessary only to the dominant sex group (Mbilinyi 2000: 10-15). “Borrowing directly from Karl Marx’s analysis of ‘class conflict’, the view sees males like the bourgeois or capitalist (controlling all wealth, prestige and power) and women like the proletarians or workers (who can only acquire valuable resources only by following the dictates of their bosses)” (Van der Veen 2006: 5).

So according to this theory, gender, as a differentiation axe, is an important factor in one’s social mobility. According to this approach, the purported meritocratic ideology based on equal educational opportunity is only an “ideological façade” (Barret 1980: 29; Holland & Eisenhart 1992: 27). The French sociologist, Pierre Bourdieu’s gender perspective on male domination and female subordination, in fact, sees this purported meritocratic ideology as a form of a subtle power mechanism which

maintains and reproduces the gender hierarchy, with males on the top stratum and females on the bottom stratum (Bourdieu 2001: 8). This, the author calls, “symbolic power/ violence” (Bourdieu 2001: 8). This sociologist expatiates on his gender perspective’s conceptualization of symbolic violence as responsible for naturalization of gender inequality. The conflict theorists say unfortunately true consciousness of this fact is impeded; false consciousness is instead taken as true consciousness and this results in what Antonio Gramsci (1891-1937) calls “hegemony” (Gundogan 2008: 4-6), ‘a preponderance of influence and authority over others’ (Blackledge & Hunt 1991: 32). Because of this false consciousness which is taken as true consciousness, women experience their subordination as natural, therefore inevitable. Yet gender and gender realities are not natural (Jarvinen 1999:6). Bourdieu (2001: 9) calls this naturalization of the unnatural ‘*habitus*’, that is, a cultural scheme for perpetuating thinking and action. According to this cultural scheme, femininity is associated with passivity, humility, obedience, weakness and activities in private sphere (Ankerbo & Hoyda 2003: 8). Men are associated with the exact opposites. Women and men are socialized in this doxa, that is, taking things for granted (Bourdieu 2001:8). The conflict theorists therefore advocate for an education that will remove the false consciousness which has erroneously been taken as true consciousness.

The approach is couched in the language of transformation of the capitalist order and this resonates with the ideas of Freire (1974) who advocated ‘education for critical consciousness.’ On this score, this approach bears strong affinity to the gender critical theory (cf. 2.5), especially on the idea of transformation that is informed by intense contextualized analysis of communities and societies so as to lead to gender-just futures. Borrowing from Fraser (2001: 82), this current study supports Freire’s ideas, as it too advocates a challenge to patriarchy and supports the restructuring of an underlying framework that generates patriarchy. The view of this study is that gender inequality cannot be corrected without disturbing the underlying framework that generates these gender inequalities. Unlike the liberal reformist approach, this approach is thus transformative as it calls for a restructuring of the underlying framework that generates and supports false consciousness, patriarchy and the ensuing gender inequality (Fraser 2001: 82-83).

Of particular interest to this study is the fact that the university is seen as reproducing gender inequalities by way of giving differential access and training of male and female students and staff and by supplying an ideology that mystifies the system of privilege in the institution. In so doing the university becomes an instrument of reproduction and perpetuation of gender inequalities in three ways: through selectively transmitting gendered skills and attitudes; sorting “people through

credentialing into social positions and profoundly shape [shaping] identities to fit gender destinies” (Holland & Eisenhart 1992: 26). The fundamental thinking of this perspective is that power and privilege are granted to males and not to females by patriarchy and that policies and practices of the university reproduce this *status quo* (Barret 1980: 29; Holland & Eisenhart 1992: 28). This approach, as Mbilinyi 2000: 10 notes, guides the researcher to ask: how males and females exist within given structures and who benefits from the existing education system and structures and how? The radical analysis goes further by avoiding the assumption that ideology operates in a smooth uncontested way and thus refrains from ignoring the whole question of contestation and resistance.

Due to the contestations among conservative functionalists, liberals and the radicals disagree on what gender norms and values are being reproduced, who (between males and females) benefits from the reproduction and what sort of equality is being pursued, a synthesis of these confrontational and conflicting issues is needed from a close gender scrutiny. For this purpose, this current study employed the gender critical theory to further tease out the gender dimensions of the implementation of gender policies and programs in student admissions. An exposition of this theory, its suitability to this study and how it guided this study is summarized below.

2.5 THE GENDER CRITICAL THEORY

The gender critical theory is an agglomerated gender analysis of all the variants of feminist theories of gender inequalities (Liberal, Marxist, Radical, Socialist, Third World) (Ferree, Lorber & Hess 1999: 13; Lorber 1994: 8; Kessler & McKenna 1978: 21-26). It is meaning that is judged or discerned from a gender critical thought or simply a style of reasoned thought founded upon a critique of male-female relations. The theory aims to understand the nature of gender inequality through examining men and women’s lived experiences and critiquing their social relations (Marecek 2001: 254; Ioanna, Vekiri & Chronaki 2008: 1394). Thus, the issue of social relations is central to this theory. Social relations are interactions between men and women, as well as what is considered socially appropriate behaviours of each sex group (Haralambos & Holborn 2004: 102).

The goal of gender critical theory is the development of social institutions that are rid of gender injustices. The gender critical theory emerges from a number of different areas. Notable among these areas is the sociology of gender of the 1950s, theories of psychoanalysis by Jacques Lacan and Julia Kristeva as well as feminist studies by authors such as Judith Butler. But the theory lends much of its inception to Elaine Showalter, who tracing the phases in the development of the feminist theory calls

the first phase 'feminist critique', the second phase 'Gynocritics; and third and last phase "the gender theory" (Showalter 1988: 22-41, Ferree *et al*/1999: 13).

Borrowing heavily from other dominant social theories such as the social practice theory (Wenger 1998: 145); the social interactionist theory traceable to George Herbert Mead (Barnard & Burgess 1999: 17; Ballantine 1997: 33) and from the social learning theory (Giddens 1993: 60), the gender critical theory tries to specifically analyze a social phenomenon from a gender perspective. The gender critical theory is intertwined with the cited social theories in the belief that human activities are contingent practices whose sense is constructed in the ebb and flow of social interactions. Like these theories too, the gender critical theory argues that human behaviours and beliefs cannot be separated from the context and process of analysis - thus bringing to the fore the almost impossible attempt of separating human behaviours and their contexts. This fact influenced the choice of the case study research design in the current study.

The gender critical theory's view of society in general and of education in particular has a strong affinity to the radical tradition from which it is traceable. Gender sociologists will find nothing to disagree with in the radical conflict perspective (Van der Veen 2006: 5). Only that the theory goes further to argue that "the very discussion of women and society, however meaningful, has been distorted by the exclusion of women from academic thought. Studies were conducted on male subjects or about male -led groups and organizations and the findings were generalized to people" (Van der Veen 2006: 5).

Like the radical conflict tradition, this theory is of the view that these institutions be subjected to emancipation "which seeks to open up society by subjecting it to a critique through standards set up by reason....(it) combines... determination to purge society from oppression with...liberating insight that obsolete practices are due in large measure to reason's own unreflexivity" (Shalin 1992: 252). The core concern of the gender critical theory is to develop more rational gender relations through questioning issues such as: what is in favour of or against males and females? In this respect the theory borrows heavily from the radical transformative analysis. Who between the two sexes benefits or does not benefit from a program operation? And what can be done so that men and women enjoy same opportunities, privileges and benefits from a given program? The aim is transforming the *status quo* towards more gender- just features. The theory's focus is analysis of competing power interests

between males and females within any societal institution, identifying who gains and who loses in specific situations.

Clearly, the theory's stance on educational policy programs is that the 'programs be transformative'. Transformative education has its roots in the philosophies of liberating education associated with the works of such authorities as Freire (1990: 9-150; 1996: 7-240; 1997: 7-140), where education is perceived as aspects of struggles to transform the world. These views of Freire (1996: 7-12), as they are embedded in the gender critical theory were brought to bear especially in the last two chapters, where the researcher, as a transformative and progressive intellectual interrogated the data to understand issues of power, illuminating the practices in student admissions that perpetuated the gendered *status quo*. In chapter 6 especially, it was considered that gender critical theory possessed the power to facilitate social renewal and redress injustices of the past. The gender critical theory, urging researchers to be transformative intellectuals, gives the notion of hope against all odds in that "...one of the tasks of progressive educators, through a serious, correct political analysis, is to unveil opportunities for hope no matter what the obstacles may be" (Freire 1996: 9). Even in chapter 4, the choice of the mixed method approach was informed by the gender critical theory which views knowledge as socially constructed through the interaction of people with each other and that is also why most of the questions were framed within this epistemological assumption.

The goal of gender equality in this study is in line with the gender critical theory's quest for the emancipation of male and female students from prominent injustices in student admissions in the form of 'maldistribution and misrecognition' caused by the traditional cultural structures of modern society (Fraser 2001: 11).

Like gender itself, the gender critical theory is premised on the assumptions that:

Gender is entirely a social construct upon biological differences; hence the gender differences are socially rather than innately constructed (Haralambos & Holborn 2004: 103-4). Because of this, like any social construct, gender and the gender differences to which it gives rise are not immune to human social re-examination. Hence, the need to re-examine and revitalize them in chapter 6. In support of Freire, this study advocates a challenge to the patriarchy and supports the restructuring of the underlying frameworks that generate patriarchy (Fraser 2001: 82) The argument of this theory is that it is the way in which social systems and institutions are organized and operated that gives rise to

gender imbalances and inequities in societies and communities because the social systems are skewed towards one gender giving rise to asymmetrical gender relations (Baumann 2000: 3).

The gender critical theory thus challenges existence of gender gaps/imbbalances and urges for a re-examination and deconstruction of gendered social systems, ideologies and institutions. Hence, the gender critical theory's advocates that strategies can always be devised to make the gender relations asymmetric, so that men and women enjoy equal treatment and opportunities in both their private and public lives (Baumann 2000: 3).

To the gender critical theory, gender, as a socio-cultural construct varies from culture to culture. This aspect of gender necessitated this study's choice of multiple case studies as its research design so that each case was investigated separately as the cultures of the universities may be different. In fact the preliminary investigation of the problem (cf. chapter 1) established that the Zimbabwe state universities as autonomous institutions are mandated by the government to devise own gender programs as suits their own situations. The Zimbabwe state universities' employment of the gender policy programs concurs with the idea of gender as a social construct because if the gender gaps were not socially constructed the universities would not bother changing the unchangeable. The opportunity for universities to devise own strategies is also in agreement with the theory's view that strategies can be devised to equalize social relations and opportunities between men and women.

To the gender theory, people are born male or female with no gender meanings attached to them. But because everyone is born into a culture, it is through this culture that a newly born grows to learn (actively or passively, overtly or latently, voluntarily or involuntarily, planned or unplanned) to be girls and boys who grow into men and women (Hesse-Biber & Carger 2000: 91). This learnt behaviour makes up one's gender identity and determines gender interests and needs. Concurring with this argument, Baumann (2000:3) says gender is not man and woman but "gender is how one feels inside". Guided by this argument, this study, though adopting the mixed method (cf 1 & 4), is mainly qualitative in approach, in order to access the participants' inner views. Merriam (1988: 10) says that the qualitative researcher's interest is understanding meanings from the insider's perspective. The insider perspective cannot be accessed through observation of raw behaviors and actions of the selected participants; hence this study's total discarding of observation as a data collection instrument. Instead adopted document analysis, questionnaires and interviews were adopted as instruments of its data collection.

The gender critical theory takes gender as a performative practice (Wenger 1998:145) and emphasizes the almost inseparable link between the “practice and its environment” and “seeks to integrate the individual with the surrounding environment, context and culture relative to the actions and practices of the individual.” The theory further emphasizes the “....relational interdependence of...activity and meaning. It emphasizes the inherently socially negotiated character of meaning and the interested, concerned character of the thought and action of persons-in-activity” (Lave & Wenger 1991: 50). For Lave (1988: 145), “practice is constituted in a dialectical relation between persons acting and the settings of their activity”. These aspects of the gender theory were the main reasons for its choice as the theoretical perspective underpinning this study, because as mentioned already, interest lay in establishing how the actors in student admissions in the selected universities interpreted the meanings of their purposes and experiences. Establishing the meanings of these purposes and experiences was crucial in this study, because it is that which directed and made sense of the selected participants’ actions/ practices. This totally concurred with Burns and Groves’s (1997: 33-35) argument that, where human meanings exists as important values, human beliefs cannot be separated from the contexts and processes of analysis. The gender dimensions of these meanings were crucial in gauging the gender responsiveness of the student admissions practices and procedures, hence in evaluating the effectiveness of the implementation of gender policy programs in student admissions in selected Zimbabwe state universities.

The gender critical theory’s heavy emphasis on ‘practice and the environment’, ‘context and actions’ further served to justify the study’s choice of the qualitative dominant mixed research approach and the case study research design because in a qualitative case study natural settings are key sources of data, hence the fundamental concern with context. Interacting with the selected participants in their setting (which gender critical theory emphasizes) and allowing them to express themselves in their own voices through interviews enabled the researcher to understand, describe and analyze the participants’ actions, beliefs, thoughts and perceptions as regards student selection. This broadened the depth and breadth of the study. This enabled understanding of the social phenomenon from the participants’ views.

Having this study’s methods and methodology guided by the theoretical perspectives makes the methods and methodology relevant and appropriate to the goals of the study. This in itself enhanced the validity of the instruments and the credibility of the whole study.

As indicated earlier on, insights and deductions gained using all these theoretical perspectives helped in the unfolding of the problem under study.

2.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter has reviewed and explored aspects of the theoretical approaches employed in analyzing the collected data. These theoretical perspectives helped the researcher mainly as guidelines and as frameworks for criticism of existing practice.

The next chapter focuses again on a literature review, but the focus shifts to literature specifically to do with the study's main research ideas.

CHAPTER 3

GENDER PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION THROUGH THE STRATEGY OF GENDER MAINSTREAMING

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is a continuation of the literature review presented in chapter 2. While chapter 2 concentrated on the conceptual and theoretical perspectives that underpin the study, this chapter highlights the key ideas, principles and nature of gender program implementation through the strategy of gender mainstreaming. The discussion of the literature is organised as follows: the strategy of gender mainstreaming; gender equality in Zimbabwe; gender policy programs in Zimbabwe; and commonly employed gender interventions in universities.

3.2 GENDER MAINSTREAMING EXPLAINED

Although the meaning of gender mainstreaming as a concept has been briefly given (cf. 1.5.2), this subsection explains the concept in detail. Firstly, a brief background to the concept is given followed by an elaboration on the concept.

3.2.1 Background to gender mainstreaming

Gender mainstreaming was developed against a historical background of world efforts to advance gender equality between men and women. In 1970 Ester Boserup, a Danish economist, published *Women's Role in Economic Development*, in which data from development projects showed that development strategies have a differential impact on males and females. Boserup (1970) clearly shows that the human capital development theories of the 1960s-1970s, (which proposed that investment in the development of high class workers and managers would result in the 'backward transformation or trickle down effect' of the society at large, leading to women and men benefiting equally) were wrong. She argued that application of these theories had not only little improved women's position but the position of women had actually declined in some sectors (Visvanathan *et al* 1997: 4-6; Ramji 1997:1-2). In the education sector this was evidenced by higher enrolment of men than

women in secondary and tertiary levels and new technologies were more directed at males than females. Also, out of the males and females who left education upon acquiring a certificate, diploma or degree and joined the industrial sector, more women than men were found in the low-skill, low wage bracket and in repetitive jobs that threatened their health (Visvanathan *et al*/1997: 5).

Chapter one of this study outlines several steps towards gender equality made through commitments, conventions, declarations and plans of action which were drawn, ratified and implemented by world states (cf. 1.1). But despite all these measures, gender inequalities remained pervasive and persistent. In 1995, in particular, at the fourth world conference of women held in Beijing, there was a growing outcry about these pervasive gender inequalities (UN 1995: 1). Lessons learnt from implementation of special projects for women illustrated that activities undertaken in the 1970s were essentially for women's empowerment; yet by themselves they could not bring about the required changes in equality between men and women (UN 1996: 2, Ramji 1997: 1; Verloo 2004: 1). Awareness of these fundamental constraints led to a broader institutional change to challenge pervasive gender inequalities. Gender mainstreaming was endorsed at the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing by the member states of the United Nations as a strategy that can lead to the eradication of the pervasive gender inequalities. The resolutions made at this Fourth World Conference on Women culminated in the BDPA, a document that explicitly urges governments to promote an active and visible policy of mainstreaming a gender perspective and taking into account the impact of gender before making a decision in all the twelve (12) cited critical areas of concern distinguished at the fourth UN conference (UN 1996: 6). Education and training was ranked second among these twelve world critical areas of concern. By this explicit commitment to gender mainstreaming, the BDPA, signed by 189 states (of which Zimbabwe was one) forcefully prompted the strategy of gender mainstreaming to be placed on the international policy agenda. Since then, gender mainstreaming as a strategy through which to achieve gender equality became a topic in various community policies and activities. Since being placed onto the international policy agenda at the Fourth World Conference on Women, the concept of gender mainstreaming can hardly be disregarded in policy circles dealing with gender equality.

Thus, gender mainstreaming as a strategy allows for a holistic approach to the achievement of gender equality. Gender mainstreaming is, therefore, not for its own sake, but to achieve gender equality. Thus, gender mainstreaming and gender equality are allied terms, that is, gender mainstreaming

automatically implies mainstreaming a gender equality perspective. Moreover, if gender equality is not achieved thereby, gender mainstreaming can be regarded as ineffective.

3.2.2 Gender mainstreaming elaborated

Since its birth at the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing in 1995, the term gender mainstreaming has become common parlance in development (Verloo 2001: 1-2; Lombardo 2003: 2). In its pursuit for gender equality, gender mainstreaming pursues a situation in which policy proposals, measures and procedures are critically reviewed, based on the question of whether or not they affect women and men differently, either directly or indirectly. As soon as gender biases and discrimination are detected, action is taken to adjust the policies and programs in such a way that they contribute to gender equality (Verloo 2001: 1).

Gender mainstreaming is, therefore, a potentially revolutionary strategy because it explicitly aims at being transformative. With its accent on scrutinizing or reorganizing policies, the assumption of gender mainstreaming is that all policies are gendered and therefore the approach implies a transformation of existing policy agenda in favour of gender mainstreaming (Verloo 2001: 1-4) Nowhere is this accent more visible than in the Council of Europe's definition of gender mainstreaming. The Council of Europe defines gender mainstreaming as: "The (re) organization, improvement, development and evaluation of policy processes, so that a gender equality perspective is incorporated in all policies and programmes at all levels and at all stages, by the actors normally involved in policy making." (Council of Europe 1998:15). Moreover, the UN Economic and Social Council (ECOSOC) adopts this vision of gender mainstreaming. In July 1997, working on further principles in gender mainstreaming, ECOSOC in its agreed conclusions 1997/2 (in Revees & Baden 2000: 3-4) defines gender mainstreaming as follows:

Mainstreaming a gender perspective is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action including legislation, policies or programmes in any area and at all levels. It is a strategy for making the concerns and experiences of women as well as of men an integral part of decision, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres, so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal of mainstreaming is to achieve gender equality.

These definitions have been widely adopted by many state and non state organizations working in gender circles. Zimbabwe, through the international conventions it has signed, takes this view of gender mainstreaming.

In line with Verloo's (2001: 1-3) observations, these definitions indicate a realization that vulnerabilities and capacities are and can be different for men and women. The other observation is that the definitions accentuate gender equality as an objective and not women as a target group. Thirdly, both definitions emphasise that gender mainstreaming is a strategy and it is clear what needs to be changed using this strategy, that is, the policy processes. This is why the Council of Europe is very explicit about organizing and reorganizing procedures and capacities for the incorporation of the gender equality perspective (Verloo 2001: 2, 4-5; Lombardo 2003: 8.). Both definitions stress the necessity of sustainable transformation of policy processes to avoid incidental, or even accidental attention to gender. Moreover, there is an underlying assumption that most regular policies are gendered and that these policies are crucial elements in the construction of social institutions. This has prompted the study of policy documents as a prelude to the field study in order to establish their gender accent.

A state university is gendered when it exhibits patterns of difference by gender (Pilcher & Whelehan 2004: 23). This is evident when the university structures and systems are designed basically for one sex group and tailored to suit the needs of that particular sex group and when the university is in and of itself, actively engaged in social processes that produce and reproduce distinctions between men and women.

Going back to the definitions of gender mainstreaming, the transformative strategy of gender mainstreaming involves the regular actors who are routinely involved in policy making (Council of Europe 1998: 15). This element is crucial to this study which aims in particular to examine these actors critically. It also focuses on how they are taken account of and how they use the strategy of gender mainstreaming in favour of their goals. Since the actors have to implement gender mainstreaming strategies, they cannot avoid framing the strategy and all its elements in terms that are meaningful to them because gender mainstreaming has to resonate or fit with the existing frames in which the regular actors operate. This is what Verloo (2001: 12, 13) calls 'strategic framing.' Strategic framing refers to "the strategic efforts of people to fashion shared understandings that legitimize and motivate action towards a goal" (herein the goal is gender equality) (Verloo 2001: 13). This aspect of

strategic framing is of great interest to this study because not only is strategic framing essential for the acceptance of gender policy programs, but it channels its implementation in certain directions. Due to the rule of consistency (Verloo 2001: 13), research has often shown that a departure from earlier adopted frames is relatively difficult. In this case the earlier adopted frame is the African world view and traditional philosophy that operated prior to the Eurocentric challenge of gender. This is of particular import in this study because the implementation of policies is always a political process, subject to all mechanisms of political processes. Hence, strategic framing dictates the approach of gender mainstreaming chosen in a way that dictates the model/version of gender equality invoked; all these have a great bearing on the attainment of the grand goal of gender equality.

The next section dwells on approaches to gender mainstreaming.

3.2.3 Approaches to gender mainstreaming

Jahan (1995: 23), Walby (2005: 4) and Lombardo (2003: 2-7) advance two approaches to gender mainstreaming: the integrationist and the agenda setting approaches. "Integrationist approaches are those that introduce a gender perspective without challenging the existing policy paradigm instead 'selling' gender mainstreaming as a way of more effectively achieving existing policy goals" (Walby 2005: 4). In this way, there is an integration of male and female concerns into already existing development agendas, focusing on adapting institutional procedures to achieve this. Squires (1999: 115-130) calls this gender mainstreaming approach, 'inclusion', implying inclusion of the disadvantaged sex group in the world as it is, in a political order from which it is currently excluded. Because the integrationist approach brings the disadvantaged sex group and gender concerns into already existing programs, Verloo (2001: 3) calls the same strategy "mere-add-on". In most cases the integrationist approach just increases access, and then fits the disadvantaged sex group into existing social structures without reshaping the social relations, the roots where all inequality is anchored. Walby (2005: 4) says this is cosmetic because it treats the symptoms and not the causes. Studies by Hannan (2008: 6) and Verloo (2007: 3) have shown that the strength of this approach is that gender mainstreaming is less likely to suffer political rejection. However, the same authorities note that, although readily accepted, the weakness of this approach is that its impact (i.e. attainment of the goal of gender equality) is less substantial.

"Agenda Setting on the other hand implies the transformation and reorientation of existing policy paradigms, changing decision making process, prioritizing gender equality objectives and rethinking

policy ends” (Walby 2005: 4). In this way it is the mainstream that changes. In this current study the mainstream is the administrative structure and the university community. The goal of agenda setting is substantive gender equality (cf. chapter 1) and this strategy implies that all development policies and interventional programs be first scrutinized for their impact on gender relations. This means that gender analysis should be carried out throughout the life cycle of the policy program, from project formulation, through policy program implementation to policy evaluation. Following this requirement, an aim of this current study was to determine if gender analysis had been carried out before implementation of gender policy programs. Situational gender analysis has the merit of inspiring programs that are adaptive to the local realities, and such locally oriented change processes have been shown to avoid the risk of being irrelevant to their constituencies (Berman 1980: 210-211; Ornstein & Hunkins 1993: 310, Status of Women Canada 2005: 4, 6; March *et al* 1999: 18). This approach therefore necessitates a rethinking of policies and programs to take account of men and women’s different realities and interests. This is probably why Squires (1999: 131) prefers to call this strategy “a strategy of displacement”, seeking to, as the gender critical theory emphasizes, displace patriarchal gender hierarchies and deconstruct discursive regimes that engender the subject. The researcher concurs with both Squires (1999: 115) and Verloo (2001: 3-4) that what is problematic is not the exclusion of women as a norm, but the gendered world itself. Integrationist approaches, like the WID approach, are concerned only with the issue of women’s non participation. This is true. However, while women’s voices should steer the transformation process, transformation may not simply come through women’s participation, for such participation can readily be absorbed under conditions of inequality. At the heart of agenda setting approach of gender mainstreaming as a strategy of displacement thus lies the recognition that “gender inequality not only pervades the behaviors and experiences of people, but is so deeply rooted in the systems, institutions and structures that a transformation of all these is needed in order to bring out equality” (Verloo 2007: 9).

The agenda setting approach to gender mainstreaming is fraught with difficulties. It does not promise quick wins and it requires a commitment of resources. While the key strength of this strategy is that the gendered mainstream gets reoriented towards *equality de facto* (Stevens and van Lamoen 2001: 21; Lombardo 2003: 7; Liebenberg 1997: 25-37), the challenge of this approach is in its acceptance and implementation, especially in gender conservative societies where displacement of patriarchal gender hierarchies is not entertained. This approach is likely to face great resistance in African societies where

the African philosophy of 'essentialism' does not welcome massive changes to the *status quo*, arguing for the need to preserve essential values (Jenkins 2009: 1).

Insights from this discussion have directed the researcher to establish whether the gender programs being mainstreamed in student admissions are merely fitted onto the existing agenda or whether there was a rethinking and reorientation of the old systems and structures, so that a transformation of these forms the new gender agenda.

While it has been made clear that gender equality and gender mainstreaming are allied terms and that the continued quest for gender equality gave rise to the strategy of gender mainstreaming, what is exactly meant by the term gender equality is unclear to many. The next subsection takes the discussion on gender equality into the global arena.

3.2.4 Gender equality in the global debate

Three perspectives in what has become known as the gender equality/difference debate have been identified (Jahan 1995: 23; Walby 2005: 4-7; Verloo 2007: 3-6; Squires 1999: 115-130). These three perspectives have given rise to "contested visions of and routes to gender equality" (Walby 2005: 6). The benefit of this contestation is an enhanced understanding of the search for gender equality (Squires 1999: 115-130). The following subsection looks into this debate that has given rise to the three versions of gender equality.

3.2.4.1 The Sameness Model

The first model of gender equality in gender circles is that of gender equality based on 'sameness', where gender equality is defined as the state or condition of being the same between men as a sex group and women as a sex group in terms for legal and political rights. This is the first and oldest model for promoting equal opportunities of men and women. According to this model, the concern is to extend to women the same rights and privileges that men have through identifying areas of unequal treatment and eliminating them via legal reforms. This model is given different names by different scholars. Liebenberg (1997: 25-37) calls it 'formal equality', Squires (1999: 130) calls it 'strict equality' and Freire (1990: 12) calls it 'egalitarian equality'. This model focuses on equalization of resources and opportunities. The underlying idea in this model is that relevantly similar cases should be treated identically and not discriminated on grounds such as characteristics as sex or race. In this

perspective gender is marked as an attribute that should not be significant in the distribution of social value or social rights (Pilcher & Whelehan 2004: 23).

What is at stake here is a moral principle of justice: treat like cases as like (Squires 1999: 130). It is equality between men and women in terms of equal rights, responsibilities, opportunities, treatment and employment. This sameness approach expresses a liberal feminist idea that removing discrimination in the legal frameworks gives women the same status as men. Judicial reform is a key tool to fight for this type of equality. In state universities this is fostered for example, where female students enter study areas previously considered male domains with the existing male norm remaining the standard. This is why it is called “tinkering with gender inequality” (Rees 2004: 8; Walby 2005: 7), “just more male-streaming” (Clisby 2005: 23), “more of the same” (Barnes 2006: 10), “formal equality” (Liebenberg 1997: 29). Tinkering refers to the effort to update, mutually attune and fill up the holes of existing legislation and procedures.

The weakness of this model is that the goal of equality is achieved through assimilation of the subordinated sex group to the values and lifestyles of the dominant group. Equality here is achieved through gender neutrality and “androgyny” (Stevens & van Lamoen 2001:34). Masculinity is the norm against which women are judged and femininity is here treated as something transcended in order for equality to be achieved. This approach therefore does not necessarily demand or ensure equality of outcomes because it fails to realize that men and women’s realities and experiences may be different and will remain different indeed when approached from equal opportunities measures.

3.2.4.2 The Tailoring Model

The second model calls for equal valuing of the contributions of women and men in a gender segregated society, what Rees (2004: 8) and Walby (2005: 7-8) call ‘tailoring situations to fit the needs of the disadvantaged group’. This model involves seeking measures and facilities for the disadvantaged sex group. Since women were always the disadvantaged group (because study after study has shown that, compared to men, social systems and practices tend to disadvantage women and that these disadvantaged women on their own cannot rise up to the challenges), measures and facilities almost always target them. The underlying thinking is that “equal rights cannot always be used by all citizens to the same extent because of the persistent gender inequalities that exist at the level of societies... (therefore there is need) to counter balance the unequal starting positions of men and women in most societies” (Verloo 2001: 3).

This model thus pursues material equality through promoting equality of outcome by equalizing starting positions (Stevens & Van Lamoen 2001: 25). The belief here is that specific actions that target the disadvantaged sex group are very necessary equalizing measures. In most gender circles this is called “affirmative action”. The Council of Europe prefers to call the strategy ‘targeted projects’, while the African Development Bank (2001: 6) calls the same model “stand-alone initiatives” model.

The weakness of this model is that it stimulates the disadvantaged sex group to enter into systems and organizations as they are. Here, the disadvantaged sex group is assimilated into the *status quo*, that in itself is not under discussion (Stevens & Van Lamoen 2001: 25). As this researcher views it, with this approach, gender inequalities are mainly perceived as the disadvantaged sex group’s problems rather than as issues that concern the organization as a whole. Because the disadvantaged sex group is usually comprised of females, the thinking of this model to this researcher, expresses the thinking that women are vulnerable to men and not to the social systems that create the inequalities. Hence they should be empowered so that they can liberate themselves from the yoke of patriarchy. While this researcher personally agrees with the need for women empowerment and supports commitment to programs that focus on women, she feels that much work needs to be done with both men and women. According to this researcher, women are not vulnerable to men per se but as Verloo (2007: 9) argues, both men and women are vulnerable to the way dominant norms of gender relations work within their contexts.

The weakness of targeted action is that in rectifying the inequalities, it violates the very principle of gender fairness that the programs are supposed to uphold.

3.2.4.3 The Diversity Model

The third model is what Rees (2004: 9) and Walby (2005: 8) call ‘transforming the mainstream’. This model is born out of current gender analysis revelations that go beyond an analysis that women are vulnerable to men but suggests that both men and women are vulnerable to the way gender relations are at play within their contexts. Because of this focus, Walby (2005: 8) calls the model a ‘transformation of gender relations’ because she sees the model replacing the segregated institutions and standards associated with masculinity and femininity. This model addresses the problem of gender equality at a more structural level, identifying gender biases in current policies and programs and addressing the impact of these gender biases in the reproduction of gender inequalities. The focus of this model thus pursues a situation in which all the policies are informed by knowledge of the

diverse needs and perspectives of their beneficiaries, either male or female. Following the model's idea of gender analysis as a continuous thread woven from policy formulation through policy implementation to policy evaluation, questions are posed in the current study to establish whether gender analysis was continuously employed in the policy programmes in student admissions.

Squires (1999: 131) calls this model 'the diversity model' and elaborates that it extends beyond the dichotomy represented by the previous two perspectives. It sees the first perspective failing to recognize the socially constructed and patriarchal nature of criterion of evaluation deemed pertinent to social inclusion. It again sees the second perspective failing to theorize the extent to which "maleness" and "females" are themselves socially constructed (Squires 1999:131; Lister 1997: 96).

Table 3.1 gives an overview of gender equality models and their main tenets. This table is comprised of a combination of the elements borrowed from Snow, Rochford, Worden and Benford (1986: 474) and Stevens and van Lamoen (2001: 24). While Snow *et al* (1986) talk about the overview of these models in general, Stevens and van Lamoen (2001) particularize these to a university set up because they were looking at 'gender mainstreaming in a university'. The table was a useful guide in this study as to which model of gender equality a particular university followed. It was also utilized in both policy scrutiny and policy implementation on issues of what a particular university saw as the problem of gender inequalities in student admissions, what it set out to do, its major focus and the gender dimensions of the focus, that is, who it said was responsible for problems and who it saw as the main actor(s).

Table 3.1 An overview of the Gender Equality Model;

	TINKERING	TAILORING	TRANSFORMING THE MAINSTREAMING
Diagnosis (What is wrong?)	Inequality in laws and rights for men and women	Unequal starting positions of men and women and group disadvantage of women	Gender bias and segregation in regular policies and social institutions resulting in gender inequality
Main Purpose	Equal rights and equal treatment (Formal equality)	Positive action and positive discrimination (Material Equality)	Gender Mainstreaming (Gender Equality)
Attribution of causality (what/ who is responsible for the problems)	Individual responsibilities	Diverse, both at individual level and at structural level	Policy makers
Prognosis (What should be done)	Change the laws towards formally equal rights for university men and women	Design and fund specific projects to address the problems of specific groups of women	(Re)organize policy process to incorporate a gender equality perspective in all policies
	Make sure that men and women are treated equally in all formal rules and procedures	Positive Action i.e. Programmes providing supportive facilities for women to compensate for their unequal starting points -Positive Discrimination i.e. preferential treatment for women to ensure not only equal access but equality of outcome	Removing obvious and invisible barriers by incorporation a gender perspective in all policies and structures.
What is the major focus;	University formal rules and procedures	Specific problem areas where in women are underrepresented or occupy disadvantaged positions	The university as a whole with all its structures, values, customs and policy practices
Main Actors (who should do something)	University legislators, i.e. all persons at the university responsible for establishing official rules and procedures.	University partners sometimes with established institutions, special committees or officers for equal opportunities	All actors normally involved in policy making, supported by specialized units

Source: Borrowed from Snow *et al* (1986) and Stevens and van Lamoen (2001)

3.2.5 The fit between gender equality and gender mainstreaming

From the discussion on versions of gender equality, it has been shown clearly that true gender equality is not about changing the legislative frame of the university through passing of binding rules and regulations in student admissions, for example, that all academic departments within the university are equally open to male and females who meet the stipulated entry points. Neither do affirmative action programs aimed at redressing the consequences of past discrimination result in equality between men and women. Real equality, as a number of scholars in this study have shown, is transforming the mainstream, ridding it of gender stereotypes, gender biases, and gender discrimination and replacing the segregated standards associated with masculinity and femininity. This is what Lombardo (2003: 7) calls *equality de facto* or what Liebenberg (1997: 27-35) calls substantive equality.

In the literature review, it has again been shown that there is a strong link between this *equality de facto* and the agenda setting approach to gender mainstreaming because the two are equally premised on removal of segregated standards of masculinity and femininity. There is therefore a great fit between the two that is, between *equality de facto* and agenda setting. Thus, the extent of attainability of gender equality in this study is measured through attainability of agenda setting.

To help best explain the fit between gender mainstreaming and gender equality as conceived in this study, the researcher borrows Woodward's (2008: 68-69) analogy of gender mainstreaming and a three floored house, where the house was first built as a row house, floor by floor, but separate from its neighbours. The first floor focuses on changing the legislative frame by eliminating discriminatory regulations and creating a level playing field. This is what Rees (2004: 8), calls 'tinkering' and what this study calls the sameness equality model. This in itself does not result in equality between men and women. The second floor redresses the consequences of past discrimination through affirmative action. Borrowing from Rees (2004: 8) and Walby (2005: 7-8), this is the 'tailoring model'. This in itself does not result in equality between men and women. These two floors use the 'man' as the measure of success and women are to have opportunities equal to those available to men. These two floors have the same effect as the integrationist approach of gender mainstreaming. They are, in fact, the WID approach to development. The same effect is created by fitting the disadvantaged sex group into a political order from which it (the disadvantaged sex group) is currently excluded, without questioning or changing the political order. The third floor, the diversity mode of gender equality, indicates the

thinking of a new architect who sees gender equality or inequality as a product of gendered relations and institutions and wants to transform the house totally, breaking out the row house and changing the entire neighbourhood. This thinking of a new architect who sees gender equality in this light represents the agenda setting approach to gender mainstreaming.

Borrowing from insights of scholars who talk about the fit between gender equality and gender mainstreaming, the researcher concurs with Woodward (2008: 68) who notes the wide misuse of the idea of mainstreaming, mostly equating gender mainstreaming to simple equal opportunities policies and affirmative action. Gender mainstreaming is different from these. It is complementary but not equivalent to them. In fact, gender mainstreaming builds on the presence of these first two stages but goes further (Rees 2004: 10; Woodward 2008: 68).

This is why Rees (2004:10) and Woodward (2008:68) see only the discussed third model of gender equality as constituting gender mainstreaming. From the ensuing discussion, it is the only model which has the potential to deliver gender justice because it is the only strategy that includes the standards necessary for effective gender equality. [This is why Woodward (2008: 68) says that the challenge with agenda setting is that it promises gains that are impossible with both sameness and affirmative action].

Booth and Bennett (2002: 430-446), not totally disagreeing with or contradicting Rees and Woodward's ideas, see each of the three modes of gender equality as necessary for the successful conduct of the others. The two authors argue that the three perspectives of gender equality are "complementary rather than mutually exclusive". The two further challenge the compartmentalization of different types of equality models, arguing that the equal opportunities perspective, the women perspective and the gender mainstreaming perspective are and should be conceptualized as components of one unit, more or less the three legs of a three-legged stool (Walby 2005: 8-9). However, their labeling of only the third perspective 'the gender perspective' shows that they too see that while the three models maybe or are interconnected and need each other, gender mainstreaming is more than just equal treatment or mere integration, or affirmative action. This is the vision of this study and thus the extent of the attainability of gender equality was measured through the approach to gender mainstreaming which was followed.

From the insights gained from the various scholars linking gender equality and gender mainstreaming, the conclusion reached here is that the first two discussed models of gender equality

on their own do not really constitute gender equality because they retain the gender standards of the *status quo*. Their greatest limitation is in their seeming implication that women can only gain equality with men if they are able to reach standards set by men (Rossilli 1997: 63-82.). In this way, there is a fundamental difficulty in shifting the paradigm of patriarchy (Rao & Kelleher 2005: 57-69). Unless the focus is on the third model, the base of the problem of gender inequality remains intact, churning out imbalances at the universities year after year. Hence the need to address the pillars upon which gender inequality rests (Chirimuuta 2006: 5). Policies and programs which are imbedded in the diversity model focus on gender relations and give prominence to the connectedness of men and women's lives and to the imbalances of power embedded in male-female relations. Transformation of gender relations entails the need to change inequitable social systems within the institutions. This might include the stated and unstated rules that determine such issues like 'Who gets what?', 'Who does what?' or 'Who sits in the Board of Senators? In fact, it is the whole universe of changes that might be contemplated to enhance gender equality, (Verloo 2007: 10). Taking this broader scope of gender equality, the conceptualized definition of gender equality taken by this study is the one provided by the Council of Europe (1998: 7-8) which understands gender equality as:

... an equal visibility, empowerment and participation of both sexes in all spheres of public and private life. Gender equality is not synonymous with sameness or with establishing men, their life style and condition as a norm. Gender equality means accepting and valuing equally the differences between men and women and the diverse roles they play in society.

Borrowing from all this, it is of interest to this study to see the version of gender equality models invoked in the mainstreaming strategies employed by the universities.

3.2.7 Principles of mainstreaming a Gender Equality Perspective

Gender forerunners (Lombardo 2003: 2-7; Woodward 2008: 67-74 Moser 2005: 581) advance certain requirements/elements or principles that mark genuine gender mainstreaming. These requirements are the indicators which "should be visible if gender mainstreaming has been applied properly, and the greater number of conditions present, the more it shows that mainstreaming has been put into practice" (Lombardo (2003: 7). Borrowing from this idea, this study utilizes these as its reference point or criteria to explore the extent to which gender mainstreaming is included in the political agenda of the studied institutions. In this regard, only a set of reference points were chosen from three prominent gender authors (and the sets are not exhaustive of all requirements). In most cases the requirements

overlap. The chosen criteria come from Moser (2005:581), Lombardo (2003:2-7) and Woodward (2008: 70-73).

Woodward (2008: 70-73) argues that there are four determinant or contextual requirements in conditioning an organizational gender program's institutional innovation or response to gender equality. These factors determine the amount and extent of gender change as they can cause the gender programs to be limited in application, seem subverted or ignored. These requirements are:

- Commitment to a gender equality mission.

The institution's commitment to the gender mission should be well encompassing. (Woodward 2008: 71).

- The cultural context of mainstreaming

The actors in the administration setting on gender should be well versed in gender issues (Woodward 2008: 72).

- Presence of acceptance or resistance to change.

A great presence of vested interests and acceptance and as little as possible of resistance to the transformation of the gender relations is most preferred (Woodward 2008: 73)

- The extent to which gender experts play a role.

The transformative potential of the crew that is rocking the gender equality boat and its ability in carrying out the mainstreaming agenda should be a precondition. Their gender analysis capacities and effectiveness should never be doubted (Woodward 2008: 73). Expertise if not sufficient can result in unintentional marginalisation of the gender cause.

Moser (2005: 581) puts forwards four-tier criteria for evaluating progress on mainstreaming a gender perspective. These are:

- Adopting the terminology of gender
- Putting in place a policy that mainstreams a gender equality perspective
- Implementing a gender equality perspective
- Evaluating the practices of mainstreaming gender equality perspective

Lombardo (2003: 2) lays five basic requirements/indicators of proper application of mainstreaming a gender equality perspective. The author argues that these help one to recognize gender mainstreaming when one sees it. These are:

- A shift towards a broader concept of gender equality
- Incorporation of a gender perspective into the mainstream
- Women representation in decision making
- Prioritizing gender equality objective
- A shift in institutional and organization culture

3.3 GENDER EQUALITY IN ZIMBABWE

International policy on gender equality, as said earlier on, is first clearly set and agreed upon in the BDPA (UN 1996: 2). These Beijing resolutions remain the most important international statement on gender equality. Hence, the gender equality situational analyses provided in this section are mainly located within the frameworks of the BPA, to which Zimbabwe is signatory without reservations. The country's Gender Equality Strategies (2008-2011) and its Strategic Plan of Implementation (2008-2011), though informed by the United Nations Development Policy [here after UNDP], are rooted in the BDPA resolutions. As signatory to the BDPA, which fully endorses the Council of Europe's

definition of gender equality (cf. 3.2.5), Zimbabwe too is bound by the same definition; hence, even the ZNGP developed with technical support from UNDP and adopted by the Zimbabwe Cabinet in 2004, takes largely this conception of gender equality (ZNGP 2004: 1-4)). The ZNGP defines the commitment of the country to foster gender equality. The ZNGP (2004: 1-4) also seeks to provide, among other things, a requisite framework for action, which will ensure equal access to women and men of all Zimbabwe resources and opportunities.

