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## Notes

### Chapter 1

1. One hundred and seventy-eight states are parties to the convention, the most recent being Timor-Leste and the Syrian Arab Republic, in early 2003 (Hannan 2003a).

2. Other important conferences of the 1990s with a focus on gender equality include the World Conference on Human Rights in Vienna in 1993 and the World Summit on Social Development in Copenhagen in 1995.

3. At each of the major UN international conferences of the past two decades governments agreed to a number of time-bound targets, with 1990 as the base year, to serve as benchmarks of progress (Grown, Rao Gupta, and Khan 2003). While most of these targets focus on education and health, the Beijing Platform for Action includes a target for increasing the representation of women in positions of power and decisionmaking. Targets for decreasing women's poverty or increasing women's economic equality are notable by their absence. Although poverty and women's economic rights were key themes at both the Copenhagen and Beijing conferences, governments' commitments to addressing these issues did not result.

4. This vision is similar to that put forth by Development Alternatives with Women for a New Era (DAWN) (Sen and Grown 1987, p. 80).

### Chapter 2

1. The task force recognizes that there are cases where interventions must target boys, for example, in countries with reverse gender gaps in secondary education.

### Chapter 3

1. The supply of teachers, even for primary education, depends on investments in secondary and tertiary education, and this is another reason for focusing on the education system.

2. This chapter draws from the companion report on achieving universal primary education, also prepared by the Task Force on Education and Gender Equality (UN Millennium Project 2005c).

3. Increases in women's education are associated with declines in fertility around the globe. But how much education is needed for fertility to decline? A review of 59 studies

from many different countries found that the level of women's education associated with a 10 percent decline in the fertility rate varied with the degree of gender stratification (Jejeebhoy 1996). In the most nonegalitarian settings (in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia), a 10 percent decline in fertility was attained only among women with some secondary education—or not at all—in 73 percent of the studies. In moderately egalitarian settings a 10 percent decline was attained by women with some primary schooling in half the studies. And in the most egalitarian settings—in Latin America—a 10 percent decline was attained by women with some primary school in 57 percent of the studies.

4. For lower levels of education the existence of a positive effect varies by type of outcome: primary education tends to affect the use of prenatal services more than the use of delivery or postnatal services (Elo 1992; Bhatia and Cleland 1995).

5. This confirms an earlier study in India which found that higher levels of education among women are associated with a lower lifetime incidence of violence against women (Duvvury and Allendorf 2001).

6. Although researchers attempted to control for underlying differences between participants and nonparticipants, this remains a methodological challenge and should be taken into consideration in interpreting the results.

7. UNESCO (2004) puts the figure at 54 percent, while UNICEF (2003b) estimates it at 57 percent.

8. Convergence toward parity can be attained through several types of change: declines in male rates with female rates remaining constant, declines in both female and male rates with male rates declining faster, or increases in both female and male rates with female rates increasing faster. Parity is desirable only if it is attained through increases in female rates.

9. These countries are Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Côte d'Ivoire, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Lesotho, Mozambique, Namibia, and Niger.

10. UNESCO defines the *completion rate* as “the total number of students successfully completing, or graduating from, the last year of school in a given year, expressed as a proportion of the total number of children of official graduation age in the population.” Since national-level completion or graduation data are hard to compile and are not suitable for cross-country comparisons, UNESCO uses as a proxy completion rate: first time enrollment to the final grade of a school cycle as a proportion of the total number of children of official graduation age in the population.

11. In a recent analysis of Demographic and Health Survey data from 24 Sub-Saharan African countries, Hewett and Lloyd (2004) provide a somewhat more optimistic estimate than that based on the World Bank data used in this chapter. They note that girls' primary completion rates have risen from 48 percent to 53 percent over the 1990s in these 24 countries.

12. These countries are Cambodia, China, Lao PDR, Papua New Guinea, and Samoa; Bulgaria, Estonia, Kazakhstan, and Poland; Turkey; Guyana and Nicaragua; Djibouti, Iraq, and Israel; India; Benin, Burkina Faso, Chad, Côte d'Ivoire, Ethiopia, Lesotho, Mauritius, Mozambique, Senegal, Togo, and Uganda.

13. Lloyd and Hewett (2003) also note that gender inequalities in primary school completion are magnified among the poor.

