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Training Programme

On

Women, Culture and Poverty

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Chapter One
CONCEPT OF POVERTY

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I. CONCEPT OF POVERTY

(By Dr. Haile Ganoro)

1. *Definition*

- Luck of access to basic necessities
  (Food, Shelter, Cloths)
- Low income
  (per capita income)
- Lack of assets
  (Land, Other properties)
- Inadequate food intake
- Poor access to social services
  (Health, education, sanitation, safe water)
- Volunerability to change

2. *Types and Causes of Poverty*

- Poverty can be manifested in several ways:

  - Transitory Poverty: -
    - is caused by natural or manmade disasters or through transitional phase of structural adjustment.
    - Includes those vulnerable groups who teeter on the age of poverty, since they are the potential addition to the poor.
  - Attributional Poverty:-
    - is caused by disease, mental and physical disability, malnutrition, age or position in the household, viz; women and children.
  - Chronic Poverty:-
    - is caused by a general lack of access to adequate resources and opportunities.

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- Poverty can be categorized as:

  - ***Relative Poverty*** - deprivation of resources
  - ***Absolute Poverty*** - lack of essentials

3. *Who are the Poor?*

- Poverty is both rural and urban phenomenon.
- Rural poor includes

  - Small holder farmer
  - The landless
  - Nomadic pastoralists
  - Ethnic tribals

- Urban poor includes

  - Informal sector operators
  - Artisans
  - Gullit traders
  - Unemployed
  - Disadvantaged

- Women

4. *Why Poor?*

- Poor in the culture of poverty
  - Dependency Syndrome
    - Aid Dependency
    - Others (Begging, Crimes, etc.)
  - Cultural Pressures
    - Religious

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- Lack of effort?

- Poor due to circumstances beyond control
  - Lack of access to resources
  - Lack of policy commitment
  - etc.

5. ***Poverty Indicators:-***

- GDP/GNP Per Capita Index
- GDP/GNP Per Capita Annual Growth Rate
- Food Security
- Calorie intake/Adult/Day
- Population below absolute poverty line
- Life expectancy
- Basic needs index (Education, health indices)
- Relative welfare index
- Integrated poverty index
- Health coverage
- Educational attainment
- Human Resource Development
- etc.

- *GDP/GNP - a poor indicator of poverty since;*

  - an average national measure of aggregate output.
  - distributional concerns make its market price weighting scheme an unacceptable basis for intertemporal and cross-sectional comparison of social welfare. (Ethiopia: 2/114 - 1988)

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- *Integrated Poverty Index (IPI)*

  - is calculated by combining:-

    - the head-count measure of poverty with the income-gap ratio
    - income distribution below the poverty line, and
    - the annual growth of per capita GDP/GNP.

    - it takes value between zero and one
      - severe poverty = IPI ≥ 0.40
      - moderate poverty = 0.40 ≥ IPI ≥ 0.20
      - relative poverty = IPI ≤ 0.20

        (Ethiopia: 0.643) rank 28/114

- *Food Security Index (FSI)*

  - Combines relevant production and consumption variables.

    - Takes values zero and above with one being a cut-point between countries which are relatively food secure and those which are not.

    - law food secure = FSI < 0.80
    - medium food secure = 1>FSI ≥ 0.80, and
    - high food secure = FSI ≥ 1

      (Ethiopia: 0.659) 12/114

- *Basic Needs Index (BNI)*

  - reflects the status of social development
  - includes an education index and a health index
  - education index - adult literacy, primary school enrollment
  - health index - pop/physician, infant mortality rate, access to services such as health,

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safe water and sanitation.

