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Prepared & Conducted by :
Dr. Wanna Leka
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Tanna Hotel, Bahir Dar

GENDER RESPONSIVE PROJECT DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

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Gender Responsive Project Development Strategies

The world has been claiming many achievements in various fields. The progress made in these fields have greatly changed the world and its human inhabitants in many ways. The achievements have enabled the human kind to have a greater control over nature.

Despite these great achievements and endeavour to change many aspects of human society on earth, the success scored in removing the disparities between men and women is minimum. Women have subordinate position in almost all cases.

Such subordination excludes women form most of activities that are beneficial to their well being. Their status is also determined by the social milieu they live in.

The condition of women in developing countries is harsh. This is because sexism compounded with poverty puts them in a condition which is intolerable. Therefore such a condition demands to tackle both sexism and poverty.

All development efforts that attempt to satisfy the needs of the society must be gender sensitive. However, past experience in most cases show lack of this concern.

Projects which are seen as a primary vehicles by various agencies, to channel resources in the development process have also failed to recognize fully the gender concerns. Women's actual and potential contribution both in the design, implementation and evaluation stages of the project have

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not been fully utilized, and therefore, the two sexes are not enjoying the benefits equally. That is why attempt has been made in this paper to show the strategy to develop gender responsive projects. What do we mean when we say "Gender Responsive and/or sensitive" projects?

This term is used with reference to projects (gender sensitive/responsive projects) and planning. Gender sensitivity involves being aware of and incorporating into project activities consideration about the different needs priorities and constraints resulting form the different socio/cultural economic groups within the given project environment. (ILO, 1991 pg. 23).

According to the above definition gender responsive projects therefore need to give due consideration at each level of the project cycle, the different roles, needs, priorities and constraints of the two sexes. Since the two sexes participate and benefit form projects differently, depending upon the type and setting of the activities, it is relevant to clearly understand the different project approaches and stages of project as well as issues which need to be considered at the different stages of projects.

As was indicated above women are not participating and benefiting as that of men from development oriented project activities. To maximize their participation and benefits it is important that one chooses a project approach that matches the setting of the project.

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I. PROJECT APPROACHES

Developiing and implementing gender responsive projects will contribute a great deal to achieve gender equity, equality and empowerment through meeting practical and strategic needs, In this regard developing gender planning in its own right is a prerequiste. However, in much of current practices 'women' or 'gender' is simply grafted onto existing planning traditions, wihtout fundamental changes to the conceptual rationale of the planning tradition concerned (Moser, 1994).

This paper is not trying to address issues related to gender planning, rather it is focused on discussing the various issues under the WID project approaches. This is because many of the NGOs are mostly involved in these project activities and identifying their growth areas, potentials and opportunities is assumed to be relevant.

There are three basic projects within the WID approach These are:-

Women specific projects

Women's component in larger projects

General projects/mainstream projects

Each approach has its advantages and disadvantages. Using each approach may be particularly appropriate in certain circumstances.

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In the coming pages we will look at the conditions when it will be appropriate to use the different approaches. the advantages and disadvantages as well as the important aspects to be considered in designing these approaches so that the projects could be gender responsive.

a) Women Specific Projects

The women specific project approach may be particularly appropriate:-

- When the cultural and religious traditions as well as the social order do not allow the two sexes to work together and women are inhibited to speak against mens's opinion.
- When new roles and responsibilities are created due to various reasons (like migration of men)
- When women had less formal education than men.
- When there are strong autonomous women's group proven their effectiveness to mobilize and organize women.

Some advantages of women-specific project approach are:

- There is increased flexibility and responsiveness to women's need.
- More decision making opportunities for women.
- The opportunity for women to undertake initiatives.

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- The possibility of creation of strong and enduring women's institutions.

Some disadvantages of women-specific project approach:

- The risk or isolation of women from mainstream development activities.
- The danger of being used as token indicators of efforts, without any strong policy commitment to incorporating women's role into overall development process.
- The tendency to incorporate a strong welfare orientation than elements that promote women's empowerment.

In designing such a project it is important to ensure that:

- The project is placed in an organization that has the necessary time, resource and technical expertise.
- The project design takes into account the specific realities of women's lives. Avoid requiring volunteer labour or other non-remunerative inputs from women who are already overstretched both by productive and reproductive tasks.

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b) **Women's component in General Project**

A women's component incorporates separate activities for women much like women specific projects within a larger general project. Mostly specific financial support and project staff have been designated for these activities.

A women's component in a general project may be particularly appropriate where;

- Cultural and religious traditions do not allow women and men to work together.
- Women want to be trained or undertake other activities separately.
- To allow for an awareness-raising among women on their rights and to build up their confidence.
- The eligibility criteria for the general project may limit women's participation (for instance heavy collateral requirements for credit project).
- Women have had less formal education than men, and need additional remedial training.

Some advantages of incorporating a women's component into a general project:-

- Women have guaranteed access to project resources (qualified personnel and finance).
- Women have equal access with men to the general projects main activities (training, employment, etc.)
- Greater visibility and attention from planners.
- Increased opportunities to be included into the general projects as appropriate and desired.

Some disadvantages of incorporating a women's component into a general project includeude:

- If poorly designed or managed could lead to marginalizing women's activities.
- The danger of being used to satisfy government, donor or the development agency requirements for including women without actually offering the same resources.

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In designing a women's component in general project it is important to ensure that;

- The same priority is given to women's activities.
- Data desegregated by sex and indicators are incorporated as much as possible into the project documents (of the different stages of the project life, specially the preparatory stage,) to properly assess the project impact.

c) **General Projects**

These projects aim at giving equal opportunities to both men and women as participants and beneficiaries.

General projects may be particularly appropriate where:

- A large number of women fit the criteria for participation in the project (education, physical capabilities, etc.)
- A precedent for shared participation amongst men and women in projects has already been established.
- Social and cultural traditions encourage men and women to work together.
- The publicity and other forms of outreach activities about the project will reach both men and women.

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Some advantages of implementing a general project include;

- There is a possibility that women can take full advantage of the resources and high priority that general projects receive.
- Women can have increased access to and influence on decision makers.
- The opportunity for both men and women to work with and share responsibility.

Some disadvantages of implementing a general project include:

- The creation of competition between men and women for scarce resources in which women may loose due to lack of experience, low self esteem, lack of confidence or distance form informal information networks.
- If women's role in the project is not identified at the design stage women might be excluded from various activities.

In designing a general project, it is important to ensure that:

- Project documents clearly show specifically how women will participate in and benefit from each project activity.
- The project design facilitates women's participation in accordance with their needs and responsibilities.
- Training and employment opportunities be scheduled to ensure both men and women participate equally.

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- Continuous monitoring is undertaken to assess how women have participated in and benefitted from project activities.

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II. STAGES OF A PROJECT

A project has the following stages. The discussion in the forthcoming pages depends mainly on the coady framework. However, some ideas have also been taken from Harvard and empowerment frame works.

1. Project identification stage
2. The planning/design stage
3. Project approval
4. Inception report and baseline study
5. Implementation
6. Monitoring
7. Evaluation

1) Project Identification Stage

The project identification stage includes all of the preliminary considerations which precede the decision to develop a project. The following issues are suggested to be reviewed.

- Purpose of the project (whether the project identifies a problem or a solution) need to be clear.
- All the groups affected by the problem identified should be analyzed by gender.
- Both men and women have to participate in identifying the problem.
- Groups or organizations affected negatively by the project have to be identified in terms of gender.

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- Getting sex and gender disaggregated data related to the identified problem.

2) The planning/design stage

The planning stage comprises those activities necessary to obtain approval for the project budget. At this stage among other things,the following issues need to be considered.

- The required level of participation[1] of the beneficiaries (both men and women) in each project activities.
- Adequate and time frame provisions for the organized participation of the beneficiaries.
- What will be considered for those who will be affected by the project.
- Project team composition.
- Project impacts on women's activities access and control of resources and benefits.
- Sensitization of both male and female project staff on gender issues, specially on how to analyze women's role and special needs.

3. Project Approval Stage

This is the stage where project documents are submitted for approval. The following issues could be raised.

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[1]Levels of participation
1. Receiving project benefit
2. Project implementation (taking action told by others)
3. Project influence (problem consultation)
4. Access to project decision making mechanism/empowerment

- Do objectives specifically describe and quantify the intended target groups and beneficiaries?
- Are there specified measurable project outputs (benefits) for men and women?
- Who participated in defining the problems, the objectives, the plan and the budget?
- Level of participation both by men and women in the implementation and management of the project? will they be trained and organized for this?
- Does the project budget take adequate consideration of social sustainability and participation cost (given the level of the handicaps or the disadvantaged women and men).
- The balance of skills needed by the executing agency.
- Does the plan minimize the adverse effects of the project on those women and men who will be negatively affected.

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4. Inception Report and Baseline Study

This stage includes the period after the project approval, in which the preparation of the baseline study and detailed work plan will take place. The situation in the project area is also checked at this stage against conditions that existed during the planning period. Issues to be raised at this stage include:

- Gender desegregated baseline status of the need.
- Levels of participation among the target and affected group and the institutions.
- Participation of women and men in identifying the baseline variables and indicators.
- Provision of training to the target group for better participation.
- Specifying the benefits and inputs in the work plan.

- Continuity of project benefits.

5. Implementation

This is the stage where the project is implemented. The target group and the beneficiaries be able to participate by receiving benefits, contributing resources, being employed, or sharing in the management of the project. Issues to be considered at this stage:

- Provision of technical and management skill.
- Building problem solving capacity.
- Well trained field workers and animators (both males and females).
- Ensuring women's full participation (special consideration for women's work load, cultural proscriptions, lack of organizational experience and weak self-assurance, etc.).
- The relationship of women in the project area to the project personnel, organizational structure, operation, logistics etc.

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6) Monitoring

It is the activity which determines whether implementation of project activities is as planned and produced the expected result. The primary purpose of monitoring is the early discovery of project weaknesses and failures which can be corrected/. The monitoring of the activities will take place at each stage of the project cycle. Issues to be raised include:

- Participation of men and women in the target group in monitoring.
- Corrective action taken by the target group.

- Gender disaggregated information.

7) Evaluation Stage

This is the assessment of the project outcomes to know whether the project achieved its objectives and produced positive outcomes or produced unexpected negative results.

Issues to be considered at this stage include:

- Participation of different groups in the evaluation.
- Presentation of the outcomes/gender desegregated information.
- Information about the participation of the different group both men and women in project activity.
- Information on social sustainability of the project.
- Identifying any unexpected outcomes.
- Issues related with relevance, adequacy, effectiveness, efficiency and impact of the project need to be evaluated.
- Clear and implementable recommendation.

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III. HOW TO MAKE USE OF DIFFERENT IDEAS IN DEVELOPING GENDER RESPONSIVE PROJECTS.

Searching the origin for women's subordination, explaining its manifestation and proposing the strategy for emancipation are some of the major issues where the social sciences try to explain. The different schools of taught give different ideas.

Women activists and those in the academia are also giving various ideas concerning the issue. Efforts have been made to undertake research activities. New theories, conceptual frame works etc. are produced. Since this is a dynamic process, one may get confused as to how to apply the new ideas. It might also be a challenge in the development of gender responsive projects. However, in making use of the different ideas, flexibility and revisability is needed. The ideas should help to investigate one's own objective realities and should help to come up with relevant results so that the whole effort becomes part of the dynamic process mentioned above, and above all this effort should bring a positive change in the lives of women and men.

Considering the following procedure is assumed to be one of the relevant strategies in developing gender responsive project.

1. Choosing the appropriate project approach.
2. Dealing with the relevant gender issue which need to be raised under the different project stages.
3. Making use of the different ideas concerning Gender / Women and Development:

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GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT : INTRODUCING GENDER ANALYSIS FRAMEWORKS

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Introduction

The topic Gender and Development is so wide and one may face difficulty to limit the area that has to be discussed. Cognizant of this fact, the most important and relevant concepts are included in this document.

Women, being half of the world population, the concept of development can not be discussed or implemented in any meaningful way without their full participation. Thus, all developing countries have realized this fact and attempts are being made to increase the participation of women in all development activities. The equal participation of men and women in a given society is a necessary condition for development.

In view of this, the paper attempts to discuss two major topics, namely: Gener and developments and Gender analysis frame work. The discustion will be supplemented with simulation exercises, question and answers and other participatory approaches.

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Gender and Development

Though in all societies both men and women play important roles, women have subordinate position in almost all cases. They suffer from unequal treatment they receive at all levels and types of relationships starting from their families at home to their outside lives. However the degree of subordination varies according to the particular culture, economic and socio-political context within which it is formulated.

Many efforts have been made to identify the origin of gender disparity and explain its mainfestation as well as propose strategies to solve the problem. In this regard various schoool of thoughts as well as different feminist groups have presented several ideas which represent diversified theoretical positions.

However, when one compares the problems women are facing with what has been achieved, removing these disparities is a long way ahead which actually needs a continous and unlimited effort to remove institutional, economic and cultural barriers.

If we try to look into the policy approaches implemented so far to alleviate the problems women are facing, we understand that it has gone through a tremendous change in theoretical stands and practical applications. Moser (1994) categorised these policy approaches in their chronological order as follows:-

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Different policy approaches to Third World women

Issues	*Welfare*	*Equity*	*Anti-poverty*	*Efficiency*	*Empowerment*
Origins	Earliest approach: – residual model of social welfare under colonial administration – modernization/ accelerated growth economic development model	Original WID approach: – failure of modernization development policy – influence of Boserup and First World Feminists on Percy Amendment of UN Decade for Women	Second WID approach: – toned down equity because of criticism – linked to redistribution with growth and basic needs	Third and now predominant WID approach: – deterioration in the world economy – policies of economic stabilization and adjustment rely on women's economic contribution to development	Most recent approach: – arose out of failure of equity approach – Third World women's feminist writing and grassroots organization
Period most popular	1950–70; but still widely used	1975–85: attempts to adopt it during the Women's Decade	1970s onward: still limited popularity	Post-1980s: now most popular approach	1975 onward: accelerated during 1980s, still limited popularity
Purpose	To bring women into development as better mothers: this is seen as their most important role in development	To gain equity for women in the development process: women seen as active participants in development	To ensure poor women increase their productivity: women's poverty seen as a problem of underdevelopment, not of subordination	To ensure development is more efficient and more effective: women's economic participation seen as associated with equity	To empower women through greater self-reliance: women's subordination seen not only as problem of men but also of colonial and neo-colonial oppression
Needs of women met and roles recognized	To meet PGN in reproductive role, relating particularly to food aid, malnutrition and family planning	To meet SGN in terms of triple role – directly through state top-down intervention, giving political and economic autonomy by reducing inequality with men	To meet PGN in productive role, to earn an income, particularly in small-scale income-generating projects	To meet PGN in context of declining social services by relying on all three roles of women and elasticity of women's time	To reach SGN in terms of triple role – indirectly through bottom-up mobilization around PGN as a means to confront oppression
Comment	Women seen as passive beneficiaries of development with focus on their reproductive role; non-challenging, therefore widely popular especially with government and traditional NGOs	In identifying subordinate position of women in terms of relationship to men, challenging, criticized as Western feminism, considered threatening and not popular with government	Poor women isolated as separate category with tendency only to recognize productive role; reluctance of government to give limited aid to women means popularity still at small-scale NGO level	Women seen entirely in terms of delivery capacity and ability to extend working day; most popular approach both with governments and multilateral agencies	Potentially challenging with emphasis on Third World and women's self-reliance; largely unsupported by governments and agencies; avoidance of Western feminism criticism means slow, significant growth of under-financed voluntary organizations

PGN = Practical gender need
SGN = Strategic gender need

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The above mentioned policies have appeared more or less simultaneously. In changing approaches, implementing agencies have not necessarily followed any ordered logic. On the other hand, different policies have particular appeal to different types of institutions. Different policy approaches are also used some times in a package form to meet the needs of different consituencies.

The equity, anti-poverty and the efficiency approaches are categorised as a WID approaches. The term "Women in Development was coined in the early 1970s in Washington, DC, by a network of female development professionals who are influenced by the work on third World development. The underlying rationale of this approach is that" Women are untapped resource who can provide an economic contribution to development.

Recently there is a shift in approach. Especially, the academic reaserch in particular recognised the limitations of focusing on women in isolation. They have shown the need to look at the social relationship between men and women, in which women have been systematically subordinated (Moser, 1994).

The two terms WID and GAD are used synonymously. There critical distiniction is less clear. However the two terms represent different theoretical positions.

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The following chart shows the major differences between WID and GAD approaches.

Women in Development (WID)	Gender and Development (GAD)
1. The Approach	
* An approach which views Women as the problem	* An approach to develoment
2. The Focus	
* Women	* Relatins between Men and Women
3. The Problem	
* The exclusion of Women (half of productive resources) from the development process	* Unequal relations of power (rich and poor, women and men) that prevents equitable development and women's full participation
4. The Goal	
* More efficient, effective development	* Equitable, sustainable development with women and men as decision makers.
5. The Solution	
* Integrate Women in the existing development process.	* Empower the disadvantaged and women. * Transform unequal relations
6. The Strategics	
* Women's project * Women's components * Integrated projects * Increase women's productivity * Increase women's ability to look after the household	* Identify/address practical gender needs[1] determined by women and men to improve their condition. * At the same time, address women's strategic gender need[2] * Address strategic interests of the poor through people centred develop

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[1] [1]Practical Gender Needs

These needs arise from the concrete conditions of women's position within the gender division of labour. Practical gender needs are usually a response to an immediate perceived necessity which are identified by women within a specific context, (Moser, 1989). As Molyneux (1985) indicated, they do not generally entail a strategic goal such as women's emancipation or gender equality, nor challenge the prevailing forms of subordination eventhough they arise directly out of them.

[2] Strategic Gender Needs

Strategic gender needs are those needs which are formulated from the analysis of women's subordination to men. IThese needs vary depending on the particular cultural and socio-political context within which they are formulated. These needs aim at aboltion of women's subordination. Therefore it demands ethical and theoretical criteria to assist in the formulation of strategic obnjectives so that to wage effective struggle for them. Some or all of the following are referred both by malyneux and Moser as strategic gender needs.

- the abolition of the sexual division of labour
- the alleviation jof the burden of domestic labour and child care
- the removal of institutionalized forms of discrimnination such as:-
  - * right to own land or property
  - * access to credit
- the establishment of political equality
- freedom of choice over child bearing
- adoption of adequate measures against male violence and control over women

It is important to understand the basic differences between the two approaches. As shown in the Chart, WID approach focuses mainly on Women in isolation, measures such as access to credit and employment are seen as the means by which women can be better integrated into the development process. In contrast GAD stress focus on gender relations rather than focusing on women in isolation.

Though there is a shift from WID to GAD there are still constraints to integrate properly gender concerns into deveopment practices. These might include the following (Moser, 1994).

1 Lack of awareness
2 Procedural issues (from social awareness to planning practice).
3 Cnceptual, definitional and methodological issues.
4 Shifts in Policy approaches mirroring shifts in macro-economic development policies.
5 Political, ideological and technical issues.

These constraints need to be further studied and investigated so that it will be possible to come up with practical solution.

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Gender Analysis

To enhance the effectiveness of development projects, programs and policies interms of giving due consideration to various gender issues among other measures that has to be taken analysing gender or gender analysis is the most important step that must not be overlooked.

Gender analysis helps to organise information according to gender and this enables;

* To predict how male and female members of the community or households will be affected by development efforts.

* To what degree both males and females will be able to participate in and receive benefits form development efforts.

* It helps to anticipate whether a proposed policy, program or project will be effective or equitable.

There are two basic concepts that underlie gender analysis.

1 The difference between gender and sex.
2 The gender based division jof labour.

A. Sex - Refers to the biological differences between women and men that are universal and unchanging.

Gender- Refers to the sociallly defined differences between men and women. These differences are culturally based with wide variation within and between societies and changes overtime. Gender roles reflect learned behaviour and affected by age, class, religion, ethinicity, regional origin and history.

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B. Gender Division of Labour.

In every society there is a gender division of labour, which is considered appropriate from the traditional point of view. Men are responsible for certain tasks and women for others. However this gender division of labour is currently undergoing rapid change. The roles of men and women are in transition world wide, because of macro level factors including.

* Economic crisis
* Fertility decline
* Increasing educational level
* Family instablity and the growing number of female headed houeholds.

To facilitate the application of gender analysis to development effors, an analytical framework is needed. There are different anlaytical frame works which represent different theoretical position. Each frame work has its own short comings and strengths. The analytical tools developed by the Harvard University team has been widely adopted and used by the different frameworks.

This framework is commonly referred as the "Harvard Model". It provides a detaild and operational anaytic framework for recognizing and addressing the gender issues. However the model does not focus on women's equality or women's empowerment as development objectives. It is an economic model concerned with addressing economic objectives. The analytical framework has been adapted and used by various development institutions. For example the FAO Gender Analysis framework considers the first component of the Harvard Model as it is with slight modification of the second component which is named as resource benefit profile. it also combnines the third and the fourth components together and named it development constraints. This paper tries to introduce briefly basic componennts in the Harvard model and the FAO gender analysis framework.

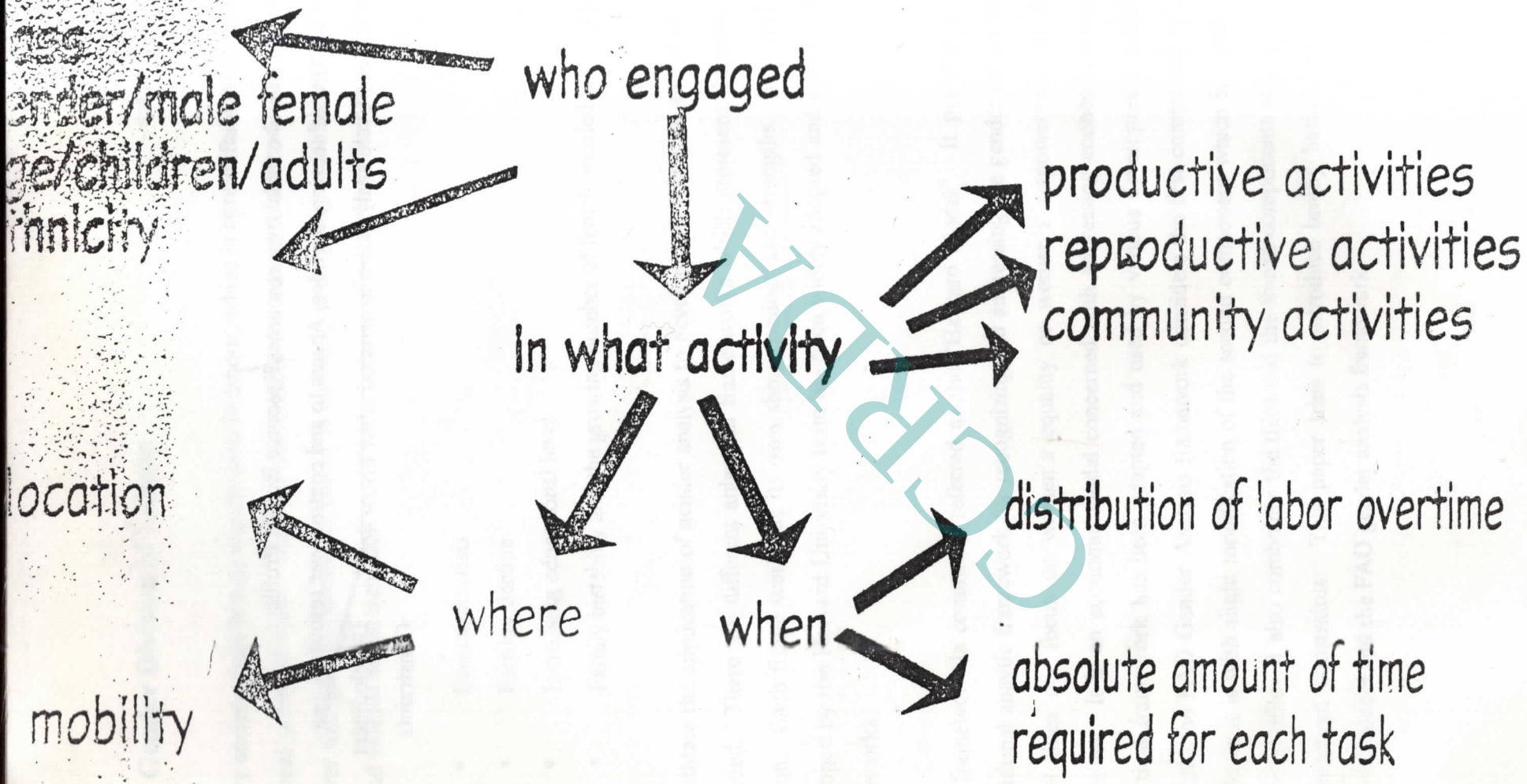
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The basic components are:-

1. Activity profile
2. Access and control over resources/Resource Benefit Profile
3. Factors influencing activities, Access to and control over resources.
4. Project Cycle analysis ——— Development Constraints

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ACTIVITY PROFILE IDENTIFIES >



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I. ACTIVITY PROFILE

The first component, the activity profile is based on the concept of the gender division of labour.