14. The reason for a female advantage in education among poorer households in these countries is unclear and could be a result of the underlying data collection methodology.

15. For a discussion of more equitable and efficient financing sources, see Sachs and others (2004).

## Chapter 4

1. Reproductive health is a state of physical, mental, and social well-being in all matters relating to the reproductive system at all stages of life. Reproductive health implies

that people are able to have a satisfying and safe sex life and that they have the capability to reproduce and the freedom to decide if, when, and how often to do so. Implicit are the rights of men and women to be informed and to have access to safe, effective, affordable, and acceptable methods of family planning of their choice and the right to appropriate health-care services that enable women to safely go through pregnancy and childbirth (WHO 1998b).

2. This section draws on Barroso and Girard (2003), a background paper commissioned by the task force.

3. The definition of unmet need for contraception includes women at risk of pregnancy who do not want another child (limiting desires) or want to postpone their next birth at least two years (spacing desires) but who are not currently using a method of birth control. Data on unmet need for contraception are available through Demographic and Health Surveys conducted in a large number of developing countries by ORC-Macro.

4. The body mass index is calculated as weight in kilograms divided by squared height in meters.

5. DALYs represent the sum of two components: the cumulative number of years lost as a result of premature death and the cumulative number of healthy years of life lost to disability. They are further adjusted for age and stage of life in which the disease or disability emerges.

6. Interventions to improve nutrition go well beyond the health sector; these are discussed at length in the report of the Task Force on Hunger (UN Millennium Project 2005d).

## Chapter 5

1. These women also spend somewhat more time engaged in housework and other miscellaneous activities.

2. Ellis and Hine (1998) find that for journeys as long as 30 kilometers, transport charges are up to 2.5 times more expensive in Africa than in Asia.

3. When projects have addressed women's needs, it has sometimes been for incorporating domestic water uses in the design of irrigation systems, most obviously for washing and bathing (Zwarteveen 1997). Although this recognition is important, planners have ignored women's need for water for productive purposes. Zwarteveen (1997), for instance, cites a 1990 study of an irrigation project in Burkina Faso where 3,000 women farmers, organized into groups of 40, received water rights in only 1 percent of the total command area.

4. Khandker, Lavy, and Filmer (1994) report that in the absence of a paved road, just 21 percent of rural girls ever attended school, whereas 58 percent of rural boys do. With paved roads, enrollment rates would have increased to 48 percent for girls and 76 percent for boys.

## Chapter 6

1. Productive assets refer to forms of property—land, house, livestock—that can be used to generate income and additional wealth.

2. See Tinker and Summerfield (1999) for additional information on the gender distribution of property rights in parts of China, Lao PDR, and Viet Nam.

3. Matrilineal inheritance can be found in northern and central Kerala, in south India and Meghalaya, in the northeast (Agarwal 1994, 1995), and in parts of Sri Lanka.

4. The Hindu Succession Act of 1956 made sons, daughters, and widows equal claimants in a man's separate property and in his share in the joint family property and gave women full control over the land they inherited. The Muslim Personal Law Shariat Application Act of 1937 also enhanced Muslim women's property rights compared with those prevailing under custom (Agarwal 2002).

5. A condition of such ownership was that women would contribute labor to cocoa farming (Quisumbing, Estudillo, and Otsuka 2004).

6. Land tenure systems in Sub-Saharan Africa are too complex and diverse to summarize here and are changing due to economic and social processes; see Lastarria-Cornhiel (1997) and Platteau (1997) for detailed treatment of the topic.

7. In countries like Ghana and South Africa there are concerns about the decision-making power vested in “traditional” authorities and chiefs in rural local government, where “traditionalism” is deeply inimical to the interests of women and young men.

8. It is important to distinguish between formal market transactions, where titled land is bought and sold, and other kinds of informal transactions, including loans, leases, sharecropping contracts, and pledges, which form the bulk of land transfers (Whitehead and Tsikata 2003).

9. However, land titling is feasible only when land rights are sufficiently individualized and in areas of high market and property rights development. The privatization and individualization of land is hotly debated in many countries. Concerns have been raised about poor people who lose the security provided by customary tenure while being unable to complete the bureaucratic process of registration. In both urban and rural areas titling programs have seen tenants and other vulnerable land users displaced.

