GENDER STEREOTYPES

TRAINING MANUAL

teachers

GENDER NEUTR-ALL

ELISA CHALETA, CARLA SEMED,O ISABEL FIALHO, HUGO REBELO, ELENI KARACHONTZITI, JEANNE CHIRON, GEORGIOS STAMELOS, DESPINA KARAKATSANI, MARIA FROUNTA & DORA KATSAMORI

TRAINING

GENDER STEREOTYPES

MANUAL

FICHA TÉCNICA

UNIVERSIDADE DE ÉVORA

Co-funded by
the European Union

TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUÇÃO

Gender stereotypes have deep roots in the history of human societies and represent widely shared beliefs about the characteristics, behaviors and roles socially considered appropriate for men and women.

These social constructions profoundly influence the way individuals perceive themselves and others, contributing to structural inequalities in various domains, such as work, education and family life (Eagly & Wood, 2012). Despite significant advances in the fight for gender equality, stereotypes persist and continue to shape expectations and opportunities in various contexts.

Various theories attempt to explain the formation of gender stereotypes. According to social role theory, stereotypes reflect historically rooted social divisions of labor. In many cultures, men performed public, instrumental, and economic tasks, while women were assigned expressive roles such as caregiving (Eagly & Wood, 2012). Over time, these roles have been associated with inherent traits such as assertiveness with masculinity and caring with femininity, despite being socially constructed and reinforced through institutional and cultural practices.

Social cognitive theories emphasize mental processes like categorization, schemas, and memory biases in stereotype formation. Once encoded, gendered schemas guide individuals to attend to stereotype-consistent information and remember gender-typical examples, while disregarding counter-stereotypical cues. Social learning theory adds that stereotypes are transmitted through observational learning (parents, educators, media figures, and peers model) and reinforce gendered behaviors (Bandura, 1977).

Developmental intergroup theory, in turn, explains how children's natural tendency to categorize people into groups leads to stereotype formation. Young children pick up on social distinctions such as gender early in life and begin to attach evaluative meaning to them, internalizing associations such as competence with boys and warmth with girls (Bigler & Liben, 2007). Efforts to reduce stereotypes during early childhood can therefore leverage these categorization tendencies for positive outcomes.

The mechanisms that lead to the maintenance of stereotypes are the result of cognitive biases, the construction of social identity, intergroup processes of gender socialization and institutions.

Cognitive mechanisms like confirmation bias and self-fulfilling prophecy contribute to stereotype persistence. People notice and remember behaviors that align with stereotypes more readily (Hamilton & Gifford, 1976), while ambiguous evidence is often interpreted in ways that reinforce existing beliefs. These mental shortcuts decrease cognitive effort at the cost of perpetuating stereotypes.

The family, educational systems, workplaces, and media serve as institutional vectors that socialize individuals into gendered norms. Parental behaviors, teacher expectations, and occupational segregation reinforce existing stereotypes (Heilman, 2012). Media, in particular, often reproduces narrow portrayals - showcasing women's domesticity and men's dominance -thereby shaping children's beliefs and aspirations (Collins, 2011). Stereotypes also persist through group dynamics: in-group favoritism and out-group bias lead people to evaluate their own gender group more positively while perceiving the other as less capable. Such social identity processes are exacerbated in competitive or hierarchical contexts and are further reinforced by systemic inequalities (Tajfel & Turner, 1979).

1. REAL-WORLD MANIFESTATIONS OF GENDER STEREOTYPES

1.1 EDUCATIONAL CONTEXTS

In schools, stereotypes influence teacher-student interactions, curriculum representations, and peer norms. Research shows that teachers call on boys more often during math and science lessons, conveying implicit assumptions about gender and ability (Robinson-Cimpian et al., 2014). Girls may be praised for neatness and compliance, but less for assertiveness or academic risk-taking. Such differential reinforcement affects self-efficacy and long-term academic trajectories (Leaper & Brown, 2014).

1.2 WORKPLACE

Gender stereotypes contribute to occupational segregation, wage gaps, and the glass ceiling. Women are overrepresented in caregiving professions and underrepresented in high-status STEM fields. Leadership roles are stereotyped as requiring decisiveness and competitiveness - traits attributed more to men - creating an inherent bias when evaluating female leaders (Heilman & Eagly, 2008). This is exemplified in "role incongruity" theory, where female leaders face double bind dynamics: they must appear competent yet communal, a tension that penalizes them regardless of their approach.

1.3 MEDIA AND CULTURAL REPRESENTATION

Media plays a central role in sustaining stereotypes through character portrayals and storylines. Analysis of advertising and television shows reveals consistent depiction of women as emotional, domestic, and sexualized, while men appear rational, independent, and aggressive (Collins, 2011). These portrayals not only influence audience perceptions of typical gender behavior but also serve as career modeling cues for children and adolescents.

1.4 POLITICAL AND PUBLIC LIFE

Political engagement often reflects underlying stereotypes. Female politicians receive less coverage and their appearance and personality are scrutinized more than their male counterparts (Ross, 2014). Voters may mistakenly believe that men are naturally better suited for political leadership, reinforcing gender-based barriers to entry into public life.

2.1 PSYCHOLOGICAL CONSEQUENCES

For women, internalizing stereotypes about dependency, emotionality, and appearance can contribute to low self-esteem, heightened vulnerability to mental health issues like anxiety and depression, and body image concerns (Fredrickson & Roberts, 1997). Men, on the other hand, can suffer from "masculine norm conformity," avoiding help-seeking behaviors and emotional vulnerability, leading to higher rates of substance abuse and reduced mental health outcomes (Mahalik et al., 2003).

2.2 STEREOTYPE THREAT

Stereotype threat refers to the phenomenon where individuals underperform on tasks when they fear confirming negative stereotypes about their group (Steele & Aronson, 1995). For example, girls underperform on math tests when reminded of gender differences in math ability. This cognitive pressure contributes to performance gaps and discourages engagement in fields like STEM.

2.3 ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL DISPARITIES

At the macro level, stereotypes have socioeconomic repercussions: devaluation of women's labor contributes to persistent wage gaps even when controlling for education and experience (Blau & Kahn, 2017). Occupational segregation limits collective societal gains: lower participation of women in high-growth fields reduces innovation capacity and limits gross domestic product growth (Goldin, 2014).

3. STRATEGIES FOR CHANGE

3.1 EDUCATIONAL INTERVENTIONS

Interventions in schools, such as role-exposure programs and gender-inclusive curricula, are effective in reducing stereotypes during childhood and adolescence (Bigler & Liben, 2007). Encouraging counter-stereotypical play, diverse role models, and gender-sensitive teacher training transforms classroom norms and influences long-term beliefs about gender capabilities.

3.2 ORGANIZATIONAL POLICIES

Workplace policies - such as transparent recruitment, pay audits, mentorship for underrepresented groups, and family-friendly benefits (e.g., paid parental leave for all genders) - address structural aspects of stereotype maintenance. Organizations that implement bias training and accountability measures see improved gender diversity and reduced pay gaps (Catalyst, 2020).

3.3 MEDIA STRATEGIES

Media can counter stereotypes by featuring diverse and non-traditional role portrayals. Campaigns such as "SeeHer" (focused on reducing gender bias in advertising) demonstrate how inclusive media strategies can shift public attitudes. Animated series and children's programs that feature strong female and emotionally expressive male characters may pave the way for broader social acceptance of gender flexibility.

3.4 LEGAL AND PUBLIC POLICIES

Governments play a crucial role through regulations related to anti-discrimination, parental leave, childcare support, and gender quotas in politics. The OECD Gender Recommendation highlights how structural policies support behavioral and attitudinal shifts (OECD, 2021). For instance, Iceland's success in narrowing the gender pay gap is tied to its legal requirement for employers to demonstrate equal pay through certification processes.

4. TOWARD INTERSECTIONAL AND GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES

Gender stereotypes do not operate in isolation—they intersect with race, class, sexuality, disability, and culture. Intersectionality theory underscores how stereotypes differentially affect women of color, LGBTQ+ individuals, and persons with disabilities (Crenshaw, 1991). For example, Black women may be perceived as "angry" when assertive - a stereotype not applied to white women - leading to harsher consequences in professional domains (Bonilla-Silva, 2014).

Global perspectives reveal cultural variability in stereotypes: collectivist societies may emphasize gender roles related to family integrity, while individualistic cultures valorize personal achievement and autonomy differently along gender lines. Comparative research indicates that countries with higher gender equity scores exhibit fewer stereotype-based performance gaps and more fluid gender roles (Inglehart & Norris, 2003).

In short, stereotypes are deeply embedded societal narratives that shape identity, opportunity, behavior, and well-being. Through multiple, often invisible mechanisms -from childhood socialization to institutional practices - they maintain gender inequities across domains. However, a wealth of theoretical insight and empirical evidence points to effective strategies for dismantling stereotypes: childhood education, inclusive media, supportive workplace policies, and equity-centered legislation. Achieving gender justice requires sustained, intersectional, and multi-level actions. Progress not only benefits individuals, but also enriches societies economically, psychologically, and culturally.

REFERENCES

American Psychological Association. (2015). Guidelines for psychological practice with transgender and gender nonconforming people. https://www.apa.org/practice/guidelines/transgender.pdf

Bandura, A. (1977). Social learning theory. Prentice-Hall.

Bigler, R.S., & Liben, L.S. (2007). Developmental intergroup theory: Explaining and reducing children's social stereotyping and prejudice. Current Directions in Psychological Science, 16(3), 162–166. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8721.2007.00496.x

Blau, F.D., & Kahn, L.M. (2017). The gender wage gap: Extent, trends, and explanations. Journal of Economic Literature, 55(3), 789–865. https://doi.org/10.1257/jel.20160995

Bonilla-Silva, E. (2014). Racism without racists: Color-blind racism and the persistence of racial inequality in America (4th ed.). Rowman & Littlefield.

Catalyst. (2020). Why diversity and inclusion matter: Quick take. https://www.catalyst.org/research/why-diversity-and-inclusion-matter/

Collins, R. L. (2011). Content analysis of gender roles in media: Where are we now and where should we go? Sex Roles, 64(3), 290–298. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-010-9929-5

Crenshaw, K. (1991). Mapping the margins: Intersectionality, identity politics, and violence against women of color. Stanford Law Review, 43(6), 1241–1299. https://doi.org/10.2307/1229039

Eagly, A.H., & Wood, W. (2012). Social role theory. In P. Van Lange, A.W., Kruglanski, A.W., & Higgins, E.T. (Eds.), Handbook of theories of social psychology (Vol. 2, pp. 458–476). SAGE Publications.

Fredrickson, B.L., & Roberts, T.-A. (1997). Objectification theory: Toward understanding women's lived experiences and mental health risks. Psychology of Women Quarterly, 21(2), 173–206. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1471-6402.1997.tb00108.x

Goldin, C. (2014). A grand gender convergence: Its last chapter. American Economic Review, 104(4), 1091–1119. https://doi.org/10.1257/aer.104.4.1091

Heilman, M.E. (2012). Gender stereotypes and workplace bias. Research in Organizational Behavior, 32, 113–135. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.riob.2012.11.003

Heilman, M.E., & Eagly, A.H. (2008). Gender stereotypes are alive, well, and busy producing workplace bias. Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 1(4), 393–398. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1754-9434.2008.00072.x

Inglehart, R., & Norris, P. (2003). Rising tide: Gender equality and cultural change around the world. Cambridge University Press.