- takes values between zero and one
  - very needy = BNI ≤ 0.50
  - moderately needy = 0.75 ≥ BNI 0.50, and
  - relatively less needy = BNI ≥ 0.75

6. ***Incidence and Depth of Poverty:-***

- Ethiopia is one of the poorest countries in the world
  - 46% of the population live under absolute poverty
  - 50% of the population are food insecured
  - per capita income is hardly 90 dollars

Poverty indicators in Ethiopia

S. No.	Indicator	Ethiopia	LDCs/SSA
1	Per Capita Income	90 (1999)	550 (1997)
2	Life expectancy	48.7 yrs	62.2 yrs
3	Safe water	27%	47%
4	Access to sanitation	10%	48%
5	HRD	0.235 (169/174)	0.570 (Namibia)
6	Adult literacy rate	35.5%	50%
7	Health coverage	45%	71% (Uganda)
8	Absolute poverty	46%	-
9	Enrollment	20%	36.4%
10	Food insecurity	50%	-
11	Calorie intake	1954 (89%)	-

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6. *Marginalization of Women*

- Women in Ethiopia constitute almost half of the society (49.8% in 1997)
- The best assets (human resource) of the country
- but do not occupy positions as they deserve
- Constrained by socio-cultural factors, macro-economic policies and development strategies they are triply disadvantaged:-

1. as poor people, they live under the same condition as poor men,
2. as women they suffer from cultural and policy biases which under value their contributipon to development and prevent them from increasing the productivity of their labour, and
3. as heads of household they face the same problems as men while having to carry out the full burden of household management and production for which the get very little support

- Women participation in the civil service is not only limited (18%) but also less renumerated (54% of the women civil service employees are paid less than 200 birr/month)
- Although women are untapped humen potential, their participation in dicision making, gender equality etc is limited. For a country with half of the population comprising females, this is a big loss.

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Women's Status Index

S.No.	Indicators	Women	Men	National
1	Women in population	49.8%	50.2%	-
2	Human Resource Dev't	-	-	0.235
2.1	Gender Dev't Index	0.230	-	-
2.2	Gender Empowerment Measure	0.036	-	-
3	Share in Civil Service	17.9%	82.1%	-
4	Primary Enrollment	31.1%	52.0%	41.8%
5	Secondary Enrollment	7.4	10.3%	8.9%
6	Below Poverty Line	13.70Mil	13.81Mil	27.51Mil
7	Women's Status Index	0.222	-	-

7. *Consequences of Poverty*

- Deterioration of human capital
- Environmental degradation
- Slow growth/development process

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Chapter Two
BASIC ISSUES IN CULTURE AND POVERTY AND THEIR INTERPLAY ON WOMEN'S POVERTY

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Women, Culture and Poverty

Basic Issues in Culture and Poverty and Their Interplay on Women's Poverty

Introduction

Poverty is not gender neutral. Whether women are living with men or without men, caring for children or for other dependents, whether they are young or old, waged or unwaged, women are more likely than men to be poor.

Poverty studies that have been done so far, have largely ignored the issues of gender and failed to explain both the extent and the causes of poverty among women. They have failed to show who are the poor women and why they are poor. Any discussion of the issue of poverty of women must not only make women's poverty visible in the statistics but analyze the direct and indirect interplay and impacts of the biological, cultural and economic factors that structure the disadvantages experienced by women. Our concern with women's issues whether it is their lack of education, economic opportunities, empowerment, or mass poverty, cannot be dealt with statistics only. We need to seriously discuss the human realities of social and cultural variables that contribute to their invisibility, marginalization and victimization

Similarly, attention to women's poverty, should not be simply a recitation of depressing facts and figures. It is raising of fundamental issues about social, cultural and political systems that affect women's victimization by poverty. This will lead us to the exploration of alternatives and the eradication of women's poverty through personal, social, economic and political empowerment - a process of transformation for the 'deminization' of poverty.

In light of above, this presentation will consequently be analytical rather than empirical It will discuss the unjust gendered nature of the false separation between the public and private spheres of life that defines women by their attachment to the private sphere and not as an important public concern. The analysis will begin with the definition and understanding of the concepts that constitute the theme of this training program namely *women, culture and poverty.* It will show the interplay of these realities to produce what is currently labeled as the 'feminazation of poverty. It will then recognize that the system that victimizes women is subject to change and that women have indeed the power to effect change.