10. Some argue for local-level customary institutions to allocate land and manage disputes; see Whitehead and Tsikata (2003) for a discussion of the debates in Sub-Saharan Africa.

11. Women in cohabiting or polygamous unions may fall outside the laws, and new legislation often needs to be put in place to give them rights to land.

12. One of the most interesting examples of this is the Deccan Development Society (DDS), an NGO working with poor women’s collectives in some 75 villages in Medak district, a drought-prone tract of Andhra Pradesh in southern India. DDS has helped women from landless families establish claims on land, through purchase and lease, using various government schemes (Menon 1996; Satheesh 1997; Agarwal 2002).

13. Under one of DDS’s programs, women in Andhra Pradesh lease land from private owners. Initiated in 1989 the program is now reported to cover 623 acres in 52 villages. Under another of DDS’s efforts women’s groups have used loan money available from a government poverty alleviation scheme, Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas, to lease land. Committees of women examine the lease proposals, assess land quality, keep records of each woman’s work input, and ensure equitable distribution of wages and produce (Agarwal 2002).

14. Agarwal (2002) notes that women would be stakeholders in a land trust. Each woman in the group would have use rights but not the right to alienate the land. The daughters-in-law and daughters of such households who reside in the village would share these use rights. Daughters leaving the village on marriage would lose such rights but could reestablish them by rejoining the production efforts, should they return as a result of divorce or widowhood. Thus, land access would be linked formally with residence and working on the land, as was the case under some traditional systems when land was held collectively by a clan (Agarwal 2002).

## Chapter 7

1. There are three types of unpaid work. Reproductive work consists of managing a household, cooking, cleaning, gathering fuel and hauling water, maintaining the home in good condition, and caring for family members, friends, and neighbors. These are all vital services for the paid economy. In many developing countries unpaid work also includes subsistence production—production for home use of goods and services that in principle could be marketed—such as food, clothing, and other items. Finally, unpaid

work includes unpaid community work, for instance, soup kitchens organized by women in poor neighborhoods; groups of mothers organizing care of children, the elderly, and those who are sick or disabled; and (unpaid) work for local or national nonprofit charitable organizations.

2. Informal employment is part of the market economy. It comprises self-employment in informal enterprises (small or unregistered), formal enterprises, households, and for no fixed employer, and wage employment in informal jobs (without secure contracts, worker benefits, or social protection). It includes domestic workers, casual or day laborers, industrial outworkers (such as homeworkers and own-account operators), and unpaid family workers in informal enterprises. In all developing regions self-employment constitutes a greater share of informal nonagricultural employment than wage employment: 70 percent of informal employment in Sub-Saharan Africa, 62 percent in North Africa, 60 percent in Latin America, and 59 percent in Asia (WIEGO 2002).

3. The results of these studies must be viewed cautiously because the data refer to participation in formal sector work.

4. Glick and Sahn (1997) find that more education reduces the likelihood of being self-employed and strongly increases the likelihood of working in the public sector. In India and Thailand Mammen and Paxson (2000) find that more educated women are more likely to work in nonmanual, white-collar jobs than in production or agricultural jobs. In Mexico Anderson and Dimon (1999) find that as years of schooling increase, the probability of working in the formal sector increases at a high rate for a largely agricultural base in Torreon, but at a low rate for a largely manufacturing base in Tijuana. Years of schooling is more important for women in non-export-oriented contexts and for married women. Similarly, Birdsall and Behrman (1991) conclude that in Brazil the more schooling women have, the less likely they are to work in the informal and domestic sectors. Assaad and El-Hamidi (2001) note that in both rural and urban areas of Egypt women with low levels of education are virtually shut out of regular wage work.

5. Women's choice of teaching as a career is linked to the fact that teachers' work hours overlap with children's school hours, enabling women to balance child-rearing responsibilities with career responsibilities.

6. Job ads often also specified age and appearance.

7. Neoclassical human capital theory argues that wage differentials result from individual differences in productivity arising from employees' different investments in education, training, tenure on the job, and other factors. However, human capital theorists have only been able to explain about 50 percent of the gender wage gap with human capital variables.

8. An alternative is that children are left at home without adult supervision while their mother goes to work, a particularly problematic arrangement for young children, in part because it often pulls older sisters out of school to provide childcare.

