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Master's Thesis of Arts

**Gender in Education Development
and Cooperation in Korea:
Hidden figures or structured powers**

한국 교육개발협력에서의 젠더:
숨겨진 사람들 혹은 구조화된 권력

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ABSTRACT

Gender in Education Development and Cooperation in Korea: Hidden figures or structured powers

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Over the past few decades, gender equality has been considered a significant and crosscutting issue and has been recognized as a fundamental principle in development cooperation (KVINFO, 2018). Given this, gender equality in education has been actively promoted by many international treaties and organisms, and it has also been pursued as an achievement goal in Korea's international development. How are gender and gender equality perceived in the context of education, though? Is the perception that more girls and women, hidden figures in education development and cooperation, should be integrated into schooling? Or that gender is a constructed social relation or power, and education a process of conscientization to challenge inequity and oppression?

This research aims to explore the vocabularies and semantic meanings of gender equality in education used by Korea International Cooperation Agency

(KOICA) in its programs when cooperating with development partners in academia. This research was based on two approaches: the women in development (WID) approach and the gender and development (GAD) approach. To this end, the study explored the perception and concept of gender reflected in the program, gender or women's issues reflected in the process of the program's projects, and the gender-related results attained as outputs of the program.

This research conducted content analysis with insights taken from Unterhalter's categorization of four approaches concerning gender, education, and development: WID, GAD, post-structuralism, and human development. The contents of the KOICA program, such as brochures, leaflets, and guidelines introducing and describing the program, and 52 final project reports from 2014 to 2016 were examined in a deductive process of content analysis. Specifically, a categorization framework was developed, and data were coded based on the categorization framework. Then, an analytical framework was developed based on Unterhalter's categories to explore how gender, gender equality, and education were understood in the program.

The findings demonstrate the predominance of the WID approach, with a trace of the GAD approach. Many of the program's projects pursued greater access to and retention in education for girls and women, and various procedures were implemented to promote accessibility of education to girls and women. This is also shown in figures concerning women's access and participation, reported as necessary results.

According to analyses of the program, the most prominent problems in its projects were gendered relations and powers. However, they remained at the level of identification; they were neither explicitly nor thoroughly challenged through

the program. Gender needs and interests were identified, but these were primarily practical gender needs identified by women in their socially accepted roles, and thus—although they arise out of these issues—they did not challenge the gender division of labor or women’s subordinate position in society (Moser, 1993). Nevertheless, education regarding gender, which could provide participants with insight into the gendered structure, was conducted in some projects.

This research offers a starting point to understand how gender-related problems in education are diagnosed and how the nature of the challenge is interpreted in practice. The study does not explore the experiences of other sides of development—stakeholders, beneficiaries, and partners in developing countries—in the program. However, investigating how donors understand the issue of gender equality in education is significant, because it affects how they approach what they recognize as problems of gender inequality in education. Furthermore, this research serves as a first step in exploring why the WID approach prevails in education development and cooperation in Korea, a topic to be pursued in future research.

Keyword: Gender equality in education, education development cooperation, WID, GAD, Civil Society Cooperation Program, Academy Partnership Program

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

AFD	Agence Française de Développement (French Development Agency)
CSOs	Civil Society Organizations
DAC	Development Assistance Committee
EFA	Education for All
GAD	Gender and Development
GEM	Global Education Monitoring
GENDERNET	The DAC Network on Gender Equality
JICA	Japan International Cooperation Agency
KOICA	Korea International Cooperation Agency
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
NGOs	Non-Government Organizations
OECD	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNESCO	United Nations Environmental, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WID	Women in Development

CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Over the past few decades, many international standards and treaties have been developed to promote gender equality in education—the UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), the Dakar Declaration on Education for All, the UN Millennium Declaration, the United Nations Girls’ Education Initiative (UNGEI), the Agenda for Sustainable Development, and the Education 2030 Incheon Declaration,— to name just a few. Such standards have established a substantial international normative framework with the political and moral impetus to achieve education for all, without discrimination or exclusion of any kind (UNESCO, 2016, p. 31).

Moreover, gender equality in education has been broadly adopted and pursued as an achievement goal. For instance, goal 5 of UNESCO’s Education for All (EFA) movement was to eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and to achieve gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls’ full and equal access to and achievement in basic, good quality education (UNESCO & UNICEF, 2012, p. 3). Goal 3 of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) was to promote gender equality and empower women, and target 3A to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015 (UN, 2015, p. 28). Goal 4 of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) is to ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and to promote lifelong learning opportunities for all (UN, 2017, p. 6).

Exploring the targets and indicators of these goals, it seems that gender equality in education has a multitude of meanings. Setting aside the SDGs, there are two common and distinctive words found in the EFA and MDG goals concerning gender equality in education, namely “disparity” and “access.” Reducing gender disparities in education and promoting greater access to education for girls and women have been identified as strategies to achieve gender equality in education. However, are these a panacea for gender equality in education? Can achieving gender parity equate to achieving gender equality? Will gender equality in education be automatically achieved when equal numbers of boys and girls, men and women have access to education?

To find answers to such questions, this research explored a KOICA civil society cooperation program with development partners in academia, one type of Civil Society Cooperation Program run by KOICA. Since 2012, universities and research institutes have participated in the Public-Private Partnership Program (the former name of the Civil Society Cooperation Program) as private partners, like civil society organizations (CSOs) and businesses (KOICA, 2012a, 2012b). From 2012 to 2015, many universities and research institutes became participants in thematic projects organized for them (KOICA, in press). From 2015 to 2016, the program was generally termed the Academic Partnership Program (KOICA, in press). It was subdivided into three tracks and specialized in harnessing the expertise and characteristics of development actors in academia (KOICA, 2015a).

In accordance with this trend, more than a quarter (26.9%) of all projects completed by the program from 2014 to 2016 were education projects (KOICA, in press). In addition, 30% of beneficiaries and 50% of local partners during this period were local universities. Various projects were implemented by utilizing the

expertise and capabilities of private partners in development in academia (KOICA, 2015a). For this reason, educational activities were conducted even if the project itself was not classified as an education project.

1.2 Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to explore how gender and gender equality were reflected in an actual educational development program based on two approaches to gender, education, and development primarily used in international development policy concerning gender. This study may serve as a starting point to understand how gender-related problems in education related to gender are diagnosed, and how the nature of the challenge to achieve gender equality in education is interpreted.

To this end, this study identified the following research questions:

What are the vocabularies and semantic meanings of gender equality in education used in the KOICA program cooperating with development partners in academia?

1. How are the perception and concept of gender reflected in the program?
2. What gender or women's issues are reflected in the process of the program's projects?
3. What are considered results with respect to gender in the outcomes or outputs of the program?

To explore the interpretation of gender and gender equality in the context of the KOICA program cooperating with development partners in academia, this examined the perception and concept of gender reflected in the program, the gender or women's issues reflected in the program's projects, and the stated results using an analytical framework based on Unterhalter's categorization of four approaches concerning gender, development, and education.

1.3 Significance of the Study

This study is significant in two main aspects. First, the study explores how approaches concerning gender, education, and development are realized in practice. These underlying approaches function as frameworks to understand the nature of the challenge and to diagnose problems in girls' and women's education; different interpretations of gender inequality in education entail different actions to address the problem (Unterhalter, 2005). Therefore, this exploration uncovers why policies and practices are presented to settle the issue of gender inequality. Put another way, unveiling these approaches is a starting point understanding why certain policies and practices regarding gender inequality in education have been developed and implemented.

Second, this research offers an opportunity to consider gender equality in education from beyond the perspective of increasing access and reducing gender disparity. By investigating the approaches at work within the actual development program, this study shows that policy-level prescriptions on gender inequality in education have placed particular focus on the issue of parity based on one specific approach. Gender inequality is a complex issue, and it cannot be solved simply by

encouraging more girls and women to participate in the projects. The issue of access alone would not solve the problem of inequality (Jacobs, 1996). Integrating girls and women is not a panacea. It is a necessary towards equality, but insufficient precondition *per se* for its realization (Subrahmanian, 2005).

1.4 Definition of Terms

In this research, certain terms referred to repeatedly are defined as follows:

- *Higher Education*: “All types of studies, training or training for research at the post-secondary level, provided by universities or other educational establishments that are approved as institutions of higher education by the competent state authorities” (UNESCO, 1998). UNESCO and other organizations including the World Bank and UNDP use this same basic definition (JICA, 2004). Although the term “tertiary education” is sometimes referred to as distinct from higher education, it is used synonymously with *higher education* in this research.

- *Academy Partnership Program (APP)*: The Academy Partnership Program, sometimes called the Academic Partnership Program, was one type of KOICA Public-Private Partnership Program, with universities and research institutes as private partners. In 2012, universities began to participate in the program as private partners, to expand and diversify the Public-Private Partnership Program, to improve official development assistance (ODA) effectiveness by utilizing universities’ expertise, and

to harness the field experience of the Korean labor force in developing countries (KOICA, 2012a). As of 2015, the public partnership program was divided into three, according to the partners: the APP (Academic Partnership Program), the BPP (Business Partnership Program), and the CPP (CSO Partnership Program). The APP aimed to promote partner countries' capacity for development planning and higher education for self-sustainable development (KOICA, 2015a). The program is currently divided into five themes: higher education, education, health, agriculture, forestry and fisheries, and multisector (human rights, democracy, and climate change) (KOICA, 2018).

- *Gender*: Gender is a social construct comprised of society's expectation and beliefs about what is appropriate for being a man or woman (Connell, 2009; Leach, 2003). It is a socially determined and culturally relative term. Therefore, although it is sometimes used synonymously with the term "sex," which is a system of biological reproduction and a matter of natural fact (Hurley, 2007), the two terms are not interchangeable (Leach, 2003).

- *Gender Parity*: Quantitatively or numerically equal participation of boys and girls or of men and women (Subrahmanian, 2005). Gender parity in education refers to the proportion, usually numerical, of boys and girls taking part in an education system relative to the population per age group (USAID, 2008).

- *Gender Equity*: Equity refers to fairness and justice; thus, gender equity refers to fairness in men's and women's access to resources (Leach, 2003). Gender equity in education refers to measures such as strategies and processes that provide fair and equal opportunities for all to pursue and benefit from educational opportunities (USAID, 2008). Even though it is often used interchangeably with "gender equality," definitional clarity must be made (Leach, 2003; Subrahmanian, 2005).

- *Gender Equality*: *Equality* refers to the concept of equal rights and entitlements (Leach, 2003); thus, *gender equality* refers to equal rights, responsibilities, freedoms, conditions, and opportunities for men and women and for boys and girls to realize their full potential in society (UNESCO, 2014; USAID, 2008). Addressing gender inequalities in education is a complex task because they take many forms, vary depending on context, and manifest in all aspects of education, including educational infrastructure, access, retention/completion, curriculum, learning materials, pedagogy, school life, learning outcomes, and career choices and education (UNESCO, 2014). Therefore, promotion of gender equality in education implies not only equality in education (access and promoting safe and empowering learning environments) but also equality within education (contents, teaching and learning context and practices, delivery modes, and assessments) and equality through education (learning outcomes and life and work opportunities) (UNESCO, 2014).

CHAPTER II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This study reviews approaches concerning gender, education, and development. Two of these, women in development (WID) and gender and development (GAD) are dominant in the literature. Therefore, their strengths and weaknesses are the primary focus of review. Other approaches are also reviewed, providing the opportunity to consider this issue from new viewpoints are reviewed.

2.1 WID and GAD: Two Major Approaches to Gender, Education, and Development

Over the last four decades, the WID and the GAD approaches have had the most impact on the formulation and implementation of development policies and academic discourse, providing the basis for gender-sensitive policies and influencing research in various institutions, including international and foreign assistance agencies (Jaquette & Summerfield, 2006; Rathgeber, 1990). Most development programs and projects have been influenced by these two approaches, although development practitioners frequently overlook the approach or theory underlying their work (Rathgeber, 1990). It is essential to explore these two approaches, their related theories, and their underlying assumptions because they have been used as important frameworks for institutions and organizations to diagnose problems in and understand the challenge of girls' and women's education and training. The diagnoses made on the basis of these approaches have led to different prescriptions for gender inequality in education, and to implementation of different strategies to achieve gender equality in education.

2.1.1 The WID (women in development) approach

Since the 1970s, the WID framework has had the most influential advocates in public and private institutions including governments, intergovernmental organizations, and NGOs (DeJaeghere & Wiger, 2013). Moreover, even in the 1990s, the most influential policy thinking on gender, education, and development made use of this approach (Unterhalter, 2005). After the first World Conference on Women was held in 1975 in Mexico City, many national governments and foreign assistance agencies quickly adopted WID as their goal (Jaquette & Summerfield, 2006).

The publication of Ester Boserup's monumental study "Women's Role in Economic Development" (1970) contributed to quick adoption and proliferation of WID. By exploring changes in traditional African agricultural society, Boserup analyzed the gendered impact of development. She found that development (in her study, of cash cropping and technology transfer) aimed primarily at men eventually disadvantaged women by neglecting their role in agricultural production (Boserup, 1970). Boserup's study challenged the "welfare approach" (Miller & Razavi, 1995), in which women were considered not as farmers but as mothers and wives (Jaquette & Summerfield, 2006). This influential study is important not only because it provided the intellectual underpinning of WID, but also because gender was first and systematically used as a variable in her work in examining data and evidence, which had long been available to social scientists and development planners (Rathgeber, 1990).

The WID approach drew from the liberal egalitarianism of American feminists of the 1970s, who advocated for legal and administrative changes to better integrate of women into economic systems (Jaquette, 1982; Miller & Razavi,

1995). Thus, WID advocates argue that women should be integrated more and better into existing development programs and projects to eliminate discrimination against women and to end inequality.

2.1.1.1 The WID approach in the context of education

WID is also closely related to the modernization paradigm (Koczberski, 1998; Rathgeber, 1990). In this respect, education plays a vital role as a crucial means of producing a stock of well-trained workers and managers to achieve modernization, which usually equates with industrialization and development.

In the context of education, it is pivotal to bring girls and women outside school into the educational system because they have thus far been hidden figures in development: untapped potential workers and managers and human capital for development. Therefore, gender equality in education is sought by improving female students' enrollment and retention in school through attention to their access, attendance, and achievement. Several researchers have studied numbers of male and female students, male and female teachers, and images of boys and girls in textbooks (Herz & Sperling, 2004; Joshi & Anderson, 1994; King & Hill, 1997; UNESCO, 2004). In this sense, gender equality in education would equate to achievement of quantitatively or numerically equal participation of genders in school. The aim of education would be to develop human capital or identify areas of imbalanced gender participation.