Despite these meticulously worded global and local undertakings to ensure gender equality, discrimination against women in the Zimbabwean society persists on almost every level and in every corner of the country (SARDC WIDSAA 2008: 31). This study does not report on the gender inequalities in every part of the Zimbabwean society. The next session will only briefly make a sweeping analysis of the gender issues in the main areas covered by the ZNGP. These are: poverty, land and food security, employment, education, health, governance and decision making and law and legal rights. Following is this brief exposition.

3.3.1 The gender situation in Zimbabwe

In this subsection, reference is made to two dimensions of the gender equality situation in Zimbabwe. These are: a quantitative dimension, that is, the relative numbers of females compared to men in specific sectors or situations and a qualitative dimension, which embraces knowledge, experiences, priorities, values and perceptions of both men and women. Of foremost importance is that Zimbabwe, although rich in diversity in terms of culture, religion and ethnicity, is a highly patriarchal country. Almost throughout Zimbabwe, though there maybe significant local particularities, roles assigned to men and women are largely culturally pre-determined and different and the cultural environment is among the factors that have influenced the participation rate of both men and women both in the public and private spheres. Following is a brief gender status of some of the country's key sectors.

Poverty

Poverty can be described as lack of ability to meet one's basic needs and those of one's family. Poverty remains high in Zimbabwe with quite a substantial percentage of the population (40%) living in extreme poverty (World Bank 2008: 2; SARDC-WIDSAA 2008: 5-14). Though men and women share this burden of poverty, they experience poverty differently due to the gender- based

variations in their access to and control over social and economic resources, on the one hand and the manner in which they respond and contribute to poverty reduction on the other hand (Kabeer 2003: 1). There are significant differences in the ways that men and women allocate their very limited resources in this situation of poverty. Due to their role as primary caregivers in the family, women usually provide the largest share of their limited resources to catering for the family's basic needs (SARDC-WIDSAA 2008: 2, 4). This is why empirical evidence from a number of studies (UNDP: 2005: 4; World Bank 2008: 2; SARDC WIDSAA 2008: 7) reveals that poverty in Zimbabwe is increasingly taking on a female face, a phenomena popularly termed 'feminization of poverty'. As observed in the BDPA (UN 1996: 3-4), women's poverty is directly related to the absence of economic resources and their benefits, inheritance, lack of access to education and to support services. Thus, though the ZNGP has identified poverty eradication as an overarching priority and main goal and further identified the priority intervention to achieve this goal in gender equality (as this is central to economic growth and overall human development), the gendered face of poverty in Zimbabwe still persists.

Law and legal aspect

There have been advances in legislation, with the country enacting new laws that are gender sensitive (e.g. the most recently passed Domestic Violence Act in 2007) and amending existing laws to make them gender inclusive. Even the country's constitution was amended in 1996 to include discrimination on grounds of gender (Mazambani 2006: 2). Although these measures have been taken to provide men and women with fundamental rights through the country's constitution, civil codes and statutory law, extensive discrimination against women still persists. While the Zimbabwe constitution purports to protect all its citizens against gender based discrimination, it excludes the family, personal and customary law from constitutional regulation (Mazambani 2006: 2; SARDC-WIDSAA 2008: 81). Yet these are the areas of the law in which gender discrimination is mostly entrenched.

The existence of a dual law abrogates the rights of women through negative customary practices. Section 23 of the Zimbabwe constitution gives precedence to customary law if it comes into conflict with gender equality principles in the field of marriage or inheritance (Constitution of Zimbabwe section 23). Customary practices in Zimbabwe prevent women from inheriting land and other resources on an equal footing with men. This existence of the dual law constrains women's ability to access credit, own or dispose of property and many other things which depend upon the goodwill of

their male relatives. Despite the provisions of the right to work stipulated in the Zimbabwe labour laws, the husband's consent is sought to enable women to do paid work. Section 171(3)(b) of the Zimbabwe Companies Act reads "... provided that a women married in community of property may be director if her husband gives his written consent and that consent is lodged with the Registrar of Companies" (Mazambani 2006: 5). When a woman contracts a customary marriage, it is the husband who has the legal right to dispose of any property that the man and or woman bought, on behalf of the family because women under customary law are under the total guardianship of their husbands so whatever they acquire (whether solely by own means) is automatically the husband's. Judgment in court has been passed to this effect. In a case heard in Zimbabwe High Court in 1986, former Chief Justice Gubbay summed it up in *Jena vs. Nyemba* that "property acquired during a marriage becomes a husband's property whether acquired by him or his wife"(SARDC-WIDSAA 2008: 81).

Another feature that perpetuates inequalities in this area is that international instruments do not automatically form part of the Zimbabwe law unless incorporated by an act of the Zimbabwean Parliament (SARDC-WIDSAA 2008: 80). Therefore, instruments like the Convention on Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women only act as a guiding tool but courts are not bound by it. Still in this area, the other perpetuator of gender inequality is ignorance of most women about the law and their legal rights. Carrying out an evaluative study on the recently passed Domestic Violence Act, the researcher (Chauraya 2010: 10) found that women in particular, suffer from lack of knowledge of the laws that affect their lives and are designed to protect them. Laws may be ineffective in practice because they have not been communicated to the people.

Health

SARDIC-WIDSAA (2008: 47-59) notes that the impressive gains made with regards to access to primary health care in Zimbabwe in the 1990s have been largely reversed due to various challenges. Chief among these is that global macro-economic policies have hit the economy of Zimbabwe hard. This has seen the Zimbabwe Public Health Sector decline since 2000 and has resulted in reduction of budgetary allocations in social sectors like health and education. The burden of this reduction in the health sector leads to deterioration of public health services and systems and to the privatization of most health care systems. Although this affects both men and women, the impact is more strongly felt by the women, as primary caregivers, as most sick people now stay at home as they cannot afford the costs demanded by private hospitals. This predisposes women to disease as they lack expensive protective clothing and other equipment. These women also lack quality healthcare education. Thus, the financial stringency imposed by the deteriorating health-care systems negatively affects women more than men.

Moreover, women are often unable to protect themselves from unprotected sex due to power based gender relations, lack of social and economic empowerment, cultural values and practices as well as lack of means to protect themselves. This makes women socially more vulnerable to HIV/AIDS than their male counterparts.

Employment

Despite legislation which provides for equality of opportunities between men and women, employment of women in the country is still largely concentrated in areas considered culturally as female domains, for example, teaching and nursing. Males, on the other hand, are also concentrated in the senior and middle level management positions in both the Zimbabwe private and public sectors (Kariwo 2007: 45-50) despite the ZNGP seeking equal opportunities for men and women in this sector (ZNGP 2004: 2,3). Further, in specifically targeted areas by the ZNGP, like in the mining sector where the policy specifically aims to achieve greater female participation, gender inequalities are still very glaring. Mining in Zimbabwe is still a male job (Mazambani 2006: 7). This is despite the fact that Zimbabwe is now a member of the SADC Women in Mining Trust (Mazambani 2006: 5), a body fighting for the demystification of the mining industry and its opening up to women. Despite noticeable improvement in gender awareness by the Trust, to date, Zimbabwean women are rarely

mine workers but spouses of the employees. Where they are involved, they usually participate as above ground administration or as nurses. Even where women have marketable skills in the area, they cannot break into the sector because the “Zimbabwe Mining Act does not permit women to work underground in mines. It seems to be based on the notion of women’s fragility and irrationality hence the purported need to prevent harm to themselves and others since mining is considered a hazardous occupation” (Mazambani 2006: 7). Other cultural barriers also inhibit men and women from taking up certain types of employment in Zimbabwe; hence, the employment sector is rife with gender inequalities, biases and discrimination.

These trends in poverty and health are encountered in education. The section below will discuss gender issues as they relate to education in Zimbabwe.

Education

Empirical evidence provided by some of the latest reports of the World Bank, for example, the World Bank’s (2008: 2) report on the ‘State of education in Africa’; the World Bank’s (2010:1-3) ‘Annual Monitoring report’ and SARDC-WIDSAA (2008: 35), show that significant levels of success in achieving gender parity have been scored in Zimbabwe. This has been attributed to global advocacy, donor pressure and own initiatives in Zimbabwe. However, the same texts are quick to report that, in spite of these quantitative achievements, gender disparities continue to exist at all levels of the Zimbabwe education system and the gap widens at higher levels.

Concurring, the Zimbabwe Millennium Development Goals Progress Report (2004: 29-31) states that enrolments ratios in primary schools rose to 96% for males and 90% for females and completion rates to 82% and 73% respectively at the time of their study. These are significant quantitative gains. However, recent studies, such as SARDC-WIDSAA (2008: 35) and Chinyani (2010: 247-249), show that, qualitatively speaking, gender disparities exist in the Zimbabwe education system. The studies conclude that the manner in which schooling is provided in Zimbabwe today still exacerbates constraints to girls’ education and thus prevents attainment of gender equality. Teachers and the curriculum in Zimbabwe are still, in general, guilty of reinforcing social biases and discriminatory practices (SARDC-WIDSAA 2008: 35). Thus, although significant gains have been made, they are very fragile in terms of gender equality. Emphasis has been much on parity and here significant records have been attained. UNESCO (2003/4: 13) found Zimbabwe doing better than almost all Southern

African countries and being second only to Tunisia at regional level. But, as already argued, mere parity is not equality in the circles of gender (Unterhalter 2004a: 1). The curriculum is still gender segregated with enrolments in career-catapulting subjects like Technical Drawing, Building, Metalwork, Fashion and Fabrics, Foods and Nutrition, Hard Sciences and Computer Sciences made along gender lines. A UNICEF sponsored study carried out by Runhare and Gordon (2004: 1-104) gives one of the most comprehensive reviews of gender issues in the primary and secondary education in the Zimbabwe education sector. The review aptly concludes that serious gender disparities and inequalities persist in the Zimbabwe education system. This study and others (Runhare & Gordon 2004: 10-23; Hellum *et al*/2007: 37; Chirimuuta 2006:1-5; SARDC-WIDSAA 2008: 35-41; Chinyani 2010: 247-249) reveal that inequalities in the Zimbabwe education sector are largely a result of:

- a) **Negative community attitudes and cultural and religious factors.** The Zimbabwean culture of son preference and daughter neglect, which gives rise to different treatment of boys and girls at home and in communities, compounds and is compounded by the different treatment and expectations of boys and girls in school. This differential treatment and expectation perpetuates the ever persistent gender gap in Zimbabwe primary and secondary education – a situation that higher education in Zimbabwe inherits and unfortunately also perpetuates. In this context, Module 1 (2006: 6) defines the gender gap as “differences in scores between men and women on attitudes, interest, behaviours, knowledge and perceptions on particular issues” such as subject preferences or career prospects. The negative cultural factors in Zimbabwe as elsewhere have given rise to stereotypes that stand in the way of school boys and girls as well as their communities’ perceptions of reality and social change (Runhare & Gordon 2004: 10). These stereotypes have helped maintain the gender equality mandate in the Zimbabwe education sector in a transformational paralysis since they act as gate-keeping mechanisms.

- b) **The economic barriers.** When a choice is made who to send to school in times of economic hardship, girls in Zimbabwe are the first to leave and the last to enter school. Runhare and Gordon (2004: 11, 19) found this economic barrier a feature of both rural and urban schools. Thus, while the Zimbabwe Education Act stipulates that no child should be denied the right to education, the practicality of this is defeated by the economic barriers, more so because education in Zimbabwe is not free and therefore can never be compulsory.

c) **The disproportionate gender division of labour** is a factor which results in heavy burdens of domestic work that leave little time for study for girls compared to boys. This is a feature true even of older students in institutions of higher learning in Zimbabwe (Hellum *et al*/2007: 37). Again, a gender analysis of the tasks that boys normally do at home compared with those done by girls show that most tasks undertaken by girls are less compatible with school work compared to boys' tasks (Runhare & Gordon 2004: 19).

d) **Issues of sexual harassment, pregnancy and other gender unresponsive aspects of the Zimbabwe education sector mostly affect girls.** Many school girls are taken advantage of sexually by older men, especially during difficult economic times. (Chirimuuta 2006: 1-5; Runhare & Gordon 2004: 16-19). Runhare and Gordon (2004: 26) ascribe this issue to economic hardship which causes many parents to become migrant labourers or absentee parents. The result is children with no adult guidance which impacts girls more than boys. This has resulted in teenage pregnancy and sexual abuse by guardians. Since the Zimbabwe Education Act and related policies do not allow pregnant mothers to be in school (SARDC-WIDSAA 2008:31), girls are disadvantaged. True, like Botswana, South Africa and Zambia, Zimbabwe now has a policy of girl-reentry into school after childbirth, but as Chirimuuta (2006: 5) points out the policy is not successful because of the negative social attitudes, lack of publicity of the policy, lack of detailed policy implementation guidelines and lack of infant care. Runhare and Gordon concur with Chirimuuta and Chinyani that Zimbabwe education needs reviewing to make it gender responsive. In the absence of gender responsiveness, gender inequality prevails.

The gender insensitive school environments in Zimbabwe, especially with the so called 'satellite school' (Runhare & Gordon 2004: 16, 30) are characterized by infrastructure and personnel insensitive to issues of sexual maturation. This makes girls abscond school during their menstrual periods.

e) **Burdens imposed on child-headed families by the HIV/AIDS pandemic** have seen more girls than boys leave school to care and provide for the family and for the sick parent(s). It is sometimes impossible for the girl child to go school. Sometimes she is made to leave school early or, if she stays in school, she is likely to be a poor performer because of erratic patterns of school attendance. Runhare and Gordon (2004:10) found that

absenteeism and attrition rates were higher among girls than boys due to the HIV/AIDS pandemic.

- f) **The gender blind and unresponsive state interventions**; like the Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM) project which aims to help orphans and other low income families by assisting them to pay fees at primary and secondary school levels, irrespective of sex, are not gender equitably distributed (SARDC-WIDSAA 2008: 31-40). The Zimbabwe government's stance that monies should be distributed on a 50-50 basis subtly perpetuates the inequalities because the genders are not represented in a 50-50 ratio in the national population. Girls in Zimbabwe comprise 52% of the Zimbabwean population (ZNGP 2004: 1). Moreover, BEAM is only partial assistance as it does not meet all educational costs. Another limitation is that it caters for those still in school at the expense of those already out of school. A gender analysis of this sees more girls than boys negatively hit since the girls constitute the bulk of the school leavers due to care-giving, child headed families, child labour and cultural barriers.

Thus, specifically to this sector, constraints arising from the cultural milieu, value placed on marriage and early marriage for girls, gender biased teaching and educational materials, heavy domestic work and caring demands brought about by the HIV/AIDS pandemic, migrant labour, gender blind and gender neutral Government Acts and policies which curtail girls' access to, enrolment in, attrition/retention, performance and completion of education make it difficult for women to attain quality higher education in Zimbabwe. Although the country has made significant progress in terms of education, with high literacy rates, this has not had the desired effect of reducing the restrictive nature of long held customs. The quality aspect of the gender gap is still alive and this has kept gender equality at bay in the Zimbabwe education sector.

Therefore, it is necessary for this study to focus on both the quantitative and qualitative analysis of the gender equality picture in student admissions.

Governance and decision making

Although there is a slow but upward trend of women occupying seats of power in the country, governance and decision making in Zimbabwe is still full of gender inequalities (SARDC-WIDSAA 2008: 61-70). According to the BDPA, UNDP policy instruments and indeed the ZNGP, women's

equal participation in politics and decision making is not only a demand for simple justice or democracy but should also be seen as a necessary condition for men and women's interests to be taken into account (ZNGP 2004: 3). Despite this vision, women in Zimbabwe still lag behind men in the field of politics and decision making. The discussion which follows concerns women in parliament and cabinet.

Zimbabweans vote for a candidate who represents a party in a geographically defined constituency. This concerns members of parliament, mayors and councilors. Members of cabinet, governors and senators are appointed by the Head of State. The percentage of women compared to that of the men in all these areas of operation is very low (SARDC –WIDSAA 2008: 66). In 1997 the percentage of women in parliament was 14%; in 2000 it was 10, 7%; and in 2007 it was 15, 8%. To date it is 17%. The percentage of women in cabinet in 2000 was 24%; in 2005 it was 13%; and to date it is 19%. This data pertains to the year 2007 as provided by SARDC–WIDSAA (2008) and current statistics were provided by the Office of the District Administrator-Gweru. SARDC-WIDSAA (2008: 54-67) attributes this low level in females in decision making to many factors. Chief among these are: the entrenched perception that leadership and public arenas are a male domain and the general unwillingness of some men to accept women as equals or superiors in the workplace. Also Zimbabwean women are generally less educated than their male counterparts; thus, political parties are male dominated and continue to maintain patriarchy with women featuring far down in the party lists. This researcher maintains that the female Vice President of Zimbabwe would not have attained the position if it had not been by appointment by the Head of State.

Whilst this researcher agrees with the African Development Bank's (2001: 6) idea that having more women political leaders does not necessarily lead to increased gender sensitivity and equality, she argues here that women's underrepresentation in parliament and cabinet especially, in proportion to their numbers in the total population of the country, inhibits their participation in both parliamentary and cabinet committees. This in turn implies that there is little that they can do in influencing policy change in education, agriculture, health care and financial administration of the country. The Musasa Project, a local non governmental organization that works chiefly in the area of domestic violence, cites this as the reason why it took nearly ten years to pass the Zimbabwean Domestic Violence Act (2006) (interview with the Musasa Programme Officer, Midlands Province, 16 April 2009).

Agriculture and food security

On the issue of food security in Zimbabwe, SSRDC-WIDSAA (2008: 17-25) notes that women play more important roles than men in achieving food security in the country. The ZNGP concurs on the issue of land, agriculture and resettlement and notes that women in Zimbabwe constitute 70% of all agriculture labor. This significant contribution notwithstanding, women have limited access to and control over productive agricultural and food security resources like land and modern technological innovation. Although, as noted by SARDC-WIDSAA (2008: 23-24), women have not been guaranteed access to land rights in proportion to their numbers. Mazambani (2006:6) on the issue of the land reform programme, notes that "In October 2000, the Government of Zimbabwe undertook to allocate at least 20% of all land identified for resettlement for women. According to the Utete Land Audit Report, only 18% of the intended female beneficiaries had benefited under model A1 (peasant farmers) and only 12% had done so under A2 (commercial farmers). The allocation of only 20% to women is gender discrimination in itself since women constitute 52% of the population. Secondly, the very low portion of women beneficiaries out of this 20% by the end of programme implementation widened the gender inequality gap.

Gender division of labour

This involves the contributions of men and women to social and economic processes and the rewards they gain from these contributions. The gender division of labour is constantly changing, usually slowly, but often quite fast in times of crisis. Often, however, this division of labour changes more quickly than beliefs about what is appropriate for men and women, causing stress to people who are forced to change behaviours but are unable to change their beliefs (Kabeer 2003:19). In Zimbabwe, due to changes in the socio-economic environment, men have lost some of their traditional roles without assuming new ones. This has left responsibilities for women who have to secure new roles in addition to their traditional ones. This has resulted in more roles for Zimbabwean women and an ordinate increase in women's working hours. This leaves women with little or no time for leisure, and no time to campaign for political positions (Poverty Reduction Forum and Institute of Development Studies 2003: 3-6). Thus, in Zimbabwe, when women do not take up developmental projects, it is not necessarily a matter of disinterest or incompetence. The problem should be understood against this background (Hellum *et al* 2007: 37). Traditional approaches to socio-economic analysis fail to recognize the economic roles women play by providing unpaid care for the children, the sick and the elderly in addition to the myriad of tasks that are commonly referred to as 'household work'. This

situation is even more critical now because of the adjustments being made to health and social support programmes. Women are directly impacted by the levels of reduction in the levels of support allocated to social programmes in Zimbabwe. However, women's labour is not unlimited; it cannot stretch to cover all deficiencies left by reduced public expenditure (Poverty Reduction Forum and Institute of Development Studies 2003: 6).

Thus, by and large, the gender equality situation in Zimbabwe is still gloomy. Women in Zimbabwe's lower education levels, lower skills levels, their exclusion from formal labour markets, the disproportionate burden of care, the dominant attitudes which prevent women from formal paid work even though the labour markets now provide for equality of opportunities between men and women, the contradictory dual law system, retrogressive laws, traditional attitudes as well as the strict patriarchal nature of Zimbabwean society are some of the key constraints to attainment of gender equality in the country, despite the meticulously worded conventions and policies to the opposite effect. To sum up Zimbabwe is a "highly unequal society in terms of gender" (ZNGP 2004:1). This is noted despite significant improvements in the absolute status of women and gender equality. Indeed culture has been invoked to legitimize gender differences in status, values, and roles and to justify unequal gender relations.

3.4 GENDER AND POLICY PROGRAMMES IN ZIMBABWE

3.4.1 What is a Gender Policy Programme?

A program is a course of action or a procedure or a specified strategy for implementing a specific task (Module 2 2006: 2). A gender policy program is when this program is guided by a gender policy. More or less like a cookery recipe, a policy program contains a list of ingredients, that is, its key facets (what is to be done) and the list of directions on how to use the ingredients (the how, where and when). In short then a gender policy program is a strategy, a practice or a scheme that is employed by an institution in the eradication of gender gaps. The gender policy program prescribes specific actions, objectives, goals, timetables, responsibilities and describes resources to meet the identified needs. In this study, it is a comprehensive results-oriented strategy designed to achieve gender equality (because the goal for employing the gender programs is elimination of gender inequalities). Because the aim is attainment of gender equality, Lombardo, Meier and Verloo (2010: 107) call the same

'gender equality strategies' and Bunyi (2003: 2) call the same 'gender equality interventions'. In this study, these titles are adopted and are used interchangeably with gender policy programs.

3.4.2 Classification of Gender Policy programs

March, Smyth and Mukhopayday (1999: 20-21) classify gender policies into four broad categories. This study has extended this classification to gender policy programs. These are: gender blind policy programs, gender neutral policy programs, gender specific policy programs and gender aware policy programs.

Gender blind policy programs, like gender blind policies from which they are spawned, do not recognize that gender is an essential determinant of the life choices available to males and females in any society. Because of this blindness, gender bias and discrimination is orchestrated by their implementation due to poor knowledge and naiveté.

Gender neutral policy programs acknowledge the asymmetrical gender relations inherent but the sort of measures put across to curb the constraints to gender equality do not seek to promote or downplay these relations. The policy rhetoric that guides the implementation is indifferent to issues of gender and ultimately shows no gender practice, revealing no differential positive or negative impact for gender relations, but purports to treat males and females the same. This equal treatment of unequals by a program shows a lack of a rigorous gender analysis and often reinforces or even extends the gender inequalities. Thus, gender neutral policy programs take a passive stance to gender issues. Their weakness is that gender inequalities remain intact and fortified.

Gender specific policy programs target only the sex group that is considered disadvantaged. Lombardo (2003: 8) calls them "facet policy programs" ;Verloo (2001: 3-5) calls them "sector policy programs"; the Council of Europe (1998: 2) calls them "targeted policy programs"; and the African Development Bank (2001: 6) calls them "stand-alone programs". These programs are referred to as targeted policy programs in this study to continually remind the reader that they focus on only one sex group. The policy talk that guides implementation of such programs emphasizes compensatory measures for the disadvantaged sex group and ends there (Stevens and van Lamoen 2001: 18).

Gender aware policy programs are conscious of the gender dimensions in their practices and outline measures that can be taken to cater for the differences between men and women so that gender biases and discriminations are removed. Because of this responsive measure, gender aware policy

programs are also called gender responsive programs (FAWE: 2004: 21). Kabeer and Subrahmanian (1996: 4, 8) call these 'gender transformative' or 'gender redistributive' programs. The transformative or redistributive aspect is arrived at after taking into account the fact that the policy talk and practice lay down a concrete agenda to transform unequal gender relations.

Drawing on the works of March *et al* (1999: 21-25); Hannan (2008: 5) and Kabeer and Subrahmanian (1996: 4, 8), the analysis of the gender policies and programs of the sampled universities in this study, is located within the frameworks of the above described policy programs.

Leo Rhynie (1999: 24 -28), Murison (2004: 3-10) and Hannan (2008: 6-8) further indicate what to look for in gender policy analysis. This study synthesized the views of these scholars and a useful guide was devised that was followed in the process of policy analysis (cf. Appendix B).

The cardinal points of this guide were:

- ***Commitment search:*** A gender policy should show its commitment to the goal of gender equality.
- ***Mechanism identification:*** A gender policy should identify mechanisms to achieve its commitment to gender equality. It should spell out the implementation strategies, communication channels, time frame for achievement of goals and provide indicators that specify how the achievement of gender equality is going to be measured and verified.
- ***Resource assessment:*** The policy should provide guidelines on human and technical capacity that supports the quest for gender equality
- ***Internal tracking:*** The policy should outline monitoring and evaluation procedures of the measurable targets and also demand gender disaggregated statistics so that a quantitative assessment of the benefits of the gender policy programs can be possible.
- ***Gender mainstreaming unit:*** The policy should clearly state and specify those whose mandate it is to guide and coordinate the overall gender mainstreaming process at the institution. Murison (2004: 8) calls these the "champions" who have the responsibility for mainstreaming gender in all faculties, departments and organs of the university.
- ***Underlying paradigm audit:*** The guiding philosophy of gender equality should be detectable in the policy talk and it should be clear which critical indicators of gender equality are being addressed.

3.4.3 Zimbabwe Policy Programs and Gender

Swainson (2000: 14) commenting on the 'design and implementation of gender policy programs in Malawi, Tanzania and Zimbabwe' found the gender interventional programs employed to reduce gender disparities "merely piecemeal" because the programs were mainly gender neutral.

Manase, Ndamba and Makoni (2003: 7-9) note that, while gender policies in Zimbabwe, like many gender policies in Africa, make mention of gender, they do not address it in explicit terms. Such policies' neglect of gender in explicit terms reveals their assumption that all people, males and females, are affected by policies and programs in the same way, and policies and programs have a neutral impact on their recipients. Such policies are gender neutral. Their effect is to orchestrate gender inequalities because realities for men and women are never the same and will never be the same, especially in an African society already premised on differential treatment of its men and women. In no African society are all people, male and female vulnerable in the same way nor have same capacities. This is why Hannan (2008:6) warns that the assumption that issues and problems are neutral from a gender perspective should never be made. The author continues to show that men and women differ in the way they respond to and benefit from development and in the absence of specific and explicit attention to differences between women and men, gender disparities continue to thrive or even widen.

In another study, Mulenga, Manase and Fawcett (2005) note that most African gender policies and programs are gender insensitive. The trio cites the Zimbabwe Master Plan for Integrated Rural Water and Sanitation Program Policy which they say does not make mention of gender at all. Yet water provision and sanitation, they argue, is a much gendered terrain in an African context where the domestic division of labour is very 'strictly gendered'. In an African society there are marked differences between men and women's responsibilities and the performance of tasks necessary for daily living in a family as far as water and sanitation are concerned. The cited policy's complete lack of mention of gender and its reference to communities without specifying the roles of men and women in the provision of sanitation services renders the policy program not only gender insensitive but also gender blind. This gender blindness results in the unintentional perpetuation of gender inequalities.

The Zimbabwe Women's Resource Centre and Network (ZWRCN 2005: 15), working on an 'analysis of the Zimbabwe National Policies and Programs on HIV/AIDS' found the policies gender insensitivity

and the gender programs initiated thereby gender insensitive. The ZWRCN (2005: 15) further comments that the policy programs address women's practical needs and not strategic needs. Hence, the gender considerations are only window dressing.

Commenting on the 'Zimbabwe Act and its incorporation of gender,' Chirimuuta (2006: 1-5) notes that the Act and the policy circulars from the Act, place Zimbabwean children in a single category, suggesting that the Zimbabwe education system is a "gender neutral space". Yet Zimbabwean male and female school children belong to different categories, each group having its own needs which, if not acknowledged at policy formulation level, might not be addressed at implementation level. This gender neutrality notion is brought out by and accounts for the Act's bunching of all students into one category, displaying the gender insensitive assumption that all children, male and female are operating socially, at the same level. But by the time children go to school, they are already socialized into unequal positions. Instead of balancing this anomaly, the Zimbabwe Education Act and Policy Circulars, perpetuate the gender differences between them.

The Zimbabwe education system has a re-entry policy (Circular Minute Policy 35 of October 1999) that allows for girls who would have fallen pregnant to re-enter school after delivering of the baby. This circular at secondary school level is specifically meant for disciplinary issues. Based on this, the researcher concurs with Chirimuuta (2006) who finds the policy gender blind because the issue of teenage pregnancy is not a disciplinary issue. When teenage pregnancy is treated as a disciplinary issue, it attracts stigmatization, thus perpetuating the African societal attitude that teenage pregnancy is a sign of deviance and immorality; this condemnation does not extend to men. The view of teenage pregnancy as a disciplinary issue springs from the African worldview of personhood. Personhood is attributed to the individual by society and is earned by what society deems the quality of the person. When an individual behaves in ways considered shameful and disrespectful by society, society strips off this personhood; hence, the stigmatisation and shunning of girl-mothers by society because personhood is closely linked to community. As a result, these girls fall prey to older men who may manipulate them (Chirimuuta 2006: 5). Thus, these girls are ostracised and castigated for allowing themselves to be abused.

Having made a short excursion into these Zimbabwean gender programs, one can safely conclude that they are, in the main, gender insensitive, targeting practical gender needs and not strategic ones. The greatest weakness of Zimbabwe gender policies is their lack of recognition that men and women

differ in the way they respond to and benefit from development. Policy programs tend to plan for 'people' and this results in the exclusion of women or men (depending on the project) as participants or as beneficiaries of the planned change. Therefore, in Zimbabwe policies obscure the gender dimension of the planned change and hence, pervasively promote gender inequalities. They target only the practical gender needs omitting strategic needs. This may be due to a lack of mutual accommodation between them and the African world view. Thus, besides the gender equality rhetoric, gender equality perspectives are never systematically incorporated into the mainstream of the various sectors of the country's economy.

3.5 GENDER POLICY PROGRAMS IN UNIVERSITIES

3.5.1 Gender Policy Programs in Universities

Employment of gender programs in a bid to curb gender inequality, either in the mainstream curricula or in the university activities like recruitment, has long been a success story in developed countries and is now a feature of most universities in developing countries (FAWE 2003: 1-10, Module 2 2006: 1-2). In Africa, the majority of the publications on what is happening in the area of gender in African universities have been done by FAWE based in Nairobi, Kenya (FAWE 2003: 1-10) and the African Gender Institute of the University of Cape Town, South Africa (African Gender Institute 2004: 4-11). This study cannot survey all research done on issues of gender in different African universities. But it is sufficient to note that African universities are making strides in mainstreaming of gender. Some of the commonly employed initiatives in the mainstreaming of gender by universities include:

- *Lowering of entry points.*

This is a strategy that deliberately lowers the student's entry points into the university and into specific departments as a way of allowing the underrepresented sex group to enter university with, at least, the minimum required points (Benjamin 2010: 276). Benjamin (2010: 276) calls this strategy "Preferential Admissions Criteria". Bunyi (2003: 4) calls the same strategy "awarding of bonus points" and reports that it is a commonly employed strategy in countries like Ghana, Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania and Zimbabwe.

Those who support this strategy have found that lowering of cut off points for the disadvantaged sex group increases their enrolments in the institutions. Citing the cases of

Makerere University, University of Dar es Salaam and University of Zimbabwe, Bunyi (2003:4) argues that the disadvantaged sex group members who enter university through this route, first and foremost qualify to enter before they are considered under the scheme and it is only shortage of places would exclude them. Supporters of this practice further note that, contrary to many critics, lowering of cut-off points does not make it easy for students from the disadvantaged sex group to get into university; it merely makes up for some of the difficulties.

Critics of this practice, however, always refer implementers to the academic mission of a university. They say, firstly, a university should choose its applicants based on their ability to thrive in that environment regardless of their gender. Secondly, they argue that universities are meritocratic institutions, lowering of cut off points is lowering of standards and perpetuates the stereotype that the disadvantaged sex group is indeed less intelligent and therefore not academically able to get into the university on their own merit (Benjamin 2010: 276). This stereotype perpetuates the inequalities that the whole idea of employing the program is trying to eliminate. Bunyi (2003: 3) says that the practice has been resisted by both students and staff, both males and females in areas where it was applied.

- *Empowerment Programs and Gender Awareness Campaigns*- This is often done through the department of student affairs and is spearheaded by institutional efforts or by partnering with external parties (Ojobo 2009: 2). In Zimbabwe, out of university initiators are called 'university partners in gender' and these plan and execute their own gender programs. Mostly, they target students, sometimes females only, sometimes both males and females; other times staff only or female staff, depending on their gender agenda. These gender sensitization programs are often in the form of workshops and dramas.
- *Gender Studies Modules* This comprises offering gender studies as a module, or modules and sometimes as a degree program on its own. In some institutions the module is optional, in others compulsory, in others a full module or part of a module.
- *Transformational Leadership for Gender Equality and Gender Support Programs* - This is a form of accelerated advancement of a number of key women to access leadership positions so that they can articulate their needs and have their opinions influence the governance process. It is believed that failure to participate in leadership has trivialized or kept important women's

issues (e.g. rape) outside of policies. (So far in Zimbabwe this has only targeted women, primarily because they are the disadvantaged sex group in terms of accessing positions of leadership.)

- *Offering grants, loans and bursaries* – This involves financial assistance to students from the disadvantaged group who qualify, but cannot otherwise fund their studies.
- *Quota reservations* - These are set-asides that mandate that a certain percentage of the disadvantaged sex group be accepted in positions from which they have been excluded as a result of unlawful discrimination. Setting quotas through deciding on a specific number or percentage of members of the disadvantaged sex group that an institution has to accept brings women into an institution that has traditionally been dominated by males. This is its greatest strength. However, critics of this practice say that it makes it easy for members of one sex group to get into university and harder for others. They, therefore, consider the practice too crude and find it increasing unfairness in the admission process (Bunyi 2003: 4). It is thus strict on theory but fatal in practice.
- *The Bridging Program*- The strategy entails offering of remedial tuition to the underrepresented sex group (Benjamin 2010: 275). It is offered to those who have met the overall mean grade criterion for admission into university but who do not meet the departmental requirements (Benjamin: 2010: 275). Bunyi (2003: 3) cites the employment of this strategy in Eriteria, where, owing to very poor performance in subjects such as mathematics, science and technology, female candidates would not get into university even after lowering of cut-off points. Benjamin (2010: 275) calls the same program “The Pre-entry Program”. Masanja (2004: 4) reports employment of this strategy in Tanzania in 2000/2001 admissions, when very few females qualified for admissions into engineering at the University of Dar es Salaam, even after lowering cut-off points. Duration of the bridging period varies from country to country and even within the same country, from university to university. Some universities, like University of Dar es Salaam, offers it for six months; St Lucie Kiriri Women’s University of Science and Technology, Kenya offers it for three weeks (Bunyi 2003: 4). The main strengths of the strategy are increasing the number of the disadvantaged sex group who enters the highly competitive science, mathematics and technology related degree programs. Bunyi (2003:4) gives the success story of this practice at Jomo Kenyatta

University (Kenya). In support of the program, Bunyi (2003:4) cites a case of admissions of students at the institution for the year 2002/2003 where none of the 462 women who entered the public university through lowering of points, entered courses such as Medicine, Surgery, Dental and Pharmacy. Thus, unlike lowering of cut-off points, this practice assists women to enter highly competitive university programs. Masanja (2001: 16), quoting statistics from 1997 to 2000 at the University of Dar es Salaam reports that faculties of Physical Education, Law and Nursing easily attained gender parity in admission through this practice. Finally, this gender program does not attract as much controversy as lowering of cut-off points.

The main limitation of this strategy is that it has cost implications. High user fees are a serious problem associated with this practice and this makes it inaccessible to the majority of would-be beneficiaries. It was found to perpetuate socio-economic inequalities.

- *Publication of statements* that a student or an employee is an equal opportunity competitor and that the employer is an equal opportunity employer.

However, in spite of efforts at African universities, the African Development Bank (2008:3) notes that the discrimination and marginalization of women from participating effectively in the economic, socio-political and academic life on the African continent is one of Africa's most pronounced gender characteristics. Concurring, SARDC WIDSAA (2008: 40-42) also notes that despite efforts at mainstreaming gender at African universities, gender gaps still persist.

The ideas that this researcher drew from the remarks on the gender policy programs, especially those of Bunyi (2003: 3), have informed this study in justifying its research problem, as well as informing some methodological aspects. Bunyi (2003: 3) working on 'interventions that increase enrolment of women in tertiary institutions in Africa' notes the dearth in data regarding implementation of the gender programs and concludes that "... where interventions are being implemented, little in the available literature shows that the impact the interventions are making is being measured or even details of ... the processes through which they are being designed and implemented". Indeed, most of the studies in the area of employing gender policy programs in universities such as Masanja (2001: 1-10), Kasente (2001: 5-6), Karega (2001:4-6) and Masanja *et al* (2001: 5-7) [all these studies were commissioned by FAWE] mostly centre on the initiatives made (e.g. affirmative action, establishing

gender studies departments). and not much on the implementation processes of the initiatives. The concern of this study is the implementation of these measures, analyzing what critical indicators of gender equality each of these addresses and what practical implications this has on the attainment of gender equality. It must, however, be remembered that gender mainstreaming is not an end itself, but a means to achieving the goal of gender equality. Like any strategy, it is only as good as its implementation. If it is not properly instituted, then the envisaged goal of mainstreaming a gender equality perspective in the universities may remain wishful thinking. This justifies the departure that this study makes and also its importance.

Again, while these studies show that gender inequalities manifest themselves across a broad spectrum of the universities, for this study, the purpose was delineated to student admissions as a unit of discussion.

3.5.2 Gender Policy Programs and Zimbabwe Universities

The ZNGP guides the implementation of gender in Zimbabwe universities. The policy acknowledges existence of gender inequalities in the entire education sector from primary to tertiary. Regarding primary and secondary education, as well as teacher training colleges, the policy stipulates that a compulsory module be taught. But as regards universities, the policy leaves it open for every institution to design and implement own gender initiatives as a way of closing the gender inequalities. What the policy only stipulates is that the strategy through which gender equality should be brought to institutions is gender mainstreaming [National Gender Policy Implementation Strategy and Work Plan (2008-2012) 2008:1; ZNGP 2004: 1, 3, 4].

It is now almost ten years since this demand to mainstream gender has been made, but the gender equality situation in the universities is still very fragile. Though not so much work on the gender equality situation in Zimbabwean universities has been done (mostly because issues of gender on the Zimbabwe education fabric are relatively recent), a number of significant insights can be derived from the few available studies. According to a study done by Gaidzanwa (2007: 68-82) on “Gender and Institutional Culture at the University of Zimbabwe”, there is still a long way to go before genuine gender equality becomes a practice at the institution. The findings document considerable gender discrimination, which hampers women’s academic and career progress at the institution. Out of the

then 54 professors only 5 (9.2%) were women (p.69). Out of the 1 050 lecturers only 250 (23%) were females (p.69). Constraints noted were many, among them cultural and administrative problems.

Borrowing heavily from her earlier study on “Factors affecting women’s academic careers at the university of Zimbabwe”, Gaidzanwa (2007 : 68-79) still finds that culturally, the importance attached to marriage makes women give up their careers to build their husbands and this contributes to the gender gap in the institutions. Also, of the few females who manage to rise above this, the disproportional burden of household and other reproductive work, compared to men, impacts negatively on the learning and working of the females in the institutions. Child rearing makes women less physically and socially mobile (Hellum *et al*/2007:37). This contributes to the gender gap in the institutions regarding the access to, career productivity and performance of females and males at the universities.

Sexual harassment is rampant and was mentioned regardless of age, class, status or specialization. This concurs with Zindi’s (2002: 45-59) and Ndawi (2006: 12-19) who studied sexual harassment in Zimbabwe higher education and who note that compared to males, females were more hard hit. The results concur with *Speaking for Ourselves*, an anthology of research done by six students on gender at university. The results reveal that sexual harassment is a problem at university and its effects are more detrimental to females than males (Gaidzanwa 2001). Zindi (2002: 45-59) carried out her work in the University of Zimbabwe; Ndawi in all institutions of higher learning in Zimbabwe. Sadly, Gaidzanwa (2007: 70) mentions that this sexual harassment was not reported, particularly by married women academics who feared that publicity would affect them and their marriages adversely. Because of this, women did not ask for help, even when they were out of their depth. Thus, women’s physical integrity is not sufficiently protected in such cases. This behaviour creates an intimidating environment for female students which interferes with their academic performance and results in low achievement. Sexual harassment contributes to keeping women away from certain fields in the universities (Ankerbo & Hoyda 2003: 19; FAWE 2003: 3). These studies concur that sexual harassment reflects the larger societal problem of male domination and female subordination. The high prevalence of sexual harassment is linked to the African value system which favours male authoritarianism and aggression while expecting women to be subservient and passive. In this way, universities were found to be sites for the construction, maintenance and perpetuation of gender inequalities (Association of African Universities (AAU) 2006: 5,9).

Such a feature keeps gender equality fragile with regard to tenure. Empowerment programs in Zimbabwe universities are being launched. Some universities do this out of their own initiatives (e.g. the Midlands State University), some partner with some gender-related non-state organizations (e.g. the Great Zimbabwe University, Bindura, University of Zimbabwe). Other universities have both self-initiated programs and networks with the university partners in gender (e.g. the Midlands State University). With some universities, the 'university partners in gender' have programs that run all year round; with others the programs are only for a short period of time. The university partners in gender are resident at some universities (e.g. SHAPE Zimbabwe at the University of Zimbabwe) and non-resident at some universities (e.g. the Great Zimbabwe University). However, gender equality goes beyond empowerment to encompass issues of social justice and discrimination. The problem as defined by the Millennium Development Goals (2004) is in trying to encourage the empowerment of women but not addressing the imbalances driven by customary practices. As a result women in the universities accept certain culturally entrenched stereotypes.

Administratively, Gaidzanwa's (2007) study outlined that university promotions are based on publications and because of cultural constraints, women publish less. The deterioration of security at the campus also made women fear staying in their offices in the evenings (p.70). The study reports a case of a female academic who was attacked in broad daylight in the university car park (p.70). Such incidents terrify many people (men as well as women) but Chauraya (2011: 131-145) argues in such situations, women are more at risk. The issue of deteriorating security at the Batanai Campus of the Midlands State University impacted negatively on the learning of the female students who reside there (Chauraya 2011: 131-145). These female students were unable to access the main library at night for fear of their security; moreover, the university did not provide transport to the library. Reporting on the physical environment of the universities, Chauraya (2011: 131-145) and Gaidzanwa (2007: 72) concur that the physical environment is not gender responsive to the plight of women. Overburdened and neglected campus facilities, especially the toilets and frequent water shortages, present problems for students and staff, male and female but the impact is more negatively felt by the females. Such gender irresponsiveness prevents attainment of gender equality in the institutions, yet research hails gender equality in education for what it is. "It is a form of human security...(It) has become like human rights, peace, or clean air. It is self evidently good" (Unterhalter 2004b: 1- 2).

Another documented study on a Zimbabwean State University concerns the National University of Science and Technology (AAU 2006: 16-17). The results of this survey show that no gender policy at the

institution but an affirmative policy that guided student recruitments was present. There was no policy that guided recruitment and promotions of staff. Enrolment statistics showed that women comprised 18.07% of full time diploma students, 32% of full time degree students and 23.8% of full time postgraduate diploma and master's students. The study also revealed no external and internal funds for gender specific programs, yet gender mainstreaming requires that financial, human and technical capacity is availed (Murison 2004: 1-8). Without resources, genuine institutional commitment to gender equality becomes questionable. In the light of this, the issue of resource allocation on gender issues by the institutions is examined in this study.