9. The work participation rate for females in rural Maharashtra are higher than participation rates in the Employment Guarantee Scheme.

10. Social protection comprises health insurance, work-related disability insurance, unemployment insurance, child maintenance, social security, and old age pensions.

11. In some microcredit schemes women do not control the use of the loan; see Goetz and Sengupta 1996.

12. In common law countries the judiciary has played an important role in developing antidiscrimination law. In India, for instance, a Supreme Court ruling included guidelines prohibiting sexual harassment in the workplace. In Zimbabwe a Labor Court supported a claim of sexual harassment despite the lack of relevant legal provisions (ILO 2003d).

13. Voluntary actions by firms to change pay grading structures seem to have little impact (Rubery and others 2002).

14. The pension is paid out of general government revenues and accounts for 1.4 percent of GDP (Burns, Keswell, and Leibbrandt forthcoming).

15. Barrientos (1998) also finds that the availability of personal pension plans would not increase the pension gender gap (which is almost nonexistent in Chile) and might close it.

## Chapter 8

1. This chapter is based on the paper written by Mala Htun (2003b) commissioned by the task force.

2. A study by Kaufmann, Kraay, and Zoido-Lobaton (1999) found a strong, negative, and statistically significant relationship between the proportion of women in a country's legislature and the level of corruption as measured by the *International Country Risk Guide* corruption index. For a large cross-section of countries Dollar, Fisman, and Gatti (2001) found that the level of corruption fell as women's representation in parliament increased. Another study using several datasets shows that corruption is less severe where women constitute a larger share of the labor force and hold a larger share of parliamentary seats (Swamy and others 2001).

3. Regional and country breakdowns for women's representation in national parliaments are based on data provided by the Inter-Parliamentary Union.

4. These countries are: Australia, Austria, Belarus, Bulgaria, Canada, China, Eritrea, Germany, Grenada, Guyana, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Latvia, Lesotho, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Poland, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Seychelles, Spain, Swaziland, Switzerland, Tanzania, Trinidad and Tobago, Turkmenistan, Uganda, and Viet Nam.

5. The countries are: Albania, Armenia, Bangladesh, Cameroon, Cape Verde, China, Congo, El Salvador, Equatorial Guinea, Gabon, Guyana, Honduras, Hungary, Indonesia, Malawi, Maldives, Mauritius, Mongolia, Nauru, Niger, Romania, São Tomé and Príncipe, Sri Lanka, Tuvalu, Vanuatu, Venezuela, Yemen, and Zimbabwe.

6. Though the text of the Mexican law suggests that the quota applies to both the proportional representation and the plurality elections, sanctions for noncompliance are administered only for proportional representation elections.

## Chapter 9

1. This section draws heavily on Moser and Moser (2003). The task force is grateful to Caroline Moser and Annalise Moser for permission to draw on several sections of their work.

2. For comprehensive overviews of debates identifying such issues, see Pickup, Williams, and Sweetman (2001); WHO (2002b); Buvinic, Morrison, and Shifter in Morrison and Biehl (1999); Spindel, Levy, and Connor (2000).

3. The most common reasons for underreporting include fear of retaliation by the attacker, cultural stigma, and the belief that such violence is justified as a legitimate aspect of a woman's role (Pickup, Williams, and Sweetman 2001; UNICEF 2000). Underrecording often occurs where gender-based violence is not considered a crime.

4. Most systematic studies have been carried out in industrial countries. Those undertaken in developing countries are generally very localized.

5. Gender-based violence is not inevitable. An ethnographic study of 90 societies around the world identified societies in which gender-based violence seems not to exist (Levinson 1989).

6. In an extreme case in 1991 at a school in Meru, Kenya, after 71 teenage girls were raped by their classmates and 19 others were killed, the school's principal stated, "The boys never meant any harm against the girls. They just wanted to rape" (Green 1999).

7. Figures on rape are likely to be conservative. In Chile, for example, around 615 cases of rape are reported to the police each year, but the estimated number of rapes is closer to 20,000 (Seager 2003).

8. See Leslie (2001); WHO (2002b); Seager (2003); Brunet and Rousseau (1998); and Kumar (2001).

9. The discussion of the four kinds of costs is adapted from Buvinic, Morrison, and Shifter in Morrison and Biehl (1999).