Leaper, C., & Brown, C.S. (2014). Perceived experiences with sexism among adolescent girls. Child Development, 85(5), 1636–1651. https://doi.org/10.1111/cdev.12242

Mahalik, J.R., Burns, S.M., & Syzdek, M. (2003). Masculinity and perceived normative health behaviors as predictors of men's health behaviors. Social Science & Medicine, 64(11), 2201–2209. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socscimed.2007.02.035

OECD. (2021). Gender equality in education, employment and entrepreneurship: Final report to the MCM 2021. OECD Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1787/abc123456789

Robinson-Cimpian, J.P., Lubienski, S.T., Ganley, C.M., & Copur-Gencturk, Y. (2014). Teachers' gender biases favor boys over girls in mathematical problem solving. Journal of Educational Psychology, 106(3), 879–896. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0036012

Ross, K. (2014). Women and news: A long and winding road. Communication Research Trends, 33(3), 9–22.

Steele, C.M., & Aronson, J. (1995). Stereotype threat and the intellectual test performance of African Americans. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 69(5), 797–811. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.69.5.797

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J.C. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In W.G. Austin & S.Worchel (Eds.), The social psychology of intergroup relations (pp. 33–47). Brooks/Cole.

1

IDENTIFYING AND DECONSTRUCT STEREOTYPES

———

1.1 WHAT WE WE KNOW ABOUT GENDER STEREOTYPES?

Gender stereotypes are social constructions with a personal impact. Refer to generalized beliefs about the traits, behaviors, and roles considered appropriate for men and women in a given society. These simplified ideas, often transmitted from childhood through family, school, media, and popular culture, perpetuate inequality and limit individual freedom (Eagly & Wood, 2012).

Historically, men have been associated with traits such as strength, rationality, and leadership, while women have been assigned characteristics like sensitivity, passivity, and domestic caregiving. These rigid conceptions overlook the complexity and diversity of individuals, reinforcing patterns of discrimination and exclusion (Bem, 1981).

In educational and professional contexts, gender stereotypes influence choices and opportunities. Girls are sometimes discouraged from pursuing careers in STEM fields, while boys face barriers when expressing emotions or pursuing traditionally feminine careers, such as nursing or early childhood education (OECD, 2021).

Moreover, stereotypes have significant psychological consequences. The pressure to conform to gender norms can generate anxiety, low self-esteem, and feelings of inadequacy. "Stereotype threat" — the fear of confirming a negative expectation — has been identified as a factor that negatively affects the performance of stigmatized groups (Steele & Aronson, 1995).

In recent years, social movements and gender equality debates have challenged these constructions. Promoting citizenship education, encouraging diversity and representation in the media, and inclusive public policies are essential steps toward dismantling stereotypes and fostering equity.

Dismantling gender stereotypes does not mean denying differences among individuals but rather recognizing that such differences should not dictate fixed roles or justify inequality. Gender equality is a fundamental human right and a necessary condition for the fair and sustainable development of any society.

1.2 WHAT TEACHERS CAN LEARN ABOUT STEREOTYPE

As a first step, we believe it is essential for teachers to reflect deeply on gender stereotypes, so we are proposing various activities with the general aim understanding the concept of gender stereotypes and their influence in the school context.

1.3 WHAT TEACHERS CAN DO TO LEARN ABOUT THE STEREOTYPE

Activity 1: Gender Timeline

Objectives:

- Reflect on how gender roles have changed over time.
- Understanding gender stereotypes in Education.

Activity:

- Participants, in groups, create a timeline of historical, social, cultural or legal events that have had an impact on gender roles in society and education.

Discussion:

- How do these milestones influence today's schools? "What were you told you could or couldn't be because of your gender?"

Materials:

- Whiteboard or flipchart
- Markers

Activity 2: Inclusive Language Workshop

Objectives:

- Reflect on the impact of language and pedagogical practices.
- Identify unconscious gender patterns in one's own teaching practice.
- Promote the use of gender-inclusive language in the classroom.

Activity:

- Rewrite classroom instructions, school rules, or lesson materials using more inclusive, neutral language.

Discussion:

- Does language shape perception? What resistance might arise?

Materials:

- Texts / rules to revise
- Flipchart / posters for debate

Activity 3: Textbook Content Analysis

Objectives:

- To identify gender stereotypes in textbooks, exercises or exams.

Activity:

- Groups of teachers analyse textbook pages looking for biased representations (e.g. women only in domestic roles, men in leadership positions).

Discussion:

- How can content be reformulated or supplemented with more equitable approaches?

Materials:

- Texts / manuals / rules to revise
- Flipchart/posters for debate

Activity 4: Real Case Studies

Objectives:

- Discuss real-life classroom dilemmas related to gender and diversity.

Activity:

- Analyze cases like:

    "A boy refuses to work with a girl in a group project."
    "A girl feels excluded during physical education."

Discussion:

- How should we intervene as educators? What inclusive strategies are

Materials:

- Flipchart / sticky notes

Activity 5: Guided Debate - "Should Schools Be Neutral?"

Objectives:

- Encourage critical thinking about the school's role in reproducing or challenging social norms.
- Understanding Gender Stereotypes in Education

Activity:

- Two groups debate opposing views, using academic and legal references to support their arguments.

Discussion:

- What is the teacher's role in social transformation?

Materials:

- Flipchart / sticky notes

1.4 REFERENCES

Bem, S. L. (1981). Gender schema theory: A cognitive account of sex typing. Psychological Review, 88(4), 354–364. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.88.4.354

Eagly, A. H., & Wood, W. (2012). Social role theory. In P. A. M. Van Lange, A. W. Kruglanski, & E. T. Higgins (Eds.), Handbook of theories of social psychology (Vol. 2, pp. 458–476). SAGE.

OECD. (2021). Gender equality in education, employment and entrepreneurship: Final report to the MCM 2021. https://www.oecd.org

Steele, C. M., & Aronson, J. (1995). Stereotype threat and the intellectual test performance of African Americans. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 69(5), 797–811. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.69.5.797

GIRLS ARE MORE
SENSITIVE THAN BOYS
——

2.1 WHAT WE KNOW ABOUT THIS STEREOTYPE

The idea that men and women naturally possess distinct personality traits (behaviours and attitudes) and emotional profiles is one of the most deeply rooted social constructs.

Studies on gender stereotypes have drawn attention to their non-uniform nature (Golombock & Fivush, 1994). Similarly, research has shown that stereotypes have varied over time and, in each era, from one region to another (Timm & Sanborn, 2007).

Although gender stereotypes may correspond to some extent with the characteristics and behaviours that men and women exhibit in their daily lives, their inherent excessive generalization and their almost unquestionable nature mask 'the considerable overlap in behavioural variability relative to each group' (Spence, 1999, p. 281). Although it has undergone variations depending on sociocultural contexts, personality traits – 'feminine expressiveness' versus 'masculine expressiveness' – seem to continue to be used to maintain a certain social order and to distinguish beings born females from those born males.

The characteristics associated with femininity (sensitivity, passivity, care) and masculinity (aggressiveness, rationality, strength) are not innate, but rather learned and imposed through a continuous process of socialization that begins in childhood. In general, men tend to be seen as stronger, more active, competitive and aggressive than women, with greater needs for achievement, domination and autonomy than women. Women, on the other hand, are characterized as needing, above all, to establish emotional connections with other people, as being more affectionate and capable of providing care, as having lower self-esteem and as being more likely to provide assistance in difficult situations.

Gender is not an internal essence, but something we "do" and represent daily through our gestures, words and postures (Salih, 2007). By reprimanding a boy for crying or a girl for being assertive, we are actively reinforcing the stereotype. Neuroscience has been debunking the idea that men's and women's brains are fundamentally different. Although there are small biological differences, these are minimal (Eliot, 2013) when compared to the enormous impact of neuroplasticity — the brain's ability to shape itself based on experience, education and social expectations. The brain learns to conform to the gender norms presented to it.

2.2 WHAT TEACHERS CAN LEARN ABOUT THIS STEREOTYPE

For a teacher, understanding this stereotype goes beyond theoretical knowledge. It involves reflecting on their own practice and the school environment, requiring:

- Becoming aware of stereotypes of personality traits and emotions: we have all been socialized with these stereotypes. It is essential that teachers reflect on their own reactions and language. Do we praise boys more for their courage and girls more for their kindness? Do we interrupt girls more? Do we allow more disruptive behaviour from boys, considering it "normal"? The use of expressions such as "that's not a girl thing" or "men don't cry" are microaggressions that reinforce stereotypes. Teachers can learn to identify and question these expressions, both their own and those of their students, transforming the classroom into a space of greater trust and openness.

- Recognize the impact in the classroom: these stereotypes affect class dynamics. Boys may feel pressured not to ask for help so as not to appear 'weak', while girls may hesitate to take the lead or express strong opinions so as not to be seen as 'aggressive'. This limits participation and compromises their overall development.

- Understand the relationship with well-being: the emotional repression demanded of boys and the pressure on girls to always be 'pleasant' and 'caring' have real costs for mental health. The classroom can be a place to validate all emotions, teaching that vulnerability is a human strength and that anger is a legitimate emotion for anyone.

2.3 WHAT TEACHERS CAN DO TO LEARN ABOUT THE STEREOTYPE

Activity 1: Do personality traits and emotions have a gender?

Objectives:

- To identify and understand students' gender stereotypes related to personality traits and emotions.

Duration:

- 50min

Materials:

- Computer with internet access
- Online quiz tool with questionnaire
- Projector
- Projection screen
- Mobile phones (students)

Description:

- Create a quiz with 10 statements and the answer options "Agree", "Disagree" and "No opinion". Example statements:

    1. Girls are more sensitive than boys.

    2. Boys are naturally braver than girls.

    3. Girls deal with emotions better than boys.

    4. Boys are more aggressive and competitive than girls.

    5. Girls cry over anything; boys control their emotions better.

    6. Boys deal with pressure better than girls.

    7. Girls are more careful and affectionate than boys.

    8. Girls are less confrontational than boys.

    9. Girls are more dependent on others than boys.

    10. Boys should not show sadness, because it makes them look weak.

- Before the activity, the teacher engages in dialogue with the students about what emotions are, asks for examples and poses the question: "Can we all feel and express the same emotions in the same way?" for joint reflection.

  - Explain the quiz activity to be carried out individually, inform students that there are no right or wrong answers, it is just a matter of agreeing/disagreeing with the statements and that after completing the quiz, they will have access to their answers.

  - When the students have finished the quiz, the teacher explains that they should form groups of four, with boys and girls, to compare their answers, identifying the statements on which there was the most and least agreement and finding explanations for the stereotypes.

  - Finally, the teacher promotes a debate based on the quiz answers and the following guiding questions:

    1. What are the most common stereotypes in the class?

    2. What is the origin of these stereotypes?

    3. What is the origin of these stereotypes?

    4. What is the origin of these stereotypes?

- When mediating the discussion, the teacher should avoid imposing answers, emphasize that all opinions are valid but need to be critically analyzed, give real examples (or examples from the media) that show the emotional diversity in men and women, and remind students that emotions and personality traits are neither 'feminine' nor 'masculine': they are human.

