Physical and Infrastructural Obstacles to Women's Education

in Khyber Pakhtunkhuwa Pakistan

Arab Naz. Umar Daraz and Waseem Khan University of Malakand, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa

Irum Sheikh F.G College of Home Economics and Management Sciences, Islamabad

Women's education has been identified as one of the primary agents of transformation towards development. However, illiteracy among women is one of the major challenges facing most of the underdeveloped countries. This study investigates the physical and infrastructural impediments that hamper women's education. The study was conducted in Amandara; sub-village of Malakand Division Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Pakistan. A comprehensive survey was made with the help of pre-designed formula with structure questions. The data was collected from 250 respondents (educated female having graduation) with the help of purposive sampling technique. It has been concluded that physical and infrastructural obstacles contributes in women's vulnerability regarding education. The study recommends that increase in female schools, colleges, transport and infrastructural facilities will promote women's education in the area.

Keywords: women, education, females' schools, colleges, teachers, transport and educational facilities.

Education is universally recognized as a dominant accelerating factor that benefits individuals to promote national development. In fact, education plays a pivotal role in capacity building and faculty development in terms of opportunities that are created and enhanced by educated members of the society (Chaudhry, 2010; Stephan, 2004; Appiah & Walter, 2002). In addition, educated females (in particular) produce socio-economic benefits to the society including increased economic productivity, higher family incomes and improved health and survival chances for infant and children (Nayak & Nair, 2005; Colclough et. al, 2000; Chaudhry, 2009). Education has always been regarded as a developmental tool that is directly associated with women's empowerment and independence (Velkoff, 1998; Berhman, 1997; Alderman & King 1998).

The country has been susceptible to multi challenges since its existence among them education is regarded a top priority. Despite the various developmental plans and measures, the overall improvement in Pakistan's literacy rate since its independence is 45 percent (56.5 percent for males and 32.6 percent for females, which is comparatively alarming in the region (ECS, 1998; Global Gender Gap Report, 2006). The rapid population growth has raised the literacy level at one hand, while on the other, the ratio of illiterate masses has been alarmingly augmented (Gulati, 2006) where females constitute more than triple (ADBR, 2000). Besides, the existence of gender discrimination in the context of

education is obvious in rural-urban structures throughout the country (Jewkes, 2003; Naz, 2011).

The importance of education as argued by Haq (2000) is pivotal for empowerment in terms of oppression and suppression of women through customs and traditions while to Daraz (2012) and Khan (2012) its importance is necessary for solving the existing social evils in the society. Throughout the globe in general and the under-developed countries (UDCs) in particular, women are inadequately treated in terms of education, health, social status, opportunities, legal rights and employment etc (BEC, 2004; DeJaeghere, 2004; Kendall, 2006). Looking to the educational statistics among the poorest countries it has been calculated that in 1990, only 5% of adult women had any secondary education as compare to men, which has adversely affected the economic development of the country that has lowered the per capita income. While in contrast the richest nations have 51% of adult women secondary education that stabilizes the economic well being (Kane, 2004; Dollar & Gatti, 1999; World Bank, 2001; Schultz, 2002; King & Hill, 1993).

Deprivation of women in the educational sector can be linked to many of the physical, socio-cultural, religious, political and infrastructural factors (Naz et al, 2011). Physical and infrastructural impediments are the major threats to women's education. In this context, the WEF (2000) report has stated that 113 million children had no approach to primary education in 2000, while Levine et al (2003) reflects that 880 million adults were illiterate. The assessment also indicated the need to look at girls' education as a component of the global and national drive for education for all; it was learned that education of girls must be considered in the

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Arab Naz, Department of Sociology/Social Work, University of Malakand, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. Email: hod.sociology@uom.edu.pk

general context of "gender equality", including education for women (Pande et.al, 2006; Khalid & Mukbtar, 2002:10).