10. Many countries have developed national plans for the elimination of violence against women and are required to report on measures they have taken to implement their plans on a biennial basis at the General Assembly. Regrettably, these plans have often proved more valuable as symbols of commitment than as instigators of change.

11. November 10 commemorates the date that the three Mirabel sisters were murdered in the Dominican Republic for opposing the rule of dictator Rafael Trujillo. It is now celebrated as the International Day to End Violence against Women.

## Chapter 10

1. See [millenniumindicators.un.org](http://millenniumindicators.un.org) for more information on the statistical work being undertaken by the UN system to support international and country-level monitoring of the Millennium Development Goals and others.

2. For a longer discussion of the technical limitations of each indicator, see Grown, Rao Gupta, and Kahn 2003.

3. Although aggregate indicators of women's empowerment, such as gender wage differentials, literacy, secondary school enrollment, and political participation are well represented in the recommendations, there are few indicators of empowerment at the individual and household level that are part of the task force recommendations. Two examples of individual empowerment indicators are land ownership by sex and hours per day (or year) women and men spend fetching water and collecting fuel.

4. Net enrollment rates, which take into consideration the appropriate age for each grade, are a preferable indicator of access to education, but they are not available for a large number of countries. Gross enrollment rates are more widely available, but they include repeat students, and so results will be higher than with net enrollment rates.

5. In 2000 UNESCO had primary completion rates for 128 countries, 125 of them sex disaggregated. The World Bank had data for 116 countries, of which 99 were sex disaggregated.

6. The OECD and UNESCO maintain a World Economic Indicators program that tracks sex-disaggregated secondary school completion rates, mostly for OECD countries.

7. Unmet need for family planning captures the proportion of women who are not using family planning but who wish to space their next birth at least two years or avoid another birth (Bernstein 2004). Contraceptive prevalence is the proportion of married women (including women in consensual unions) ages 15–49 currently using any method of modern contraception: male and female sterilization, IUD, the pill, injectables, hormonal implants, condoms, and female barrier methods.

8. The adolescent fertility rate, as reported by countries, is available for 1970, 1980, 1990, and most recent year. In some countries data on the adolescent fertility rate have been collected separately for urban and rural areas.

9. The adolescent fertility rate counts only live births; stillbirths, and spontaneous or induced abortions are not reflected in the calculations (UNFPA 2003b).

10. The ILO has sex-disaggregated earnings data for the manufacturing sector for only 43 countries, most in the OECD (ILO 2003a).

11. The countries are Bangladesh, Brazil, Japan, Namibia, Peru, Tanzania, Thailand, and Samoa. The research has been replicated in six other countries: Chile, China, Ethiopia, Indonesia, New Zealand, Serbia, and Viet Nam.

## Chapter 11

1. Using data on GNP, share of GNP spent on education, and the share of primary education in public education, the study first computes initial public spending on primary education. Then it calculates the necessary increase in public spending to achieve universal primary education. The calculation takes into account the price elasticity of demand for education for girls and boys and the price cut needed to increase demand and factors in the estimated decline in private spending due to reduced prices. Finally, it includes a 9 percent increase in program costs.

2. The interventions related to sexual and reproductive health that fall within the health system are costed under the health sector needs assessment. The interventions here are not costed in either the health or education sector needs assessments.

3. The government's Working Group on Gender comprises focal points from each ministry, the State Statistical Committee, the Committee on Women's Affairs under the Presidential Office, international agencies, and local women's NGOs.

4. The overall sector needs assessments include the costs of reaching both men and women.

5. These costs are primarily for setting up a functioning health system (doctor and nurse recruitment, training and salaries, construction of hospitals, clinics and health posts, purchase of supplies and drugs). The health system created under this plan would be expected to provide the major interventions needed to achieve the child health and maternal health Goal—interventions like family planning services, supervised delivery, and emergency obstetric care.

6. The interventions that are not costed are: child and elderly care services, police and medical services to address violence against women, legal redress, legal aid services, registration systems, and data collection and monitoring systems.