Additionally, the noted benefits of girls' education are economic and social, including rapid economic growth, reduced infant and maternal mortality, ensuring mothers raise healthier and better-educated children, enabling smaller

and more sustainable families, and reduced rates of child marriage, HIV/AIDS, and malaria (Sperling & Winthrop, 2015). Such benefits have received greater focus than personal and private benefits. In this context, then, girls' and women's education is ultimately conducted to benefit others rather than themselves (Unterhalter, 2005). It becomes "the world's best investment with the widest-ranging returns" (Sperling & Winthrop, 2015). Therefore, several researchers have explored obstacles that hinder female students from going to school, as well as factors that influence their access to education, such as family decisions regarding sending daughters to school, making them continue their schooling, and the social benefits of their education (Alderman, Orazem, & Paterno, 2001; Filmer & Pritchett, 1999; Gage, Sommerfelt, & Piani, 1997; Hadden & London, 1996; Klasen, 2000; Subbarao & Raney, 1995).

As a result, education development policies and practices associated with the WID approach have focused on ameliorating access of women and girls to schools or vocational training centers. Accordingly, various donor aid agencies and NGOs have offered scholarships for female students, made schools and centers tuition-free, and developed infrastructure for female teachers and students including providing school buses, dormitories, and sanitary facilities. In addition, they have encouraged communities and parents to enable girls and women to go to schools and centers, and to ensure that female students continue in and complete their courses.

2.1.1.2 Limitations and criticism of the WID approach

The WID approach has had a significant influence on many donor aid agencies and NGOs, its concept of integration still features powerfully in the rhetoric of most aid agencies, and it remains dominant in development practices (Koczberski, 1998). Despite this, the approach has faced much criticism. As mentioned above, it is based on modernization theory, and this fundamentally limits the approach in many ways. The early traditional modernization theory on which the WID approach is based adopts the dichotomized colonial discourse; in this view, development is a natural and linear progression from traditional, static, backward, underdeveloped society to modern, dynamic, progressive, developed society (Koczberski, 1998; Rathgeber, 1990). Therefore, the solutions it adopts for developing countries are fairly technological prescriptions for problems based on the way already-developed countries achieved their development, without consideration for the contextual diversity of developing countries.

Additionally, the goal to integrate women and girls into the existing development process implies that they have not been considered a part of it. They have not been considered involved in the development process. This is because emphasis has been placed only on women's role in productive work related to income generation or formal economy, and their other roles have been relatively neglected. Therefore, the development process for women and girls could in fact add an extra burden to their already busy lives.

Increased participation in formal economic and political sectors also does not automatically guarantee improved status and position for women (Koczberski, 1998). Furthermore, consideration of women and girls as a homogenous group

leads to neglect of their diversity and to disregard of the impact of other influencing factors, such as wealth, power, and social status among girls and women (Koczberski, 1998; Rathgeber, 1990).

The WID approach has been criticized for accepting existing social structures rather than confronting them and questioning the sources and nature of inequalities (Rathgeber, 1990). In addition, Koczberski argues that the approach stereotypes women and girls as passive, oppressed, ignorant, powerless, and trapped in secondary roles. Above all, she questions the belief that integration of women would automatically guarantee their genuine participation. She assumes that women would instead play a secondary role in participation and control of development planning process, rather than genuinely participating in development (Koczberski, 1998).

2.1.2 The GAD (gender and development) approach

The GAD approach stemmed from such criticism of the WID approach in the late 1980s. Carolyn Moser's "Gender Planning in the Third World: Meeting Practical and Strategic Gender Needs" is commonly cited as foundational to the GAD approach (Jaquette & Summerfield, 2006). In her influential study, Moser identified the problem of the development planning process: failure to recognize the difference between the roles and needs of men and women. She argued that among the triple roles of women's work, the two roles of reproductive and community management work were undervalued compared to productive work, and that women's gender needs and interests (both practical and strategic) should be considered in the development process (Moser, 1989). In addition, she analyzed the shift in policy approaches to women, partly borrowing the categorization of

Buvinic. Table 1 summarizes different policy approaches toward third-world women.

[Table 1] Policy Approaches toward Women

	Welfare Approach	WID	GAD
Issues	Welfare	Equity (original) Anti-poverty (second) Efficiency (third)	Empowerment
Period most popular	1950–1970, but still widely used	1970s–present	1975–present; accelerated during the 1980s, and still has limited popularity
Purpose	To bring women into development as better mothers (seen as their most important role in development)	To ensure poor women increase their productivity (women’s poverty seen as a problem of underdevelopment, not subordination)	To empower women through greater self-reliance (women’s subordination seen not only as a problem of men but also of colonial/neocolonial oppression)
Women’s needs met and roles recognized	Practical gender needs in the reproductive role, relating particularly to food aid, malnutrition, and family planning	Practical gender needs in the productive role, relating particularly to earning an income	Strategic gender needs in terms of triple roles, realized indirectly through bottom-up mobilization concerning practical gender needs as means to confront oppression
Comments	Women seen as passive beneficiaries of development with a focus on the reproductive role. Nonchallenging and therefore still widely popular, especially with governments and traditional NGOs.	Poor women isolated as a separate category; shows the tendency to recognize only the productive role	Potentially challenging with emphasis on the Third World and women’s self-reliance. Largely unsupported by governments and agencies. Avoidance of criticism of Western feminism leads to slow, significant growth by underfinanced voluntary organizations.

Note. Reconstructed from Moser (1989) by author

The GAD approach drew on socialist feminism (Rathgeber, 1990;

Unterhalter, 2005) and responded to postcolonial feminism and the growth of women's movements in developing countries (Jaquette & Summerfield, 2006). GAD advocates emphasized the gendered and patriarchal power structures of inequality and the removal of structural obstacles to equality (Unterhalter, 2005). Thus, the concern of the GAD approach is not just about women per se, but "the social construction of gender and the assignment of specific roles, responsibilities, and expectations to women and men" (Rathgeber, 1990). In this sense, women are viewed as autonomous agents of change, and are expected to organize themselves to have a more active political voice (Rathgeber, 1990; Young, 1997). Therefore, empowerment of women was essential and became the agenda for development (Lim, 2013).

Within the context of GAD, gender mainstreaming is a mechanism for development, gender equity, and gender equality (Kwesiga & Ssendiwala, 2006). It was identified as the most critical strategy for gender equality and empowerment of women at the Beijing Platform for Action in 1995 (Moser & Moser, 2005). The tools for gender mainstreaming include gender-disaggregated statistics, equality indicators, gender budgets, gender-impact assessments, and gender monitoring and evaluation (Morley, 2005a).

2.1.2.1 The GAD approach in the context of education

According to the GAD approach to education, gender inequality in education is a structural problem, and thus, focusing only on reducing disparity in school cannot resolve the issue. Development should challenge gendered structural powers and relations surrounding education by offering strategies and

processes that provide fair and equal opportunities for the genders. In this respect, education's purpose is to conscientize or identify areas of gendered and patriarchal inequality in power structure.

Researchers informed by the GAD approach to education have studied gendered structures of education such as the politics of aid and national education policy, gendered relations inside and outside school, and the impacts of such relations (Colclough, Al-Samarrai, & Tembon, 2017; Hossain, Subrahmanian, & Kabeer, 2002; Stromquist, 1997, 2000; Swainson, 2000; Vavrus, 2003). For example, based on a case study of three African countries (Malawi, Tanzania, and Zimbabwe), Swainson explored the impact of recipient country governments and donor aid agencies (UNICEF, SIDA and DFID) on the design and implementation of policy concerning gender inequalities in education (Swainson, 2000). Gendered relations in community, society, and households were also shown to have an impact on parental schooling decisions (Colclough et al., 2017; Vavrus, 2003).

Gendered culture has a negative influence on health education curricula, particularly sex education related to AIDS (Leach, Fiscian, Kadzamira, Lemani, & Machakanja, 2003; Mirembe & Davies, 2001; Vavrus, 2003). In particular, school-based violence based on gender, such as sexual harassment and sexual abuse and its negative impact on the health education of African countries (Northern Tanzania, Zimbabwe, Ghana, and Malawi) have been highlighted. (Leach et al., 2003; Mirembe & Davies, 2001) Gendered relations in school and society are also identified as a constraint on gender equality in education in UNESCO's Global Monitor Report (UNESCO, 2004).

One example of an actual educational development project associated with the GAD approach is found in the REFLECT (Regenerated Freirean Literacy

through Empowering Community Techniques) program (Unterhalter, 2005). The section concerning gender in *The REFLECT Mother Manual* explains two common approaches taken by literacy programs regarding gender. First is the pragmatic approach of meeting women's practical gender needs through literacy programs by offering information on farming, nutrition, and health. This approach does not challenge but rather supports women's existing triple role (productive, reproductive, and community management). Second is the approach of focusing on women's strategic gender needs through literacy programs by offering information on women's legal rights, or promoting discussion of gender-based problems such as domestic violence, ownership of resources, rights of inheritance, reproduction, custody, and so on.

The REFLECT approach, as stated in the manual, is a combination of these two approaches, beginning by addressing the everyday practical problems of men and women and then challenging the roots of such problems by recognizing both men's and women's practical and strategic gender needs. Male and female participants of the REFLECT-based literacy program have an opportunity to discuss issues ranging from practical gender needs, such as nutrition, to strategic gender needs, such as income and expenditure, in a well-structured but open-ended way based on their own experiences (Archer & Cottingham, 1996b). The results of pilot projects conducted in Uganda, Bangladesh, and El Salvador showed that discussions in the literacy classes contributed not only to practical agricultural improvements such as terracing and construction of grain stores, but also to changes in gender roles and relations in Uganda and Bangladesh, such as domestic work and decision-making regarding household and community (Archer & Cottingham, 1996a).

2.1.2.2 Limitations and criticism of the GAD approach

The GAD approach has also faced some criticism. Its biggest challenge stems from its nature, which considers the gendered structure of inequality to be the problem and focuses on complex processes involved in the reproduction and transformation of gendered relations (Unterhalter, 2005). Therefore, it is not easy to translate the GAD approach into implementation of actual development practices. Put another way, GAD appears abstract and complex, thus somewhat difficult to realize in practice. In addition, compared to WID, GAD demands a more holistic and fundamental change in society to overcome inequality. Therefore, it is more threatening than the WID approach (Moser, 1993), which suggests a relatively simpler solution—integrating girls and women into the existing system—and this elicits more bureaucratic resistance and less popularity in planning processes.

Additionally, gender mainstreaming, the crucial development mechanism suggested by GAD to integrate gender into all aspects of development organizations' works—including programming, implementing, and budgeting development projects and programs—has been adopted at the policy level but not the implementation level (Vavrus & Richey, 2003). More importantly, the outcomes and impacts on gender equality of gender mainstreaming at the implementation level remain largely unknown (Moser & Moser, 2005).

According to the UNDP review, *Transforming the Mainstream: Gender in UNDP*, gender mainstreaming requires gender expertise, but organizations cannot fully support such efforts because they do not provide sufficient resources on the issue. Furthermore, gender is considered a crosscutting issue across many

organizations, and this leads ironically to loss of impetus by making the issue institutionally homeless and addressed in a compartmentalized way. In other words, “by making gender mainstreaming everybody’s job, it can easily become nobody’s job” (UNDP, 2003, p. 7).

In short, criticism of GAD has concerned real difficulties in practically implementing this approach, rather than the approach itself. Compared to WID, GAD’s suggested prescriptions for gender inequality seem more fundamental complex, which could lead to reluctance to accept and follow them. This might explain the continuing popularity of the WID approach, despite its many limitations and criticism, and comparatively lower popularity of the GAD approach.

2.2 Other Approaches

2.2.1 Post-structuralism

Another approach is post-structuralism. Advocates of this approach, mainly highly educated critics in universities, have critiqued the hegemonic and static conceptualization of gender and development. They assume that gendered identity construction is a fluid, shifting, and dynamic process, and that education is partly a process of understanding such fluidity and of raising critical questions about the process by which non-mainstream identities are marginalized (DeJaeghere & Wiger, 2013; Unterhalter, 2005, 2006).

Studies based on this approach have examined the identities of students and the role of education. For instance, research has explored the gendered and sexual identities of boys and girls from Eastern and Southern African countries (Botswana, Kenya, South Africa, Tanzania, Rwanda, Zambia, and Zimbabwe) and

their implications for HIV/AIDs and life skills education (Pattman & Chege, 2003), the multiplicity of students' identities in Africa (Stambach, 2013), and the role of education in doing and undoing gender (Stromquist & Fischman, 2009). In addition, post-structuralist analysis of the importance of identity has been related to public mobilization to deal with subordinated identities, such as gay and lesbian identities, in South Africa (Gevisser & Cameron, 1995).

2.2.2 Human development approach (human rights and human capabilities approach)

The final approaches considered are the human rights and human capabilities approaches, collectively referred to as the human development approach. Compared to three aforementioned approaches, these two pose more foundational and philosophical questions, such as the reason for the importance of gender equality and the definitions of various rights to education (Unterhalter, 2005, 2006). Advocates of the human rights approach consider education a universal human right that should be guaranteed to all, regardless of their race, gender, social status, and so on. Thus, this approach considers women and girls to be rights holders, the same as all others.

One study based on the rights approach is Duncan Wilson's (2004) three-fold characterization of rights concerning education: rights *to* education, rights *in* education and rights *through* education. Based on this categorization, Greany (2008) explored different interpretations of rights, gender, and education by analyzing one male and one female staff member involved in a rights-based NGO program in rural Niger. Also based on Wilson's classification of rights, Subrahmanian (2005) defined *rights to education* as having "access and

participation”, *rights within education* as having “gender-aware educational processes and outcomes” and *rights through education* as “important education outcomes that link education equality with wider processes of gender justice.” Subrahmanian developed indicative measurable indicators of the respective rights shown in Table 2.

[Table 2] Indicative Measurable Indicators of Educational Rights

Rights to education	Rights within education	Rights through education
Enrollment	Subject choice	Male/female employment across different levels of education by gender
Survival	Learning outcomes (performance in examinations)	Gender differentials in wages across different levels of employment/education
Completion of study	Teacher-learner ratio	Political participation
Regularity of attendance	Gender balance within the classroom	
Repetition	Teacher qualifications	
Average years of schooling attained	Level of teacher training	
Transition of boys and girls between levels of education	Factors shaping performance, including:	
Number of female and male teachers	Health of students	
	Nutritional status	
	Children’s involvement in family work	
	Social discrimination within the classroom/society (context-specific indicators necessary)	

Note. Reconstructed from Subrahmanian (2005) by author.