Physical impediments such as lack of schools, colleges and lack of female teachers adversely affect women's status in regard of education as in India the scarcity of schools is among the major constraints to girls' education (Anzar, 1999). Furthermore, the classrooms that is available often lack sanitary and water facilities. In Uttar Pradesh, a recent survey found that 54 percent of schools did not have a water supply and 80 percent did not have latrines (World Bank, 1997b; STC, 2005; UNESCO, 2003). For instance, in 1993, Uttar Pradesh needed to build 284,000 additional classrooms to achieve full enrollment of children age 6 to 10 (The World Bank, 1997b, UNESCO, 2007). On the other hand, in states such as Kerala where population growth rate is low (Kerala), the number of primary-age children is beginning to decline and state governments can focus on improving the quality of education rather than increasing the supply of classrooms (UNESCO, 2004).

Expanding the relationship between infrastructural and physical facilities and women's education is negatively affected by numerous factors, which can be easily found in countries like Pakistan and India (Bellew & King, 1993; King, 1990; Rose & Subahmanian, 2005). Currently, women constitute 29% as teachers at the primary level (MHRD, 1993) while the ratio at university level is alarmingly low. However, the proportions tend to change in future because women account for almost half of those being trained as teachers. However, shortage of school facilities and negative school environments also reduce women's education (Mishra, 2005; Mehta, 2005). In addition, apart from physical barriers there are also gender disparity in text and subject which influence women's status and their education in the society. Furthermore, men have dominated all scientific fields. In this regard INEF (2009) express that men account for PhD degrees more than women, which make them privileged where female role models are rarely found for inspiration (OECD, 2002) which can also be found the advanced countries such as United States (Etzkowitz, 1992).

Similarly, a report by UNESCO (2006) reveals that variation in the fields of science varies in terms of enrolment. In this context, Mathematics account for 69 percent males and 31% females among them 81% males get PhD degree while women account for the remaining 19%. Similarly, in Engineering, 86% males and 14% females get enrolment where 91% males and 9% females have got their PhD degrees. Besides, in computer sciences, 78% men and 22%, women got admission in which 86% men and 14% women were awarded the degree of PhD (World Bank Report, 2009). On the basis of such facts, the fields such as agriculture, health, physical sciences, social and biological sciences also confront the gender variation. The only exception is psychology, where the ratio of female doctors is 59% against 41% for males (Sida, 2002).

According to the GMR (2005-06), women literacy has got the attraction of thinkers while addressing issues related to gender inequality. The World Bank (2000) reflects that among the 880 million illiterate adults and youth, 60 percent of them are women. According to an estimate of the UNESCO Institute of Statistics (2006), there are 781 million illiterate adults in the world where more than 64 % are women.

In order to conclude the discussion, it can be easily elaborated that the physical and infrastructural facilities negatively affect the education, while women are left at the marginalized state. Resultantly, women's low input and output in the educational sector lead to cause hindrances in the social and national development.

The Argument

Standardized women's education Pakistan has always been dreamt phenomenon where they are supposed to live inside the four walls while men are considered as the earning units. In relation to the argument Arif et. al. (1999) reflects that majority of girls instead of intelligence and potentials remain illiterate due numerous factors including physical and infrastructural facilities. Same is the case with *Pakhtun* culture where women are restricted within the four walls of their house, in-spite of this approach there is physical barriers to women's education (Daraz, 2012). In this regard Kabeer, (2003) illustrate that traditional and customary approach towards female education adversely affect women's enrolment while Naz et al (2011) stresses that lack of educational institution is among the causes of low women's education.

Developing the arguments of physical infrastructural obstacles in relations to women's education; Ibrahim (2012) argues that it is well-known fact that in Pakhtun culture women are just like a statue of modesty and chastity. There is lack of female teacher and Pakhtuns did not allow women to be taught by male teachers. As Haq (2000) augments that South Asian culture place a high value on the chastity of girls, and therefore parents are often reluctant to allow their daughters to be taught by male teachers which adversely affect women's status and creates an environment of illiteracy. In this scenario, the Population Census of (1998) shows, that lack of female school and teacher affect the overall literacy rate in Pakistan (45 percent). The number of literate females increased from 0.8 million in 1961 to 11.4 million in 1998-97 that accounts for a very low level of literacy in comparison (Kaur, 2006). Expressing the gender gap in education, as Latif (2007) argues that many factors exist about the diversity in female education including limited numbers of educational institutions in the country and accessibility to those that bring negative impacts on women's education.