It defines who performs what activity when, where and how. Activities may have to be disaggregated not only by gender but also by age ethnic group, social classs or other important socio economic characteristics.

As mentioned above the activity profile indicates the time allocated to each activty and time has two dimensions

1 Distribution of labour over time (a day, a week, a year) which is determined by factors such as crop and livestock production.

2 Absolute amount of time required for each task. Which is related to the intensity of production and the resources and technologies.

The activity profile also identifies the location of activities (In the house, in the field, close to or far from home, outside the community). It also reveals differences in women's and men's mobility.

Men and Women in developing countries do have three roles.

1 Reproductive activities
2 Productive activities
3 Community activities

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1. **reproductive Activities**

There are three different levels

* Biological reproduction
* Labour reproduction
* Social reproduction

Biological reproduction

* Pregnancy
* Child birth
* Lactation

Labour Reproduction - The daily regenerating of the labour force through cooking cleaning washing, nursing and so on.

Social Reproduction - Maintenance of ideological conditions which reproduce class relations and uphold the social and economic status quo.

2 **Productive Activities**

* Work done for pay in cash or in kind.
* Market production with an exchange value
* Subsistence/home production with actual use-valuse and also potenial exchange value.

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3 Community activities

* Activities undertaken at the community level.

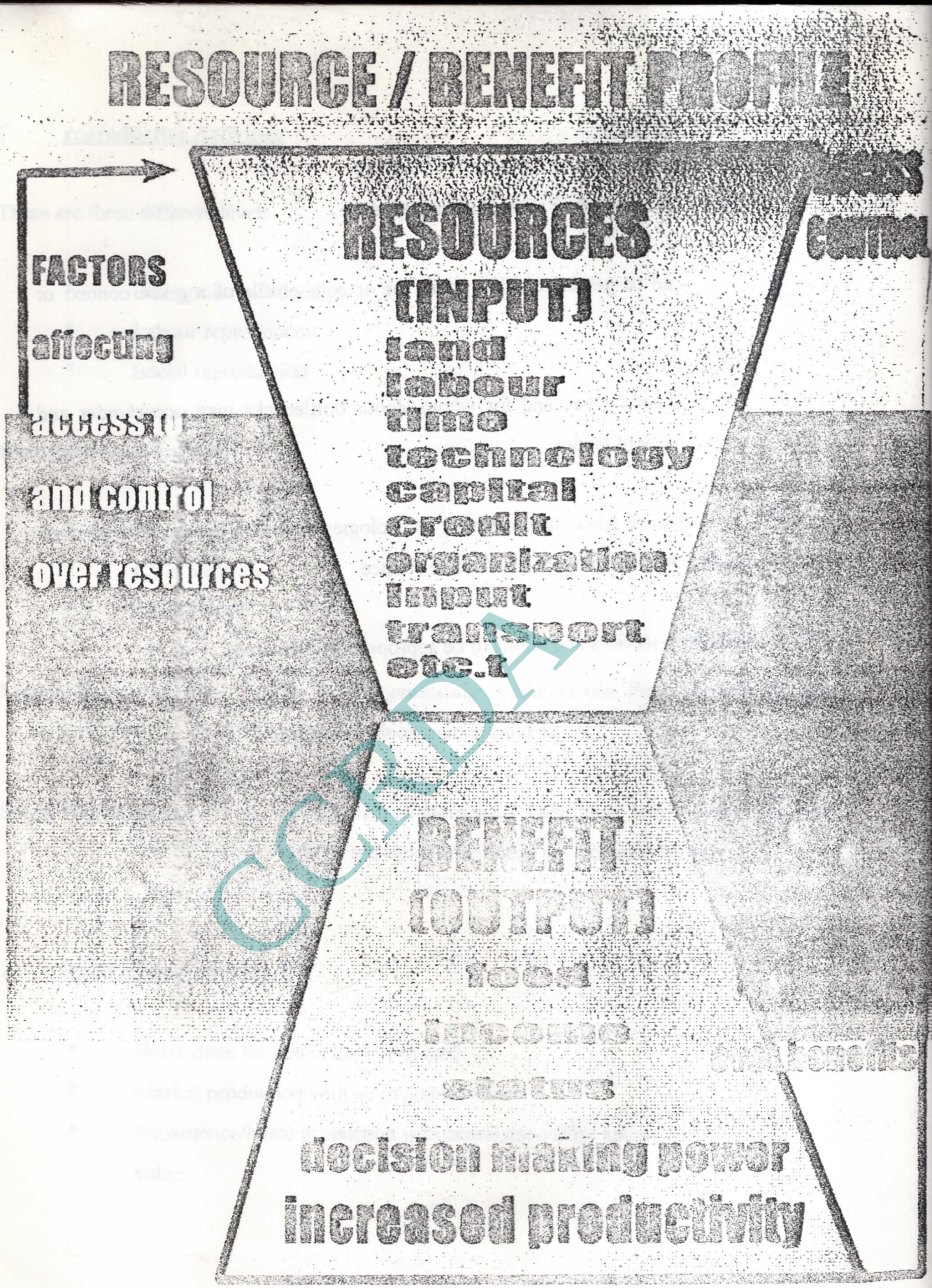
Why do we need to get information about the activity profile of a given context or community?

* To undrstand when and for whom labour bottlenecks may occur/under and over supply of labour.

* To determine where labour-saving technologies or strategies should be oriented or for whom employment should be created.

* To allow services and inputs to be appropriately delivered.

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RESOURCE / BENEFIT PROFILE
FACTORS
affecting
access to
and control
over resources
RESOURCES
(INPUT)
land
labour
time
technology
capital
credit
organization
input
transport
etc.t
BENEFIT
(OUTPUT)
food
income
status
decision making power
increased productivity

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II ACCESS TO AND CONTROL OVER RESOURCES /RESOURCE–BENEFITS PROFILE

It examines what resources are available to people to carry out their activities and what benefits they derive from these. Or in other words it answers the question of who has access to the various resources and benefits and who control them.

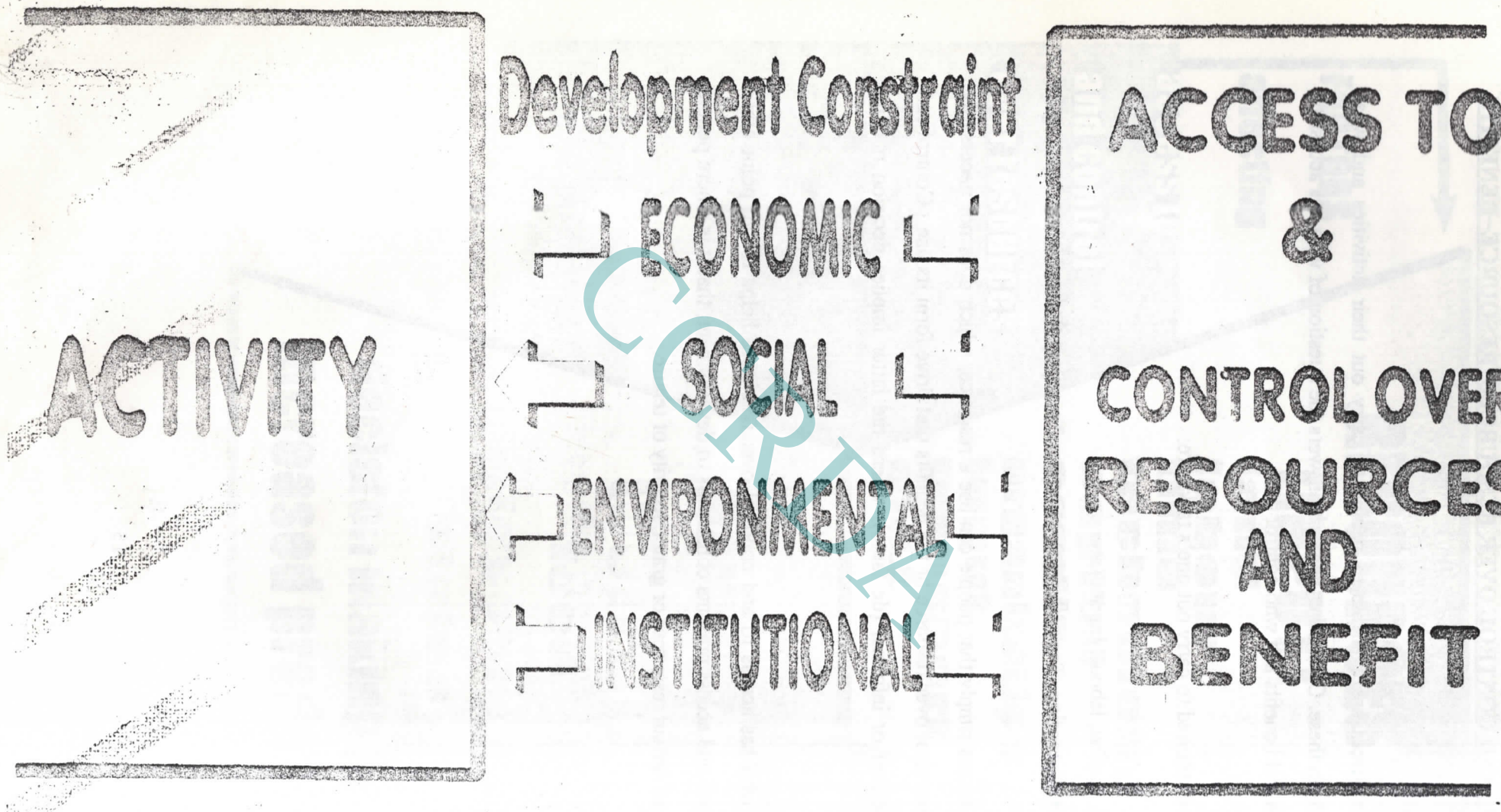
Resource that may be required to carry out one's tasks are.

* Land, Capital, labour, Inputs.
* Credit, Extension, Technology Orgnisation, Transport System etc.

Access to resource menas simply that people can use a resource, which does not necessarily means they exercise control over resource or the benefits that drive form its use. Control can be either formal (dejure) or informal (de facto), where the latter implies decision making power.

The need to know who has access to and condtrol over resources helps to pin point areas where resource control and access presents constraints to development, that it is where people need greater access to certain resources or grater security of tenure.

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DEVELOPMENT CONSTRAINT ANALYSIS

III FACTORS AFFECTING ACTIVITY, ACCESS TO AND CONTROL OVER RESOURCES / DEVELOPMENT CONSTRAINTS ANALYSIS.

This is the third component. It identifies constraints to deveopment in a given area. These constraints are numerous factors which determine who does what and what access and control one has. These factors are broad and interrelated.

Economic: Lack of credit, market, law labour productivity. etc.

Social: Illiteracy, poor health, cultural attitudes/taboos, high birth rate. etc.

Environmental: Deforestation, poor resource base, flooding, drought, erosion. etc.

Institutional: Lack of extension/education/training
Insecure land tenure
Poor legal structure
Lack of skilled personnel
Marriage and divorce arrangement and inheritance. etc.

Political: Both internal and external events

The need to know the development constraints or factors is:

- To know which factors constraint or facilitate the project or development activities or how these factors could be affected.

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IV. PROJECT CYCLE ANALYSIS

The fourth component in the Harvard Analysis, raises various questions at the different stages of the project. This will help to pin point areas of a project which have to be adjusted in order to achieve the desired out come.

For example at the different stages of a project the following issues could be raised.

Design stage:-

- project impact on women's activity
- project impact on women's access and control

Implementation stage:-

- the relationship of women in theproject area to the project
  - personnel
  - organizational structures
  - operation
  - logistics etc.

Evaluation stage:-

- data requirements
- data collection and analysis

Past experiences in gender analysis exercise indicated that the successful result of gender analysis endeavour mainly depends up on selection of the appropriate gender analysis framework and choosing the right tools and techniques or methodology to apply the framework.

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THE SITUATION OF ETHIOPIAN WOMEN

HIRUT TEREFE

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Background

The population of Ethiopia is about 55 Million of which 89 % lived in the rural areas. The age distribution of the population shows the country's population predominantly young - with 48.2 % of the population under 15 and 68.5 % under 30 years of age. The total population is estimated to grow at 3.1% per annum and the urban population at an average of 4 % per annum . The population was projected to 68 Million by the year 2000 and if the present trend continues the country will double its population under 23 years. Both crude birth rate and total fertility rate of Ethiopia indicate that the level of fertility in the country is among the highest in the world and has remained persistently so over years. Crude birth rate stands at an average of 47.8 per 1000 population while the total fertility is estimated at 7.7 children per woman between 1990 and 2000 (CSA, 1990, 1991). This shows that Ethiopian population is growing very fast and this rapid population growth is attributed to the persistence of high fertility rates in the face of declining mortality. High fertility rates, of course give rise to high population growth, which is said to be a hinderance to a sustainable human development in general and achievement of women and girls in particular.

Children and women constitute about three quarters of Ethiopia's estimated population. Together they form the largest group within the economically and socially deprived section of the country, that social indicators for human development and the quality of life all point to a grim situation in Ethiopia. Infant and maternal mortality rates are among the highest in the world. Morbidity patterns indicate that disease which are often readily preventable are rampant, particularly among low socio-economic groups, children and women,(UNICEF, 1993).

Agriculture is the backbone of Ethiopia's economy and is the major area of Employment for the 89 % of the population residing in the rural area. Of the remaining 11 % , about 41% of these population live in three major cities. This implies that about 59 % of the

CCRDA

urban population live in relatively smaller towns whose economic ties with rural sector remain strong. The population residing in rural areas largely derive their livelihood from subsistence agriculture production (cereals) in the northern highlands, coffee production in the southern highlands and livestock herding in the pastoral lowlands. Agriculture continues to be the major contributor to the GDP. The country's export trade depends very heavily on coffee. SIDA, (1993) report indicates that on the average coffee provided about 54 % of the total export earnings between the years 1978 - 84 and rose to 55.2 % in 1986 - 87. The dependency on production of a single crop for export earnings is an inherent major risk for Ethiopia. (Kebebew, (1973), Nardos, (1974), Lowenthal, (1976), Zenebework, ,(1976), Hirut, (1979), Poluha, (1980)) have shown that deficiencies in water supplies and shortage in child care and MCH services, lack of educational opportunities, especially those designed for teaching skills, early marriage, and frequent child birth as well as primitive methods of food preparation and cooking which take an enormous amount of time and energy, are the major factors responsible for hindering Ethiopian women from participating in activities related to socio-economic development.

Women have suffered greatly as a result of internal conflict and recurrent drought. Bearing the brunt of domestic chores, they are traditionally relegated to an inferior social and economic status. They enjoy little control over resources, are the main nurturers in households, undertake arduous tasks of fetching water and fuel wood and also engage in agricultural activities. The escalation of war added more family responsibilities during a time of anxiety and fear for the safety of husbands and relatives. An equally devastating experience was brought about by the ravages of famine. Women suffered the upset of seeing their children die and were forced to live a life of total dependency in relief camps. Recently, the number of displaced women has increased. Demobilization left man/ex-soldiers without a means of livelihood, thereby affecting the lives of their families. Returnee families have settled in temporary shelters as have many others uprooted by drought or poor security conditions. These women have had to abandon their normal lives and face an insecure future.

CCRDA

Situation of Women in Ethiopia

Socio-Cultural Values and Status of Women in Ethiopia

Gender identity is psycho-socially and culturally determined. Gender roles are practices and activities carried out by men and women which lead to an economically and socially constructed division of labour. Mosses, (1993) pointed out the difference between sex and gender,

> That gender differs from biological sex in important ways. Our biological sex is a given; we are born either male or female. But the way in which we become masculine or feminine is a combination of these basic biological building blocks and the interpretation of our biology by our culture. Every society has different scripts' for its members to follow as they learn to act out their feminine or masculine role, as much as every society has its own language. From the time that we are tiny babies until we reach old age we learn about and practice the particular ways of being male and female that our society prescribes for us.

The traditional domain of Ethiopian women since time immemorial has been the home and the functions of child bearing and child rearing viewed as their exclusive concern. This is still the predominant role of many women, as in many developing countries. However, with new economic and social pressures changing the face of traditional societies, women are having to come out of the narrow confines of home to join other main streams of society. With these changing circumstances one has to see how gender issues play a role in the achievement of girls and women. It is a well known fact that women in developing countries in general and in Ethiopia in particular have been denied equal participation in the development of their societies in almost every sphere, and have not achieved much. On this Helen Pankhurst, (1992) in her studies in Ethiopia expressed what she has been told by the women themselves that a woman is a chicken's life'...,the life of most women unfolds in the homestead like chickens. Chickens, like women, are considered as smaller and of lower value. Once again unlike the larger forms of livestock, and other contribution to the household economy is not acknowledged and ridiculed by men.

CCRDA

Unfortunately, in spite of the transformations that are taking place, society does not seem to give up its age-old discrimination against women, be it the wage discrimination, the choice of vocation, or the access to the appropriate education and training for viable skills. In a male dominated world, women are still restricted from taking up their rightful place in society and thus becoming more useful citizens.

In line with these problems one has to recognise that women are in different stages of transition in various parts of the world due to their varying cultural and social milieu. Hence studies on the situation and need for achievement of girls and women in our society are required to see things in a proper perspective, and only then can steps be taken to address the gender problem faced by the female population. As seen, the world over the acknowledgement of women role in development is having an impact on the organisation and construction of knowledge in different disciplines. It is also true that women's studies affect people's minds, people's behaviour attitude and social organisation which motivates me to try to understand and appreciate the problem that women have in Ethiopia.

Ethiopian women are customarily subordinate to men. It all begins at birth following the delivery of the child when the child's sex is announced. If a baby girl is delivered, she is received coldly with few illitas(shots) and if it is a baby boy a man announces its sex warmly by firing a rifle seven or nine times. There is meaning attached to the burial of placenta. Depending on the sex of the child that placenta is buried inside the house to the right of the door for the boy and outside to the left of the door for a girl signifying that she marries and goes to live with her in -laws . Boys are also thought to be courageous, dominating to show qualities of leadership while girls are thought to be submissive, conservative, introspective, shy, etc. This has a great impact on their achievements and rights as they grow up (Gennet 1974, Andromeda, 1976, Hirut, 1979).

Quoting Shirly Ardner's work of 1978, Chanana , (1988) who viewed socialization in the context of women seems to be heavily weighted in favour of tradition, and the social

CCRDA

institutions family, kinship and marriage. It is closely intertwined with the process of role socialization of boys and girls which eventually leads to the dichotomising of masculine and feminine roles or to gender asymmetry. Social and cultural differences are seen to be based on biological differences and therefore viewed as natural. in this way the difference between the biological, the natural and the social is obliterated through the process of value internalization within the sacred confines of the family and kinship group. These are further reenforced through religious ideology, myth and rituals.

Since the first International conference on Women 1975, elements related to traditional norms, values and attitudes were identified as main factors in a culture relegating women to inferior status and thereby marginalizing them. Then came advocacy that the human resources that women represent deserved special attention. Hence the concept of the integration of Women in the Development process. Areas of concern were defined and commitments enlisted. As a result of these exercises many UN member countries established national machineries or agencies for women. These are national technical structures or arms, the purpose of which is to enhance the participation of women in development and in the long term eliminate inequality between the sexes. At this point it is important to recognize the efforts made by the UN decade for women and beyond that (1975 -1985) and by the International conference on Women held in Bejing last Sept. 1995. The Fourth United Nations World Conference on women equality, development and peace has taken a hard look at how far women have progressed in the 20 years since the first world conference was held in 1975, when the improvement of women's status became an item for the global agenda. Measuring that progress will not be easy since women's fundamental role in society is still often overlooked and underrated. Even though the situation of women has not improved in many fronts, the awareness has certainly grown globally and few gains have been made, even in the Ethiopian context.

In the eyes of Ethiopian women who have not been treated equally with Ethiopian men, at least on many vital issues affecting their lives, the legislative mandates have not always been equalled by assertive action and increased allocation of funds in enabling women to

CCRDA

move from the margins of development into more important roles at all levels, (Daniel, 1980). There is a growing literature on women and development which points to the dangers of assuming that economic growth benefits men and women equally. It is now common knowledge that development can be detrimental to women, resulting in greater economic oppression and political powerlessness, (Helen Pankhurst ,1992, Boserup, 1970).

Women, in Ethiopia as in most developing countries, are often discouraged from taking advantage of existing opportunities in education, employment and other decision making positions. Gloria, (1982) noted that the way the society selects, classifies, distributes, transmits and evaluates knowledge reflects the distribution of power and the devices for social control. Men have predominated in the powerful public sphere, excluding women from knowledge and production.

Ethiopia is a role oriented society as any other developing society. As girls approach puberty, their role becomes more defined, they begin to learn from their mothers as the boys do from their fathers. After age nine or ten more attention is paid on training of the daughter not only in domestic arts but in the art of womanhood. Therefore, family is not just an economic unit but also a cultural institution which maintains the old values of authoritarianism and domination. However, the relations in the family largely depends on the degree of cultural development of its members, their conception of responsibility and duty. This implies that family structures are varying in accordance with the economic and cultural status of its members.

CCRDA

Role of Women in Economic Activities

In traditional rural society like Ethiopia, the role of women and men are defined and ascribed by sex and age. Men and women, depending on whether they are children or adult, are required to do certain socially defined jobs and are usually required to observe a considerable amount of social distance. Most women in the rural area of African countries in general, Ethiopia in particular, have not had any formal education. Because of this, one may expect lower participation in economic development, whereas life in the

urban areas offers women the possibility of independence from obedience and submission to spouse and kinsfolk. With formal education new skills and opportunities are open to urban women which places them in a better position to participate more in economic development. Women in this category are very few, yet in rural areas there are none.

The majority of Ethiopian women live in rural areas largely untouched by modern technology, innovation, education and communication, in general term women are considered subordinate to men. Even if women contribute greatly by their own capacity and ability to the economic development of the country, they lack recognition and the knowledge and understanding of their rights and privileges as citizens. As a result women are more often regarded as passive instruments necessary only for their fertility in their roles as mothers and assistants and partners in farm work, which is the main rural occupation. So far, very little has been accomplished to help the majority of rural women from misery, ignorance and poverty.

The Ethiopian peasant women are totally dependent on the income of Their husbands with whom they labour under harsh conditions. Rural women do work much longer hours than men, in taking care of the children and animals, food processing and marketing etc. Hence the socialization process is the beginning but of course other influences also shape a woman's life, (Hirut, 1979, 1994). The role of women in the domestic economy helps to explain their position in the household and society. On the one hand, there is a tendency by both men and women, to dismiss and belittle women's work. The minimal tasks they are allowed in the sexual division of labour, for example their involvement in dung work, reinforces the social devaluation of their labour. On the other hand this social attitude is reinforced by the consciousness of women's economic contribution and their paramount importance to the running of the household on a day to day basis, (Pankhurst, 1992).

CCRDA

Possibilities for education, employment, better social conditions, medical facilities and possibilities for participation in community life, all play their part in contributing to the achievement of women for changing their life and in developing their society. Women's economic participation and contributions were undermined by magnifying their role as wives and mothers. It is true that women lack skills and opportunities to become economically self dependent. Alasebu, (1986) Ethiopia having a subsistence agricultural division of labour by sex is founded on the male being the farmer, the decision maker etc., the female being help mate to the head of the household. The emphasis of a women's worth is related to her reproductive roles, while the man earned his status on the basis of his productive roles. With the introduction of monetary economy the male moved to cash crops and started to play roles other than were known before reinforcing his already existing superior status.