Outcome:

- At the end of the activity, students should be aware of stereotypes that limit emotional and behavioural expression and foster respect and empathy among peers.
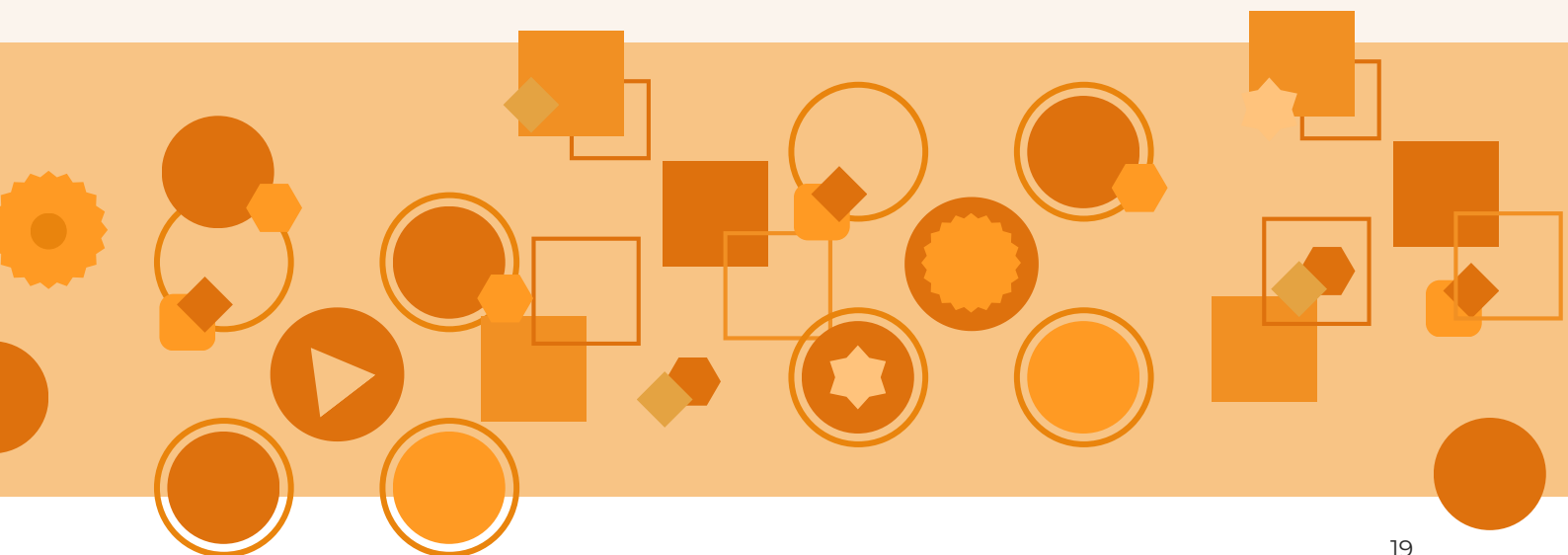
Activity 2: Understanding and respecting emotions

Objectives:

- To understand the influence of stereotypes on personality traits and emotions.

Duration:

- 45 min

Materials:

- Computer with internet access
- Projector
- Projection screen
- Padlet (online collaborative work tool)
- Post-it notes
- Pens
- Mobile phones (students)

Description:

- The teacher creates a padlet with three posts, each describing a scenario in an educational context, in which stereotypes related to personality traits and emotions are present. Examples of scenarios:

Scenario 1	Scenario 2	Scenario 3
During a football match at school, a boy falls, hurts himself and starts crying. A classmate says: "Stop crying, that's for girls. You have to be strong!". The boy feels ashamed and tries to hide his tears. Other classmates laugh and say: "You look like a girl".	A girl complains to a teacher because she considers the assessment of a test to be unfair. Her classmates comment: "She's being dramatic, she's always like that… girls are so emotional". The girl feels misunderstood and remains silent.	In a group project, a girl tries to organise the tasks. A boy interrupts and says: "Leave it, I'll take care of it. Girls don't know how to lead". Other members of the group agree and the girl ends up doing only secondary tasks.

Possible issues for exploration	Possible issues for exploration	Possible issues for exploration
What happened in this situation? What gender stereotype is present? How did the boy feel? And his classmates? What consequences could this attitude have in the future? How would this situation be without the stereotype? What alternative phrases could we use to support the boy?	Why was her reaction considered 'exaggerated'? How can this type of comment affect self-esteem and confidence? If it were a boy complaining, would the reaction be the same? Why? What other examples of this stereotype do you know? How can we react in a way that supports rather than devalues?	What idea about gender is present in this situation? Did her classmates react? Should they have reacted? How? What examples of female leaders do you know (at school, in society)? How would this situation be without the stereotype?

During the session:

- At the beginning of the session, the teacher explains the activity and provides the QR code to access the padlet, and distributes the scenarios among the groups (there should be at least two groups analysing the same scenario).

- Each group analyses a scenario considering the questions (What stereotype is present? How might this phrase affect those who hear it? What other phrase would be fairer?) and, for each one, creates a single record (answer) that includes the answers to the three guiding questions.

- The teacher then projects the padlet so that the groups can present their analysis of each scenario and asks some questions to deepen the critical analysis of each scenario (see table).

In mediating this sharing, the teacher should: validate emotions when students share personal situations, reinforcing the importance of feeling and expressing emotions; question generalisations through questions (e.g. use questions such as: "Are all boys like that?", "Can't girls lead? Do you know of any examples to the contrary?"). If there are prejudiced comments, intervene firmly and respectfully, explaining the impact.

To close the session, the teacher distributes post-it notes for students to write down positive phrases that counter stereotypes (Examples: "Emotions have no gender", "Crying is human", "Everyone can be a leader", "Everyone feels fear sometimes", "It is not gender that determines right or wrong behaviour").

Outcome:

- At the end of the activity, students should be able to recognize behavioural and emotional stereotypes in everyday actions and be able to act positively on them.

2.4 REFERENCES

Barrett, L. F., Lewis, M., & Haviland-Jones, J. M. (Eds.). (2016). Handbook of emotions (4th ed.). Guilford Press.

Golombok, S., & Fivush, R. (1994). Gender development. Cambridge University Press.

Eliot, L. (2009). Pink brain, blue brain: How small differences grow into troublesome gaps and what we can do about It. Houghton Mifflin Harcourt.

Salih, S. (2007). On Judith Butler and performativity. In K. E. Lovaas & M. M. Jenkins (Eds.), Sexualities and communication in everyday life: A reader (pp. 55–68). SAGE.

Smith, E. R., & MacKie, D. M. (2008). Intergroup emotions. In M. Lewis, J. M. Haviland-Jones, & L. F. Barret (Eds.), Handbook of emotions (3rd ed., pp. 428-439). The Guildford Press.

Spence, J. T. (1999). Thirty years of gender research: A personal chronicle. In W. B. Swann, J. H. Langlois, & L. A. Gilbert (Eds.), Sexism and stereotypes in modern society: The gender science of Janet Taylor Spence (pp. 255–289). American Psychological Association.

Timm, A. F., & Sanborn, J. A. (2007). Gender, sex and the shaping of modern Europe: A history from the French Revolution to the present day. Berg.

GIRLS PREFER ARTISTIC ACTIVITIES AS BOYS PREFER SPORTS

———

3.1 WHAT WE KNOW ABOUT THIS STEREOTYPE

The notion that girls gravitate toward artistic activities while boys lean toward sports has been a long-standing stereotype, rooted in cultural norms and socialization patterns. While not universally true, there is evidence to suggest that gender differences in activity preferences exist, shaped by a mix of biology, environment, and societal expectations.

From an early age, children are exposed to gendered expectations that influence their interests. Girls are often encouraged to engage in activities like drawing, painting, dancing, or music, which are perceived as nurturing or expressive. These activities align with societal views of femininity, emphasizing creativity, emotional expression, and aesthetics. Boys, on the other hand, are frequently steered toward sports, which are associated with physicality, competition, and strength—traits traditionally linked to masculinity. These patterns are reinforced through toys, media, and parental guidance. For example, girls might receive art kits or dolls, while boys are given balls or action figures, subtly shaping their preferences (Cherney & London, 2006).

Biological factors may also play a role. Studies suggest that boys, on average, have higher levels of testosterone, which can influence traits like aggression and physical energy, potentially drawing them to competitive sports (Hines, 2010). Girls, meanwhile, may show a slight predisposition toward activities requiring fine motor skills or verbal expression, such as writing or visual arts. However, these differences are not absolute, and individual variation is significant. Environmental factors often amplify these tendencies more than biology alone.

Socialization heavily influences these preferences. Schools, peers, and media often promote gendered activities, with girls being praised for artistic talents and boys for athletic prowess. This can create a feedback loop where children feel pressure to conform to expectations (Leaper, 2013). For instance, a girl who excels at soccer might face skepticism, while a boy interested in painting may be discouraged. Such pressures can limit self-expression and discourage exploration of non-traditional activities.

The implications of these preferences are profound. Artistic activities foster creativity, emotional intelligence, and patience, while sports build teamwork, discipline, and physical fitness. Both sets of skills are valuable, yet the gendered divide can restrict access to these benefits. A girl who avoids sports may miss out on physical confidence, while a boy who shuns art might lose opportunities for creative growth. Moreover, these stereotypes can influence career paths, with girls being nudged toward creative fields and boys toward athletic or technical ones, perpetuating gender gaps in professions (Eccles, 1993).

Challenging these stereotypes is crucial. Encouraging children to explore diverse activities—regardless of gender—promotes well-rounded development. Schools and parents can play a key role by offering equal access to art and sports programs and celebrating achievements in both. Highlighting role models who defy norms, like female athletes or male artists, can also inspire change. Ultimately, fostering an environment where girls and boys feel free to pursue their true interests, whether artistic, athletic, or both, benefits individuals and society by nurturing diverse talents and breaking down outdated barriers.