All twelve universities in Zimbabwe have male vice-chancellors, save two: the Zimbabwe Open University and the Women's University in Africa. Males constitute the bulk of the lecturers and workers at the institutions. There is also occupational segregation through confinement to sex typed jobs by the workers and Student Representative Councils are male dominated. The gender situation in the Zimbabwe universities further justifies the importance of this study.

3.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter has reviewed and explored literature that highlights key ideas and principles and how these feed and direct the study at hand. The chapter started by looking at the approaches to gender mainstreaming as a strategy whose envisaged goal is gender equality. The three models of gender equality were examined as these are key determinants of which approach to gender mainstreaming is entrenched. A brief gender situational analysis of Zimbabwe was given. Indicators were that the gender situation in Zimbabwe is still gloomy despite implementation of the Zimbabwe Gender Policy. Other indicators pointed to gender neutrality, blindness and insensitivity of the Zimbabwean policy programs. The chapter ended by highlighting common gender interventional strategies employed by universities in their quest to close the gender gaps within the institutions.

The next chapter deals with the research design and methodology for this study.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Studies based on universities and other institutions belong to what Robson (1997: 32) calls the domain of 'real world research' – a domain always embedded in real-life situations that study the lived experiences of the participants. The main concern with most real world research is to gather an in-depth understanding of human behaviour, and the reasons that govern such behaviour. Real world research calls for a clear justification of appropriateness and theoretical underpinning of the research methods and procedures employed if the research findings are to yield meaningful contributions to the relevant field (Robson 1997: 32).

This chapter describes and justifies the methodology and procedures used in conducting the study. This includes formulating and justifying the adopted research approach and research design. This chapter presents a description of the research sites, role of the researcher and at some ethical issues addressed before and during the execution of the study. This is followed by a detailed account of how the three phases of empirical data collection (i.e. document analysis, the survey and the interview) were conducted and how the data was analyzed. Finally, a rough structure of how the research findings are presented is given.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design adopted in this study is the Case Study design using the Mixed Method Approach (MMA). The research design is the plan or blue-print of how the researcher intends to conduct his/her study (Babbie & Mouton 2001: 74). These two authors go further to identify two critical aspects included in any research design. The two critical aspects are: a) a specification of what one wants to find out and b) how best to find out. Neuman (2003: 19), on the same issue, clarifies that what one wants to find out is the central focus of the whole research. The focus of this study is the implementation of gender policy programs in student admissions in Zimbabwe state universities.

Brannen (2004: 4) says choosing the research method entails a plan that is followed in data collection and analysis, which gives a general orientation of the study.

Influenced by Brannen (2004: 7), this study selected the MMA or the Combined Approach as its research method. Brannen (2004: 7) notes that three Ps (i.e. paradigms, pragmatics and politics) shape the researcher's choice of the research method. Of these three, the paradigm predominantly influenced the choice of the MMA for this study. The paradigm search has more to do with what kind of information/knowledge the research seeks to generate. The desire to reveal numbers/statistics together with subjective interpretations had significant methodological implications for this study. This study was premised on the view that the implementation of gender policy programs in student admissions in Zimbabwe state universities could not be based on only mechanical explanations as these would omit consideration that is distinctively human and which accounts for much of the practices and behaviors of the actors in student admissions. Consistent with this desire, the MMA (Creswell 2010: 231) was found suitable for this study. The view of MMA taken by this study is that advanced by Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004: 17) who define the MMA as a "class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language in a single study." Elaborating further on the mix or combination, Creswell (2010: 510) says that the quantitative procedures "yield specific numbers that can be statistically analyzed" and the qualitative data provides meanings to the yielded specific numbers. By adopting the MMA, this study moves beyond the quantitative-qualitative 'paradigm wars' which find the two approaches "incommensurable...intrinsically different beasts underpinned by different philosophical assumptions" (Brannen 2004: 7) but focuses on the idea that both quantitative and qualitative methods are important and useful.

4.2.1 Rationale for a Combined Design Approach

Some scholars argue that a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches enables a substantiated identification and determination of the gender based implications of the student admissions policy and program options. Quantitative data were valuable in this study for providing solid structural information about the student admissions practices and procedures. But these quantitative dimensions did not fully reveal the gender meaning of the practices and procedures in student admissions or even explain certain observed trends. The gender meaning was concerned with attitudes, values, beliefs and behaviours of the actors involved in student admissions and selection;

hence the study's quantitative-qualitative grounding to situate the quantitative dimensions within their contextual detail which appeared more holistic.

The choice of the combined approach was thus precipitated by a purpose. The purpose was that the yielded numbers from the quantitative procedures would be used to add precision to the words and narratives from the qualitative paradigm. At the same time, words from the qualitative data would also be used to add meaning to the numbers yielded by quantitative procedures (Johnson, 2004: 21; Moon & Moon, 2004: 2-3). Guided by Creswell's (2010: 515) arguments for the MMA, it was argued that a combination of the quantitative and qualitative approaches was more comprehensive to finding answers to the research questions than one single method. In this study the MMA capitalized on the strengths of one approach and offset their different weaknesses. In achieving this, the MMA went beyond the limitations of a single approach (Rocco, Bliss, Gallagher & Perez-Prado, 2003: 22-23). Creswell's (2010: 515) rationale for the MMA "...that the quantitative data and results provides a general picture of the research problem, more analysis, specifically through qualitative data collection, is needed to refine, extend or explain the general picture" was endorsed. Confirming the usefulness of the combined approach, Creswell (2010:510) emphasizes the need "to obtain more detailed specific information than cannot be gained from the results of statistical tests only". For this same reason, the combined approach was seen as appropriate and it was maintained that the MMA added insight and understanding that could otherwise be missed when only a single method was used. This, as Johnson (2004: 22) argues, adds depth and breadth to the inquiry results and interpretations, thus widening the scope of the study. The purpose of the MMA in this study was therefore threefold, as it included accommodation of complementarities, triangulation and expansion (cf. 4.5).

- **Complementarity:** The assumption here was that a fuller picture of the data could be accessed if it were approached from more than one angle. The MMA achieved elaboration, enhancement and clarification of results from one method with the results from the other method (Johnson 2004: 21). Each type of analysis enhanced the other. Together the data analysis from the two methods were juxtaposed and generated complementary insights that together created a bigger and better picture (Brannen 2004: 12).
- **Expansion:** Through the use of the MMA, the study extended the breadth and range of inquiry by using different methods (Brannen 2004:12; Johnson 2004: 21).

- **Triangulation:** The two goals of triangulation are convergence and completeness (cf. 4.5). The use of the MMA achieved these in this study through seeking convergence, corroboration and correspondence of results from the two methods, and also through linking arguments and evidence from the two methods. In so doing, this added to the completeness of the findings. The two methods in this study checked, validated and corroborated one another. The idea was to understand the phenomenon from different vantage points (Brannen 2004:12; Johnson 2004:21).

Following Johnson's (2004:21-22) mixed method research continuum, where some MMAs are partially mixed and others fully mixed, this study is partially mixed because it did not satisfy chief characteristics of a quantitative study as it did not attempt to determine predicative generalizations of a theory. The study, however, satisfied all the dominant characteristics of a qualitative study. These were that: a) natural settings were key sources of data because the collected data was live and context specific; b) the researcher was the main instrument in both collection and analysis of data; c) the study was highly descriptive with emphasis on specifics; d) the study was not concerned with proving or disproving set hypotheses; and e) the study was concerned more with process than with only outcome or end product. The study is therefore qualitative dominant.

Following Johnson's classification of the MMA as sequential and as concurrent, this study falls under both the sequential and the concurrent design. It is sequential in that the survey and the interview come after documentary analysis as data gathering and also that this documentary analysis guided some of what was looked for in the survey and the interview. The design is concurrent in that the survey data and interview data were collected concurrently. As can be seen from the presentation of this chapter, a quantitative mini study and a qualitative mini study with parallel positions were brought together in the final analysis (cf. 4.5) of the research project. Guided by these considerations, the chosen research technique for this study was the case study.

The Case Study Method

The case study was chosen over all the other research techniques (notwithstanding its shortfalls) because it is typically a strategy for doing research which involves an empirical enquiry that investigates a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources of evidence (Yin 1994:13; Robson 1997:146-147). Furthermore, Robson (1997:146-147) says the case study is particularly suited to studies of organizations and institutions as well as processes of change

adaptations. This study conformed to this description in that the researcher's focus was on institutions and within these, on a particular phenomenon of interest which was implementation of gender policy programs in student admissions. The choice of the case study was precipitated by the desire to examine the cases in depth to assess the effectiveness of the implemented gender endeavours in student admissions in Zimbabwe state universities. As an autonomous institution, each university under study had its own requirements for student admissions and its own unique set of criteria for selecting students for admission. Because of this individual structure of admission preferences in the selected universities, the choice of the case study research design was preferred. An account of each university's initiatives, detailing findings on student admissions policy and practices and their evaluations, was sought. Thus, as Robson (1997: 146-147) observes, the case study is most appropriate because it allows comparing and contrasting of data from different sites to come up, in this case, descriptions of how gender policy programs are implemented in Zimbabwe state universities.

The other advantage of the case study was that it allowed for interactive fieldwork and use of multiple sources of evidence. Yet another important reason for choosing the case study was that it allowed the use of both quantitative and qualitative measures - the chosen approach to this study. This study conformed to this multi-method description which is a normal requirement for a holistic research framework. In this study the sources of evidence were quite extensive.

Use of the case study method allowed for phenomena to be studied in their natural settings, thus yielding 'thick descriptions' (Lincoln and Guba 1985: 298) of the participants' views, perceptions, beliefs and problems. This study achieved this through adhering to what Laws and McLeod (2004 : 6) say when dealing with case studies, that every attempt be made to get as close to the subject of interest as possible, by accessing their subjective factors (thoughts, feelings, actions, beliefs, perceptions and desires). In this study, the participants were actors whose frames of reference needed detailed investigation before their actions were adequately interpreted or explained. This study was therefore an inquiry from the inside rather than from the outside (Laws and McLeod 2004: 6) and throughout the study efforts were made to hear the voices of the actors in student admissions from within their own contexts.

4.2.2 Background to the research sites

The researcher's decision to focus on Zimbabwe state universities as research sites was outlined in chapter 1 (cf. 1.2.1) and the aim at these sites was an in-depth analysis of the implementation of

gender policy programs in student admissions. The choice of appropriate state universities as research sites was critical, thus certain organizational factors were considered in the selection of the research sites. The choice of the two research sites was mainly influenced by their gender endeavours revealed through the preliminary studies (a mapping phase in November 2007, March 2008, June 2008 and November 2008) (cf. chapter 1). The choice was based on how each particular university was striving to address the issue of gender equality. Site A was chosen because of its size and its claim to be the beacon for gender equality. Site B was chosen because it was relatively new, being established well after crafting of the Zimbabwe National Gender Policy. The researcher's choice of the two research sites followed what authors such as Thomas and Nelson (2001: 281) call 'theoretical logic or convenience sampling.' According to Thomas and Nelson (2001:281) "convenience sampling is used...(where) the purpose of the study is not to estimate some population value, but to select cases from which one can learn most." Hence there was objectivity in the sampling issue.

Drawing on the caution of Neuman (2003: 196) to protect the rights and welfare of communities, anonymity of these universities was sought by referring to the two sampled sites as Blackwell University (Site A) and Stoneville University (Site B). The anonymity was sought to protect the rights and the welfare of the institutions for research should not encroach upon the welfare of the communities to which the respondents belong (Neuman 2003:196). After another preliminary study (again a mapping phase from 3rd to 12th May 2010), a choice to focus only on student admissions was made.

Blackwell University (BU)

The university was established in 2000. The BU was explicit about its commitment to gender equality and equity in student admissions and recruitment policies (BU: Strategic and Business Plans 2001-2015). In 2006, the university came up with an institutional gender policy claiming to "ensure that the National Gender Policy cascades down to institutional levels, which process ensures operationalisation of the policy through identified programs and activities" (BU Gender Policy 2006: 2). The main goal of the policy was "articulating strategies designed to create and promote a supportive environment in the university for a rational and sustained approach to gender equity and equality" and the university core values were driven by sensitivity to gender equality and equity (BU University Gender Policy 2006: 2). Document analysis was based on this document as well as on the BU University Mission Statement.

Stoneville University (SU)

SU was established in 2002. The preliminary study established that the SU had no clear documents that dealt with gender per se, though verbally the office of information emphasized that they practised gender in student admissions and staff recruitment. The university was guided in all its operations by its Strategic Plan 2008-2013, a copy of which was given to the researcher. Hence document analysis was based on this document and on the institutional mission statement.

4.2.3 The role of the researcher

In this study the researcher assumed three roles that were fundamental to the study. First the researcher was *a prime instrument in data collection and data analysis* (albeit with the assistance of a research assistant). The research assistant was someone whose educational and research credentials were approved by the researcher's supervisor.

In performing this role the researcher was guided by Hatch's (2002: 14) ideas about what is crucial in qualitative data collection. Thus, those reading the report study would need to know something about *the instrument*, so the researcher in this study described relevant aspects of self, biases and assumptions as well as expectations (Given 2008: 698). In doing this, the researcher kept track of personal reactions – keeping a “researcher's reflective commentary” (Shenton 2004: 68). Mindful of this ‘reflective commentary’ the researcher kept a clear record of own initial impressions of each data collection session and patterns emerging in the collected data. This commentary played a role in monitoring the researcher's “progressive subjectivity”, that is, monitoring the researcher's own developing constructions, thoughts and ideas which the researcher considered critical in establishing credibility (Shenton 2004: 8).

The second crucial role of the researcher in this study was that of *a friend*. She aimed to establish rapport in the opening moments of data collection, (especially the interview). In this study she interacted with the respondents from twice to at most five times during the research. The first time the researcher introduced self and made an appointment for personal access to the respondent, establishing a relationship of trust between researcher and respondent. The last time was when the researcher went back to the respondents for member checks.

The other role of the researcher was that of *a collaborator*. The researcher in this study achieved this role through holding frequent collaborative sessions with the research assistant (cf. 4.4.3.1). Through

these collaborative sessions, the vision of the researcher was widened as the other person added his insights, perceptions, opinions and experiences. Probing from the research assistant helped the researcher to recognize own biases and preferences (Shenton, 2004: 67). Thus, working with the research assistant involved the researcher in a reciprocal relationship.

4.2.4 Ethical requirements

According to Hisada (2003: 1-2), ethics in research deal with beliefs about what is right or wrong, proper or improper, good or bad in carrying out research. The researcher ensured that ethics of research were observed by remaining honest and keeping the research information private and confidential throughout the study and ensuring protection of the rights and welfare of the respondents using the following procedures:

- The respondents knew how the researcher could be contacted.
- Confidentiality of information gained in the research was maintained: no confidential data was recorded and where confidentiality could not be guaranteed in some instances due to the demands of the study, the researcher informed the participants well before hand.
- A consent letter was given to all respondents (cf. appendix A) to sign as acknowledgement that they had agreed to participate in the study.
- Respondents were not deceived. The nature of the research and how the information was gathered and used were explained to the respondents through the consent letter as well as verbally.
- Respondents were not compelled to reveal their names or write them on questionnaires. In fact, to protect the participants, and for the purposes of confidentiality, fictitious names were used for the institutions and individual participants, which may not in any way link the participant to the data to ensure total anonymity.
- Participation in the study was voluntary. Under no circumstances were the participants forced to participate. All those who participated signed the consent form.

4.3 PHASE 1: DOCUMENT ANALYSIS AS DATA COLLECTION

Document analysis is the evaluation of all available documents on the phenomenon being studied. It is a method of collection of data that is based on making inferences from the messages or communication by objectively identifying specific characteristics (Hisada 2003: 1-2). Document

analysis in this study was done on university gender policies, mission, vision and strategic plans, as well as any other documents that guided the implementation of gender policy programmes. The researcher chose document analysis because there are few biases about the information being researched on. Documents are also easily accessible at low cost or for free. Document analysis was also selected for this study because it provided a basis for the fieldwork.

Although document analysis offered these opportunities to this study, the researcher was, however, aware that it was limited in that information in some documents may be sensitive and confidential to a level that the researcher could be denied access to them. To gain access to the necessary documents the researcher ensured confidentiality and explained the motive of the study. Document analysis as an instrument of data collection is also limited in that some documents may not be removable from their natural setting (Borg & Gall 1996: 262). To avoid this inconvenience, the researcher chose the qualitative approach in addition to the quantitative approach which allowed analyzing of the documents in their natural setting. Despite the cited limitations, documents were preferred in this study because they represented the context of the problem being studied. They were a stable source of data and they could be reviewed repeatedly. They are also unobtrusive since they are not created as a result of the case study (Borg and Gall 1996:262). The full structure of questions asked eliciting information from the document study is in appendix B. The nature of the questions were guided and influenced by the policy analysis structure of the espoused documents outlined in chapter three (cf. 3.1.3).

The purpose of conducting an analysis of the documents that each university had crafted for itself was to determine how these universities had customized the ZNGP. While the gender policy was premised on mainstreaming a gender perspective in all policies and programs, the National Gender Policy is not prescriptive of what each state university should do. The ZNGP only acknowledges existence of gender gaps and leaves it open to each university to do as it sees fit in closing them (ZNGP 2000) (cf. chapter 1). What the policy emphasizes is that gender equality is the goal and gender mainstreaming is the strategy. This study started from an analysis of the universities' gender policies, their visions and core values, to see how these cater for the grand goal of gender equality; hence, tracing strengths and limitations. Appendix B comprises the specific questions that guided the analysis of each of the six items listed below.

In subjecting the policy documents to this scrutiny, this study relied on the chief characteristics of a gender-aware policy as outlined by Leo Rhynie (1999: 26,28-30), Murison (2004:2-10) and Hannan (2008: 1-8) (cf. chapter 3). These authorities advanced the central issues in any gender policy analysis and this study adopts and adapts them as a useful guide in the process of data collection and analysis of the policies to be studied. Although touched on in chapter three, these cardinal points in policy analysis are repeated here. These were:-

Step one: Commitment search

- ❖ This first stage entailed scrutinizing the policy to determine the extent of its commitment to the goal of gender equality. The policy was here scrutinized to establish the extent to which it confirmed and institutionalized its commitment to substantive gender equality, starting from its tone to its implicit and explicit cognizance of the differences between the two sexes within the university and hence its target to cater for these differences.

Step two: Mechanisms identification

- ❖ This stage was aimed at scrutinizing the policy for its strategies of the implementation of its goals and the time frame provided for achievement of the stated goals. The researcher also checked for any policy indicators that specified how the achievement of objectives was measured and verified.

Step three: Resource assessment

- ❖ During this phase the policy was assessed for its resource practices efforts. The researcher's focus was on establishing whether the policy committed the institution to making human, material and financial capacity and other resources available to support the quest for gender equality. The adequacy and appropriateness of these resources were determined.

Step four: Internal tracking capability

- ❖ This stage involved assessing the policy for its internal tracking and monitoring capability, including any measures put in place by the policy for regular periodic checks of progress towards its goals.

Step five: A central gender mainstreaming unit

- ❖ This stage searched for who the policy said guided and coordinated the overall gender mainstreaming process, their gender know-how, capacity and potential to transform gender rhetoric into reality.

Step six: Underlying paradigm audit and its implications for gender equality attainment

- ❖ Reflecting on this study's literature review (cf. chapter 2), there are two identified paradigms: mainstreaming women (WID) and gender mainstreaming (GAD). Mainstreaming women is when it is very evident from the policy talk that the policy's emphasis and vision is the need to increase the number of women in the mainstream activities. The GAD paradigm is evident when the policy talk points to a more comprehensive approach to change the university's way of thinking and acting to address the underlying causes for the gender inequalities in the particular community. Chapter 3 consolidated the two types in the discussion to 'Integrationist' and 'Agenda Setting'. The researcher put together all the direct and indirect evidence from the aforementioned and used step one to step six above to see whether the university policy strengthened capacity to mainstreaming women or integrating both women and a gender perspective into its mainstream.

4.4 PHASES 2 & 3: FIELDWORK EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

4.4.1 Background information to the fieldwork empirical investigation

The fieldwork empirical investigation was conducted in two phases: the survey and the interview. These two phases were conducted concurrently, both commencing on the 12th of November, 2010. Although conducted concurrently, the interview data collection continued well after the survey data collection had been completed. Before getting into the details of how these two phases were conducted, a brief outline of the general sample of participants who took part in this fieldwork is given.

Within the two selected universities participants for the study were drawn from those people who were directly or indirectly, through delegated powers, involved in the process of student admissions. These participants were, thus, purposively chosen on the basis of their unique positions with respect to the operational structure of student admissions practices and also because of their accountability for

successful implementation of policy programs in student admissions in Zimbabwe state universities. The choice of this sampling technique was made mostly because generalisability of the data was not of primary consideration in this study. What was of prime consideration was the depth and richness of the data to be obtained, hence focus was only on “information-rich participants” (Neuman 2003: 200). The purposively selected participants were: the registrar/deputy registrar, deans of academic faculties, senior assistant registrar (admissions) and chairpersons of academic departments. At each of the selected universities, the participants were drawn from these four groups which were quite recognizable as they were critical to providing answers to the research questions and were non-overlapping sub-populations (Maxwell 1996:70-72). At BU, an additional participant emerged from the data. This additional participant was the chairperson of the university gender committee. Each sub- population was a clearly distinguishable and mutually exclusive group or ‘stratum.’ This was done to meet what Maxwell (1996:70-72) terms guaranteeing the sample representativeness of defined groups in the population.

The questions in both the questionnaire and the interview were framed in the constructivist tradition which is most in line with the gender critical theory and the mixed method approach methodology (the chosen research approach of the study). In line with these two frames most questions were framed with the epistemological assumption that knowledge is socially constructed by the researcher and the respondent. Thus, most questions were open ended because the aim was an understanding of the participants’ positions on practices and procedures in student admissions.

4.4.2 Phase 2: The survey

4.4.2.1 Sampling

The survey was based on the questionnaire. This instrument was responded to only by chairpersons of selecting departments, thus disregarding chairpersons from servicing departments, who did not have students of their own (e.g. the chairperson of the communication skills department at BU). The disregarded chairpersons were only those who did not have the opportunity of selecting students into the university. The sampling technique was, thus, purposive (c.f.4.4.1). Because of the questionnaire’s suitability for fairly large samples, this instrument was not designed for the other groups of the sample strata outlined in 4.4.1 where in some cases it was a question of only one member. In all, the survey sample consisted of 20 departmental chairpersons from SU and 33 from BU.

4.4.2.2 Data gathering

The data gathering process started with negotiating access to the research sites. Having settled on which universities to work with, the first step in data collection was writing letters to the Registrars of the selected universities requesting for permission to conduct the study. Permission was granted on the 26th of February 2010 at BU and on the 17th March 2010 at SU. What was done next was negotiating access to the faculties. To enhance the researcher's access to the deans of academic faculties, the researcher was introduced to them by the deputy registrar (academic) and by the deans to departmental chairpersons. Contact numbers of the chairpersons were availed to the researcher by the faculty administrators with the permission of the deans. Initial arrangements with the chairpersons were made by the researcher through telephoning and dates, times and venues for issuing of the questionnaires were agreed upon. All questionnaires were personally handed to the chairpersons and tacit arrangements for their collections were made.

a) Format of questionnaire

The six-page questionnaire comprised thirty questions (cf. Appendix F). The first three questions asked for the personal profile of the research participants in terms of their sex, department of operation and duration as chair. The following three questions (4-7) centered on mechanical procedures involved in student selection as matters of policy. The following two questions (8 & 9) sought information on gender awareness of the respondents and other actors involved in student selection. Following were two questions (10 & 11) requesting for gender disaggregated statistics of 'incoming classes' from 2005 to 2010. The next six questions (12-17) sought the actors' perceptions on challenges and achievements of their selection criteria. These were followed by a set of three questions (18-20) that sought the same but centering on recruitment and retention of male/female students. A further set of three questions (21-23) dwelt on reviewing, monitoring and evaluation of selection practices. Questions 24 to 27 sought the opinions and justification of the same on personal frameworks for measuring the extent of gender sensitivity of admission practices. The last three questions (28-30) dwelt on subjective views, perceptions and opinions on inadequacies, contentment and improvements of the selection practices.

It is common practice to divide a questionnaire into sections but it was felt that the sections would be unnecessarily numerous, hence the decision to leave out sections.

b) Development of the questionnaire and pilot survey

The questionnaire was suitable for the particular group of participants because they were educated and literate. In developing the questionnaire, the researcher was guided by the research questions, as questions included had to address the research questions. As such, questions on the questionnaires covered all the research questions save those that needed a critical review of literature to answer them.

For this study, the choice of this instrument was based on its advantages. Items on the questionnaire were both closed and open ended. Close-ended questions were included to provide a quicker categorization of data. Open-ended questions allowed the researcher to explore the feelings of the participants. The other advantage of the questionnaire was that it was easy to administer over large areas and samples in terms of money, time and effort (Hisada 2003:2). The chosen sample was quite large hence the questionnaire was felt suitable. Its other advantage that influenced its choice was that the data it gave was not influenced by the researcher's personal attributes. This contributed to the reliability of data. Again, the questionnaire repeated the same questions with different respondents and this guaranteed the reliability of the responses (Hisada 2003:2). To avoid the respondents' responding in an insecure manner, respondent confidentiality was guaranteed by the statement that explained the purpose of the research and assurance of the respondents' confidentiality and anonymity. This encouraged candid responses even on rather sensitive issues.

In developing the questionnaire, the researcher was mindful of a few difficulties posed by the questionnaire as an instrument in data collection. The major limitation was that the instrument does not give room to probe respondents and to rephrase questions where the respondents do not understand. To reduce the effect of this limitation, more or less related questions were asked in the interview to the same sample of participants to validate and crosscheck the data collected through the questionnaire (Hisada 2003 :2). The researcher also tried by all means to avoid ambiguous words and double barreled questions. The second limitation was that the researcher would not be there to explain the uncertainties which could result in biased or distorted answers. This was alleviated by including introductory remarks with clear instructions on how to complete each question in the questionnaire. The third limitation of the instrument was that it could be ignored. The researcher and the research assistant minimized this difficult by notifying the respondents of the deadline when the completed questionnaire would be collected.

Despite the cited limitations, the questionnaire remained appropriate because information obtained through the questionnaires was written down, hence it was easier to analyze and it remained as a permanent record the researcher could refer to when there was need. The completed questionnaires also acted as an audit trail and this added to the confirmability/objectivity of the study. The questionnaire also allowed respondents to answer questions during their free time.

The pilot test

To further off set the limitations of the questionnaire, the instrument was pilot-tested with four similar respondents in an institution not included in the sample. Authors like Maxwell (1996:45) and Yin (1994: 74) are of the view that the pilot test is as it were a 'laboratory for investigators.' Consistent with this line of thought, the researcher was accorded the opportunity of making this laboratory investigation through pre-testing the questionnaire to check on clarity of instructions and questions as well as language level before the research began in earnest. As further alluded to by Maxwell (1996: 45), the pilot test was also particularly important for this study because it generated an understanding of the theories held by the actors in student admissions. Following the pilot survey the questionnaire was revised as follows:

Appendix F

The 'yes' and 'no' boxes at the end of Question 5a)

An additional alternative box was put on question 23a) for the N/A option.

The article 'the' was added after 'If' in Question 23c) and a) and b) put to demarcate the parts of question 24

An a) was added immediately after questions 23, 25 and 27

There was need to explain the continuum on questions 25 and 26 to the respondents so that the information would be interpreted in the same way.

c) Distribution of the questionnaire

Only the chairpersons of selecting departments responded to the questionnaire. In distributing the questionnaire, assistance of a research assistant was sought. The researcher distributed all twenty

questionnaires at SU and eighteen at BU. The research assistant distributed the remaining fifteen questionnaires at BU. All the questionnaires were personally distributed to the respondents and explicit arrangements made for their collection.

Questionnaires were distributed in November and December, 2010. Using the given contact information supplied by the respondents, telephone calls were made to introduce the study and to make appointments for the distribution of the questionnaire. The exercise was accomplished as all the fifty-three questionnaires were personally handed to the respondents.

d) Rate of return

Filled in questionnaires were collected from the 12th November to the 21st December 2010. From the twenty questionnaires issued at SU, eighteen were returned giving a return rate of 90 %. Concerning the outstanding two, respondents said they had misplaced them but could not be found to be given replacements. The return rate at BU was thirty out of thirty-three (91%). At BU, in five cases the researchers had to re-issue the questionnaires as the ones first given had been misplaced by the respondents. Of the fifty-three questionnaires issued, forty-eight questionnaires (90, 6%) were returned.

e) Data analysis and statistical tools

The statistical analysis was based on the research questions (1, 3 and 4) and the questionnaire of the study. The data analysis followed definite steps. Non-parametric statistics were used and levels of significance between variables determined. The analysis followed these steps:

1. The SPSS and MINITAB statistical software package was used in the analysis of the questionnaire.
2. Ms Excel was used for data entry, plotting some of the graphs, charts, etc.
3. Data obtained from the questionnaire were coded and analysed using Minitab statistical package. Chi-square tests were carried out to check for the existence of an association/relationship between any two variables from the study.
4. In this study questionnaire responses were all recorded as categorical data (discrete data).

- This prevented the study from making use of parametric statistics and tests. In view of this it was not proper to use the Pearson' correlation. The study then made use of the Spearman's rho rank correlation.
- The Spearman rho statistic was computed to establish pair wise relationships between the 63 variables (the 63 variables comprise Appendix H). Most of the relationships were very low. Only 21 variables showed relationships, (though the relationships were very low). Since most of the relationships were very low, this analysis was found not useful, hence relationships among the 21 variables were only established by use of the chi –square test.

5. The mode of each of the responses was computed. These comprise appendix K.

e) Validity and reliability

Validity

Maxwell (1996: 87) defines validity as the correctness or accuracy or truthfulness of a measurement. Data are valid if they provide a true picture of what is being studied. The questionnaire as an instrument of data gathering catered for different types of validity. Firstly, the literature searches drawn on theoretical knowledge and other studies done helped the researcher in the choice of methodology and in designing this research instrument. This in itself enhanced content validity of the instrument and of the subsequently collected data. Content validity of this instrument was further ensured through seeking expert opinion on the quality of the instrument from the supervisor, to check that the content coverage met the demands of the topic. A small scale preliminary study of four questionnaires was conducted before the main research to minimize ambiguity of questions, thereby increasing the face validity of the instrument. The questions were phrased appropriately and the options for responding seemed appropriate. This study was not concerned with ecological validity since it adopted a case study research design. However, in the final analysis, data from this instrument was integrated with data from the documentary analysis and the interview that is transferability of the findings to other situations or contexts was ensured by providing narratives from the interview especially in trying to add precision and meaning to statistics from questionnaire data. This made similar judgments possible, in a way catering for ecological validity. In fact, according to Dzimiri (2004: 56) echoing Stake (1994), cases are not studied primarily to understand other cases, but a case

is studied for what it is. Insights that the case study provided were thus left to the individual reader(s) to generalize relative to own prior experiences.

Reliability

Reliability is the extent to which independent researchers can repeat a study and get the same results given the same circumstances (Maxwell 1996:87-88). In this study reliability of the questionnaire was ensured by asking the same questions in a slightly different wording in different parts of the questionnaire (cf. Appendix F). Reliability of this instrument was also ensured by the interview guide, which repeated most of the questions of the questionnaire. The correlation between the items is a measure of reliability (cf. Appendix G and F). The fact that the researcher was not with the respondents when filling in the questionnaires meant that the researcher's personal attributes had no influence on the data. This further contributed to the reliability of the instrument and the data collected.

4.4.3 Phase 3: The interview

4.4.3.1 Selection of participants

Walker (1985: 310) emphasizes that there is less need for pursuing rigorous sampling procedures in qualitative research because of their inappropriateness to the nature of qualitative research, (this study is qualitative dominant). Purposive sampling was used to identify the interview sample in order to include the desired elements critical to providing answers to the research study. The sample for the interview comprised the registrar/deputy registrar, senior assistant registrar (academic), deans of academic faculties and chairpersons of academic departments. There was only one office bearer, besides chairpersons and deans and this person was thus chosen. At BU there were seven deans of academic faculties. It was not practical to interview all of them. Using the hat system (Leedy 1997: 206) three of the deans (42%) were randomly selected for interview purposes. Following Leedy's (1997: 206) hat system, the researcher first assigned numerical identifications to the seven members, and then corresponding numbers were marked on separate tabs which were placed in a box. The first time, the researcher shook the box and picked a tab with a number. This number was recorded and the process was repeated until the desired number of the respondents was achieved. At this same site there were thirty-three chairpersons. With this group stratified random sampling was employed. The chairpersons were first divided into seven groups based on their faculties, and then one was randomly

selected using the hat system from each of the seven strata. The differences in numbers of chairpersons within the departments were negligibly small to consider the issue of proportional stratified sampling. Thus, at BU the interview sample consisted of the deputy registrar, the senior assistant registrar, three deans and seven chairpersons. The chairperson of the committee at the institution became an emerging member of the sample as data were being collected and analysed.

At SU there were five deans and twenty chairpersons. Again using the hat system two deans were selected for interview purposes and using stratified random sampling five chairpersons were selected for interviews.

In all, the interview sample consisted of two deputy registrars, two senior assistant registrars, five deans of academic faculties and twelve chairpersons. The chairperson of the gender committee at BU was an emergent participant from data analysis (cf. 5.4). Such a small sample size is acceptable in qualitative research studies in order to be able to manage the enormous amounts of interview data generated (Maxwell, 1996:71). However, while narrowing the sample became necessary for practical reasons, this limitation became an inevitable weakness of the study. This limitation made it impossible to make assertions about the implementation of gender policy programs in student admissions in Zimbabwe state universities in general.

4.4.3.2 Data gathering

Maxwell (1996:70-72) defines the interview as a process of directly interacting with the respondents for the purpose of extracting data from them. In this study, all the interviews involved individual face to face verbal interchanges between the interviewer and the respondent. The interview was preferred in this study as the aim was to explore meaning of the selection practices and procedures of the actors in student admissions. According to Maxwell (1996:89); Robson (1997:146-147); Lincoln and Guba (1985:347-349) and Strauss and Corbin (1998:106-107), interviews constitute a flexible research strategy of discovery. This was adopted for the study because the purpose was to explore, describe and deduce meaning about the phenomena and not to test predetermined variables.

a) Development of the interview guides

As with the questionnaire, the interview guides consisted of both closed and open questions. Closed ended questions were included to gather the interviewees' views and because they allowed for a quicker categorization of responses (Robson 1997:147). Open ended questions by their nature develop

trust, are perceived as less threatening and allow an unrestricted or free response (Robson 1997: 147). In this study the open ended questions were developed to achieve this and also captured the complexities of the interviewees' perceptions and experiences about the matter.

The researcher, while developing the interview guides, was, however, mindful of a number of difficulties posed by the interview as a research instrument. One of the anticipated difficulties was that the data collected could be difficult to interpret, process or code. This anticipated disadvantage was catered for by structuring the interview guides and also wording the questions in a manner which the interviewees would interpret with minimum deviation and at the same time making categorization possible. The other anticipated limitation was that the instrument did not provide for complete anonymity (the interviews were all face to face). This may persuade an interviewee to hold back information relevant to the study because of mistrust. To address this drawback, the researcher constantly reminded self of the major principles regarding interview data collection as outlined by Peil (1985: 123) and Walker (1985: 3). Implementing one of these principles, the researcher ensured confidentiality of the interview during the start of the of the interview sessions, so as to maintain trust and build rapport; however, as is seen later in this chapter this limitation remained a major challenge in this study.

Although the interview had these limitations, the instrument was appropriate because it enabled the researcher to acquire information that the respondents would probably not have indicated through written communication, such as in questionnaires (e.g. incidental comments, reluctances, body language and tone of voice which gave indicators that may not be extracted from written communication) (Deem 2002: 240). These gave the researcher supplementary information through clues to hidden and open attitudes, achievements and limitations to policy program implementation and evaluation. The unwritten and unspoken observations gave the researcher the opportunity to probe and investigate the underlying motives. Such observations during interviews served as a complement to the audio tapes and helped the researcher to be aware of what was excluded from the recordings (Deem 2002: 240) when analyzing the data.

Through use of the interview the researcher enjoyed flexibility as its primary advantage (Thomas & Nelson 2001: 284). This flexibility allowed the researcher to pursue leads that appeared fruitful to encourage elaboration of points that may not have been clear or partially avoided and to clarify questions that the respondents may have apparently misunderstood. This made data collection

systematic and logical as gaps in the data were closed through probing. As the phenomenon of the implementation of gender policies and programs in student admissions has not yet been sufficiently studied in Zimbabwean context, the flexibility warranted the freedom of the study to unfold and emerge. Further, unlike in the questionnaires where spontaneous answers can be lost or questionnaires may be partially filled, with this instrument the personal touch and body language helped retention of the responses (Thomas & Nelson 2001: 284). The other advantage of the interview, unlike the questionnaires, was that of establishing greater rapport through friendly interactions with the respondents and this stimulated the respondents to give more complete and valid answers. Moreover, there was also the added advantage of getting immediate feedback as the exercise was face to face.

b) The pilot test

As with the questionnaire phase, the interview guides were pilot tested. A trial run of the interview was conducted on a conveniently selected group similar to the one that was ultimately sampled. Consistent with all pilot tests, the aim was to identify potential problems through ensuring that the questions were understood by the respondents and that there were no problems with the wording. During the pilot testing the researcher noted where there were requests for additional explanations and also registered comments and remarks indicating interviewees' difficulty with a question (Given 2008: 698). Following the pilot test, the four interview guides were revised as follows:

Appendix C (Interview guide for Registrar)

Q 1 – corrected the spelling of the word conducted

Q 3a) replaced the word 'from' with the word 'with'

b) added 's' to the word admission

Q 6 - added 's' to the word admission

Q 13 now reads 'How do you think the student admission practices can be improved?'

Appendix D (interview guide for the Senior Assistant Registrar)

Q 1 now reads 'What your student admissions criteria ?'

Appendix E (interview guide for chairpersons)

Q 1 replaced the word 'in' with 'into'

Q 3 was combined with Q 1 through probing.

Q 5 added 'or policy' after the word 'model'

Q 12 now reads 'How do you rate the gender responsiveness of your departmental student admissions practices on a scale of...?'

Appendix G (interview guide for Deans of academic faculties)

Q 1 replaced the word 'at' with the word 'in' and corrected spelling of word conducted

Qs 6 and 7 added the letter 's' to the word admission

Q 13 added the word practices after the word admissions.

Consistent with Walker's (1985: 310) remarks about an interview guide, the developed interview guides in this study, were only used as guides and not as props.

c) Carrying out the Interviews

In carrying out the interviews, recourse was made by this researcher to qualitative researchers' such as Peil (1985: 23); Walker (1985: 3); Maxwell (1996: 89); Robson (1997: 146-147); Lincoln & Guba (1985: 347-349) and Strauss & Corbin (1998: 106-107) about caution concerning in-depth interviews. These authors emphasize that in-depth interviews are conversations with purposes or guided discussions with no pre-determined categories and so rely on open questions to introduce topics of interest. The in-depth interviews helped uncover and describe the participant's perspectives of the practices and procedures in student admissions. The cited authors reiterate that the interviewee is free to own concerns and to share in directing the flow of the interview. The researcher took note of these observations and other principles of interview data collection throughout the data collection process.

Interview data collection was conducted from the 12th November 2010 to the 21st December 2010 at BU and in February- March 2011 at SU. Interview data collection was delayed at SU. The reason is that when the researcher visited the site end of November 2010 to make arrangements for interviews, the Registrar indicated that it was then policy at the institution that the researcher had to be cleared by the VC if he/she intended to make interview recordings despite written approval given to the researcher by the Registrar in March 2010. This meant the researcher had to reapply for special permission to carry out recorded interviews. The researcher was granted this permission on the 25th of

January 2011 after submitting copies of all the interview guides to be used in interview data collection to the VC.

All the interviews at both sites were carried out in the offices of the respondents. All the interviewees had offices of their own by virtue of their positions at the institutions. (These familiar settings enabled the participants to talk freely about their concerns of gender policy programs in a relaxed environment; however, the idea of being recorded partly threatened the participants). Having gained entry and access to the research participants, interview appointments were fixed between the researcher and the participants.

Only one type of interview was carried out. This type of interview was the personal one-on-one interview and all the twenty-one interviews were carried out by the researcher, a task, though cumbersome, made manageable by the relatively small size of the sample. Although the research assistant was willing to help with interviews, the researcher decided to work alone. This decision was made after carrying out the first two interviews during which certain information was only offered when the voice recorder had been turned off (a pattern that continued with most of the remaining participants) and the interviewee was confident that it was off. As a condition of the interview, the six chairpersons (three at SU and three at BU) stipulated that the recording equipment should not be used. Other interviewees were wary of being recorded and tended to open up more on issues after the recorder was turned off. This made the interviews longer than the indicated recording time. This seemed to suggest that there was an element of 'fear of the unknown'. This could have been the result of 'politics of the institutions' or the general political climate in the country that made them hesitant to speak their minds. Some of the information that the researcher garnered 'off the record' seemed to suggest that some interviewees were unsure of how the information would be used despite assurances of confidentiality. As a result, the only course of action was to quickly write up this information immediately afterwards. The researcher did not take notes when interviewees were talking after the recorded interview fearing they would feel insecure. However, she felt that this did not detract from quality of the data gathered. During the recording of interviews, the researcher took notes as supplements to the interviews.

Concerning the six chairpersons who made non-recording a condition for the interview, the researcher took substantial notes during the interviews and wrote the interviews up immediately after the session. All six said they were comfortable with note taking. Conducting all the interviews single-

handedly was found to be more convenient and ultimately more efficient for this had the advantage of ensuring accuracy and consistency of the data collected as well as consistency of the research process. Interviews took thirty minutes to one hour. Fifteen interviews were audio-taped. Audio-recording the interviews was adopted so as to have complete and accurate data, something not achievable by taking down notes (Maxwell 1996:89; Lofland 1971: 88-89). However, as mentioned already, some interviewees offered important information when the recorder was off. This information was written up immediately afterwards. This information (as with information from the six unrecorded interviews) was restricted to sentences of relevance to specific research questions.

Four interview guides accompany this chapter, one for the registrar, senior assistant registrar, dean of faculties and chairpersons (see appendices C, D, E and G).

4.4.3.3 Data analysis

Maxwell (1996: 45) and McMillan and Schumacher (2006: 320) emphasize the comprehensive work involved in classifying and analyzing qualitative data. This study adopted the view of qualitative data analysis advanced by McMillan and Schumacher (2006: 364), that it is a “systematic process of coding, categorizing and interpreting data to provide explanations of a single phenomenon of interest.” Guided by this definition, analysis and interpretation of data, tools of research (Wolcott 1994: 10) do not operate exclusively or disjointedly. The data analysis talked about in this study includes data interpretation. This view of data analysis served as the basis for the strategies which the researcher used to analyze the collected data. In this study the phenomenon of interest is ‘the implementation of the gender policy programs’, a variable which is not easily observable but inferred from the data collected. In line with the gender critical theory, this inference was made possible by the researcher’s theoretical sensitivity. Theoretical sensitivity is the ability to recognize what is important in the data and give it meaning (Hitchcock & Hughes 1995: 298). This is in line with critical gender theory which allows the researcher to bring in own personal subjectivity in form of assumptions, understandings and concerns related to the practices and procedures in student admissions as way of creating meaning. For this study, sources of theoretical sensitivity included the literature studies and the continual interactions with the data throughout collection. Data was subjected to a level of scrutiny that exposed both its explicit and implicit gender dimensions. The preliminary interview data analysis process for this study started during data collection in order to focus the questions and the study as a whole.