Hirut, (1994) commented that women in Ethiopia, as elsewhere in the world, bear the chief responsibility for the health, nourishment, upbringing and the basic education and attitude of the next generation. Illiterate mothers can not teach their children something that they themselves do not know. The vicious circle of poverty, illiteracy, malnutrition and frequent child bearing goes on unless new changes are closely observed. Incorporating women's contribution to the culture and welfare of society as well as to all social practices changes the attitude and standard of the coming generation. The contribution of women in the country's economy, culture and other areas is very high. The subordinate role of women, however, stops them from receiving a fair share of the country's resources. The case of Ethiopian women reveals on one hand that they have equally been affected by the declining performance of the achievement in the realization of the goals of Ethiopian economic development. On the other hand they have been further disadvantaged for they have been subjected to sufferings emanating from the stereotyped differentiation of Ethiopian society.

The constraints resulting from this phenomenal inequality and underdevelopment of Ethiopian women by and large can be grouped into socio-cultural factors; formal laws; extensive government intervention in the economic system, and minimal or inadequate or

CCRDA

no free and fair access to incentive and competence building provisions. All this is negatively affecting sustainable human development and achievement of women to a great extent.

Education

Concerning education in Ethiopia, Lakew & Hirut (1986) have stated that of the total Ethiopian school population enrolled in all types of schools at the beginning of the 1981/82 school years, 64.5% were males and only 35.5% females. Government schools had an even greater imbalance between the sexes than the church, mission and private schools. The statistics for university level education in that same year were even more appalling with an overwhelming 86.6% male students at intake, leaving a meagre 13.4% female students, which is 10% in 1990/91. This clearly demonstrates the fact that Ethiopian women have not been benefiting from educational opportunities as much as Ethiopian men.

> Boserup (1970) describes the same situation which began in colonial times when education was introduced in Africa that everywhere boys were sent to school before the girls and many more boys than girls went to school.... Therefore while illiteracy and superstition had once been common among all villagers, the signs of backwardness gradually became more of a characteristic for women than men in rural communities. Young men have gained at least an acquaintance with the scientific approach while girls are taught only traditional beliefs by illiterate mothers.

The study made by Alasebu (1976) on a profile of Addis Ababa Women revealed that mothers wished less education for their daughters than for their sons; abut 16% of the respondents of this study expressed the view that education for their daughters was not even necessary. According to the statistics of the Ministry of Education the percentage of girls students becomes lower as the level of education increases both in government and non government schools. Just as in academic education, boys and girls in Ethiopia have equal access to vocational training both by law and in practice. But social and domestic constraints operate unfavourably in the case of girls and women, (Hirut, 1979, 1994).

CCRDA

The low female participation rate in formal education further re enforce the expectation that women play their domestic managerial and matrimonial roles to the fullest possible extent. An important factor explaining low access of females to the educational system is the traditional value system placing greater premium on males than on females. since resources are scarce, parents often decide to use the limited resources available to them in sending male children to school in preference to females. It must however, be noted that there has never been any government policy to restrict female access to formal education.

The pattern of students enrolment and participation from the primary grade to the senior secondary schools show that the number of girls enrolled remains lower than that of boys. The number of girls who continue to drop out of school or to repeat classes is higher than that of boys. The percentage of female students enrolled in 1989 at primary, junior and senior secondary schools was 39 %, 41 % and 39 % respectively. The number of males, on the other hand, in all these levels had been increasing every year between 1974 and 1985.

In addition to the disappointing enrolment of girls at the primary school level, their estimation is also low. Among the candidates of grades six and eight who sat for the national examination between 1986 and 1988, females constituted 44.4 % and 42.4 % respectively. In terms of passes, girls accounted for 38.2 % at grade six and 37.8 % at grade eight. This is a clear indication that female students are not good survivors at these two levels. This contributes to the decreasing number of female students at higher levels of education in Ethiopia.

Daniel, (1980), showed that even though Ethiopia possesses an ancient script and literature and the Ethiopian Orthodox Church has for many centuries maintained a system of schools throughout the country, the overall standard of education is extremely low. The rate of school enrolment for girls is lower than that of boys and the attendance irregular since beliefs still prevail that girls do not need education because their husbands will provide for them. This attitude, even though changing, is still dominant in rural areas but also in cities

CCRDA

like Addis Ababa where one would expect the grip of traditional attitudes to be weaker. UN, (1967) has indicated that education is one of the important mechanisms that promote the welfare of a given society; it increases the consciousness of the people and enables them to solve their societies' problems and to be self-reliant. But in most of the Ethiopian societies, people seem to have a negative attitude towards the education of girls and women.

Hirut, (1979) argued that what is widely expected of Ethiopian girls is the assistance of their mothers in the household duties and in taking care of younger children. Traditional attitudes towards women influence girls' attitudes towards schooling, possibilities of employment and participation in community life. In areas where women are very much protected and are considered to some extent immature, it can be very difficult for girls to try to prove themselves at school, in the case of those who are permitted to attend school. Different treatment exist for girls and boys in school like boys going to giminastics, playing football, learning crafts, while girls learn swing , home making etc. The sex of the student is taken into consideration enforcing stereotypes and their expectations from education. From those females who got the chance to go to schools, quite a considerable number of them repeat once or more at every grade level. A higher dropout rate is also another problem. Almost all the studies carried out in Ethiopia regarding the academic performance of females indicated that males perform better than girls in all subject at every grade level. Some have revealed that in the curricula and the educational materials, topics, languages, activities, characters, occupations and examples in the texts as well as pictorial content are generally male biased. The problem is most serious in science subjects. In general the curriculum fails to nurture and encourage the girls.

Similarly, an examination of under graduate intake for degree programmes indicate that girls only account for 10.9 %. Their distribution in the various fields of specialization too clusters around social sciences, agriculture (home science), the natural sciences, veterinary

CCRDA

sciences and medicine, in that order. It should be stressed that, even though it may be somewhat encouraging that female students have started to join some male dominated fields, they are still the minority.

The current male female ratio in science and technology in Ethiopia has resulted from the previous generations' prejudice which influenced the educational system, including the criteria of admission to science and technology courses and reserved certain activities only for men discriminating against women. Special efforts should be made to change social behaviour, starting at elementary schools, to encourage women to study general science and technical subjects and to promote positive attitudes in women's professional and skills development, (Atsede, 1991).

On the other hand, the majority of the Ethiopian women did not get the opportunity to attend formal education. Non-formal education is the main mechanism to reach these women, who are responsible for very exhausting and time consuming task in the home as well in agriculture. The past literacy campaigns and other adult education activities in the non-formal education sector gave chance to many women to introduce themselves to some reading and writing skills. However, due to lack of follow up, continuity and other factors, many women became illiterate again and unable to apply the skills they have acquired.

Indeed, the position of women in the home and their overriding influence in the socialization of the child make their education imperative and indispensable for proper national development. Such development, of which education is a major foundation should work towards enhancing the socio-economic and political status of women in order that they may play an increasing role in social, economic and political life of their society.

In most of Ethiopian cultures the patriarchal system is dominant, influencing division of labour by sex. Limiting the female to that of a wife, a mother and a house keeper and promoting ideas and norms reinforcing these. Despite government efforts to offer more opportunities to women in education and training and non-discriminatory policies, the goals

CCRDA

of the plan are still far from being fully achieved. The education of women still lags behind that of men from primary to university level, inequalities in curricula and enrolment still exist. Girls continue to be offered more of the home-oriented rather than employment-oriented subjects.

The necessity of education for a country's economic development is known however, Ethiopia's educational curriculum still classifies educational fields " for women" and "for men". Education has remained the main and effective tool to promote the dynamics of knowledge, skill and attitude and their spread out all over. In addition to the social and economic outcome of education, the effect is not the same for women and men.

Employment

Opportunities and rewards are by no means equal, despite the universal declaration of human rights provision that everyone without any discrimination has the right to equal pay for equal work. It is not uncommon for women to receive as little as half the normal wages paid to men for exactly the same work, (Hirut, 1979; Rose, 1973). This shows that traditional attitudes towards girls and women, and their place in the society have also militated against education and employment of girls and women. Employment, both in public and private sectors are very low compared to those of men. Daniel, (1980) stressed that education is one of the keys for entering into the modern sector. As noted earlier, this is an area where women are particularly disadvantaged. Not only are their chances to full participation and equality minimized but they also lack education and training which has serious repercussions on the socio-economic development of the country. Since women constitute more than half the society, a nation which is seriously committed to raising the living standard of its citizens has to consider women not as marginal to the development process but as essential human resource for generating balanced development. Yet many studies in Ethiopia have shown that cultural values repurcuss on the education of women, which are influenced by a society's views of gender roles.

CCRDA

The employment survey of Ethiopia published by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MOLSA, 1981) showed a total number of employees in both the public and private sectors, of which 82.1% were males and only 17.9% were females. In all sectors of employment, whether on temporary or contract basis, male workers outnumber female workers. The number of women employed in 1986/87, as studied by the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs, in the above mentioned fields of works accounted for 23 % and women employed by the government comprised 25 %. Women employed in prominent positions was very low and by 1989 it amounted to only 2.9 % and 4.2 % in private and government employment respectively. This shows that the number of trained and professional women is very low. Gender specific distribution of job seekers by educational attainments shows that for both sexes illiterate, represent the highest proportion followed by those with elementary education. For females the degree of concentration by educational category is consistently lower than that of males except for the illiterates.

Customary attitudes and practices as well as other socio-economic factors account for and explain women's under-representation in employment. Women are not only under represented as wage earners generally but when employed they are predominantly found in low-paying unskilled tasks, in manufacturing, trade and tourism. As already shown, parental and family expectations of the female child are lower than the male child. The social environment continues to encourage males to high aspirations. Custom makes greater demands on the female than the male child, child upbringing practices negate the personal development of the female child so that by the time the female child attains womanhood, her orientation towards her position in society is more negative than positive (Daniel, 1980, 1983; Gennet, 1974; Hirut, 1979). It is often true that a qualified woman has greater difficulty in obtaining employment or advancing in it than has a man with the same qualification.

Available information regarding women's employment in most African countries indicates that there is no discrimination between men and women in wage employment and that labour laws provide for equal pay for equal work and for equal treatment between men and

CCRDA

women. However, in Ethiopia men still dominate wage employment. Specific efforts aimed at improving women's access to and their status in wage employment have been slow overall. Women are still concentrated in the low status and low paying services such as teaching, nursing, social work and secretarial job. This is because of limited education and training opportunities coupled with home oriented curricula traditionally offered to women, their modern sector labour force participation is limited.

Women represent negligible proportions of persons employed in the professional/technical and administrative/managerial occupations. A totally unbalanced situation also exists in male/female occupational distribution in the whole nation, (Lakew and Hirut, 1968). Employment usually means participation in the wage labour force. This definition therefore excludes unpaid family workers, in rural agricultural settings or in an urban environment and disregards the invaluable services of house wives, thus excluding the vast majority of Ethiopian women.

Ethiopian women, whether they are in rural areas or in the urban areas, perform the most tedious and back breaking work, but employment as defined above is limited to a small portion of women in Ethiopia, (Daniel, 1980). Boserup, (1970) writing about African countries problem, pointed to women in the labour force that the low female labour force participation rates in the region and particularly in the modern sector are due to the combined influences of traditional African and European patriarchalism which tend to prescribe a rigid system of division of labour patterned along gender lines. Gender roles change over time and differ from culture to culture. They are also strongly influenced by social class, age and ethnic background. Mosses, (1993) expressed,

> Our gender determines the different life experience we will exposed to, like access to education, to work, to tools and resources needed for industry and craft, it may determine our health, our life expectancy, our freedom of movement. It will almost certainly determine our sexuality, our relationships and our ability to make decisions and act autonomously. Thus our gender is perhaps the single most important factor in shaping who we become.

CCRDA

The fact that women are employed mostly in unskilled and semiskilled jobs means that their incomes are small and thus they are subordinate to their husbands. The kinds of job they can undertake is determined by their education and training. Thus education and training become directly relevant to employment and income. ILO, (1976) pointed out "that the resistance to a full participation by women in profession actively is explained by the reduced labour market which exists in an underdeveloped, capitalist and dependent country. If she considers her home as an ideal, a woman will not press for new openings in the labour market".

On the other hand, Ethiopian women do perform domestic tasks which compensate for men's insufficient minimum wage. Yet Women are discouraged form exercising a profession by their families, mainly by the male members. They themselves affirm that a mother of a small child should not work. This is due to their level of consciousness and the way they are brought up in the society, (Andromeda, 1968, Hirut, 1979, 1994). Thus in Ethiopia as elsewhere wage/salary employment is traditionally considered to be the prerogative of the male. In situations where the sources of wages/salary employment are scarce an unconscious mechanism is set in motion that tends to limit females access to them implying the dominance of males in non-agricultural employment, and changes over time, that are very slow,

The condition of women is by and large a function of access to resources and control of benefits. The traditional outlook is still adhered to by the majority of the population does not expect women to be owners of property, become bread earners for the family or assume leadership role in society. The fact that there are a number of women who have succeeded in exercising their rightful place in the society with equal status should be considered an exception rather than a rule.

The majority of women are not owners of land and are subordinate to their husband - head of the family, their access to credit from government institutions is limited. Until recently the service cooperatives were the legal entities with the right to borrow money for

CCRDA

development and other activities. Credit is therefore channelled to peasants through membership of service cooperatives and existence of collateral. According to government sources, in 1985, out of about 4.5 million members of service cooperatives only 7 % were women. Even though the rural women who have been shown to work for 13-17 hours per day on low yielding but highly demanding subsistence farming and household chores could be considered to be economically active. Most recent estimates indicated that female's labour force participation to be about 34 % as compared to 55 % for the male. Out of the persons employed in the urban areas, women formed only about 18 %, (CSA, 1990).

Decision making

Women in Ethiopia have been kept away from decision making positions which is obviously the result of unequal distribution of power and opportunities to educational access in the society. Despite the fact that Ethiopian women constitute almost half of the population, they lag behind men in their participation in public life and are the most vulnerable, weak and burdened population groups. They lack decision-making power and have little or no education, leading to a low level of consciousness, low participation in the limited health services and low income gender based labour. They also lack appropriate technologies to ease their daily work burden and access to productive assets. In addition they are negatively affected by harmful traditional attitudes and practices buttressed by legal institutions.

> Moore, (1988) argued that the interest of women are subsumed under the general interests of all citizens, without any recognition of the fact that women are not the same sort of citizens as men. It is important to be clear that the position of women and their ability to pursue their interests are cross cut by race and class, ethnic origin and religion, but the fact that some women may be able to exercise their rights as citizens more fully than others dose not alter the relative inequalities which exist between women and men.

The fact that women do not have definite participation in the country's political and economic affairs, and efforts to know their stand on these matters have never been made, and that no plans have ever been outlined to equip them with a forum where they can air their views, have resulted in excluding women's views from the decisions of various issues

CCRDA

of the country. Overlooked however, has been the fact that the implementation of such decisions does not exclude women and that they have an influence on their lives. The result of all these has been that women have been totally outside of political posts.

The main reason for women's exclusion from advisory and decision making positions is the discriminatory sex barrier imposed by the society which regards women as inferior. This attitude is not only advocated by men but seems to be accepted by women as well. The inability of modern education and way of life to change this deep rooted backward point of view has been greatly restricting women's role in the society and preventing them from being seen as equals of men. The above statements can be qualified when one observes the two tables showing the registered job seekers by occupational preference and number of trainees in vocational institutions in 1980.

In occupational categories, the proportion of females in the professional and technical, administrative and managerial, is negligible, as may be observed from their exceedingly low presence in the 1980 job seekers records. This must be seen in light of the cultural prescription that positions of command are naturally within the male domain.

In the absence of specific information, one would presume that professional and technical ability in respect to females covers such fields as nursing, medical auxiliary work, home economics, nutrition, grade school teaching, bookkeeping and perhaps positions which persons with some exposure to second or third level education and/or training occupy. The aspiration for managerial and administrative position for women is low. Vocational training in that area for women is also very low. This can only be explained by the relative deprivation females suffered in educational attainment and the social values attached to women in the society.

Gennet, (1991) has characterized Ethiopian society as patriarchal according to which women are inferior to men, women's activities are within the home and involving cooking, raising children and taking care of the household. These are laborious and routine; they are not as highly remunerative and prestigious as men's activities and do not involve major decision making. A woman is supposed to be

CCRDA

a counterpart to her husband or son deriving satisfaction indirectly from their development; she is expected to reach her destiny by proxy in that Ethiopian women do not occupy jobs of high status and position nor do they participate in scientific fields. Those in managerial administrative, technical and scientific positions are very few.

The absence of women in decision making at all levels of government in the past was identified by the government. Some changes in this situation have already started; a few women have been appointed as ministers and vice ministers within the transitional government structure. The appointment of 4 women ministers, 2 ambassadors and one vice minister by the transitional government is an encouraging situation for future Ethiopian women in sharing power and in making decisions that affect their lives. That there are about 20 women appointees on managerial levels in government ministries and institutions and about 20 at department-head levels is an assertion of the change in women's position in decision making. It is hoped that this positive trend will continue. Furthermore, the creation of technical women's department in each strategic governmental agencies is recognized.

It was also seen that the capacity of the modern sector to absorb the emerging female work force is limited and is coupled with the lack of equal economic and societal opportunities for women. Though there may be some women executives in industry, their influence or decision-making generally meets considerable resistance, and women are often discouraged from taking advantage of existing opportunities for expanded managerial role, for they face institutional and attitudinal barriers.

As pointed out by Yeshimebet (1969) the law was in favour of males, religious teachings preaching male supremacy, that it was man's world, the government a man's government, and the country a man's country. From this point of view, women have no place in the society nor can they make decisions affecting their own lives.

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To improve the employment situation of Ethiopian women, the government national machineries and non-governmental organizations have to make organized and coordinated efforts to mobilize women through women's groups in rural and urban centres as well as through implementation of policies. To mention some of the policies endeavoured to improving the situation of Ethiopian women are Policy on women, health, education, Population social and economic policies of the country. These policies have explicitly tried to address the injustices that women in Ethiopia have suffered for long. The proper implementation of these policies must be the primary aspiration of the government, government agencies and all concerned bodies in the country.

Summary and Recommendations

- The situation of women to be perceived in the context of the whole society.

- Socialization is what makes the type of women she would be in her adult hood. Which is in favour of tradition we are socialized from birth to older ages but the young age formation has a lot to play through the social institutions family kinship and marriage and the community at large.

- Women in Ethiopia are often discouraged from taking advantage of existing opportunities in education, employment and other decision making position where the role of women and men are defined and ascribed by sex and age men and women, depending on whether they are children or adult they are required to do certain socially defined jobs which affects the pattern of education, employment and decision making.

- Women's contribution to the family well being and community development as well as at the society level is un recognized.

- No opportunity for women to work out side their home because of male domination, family pressure on women, low level of education and skill etc.

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- Expectation of the Society being very low for women contribution and giving women very low social positions than men.

- Women accepting low social position and act accordingly.

- Low level of awareness among women,

- The condition of women is by and large lack access to resources and control of benefits. This is because of the traditional out look is still adhered by the majority of the population does not expect women to be owners of property, earners for the family or assume leadership role in society.

- Customary attitudes and practices as well as other socio-economic factors account for and explain women's under representation in employment to be unskilled under payed etc.

- Women in Ethiopia have been kept away from decision making partitions which is obviously the result of unequal distribution of power and opportunities to educational access in the Society.
- No education for women to limit number of their children (no education on family planning) women are burdened by raising children).
- No legal protection for women's right and equal opportunity.

- There are traditional laws that puts women lower to men, educating girls has been considered as doing wrong in the society etc.

Recommendations

- Concerned bodies and organization help women realize these problems and give opportunity to women to be organized.

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- Women be beneficiaries of their labour and owner of their products.
- Give women equal opportunity to be educated, trained and be informed.
- Harmful traditions to be avoided and fought against by the society.
- Improve living standard of the society.
- Protect rights of women in all respect.
- Give women the right to participate in decision making at all levels.
- Introduce improved technology for reducing women's labour.
- Educated men to change their attitudes to wards women.
- Socio Cultural factors those putting women at lowers position should be removed boy educating the society.
- Encourage positive cultures to grow.
- Educate parents to treat the boys and girls equally.
- Women should learn and be equipped to space their children.
- Sharing house work and responsibilities between husband and wife.
- Give women opportunity to participate in socio economic development, by educating them, giving health services, training them etc.

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- Encourage women's public appearance.

- Encourage women to participate where their profession and capacity allows them (no discrimination against women employment.)

- Give constitutional protection for women.

- Implementing the existing policy and educating women on their legal rights.

- Moral and material support for women to participate in development.
- Solidarity among women.

These recommendations are for all those concerned about the problems facing women and willing to help them solve for their participation in development efforts can be possible in the near future.

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Appendix

Policies Concerned with Women

The major Policies that are concerned with women in Development are:

I. National policy on Ethiopian women that aims at achieving the following goals:

1. ensure and respect women's rights to equality in every aspect of life,
2. create an environment which will enable women to equally initiate ideas and participate in the formulation and implementation of development and economic plans,
3. eliminate step by step centuries old gender based discriminatory attitudes and practices towards women, and
4. ensure the supply of basic services necessary for women as well as for the over all development of society.

II. National Population Policy of Ethiopia which has the following specific objectives:

1. reducing the current total fertility rate of 7.7 children per women to approximately 4.0 by the year 2015,
2. increasing the prevalence of contraceptive use from the current 4.0% to 44.0% by the year 2015,
3. reducing maternal, infant and child morbidity & mortality rates as well as promoting the level of general welfare of the population,
4. significantly increasing female participation at all levels of the educational system,
5. removing all legal and customary practices militating against the full enjoyment of economic and social rights of women including the full enjoyment of property rights and access to gainful employment,
6. insuring spatially balanced population distribution pattern in a view to maintaining environmental security and extending the scope of development activities,

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7. improving productivity in agriculture and introducing off farm non agricultural activities for the purpose of employment diversification, and

8. mounting an effective country wide population information and education programme addressing issues pertaining to small family size and its relationship with human welfare and environmental security.

In this regard, the Ministry of Education has made a forum that discussed the problem of education in Ethiopia in general and the gender biased curriculum in particular. The forum resulted in formulating education policy which has the following as one of its objectives and strategies to focus on women's education respectively, (MOE, 1993).

- To introduce a system of education that would rectify the misconceptions and misunderstandings regarding the roles and benefits of female education.

- The design and development of curriculum and text books at both central and regional levels will be based on fundamental, pedagogical and standards, and above all, national and local realities and needs with special focus on gender issues.

Most of these issues are directly responsible for empowering women and improving the situation of Ethiopian women, if implemented. The other policies that are also pertinent for changing women situation are educational policy and health policy. It should be noted and underlined that these policies must be implemented for women to effectively participate in development of their country.

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For simulation in Groups

1. All groups will write ten proverbs concerning women

2. How do you think women are perceived when they are
   mothers? wives?
   sisters? daughters?
3. How do you like to raise your children?
   for those married
   for those unmarried
4. What have you observed about the community you work with and your neighbours?
5. Visualise what marriage means for
   men? women?
6. Birth reception in your community
   for boys? for girls?

The participant will come together and evaluate each groups work to clearly see the position of women within the context they understand.

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THE ROLE OF WOMEN IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN ETHIOPIA

DEJENE AREDO

CCRDA

TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
1.	INTRODUCTION	1
2.	A NOTE ON THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF GENDER ANALYSIS	1
3.	GENDER AND ECONOMIC POLICY	3
	3.1 The Rationale for Gender Planning	3
	3.2 Identifying Practical and Strategic Needs of Women	4
	3.3 Policy Approaches To Low Income Women	5
	3.4 Gender And Structural Adjustment Policy: A Note	7
4.	ACCESS TO AND CONTROL OF RESOURCES	8
	4.1 Female-Headed / Farm Households	8
	4.2 Marriage And Intergenerational Transfer Of Income	11
	4.3 Relative Decision Making Power	13
	4.4 Income Diversification Behavior of Men, Women, and Children	14
5.	THE GENDER DIVISION OF LABOUR	16
	5.1 The Gender Dimension of Rural Labour Force	16
	5.2 Time Budget Studies	21
6.	CONCLUSIONS	21
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	24
	ANNEXES	25

CCRDA

1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to present a synoptic review of the literature on the role of women in rural development in Ethiopia with a view to identifying the most important research findings of interest to rural development practitioners like NGOs and their extension workers and planners.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. The second section presents the theoretical framework of gender analysis while the third reviews the various policy approaches to low income women. The fourth section discusses patterns of access to and control of resources by women. The fifth section presents the highlights of the gender division of labour in rural Ethiopia. The last sections provides conclusions and policy implications.

The study attempts to challenge some the stereotypes that are commonly held about rural women on the basis of fresh evidence generated mainly by the present author.