Women's education in rural area, its status and position not satisfies the challenging needs of 21st century because there still exists barriers in sending females to schools situated at distance ABDR, 2000). In *Pakhtun* society the school is situated at far flung areas; with no transport facilities available in school and local area, parents are reluctant to enroll their female child in schools without separate facilities for girls, or to attend boarding schools in distant towns as similarly elaborated by Daraz (2012). In the context of the research locality; girls are traditionally expected to be married at early age, which affect their enrolment in educational institutions while those who are enrolled have deficient facilities in terms of infrastructure and social structure.

Objectives

- To investigate physical impediments which obstruct female education ratio among Pakhtuns
- To investigate infrastructural obstacles affecting women's education in the research area

Hypotheses

- Physical impediments have strong correlation with women's illiteracy
- Lack of infrastructural facilities decrease women's education in Pakhtun society

Method

The study was conducted in sub Village Amandara Malakand Division Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Pakistan. The total population of the Village is 6374, whereas the educational ratio of male to female is (45:09). In this connection, such a low percentage of female education in the area alarmingly reflects the prevalence of impediments. The active presence of physical and infrastructural hindrances in this regard adversely affect women's education and status and The low percent of female (09%) educational ratio demonstrate the intensity of physical and infrastructural impediments to women's education which adversely affect their status and leads to decrease the overall literacy ratio of the area. The target population of the study was defined (educated female having BA/BSC degree and above). To survey the Village, the services of technical expert had been utilized with the help of pre-designed Performa having structured questions. The data was collected from 175 respondents with the help of purposive sampling technique.

Results and Discussion

Results of the current study have been drawn on the basis of primary and secondary information. In this connection, the primary information has been related to the literary data in terms of agreement, disagreement and bridging the gap between theory and practice. The primary information has been analyzed in the form of tables alongwith percentage mentioned against each variable. The tabulated data has further been described under each table for more authentication and clarification.

Table 1

Physical Impediments to Women's Education

Statements	Frequency	Percentage
Lack of schools, colleges for women	57	23%
Lack of transport facilities in the school and colleges	41	16%
Lack of female teachers	56	23%
Lack of communication facilities in schools	36	14%
Lack of educational facilities in the area	60	24%
Total	250	100%

The data analysis illustrates various physical impediments, which hamper women's education in the local area. The data reveals that there is lack of female educational institutions that adversely affect women's literacy. According to the table above, 23% of respondents affirm that lack of schools and colleges decrease women's education. Although the availability of schools and colleges has been observed yet they are inadequate to meet the needs of the area. Besides, there is no transport facility available due to which parents are reluctant to permit their daughters to go schools. 16% of respondents support the opinion regarding the lack of transport facilities in the context of women's education. In this regard Haq, 2000 argues that safety-related issues need to be assured, which may improve girls' access to schools. When schools are located far away from home, students cannot attend the school because of safety issues and economic reasons. In addition, 23% respondents stated that lack of female teachers is responsible for girl students to drop out; parents are more willing to send their daughters to school if there are women teachers (Qureshi, 2007). However, issues of safety and security in terms of sexual harassment and exploitation deter the parents from sending a girl child to school. Another category of 14% respondents are of the opinion that lack of communication facilities in the area also adversely affects women's education. Finally, a considerable pool of responses comes forward to emphasize that the lack of certain facilities, such as female teachers and inadequate infrastructural learning environment heavily relegate the status of women's education (24%).