The initial step involved preparing data by listening to the recorded interviews several times. The second step involved a verbatim manual transcription of each recorded interview. The transcription recorded the breaks, sighs or stammers. Concerning the handwritten data from the members who refused to be audio taped, the data was later typed and edited in preparation for data analysis. (The self-typing of this data offered the researcher an opportunity to be immersed in the data and refreshed her mind regarding fieldwork events that she had forgotten.)

Thereafter, ideas advanced by various scholars on how to analyze qualitative data were incorporated. The complexity of analyzing qualitative data was compounded by the form of the interview data which was mostly narratives from transcripts, hand written interviews and supplementary field notes. While there are no clearly laid down procedures for analyzing such data, Strauss and Corbin (1998: 107-111); Hitchcock and Hughes (1995: 298); McMillan and Schumacher (2006: 364) and Maxwell (1996: 45) present various ways of extracting meaning from qualitative data. Strauss and Corbin (1998: 107-111) advance four recognizable stages in qualitative data analysis. This researcher found these pertinent and applicable in this study and incorporated them in the qualitative analysis of the interview data. Drawing on the pronouncements of these scholars, following is a brief outline of the stages in data analysis and how this researcher was guided by them.

- **Emotional attraction**

Within this stage (which McMillan and Schumacher, 2006: 370 call 'contextual coding'), this researcher read data from the transcripts identifying frames of analysis. Frames of analysis are levels of specificity within which data was examined (e.g. participants' view and perceptions of the achievements of their selection practices). These frames of analysis demarcated segments within the data. Each segment was labeled with a 'code' – a word or phrase suggesting how the segment informed the research question or research objective.

- **Key categories and units of analysis**

This was the second stage. Other authors simply call it categorization. Coding led to the formation of categories. Categories are more or less groupings of meanings of similar topics/issues, and so through coding the researcher operated on the data to generate key groupings/categories. Guided by the research questions each interview was analyzed for concise thoughts and categories. This was achieved by the researcher reading data in a more critical manner to comb through it and carefully sift the data into groupings.

- **Operations on the data**

Through an interpretive process patterns and trends emerged from the data. Patterns are relationships between categories. This, Maxwell (1996: 45) refers to as 'fine-grained analysis'. These patterns and trends were grouped into broad themes consistent with the research questions. The intention was to have the broader themes forming the chapter headings that were used in structuring the reporting of the findings. Therefore, the analysis moved from the particular to the general as particular pieces of evidence led to a meaningful whole, since the objective was to comprehend the overall narrative (Maxwell 1996: 45). At this stage the researcher prepared the overall narrative through summarizing the prevalence of the patterns, and trends, discussing similarities and differences between them and comparing the relationship between one or more of these. Although the initial research questions and theoretical framework suggested some of the expected categories, the researcher was open to categories and themes that emerged from the data. The themes were not in the data but emerged from the data and helped make sense of the data. This (as is consistent with qualitative data) had the distinct advantage of allowing the data to 'speak for itself' so that the reader of the research can be able to determine 'what goes there' from the participants' responses (Lincoln and Guba 1985: 347-49).

- **Crafting Conclusion:**

When no new or relevant data seemed to emerge to be part of the theme, the theme was now considered saturated, and when the theme was saturated, conclusions were made (Strauss & Corbin 1998: 111). Finally, employing a reflective appraisal of the research study, the broad themes were used to make inferences about the implementation of gender policy programs in student admissions in Zimbabwe state universities. The inferences were made by integrating what different participants said in the different phases of the research process.

Through incorporation of the above described data analysis process by Strauss and Corbin (1998: 111), this study, at the same time satisfied Borg *et al* (1996) in Leedy's (1997: 164) three levels of data analysis in qualitative research. These are:

Interpretational analysis. Where the researcher was coding and examining the data for themes and patterns that emerged from it, and then used these themes and categories to describe and explain the phenomenon under study. As (Leedy 1997: 164) explains a “category is an abstract name for the meaning of similar topics” and “a pattern is a relationship among categories.”

Structural analysis. This happened where the researcher operated on the data to search the data for patterns inherent in the discourse - i.e. inherent in the researcher’s continuous conversations with the data, moving between the theory and data and successively tightening the relationship between them.

Reflective analysis. This is where the researcher used judgment to evaluate the phenomenon. Hence, there was a very rich portrayal of participants’ views. The description of the phenomenon was presented as it was understood by the participants, what Leedy (1997:158) calls “rich descriptive narrative that reconstructs the participants’ reality- so closely that the participants can be palpably felt”. Lincoln and Guba (1985: 298) stress the need for the vivid descriptions. Here, this researcher saw the respondents from inside, developing pictures of how they felt through getting and presenting their view points as they were.

4.4.3.4 Trustworthiness of data

Leedy (1997: 168) is of the view that in qualitative research trustworthiness is the complement of validity and reliability in quantitative research. Maintaining trustworthiness of interview data in qualitative research is a challenge (Shenton, 2004: 63) primarily because the researcher is the prime instrument in qualitative research, and because the researcher is not anonymous to the respondents as the case is with the questionnaire. Because of this, there was need to guard against researchers’ own theoretical judgments and biases, but at the same time drawing from the theoretical knowledge to help make sense of the data. Rigour had to be maintained to ensure trustworthiness of the interview data.

The researcher therefore took the following precautionary measures:

Catering for internal validity (i.e. credibility of the interview data)

- Putting it very clearly at the outset that the research was part of a doctoral study. This was intended to deter those interviewees who would just want to impress by giving false information in the expectation of something (e.g. donor monies).
- Allowing each prospective interviewee the opportunity to refuse to participate (Shenton 2004: 66). Assurance of confidentiality was given at the start which encouraged interviewees to talk without fearing that anyone would identify them in the final report. All the participants signed a consent form to this effect (cf. Appendix A).
- Interacting with interviewees at least twice during the research process to create a relaxed atmosphere.
- Timing the interviews as far as possible, at the interviewee's convenience.
- Administrating interviews by only one person was meant to ensure accuracy and consistence of the research process.
- Giving interviewees ample opportunity to answer each question.
- Maintaining reflexivity and openness to different possibilities throughout the data analysis process.
- Employing a well established research method. The interview is well established as a research method (Shenton 2004: 64). This increased internal validity because the interview is an instrument that has been successfully utilized in previous comparable research projects.
- Triangulating data sources, data sites and different research instruments (Lincoln & Guba 1985: 283; Shenton 2004: 65; MacMillan & Schumacher 2006: 520). The viewpoints of deputy registrars, deans, senior assistant registrars and departmental chairpersons "can be verified against each other and ultimately a rich picture of the attitudes and behaviours of those under scrutiny may be constructed based on the contributions of a range of people" (Shenton 2004: 65). Triangulation by the researcher was being mindful of Lincoln and Guba's (1985: 283) advice that:

"Triangulation of data is crucially important in naturalistic studies. As the study unfolds and particular pieces of information come to light, steps should be taken to validate each against at least one other source... and/or a second method....No single item of information (unless coming from an elite and unimpeachable source) should ever be given serious consideration unless it can be triangulated."

In this study the triangulation of data was aimed to achieved what Yin (1994: 92) terms “development of converging lines of inquiry.” Yin (1994: 92) continues to say that the converging lines of inquiry are a source of internal validity.

- Using probes to elicit data and “iterative questioning in which the researcher returns to matters previously raised by the respondent and extract related data through rephrasing” (Shenton 2004:67). In such cases where contradictions emerged (Shenton 2004:67), falsehoods were easily detected and the researcher disregarded that data.
- Engaging with the study in a prolonged way (Leedy 1997:169, Bassegy 1999:76). The researcher achieved this through collecting data over a reasonably long period of time from preliminary investigations carried out in November 2007, March 2008, June 2008 and November 2008. The prolonged engagement allowed the researcher to be immersed in the issues and avoided misleading ideas. The prolonged engagement helped to better distinguish situational perceptions from more persistent trends. Again, throughout the data collection process and the data analysis process, the researcher maintained reflexivity and openness to different possibilities.
- “Engaging a peer debriefer” (Shenton 2004: 65; Erlandson *et al*/1993:140.) The researcher achieved this through allowing a professional who has some general understanding of the study to analyze materials and listen to the researcher’s ideas and concerns. The peer debriefer was also the research assistant and assisted the researcher in reviewing the research instruments, distribution of questionnaires and in analysis of data. The peer debriefer was someone whose academic, professional and research credentials were approved by the study supervisor. Frequent debriefing sessions between the debriefer and the researcher widened the latter’s vision as the perceptions of the debriefer were brought to bear on the researcher’s. Particularly important also was that probing from the debriefer helped the researcher recognize own biases and preferences (Shenton 2004: 67). Thus, at the regular meetings, the two found themselves having joint insights, comparing perspectives or sharing new understandings.
- Conducting peer scrutiny of the research study was done at the end of March 2011 at a research workshop for members in the faculty of the researcher. The latter made a presentation of the research study. Opportunities for scrutiny of the project by colleagues and academics at the workshop brought fresh perspectives and also challenged the assumptions

of the researcher (Shenton 2004: 67). Questioning of assumptions is in line with the gender critical theory, particularly the interrogation of traditionally gendered assumptions that underlie conceptions of gender and gender equality. The peer scrutiny of the study was also important in that it counteracted complacency, and one dimensionality view of issues. The contributions of the members provided valuable insights and constructive criticism on the implementation of gender programs in student admissions. This way the colleagues co-created knowledge with the researcher.

- Doing member checks (also known as participant validation). This is when informants were asked to read transcripts and written portions of their dialogues to consider whether their words meant what they intended (Shenton 2004:68) and can also make additional comments as a way of co-creating knowledge with the researcher. Though costly and cumbersome, this exercise was pursued to its logical conclusion. The research assistant helped the researcher in accomplishing the task. During the course of negotiating entry, the researcher explained the modalities of the research and practical details for member checking to the permission granting entities. This, in this study, was done as a measure of credibility, borrowing the idea from Lincoln and Guba (1985: 314) who pronounce member checking as “the most crucial technique for establishing credibility.”
- Providing thick descriptions of the phenomenon under scrutiny. Vivid descriptions that conveyed the actual situations investigated, to an extent that the interviewees “are palpably felt” by the reader were provided (Leedy 1997: 158, Lincoln and Guba 1985: 298). Drawing the reader so closely to the participant’s world promoted credibility. Without this insight, it would be difficult for the reader of the final report to determine the extent to which the overall findings “ring true” (Shenton 2004:69). In this study most of the data was transcribed verbatim to help the researcher achieve the rich descriptions of the findings. Direct quotations from the verbatim data provided the voice of the researcher.

external validity (generalizability)

- Data collection methods employed were well explained.
- The number of sites and the number of participants and their categories were provided.
- Restrictions in the type of people who contributed data were specified.
- Time and period over which data was collected as well as the number and length of the data collection sessions was well stated.

All this meant, as Shenton (2004:70) says, that the results should be understood within the context of the particular characteristics of the universities in which the fieldwork was carried out.

reliability (dependability)

- Allowing the technique of auditing (Guba & Lincoln 1985: 242; Schwandt 1997: 6; Bassey 1999:69, Shenton 2004: 65-70). This study provided for the technique of auditing, a process in qualitative research which is analogous to a fiscal audit. This involved an in-depth methodological description, describing “the minutiae of what was done in the field” to allow the study to be repeated (Shenton 2004:69). In this study, the audit trail included recorded material such as interviews transcripts, interview notes, interview guides, list of interviews and list of categories. These formed the researcher’s “case record of research” (Bassey 1999: 69) and were well stored and maintained. This was done so that any external person should be able to follow the researcher’s steps from research questions to the conclusion and even also back again, noting the evidence that is presented at each point.

4.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter gave a detailed explanation and rationale for the choice of the research methods and methodology employed in investigating the effectiveness of the implementation of gender policies and programs in student admissions in Zimbabwe state universities. Data was collected through documentary study, a survey using a questionnaire as well as through in-depth interviews. The fieldwork instruments were pilot tested before use. Survey data was analyzed quantitatively, while documentary analysis and interview data were analyzed qualitatively. A number of measures were taken to ensure validity and reliability of the instruments and the data collected. The next chapter 5 deals with the presentation and analysis of the collected data.

CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF DATA

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents, analyses and discusses the findings of the study and provides answers to the core questions raised in the study. Every attempt was made to present the findings as they were indicated in the responses and the data was not subjected to any form of manipulation. In this study data for analysis was in the form of interview transcripts, field notes, documentary study, narratives and questionnaire responses. The phenomenon of interest was the implementation of gender policy programs in student admissions in Zimbabwe state universities. The central focus of the interrogation of the research data was henceforth to illuminate the effectiveness of the implemented gender policy programs, as transformative endeavours, in student admissions in Zimbabwe state universities. As such, the phenomenon of interest or object of analysis was a practice that required studying organized regularities. To achieve this illumination required to break the object of analysis into further units of analysis that enabled the researcher to interpret data in ways that illuminated the object of analysis. These further units of analysis formed the broad themes around which the presentation of this chapter was organized.

This chapter begins with findings from the preliminary investigation (cf. chapter 1). This is followed with an overview of findings from the documentary study, highlighting their contributions to the fieldwork. This is followed by an overview of the survey and the interview findings. The final and most crucial stage is where an integration of the findings from all the sources are brought together to come up with one web of meaning as regards each of the sub research questions and eventually answering the main research question.

In subjecting the data obtained from the three phases of data collection to analysis, the theoretical frameworks that guide this study (c.f. 2) were brought to bear on the data analysis. In the process, the data obtained was brought to a level of critical gender scrutiny that exposed the explicit and the implicit in the data, be they statements from the documents, utterances from the interviews or numbers from the survey data. The analysis was also informed by the general position in any research

that research data has to be searched for its meaning and sense, because the facts do not speak for themselves (Given 2008: 697). Consistent with the study's theoretical frameworks, the data analysis took a careful interrogation of the gender dimensions of the phenomenon, teasing out the impact of the practices and procedures in student admissions on male and female students being admitted. In addition, the data analysis looked at the consistencies and contrasts that existed between what the participants said and what appeared in the literature reviewed.

5.2 RESULTS FROM THE PRELIMINARY STUDY

The preliminary study was carried out to find out what the Zimbabwe state universities were doing, in the wake of the demands by the Zimbabwe Government (through the ZNGP) to implement own strategies to close the gender gaps within the institutions.

Results of this preliminary study revealed that gender programs were being implemented in Zimbabwe state universities and had been in place for quite sometime (as early as 1991 in the case of the University of Zimbabwe and as early as their inceptions in the case of universities founded after independence of 1980). The preliminary investigation established that some state universities had their own programs (e.g. the Midlands State University) while others were networking with some gender-related non-state organizations (e.g. the Great Zimbabwe University, Bindura, University of Zimbabwe). Other universities had both self-initiated programs and networks with the university partners in gender (e.g. the Midlands State University). With some universities, the 'university partners in gender' had programs that ran all year round, yet with others the programs were only for a short period of time. The university partners in gender were resident at some universities, for example, SHAPE Zimbabwe at the University of Zimbabwe and at the Midlands State University and non-resident at others, for example, the Great Zimbabwe University.

Most of the state universities were found to practise affirmative action in the form of lowering cut off points for the under represented sex group as a gender policy program. The University of Zimbabwe lowered cut off points for the disadvantaged sex group by two points, but other universities lowered by more than two points. This preferential treatment was meant to increase the underrepresented sex group's representation in the university or in a specific department. All the senior administrators of the universities believed that lowering of the cut off points for the disadvantaged group was an accelerator for gender equality. The preliminary study also established that some universities, like the Midlands state university, further employ gender policy programs in form of offering remedial tuition

in science, mathematics and technology to the underrepresented sex group. This was commonly called the bridging program.

This preliminary investigation also established that some of these state universities employed a quota system in staff recruitment and student enrolment. The quota system is an affirmative practice that entails reserving a certain percent of the competed for places for the underrepresented sex group (Bunyi 2003: 3-6). It was also established that some universities, like the Midlands state university, offered gender studies at beginning of students' courses in a bid to gender empower the students (Midlands State University Vice Chancellor's speech on the official launch of the gender studies program at institution, 13 October 2005).

By employing these gender policy programs or strategies, the Zimbabwe university stakeholders were responding to the recommendations of the ZNGP not only with words, but also by taking action to correct the gender imbalances in their institutions.

However, despite these policy programs being operational for about a decade, this same preliminary study established that gender gaps were rampant in Zimbabwe state universities (according to the enrolment statistics of incoming classes of the universities between 2000 and 2008). Taking just the example of one of them, the Midlands State University, disaggregated statistics of the administration office holders revealed that there was a persistent pattern of female under representation. The researcher says 'persistent pattern' because the scenario was little changed since inception of the university in 2000. Table 5.1 summarises the statistics of the administration office holders at The Midlands state university in November 2008.

Table 5:1 Statistics of top administration office holders at the Midlands State University in November 2008

Post title	Total number of posts	Number of posts held by males	Number of posts held by females
Designated Posts of Vice Chancellor, Pro Vice Chancellor, Registrar, Bursar and Librarian	5	4	1 (librarian)
Faculty Dean	7	6	1
Director	4	4	0
Departmental Chairpersons (Faculty of Arts)	5	5	0
Departmental Chairpersons (Faculty of Commerce)	8	6	2
Faculty of Education	5	3	2
Faculty of Natural Resources Chairpersons	5	4	1
Faculty of Social Sciences Chairperson	8	7	1
Faculty of Hard Sciences Chairperson	6	5	1

(Statistics obtained from the Personnel Office of the Midlands State University on November 7, 2008.)

These statistics, obtained in November 2008, revealed to the researcher that the university's quest for that at least 50% of decision-makers be females by December 2010 (Midlands State University Gender Policy 2006: 4) was a mammoth task for the institution. Even at subject departmental level there was an even smaller proportion of female students in the fields traditionally considered as male domain like hard sciences. Female students were concentrated in programs traditionally labelled feminine such as Food Science and Nutrition (FSN) and virtually none (at the time of writing) in those ones traditionally labelled male domains such as Surveying and Geomatics. In some departments, despite the existence of the gender policy programs, there was no decline in the gender gap (Survey and Geomatics) or a stagnation (Computer Sciences) or even a roll back of some of the gains made

(e.g. male student representation in FSN). This was according to student enrolment statistics of 2000 to 2008 obtained from the student admission offices.

The same situation obtained at student administration level. At this level, the Student Representative Council (SRC) was the body that served as a link between the student body and administration, and it was this body that coordinated social functions for students. At this student level, female underrepresentation was again felt. This area, at the cited university, has suffered a roll back effect of gains made in 2005 and 2006. Table 5.2 gives an overview of the gender representation of the first top five posts in the SRC at the Midlands State University in order of importance.

Table 5.2: Gender representation of the top 5 posts in the SRC at the Midlands State University from 2000 to 2010

Year	Sex of president	Sex of vice president	Sex of secretary general	Sex of public relations officer	Sex of treasurer
2000-2002	male	male	Male	Male	Male
2003	male	male	Male	Male	Male
2004	male	male	Male	Male	Male
2005	female	male	Male	Female	Male
2006	female	male	Male	Female	Male
2007-2008	Due to	political	instability	there was	no SRC
2009	male	male	Male	Male	Male
2010	male	male	Male	Male	Male

(This information was obtained from the office of student affairs at the Midlands state university on the 4 September, 2010)

These revelations showed that the institution was far from attaining its target of equal representation of men and women in decision making at all levels by 2010 (Midlands State University Gender Policy

2006: 4). At this university, it was established that the physical and social environments of the institution were not gender-responsive (e.g. the absence of incinerators). These were just the results of a preliminary investigation of one university, but the pattern was seemingly the same with other universities.

These findings formed the researcher's motivation for the study (c.f. chapter 1). The question of persistent gender gaps despite employment of gender programs motivated the researcher to investigate the possible causes for the gender gap. The driving question was: What is it about the implementation of gender policy programs which makes it fail to close the gender gaps? Thus, the implementation of the gender programs became an area of focus for this study and the purpose was to gauge the effectiveness of the implementation of the gender programs. Also, the results helped the researcher on choice of research sites.

5.3 DOCUMENT ANALYSIS FINDINGS

5.3.1 Document Analysis Results for BU

The research findings are based on the content analysis of the BU's Vision, and Mission Statement as well as from the gender policy of the institution.

5.3.1.1 Gender Dimensions of the Vision and Mission Statement of BU

The Vision of the BU talked about the 'uniqueness, development-orientedness, pace setting and stakeholder drivenness' but did not include an explicit or implicit gender dimension of any of these aspects. The BU Mission Statement comprised of seven statements. Of these only one (number 6) was gender oriented and was framed to the effect of a "commitment to gender equality and equity in student admissions and staff recruitment policies." The Mission Statement's mentioning of commitment to gender equality and equity, only to student admissions and staff recruitments gives connotations of 'parity democracy'(i.e. the battle towards equal numbers of males and females) and not 'equality democracy'. The BU core values were two. The second core value was: "Driven by sensitivity to gender equality and equity."

5.3.1.2 Gender Dimensions of the BU Gender Policy

The guiding areas of focus for the BU policy analysis are as outlined in chapters three and four of this study and the presentation and sub section items in this section follow the subheadings as outlined in 4.3 of this study. Appendix B comprise specific questions that guided the content analysis.

Commitment search

Commitment does not in and of itself ensure change, but it is an important ingredient in the whole process of gender mainstreaming. In fact, it is a starting point. The BU had a gender policy in place, entitled the “Blackwell University Gender Policy” enacted in 2006. The six goals of the policy were to:

- 1) Mainstream gender in the university
- 2) Eliminate practices impeding equality and equity of sexes
- 3) Empower students and staff with knowledge, skills and attitudes that enable them to create and live in a gender sensitive society.
- 4) Have a critical mass of women on campus that gives them confidence in the university so that they begin to create a conducive learning environment for themselves.
- 5) Achieve a critical mass of female role models in the university and
- 6) Promote a gender responsive environment (BU Gender Policy 2006: 3)

In many aspects, the policy talk was very feminist, bringing out only the intentions to bring females to the centre stage and remaining silent on the male side. Yet literature on successful gender mainstreaming reiterates that planning for change in women’s lives clearly entails changes for men, “with structural shifts in male-female power relations being a necessary precondition for any development process with long term sustainability” (Rathgeber 1995: 212). Aspects of men’s beliefs and behaviours cannot be understood if they are not viewed in the context of gender relations between men and women.

In its goal (4) the policy talked of the desire and need of a critical mass of female role models but a critical mass of male role models was as important for the same reason of giving the males confidence in the university in areas traditionally labelled feminine, such as the Food Science and Nutrition department, in the Fashion and Fabrics department and as secretaries within the university departments. This ‘male blindness’ of the BU policy is a legacy from the WID approach (cf. chapter 2) which had an open female bias. But research has shown that this tactic of concentrating exclusively on

women fails to shake the patriarchal foundations of mainstream thought and practice, and hence, widens gender inequalities (Chant & Gutmann 2002: 269, True 2001: 1).

Regrettably, the policy target should not have been women, but the multiple interconnected causes which create unequal relations between the sexes to the disadvantage of either sex (Verloo 2001: 2-5). Gender encompasses both males and females and so at every juncture the male side of the equation should always be factored in and a fair balance of this focus should always be maintained. This aspect was absent from the BU policy. It is futile to omit men because the interdependence between males and females determines the opportunities and life outcomes of the other sex (Chant & Gutmann 2002: 269).

The above feminist overtone was again kept alive in the policy's Academic Sector Strategies (iii) and (IV) (p.5) where the policy specifically talks only about females being offered career guidance and bridging programs. Yet there are also departments within the university with low male representation where the bridging program might also alleviate the inequalities (e.g. Food Science and Nutrition). Again, males also need career guidance. This career guidance serves the same purpose of demystifying certain subject areas of the 'maleness or femaleness' attachments for both males and females.

The principle of gender equality was lightly touched in goal (iii) and occasional inferences made, but what was explicitly touched on was the issue of gender parity. It should, however, always be remembered that having equal numbers in male-female ratios is not the primary goal in the quest for gender equality (Unterhalter 2004a: 1-2). What should be considered mostly is removal of bias and discrimination. Unless the policy goals strongly address removal of these biases and discrimination, the policy may run the risk of preserving the gender gaps even if equal numbers of males and females are attained. Taking the hint from Stratigaki (2005: 7), not only a quantitative equality but also a qualitative necessity should be associated with structural change. Borrowing from this aspect, during fieldwork, questions were asked about gender specific indicators that existed in the assessment of the impact of practices on male/female students as regards student admissions.

The policy did not define its targets clearly and a time frame was given in all its seven objectives as follows:

- i. To ensure a gender balance in student enrolment in all degree programs, in Humanities and Social Sciences by December 2006, and a 40%-60% female-male ration in Sciences by December 2010 and 52%-48% in Sciences by December 2015.
- ii. To ensure a gender balance in recruitment, promotion and retention of staff by 2010.
- iii. To make provision for training of staff in gender analysis skills across the university among the following: senior management and heads of departments by December 2007, and all staff members by December 2008.
- iv. To ensure integration of gender in university research by December 2006.
- v. To ensure integration of gender in research outreach by December 2006.
- vi. To ensure that at least 50% of decision-makers at all levels are females by December 2010.
- vii. To ensure the use of gender sensitive language in all forms of communication by December 2008 (pp. 3-4).

In setting its objectives, the policy was thus not consistent in its guiding procedures. In objective (i) the policy is guided by the national population statistics ratio of 52% - 48% female-male ratio (ZNGP 2000: 1). This indicates a drive towards gender equity. Gender equity has to do with proportional distribution of social services and representation and participation of men and women. In objectives (iii) and (vi), the policy talk is general and inconsistent. In objective (ii) the policy talks only of ensuring “a gender balance in recruitment, promotion and retention of staff by 2010” (p. 3). Here the policy remains vague as to the specific composition of males-females; it can only be taken that it was referring to the equal participation of males and females. What is meant by the phrase in the policy document, ‘gender balance’, is not very clear. This vagueness made it difficult to assess the extent to which the policy represented progress towards a broader definition of gender equality. Targets should be consistently gender disaggregated to maintain an explicitness about the beneficiaries of the programs (Murison 2004: 6).

The policy language of merely saying “staff members” and “staff” in objective (iii), for example, gave the impression that the university was planning for ‘people’ and not males and females. Planning for ‘people’ fails to take cognizance of the differences between the sexes within the university and hence fails to set targets that cater for the two sexes. Such a policy is gender neutral and the university could

run into the danger (in its objectives (ii) and (iii)) of assuming that all its staff members, males and females, operate at the same level socially and of having the same intention; hence laying uniform measures for the sexes. The BU policy document should have acknowledged that the sexes differ and should have laid measures that were gender sensitive to each of the groups to ensure gender clarity at implementation level.

Mechanism identification

The BU gender policy laid its implementation strategies and like the ZNGP from which it draws, the BU policy used a sectoral approach of gender implementation. The three sectors identified are: academic, human resource and student affairs. The policy starts by giving general implementation strategies before getting into particular sector implementations. The general strategies were very general as follows:

- i. Train the university community to implement the gender policy, monitor and evaluate its impact;
- ii. Review university policies for gender sensitivity;
- iii. Redress gender imbalances through affirmative action;
- iv. Engender university budgets at all levels;
- v. Create awareness on gender issues in and outside the university community;
- vi. Carry out gender sensitive research and ensure its use in planning and project implementation;
- vii. Develop, maintain and provide gender-disaggregated data at all levels;
- viii. Discourage the use of gender insensitive language, stereotypes and prejudice in all forms of communication;
- ix. Discourage gender violence.

The rather general nature of the strategies marked a key question about the sincerity of policy makers on how the implementation was to be done. Yet Hannan (2008: 6-8) warns that lack of exactness and clarity in implementation endangers the goal of gender equality. In its general strategy

(i) the policy talked about “monitoring and impact evaluation” but remained silent on issues, such as, who does it and how this could be done. In general strategy (ii) the policy talked of reviews of the university policies for gender sensitivity but was silent about which university policies and how often the reviews should be made and by whom (internal or external reviewers and evaluators). These needed to be stated here. Fieldwork established an absence of these policies. Such policies, if present, would be useful because the approach of gender mainstreaming used would also be identified through gender incorporation of these policies. Moreover, there should be horizontal cooperation on gender issues across these other policy areas. These policies, here called “offshoot policies”, would have brought out the willingness of the BU to change its institutional gender practices in a great way. If gender issues were incorporated into these policies, it would be indicative of the measure of the extent to which the university is taking gender issues on board. If there is no horizontal cooperation on gender issues across these other policies (like the recruitment policy), mainstreaming of gender may be limited. If these university policies are not accommodated in the grant goal towards ‘*equality de facto*’ (Lombardo 2003: 7), then many of the efforts may be far from transformative. The transformative potential should be seen throughout these university policies. These policies should be strategically framed to make them fit the dominant goal of mainstreaming gender equality in the university. The fieldwork established no specific policy on student enrolment.

In the general strategy (iii) the policy tries to be specific “on redressing imbalances through affirmative action and empowerment” (p.4) but again ended there without further elaboration. This made it difficult to distinguish in the policy the type and nature of the gender equality policy programme implemented by the university. The policy, here, needed to be clearer than merely mention “through affirmative action and empowerment” so that the forms of affirmative action were spelt out. Also it would become clear who needed the empowerment, and in what forms, and to achieve what results. Deriving from the tone of the BU policy document, both these seem to be done in favour of women. However, as already stated, it should not just be seeking simply to increase the number of women in different positions but should provide real opportunities for men and women for influencing agendas, processes, values, rules, procedures and practices as these can restrict women’s potential to make choices. This influenced the study’s goal of establishing what vision the BU had on affirmative action and also of establishing if it was an end in itself.

A general lack of exactness about the nature of the implementation strategies runs through the academic, human resource and students’ affairs sectors also. Here and there, there is exactness, for

example, in the academic sector strategy (iii) part (ii) where the policy document is clear that it is going to 'bridge' female students to increase their enrolments in science, mathematics and technology but generally, there is lack of exactness on the 'how' of the implementation. It is not enough to say, for example, "eliminate all forms of discrimination" (academic sector strategy (ii) p.5) or "eliminate gender blind and gender neutral policies" (Human resource strategy (v) or "sensitize students on issues relating to" [Student affairs strategy' (vii)], but more elaboration, (e.g. stating the means to achieve the elimination and sensitization) needed to be given. This would have made it clear how the policy document was going to be implemented. Specificity needed to be employed on the exact measures employed in the elimination of such discrimination. A time frame for achievement of all set objectives was given, but the indicators that specified how the achievement was going to be measured and verified were lacking.

Resource assessment

There are policy statements to the effect of resource assessment, for example, "provision of educational resources" (academic sector strategy (i) (p.7), support gender studies and research activities (academic sector strategy (vii) p.7), provide support framework to females who fall pregnant (academic sector strategy (v) p.7), funding for staff development (human resource strategy (ii) p.7 and providing leadership training programmes and a student affairs sector strategy (vi) p.6. But again, the exactness of the nature of the resource facility was not clarified.

Internal tracking

The BU gender policy's internal monitoring capacity was not clearly brought out. This was a contributory measure to the extent of explicit political will, because the supportive mechanisms as well as the effective accountability mechanism determine the seriousness of policy makers' commitment and will. True, the policy talks about monitoring and evaluation in its general strategy (i) where it says "train the university community to implement the university gender policy, monitor and evaluate its impact" (p.4) but it ends there. Nowhere in the policy document is this monitoring and evaluation elaborated upon. The study questions centred on how the implementation progress was monitored and who was responsible for monitoring. The policy also talked of such things like "increased recruitment, promotion and retention of female staff" (human resource strategy (i) but did not, as already pointed out, say exactly how it was going to put measures (and what sort of

measures) into place for regularly checking its progress towards its goals. Targets were set but there were no policy indicators that specified how the achievement was to be verified.

Gender Mainstreaming Unit

The fifth audit aspect concerned a 'Gender Mainstreaming Unit'. The BU gender policy was silent on this aspect. It did not say who guided and coordinated the overall gender mainstreaming process. The study aimed to reveal this. Questions were set to establish who, within the institution had the responsibility of gender mainstreaming, what gender focal points if any were planned for, how and to what extent their roles were strengthened and formalized. The study also established how these (if there) were chosen –by election or by invitation, because the way they were chosen may dilute or concentrate their responsibilities. The policy talked of such things as “mainstream gender in the university” (goal i), “empower students and staff with knowledge and skills” (goal ii), “make provision for training of a critical mass of staff” (objective iii), “train the university community” (general strategy i) and “develop, maintain, update and provide gender disaggregated data” (general strategy vii) but omitted as to who within the institution had a mandate to guide these activities.

Underlying paradigm

The sixth and last gender policy audit aspect concerned making a 'paradigm audit' of the policy and its implications for gender equality attainment. Reflecting on the literature review (chapter 2), two gender paradigms were identified: women mainstreaming (WID) and gender mainstreaming (GAD). Women mainstreaming is evident when the policy talk emphasizes increased numbers of women in the mainstream activities. Mainstreaming gender is also evident when there is talk about male-female relationships, their implications and the need for an approach that will start to address the underlying causes for the gender inequalities. Chapter three of this study consolidated the two paradigms to two approaches to mainstreaming gender: 'integrationist' and 'setting the agenda'. This last aspect (i.e. the underlying paradigm) requires that all the direct and indirect evidence regarding the BU gender policy be considered and an evaluation of whether the policy strengthened capacity to mainstream women or capacity to bring both men and women's issues into the university mainstream.

Talking of the university mainstream, in this study the mainstream was made up of two university core functions: education and employment. But in its goal (iv) the BU gender policy only talks about “a conducive learning environment”. Nowhere in its goals is reference again made to a ‘conducive working environment’. Thus, the policy ran the risk of exclusion of staff. Hannan (2008: 6) and Murison (2004: 2) are very critical of policies that are not very explicit about their mainstreams, arguing that efforts of such policies miss their beneficiaries. Only in the caption on general strategies did the policy document talk of the “University as a learning institution as well as a place of work” (p.4).

From all that has been said, one can conclude that though the goal of gender equality was alluded to here and there, the goal was not neatly interwoven from start to end of the policy. This is in contrast to what the literature on successful gender mainstreaming recommends. Another crucial element recommended by literature, but only vaguely alluded to in the policy was a vision of ‘gender equality’. On this note, literature indicates that the vision of gender equality has to be the “wider conception of gender equality” (Derbyshire 2003: 3; Unterhalter 2004b: 1-2; Lombardo 2003: 7). Lombardo (2003: 3) stresses that the talk about gender mainstreaming in policy contexts has to be accompanied by debates on what gender equality should be. If the model of gender equality being targeted is not highlighted, then the transformative potential of gender mainstreaming may be lost. In discussing the indicators to gender mainstreaming Lombardo (2003: 2 - 7) puts this as indicator number one: “a shift in concepts: a broader concept of gender equality employed”. The shift in concept refers to the move from the narrow definition of gender equality as formal equality to equality *de facto*. The later requires a gender perspective and not a focus on women’s issues (Council of Europe 1998: 169). The BU gender policy on this aspect was found mostly to emphasize formal equality, which it hoped to achieve through creating a critical mass of women. The policy tone on the goals was not sex disaggregatory, but talked of just students and staff in goal (iii). Thus, the policy may run the risk of not setting targets that cater for the differences between its males and females and this way gender inequalities may remain pervasive and persistent.

Objectives (iv) and (v) explicitly talked about “integration of gender perspectives in the university” implying directly the integrationist approach to gender mainstreaming. This, taken together with goal (vi), which talked of promotion rather than creation of a gender responsive environment, had overtones of integration rather than setting the agenda. What this meant was that the university was introducing its gender perspective into already existing university developmental agendas. This

approach of mainstreaming gender is what Squires (1999: 115-130) calls 'inclusion' meaning that gender is merely included into an already existing political order. Verloo (2001: 3-5) also calls the same strategy 'mere-add-on', simply adding a gender perspective into an already existing practice and warns that this approach to gender mainstreaming has a less substantial impact on achieving the goal of gender equality. Rees in Walby (2005: 5-7) calls it "tinkering with gender inequality", Clisby (2005: 5-23) calls the same "Just More Male Streaming" and Barnes (2006: 10) calls it "More of the same". What these authors stress is that integrating gender into the mainstream which is not debated serves only to make the gender perspective fit into the dominant frame to avoid potential resistance. This way the university policy makers 'sell' gender as an effective means to the ends being pursued, rather than as an overt challenge to those ends.

This approach to gender mainstreaming, as argued in chapter 3 seems to fit well with the African principles of *solidarity* and the African philosophy of *perennialism*, where disturbance of the *status quo* is not cherished. Instead, its intactness through preservation of core values and norms is maintained (Jenkins 2009: 1). This has an advantage of introducing gender mainstreaming into departments that would have probably rejected it (Lombardo 2003: 2) as a strategy that does not fit within its policy frames. But the disadvantage is that the gender perspective enters the mainstream without reorienting the gendered nature of the mainstream. The limitation of this approach is that it will be very difficult to bring about any meaningful change if the embedded gendered cultural values remain unquestioned (Verloo (2001: 3; Walby 2005: 4-6; Squires 1999: 130). This integrationist approach together with the feminist overtones already discussed at the beginning of this section points to a WID approach.

From the above text analysis of the BU gender policy, the institution cannot be fully typified as one with a successful gender policy.

5.3.2 Document Analysis Results for SU

The SU did not have documents on gender per se. The analysis was made on the Vision, Mission Statement and the institution's Strategic Plan: 2008-2013. There was no written gender policy document.

5.3.2.1 Gender Dimensions of the Vision and Mission Statement of SU

The vision of the institution was completely void of gender, talking only of becoming a “centre of excellence in heritage reclamation and creative arts and culture, including heritage studies, architecture, pre-colonial history, commerce and trade, international relations, state craft and war and strategic strategies” (SU Strategic Plan, p.11). The Mission Statement likewise was also void of gender, aiming only to “provide clients and stakeholders with an enabling environment for the search of new knowledge and for the reclamation and preservation of cultural heritage through research, teaching, creativity and cultural enrichment” (SU Strategic Plan, p.11). The core values likewise were completely void of gender. The university’s three core values were: efficiency, effectiveness and excellence. Nowhere in the Vision, Mission Statement and Core Values was any explicit reference to gender.

5.3.2.2 Gender Dimensions of SU Strategic and Planning Documents

This is the document that created SU, a copy of which was given to the researcher (on the 22 March 2010) by the information office with permission from the registrar. This document guides the running of the institution, sets the direction of the university to the year 2013 and forms the foundation for the university’s long-term plans (p.10). The document is in two sections. The first section (pp. 1-9) dealt with the historical background of the institution. The Strategic Planning Process comprised the second section (pp. 10-14).

Commitment search

There was no institutional gender policy in place and, this according to Hannan (2008: 6, 8), can be argued in itself a disqualification of the institution as one which adopts a gender perspective as a starting point of its internal and external policy dealings. In a formal talk with the Director of Information and Planning (22 March, 2010), the Director said, “The institution does not have spelt out documents that deal with gender per se but we practice gender in student and staff recruitment and other areas.” The Director’s mention of “practical gender’ without any formal policy guiding the purported gender practice shows that the SU wants to address gender without thinking gender.

Throughout the document there was no mention of gender except in item 5.2 (p.17): “The university’s commitment to offer high quality academic education and training requires that proper administration structure be in put in place and that a gender sensitive policy on human resources be implemented.” The document appeared gender-blind and gender-complacent. The gender blindness

is further revealed by the gender neutral language used such as use of the word 'clients' (paragraph 4, p.11) and the lack of sex disaggregated data on the organizational analysis (paragraph 3, p.12).

Since the commitment search revealed an absence of gender, it was decided to abandon analyzing the document for the other gender audit principles. Suffice only to say the document did not reveal any viable gender inclination by the institution and none of its directives was geared towards promotion of gender equality.

5.4 SURVEY RESULTS

The data analyzed in this section were collected by means of the questionnaire. Quantitative data obtained from the questionnaire were first coded and then analyzed using Minitab statistical package. The questionnaire responses were all recorded as categorical because they took labels as values. The labels used as values are shown in the attached Appendix I. In all, the qualities that the study measured (i.e. the variables) came to 63. The 63 variables used in the analysis comprised the attached Appendix H. In view of the categorical nature of the obtained data, parametric statistics and tests could not be made use of. In light of this fact, it was found appropriate to use descriptive statistics mostly the percentage and the mode. Descriptive statistics, as their name suggests, were used in this study to describe the basic features of the data (i.e. simply tell what went on in the data by way of providing summaries about the sample) (Given 2008: 697). The chi square tests were also used in this study to establish associations between variables.

5.4.1 Statistics used

The percentage

In this study, **percentages** were used mainly for their advantage of quick summarization of the data itself in order to give the general impression of the whole data. They were also used to indicate the relative size of two or more individual numbers. Where the percentages were presented alone, in this section they served the purpose of mainly providing a picture of other unseen numbers.

The mode

Though any of the three: mean, mode and median could have been used to convey a central tendency of the data, in this study the **mode** was preferred. Firstly, this was because the results

involved categories not continuous numbers. Secondly, the study's interest lay in establishing the attitudes, values, feelings, desires and beliefs of the actors in student admissions, and it was this statistic which reflected the perceptions of the majority of the participants per each aspect investigated. It was this ballpark feeling of the participants on each of the 63 variables that enabled establishment of the consistencies and contrasts with the data from the other two phases. This was necessary for triangulation purposes. The modes of all the 63 variables dealt with are in Appendix K.

The Chi Square Test

In light of the categorical nature of the yielded data, it was found not proper to use the Pearson's correlation. The Spearman's rho rank correlation was instead used to ascertain relationships between the responses. This statistic was computed to establish pair-wise relationships between the 63 variables. However, most of these were very low and this analysis was found not useful. The relationships were thus only established by use of the Chi-square test for independence. This statistic is typically appropriate in social science research and is in alignment with the gender critical theory which emphasizes the need for establishment of factors which bear a connection or dependence and a search for the salient qualities of the association. The accompanying Appendices J1 and J2 showed the chi-square computations and results for the two sites, BU and SU respectively.

5.4.2 The main messages from the survey data

In this subsection, the results from the survey data were scanned and sifted to try and establish the main messages from the data. The sifting and scanning (in line with the gender critical theory) allowed the researcher to probe beneath the surface facts and to establish why participants' attitudes, beliefs and perceptions were possibly what they were and why relationships between certain variables occurred or failed to occur. Findings were presented in tables and graphs as well as in narrative form. The tables and diagrams were adopted in this study for three reasons:

- Original data were not tampered with;
- Comparisons between classes were easily made and this made observation easy and easily understood by anyone.

5.4.2.1 Research aspects brought out by the questionnaire

The questionnaire contained thirty questions. These questions were clustered according to specific aspects and dimensions of the research questions that they addressed. Of the five sub- research questions, all except question 2 and parts of question 4 were answered by the questionnaire. The following Table 5.3 shows the clustering of the various questions of the questionnaire and the different aspects and dimensions they brought out, as well as the specific research question they addressed.