2. A NOTE ON THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF GENDER ANALYSIS

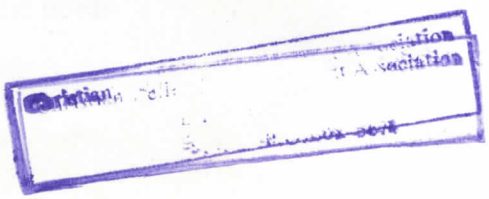
Gender analysis is an area that has been shared by different disciplines. So far, there has been no comprehensive theory to explain the role of women in development. As to Boserap's (1970) theory, it provides one narrow argument: the progressive diminution in the contributions of women with technological progress.

Economic theory is quite on gender issues. It is only in recent times that economists showed interest in the microeconomics of gender issues. Topics such as the New Home Economics, inter-household issues, economics of fertility, etc. have gained currency in recent years.

Aspects of the theory of gender issues are reviews by this author elsewhere [Dejene 1995; 1996]. Some of the theoretical issues pertaining to gender analysis are:

- how women's contributions to agricultural growth changes in response to technological progress and market expansion;
- the effects of colonial and neocolonial modes of production on the gender division of labour;

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- under what conditions do women make independent decision about production, consumption, market participation, and about fertility? ;
- what factors determine gender division of labour? and
- how does progressive intensification of agriculture affect patterns of gender division of labour?

Regarding the last point, Bossen (1989) has provided extremely relevant and convincing propositions. Bossen's contributions to the literature are reviewed by Dejene (1996). The following provides a brief summary of her hypotheses:

1. compatibility with child care (the location model) dictates that the sexual division of labour remains strongly influenced by choices involving work location and the needs for children (i.e. women tend to be engaged more in tasks undertaken inside or near the homestead as compared to men);

- the similarity of adjacent tasks favours a minimization of switching from one sex to another in a production sequences since switching involves extra efforts;
- cropping patterns can influence patterns of sexual division of labour (e.g. the processing of most root crops, enset being an exception, does not require long hours of sustained effort each day); and
- with the intensification of agriculture men's work tends to increase both absolutely and relatively due to changes in the structure of demand for and supply of household time. (The process of intensification releases men's labour for farm work while it creates, at the same time, increased demand for women's labour for housework).

Bossen's thesis can be extended by incorporating institutional development into gender analysis. For example, it can be argued that, with intensification. permanent housing and cultural norms grow in importance thus creating increased demand on women's labour.

CCRDA

3. GENDER AND ECONOMIC POLICY

The purpose of this section is to briefly address these related questions: (1) Can we plan for the needs of low income families generally or is it necessary to plan for the needs of women in their own right? and (2) What are the origins, nature, and implications of the various policy approaches to women in development (WID)?

3.1 The Rationale for Gender Planning

If Planning is to succeed, it has to be gender sensitive. Gender planning is based on the underlying assumption that because men and women play different roles in society, they often have different needs, and face different constraints. This calls for the need to disaggregate households and individuals within communities on the basis of gender. It is also necessary to characterize gender division of labour and to disaggregate data and information on gender basis. In characterizing gender division of labour it is important to identify the triple role of rural women, i.e. reproductive (motherhood), productive, and community managing work (e.g. participation in mass organizations such as service co-operatives).

An abstract stereotype model of rural women fails to recognize that households are not homogeneous. In fact rural women can be subdivided into female-headed households and conjugally-based (or joint) households. Female-headed household itself could be of two types: (1) **de jure** female-headed households (in which the male partner is permanently absent due to separation or death, and the women is legally single, divorced or widowed) and (2) **de facto** female-headed households (in which the male partner is temporarily absent, due, for instance, to long-term working migration or refugee status).

Thus, the rational for gender planning arises because: 1. Women play different roles from men as defined by existing patterns of division of labour in a given society, 2. Women play triple roles while men play only dual roles (productive work and community management), and 3. Rural women are heterogeneous. These factors give rise to needs which are specific to women. Gender planning attempts to address these needs.

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3.2 Identifying Practical and Strategic Needs of Women

In a project planning exercise, it is critically important to make a distinction between two types of gender needs, namely, strategic needs and practical needs. The former is defined as those needs which are formulated from the analysis of women's subordination to men, and deriving out of this the strategic gender interest identified for an alternative, more equal and satisfactory organization of society than that which exists at present, in terms of both the structure and nature of relationships between men and women [Moser 1989: 89-90]. Strategic needs, as Molyneux (1985:233) has identified, may include all or some of the following:

> The abolition of the sexual division of labour [?], the alleviation of the burden domestic labour and childcare; the removal of institutionalised forms of discrimination such as rights to own land or property, or access to credit; the establishment of political equality; freedom of choice over childbearing; and the adoption of adequate measures against male violence and control over women.

Practical needs or issues "are those derived from the everyday situations that women find themselves" [Alsop 1993:368]. Projects dealing with these issues would address the needs expressed by women in their existing position within society. On the other hand, projects dealing with strategic issues are those addressing the issue of sexual equality. But the two are closely linked. In fact, it has been demonstrated that it is possible to address strategic issues through projects focused on practical gender issues [Alsop 1993].

CCRDA

The following illustrations from Moser (1989) can make clear the distinction between strategic needs and practical needs of women. The provision of skill training often meets an important practical gender needs by allowing access to employment. But how far it also meets strategic needs of women depends not only on whether it increase women's economic independence but also on the type of training provided. In contrast to this, skill training in such areas as primary school teaching, nursing and dressmaking often meets the income -generating needs of women. But the last type of skill (i.e. dressmaking) may not challenge existing gender division of labour because it is an area in which women traditionally work. (However, women may have comparative advantages in the areas they traditionally

work). On the other hand, the training of women in areas traditionally identified as men's work (e.g. house construction) may not only widen employment opportunities for women, but also may break down existing occupation segregation, thereby fulfilling the strategic gender needs aimed at he transformation of existing sexual division of labour. It is possible that projects that address the strategic needs of women meet hostility and resistance from vested interest groups.

Another illustration is from the planning of gender needs in basic services. The planning of childcare facilities, such as a crèche or nursery, provides a good example of the way in which differences in location of service center can result in different gender needs being met. If located at the women's workplace, a nursery will certainly meet her practical gender need for adequate childcare facilities, essential for her to undertake wage employment. If the nursery is located at the father's place of work, this provides opportunity for meeting both practical and strategic gender needs since it involves the father in taking some of the responsibility for childcare, and thereby alleviates the burden of domestic labour on the woman.

3.3 Policy Approaches to Low Income Third World Women and Gender Planning

Identification of the extent to which a planned intervention is appropriate to gender needs of women requires an examination of the conceptual rationale underlying different policy approaches from a gender planning perspective. Each approach can be evaluated in terms of which practical or strategic gender needs it meets. It is possible to identify the following approaches: (1) the welfare approach, (2) the equity approach, (3) the anti-poverty approach, (4) the efficiency approach, and (5) the empowerment approach [Moser 1989]. The essential features of these approaches are summarized in the Annex 1 below. These approaches, which are not entirely mutually exclusive can be categorized together under the Women in Development (WID) approach.

The **Welfare approach** is the oldest and still the most popular social development policy for the Third World in general, and women in particular. This approach is

CCRDA

based on the assumptions that: (1) Women are passive recipient of development, rather than active participants in the development process and (2) Motherhood is the primary role that women play. The welfare approach focuses on the practical needs of women. When training is included in women focused programmes, it is for those skills deemed appropriate for non-working housewives and mothers. Food aid to vulnerable groups is another example of the welfare approach to meeting gender needs. Other examples include nutritional education targeting children under five years, and pregnant and nursing mothers and population control through family planning programmes.

The **equity approach**, which coincides with original WID approach, recognizes that woman are active participants in the development process. The approach, which was initiated with the 1975 International Women's Year Conference, starts with the basic assumption that economic growth strategies have frequently negative impact on women, and acknowledges that they must be brought into the development process through access to employment and market opportunities. In focusing particularly on reducing inequality between men and women, especially in the sexual division of labour, the equity approach meets an important strategic gender need. The underlying logic of this approach is that women have lost ground to men in the development process (see Boserup 1970). Accordingly, the equity approach implies that governments should put in place policies that redistribute income in favour of women[1] . But these approach did not receive much acceptance from Third World governments, who consider it as an "irrelevant Western-exported feminism to the Third World Women" [Moser 1989:100].

The **anti-poverty approach**, which draws from the basic needs strategy of the World Bank's 1970s, links economic inequality to poverty rather than to subordination to men. Here women's issues are separated from equity issue, and linked with the practical concern for the majority of Third World Women as the poorest of the poor. This approach focuses mainly on women's productive role

CCRDA

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1 Note that such a policy violates an important law of neoclassical economics, namely, Pareto optimality. A Pareto optimum condition is attained when the economy's resource and output are allocated in such a way that no reallocation can make anyone better off without making at least on other person worse off. Welfare economics is traditionally based on the Pareto principle which requires a change to make at least one person better off and **no-one worse off** before it may be regarded as an improvement.

and attempts to provide employment opportunities for women so that they meet their practical gender needs to augment their incomes. Underlying this approach is the assumption that the origins of women's poverty and inequality with men are attributable to their lack of access to resources.

The **efficiency approach**, which has become popular among the major donors since the 1980s, is based on the assumption that increased economic participation for Third World Women is automatically linked with increased equity. With increased efficiency being the main objective of structural adjustment policies, it is no coincidence that efficiency is the policy approach toward women currently gaining popularity among major donors (the World Bank in particular) and governments alike. UNICEF's widely publicized plea to devise adjustment policies "with a human face" challenges the efficiency approach of the World Bank / IMF.

The **empowerment approach**, which has its origins in the emergent feminist writings and grassroots organization of Third World Women, attempts to empower women through greater self-reliance and internal strength. It seeks to empower women through the redistribution of power within, as well as between, societies.

CCRDA

3.4 Gender and Structural Adjustment Policy

Structural adjustment policy (SAP), of which more than 100 programmes of economic reform have been implemented in developing countries since the 1980's and which is being implemented in Ethiopia, has two main components: (1) Stabilization dealing with macroeconomics imbalance (i.e. balance of payment problems and budgetary deficit) and (2) Structural adjustment dealing with long-term growth through market liberalization and reform of public sector.

The former focuses on the demand side problems while the latter deals with supply-side problems. Many developing countries, including Ethiopia, have implemented SAP pertaining to the following reform measures: currency devaluation, market liberalization, reduction in government expenditure, privatization and deregulation of public enterprises, etc.

SAP has been criticized, among other things, on the ground that it does not address gender issues since it attempts to be gender-neutral. Some of the possible adverse effects of SAP on poor women are: increases in the double burden of paid and unpaid work, rising unemployment, increased wage differentials, rising poverty (related to increasing number of female-headed households), increased marginilization of women farmers as the export of cash crops (an area in which women are marginalized) is promoted, diminished school enrollment for girls, etc. [e.g. see Sparr 1994]. The validity of these hypotheses is subject to empirical research. Further, the following questions still remain unanswered: (1) Does SAP have differential impact on men and women, and if so, why?; (2) Why are grass-roots organizations such as NGOs often critical of SAP?

4. ACCESS TO AND CONTROL OF RESOURCES

The purpose of this section is to present an overview of the conditions of female-headed farm households, marriage and inheritance, and of income diversification and marketing behaviour of rural women.

4.1 Female-headed /Farm Households

Rural women are not homogeneous. There are housewives (who in the cereal-producing highlands play a secondary role) and there are also women household heads who are food producers on their own right. What follows is a synoptic revise of detailed case studies from North and East Shewa [Dejene 1994a]. The case studies attempted to address the following issues: (1) Whether female- headed households have equal access to productive resources as male-headed households, (2) Whether female farmers are equally productive as male farmers in the production of major field crops, and (3) Whether it is possible to identify coping mechanisms employed by female-headed households.

The case studies suggested that female farmers have limited access to productive resources as compared to male farmers. However, the gap between the two types of households have been narrowed with technical progress. For example, the average size of holding for female farmers, as percent of that for male farmers, increased from 69 for North Shewa (a technologically backward area) to 90 percent for East Shewa (a relatively advanced agricultural region). Similarly, the

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average number of draft oxen was 0.69 per household for female-headed households and 1.39 per household for male-headed households in selected villages in North Shewa and 1.23 and 1.83 for female-headed and male-headed households in East Shewa, respectively.

It was also shown that, in the Adaa area of East Shewa, yield of all major crops was 9 quintals per hectare for female-headed households as compared to 11 quintals for male-headed households. Yield differentials between female and male farmers can partly be explained by factors such as: (1) more or limited access to complementary inputs by female farmers, (2) shortages of fertilizers at the time of the study (due to the introduction of cash payment requirement in 1992), (3) limited farm managerial skills by female farmers, and, perhaps, (4) land quality differentials between female and male farmers. Some women complained that they were unfairly treated by P.A. leader at times when land is redistributed.

The study undertaken in North Shewa suggested that female-headed households are among the most vulnerable group of society. In one village, for example, it was found that out of a total of 19 non-members of the P.A. (non-members are the poorest of the poor in the village), 18 were found to be female-headed households.

Many women farmers are far from being passive and helpless; they adopt different coping mechanisms in order to improve their economic and social status. Some of the mechanisms that they adopt are: food and beverage processing and sales of local drinks (e.g. **tella** and **arakie**), heavy reliance on garden crops, involvement in petty trade, and entering into contractual arrangements with other farmers (e.g. renting out land).

In fact, there are some women who succeeded as farmers. The study suggested that the successful women are those who are able to diversify their sources of income and those who are diligent and self-confident. Some of them were exposed to urban life.

For illustration purposes we presented the life histories of three women in the boxes [Dejene 1994a]. Box 1 provides the case of a divorcee banned by P.A.

CCRDA

leaders from selling local drinks. Box 2 provides the case of a separated women. Box 3 provides the case of a successful woman.

Box 1

A Divorcee Banned From Selling Local Drinks: the village of Sirbanna-Godeti, Age 60

This woman divorced her husband because of her growing suspect that he was having an affair with other women. So they quarreled and the divorce was settled. Before the villagization programme she used to sell **Arakie**, soft drinks and tej (mead). She had a modest income. Then the "local dictators" (possibly P.A. leaders) ruled that she didn't have license to sell drinks and that her business was illegal. She was even imprisoned so she had to quit the trade.

This women says fertilizer are not available when required. So the impact on productivity is serious. Lack of grazing land is equally serious. Compared to other women she has a reasonable share of land. She hires a farm worker to work on her farm. She applies pesticide, in close associations with the community, to do away with the weeds.

Box 2

A Separated woman in the village of Sirbanna-Godeti, Age 70

This woman was separated from her husband because he drank a lot and frequently came home late in the night. He was too careless concerning family matters and he often nagged her. So she decided to be alone.

She says it was unusual that they were asked to pay in cash for fertilizers. She doesn't have the capacity to pay cash. In 1985/86 E.C. she could afford to buy some fertilizer but that was not enough. As a result, her produce for the year declined as compared to previous years. She has to buy seeds for the next season with a loan on interest from some one. This causes delays in farm operations. She received land like any other family on the basis of family size. Those who have small family got smaller. She has two members in the family so she got 4 **kerts** (1 hectare). She has one ox which she paired with that of another farmer. The man tills his land for two days and hers for one day. She handles the weeding with the assistance of a girl while the harvesting is done on the basis of piece work.

Box 3

A Successful Divorcee in the Village of Oudie, Age 58

This woman is grateful to God she has no major problems. She earns a modest income. In the past she managed to make ends meet by selling cow dung cakes and also by working as a maid servant. It was in this way that she brought up her only child. Her son went to school and at the same time he participated in food-for-work programme where he later became a supervisor and got a modest salary in kind. He sold whatever he got from the programme and saved the money. His mother became a member of the peasant association. She got land like any other member. Her son bought

CCRDA

oxen from his saving. He also handled the farm work. At present, the family is on a good stand. The son now lives in the near-by town. She now hires a farmer to handle her farm work. A minor conflict caused her divorce from her husband. She was first living in Addis Ababa where she had her only son. She was then sick and this made her martial life difficult. So she abandoned her husband and went to her birth place where she lives now. She buys thinner animals and fattens them for sale. With the money, she buys fertilizers and other things. She also takes extra land for contract for a year and operates it .

4.2 Marriage and Intergeneration Transfers of income

The purpose of this section is to underline the influence of culture on patterns of access to resources as mediated through marriage and inheritance practices in rural Ethiopia. This brief review draws heavily from an analysis of village level surveys and anthropological studies [Dejene 1996].

In rural Ethiopia, in general, individual choices about marriage and its dissolution are largely circumscribed by cultural and social factors. For example, marriage arrangements are often made by parents without the knowledge of the bride and the bridegroom.

One feature of the wedding ceremony is the custom of income and asset transfers between the families of the bride and of the bridegroom. However, gift exchange arrangements vary from place to place from time to time. For example, in a village in Gedeo, the bride-wealth has gradually evolved from an iron piece to cash (about Birr 90).

Ostentatious feasts are held during the wedding day and in subsequent days. The extent of expenditure on food, drinks, and the like (which is a form of status symbol), depends on the economic status of the hosting households. Ceremonial expenses in eight villages in different parts of Ethiopia were estimated at 18 percent of non-food expenditure.

In many cases the newly-married couples are assisted by their respective parents until they build their own house and establish an independent household. In many cases, the couples live in the house of the parent of the bridegroom until they get land and build their own house. Building a house signifies a landmark in the life of

CCRDA

a young person. But, in recent years a growing number of young people has found it difficult to establish an independent household because of shortages of land and of timber for construction. A thatched roof house in the Adaa costs from 500 to 1000 Birr.

There has been a high degree of marriage stability in rural Ethiopia, especially among the southern people. In Kembata, for example, divorce is discouraged by the moral code of ethics known as **gome**. In the case of divorce, women are most often disadvantaged in the southern regions, in particular. There cases where, upon divorce, children will remain with their father and where the share of a woman will decline with the number of children she leaves behind.

In the northern part, women have traditionally enjoyed a high degree of freedom and participation in public affairs, perhaps, unparalleled in many pre-industrial societies (including feudal Europe). It is said that Emperor Zera-Yacob (1434-1468) at one time set up virtually entirely a women administration system as he was dissatisfied with the performance the men folks. Women among the northern aristocracy kept their own property separate from husbands and easily divorced. It has been reported that (at least) upon divorce, in a village in Gojam women share property almost equally with men and take children with them.

Intergenerational transfer of income (inheritance) in the south is biased in favour of the eldest son, who takes up the responsibility of managing the household and the farm upon the death of his father. But in the north and central regions (e.g. the Debre-Berhan area), Children get more or less equal shares of the inheritance depending on the will left behind by the deceased parent.

It can be hypothesised that, in recent decades, the following tendencies are evident: (1) increased decision making power of children regarding the selection of a partner, (2) increased incidence of civil marriage, (3) reduced polygamy, (4) increased monetization of the form of gifts exchanged, (5) a reduction in the number of cattle given as gift upon marriage, (6) reduced expenditure on wedding ceremony, and (7) increased incidence of divorce and marriage instability.

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4.3 Relative Decision Making Power

What factors determine the relative decision making power of men and women? In particular, how can we explain the production and marketing decision behaviour of household members? Although it is difficult to make generalizations, available evidence suggest the following testable hypotheses.

Some of the decisions are task-and crop-specific. That is, women have a say on the tasks or activities which fall within their domain. With reference to gender relations in the enset-producing areas Kefale et al (1994:46) noted that "gender divisions in decision making depend on who is involved in what tasks". Thus production decisions about enset (e.g. transplanting the clones) are made mainly by men while harvesting decisions are made by women. He also noted that "although the income generated by the sale of enset is small, it is the woman's to spend, usually on small (low value) commodities such as clothing for young children and salt". He then summed up his observations in the following terms:

> The amount of influence a person has when making decisions about a particular crop will depend on the extent of his (her) contribution to crop production. Women harvest and process enset and therefore they have almost complete authority when making decisions about its disposal. Their role in the production, harvesting and marketing of maize and teff is much smaller and so their influence is less [Kefale et al 1994:43].

Similarly, Dejene (1995) observed that women in a village in the Alemaya area of East Hararge have almost full authority regarding the production and marketing of pumpkin, a crop exclusively produced by women. But exclusive production of a crop by women is rare in Ethiopia, unlike other Sub-Saharan countries.

Women tend to have more decision making power regarding processed crops than on unprocessed ones. For example, Kefale (1994:47) observed that "although men receive the income generated from teff sold in Arreka [a town in the south], women also earn money from teff by making **enjera** and selling it at the local market".

The relative decision making power of men and women is influenced by the size and value of a commodity marketed and by the distance to market place. It can be hypothesised that women have more say on: (1) the sales of commodities of small

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batch size (e.g. a few kilos of grain) and of low value (e.g. eggs and chicken but not oxen) and (2) the sales of commodities brought to local market than on commodities brought to distant market places using pack animals. Thus Kefale (1994:49) noted that:

> Women sell small amounts of food products including modest amounts of teff and maize at the local markets, found less than an hour's walk away. Men sell larger amount of the grain crops at the market in Arreka, transporting the grain on a donkey.

It can also be hypothesised that women tend to have increased decision making power as the distance between the field and the homestead is reduced. Crops which are planted within or near the homestead tend to receive increased labour input from women. It is not surprising that garden crops like enset fall largely within the domain of women. Again Kefale (1994:48-49) noted that:

> Women are more involved in activities which take place close to the house.... Women harvest and process enset **in situ** in the gardens. They become involved in the preparation of land for maize if it is being planted in the fields close by .... The most common crop to find in the distant fields is teff, a crop requiring very little contribution from the women until it has been harvested and brought back to the house. Conversely, men can be found engaged in activities that take them away from the home.

In addition to the above, there can be other important factors explain relative decision making power and gender division of labour. For example the type of farm technology used can determine the extent to which women can make production decision. A plow-based faming, as compared to a hoe-based one, tends to limit women's contribution to agricultural production. Women in Moslem societies may not have similar crop production decision making power as women in Orthodox Christian areas.

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4.4 Income Diversification Behaviour of Men, Women, and Children

The purpose of this section is to present a brief summary of the findings of a year-long empirical study of cash income flows of sample households in a village in North Shewa [Dejene 1994b].

The major sources of household cash in the study village, in order of importance are sales of food grains (28%), livestock and livestock products (24%), forest products and grass (23%) and **araki** (11%). The rest of the income originated

from miscellaneous sources (9%) and financial incomes (5%). The non -farm sector, e.g. forest products and grass, **araki**, etc., have thus accounted for more than one-third of total cash income of sample household during the study period.

Most of these products were sold in the nearby town of Deber-sina. However, transaction takes place within the village itself. Inter-village transactions included occasional marketing of timber (mainly eucalyptus tree), livestock, houses, **araki**, tea and **dabbo**, seeds, **gesho**, etc.

The relative importance of the various sources of cash income has varied according to the gender of the household member. Females earned as much as 53 percent of their annual cash income from the sales of food grains while males earned only 20 percent from same. On the other hand, males earned 40 percent of their total cash income from the sales of livestock and livestock products while females earned only 8 percent from this sub-sector. The main reason for this variation is that high values assets such as oxen and cows are marketed mostly by males. On the other hand commodities of small batch size and of relatively low value are often marketed by females. Accordingly, livestock and livestock products which are marketed mainly by females, included chicken, eggs, and butter. Forest products and grass are marketed mainly by males. These non-farm products , which are rarely reported in national surveys, accounted for 29 percent of the annual cash incomes of males and for 11 percent of that of females. The task of cutting and carrying timber largely falls within the domain of males. On the other hand, the study has revealed that **araki** is an important source of income for females. **Araki** accounted for 21 percent of the annual cash incomes of females and only for 3 percent of that of males.

Strong intra-household variation in per capita cash income have been observed. Male household members tend to earn more cash income than females. Husbands earned an average of Birr 847 per year as compared to Birr 363 for wives (U.S. $1= 5.15Birr). All male children in the sample earned a total of Birr 6,868 per year while female children earned a total of Birr 3,586.

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The study has also suggested incidence of income pooling within the household. A quarter of the total cash income was received jointly by both sexes. Incomes generated by such activities as sales of food grains, forest products and grass, and miscellaneous items were also jointly received by both sexes.

5. THE GENDER DIVISION OF LABOUR IN RURAL ETHIOPIA

This section focuses on the employment conditions of rural women. The first part reviews the results of national surveys while the other parts present conclusions of time budget studies undertaken by the present author.