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Women, Culture and Poverty

Women

Everywhere in the world, women as a group, enjoy fewer advantages, work longer hours than men. Women's work and opinion are undervalued. In many countries including Ethiopia, women earn less than men, are prevented from owning resources, face numerous obstacles to holding positions of authority, and face many threats of violence just because they are women. A starting point of understanding women's issues is therefore to recognize women's subordinate and disadvantaged position by all sectors of society including planners, program developers and implements like you..

According to the United Nations statistics, women perform 76% of the world's working hours but earn only 10% of the world's income; they are 2/3 of the world's illiterate; own less than 1% of the world's property. We know now that women are not only primarily responsible for meeting the basic needs of heir children and families, but also for much food production and income generation. At least one third of the world's households are headed by women, who have sole responsibility for household production and needs.

Studies show that rather than improving, the sauce-economic status of the great majority of third world women has worsened considerably throughout the UN decade for women which was envisaged to improve their situation. With few exceptions, women's relative access to economic resources, income and employment, which are key indicators of poverty, has worsened. Their burden of work has increased, and their relative and even absolute health, nutritional and educational status, which again are important welfare and poverty indices, have declined. (Sen and Grown).

The analysis of women's issues have gone through various approaches and phases and has resulted in considerable evolution in terms of how to conceptualize the issues and what is required to bring about change in the position of women. Initially analysis focused on women and their relation to the economy and development process (Boserup). Interventions initiatives focused on compensatory measures to enable women to participate more fully in the development process and became known as the WID approach. Theoretical and empirical research resulted in the development of an alternative analytical framework that focused on the processes and relations that created and reinforced inequalities between women and women. This became known as the GAD approach (Razavi, Shahrashoub, Miller, 19995). Biological differences between women and men were distinguished from gender differences. Gender was defined as the different social meaning given to being either a woman or a man in a particular society. Emphasis was placed on the asymmetrical and unequal gender relation that shaped outcomes for both women and men but invariably to the disadvantage of women. Questions were raised about the effectiveness of integration into an already existing unequal development process, without deeper analysis of the gender relations and

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questioning the development agenda which maintains the subordination of women. This resulted in increased emphasis on issues such as participation of women in decision making and their empowerment to develop personally, socially and economically and pursues strategies to address their subordinate position and the direction of social change (Karl, Marilee, 1995).

The analytical gain made on behalf of women currently is the approach linked to the concept of the empowerment. This is defined as a process of awareness and capacity building leading to greater participation, greater decision-making power and control. This process requires transformative and not reformative action. This was recognized as a "critical area" of concern in the Beijing *Platform for Action.* When governments, including Ethiopia, signed this document, they agreed to 1) take measures to ensure women's equal access to and full participation in power structure and decision-making; and 2) increase women's capacity to participate in decision-making and leadership.(Longway, 1990) It is now widely recognized that the problem of women's poverty can be dealt with only through actions taken to empower women to gain greater access to and control of resources. This needs to be accompanied by change in ideology and culture as well as women's own rise in self-confidence and consciousness. As a consequence, organizations such as UNDP and UNICEF, have adopted policies on gender which emphasizes women's empowerment. (Oxaal and Baden 1997).

When governments adopted the *Beijing Platform for Action,* they also took a commitment to a strategy of *mainstreaming* of gender throughout policy and planning processes. The component of the mainstreaming paragraph in each major sectors of development such as education, health, economic activity, management of natural resource and the environment, etc. states...."*government and other actors should promote an active and visible policy of mainstreaming a gender perspective in all policies and programs so that , before decisions are taken, an analysis is made of the effects on women and men, respectively."* The ramifications of this commitment on poverty issues is obvious. This should also be the a fundamental approach to the alleviation of poverty of women. Development cooperation agencies and NGOs also saw the need to improve their institutional capacity to work with empowerment and decision making issues and develop strategies that are within their specific mandates and characteristics.