Table-2 Infrastructural Obstacles to Women's Education

Statements	Frequency	Percentage
Lack of class room	56	22%
Lack of availability of books	41	16%
No availability of library,	57	23%
	37	2370
libratory and computers for		
students		
Scarcity of black board and	44	18%
chairs		
Lack of floor mate, chalk and	52	21%
clean drinking water		
Total	250	100%

The table illustrates infrastructural obstacles to women's education in Pakhtun society. In this context, Rafig (2000) explores that major obstacles in achieving the goal of universal primary education are inadequate educational infrastructure and services due to the lack of resources with the government both in terms of material and manpower. The statistical analysis unveils that 22% respondents were of the opinion that lack of class rooms in schools and colleges adversely affects women's education. 16 % respondents replied that lack of books also relegates women's status in the context of education. As Robinson-Pant (2004) argues that students without standardized text books find it more difficult to ensure their study, which hinders their understanding of lectures. In addition, 23% respondents complained regarding lack of libraries, inadequate laboratories, non-availability of computers for students and lack of adequate resources to buy recent publications and order for the basic journals which necessarily put a heavy toll on women's education (Tisdell & Regmi, 2005). The table further highlights the views of 18% and 21% respondents stating that there is no structure or shelter for children and they even lack basic amenities such as blackboard, chalk, chairs, desks or floor mats, and clean drinking water facilities. Such a condition, they conclude, highly discourages women's education in Pakhtun society (Sathar et. al, 2000).

Conclusion

Congregationally, the present research study assess that women's education is a global dilemma that has been addressed by researchers throughout the globe. The hefty literature produced by scholars in multi-dimensions reflect that it has been a matter of concern for most the social scientists. This study (in particular) diagnosis that women's education among Pakthuns is a predicament and observed at its worst stage. It has been concluded that there is immense scarcity of female teachers and schools while in some remote areas, schools have even no existence. Besides, the existing schools are pathetic condition in terms of poor roads and improper transportation makes them inaccessible. Such a pitiable condition of most of the schools is also caused by the lack of female teachers that adversely affect women's

education and diminishes their status in developmental process.

Apart from the mentioned obstacles, infrastructural limitations have also been identified as the obscuring factors in terms women's education. In this connection, the study reflects that infrastructural facilities such as libraries, laboratories, audio-visual learning aids and conducive environment teaching further adds to the already damaged educational structure in the area. The primary information in relation with the literary data reflect that seating arrangements for students are in worse condition where even chairs are not available and the students use to sit on floor. Besides, the availability of black boards, chalks and other required stationary are also barely available that has undesirable effects on educational sector in the area while women education is specifically affected. In the nutshell the study reaches to the conclusion that women's education in the target area is at the verge of decline and needs proper attention and concentration of the concerned authorities for betterment of the area and future endeavors.

Recommendations

Quality assurance and objective achievements are the essential elements of an educational strategy generally being designed to ensure that boys and girls may explore, realize and boast their potential up to its fullest. In this respect, Local community organizations also help fill such gaps where government fails to provide educational services properly. However, providing viable and effective educational services is one of the main responsibilities of a state. In the current study's context, whereby a huge gap in terms of the lack of broad level physical and specific level infrastructural level facilities concerning female education has been identified, there is an urgent need and expectation from the government to launch a comprehensive women's education program countrywide.

References

Alderman, H. & King. E. M. (1998). Gender Differences in Parental Investment in Education. Structural Change and Economic Dynamics, 9(4): 453-468.

Anzar, U. (1999). Education Reforms in Balochistan, 1990-1998: A Case Study in Improving Management and Gender Equity in Primary Education. World Bank Working Paper 22842, September.

Arif, G. M., Saqib, U. S., & Zahid. G. M. (1999). Poverty, Gender, and Primary School Enrolment in Pakistan. *The Pakistan Development Review*, Vol.. 38 (4), pp. 979-992.

Basic Education Coalition. (2004). *Teach a child transform a nation*. Washington, DC: Basic Education Coalition.

Baudino, C. (2007), Review of Recent Literature on Gender Inequalities in Teaching Methods and Peer