Table 5.3 Research aspects addressed by the questionnaire

Clustered questions	Aspect brought out	Research question addressed
1, 2, and 3	Demographic information in terms of gender, faculty and experience	Questions 1 & 3
4, 5, 6, 7 and 11	Mechanics of student selection	Questions 1
8, 9 and 16	Gender sensitivity of participants	Questions 1, 3
10, 15, 23b), 24b) & 28	Gender policy programs implemented	Questions 1
11	Disaggregated enrolment statistics over a 6-year range	Questions 1, 5
12	Achievements of selection practices	Question 5
13,14,15 and 16	Challenges faced and steps taken to combat them	Question 3
17, 18 19 and 20	Issues of recruitment and retention of students	Question 4
21, 22 and 23	Monitoring, evaluation and reviewing of selection of selection practices	Question 3
24, 25, 26 and 27	Ratings of gender sensitivity levels of selection practices	Questions 1, 4
28, 29 and 30	Critiquing of existing practices and proffering improvements	Questions 5, 4

5.4.2.2 Demographic profile of the respondents

Out of the 53 targeted questionnaire sample, 48 respondents (90, 6%) managed to return the completed questionnaire. The following tables 5.4a) and 5.4b) give the demographic information of the respondents in terms of their sex, academic faculties of operation and their experiences as departmental chairpersons.

Table 5.4a Gender by Faculty

Name of faculty	Frequency (males)	Frequency (females)	Total (N = 48)
Education	6	4	10
Social Science	6	2	8
Law	1	0	1
Commerce	12	0	12
Natural Sciences	7	1	8
Arts	7	0	7
Natural Sciences	2	0	2
All	41	7	48

N=48 (N represents sample size)

Results revealed that males dominated student selection. At BU, of the 30 respondents, 24 (80%) were males and at SU of the 18 respondents, 16 (88.8%) were males. It would appear that there was a male bias in the selection operations. Of the 7 females in the selection committees, 4 (57.14%) were in the Faculty of Education, implying an association of education with females. This association of the Faculty of Education with females was further accentuated by the sex disaggregated statistics of SU, where almost all students in the Department of Early Childhood Education over the six year range studied (2005 to 2010) were females.

Table 5.4b Respondents' experience as chairpersons

No. of years as chairperson	Frequency (F)	Percentage (F/N x 100)
Less than one year	4	8,33%
1 – 2 years	21	43,75%
3 – 4 years	19	39,58%
5 years	0	0%
Over 5 years	4	8,33%
Total (N=48)	48	100%

5.4.2.3 Programs implemented

Table 5.5 shows the gender policy programs implemented by the universities in student admissions. It shows the name of the implemented program versus the number of departments employing the program per institution.

Table 5.5 Programs implemented

Program implemented	Frequency of departments at BU	Frequency of departments at SU	Total
Do not implement any gender program	7	12	19
Lowering of points	4	6	10
Bridging program	10	0	10
Quota reservations	9	0	9
Total	30	18	48

N=48

In explaining how they determine the number of male and female students in their departments, the respondents indicated that the bridging program, quota reservations and lowering of points are the gender programs implemented by the institutions. Lowering of points was done at both universities, but the other two programs were done only at BU. A quicker comparison of the employed gender programs in the two institutions is shown by the following multiple composite histogram.

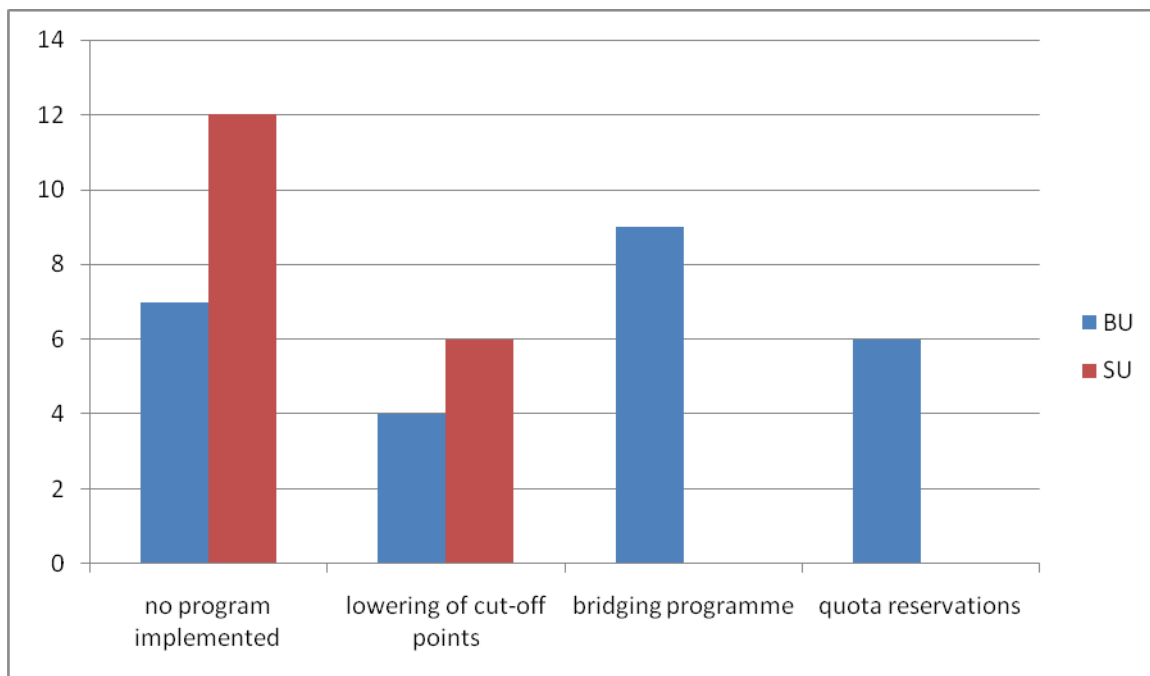


Figure 5.1 Programs implemented

It would appear that the SU was still in its infancy as regards the implementation of gender programs. This contrasted with the zeal surrounding gender implementation in student admissions showed by the Director of Information and Planning (22 March 2010, the day the researcher visited the institution to collect the documents for analysis). Concerning BU, although the institutional gender policy talked only of the bridging program being implemented in the Faculty of Natural Sciences, responses indicated that the program was implemented in other faculties as well, such as, the Faculty of Commerce and Natural Resources. While there were seven respondents from the Faculty of Natural Sciences, responses indicating employment of the bridging programme exceeded seven. The additional three came from Natural Resources (2) and Commerce (1). This indicated that the program was extended to other faculties and no amendment was made to the policy, or possibly that the application of the program in these faculties was a deviation from policy. The most likely reason, revealed through in-depth interviews (cf. 5.5.4), indicates that little monitoring of the implementation of gender policy programs was taking place. As a result of the *laissez faire* or non-existent monitoring of the implementation process, departments could have ended up taking advantage of the situation and did not, in practical terms, employ the gender policy programs.

5.4.2.4 Mechanics of student selection

At both institutions results revealed that there was no written policy on student admission per se, though in the BU gender policy there were indications of off-shoot policies. This could imply the possibility of the actors in student admissions 'wandering off' an acceptable path, when nothing specifically establishes boundaries for these actors as selection holders in student admissions.

Modal responses for both institutions established that selection of students into departments was handled by the selection committee, with chairpersons of departments always almost included. Of the 48 respondents, 45 (93.75%) supported this finding.

5.4.2.5 Gender sensitivity of participants

The results indicated that the majority of the respondents did not receive any gender training. Of the 48 respondents, 28 (58, 8%) indicated that they had not received gender training. Of the 20 who indicated that they had been sensitized, follow up to their responses indicated that only 2 had been sensitized. However, it was revealed through interviews that what most termed "training" was mainly hearing gender pronouncements from the Vice Chancellors. This could be the reason why an absolute majority (38 out of 48 i.e. 79.17%) of them indicated: "Not applicable" on all the follow up questions to this issue. These follow-up questions determined how often the training had been received, the last time they had received the training and the nature of the gender sensitization package received.

The majority (31 out 48, i.e. 64, 6%) indicated that fellow members of their selection committees had not received any gender training. This raises the concern about how members could act in a gender-sensitive way if they had not been re-oriented towards gender sensitivity. It should always be remembered that attitudes, beliefs and perceptions are learned associations in memory between an object and evaluation of that object (Ornstein & Hunkins 1993: 40-45). If the mind- set of the actors in student admissions had not been drawn towards a positive evaluation of the gender programs, this could possibly affect their attitudes, beliefs and perceptions of the gender programs and ultimately their behaviours in student selection. This was likely to be so because attitudes influence perceptions and perceptions determine behaviours (Ornstein & Hunkins: 1993: 41). Thus, this could be a clue to some of the behaviours, beliefs, attitudes, perceptions and feelings of the departmental chairpersons.

5.4.2.6 Disaggregated data

The majority (16 out of the 30 i.e. 53.3%) of the participants at BU did not supply sex disaggregated data leaving the question blank (8 of them) or writing that they did not have the data readily available (3 of them) and some (5) referring the researcher to offices of admissions. At SU, 13 out the 18 (72.2%) supplied the sex disaggregated data. The pattern of the sex disaggregated data showed more males than females on the average, save results from Early Childhood Education. This could suggest that the enrolment at the institution was skewed towards the males. The fact that most chairpersons at BU did not have statistics readily available was also worrying. This was unexpected as these people worked on student selection and could be expected to keep records of their practices. In relation to this study, they are “linking pins” in student admissions (Likert & Likert 1976:36; Likert 1981:675 & 677; Reilly 1978: 13,14 & 17; Ornstein & Hunkins 1993: 312). The same result was confirmed by the interviews, where most chairpersons could tell the overall enrolment but for disaggregated statistics referred the researcher to offices of admission. The implication was that student enrolment was done for students as ‘people’ and not as ‘males and females’, possibly indicating gender peripheral thinking on the part of the chairpersons. The other implication was that chairpersons did not, therefore, seem to monitor or evaluate their practices by sex, possibly implying that they could not track the impacts of their selection practices on male and female students. This lack of sex disaggregated data was also a feature of the BU institutional gender policy.

5.4.2.7 Achievements of selection practices

The modal achievement of the selection practices, indicated at BU was that of increasing female enrolments. This achievement was cited by 19 out of the 30 (63.9%) respondents. At SU the modal achievement cited was that the institution, through its selection practices got the calibre of student that they wanted. This response came from 11 of the 18 (61.1%) respondents. This could be because BU implemented affirmative action in favour of females and SU, although indicating lowering of points mainly adhered to selection through merit. This deduction was affirmed by a reading of the modal responses of what aspects of their selection practices the participants wanted maintained or changed. The implication of the modal response from BU, reaffirmed the main objective of the institutional practice of gender policy programs, as given in their gender policy, where it was clear that all the efforts of the gender policy programs were meant to achieve a critical mass of women and would achieve this through a strict ‘ring fencing’ for them.

5.4.2.8 Challenges faced

The respondents put forward a number of challenges that they faced through implementation of the gender programs. These were categorised in five groups. Figure 5.2 gives a comparative view of their responses per institution.

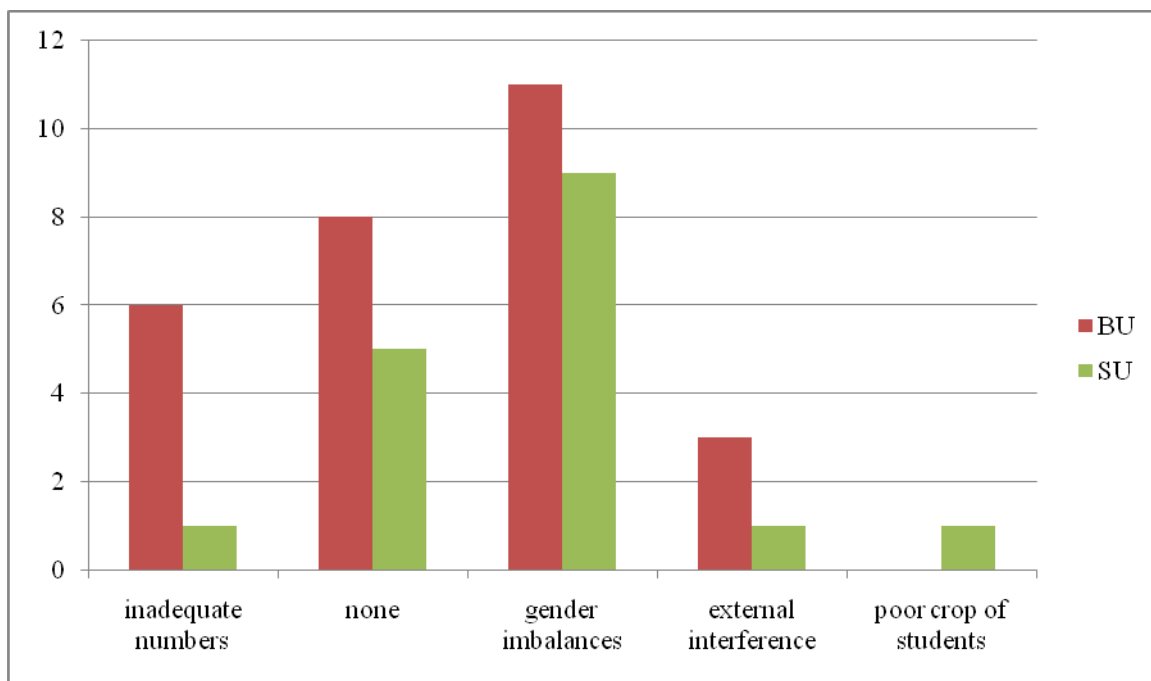


Figure 5.2 Challenges faced in implementing gender programs

From the results the modal challenge indicated was that of persistent gender disparities. It would appear that in spite of the implementation of the gender policy programs, gender disparities at departmental levels persist. This was further confirmed by the statistics obtained from offices of the admissions analysed by department and by mode of entry.

In the related questions that followed, the majority of the participants indicated that they were not hindered in their selection practices by the challenges that they faced. This was confirmed by 27 of the 48 chairpersons (56.25%). More at SU (12 out of 18) than at BU (15 out of 30) had this feeling. It would then appear that gender disparities were not issues that worried them in practice, reaffirming the researcher's earlier thinking that the institutions plan for students and not male and female students.

In another related follow up question: *What steps are you taking to combat the challenges?* the majority indicated: "None or not applicable." This was the feeling of 24 out of the 48 respondents.

However, a few, actually 10 out of 48 (20,8%) cited affirmative action and 8 out of 48 (16,6%) indicated outreach programs.

Following further with another question: *How do you think the achievements and challenges have helped you expand and improve your admission practices?* there was a bimodal of responses at BU with equal numbers for 'Not applicable' (indicating that they did not think that the achievements and challenges could help them expand and improve their admission practices) and putting more effort towards gender parity endeavours. The majority at SU indicated that the challenges prompted them to put more effort in striving for gender parity. This was the feeling of 11 out of 18 (61.1%). Combining responses from the two groups, the majority's responses suggested that the respondents were challenged to put more effort into striving for gender equality. A scrutiny of their responses in the in-depth interviews revealed this.

5.4.2.9 Recruitment and retention of students

The majority of the participants indicated that they did not face any problems in recruiting either male (45 out of 48 i.e. 93.75%) or female (39 out of 48 i.e. 81.25%) students into their departments. However, a closer scrutiny of these responses by faculty revealed interesting findings. Of the three who faced problems recruiting male students, two were from the Faculty of Education (from Departments of Early Childhood Education and Fashion and Textiles). One was from Natural Sciences from the Department of Food Science and Nutrition. Of the nine who indicated that they faced problems recruiting females, two were from Natural Resources and seven were from Natural Sciences. Though a minority, this close scrutiny showed that it was actually the majority in the faculty of Natural Sciences (actually 7 out of 8 i.e. 87.5%) and 100% in Natural Resources. Thus, getting males and females into these departments remained a great challenge for the institutions. Responding to a follow up question: *If yes, what is the nature of the problems?* reasons given mostly centred on either boys' or girls' lack of interest and competence in the subject. These reasons were the same as those that emerged during in-depth interviews. However, the gender dimensions of these reasons revealed a great lack of substantial engagement in gender issues. The researcher, using theoretical logic from the literature studied, was of the view that it was not a matter of lack of interest or competence. The real matter was the reason for the lack of interest or competence. If this deeper gender analysis is not employed, the roots of gender inequalities will remain intact creating inequalities intake after intake and gender issues will remain at a superficial level. Once in the system, 32 out of the 48 participants

(66.7%) indicated that they faced no problems in retaining either sex. This was consistent with interview results. The few who said they faced problems cited the issue of male students being expelled or suspended due to hooliganism or drop out for other reasons. The cited reason for females was that they dropped out for other reasons or were held back by pregnancy.

5.4.2.10 Monitoring, evaluation and reviewing

The majority of the respondents at BU indicated that they did not monitor, evaluate or review their selection practices. This was the response from 17 out of the 30 respondents (56.6%). At SU the majority indicated that they carried out monitoring, evaluations and reviews of their gender practices. This was a response from 15 out of the 18 respondents (83.3%). At SU the participants indicated that they did so through discussions during departmental boards and carried out such activities after every intake. Responses pointed to the majority of the evaluators and reviewers having not received any gender training. This was in agreement with their earlier responses on a similar question that asked them whether they had undergone any gender training.

However, for both institutions, the majority of the responses pointed to virtually no indicators for monitoring and evaluation. This was a response from 29 out of the 48 participants (60.4%). However, 19 out of 48 (39, 6%) pointed to numbers as indicators of success of the selection practices. Thus, a close scrutiny of the responses pointed to a situation where there were no formal evaluations because if done effectively, then the majority would have highlighted the indicators used to show successful implementation. Mere looking at enrolment figures can surely not be termed effective evaluation. These results suggested that there was an absence of meaningful evaluations and reviews of selection practices at both institutions. In-depth interviews confirmed this (5.5.1.2 last paragraph & 5.5.13). The focus on only numbers concurred with their policies and reconfirmed their limited view of gender and gender equality which was brought during in-depth interviews (cf. 5.5.1.3).

Modal responses indicated that the situation at BU regarding students' admission into specific departments was satisfactory. This was the feeling of 28 out of the 30 (actually 13 of these 28 rated them very satisfactory). The same feelings prevailed with SU, where all rated their practices satisfactory or very satisfactory. In all, 46 out of the 48 respondents (95.83%) found their practices satisfactory or better. On the follow up question that required support for their responses, only 40 out of 48 responded to this question. Of those who responded, 29 (72.5%) concurred that they used the strict point system, which they consider fair. However, a sizeable number (11 out of 40 or 27, 5%)

indicated that they employed affirmative action. The responses indicate that some departments did not implement any of the three identified programs. This affirmed the responses shown in Figure 5.1 of this chapter on programs implemented (cf. 5.4.2.3). This could also imply that there was no strict enforcement of the implementation of the policy programs.

5.4.2.11 Perceptions on gender sensitivity of selection practices

The majority of the respondents felt that their selection criteria were very empowering, very respectful, very confidence building, very progressive and very friendly to both male and female students. This was the response from 38 out of the 48 (79.17%) respondents. The modal reason cited for each of these cases was that their practices were equally fair to male and female students whom they considered on equal merit (point system) during recruitment. This was the response from 38 out of the 48 respondents. This suggests that most respondents felt that the strict point system, where males and females are considered on equal merit, was the fairest possible. The reason proffered could again be indicative of a lack of substantial gender analysis by participants who seemed to subscribe to the formal equality model, where the guiding principle is equal treatment of males and females. Such thinking may reflect the view that equal opportunities entail same outcomes. However, studies in gender (Stevens & van Lamoen 2001: 25; Walby 2005:8) have revealed that open (equal) access does not ensure equal opportunities. Again a closer scrutiny of the reason may point to the previously cited possibility that most departments selected according to the strict point system, implying a lack of or a relaxed implementation of the programs. This point was further implied by the participants' responses to the question: *To what extent do you find your selection practices making effort to provide equal attention to male and female students on a given scale of 'No extent, small extent, some reasonable extent and great extent?' Figure 5.3, a composite histogram, summarises the participants' responses.*

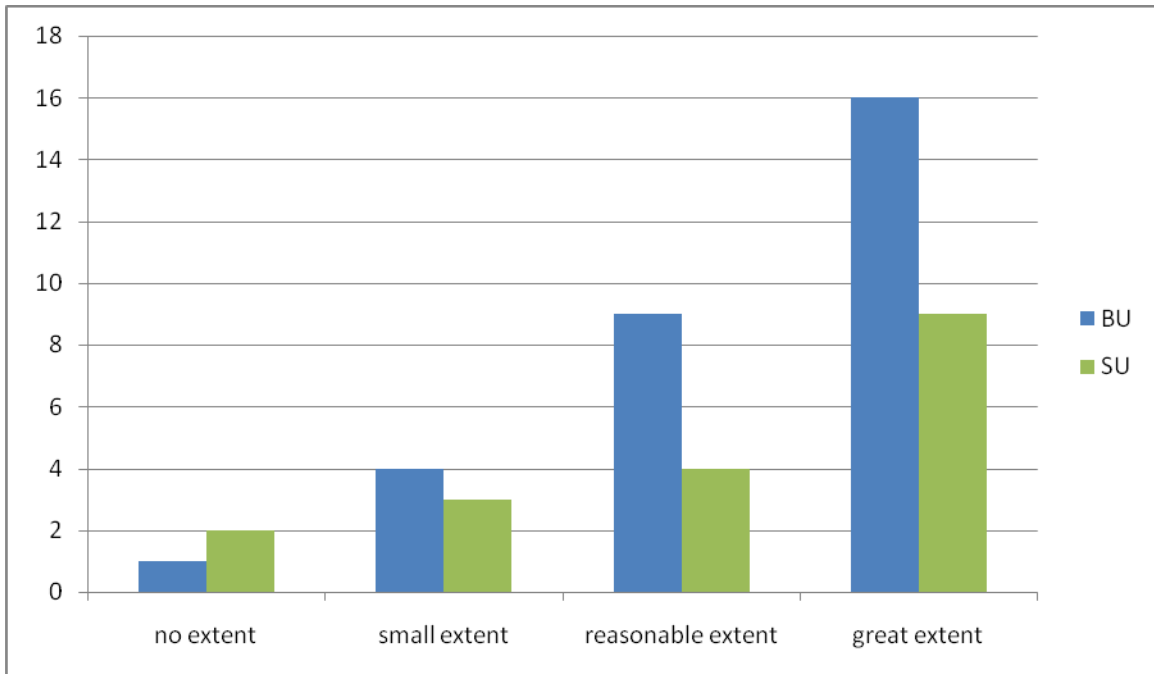


Figure 5.3 Extent of selection practices in making effort to provide equal attention to male and female students

The results indicate that most respondents (38 out of the 48 respondents or 79.17%) felt that selection practices endeavoured to provide equal attention to male and female students to a great extent. They supported their views by saying: “The strict point system pays equal attention to both sexes, no need for affirmative action”. Only 8 out of the 48 respondents (16, 6%) indicated that they applied affirmative action in favour of females. This revelation suggests that the rhetoric about gender equality by senior administrators is in fact a fallacy.

5.4.2.12 Critiquing of the Existing Practices and Proffering of Improvements

Questions dealing with this aspect were framed by the epistemological assumption that ‘knowledge is out there with the respondents’; hence the questions gave the respondents a chance to critique existing practices and put forward suggestions for improvements. The first question in this area was: *What aspects of your departmental student selection practices do you think should be maintained?* Table 5.6 summarises the responses.

Table 5.6 Aspects of the selection practices to be maintained

Aspect	Frequency BU	Frequency SU	Total	% (total/Nx100)
Strict point system	19	12	31	64.5%
Employment of gender programs	7	3	10	20.83%
Transparency through use of selection committee	3	3	6	12.5%
Maintain everything	1	0	1	2.08%
			48 (N=48)	100%

Results show that the majority used the point system in selection and they wanted this to be maintained. It was not clear whether use of the point system was a deviation from policy or not. However, deputy registrars seemed to indicate a situation where it was university practice to employ gender programs because it was a fair practice. This finding tallies closely with the interview results. It would appear that the implementation of gender policy programs was only on paper and in verbal declarations, but was not so evident in practice.

The question that further followed was: *What would you like to see changed as regards your selection criteria?* Only 44 out of the 48 respondents answered this question. Table 5.7 summarises the participants' responses.

Table 5.7 Aspects of the selection practices to be changed

Aspect	Frequency BU	Frequency SU	Total	% (total/Nx100)
Strict point system	3	4	7	15.9%
Happy with point system. No need to change	23	10	33	75%
Composition of selection team	1	1	2	4.54%
Relax entry requirements	2	0	2	4.54%

	29	15	N=44	100
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It appears that most chairpersons wanted students to be selected strictly on basis of merit. Conversely, most chairpersons were against the idea of employing gender programs that tried to advantage a disadvantaged sex group. This meant that the majority of those who employed these programs did so against their better judgement. This concurred with the interviews (cf.5.5.1.4).

The last question in this series was: *How do you think your selection practices can be improved?* Respondents proffered a wide range of improvements. Table 5.8 summarises their responses: 45 out of 48 responded to this question.

Table 5.8 Improvements proffered

Improvements proffered	Frequency BU	Frequency SU	Total (T)	%(T/Nx100)
Need to carry out reviews	7	2	9	20%
Gender sensitization of the selection team	7	5	12	26.7%
No need to change point system	8	6	14	31.1%
Written down policy needed	6	3	9	20%
Increase transparency	0	1	1	2.22%
	28	17	45 (N=45)	100%

The modal response was: ‘No need to change point system, they are okay as they are; the question doesn’t apply.’ It would appear that the respondents were happy with selection according to merit; conversely implying that they were unsupportive of employment of gender programs. However, a sizeable number advanced reasons that were indicative of wanting to uphold employment of gender policy programs.

5.4.3 Relationship and associations between variables – chi square test results

The chi square test was carried out between 21 variables [c.f. 4.4.2.2.e)] to determine whether there was any relationship or association among respondents’ perceptions, attitudes and beliefs and also to establish more insight into the respondents’ practices and procedures in student selection. The computer generated computations and results of the performed chi-square test are contained in Appendices J1a) and J1b) for BU and J2a) and J2b) for SU. Appendices J1a) and J2a) contain the degrees of freedom, computer generated chi square (χ^2) values, and p values (a p-value allows the researcher to be confident in making the right decision after conducting the test. It is a probability value obtained on the calculated chi square value) for the two sites, while J1b) and J2b) contain a summary of the chi square (χ^2) test analysis of associations between the variables. Appendices J1b and J2b directly drew from J1a and J2a respectively and were created to make the data in J1a and J2a clearer to the reader. Here, only explanations and deductions from the associations or lack thereof were made. Some conclusions that extended beyond the immediate data were also made. This is in line, especially with gender critical theory, which calls upon the use of theoretical logic (cf. chapter 4) to make deductions as well as the chosen MMA where statistics should be used to add precision to the

words; and the words at the same time are, in turn, made to give meaning to the yielded statistics (Johnson 2004: 21; Moon & Moon 2004: 2-3). Thus, in this study, the idea was to situate the chi-square test results within their contextual detail and make conclusions that extended beyond the immediate data alone.

The decision whether to accept or reject existence of an association between the 21 pairwise variables was based on two general decision rules: a) that when the calculated χ^2 value is smaller than the critical χ^2 value, the null hypothesis (H₀) is accepted, indicating a lack of a significant statistical relationship between the variables and b) that when the computed p value is greater than 0.05 (all tests were performed at 0.05 level of significance), the null hypothesis (H₀) was accepted again indicating a lack of association between the variables. In each of the 21 cases tested a) and b) produced the same result/decision. Appendices J1b) and J2b) show a summary of the 21 pairwise variables and the decisions taken based on both rule a) and rule b).

The chi square test results for both BU and SU indicated that the respondents' ratings of their selection practices towards the female students had no statistically significant relationship with the reasons they had suggested for improvement of selection practices (cf. Appendices J1b and J2b categorical data 1-5 inclusively). These results implied that the respondents' opinions regarding the degree that they found the selection practices of their departments empowering, respectful, confidence building, progressive and friendly towards female students, did not have an association with their suggestions for improvement of selection practices in their departments. Regarding SU, on all these 5 aspects (empowering, respectful, confidence building, progressiveness and friendliness), the calculated χ^2 value was smaller than the critical χ^2 value confirming the null hypothesis (H₀), indicating a lack of a significant statistical relationship between the variables. With each of these five relationships, $p > 0.05$. Concerning BU, the same scenario, where, the calculated chi square value was smaller than the critical chi square, prevailed on 4 out of the 5 aspects and also the p value was greater than 0.05. On these 4 out of 5 cases, the null hypothesis was therefore accepted. It was only on the aspect of level of respectfulness of the selection practices towards female students where the calculated chi square value of 21.491 was greater than the critical χ^2 value of 21.0 and $p (0.044) < 0.05$ (cf. Appendix J1b categorical data 2). With this set of variables, the null hypothesis was rejected. This indicated existence of a relationship between this variable and the sort of suggested improvements put forward. The existence of the relationship was not surprising. Regarding ratings on the extent to which the respondents found their selection practices respectful towards female students, 72.9% BU respondents

found their practices respectful or very respectful of the female students (cf Appendix K, c48) and the modal suggestion for improvement put forward was: “It is alright as it is, no need for improvement” (cf. Appendix K c63). Having found the selection practices very respectful, it goes without saying that this could be why the respondents were unable to imagine an alternative to the *status quo*.

With regard to the respondents' ratings of their selection practices as empowering, respectful, confidence building, progressive and friendly towards male students, for both institutions, the results showed no statistically significant association between the respondents' views on these issues and the sort of suggestions for improvements put forward. On these aspects, Appendices J1b and J2b categorical data 7-11 inclusively refers. For BU, the chi square test results showed a total lack of an association between the variables since in all cases, the calculated χ^2 value was smaller than the critical χ^2 value, and in each of the pairwise associations 7-11 of BU, $p > 0.05$, hence the null hypothesis (H_0) was accepted. Concerning SU, the calculated chi square value was higher than the critical chi square value on two aspects: male student empowering (cf. Appendix J2b categorical data 7) and progressiveness towards male students (cf. Appendix J2b categorical data 10). For 'the level of empowering' aspect the calculated chi square value was 22,20 and the critical value 21,0 and $p(0.035) < 0.05$. For 'the level of progressiveness' the calculated value was 22.398 and the critical chi square value was 21.0 and for the same association $p(0.033) < 0.05$, hence the rejection of the null hypothesis, indicating existence of a statistically significant relationship between these aspects as discrete variables on the one hand and the sort of suggested improvements put forward on the other hand. Thus, there was an association between the chairpersons' views on the degree/extent of their selection practices towards empowering and progressiveness of male students and the suggestions for improvement that they proffered. This discrepancy with the other university on this and other variables could largely be attributed to the large differences in sample sizes. However, it could also be that the SU chairpersons, having found the institution's selection practices very positive on male students' empowering (cf Appendix K, c53) and progressive (cf Appendix K c56), the respondents felt that they could not think of anything better in terms of improvement (cf Appendix K, c63) . Another deduction led to a rejection of this thinking. The rejection was based on the fact that, even on variables where no relationships were established, the same reasons were proffered by the two institutions so the smallness of the sample size seemed to be a more logical explanation.

Relationships were also established between the various reasons given in support of the ratings as a variable on the one hand and the sort of suggestions for improvements proffered on the other hand

(cf. Categorical data 6 and 12 of Appendices J1b and J2b). In either case, for both BU and SU the calculated χ^2 was less than the critical χ^2 and also $p > 0.05$ in either case for both BU and SU. Going by the general decision rules, the null hypothesis (H_0) was accepted, indicating that there was no association between the variables presented.

Relationships were again established between the various issues concerned with departmental monitoring and reviewing of selection practices and procedures on the one hand and the sort of suggestions for improvements proffered on the other (cf Appendices J1b and J2b categorical data 13-17 inclusively). The monitoring and reviewing issues concerned:

- a) Whether there was a system in place for monitoring and reviewing? (No.13)
- b) If present, an outline of how it was done? (No. 14)
- c) By whom? i.e. who does the monitoring/reviewing?(No.15)
- d) After how long? i.e. intervals of monitoring/reviewing periods? (No.16)
- e) Whether the monitors/reviewers had received any training? (No.17)

The chi square test results for BU revealed a lack of relationship between all the issues of the departmental monitoring and reviewing of selection practices and the sort of improvements suggested, save for only one aspect: By whom? It was only on this aspect that the calculated χ^2 value (29, 792) was greater than the critical χ^2 value of 26.3 and $p (0.019) < 0.05$ (cf categorical data 15 of Appendix J2a) This indicated a statistically significant association between the person(s) who monitored and reviewed the selection practices and the sort of improvements suggested. This association for this institution was not surprising. The modal responses on the issues of monitoring and reviewing of selection practices showed that there was no system in place, so there was no outlining of how it is done. "No and not applicable" was the response to the 'By whom?' This 'No and not applicable' response was associated with the improvements suggested, (cf Appendix K c30-c34 inclusively). The modal response for the suggested improvements was: "No need to change, the existing practices are okay as they are." (cf. Appendix K, c63).

On the same variables, concerning SU, the chi square results revealed a relationship between all the issues on monitoring and reviewing procedures except for one (cf Appendix J2b categorical data 13-17). The exceptional one variable was: the duration/ interval of carrying out monitoring, reviewing (cf J2b categorical data 16). Here, the calculated χ^2 value (24.429) was less than the critical χ^2 value of 26.3 and $p(0.081) > 0.05$, hence the acceptance of the null hypothesis on the variable's association with

the sort of improvements suggested. Existence of these relationships was not surprising for this particular institution, because, unlike BU where the respondents said there is no system in place, with SU the modal response showed a system in place carried out by the departmental boards after every intake, (cf Appendix K c30-c34). That a relationship existed was therefore expected. What might have been problematic was the relationship itself. Surely if a system for monitoring and reviewing is in place, it is expected that the reviews may have brought about new insights. However, this association was understood after considering that the reviewers did not receive any gender training (cf Appendix K, c34) so the reviews were not likely to change the *status quo* gender-wise. The value of the association was negligible because the sorts of reasons proffered for change were the same where there was no association. Implications were that a substantial engagement in gender may be necessary for bringing in new insights.

Concerning an association between monitoring and reviewing in the absence of a defined set procedures and suggestions for improvements put forward (cf Appendices J1b and J2b categorical data 18), BU registered a lack of relationship. For this site, on this association, the calculated chi square value (9.227) was smaller than the critical chi square value of 21.0 and $p(0.683) > 0.05$, indicating a lack of relationship between the two variables. This finding was expected because the institution outrightly admitted that it had no monitoring and reviewing systems in place (cf. Appendix K, c30). SU results revealed a calculated chi square value of 20.077 and a critical value of 15.5 and $p(0.010) < 0.05$, indicating existence of a relationship between situations where practices were kept on track in the absence of a policy and the suggested improvements. A scrutiny of the factors showed that monitoring and reviewing in the absence of a defined system is, in fact, ineffective monitoring (cf 5.5.4). That was possibly the reason for the modal response to the question: *If no system is in place, how do you ensure that your practices are on track?* which was: "Not applicable", for SU (cf Appendix K, c35). Thus the association confirmed that for this institution, no defined procedures existed to guide monitoring and reviewing. This was later confirmed by the interview results. (cf 5.5.4)

Another set of variables tested for their association or lack thereof were the admission criteria of male and female students into departments on the one hand and the aspect of the selection practices that the participants wanted maintained on the other. With BU the chi-square test results implied a lack of a statistically significant relationship between ways in which the chairpersons determined the numbers of male and female students admitted into their departments and the aspects of their selection practices that they wanted maintained. The calculated chi square value was 15.237 and the

critical value was 25.0 and $p(0.434) > 0.05$ confirming the null hypothesis (H₀) (cf. Appendix J1b categorical data 19). The result was surprising, because one would have expected the contrary. The modal response on how determination of male and female students into departments was done was: “No criteria, it’s by point system” (cf. Appendix K, c14). The modal response on aspects that needed maintaining was: “Point system, no need for affirmative system’ (cf. Appendix K c61). Surely there is a relationship here. The plausible implication was that most chairpersons (23 out of 30 or 76.7% at BU) did not select according to a strict point system. Thus, although seemingly disliking affirmative action, they still employed it. This was confirmed by the in-depth interviews (cf. 5.5.1.1). Even Table 5.5 and Figure 5.1 confirm this percentage of employment of affirmative action. With regard to the same variables, SU established a statistically significant association between ways in which the department determined the numbers of male and female students enrolled into the department and the selection practices to be maintained. The calculated χ^2 value was 11.25 and its critical counterpart value was 9.50 and $p(0.024) < 0.05$, thus rejecting the null hypothesis. The modal responses (cf Appendix K c14 and c61) favoured the point system. So the relationship was supported.

BU and SU chi-square results did not reveal any statistically significant relationships between the gender sensitivity of the respondents and the suggestions they proffered for improvement of the selection practices (cf. J2b and J1b categorical data 20). In either case, the calculated chi square values were less than the critical χ^2 indicating a lack of association between the variables. BU calculated chi square value was 2.937 and the critical value was 9.50 and $p(0.568) > 0.05$. SU calculated chi square value was 5.464 and the critical value was 9.50 and $p(0.243) > 0.05$. Since in each case the calculated value was smaller than the critical value and $p > 0.05$, the null hypothesis was accepted, confirming a lack of a statistically significant relationship between the tested variables. Again this lack of association seemed to suggest that for both institutions, the participants did not receive any gender awareness training (cf. Appendix K, c34 & c40). This confirmed the suspicion that what BU called gender training, (cf. Appendix K, c9) was, in fact, not gender training. This suspicion was strongly confirmed by follow ups during in-depth interviews (cf. 5.5.3).

The chi square test results for both institutions revealed that no relationship existed between all issues asked on evaluation and assessment of departmental selection practices and the sort of improvements proffered (cf Appendices J1b and J2b, categorical data 21). For BU, the calculated χ^2 value was 3.781 and the critical χ^2 value was 9.50 and $p(0.436) > 0.05$. For SU the calculated χ^2 value

was 7.048 and the critical χ^2 value was 15.5 and $p(0.531) > 0.05$, in each case confirming a lack of association between the variables. The issues tested by the chi square tests were:

- a) Whether the evaluations were carried out or not
- b) If yes, how often they were done?
- c) How they were done?
- d) Who carried them out?
- e) Gender training of the evaluators

Again, concerning the two institutions, although one would expect a relationship, the lack of relationship was normal because no evaluation of the selection practices was done. This was confirmed by in-depths interviews (cf. 5.5.4). The modal response for items b) to e) (cf Appendix K, c37-c40) was "Not applicable." In a) the modal response was "No" for BU (cf. Appendix K, c36) and yes for SU, but 'yes' or 'no' the answers to what followed was the same, rendering a no effect to the 'yes' or 'no'.

Implications of the Chi Square Relationship

Thus, very few statistically significant relationships existed between the variables. BU had only 2 out of the 21 (9.5%) and SU had 7 out of 21 (33.3%) variables registering statistically significant relationships. Though the percentage for SU is bigger, a scrutiny of the associations, in the long run, proved to be as good as no associations. This could also be the reason why of the 63 variables (cf. Appendix H), the two sites had the same modal responses on almost 50 (79.4%) of these (cf. Appendix K). Thus, the sites, BU and SU, seemed not to exercise a significant influence on the implementation of gender policy programs in student admissions. Thus, contrary to Lawal's (2008: 340) finding that awareness and perceptions of study samples may be influenced by location, this study found perceptions and attitudes of the sample on selection practices and procedures was not influenced by location.

The existence of very few profound statistically significant relationships between the listed variables may be due to a general lack of a broad view of gender issues (cf. 5.5.3 & 5.5.4) emanating from a lack of substantial engagement in gender (cf. Appendix K, c13, c34 & c40, and 5.5.3). Murison (2004: 2-10), Walby (2005: 4-14) and Wendoh and Wallace (2005: 70-79), talking from their experiences of gender mainstreaming, warn that unless there is substantial engagement in gender awareness, people work from their intuition and this may make participants have vague impressions and perceptions

about gender equality. The result may be that gender programs may not be genuinely translated into reality. In fact, interviews revealed this fact (c.f.5.5.1.3; 5.5.1.4 & 5.5.2.2).

5.5 INTERVIEW RESULTS

In this section, descriptions of the participants' beliefs, attitudes and motivations are supported by evidence mostly in form of quotations from the interview transcripts. This is in line with Ely, Vinz, Downing & Anzul's (1997: 63-72) encouragement, that, by all means qualitative data "should live by words" and so encourage employment of interview excerpts as narratives that carry with them an interpretation of the respondents' experiences, perceptions, views, attitudes and beliefs.

5.5.1 The reality of Gender Policy Programs in student admissions

5.5.1.1 The implemented programs

The study revealed that actors in student admissions were attempting to implement the demands of the ZNGP by way of policies and programs as stipulated by the ZNGP. The BU had a written policy on gender and the SU had verbally understood pronouncements by the Vice Chancellor that acted as policy. Neither institution had a stand-alone policy on student selection. The study established that gender policy programs implemented in student admissions were of three types: lowering of entry points, the bridging program and quota reservations. The study established that both institutions implemented lowering of entry points for the disadvantaged sex group. The degree of lowering did not vary much with the institution as it did with the different departments. The lowest gap established was three points and the highest was nine. Lower gaps were common in Faculties of Social Sciences and Commerce, while higher gaps were established in Faculties of Natural Sciences and Natural Resources. Implementation of this program was in tandem with the literature study. Bunyi (2003:4), calling the same 'awarding bonus points', reports that it is a common practice in most African universities. In the departments where this practice was implemented, the study revealed that it was done to advantage only the female sex group. The practice never advantaged the male students even in departments where the males formed the minority, like in the Department of Food Science and Nutrition at BU and Early Childhood Education at SU.

The study also established that the practice, though favoured by the deputy registrars, was resisted by most chairpersons and the deans of academic faculties. The following extract reveals some of their sentiments.

We do it because we are told to do it. Who am I to say no to the policy makers at this university. It's painful to turn away someone with 8 points and take a female with 4 points. It doesn't augur well. We are replacing old wrongs with new wrongs and I am female too but it's as if we are encouraging the female students to identify themselves as disadvantaged (chairperson 1).

Indeed the perception of unjustly advantaging the females is reflective of the thinking of many resisters of this practice. The deputy registrars and the senior assistant registrars of both institutions were in full support of the practice and said, where possible, the points could be lowered to the minimum required. They were not as worried about the gap as they were worried about increasing female representations. One said:

"Madam researcher, if we don't do this I tell you the university will be full of males and in some departments we may end up with not a single female student. Where is the problem? They qualify" (deputy registrar 1).

Thus, a divide existed between the actors in student admissions with respect to their support of the implemented program.

The other gender program implemented was the bridging program. The bridging program was implemented at BU and was under consideration for implementation by some departments at SU. At BU, it was established that, although the institutional gender policy specified that the practice was only for increasing female student representation in the Faculty of Natural Sciences, the practice was normal in other departments especially the Faculty of Commerce and Natural Resources. The bridging period at this university was one semester. In agreement with the literature studied, the program was implemented to bridge the articulation gap between university and high school education for those students who met the mean grade criterion for admission into university but did not meet the faculty requirement for degrees in any of the faculty departments. This concurred with what Bunyi (2003: 3-4) found in universities in Eritrea and in other African countries and what Masanja (2001: 4) found in Tanzania's University of Dar es Salam.