The human capabilities approach holds that equality should be evaluated, for example in providing education, based on an understanding of human capabilities, the valued freedoms of every individual (Sen, 2001; Unterhalter, 2005, 2006). This aspect, stressing the personal and private benefits of education for girls and women, contrasts with the human capital approach, an influence on WID,

which highlights the aggregated social and economic benefits of education for girls and women. In addition, like GAD, this approach addresses structures and agency, but it does so in the context of the value of individuals and communities (DeJaeghere & Wiger, 2013). Adapting Nussbaum's capabilities to intergenerational research, Raynor examined to what extent formal, nonformal (usually through NGOs), and informal education contributed to increasing the capabilities of three generations, from grandmothers to granddaughters, in Bangladesh (Arnot & Fennell, 2008). This approach can also contribute to evaluation of women's literacy (Alkire, 2005) and of HIV/AIDS policy in South Africa, if conditions of gender and race inequality are noted (Unterhalter, 2003).

In conclusion, various approaches with differing assumptions and related theories have influenced the policies of various institutions, shaping their projects and practices for gender equality in education. Various scholars have explored the distinctions of the WID, GAD, post-structuralism, and human development (human rights and human capabilities) approaches to frame gender equality in education (DeJaeghere & Wiger, 2013). They appear to have a relatively distinctive set of concerns, demands, policy implications, and favored research, but in reality, there are considerable overlaps between approaches (Thomas & Rugambwa, 2011; Unterhalter, 2005).

2.3 Overview of Cooperation with Academia

2.3.1 Development of global public-private cooperation

As early as the 1950s, the US government provided financial support to NGOs¹, and in the 1960s, Germany, Sweden, Austria, the Netherlands, Norway, and Canada began to do as well (Kim, 1992). In the 1970s, aid agencies of OECD member countries initiated and established a system for cooperating with NGOs through financial support (Kim, 1992). In part, the poor performance in this area of the donors' own projects and programs at the implementation level spurred their interest in NGOs, particularly in the health and education sectors (Lewis & Kanji, 2009). One of the "qualities" NGOs appeared to provide that official aid could not was more effective engagement, particularly with women and minorities (Lewis & Kanji, 2009; Little, 2018). In the 1980s, influenced by neoliberal ideas, donor-supported NGO programs were accelerated in close relation to privatization of the state (Lewis & Kanji, 2009; Sohn, Park, & Kim, 2014). In the 1990s, donors began to consult NGOs on policy rather than substituting NGOs for their roles directly, and creation of partnerships became a fundamental idea in development policy (Lewis & Kanji, 2009). In connection with this trend, the emergence of new actors within the aid system influenced the HLF3 Accra Agenda for Action, in which CSOs are recognized as independent development actors. Additionally, new actors are not limited to NGOs, and may include other private sector entities such as businesses and research institutes.

¹ In this study, the term "NGOs" is used interchangeably with "CSOs"

2.3.2 Development of KOICA's public-private cooperation with development actors in academia

Cooperation between KOICA and private partners has been continuous since 1995, when KOICA launched a program supporting CSOs, and KOICA has since broadened its sphere of public-private cooperation. One strategy to strengthen cooperation with other stakeholders was to expand KOICA's partners to include not only CSOs but also various other development actors including universities, research institutes, and businesses. Since 2012, universities have been able to participate as private partners in the Public-Private Partnership Program.

2.3.2.1 Initial phase, 2012–2014: The beginning of cooperation with academia

In 2012, under the name “International Development Cooperation Program through Partnership with University,” KOICA launched a new program for cooperation with universities to expand and diversify its Public-Private Partnership Program, to improve ODA effectiveness by making use of universities' expertise, and to harness the field experiences of the Korean labor force in developing countries (KOICA, 2012a, 2012b). Initially, the program was divided into two tracks: (1) post-management of completed projects and (2) the self-excavating university development cooperation projects (KOICA, 2012a).

During the final selection process of a university's self-excavating development cooperation project, consideration of crosscutting issues, including gender equality, is an item for assessment (KOICA, 2012b). To address the crosscutting issues, the project is assessed based on whether different impacts for men and women and vulnerable and non-vulnerable groups are expected in its

beneficiaries, and whether gender and vulnerable groups are reflected in its performance indicators (KOICA, 2012b). Through the format of interim and final reports presented in the program guideline, the project is required to explain how it addresses crosscutting issues, including gender equality, and to describe the mainstreaming strategy adopted in its activities. As an example, consider a school establishment project. Illustrated instances may indicate gender parity in schools, such as a male majority among the beneficiaries and the percentage of female students among all beneficiaries who were educated through the project.

In 2014, a KOICA gender toolkit was developed, and checklists were created for gender mainstreaming according to project phase. These tools were designed to help clarify private partners' understanding of KOICA project implementation procedures and gender mainstreaming strategies (KOICA, 2014). They propose identifying gender needs during the project formation phase, using the *Activity Profile* from the Harvard Analytical Framework and the People-Oriented Planning (POP) worksheet for activities analysis from POP Framework, an adaption of the Harvard Framework. It has been suggested that the Harvard Framework limited in that it takes an efficiency-rather than equity-oriented perspective, focusing on distributing new resources to make a program more efficient rather than resolving the problem of unequal gender relations (UNDP, 2001).

2.3.2.2 Settling Phase, 2015–2016: Academy Partnership Program

Beginning in 2015, the program was generally termed the “Academy Partnership Program” (KOICA, in press). It was divided into a partnership project

for research capacity building (Track 1), which was in turn subdivided into capacity building in development planning (Track 1-1) and capacity building in local universities (Track 1-2); and a partnership project for results-based management (Track 2) to utilize the expertise and capabilities of private development partners in academia (KOICA, 2015a).

Track 1-1 was designed for researchers in developing countries. The goal was to contribute to capacity building in economic and social development planning and in research led by developing countries through technical research and feasibility studies, as well as to provide an opportunity for learning-by-doing through joint research with Korean research institutes and universities (KOICA, 2015b). Example outcomes were to yield high-quality development planning research based on the participation of research partners from developing countries, to develop policy recommendations based on the research results, to produce joint papers, to participate jointly in international conferences, and to publish research in international journals (KOICA, 2015b).

Track 1-2 was designed for university faculties and students in developing countries. The goal was to promote development of highly qualified human resources to lead social change in developing countries, as well as to establish a basis for capacity building in tertiary education faculties and to improve learning environments (KOICA, 2015b). Example outcomes were increased numbers of highly qualified human resources, nurtured through capacity-building workshops and newly established education training courses; and improved quality of tertiary education in developing countries, achieved through joint development of curricula and student evaluations (KOICA, 2015b).

To achieve outcomes in both project tracks, it was suggested that

participants promote and raise awareness of crosscutting issues, including gender equality, by setting them as main objectives in project, reflecting crosscutting issue perspectives and thereby contributing to the achievement of development goals (KOICA, 2015b). Accordingly, an item for assessment of written project proposals and interviews was consideration of crosscutting issues, including gender equality. The KOICA gender toolkit from the 2016 guideline for the Public-Private Partnership Program, published in 2015, has been attached as reference material.

2.3.2.3 Reform Phase: 2017– present: Higher education–themed subprogram

The Public-Private Partnership Program is now known as the “Civil Society Cooperation Program” (KOICA, 2016a). It has been redesigned and divided according to theme rather than private sector stakeholder. Track 1-1 was abolished, as KOICA judged that this kind of project was more desirable as commissioned research; the university cooperation program formerly called APP, was integrated into a higher education–themed subprogram (KOICA, 2016b).

The five themes of the Civil Society Cooperation Program, which partners with CSOs, universities, and research institutes, are higher education, education, health, agriculture, forestry and fisheries, and multisector (human rights, democracy, and climate change) (KOICA, 2018). The human rights theme comprises gender equality and vulnerable groups (KOICA, 2018). Initially, when the program was reformed by theme, multisector comprised of vulnerable groups, climate change, urban and culture (KOICA, 2016a, 2017a, 2017b). “Vulnerable groups” included women, disabled people, and ethnic minorities (KOICA, 2016a). It may be encouraging to note that women, initially considered as one category

among vulnerable groups, could be addressed more importantly and in a broader context with gender equality under the theme of human rights.

Since 2016, sex-disaggregated statistics have been used as evidence for representative indicators and a list of the gender classification of beneficiaries is mandatory (KOICA, 2016b). To achieve gender equality, a minimum proportion of female beneficiaries can be set as a project outcome; otherwise, projects are requested to submit sex-disaggregated statistics to the extent possible (KOICA, 2016b).

After eliminating projects for capacity building in development planning, integration of the university cooperation program into the higher education-themed subprogram resulted in a predominance of projects for capacity building in local universities. Therefore, the vision, main outcomes, and main indicators of the higher education subprogram are not distinctly different from those of the project for capacity building in local universities (Track 1-2 under the former system). The vision of the subprogram is expansion of human resources for economic and social development through quality tertiary education (KOICA, 2018). Outcomes are development of highly qualified human resources to lead social change in developing countries and improvement of tertiary education quality in developing countries. Specific examples include increased numbers of highly qualified human resources trained through developed contents for formal higher education according to actual demand and circumstances, faculty capacity building, development of curricula and learning materials, training for pedagogy, supporting facilities and training aids, and development of educational systems (KOICA, 2018). Therefore, the project is no longer just about sending more students to university. It has moved beyond access to quality of education, which

encompasses other aspects of education. However, the main indicators still focus on parity issues, such as the enrollment rate and number of students or graduates, teachers or professors, and employees (KOICA, 2018).

For the gender equality subprogram, outcomes include economic and social empowerment for gender equality, social status for gender equality, and basic rights for gender equality (KOICA, 2018). Examples are provision of gender-equal training and education to acquire decent jobs, expansion of women's leadership, securement of rights for women's sexual and reproductive health care and establishment of their own health issues, and reduction in gender-based violence (KOICA, 2018). Again, outcomes encompass more than access, but the main indicators do not; they include the participation rate by sex of youth and adults in formal and nonformal education and training (KOICA, 2018). Does increased participation rate of women and girls in formal and nonformal education alone indicate gender equality in education?

Interestingly, improvement in access to education is established as an outcome for the vulnerable groups-themed subprogram. Therefore, main objectives for vulnerable groups include the number of female students who complete education (or training) programs, including employment and startup support. Ultimately, in the redesigned five-theme program, the outcome level addresses more than the issue of access, but the associated indicators and focus remain concerned with accessibility alone.

CHAPTER III. Research Methods

3.1 Data Setting

This research targeted the Civil Society Cooperation Program, which is primarily involved with Korean universities and research institutes as private partners, to explore how gender and gender equality were reflected in the actual educational development program. Most project-implementing organizations and project personnel affiliated with universities and research institutes. Therefore, even if a project was not classified as an education project per se, educational activities were carried out regardless in many cases, because the program was designed to harness the expertise and capabilities of development actors in academia. For this reason, it was desirable to explore crossing points between gender, education, and development in this program.

The scope of this study included projects that completed between 2014 and 2016. It was therefore possible to explore aspects of the initial and the settling phases of the program. The projects selected as data comprised almost all projects implemented by the program at the time; this is because the objective was to determine the vocabularies and semantic meanings of gender equality in education used in the KOICA program as a whole. Moreover, this research is intended to serve as a precedent study for thoughtful analysis of each project in the future. The subjects of analysis included 52 projects (Annex 1). Pseudonyms were used to conceal the actual name of each project. More than a quarter (26.9%) were education projects (KOICA, in press). During the subject period, 30% of beneficiaries and 50% of local partners included local universities. Around the

same time, various projects were implemented utilizing the expertise and capabilities of private development partners in academia (KOICA, in press). Therefore, it can be said that at that time, the program was beginning to settle and its characteristics to gradually become apparent.

3.2 Data Collection

Research data were collected from documents. *Documents* encompass a potentially wide range of materials, from text to images, from official to private, from hardcopy to digital. They are produced, consumed, saved, shared, and used in everyday social life and practices, and can thus be considered evidence of how individuals, groups, institutions, and organizations represent and explain themselves and their practices, offering a means of understanding and making sense of social and organizational practices (Flick, 2013). The official documents of an organization or state are designed and function as records of the entity's actions and activity, so it is reasonable to consider various actions and activities as the audience for documents if we want to understand how they operate and how individuals work with and in them (Flick, 2013).

This study's focus is on the vocabularies and semantic meanings of gender equality in education that were actually reflected in practice in the program, not how the program planned to reflect gender perspectives. For this reason, the primary documents collected and analyses were final reports on program projects, usually written by project personnel from implementing organizations. Final reports were primarily written following the sample format of the KOICA guideline (Annex 2). Brochures, leaflets, and guidelines introducing and

describing the program from its inception to the present were also collected for this research.

3.3 Data Analysis

3.3.1 Analytical method: content analysis

Content analysis was adopted for this research. Content analysis is a research technique of analyzing texts or other meaningful textual data to make replicable and valid inferences to the contexts of their use (Krippendorff, 2013, p. 24). In addition, it can offer new insights, help a researcher deeply understand particular phenomena, and serve as a practical guide to actions (Krippendorff, 2013). The objective of content analysis is to compare objects such as countries, groups, classes, and generations, and to identify the hidden intent or characteristics of a person, an era, or a group (Choi, Jung, & Jung, 2016). Thus, content analysis enables a researcher to unveil certain facets of the phenomena or objects of study.