5.1 The Gender Dimension of Rural Labour Force

This section provides a general picture of rural women's employment situations as reported by CSA's Rural Labour Force Surveys of 1981-82 [CSA 1985] and 1987-88 [CSA 1992] and as reviewed by Dejene (1996). The following synopsis attempts to address these questions: (1) How can one characterize rural households?; (2) Do rural women dominate food production as many "gender-sensitive" people assert, and if not, why?; and (3) who dominates non-farm rural employment, men or women?

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Characterizing Rural Households

In rural Ethiopia, agriculture is the single major source of income. The 1987-88 survey reported that of the 31,105,927 sedentary rural population, as much as 92.6 percent is composed of agricultural households while only 3.6 percent is non-agricultural (e.g. government employees, traders, handicraftsmen, etc.).

A typically agricultural household is composed of five different demographic groups: (1)the household head, (2) a spouse, (3) children, (4) relatives, and (5) non-relatives. The extended family (i.e. relatives and non-relatives together) accounts for 10.3 percent of household members [CSA 1992].

The single family is very rare in rural areas. The 1981-82 survey reported that a one-person household accounted for only 2.7 percent of the total member of

households. The Household size was reported to be 4.8 in the 1981-82 survey and 4.69 in the 1987-88 survey.

Women-headed households accounted for 10 percent of the total in the 1981-82 survey and for 18 percent in the 1987-88 survey. Such an increase in the relative size of women-headed households between the two periods can, perhaps, be explained partly by the effects of the drought and famine of 1984-85 and by the civil war.

Similarly, the martial composition of the rural households has changed between the survey periods. The relative size of married persons has declined while that of singles showed a tendency to rise. The 1981-82 survey revealed that 29.9 percent of the rural population was single as against 33.3 percent in the 1987-88 survey. The percentage share of married persons declined from 61 to 56.3 over the same period. This development can be partly explained in terms of : (1) by the social dislocation of families caused by the drought and famine of 1984-85 and by the civil war and by factors such as growing landlessness (land being a prerequisite to set up household) and the campaigns of the 1980s that discouraged early marriage. Also growing school enrollment might have some effects on the timing of marriage. In fact, the singulated mean age at marriage for females (i.e. the number of years lived in the single stage by persons who marry before they reached 50 years) for total population increased from 16.9 years in the 1981-82 survey to 18 years in the 1987-88 survey.

Strong gender differences in the literacy rate are evidenced by the fact that the 1987-88 survey reported that 36 percent of the male population is literate as compared to 13.5 percent for the female population. These differences can partly be attributed to the following factors: (1) the practice of early marriage for girls, (2) distance of schools from villages (long travels may entail risk for girls), (3) high demand for girls' labour in housework, and (4) parents' bias in favor of male children in deciding on who should be sent to school.

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The employment Profile of Rural Women

The employment profile of rural women (relative to men) is provided in Table1 Economic activity rate (i.e. the ratio of the economically active population to the population in the age bracket 10 years and over multiplied by 100) for women is 52 percent as compared to 84 percent for men. This suggests that agricultural activities are, in general, dominated by men rather than women. As much as 76 percent of the rural female population is classified as "unpaid" family worker (as compared to 32 percent for males). However, women in the cereal-producting regions contribute to agricultural production through participation in, in particular, weeding and harvesting activities. In fact, women's activity rate rose to 55 percent during the weeding season (i.e. October) while it sharply declined during slack seasons. The mean number of days that women work is 4.1 as against 4.7 days per week for men.[2] The main reason why women's contribution to the production of food grains is limited is perhaps due to the extremely high demand for housework. According to CSA's 1987-88 survey, 71 percent of the females were "inactive" because of housework. In defining "work" or "economic activity", the CSA adopted the conventional concepts as provided in the economic text books. That is, "work" is defined in its narrow sense, pertaining only to income-generating activities such as farming. Thus, this approach tends to overstate the magnitude of the surplus labour and understate the contribution of women to the survival of the household. It is only through time budget studies that the true magnitude of women's contributions be visible to planners and policy makers.

Here we should note that women's contributions vary depending on the farming system, cultural variables, production technologies, etc. For example, in the enset areas of the south women's contribution to food production is no less important than that of men. Even within the cereal-producing regions, women's contribution varied widely (e.g. in Hararge activity rate was 18 and in Gojam 72%).

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2 But this does not take into account the intensity of work. In fact, the CSA defined a "day" as half or full day of the work-week.

Table 1

The Employment Profile of Men and Women in Rural Ethiopia (National averages)

Variables	Male	Female	Both sexes	Source
1. Economic activity rate (%)	84.4	51.7	68.6	Mean of CSA, RLF survey of 1981-82 and 1987-88, and 1984 census.
2. Economic activity rate during a slack season (April)	77.6	34.7	-	
3. Economic activity rate during a peak seasons (October, Weeding)	83.0	54.9	-	CSA, RLF survey of 1987-88, ÇS approach
4. Percent of population engaged in non-agricultural and related activities	1.1	8.6	4.2	CSA, RLF survey of 1987-88
5. Persons engaged in rural trade by sex (%)	12.0	88.0	-	CSA, RLF survey of 1987-88
6. Persons engaged in rural manufacturing activities by sex (%)	17.0	83.0	-	CSA, RLF survey of 1987-88
7. Persons engaged in community, social and personal services by sex (%)	79.0	21.0	-	CSA, RLF survey of 1987-88
8. Unpaid family worker by sex (%)	31.7	75.8	49.3	CSA, RLF survey of 1987-88
9. Mean number of days worked per week	4.7	4.1	4.1	

RLF = Rural Labour Force CS = Current Status

Based on CSA's reports concerning economic activity rates, it is possible to attach the following weights to the various demographic categories of a typical rural household: household heads (mostly men) (1), spouse (almost all are women) (0.32), children (0.13), and other household members (0.09). These weights, which can be considered as man-equivalent, suggest that household heads are the main breadwinners.[3]

Economic activity rate is closely associated with marital status. Women in female-headed households are more active than women in conjugally based households. For example, the 1987-88 survey reported that women in female-headed households, (i.e. women heading households) have economic activity rate of 65

[3] The weights can be interpreted as follows: (e.g.) for every 100kg of grain a man produces, a woman produces 32kgs, assuming that output is directly proportional to the activity rate or to labour input.

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percent as against 53 percent for housewives. A woman household head is the main breadwinner for the family (i.e. food producer on her own right).

On the other hand, there are other "productive" activities (other than agriculture) in which women dominate. The CSA surveys clearly showed that women do dominate non-agricultural income-generating activities. Of the total population engaged in trade, 88 percent was accounted for by women. Similarly, 83 percent of persons engaged in manufacturing (e.g. spinning, knitting, etc.) consisted of women. Perhaps, these are the areas where women have comparative advantages over men. Have we exploited this opportunity to the maximum?

Based on the CSA surveys, we can classify women's and men's non-agricultural activities as follows: (1) female occupation (trade, handicraft, forestry, medical services, and domestic services), (2) largely male occupation (teaching, religious work, clerical work, administration, iron work, tailoring, tanning, mining, quarrying), and (3) "male only" occupations (such as operating transport equipment, shoe-making, stone carrying, crafting jewels and precious metals).

Non-agricultural occupations, activities which are dominated by women, have been found to be more important in the southern regions of Sidamo and Gamu-Gofa than in any other region (except Hararge where commerce is very important). According to the 1987-88 survey, Sidamo and Gamo-Gofa have, respectively, 11.4 and 10 percent of their total labour force engaged in this sector. On the other hand, the northern provinces of Wello and Gondar having been reported as having the lowest rates of participation in secondary occupations.

Non-agricultural employment has been dominated by three sub-sectors, namely, (1) food and beverage processing (33%), (2) trade (20%), and (3) handicraft (15%). These sub-sectors together account for 68 percent of total employment outside agriculture. It is interesting to note that these sub-sectors have two things in common. (1) They are dominated by women and (2) they are directly linked with agriculture either through forward linkages or backward linkages.

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5.2 Time Budget Studies

With time, we can capture quantitatively the functioning of individuals within their environment. "Time use gives us insights into the value of society, and individuals in it, on place of work, on raising future generations, on mobility, or on the search for the better life" [Robinson 1977:1]. Time is also an indicator of social welfare and of economic development.

In his recent research monograph [Dejene 1996], the present author has attempted to develop a model for the analysis of time budget studies with a view to identifying and explaining the daily work of men, women, and children in case study villages in the cereal-producing highlands of Ethiopia.

The study suggested the following testable hypotheses: (1) peasants are actually engaged in various useful activities other than the ones envisaged by urban-based elites, (2) the size of the surplus labour is not as large as many people think it is , (3) in practice it is difficult to identify and measure pure leisure time, (4) rural labour is far from being homogeneous, (5) the gender division of labour in Ethiopian agriculture is, in many respects, different from the stereotype made for Sub-Saharan Africa, (6) housework is more demanding in Ethiopia agriculture, which is highly intensive, than less intensive systems found in many parts of Sub-Saharan Africa, and (7) the opportunity cost of transferring labour from agriculture to other sectors is actually higher than what many people think. Some of the propositions suggested above are indicated in Annex 2-6.

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6. CONCLUSIONS

This review has generated interesting hypotheses for discussion and further research. Moreover, some of the research findings reviewed here can be used as food for thought for rural development practitioners.

Rural women are found to be heterogeneous. In particular, it is very important to make a distinction between women heading households and housewives. The former, which account for as much as 18 percent of the rural households, have distinct needs from housewives. They are sole producers of food on their own rights and are constrained by

limited access to productive resources (including modern inputs) as compared to male farmers. They are, perhaps, among the most vulnerable groups of society. Therefore, female-headed households need special attention from planners and extension workers.

Housewives, in particular those in the cereals-producing highlands, have, in many respects, different needs and face different constraint from women heading households. Perhaps, they need less of extension survives for field crop production than skill in garden crops or efficiency in fuel use in home production.

The stereotype that women in Ethiopia invariably dominate food production should be discarded. Any generalization about rural women is likely to lead to misguided policy conclusions. There are regions where women play equally dominate role as men in food production (e.g. the enset-producing southern region) and where women contribute less labour than, men to food production but preoccupied with time-consuming daily chores (e.g. Gojam). In planning for women it is, therefore, important to identify location specific needs, constraints, and potentials.

In certain areas, women have comparative advantages over men. One of the interesting findings of this study is that women are likely more active than men in non-agricultural employment such as trade and handicraft. Projects that take this fact into account are likely to meet the practical and strategic needs of rural women.

The study has shed light on some of the demographic changes that are actually taking place in rural Ethiopia. there are indications that individuals are showing tendency towards late marriage and that the numbers of single households and of female-headed households have been increasing. It is, therefore, high time to undertake further research on this area and to strengthen those encouraging demographic tendencies and to deal with emerging social problems (e.g. the feminization of poverty).

Another widely spread stereotype about rural women in Ethiopia is that there is huge reservoir of surplus labour readily available for mobilization at any time. There has been no empirical evidence in support of this sweeping generalization. Take the labour of women: is it possible to mobilize women's labour say in Gojam, for agricultural production given the fact that they are pre-occupied with housework?

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Time budget studies suggest that women have different time schedule than men. In designing development projects (e.g. literacy programmes or radio programmes for women) it is important to identify suitable time for women.

It is obvious that CSA's surveys, which have adopted a narrow definition of work, have under-reported women's contributions to the survival of the household. It is only through time budget studies that the true magnitude of women's contributions be evident.

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Annex 1 *Different policy approaches to Third World women*

← "Women in Development" (WID) →

Issues	Welfare	Equity	Anti-poverty	Efficiency	Empowerment
Origins	Earliest approach: — residual model of social welfare under colonial administration — modernization/ accelerated growth economic development model.	Original WID approach: — failure of modernization development policy — influence of Boserup and First World feminists on Percy Amendment — declaration of UN Decade for Women.	Second WID approach: — toned down equity because of criticism — linked to Redistribution with Growth and Basic Needs.	3rd and now predominant WID approach: — deterioration in world economy — policies of economic stabilization and adjustment rely on women's economic contribution to development.	[redacted] — arose out of failure of equity approach — Third World Women's feminist writing and grassroot organizations.
Period most popular	1950–70: but still widely used.	1975–85: attempts to adopt it during and since Women's Decade.	1970s onward: still limited popularity.	Post 1980s: now most popular approach.	1975 onward: accelerated during 1980s, still limited popularity.
Purpose	To bring women into development as better mothers: this is seen as their most important role in development.	To gain equity for women in the development process: women seen as active participants in development.	To ensure poor women increase their productivity: women's poverty seen as problem of underdevelopment not of subordination.	To ensure development is more efficient and more effective: women's economic participation seen as associated with equity.	To empower women through greater self-reliance: women's subordination seen not only as problem of men but also of colonial and neocolonial oppression.
Needs of women met and roles recognized	To meet PGN* in reproductive role, relating particularly to food aid, malnutrition and family planning.	To meet SGN† in terms of triple role — directly through state top-down intervention, giving political and economic autonomy by reducing inequality with men.	To meet PGN* in productive role, to earn an income, particularly in small-scale income generating projects.	To meet PGN* in context of declining social services by relying on all three roles of women and elasticity of women's time.	To reach SGN† in terms of triple role — indirectly through bottom-up mobilization around PGN* as means to confront oppression.
Comment	Women seen as passive beneficiaries of development with focus on reproductive role. Nonchallenging therefore still widely popular especially with government and traditional NGOs	In identifying subordinate position of women in terms of relationship to men, challenging, criticized as Western feminism, considered threatening and not popular with govern.nent.	Poor women isolated as separate category with tendency only to recognize productive role; reluctance of government to give limited aid to women (means) popularity still at small-scale NGO level.	Women seen entirely in terms of delivery capacity and ability to extend working day. Most popular approach both with governments and multilateral agencies.	Potentially challenging with emphasis on Third World and women's self-reliance. Largely unsupported by governments and agencies. Avoidance of Western feminism criticism, means slow significant growth of underfinanced voluntary organizations.

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Annex 2

A day in the Life of a Woman: Legambo (E. Hararge),

Female Household Head,

Member of the Co-operative Farm

Age: 37, Day: Wednesday

Sr.No.	Activities	Time taken in minutes
1	Time she rose from bed: 6:00a.m.	0
2	Personal hygiene	10
3	Going to field (co-operative farm)	20
4	Picking chatt for use by men working in the co-operative farm	150
5	Going back home (with chatt in her hands)	30
6	Eating breakfast	15
7	Taking the chatt to the field	30
8	Taking rest	15
9	Collecting green pepper for use in the co-operative canteen	120
10	Taking rest	30
11	Boiling hoja (a kind of stimulant)	40
12	Picking chatt for use by men working in the co-operative farm	70
13	Taking rest	20
14	Weeding onion field	80
15	Going home (at 4:30 p.m.)	30
16	Eating a snack and taking rest	60
17	Fetching water from spring	45
18	Playing with children while being engaged in handicraft	135
19	Eating dinner while chatting with children	45
	She retired at 9:45 p.m.	
		Total: 15 hours 45 minutes

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Annex 3

A day in the Life of a Woman: Debre-Mewi, A Housewife , Private Farming Household

Sr.No.	Activities	Time taken in minutes
1	Time she rose from bed: 5:30a.m.	0
2	Personal hygiene	5
3	Fetching water from the river (twice)	35
4	Starting fire	5
5	Baking enjera and spinning cotton	95
6	Preparing stew (wat) and spinning	40
7	Grinding peas for next day's stew	70
8	Serving lunch (to children)	5
9	Making a grain store (gusgusha) from mud	65
10	Eating her lunch (at 10:50 a.m.)	10
11	Making a grain store (gusgusha) from mud	25
12	Preparing malt for tella (the local beer)	35
13	Washing rough peas	25
14	Washing the big pot to make it ready for holding tella	25
15	Spinning cotton	130
16	Collecting kubet (dried up cow-dung to be used as fuel)	60
17	Entertaining a guest with whom she ate food	15
18	Frying grain (to make **kolo**)	15
19	Spinning cotton while eating **kolo**	30
20	Fetching water from the river	30
21	Preparing wat while spinning cotton	40
22	Warming up water while spinning cotton	10
23	Drinking coffee from a neighbour's house	70
24	Serving dinner to family (at 7:30 p.m.)	10
25	Preparing the dough	20
26	Eating dinner	10
27	Chatting with family while spinning cotton	50
28	Arranging things and going to bed She retired at 9:10 p.m.	10
		Total: 15 hours 40 minutes

Source: [Dejene 1995]

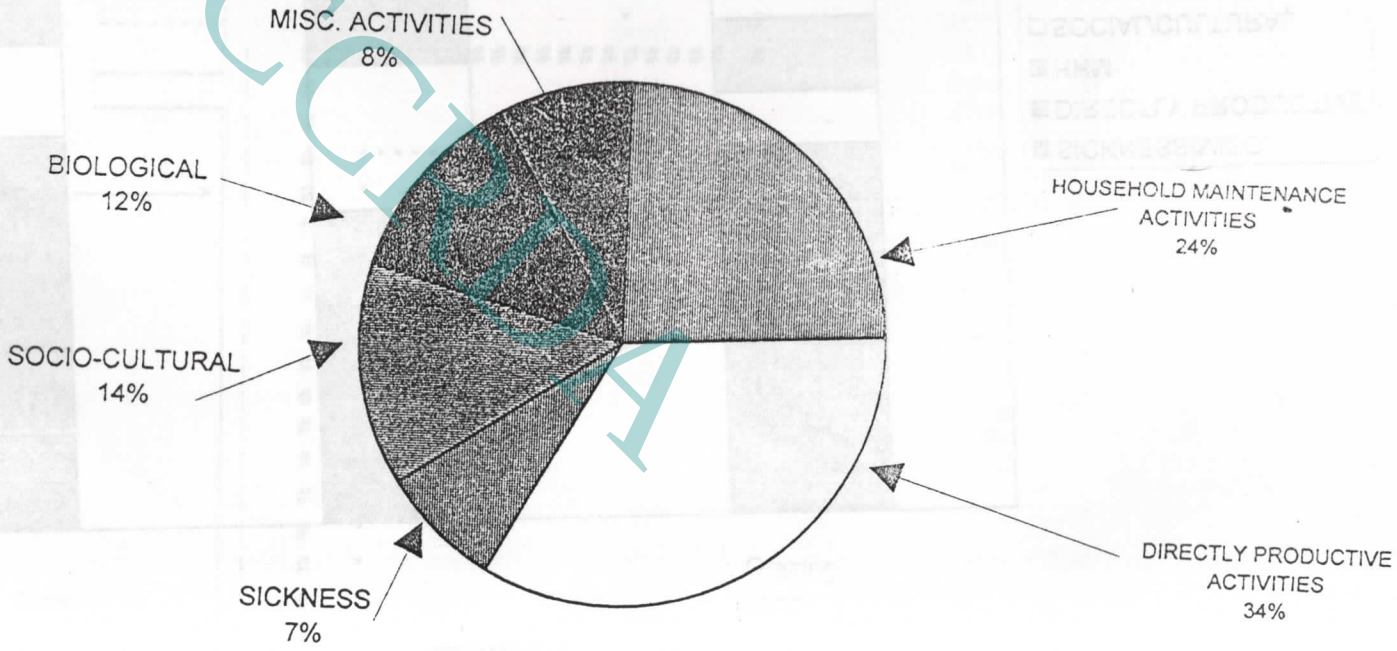
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Details of Average Time Allocated in Three Villages,1987-88 (Peak season,all dmographic groups, private and co-operative, Hours per Day)

Activities	Debre-Mewi (Gojam)	Oudie (East Shewa)	Legambo (Hararghe)
Directly Productive Activities	5.80	5.28	3.60
Crop Production	2.90	3.10	2.40
Animal Care	2.40	2.01	1.10
Handicraft	0.50	0.17	0.04
Off-farm Occupation	0	0	0
Household Maintenance Activties	4.10	3.01	3.60
Child Care	0.30	0.62	0.12
Food Preparation and Cooking	0.90	1.00	0.90
Fuel Gathering	0.70	0.26	0.40
Water Fetching	0.40	0.22	0.46
Going to Mill	0.20	0.24	0.22
Other activities	1.60	0.67	1.45
Socio-Cultural Activities	1.40	2.38	2.25
Visit	0.60	1.00	1.03
Mourning and Funeral	0.10	0.47	0.17
Conversation	0.20	0.68	1.00
The Coffee Ceremony	0.40	0.20	0.02
Prayers and Going to Church	0.10	0.03	0.03
Physiological Activities (other than sleep)	1.70	1.57	2.03
Personal Hygiene	0.50	0.36	0.20
Eating Meals	0.70	0.68	0.72
Rest	0.50	0.53	1.11
Sickness	0.10	0.16	0.04
Miscellaneous	0.60	0.19	3.26
All Activities (waking hours)	13.70	12.59	14.78
Sleeping Time	10.30	11.41	9.22

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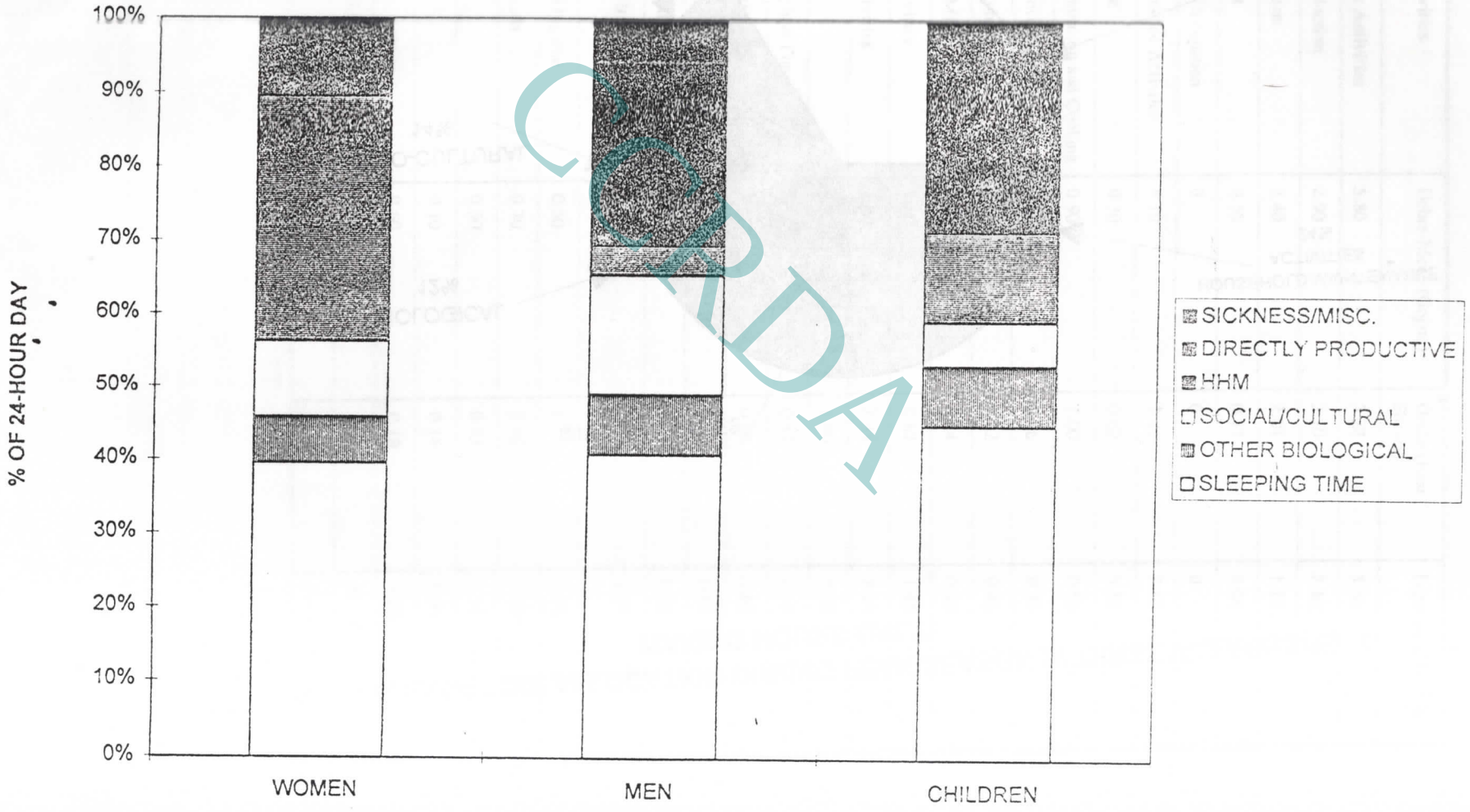
AVERAGE TIME ALLOCATION DURING PEAK SEASON IN THREE VILLAGES(%) (WAKING HOURS ONLY)