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Culture

Every known society recognizes and elaborates differences between the sexes through characteristic tasks, manners, and responsibilities primarily associated with women or men. Cross-cultural studies of child rearing, for example, reveal certain personality differences between men and women that are learned through the socialization process. Studies of adults indicate that it is women and not men who have the primary responsibility of raising children. The biological differences between women and men are capitalized to ascribe social traits, roles and division of labor. This process is a social construct that produces gender differences and leads to perceptions, behaviors and

actions which subordinate women, devalues their work and limit opportunities for women.

In every human culture, women in some way are subordinate to men resulting in a universal asymmetry in the cultural evaluation of the sexes. Women may be important, powerful in themselves as queens or ministers, influential if given the opportunity, but relative to men of their age, social status or qualification, women everywhere lack generally recognized and culturally valued authority. Males as opposed to female activities are always recognized as more important and the cultural system gives authority and value to the roles and activities of men. Consequently, men have culturally legitimized right of authority over women that demand subordination and compliance. When translated into the dynamics of personal, familial, social and economic relationships, they result in women's subordination, invisibility and marginalization in development programs and intervention to alleviate crisis such as poverty.

A structural model that relates cultural and social organization to the issue of women's subordination is one that relates the "domestic" orientation of women and the "extra-domestic" or public ties that in many societies are primarily available to men. This approach enables one to make sense of a number of very general characteristics of gender roles and to identify motivations as well as sources of value and power that are available to women in different societies. Women's status will be lowest in those societies where there is a firm differentiation between domestic and public spheres of activity. Their position may be raised when they can challenge those claims to authority either by taking men's roles or by establishing social ties in which women prevail such as the case of "mahbers" as is found in Ethiopia, trading societies like in West Africa, or through the attempts of political or professional organizations such as the "Women Lawyers Association" or the Women Educationalists Association in Ethiopia. However, these attempts need to be supported by strong macro level measures that include women's issues at all levels of development initiatives.

The social processes and institutions that may be legitimized in the name of biology or culture, that result in inequalities between women and men to the disadvantage of women, are a great cost to women as will be demonstrated in the analysis of poverty issues. This cost has ramifications not only to women but to development as a whole and makes it a serious social and developmental issue. Its implications envisage a reshaping of policies and actions to reflect the needs, interest and aspirations of women for a better life and equal opportunities as men.

Poverty

Poverty has been defined as a situation in which resources are insufficient to meet needs. Absolute poverty is defined in terms of a set of basic essentials assumed to be necessary for subsistence. When socially defined, poverty means exclusion from customary ways of life in society. Poverty is also defined by using a poverty line set in relation to supplementary benefit levels. Thus defined poverty is being below "officially" recognized

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minimum income levels. In Ethiopia, 45% of the population are said to be in absolute poverty and therefore are unable to lead a life fulfilling minimum standard of living (MEDAC, 1999).

When a relative poverty line is estimated, it is women who are found in large percentages below the absolute poverty line. The report on the 1995/96 Household Income, Consumption and Expenditure Survey shows women to be consistently and progressively below men in terms of income. Income is taken in the report as a major determining factor of being in poverty, The consolidated summary of the report that came out entitled "Poverty Situation in Ethiopia (MEDAC, February 1999) on the other hand fails to in include these figures and make gender based analysis making the issue of women's poverty invisible.

What Are the Unique Features of Women's Poverty?

The cause of women's poverty is located in the sexual division of labor which marginalizes women's involvement in the labor market while at the same time assigning little or no value to their caring and domestic work within the family. Attached to this division of labor is a widespread assumption that women are and should be dependent on men. The failure to acknowledge and value the economic contributions which women make through their unpaid work in the home therefore account for the invisibility of women's poverty.

Women's unpaid labor in the home helps to free men from the constraints of domestic and caring activities enabling men to engage in paid employment and enhance their earning power. Similarly as low wage earners themselves, women protect their families from the impoverishing impact of low pay. Women also play a major role in managing scarce resources within the family, often to their own cost as has been demonstrated in its severe form during the drought and famine crises in Ethiopia.