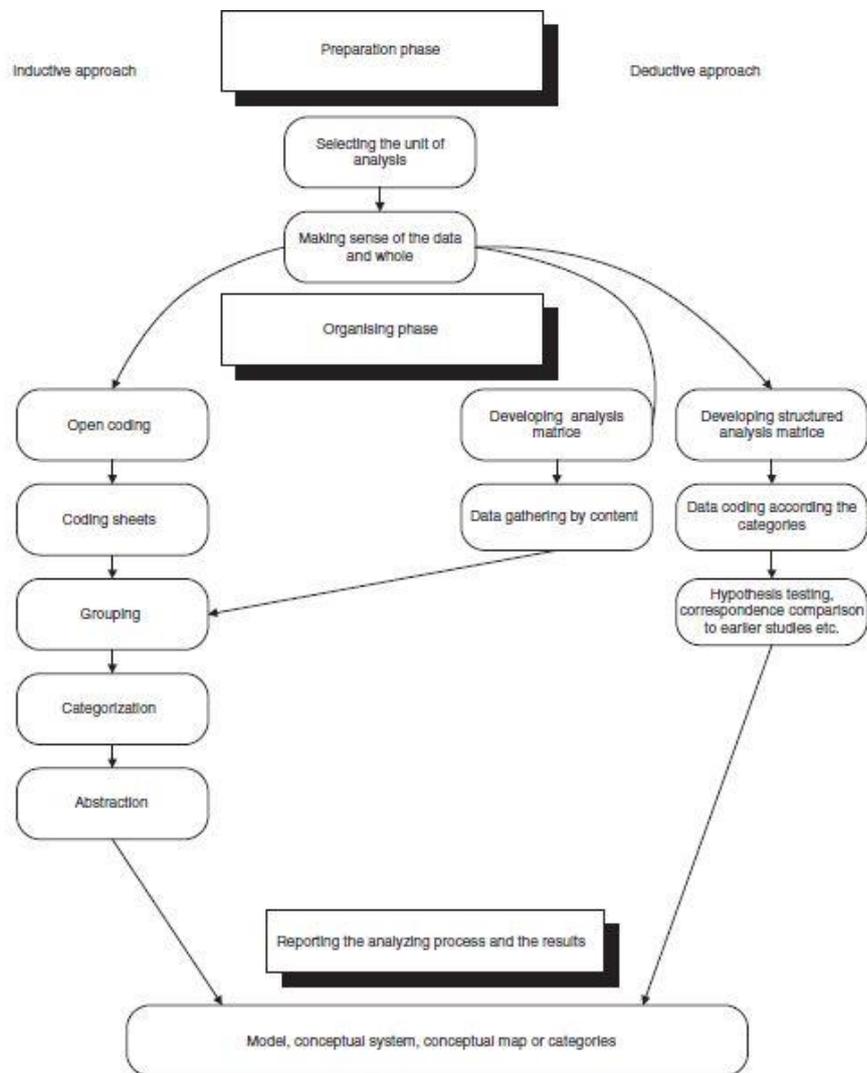
Content analysis has a long history in research. The term “content analysis” first appeared in English in 1941 (Waples & Berelson, 1941, as cited in Krippendorff, 2013), but the first well-organized, quantitative content analysis process was conducted by the church earlier than this, in the 18th century. At first, researchers used the analysis as either a quantitative or a qualitative method; later the quantitative approach was primarily used (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Subsequently, in accordance with the proliferation of mass media and computers, the use of content analysis has mushroomed and expanded from journalism and mass communication research to various academic fields including political science, sociology, psychology, and health studies, to name just a few.

Content analysis is usually divided into two research methods, quantitative and qualitative, even though there is no sharp distinction between them; the quantitative approach is sometimes considered a quantitative analysis of qualitative data (Morgan, 1993, as cited in Hsieh & Shannon, 2005) and categorization of data using a qualitative approach is the most basic procedure in content analysis (Stevens, 1946, as cited in Choi et al., 2016). Riffe, Lacy, & Fico (2014) define quantitative content analysis as “the systematic and replicable examination of symbols of communication, which have been assigned numeric values according to valid measurement rules and the analysis of relationships involving those values using statistical methods, to describe the communication, draw inferences about its meaning, or infer from the communication to its context, both of production and consumption” (p. 25). Therefore, for quantitative analysis, it is crucial to examine data with numeric values using statistical methods to explore the content of study.

In comparison, qualitative content analysis focuses more on latent content—that is, the relational aspect of the data and interpretation of the underlying meaning of the text—than on manifest content—the content aspect of the data and description of its visible and apparent components (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). Additionally, the qualitative content analysis method explores the external and internal meanings of data through coding content (Choi et al., 2016), and is therefore applied to grasp the context of the data as well as the data as it is. The researcher must determine which of the two methods should be used based on the purpose of this research (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). The qualitative content analysis was deemed most appropriate for this study, which would require an in-depth analysis of the program’s and reported gender issues to explore the

vocabularies and semantic meanings of gender equality in education that were used in actual development program.

To make replicable and valid inferences, qualitative content analysis follows a set of methodological procedures. Elo and Kyngäs (2008) divide the process into two methods, inductive and deductive. The inductive method is used when there is insufficient prior knowledge about the phenomenon, or the knowledge is fragmented; the deductive method is recommended if there is sufficient previous knowledge for analysis and the purpose of the study is theory testing. Additionally, the inductive process moves from the specific to the general, combining particular observed instances into a larger overall or general statement, whereas the deductive process, which is based on an earlier theory or model, moves from the general to the specific (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). The deductive process is used when the researcher wishes to retest existing data in a new context, including testing of categories, concepts, models, or hypotheses (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). Both analysis processes involve three main phases: preparation, organizing, and reporting, as shown in Figure 1.



<Figure 1> Three main phases of analysis processes. From “The Qualitative Content Analysis Process,” by S.Elo and H. Kyngäs, 2008, *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 62(1), p. 110. Copyright 2007 The Authors. Journal compilation. Copyright 2007 Blackwell Publishing Ltd

The deductive approach was chosen for this research because the analysis would be conducted based on previous knowledge about gender and education in the development setting. The preparation phase begins with selecting the unit of analysis. Depending on the research question, the unit of analysis can be a word or theme as well as a letter, sentence, portion of pages or words, number of

participants in discussion, or time used for discussion (Choi et al., 2016; Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). After selecting the unit of analysis, it is crucial for the researcher to make sense of the data, and to understand “what is going on” and to acquire a sense of whole (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008).

In the organizing phase, a categorization matrix is developed and the data are coded based on the matrix. Depending on the purpose of the study, the matrix of analysis can be either structured or unconstrained based on earlier work such as theories, models, mind maps and literature reviews (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). If the matrix is unconstrained, different categories are established within its bounds under the principles of inductive content analysis. If the matrix is structured, it is possible to select only those aspects that do or do not fit the categorization frame to develop the researcher’s own concepts of the aspects under the principles of the inductive process (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). Categories, concepts, models, or hypotheses are tested after data are coded according to the frame.

This research was conducted according to the procedures described above. The theme, “gender” was selected as the fundamental unit of analysis as this research focuses on gender issues reflected in the KOICA academia cooperation program. The contents of the program related to gender, primarily final reports on 52 projects completed from 2014 to 2016, were gathered. A categorization frame was developed, and data were coded based on the frame. The analytical framework was developed based on the categories of the four approaches to gender, education, and development to explore the vocabularies and semantic meanings of gender equality in education used in the KOICA program. Finally, the author derived points for discussion and implications based on the findings of the analysis.

3.3.2 Categorization matrix

Because gender equality has been recognized as crucial development goal by standards such as EFA (Goal 5: gender equality), the MDGs (Goal 3: promote gender equality and empower women) and the SDGs (Goal 5: gender equality and women’s empowerment), there have been many attempts to indicate the extent to which a development project pursues the objective of promoting gender equality. As one such attempt, OECD Development Assistance Committee (DAC) developed the OECD-DAC gender equality policy marker, a qualitative statistical tool to record aid activities targeting gender equality as a policy objective. The tool, based on a 3-point scoring system, is used by DAC members to evaluate each project or program targeting gender equality as a policy objective as part of the annual reporting of their aid activities (OECD, 2016). The indicator is considered to provide valuable information for policymakers (Kim, Chang, & Kim, 2016). In addition, it is a crucial monitoring and accountability tool in the context of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, and the only common tool available for DAC members to track bilateral aid to implement the SDGs’ commitments on gender equality (GENDERNET, 2016). Table 3 illustrates the scoring system.

[Table 3] OECD DAC Gender Equality Policy Marker Scoring

Not targeted (0)	The project or program has been screened against the marker but has not been found to target gender equality.
Significant (1)	Gender equality is an important and deliberate objective, but not the principal reason for undertaking the project or program.
Principal (2)	Gender equality is the main objective of the project or program and its fundamental in its design and expected results. The project or program would not have been undertaken without this gender equality objective.

Note. From OECD (2016).

Based on the scoring system, projects or programs marked as significant

and principal are considered by the OECD-DAC to be gender equality-focused aid. However, classification of projects into each mark was considered somewhat abstract and arbitrary. In December 2016, new recommended minimum criteria for the three categories were introduced to ensure comparability of the data reported by DAC members and to prevent arbitrary interpretation of what constitutes a score of 0, 1, or 2. According to donor intentions, the marker remains at the design stage, but it is recommended for application to entire projects or programs (OECD, 2016). In addition, monitoring and reporting of the gender equality results achieved by projects or programs marked 1 and 2 is encouraged.

By defining the DAC gender equality policy marker, the OECD clarified that gender equality be explicitly promoted in activity documentation through particular measures, such as (1) reducing social, economic, or political power inequality between women and men and girls and boys, ensuring that women benefit from the activity, or compensating for past discrimination; or (2) developing or strengthening gender equality or anti-discrimination policies, legislation, or institutions (OECD, n.d.). However, the tool leaves room for agencies to analyze gender inequalities either separately or as an integral part of their standard procedures (OECD, n.d.).

In addition, the OECD provided some examples related to education for scoring projects and programs in each mark. The criterion for dividing score 0 and score 1 is whether the project or program has specific objectives or activities that address gender-specific barriers to girls' education. An example is providing incentives to encourage disadvantaged families to allow their daughters to attend school, thereby increasing female accessibility to education. A project can be marked as score 2 if it is "a project that focuses specifically on girls' access to and

performance in education and/or vocational training, with the main objective of empowering women and girls and reducing inequalities between boys and girls” (GENDERNET, 2016). This implies that the OECD assumes actions focusing on girls’ access to and performance in education or vocational training will lead to empowerment of women and girls and promotion of equality between women and men. But is this underlying and implicit assumption of the OECD accurate?

The handbook on the OECD-DAC gender equality policy marker, written to provide a better understanding of the marker and promote its effective application, introduces the sustainable development opinion mechanism of the French Development Agency (AFD) as a good practice and complementary system. This mechanism was developed by the AFD to facilitate consideration of the crosscutting challenge of sustainable development and the cross-sectoral inclusion of sustainable development concerns, including gender equality, in AFD’s financing operations (AFD, 2014; OECD, 2016). One of its components is formalizing a discussion framework beyond the financial and sectoral risk-related aspects of projects. With regard to gender, using the “AFD 2014-2016 Gender Strategy,” one of the objectives of which is to foster opportunities for equality between women and men, the scale shown in Table 4 is proposed to assess aspects related to gender.

[Table 4] AFD Sustainable Development Opinion Mechanism Scoring

AFD marker	Equivalent OECD-DAC gender marker	Criteria
-2		Is there a risk that the project will aggravate gender inequality?
-1		Will the project maintain gender inequality (although it may provide an opportunity to reduce inequality, it does not include any specific measure to do so)?
0	0	Will the impact of the project be neutral on gender equality (or, when mitigating measures have been taken, will the residual negative impacts be negligible)?
1		Does the project take into account the needs and interests of men and women (through diagnosis, participation, and communication)? Alternatively, has a dialogue on gender equality been initiated with counterparts in the sector/organization concerned?
2	1	Is one of the project's explicit objectives to ensure that women have effective access to the service/amenities/goods provided under the project? (For this purpose, men and women must have worked to identify the barriers to access and how to overcome them.) Alternatively, is one of the project's objectives to encourage women to control the resources in the sector concerned and to foster their participation in the project's objectives and governance process?
3	2	Is one of the project's main objectives to empower women and reduce the structural inequality between men and women (control of resources, participation in governance bodies, effective implementation of institutional/legal changes)?

Note. Modified from ADF (2014) by author

The AFD mechanism's criteria were developed to assess the potential positive and negative impacts of a project on gender equality (AFD, 2014), unlike the OECD-DAC gender equality policy marker, which cannot and does not intend to measure the outcome or impact of a program or project (OECD, 2016). These criteria include integration of women in development projects, relating to the WID approach, as well as reducing structural inequality between men and women, relating to the main focus of the GAD approach.

Drawing largely on the criteria of the sustainable development opinion

mechanism, this research examined the perception and concept of gender reflected in projects, the gender-related outcomes or outputs of projects, and gender or women’s issues addressed at the stages of design, implementation (process and content), and monitoring and evaluation stage. Table 5 presents the gender-related units of analysis selected in this research. This table was used as the categorization matrix for coding of data.

[Table 5] Analysis Matrix

Perception of gender	perception and concept of gender reflected in projects
Gender-related Results	Gender-related outcomes or outputs of projects
Gender-related Processes	gender or women’s issues reflected in overall situation and problem analysis at the planning stage
	gender or women’s issues reflected in process at the implementation stage
	gender or women’s issues reflected in contents at the implementation stage
	gender or women’s issues reflected at the monitoring and evaluation stage

3.4 Analytical Framework

As a final process in the organizing phase of deductive content analysis, data were analyzed by the analytical framework developed based on Unterhalter’s categorization of four approaches to gender, education, and development. In so doing, the categorization was reexamined in the context of the KOICA program cooperating with private partners in academia. Table 6 outlines Unterhalter’s summary of the four approaches’ related theories and views of gender, development, education, and equality (Unterhalter, 2005, 2006).