3.2 WHAT TEACHERS CAN LEARN ABOUT STEREOTYPE

To encourage mixes activities, to celebrate all achievements regardless Gender
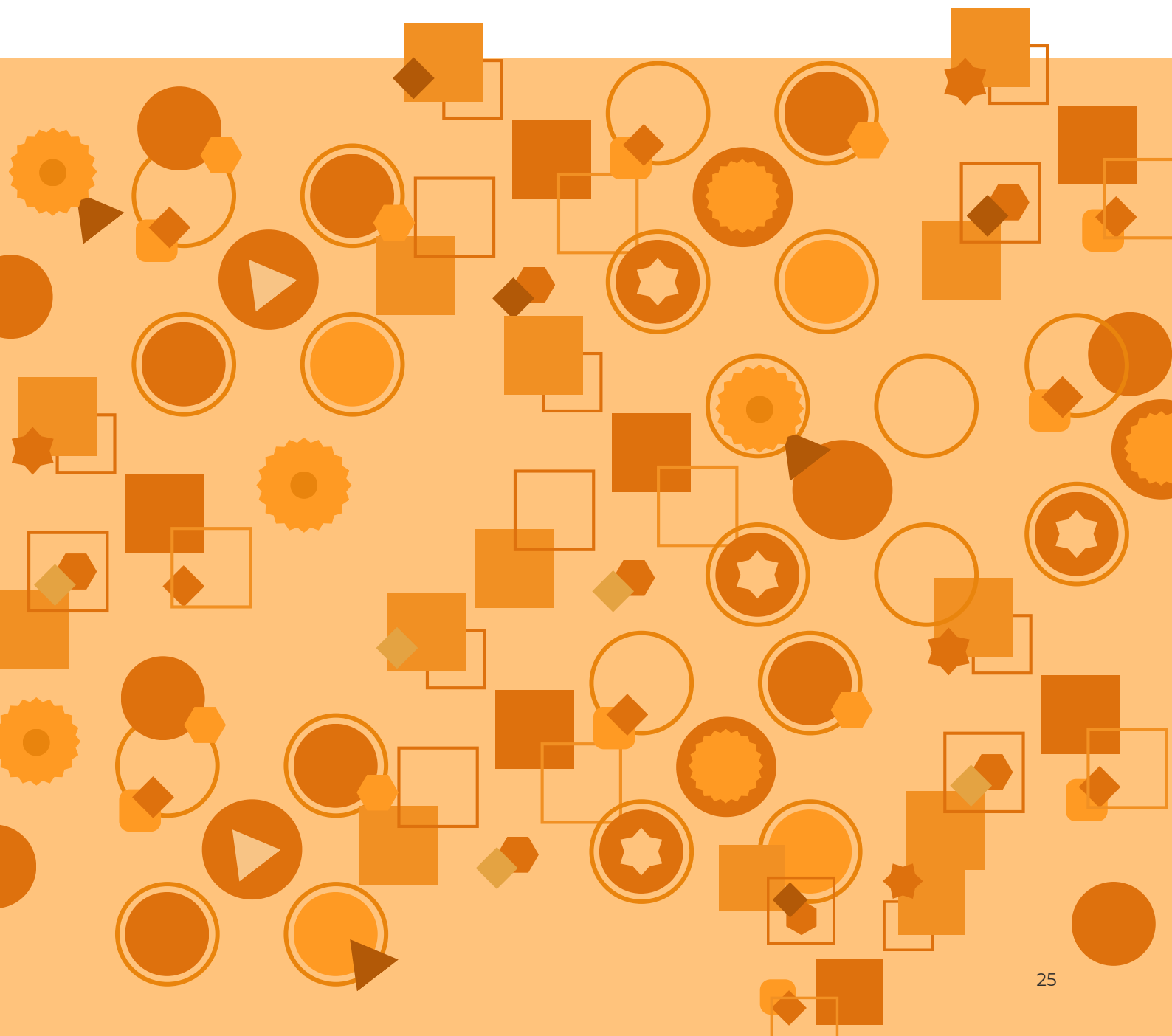
3.3 WHAT TEACHERS CAN DO TO LEARN ABOUT THE STEREOTYPE

Activity 1: Mixed-Skill Art and Movement Relay

Duration:

- 20-30 minutes.

Divide the training class into small, mixed-gender teams. Each team must complete a relay that combines artistic and physical tasks. For example, one student runs to a station to draw a quick sketch of a sports scene (e.g., a soccer goal), then tags a teammate who sprints to another station to mimic a dance move or pose from a sport. The relay alternates between creative tasks (drawing, designing a team logo) and physical tasks (jumping jacks, balancing). This activity blends art and physicality, showing that both are fun and accessible to everyone.

Activity 2: Understanding and respecting emotions

Duration:

- 30-40 minutes

Provide a large canvas or paper and art supplies. Ask the training class to work together to create a mural depicting various sports and artistic activities (e.g., a dancer and a basketball player side by side). Assign roles that mix skills: some students sketch, others paint, and some act out poses to inspire the artwork. Encourage discussion about how sports and art require similar qualities like discipline and creativity. This activity fosters teamwork and highlights the overlap between the two domains.

Activity 3: Improve Storytelling with Physical Challenges

Duration:

- 15-25 minutes

In small groups, teachers create a short story through improvisation, with each student adding a sentence or action. To incorporate physicality, include prompts that require light movement, such as acting out a scene (e.g., scoring a goal or painting a masterpiece). For example, a story might involve a character who paints a mural then joins a soccer game. Rotate roles so everyone tries both creative storytelling and physical expression. This encourages teachrers to see both as interconnected and gender-neutral.

3.4 REFERENCES

Cherney, I. D., & London, K. (2006). Gender-linked differences in the toys, television shows, computer games, and outdoor activities of 5- to 13-year-old children. Sex Roles, 54(9-10), 717-726.

Eccles, J. S. (1993). School and family effects on the ontogeny of children's interests, self-perceptions, and activity choices. Developmental Psychology, 29(2), 183-193.

Hines, M. (2010). Sex-related variation in human behavior and the brain. Trends in Cognitive Sciences, 14(10), 448-456.

Leaper, C. (2013). Gender development during childhood. In Handbook of Child Psychology and Developmental Science (pp. 1-48). Wiley.

Boys are more interested in technology and girls are more interested in literature

———

4.1 WHAT WE KNOW ABOUT THiS STEREOTYPE

The stereotype that boys are more interested in technology and girls are more interested in literature has been a pervasive narrative in many societies. This assumption, rooted in historical gender roles and socialization patterns, suggests that boys naturally gravitate toward technical, analytical fields like engineering, coding, or computer science, while girls are drawn to expressive, emotive disciplines such as literature, poetry, or the humanities. While this stereotype may reflect some observed trends, it oversimplifies the complex interplay of biology, culture, and individual preference, often limiting opportunities and perpetuating inequality.

Historically, societal norms have shaped these gendered expectations. From an early age, boys are often encouraged to engage with mechanical toys, video games, or science kits, fostering an affinity for technology (Cheryan et al., 2017). Girls, on the other hand, are frequently steered toward activities like reading, writing, or arts, which are perceived as nurturing or creative (Eccles et al., 1990). These early experiences create feedback loops, where exposure reinforces interest, and lack of exposure diminishes it. For example, studies show that boys are more likely to receive computers or technical gadgets as gifts, while girls receive books or art supplies, subtly reinforcing the stereotype (Margolis & Fisher, 2002).

However, research challenges the idea that these interests are inherently gendered. Cognitive studies indicate no significant gender-based differences in aptitude for technology or literature (Hyde, 2005). Instead, social factors, such as parental expectations, teacher biases, and media portrayals, heavily influence children's interests. For instance, the lack of female role models in STEM (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics) fields can discourage girls from pursuing technology, while boys face less societal pressure to explore literature due to its perceived "feminine" connotations (Riegle-Crumb et al., 2011).

The consequences of this stereotype are far-reaching. In education, girls are underrepresented in STEM programs, with only 28% of women in technology-related fields globally (UNESCO, 2019). Conversely, men are less likely to major in humanities, with women comprising nearly 60% of literature graduates in Western universities (NCES, 2020). These disparities limit career opportunities and reinforce economic imbalances. Moreover, the stereotype ignores individuals who defy it—boys who excel in poetry or girls who thrive in coding—stifling their potential and perpetuating a cycle of exclusion.

Breaking this stereotype requires systemic change. Encouraging gender-neutral exposure to both technology and literature from a young age, promoting diverse role models, and challenging biased media portrayals can help. Programs like Girls Who Code and initiatives to engage boys in creative writing are steps toward dismantling these assumptions. By fostering an environment where interests are driven by curiosity rather than gender, society can move beyond outdated stereotypes, allowing individuals to pursue their passions freely.

4.2 WHAT TEACHERS CAN LEARN ABOUT STEREOTYPE

Dismantle their own stereotypes about gender-oriented interests, to propose mixed activities either in Technology or in Literature, to work on their training material.

4.3 WHAT TEACHERS CAN DO TO LEARN ABOUT THE STEREOTYPE

Activity 1: Role Model Research and Presentation

Objectives:

- Expose teachers to diverse role models who defy gender stereotypes in technology and literature.

Duration:

- 60 minutes

Activity:

1. Divide the training class into small groups and assign each group a notable figure who defies the stereotype (e.g., Ada Lovelace for technology, Ernest Hemingway for literature).

2. Teachers research their figure's contributions, focusing on how they pursued their passion despite societal expectations (20 minutes).

3. Groups create a short presentation or poster summarizing their findings (20 minutes).

4. Each group presents to the class (20 minutes), followed by a discussion on how these figures challenge stereotypes.

Materials:

- Computers/tablets, internet access, projector, poster boards, markers.

Outcome:

- Teacher recognize that men and women excel in both fields, reducing gendered assumptions about interests.

Activity 2: Gender Stereotype Debate

Objectives:

- Encourage critical thinking about gender stereotypes and their impact.

Duration:

- 45 minutes

Activity:

- Pose the statement: "Boys are naturally better at technology, and girls are naturally better at literature." Divide the training class into two groups: one argues for, one against (regardless of their personal beliefs). Conduct a structured debate with 5-minute opening statements, 10-minute rebuttals, and 5-minute conclusions (20 minutes).Debrief with a class discussion on how stereotypes are formed and their real-world effects, (15 minutes).

Materials:

- Debate prompts, timer, whiteboard.

Outcome:

- Students critically analyze the stereotype, recognizing its social roots rather than biological basis.

Activity 3: Gender Scape -Digital Escape Game

Objectives:

- Rethink educational practice and deconstruct gender stereotypes in society https://monunivr.univ-rouen.fr/course/view.php?id=1277 (it will be activated on August 2025)

Duration:

- 35 minutes

Activity:

- Teachers have to respond to questions about gender stereotypes in education and in society and about their educational practice. A feedback is proposed by the the ressource. A joint briefing can be organized to discuss the suggested questions and the associated prejudices.

Materials:

- Smartphone, Tablet or PC.

4.4 REFERENCES

Cheryan, S., Ziegler, S. A., Montoya, A. K., & Jiang, L. (2017). Why are some STEM fields more gender balanced than others? Psychological Bulletin, 143(1), 1-35.

Eccles, J. S., Jacobs, J. E., & Harold, R. D. (1990). Gender role stereotypes, expectancy effects, and parents' socialization of gender differences. Journal of Social Issues, 46(2), 183-201.

Hyde, J. S. (2005). The gender similarities hypothesis. American Psychologist, 60(6), 581-592.

Margolis, J., & Fisher, A. (2002). Unlocking the Clubhouse: Women in Computing. MIT Press.

National Center for Education Statistics (NCES). (2020). Digest of Education Statistics. U.S. Department of Education.

Riegle-Crumb, C., King, B., Grodsky, E., & Muller, C. (2011). The more things change, the more they stay the same? Prior achievement and gender in high school STEM course enrollment. Sociology of Education, 84(4), 310-328.

UNESCO. (2019). Cracking the Code: Girls' and Women's Education in STEM. UNESCO Publishing.

5

Boys are better at science, technology, engineering and maths, and girls are better at educational and social areas

———

5.1 WHAT WE KNOW ABOUT THIS STEREOTYPE

The commonly held belief that boys are better at science, technology, engineering and mathematics, while girls are better suited to education, healthcare and social support professions, is a well-known gender-based work-stereotype, confirmed by literature (Diez et al., 2022).

Various causes and explanations may contribute to understanding these results, either external or internal to the students. Social expectations and cultural norms, for example, shape self-stereotypes and influence career decisions (Obioma et al., 2025). Internally, the perception of lack of fit, according to the lack of fit model, makes students feel more inadequate in subjects whose stereotype affirms the superiority of the other gender, reducing their sense of belonging and leading to less commitment, intention to persist and likelihood of choosing a career in that area. These assumptions were confirmed in studies carried out in secondary education, which showed that, faced with a subject perceived as masculine, girls decided not to pursue a career in that area, unlike boys, who perceived themselves as adjusted and contemplated the possibility of pursuing a career in that area (Leopold et al., 2025). Even when both boys and girls consider studying STEM subjects, they give different reasons for it. Some of the most distinctive reasons reflect an appreciation of different aspects. For example, boys are much more likely to mention 'earning a lot of money', while girls emphasize 'helping others' and 'improving society' (Merayo & Ayuso, 2022). These results highlight the impact of stereotypes in higher education and their effect on career choice.