In general when we examine the extent of poverty among women, despite the differences, the poverty of women is largely invisible. The statistics concentrate on collective units such as the family, households, etc., rather than individuals. Consequently they obscure the distribution of resources and needs within these units thus the particular circumstances of women. A deeper analysis shows that it is possible for women to experience poverty and deprivation in families whose income bring them above the poverty line because they may not have access to that income. Secondly, studies show that the burden of poverty, that is of doing without and trying to make ends meet, falls mainly on women because of their ascribed care-giving role. Thirdly, the inaccurate perception that the financial dependency of women within marriage, and the fact that some married women have little or no income, is damaging to women because it uses the financial dependence of some women to justify ignoring the lower resources of most women.

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The measurement of poverty in terms of families and resources in terms of income levels, expenditures, etc., without considering the relative position of women and men means that women's poverty within families, the extent to which women bear the burden of poverty remain hidden. The question of women's independent access to resources and the substantial amount of time and effort expended by women on unpaid domestic labor are also ignored and regarded as unimportant.

The 'Feminization of Poverty'

Recently, a thesis has been developed stating that poverty is a phenomenon which increasingly affects women more than men. This implies that women are now at greater risk of poverty than men; that there is 'feminization of poverty'(Scot. 1984). The argument is supported by the fact that the rate of poverty among women-headed households is increasing and households headed by women now constitute an increasing proportion of the poor.

The notion of the 'feminazation of poverty' would be easier to accept if it meant that their previously invisible poverty is becoming increasingly visible. This is due, it is explained, by two factors: the fact that the number of women-headed household is increasing and that their participation in the labor market is also increasing although they are concentrated in the low paying employment sector. The women's movement, analyzed in the introduction,
has also contributed, at least on the level of analysis, the dichotomy between paid work and the private world of the home and family that has contributed to the poverty of women. In the absence of adequate comparative data of the past and present and the danger of the implication that the over-representation of women among the poor is a new phenomenon, the concept 'feminization of poverty' becomes a problematic concept and should be defined and understood properly in the above context..

Summary

Whatever their employment and domestic circumstances, women are more likely to be poor than men. Gender related patterns of cultural and economic realities are involved in creating women's poverty. The roots of women's poverty are embedded in the sexual division of labor and the different tasks that are culturally ascribed to women and men. The division of labor places on men a primary responsibility to fulfill the role of economic provider through employment in the public sphere, while women are responsible for child bearing, child rearing ,domestic work within the home and supportive work outside the home. This give a false perception that women are dependent on men and becomes a cause for their invisibility and marginalization in statistical analysis and interventions.

In addition, women's gender related roles are also transferred from the home to the work place which essentially involve caring for or serving others for low pay.

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Secondly, since men are paid on the whole better than women, through a fewer hour of employment, the income analysis as indicator of poverty needs reorientaion to understand women's poverty and its alleviation. The psychological impact of the difference of having an independent income rather than being dependent on another person, the latter of which is faced by some women cannot also being ignored. The argument for supplementary income for women from employment is consequently valued for the measure of independence it grants to women in addition to its value to increase women's purchasing power.

In view of the above analysis , changes in the conceptualization of women's poverty lie in the following areas. First, it is essential that gender should be introduced both in the conceptualization and measurement of poverty. The concept of poverty needs to be extended to include differential access to resources of all kinds. It must take into account the degree of control which the individual is able to exercise The above analysis also shows that there is a need for a redefinition of work to include unpaid work in which women are highly involved.

As indicated above, women's empowerment is a key element in all aspects of their lives and in the development process. This includes economic empowerment which is a process by which women are able to participate in productive activities, earn income, decide on what to do with their income and begin the process of 'defeminize' of poverty.