[Table 6] Unterhalter’s Categorization of Four Approaches

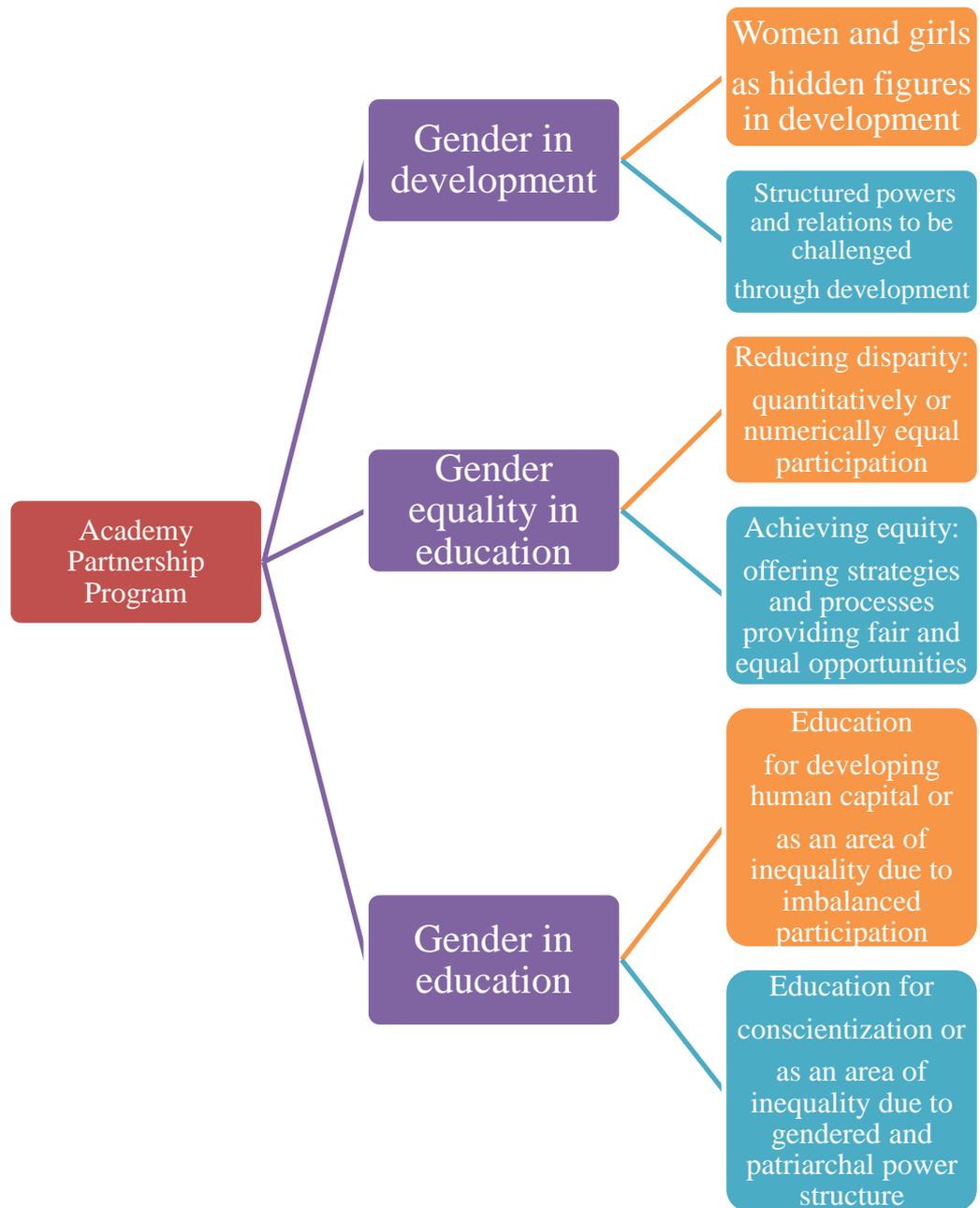
Approach	Related theory	View of gender	View of development	View of education	View of equality
WID (1970s–present)	Modernization, human capital theory	Gender = women, girls	Growth, efficiency, good governance, social cohesion	Schooling	Equality of resources; sometimes termed “parity”
GAD (1980s–present)	Structuralism, Marxism	Constructed social relations, power	Challenging inequity and oppression	Conscientization	Redistribution of power; sometimes termed “equity”
Post-structuralism (1990s–present)	Post-colonial theory	Shifting identities	Struggle with the past in the present to shape multifaceted identities and new narratives	Deconstruction	Stress on difference
Human development (human rights/human capabilities, 1990s–present)	Capability approach	Inequality and denial of capability	Development as freedom	Basic capability	Equality of rights and capabilities

Note. Reconstructed from Unterhalter (2005, 2006) by author

According to Unterhalter’s summary of the four approaches, WID emphasizes expansion of schooling for girls and women to secure efficient

economic growth or good governance (Unterhalter, 2006). In this respect, gender equates to women and girls—that is, biological categories. In addition, its clear policy directive includes women and girls. GAD views gender as a process, a part of complex and changing social relations. This has had an influence on educational practices such as teachers' perspectives on work in gendered classrooms, women's organizations' linking of education demands within wider demands for empowerment, and how gender equality advocates work in institutions (Unterhalter, 2005, 2006). The post-structuralist approach questions the stability of definitions of gender, and thus focuses on the fluidity of gendered identification and shifting forms of actions. Although this approach has not influenced government or international policies directly, it has contributed to affirming subordinated identities in the development of learning materials, and helped organizations recognize the complexity of social identities. The fourth approach concerns human development and the human rights therein. Unterhalter described this as a meta-theory in some ways, working at a higher level of abstraction, rather than suggesting concrete policies or practices. In addition, she noted critical differences between it and the other three approaches regarding its views of gender and some of its policy development processes (Unterhalter, 2005).

Based on Unterhalter's categorization of these four approaches, the analytical framework to explore the vocabularies and semantic meanings of gender equality in education used in the KOICA cooperation program with development partners in academia was developed as illustrated in Figure 2.



<Figure 2> Analytical framework developed in this study²

With insight from Unterhalter’s summary of four approaches concerning

² The orange squares were developed based on WID, and the blue squares based on GAD.

gender, education, and development, this study's data were analyzed to explore the semantic meanings of gender in development, equality in education, and gender in higher education in the context of the Academy Partnership Program. In other words, the data gathered from documents were analyzed to explore the following:

1. Whether gender implies women and girls as hidden figures in development *or* structured powers and relations to be challenged through development
2. Whether equality in education stands for reducing disparity *or* achieving equity
3. Whether gender in higher education indicates education for developing human capital *or* for conscientization.

The former interpretations in each of the three statements above were developed based on the WID approach, and the latter interpretations based on the GAD approach.

CHAPTER IV. Results and Discussion

The findings of this research, based on content analysis of documents regarding KOICA's academia cooperation program, are described and organized below. Because the purpose of this study was to explore the vocabularies and semantic meanings of gender equality in education reflected in KOICA's program cooperating with development partners in academia, the three principal research questions that guided this study were:

- 1. How are the perception and concept of gender reflected in the program?*
- 2. What gender or women's issues are reflected in the process of the program's projects?*
- 3. What are considered results with respect to gender in the outcomes or outputs of the program?*

To answer these vital questions, this chapter describes how gender and gender equality are perceived, and how gender-related concerns are presented in project processes—specifically, in the design, implementation and monitoring/evaluation stages—and project results, including outcomes and outputs. Accordingly, the chapter's sections comprise units of analysis such as perception of gender, gender-related results, and gender-related processes, according to the structured categorization matrix developed for content analysis.

4.1 Perception of Gender

Before exploring the perception and concept of gender reflected in the program, it was first necessary to determine whether gender and gender equality were even considered in the program. Using the criteria of the OECD-DAC gender policy marker, only 35% of projects completed from 2014 to 2016 could be classified as gender equality *focused*, meaning that gender equality was either the primary or an essential and deliberate objective of the project (OECD, 2016). Table 7 illustrates the OECD-DAC gender policy marker scoring for projects completed by the program from 2014 to 2016. According to this, only 35% of the program’s activities would have been reported as targeting gender equality as a policy objective in the annual reporting of aid to the OECD-DAC. However, upon closer examination, this information is insufficient to explain what was really happening in practice.

[Table 7] Gender Policy Marker Scoring for Projects Studied

	Not targeted (0)	Significant (1)	Principal (2)	N/A
2014	17	8	2	-
2015	9	4	2	-
2016	7	1	1	1
Total	33 (63%)	13 (25%)	5 (10%)	1 (2%)

Note. Reconstructed from KOICA (in press) by author

In accordance with the data above, gender was not addressed at all in the final reports of 15 projects, accounting for 29% of the program. Most of these reports addressed how the project handled crosscutting issues such as gender equality, human rights, or environmental protection, and how it engaged vulnerable groups. However, nothing about gender was mentioned. In nine of the 15 projects, female participants were identified primarily through the pictures

taken, even if nothing about gender was stated in the reports.

In the remaining projects, gender was usually considered in three ways: women, women and men, and social structure. This tendency can be seen in the processes and results of the program. For the most part, projects' approaches to issues concerning girls and women in developing countries were reported by equating "gender" to women and girls as hidden figures in development. In a few projects, gender was perceived as an issue in which men and boys should also be considered, or as an issue of structured powers and relations.

4.2 Gender-related Processes

4.2.1 Planning stage

Projects investigated the overall situations and problems, and reported on women's or gendered problems and situations. Division of labor, different gender roles, and specific responsibilities within society, as well as within household, were identified as gendered/women's issues. For example, in the region where project B-8, concerning rainwater management, was conducted, women took responsibility for drawing, boiling and reserving water.

According to the results of observation of the X, Y, and Z regions, women take responsibility for drawing, boiling and reserving water. Providing safe and clean water can lighten the burden of women. (B-8)

Water is considered as one of essential services. To ensure the survival of their households, women, as an extension of their domestic and reproductive role,

are forced to take responsibility for the provision, maintenance, and allocation of scarce resources of collective consumption such as this (Moser, 1989). Moser (1989) defined this as community management role of women. In the context of B-8, the organization implementing the project deemed that offering safe and clean water would alleviate the burden on the women who managed water use.

The project aimed to satisfy practical gender needs and interests for women, allowing them to procure safe and clean water more easily, but it did not address the gendered responsibility of managing water. Moser (1989) pointed out that women implicitly accept the sexual division of labor in performing this role. She additionally argued that although men also participate in community activities, they undertake different roles in a community, such as formal political organization, usually within the framework of national politics; this reflects a further sexual division of labor, creating a spatial division between men in the public world and women in the private world.

Several projects identified the rural exodus of young men to cities or other countries. Even if no decent jobs were available in the area, women stayed in the region and undertook the men's former roles and responsibilities. Why did men decide to leave their hometown, but not women? These projects did not address the implicit gender norms and stereotypes underlying the phenomenon.

Project B-10 identified occupational vertical segregation by gender. Occupational vertical segregation refers to the under- or over-representation of a given group like gender in occupations or sectors at the top of ordering based on 'desirable' attributes such as income, prestige, or job stability (Bettio, Verashchagina, Mairhuber, & Kanjuo-Mrčela, 2009). Overall, in the NGOs of project B-10's partner country, middle-aged male personnel played the most

significant role, and young female personnel in charge of community business sometimes suffered from increased work burdens with insufficient authority. In NGO T, the project-implementing partner, the female personnel's status was quite high, but the current and previous leaders of the NGO were all men.

Project B-10 also found the rate of female professors to be low, even though the ratio of male and female students in the university department was balanced. Fewer female faculty in higher education in developing countries occupy management and senior leadership positions compared to other education sectors (UNESCO, 2018). A survey assessing the participation of female faculty in senior, management, administrative, and academic positions in commonwealth universities revealed that in the majority of developing countries of the commonwealth, female faculty still lag far behind male faculty in management of academic institutions (Singh, 2008).

The constraints on addressing male and female imbalances are complex and varied. These constraints showed that this problem would not be solved simply by sending more female students to universities. Morley & Crossouard's (2015) analysis of under-representation of women in senior leadership positions in higher education in six South Asian countries (Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India, Nepal, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka) demonstrated several barriers, as follows:

1. Sociocultural belief systems related to the division of labor between gender, social class, and caste regarding women's leadership
2. Lack of investment in women
3. The patriarchal nature of higher education institutions
4. Negative perception of leadership
5. The political nature of leadership appointment processes

6. Family
7. Corruption and association of leadership with masculinity
discouraging women's authority

Moreover, simply being qualified for senior posts is not enough for female faculty. Kagoda's (2011) assessment of the effectiveness of affirmative action on women's leadership and participation in the education sector in Uganda revealed that even though many women now have qualifications for leadership positions, men still dominate; this implies that gender parity does not mean equal representation in leadership positions. In sum, projects identified issues of gender division of labor and different gender roles and responsibilities. In these contexts, "gender" can be understood to mean a set of structured relations.

Investigation of overall situations and problems also revealed limited social participation by women and little interest in women's issues. Authors of the project reports assumed that the implicit patriarchal system working across society and strong Confucian values in the partner country contributed to each phenomenon, respectively. Additional problems reported that would negatively influence a project included negative factors, like high rates of female illiteracy and low self-esteem, and low Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) ranks, indicating a low score in areas such as education and female political rights. In this respect, "gender" referred to women.

4.2.2 Implementation stage

4.2.2.1 Gender-related processes

First, practical procedures targeting effective access for women were

taken in practice in more than a third of projects studied. For example, when affirmative action to promote participation by women was taken in recruiting or selecting students or participants, such as giving priority to female candidates. A certain percentage of women participants (usually 30%, but also 40%, 60%, and even 80%) was set as a goal in some projects, or participants were organized by sex in a certain proportion. In some cases, projects were aimed primarily or entirely at women.

Husbands and wives were encouraged to participate together in small group activities for the project, offering an opportunity for women to engage in economic activities. When recruiting participants for education of farmers and agriculture instructors, education programs for female participants were planned so as to address gender equality as a crosscutting issue. In the same project, technology for cultivating and producing major vegetables was transferred to female employees, and this was reported as the way the project addressed gender equality. A project to train public officials negotiated to require that female public officials participate in the training similarly. In these contexts, “gender equality” can be understood to mean achieving quantitatively or numerically equal participation by reducing gender disparity.

Second, barriers discouraging women from participating in a project were identified. For example, the opposition of family (husbands) to women’s social activities and education gave rise to frequent dropouts among women, and household burdens led to absences. Actions or procedures were taken to overcome these barriers and encourage women to participate in the project. For instance, when visiting households to register women in their childbearing years, the organization implementing the project recognized the cultural problems of visiting

a women-only household. Thus, the partner organization and a community leader accompanied the team. The implementing organization also considered working women, who could not be registered by a household visit; thus, registration was also conducted at workplaces in cooperation with local health authorities, farms, and factories where women worked.

Motivation programs were launched, and friendly environments were organized. For example, individual interviews were arranged with female participants who were frequently absent or dropped out, so as to resolve such the issues. Subsequently, motivation programs were implemented, such as spouse-participation programs, a jam-making workshop, and education on food storage, women's rights, and entrepreneurship.

The IT department of a vocational training center, which had the greatest concentration of female students, was actively supported, and a website was built for the department. With this support, an IT club was established and operated. In addition, the project-implementing organization considered women who were reluctant to reveal themselves in front of others, and thus reluctant to make use of health promotion zone with men present. Therefore, to increase female use, a health promotion zone was established on the same floor as the pediatric and OB/GYN departments and designed less open. Creating friendly environments is a very common strategy to improve accessibility for female participants. For example, providing secure waiting places between classes, separate toilets, and sanitation facilities made a great difference to female students and women (Vimala, 2010). In short, actions or procedures implemented to overcome barriers discouraging women's participation in projects were focused on improving female accessibility.