Sentiments from the participants showed that, while considered a viable and legitimate route through which students enter a university program without which it was never going to be possible, the high fees charged perpetuate socio-economic inequalities. In Zimbabwe, as in most African countries, because of the patriarchal nature of the society and the general impoverishment, the socio-

economic inequalities bear a feminine face. In situations of poverty, where a choice might have to be made concerning which child should continue with education, the girl child loses out more readily than the male child. This fact was endorsed through other research on girls' involvement in education in Africa (Indabawa 2004:4). However, none of the actors seemed worried about its academic validity and its employment in student admissions. However, a few cautioned that, if not handled carefully, it was going to end up as money-making game for the institution. These participants refused, however, to shed more light on this.

The other gender program that the study established was the quota system. This was implemented in very few departments at SU (or not at all as further questioning seemed to suggest) and in quite a number of departments at BU. Invariably, in almost all the departments that practised it, quotas were set aside to increase female participation rates in departments that were traditionally male dominated and not vice versa. Probed on how they viewed the gender sensitivity of the program, most interviewees found the practice crude and increasing what was called, "*unnecessary unfairness in the selection process. You see, madam, it's more or less saying lower points for females because to fill the female quota you have to go down to unrealistic points compared to the male quota. Sometimes to 2 points and what is that?*" (chairperson 2). It was mainly chairpersons who resisted the program.

5.5.1.2 Gender Equality Model pursued

In implementing the programs, the study established that the institutions pursued the "tailoring model of gender equality" (tailoring the programs to fit the needs of the deprived sex group) (Walby 2005: 7-8; cf. chapter 3). The underprivileged sex group, according to the actors in student admissions, were female students; hence all the programs were efforts to accommodate female students in the university degree programs. This 'ring-fencing' for female students was the central feature traceable from the policies (written or verbal) to implementation. In their pursuit of this model of gender equality, the thinking of most actors (chairpersons especially) was that the word *gender* was synonymous with women and *gender inequalities* was synonymous with the disadvantages that female students faced and the actions to bring in more female students into academic departments. This was revealed in the actors' conceptions of gender and gender inequality. The following extracts illustrate the ways in which gender and gender equality were conceived: "*Eh-eh-eh, we look at gender, gender actually gender equality, is synonymous with promotion of women or advantaging women. The idea is men are already up there*" (chairperson 3)

"I have heard workshops on gender here on campus. These were workshops that only wanted ladies... they call the ladies. I haven't seen any man go there. So gender is woman! Woman! Woman! (sinister laugh, slightly shaking head). We are in trouble with gender I tell you. Even in politics, there I hear they are saying Woman! Woman! I think it's the women era." (chairperson 4 responding to a question on whether he had received any gender awareness training).

These responses were reflective of the views of many in student admissions. A reading of some of them did not only reveal the misconception of gender and gender equality, but a negative view of both, if not, hostility to the whole issue. Sentiments and comments like: "*We are in trouble with gender I tell you...Let's see.*" (chairperson 4) show insidious hostility to the issue of gender and an inbuilt patriarchal conservatism. The participant saw all issues of gender and what they stood for as causing trouble and given a chance such actors would rather support the *status quo* than embrace a shift to the gender agenda. The '*Let's see*' expressed doubting whether the idea of a gender change would ever work. Such a stance dilutes the focus of the gender agenda.

Pursuing this model, the study established the model's strength and success in its ability to increase female student enrolment in the university. The calculated growth rates of women at SU are 2006 - 4%; 2007 - 17%; 2008 - 25%; 2009 - 12% and 2010 - 33%. 2008 was a very difficult year, hit by political upheavals and hyperinflation. During that year most universities closed, lecturers left for greener pastures and some departments were forced to close due to shortage of teaching staff and unsustainable numbers in student enrolments where only sometimes two students would manage to pay the fees. The calculated growth rates of female students at BU are: 2006 - 13%; 2007 - 28%; 2008 - 13% ; 2009 - 38% and 2010 - 41%. Undoubtedly, the institutions were registering high increases in female enrolments.

However, besides achieving this huge quantitative growth in female student enrolments, the adopted model of equality blinkers the actors from attending to other qualitative gender dimensions of the mainstream as their focus remained glued to numbers as an end in itself. According to Unterhalter (2004a: 1-2) and Stratigaki (2005: 7), there is nothing wrong with equalizing the participation rates of male and female students in the system, but the authors quickly caution that it would be wrong if other aspects of the gender equality gap are not considered. The authors note that it is not only the numbers that should change. The next section draws attention to what should be changed.

5.5.1.3 What should be changed in student admissions?

A comprehensive way of answering this question comes from a correct and wider conception of the word 'gender' as it is used in the development circles. The term was adopted in 1980 at the Second World Conference on Women (cf. chapter 2). It was adopted to refer to the structural relationships between men and women (Unterhalter 2004a: 1); hence the wider conception of gender being referred to as the structuralist approach. Drawing on the structuralist approach, gender is more than a numbers issue. It is a social construct with inequalities shaped by social relations. So what should change if gender equality is to be attained is not numbers only, but numbers as a means to a bigger purpose. Unterhalter (2004a: 1-2) argues that a change in numbers is " a *prima facie change*" which, on its own, even if achieved, will never achieve gender *equality de facto* (Lombardo 2003: 7 -17). It targets quantitative aspects only, yet it is the qualitative more than the quantitative which forms mainstream gender equality. In fact, in most cases as in this one, quantitative gender inequalities depict the superstructure of the qualitative gender inequalities. Qualitative gender inequalities as gender dynamics are often subtle, less easy to measure but fairly easy to detect. Transforming the gender mainstream of student admissions, entails giving critical transformative attention to both the quantitative and qualitative aspects of the mainstream. Transforming the qualitative mainstream involves ridding it of the gender stereotypes, biases, discrimination and patriarchal gender conservatism. These form the base of the inequalities and unless they are challenged, the core source of gender anomalies remains intact, churning out inequalities intake after intake making the gender equality mandate fleeting (Chirimuuta 2006: 5). In this study efforts by the two institutions did not apportion significant value to the qualitative dimensions of the gender gap. Both the actors in student admissions and the policy missed this point.

Gleaning insights from (Chirimuuta 2006) and other authors such as Jahan (1995: 13-15), Walby (2005: 4, 5, 7-8) and True (2001:1), this study found that the actors in student admissions lost focus of a holistic grasp of gender inequalities in student admissions. In fact their focus was misdirected. The perception at their centre was 'women' not 'gender equality'. They targeted gender parity and not gender equality and they also targeted female students and not the structural gender inequalities (beliefs, conceptions, value systems, thought processes, attitudes etc.) of the mainstream this gives rise to the inequitable social practices in student admissions. Gender equality and not women is the goal of any gender mainstreaming. The main change object of the policy programs should be "systems and structures themselves - those much institutionalized practices that cause both individual and group disadvantages in the first place" (Verloo 2001: 3).

By employing the tailoring model and ending there, the actors in student admissions endorsed a gender equality perspective contradictory to the principles of mainstreaming, as propounded by Lombardo (2003: 5-7); Jahan (1995; 13-15); Walby (2005: 4,5, 7-8) and True (2001:i). The authors caution that equality is not, and should not be, a feminist agenda, and as such programs and activities should be targeted at gender not feminism. Thus, pursuing the tailoring model as an end in itself obstructed real gender equality. This was also brought out in the responses related to the issue of what the participants wanted changed and what they wanted maintained in the selection process. Here a cross purpose of intent was established.

5.5.1.4 The cross purposes of intent

The responses related to what the actors in student admissions were satisfied with and so wanted maintained and what they disliked and so wanted changed revealed a mismatch, if not a cross purpose of intent, between the gender policy programs implemented and the aspirations of the actors in student admissions. This showed that what Schmuck and Miles (1977: 10-18) argue for, that is, 'change be believed in by the implementers' was not the situation. Of the total 57 in the study sample, forty (71%) of the participants, chairpersons especially, noted that what they wanted maintained was student selection according to a strict point system (i.e. selecting prospective students in line with their advanced level results). Forty-three out of fifty-seven (75%) said given a chance what they wanted to see changed and removed was the whole idea of affirmative action. The following interview extract is a pointer to their views:

The department is not worried about numbers of male and female students. We are for 'A' level results. It is the whole idea of being forced to practice affirmative action which wants to derail our focus. We are not happy about it and we want to make this point clear (chairperson 5).

The response reflected responses from most chairpersons. The response not only illustrated the wishes of the chairpersons, but also the cross purpose of intent between the actors and the gender policy programs implemented. The phrase "*want to derail our focus*" clearly brings this out. Clearly the hearts of the 71 -75% of the participants had not been won by the implemented programs. The merit of obtaining participants' commitment is in reducing the gender gap between the ideal implementation goal of gender equality and the given local context, what Ornstein and Hunkins (1993:310) call "mutual adaption".

Asked for their reasons for the strict point system, the participants referred to issues of merit and meritocracy as crucial issues for university education. They maintained their merit argument even after the researcher pointed to them that those entering through affirmative action, in the first place qualify because they hold the minimum advanced level passes. However, the researcher noted that after a further engagement of such participants in the gender equity debate, some participants ended up subscribing to the idea of affirmative action. In fact, a few of these participants ended up recommending gender education as a way of improving the selection practices. This suggested a lack of gender education as a reason for the participants' adamant views; hence their operating from sheer gender blindness.

In line with the established thinking of these actors, the type of gender equality model that they were aspiring for is the "sameness model" (Liebenberg 1999: 25-37) where gender equality is defined as the state or condition of being the same between male and female students in terms of admission into the university. Given a chance participants would go for a gender neutral treatment of male and female students in allocation of the available university places. In wanting identical treatment of male and female students, the actors showed that gender was not an attribute that they thought was significant in the distribution of available places in the university to prospective male and female students. Drawing from the seeming cross purpose of intent of the programs and the wishes of the majority of the actors in student admissions, the study established that while the actors were acting gender (through implementation of the different gender policy programs in student admissions), in actual fact they did not think gender. Consequently, the researcher asked the registrars' office how the gender policy programs came to be implemented in the university in general and in student admissions in particular. Responses from the two deputy registrars pointed to the idea that "*It is government expectation and we, as, state institutions are government departments*" (deputy registrar 1).

Further probing on whether gender workshops had been held to re-orient the university community to the new gender agenda, one deputy registrar said "*No*" (deputy registrar 2) and the other said "*Once in 2006, after the launch of the gender studies program at this institution*" (deputy registrar 1), but noted that only the deans and other high office administrators had received this training. It was thus concluded that approached like this, most actors in student admission lacked knowledge of gender and the purposes and goals of the gender policy programs. This finding on its own was in contrast with literature on requirements and principles of mainstreaming gender (Lombardo 2005: 1-

7; Liebenberg 1999: 25-37; Murison 2004: 2-10; Hannan 2008: 1-8). These authorities concur that in order for institutions to achieve the goal of gender equality, firstly they should have the correct and proper conception of the word gender and ultimately what gender equality entails. Where the programs are introduced without any re-orientation of the mainstream, it is most unlikely that a holistic approach to gender is understood by the whole mainstream actors in student admissions. This suggested that the implementation approach to the incorporation of gender programs in student admissions was the “inclusion approach” (Squires 1999: 115-130) also known as the “mere-add-on approach” (Verloo 2001: 3) where the policy programs were introduced without re-shaping of the existing social structures towards the new gender agenda.

From the interview with the deputy registrar of BU, it emerged that, though the BU gender policy was silent about who coordinated the gender activities at the institution, there was a committee, the ‘University Gender Committee’, whose mandate was to coordinate and guide gender happenings at the institution. An interview-cum-formal discussion was set up with the chairperson of this gender committee (26 May 2011). The discussion lasted about an hour and took place in the chairperson’s office. The main concerns of the researcher were to find out how the policy was formulated and cascaded down the university community. Deliberations were also made on some objectives and targets set in the gender policy, both expired deadlines and active deadlines. From these deliberations it emerged that the committee was indeed in existence and was formed certainly before end of 2006. The chairperson revealed that since its inception the committee had only held two sensitisation workshops, both in 2007, for senior and lower level administrators. These were only a day’s duration and attendance, especially of the lower level administrators, was not compulsory. The chairperson alluded to the issue of funding as the main challenge, since there was no budget for gender. Of interest to this study was the revelation that the gender committee had virtually no link with issues of selection of students and had no idea of how students were selected. This was a surprise to the researcher because the senior administrators were always pointing to the university gender policy.

5.5.1.5 The Mere-add-on Implementation Approach

Within this mere-add-on approach the technique used by the institutions was to ‘add women and stir’ (Squires 1999:115-130; Verloo 2001:3). The target was to bring in more female students into departments from which they were currently excluded, without a thorough search for why they were in the first place excluded. Consistent with what Verloo (2001:2); Verloo (2007: 3), Walby (2005: 4)

and Hannan (2008: 6) found out about this approach, female student access into university was increased as witnessed by the continual increase in the female student enrolment statistics. But again consistent with the views of these four authors, the attitudes, beliefs and perceptions of most of the actors in student admissions established that the gendered structures were still in the main intact because they were never re-shaped or re-oriented to fit the new gender agenda. In fact interviewees hated the new agenda. Sentiments like: *"It is the whole idea of being forced to practice affirmative action which wants to derail our focus. We are not happy about it"* clearly show that some actors hated the implemented programs. Since the idea of gender policy programs was not their brain child, there was need for re-orientating their mind set.

Lack of a re-orientation of the social structures was in contrast with the definition of mainstreaming a gender agenda, which is given by The Council of Europe: *"The (re) organization,...so that a gender equality perspective is incorporated in all policies and programmes at all levels and at all stages, by the actors normally involved in policy making."* (Council of Europe 1998: 15). The *(re)* suggest a repetition with some new intent and focuses not merely on numbers but on 'mind shifts'. Unfortunately, the beliefs, attitudes and perceptions of the actors controlled and influenced their mainstream practices and unless these are changed to fit the new gender agenda, roots of gender inequality remain anchored, keeping the envisaged goal of gender equality under siege.

5.5.2 Mechanics of students selection

5.5.2.1 Selection practices

The study revealed that in both universities, there were no stand alone institutional policies on student selection. At SU it was part of the institutional strategic planning process. At BU the student admissions policies was part of the general academic regulations of the university. The student selection criteria were also alluded to in the university act and referred to in the institutional gender policy. However, these cited documents showed nothing on how mechanics of student selection were to be done. Only the BU gender policy cited inclusion of programs of affirmative action to achieve a critical mass of women but it was not elaborated further how this was to be done besides the bridging program which the document said was specifically for female students in the Faculty of Natural sciences. Elsewhere, all the other documents referred to only mention the personnel involved and that transparency within the practice should be maintained. The documents were silent on how the selection had to be done and how the transparency was to be maintained. The deputy registrars and

the deans of academic faculties said they had read the referred to documents. Ironically chairpersons of departments said they knew about the documents, but none knew what these documents stipulated about student enrolment save only the minimum entry qualifications. Yet these people should know the detail involved in admission of students into their departments.

Reading responses to issues of how student selection was conducted, the study established that in both institutions, student selection was done by a selection committee, of which deans might be part, but where the departmental chairpersons were members. The deans' main duty was to supervise and sometimes chair the selection committee meetings. Almost all the responses indicated this practice as a good measure of transparency. Most selection committees were headed by men, which gave the exercise a predominantly male face. This male bias, though not applying to all men, had overtones of patriarchy as the predominant culture of the selection process.

Responses related to the issue of whether the selection practices were open to misuse or abuse, revealed that certain chairpersons wished for a standing policy to be adhered to. This was critical, because gender equality and any sustainable development are not assured in the absence of proper articulation and implementation guidelines. The importance of a policy cannot therefore be over emphasized. Its absence was a lack in the institutional road to gender equality.

5.5.2.2 Selection targets

At SU the institutional target as given by the deputy registrar was to increase enrolment and expand the number of faculties. At BU the institutional target was given as “*achieving a student enrolment of 10000 students and 10 faculties*” (deputy registrar 1). The policy targets were not sex disaggregated, for example, the number of males and females within the enrolment of 10 000 students. Again even with the envisaged increase in academic faculties, there was no mention to explain student ratios. Suffice then to say the policy targets were gender blind. Drawing on Murison's (2004: 2-10) work on the need for sex disaggregated data in any development scheme that strives to achieve gender equality, this study found the lack of such in the institutional targets limiting the actors in identifying the real and potential contributions of the gender policy programs for female and male students. This absence of sex disaggregated data made the actors lack a thorough understanding of the impact of gender policy programs on male and female students and also blindfolded them on the need to monitor and evaluate the outcomes of the gender policy programs by sex. What was alluded to by

the deputy registrars especially was a drive towards gross gender parity. But studies have already revealed that such a practice hides gross gender inequalities (Unterhalter 2004a: 1-2).

In connection with this issue, the study found none of the deans of faculties and only two chairpersons readily availing sex disaggregated enrolment statistics over a period of six years. They mostly had only current statistics and referred the researcher to the central admission office or to faculty administrators. Even the two deputy registrars did not have overall statistics readily available, referring the researcher to the admissions office with their permission. Statistics, according to Murison's (2004: 2-10) 14-point framework of mainstreaming gender in institutions (cf. 3.4.2), should be readily available to show a quantitative assessment of the benefits of the gender policy programs. The interviewees, responding to questions on their selection criteria, talked mostly about 'students across the board' and seldom of male and female students. The benefits of gender policy programs are inadequate if they do not differentiate outcomes for males and females.

5.5.3 Gender sensitivity of actors in student admissions

Most actors in student admissions had not received any gender awareness education or any gender sensitivity training. Although these two terms: *gender awareness* and *gender sensitivity* are often taken to mean one thing; in this study they are distinct. Gender awareness implies the recognition that men and women have different needs which must be recognized and therefore realities for men and women in society are not the same. Gender sensitivity is a step ahead of gender awareness. It is the translation of awareness into practice, which results in changes in perceptions (Revees & Baden 2000: 7).

Besides the registrars, deputy registrars and deans of academic faculties of BU who attended a day's workshop on gender in 2007, very few (8%) of the other actors had received some gender education. Moreover, a one-day workshop is inadequate to change attitudes and perceptions. The male chairpersons at SU said that gender workshops at their institution gave the impression that gender education was for women. The following extracts are reflective of their views on gender workshops.

All I know is that when these people talking about gender come to the institution, it is through student affairs. They assembly and talk to female students and some volunteers from the women board within this institution. I haven't seen any men around attending these." (chairperson 6).

Even the local women organizers here do not tell us that there is a meeting. We hear about these meetings but I don't know very well what it is. I haven't participated in anything like that (chairperson 7).

The consequence of excluding men from these meetings gave rise to hostilities between men and women at grassroots level. Regarding the exclusion of men from the meetings, a woman participant shared her experience with the researcher. She said the content of the workshop included theories that the men did not believe in. After the workshop the men teased and laughed at the women. When the participant asked for a lift at the close of the workshop, a male colleague replied “*We are gender, gender in here all of us. Look for your own car that is not gender and just like that they left me behind*”.(senior assistant registrar 2).

The responses revealed that their gender knowledge was derived from the current talks on gender in the media, gender pronouncements in their VCs' speeches at graduation ceremonies, important functions, and addresses to the Senate, a body of which all chairpersons are members. Most chairpersons at BU talked about an institutional gender policy but only one had seen it and only had scanty knowledge of its contents. Suffice to say actors in student admissions were not exposed to any gender awareness training and none had had a substantial engagement in gender. This finding was not rejected by the chairperson of the Gender Committee, who cited lack of resources as the main challenge. This finding contradicted the requirements of mainstreaming as a gender equality perspective within an institution. Woodward (2001:134) goes to great lengths to illustrate that mainstreaming a gender equality perspective implies that the “various policy fields should be infiltrated with gender sensitivity” and it is this sensitivity that enables them to operate in a gender sensitive way.

Murison (2004: 2-10) and Walby (2005: 4-14), talking from their wide experiences in gender mainstreaming, are particularly concerned about gender sensitivity of all those involved in the quest for gender equality. These two warn institutions that unless expert knowledge is there, implementation of gender policy programs may not be genuinely translated into reality, thereby running the risk that the whole gender agenda may end up as political rhetoric. Wendoh and Wallace (2005: 70-79) concur, saying that unless there is substantial engagement in gender awareness and sensitivity, it is all too easy to miss important nuances and end up only on a superficial level of understanding. Even Kurt Lewin (1975: 5-28), the father of change theory, advises on the imperative

need for substantial engagement, arguing that it is this that can “unfreeze the status quo”. This concurs with the ideas of Ornstein and Hunkins (1993: 310-311). Taking a cue from the experiences and sentiments of these authors, therefore, the lack of gender awareness of the actors may have made them miss important nuances in the implementation process. A reading of the actors’ responses to issues around this concern indicates that important nuances are missed. The following extracts showed a lack of substantial engagement in gender. Commenting on the perceived attitude of the selection practices, the chairperson said: *It’s very empowering and friendly to the boys. We consider points and males are the ones who are intelligent*” (chairperson 8). In response to the question: “*What challenges does your office face in implementation of the institutional gender policy?*” a senior assistant registrar said: “*Girls saturate Arts and Social Sciences department but have no interest in Sciences*” (Senior assistant registrar 1). Another chairperson responding to the same question had this to say:

The problem we have is that in Zimbabwe girls don’t like education, let alone university education, as men do, so much so that even if we bridge them we have less of them (chairperson 9).

Sentiments like this show a lack of rigorous engagement in gender and gender analysis of the Zimbabwe education system and culture and the impact on boys’ and girls’ educational access and attainment. Statements, such as the one made by chairperson 9 above, are an oversimplification of gender issues in Zimbabwe. The question to be addressed is why girls lack of interest in sciences. Only a substantial engagement in gender can make participants view the situation otherwise. Such actors argued that there was nothing that they could do because they were inheriting a problem from high school. This gender blindness made them fail to see how they could help the situation.

In the absence of a sound engagement in gender education, these actors operated from their own institutions’ organisational ethos. The study poses an important question: How can the actors prioritize gender equality when they did not have an awareness of what it is and what it entails? This finding was important for successful mainstreaming of a gender equality perspective.

Internalizing gender concepts in a meaningful way would help the actors in student admissions to understand the spectrum of differences between male and female students and they may then systematically address the gender gaps in student selection. This would thus make it possible for the actors in student admissions to plan in a manner that would ensure that both male and female students equitably benefit from the student enrolment practice. Gender awareness and sensitivity in

itself sensitizes the actors in student admission to the existence of prejudice with respect to responses like “*Females are not intelligent.*” Such reactions are usually the result of gender stereotyping which can only be countered by extensive deconstruction through engagement in gender awareness and sensitivity training.

The lack of gender sensitivity and engagement in gender was not only depicted in the attitudes, perceptions and ideas of the actors as revealed through their remarks and utterances. It was also detectable from the language of some actors. Language change is identified by Carney (2004: 12) as a qualitative gender indicator. The language of gender mainstreaming should reflect norm changes regarding gender equality. In fact the study of the language itself is a guide to social reality in student admissions. The kind of language used by some participants signified a peripheral gender inclusiveness. The use of the term ‘freshmen class’ to refer to the incoming class and ‘chairman’ to mean men and women was common. The following extract is just an example:

I may not know then. The chairman of the selection committee then was Mrs. Chimuti. It was before I became chairman myself (chairperson 10).

Many such misuses of the term chairman were common. The other common slip was the use of the word ‘he’ to represent male and female.

Our criteria is clear. If one wants to join our department, one has to adequately meet our requisite requirements. He has to have biology and maths at ordinary level and of course the necessary advanced level. (chairperson 10). The ‘he’ was referring to all applicants, male or female.

When we were out on the outreach, we said gentlemen here is a chance to market our program (chairperson 11). It was later revealed that among the gentlemen was a lady. Thus, women’s presence in a group was negated by language. Evidence from such statements indicated the sexist outlook of some participants. Mindful of Carney’s (2004:12) advice, mainstreaming a gender equality perspective must eradicate the gender bias and discrimination in the language of the actors and replace words and some phraseology with gender inclusive terms. The culture in student admissions should shape the language choice of the actors and in turn the language used by these actors should also itself shape the culture. But how can this be when the culture has not been re-oriented to match the new agenda? This finding derails a focus on gender equality. It is important that people dealing

with student enrolment have proper concepts, terminology and goals. They should be convinced of the program before its introduction so that they share the same goals as the Ministry of Education. The study established here reversed realities in student admissions.

5.5.4 Accountability and transparency in student admissions

This subsection discusses the interviewees' responses on questions around reviewing, monitoring and evaluation of policy program practices by the actors in student admissions. Responses revealed that the actors in most cases reviewed their practices; very few out rightly said they did not monitor, evaluate or review their practices. However, probes (centring questions on the sort of gender responsive indicators used to capture and measure gender changes in student admissions) made on the process of monitoring and evaluating established that there was no rigorous gender monitoring, evaluation and reviews of the practices made. What most termed monitoring and evaluation was checking whether the admitted students held the requisite 'A' level subjects and that the admission list was not tampered with. This was mostly done by the faculty dean, and in all faculties and departments there was no written record. This finding was contradictory to what authorities in gender mainstreaming advise.

However, as Murison (2004: 6-8);and Hannan (2008: 6-7) reiterate, monitoring should be an ongoing practice to check whether the actors in student admissions are on track. Evaluations should help the actors in student admission determine what difference(s) their efforts are bringing about. Berman (1980: 210-211) suggests that the reviews and adjustments (where necessary) be done according to the results of the monitoring and the formative evaluations. Drawing from this advice, monitoring and evaluation therefore enriches accountability and transparency of the practices and enables specific departments and faculties to undertake self- assessment of selection practices. The established lack of formal gender monitoring, evaluations and reviews incapacitates the actors in student admissions, in particular the Selection/Faculty Planning Committee to extract relevant information from past and ongoing programs that can subsequently be used as basis for fine-tuning programs. As it is, it was impossible for the actors in student admissions to judge whether the gender based programs were going in the right direction, whether progress could be genuinely claimed and how future efforts could be improved. This, coupled with the multiple misconceptions that surrounded the actors' views on gender and gender equality, could be the reason why a handful of the actors in student admissions advocated the point system as the only yardstick to use when selecting students for

admission into university. The lack of a rigorous gender evaluation was also undoubtedly a reason that kept the gender equality mandate under siege in student admissions at the institutions.

Using the five rating categories on the implementation scale called “The Calvert Women’s Gender Equality Principles, 2008”, and using data from the interviews, the institutions would fall under category one or two. Category one (the least/lowest level on the rating scale) was characterized by: “No clear gender policy or plan, No outlined monitoring and evaluation processes”. This fitted the SU. The second category was characterized by an institution with a policy but without meaningful monitoring and evaluation.

5.5.5 Challenges and opportunities for improvement

The questions asked enabled the participants to critique existing practices and procedures in student admissions through enquiring about challenges faced, ways of addressing the challenges, justifying own ratings of extent of gender sensitivity of the practices and through a justification of the aspects needing improvements and proffering own improvements. Probing especially enabled the interviewees to be engaged in construction of knowledge and with the purpose of transforming the *status quo* as they came up with transformative ways of elevating practices and procedures in student admissions. This probing is in line with the gender critical theory tradition which calls upon the researcher to be a transformative intellectual concerned with interrogating how the existing institutional practices and procedures in student admissions can be turned into tools of gender equality (Popkewitz 1993:3). Participants came up with challenges faced, achievements made and suggested improvements.

Challenges and satisfaction

The responses related to this issue indicated a divide between the lower level administrators and senior administrators. The deputy registrars, deans and senior assistant registrars were satisfied with the existing practices in student admissions. The chairpersons were mostly dissatisfied with the programs claiming “*It’s an imposition from high offices*” (chairperson 5). They would rather go for a strict point system as a guide when selecting students.

A difference existed on the point of a policy to guide student selection. While some seemed somewhat worried by the lack of a policy, the chairpersons particularly lamented the absence of a stand alone policy on student selection for the universities or particular faculties. Much of the mechanical

inconsistencies in student admissions were due to lack of a written guide. The lowering of entry point and quota reservations, although stated as a matter of policy by the deputy registrars, were at the discretion of a particular selecting committee. What was consistently applied was the bridging program at one institution. However, even this practice, if not monitored, might turn into a profit-making venture.

A difference concerned the selecting procedures. While the other side claimed that the selection procedures were misused or abused, the chairpersons expressed the dissatisfaction that some unprofessional interference by the higher levels derailed their efforts. Thus, they would be forced to take students with very low points, lower than all the others that they might have turned down and that some students might via the back door: *“And when it is coming from your boss, what can you say?”* (chairperson 8).

Achievements

Consensus was established on this aspect. All participants cited the enormously increased female population in the overall student population; some chairpersons grumbled about the quality of student when compared to their male counterpart. The following interview extract with the senior registrar 1 illuminates the issue:

A: *How do you rate your admission practices on a scale of unsatisfactory, satisfactory, very unsatisfactory?*

B: *Satisfactory*

A: *Why?*

B: *We are achieving our goal of a critical mass of women.....according to the V.C's utterances, the university needs a critical mass of female students.*

Again all participants seemed happy with the increased modes of student entry. Initially it had been just the conventional mode of entry; now the parallel mode of entry and the visiting or block mode of entry have been added to cater for low pointers (parallel) and for mature entry (visiting). The most likely reason for this could be monetary reasons, because the lecturers were paid extra for teaching the visiting and the parallel groups. It was also established that the deputy registrars, deans of

academic faculties and chairpersons taught modules under the parallel and the visiting students programs. A request for sex-disaggregated statistics for the visiting program, especially, revealed an acute shortage of female students. The shortage of female students in the visiting and parallel programs may be explicable in terms of 'lack of time' that most women who are mothers suffer from. This visiting and parallel modes of entry catered mostly for the working class. Under this mode of entry, students come to university only three times a semester for a period of one week. Studies involving absence from the family and done in one's spare time are not gender friendly for women. Demands of traditional gender roles and economic and social obligations leave the women little time and energy to pursue studies, especially if married. A marriage contract automatically makes a woman a full time or part time housewife, but more often than not an overtime housewife (Hillum *et al*/20007: 37). Earlier studies by Mbilinyi (2000: 16-17) established that this category of women do not enjoy the same liberation with men because of childcare and domestic responsibilities. Recent studies confirm this. Masanja (2010: 13) reports of her research in Rwanda, where she found that, though the success rates of female students were just as good as those of the males, the women tended to apply in smaller numbers. Investigating this, Masanja (2010: 13) found 93% of the women she interviewed cited household chores. The institutions should think of ways to accommodate women's burden of reproductive roles into the recruitment equation.

Improvements

The participants proffered a few suggestions for improvements. The need for a stand alone policy on student admissions was stressed by many participants, chairpersons and some deans of faculties. They expressed the difficulty of operating under verbal instructions: *"Which sometimes you get through someone because you didn't attend the senate meeting. With a policy what you are required to do will be there in front of you. It makes you understand your responsibility easier"* (chairperson 9). The dean of faculties felt that a policy would lessen their burden: *"Because I don't have to check all the time. You see, a policy guides lecturers' operations with minimal intervention by me"* (dean 2).

Lack of consensus existed on the selection criteria to be used. Some felt strict adherence to the university programs in student admissions would improve and standardize the selection practice. These participants, (most of whom were from the offices of the registrar and the deans of faculties) cited the crucial need of bringing university education to the female students whom most felt had been disadvantaged by the colonial system. Most chairpersons felt that doing away with the gender

programs and selecting students according to the strict point system would improve the situation in student admissions. They cited the consistency it would allow *“Because if it’s a minimum of 10 points, it’s a minimum of ten points. No other measure could achieve such consistence and what other fairness would you want”* (chairperson 11). After some probing, the responses revealed lack of gender awareness because treating unequals the same is not fair (Stevens & Van Lamoen 2001: 25) A gender analysis of their reasons showed gender blindness where the actors responded according to their intuitions. Surprisingly most ended up recommending gender sensitizing for all members of the university community *“...so that when they see us not taking their male candidates they will not frown on us”* (chairperson 5). Some also advanced that, in the light of dwindling numbers especially in faculties of natural sciences and natural resources, universities should do away with the idea of semesterisation and consider enrolling once a year. They argued that this would allow their catchment areas enough time to refill and also allow lecturers time for research and personal study.

5.6 RESEARCH FINDINGS: AN OVERVIEW

In this subsection, findings from the above phases are brought together to create an integrated response to each of the research questions in order to address the study’s main research question.

5.6.1 The first research question

The first research question was: **What gender policy programs are employed in student admissions in the selected universities? What are the objectives of the policy programs? What are the gender dimensions of the objectives of policy programs?**

Insights informing answers to this question were gleaned from the analysis of data from all the three sources. These sources of information were brought together to reveal the sort of programs in student admissions and the thinking and shifts in thinking behind the gender policy programs employed in student admission. The results revealed that, in the wake of the calls by the ZNGP, the Zimbabwe state universities were indeed employing gender policy programs to eradicate gender inequalities within the institutions in general and in student admissions in particular. The findings revealed that only three gender programs were being implemented in student admissions: the bridging program, lowering of entry points and the quota reservations. Invariably, the study established that all the three programs were implemented with the sole objective of increasing only female students’

participation rates. No attempt was made to increase male enrolments even in departments where male students were a minority. The study henceforth found the implementation of the policy programs to wear a predominantly female face. In coming up with the gender dimensions of the policy program objective of increasing female students representation through a strict ring fencing for women only, this study drew on the works by True (2001: 1); Chant and Gutmann (2002: 269-271), Walby (2005: 3-5) and Verloo (2001: 2-3). Consequently, it appeared that this male-blindness was a legacy of WID (cf. chapter 2). This was much in line with policy deductions at BU. This WID legacy gave the implementation of gender policy programs in student admissions a feminist outlook and a blindness to the gender agenda. The difference between a feminist agenda and a gender agenda lies in the former promoting women equality and in the latter advancing equitable social relations between males and females. The former makes women part of the mainstream without questioning it; the latter not only make women part of the mainstream, it also re-orientes the nature of the mainstream. The former thus ignores the need for transformation of the existing institutional process. The former is grounded in liberalist functionalist thinking while the latter is framed within the radical discourse, making the re-socialisation of the mainstream a pre-requisite. Clearly, the researcher endorsed the gender agenda because the ineffectiveness of the feminist agenda had been shown to be a function of the limited capacity of liberal thinking to change the depth of patriarchy and sexism in power relations within student admissions. The argument of this study (greatly borrowed from radical discourse) was that, although technically men and women are each other's equals in the academic world, the academic area is still characterised by numerous patterns of segregation between the sexes. These patterns need a radical approach to permeate and destroy them. Radical thinking and its strength to unseat such is rooted in the concept of transformative education associated with the works of such authorities as Freire (1990: 9-150, 1996: 7-240; 1997: 7-140.) Concurring with the views of scholars such as Chant and Gutmann (2002: 269-271), the study found the tactic of concentrating exclusively on women failing to shake the gendered foundations of mainstream development thought in student admissions. The established gender dimensions were somewhat contradictory to the roadmap to gender equality. The latter should not seek just to emancipate women, but "change the existing social structure which is gendered to one which does not disadvantage anyone male or female" (True 2001: 1).

In stating the concept of gender equality in student admissions, the data indicated that the institutions were moving towards gender parity as was supported by the changing demography of

students which was overall more representative of both sexes. However, this overall enrolment tended to hide gross gender disparities in student enrolments in the institutions. A closer scrutiny of the enrolment statistics at subject/departmental level and at specific modes of entry told a different story. At departmental level and with some modes of entry, a consistent pattern of gender inequality was revealed. The data showed that even though there had been an increase in the level of admission of female students, there was a corresponding lower enrolment of female students in some departments and a persistent low enrolment of male students in others. The implemented policy programs assumed that it was only the female student who was disadvantaged, but the study established that women were not always the losers. It would appear that male student power and privilege is not uniform, fixed or universal in student admissions. There were also male students at risk. This concurs with what Chant and Gutmann (2002: 271-271) term “troubled masculinities”. The study thus safely concluded that despite the implementation of gender policy programs in student admissions to ensure that male and female students have comparative gender parity, gender disparities existed and in some cases were widening. The much publicised and expected 50:50 enrolment in all departments was far from being achieved.

The study also revealed that though these programs were being implemented, the adoption of the program was up to the department, save for the bridging program in the Faculty of Natural Sciences at BU. With the other programs, the study established a lack of uniformity and consistency in application much to the contrary of what the deputy registrars claimed about their institutions. This is attributed to two issues. Firstly, the lack of a stand alone policy on student admissions as policies are a strategic link between the institution’s vision and day-to-day operations. Had there been a policy, actors in student admissions would most likely understand their responsibilities within predefined limits. Secondly, the lack of enforcement of the implementation of gender programs in student admissions was a problem.

Again, drawing on the works of a wide range of gender perspectives (Jahan 1995:13; Walby 2005: 4; Verloo 2007: 3-6; Squires 1999: 130 and Clisby 2005: 23), this study established that the actors’ quest of gender equality was in fact gender parity and sprang from their misconceptions of the terms gender and gender equality. This damaged the grant goal of gender equality especially considering that ‘real student selection’ was handled by the chairpersons. This lower level of administrators seemed to hold this misconception and to harbour more resentment and hostility than others. This was in contrast to the literature study which maintains that mainstreaming should be developed in cooperation with

the actors in policy implementation. If done in opposition, the process implies marginalization. Consistent with this observation, this study found that there was little commitment to bring gender equality to the fore by most chairpersons as most did not display a principled response to the institutional mandate of gender equality. The study thus established a gap between policy and action revealed in the weak alignment between policy discourses and practices in student selection. The study thus concluded that though the quest for gender equality is canonized in policy pronouncements and in Vision and Mission Statements declarations, their implementation in student admissions was peripheral.

5.6.2 The second research question

The second research question was: **What approaches of gender mainstreaming can be identified in the literature? What are their strengths and limitations in areas where they have been applied?**

This was pursued by means of a critical literature review. This research question has been addressed under 3.2.3.

5.6.3 The third research question

Data were drawn from the interviews and survey analysis to address the third research question: **How are the gender policy programs mainstreamed in student admissions in the selected universities? What implementation challenges are faced? What steps have been taken, if any, to combat the obstacles?**

The findings indicated that the gender mainstreaming approach adopted was 'integrationist' (cf. chapter 3) or 'mere-add-on'. Regrettably, this integrationist approach to implementation of a gender equality perspective in the mainstream has been found ineffective by Verloo (2001: 3) Walby (2005: 4-6), Squires (1999: 115-130), Stevens and van Lamoen (2001:1-13,21) because it fails to target inequality and disregards a gender scrutiny of the *status quo*. The latter has been found to be the integrationist approach's greatest weakness (Chant & Gutmann 2002: 269-272). The limitations of this approach have already been extensively discussed under 5.5.

5.6.4 The fourth research question

The fourth research question comprised the following: **What models of gender equality can be identified in the literature? With specific reference to the universities under study, which model of gender equality is invoked by the policy programs? What are the strengths and limitations of the models in countries and areas where they have been applied?**

These questions were addressed by the literature study, interviews and the questionnaire. The first and the last parts of this question are answered under 3.2.4 and are not repeated here. It is only henceforth the middle question which is answered here. As regards this question the study established the model of gender equality pursued by the institutions was the 'tailoring model' or 'targeted model' where programs were meant to fit the needs of the disadvantaged sex group (Walby 2005: 7-8). In this study the disadvantaged sex group was females and all the employed programs were ring fenced for women only, from policy to actual practice. The success story of the adopted model of gender equality was found in its increased female enrolment statistics in the university. The other aspects of this model as they related to this study were discussed under 5.5.1.2 and are not repeated here.

5.6.5 The fifth research question

5.6.5.1 Reflections on positive and negative aspects

The fifth research question: **To what extent do the implemented policy programs close the gender gap in student admissions?** demanded a reflective appraisal of the whole study as it evaluated the emergent findings/results against the institutional principles of closing gender gaps in order to ascertain the status of the gender policy programs in achieving their endeavours. As regards this question evidence established both positive and negative aspects. The positive aspects were the achievements on the journey to the goal of gender equality and the negative aspects were the barriers encountered.

The major gain has been the expansion of female students' participation rates in access to university education. The second success was the expanded modes of entry into university. To begin with, the universities only had the conventional mode of entry but as the demand for university places increased in the country, the universities introduced the parallel and visiting/block modes of entry to accommodate the rising need for university education. Enrolment of female students was expanded

to attain the 50:50 ratio. However, at departmental level, and with the visiting mode of entry, male and female students continue to have differential comparative representations. This was the first recorded negative aspect to gender equality. This finding was quite consistent with the reviewed literature where Benjamin (2010: 273-281) working on women's access to Science Education at the University of Dar es Salaam and Masanja (2010: 6-8) on gender equality initiatives by higher education institutions in Sub Saharan Africa concur that despite the progress in female enrolments, gender disparities are quite striking in some disciplines. Similarly, this study found that the female proportion of total students is significantly higher than the female proportion of Science and Technology.

The second established negative aspect concerns the attitudes, beliefs, perceptions and even language of most actors. These were not only negative to the attainment of gender equality in student admissions, but in many respects hostile (cf. 5.5). These attitudes, beliefs, language and perceptions are strong qualitative gender indicators, hence qualitatively, the mainstream was highly gender irresponsible. It is concluded that the implementation of gender policy programs in student admissions did not fully open its culture, share its language and communicate its ideas to all mainstream actors. This is supported by the finding that a clear majority of the chairpersons did not receive any gender awareness and sensitivity education. The awareness stemmed mostly from pronouncements of their VCs on important occasions. This together with the fact that the deans and deputy registrars are much more in contact with the VC especially on matters of policy, could be the reason for the actors' lack of consensus in support of gender policy programs within their institutions.

Another problem was the manner in which the gender policy programs were brought into student admissions. The study established that these were introduced into the existing student admissions system without any re-orientation of the system towards the new gender agenda. Guided by the insights from Wendoh and Wallace (2005: 79); Lewin (1975: 5-28) and Ornstein and Hunkins (1993: 310-311), this appeared to be the major problem. The institutions had tried to bring gender equality into a system that had in the first place rejected and marginalized it, without any preparation of the system for the new developments or a search for causes. The authors cited immediately above argue that a re-orientation of the people affected by a new shift is crucial before change implementation. Taking adequate care of this human equation was advocated by Gross (1979: 30) who cites this as "a strategy against resistance to change". Hanson (1979:63) concurs, saying that taking good care of this human equation helps brew a culture of unity of purpose among those affected by the change and

like a 'tune' the institution will be constituted of coordinated sounds. A lack of this re-orientation of the actors resulted in their resorting to their old gendered beliefs and perceptions. The actors only implemented the programs because of internal political demands, but in their minds, they had no gender agenda. In some cases, indications were that the policy programs were ignored and the gender agenda had been turned into a symbolic and superficial gesture that was only partially emphasized in written policy and emphatic verbal pronouncements but very peripheral in practice. This could be why the implemented programs fell short of portraying any meaningful gender change in student admissions because the change designers and planners failed "to develop a constituency for the planned strategy" (Gross 1979: 30).

The study findings also suggested that there was no strong enforcement of the implementation of the programs, giving rise to fears that the gender programs were implemented at the discretion of the selection committee. This could also be the reason behind the established policy intentions that, to a great extent, did not match policy outcomes and were suggestive of a discrepancy in thinking between the official views (written or oral) by the senior administrators at one level, and the actual gender change derived from the remarks of the lower level administrators at another level. Hence this was possibly the reason for the failure of the programs to challenge the gendered culture in student admission. Such a *'post facto'* approach (Verloo 2001: 4) resulted in a *'prima facie'* change (Unterhalter 2004a: -2) that left the gender equality revolution incomplete. In fact, the gender equality revolution was kept locked in a gender transformational paralysis due to the established retrogressive gender conservatism created. This explains the established paradox: gender policy programs are employed to remove gender inequalities in student admissions, while gender gaps in the area remain or even widen. Thus, the way in which the policy programs were introduced into the mainstream, placed them (i.e. policy programs) at cross purposes with their intentions because the dominant gendered culture in student admissions was not reworked to attune it to the new agenda. As this study sees it, unless rigorous changes are made to this gendered culture, the gender equality mandate will remain a mirage.