In terms of performance, the 2015 PISA Report assessed pupils' performance in fundamental skills such as reading, mathematics and science. It was observed that, in general, boys' intraindividual strength in science was larger than in girls, and girls' intraindividual strength in reading was larger than in boys. However, when comparing boys and girls, girls performed at similar or higher levels than boys in science literacy tests in most countries. Analysis of this data suggested that a considerably higher percentage of girls enjoyed studying STEM subjects than went on to major in these subjects. Fewer girls than boys obtained higher academic degrees in STEM subjects, indicating a loss of female talent in these subjects from secondary to higher education (Stoet & Geary, 2018).

Another study, examining the relationship between science ability in different subjects (physics, chemistry, biology, and geography) and gender, concluded that there were no differences in test performance between boys and girls. However, girls exhibited more subject-specific anxiety, perceived the tests as more difficult, and took longer to complete them (Rozgonjuk et al., 2024).

5.2 WHAT TEACHERS CAN LEARN ABOUT STEREOTYPE

To be aware that despite boys choosing more STEM careers, there are no differences in academic performance between boys and girls in these areas, and this must be explained and demonstrated to students.

Note: In our literature review, we found no studies examining this stereotype from the opposite perspective, i.e. comparing girls and boys in areas where girls are supposedly stronger.

5.3 WHAT TEACHERS CAN DO TO LEARN ABOUT THE STEREOTYPE

Activity 1: Why do I choose this profession?

Objectives:

- To identify and understand students' main motivations, feelings and expectations when considering a higher education course and a career.

Duration:

- 3 sessions of 1/2h and 3 sessions of 2h each

Materials:

- a set of 9 cards with names of professions chosen by students (e.g. teacher, doctor, agricultural engineer, philosopher, mathematician, psychologist, nurse, etc.);;
- 1 card saying "characterize this profession";
- 1 card saying "internal arguments to choose this profession" (e.g., it's a well-respected profession);
- 1 card saying "external arguments to choose this profession" (e.g., "it's meaningful to me because I can help other people");
- 1 card saying "internal arguments not to choose this profession" (e.g.., "it's a men's/women's job);
- 1 card saying "external arguments not to choose this profession" (e.g., "it will be difficult to find a job");
- 3 cards saying "emotional argument";
- 3 cards saying "rational argument";
- 3 cars saying "gender-based stereotype argument".

Description:

- **Session 1:** Ask students to identify professions, regardless of their preferences. Choose nine of them (using an argument of frequency, relevance, etc.) and build one similar card identifying each one of those 9 professions.

- **Sessions 2, 3, and 4:** In each session, the teacher puts 3 cards of professions and all the other cards mixed, on the table with the written faces down. Each student draws a card. The first to play is the one with the name of the profession, then one with "characterize this profession", then the ones with argument requests (external / internal / to choose / not to choose). Each time one argument is presented, those who have the cards "Emotional", "rational", and "gender-based stereotype argument" can use it against the referred argument, explaining why they consider it that way.

- Each profession can be discussed for 35 minutes. Each profession can be discussed for 35 minutes. The last 15 minutes will be used to summarize and conclude the exercise.

Outcome:

- At the end of the activity, students should be able to recognize the validity of the arguments and when gender-based stereotypes have been used.

Activity 2: Influencers on career decisions

Objectives:

- To understand who/what the main influence sources are in students' decisions when considering their future academic choices.

Duration:

- 2 hours.

Materials:

- PC or Smartphone, Kahoot! App (for teacher and students), video projector.

Description:

- The teacher creates a learning game at Kahoot! App (with a teacher profile), inserting a set of potential influencers in the students' choice of secondary and higher education (parents, teachers, friends, role models, online media, print media, social networks, other (which one?); Hassan et al., 2022). He then asks the students to rank these influencers according to the degree of influence they perceive each of them has.

- After everyone has answered and the answers have appeared on the whiteboard, the teacher leads the session with questions for the students (e.g. why did you choose this option in the first place? why do you think this source is important in guiding your choice? Do you think all these sources are credible or could they influence your decision based on biased data? Which of these sources might be more subject to gender stereotypes? etc.)

Outcome:

- At the end of the activity, students should be able to critically reflect on how different sources can contain implicit stereotypes that can unreasonably bias their choices.

5.4 REFERENCES

Diez, J.L., Ramos, A., & Candela, C. (2023). Static and dynamic assessment of STEM gender stereotypes in secondary education using a novel cluster-based analysis. International Journal of Technology and Design Education,33, 749-774. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10798-022-09746-1

Hassan, M., Luo, Y., Gu, J., Mushtaque, I., & Rizwan, M. (2022). Investigating the parental and media influence on gender stereotypes and young student's career choices in Pakistan. Frontiers in Psychology, 13, e890680. https://doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2022.890680
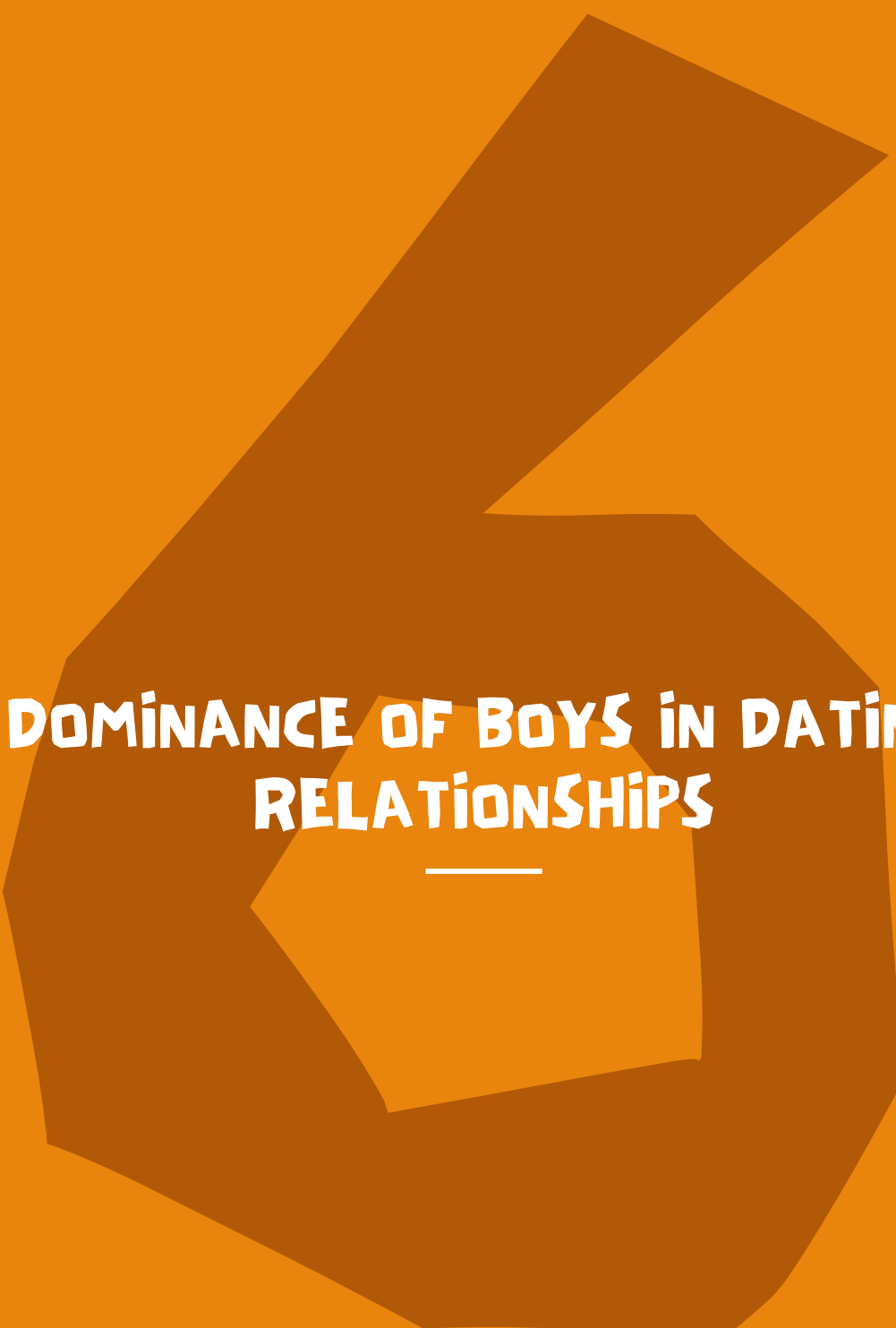
Leopold, A., Schilz, K., Burkard, A., Köller, M. M., Renger, D. (2025). The lack of fit framework in school: girl's perceived misfit and its consequences in a male-stereotype discipline. Social Psychology of Education, 28(1), 138. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11218-025-10094-w

Merayo, N., & Ayuso, A. (2022). Analysis of barriers, supports and gender gap in the choice of STEM studies in secondary education. International Journal of Technology and Design Education, 2, 1-18. https:// doi.org/10.1007/s10798-022-09776-9

Obioma, I. F., Merve, N. S., Rumeli, Y., van Dick, R., & Bark, A. S. H. (2025). Gender, self-stereotyping, and life goals predict career interest in Germany, Nigeria, and Turkey. Sex Roles, 91, 39. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-025-01579-1

Rozgonjuk, D., Täht, K., Soobard, R., Teppo, M., & Rannikmäe, M. (2024). The S in STEM: gender differences in science anxiety and its relations with science test performance-related variables. International Journal of STEM Education, 11, 45. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40594-024-00504-4

Stoet, G., & Geary, D. C. (2018). The gender-equality paradox in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics education. Psychological Science, 29, 581–593. https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797617741719

Dominance of Boys in Dating Relationships

———

6.1 WHAT WE KNOW ABOUT THIS STEREOTYPE

The stereotype that boys dominate dating relationships, controlling their partners' behavior, attitudes, and decisions, has persisted across cultures and generations. This perception often stems from traditional gender norms that position men as authoritative figures in romantic partnerships. While societal shifts have challenged these dynamics, the stereotype remains prevalent, influencing expectations and behaviors in modern relationships.

Historically, patriarchal structures have reinforced the notion of male dominance in relationships. Traditional gender roles, rooted in economic and social systems, placed men as providers and decision-makers, while women were expected to be submissive and nurturing. These norms shaped dating practices, where boys were often seen as initiators—asking for dates, setting terms, and guiding relationship progression. For example, mid-20th-century Western dating culture emphasized male agency, with societal scripts dictating that men lead in courtship. This historical context contributes to the stereotype, as it frames male dominance as a natural extension of masculinity.

Psychologically, the stereotype can influence behavior through self-fulfilling prophecies. Boys may feel pressured to adopt dominant roles to align with societal expectations of masculinity, such as being assertive or controlling. Studies, like those by Archer and Coyne (2013), suggest that media portrayals of romantic relationships often reinforce these dynamics, depicting men as decisive and women as passive. Such representations can normalize controlling behaviors, subtly encouraging boys to exert influence over their partners' choices, from appearance to social interactions.

The stereotype also intersects with power dynamics in adolescent relationships. During teenage years, when dating often begins, boys may exhibit dominance to assert status among peers or to mirror observed behaviors. Research by Foshee et al. (2004) indicates that adolescent boys sometimes use controlling tactics, such as monitoring a partner's whereabouts, due to insecurity or societal cues equating control with strength. However, this behavior is not universal, and many boys reject these norms, favoring egalitarian relationships. The stereotype oversimplifies diverse relationship dynamics, ignoring cultural, individual, and contextual variations.