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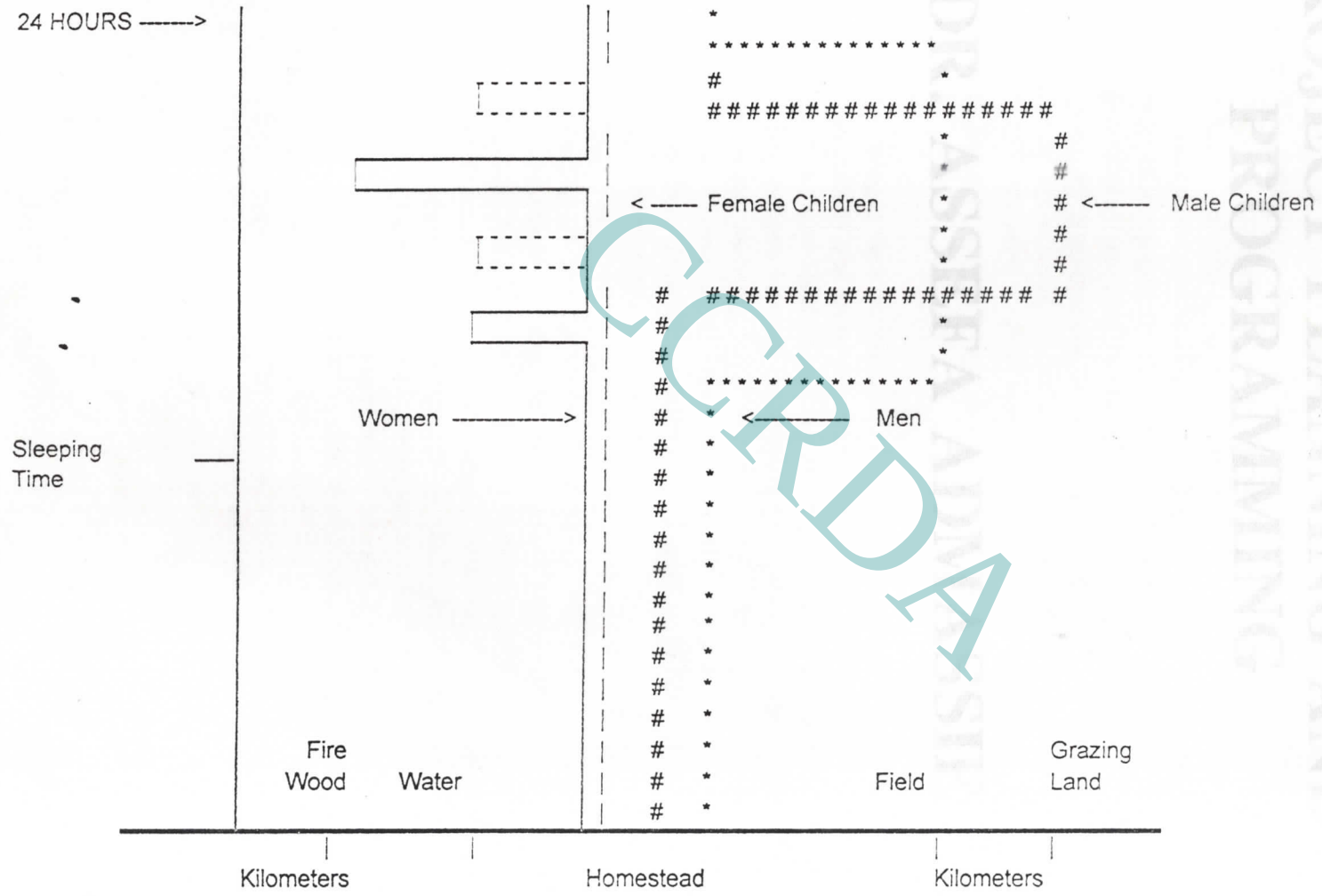
ANNEX 6

DIVISION OF LABOUR BY SEX AND BY AGE IN THE VILLAGE OF OUDIE, SLACK SEASON



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THE SPECIAL DIMENSION OF DAILY ROUND ACTIVITIES: A TYPICAL CASE
(OVERSIMPLIFIED)



CCRDA
PROJECT PLANNING AND PROGRAMMING
DRASHA ADWASI

PROJECT PLANNING AND PROGRAMMING

DR. ASSEFA ADMASSIE

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TRAINING ON GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT ORGANIZED BY CRDA

Held in Bahir Dar From March 17 - March 26, 1997

PROJECT PLANNING AND PROGRAMMING

1. Introduction

One of the current challenges facing development circles is to search for gender sensitive development strategies which emphasize active participation of the concerned people at the grass root level. Community development workers, social workers, community leaders, other development practitioners, adult educators, and personnel engaged in improving the conditions of the communities, specially the conditions of the disadvantaged groups, find women centred development projects both a challenging and exciting work. Attempts in many countries nowadays is on the approach to development based on bottom up initiative and self reliance. But many are faced with frustrating problems. Often projects are prepared for the target group rather than with the group, pushing the people to be silent beneficiaries at the receiving ends of the trickle down process. Community workers need to gear their efforts towards empowering the target groups to be critical partners in the trickle down process utilizing their development potential.

The goal of gender planning is the emancipation of women from subordination, and their achievement of equality, equity and empowerment. In a context where so many policies have failed to become to be translated in practice the need to integrate gender concerns into the development process has become the fundamental preoccupation. Many people responsible for development planning have only reluctantly recognized gender as an important planning issue. Consequently, women and gender remain marginalised in planning theory and practice. This will continue until gender issues are adequately incorporated into a policy and planning framework.

There is a growing acceptance nowadays that the development approach centered on women has the potential to address most of the development issues and challenges faced by rural and urban communities. The designing of development projects focusing on women problems is therefore, an important and timely exercise. To be successful, the target oriented approach requires the development of skills, knowledge, and attitudes among the members of the group. The development worker should play the role of the catalyst. Developing projects involves assessing the needs of the target group, formulating goals and objectives based on the identified needs, assessing resources and constraints, and identifying and sequencing activities of the project. It also involves the developing of the time frame for the specific activities, assigning responsibilities, determining necessary facilities, equipment, materials, services, and estimated budget.

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Development should start at the grassroots level and the initiatives, creativity, and energies of the people can be utilized to improve their own lives using democratic processes and voluntary efforts. It is anticipated that the members of the society define their needs, problems, and issues and develop plans and strategies to meet their needs, and implement such plans with maximum participation to reap the benefits.

2. A Gender Development Project Model

As pointed out earlier the training is organized to assist development workers engaged in planning, implementing, and evaluating gender sensitive small scale development projects in a wide variety of fields. These include primary health care, sanitation, nutrition, agriculture, literacy, credit and other services which affect the lives of women. A systematic model that incorporates the major sequential steps involved in the development of a gender development project could be identified.

It should be emphasized that the model is not a linear model with sequential steps but an interactive one with links to all other steps. For example even if evaluation is the last step in the model it is connected with all other steps depicting the interconnections. These steps may fall into three major phases of the development process, namely phase one - the planning phase incorporates the first five steps. The second phase incorporates the activities related to implementation and the third phase is evaluation.

3. Basic Concepts in Project Planning and Programming

3.1 Basic Issues

The problem of integrating gender issues at the different stages in the planning process makes it necessary to define how such terms as policy, project planning, and implementation are used . This is so because of the widespread confusion in the terminology, and as a result of the interrelationship between them, makes it difficult to distinguish where one term ends and another begins.

Policy making is the process of social and political decision making about how to allocate resources for the needs and interests of society, concluding in the formulation of a policy strategy. On the other hand planning is the process of implementation of the policy, often concluding in a plan. The organization of implementation is about the administrative action to deliver the programme designed which results in a product. It is about what is actually done. The gender planning process is thus used to describe the three interrelated stages of gender policy formulation, gender planning and the organization of implementation.

Where there is gender blindness in policy formulation one of two problems is likely to occur. First, women are not recognized as important in development processes and simply not included at the level of policy formulation. Secondly, development policy, even when aware of the important role women play in development processes because of certain

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assumptions, often still misses women, and consequently fails to develop coherently formulated gender policy.

The development of gender planning as a planning tradition is of critical importance for a number of reasons. The greatest importance is the urgent need to inform policy, through the formulation of gender policy at the international, national, and NGO levels as well as its integration with sectoral planning. It is also needed to ensure the development of more appropriate, i.e. gender aware planning procedures. It can also assist in the clarification of both technical and political constraints in the implementation of the planning exercise.

General statements of economic policy and strategies are given in the form of national development plan. The national development plans are disaggregated into a set of sectoral plans which in turn may comprise several sub sectoral plans. Proposed activities in the sector plans and its sub plans are usually presented as a series of programs.

An ongoing investment or service which is not time bound may be called a program. Or a program could be defined as a collection of projects and / or programs which may be projectized for implementation.

A project is a planned undertaking of interrelated and co-ordinated activities designed to achieve certain specific objectives within a given budget and period of time. It is an activity on which resources are spent in expectation of returns. A project lends itself to planning, financing and implementing as a unit. Some of the most important features of a project include:

1. It operates within a set of defined objectives, activities, time, cost, location, target group, and expected outputs. In other words, it is time bound, has a specific starting point, a well defined time sequence of investment and production and a specific ending point. A project also has a definite geographic location of concentration. It addresses a specific clientele group.

2. It requires the commitment of scarce resources for specific line of action, such as investment capital, raw material, labour, etc.

3. In most cases it involves special financial arrangements, including loans and grants from different agencies.

4. If the project is a community development project, it is designed to improve the socio economic status of the targeted group or community.

In view of the above features a project may be defined as a complex of economic activities in which we expend scarce resources in expectation of obtaining benefits. The benefits could be financial, economic or social. In other words, a development project is a set of organized activities which would hopefully yield results that achieve project objectives with limited resources within a limited time frame.

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It is not very difficult to see the relationship between projects and development plans / programmes. Sound planning rests on a considerable body of information about existing and operational investments and their likely effects or impacts, expected outputs, or intended results. It is believed that project analysis would provide this information. Therefore, realistic planning requires good or sound projects. Effective project preparation and analysis should be seen in the framework of broader development plan of a nation / sector or institution. This implies that projects are part of the an overall development strategy and a broader planning process. Project formulation is an integral part of the more broadly focused and continuos process of development planning.

Projects could originate from various sources. Some may be resource based and stem from the opportunity to make profitable use of available resources. Others may be market based arising from identified demand in home or overseas markets. And some may be need based where the purpose is to try to make available to the target community in a defined area, certain basic requirements and services. Whichever source is used the governing principles are that a project design must ensure that the proposed intervention will be technically feasible, economically viable, and socially and culturally acceptable to the intended beneficiaries.

3.2 The Project Format

For funding and budgeting purposes, the project is reflected in a project proposal. A project proposal is a document outlining three main functions: a contract, a guide to planning and implementation and a basis for monitoring and evaluation.

A Contract

A project document is a contract that involves three partners: the relevant government agency, the donor and the NGO. It lays down the obligations of each of the partners and establishes the basis for accountability.

A Guide to Planning and Implementation

The project document describes the situation which gave rise to the program / project and explains the reasons why the program / project is undertaken. It establishes the plan for what will be done, what will be produced, when and by whom. It also describes the situation that is expected to exist at the end of the program / project and what is expected to happen after the project ends.

Basis for Monitoring and Evaluation

The project document provides the basis for assessing the relevance, effectiveness, efficiency and sustanability of a program /project. It establishes the criteria by which the success or lack of success of the program / project will be monitored and evaluated.

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3.3. The Project Cycle

The cycle that projects go through from their initial conceptualization to the implementation stage is called the project cycle. The main recognized steps or stages in project cycle are:

- identification
- preparation
- appraisal
- implementation

Identification involves the review of alternative approaches or opinions for addressing a set of development problems and opportunities. It also involves the definition of project objectives and scope of the degree of detail necessary to justify commitment of the resources required to complete feasibility studies. The identification of the major issues that must be tackled before a project based on this concept can be implemented is also another component of the identification exercise. The identification stage is the most critical stage of the cycle. If some important aspects are overlooked at the time of identification, there may be little prospect for correction at a later stage.

The introduction of the issue of gender into project identification determines from the outset the project's orientation. This stage is concerned with relating development goals and resulting sectoral priorities to appropriate projects. This stage is the basis of project design.

The issue of gender is important in two ways in project identification. First, at a general level, gender, along with class, can be identified as an important determinant of development goals in terms of broad sectoral resource priorities. Project identification can predetermine women's participation in projects. Gender is also important at a specific level in terms of the type of project selected. An important difference exist between an integrated project and women's project. This distinction is important because it affects the choices on issues such as staff selection, training procedures and institutional structures. Therefore, a priori, gender must be recognized as a policy priority. As a generalization projects targeted at those sectors - basic needs provision, small scale production and farming and traditional food production - have greater potential to reach low income households.

Preparation refers to the completion of a feasibility study on which concerned organizations will normally base the appraisal of the project in question for the final decision. The recognition of gender in project identification does not ensure that the project is gendered. It is the projects preparation stage, when target groups are defined project objectives identified and the project designed that most has been achieved in integrating gender. The objective of project preparation is to demonstrate that a project based on the chosen concept is:

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- in accordance with the country's development objectives and priorities
- technically sound and the best of alternatives
- attractive to the intended beneficiaries
- operationally and managerially workable
- economically, financially and socially viable,
- sustainable and environmentally sound.

Project preparation must provide sufficiently accurate estimates of costs and expected results to enable decisions to be taken on project funding or financing. In addition, the definition of the project components, organisational arrangements and procedures should usually be detailed enough to permit the executing agencies to use the study and its supporting working papers as a source of guidance for project implementation.

Although it is now acknowledged that gender must be integrated into target group definitions, gender is still not usually included at the design stage - because most planners still lack a gender planning methodology. Despite this constraint gendered target group identification has now different elaborate procedures. It is important to identify where gender might intervene in social and economic production systems and analyse the implications of gender differences for project design. These are identified in terms of key differences between men and women's constraints and opportunities in development activities.

The integration of gender into project objectives require detailed specification of the changes which the project needs to achieve for both men and women. The purpose should be to equip women with the means to challenge and overcome their constraints. Projects that enable women and men to understand the structural inequalities which adversely affect the participation and development of women, and that include action to address those inequalities. Project objectives need to identify whether they recognise the distinction between different types of needs which often require specific highly sensitive interventions in their own right.

Project design and gender participation involves questions relating not only to what is designed and also who designs, and how it is designed, all of which involve issues relating to gender but also the procedures related to personnel and feasibility studies. This include project personnel, gender training and gender terms of reference. Unless the staff identifying project objective are gender aware, project objectives may not be taken into account in the project design phase. In order to solve the problem of gender blind personnel, some use training. Since training provides no guarantees that staff will be sensitive to issues in practice it has become necessary to develop clearly gendered terms of reference of the project staff. This identifies the gendered information and analysis required to ensure gendered interventions at each relevant stage of the project cycle. At the project design stage it is the gender - specific potential inputs and outputs that the feasibility study needs to identify. Issues like pre- project benefit likely to be forgone by women and their households, work - load implications for women, probable gains for

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women, and differences and potential conflicts between probable gains and losses for women and those anticipated for men, households or for the community as a whole are treated or identified.

Project Appraisal refers to an independent check on the soundness of the project by lending institutions and /or a donor. It involves a critical review of the feasibility study and the formulation of funding recommendations. Appraisal tries to:

- establish that the major assumptions in project formulation are correct and realistic . e.g. technical assumptions relating to yields, cropping patterns, etc. are checked.
- check the project's cost estimates for economic and financial viability of the project.
- ensure that the projects administrative feasibility is sound by reviewing the proposals for organization and management at the time of project preparation.
- establish that the project has acceptable rates of return of relevant nature.

From a gender perspective appraisal is also a critical stage in the project cycle. There is a need to realise not only to ensure that the terms of reference for appraisal are gender aware but also to get gender specialists in the appraisal mission. It may be necessary to integrate gender into the technical, financial and economic appraisal. Analysis of the anticipated triple role of women provides the basis for identifying effects on them. The direct involvement of women can improve the probability of projects meeting their essential objectives.

Implementation phase starts after the necessary fund or finance is obtained. This is the period of construction and subsequent operation of the project. No matter how well a project has been identified, prepared and appraised, its development benefits can only be realised if it is properly executed. There is widespread failure of gender policy in the implementation phase. In the course of the implementation, significant modifications may be made on a project as per recommendations of monitoring or management information systems, or it may be identified in the course of mid term evaluation.

Several gender related issues require specific identification and close monitoring. It is essential that gender objectives are carried out in practice. Those most affected here are those implementing agencies and the target group itself. Often professional bring their own stereotype assumptions about the role of local women in the society. The highly over bureaucratised male dominated organizations or institutions fail to reach women and thus has resulted in an increasing focus on local women and NGO groups at the grass root level. So the role and the preparedness of the implementing agencies and their personnel is of critical importance. Where the project involves extension or community workers in implementation, the terms of reference must include women in this activity.

Women's participation in the project activities varies with the project type. Projects with labour components increasingly use women to provide free or cheap labour. The participatory approach is essential if it is not simply to extend the working load of low income women who participate the service. Where objective have included strategic

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gender needs of women, or where women themselves have identified these during the participation, the project cannot sustain itself unless an adequate support structure exists. It is also important to recognise that women in the target population are not homogenous group. Some exclude themselves from projects that require time for group discussion, participation and voluntary labour while others volunteer for participation in project activities.

3.4 Costs and Benefits

Costs are the value of inputs used or consumed to produce the outputs of a project. In other words, costs are the value of goods and services used as inputs in the activities of project in order to produce the expected outputs. Some of the most important steps in cost estimation include:

- identification of the inputs, i.e. what kind of units of goods and services will be required by an activity of the project.
- classification of the inputs into local and foreign exchange cost components, if applicable.
- quantification of the inputs and placing of money value for them.
- presenting the inputs value in a form or table including the important assumptions underlying the quantification and valuation of inputs.
- earmark contingency cost that should take into account future changes in the prices of goods and services required by the product. Contingency costs are usually calculated based on the total project costs and added to it to get the grand total cost.

Benefits of a project are the values of goods and services provided by that project. Benefits are the expected outputs of the project. In other words, benefits are the gains by beneficiaries as a result of a project. The benefits are clearly related to the stated objectives of a project. The valuation of the benefits involve the following steps:

- determine what and how many goods and services will be produced as a direct result of the project and then place the monetary value on it.
- a description of the expected outputs of the project and determination of how valuable those outputs will be to the beneficiaries.
- for those elements of benefits that are not quantifiable proxies and qualitative assessment should be used. For example, in projects such as electric power or telecommunication, it may be necessary to use proxies, such as revenues, that do not fully measure the value of the services to the beneficiaries.
- in other projects, for example, pollution control, better health or education or manpower training, a qualitative assessment must suffice.

4. Understanding the Situation

A systematic understanding of the current situation in a given community sets the stage and provide the basis for the gender development project formulation process. Hence the

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first step that a development worker has to take in her or his efforts is to clearly understand the target group he / she is serving. This process of understanding the target community is called situational analysis.

Understanding the culture, the attitudes, religion, and econmic base of the target community enables the practitioners to gain useful insights regarding the prevailing circumstances and helps them to consider how changes could be made to achieve certain goals and ideals. The analysis may cover many areas or aspects in a given community such as:

- the political/administrative structure
- the demographic features and population characteristics
- economic activities
- the social stratification and power relations
- the organizations and their functions and activities
- the leadership pattern and its influence
- the cultural facets or traditions
- the health sanitation, and nutrition levels
- the education
- critical issues and problems

Carrying this analysis at the beginning of the project activity yields pertinent and specific information that could serve as database for the project. This thorough understanding of the situation may be undertaken at an early stage of the planning process. It may however, be a continuous activity. The process can be an informative, enjoyable and useful analysis if conducted with the involvement of the people using participatory techniques appropriate to the planning efforts and the resources available.

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4.1 Rationale for this Analysis

1. The situational analysis sets the stages of the project development process
2. It provides an opportunity to understand the dynamics of the group to be addressed
3. It helps to clarify the relevant social, economic and cultural and political conditions of the target community
4. It enables the group to define the problems affecting the people and understand the needs to effect the desired changes
5. It provides an initial opportunity for involving people from the potential benficiaries in defining the problems and issues to be addressed
6. It provides data needed to determine objectives, develop projects and implement them
7. It provides a database for monitoring projects in order to achieve objectives
8. It serves as a base for evaluating the ultimate impact of projects completed.

4.2 Sources of Information About the Target Population

Information about the intended beneficiaries can be collected from a variety of official and unofficial sources. Although the particular information that is going to be collected depends on the specific feature of the specific community some of the most commonly used sources of information include:

- documents or files on government offices / NGOs
- reports or surveys pertinent to the topic
- community members
- informal leaders in the community
- senior citizens
- government officers or formal leaders
- NGO personnel
- politicians, central or local government representatives of the area.

The methods of obtaining the information from the above sources could also be numerous. The most commonly used methods include- document review, questionnaires, discussions, interviews, observations, listening to people, brainstorming sessions and informal conversations. There is no single techniques that is appropriate to get information from all the sources. So the best option is to use a variety of techniques.

After the necessary information is collected it will be tabulated and organized in such a way that it will be possible to prepare a profile of the target population by synthesizing the collected data.

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5. Gender Needs Assessment

Planning for the low income women must be based on their interests. In other words it should be based on their prioritised concern. As briefly mentioned earlier project identification and planning consists of the finding of projects that could contribute towards achieving specified development objectives. Projects are prepared to meet or overcome development constraints, meet unsatisfied needs or demands and fulfill demand for goods and services. Needs assessment is one of the critical stages in the project planning or development process.

A need may be defined as a gap between the present situation and a desired future situation. Needs are considered to be wants, aspirations, interests, and wishes of people. Or needs may be defined as the discrepancy between *what is* (current set of circumstances) and *what should be* (desirable circumstances). Thus needs assessment can be considered as the process to identify and measure gaps between "*what is*" and "*what should be*", prioritize the gaps, and determine ways of bridging them. Need identification is a systematic or focused approach for problem identification. Need identification has a direct relationship or contact with the intended beneficiaries.

Any development project requires accurate, reliable, and usable information that reflect the needs of the specific target group. The planning and implementation of projects should not be left entirely to guesses, hunches, views of experts or opinion leaders guided by the considerations, "it is the right thing to do". Needs should emerge directly from ideas articulated by the representative groups of the target population and other stakeholders in the community. Project ideas and objectives should be based on such needs.

Needs assessment conducted with the participation of the target population strengthen commitment and enthusiasm for a project. Besides igniting project ideas, it generates data to develop indicators for evaluation. Need assessment also helps to create a sense of ownership in a project.

Need identification has a direct relationship or contact with the intended beneficiaries; it should address the following important or basic question: *Who* needs *What* as defined by *Whom*. In this context:

Who refers to the categories of people who have needs in the community, i.e. "the needers". It is the target group for needs assessment. The different target groups or beneficiaries must be clearly specified.

Example: out of school children, handicapped children, mothers or the whole community.

What refers to the needs of the target group. In other words what refers to the kind of needs the needers have. These needs may be health needs, employment needs, training needs, or a combination of all these.

Example: to know how to read and write;
to secure improved health care;
to develop skills to manage small business

Whom refers to the definers or the categories of people who have a stake or are considered qualified to determine the needs of the target group. It means the categories of people who are qualified or have the knowledge or the responsibility to define the needers' needs.

Example: community development workers, project planners, funding agencies, and the needers themselves

Even though there may be many categories of needs definers, the needers themselves are the best qualified group to identify their own needs. However, there are instances where the needers cannot identify their real needs, just as the needs of a patient can be best identified by a doctor and not by the patient him / herself. In such cases expert view will be important.

Unless a target group is explicitly identified in the project design, there is little chance that the desired target group will benefit. The identification of the target group by socio

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economic status and gender is critical for determining the type of technology and delivery system to be used. The identification of target group will usually be based on qualitative information, within the socio economic setting of the localities in which the project will operate.

In general, once the target group is identified the next step is how to define the gap or the need. It can be approached in the following way.

- identification of needs: this involves the defining of the needs in terms of what is prevailing situation; who is affected; the different social actors of the project; main characteristics of the problem including its seasonality, geographic distribution, etc.
- understanding why the problem situation exists; the linkage from lower to higher level, simple to complex.