The other weakness of the institutional implementation process established was the gender equality model being pursued. The furnished data revealed that the institutional focus was primarily targeted on gender parity as an end in itself. Drawing on insights from Unterhalter (2004a: 1-2), viewed as an end in itself, parity democracy does not constitute gender equality. This blinkered conception of gender made the actors focus only on the quantitative aspect of the gender gap in student

admissions, leaving the qualitative dimensions unattended. Yet qualitative dimensions determine the structural base of gender inequalities and if unaddressed, the gendered base remains intact. This blinkered focus on the gender equality model pursued could be the main drive for the integrationist mainstreaming approach adopted. The results reconfirm other research (Verloo 2001: 6) that the tailoring approach as an end itself is worse when combined with the integrationist approach and has a less substantial impact on removal of gender inequalities. The tailoring model of gender equality and the 'mere add on' approach to gender mainstreaming in the studied institutions acted as mutually intricate webs which interacted and reinforced each other to keep gender equality *de facto* at bay. This could be the main reason why so little in terms of substantive gender equality has changed in spite of the implementation of many positive policies and strategies.

5.6.5.2 Employing gender equality evaluation models

According to Woodward (2008: 70-73), three determinant factors exist in conditioning an organizational gender program's response to gender equality. These factors determine the amount and extent of gender change as they can cause the gender programs to be limited in application, subverted or ignored. These factors are:

- The approach or version of gender mainstreaming
- The cultural context of mainstreaming
- Presence of acceptance or resistance to change
- The extent to which gender experts play a role.

Employing these four factors in the gender climate of the studied institutions revealed a great deal. Concerning the first factor, the gender mainstreaming version adopted was integrationist, with all its limitations that result in less fundamental changes. The cultural context was seen to be conservative and held inadequate conceptualization of what gender equality entails. Bigger pockets of resistance and opposition to the implementation of gender policy programs were registered. Some 71-75% of staff was not dedicated to the implemented programs. Most participants misunderstood the essence of gender, which was attributed to the lack of gender awareness of the administrators. The gender committee that was supposed to bring about the awareness was dormant at one institution and non-existent at the other. Thus, the transformative potential of those supposed to create awareness was lacking and this meant transformational paralysis. People acted the way they felt and the

participants' responses ranged from denial that gender was a relevant concern to practices in student selection to only theoretical acceptance. Thus, on Woodward's four factors, the institutions scored negatively on almost all.

Moser (2005: 581) puts forwards four-tier criteria for evaluating progress on mainstreaming a gender perspective. These are:

- Adopting the terminology of gender;
- Putting in place a policy that mainstreams a gender equality perspective;
- Implementing a gender equality perspective;
- Evaluating the practices of mainstreaming gender equality perspective.

Adopting the terminology of gender has been found wanting. There was rhetoric about gender but this revealed a misconception of the term. The policy was in place (written or oral) but an examination of the oral and written tone and the accent of the documents were couched at cross purposes with demands of a gender equality mandate. On this four-tier model the institutions again scored mostly negatively.

Lombardo (2003: 2) lays five basic requirements that gender literature has identified as indicators of proper application of mainstreaming a gender equality perspective. These help one to recognize gender mainstreaming when he/she sees it. They are:

- A shift towards a broader concept of gender equality;
- Incorporation of a gender perspective into the mainstream;
- Women representation in decision making;
- Prioritizing gender equality objective;
- A shift in institutional and organization culture.

Employing these again to the gender environment of the institutions revealed several aspects:

1. A broader concept of gender equality was missing. Equality *de facto* (i.e. the broader concept of gender equality) requires "a gender perspective and not a focus limited to women's issues." (Council of Europe 1998:169). The institutions were found to plan for change in female students' lives only, yet Rathgeber (1995:212) clearly advises that planning for change in women's lives clearly entails changes for men, with structural shifts in male-female

relations a necessary pre-condition for any developmental process with long term sustainability. Without men, gender interventions can only go so far.

2. Incorporation of a gender perspective into the mainstream political agenda was found lacking, operating only at a superficial level and adopted as an image-making exercise.
3. Inclusion and participation of women in decision making operated at 10 out of 57 (16,7%), rendering the mainstream a male-stream, and gender mainstreaming, men streaming (Chant & Gutmann 2002: 269).
4. In prioritizing the gender equality agenda, the institutions were again found lacking, targeting the wrong change objects. The target/object should not be women, but the multiple interconnected causes which create an unequal relation between the sexes to the disadvantage of one.
5. The study established little shift in the policy process, policy mechanisms and policy actors to the goal of gender equality. The policy process was not reorganized to take a gender perspective into account, the policy mechanisms were not reorganized such that ordinary actors did not incorporate a gender perspective. Thus, again using this evaluation model the gender climate in student admissions was found grossly wanting.

In sum, the implemented policy programs in student admissions were fraught with challenges that hindered the quest for a gender equality revolution. Answering the fifth research question then, required weighing positive and negative arguments. When this was done, the study found negatives overwhelmingly outweighed successes. The study thus concluded that the implemented gender policy programs addressed gender inequalities in student admissions to a very little extent.

5.6.6 The main research question answered

To return to the study's research question: **How effective is the implementation of gender policy programs in student admissions in selected Zimbabwe state universities?** The overall finding was that the implementation of gender policy programs in student admissions does not effectively pursue the goal of gender equality.

5.7 CONCLUSION

The research findings in this chapter have attempted to show that the implementation of the gender policy programs in student admissions was fraught with complex dynamics. As a result whatever the transformative potential of the programs, important opportunities to achieve gender equality were missed. Much more work needed to be done to translate the policy rhetoric into grounded reality. Practising gender in student admissions in the universities was “little more than fashionable semantics” co-opted by the university administration (Clisby 2005: 23). Implemented programs had shown some progress but their influence was weakened by challenges outlined in this chapter, rendering them less effective in pursuit of their envisaged goal of gender equality.

Paulo Freire (1996: 7-9) in his opening remarks to his work, *Pedagogy of Hope*, advises that a critical researcher should view obstacles as opportunities and not as impenetrable barriers and should visualize possibilities even where impossibility has been declared. Thus, the researcher adopts an optimistic outlook and advances appropriate steps that could reduce gender inequalities in student admissions in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter concludes the research study by providing a summary of the research findings and, citing some contributions that the study has made to theory and practice. The chapter ends by making recommendations that will improve delivery of the gender equality agenda in the Zimbabwe state institutions in general and in student admissions in particular.

The primary aim of the study was to explore and describe the implementation of gender policy programs in student admissions in Zimbabwe State Universities. Consistent with this primary aim, the main research question was: *How effective is the implementation of gender policy programs in student admissions in Zimbabwe state universities?* Five secondary research questions accompanied the main research question.

The first research question made an inquiry into the nature of the employed gender programs in student admissions, their objectives as well as the gender dimensions of these objectives. Sub research question two required an exploration of the gender mainstreaming approaches that could be identified in the literature and their strengths and limitations in areas where they have been applied. The third research question centred on how the implemented programs were made part of the mainstream in student admissions, mainstreaming challenges faced and steps taken to combat obstacles. The fourth research question required journeying through the models of gender equality that could be identified in the literature, describing the ones that are employed in the universities, and outlining their strengths and limitations in countries where they have been applied. The fifth research question required a review of the successes and failures of the implemented policy programs for gender equality. These five-sub research questions helped set the boundedness and finiteness of the study.

6.2 SUMMARY OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

6.2.1 Findings from literature review

The theoretical perspective that underpinned this study is the gender critical theory (cf. chapter 2). In this study the theoretical perspective guided mainly the methodology and influenced most of the recommendations and suggestions proffered by the study.

The literature study had a dual purpose. First, the literature provided an overview of regional and international trends in the conceptualization of gender as a societal issue in general, and as an educational issue in particular. Insights gained from these regional and international trends provided knowledge established on the problem. This helped the researcher to identify and understand the problem, that is, the context and the theoretical perspective of the problem. This enhanced the justification of the study. Second, the literature identified other studies, showing their findings, strengths and limitations and thus the researcher could glean important suggestions. In so doing, the literature study informed and justified the research methodology and enhanced the credibility of the study. Having provided the purpose of the literature study as regards this research, the next subsection briefly looks at the content of the literature studied.

Content coverage of literature studied

In an attempt to determine the implementation of gender programs in Zimbabwe state universities, a literature study of regional and international sources was undertaken. The targeted sources described situations which, although not identical, correlate to the prevailing conditions within the state universities in Zimbabwe. To begin with, brief attention was given to the emergence of gender issues in Zimbabwe in general (which led to the drafting and adoption of the Zimbabwe National Gender Policy (ZNGP) in 2004, and in state universities in particular (cf. chapter 1). This overview placed the research in context. The theoretical perspectives that underpin the study were sifted in chapter 2. The literature study that followed in chapter 3 focused on the research's key ideas and principles and was ordered in the following sequence. Firstly, literature that focused on gender mainstreaming as a strategy, tracing its background and the different approaches of the strategy. The same section looked at gender equality in the global arena and the fit between gender equality and gender mainstreaming as the two terms are allied in the development process. The strength and limitations of the approaches to gender mainstreaming and the different versions of gender equality

were also provided. This section ended with a review of principles for mainstreaming a gender equality perspective in any organisation. These principles were used in evaluation of successes of the implemented gender programs in student admissions in Zimbabwe state universities (cf. 3.2). Secondly, the literature took a short excursion into the gender equality situation in Zimbabwe (cf. 3.3). This was followed by an assessment of some gender policy programs in Zimbabwe (cf. 3.4). Lastly, the literature concentrated on the gender programs in universities, before taking a special look at the policy programs in Zimbabwe universities (cf. 3.5).

The studied literature established two gender mainstreaming approaches: the integrationist approach and setting the agenda (Jahan 1995:13, 23; Walby 2005: 4; Lombardo 2003: 2-7). Integrationist is located in the liberal functionalist approach while setting the agenda is couched in the radical transformational approach. The former approach entails integration of male and female concerns into the already existing development agendas, focusing on adapting institutional procedures to achieve this (Squires 1999: 115; Verloo 2001:2). The greatest limitation of integrating is inserting of gender issues into an already existing agenda without any challenge to the factors that had, in the first place, excluded them. This makes its impact less substantial. Its advantage, like many liberal approaches, is that of being less confrontational, not rigorously upsetting the *status quo* and hence easily adopted by most institutions and organizations. Setting the agenda requires changing the *status quo* to suit the new development agenda (Walby 2005:4). This is why Squires (1999: 131) prefers to call this strategy “a strategy of displacement.” Being confrontational, it does not appeal to many institutions.

The literature studied also established three models or versions of gender equality: the sameness model, tailoring model and the diversity model (Jahan 1995:13, 23; Walby 2005: 4; Verloo 2007: 3-6; Squires 1999: 115-130). The sameness model emphasizes equalizing the starting points, the benchmark being treating males and females alike. The tailoring approach lays emphasis on deliberately advantaging the disadvantaged sex group. The third model, the diversity model, goes beyond these two models that suggest that the disadvantaged sex group is vulnerable to the advantaged sex group, to suggest that both males and females are vulnerable to the way dominant gender relations are at play within their contexts (Verloo 2007: 9). Hence the call for a re-examination of the structural relations and it's being called “transformation of gender relations model” (Walby 2005: 3-7).

6.2.2 Findings from the empirical investigation

In the empirical investigation both quantitative and qualitative research methods were used hence adoption of the MMA. This was because the focus of the study was to gauge the effectiveness of the implementation of gender policy programs in student admissions. Achieving this required a revelation of both the quantitative and the qualitative gender gaps in student admissions; hence both quantitative and qualitative data were collected. Data were gathered by means of document analysis, the questionnaire and the interview. The data were both primary and secondary. Primary data were from the in-depth semi structured interviews and questionnaires while secondary data were from the studied documents. First to be collected was documentary data and this, together with the literature study, informed the interviews and questionnaires. To this end the MMA was sequential. Survey data and interview data were collected almost simultaneously. To this end the MMA was concurrent.

In all, 22 interviews (21 scheduled and sampled from the onset of the study and one emergent participant from the collected data), 48 out of the 53 (90.6%) filled in questionnaires, and the studied documents were the sources of the empirical data for the study. As the data was collected in phases and analysed in phases, the findings here are presented in phases.

6.2.2.1 Findings from document analysis

The following is a summary of the chief findings from the studied documents:

- There were no stand alone policies on student admissions. Student admissions were guided by the gender policy (where it was available) and by the institutional Strategic Business and Planning documents.
- The principle of gender equality was naively spelt out in these documents, and the objective of redressing gender inequality was weakly brought out.
- The policy talk of the documents was 'feminist', bringing out only the intentions to bring females to centre stage and silent regarding the male side.

- Affirmative action was cited as a means of bringing out gender equality, (the bridging program mentioned by name to be employed in the Faculty of Science). The affirmative action was to be achieved through 'strict ring-fencing' for the females only.
- The policy targets, though cited, were not consistently gender disaggregated to maintain explicitness about the benefits of the programs for males and females.
- The documents mentioned only monitoring and impact evaluations of policies, but were silent on how this was to be done, by whom and how often.
- The implementation strategies were referred to, but these were general and lacked exactness and clarity in implementation. This marked a big question about the sincerity of policy makers on how the implementation was to be done.
- While objectives were indeed stated with time frames, there were, however, no indicators that specified how the achievement of the objectives was going to be made, measured and verified.
- Documents, though mentioning gender mainstreaming, did not specify who, within the institutions, had the overall mandate of devising, monitoring, guiding and coordinating the gender mainstreaming activities.
- When all was put together, the gender dimensions of these documents revealed that the institutions could not be typified as ones with successful gender inclinations.

6.2.2.2 *Quantitative findings*

- Findings revealed that three gender policy programs were being implemented. These were: the bridging program, the quota reservations and the lowering of the cut-off points for the disadvantaged sex group. The programs invariably catered for female students only.
- Selection of students was always done by a committee, and not individuals, a measure most participants applauded as necessary for transparency.
- In all faculties, males dominated the selection process, a finding that made the selection process wear 'a predominantly male-face.'
- An absolute majority of the participants indicated that they did not receive any gender training, a finding whose gender dimensions was attributed to some of the behaviours, beliefs, attitudes, perception and feelings of the departmental chairpersons.
- Disaggregated data was not readily available from the chairpersons. The finding raised the question as to how these administrators could track the impact of their practices by sex when data was not sex disaggregated.
- Achievements of the practices targeted parity democracy. Increased female enrolments in different departments were realised. The other recorded achievement was increased modes of student entry.
- The modal challenge faced was the persistent gender disparities in most departments in spite of the implementation of gender programs and the increased modes of entry.
- An absolute majority of these lower level administrators did not monitor, evaluate or review their selection practices.
- The participants found their selection practices very empowering, respectful, confidence building, progressive and friendly to both male and female students. The reason put forward for this indicated that most employed the strict point system when selecting students and so

considered it fair practice. A gender analysis of this finding indicated that the gender equality model followed was the “sameness approach”, though policy was the “tailoring approach”. Gender dimensions further revealed that much rhetoric about gender by the university administration was image making. Implementation of gender programs was mostly on paper or verbal declarations, but not much in practice.

- Most chairpersons wanted the ‘point system’ (which they claimed to be happy with) maintained and hence the modal suggestion for improvement of selection practices was ‘happy with the point system, no need to change.’
- Very few statistically significant relationships existed between the variables.

6.2.2.3 Qualitative findings

Concerning findings from the interviews, on some issues, divisions existed between the senior administrators and the lower level administrators in student admissions. The senior administrators consisted of the deputy registrars, senior assistant registrars and the deans of academic faculties. The lower level administrators comprised only the chairpersons of selecting departments.

- Both layers comprised of far more males than females, a factor which also gave the selection practices and procedures a ‘male bias’.
- The institutional gender policies were in place, either written down or only verbally declared. There were no stand alone policies on student admissions, a thing most lower level administrators could not contend with.
- The studied institutions employed the following gender programs: lowering of cut off points for the disadvantaged sex group, the quota reservations and the bridging program. The objective of the employed gender programs was an attempt to advantage the female students only and the institutions achieved this by ring-fencing for female students. Thus, the approach though labelled ‘gender’ was purely ‘feminist.’ Consistent with the feminist approach, the issue at the centre of the programs was ‘female students’ and gender equality was taken to mean the disparities female students faced in student admissions.

- Within both layers, a misconception of the term gender and what gender equality entails was observed. To the administrators, gender was more or less synonymous with women and gender inequalities were taken at a superficial level to refer to quantitative parity democracy. Hence, all roads led to a quantitative increase of female students in the institution's academic departments. The lower level administrators, in most cases displayed not only a matter of negative attitudes, but plain insidious hostility to the whole gender equality agenda. While most of these acted gender, indications were that this did not come from their hearts (they were forced into it) and given a chance most of these indicated they would want the programs removed and have selection based purely on 'merit'. There was therefore, a cross purpose of intent between the gender policy programs implementation and the aspirations of the lower level administrators in student admissions.
- Selection was, in all cases, handled by a committee which was headed by a chairperson. In a few cases the dean of the academic faculty was a member of the selection committee but in most cases he was not (all the deans of academic faculties, in both institutions were only male). In all cases the dean ratified the selection results.
- None of the actors had had a substantial engagement in gender. Some actors in student admissions had received a day's workshop on gender in 2007. But because of high staff turn over, few of those trained were still with the institution. Chairpersons said they had not received any formal institutional gender training, though in one university through information from the chairperson of the gender committee, they too were trained for a day in 2007. But this group had been the most affected by high staff turnover and some had resigned from the institutions or left departments which had been established after 2007. Even the 2007 workshop was not attended by all chairpersons then. Clearly the issue of gender was alien to most actors, with most only saying they hear about gender through the media and also through the VC's pronouncements at important functions. This finding was responsible for the negative attitudes of lower level actors.

- The gender implementation approach followed was the integrationist approach, which entailed adoption of the female students into a political system which initially excluded them without a re-examination or re-organization of the political system to incorporate them.
- The challenge faced through pursuing this integrationist approach was failure to challenge gender inequality conservatism in student admissions as witnessed by the attitudes of lower level actors to the gender equality agenda. Gender stereotypes, biases and discrimination were rife among the lower level actors in student admissions.
- The other challenge faced by the institution was that the quantitative enrolment statistics remained low in Faculties of Science and Natural Resources despite implementation of all the cited gender policy programs.
- The steps taken to combat the challenges landed themselves in increased modes of entry, from the 'conventional only' to visiting/block and parallel. But even with this, especially with the visiting numbers of women enrolled remained constantly at almost half that of the males over the six year range studied.
- The studied institutions pursued the 'tailoring model of gender equality' with all its emphasis on deliberately advantaging the female students. Quite a number of lower level administrators resisted this model of pursuing equality, finding the whole exercise undermining the 'meritocracy' of the university. Given a chance the model of gender equality they would pursue is the sameness approach. A gender analysis of their preferred stance revealed their gender blindness; studies show that equal treatment and equal rights "between sexes are by no means sufficient guarantees for actual equality between the sexes" (Stevens & van Lamoen 2001:25). So their labelling of the approach as fair is gender questionable.
- The interviews revealed a great lack of formal monitoring, evaluation and reviewing of selection practices. An analysis of this finding revealed this as one of the reasons that kept the gender equality mandate in student admissions under siege.

- The language of some of the actors signified peripheral gender inclusiveness, showing a lack of gender equality adaptiveness of the actors.
- Contrary to most senior administrators, lower level administrators found the selection practices open to abuse and misuse, and so advocated for a stand alone policy on student admissions and increased transparency. Again, while almost all senior administrators were for upholding the gender policy programs, the lower level administrators were divided, with half for a discard of the programs and the other half for the enforcement of the gender programs.

When all was put together, from documentary analysis to qualitative and quantitative analysis, the successes and failures of the implemented programs were weighed against each other. The study went to compare the implemented programs against the gender equality evaluation models advanced by various gender scholars (cf. chapter 3). In sum, the study found the implemented gender policy programs closed the gender gaps in student admissions to a very little extent. The conclusion made was, therefore, that the implementation of gender policy programs in student admissions is not effective and meaningful.

6.3 CONTRIBUTIONS OF RESEARCH

The study has contributed to both literature (theory) and knowledge (applied/ practice)

6.3.1 Contribution of study to theory

Perhaps the most significant contribution of this study to theory is its increasing literature on gender mainstreaming in Africa in general and in Zimbabwe in particular. Very little appears to have been studied on the implementation of gender programs in Africa. Bunyi (2003: 3) noted that there is little in the available literature that shows the measuring of the impact of gender programs, let alone detail of how they are designed and implemented. This study has filled this void.

Secondly, as regards Zimbabwe in particular, literature on gender mainstreaming is still growing because issues of gender in the country are a relatively new phenomenon, and the implementation of gender policy programs in particular has not been sufficiently measured. In this regard, the study has contributed to the reservoir of knowledge so far gained in the area. By so doing again, the study has

increased the coverage of such studies in Zimbabwe. The few studies on gender interventions have been conducted mainly in East-Central Africa by FAWE (2003: 1-10), Mbilinyi (2000: 8-12); Benjamin (2010: 273-281) and Masanja (2010: 6-13). None, to the best knowledge of this researcher, has been done on 'Zimbabwe universities and gender interventions'. The researcher (after establishing the research done at state universities) found that none of the studies could be located in the area of an evaluative analysis of the implemented gender programs in the institutions in general and in student admissions in particular. In this respect the study can be regarded as the first of its type concerning Zimbabwe state universities.

6.3.3 Contribution of study to practice

Highlighting challenges faced by the state universities in trying to close the gender gaps in student admissions serves as a basis for determining more robust strategies which could close the gender gaps. The stakeholders will greatly benefit from this study because the awareness brought out will significantly assist in designing well conceived gender responsive policy programs that effectively help reduce gender gaps not only in student admissions but in practices and procedures in other areas.

But perhaps the most significant contribution of the study to practice is the suggested implementation model and all its key tenets. The model is for guiding actions to improve the delivery of gender equality. The model derives much from the renowned models of change implementations and management (Ornstein & Hunkins 1993: 309-313) and its greatest strength is its location in the adaptive paradigm with the emphasis on gender programs in a particular institution as 'local oriented change processes'. This model, consistent with the option of the adaptive perspectives, permits implementation of gender policy programs "to be modified and revised according to the unfolding interaction of the policy with its institutional setting" (Berman 1980: 210-211) what is widely referred to as "mutual adaptation" in change processes (Ornstein & Hunkins 1993: 310).

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE PRACTICE

The recommendations for future practice that emanated from the study are: the need for a paradigm shift and an elaboration of the kind of the new shift.

6.4.1 The need for a paradigm shift

The discussions of the research findings led to a sense of direction that promotes some specific action plan essential to the attainment of the desired implementation goal of gender equality.

Findings revealed that the implementation of gender policy programs in student admissions is in a transformation paralysis, as witnessed by the fact that very little positive change is happening despite the implemented gender policy program to achieve it (positive change). Inarguably then, the gender equality agenda in student admissions needs resuscitation so that its worth and relevance can be realised.

In view of this, the study recommends a paradigm shift from the present one that keeps the gender equality mandate under siege, to one that makes the implementation of gender policy programs to respond appropriately to the intentions and goals of the programs. From the section in this study where the implementation of the gender policy programs was critiqued (cf.5.6.1-5.6.6), the need for a paradigm shift becomes clearer to a point that a need for the paradigm shift is not an option in order to make the implementation of gender policy programs effective, fruitful and efficient in the university in general and in student admissions in particular.

This study is not the first to make calls of such shifts if the intended goal is not achieved. Beshu *et al* (1996: 3) advanced such a call when interventions did not drive home the intended outcomes in Tanzania. Goetz (1997:2) also adds her voice to those calling for a paradigm shift; she questioned why efforts to change institutional structures, rules and beliefs associated with gender mainstreaming often meet with denial of conflicting gender interests. Mbilinyi (2000: 3) concurs when contemplating how institutions can be made accountable to women. These researchers call for new thinking on potential programs of action. Although these authorities were referring to development institutions and educational institutions outside Zimbabwe, their analysis of institutional change is found relevant to the Zimbabwe state universities.

6.4.2 The new shift: toward; a contextual and encompassing model

Having listened to what the participants' experiences, perceptions, beliefs and behaviours in student admissions a further recommendation is a paradigm shift and the kind of gender implementation the paradigm should encompass.

The new shift should be holistic and all-encompassing instead of a piecemeal approach. In view of the 'all encompassing approach', the study further recommends that the following be done:

- *The model be context specific*

Zimbabwe state universities are autonomous institutions and because of this autonomy, it is up to a particular institution to put in place a program that it deems necessary for its situation. Thus, it is recommended that the new shift be context-specific because every institution is unique. This could be the reason why the ZNGP provides the institutions with autonomy in interpreting and using the gender programs rather than dictating to them what and how they can implement. This is a credit on the part of the ZNGP because bureaucratic approaches to change implementation are not very conducive to the constituency (Ornstein & Hunkins 1993: 303). The model should recognize grass-roots realities (conditions and problems) of a particular university. If the new shift ignores the context, then it runs the risk of ignoring the institutional realities and as such may result in programs that discredit themselves. It is therefore imperative that the model encourages *ex-ante* evaluations before programs are implemented. The *ex-ante* evaluations are a situational analysis of the universities before program implementation and the advantage of this is allowing work from an informed position. Thus, the model should encourage locally oriented change processes. This recommendation is derived from the finding that no evaluations were carried out before crafting and implementing the existing programs.

- *Re-orientation of the university actors before program implementation*

The re-orientation (crux of gender mainstreaming) is recommended in order to bring the gender program to the 'hearts' of the actors. Seeds of change lie with these people and it is always wise to start from where they are. Research established that approaches that ignore the processes required to change long-held beliefs and practices have little impact (Wendoh & Wallace 2005: 79). The actors in student admissions can confront the need for change if the process starts from their own experiences and understanding (Wendoh & Wallace 2005: 79). This is what Lewin, in his Force Field Model of change management (Lewin 1975: 5, 12) calls "unfreezing the status quo". According to this authority, all change processes find themselves in an environment that comprises competing forces of two types: driving forces versus restraining forces. In the context of this study, driving forces could be the government and university (policy makers) and the restraining forces could be the traditional patriarchal values, obsolete knowledge of the actors and fear of the unknown. Borrowing ideas from this author, the study recommends that the 'unfreezing' be achieved through reducing the power of the restraining forces rather than through increasing the power of the driving forces. This recommendation is made as a result of findings that the current paradigm achieved the unfreezing

through increased power of the driving force. Interviews especially brought out that most actors indicated that the implementation of gender policy programs was an imposition from above at the expense of no or limited reduction of the power of the restraining forces. The following interview extract is an example.

It is this whole idea of being forced to practice affirmative action which wants to derail our focus. We are not happy about it and we want to make this point clear (chairperson 5).

Clearly, the focus was not pro program. Also the statement “*We want to make this point clear*” can imply doing so through sabotaging the implemented program. This could be the reason why the survey results especially revealed that many departments were not implementing the programs contrary to the almost universal application implied by the senior administrators.

The power of the restraining forces, in this case, could have been effectively reduced through the gender consciousness-raising of the actors through continuous incrementalist attendance of suitable workshops. The merit of this is making actors more natural within the gender program and its implementation. Change should never come as a surprise to the actors. Despite the fact that commitment from the top is important, it can never be imposed as a top-down decision. The human equation (not necessarily in terms of numbers as in terms of behavioural change) is of importance in the implementation of gender programs. Taking adequate care of this human equation, achieves what Gross (1979: 30) calls “developing a constituency for the planned strategy to overcome resistance to change.” This will make the gender equality culture (organizational culture) part of the total system in student admissions in particular and in the university in general. Culture is generally changed by the understanding of others that new directions are worthwhile. This recommendation at the same time accommodates Hanson’s (1979: 63) views on organisational culture that “an institution like a tune is not constituted by individual sounds but by the relationships between them.”

Borrowing again from the ideas of other prominent authorities in the change model circles, such as Rensis Likert (Likert 1981:677) and Ornstein and Hunkins (1993: 312) on the need for “linking pins” in any change process, the study recommends that the program implementers be effectively made ‘linking pins’ whose dynamics interplay have a powerful effect on their attitudes and behaviours. The merit of this is achieving automatic change in the entire attitudes and behaviours of the constituency. By so doing the new shift achieves what is encouraged and valued by two other authorities in change

model circles, Schmuck and Miles (1977: 10-18) in their organizational development model of change who also advise that change be believed in by the implementers.

- *Change has to start at a personal level*

The study further recommends that the re-orientation of the actors to the new gender equality agenda be achieved through extensive (to cover the whole university community) and intensive (not the one short workshop, but routine workshops) gender awareness and sensitivity training. Consciousness raising is essential so that the actors' mind-set thinks gender before acting gender. Thinking gender has to do with the actors' beliefs, attitudes and perceptions. This is the most fundamental level at which transformation needs to take place. This type of change takes time. It is recommended that the institutions give time to win the people's hearts. The university community can be educated about gender further through dissemination of relevant information through publications, newsletters and ongoing workshops.

- *An inclusion of monitoring, evaluation and reviewing of the implemented program*

This serves to permit modifications and revisions of the implementation according to the unfolding interaction of the program with its institutional setting (Berman 1980: 210-211, Murison 2004: 5, Hannan 2008: 6-7). This encourages reducing the gender gap between the ideal implementation goal of gender equality and the given local context, "mutual adaptation" (Ornstein & Hunkins 1993: 310). This is therefore crucial. The study proposes quantitative and qualitative diagnostic surveys to keep checking the difference that the programs will be making. Should anything be found off-track, then adjustment becomes necessary.

- *Adoption of the broader conception of gender and what gender equality entails*

Adoption of the broader concept of gender and what gender equality entails is important because the studied literature revealed that this is "true gender equality", what Lombardo (2003: 7) famously terms *equality de facto*. The new shift should take the broad structuralist definition of the term gender as espoused at the Second World Conference on Women in 1980, when the term was first coined. By structural change is meant major modifications of the way actors in student admissions conceive, believe and value their practices and procedures. The structuralist approach to gender looks beyond the persons, to their attitudes, beliefs and behaviours. This recommendation comes in the

wake of the findings that revealed that the actors held a very narrow, if not a misconception of the concept gender and what gender equality entails.

- *The new shift should promote an active and visible written down stand alone policy on student admissions*

This recommendation is made in the wake of the many calls for one such policy by the lower level administrators. Gender equality like any sustainable development cannot be effectively assured in the absence of proper articulation and implementation guidelines. Policies are good for clarity and accountability. The study recommends that the student admission policies spell out in concrete terms questions of what exactly is wanted, what should be done and what has to be changed. This comes in the wake of the findings that revealed that the selection practices were implemented at the discretion of the particular department.

- *The new shift be located in the radical transformative paradigm*

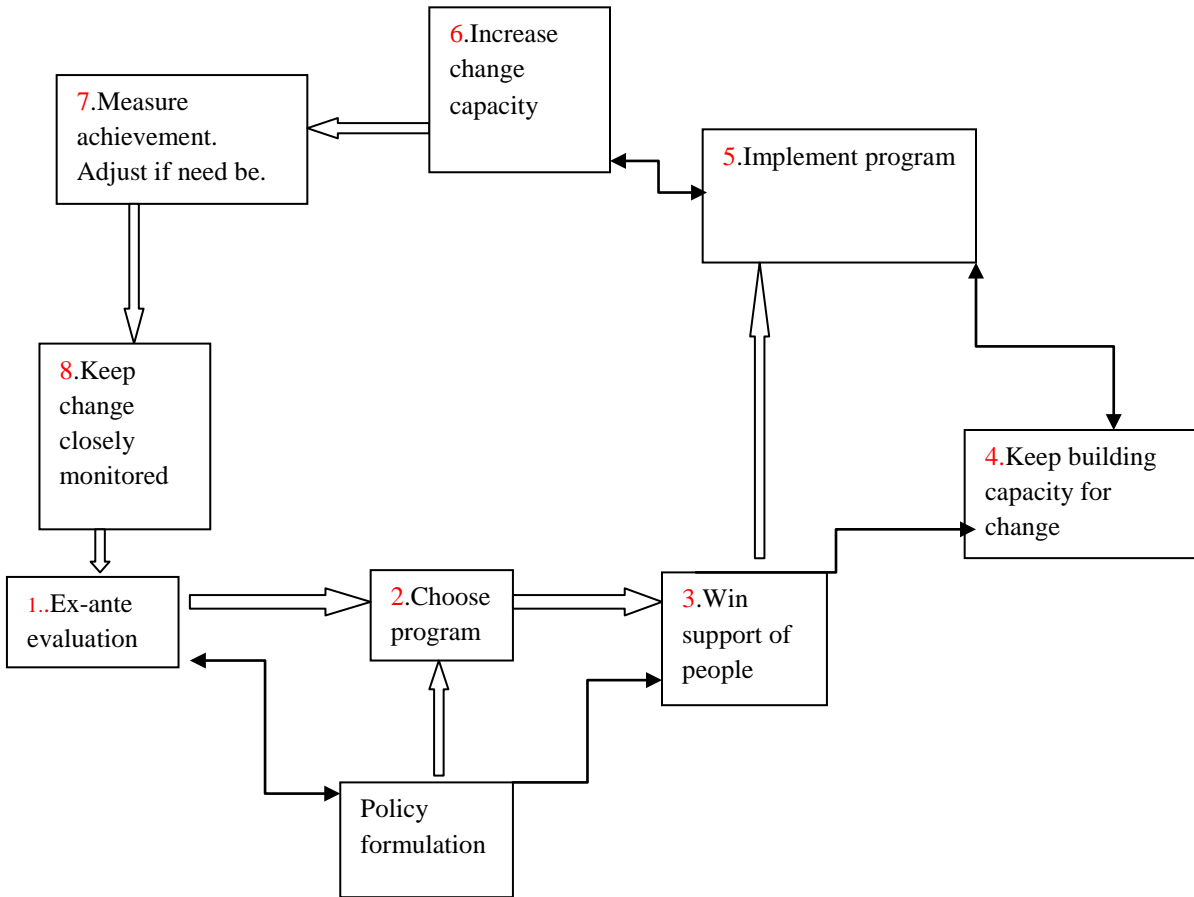
It is recommended the new shift be located in radical transformative thinking with its emphasis on getting to the roots of gender issues than merely assimilating gender issues into political systems that are not under discussion (Stevens & van Lamoen 2001: 25-27). Gender change, as put across by the gender critical theory, is not a technical process but a political one. The roots of this is linked with radical thinking which is at the same time linked with the concept of transformative education associated with the works of such authorities as Freire (1990: 9-150, 1996: 7-240; 1997: 7-107). This recommendation comes in the wake of the findings that revealed that the current paradigm is couched mainly in the liberal functionalist analysis which seemingly ignores the depth of sexism/patriarchy/masculinity in power relations within student admissions. Although the positive contribution of the current approach is increasing the visibility of female students quantitatively, certain actors in student admissions were found qualitatively to hold to their masculine tendencies, something that stifled attainment of gender equality in student admissions. This finding confirms the usefulness of a radical approach that unpacks both quantitative and qualitative biases, stereotypes, discriminations and other gender-unjust shifts in the actors' thinking. It is believed that such a radical paradigm may do away with the current cosmetic redress of gender as it will unlock the realised transformation paralysis.

Figure 6.1 on page 224 of this study is the proposed model. The model was devised by the researcher and has eight interlocking arenas of implementation which are wedged between the informal pressures (ideology of patriarchy, culture, unequal power relations and exclusionary practices, obsolete knowledge of the actors etc.) and the formal pressures (government, universities' placement

of gender equality on the agenda) (Rao & Kelleher 2005: 59-63). The informal and formal pressures are more or less what Lewin in his Force-Field Model of change management (Lewin 1975: 5-12) and Ornstein and Hunkins (1993: 310) call “restraining forces and driving forces”. In view of this, the proposed model emphasises incrementalist gender consciousness-raising of the participants. This will weaken the informal pressures (restraining forces); at the same time strengthening the formal pressures (driving forces) and thus make strides towards the gender equality agenda. This will reduce vulnerabilities and at the same time increase capabilities for gender equality. This is why levels 3, 4, 6 and 8 of the model are on ‘capacity building for change.’ This is the main departure that this model makes from the others. This is because gender is inside (beliefs, attitudes, perceptions and values) hence the need to sensitise actors to gender in student admissions from the inside out. Gender conservatism of the actors (i.e. the conscious or unconscious unwillingness on the part of the individual or groups of actors to give up their existing gendered beliefs and practices) can only be permeated by substantial gender consciousness-raising, bearing in mind that attitudes take long to build or destroy.

The other emphasis that this model makes is that programs should never be implemented before the people’s hearts are won. Capacity building workshops and seminars, until routinisation of the program by the actors becomes second nature to them, are the core of this model. On this same note it is recommended that the institutions commit themselves to making human, material and financial capacity and other resources available to support the quest for gender equality. The adequacy and appropriateness of these resources is crucial in mainstreaming a gender equality agenda in student admissions and in other university areas in general. This recommendation comes in the wake of the revelations from the chairperson of the gender committee at one institution that challenges of resources incapacitated the committee to carry out its duties.

Figure 6.1: The proposed model: A sustainable and strategic plan to reduce gender inequality in student admissions in universities.



6.5 AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The findings of this research raise both theoretical and methodological questions that require future research. In this regard, the following areas for further research are suggested:

First, the study is a case study of only two state universities in Zimbabwe. Findings of the study do not give details of implementation of gender programs in other state universities since they cannot be generalized. In this regard, the established admissions practices of the studied universities are not an accurate portrayal of how state universities in Zimbabwe select their incoming classes. In this respect more research is needed to investigate into these institutions' implementation of gender programs in

student admissions. It is therefore recommended that this research be replicated with other Zimbabwe state universities to confirm the findings. Such tracking of the implementation of gender policy programs at other state universities will give useful insights into the gender implementations at Zimbabwe state universities which may allow comparative studies of the universities.

Secondly, the study confined itself only to the area of student admissions. Yet there are many areas within these institutions which employ gender policy programs. In this regard, the study recommends wider exploration into the implementation of gender policy programs within all areas where such implementation has not been raised and detailed within the scope of this study. Such a comprehensive research will give a holistic picture of how gender policy programs are implemented within state universities, thereby enabling assessment of the full impact of the implemented programs. In light of this, the study recommends that areas covered by future research may include the following but not limited to only these:

- Structures of power, practices and procedures in incentive systems, recruitment of staff (academic and non academic) promotions of the same, as well as curriculum and pedagogy. Findings of such studies will provide useful insights and inputs into the institutional gendered structures that make it difficult for men and women at particular institutions to compete equally and even to succeed. This study has shown some of the constraints to successful implementation of gender programs but such a wider coverage of other areas may open up a terrain of constraints which in themselves are necessary in coming up with models of implementation.
- At issue, the research findings pointed to a remarkable increase in females gaining access into a university. It may be interesting to carry out further studies on the female students who entered the university system through these programs to get their perceptions of the programs, how they fare compared to students who entered through direct entry and establish their controlling presence in the mainstream. Insights from such studies will provide a useful assessment of the value, worth and function of the programs. Through the program strengths and weaknesses ushered by such studies, ways of revitalisation of the existing programs or completely forming new programs are made possible.
- Research into what Mbilinyi (2000: 15) calls “the gendered archaeology of organizations” where research examines histories, artefacts such as favoured concepts and traces of gender patterns of privilege is another important research area. Inputs from such research will help

explain some patterns of resistance to gender change. This recommendation comes in the wake of research findings that revealed actors' resistance and hostility to gender change. There surely, should be a cause for the 'avoidance behaviour'.

Thirdly, findings revealed that at one institution there is a 'Gender Management Committee' established in 2006 to assist in the coordination of gender activities at the institution. Given the situation where members said they did not receive any gender training since joining the institution some five years ago, research into the effectiveness of such committees should be undertaken. While such committees are welcome developments in ensuring and strengthening gender activism at the institutions, the fear is that, many of them, like the implemented programs, may be window dressing. Insights of future research on this aspect may help the committees justify their worthwhile gender existence.

Fourthly, the literature study revealed that there is scant coverage of studies on the implementation of gender programs in Zimbabwe in general. The study recommends conducting similar studies not only in the Zimbabwe state universities or education in particular but in other sectors of the Zimbabwe economy. Findings of such studies will provide useful insights to the approaches of gender mainstreaming implemented in Zimbabwe. This will help Zimbabwe revitalize its approaches or pursue completely different approaches should the present be found ineffective or insufficient in fulfilling their intended mandates.

These recommended areas for future research do not exhaust the possibilities but only illustrate some of the strategic lenses through which other studies can be considered.

6.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter has served to summarise the main findings of the study and to proffer recommendations that emanate from the study. The recommendations are both for future practice and research. The chapter has also cited some of the study's contributions to both theory and practice.

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APPENDIX A: CONSENT FORM

The Implementation of Gender Policy Programs in Students Admission in Selected Zimbabwe State Universities

CONSENT FORM

I have been asked to take part in a study on 'The implementation of Gender Policy Programs in Student Admissions in Selected Zimbabwe State Universities'. If I choose to take part, I will be engaged in conversations and also interviewed, and if I agree, the interviews will be audio taped. There is no risk or discomfort associated with the interview. The study will not benefit me directly, but may lead to a greater understanding of gender policy in education generally, and in particular how gender policies are implemented in university student admissions.

Findings will be analysed and reported in qualitative and quantitative form, and my participation will not be identified. Audio tapes of interviews will be used to ensure an accurate record of the interview and will be erased once transcription has been done. Information I provide will be kept confidential to the extent allowed by law and not reported to others outside the research project in a way that personally identifies me. The study may result in a thesis report, published article and presentations at professional conferences.

For questions, I may ask about this study of the Thesis, Dr T.V. Manyike, Department of Comparative Education, Phone 002712 429 4004 at the University of South Africa. I understand that I may refuse to take part, and I may choose to withdraw my participation any time. I will not be penalised and will not lose any benefits to which I am entitled.

I have read and understood the above, and agree to take part in this study.

Printed name.....Signature..... Date.....

APPENDIX B: DOCUMENTARY STUDY AS A DATA GATHERING INSTRUMENT

Purpose: The purpose of this documentary study is three fold. The data will seek to establish:

- a) what the gender programs are exactly and how they are intended to be implemented,
- b) goals and objectives of the gender policy programs and
- c) whether the documents are grounded in any theory(ies).

In achieving the purpose outlined above, the questions that will guide in the data collection, are grouped below according to the benchmarks of gender equality policies. These key characteristics are as outlined in section 4.6.1 of this study and following are the questions. .

Possible questions:

A. Commitment Search

1. Is there a gender policy in place?
2. What are the goals of the gender policy?
3. Is the principle of gender equality spelt out in the policy framework?
4. Do the general goals define the objective of redressing gender equality?
5. In which way can these goals explicitly contribute to preservation or destruction of gender gaps?
6. Does the policy define targets?
7. Is data sex differentiated?
8. Who are the beneficiaries of the services?