Third, women were encouraged to participate in project governance, for example by becoming a manager or a committee member. Projects were designed for, or actually appointed, women to participate as staff, committee or board members, and managers. These efforts were intended to enable women to take part in the decision-making and management processes. They aimed to open path for women to become more autonomously and independently involved in projects by serving as managers or decision-makers. This was expected to reflect women's voices and perspectives in the projects. Such actions can be understood as offering strategies and processes to provide fair and equal opportunities.

Fourth, counterparts in gender equality in relevant sectors or organizations were engaged in the project. Local entities concerning women, such as NGOs, local groups, and public officials were engaged in collaboration with organization implementing projects, participating in meeting or workshops. Collaboration with existing counterparts in gender equality in the relevant sectors and organizations was expected to reflect the needs and interests of local women in the project. Furthermore, it aimed to empower the counterparts by encouraging them to participate in the project. These collaborations can be understood as efforts to achieve gender equity.

Fifth, when conducting research with a local university for research capacity building projects, gender issues were addressed in research questions to residents. In project B-1, four questions were asked: whether there was a gender difference between patients and why the respondent thought so; whether the respondent should get her husband's permission when going to medical facilities and why; what cultural customs were observed by female residents regarding health issues; and what diseases were commonly found in female residents. In this

way, gender-related issues concerning the topic were identified. Similarly, project C-1 held a workshop reflecting gender aspects in the context of the research topic to incorporate gender perspectives in the topic's discourse. As a result, gender perspectives on the research topic were included in the final report as part of the literature review. In these contexts, "gender" can be understood to refer to structured powers and relations underlying the development process.

4.2.2.2 Project contents

First, efforts were made to enable the contents of education to satisfy women's gender needs and interests, particularly practical gender needs and interests, such as managing food. For example, jam-making and food storage training was conducted to increase women's motivation to participate in the education and training. It was reported that female students participating in the training utilized letters, which they learned from literacy education, and this increased their interest. Additionally, nutrition education was offered to women; because the project-implementing organization believed them to play an essential role in preparing food in a household, offering nutrition education—consisting of basic nutrition knowledge, recipes minimizing nutrient destruction, and nutritionally balanced menus—was considered a way to improve their position of as agents of their family's health.

It is important to consider the gender needs and interests of women when preliminary research is conducted and actual project activities are implemented. By doing so, a project can provide what women actually want, resulting in high attendance and high satisfaction. For example, in the first village visit training,

reflecting the needs of the residents, an expert in producing sugar was invited who taught residents to produce and market sugar. It was reported that many local women participated in the education resulting in the high female participation rate.

However, it is necessary to distinguish whether women's needs and interests are practical or strategic. Moser (1989) differentiated an *interest* as a prioritized concern and a *need* as means by which concerns are satisfied. Following this definition, Moser translated Molyneux's differentiation between practical and strategic gender interests into practical and strategic gender needs. In this respect, strategic gender interests are concerns for an equal society with challenging, deeply entrenched forms of gender inequality, and strategic gender needs could be identified as the abolition of sexual division of labor (Moser, 1989; Unterhalter, 2005). On the other hand, practical gender interests are concerns with immediate day-to-day requirements for human survival, such as food, water, and shelter, and practical gender needs could be provision of these needs (Leach, 2003; Moser, 1989; Unterhalter, 2005).

In projects concerning health, the needs and interests of women as mothers were usually taken into account, particularly in maternal, newborn, and child health (MNCH) projects. This could have been a strategy to align the project with MDG 4, to reduce child mortality, and MDG 5, to improve maternal health. For example, a project was reported to have an effect on breast milk concerning how it addressed gender equality issues. Another project reported that early detection and treatment of breast cancer were induced by offering facilities for breast cancer screening and biopsy. The same project recommended installing a playground and securing space for feeding rooms on the same floor the MNCH department, because many female patients took their children with them and the

children became bored running around in a hospital hallway.

MHCH-related topics were included as part of health education. In this way, housewives and women from low-income families learned the importance of family planning, methods of birth control, facility-based deliveries, childhood vaccinations, and HIV tests. When a project team carried out nutrition education, visiting teaching programs for pregnant and lactating women were conducted. In the same project, education materials intended for children, pregnant and lactating women, and infants were developed and used to educate residents and children. Focused counseling and follow-up care for nutritionally vulnerable groups, such as pregnant and lactating women, infants, and the elderly, were also conducted. Through a project implemented in regions where women's education level and environment were considerably poor, and women's empowerment education had rarely been conducted, various quality programs were offered to regional women, such as parenting techniques and parenting roles. The project-implementing organization believed that the project contributed improving women's education level and capacity to care for children:

For prevention and management of the disease, preventive education related to health for residents, especially for women, is necessary. This is because women play a pivotal role in the health of family members, such as in pregnancy and meal preparation. (Interview with a Ministry of Health official, research report, project B-1)

In general, health-related projects highlighted women's role of reproductive work, which is required to guarantee the maintenance (domestic tasks)

and reproduction (childbearing and rearing) of the labor force (Moser, 1989). Women were mainly considered as mothers or expectant mothers in the context of the family, with focus on pregnancy and childbirth. Of course, pregnancy and childbirth are critical and urgent issues in the field of health, but they are not the only issues related to women's health, and there was little consideration for the health of women who were not pregnant or mothers. In addition, aside from a few cases, little consideration was made of men as nurturers. Therefore, in many projects, the team was concerned about low male participation or few male benefits from the project.

This project concerns MNCH (Maternal, Newborn, and Child Health), that is, aiming at improving the health of women and children, so there are relatively few benefits for men. (B-6)

Across projects, the gender system of domesticity prevailed, distinguishing between men as breadwinners and women as homemakers and caregivers. *Domesticity* refers to a “gender system comprising most centrally of both the particular organization of market work and family work that arose around 1780, and the gender norms that justify, sustain, and reproduce that organization” (Williams, 2001, p. 1). It is a fairly modern system, because before that time, market and family work were not clearly divided. By the turn of the 19th century, the pattern of life was changing and domesticity established the system in which men worked outside home, such as in factories and offices, while women (theoretically) stayed behind to raise the children and tend “home sweet home” (Williams, 2001).

In TVET, traditionally female-dominated courses were often offered. Professionally specialized courses, such as design and pattern-making, were offered based on what students wanted to do after graduation, in countries where sewing is a skill woman can easily access and develop in everyday life. Where entrepreneurship was common, a shopping bag, which could be made and sold in a short period, was chosen as a business item. In an academy for educating middle managers, female students mostly took courses in service education and fashion design. Through these projects, female participants were highly satisfied because the educational contents met their needs and interests. Therefore, providing education or training in traditionally female-dominated fields seems an efficient method to bring more women into education or training in areas of imbalanced participation. What then is the problem?

In fact, female students who take courses in traditionally female-dominated fields will work in traditionally female-dominated sectors, and male students who took courses in traditionally male-dominated fields will work in traditionally male-dominated sectors. This phenomenon is not confined to TVET. In higher education, gender imbalance concerning field of study still persists. Even though gender stereotypes have been gradually changed to a certain extent, educational gender stereotyping continues to manifest, with female students tending to study in so-called “women’s” disciplines such as nursing, education, child development, and social services and male students tending to study in so-called “hard sciences” such as physics, mathematics, and engineering (Masanja, 2010; Vimala, 2010). Thus, in STEM fields, traditionally considered male-dominated, female graduates are still a minority (UNESCO, 2018).

Such tendencies intensify occupational horizontal segregation by gender.

Horizontal segregation is understood as under- or over-representation of a given group, like gender, in occupations or sectors not ordered by any criterion (Bettio et al., 2009). It refers to concentration of one gender in one profession or sector of economic activity. It also partly explains the gender wage gap (Blau & Ferber, 1987).

Second, projects conducted various gender-related education programs, such as gender equality promotion, gender equity promotion, and gender discussion. For example, women's rights education covering various themes was provided once per quarter during a project to promote awareness of women's rights and women's empowerment in the region. In the same project, education for women and their spouses, with contents including positive gender roles, formation of harmonious family relationships, and parenting, was reported to elicit a positive response from men. Another project, focusing on improvement of childrearing capacity, took father education into account and publicized it as part of good parenting education to ensure gender balance in the project. Such projects recognized the importance of male participation in this issue, and "gender" in these contexts referred to both men and women.

A project-implementing organization team reported providing courses on the role of women in rural communities. This team notably broadened awareness of women's potential and educated participants on recognizing social alienation. By doing so, the team believed that the project contributed to improving the reality of local women facing social alienation and economic poverty.

One staff member from another project participated in gender equity education for six months, organized by the ministry of women's affairs. This education was adopted as the basic curriculum in all local projects, and participants

were helped to internalize gender equality. To that end, basic awareness-raising education, which addressed gender equity as one of its topics, was provided for child-care teachers, parents, and residents, and the team believed that it contributed to improving awareness of children and women among residents and teachers in the region.

In research for a project in development planning capacity building, one topic of the literature review was the relationship between the research topic and gender. The same project conducted gender discussion, the principal contents of which were the trends of female workers in country P, the gender roles and relations in modern society of country P, the change of gender roles in the household, and sharing of good practices.

These examples illustrate education working as conscientization. Through such education and training, women and girls are given have an opportunity to be conscious of the gender issues and problems surrounding them. In addition, it provides a good example for how a project-implementing organization could attempt to address gender equality as a crosscutting issue in its project activities. However, this practice was not common throughout the program. In most cases, it appeared that the organization did not know how to reflect the issue in its project activities aside from incorporating more female participants, or that the team considered the project to be irrelevant to gender equality. However, gender equality is a cross-cutting issue that relates to and must be considered within other categories to be appropriately addressed (Global Education Cluster, 2010). Moreover, in the field of development, mainstreaming a crosscutting issue like gender equality implies that all development initiatives should have a positive effect on the issue (Solheim, 2014).

4.2.3 Monitoring and evaluation stage

First, sex-disaggregated data and statistics about the project's beneficiaries and the subjects of preliminary research were collected. Notably, in project A-17, a satisfaction survey was conducted before and after the project was implemented. The reports of the survey stated in detail the sex ratio of respondents and whether the results showed statistically significant gender differences. More than a third of the projects studied explicitly stated sex-disaggregated data or statistics in their final reports. This appears to have been the result of KOICA's demand for evidence materials for representative indicators with sex-disaggregated statistics, one of the tools for gender mainstreaming. Gender statistics, which reflect the realities of the lives of women and men as well as policy issues relating to gender, rest on sex-disaggregated data (EIGE, 2018). Therefore, reporting sex-disaggregated data and statistics can be understood as a process to provide fair and equal opportunities.

Second, gender relations surrounding projects or gender-related environments usually served as barriers to effective project implementation. Put another way, these gender issues functioned as obstacles in projects. In this context, education can be understood as areas of inequality due to gendered and patriarchal power structure.

Third, gender stereotypes in education continued to manifest in many cases. Universities of engineering, a traditionally male-dominated field of study, were concerned about low enrollment rate of female students and their concentrated major choices within the field, such as IT. Similarly, low female participation rate was a concern for training for farmers, agricultural instructors,

and public officials, due to the small number of women working in the field in the first place.

In contrast, female students mainly took courses related to the service and fashion sectors. Education program for teaching staff and health-related projects, particularly concerning MNCH, were concerned about low male participation or little benefit from the project for men:

The practical consideration, that teachers' pay is too low to play the role of a breadwinner, and the cultural consideration, that education is suitable for women, play a role together in [the low enrollment rate of male students]. However, when the treatment of teachers is improved, the sex ratio is expected to improve gradually. (B-4)

The project whose concern was low male participation in education for teaching staff cited in their report that a "cultural" consideration, that education was the domain of women, and an economic consideration, that it was not a lucrative career, left the field in women's sphere.

Fourth, women's reproductive role and gendered relations within the family had an influence on their participation in education. Women faced difficulty taking part in the educational activities implemented by projects due to the opposition of their family and their responsibilities for doing housework and caring for children:

The number of dropouts is high due to the opposition of family (husbands) to women's activities in society and education...The leading causes of absences

are health and household burdens. (A-2)

For this reason, women could not participate in the activities in the first place, or if they did, they were frequently absent or dropped out. This is because women must continuously juggle and balance their triple role of reproductive, productive, and community management work, and this severely constrains them (Moser, 1989).

Fifth, gendered cultures were identified through some projects. As an illustration, women were unwilling to show themselves to others, and had little chance to voice their opinions as equals in hierarchical organizations. In addition, relatively lower experience in smartphone use among middle-aged and elderly women had a negative impact on a project campaign conducted through SNS, because gender differences in digital accessibility could result in exclusion of women if the campaign were conducted as planned. In short, by investigating overall situations and problems and by monitoring and evaluating projects, “gender” was identified as a set of social relations or powers that had an influence on projects, but these were not strongly challenged by the program.

4.3 Gender-related Results

4.3.1 Outputs

In many cases, the number and the percentage of female participants were reported as project results. This can be seen as an effort to demonstrate improvement in women’s accessibility through increase in the proportion of female participants. In practice, as stated above, to improve female accessibility

and participation, various actions were taken to address gender equality in the program and facilitate greater access for and participation of girls and women. For instance, female candidates were given priority, or a particular percentage or proportion of female participation was set as a goal. Women-specific projects were organized, and obstacles barring female participants from participation were identified and mitigated as much as possible to improve their accessibility. In addition, the number or percentage of female participants was reported as a crucial project result. Put another way, all efforts were made to integrate more girls and women into the development program. In this context, “gender” could equate to women and girls as hidden figures of development, and these efforts could contribute to reducing gender disparity.

Incorporating girls and women and reducing gender disparity are essential. However, are they enough to achieve gender equality? Does gender parity achieved by integrating girls and women in development inevitably result in gender equality? Koczberski (1998) questions the belief that integration of women will automatically guarantee the genuine female participation.