Prioritize the identified needs: Development projects should be based on the needs of the target population, assessed with the participation of the people. Donor or government agencies that provide funds for projects have agendas of their own. These may differ from the needs of the target group. Normally different scenarios can arise regarding the priorities of donor agencies or government organizations and the priorities of the benficiairies and negotiations are necessary in varying degrees to reach agreement.

Resource availability - what resources are required to meet the need? Where can they be obtained? Does the project utilize local raw materials?

Skills availablity - some of the questions that should be addressed include, what skills will the project require? are they available locally or can they be obtained through other means? Does the project utilize the existing skills of the beneficiaries? does the project introduce new skills which can be used within the project.

Social context - is there any opposition with regard to the project from the surroundings? Is there any social or cultural conflict as a result of this project?

From the gender planning point of view it is essential to distinguish between women's interests and gender interests. The concept of women's interests assumes compatibility of interests based on biological similarities. Gender interests are those that women may develop by virtue of their social positioning through gender attributes. Gender interests can be either strategic or practical each being derived in a different way and each involving differing implications for women's subjectivity. Women's needs vary widely not only because of specific socio economic contexts, but also by the particular class, ethnic and religious structures of individual societies. Thus it is difficult to translate the women needs in the planning intervention.

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5.1 Gender Needs

It is important to distinguish between strategic and practical gender needs since it provides gender planning with one of its most fundamental planning tools. Clarification is essential if realistic parameters are to be identified both as to what can be accomplished in the planning process as well as the limitations of different policy interventions. With this distinction gender policy and planning can be formulated, and the tools and techniques for implementing them clarified.

Strategic Gender Needs

Strategic gender needs are the needs women identify because of their subordinate position to men in their society. They are those needs that are formulated from the analysis of women's subordination to men. In other words it relates both to the structure and nature of relationships between men and women. These needs vary according to particular cultural and socio - political contexts within which they are formulated. Strategic gender needs relate to gender division of labour, power and control and may include such issues as legal rights, domestic violence, equal wages and women's control over their bodies. Meeting strategic gender needs helps women to achieve greater equality. It also changes existing roles and therefore, challenges women's subordinate position.

Practical Gender Needs

In contrast to strategic gender needs practical gender needs are those that are formulated from the concrete conditions women experience. Practical gender needs are the needs women identify in their accepted roles in society. Practical gender needs do not challenge the gender division of labour or women's subordinate position in society. They are practical in nature and often are concerned with inadequacies in living conditions such as water provision, health care, and employment.

The gender division of labour within the household gives women primary responsibility not only for domestic work involving child care, family health and food provision, but also for the community managing of housing and basic services, along with the capacity to earn an income through productive work. Therefore, in planning terms, policies to meet practical gender needs have to focus on the domestic arena, on income earning activities, and also on community level requirements of housing and basic services. Often basic needs such as food, shelter and water are identified as the practical gender needs of women by policy makers.

Thus gender needs differentiation can provide a useful tool for planners since it helps policy makers and planners responsible meeting the practical gender needs and asssist women in their adoption of more challenging solutions.

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5.2 Techniques for Identifying Needs

As already pointed out earlier needs are the discrepancies between the current situation and the desired situation. There are many techniques that could be used in identifying development needs. A development worker should be able to decide which technique is relevant or which combination of techniques is most appropriate to the situation. Some of the techniques for identifying needs include;

- surveys and questionnaires
- observations
- listining to people
- participating in meetings of community organizations and listening to the discussions
- community seminars with the participation of community members and formal and informal leaders
- obtaining views from organizations
- conducting inquires from government officers
- interviews structured and unstructured
- requests from the community, petitions, etc.
- displaying of posters and initiating discussions on community needs
- getting the community to listen to a talk by a development specialist and initiating a discussion on needs
- identifying needs after a documentary film shown as a discussion starter
- brainstorming sessions on problems situations
- records, reports, and studies on issues in the community

6. Analysing of Goals and Objectives

The need identification or problem definition is the basis of project design. However, defining of gaps or problems is not an end by itself. Thus determining goals and objectives based on prioritised needs is crucial in planning a development project. The successful completion of a project depends on how well the goals and objectives are formulated. Goals and objectives set the directions for the project, clearly specify what must be accomplished, and provide the basis for developing the indicators for project evaluation.

A goal defines very broadly what is expected of the project. It is a general statement that describes the final outcome of a project. A goal is a brief, but comprehensive statement that emerges from needs or problems to be addressed. A goal is like a light at the end of the tunnel which signals the final destination. A goal is made up of several objectives. The achievement of each individual objective ultimately leads to the achievement of the goal.

Examples of Goal statements

- to improve the economic conditions of a village

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- to raise the literacy level of women in a village
- to establish training centres for disadvantaged girls

It is an umbrella statement that encompasses and synthesises the set of circumstances that should result from a project such as raising the standard of living or improving economic conditions. An objective is clearer statement that specifies the outcome of the project in more operational terms. For a project to have a clear direction and purpose, objectives should be formulated in a systematic manner. As we said a goal is a light at the end of the tunnel an objective is the route that directs one to the final destination. For an objective to be systematic it should address the questions What, Where, When, Why, and for Whom, etc. In more specific terms an objective statement should spell out the following:

- *What* is the activity to be accomplished by the project
- *When* is the activity taking place
- *Where* is the activity taking place
- *Why* is the activity taking place
- *Who* is doing the activity
- for *Whom* is the activity?

Du to the diverse nature of the needs or problems, resource availability, capacity of implementation, skills and knowledge of the beneficiaries, availability, accessibility and affordablity of technology, and other factors there is a need to reach a consensus on the above questions. Through the proper addressing (answering) the above questions one could easily discern the possible outcomes or effects of the project or the objectives will evolve.

More importantly an objective statement should arise out of identified needs and be specific and clear. It is crucial that objectives are measurable statements. At the same time an objective should be appropriate and achievable.

There are two types of objectives: development objectives and immediate objectives. Problem identification is common to both development and immediate objectives. Development objectives are higher level objectives which are usually formulated within the context of the wider development goals of the country and describe the ultimate reason for undertaking the programme / project. On the other hand immediate objectives describe the situation that is expected to exist at the end of a project. It shows the change that the project itself is expected to bring about. It shows in what ways the target group will be better off.

The question is, however, how to set objectives. When setting immediate objectives the following could be helpful.

1. As stated earlier start with the problem identified by the target group. What situation or improved conditions would enable you to say this problem was solved or that progress made.

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2. List various actions that might bring about this changed situation. How many possible actions are there? Can the best elements of various options be combined? This require the analysis of costs and benefits of each programme.
3. Considering the resources and capabilities determine what is the best choice of programme.
4. Do the people concerned agree on the programme selected? How can their commitment be demonstrated?

In summary, in view of the forgone discussion, the following need to be considered when writing an objective statement. Objective statements should be - related to needs; specific; clear; measurable; appropriate; and achievable. Therefore, realistic objectives should be specific, measurable, achievable, result oriented, time bound (**SMART**).

Examples of Objective Statements:

- to organize a literacy class in the village for a specified period in order to prove basic skills in reading and writing to 2000 illiterate women.
- to provide credit in the form of start up capital for 200 women in order to help them undertake off farm activities for the next five years.

7. Assessment of Resources and Constraints

After determining goals and objectives on the basis of prioritized needs, it is essential to take stock of the needed and available resources, as well as the constraints that may be encountered in attempting to achieve the objectives. The word resource implies physical resources such as water, roads, and vegetation, material resources, institutional resources such as school, health centeres, community development society, and human inputs which includes formal and informal leaders in the community that are critical for the achievement of goals and objectives of project. Assessment of resources provides a clear idea of the strengths that a community possesses in achieving decided objectives. It also helps to determine the amount of community resources that could be mobilized internally and what needs to be harnessed from outside.

Constraints include factors that could hamper the progress of a project. Assessing constraints is necessary in identifying problems, in planning strategies to resolve them before they arise, and in considering ways of turning constraints into resources. The constraints that may be encountered can be either expected or unexpected. Furthermore, it is essential to ascertain the constraints that could be faced by the project at this initial stage of planning so that the project plan can accommodate actions to deal with them. At this stage if the group feels that the constraints outweigh the resources, it may indicate that the project idea is not the desired one. In that case another project relevant to a priority need should be selected. However, if the group has come this far in the project

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planning process, it is less likely that such a situation will arise. Thus when planning a community development project it is important to have a clear idea about:

- needed resources available in the community
- resources that need to be obtained from outside
- ways of making maximum use of such resources

The formal leaders in the community include family health worker, school teacher, agricultural extension worker, while the informal leaders in the community consists of volunteer youth leaders, energetic farmers in the community, experienced and skilled people in the community.

8. Planning Project Activities

Planning project activities is the central component in the project development process. It involves the following major steps:

- identifying activities
- sequencing activities
- developing a time frame for activities
- assigning responsibilities for carrying out the activities
- assessing the facilities, equipment, and services needed
- preparing the budget.

8.1 Identifying Activities

In the pervious sections attempt was made to explain one of the most critical activities or stages in the project preparation exercise - need identification / problem definition. This stage is the basis of project design. Identifying project activities is the most important step in the project planning phase. Time and effort invested in this specific step guarantees an increased potential for success. Identification of project activities has to be carried out with the involvement of all the stakeholders in a participatory way. The activities identified should be based on the objectives of the project, taking into considerations the resources and constraints. Systematic implementation of the project becomes possible only if the activities are spelled out in a detailed and thorough manner at the initial stage of project preparation. In certain instances, there is a time gap between the planning and implementation of a project. When a project is launched there is sometimes the possibility that those who were involved in the initial planning might not be around. In a situation, systematic implementation of the project becomes possible only if the project planners have recorded the activities in detail. Therefore, it is essential to identify and list the major activities and sub components of each activity.

The ability to determine the appropriate series of activities and the sub components of each activity (that would ultimately lead to the achievement of the objectives) is an important skill that project planners should possess.

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8.2 Sequencing of Activities

Once the activities have been identified it is essential to determine the right sequence of activities early on in the planning stage. Careful attention given to sorting out the right sequences prevents waste of time and resources. There are some activities that have to be completed before others. Also, there are some activities that have to be conducted before others. Hence sequencing them is imperative. Often, implementation of development projects is carried out by a team of individuals. Therefore, from the moment the project is launched it is necessary to monitor and co-ordinate the different activities that need to be completed, and also to follow the most appropriate sequence. In order to do this systematically, it is necessary to put the activities in the proper sequence at the initial stages of the project preparation.

8.3 Time frame

After identifying and sequencing the activities of a project, the next task is to determine when to do these activities. Therefore, project planners should develop time frame for the major and minor activities. This helps to determine the earliest date that each activity will be started and completed within the framework of available resources and expected constraints. It also facilitates monitoring the project activities as they are implemented and checking whether work is proceeding according to schedule, and if not, to take necessary corrective actions. Different tools such as the Program Evaluation and Review Technique (**PERT**) can be used for developing a time frame of a project.

8.4 Assigning Responsibilities

Planning project activities will not be complete without assigning responsibilities for different activities to specific individuals. This has to be done in a systematic manner in order to secure the involvement of the community. One of the most important ingredients for project success is the motivation of the people who carry out activities. Motivation is generated if individuals are assigned responsibilities that they are willing to undertake and accomplish. Therefore, it is important to gather information about the skills and interests of the community members who will be actively involved in the project, and to take steps to match tasks with skills and interests of individuals.

8.5 Facilities, Equipment, Materials, and Services

Carrying out activities of a project requires various kinds of facilities, equipment, materials, and services. Community members have to collectively determine these for each activity in the project. For example most projects will require facilities to conduct meetings, and vehicles to transport needed materials. If the project involves construction work, arrangements have to be made to purchase loan, or hire equipment. These arrangements have to be made prior to the implementation of the project. The same applies to services. a project might require the services of a health care worker or a carpenter. Planning has to be done to arrange for such services.

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8.6 Preparation of the Budget

A budget is a comprehensive financial plan that sets forth a preferred route for achieving desired objectives. Budgets are presented in many different forms. Commonly a project budget is presented in the form of a statement of income and expenditure. Preparation of the budget is critical in project planning. A budget is generally a statement of income and expenditure. In community development projects budgets can take many different forms. In certain projects, priority is given to preparing an estimate of expenditures for the project activities, because the money will be provided by a funding agency or a development organization. If a project has no prior pledge for funding an estimate has to be made of the money required and how the money is to be raised before the commencement of the project. Funds needed for community development projects can be raised in many ways. Some of the possibilities are to request funds from community members, philanthropists, donor agencies, local state, or central governments. A well prepared budget facilities co-ordination of activities and increase the motivation of people involved in the project. In preparing the budget it is necessary to review the list of facilities, equipment, materials, and services needed to carry out the activities in the project and estimate a monetary value for each.

In many development projects priority is given to preparing this estimates of expenditure on project activities, as money required will be provided by a funding agency or by a development organization. Even in the case of a project with no prior pledge for funding, an estimate of the money required has to be made in order to consider how to find the money.

A well prepared budget facilities co-ordination of activities, increase the motivation of people involved in the project, and reduce costs by increasing effectiveness. Budget is a tool for implementing a project plan, communicating the exact plan of operation while controlling the costs. A budget increases preparedness to face future eventualities. Furthermore, it provides a rational yardstick to evaluate the project success.

There is a need to estimate the expenses for services, facilities, equipment, and materials that could be obtained as contributions from the community in monetary terms for three major reasons.

1. The community can have a clear idea of the value of its contribution to the project.
2. When projects are funded by donor agencies, most agencies insist that the receiving organization should provide matching funds to share expenses of the project (matching funds requirement varies and may go up to 25 % of the project expenses). Voluntary contributions from the community in terms of labour, materials, etc. make up for matching funds.
3. It helps to reinforce the sense of ownership of the project in the community.

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9. Project Implementation

As stated earlier the life cycle of a development project consists of four major phases: identification, planning or preparation, implementation and evaluation.

Implementation implies carrying out what has been planned. Project implementation involves a number of activities. Among the major activities are securing community participation for launching the project, co-ordination of activities, monitoring, and taking care of contingency situations.

In this major phase, the first task of a community development worker who is adhering to the philosophy of people's participation in development is to launch the project with full participation of the community. In certain instances there is a time gap between the planning and implementation of a project. When a project is launched, there is a possibility that the circumstances have changed so much that new factors may prevent or hinder the successful implementation of the project. In such a situation the community development worker should initiate a process aimed at reassuring community involvement.

A number of groups, institutions, and individuals in the community will be involved in implementing a project. Constant co-ordination is necessary to prevent duplication of activities, promote efficiency, and reduce costs. Monitoring is necessary to check whether work is proceeding according to the plan, and if there are shortcomings or problems encountered, to take stock of the situation and effect the necessary corrective actions. Taking care of contingencies when difficulties arise, exploring alternative solutions, and implementing the most feasible options are also necessary steps in the whole process.

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9.1 Co-ordination

Co-ordination is the process whereby two or more organizations work together to deal collectively with a shared task. The responsibility for co-ordination may be assigned to a single individual or a team/group of individuals, in consultation with all the parties concerned.

Rationale for co-ordination

1. To achieve the objectives of a project with the minimum amount of constraints.
2. To take immediate corrective actions for problems encountered in implementing the project.
3. to promote better relationships among organizations, institutions, and individuals connected with the project and to harmonise the resources and activities for the achievement of project objectives.
4. To establish cordial relationships between the target population of a project and all the other sections, including the political leadership.

Obstacles to Co-ordination

1. The desire of an organization to protect its individual identity and prevent others from encroaching on its domain of operation.
2. Need to acquire as many resources as possible for the individual organization at the expense of other organizations.
3. Lack of smooth communication systems.
4. Power relations, social relations, philosophies, ideologies, and communication systems that have been established as a result of prolonged operation.
5. Differences in rules, regulations, structures, and norms of the organizations.

9.3 The Rationale for Monitoring a Project

Although monitoring is sometimes identified as a separate stage in the project cycle, increasingly it is identified as an ongoing activity accompanying the implementation process. Ideally a project should establish an ongoing data collection system for monitoring purposes. Monitoring of women's participation can be ensured if all the data found during the project implementation is collected and analysed on a gender disaggregated basis. In general the indicators need to be identified failure well.

1. To know whether the various activities are undertaken as specified in the project plan.
2. To know whether materials and other inputs are reaching the specific places in due time.
3. To know where the unexpected issues/problems are occurring
4. To know whether the outcomes match pre determined targets, and if not, why and to decide what corrective action to be taken.
5. To know what should be done to change course from the original plan, if the unexpected happens.
6. To know alternative courses of action, given the new circumstances.

10. Project Evaluation

Evaluation is the final stage in the life cycle of a project providing an insight into factors that contribute to project success or failure. Evaluation generally implies measurement, appraisal, or, making judgments. It is a process designed to assess the degree to which the intended objectives have been achieved. In a project situation, evaluation implies a systematic examination of the project to determine its relevance, degree of success, impact, or benefits to the target population. as with monitoring it is essential to ensure that the indicators developed are adequate and relevant to the evaluation of gender. In the face of limited resources priority should be given to projects that address WID concerns.

The first important step is establishing the reasons for evaluation. Projects are evaluated against their original objectives. So if these were not gender aware, neither is the evaluation likely to be gender aware. Thus the evaluation of gender in the project can ensure that the second phase includes gender. To ensure objectivity and independence

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evaluations are not done by the operational agency but by outside or separate departments set up for the purpose. It is also important that the evaluation team includes a gender specialist.

Evaluation is the last step in the development project formulation exercise. However, it is interconnected to all the other steps in the model. Therefore, evaluation should not be considered as a last sequential step in a linear model but as an interactive process linked to all other stages.

Evaluation is not a one time activity at the end of a project. Rather it is a continuous activity carried on throughout the life of a project. Evaluation is different from monitoring. Monitoring checks whether the project is on track; evaluation questions wither the project is on the RIGHT track. Monitoring is basically concerned with the short term performance of the project while evaluation looks more at long term effects in terms of project objectives.

It is important to know that evaluation is done or carried out as a continuos activity with the participation of all stakeholders of a project, most importantly, the beneficiaries. The result of evaluation should be fed in as quickly as possible when carried out as a continuos activity. Important principles that a development worker or group should know with regard to evaluation are: Evaluation should be a continuos activity, participatory activity, and a constructive activity

Depending on the timing of the activity, evaluation can be any of the following:

Pre - Project Evaluation assesses the relevance and feasibility of problems addressed by the project its objectives and the work plan.

On - going / Concurrent Evaluation is the continuous analysis and appraisal of a project. This helps to match the results with the objectives as planned, and identify any gaps or problems on the way. It enables one to decide what corrective actions are needed.

Terminal Evaluation is designed to be a judgment on the finished product. It examines whether the objectives have been achieved as defined.
Impact / Ex-post Evaluation assesses the outcome of the project sometime after the completion of the project.

Dimensions of Evaluation

A. Who should carry out the evaluation?

a special work group appointed by the community?
beneficiary group in the project?
funding agency?
external evaluation specialists?

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all of the above categories combined?

B. What should be evaluated?

whether the project objectives have been achieved?
whether the results are satisfactory when compared to the resources invested?
how can the project be improved?
what components should be changed?
what went right? what went wrong?
what are the direct / indirect benefits and / or impact?

C. Why should the project be evaluated?

to submit the results to the funding agency?
for the project committee to know why it didn't yield the expected results?
for beneficiaries to get an idea as to whether they have received the expected benefits?
for project implements to decide whether to extend the project to other communities?
to learn to avoid similar mistakes in future projects?

D. When should the evaluation take place?

at the beginning? middle? end?
continuously? monthly? tri-monthly?
six months after the project is over?

E. How should the project be evaluated?

Economic benefits gained by the beneficiaries
informal leaders in the community could be the source of information
group discussions could be used to obtain the information
a checklist can be prepared to get the information
the information can be analysed by looking at the % of participants benefiting from the project
the results can be used to make changes in policy directions.

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PROJECT MONITORING AND EVALUATION

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Table of contents

	Page No.
1. Introduction	1
2. Basic Definitions and Distinctions	3
3. Planning Gender-Integrated Monitoring and Evaluation	6
3.1 Identifying Elements to be Monitored and Evaluated	7
3.2 Major steps in planning Monitoring & Evaluation	9
4. Organizing Gender-integrated Monitoring and Evaluation	13
4.1 Key Actors in Monitoring and Evaluation	13
4.2 Establishing monitoring and Evaluation system	13
5. Implementing Gender-Integrated Monitoring and Evaluation	15
5.1 Monitoring	15
5.2 Evaluation	20
6. Reporting Monitoring and Evaluation Results	23

CCRDA

1. Introduction

The implementation of development projects has frequently run into serious difficulties. In most cases their results are far from what is expected to be. Despite these failures the promotion of some of the strategies whose past effectiveness was doubtful continued. Studying past experiences show that the lack of reliable information on the implementation conditions and results of program and projects was often at the heart of repeated problems and failures. And the development of monitoring and evaluation techniques started from this kind of observation (Magnen, 1991).

The purpose of monitoring and evaluation is to systematically collect and analyse information about the project's implementation and results.

Monitoring is a system which deals with the process of finding out whether the inputs are delivered, the activities are conducted, the processes are followed, the outputs are attained and the purposes are served or not. It helps to detect potential or actual problems in the course of project implementation in order to take corrective actions.

On the other hand the purpose of evaluation is to systematically gather and analyse data needed and to draw lessons from the project in the course of execution soas to have a preliminary overview and possible revision and after completion for the benefit of similar operations in the future.

Thus monitoring and evaluation serve project managers, policy makers and all other stakeholders to improve the existing project management and enhance their skill to formulate new policies, plans and projects.

In addition to the general objectives and purposes of monitoring and evaluation, this paper attempt to integrate gender in project monitoring and evaluation activities. In the process of monitoring and evaluation the major focus should be on the effect of the

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project on people. And this helps to identify where people are in the development process; at what level their action affect project results; and how they are affected by the project actions (Caro and Lambert, 1994). However, it is not enough to focus on people in general, but it is more important to see the effect on male and female separately. Because it is in this situation that project managers and other stakeholders can understand how the usually marginalized females are involved in and affected by the project. And this in its turn will give a solid base to take necessary interventions.

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2. Basic Definitions and Distinction

There are different opinions on the practical meaning of monitoring and evaluation. For instance, some World Bank papers define monitoring as "keeping track of project activities and progress", and evaluation as "the assessment of project impact and overall results" and the suggesting of "solutions to project execution". Another document describes monitoring as "an observation and information gathering activity" and evaluation as " the assessment on the basis of this information to correct action and select alternative measures". From these definitions we can see that corrective action belongs to both monitoring (in the first definition) and evaluation (in the second definition). In both definitions assessment of impact belongs to evaluation.

On the other hand, the U.S. General Accounting Office defines monitoring as measurement of the achievements of goal or purpose (Peter Bowden,1988). According to this definition impact belongs to monitoring.

Others argue that evaluation should also cover methods and process of implementation. In order to evaluate the impact of a given project, for them, it is necessary to review the process of implementation of the same project. If a project is not achieving its desired impact, then the evaluation of that project should inform the project /program manager of the reasons. Hence, the definition of evaluation as being solely impact evaluation is too narrow. An evaluation which is designed to assist project /program managers must, therefore, include an assessment of the adequacy of the implementation process.

Monitoring can identify implementation difficulties as well as achievements. In other words it can measure intermediate or final project impact directly as well as some of the causes behind poor achievement of intended impact.

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Monitoring, therefore, overlaps with evaluation, i.e. in both the evaluation of process and impact. Thus, it is important to determine the difference between the two functions. Because they both measure and assess progress; they both can measure impact (infact there is a limit to the ability of a monitoring system to measure some types of impact) and they both can identify the causes behind problems /difficulties.

Most definitions of monitoring use the term periodic, or routine, to describe the tracking of implementation performance. But evaluation implies the analysis of a particular set of data rather than a periodic data gathering. Therefore, one major difference lies in the nature of the gathering and analysis of the data. In general monitoring is a routine periodic process for measuring implementation performance and impact where possible. On the other hand, evaluation tends more to the specific collection of a set of data designed to measure impact and the effect of the implementation process on that impact. In general these two inter linked functions are necessary for a successful implementation of a project /program.

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At this point it is important to make a distinction between the different types of evaluations. In some documents evaluation is solely defined as a retrospective activity which is concerned with results. This means evaluation is not undertaken until the project is completed. This type of evaluation is called ex-post evaluation. However, definitions which categorize evaluation as solely ex-post activity are too limiting. Because according to these definitions evaluation does not serve as a tool for the management of on-going project /program. Thus the need for on-going evaluation arises. On-going evaluation refers to the evaluation of process and impact of a project /program under implementation. Moreover, such evaluations are necessary parts of the management of a project, for lessons could be learned from the evaluation that will improve the current execution of the work.