7. Interventions related to community-based awareness campaigns for sexual and reproductive health are assumed to reach 50 percent of the adult population by 2015. Also, mass media campaigns are assumed to run one time each year to spread awareness about sexual and reproductive rights as well as other economic and legal rights to end violence against women. Finally, vocational training is targeted to reach 30 percent of the adolescent female population out of school by 2015. School to work programs target 20 percent of graduating female students. Support for women candidates will target 100 percent of women candidates in national elections by 2015. In 2004, 50 percent of women were estimated to be potential victims of domestic violence. Given this high degree of prevalence, a reasonable assumption is that approximately 20 percent of potential victims will need the full range of shelter services by 2015. Also by 2015, sensitization and training campaigns will be targeted to 100 percent of judges, 10 percent of civil servants, and 20 percent of the entire police force (UN Millennium Project 2004c). Finally, by 2015, each of the 18 ministries is targeted to have one gender focal point.

8. This analysis assumes a linear scaling up of costs from 2005 to 2015. The analysis focuses on financial costing and calculates total costs as opposed to incremental costs. It uses average unit costs and calculates both capital and recurrent costs for the 11-year period. For more details, see Sachs and others 2004.

## Chapter 12

1. For instance, one review of national women's machineries suggested that those placed within the president's or prime minister's office (such as in the Philippines and Tonga), the planning ministry (such as in Chile), or the ministry of finance (such as in Zambia) were most effective (Obang 1993).

2. Many countries have a strong legal framework, but few have adequate enforcement mechanisms.

3. The assessment of progress on a majority of the seven strategic priorities was made on the basis of existing data. As noted in chapter 10, no country has data on the distribution of land or housing ownership by sex, and few countries have data on the impact of infrastructure investments on women's time use or on the prevalence of violence against women. In the absence of such data, we analyzed other country literature to deduce the progress made in these areas.

4. The first impact study of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, which included South Africa, does not answer this question (McPhedran and others 2000).

## Appendix 1

1. Additional problems include the fact that censuses are usually conducted only once every 10 years. In some cases countries report data from only one to three censuses. Trends are therefore difficult to detect. And more than 30 countries have never published any kind of literacy data. Also, UN agencies do not have the same data points for all countries.

2. A few changes were made to the original UNDP (2002) grouping of countries: Southern European countries Turkey and Cyprus were merged in Europe and Central Asia. Somalia was moved from Middle East and North Africa to Sub-Saharan Africa, and Israel was moved from "Other UN member countries" to Middle East and North Africa.

3. Table A1.1 shows that 26 countries will have a ratio of 1 in 2005, and 20 countries will have a ratio greater than 1. Of these, 32 countries had already achieved parity or a reverse gap in 2000. The remaining 14 countries had ratios less than 1.

4. The other countries are Luxembourg, Papua New Guinea, and Samoa in East Asia and Pacific; Tajikistan and Turkey in Europe and Central Asia; Colombia and El Salvador in Latin America and the Caribbean; and Djibouti and Iraq in Middle East and North Africa.

5. The countries are Belgium, France, Italy; Myanmar; Azerbaijan, Bulgaria, Estonia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Macedonia TFYR, Poland; Chile, Guyana; Israel; and Mauritius.

6. The countries are Cambodia, China, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Papua New Guinea, Samoa, Bulgaria, Estonia, Kazakhstan, Poland, Turkey, Guyana, Nicaragua, Djibouti, Iraq, Israel, India, Benin, Burkina Faso, Chad, Côte d'Ivoire, Ethiopia, Lesotho, Mauritius, Mozambique, Senegal, Togo, and Uganda.

## Appendix 6

1. This report was prepared by the moderator of the e-discussions, Akanksha A. Marphatia. These comments are based on an earlier version of the report, and the current version reflects many of the comments.

2. Contacts for these organizations are as follows: David Archer (ActionAid International), Chike Anywanyu (Commonwealth Education Fund), Anne Jellema (Global Campaign for Education), and Geeta Sharma, Kedar Dash, and Atanu Gurai (One World South Asia).

3. The full report can be obtained from Elaine Unterhalter with the Beyond Access Project: [e.unterhalter@oie.ac.uk](mailto:e.unterhalter@oie.ac.uk).

4. The paper is available at <http://k1.ioe.ac.uk/schools/efps/GenderEducDev/Where%20are%20we%20scaling%20up%20from%20FINAL%20FINAL.pdf>.

5. Full article can be found at [www.india-seminar.com](http://www.india-seminar.com), April 2004 issue.

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