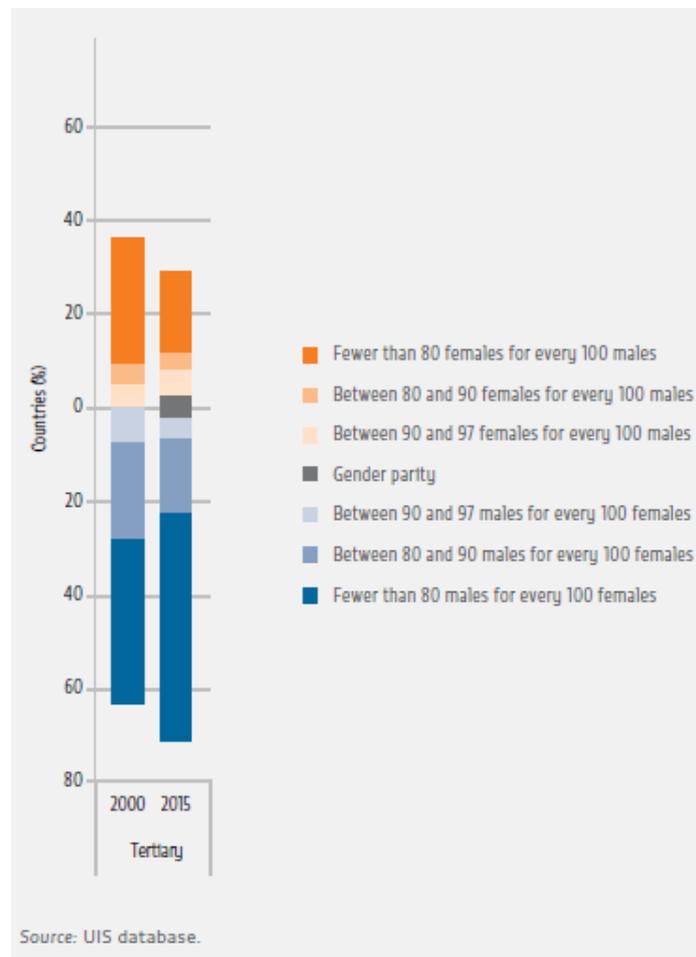
Narrowing the scope of this issue to higher education, more women and girls are enrolled in higher education than were in the past. UNESCO’s 2018 gender review Global Education Monitoring (GEM) Report showed a gender imbalance at the expense of male students in tertiary education (UNESCO, 2018). That is, overall, more female students enroll in or graduate from tertiary education than male students in almost all regions, except South Asia, which is closing the gap, and sub-Saharan Africa (UNESCO, 2018). Table 8 below shows the gender parity index of gross enrollment ratio and the percentage of countries that have achieved parity at the tertiary level since 2015. Moreover, as shown in Figure 3,

compared to 2000, as of 2015 the tendency toward gender disparities in higher education level still persists, and has even been exacerbated, with respect to low gross enrollment of male students (UNESCO, 2018).

[Table 8] Gender Parity Index of Gross Enrollment Ratio and Percentage of Countries

Region	Gender parity index	Countries at parity (%)
Worldwide	1.12	4
Caucasus and Central Asia	1.04	0
Eastern and Southeastern Asia	1.13	7
Europe and North America	1.28	5
Latin America and the Caribbean	1.31	5
North Africa and Western Asia	1.01	0
Pacific	1.38	0
South Asia	0.95	22
Sub-Saharan Africa	0.70	0
Low income	0.55	5
Lower middle income	0.99	6
Upper middle income	1.18	3
High income	1.24	4

Note. Reconstructed from GEM Report gender review of (UNESCO 2018) by author



<Figure 3> Comparison of countries by gender disparity index of gross tertiary-level enrollment ratio, 2000 and 2015. Reconstructed from “Global Education Monitoring Report Gender Review: Meeting our Commitments to Gender Equality in Education” by UNESCO, 2018, <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0026/002615/261593E.pdf>.

Do women and girls dominate higher education, and has gender equality been achieved because female students outnumber male students and the gender gap has been reversed in higher education? On the one hand, educational opportunities for female students do contribute to transformational change in society and family relationships (Joshi & Pushpanadham, 2001, as cited in Morley, 2005a). On the other, they do not always or unexceptionally challenge traditional gendered structures, and in fact sometimes even reinforce them. For instance,

many university-educated women in Asia internalize negative gender norms or passively accept gender inequality in family relations and social practices, such as dowry deaths, female feticide, and infanticide (Jayaweera, 1997), and a higher education degree is considered an added asset for a woman in the marriage market (Jeffrey & Jeffrey, 1998, as cited in Morley, 2005a). In addition, gender violence, sexual harassment on campus, hostile organizational culture, and negative micropolitics are related to gender power relations (Morley, 2005b). These were considered explanatory factors for dropout of female students, as they discourage women's participation and achievement, and for women's reluctance to enter academia in the first place as either students or staff (Morley, 2005a, 2005b; Vimala, 2010).

Similarly, while exploring the program, gendered relations and structures surrounding projects were identified, which usually had a negative influence on the projects. Gender inequalities are complex issues, and they cannot be solved just by encouraging more girls and women to participate in the projects. The issue of access alone does not solve problem of inequality (Jacobs, 1996). Integrating girls and women is not a panacea for gender inequality. It is necessary and step towards equality, but an insufficient precondition per se for its realization (Subrahmanian, 2005).

In conclusion, the WID approach still predominated in the KOICA academia cooperation program. In many projects, gender was in the sense of girls and women as hidden figures in development. Equality in education referred to achieving quantitative or numerically equal participation by reducing disparity. Education was intended to serve in developing human resources or characterized as an area of imbalanced participation.

In many cases, project processes pursued effective access to and retention of girls and women in the project's educational activities. Actions were taken to address gender equality by facilitating greater access for and better participation of girls and women in many projects. For instance, female candidates were given priority, or particular percentages or proportions of their female participants were set as a goal. Women-specific projects were organized, and obstacles barring female participants from participating in the project were identified and mitigated to improve accessibility. In addition, the number or percentage of female participants was reported as a crucial project result. Put another way, efforts were made to integrate more girls and women into the development program, and closely related to the WID approach's understanding of gender and equality.

On the other hand, projects identified constructed gendered relations and powers, and these usually had a negative impact on effective implementation. However, the issues remained at the level of identification; they were not explicitly or thoroughly challenged by the program. Gendered division of labor, different gender roles, and responsibilities within society and family were reported as overall situations and problems during the planning stage of projects. At the stage of monitoring and evaluation, gendered social relations and powers usually functioned as obstacles in projects. First, gender stereotypes in education continued to manifest in many cases. Second, women's reproductive role and gendered relations within the family had an influence on their participation in education. Third, the projects identified gendered cultures.

Several efforts were made to identify gender needs and interests and reflect them in the contents of projects. However, the needs addressed remained mainly practical, which women identify in their socially accepted roles in society,

and which therefore (although they arise from these issues) do not challenge the gender division of labor or women's subordinate position in society (Moser, 1993). For example, based on women's roles of reproductive work, necessary for maintenance and reproduction of the labor force, and of community management work, an extension of their reproductive role, motivation programs including jam-making and food storage, nutrition education program were created, and safe and clean water supplies were provided to lighten women's burden. Additionally, traditionally female-dominated fields such as design were offered to female students in TVET, and a center focused on vocational training in the engineering sector identified low female enrollment rate and high concentration of female students in IT major as problems to solve. Projects concerning hygiene and health primarily considered the needs and interests of women as mothers or mothers-to-be, especially in MNCH projects.

Gender was conducted in some projects. The topics of education varied, including women's rights, positive gender roles, gender equality, the role of women in rural society, gender equity, and interrelationships between various research topics and gender. Through such education, project-implementing organizations aimed to raise awareness of women's rights, empowerment, and potential. Furthermore, they intended to enable women to recognize their social alienation and internalize gender equality. Therefore, this education can be understood as an effort to meet the strategic needs and interests of women, moreover as a process of conscientizing participants on gender issues in their society. In this context, education was viewed as conscientization and an area of inequality due to gendered and patriarchal power structure.

CHAPTER V. Conclusion

This study identified and analyzed the vocabularies and semantic meaning of gender equality in education. Data were collected from the contents of a KOICA program cooperating with development partners in academia. The study focused on the perception and concept of gender reflected in the program, gender or women's issues reflected in the process of program's projects, and the gender-related results as outputs of the program. In the process of qualitative analysis, various contents were reconstructed to deeply understand the context of how gender, gender equality, and education were understood in the program.

Above all, this study identified that the WID approach is still a dominant framework informing gender equality in education. Many of the program's projects pursued greater access to and retention of girls and women in education and multiple varied procedures were conducted to promote accessibility of education for girls and women. Similarly, figures concerning women's access and participation were reported as important project results.

On the other hand, constructed gendered relations and powers were identified throughout projects, usually acting as barriers to project activities. However, they were only identified, not challenged, by the program. Similarly, many efforts were made to identify gender needs and interests and to reflect them in the contents of projects. However, the needs reflected were mostly practical gender needs, which women identify in their socially accepted roles in society, and which thus do not challenge gender division of labor or women's subordinate position in society even though they arise from these issues (Moser, 1993).

As I conclude this thesis, I would like to go over some points. First, this

study does not claim that the WID approach is unnecessary. Binary comparison of the WID and GAD approaches seems to distort and undervalue the WID approach, but the GAD approach, which learned from failure and arose from criticism of the WID approach, built on its successes as well (Jaquette & Summerfield, 2006). Rather, the four approaches discussed, including the WID approach and the GAD approach, can function complementarily. Moreover, they can overlap in actual projects and programs (DeJaeghere & Wiger, 2013; Unterhalter, 2005, 2006, 2007). For instance, access is accompanied by gender mainstreaming in the curriculum and management of gender sensitization programs in Uganda and Tanzania (Morley, 2005a). In addition, a study of DeJaeghere and Wiger (2013) have analyzed an NGO project that draws mainly on the GAD approach to change gender power relations, but also uses a rights-based discourse and a capabilities approach to explore what young boys and girls value from education.

Although the WID approach and GAD approaches have been the most influential in formulation and implementation of development policies and academic discourse, they are not perfect solutions to tackle all problems of gender inequality. Thus, it is time to consider the issue from different standpoints, such as identity, rights, and capabilities. In so doing, veiled aspects will be revealed, leading to a more in-depth understanding of the issue and suggesting new ways to settle the problem of gender inequality.

Second, in many cases, the number or percentage of female students who participated in education was reported as a project result. What does improved female participation in education imply? Why are greater access for and participation of girls and women pursued and achieved? Should more girls and women participate in education because education of girls and women is the

world's "best investment with the widest-ranging returns"(Sperling & Winthrop, 2015)? Is education of girls and women intended to benefit the country's economic and social development, because it will encourage them to become high-quality human resources? Is it intended to benefit their family or future generations, because they are or will be the caregiver for their family and children? Is it intended to challenge unequally constructed social structures, by conscientizing students on inequality? At the base of all these rationales, education serves as a means and instrument for something else. In addition, only the social and economic impacts of education are highlighted and taken into account. However, education has personal and private impacts as well. Girls' and women's education is not only for the benefit of others, but also for themselves.

In many projects, education was conducted to empower students and participants. However, how can we measure and confirmed their empowerment after education or training? Empowerment may have become a buzzword, but there is no consensus on its definition; it is thus difficult to measure (Kabeer, 1999). Therefore, in the context of the program, empowerment should first be defined, and how to measure it should be discussed. By doing so, the outcomes and impacts of the program can be identified beyond participation figures.

Finally, the WID and GAD approaches identified in the program developed along with the discourse on women in the Western world. The women's movement formatively influenced the WID approach in northern countries in the 1970s (Miller & Razavi, 1995; Rathgeber, 1990; Unterhalter, 2005). The GAD approach, which emerged in the 1980s, was theoretically rooted in and thus resonated with socialist feminism (Rathgeber, 1990; Unterhalter, 2005). Other approaches have also developed within the context of development cooperation

and interaction between countries. For instance, post-structuralism problematized the western universalization of a notion of women in developing countries (Unterhalter, 2005).

How does discussion of women and gender in the field of education in Korea interact within the context of development cooperation with other countries? The educational development experiences of Korea can be considered provoking in this light. With respect to gender parity in education, Korea's story of achieving parity has been introduced and recognized as a successful case in many international development reports. However, other aspects of education have still been identified as problematic, such as gender-stereotyped textbook contents, teaching and learning contexts and practices in PE classes, and different learning outcomes in mathematics and science between male and female students (Jung, Chung, Shin, & Seo, 2003; Jung, Chung, & Kwon, 2004; Bae, Kim, Won, Cho, & You 2005; Chung, Koo, & Choi, 2010). Furthermore, sexual harassment within schools is now an issue, in line with the "Me Too" movement.

This research has several limitations. First, due to limited access, it was impossible to explore all contents related to the program. The primary materials explored were brochures, leaflets, and guidelines that introduced and described the program, and 52 final reports on projects completed from 2014 to 2016. Therefore, this study focused on gender aspects in the process of actual implementation of each project, rather than how each project was planned based on gender perspectives. In addition, it was difficult to investigate the outcomes and impacts of each project.

Second, the Civil Society Cooperation Program was redesigned based on themes, and is no longer divided by actors. Therefore, as of 2018, the APP is

officially abolished. However, one of the Civil Society Cooperation Program's five themes is higher education, and thus it is the program has effectively been reformed rather than abolished. Furthermore, the target outcomes of higher education subprogram are development of highly qualified human resources who will lead social change in developing countries and improvement of tertiary education quality in developing countries. Example outcomes are increased numbers of highly qualified human resources, trained through developed contents for formal higher education reflecting actual demand and circumstances; faculty capacity building; development of curricula and learning materials; training for pedagogy; support for facilities and training aids; and development of education systems (KOICA, 2018). Regardless of the APP's reform into the higher education-themed subprogram, this study can contribute by showing how gender and gender equality were perceived and pursued in the previous program.

Third, the focus of this research was to clearly reveal how donors perceived gender and settled the issue of pursuing gender equality in partner countries. Therefore, this study explored the program mostly as organized on the donors' side, not that of beneficiaries or partners from developing countries. Investigating how donors understand this issue is important, because it affects how they approach what they recognize as problems of gender inequality.

Finally, this research demonstrated the predominance of the WID approach, but does not answer why such prevalence occurs. Although it is imperative to explore why such a phenomenon occurs, exploration of what happens should be a prerequisite step, and that is the role filled by this study. This research serves as a first step exploring the reason why the WID approach predominates, left as a topic for further research.

Based on the findings and limitations of this study, several directions for future research are suggested. First, further investigation could consider the vocabularies and semantic meanings of gender equality in education in another development context. This would be a right way to evolve this paper. For instance, this study could be conducted with regard to the other themes of the Civil Society Cooperation Program—health, agriculture, forestry and fisheries, and multisector—because gender is considered a crosscutting issue in addition to a KOICA sector. Additionally, even if the program is no longer divided by partners, programs cooperating with businesses and CSOs must be explored. This will reveal similarities and differences by themes or partners, and present the opportunity for comparative research.