The implications of this stereotype are significant. It can pressure boys into roles that stifle emotional vulnerability, while girls may feel constrained to conform to passive roles, limiting their agency. Moreover, it can obscure instances of mutual or female-led dynamics, marginalizing relationships that defy traditional norms. Addressing this stereotype requires education on healthy relationships and challenging media portrayals that glorify male dominance.

In conclusion, while the stereotype of boys' dominance in dating relationships reflects historical and cultural influences, it fails to capture the complexity of modern partnerships. Promoting egalitarian values and critical media literacy can help dismantle this outdated narrative, fostering healthier dynamics for all genders.

6.2 WHAT TEACHERS CAN LEARN ABOUT STEREOTYPE

To foster awareness, promote healthy relationship dynamics, and challenge traditional gender norms.

6.3 WHAT TEACHERS CAN DO TO LEARN ABOUT THE STEREOTYPE

Activity 1: Workshop on Healthy Relationships

Duration:

- 60 minutes.

Materials:

- Handouts with scenarios, whiteboard, markers.

Description:

- **Introduction (10 min):** Facilitators present statistics and scenarios about dating dynamics, highlighting signs of control (e.g., monitoring a partner's phone) versus mutual respect.
- **Group Discussion (20 min):** Teachers analyze real-life scenarios in small groups, identifying controlling behaviors and proposing egalitarian alternatives. Scenarios might include a boy pressuring a partner to change their appearance or a girl asserting equal decision-making in planning dates.

- **Role-Play (20 min):** Pairs act out revised scenarios, practicing communication skills like active listening and mutual compromise.
- **Reflection (10 min):** Discuss how societal expectations (e.g., media portrayals) influence perceptions of dominance and how to challenge them.
- **Materials:** Handouts with scenarios, whiteboard, markers.

Outcome:

- Participants recognize controlling behaviors and practice respectful communication, countering the stereotype.

Activity 2: Community Awareness Event

Objective:

- Engage the broader community in rejecting the stereotype through interactive learning.

Target Group:

- Parents, educators, and teens.

Duration:

- 2 hours.

Description:

- **Panel Discussion (30 min):** Experts (e.g., psychologists, educators) discuss the impact of the stereotype on youth and share research, such as Foshee et al. (2004), on adolescent dating dynamics.
- **Interactive Booths (60 min):** Stations include activities like a "Myth vs. Fact" quiz on relationship dynamics, a pledge wall for committing to equality, and a booth for creating art that celebrates mutual respect.
- **Closing Reflection (30 min):** Attendees share insights and discuss ways to promote healthy relationships in their community.
- **Materials:** Booth supplies, quiz sheets, pledge cards.

Outcome:

- Community members gain awareness and tools to challenge the stereotype collectively.
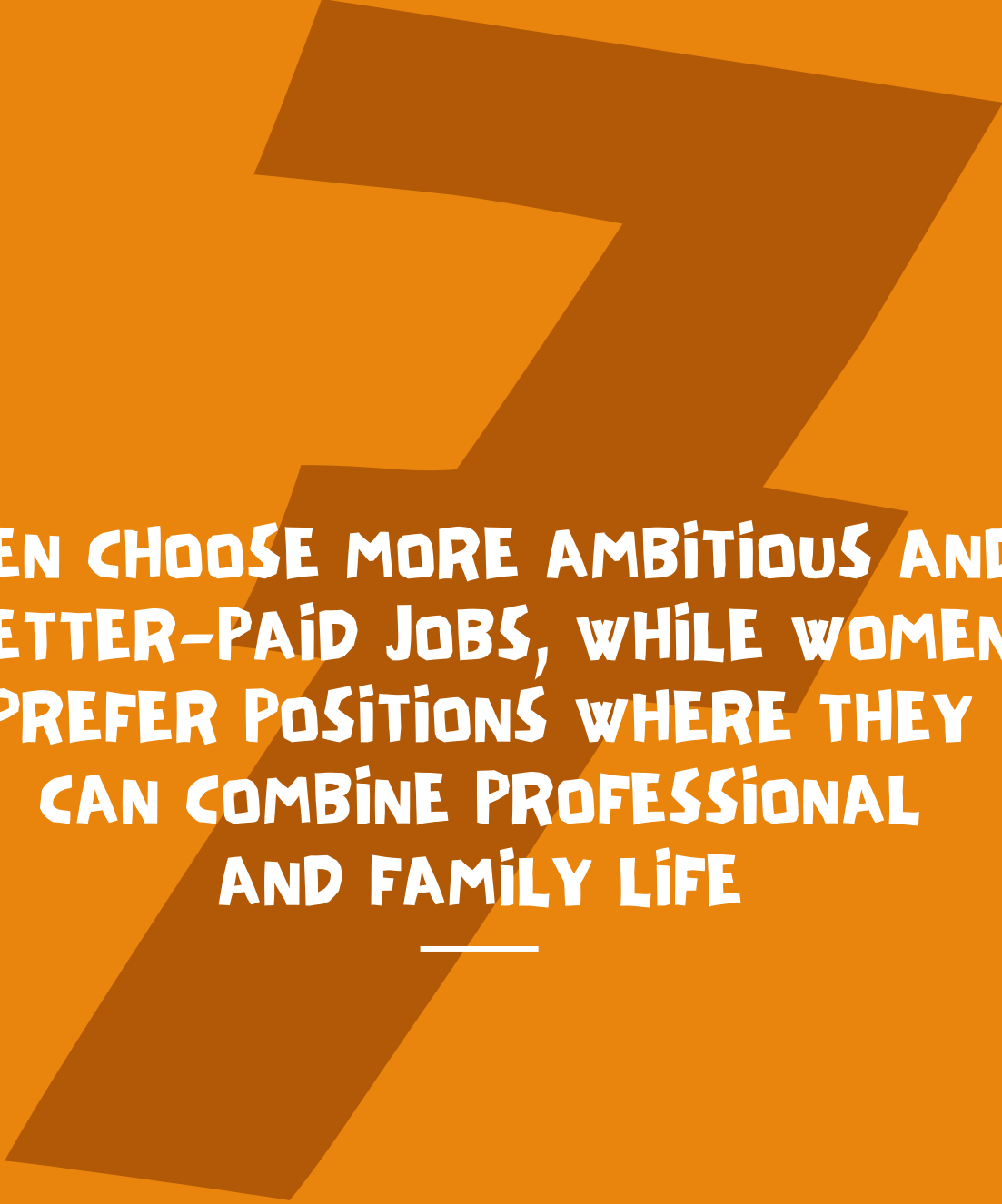
6.4 REFERENCES

Archer, J., & Coyne, S. M. (2013). "An Integrated Review of Indirect, Relational, and Social Aggression." Personality and Social Psychology Review, 17(3), 248–268.

Eaton, A. A., & Matamala, A. (2014). "The Relationship Between Gender Role Beliefs and Adolescent Dating Behaviors." Journal of Adolescent Research, 29(5), 614–639.

Foshee, V. A., Linder, F., MacDougall, J. E., & Bangdiwala, S. (2004). "Gender Differences in the Longitudinal Predictors of Adolescent Dating Violence." Preventive Medicine, 39(6), 1285–1293.

MEN CHOOSE MORE AMBITIOUS AND BETTER-PAID JOBS, WHILE WOMEN PREFER POSITIONS WHERE THEY CAN COMBINE PROFESSIONAL AND FAMILY LIFE

7.1 WHAT WE KNOW ABOUT THIS STEREOTYPE

The stereotype that men choose more ambitious and better-paid jobs while women prefer positions allowing them to balance professional and family life is deeply ingrained in societal perceptions. This assumption suggests men prioritize high-earning, high-status careers in fields like finance, technology, or executive leadership, driven by ambition and financial success. Conversely, women are often seen as favoring roles in education, healthcare, or part-time work that accommodate family responsibilities. While some career choices may align with these patterns, the stereotype oversimplifies individual motivations and ignores structural factors that shape these decisions.

Historically, gender roles have influenced career paths. Traditional expectations placed men as primary breadwinners, pushing them toward lucrative, demanding roles, while women were often relegated to domestic duties or "nurturing" professions (Eagly & Steffen, 1984). These norms persist in modern workplaces, where men are more likely to be encouraged to pursue leadership roles, while women face pressure to prioritize family over career advancement (Ridgeway, 2011). For example, studies show that women are overrepresented in lower-paying fields like teaching (59% of U.S. teachers are women) and underrepresented in high-paying STEM roles (28% women) (BLS, 2023; UNESCO, 2019).

However, this stereotype does not fully reflect reality. Research indicates that women are equally ambitious as men when given equitable opportunities (Ely et al., 2014). The gender pay gap—women earn 82 cents for every dollar earned by men in the U.S.—is often less about ambition and more about systemic barriers like discrimination, occupational segregation, and unequal childcare responsibilities (Blau & Kahn, 2017). Women are more likely to take on caregiving roles, with 60% of U.S. mothers reducing work hours post-childbirth compared to 10% of fathers (Pew Research, 2020). These choices are often pragmatic, driven by societal expectations and lack of supportive policies like paid parental leave.

The stereotype also harms men, who may feel pressured to prioritize income over personal fulfillment or family involvement. Men report lower job satisfaction when societal norms discourage them from pursuing flexible or less lucrative roles (Coltrane, 2000). Meanwhile, women who choose high-powered careers often face criticism for neglecting family duties, reinforcing the double bind of gendered expectations (Slaughter, 2012).

Challenging this stereotype requires addressing structural inequalities. Policies like universal childcare, flexible work arrangements, and equitable parental leave can reduce the burden on women to prioritize family over career. Encouraging men to engage in caregiving and promoting women in leadership roles can also shift perceptions. By valuing diverse career paths and dismantling systemic barriers, society can enable both men and women to pursue jobs based on individual goals rather than gendered assumptions.

7.2 WHAT TEACHERS CAN LEARN ABOUT STEREOTYPE

Teachers competencies to develop:

- To understand how professional life gender stereotypes were constructed

- To understand that law encourages the same participation of men and women in professional life

7.3 WHAT TEACHERS CAN DO TO LEARN ABOUT THE STEREOTYPE

Activity 1: Role-Playing Debate

Objective:

- Encourage critical analysis of societal pressures shaping career choices.

Activity:

- Divide students into groups to debate statements like "Men are naturally drawn to high-paying careers" or "Women prioritize family over ambition." Assign roles (e.g., advocate, skeptic) to challenge assumptions. Provide data showing occupational gender segregation and discuss underlying factors like discrimination or socialization.

Outcome:

- Teachers develop arguments against stereotypes, learning to question oversimplified narratives.

Activity 2: Gender Norms in Media Analysis

Objectives:

- Identify how media reinforces gendered career stereotypes.

Activity:

- Have students analyze advertisements, TV shows, or movies for portrayals of men and women in professional roles. For example, are men shown as CEOs and women as teachers? Students present findings in small groups, discussing how media shapes perceptions of ambition and work-life balance. Follow with a discussion on how these portrayals influence their own career aspirations.

Materials:

- Video projector, paper, pens.

Outcome:

- Students recognize media's role in perpetuating stereotypes and reflect on its impact on their choices.

Activity 3: Work Life Balance Policy Simulation

Objectives:

- Highlight systemic factors affecting career choices.

Activity:

- Teachers role-play as HR managers designing workplace policies (e.g., parental leave, flexible hours) to support all employees. They research real-world policies (e.g., OECD, 2021) and propose solutions to reduce the "motherhood penalty". Discuss how equitable policies benefit both genders.