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Chapter Three

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN POVERTY AND CULTURE AND HOW BOTH RELATES TO WOMEN ISSUES IN ETHIOPIA

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN POVERTY AND CULTURE AND HOW BOTH RELATES TO WOMEN ISSUES IN ETHIOPIA

(By Sosena Demissie/Wro Almaz H. Selassie)

1. WHAT IS POVERTY?

- poverty is hunger;
- it is lack of shelter;
- being sick and not being able to see a doctor;
- not being able to go to school; not knowing how to read, not being able to speak properly;
- not having a job;
- is fear of future
- living one day at a time;
- is losing a child to illness brought by unclean water
- poverty is vulnerability;
- it is powerlessness.

2. WHAT IS CULTURE?

Culture constitutes the totality of people's way of life, values, moral principles, ideology, religion and social practices.

Culture and concept of culture has been defined by social scientists in different ways. Each definition covers different aspects of society and each stresses certain aspects as most important.

Culture refers to a sum total of learned behavior that society shares and teaches its members through tradition, socialization process and education. Culture has an in built dynamism that ensures change over a given period of time and condition. (Getachew Kassa, 1997)

3. CULTURE AND GENDER

In every known culture of the world, women are considered inferior to men. Among most traditional societies people assume that there are some differences between females and males. But these differences in their personality are usually the outcomes at socialization process, which are culturally induced. Hence it results in variation of opportunities and roles accorded to each sex. This in turn leads to the subordination of one sex by the other. (Ibid.)

But what is most striking and surprising is the fact male activities are always given priority and have culturally recognized value as opposed to female. An asymmetry in the

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culture evaluation of male and female appears to favor mostly males because culturally the prestige values always attach to the activities of men. (Lamphere and Rosaldo, 1974)

Inferiority of females is cultural construction and is rationalized in various ways. This is shown through the explicit devaluation sentiments, which are held in each culture. These include demeaning stories, proverbs and riddles told about women. In addition to this, the social and political divisions of labour and institutional arrangements totally exclude women from participating in different activities of their group. (Getachew Kassa, 1997)

In some countries, discrimination against women and girls (inequality) starts before birth with parental and societal attitudes that promote preference for sons over daughters. In many African countries, women's culturally disadvantaged position, low self-esteem lack of confidence coupled with lack of time and low motivation limit their capacity to take advantage of opportunities available to them in the development process force. A culture can thus be a source of inequality.

4. CULTURE, FAMILY AND SOCIALIZATION

The family is the basic unit of the society, which establishes ethics, cultural values, behavioral attitudes and patterns that influence the conduct of individuals in society. Societies are products of a common historical evolution, enriched by diverse cultures, languages and composed of different ethnic or religious communities. Individuals within those societies have their collective identities as members of families, communities, ethnic or religious groups, nations and an increasingly globalized society.

Socialization is the process by which a child is taught the roles he or she is to play in society. This process determines how adult men and women behave as chief agents of socialization in families, schools and communities. In Africa, roles assigned to men and women are predetermined and different. The family as an agent of socialization assigns different status, values and roles to girls and boys.

Socialization is a process, which forms what a person acquires socially; i.e. the expected roles, norms, value systems and attitudes, through its agents, namely, family, school, religions institutions, media, etc. The socialization process is actualized thereby forming gender relation within the framework of a given culture.

5. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN POVERTY AND CULTURE

Some culture prohibits working on religious holidays, for example, in some Ethiopian culture, there are many religious holidays in which people are not allowed to work. That may contributes to reduced productivity of labour and poverty for both men and women in that culture.

In Africa, especially in rural areas, where most of the population lives, girls are expected to help with all domestic chores such as caring for younger siblings, walking great

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distances and caring very heavy loads of fire wood and water, doing agricultural work and food processing, all of which require a great deal of time and physical energy. At the same time, compared to boys, in many households, girls routinely given less food and/or less nutritious food, less rest and less opportunities for development. These practices prevent women to have equal opportunity to achieve success in life and leads many of them to poverty.