The latest and widely accepted definitions are given below.

Monitoring is a routine reporting of information on the progress and achievements of a project or program under implementation.

Evaluation is a study, or series of studies, using monitoring data or separately gathered data to assess the achievements of any project or program (impact evaluation), and the efficiency of its implementation (process evaluation). Evaluation can be undertaken while the project /program is being implemented (on-going evaluation of both process and impact), or after the project /program is completed (ex-post evaluation again of process and impact). The undertaking of on-going evaluation presupposes the completion of some work in order to assess impact and the lessons learned from it are incorporated into the current project /program. On other hand lessons learned from ex-post evaluation are incorporated into future projects /programs.

Monitoring and Evaluation as an entity is a system designed to assess the managerial performance of a project under implementation, its actual or potential achievements, and the reasons why implementation performance or achievements are less than optimum. For this purpose it uses routinely gathered data and supplemented by ad-hoc investigation. Any system that acts on, or has an objective of acting on, routinely gathered data is monitoring and evaluation system.

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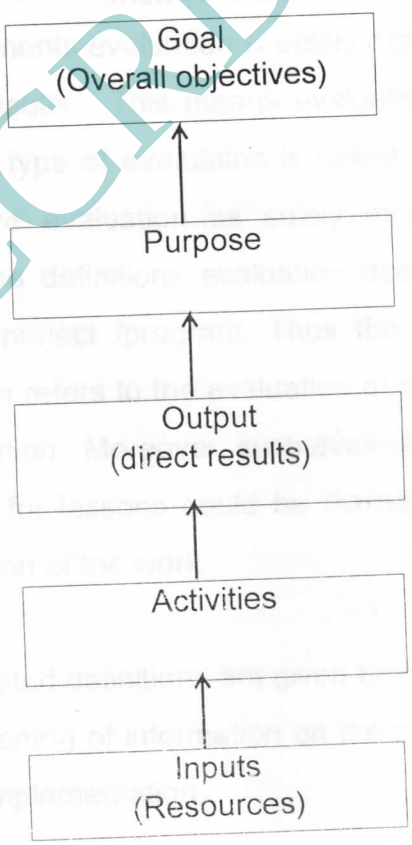
3. Planning Gender-Integrated Monitoring and Evaluation

Project monitoring and evaluation activities are mainly dependent on two basic documents. These are:

- the comprehensive plan document for project implementation in the form of a logical framework for the total duration of the project, and
- the operational work plan produced by the project implementors.

From the above mentioned two documents monitoring and evaluation tools can be developed. Besides the activities can be designed based on the conventional planning concept of hierarchy of objectives and actions that link project activities, out puts, purpose and goal (Caro and Lambert, 1994). The hierarchy of objectives also help to identify elements to be monitored and evaluated. The hierarchy is depicted in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1 **An Objective Hierarchy**



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Inputs are different types of resources needed in conjunction with activities to obtain the project outputs. Activities are the concrete interventions using the resources delivered.

Outputs are the results which are directly attained by the management of inputs. In other words they are results of a particular set of activities. Purpose is objective of the project. It includes both the expected state of affairs upon completion of the project and the rational for implementing the project. The project purpose is achieved by a number of project outputs.

In other words, purposes are what we expect to result from having attained the outputs. The outputs themselves are not important for their own sake. Because the outputs have to bring about a solution for a problem (problems) encountered earlier.

The project goal is an overall objective. It defines a state of affairs to which a particular project contributes. It often relates to broader programs and policies. Several projects that support the achievement of a strategic objective might have similar goals. Thus, project goal is general and difficult to directly attribute to project activities.

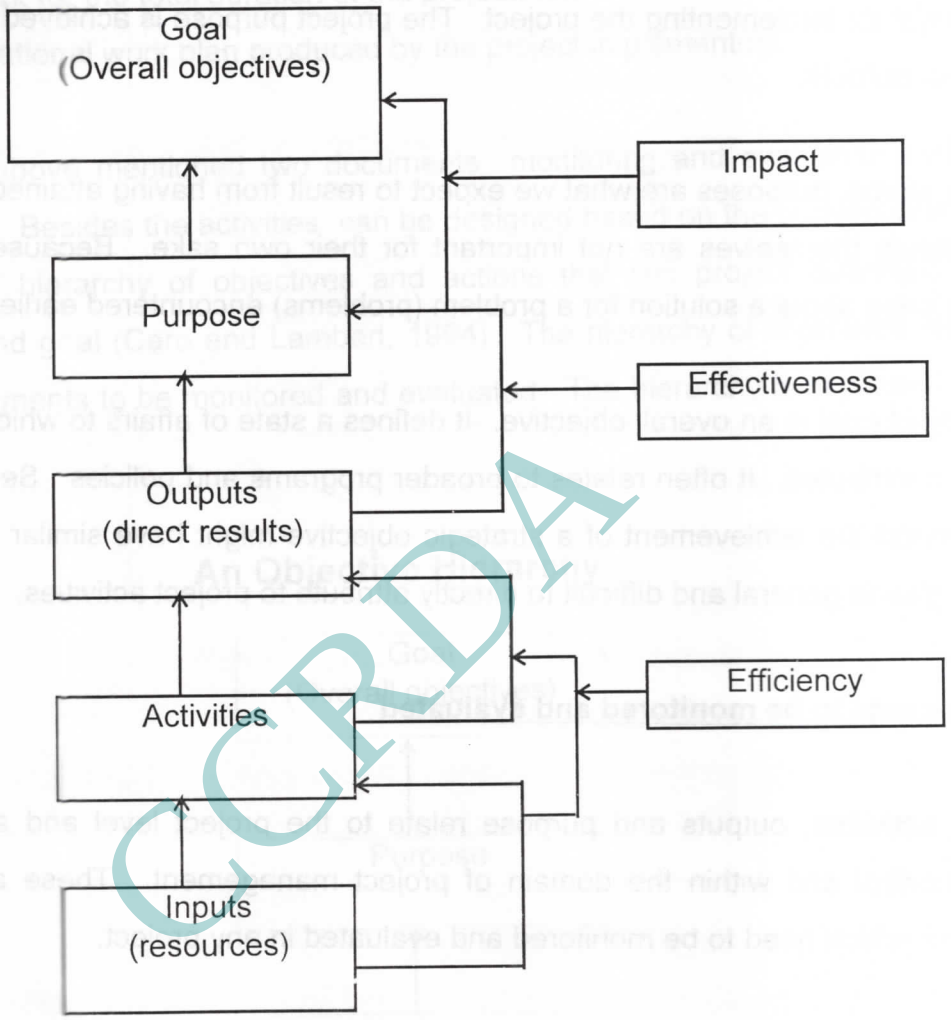
3.1 Elements to be monitored and evaluated

Inputs, activities, outputs and purpose relate to the project level and are under the direct control and within the domain of project management. These are the major elements which need to be monitored and evaluated in any project.

Project monitoring analyses the efficiency, the effectiveness and the impact of project implementation using the project logical framework as a starting point.

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Figure 2 **Monitoring and Evaluation**



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Efficiency monitoring analyses how successful the project has been in transforming the means (i.e., the resources allocated for the project) through project activities into project results. This type of monitoring provides the stakeholders with information on input per unit produced (cost per unit produced).

Effectiveness monitoring analyses how well the project results are taken into use. Indicators of effectiveness are developed and compared with base-line data (the situation in the beginning of project implementation) to follow-up effectiveness.

Impact monitoring focuses on the changes in the operating environment of the project. Impact monitoring collects and analyses information at the levels of the communities and societies involved as final beneficiaries of the project.

In general to come up with an efficiency, effectiveness and impact monitoring results inputs, activities, outputs, purpose, and goal (where possible) have to be monitored.

These are also the elements which need to be evaluated. However, project evaluation does not treat efficiency and effectiveness separately. Both efficiency and effectiveness are taken care by process evaluation and the purpose of it is to measure the effect of implementation process on the impact of a given project. Impact evaluation analyses data gathered on final beneficiaries to ascertain whether the overall objectives are attained or being attained.

3.2 Major steps in planning monitoring and evaluation activities

There are four major steps in planning monitoring and evaluation activities. These are:

- formulating objectives,
- developing indicators,
- defining targets and base line values for indicators, and
- developing data gathering and analysis method.

Formulating objectives

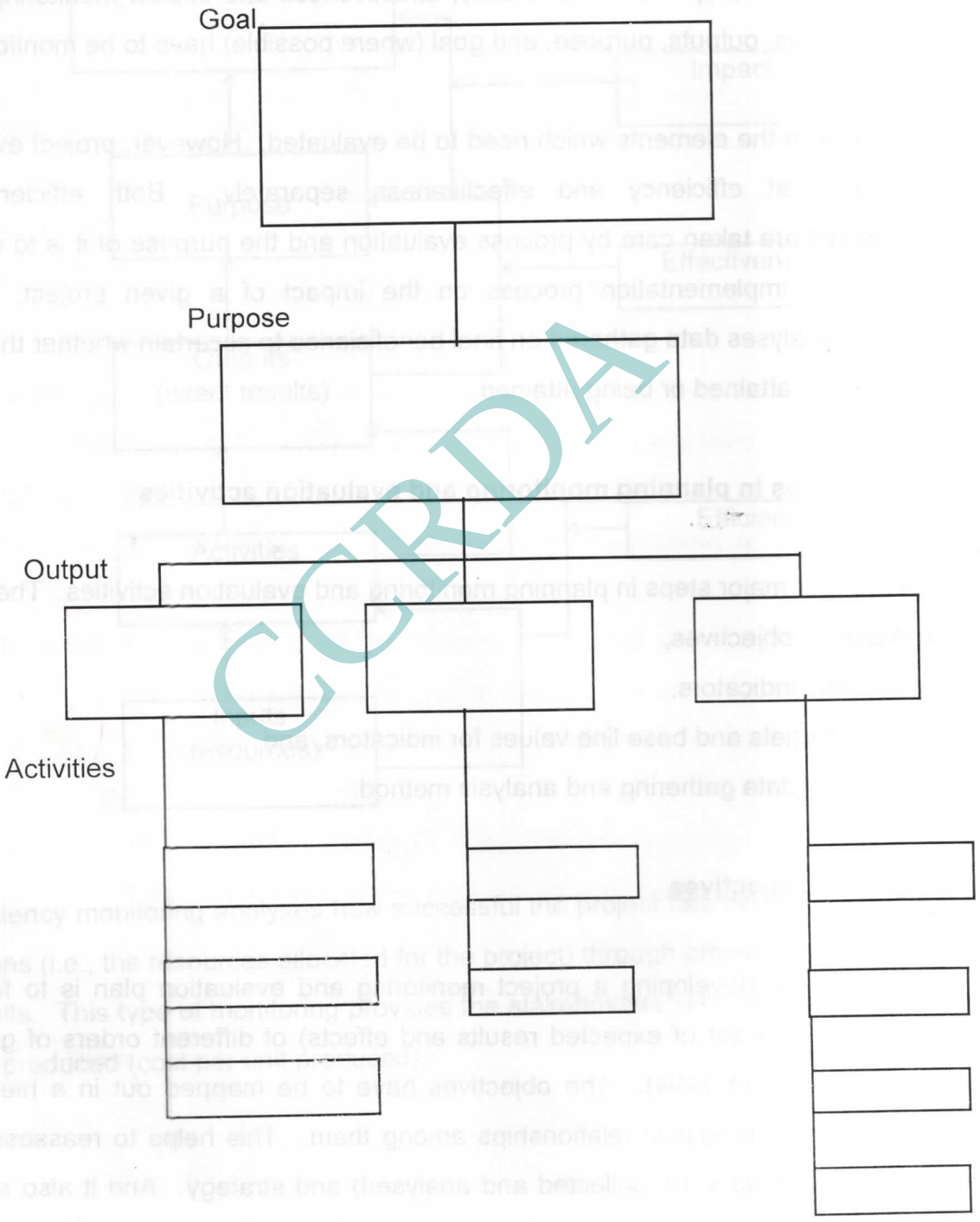
The first step in developing a project monitoring and evaluation plan is to formulate objectives (i.e., a set of expected results and effects) of different orders of generality (Caro and Lambert 1994). The objectives have to be mapped out in a hierarchical order to reveal the logical relationships among them. This helps to reassess project objectives (after data are collected and analysed) and strategy. And it also serves to make link between the project objectives and the reality of social and economic

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dynamics at the project level. To formulate objectives in a hierarchical order a project objective tree is used as follows:

Figure 3

Project Objective Tree



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It is impossible to measure the impact of a project on participants unless the project is conceptulized in terms of people (final beneficiaries). Thus, objectives should be stated in terms of people. For instance, an objective of irrigation project should be stated interms of people irrigated their agricultural land rather than hectares irrigated. When an objective is stated in terms of people the next task will be to state it separately for male and female. This would be more apparent and easy to quantify if higher-level objectives (i.e., goal and purpose) are conceptulized and stated interms of people (participants). Therefore, gender analysis should be used as part of the project planning and design process to ensure that gender considerations are incorporated in the formulation of objectives rather than merely in the measurement of results (Caro and Lambert 1994).

Developing indicators

Indicators are developed for each of the objectives formulated. Indicators show whether the project is moving towards its goal. An effective monitoring and evaluation plan includes several types of indicators of which impact indicator and process indicators are the major ones. Process indicators provide information to monitor the effects of project activities in the short term, so that the needed correction can be made. Impact indicators are needed to measure progress towards achieving objectives and results. Impact indicators also show how and to what extent different social group and actors have benefited from the project. For instance indicators may reveal whether men have benefited more or less than women. But it should be noted that statement of objectives interms of participants is a pre condition to incorporate gender in monitoring and evaluation plan and thereby develop "people level" indicators.

Defining targets and baseline values for indicators

Targets should be set for change in key indicators at various points over the life of the project as well as the expected value at the end of the project. These targets should also be clear, realistic and quantifiable statements of expected outcomes.

The baseline values establish the starting point from which change can be measured. Baseline data are used to set and assess the feasibility of project targets and to show

initial relationship among variables. These data must be disaggregated by gender and other social indicators to monitor /evaluate the impact of the project on participants.

Developing data gathering and analysis method

The data required for monitoring purpose must be collected regularly. And this makes necessary to plan in advance when to collect the data, what instruments to use for data collection, when and by whom to make the analysis, etc. Questions like should new data be collected or the same data can be used for evaluation? When and how is it going be evaluated? etc. will be answered and planned at this stage.

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4. Organizing Gender-Integrated Monitoring and Evaluation

4.1 Key actors in monitoring and evaluation activities

One of the factors of success in monitoring and evaluation is the participation of all stakeholders. Participants in project monitoring and evaluation should include beneficiaries, project staff, donors, concerned government and other agencies.

When we say participation of beneficiaries we are referring to the participation people (i.e., both males and females). In monitoring and evaluation activities, therefore, it is important to have a fair representation of both sexes. Besides, it is imperative to involve women in the monitoring and evaluation teams or taskforces.

The participation of all stakeholders in the monitoring and evaluation activities has its own benefits. Because it:

- promotes co-operation;
- creates sense of ownership of the project by beneficiaries;
- encourages the generation of various approaches /solutions to problems;
- increases project implementation and monitoring skills; and
- increases credibility and feeling of partnership.

In general, wider participation in project monitoring and evaluation can contribute to its ultimate goal. Hence, care should be taken not to marginalize any grouping that has either direct or indirect connection with the project, particularly women who constitute about half of the total population in any community.

4.2 Establishing monitoring and evaluation system

Once the monitoring and evaluation activities are planned and the key actors are identified, the remaining task will be to establish a monitoring and evaluation system in the project. The system should be compatible with the existing organizational set-up of the project to be implemented. Some of the steps that help to establish a successful monitoring system include the following:

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- Preparation of job description and performance standards for the staff involved in monitoring and evaluation activities (the staff should comprise members from both sexes).
- Developing training materials for the monitoring and evaluation staff.
- Ogranize and train monitoring and evaluation staff.
- Consult the users of the information and the source of information on the concepts, purposes, and operation of the monitoring and evaluation system.
- Pre-test the monitoring and evaluation system to find out how the whole system operates.
- Revise the monitoring and evaluation system on the basis of results of the pre-test.
- Install and operate the monitoring and evaluation system in collaboration with the beneficiaries.

It should be noted that in most cases evaluation is carried out by outsiders i.e., by persons who are not directly involved in project implementation. In such situation there is no need to establish a system within the project. But it is also possible to have the system within the project (as discussed above) in order to conduct an on-going evaluation.

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5. Implementing Gender-Integrated Monitoring and Evaluation Activities

5.1 Monitoring

The implementation of monitoring activities presupposes the existence of work plan. The work plan should include:

- activities to be undertaken,
- resources /inputs,
- time schedule, and
- target (output) to be achieved as much as possible quantified. This will serve as a base to conduct efficiency and effectiveness monitoring.

Implementing a functional monitoring system has also to fulfil at least three basic requirements. These are:

- clear monitoring objectives (as explained in chapter three above),
- focused monitoring tools, and
- simple monitoring procedures.

Monitoring tool is an instrument used for gathering data. It may be a sort of form or questionnaire. Data regarding input, activity and output can be collected using the forms presented on pages 18 and 19. (These forms are developed as examples to show the data required to monitor inputs, activities and outputs. Therefore, it is not going to be used by all project. Every project can have its own format depending on its size and type).

The type and magnitude of inputs required depend on the type and size of a project. However, there is one similar input in all the projects, sub-projects and components, namely finance. It is important, therefore, to monitor finance separately from other inputs. This is not only because of its similarity in all the projects, sub-projects and components but also due to its major contribution in the process. All other inputs are expressed interms of finance, i.e., the provision of manpower, the supply of materials, etc. depend on the availability of money to finance these inputs.

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Input (financial) data can be collected and analysed using the form on page 18. This form has 13 columns which can be divided into four parts. In the first part the sub-project, the component and the budget allocated for each component will be indicated. The information given in these columns will remain the same for one fiscal year unless changes are made in components or budget allocated for them. The four columns in the second part will be used to show what the planned and actual expenditures are in a specific reporting period, the difference between the two and the reason for it. In the third part of this form the cumulative (starting from the first month of the fiscal year up to the reporting month) planned and actual expenditure will be reported and proportion of the cumulative actual expenditure out of the cumulative planned expenditure will be indicated. The two columns of the fourth part show the remaining balance and percentage of budget utlized from each component.

The activities and outputs data can be collected using the format on page 19. This form is divided into two blocks. The first block will be used to list the activities planned for the reporting period and to indicate whether these activities are accomplished or not. The remaining column in this block will be used to explain the causes for activities which are not completed as scheduled. The second block in this form will serve to list down the expected (planned) output and the actual output attained and there by to make a comparison between the two. If the actual output is above or below what is expected, the causes for the deviation will be explained.

These types of formats are important for efficiency monitoring. Another types of instruments are required for effectiveness and impact monitoring. These instruments could be questionnaires, focus group discussion, interview, etc. For an impact monitoring it is very important to collect data disaggregated by sex and social differentiation. Because data which show the total number of beneficiaries will not help to make the analysis on the basis of gender.

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Monitoring (all types) of projects may be made through a number of methods. Some of these are:

- regular meetings of functionaries at various levels;
- task forces or committees formed to co-ordinate and monitor;
- progress reports and review through established system of information;
- personal inspection and supervision at regular intervals; and
- periodic collection of data and analysis.

Since the above mentioned techniques are not mutually exclusive they can be applied in combination.

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Form _____
Date _____

STATEMENT OF EXPENDITURE FOR ---------- PROJECT

Implementing Agency _____

Reporting Period _____

No.	Sub-project 02	Component 03	Budget allocated 04	For the reporting period				Cumilative			Balance (12=04-10) 12	Percentage of budget utilized (13=10-04x100) 13
				Planned Expenditure 05	Actual expenditure 06	Difference (07=05-06) 07	Reason for differrence 08	Planned expenditure 09	Actual expenditure 10	Percentage of expenditure (11=10-09x100) 11		
		Total										

Prepared by _____

Approved by _____

CCPDA

Form _____
Date _____

MONTHLY /QUARTERLY PROGRESS REPORT FORM FOR ---------- PROJECT

Sub-project _____ Implementing Agency _____

Component _____ Reporting period from _____ to _____

No.	Activities			Reason (if not completed)	Output					Reason for deviation
	Planned for the reporting period	Status[1]			Planned (target)	Actual	Status[1]			
		Completed	not completed				Above target	As planned	Below target	

Prepared by _____

Approved by _____

_____

[1]use "X" marks to indicate the status of each activity and the actual output attained

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5.2 Evaluation

The evaluation of a project includes the consideration of various factors. Before embarking on to any type of project evaluation it is important to make decision on which aspect on the project should be evaluated and also at what level and depth it must be evaluated. Once this decision is made the remaining tasks would be preparing a work plan, selecting appropriate instruments, collecting data using the selected instruments and analysing the data collected.

The work plan must show how each of the following functions would be carried out. The functions are:

- focusing the evaluation (objective, evaluation questionnaire),
- collecting information,
- organizing information,
- analysing information, and
- reporting information.

The work plan can be prepared in the following manner.

Evaluative question or objective	Information required	Information source	Intor. Collection arrangement			Analysis procedure	Interpretation procedure	Reporting		
			by whom	conditions	when			to whom	how	when

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There are different ways of collecting data that will serve the purpose of providing an information base on which evaluative judgement about a project can be made. Different instruments can be used in different circumstances. The following are the most commonly used evaluation instruments.

a) Interview A series of questions put to respondent.

b) Questionnaires A structured questionnaire where the respondent has a choice of response or an open-ended questionnaire with a series of written questions for which the respondent provides written answers.

c) Focus group discussion A series of questions put to a group to discuss and form some consensus about the subject in question.

d) Expert opinion Judgements made by persons of accepted experience and competence.

e) Observation Assessment of the effects and impacts of a project on the behaviour of target groups or on the environment at large.

f) Document Inspection Examination of documentary information related to the implementation of the project.

The questions which will be prepared for interview, questionnaire and focus group discussion must be short, simple and focused in order to make data gathering, processing and reporting an easier task. Interview, questionnaires and focus group discussion can be conducted by taking the sample or full census depending on the size of the population under study. The data which will be collected using any of the above instruments should be disaggregated by sex and age. This will help to make analysis on the basis of gender and age group. It is also necessary to determine the appropriate ways of analysing and interpreting the data collected.

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In most cases evaluation is carried out by people outside the project. This help to make an impartial judgement. If situations demand to carry out the evaluation by persons in the project, it will be important to assign personnel who are not directly involved in the implementation of the project.

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6. Reporting Monitoring and Evaluation Results

It may be possible to conduct successful monitoring and evaluation exercise of a given project. But this by itself is not sufficient unless the results are reported systematically and satisfactorily. Because the monitoring and evaluation results are used to improve the planning and management of the project. The results also assist policy makers and others to make informed decisions.

There are different ways of preparing and reporting monitoring and evaluation results. The following is the most commonly used method:

- Prepare draft report and send copies to those concerned for comments.
- Improve draft report based on the feedback obtained.
- Discuss the improved draft report in a meeting with concerned staff before finalizing it.
- Prepare a final copy.

In whatever way it may be prepared, the purpose of a monitoring or an evaluation report is linked to the role the monitoring or evaluation is intended to play. If it is monitoring or on-going evaluation its overall objective is to improve the project implementation. And the report should inform early the project staff and all other stakeholders about how the project is functioning and what changes must be made to improve it. On the other hand, if it is ex-post evaluation the report should provide information and judgements about the project's utility to those who may wish to adopt it. This report will also help to determine whether to terminate or continue the project.

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Topics

1. Basic concepts of Gender

-Sex
-Gender
-Gender relation
-Gender equality /equity
-Gender awareness and sensitivity
-Gender mainstreaming
-Gender analysis
-Gender Gas
-Gender disaggregated data
-Gender and development approaches
  -WID
  -GAD

2. Gender and development categories

- Practical and strategic gender needs

3.Leadership and decision-making

-Def. Leadership
-Identifying barriers to women's advancement in Leadership and decision-Making
-The status of Gender equality in leadership and decision-making at house hold, community and institutional levels

4. Basic leadership skills

-Decision-making
-Delegation
-Supervision
-Overcoming bias against women
-Relationship with employee
Problem solving (conflict resolution)

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