Outcome:

- Students understand how structural changes can reduce gendered career disparities.

7.4 REFERENCES

Blau, F. D., and Lawrence M. K. (2017). The Gender Wage Gap: Extent, Trends, and Explanations. Journal of Economic Literature 55 (3): 789–865.

Coltrane, S. (2000). Research on household labor: Modeling and measuring the social embeddedness of routine family work. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 62(4), 1208–1233. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-3737.2000.01208.x

Eagly, A. H., & Steffen, V. J. (1984). Gender stereotypes stem from the distribution of women and men into social roles. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 46(4), 735–754. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.46.4.735

Ely, R., Stone, P. & Ammerman, C. (2014). Rethink What You 'Know' about High-Achieving Women. Harvard Business Review, 92(12),101-109.

Ridgeway, C. (2011). Framed by Gender: How Gender Inequality Persists in the Modern World. https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780199755776.001.0001

Slaughter, A-M. (2012). Why Women Still Can't Have It All. The Atlantic, 310.

UNESCO (2019). Global education monitoring report, 2019: Migration, displacement and education: building bridges, not walls. https://doi.org/10.54676/XDZD4287

MEN ARE MORE VALORISED IN PROFESSIONAL LIFE

———

8.1 What we know about this stereotype

The stereotype that men are more valorized in professional life reflects longstanding societal beliefs about gender roles, where men are often perceived as more competent, authoritative, or deserving of recognition in workplace settings. This perception stems from historical norms that positioned men as primary breadwinners and leaders, while women were relegated to domestic or supportive roles. While progress toward gender equality has been made, evidence suggests that this stereotype persists, influencing hiring, promotions, and workplace dynamics.

Empirical data highlights disparities in how men and women are valued professionally. A 2023 study by the Pew Research Center found that men are more likely to be promoted to leadership roles, with 60% of C-suite positions in Fortune 500 companies held by men despite women comprising nearly half the workforce. This gap is partly attributed to biases that associate leadership traits—such as decisiveness or ambition—with masculinity (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Performance evaluations also reflect this bias: a 2021 meta-analysis by Joshi et al. showed that men receive higher ratings for similar performance levels compared to women, particularly in male-dominated fields like finance or technology.

The stereotype is further reinforced by the "glass ceiling" phenomenon, where women face invisible barriers to advancement. Heilman (2012) argues that stereotypes about men's competence in high-stakes roles create a "think leader, think male" bias, undervaluing women's contributions. For example, women in STEM fields are often perceived as less technically proficient, despite equivalent qualifications (Moss-Racusin et al., 2018). This bias extends to salary disparities: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2023) data shows that women earn 82 cents for every dollar earned by men, even when controlling for occupation and experience.

Cultural and organizational factors perpetuate this stereotype. Men are often rewarded for assertive behaviors, while women exhibiting similar traits may be labeled as "aggressive" or "unlikeable" (Rudman & Glick, 2001). Additionally, men benefit from informal networks and mentorship opportunities that enhance visibility and career progression, whereas women are less likely to access such networks (Ibarra, 1993). These dynamics create a feedback loop, where men's contributions are more visible and thus more valorized.

However, challenges to this stereotype are emerging. Women are increasingly recognized for their leadership in collaborative and transformational styles, which are valued in modern workplaces (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Initiatives like diversity training and equitable promotion policies are reducing bias, though progress is uneven. Moreover, younger generations are advocating for inclusive workplaces, with a 2022 Gallup poll showing 65% of Gen Z workers prioritizing equitable treatment over traditional markers of success.

In conclusion, the stereotype that men are more valorized in professional life reflects systemic biases in evaluation, promotion, and compensation. While structural and cultural changes are beginning to challenge this notion, sustained efforts in policy reform and cultural shifts are needed to ensure equal recognition for all genders.

8.2 WHAT TEACHERS CAN LEARN ABOUT STEREOTYPE

To understand that men and women have equal opportunities in professional life, to understand that they have to provide an equal professional orientation for boys and girls.

8.3 WHAT TEACHERS CAN DO TO LEARN ABOUT THE STEREOTYPE

Activity 1: Data-Driven Research Project

Objective:

- Use evidence to critically analyze the stereotype.

Activity:

- In small groups, participants research the gender pay gap, promotion rates, or leadership representation in a specific industry (e.g., tech or healthcare). Provide access to resources like the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics or Harvard Business Review articles. Groups present their findings in a 10-minute presentation, addressing how data supports or refutes the stereotype and proposing solutions like mentorship programs.

Outcome:

- Participants gain analytical skills and evidence-based insights into workplace inequities.

Activity 2: Action Plan Development

Objective:

- Empower participants to create change in professional environments.

Duration:

- 90 minutes

Activity:

- Participants collaborate in teams to design an action plan for a workplace or school setting to combat the stereotype. Plans might include diversity training, equitable hiring practices, or awareness campaigns. Teams present their plans to the group, receiving feedback. Provide templates based on real-world diversity initiatives.

Outcome:

- Practical strategies to promote gender equity in professional settings.

8.4 REFERENCES

Eagly, A. H., & Carli, L. L. (2007). Through the Labyrinth: The Truth About How Women Become Leaders. Harvard Business Review Press.

Heilman, M. E. (2012). Gender stereotypes and workplace bias. Research in Organizational Behavior, 32, 113-135.

Ibarra, H. (1993). Personal networks of women and minorities in management: A conceptual framework. Academy of Management Review, 18(1), 56-87.

Joshi, A., Son, J., & Roh, H. (2021). When does gender bias affect performance evaluations? A meta-analysis. Journal of Applied Psychology, 106(3), 381-398.

Moss-Racusin, C. A., et al. (2018). Gender bias in STEM: An examination of faculty evaluations. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 115(19), 4878-4883.

Pew Research Center. (2023). Gender and Leadership in Corporate America. Pew Research.

Rudman, L. A., & Glick, P. (2001). Prescriptive gender stereotypes and backlash toward agentic women. Journal of Social Issues, 57(4), 743-762.

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2023). Earnings and Employment by Occupation, Gender, and Race. U.S. Department of Labor.

WOMEN ARE RESPONSIBLE FOR THEIR CHILDREN'S SCHOOL PROGRESS

9.1 what we know about this stereotype

The stereotype that women are primarily responsible for their children's school progress reflects deeply rooted gender norms that assign caregiving and educational oversight to mothers. This perception, prevalent across cultures, often places disproportionate pressure on women to manage academic performance, homework, and school-related activities, while fathers are less expected to engage.

Historically, gender roles within families have shaped this stereotype. In many societies, women were traditionally seen as primary caregivers, responsible for child-rearing and domestic tasks, while men focused on providing financially. This division of labor extended to education, with mothers often tasked with monitoring homework, attending parent-teacher conferences, and fostering academic success. For instance, studies like those by Reay (1998) highlight how mothers in the 20th century were more likely to engage with schools, reinforcing the expectation that they oversee educational outcomes. These norms persist in modern contexts, perpetuating the stereotype despite shifts toward shared parenting.

Sociologically, the stereotype is reinforced by cultural narratives and institutional practices. Schools often default to contacting mothers for academic or behavioral issues, assuming they are the primary point of contact. Research by Lareau (2000) notes that mothers are more likely to participate in school activities, such as volunteering or attending meetings, which reinforces perceptions of their responsibility. This dynamic can marginalize fathers' involvement and create an uneven burden on women, particularly working mothers who juggle professional and domestic demands.

The stereotype has significant implications. It places undue pressure on women, often leading to guilt or stress when children struggle academically. It also undervalues fathers' potential contributions, limiting their engagement in children's education. Psychologically, children may internalize gendered expectations, viewing mothers as the primary academic support and fathers as peripheral. Studies, such as those by Epstein (2010), suggest that balanced parental involvement benefits children's academic and emotional development, challenging the notion that mothers alone should bear this responsibility.

Critically, the stereotype is being challenged as gender roles evolve. Feminist movements and changing family structures, including single-parent households and same-sex parents, highlight the need for shared responsibility. Research by Doucet (2015) indicates that fathers are increasingly involved in educational tasks, particularly in dual-income families, though societal expectations still lean heavily on mothers. Educational policies promoting family engagement, rather than mother-centric involvement, are also helping to shift norms.

The stereotype's persistence can hinder equitable parenting and children's outcomes. Schools and communities can counter it by encouraging both parents' participation through inclusive communication and flexible scheduling for school events. Media representations of diverse family roles can also challenge traditional assumptions. Ultimately, dismantling this stereotype requires recognizing that children's school progress is a shared responsibility, not a gendered obligation.

In conclusion, the stereotype that women are solely responsible for their children's school progress reflects outdated norms but remains influential. Promoting shared parenting and inclusive educational practices can alleviate the burden on mothers and foster better outcomes for children.

9.2 WHAT TEACHERS CAN LEARN ABOUT STEREOTYPE

To promote share parenting practices, to develop communication skills with all genders.

9.3 WHAT TEACHERS CAN DO TO LEARN ABOUT THE STEREOTYPE

Activity 1: School Policy Advocacy

Objective:
- Promote systemic changes to support all caregivers' involvement.

Duration:
- Implementation in the school educational policy.

Activity:

- Parent-teacher associations can advocate for policies like flexible meeting times or virtual attendance options to accommodate diverse schedules. Schools can also create "Caregiver Ambassadors" programs, inviting all family members to volunteer in classrooms or extracurricular activities.

Implementation:

- Collect feedback from families to identify barriers to participation.
- Develop a school handbook emphasizing shared responsibility for academic support.

Impact:

- Reduces structural barriers, making involvement accessible to all.

Activity 2: Family Engagement Workshops

Objective:

- Encourage all caregivers, including fathers, grandparents, and guardians, to participate in children's education.

Activity:

- Schools can host workshops that teach practical ways to support academic progress, such as creating study routines or communicating with teachers. These sessions should explicitly invite all family members, using inclusive language to avoid gendered assumptions. Facilitators can share data showing that diverse caregiver involvement improves outcomes.

Implementation:

- Schedule workshops at varied times to accommodate working parents.
- Include role-playing scenarios where participants practice helping with homework or attending parent-teacher meetings.
- Provide take-home resources with tips for shared responsibilities, emphasizing teamwork among caregivers.

Impact:

- Normalizes the involvement of all family members, reducing the burden on mothers.

9.4 REFERENCES

Doucet, A. (2015). "Parental Responsibilities: Dilemmas of Measurement and Gender Equality." Journal of Marriage and Family, 77(1), 224–242.

Epstein, J. L. (2010). "School/Family/Community Partnerships: Caring for the Children We Share." Phi Delta Kappan, 92(3), 81–96.

Lareau, A. (2000). "Home Advantage: Social Class and Parental Intervention in Elementary Education." Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.

Reay, D. (1998). "Class Work: Mothers' Involvement in Their Children's Primary Schooling." UCL Press.

10

Sharing Household Chores

———

10.1 WHAT WE KNOW ABOUT THIS STEREOTYPE

Sharing household chores is a common challenge among couples and families, shaped by multiple social and personal factors. Despite significant progress toward gender equality, research indicates that household labor remains unevenly distributed, often reinforcing traditional gender roles. This imbalance can lead to conflicts, stress, and dissatisfaction within relationships, highlighting the importance of understanding the dynamics behind domestic responsibilities. Factors such as socio-economic status, cultural norms, time availability, and individual preferences all influence how chores are divided and perceived. Exploring these elements not only sheds light on the complexities of family life but also offers insights into promoting fairness and harmony in the home.