Some cultures in Ethiopia also impose on girls to marry early. Research has been carried out in regions of Ethiopia where the practice of early marriage is prevalent. In one area of the survey, 21 per cent respondents said that the ideal age of marriage of girls was below the age of 9, with the majority of respondent in areas surveyed replying that ages 10-15 were more preferred. The same research showed that people generally give their children in marriage at an early age due to pressure to tradition. (ECA, 1997)

Unfortunately, common outcomes of early marriages include frequent, closely spaced pregnancies, great number of complications and maternal mortality. Lack and or limited education is also almost always associated with early marriage. At the same time when women are uneducated, poor nutrition, inappropriate responses to health matters and unhygienic conditions are more to be found. Indirectly, the health status of the family is affected when mothers are uneducated.

Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) is also practiced as a result of culture, which has psychological and physical consequences to women's health. In many societies, in Africa, FGM is part of initiation into womanhood. Therefore, once girls have undergone FGM, sometimes they are no longer sent to school because from that point onward, they are supposed to remain home and wait to be married. In this situation, the practice of FGM is an obstacle to girls reaching their full intellectual and employment potential, in addition to the physically and emotionally harmful effects.

Women have often been denied employment opportunities as a result of cultural and social reasons. They most often have had to face the prejudice of employers who are always against their recruitment because they are afraid of the frequent requests which women especially those of reproductive ages, usually make for maternity leave or permission for family reason.

All the above discriminatory cultural and social practices, limits their access to education, productive employment, basic social services and cost their life. Lack of access to such opportunities, in turn severely hampers women's human resource development.

Human capital is important for creation of necessary conditions for improved productivity and reducing aggregate inequality over the long term. Education opportunity for women, which is denied because of some cultural practices and social reasons, may lead to poverty. Because there is little potential for the improvement in the quality of life and total income of the entire family.

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Traditionally, women are employed in lower paying jobs and in a narrower range of occupations than are men; however, education – which she no longer can easily obtain once married – can help to narrow the gender gap.

For a nation, the consequences of early marriage are higher fertility and higher infant and maternal mortality rates and less skilled workforce with which to compete for foreign investment and global trade. Therefore, inequalities in resource allocation that limit members' educational opportunities access to health care or nutrition are costly to individuals, households and the economy as a whole.

Reducing gender inequality in education, employment and access to resources promotes national development goals. Lower educational inequalities have been shown to contribute to lower child mortality and greater education of the next generation.

6. STATUS OF WOMEN IN ETHIOPIA

There have been few studies concerning women in Ethiopia, but many observers commented on physical hardships that Ethiopian women experience throughout their lives. Such hardship involves carrying loads of wood and water over long distance, grinding food items manually, working in the homestead, raising children and cooking.

Girls are exposed to traditional practices such as Female genital Mutilation (FGM) which leave them with life long health complications, especially during and after childbirth.

During childhood girls, are socialized to be obedient, submissive, shy, virginal and unimaginative; while boys are expected to be strong, brave, daring, decisive, wise and imaginative.[1]

In addition, girls from age 5, are given heavy household responsibilities in collecting fuelwood and water, looking after siblings and assisting with farm and animal husbandry tasks. Chores that are well beyond their physical capacity and which preclude their attending school. Since they are also forced to marry early, they become pregnant too early, have too many pregnancies without proper spacing and are not only at risk vis-a-vis maternal death but their children are exposed to the same amount of risk.

In Ethiopia women traditionally have suffered socio-cultural and economic discrimination and have fewer opportunities compared to men for personal growth, education and employment. As in other traditional society, a woman's worth is measured in terms of her role as a mother and wife.

Apart form historical, cultural and religious factors, the current situation of women in Ethiopia is exacerbated by the overall poor economic situation. Poverty, economic insecurity, vulnerability, poor social services provision which affects the entire

[1] See Fitha Negest, a customary Orthodox Coptic law on which the Ethiopian Civil Code is partly based.

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population but place a heavier burden on women who are usually responsible for household welfare in terms of provision of food, fuel, water and child care.