- Relationship Management in the French-speaking Area, UNESCO, Paris, http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0015/001555/155506e.pdf.
- Becker, R. (2009), Gender in Bachelor and Master Courses, University of Dortmund, Dortmund, www.genderingestuftestudiengaenge.de/en_curric ula_beispiel.php?gruppe=3&lg=en&curriculum=3, accessed.
- Behrman, J. (1997). *Mother's schooling and child education:*A survey. Unpublished manuscript, University of Pennsylvania.
- Bell, A. (2007). A New Creative Learning Centre at a Girls'
 School in Australia. PEB Exchange, 2007/5,
 http://www.
 oecd.org/dataoecd/55/41/38601359.pdf.
- Bellew, Rosemary T. & King, E.M. (1993). Educating Women: Lessons from Experience. In Elizabeth M. King and M. Anne Hill, eds., Women's Education in Developing Countries, Baltimore.
- Beynon, J. (1997), Physical Facilities for Education: What Planners Need to Know, Fundaments of Educational Planning Series, International Institute for Educational Planning, UNESCO, Paris, http://cdimain.oecd.org/CDI/FullScan/F01-0058307.pdf, accessed 14 August 2009.
- Blaise, M. (2005), Playing it Straight: Uncovering Gender Discourses in the Early Childhood Classroom, Routledge, New York.
- Brackin, J. (2006). *Balancing Act: Gendered Perspectives in Faculty Roles and Work Lives.* (Women in Academe Series) Stylus Publishing Company.
- Chaudhry, I. S. (2009). *Impact of Gender Inequality in Education on Economic Growth*: An Empirical Evidence from Pakistan, the Pakistan Horizon Vol.60, No.4, 2007.
- Chaudhry, I. S. (2010). *Poverty Alleviation in Southern Punjab* (*Pakistan*): An Empirical Evidence from the Project Area of Asian Development Bank.
- Choudhry, S. M. (2007). *Introduction to Statistical Theory Part I*, Published by Markazi Kutub Khana Urdu
 Bazar Lahore.
- Daraz, U. (2012). *Pakhtun Social Structure and Its Impacts on Women's Education,* unpublished Sociology MS thesis International Islamic University Islamabad.

- Davies, B. (2003a), Frogs and Snails and Feminist Tales: Preschool Children and Gender, Hampton Press, Cresskill, NJ.
- Davies, B. (2003b), Shards of Glass: Children Reading and Writing Beyond Gendered Identities, Hampton Press, Cresskill, NJ.
- DeJaeghere, J. (2004). Background paper for workshop 1: Quality education and gender equality. Paper presented at the International Conference on Education: Forty-seventh Session, Geneva.
- District Survey Report (2011). A Statistical Review Dollar, D. and Gatti. R. (1999). Gender Inequality, Income, and Growth: Are Good Times good for Women? Mimeo graphed. Washington DC: The World Bank. Educational Censes Report of Pakistan (1998). A Statistical Review.
- Etzkowitz, H. (1992). Athena Unbound: Barriers to Women in Academic Sciences and Engineering. Science and Public Policy, 19, 3 June, 157-189.
- Global Gender Gap Report (2006). *Pakistan Gender Gap Index*. www.weforum.org. Visited on 07-08.2007.
- Greed, C. (2003b), *The Rocky Path from Women and Planning to Gender Mainstreaming*, Occasional Paper 14, Faculty of the Built Environment, University of the West of England, Bristol.
- Greed, C. (2005). An Investigation of the Effectiveness of Gender Mainstreaming as a Means of Integrating the Needs of Women and Men into Spatial Planning in the United Kingdom", in *Progress in Planning*, 64, pp. 243-321.
- Gulati, S. (2006). *Women Education in 21st Century.* Jaipur: ABD Publishers.
- Haq, M. (2000). *Education of Girls and Wome*n. Human Development in South Asia.
- Harris, L. & Atalan, N. (2002), Developing Women's Spaces: Evaluation of the Importance of Sex segregated Spaces for Gender and Development Goals in Southeastern Turkey. *Kadin/Woman 2000*, 3 (2), pp. 17-46.
- Horelli, L. (2000), Creating the Infrastructure of Everyday Life in the Context of European Local and Regional Development, Proceedings of ESRC Seminar Series No. 5: The Interface between Public Policy and Gender Equality, CRESR, Sheffield Hallam University, Sheffield.
- Hunter, J. E. (1997). *Needed: A bane of the significance test. Psychology Science, 8, 3-7.*

- Ibrahim, (2012). Socio-cultural and Economic Constraints to women political Empowerment in Pakhtun Society.