B. Mechanism Identification

1. Does the policy identify mechanisms to achieve gender equality?
2. Is the implementation of the activities spelled out?
3. How will the gender policy be communicated?
4. Is there a time frame for achievement of goals?

5. Does the policy have indicators that specify how the achievement is going to be measured and verified?

C. Resource Assessment

1. Are guidelines on human, material and financial mobilization to support the quest for gender equality provided?

2. Does the policy specify resources allocated to the efforts?

D. Internal Tracking

1. Does the gender policy outline monitoring procedures?

2. Does the gender policy outline evaluation procedures?

3. Are the targets measurable?

4. Does the gender policy have indicators that specify how the achievement is going to be measured and verified?

5. Does the capacity exist to collect and analyze data?

E. Gender Mainstreaming Unit

Who has the mandate to guide and coordinate the overall gender mainstreaming process at the institution?

F. Underlying Paradigm Audit

1. Which of the critical indicators of gender equality does the policy address: Access, Resources, Achievement?

2. What developmental philosophy guides the principles of gender equality?

3. Can the institution be typified as one with successful gender policy?

APPENDIX C: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR REGISTRAR/DEPUTY REGISTRAR

Tentative Interview Guide

If permission is granted, interviews will be audio taped. With necessary adjustments for context, the common questions include:

1. How is admission of students contacted at your institution?
[into the university, into the faculty, into the department]
2. Is there a written down student admission policy?
3. If yes, a) what guides the policy?[probe for links from the university gender policy]
b) what are the objectives of the policy?
c) who are involved in student admission[probe for their gender know how]
d) how is student achievement structured at your university?
4. If no, what guides the institution's student admission practices?
5. If policy is in place, what are its specific targets?
 - a) short term
 - b) long term
 - c) how is the policy communicated?
6. What are the achievements of the institution's student admission policy practices?
7. What are the challenges of the institution's student admission policy?
[probe for steps taken to combat the challenges].
8. What experiences from achievements and challenges help you to expand and improve admission practices?[] sift for their gender dimension, model of gender equality invoked etc.]
9. Is policy reviewed? Monitored? Evaluated?

[If yes, by who? After how long?—probe for the gender knowledgability of the reviewers, monitors and evaluators]

[If no, why? How are admission practices kept on track? How is impact measured?]

10. What mechanism exist for recruitment of students?[probe and sift for their gender dimensions]

11. What mechanisms exist for retention of students?[probe and sift for their gender dimensions]

12 What gender specific indicators exist in your assessment of the impact of practices on male/female students? [check on gender appropriateness of the indicators in assessing the different impact the practices have on male and female students]

13. How do you think the student admissions can be improved?

[Sift for their gender dimensions of the proffered improvements, model of gender equality implied, mainstreaming strategy preferred and what implications for achievement of gender equality]

APPENDIX D: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR THE SENIOR ASSISTANT REGISTRAR

Tentative Interview Guide

If permission is granted then some interviews will be audio taped. With necessary adjustments for context, some common questions include:

1. What is the student admission criteria? [into university, faculty, department].

2. Is there a written student admission policy?[probe for what guides policy, gender dimensions, objectives of policy, etc]
[If no policy probe for what guides admission].

3. What exactly is the role of your office in student admission?

4. What are the specific targets of the student admission policy practices[short term targets, long term targets –probe for gender equality incorporation]

5. Who practically works on student admissions [probe whether its done singly handedly or by a committee- what is the gender composition of the committee, their considerations, their gender knowhow].

6. What links exist with faculty deans? With departmental chairpersons?

7. What are the achievements of the policy practices? [check for gender equality incorporation]

8. What challenges does your office face in implementation of the gender policy? [check for obstacles to attainment of goal of gender equality].

9. What steps have you taken to overcome obstacles? [check for their gender dimension and contribution to gender equality goal].

10. What experiences have you learnt from challenges and achievements of policy practices? [check on gender dimensions and implications on gender equality attainment].

11. What mechanisms exist to monitor/evaluate the policy implementation? [check for existence of a system in place, probe for who does it (their gender knowledge), duration of reviews (too short or too long on impact on gender), when were the last reviews.]

[If no system in place for reviewing and monitoring probe for reasons and ways of keeping admission on track-check on implications of the ways on gender equality attainment].

12. What gender specific indicators exist in your assessment of the impact of practices on male/female students? [check on gender appropriateness of the indicators in assessing the different impact the practices have on male and female students]

13. What gender sensitivity ratings on a scale of 'unsatisfactory, satisfactory and very satisfactory' would you put on own admission practices and why? [Check on dimensions of gender equality implied, dimensions of gender mainstreaming incorporated and what implications for attainment of substantive gender equality]

15. What suggestions for improvements can you offer? [Sift for their gender dimensions of the proffered improvements, model of gender equality implied, mainstreaming strategy preferred and what implications for achievement of gender equality]

APPENDIX E: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR DEPARTMENTAL CHAIRPERSONS

Tentative Guidelines:

If permission is granted then some interviews will be audio taped. With necessary adjustments for context, some common questions include:

1. How do you select students for admission in your department?

[probe for details on how students are selected in the department-by who? how? –to point of short listing and get details on the short listing, duration of chairperson etc- check for gender dimensions in the whole process and implications on gender equality]

2. How do you determine the composition of male and female students in your department?

[probe for criteria, if any, of determining how many males and females can be admitted into the department- check on the gender dimensions of the of the criteria, what model of gender equality embedded, what approach to gender mainstreaming incorporated and what implications on the goal of gender equality]

3. Who practically works on student selection in the department i.e. how is student selection procedure done in your department?

[Checking whether its done singly handedly (with or without reporting to dean's office), committee in place- check on gender composition of the committee and gender know how of the committee and cardinal points of considerations-check on gender incorporation of the cardinal points of consideration]

4. Do you face any challenges in implementation of your departmental selection practices?

[Check on any obstacles in implementation-implications for goal of gender equality-steps taken to combat obstacles- gender dimensions of the steps and what implications for the gender equality attainment]

5. Can your departmental selection model be abused/misused? [probe for how? By whom? What power structures exist? Nature of influences? And what implications for closure of gender gaps]

6. What can you say are the achievements of your departmental selection practices?

[Check on achievements of the selection practices- their gender dimensions-model of gender equality implied - approach to gender mainstreaming incorporated and implications for gender equality attainment]

7. What lessons can you say you got from lessons learnt from achievements and challenges encountered?

[get their gender dimensions and implications for the attainment of gender equality]

8. How do you think they can help you expand or improve your student selection practices?

[probe and sift for the gender dimensions, vision of gender equality invoked, mainstreaming strategy implied and what implications for closure of gender gaps]

9. Do you have problems recruiting male/females as a group?

[probe for any problems recruiting male students? Recruiting female students?-what is the nature of the problems- what have been done to the problems-what are the gender dimensions of the problems and solutions and what implications for the goal of gender equality]

10. What retention programs / strategies exist in your department?[Sift for their gender dimensions and implications for gender equality]

11. Do you have problems retaining males or females as a group?

[Probe and check for any departmental challenges with retaining female students- retaining male students- nature of challenges- gender dimension and implications for attainment of gender equality]

12. How you rate the gender responsiveness of your departmental admission practices on scale of 'unsatisfactory, satisfactory, and very satisfactory'?

[get own rating of departmental admission practices- probe for why- get gender dimensions of the reasons given- model of gender equality implied- gender mainstreaming approach preferred and implications for goal of gender equality]

13. Can you supply gender disaggregated student enrolment statistics, only for those enrolling for their first year first semester for the period from 2005 to date?[will study these for gender parity in admissions]

14. What suggestions can you put forward for improvements?

[Sift for their gender dimensions of the proffered improvements, model of gender equality implied, mainstreaming strategy preferred and what implications for achievement of gender equality]

APPENDIX F: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR DEPARTMENTAL CHAIRPERSONS

Dear Mr/Ms/Dr/Prof

I am a doctoral student in Comparative and International Education student, (University of South African). I have chosen to investigate on the nature, implementation and impact of the student admission policies and practices in selected Zimbabwe State Universities, for my thesis, with the view of assisting policy makers and implementers to come up with well conceived gender responsive policy programs that can effectively help reduce gender imbalances/ gaps in the area of student admissions.

You are one of the departmental chairpersons selected to participate in this study. I would therefore be grateful if you could spare a few minutes of your valuable time to complete the attached questionnaire. Your honest responses will assist the researcher to come up with an objective report which will contribute significantly to the Zimbabwe State Universities' student admission capacity to deliver on the gender equality front.

Please be assured that all information obtained will be treated with the strictest confidentiality. The conditions of your participation in this study are stipulated in the attached "Informed Consent Agreement Form"

I look forward to your valuable contribution.

Yours faithfully

Efiritha Chauraya

D.ED Candidate

University of South Africa

INSTRUCTIONS

1. Respondents are requested to read the questions carefully and answer ALL questions as TRUTHFULLY as possible by placing a tick in the appropriate box or by filling in the answers in the spaces provided.
2. Please do not write your name anywhere on the this questionnaire.

QUESTIONS TO BE ANSWERED

1. Sex: Male Female

2. Department of operation

3. Duration as chairperson at current institution

Less than one year	1-2 years	3-4 years	5years	Over 5 years

4. How is admission of students conducted in your department?

.....

5.a) Is there a written down student selection guideline in your department?

b) If yes, what are its main cardinal points?

.....

6. Who within your department is responsible for the actual selection and short listing of students?

Tick where appropriate.

- i) chairperson singly handedly
- ii) chairperson with committee
- iii) committee without chairperson
- iv) any other (specify).....

7. If by a committee, what is its gender composition?

8.a) Have you, in your capacity as departmental chairperson, received any gender sensitisation at your institution or elsewhere?

Yes

No

b) If yes, i) how often?.....

ii) when is the last time that you received it?

iii) what is the nature of the gender sensitisation package received, i.e. in what form?.....

9. If selection is by a committee. Have the members received any gender awareness education?

Yes

No

10. Briefly explain how you determine the number of males and females to be admitted?

.....
.....

11. Kindly supply gender disaggregated enrolment statistics for your department for the periods indicated - (only students registering for their first year for the first time)

Year	Number of male students	Number of female students
2005 semester 1		
2006 semester 2		
2007 semester 1		
2008 semester 2		
2009 semester 1		
2010 semester 1		

12. What can you say are main achievements of your departmental student selection criteria?

.....

13. What challenges do you encounter with your departmental student selection practices?

.....

14.a) Do these challenges hinder implementation of your department student selection practices?

Yes

No

b) if yes, briefly explain in what way

.....
.....

15. What steps have you taken to combat these challenges?

.....

16. How do you think the achievements and challenges have helped you expand and improve your admission practices?

17.a) Do you have problems recruiting female students to your department?

Yes

No

b) If yes what is the nature of the problems.....

.....

18.a) Do you have problems recruiting male students to your department?.

Yes

No

b) If yes what is the nature of the problems.....

.....

19. Do you have problems retaining female students in your department?

Yes

No

b) If yes, what is the nature of the problems.....

.....

20. Do you have problems retaining male students in your department?

Yes

No

b) If yes, what is the nature of the problems.....

.....

21.a) Is there a system in place for reviewing and monitoring your departmental selection practices?

Yes

No

b) If yes, briefly outline how

.....

.....

c) If yes, i) who does the reviewing and monitoring?.....

ii) after how long?.....

iii) iii) have these reviewers received any gender awareness training?

.....

.....

d) If no, how do you ensure that your practices are kept on track?

.....

.....

22. Does your department carry out an evaluation/ assessment of the departmental selection practices?

Yes

No

Attitude toward; women

- Empowering 1 2 3 4 5 Hostile
- Respectful 1 2 3 4 5 Disrespectful
- Confidence building ...1 2 3 4 5Repressive
- Progressive1 2 3 4 5 Conservative
- Friendly 1 2 3 4 5 Unfriendly

b) briefly support your ratings.....

.....

26. Attitude toward; men

- Empowering 1 2 3 4 5 Hostile
- Respectful 1 2 3 4 5 Disrespectful
- Confidence building ...1 2 3 4 5 Repressive
- Progressive1 2 3 4 5 Conservative
- Friendly1 2 3 4 5 Unfriendly

b) briefly support your ratings

.....

27. To what extent do you find your student selection practices making effort to provide equal attention to male and female students?

No extent	Small extent	Some reasonably extent	Great extent

b) Explain your response

.....

28. What aspects of your departmental student selection practices do you think should be maintained?.....

29. What would you like to see changed as regards your student selection criteria?.....

.....

.....
.....

30. How do you think your selection practices can be improved?

.....
.....
.....

Thank you

APPENDIX G: INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR THE FACULTY EXECUTIVE DEAN

Tentative Interview Guide

If permission is granted, interviews will be audio taped. With necessary adjustments for context, the common questions include:

1. How is admission of students contacted at your faculty?

[into the university, into the faculty, into the department]

2. Is there a written down student admission policy?

3. If yes, a) what guides the policy?[probe for links from the university gender policy]

b) what are the objectives of the policy?

c) who are involved in student admission[probe for their gender know how]

d) how is student achievement structured in your faculty?

4. If no, what guides the institution's student admission practices?

5. If policy is in place, what are its specific targets?

a) short term

b) long term

c) how is the policy communicated?

6. What are the achievements of the institution's student admission policy practices?

7. What are the challenges of the institution's student admission policy?

[probe for steps taken to combat the challenges].

8. What experiences from achievements and challenges help you to expand and improve admission practices? [sift for their gender dimension, model of gender equality invoked etc.]

9. Is policy reviewed? Monitored? Evaluated?

[If yes, by who? After how long?—probe for the gender knowledgeability of the reviewers, monitors and evaluators]

[If no, why? How are admission practices kept on track? How is impact measured?]

10. What mechanism exist for recruitment of students?[probe and sift for their gender dimensions]

11. What mechanisms exist for retention of students?[probe and sift for their gender dimensions]

12. What gender specific indicators exist in your assessment of the impact of practices on male/female students? [check on gender appropriateness of the indicators in assessing the different impact the practices have on male and female students]

13. How do you think the student admissions can be improved?

[Sift for their gender dimensions of the proffered improvements, model of gender equality implied, mainstreaming strategy preferred and what implications for achievement of gender equality]

APPENDIX H: THE 63 VARIABLES AND THE SHORT FORM USED WHEN COMPUTING.

NAME C1='SEX'	NAME C1='SEX'
NAME C2='DEPT'	NAME C2='DEPT'
NAME C3='DURATION' as chairperson	NAME C3='DURATION'
NAME C4='ADMISSION CRITERIA'	Name c4 =ADMIN_CR
NAME C5='WRITTEN POLICY'	name C5 = WR_POLIC
NAME C6='POLICY POINTERS'	name C6 = POLI_POT
NAME C7='WHO SELECTS'	name C7 = 'WHO_SEL'
NAME C8='COMMITTEE COMPOSITION'	name C8 = 'COM_COMP'
NAME C9='GENDER TRAINING'	name C9 = 'GE_TRAIN'
NAME C10='TRAINING FREQUENCY'	name C10 = 'TRAIN_FR'
NAME C11='LAST TIME' training was received	name C11 = 'LASTIME'
NAME C12='NATURE OF GENDER PACKAGE'	name C12 = 'NATUPACK'
NAME C13='GENDER -AWARENESS COMMITTEE'	name C13 = 'AWARECOM'
NAME C14='NUMBER DETERMINATION'	name C14 = 'NUMDETEN'
NAME C15='TRENDS SEX-DISAGGREGATED'	name C15 = 'TRENDSEX'
NAME C16='ACHIEVEMENTS OF PRACTICES'	name C16 = 'ACHIEVPR'
NAME C17='CHALLENGES FACED'	name C16 = 'ACHIEVPR'
NAME C18='IMPLEMENTATION HINDRANCE' by the challenges	name C18 = 'IMPLHIND'
NAME C19='HOW'	name C19 = 'HOW_CHAL'
NAME C20='STEPS TO COMBAT CHALLENGES'	name C20 = 'COMBCHAL'
NAME C21='CONTRIBUTION CHALLENGES IMPROVEMENTS'	name C21 = 'CONT_IMP'
NAME C22='FEMALE RECRUITMENT PROBLEMS'	name C22 = 'FE_RE_PR'
NAME C23='FEMALE NATURE OF PROBLEMS RECRUITMENT'	name C23 = 'FE_NA_RE'
NAME C24='MALE RECRUITMENT PROBLEMS'	name C24 = 'MA_RE_PR'
NAME C25='MALE NATURE OF PROBLEMS RECRUITMENT'	name C25 = 'MA_NA_RE'
NAME C26='FEMALE RETENTION PROBLEMS'	name C26 = 'FE_RETPR'
NAME C27='FEMALE NATURE OF PROBLEMS RETENTION'	name C27 = 'FE_NARET'
NAME C28='MALE RETENTION PROBLEMS'	name C28 = 'MA_RETPR'
NAME C29='MALE NATURE OF PROBLEMS RETENTION'	name C29 = 'MA_NARET'
NAME C30='MONITORING REVIEWING' of selection practices	name C30 = 'MON_REV'
NAME C31='HOW MONITORING REVIEWING' is done	name C31 = 'HOW_M_R'
NAME C32='BY WHO'	name C32 = 'BY_WHO'
NAME C33='AFTER HOW LONG'	name C33 = 'AFT_H_LG'
NAME C34='REVIEWER GENDER TRAINING'	name C34 = 'REV_GETR'
NAME C35='IF NO THEN WHAT GUIDES'	name C35 = 'NO_TN_GU'
NAME C36='EVALUATION/ASSESSMENT OF PRACTICES'	name C36 = 'EVA_PRAC'
NAME C37='HOW EVALUATION IS DONE'	name C37 = 'HOW_EVA'
NAME C38='HOW OFTEN EVALUATION IS DONE'	C38 = 'HOW_OF E'
NAME C39='BY WHO EVALUATION'	name C39 = 'BY_WHO_E'
NAME C40='GENDER SENSITIVITY EVALUATORS'	name C40 = 'GE_SE_RE'
NAME C41='IF NO EVALUATION THEN WHAT GUIDES'	name C41 = 'IF_NO_WH'
NAME C42='ARE THERE OBJ REVIEWING MONITORING SYS'	name C42 = 'AR_OBJ_R'
NAME C43='WHAT ARE THEY'	name C43 = 'WHA_ARTY'
NAME C44='MONITORING EVALUATION INDICATORS'	name C44 = 'MON_EV_I'
NAME C45='SELECTION PRACTICES RATING'	name C45 = 'SEL_P_RA'
NAME C46='ELABORATION OF RATING'	name C46 = 'ELAB_RAT'

NAME C47='WOMEN EMPOWERING LEVEL' of selection practices	name C47 = 'WOMN_EMP'
NAME C48 ='WOMEN RESPECTFUL LEVEL' of selection practices (sp)	name C48 = 'WOMN_RES'
NAME C49='WOMEN CONFIDENCE BUILDING LEVEL' of sp	name C49 = 'WOMN_CON'
NAME C50 ='WOMEN PROGRESSIVE LEVEL' of sp	name C50 = 'WOMN_PRO'
NAME C51='WOMEN FRIENDLY LEVEL' of sp	name C51 = 'WOMN_FRI'
NAME C52='SUPPORT OF RATINGS' above	name C52 = 'SUPPWOMN'
NAME C53='MEN EMPOWERING LEVEL' of sp	name C53 = 'MEN_EMP'
NAME C54 ='MEN RESPECTFUL LEVEL' of sp	name C54 = 'MEN_RES'
NAME C55='MEN CONFIDENCE BUILDING LEVEL' of sp	name C55 = 'MEN_CON'
NAME C56 ='MEN PROGRESSIVE LEVEL' of sp	name C56 = 'MEN_PRO'
NAME C57='MEN FRIENDLY LEVEL' of sp	name C57 = 'MEN_FRI'
NAME C58='SUPPORT OF RATINGS' ABOVE	name C58 = 'SUPP_MEN'
NAME C59='GENDER EQUALITY RATING SELECTION PRACTICES'	name C59 = 'GE_SL_PR'
NAME C60='EXPLANATION ON RATING OF SELECTION PRACTICES'	name C60 = 'EX_SL_PR'
NAME C61 ='AREAS SATISFICATION'	name C61 = 'AREA_SAT'
NAME C62='ASPECTS THAT NEED CHANGING'	name C62 = 'ASPEC_CH'
NAME C63='IMPROVEMENTS PROFFERED'	name C63 = 'IMPR_PRE'

14. a) Yes **1** No **2**

b) N/A **1**, less females accommodated, gender not balanced **2**, external interferences, end up re-advertising and taking failures during selecting process **3**, No policy to follow **4**

15. N/A **1**, None **2**, outreach programs to attract and increase females/ males **3**, seeking external funding/ bridging program **4**, having a long waiting list **5**

16. N/A **1**, more effort striving for gender balance and affirmative action **2**, striving for the point system/ not compromising our departmental standards **3**

17. a) Yes **1** No **2**

b) N/A **1**, females who apply have lower points **2**, females don't apply **3**

18. a) Yes **1** No **2**

b) N/A **1** less males are interested **2**

19. a) Yes **1** No **2**

b) N/A **1** defer/ drop due to pregnancy , failing and childcare **2**

20. a) Yes **1** No **2**

b) N/A **1**, males drop for other options **2**, males deferred due to student activism, got to South Africa on Work related learning **3**

21 a) Yes **1** No **2**

b) N/A **1**, Discussions/ratification by the departmental or faculty board **2**

c) (i) N/A **1**, Board/ Committee **2**, Dean **3**, Chairperson **4**

(ii) N/A **1**, after every intake yearly **2**, once in 2-3 years **3**, other specify **4**

(iii) N/A **1**, Yes **2**, No **3**

d) N/A **1**, no checking system that they are on track **2**, selection committee selects Faculty Planning Committee ratifies **3**

22. a) Yes **1** No **2**

b) (i) N/A **1**, Discussions in departmental/ faculty **2**, just checking lists **3**

(ii) N/A **1**, after every selection yearly **2**, once in 2 years **3**, others specify **4**

(iii) N/A 1, Department 2, Faculty Board 3

(iv) N/A 1, No 2, Yes 3

c) N/A 1, its just selection to point system 2, gender and point system 3

23. a) Yes 1 No 2 System not in place 3

b) N/A 1, Affirmative Action after point system 2, gender equality 3

c) N/A 1, None 2, Sex disaggregated numbers 3

24. a) Very satisfactory 1, Satisfactory 2, Unsatisfactory 3, Very unsatisfactory 4

b) fair mechanisms put in place, point system, we take all who qualify 1, consider affirmative action to accommodate females 2

25. a)(i) Very empowering 1, Empowering 2, Somewhat empowering 3, Hostile 4, Very hostile 5

(ii) Very respectful 1, Respectful 2, Somewhat respectful 3, Disrespectful 4, Very disrespectful 5

(iii) Very confidence building 1, confidence building 2, somewhat confidence building 3, repressive 4, very repressive 5

(iv) Very progressive 1, progressive 2, somewhat progressive 3, conservative 4, very conservative 5

(v) Very friendly 1, friendly 2, somewhat friendly 3, unfriendly 4, very unfriendly 5

b) Fair mechanisms put in place, women considered on merit like men 1, Affirmative Action in favor of females considered. 2

26. a) Very empowering 1, empowering 2, somewhat empowering 3, hostile 4, very hostile 5

Very respectful 1, respectful 2, somewhat respectful 3, disrespectful 4, very disrespectful 5

Very confidence building 1, Confidence building 2, Somewhat confidence building 3, repressive 4, very repressive 5

Very progressive 1, progressive 2, somewhat progressive 3, conservative 4, very conservative 5

Very friendly 1, friendly 2, somewhat friendly 3, unfriendly 4, very unfriendly 5

b). Fair mechanisms in place 1, men treated unfairly 2

27. a) No extent 1, small extent 2, some reasonably extent 3, great extent 4

b)- Point system pays equal attention to both sexes

- No need for Affirmative Action

- no discrimination on gender 1

-we apply affirmative action in favor of females

- we take all who qualify 2

- Practicing affirmative action in favour of females 3

28. Point system which is fair to both 1, practicing affirmative action a little bit 2, use of a committee not individuals/ transparency 3, all elements 4

29. The strict point system to introduce a strive towards gender equality 1 Happy with point system. No need for any change 2

Composition of faculty selection committee 3

Relax entry requirements and not to emphasize maths especially 4

30. Reviews to give constant feedbacks- forwards and backwards 1

Gender sensitization of members of selection-committee a balanced selection committee-to achieve gender sensitivity 2

They are okay as they are. The question doesn't apply 3

A clear (written down) policy on admissions only that puts marginalized groups and disabled on Affirmative action 4

A clear policy on affirmative action 4

Increased transparency 5

Selections to be done by people from other faculties 5

BU differed with SU only on these two. Otherwise the other labels were the same.

3. Education E, Arts- A, Social Sciences-S, Commerce-C, Natural Resources N, Hard Sciences-H, Law-L ; 5. a) Yes-1 No-2; b) N/A 1, point system 2, gender 3

APPENDIX J1a): COMPUTER GENERATED CHI-SQUARE VALUES, p VALUES AND DEGREES OF FREEDOM. Results for BU

MTB > %chilink1

Executing from file: chilink1.MAC

ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: WOMN_EMP

CHI-SQUARE = 12.653 WITH D.F. = 16 p-value = 0.698 **ACCEPTED Ho**

ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: WOMN_RES

CHI-SQUARE = 21.491 WITH D.F. = 12 p-value = 0.044 **REJECTED Ho**

ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: WOMN_CON

CHI-SQUARE = 18.558 WITH D.F. = 12 p-value = 0.100 **ACCEPTED Ho**

ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: WOMN_PRO

CHI-SQUARE = 18.479 WITH D.F. = 12 p-value = 0.102 **ACCEPTED Ho**

ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: WOMN_FRI

CHI-SQUARE = 20.475 WITH D.F. = 12 p-value = 0.059 **ACCEPTED Ho**

ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: SUPPWOMN

CHI-SQUARE = 7.615 WITH D.F. = 8 p-value = 0.472 **ACCEPTED Ho**

ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: MEN_EMP

CHI-SQUARE = 10.723 WITH D.F. = 12 p-value = 0.553 **ACCEPTED Ho**

ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: MEN_RES

CHI-SQUARE = 12.319 WITH D.F. = 12 p-value = 0.420 **ACCEPTED Ho**

ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: MEN_CON

CHI-SQUARE = 10.350 WITH D.F. = 12 p-value = 0.585 **ACCEPTED Ho**

ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: MEN_PRO

CHI-SQUARE = 11.137 WITH D.F. = 12 p-value = 0.517 **ACCEPTED Ho**

ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: MEN_FRI

CHI-SQUARE = 16.888 WITH D.F. = 12	p-value = 0.154	ACCEPTED Ho
ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: SUPP_MEN		
CHI-SQUARE = 9.390 WITH D.F. = 8	p-value = 0.310	ACCEPTED
Ho		
ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: MON_REV		
CHI-SQUARE = 4.747 WITH D.F. = 4	p-value = 0.314	ACCEPTED Ho
ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: HOW_M_R		
CHI-SQUARE = 4.578 WITH D.F. = 4	p-value = 0.333	ACCEPTED
Ho		
ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: BY_WHO		
CHI-SQUARE = 29.792 WITH D.F. = 16	p-value = 0.019	REJECTED Ho
ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: AFT_H_LG		
CHI-SQUARE = 4.773 WITH D.F. = 4	p-value = 0.311	ACCEPTED Ho
ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: REV_GETR		
CHI-SQUARE = 5.803 WITH D.F. = 8	p-value = 0.670	ACCEPTED
Ho		
ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: NO_TN_GU		
CHI-SQUARE = 9.227 WITH D.F. = 12	p-value = 0.683	ACCEPT ED Ho
ROWS: NUMDETEN COLUMNS: AREA_SAT		
CHI-SQUARE = 15.237 WITH D.F. = 15	p-value = 0.434	ACCEPTED Ho
ROWS: GE_TRAIN COLUMNS: IMPR_PRE		
CHI-SQUARE = 2.937 WITH D.F. = 4	p-value = 0.568	ACCEPTED
Ho		
ROWS: EVA_PRAC COLUMNS: IMPR_PRE		
CHI-SQUARE = 3.781 WITH D.F. = 4	p-value = 0.436	ACCEPTED
Ho		

HO: There is no association/relationship between the two variables

ALL tests were performed at 5% level of significance.

APPENDIX 11b) – A SUMMARY OF CHI-SQUARE TEST ANALYSIS OF ASSOCIATIONS BETWEEN THE LISTED VARIABLES- BU

Categorical data	DF	Calculated χ^2	Critical χ^2	P value	Decision
1. Level of empowerment of selection practices towards female students vs. improvements proffered	16	12.653	26.3	0.698	Accepted HO
2. Level of respectfulness of selection practices towards female students vs. improvements suggested	12	12.491	21.0	0.044	Rejected HO
3. Level of confidence building of selection practices towards female students vs. suggested improvements	12	18.558	21.0	0.100	Accepted HO
4. Level of progressiveness of selection practices towards female students vs. suggested improvements	12	18.479	21.0	0.102	Accepted HO
5. Level of friendliness of selection practices towards female students vs. improvements proffered	12	20.475	21.0	0.059	Accepted HO
6. Support/defense of ratings of selection practices towards females vs. suggested improvements	8	7.615	15.5	0.472	Accepted HO
7. Level of empowerment of selection practices towards male students vs. improvements proffered	12	12.319	21.0	0.553	Accepted HO
8. Level of respectfulness of selection practices of male students vs. improvements suggested	12	12.319	21.0	0.420	Accepted HO
9. Level of confidence building of selection practices towards male students vs. suggested	12	10.350	21.0	0.585	Accepted HO

improvements					
10. Level of progressiveness of selection practices towards male students vs. suggested improvements	12	11.137	21.0	0.517	Accepted HO
11. Level of friendliness of selection practices towards male students vs. improvements proffered	12	16.888	21.0	0.154	Accepted HO
12. Support/defense of ratings of selection practices towards males vs. suggested improvements	8	9.390	15.5	0.310	Accepted HO
13. Presence of a monitoring/reviewing system vs. improvements suggested	4	4.747	9.50	0.314	Accepted HO
14. Monitoring/reviewing implementation vs. improvements suggested	4	4.578	9.50	0.333	Accepted HO
15. Monitors/reviewers vs. improvements suggested	16	29.792	26.3	0.019	Rejected HO
16. Intervals of reviews vs. improvements suggested	4	4.773	9.50	0.311	Accepted HO
17. Gender training of monitors vs. improvements suggested.	8	5.803	15.5	0.670	Accepted HO
18. Absence of set procedures in monitoring/reviewing vs. improvements suggested	12	9.227	21.0	0.683	Accepted HO
19. Admission criteria of male and female students into departments vs. preferred selection practices	15	15.237	25.0	0.434	Accepted HO
20. Gender sensitivity of participants vs. improvements proffered	4	2.937	9.50	0.568	Accepted HO
21. Evaluation and assessment of selection practices vs. suggested improvements	4	3.781	9.50	0.436	Accepted HO

APPENDIX J2a): COMPUTER GENERATED CHI-SQUARE VALUES, p VALUES AND DEGREES OF FREEDOM. Results for SU

MTB > %CHILINK1

Executing from file: CHILINK1.MAC Tabulated Statistics

ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: WOMN_EMP

CHI-SQUARE = 17.273 WITH D.F. = 12 p-value = 0.140 **ACCEPTED Ho**

ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: WOMN_RES

CHI-SQUARE = 12.750 WITH D.F. = 12 p-value = 0.387 **ACCEPTED Ho**

ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: WOMN_CON

CHI-SQUARE = 15.688 WITH D.F. = 16 p-value = 0.475 **ACCEPTED Ho**

ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: WOMN_PRO

CHI-SQUARE = 16.000 WITH D.F. = 12 p-value = 0.191 **ACCEPTED Ho**

ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: WOMN_FRI

CHI-SQUARE = 19.000 WITH D.F. = 16 p-value = 0.269 **ACCEPTED Ho**

ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: SUPPWOMN

CHI-SQUARE = 11.318 WITH D.F. = 8 p-value = 0.184 **ACCEPTED Ho**

ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: MEN_EMP

CHI-SQUARE = 22.200 WITH D.F. = 12 p-value = 0.035 **REJECTED Ho**

ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: MEN_RES

CHI-SQUARE = 18.042 WITH D.F. = 16 p-value = 0.321 **ACCEPTED Ho**

ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: MEN_CON

CHI-SQUARE = 14.667 WITH D.F. = 16 p-value = 0.549 **ACCEPTED Ho**

ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: MEN_PRO

CHI-SQUARE = 22.398 WITH D.F. = 12 p-value = 0.033 **REJECTED Ho**

ROWS: IMPR_PRE COLUMNS: MEN_FRI

CHI-SQUARE = 13.943 WITH D.F. = 12 p-value = 0.304 **ACCEPTED Ho**

ROWS: IMPR_PRE	COLUMNS: SUPP_MEN		
CHI-SQUARE = 10.327	WITH D.F. = 8	p-value = 0.243	ACCEPTED Ho
ROWS: IMPR_PRE	COLUMNS: MON_REV		
CHI-SQUARE = 14.677	WITH D.F. = 4	p-value = 0.005	REJECTED Ho
ROWS: IMPR_PRE	COLUMNS: HOW_M_R		
CHI-SQUARE = 20.077	WITH D.F. = 8	p-value = 0.001	REJECTED Ho
ROWS: IMPR_PRE	COLUMNS: BY_WHO		
CHI-SQUARE = 23.600	WITH D.F. = 12	p-value = 0.023	REJECTED Ho
ROWS: IMPR_PRE	COLUMNS: AFT_H_LG		
CHI-SQUARE = 24.429	WITH D.F. = 16	p-value = 0.081	ACCEPTED Ho
ROWS: IMPR_PRE	COLUMNS: REV_GETR		
CHI-SQUARE = 14.677	WITH D.F. = 4	p-value = 0.005	REJECTED Ho
ROWS: IMPR_PRE	COLUMNS: NO_TN_GU		
CHI-SQUARE = 20.077	WITH D.F. = 8	p-value = 0.010	REJECTED Ho
ROWS: NUMDETEN	COLUMNS: AREA_SAT		
CHI-SQUARE = 11.250	WITH D.F. = 4	p-value = 0.024	REJECTED Ho
ROWS: GE_TRAIN	COLUMNS: IMPR_PRE		
CHI-SQUARE = 5.464	WITH D.F. = 4	p-value = 0.243	ACCEPTED
			Ho
ROWS: EVA_PRAC	COLUMNS: IMPR_PRE		
CHI-SQUARE = 7.048	WITH D.F. = 8	p-value = 0.531	ACCEPTED Ho

HO: There is no association/relationship between the two variables

ALL tests were performed at 5% level of significance.

APPENDIX J2b) – A SUMMARY OF CHI-SQUARE TEST ANALYSIS OF ASSOCIATION BETWEEN THE LISTED VARIABLES-SU

Categorical data	DF	Calculated χ^2	Critical χ^2	P value	Decision
1. Level of empowerment of selection practices towards female students vs. improvements proffered	12	17.273	21.0	0.140	Accepted HO
2. Level of respectfulness of selection practices towards female students vs. improvements suggested	12	12.750	21.0	0.387	Accepted HO
3. Level of confidence building of selection practices towards female students vs. suggested improvements	16	15.688	26.3	0.475	Accepted HO
4. Level of progressiveness of selection practices towards female students vs. suggested improvements	12	16.00	21.0	0.191	Accepted HO
5. Level of friendliness of selection practices towards female students vs. improvements proffered	16	19.00	26.3	0.269	Accepted HO
6. Support/defense of ratings of selection practices towards females vs. suggested improvements	8	11.318	15.5	0.184	Accepted HO
7. Level of empowerment of selection practices towards male students vs. improvements proffered	12	22.20	21.0	0.035	Rejected HO
8. Level of respectfulness of selection practices of male students vs. improvements suggested	16	18.042	26.3	0.321	Accepted HO
9. Level of confidence building of selection practices towards male students vs. suggested	16	14.667	26.3	0.549	Accepted HO

improvements					
10. Level of progressiveness of selection practices towards male students vs. suggested improvements	12	22.398	21.0	0.033	Rejected HO
11. Level of friendliness of selection practices towards male students vs. improvements proffered	12	13.943	21.0	0.304	Accepted HO
12. Support/defense of ratings of selection practices towards males vs. suggested improvements	8	10.327	15.5	0.243	Accepted HO
13. Presence of a monitoring/reviewing system vs. improvements suggested	4	14.677	9.50	0.005	Rejected HO
14. Monitoring/reviewing implementation vs. improvements suggested	8	20.077	15.5	0.001	Rejected HO
15. Monitors/reviewers vs. improvements suggested	12	23.60	21.0	0.023	Rejected HO
16. Intervals of reviews vs. improvements suggested	16	24.429	26.3	0.081	Accepted HO
17. Gender training of monitors/reviewers vs. improvements suggested	4	14.677	9.50	0.005	Rejected HO
18. Absence of set procedures for monitoring/reviewing vs. improvements suggested	8	20.077	15.5	0.010	Rejected HO
19. Admission criteria of male and female students vs. preferred selection practices	4	11.250	9.50	0.024	Rejected HO
20. Gender sensitivity of participants vs. improvements proffered	4	5.464	9.50	0.243	Accepted HO
21. Evaluation and assessment of selection practices vs. suggested improvements	8	7.048	15.5	0.531	Accepted HO

APPENDIX K: MODAL RESPONSES OF THE RESPONDENTS

	DESCRIPTION	ABBREV	MODE BU	MODE SU	COMMENTS
c1	SEX	SEX	2	2	More males than females
c2	DEPT	DEPT	2	3	Social Sciences, Arts.
c3	DURATION	DURATION	1	1	1-2 years
c4	ADMIN CRITERIA	ADMIN_CR	2	2	In all cases handled by a committee
c5	WRITTEN POLICY	WR_POLIC	2	2	No written down policy
c6	POLICY POINTERS	POLI_POT	2	1	Merit and gender at BU. Merit at SU.
c7	WHO SELECTS	WHO_SEL	2	2	Chairperson and committee
c8	COMMITTEE COMPOSITION	COM_COMP	1	1	Males dominate selection.
c9	GENDER TRAINING	GE_TRAIN	1	2	BU-Yes, SU-No. Interviews revealed no training
c10	TRAINING FREQUENCY	TRAIN_FR	1	1	Not applicable
c11	LAST TIME	LASTTIME	1	1	Not applicable
c12	NATURE OF GENDER PACKAGE	NATUPACK	1	1	Not applicable
c13	AWARENESS COMMITTEE	AWARECOM	2	2	No training received
c14	NUMBER DETERMINATION	NUMDETEN	1	1	No criteria.Its merit mainly for SU but N/A for BU
c15	TRENDS SEX-DISAGGREGATED	TRENDSEX	0	1	Statistics not available at departmental level.
c16	ACHIEVEMENTS OF PRACTICES	ACHIEVPR	4	2	Gender balance BU. Merit SU.
c17	CHALLENGES FACED	ACHIEVPR	3	3	Gender imbalances.
c18	IMPLEMENTATION HINDRANCES	IMPLHIND	2	2	No
c19	HOW	HOW_CHAL	1	1	Not applicable
c20	COMBAT CHALLENGES	COMBCHAL	2	1	None or not applicable
c21	CONTRIBUTION CHALLENGES IMPROVEMENTS	CONT_IMP	2,1	2	N/A BU, more effort in striving for gender.
c22	FEMALE RECRUITMENT PROBLEMS	FE_RE_PR	2	2	No.
c23	FEMALE_NATURE OF PROBLEMS RECRUITMENT	FE_NA_RE	1	1	Not applicable
c24	MALE RECRUITMENT PROBLEMS	MA_RE_PR	2	2	No
c25	MALE_NATURE OF PROBLEMS RECRUITMENT	MA_NA_RE	1	1	Not applicable
c26	FEMALE RETENTION PROBLEMS	FE_RETPR	2	2	No
c27	FEMALE_NATURE OF PROBLEMS RETENTION	FE_NARET	1	1	Not applicable
c28	MALE RETENTION PROBLEMS	MA_RETPR	2	2	No
c29	MALE_NATURE OF PROBLEMS RETENTION	MA_NARET	1	1	Not applicable
c30	MONITORING REVIEW	MON_REV	2	1	No BU and yes SU
c31	HOW_M_R	HOW_M_R	2	2	Discussions or ratification by faculty board.
c32	BY WHO	BY_WHO	1	2	N/A Bu

					,board/committee SU.
c33	AFTER HOW LONG	AFT_H_LG	2	2	After every intake.
c34	REVIEWER GENDER TRAINING	REV_GETR	3	3	No training
c35	_THEN GUIDES	NO_TN_GU	1	1	N/A
c36	EVALUATION_PRACTICES	EVA_PRAC	2	1	No BU ,yes SU
c37	HOW_EVA	HOW_EVA	1	1	N/A
c38	HOW_OFTEN_EVA	HOW_OF_E	1	2	N/A BU, after every intake SU
c39	BY WHO EVA	BY WHO E	1	1	N/A
c40	GENDER SENSITIVITY REVIEWERS	GE_SE_RE	1	1	N/A
c41	IF_NO_THEN_WHAT	IF_NO_WH	2	2	Its just selection according to point system
c42	ARE THERE OBJ_REV_MON_SYS	AR_OBJ_R	2	1	BU-no, SU-yes
c43	WHAT_ARE_THEY	WHA_ARTY	1	3	BU-N/A, gender equality SU
c44	MONITORING_EVALUATION_INDICATORS	MON_EV_I	1	1	N/A, both
c45	SELECTION PRACTICES RATING	SEL_P_RA	2	1	Satisfactory-BU, very satisfactory -SU
c46	ELABORATION OF RATING	ELAB_RAT	1	1	Point system is a fair mechanism
c47	WOMEN EMPOWERING LEVEL	WOMN_EMP	1	1	Very empowering
c48	WOMEN RESPECTFUL LEVEL	WOMN_RES	1	1	Very respectful
c49	WOMEN CONFIDENCE BUILDING LEVEL	WOMN_CON	1	1	Very confidence building
c50	WOMEN PROGRESSIVE LEVEL	WOMN_PRO	1	1	Very progressive
c51	WOMEN FRIENDLY LEVEL	WOMN_FRI	1	1	Very friendly
c52	SUPPORT OF RATINGS' above	SUPPWOMN	1	1	Fair mechanisms in place. Women considered on equal merit with men.
c53	MEN EMPOWERING LEVEL	MEN_EMP	1	1	Very empowering
c54	MEN RESPECTFUL LEVEL	MEN_RES	1	1	Very respectful
c55	MEN CONFIDENCE BUILDING LEVEL	MEN_CON	1	1	Very confidence building
c56	MEN PROGRESSIVE LEVEL	MEN_PRO	1	1	Very progressive
c57	MEN FRIENDLY LEVEL	MEN_FRI	1	1	Very friendly
c58	SUPPORT OF RATINGS' above	SUPP_MEN	1	1	Fair mechanisms in place
c59	GENDER EQUALITY RATING OF SELECTION PRACTICES	GE_SL_PR	4	4	To a great extent
c60	EXPLANATION ON RATINGS ON SELECTION PRACTICES	EX_SL_PR	1	1	Point system pays equal attention to both sexes. No need for affirmative action. No discrimination on gender.
c61	AREAS SATISFICATION	AREA_SAT	1	1	Point system which is fair to both
c62	ASPECTS THAT NEED CHANGING	ASPEC_CH	2	2	Happy with point system no need for change
c63	IMPROVEMENTS PROFFERED	IMPR_PRE	3	3	Okay as they are.