As a second avenue of research, to understand academia cooperation program in depth, experiences of the program on the beneficiaries' or partners' side in developing countries must be explored. To reveal how donors perceived gender, equality, and education, and how they settled the issue of pursuing gender equality in education in partner countries, this study traced gender and gender equality in education from the donors' side only. However, to explore specific outcomes and impacts of this program, analyses of the experiences of beneficiaries and partners may show different or unexpected aspects of the program, whether positive or negative.

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APPENDIX

1. The list of studied projects

Project	The year of start	The year of end	Sector	Country
A-1	2014	2014	Public Administration	Nepal
A-2	2014	2014	Education	Nepal
A-3	2014	2014	Health	Mongolia
A-4	2012	2014	Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries	East Timor
A-5	2013	2014	Public Administration	Mongolia
A-6	2014	2014	Humanitarian Assistance and Disaster Relief	Mongolia
A-7	2014	2014	Public Administration	Mongolia
A-8	2012	2014	Health	Mongolia
A-9	2012	2014	Education	Mongolia
A-10	2014	2014	Education	Myanmar
A-11	2012	2014	Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries	Myanmar
A-12	2012	2014	Education	Vietnam
A-13	2013	2014	Education	Vietnam
A-14	2014	2014	Education	Vietnam
A-15	2012	2014	Education	Vietnam
A-16	2013	2014	Industry & Energy	Vietnam
A-17	2014	2014	Health	Vietnam
A-18	2014	2014	Health	Bolivia
A-19	2013	2014	Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries	Ethiopia
A-20	2013	2014	Health	Ethiopia
A-21	2013	2014	Health	Uganda
A-22	2012	2014	Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries	Indonesia
A-23	2014	2015	Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries	Cambodia
A-24	2014	2014	Public Administration	Colombia
A-25	2014	2014	Health	Palestine
A-26	2012	2014	Education	The Philippines
A-27	2013	2014	Public Administration	Vietnam
B-1	2015	2016	Health	Laos
B-2	2013	2015	Public Administration	Rewanda
B-3	2015	2016	Education	Mongolia
B-4	2013	2015	Education	Myanmar
B-5	2015	2015	Education	Myanmar

B-6	2012	2013	Health	Myanmar
B-7	2014	2015	Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries	Bangladesh
B-8	2015	2016	Health	Vietnam
B-9	2013	2015	Education	Uzbekistan
B-10	2015	2015	Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries	Indonesia
B-11	2014	2015	Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries	Cambodia
B-12	2014	2015	Health	Cambodia
B-13	2012	2015	Education	Cambodia
B-14	2014	2015	Health	Nepal
B-15	2013	2015	Health	Sri Lanka
C-1	2015	2016	Public Administration	Nepal
C-2	2015	2016	Industry & Energy	Nepal
C-3	2015	2016	Industry & Energy	Nepal
C-4	2015	2016	Health	Myanmar
C-5	2015	2016	Education	Vietnam
C-6	2015	2016	Public Administration	Cambodia
C-7	2015	2016	Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries	The Philippines
C-8	2015	2016	Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries	El Salvador
C-9	2015	2017	Health	Cambodia
C-10	2016	2016	Public Administration	Cambodia

2. Format of final report

대학교의 파트너십을 통한 국제개발협력사업 결과보고서⁹⁾

I. 결과보고 개요

1. 사업 내용

구분		내용
사업명	국문	
	영문	
대상국가/지역		
총 사업기간		(사업착수일~사업종료일 명기)
수혜자		
사업내용 요약		(수원국의 어떠한 문제점 해결을 위하여 어떠한 활동(Activity)을 추진하며, 이를 통해 어떠한 성과(Outcome)를 기대하며, 이것이 수원국 및 수행대학에 어떠한 의미를 갖는지 간략히 기술)
수행대학 / 현지파트너		

2. 사업 담당자

종료 평가 시 담당 및 연락처	국내	(성명)	전화번호:(사무실) / (휴대폰)
			이메일:
	현지	(성명)	전화번호:(사무실) / (휴대폰)
			이메일:
보고서 작성자		(성명)	전화번호:(사무실) / (휴대폰)
			이메일:

9) 본 중간보고서 양식은 사업의 원활한 추진 여부의 점검을 위한 최소한의 목차를 담고 있는 바, 동 기본양식을 토대로 필요한 세부 사항 추가 요망

3. 결과보고 내용 요약

주요 사업실적 및 종합성과				
종합평가				
예산(원)		총사업비	KOICA 지원금	자체자금
	약정액			
	집행액			
	집행률(%)			

2. 인력 파견 계획 대비 파견실적¹²⁾

성명	사업상 직책	주요 담당업무 추진 내용 및 성과	당초 파견 계획	실제 파견 기간	파견 일정 변경사항 여부(O/X)	변경 사유 (해당시)	비고 (파견계획 변경에 대한 요청/승인 문서 번호 ¹³⁾)
					유/무 사항 기입		

3. 기타 활동 내역¹⁴⁾

12) 현지 파견 계획 및 실적 기입

13) 파견기간은 동일하나 파견시기만 변경된 경우는 해당 내용을 KOICA 측에 사전 공문으로 통보 하고 추진 가능하며 승인 여부 불필요. 그러나 파견 시기 및 기간이 모두 변경되어 이에 대한 예산변경이 일어날 경우에는 사전 요청 및 승인 공문을 받고 추진하여야 함. 상기 표의 비교란에 이와 관련한 대학 측의 공문 번호 및 KOICA의 공문 번호 기입 요망. [약정서 제 8조 참조]

14) 상기 실적에 대한 상세 부연설명 포함한 미계량 실적

II. 사업 관리

1. 사업계획 대비 추진실적¹¹⁾ ** 작성 칸 추가 기입 가능 (필요시 첨부자료로 제출)

사업 계획 ¹⁰⁾			추진 결과	문제점 및 조치현황 [위험관리]			
사업목적	사업활동	당초 세부 투입 계획	세부 추진 실적	발견된 문제점	조치 완료		사후조치 예정 및 비고사항
					조치사항	조치결과	

10) 상기 표를 기준으로 셀의 세부 분할 및 통합기능을 적용하여 사업관리 내용을 자유롭게 기술 가능.

11) 사업계획이 변경되었을 경우, 변경된 최종 계획을 기입하고 변경여부는 비교란에 간단히 언급

III. 성과 관리

1. 성과지표 달성현황 및 모니터링 결과

사업 추진 현황			사업 목표 대비 달성도 변화				자료수집 과정				
사업 목적	세부 단위사업	사업내용 및 추진현황 (Activities)	결과물 (Output 또는 Outcome)	측정 지표	주요			당초 종료시점 목표치 (Target)	자료수집 방법	수집 빈도	책임 (담당)
					기준치 (Baseline)	중간보고 시점의 측정치	결과보고 시점의 측정치				

2. 그 동안 사업 추진에 관한 자체평가¹⁵⁾

3. 당초 사업 목표 달성 여부 및 사유 분석¹⁶⁾

15) 상세 내용을 가) 나) 다) 항목으로 구분하여 서술 기입.

16) 상세 내용을 가) 나) 다) 항목으로 구분하여 서술 기입. 목표달성을 한 경우와 그렇지 않은 경우에 대한 자체 사유분석 기입. 또한 이를 통한 경험 및 교훈(Lessons Learned)에 대해 상세 기입. 목표 달성 자체보다 관련 사유 분석을 통한 향후 방안 및 사후관리 방안에 대한 제언 기입.

4. 지속 가능성을 위한 고려한 사업 추진 내용

- ** 출구전략 포함 (출구전략 : 사업 기획 단계에서 일정기간 사업 운영 후 현지화에 대한 계획을 세워, 자립적인 운영이 가능하도록 현지주민들에게 사업을 이양하기 위한 전략)

5. 젠더, 취약계층 및 환경, 인권에 대한 고려한 사업 추진내용

- ** 개발 사업이 남성과 여성, 취약계층과 비취약 계층에 달리 영향을 줄 수 있는지에 대한 고려
(고려할 예 : 학교 설립 사업의 경우, 수혜자 대다수가 남자인 경우 발생, 동 사업을 통해 교육을 받은 전체 수혜자 중 여학생의 비율(%) 등)
- ** 의도되었거나 또는 의도되지 않았던 환경에 대한 영향
(고려할 예 : 수질개선 사업 이후 말라리아 발생 증가 : 말라리아 유충은 맑은 물에서 성장 말라리아 유충을 제거하기 위한 주변 숲을 제거하는 사업 지양
사업 부지로 선정된 땅의 거주자 이주 문제
댐 건설 사업 이후의 주변지역 주혈흡충 질병의 증가
댐 건설 사업 이후, 하류지역의 물부족 사태 등)
- ** 인권 분야의 경우, 협력국의 정치적 민감성 여부 등을 고려하여 사업수행에 불이익을 당하지 않도록 계획을 세워야 함을 감안.

IV. 예산 현황

1. 총사업비 집행률

총사업비(원)	집행금액(원)	집행률
		%

2. 예산 집행현황

※ 사업보고서에는 총괄 양식 기입/ 회계정산보고 양식에 맞춰 상세 기입 요망

사업내용(단위)	계획(원)			집행실적(원)		
	총사업비	자체자금	지원금	총사업비	자체자금	지원금
총계						
소계						
소계						
소계						
소계						

V. 홍보 및 기타내용

1. 홍보실적 및 국내·외 보도현황

매체 (국내/외 구분)	홍보대상	세부내용

** 주요행사, 홍보물 제작, 언론 보도 세부내용 작성.

** 증빙자료 목록에 해당 내용 포함하여 제출 요망.

2. 기타 보고사항

첨부 : 관련 증빙자료

- 1.
- 2.

국문초록

한국 교육개발협력에서의 젠더: 숨겨진 사람들 혹은 구조화된 권력

서울대학교

대학원 글로벌교육협력전공

이지민

최근 수십 년 동안, 젠더 평등³은 국제개발협력에서 중요한 이슈로, 또 모든 분야를 아울러 고려해야 하는 크로스커팅 이슈로 여겨져 왔다. 아울러, 젠더 평등은 국제개발협력에서 추구해야 할 기본 원칙으로 인식되어 왔다. (KVINFO, 2018) 이에 따라, 교육에서의 젠더 평등 역시 많은 국제 조약과 조직에서 장려되어 왔고, 한국 교육개발협력에서 달성해야 할 목표로도 추구되어 왔다. 그러나 국제개발협력에서 교육에서의 젠더 평등이 과연 무엇을 의미하는가? 국제개발협력에서 숨겨져 있던 소녀와 여성이 드러나 학교 교육에 마침내 통합되는 것을 의미하는가? 아니면 젠더가 사회적 관계 혹은 권력을 의미하는 가운데 교육은 불공평성과 억압에 도전하는 의식화의 과정으로 작용하는가?

본 연구는 젠더, 교육, 개발협력에 관한 여러 접근을 기반으로 실제 교육개발협력에서 교육에서의 젠더 평등이 어떻게 인식되고 있는지를

³ Gender equality에 대한 국문 번역은 ‘성 평등’, ‘양성 평등’, ‘젠더 평등’ 등 다양한 용어가 사용되고 있다. 여기서는 ‘젠더 평등’이라고 표기한다

사용되는 어휘와 의미를 탐구하여 젠더, 교육, 개발협력의 접점을 연구하고자 하였다. 이를 위하여, KOICA 시민사회협력 프로그램 중 아카데미와의 협력에 반영된 젠더의 인식과 개념, 프로그램 사업 과정에 반영된 젠더 혹은 여성 이슈, 젠더와 관련하여 프로그램의 결과로 보고된 산출물을 탐구하였다.

본 연구는 젠더, 교육, 개발협력에 대한 네 가지 접근에 대한 Unterhalter의 범주화를 통한 이해를 바탕으로 질적 연구를 수행하였다. KOICA 시민사회협력 프로그램 중 아카데미와의 협력 관련 브로슈어, 리플릿, 안내서와 2014년부터 2016까지 종료된 사업의 종료 보고서 및 결과 보고서의 젠더 관련 내용이 연역적인 과정으로 분석되었다.

아카데미 프로그램에서 WID 접근이 전반적으로 맹위를 떨치는 가운데 약간의 GAD적 접근이 나타남이 확인되었다. 프로그램의 많은 사업에서, 더 많은 소녀와 여성이 교육에 접근하고 이탈하지 않는 것이 추구되었고, 그들의 접근성을 향상하는 데 목적을 둔 많은 조치가 다양한 방법으로 행해졌다. 같은 맥락으로, 그들의 향상된 접근성과 참여와 관련된 여러 지표가 중요한 결과로 보고되었다.

한편, 상황 및 문제 분석 과정, 모니터링, 평가의 과정에서 구조화된 젠더 관계나 권력 관계가 문제로 확인되었다. 하지만 이들은 확인되는 수준에 머무르고 프로그램의 사업을 통해 분명히 또는 완전히 도전받지는 않았다. 아울러, 젠더 요구와 이해가 확인되기는 했지만, 이는 사회에서 여성이 사회적으로 수용되는 역할을 나타내는, 그래서 성별 노동분업이나 사회에서의 여성의 종속적인 지위에 도전받지는 않는 실제적인 젠더 요구와 이해에 머무르고 있다. (모저, 1993). 그렇지만, 몇몇 사업에서는 교육 참가자에게 젠더화된 구조에 대한 통찰을 제공하는 데 기여할 수 있는 젠더 관련 교육이 진행되었다.

본 연구는 실제로 젠더와 관련된 교육 문제가 어떻게 진단되고 문제의 본질이 무엇으로 이해되는지를 파악하는 시발점을 제공한다. 본 연구는 대상국의 이해관계자, 수혜자, 파트너를 대상으로 수행되지는 않았지만, 원조 공여 측에서 교육에서의 젠더 평등 문제를 어떻게 이해하는 가는 그들이 무엇을 교육에서의 젠더 불평등 문제로 인식하고, 어떻게 그것에 접근하는가에 영향을 미치게 되므로 중요한 의의가 있다. 아울러 이 연구가 왜 WID 접근법이 우세한지를 탐구하는 첫걸음으로 역할을 할 수 있기를 기대한다.

주제어: 교육개발협력에서의 젠더 평등, 교육개발협력, WID, GAD, 시민사회협력 프로그램, 아카데미협력프로그램

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