 M.Phil unpublished dissertation, Department of Sociology University of Malakand.
- Inter-Agency Network on Education in Emergencies (INEE)
 Gender Task Team (2009), Gender Responsive
 School Sanitation, Health and Hygiene.
 www.reliefweb.int/rw/RWFiles2009.nsf/FilesByRW
 DocUnidFilename/ASHU-7SF3EQfull_
 report.pdf/\$File/full_report.pdf, accessed 14
 August 2009.
- Jewkes, Rachel, et al. (2003). Gender Inequalities, Intimate Partner Violence and HIV Preventive Practices: Findings of a South African Cross-Sectional Study. Social Science & Medicine 56 (1): 125-34.
- Kabeer, N. (2003). Gender Mainstreaming in Poverty Eradication and the Millennium Development Goals. A handbook for policy- makers and other stakeholders. For IDRC et al
- Kane, E. (2004). *Girls' education in Africa: What do we know* about strategies that work? Africa Region Human Development Working Paper Series. n.p.: World Bank.
- Kaur, R. (2006). *Distaff side can't do with half-staff: Greater empowerment for women without a backlash is the goal we have to work towards and for this men also need to be educated.*
- Kendall, N. (2006). Strengthening Gender and Education Programming in the 21st Century. EQUIP 2 Working Paper. Washington, DC: AED.
- Khalid, S. H. & Mukbtar, M. E. (2002). *The Future of Girls, Education in Pakistan*. UNESCO office Islamabad, p.10.
- Khan, W. & Naz, A. (2012). The Ignominy of Evenness among Pakhtuns of Pakistan: Pakhtun Social Organization and Gendered Decision-Making Process in Malakand Division, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Pakistan. Lap Lambert academic publishing.
- King, E. M. (1990). *Educating Girls and Women: Investing in Development*. Washington, DC.
- King, E. & Anne, H. (1993). *Women's Education in Developing Countries: Barriers, Benefits, and Policies.*Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press.
- Larsson, A. (2006), From Equal Opportunities to Gender Awareness in Strategic Spatial Planning, TPR, 77 (5).

- Latif, A. (2007). Alarming Situation of Education in Pakistan.
 World Education Forum, news and views,
 Grassroots Stories Pakistan.
- Latif, A. (2009). A Critical Analysis of School Enrollment and Literacy Rates of Girls and Women in Pakistan. Educational Studies, Vol. 45, Issue 5. Pp. 424 – 439
- Levine, R, Birdsall, N., Ibrahim, A. and Dayal, P. (2003).

 Background paper of the Task Force on Education and Gender Equality: Achieving universal primary education by 2015. n.p.: Millennium Project.
- Loftus, G. R. (1996). Psychology will be a much better science when we change the way we analyze data. *Current Direction in Psychological Sciences*, 5, 161`-171.
- Mehta, A. C. (2005). Successful Experiments in Strengthening Educational Management Information System in India: DISE Initiatives. Paper presented in UKFIET-OXFORD International Conference on Education and Development.
- Ministry of Human Resource Development, (1993). Selected Educational Statistics, 1991-92, New Delhi.
- Mishra R.C. (2005). *Women Education*. New Delhi: A.P.H Publishing Corporation.
- Nayak S. & Nair, J. (2005). *Women's Empowerment in India*. Jaipur: Pointer Computers.
- Naz, A. (2011). Socio-Economic and Political Constraints in Gender Development. A case study of District Malakand NWFP. An Un-published PhD Dissertation Department of Anthropology Quaid-i-Azam University Islamabad.
- Naz, A., Daraz, U., Khan, W., Hussain, M., & Khan, Q. (2011).

 Dowrmancy of Empowerment; An Analytical Study of Various Socio-cultural and political Impediments to Women's Education in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa Pakistan. International Journal of Business and Social Science, Vol. 2 (16)
- Pande, R., Malhotra, A. & Grown, C. (2005). *Impact of investments in female education on gender equality.*Paper presented at the XXV IUSSP International Population Conference, Tours, France.
- Pepchinski, M. (2009), Curricula of Gender Studies into Architectural Education, Hochschule für Technik und Wirtschaft, Dresden.
- Save the Children. (2005). State of the world's mothers 2005: The power and promise of girls' education. n.p.: Save the Children.