Historically, domestic work has been perceived as women's responsibility, a notion deeply rooted in patriarchal traditions. Although many women have entered the workforce, studies show that they still perform a disproportionate share of household tasks compared to men (Pailhé & Solaz, 2024; Vikram, Ganguly & Goly, 2024). They tend to perform more tasks and spend more time on domestic work. Boys, on the other hand, are more likely to engage in leisure activities and school-related tasks.

The impact of family structure is also important. The presence of siblings and the roles of parents influence the division of chores. Children with more siblings tend to participate more in household tasks. When fathers take on a larger share of domestic work, the gender gap in children's chores narrows. Additionally, family structures with fewer preschool-aged siblings and more adults present can reduce the pressure on girls to perform domestic tasks (Kruger, Berthelon & Soares, 2010). Gender roles and societal expectations play a significant role in how chores are divided. Traditional gender expectations often lead to girls doing more housework, even in societies with a strong orientation towards gender equality (Leonard 2004; O'Reilly & Quayle, 2021; Nilsen & Wærdahl, 2015). In some cultures, such as in Asia, the gender disparity in household chores is more pronounced due to stricter patriarchal norms (Webbink, Smits & de Jong, 2012). The employment status of parents also affects children's involvement in household chores. Girls' participation in housework increases when their mothers are employed, suggesting that girls' help enables their parents to remain in the labor market, and boys' involvement in economic activities is positively correlated with both parents' employment (Pholphirul & Kaneko, 2020).

Girls often perceive the division of household labor as unfair and are more likely to express a desire for change in traditional gender roles. However, existing practices still reflect traditional expectations, with girls doing more housework than boys (Leonard 2004; O'Reilly & Quayle, 2021). Regarding educational and economic factors, higher levels of parental education and family wealth are associated with a lower likelihood of children, especially girls, being involved in household chores (Hossain et al., 2023). This suggests that socio-economic status can mitigate some of the gender disparities in domestic work.

In conclusion, the disparities observed in the allocation of household chores between male and female children are influenced by a complex interplay of familial, social, and cultural determinants. Empirical evidence suggests that girls disproportionately bear a greater share of domestic responsibilities, particularly in contexts characterized by socio-economic hardship or adversity. In contrast, boys often afforded comparatively greater time to dedicate to educational pursuits and leisure activities. Notably, the extent of parental involvement and the configuration of the family unit play a critical role in attenuating these gender-based differences. Through supportive parenting practices and equitable family dynamics, it is possible to foster a more balanced and just distribution of household tasks among children, thereby contributing to the promotion of gender equity within the domestic sphere.

10.2 WHAT TEACHERS CAN LEARN ABOUT STEREOTYPE

Teachers can gain valuable insights into the dynamics and benefits of sharing household chores, which can be applied to both classroom management and fostering student development:

- Promoting Fair Division and Responsibility

- Cultural and Gender Considerations

- Practical Applications in Education
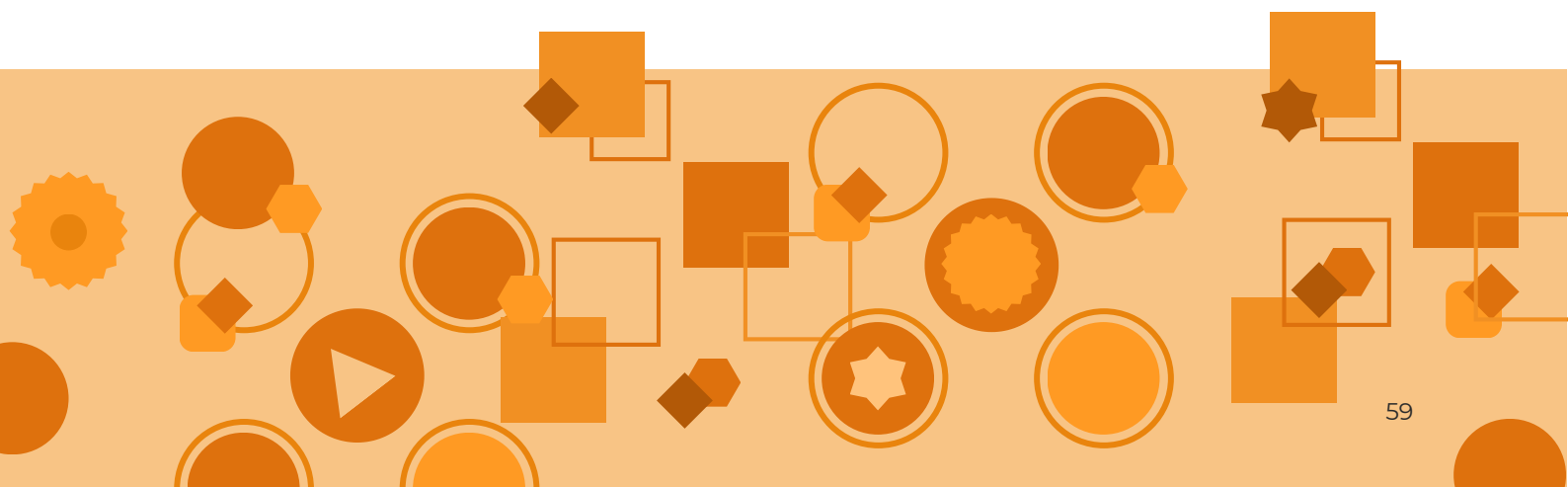
10.3 What teachers can do to learn about the stereotype

Activity 1: Promoting fair chore division

Objectives:

- Visualize and propose fair chore allocations based on preferences, promoting harmony and transparency in task sharing.

Activity:

- This activity can be used with students, or as a training and teambuilding strategy with fellow teachers, using KAJIBUNTAN app. Available also at: https://housechore-division.com

Step 1: Introduction (15 minutes):

- Briefly introduce the topic of household chores and common challenges in sharing them fairly.

- Explain the concept of fair division and how technology can help make chore distribution more equitable.

- Present Kajibuntan as an example of an app designed to assist with chore division based on preferences and workloads.

Step 2: Demonstration (15 minutes)

- Show the Kajibuntan app interface (via screen share or projector).

- Walk through the input of preferences for a hypothetical household (e.g., family of 3-4 people with various chores).

- Highlight how the app visualizes chore distribution and proposes fair allocations.

Step 3: Group Activity (35 minutes)

- Divide students (or other participants) into small groups (3-4 per group).

- Provide each group with a worksheet or digital form to list:

    Different household chores (cleaning, cooking, laundry, shopping, childcare, etc.)

    Each member's preferences and available time for chores (students can invent fictional profiles or use anonymized real data if appropriate).

- Have students use Kajibuntan to propose a chore distribution for their group's "household."

- Each group discusses:

    How fair is the proposed division?

    What compromises or adjustments might be needed?

    How do preferences and time constraints affect fairness?

Step 4: Reflection and Discussion (25 minutes)

- Groups share their findings and reflections with the class.

- Facilitate a discussion on:

  Gender roles and cultural expectations in chore division.

  The importance of communication and negotiation in families.

  The potential and limitations of apps like Kajibuntan.

Materials Needed:

- Access to Kajibuntan app (if available in a language students understand) or a simplified chore division tool/simulation.

- Worksheets or digital forms for chore preference input.

- Projector or screen for demonstration.

Outcome:

- The main outcome of implementing this activity with your students is understanding fairness in task distribution and its real-life implications, and students will learn how different factors, such as preferences, time availability, and cultural expectations, affect the sharing of responsibilities within a household.

Activity 2: World Café Activity - Sharing Household Chores

Objectives:

- To engage students in meaningful conversations about the equitable distribution of household chores, exploring cultural norms, gender roles, and strategies for fairness.

Activity:

- A World Café is perfect for discussing sharing household chores because it encourages collaborative dialogue and diverse perspectives. Duration: 90 minutes (can be adjusted).

Setup:

- Participants: 20–30 students (or adapt for smaller groups)

- Tables: 4–5 tables, each with 4–6 chairs.

- Materials: large sheets of paper or tablecloths for writing ideas; markers and pens; timer and a central board for key takeaways.

Structure

Round 1 – Personal Experiences and Observations (20 minutes)

- Question: *"How are household chores typically shared in your family or community? What challenges arise?"*
- Goal: Explore real-life examples and cultural variations.

Round 2 – Fairness and Gender Roles (20 minutes)

- Question: *"What does a fair distribution of household chores look like? How do gender roles influence this?"*
- Goal: Identify barriers to fairness and discuss stereotypes.

Round 3 – Solutions and Innovations (20 minutes)

- Question: *"What strategies or tools (like apps, schedules, family meetings) can make chore-sharing more equitable?"*
- Goal: Generate practical ideas and creative solutions.

World Café Principles:

- After each round (15–20 min), students switch tables (except the table host, who summarizes prior discussion for newcomers). **Round 3 – Solutions and Innovations (20 minutes)**
- Encourage drawing, mind mapping, and note-taking on table sheets.
- Foster an informal, café-like atmosphere (background music optional).

Insights (15–20 minutes):

- Reconvene as a whole group.
- Table hosts share the main themes that emerged.
- Facilitator synthesizes insights on a central board (or digital whiteboard).
- End with a question: *"What is one action YOU can take to promote fairness in chores?"*

Outcome:

- Increased awareness of cultural and gender dynamics in chore distribution. Practical strategies to improve fairness at home. Critical reflection on social norms and individual responsibilities.

10.4 REFERENCES

Pailhé, A., & Solaz, A. (2024). "I set the table every day": The contribution of 10-year-olds to domestic tasks. Population & Sociétés, (628), 1–4. https://doi.org/10.3917/popsoc.628.0001

Vikram, K., Ganguly, D., & Goli, S. (2024). Time use patterns and household adversities: A lens to understand the construction of gender privilege among children and adolescents in India. Social Science Research, 118, Article 102970. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssresearch.2023.102970

Kruger, D. I., Berthelon, M., & Soares, R. R. (2010). Allocation of children's time along gender lines: Work, school, and domestic work in Brazil. Research in Labor Economics, 31, 161–192. https://doi.org/10.1108/S0147-9121(2010)0000031009

Leonard, M. (2004). Teenage girls and housework in Irish society. Irish Journal of Sociology, 13(1), 73–87. https://doi.org/10.1177/079160350401300106

O'Reilly, C., & Quayle, M. (2021). Gender inequalities in time spent doing housework by children in Ireland: A nationally representative sample across two time points. Infant and Child Development, 30(6), e2246. https://doi.org/10.1002/icd.2246

Nilsen, A. C. E., & Wærdahl, R. (2015). Gender differences in Norwegian children's work at home. Childhood, 22(1), 53–66. https://doi.org/10.1177/0907568213518082

Webbink, E., Smits, J., & de Jong, E. (2012). Hidden child labor: Determinants of housework and family business work of children in 16 developing countries. World Development, 40(3), 631–642.

Pholphirul, P., & Kaneko, S. (2020). Parents' labour force participation and children's involvement in work activities: Evidence from Thailand. Oxford Development Studies, 48(3), 303–319. https://doi.org/10.1080/13600818.2020.1792431

Hossain, M. M., Abdulla, F., Hai, A., Khan, M. T. F., Rahman, A., & Rahman, A. (2023). Exploring the prevalence, duration and determinants of participation in household chores among children aged 5–17 years in Bangladesh. Child Indicators Research, 16(5), 2107–2124. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12187-023-10051-z

TRAINING

GENDER STEREOTYPES

MANUAL

GENDER

TRAINING MANUAL

STEREOTYPES