- Oureshi, R & Rarieya, F.A. (2007). *Gender and Education in Pakistan*. Karachi: Oxford University Press.
- Rafiq, M. (2000). A Study of the Mother's Attitude Towards their Daughters Education in low Income Families of Gujranwala City. Research Report, Deptt. of Rural Sociology, University of Agriculture, Faisalabad, Pakistan.
- Robinson-Pant, A. (2004). *Education for Women*: whose values count? *Gender and Education*, Vol. 16, No. 4, pp. 473-489.
- Rose, P. & Subahmanian, R. (2005). Evaluation of DFID Development Assistance: Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment Education. London. DFID.
- Sathar, Z., Lloyd, C.B. & Haque, M. (2000). Schooling Opportunities for Girls as a Stimulus for Fertility Changes in Rural Pakistan. Policy Research Division Working Paper No. 143. New York: Population Council.
- Schultz & Paul, T. (2002). *Demand for Children in Low-Income Countries*. In M. Rosenzweig and O. Stark (eds.) Handbook of Population and Family Economics. Amsterdam: Elsevier.
- Sida, (2002). Mainstreaming Gender Equality. Evaluation of Sida's support for the promotion of gender equality in partner countries. Synthesis Report and Bangladesh Country Report. By Britha Mikkelsen, Ted Freeman et al.
- Scott, J. W. (1996), Only Paradoxes to Offer: French Feminists and the Rights of Man, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA.
- Schleicher, A. (2007). Student learning outcomes from a gender perspective: What do international assessments tell us? Paper presented at the World Bank's Global Symposium Education: A Critical Path to Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment, Washington, DC.
- Sibbons, M., D., Swamfield, H., Poulsen, A., Giggard, A. Norton & Seel, A.. (2000) *Mainstreaming gender through sector wide approaches in education:*Synthesis report. London: Overseas Development Institute/Cambridge Education Consultants.
- Statens Offentliga Utredningar (SOU) (2004), Hur ser ojämställdheten ut?, Stockholm.
- Stephan, Klasen. (2004). The Costs of Missing the Millennium Development Goal on Gender Equity. World Development 32(7): 1075-1107.
- Tisdell C. & Regmi G. (2005). Prejudice Against Female Children: Economic and Cultural Explanations, and

- Indian Evidence. *International Journal of Social Economics*, Vol. 32 (6), pp. 541-553
- Velkoff, V. A. (1998). Women of the World: Women's Education in India, U.S Department of Commerce, Economics and Statistics Administrations, Bureau of the Census.
- United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) (2009), Child Friendly Schools Manual, UNICEF, New York.
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). (2003). Gender and education for all: The leap to equality. Paris: UNESCO.
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). (2004). *Education for all:* The quality imperative. Paris: UNESCO.
- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). (2007). Education for all by 2015: Will we make it? Paris: UNESCO.
- UNESCO (2006). Institute of Statistics (UIS) Literacy and Non Formal Education. Wessington DC, www.worlldbank.org visited on 13-06-2007.
- UNESCO (2006). *Global Monitoring Report 2005-06*. www.unesco.org/education Visited on 06-8.2007.
- Wetsburd, D. & Britt, C. (2003). Statistics in Criminal Justices, second Edition, Thomson Learning Academic Resource Center.
- Women in Pakistan (2000). Asian Development Bank, Program Department West and Office of Environment and Social Development, p.10.
- World Education Forum. (2000). A statistical Review.
- World Bank, (1997a), India: Achievement and Challenges in Reducing Poverty, Washington, DC. 1997b, Primary Education in India, Washington, DC.
- World Bank. (2001). Engendering Development: Through gender equality in rights, resources, and voice. New York: Oxford University Press. World Bank, Engendering Development: through gender equality in rights, resources, and voice.
- World Bank. (2009), *Girls' Education*, *http://go.worldbank.org/1L4BH3TG20*.

Received: May 19, 2012 Revision Received: September 13, 2013