Poverty is a major concern and an important issue in Ethiopia. According to Ministry of Economic Development and Cooperation, Welfare Monitoring Unit Feb. 1999 Study, an estimated 45.5 percent of people in Ethiopia live below the poverty line. It is estimated 47.5 percent of rural population live in absolute poverty while 33 percent of urban population are found in absolute poverty. In this report, it is also estimated that 27.1 million people cannot meet their daily minimum nutritional requirement. (MEDaC. 1999)

On the other hand, the CSA 1995/96 Revised report on Household Income, Consumption and Expenditure Survey, which shows the household domestic expenditure by sex, has figures which indicates that the lower household domestic expenditure, the higher the number of female population. That means more women are in poverty in Ethiopia than men, which needs special attention in planning and decision making. (CSA, 1998)

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Chapter Four
FEMINIZATION OF POVERTY: REVIEW OF CONCEPTS AND SOME EMPIRICAL EVIDENCES IN ETHIOPIA

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FEMINIZATION OF POVERTY: Review of Concepts and Some Empirical Evidences in Ethiopia

By
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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Feminization of poverty is a concept that defines the existence of gender bias in sharing the burden of poverty against women. Recent studies show that there is a strong correlation between poverty and gender in worldwide. The general consensus among scholars reveals that women are more vulnerable to poverty than men, especially in the developing countries. Some official statistics claim that women represent as high as 70 per cent of the world's population of poor estimated at 1300 million persons (UNDP, 1995; United Nations, 1996).

The growing number of female-headed households (FHH) in all over the world in the last three decades has been the major factor for the gender bias in poverty, and a measure of women's relative impoverishment. It is mentioned in one of the ILO publications that the proportion of households headed by women in Europe grew from 24 per cent in 1980 to 31per cents in 1990. In some developing countries the percentage of FHHs has reached almost 50 per cent. Female-headed households in Sub-Saharan Africa currently account more than 30 per cent the total households in the region. The proportion of FHHs worldwide was estimated at 19 per cent in 1990. Given there is under-registration of FHHs in the developing countries it is reasonable to estimate higher proportion than reported (Marcoux, 1997).

Available data also show that the numbers of women poor is growing faster than the case in men poor. For example, one study indicated that FHHs increased from just over 20% in all households below poverty level in 1960 to more than 50% in 1990. The gender bias in poverty, however, affects women unequally across countries and, between rural and urban settings. Feminization of poverty is more severe in developing countries than in developed ones, and in rural areas than urban.

The growth of this type of family structure is attributed to several factors in a given region depending on the social, demographic and economic condition. According to the ILO, the most important factors are migrations, divorce, and abandonment, adolescent parenthood and, more generally, the notion that children are women's responsibility. It has been also emphasized that looking into these and other factors which causes for female headship of households is extremely relevant in studying poverty.

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Ethiopia is one of the poorest countries in the world with a per capita income of about USD167 (1998). Some studies estimated that more than 60 per cent of the country's population lives in poverty. These studies also show that the incidence of poverty is more in rural areas than urban and in female-headed households than male-headed ones.

1.2 Objectives of the study

The major objective of this paper is to familiarize workshop participants with the concept and dimensions of feminization of poverty. The specific objectives are to:

⇒ Enable workshop participants understand the concept of feminization of poverty;
⇒ Overview the major correlates and dimensions of women's relative impoverishment with particular reference to the Ethiopian situation;
⇒ Provide brief assessment regarding the implications of the feminization of poverty on the development of the country in general, and future generation in particular;
⇒ Discuss appropriate measures for the alleviation of feminization of poverty in Ethiopia.

2. Measuring the Feminization of Poverty

2.1 Feminization of Poverty Correlates

Female headship of household is commonly used by recent studies as a major parameter to explain the gender bias of poverty against women. This is because FHH represents a heterogeneous phenomenon that can explain the reality regarding the gender bias in poverty. It has been argued that, feminization of poverty can only be measured in this way as it is very difficult to assume and measure intra-household sex imbalances in the distribution of poverty within the poor population (Marcoux, 1997).

It is important to note that female headship of households as a major measure of bias against women in poverty basically assumes that households headed by women in the population of poor tend to be more vulnerable than the analogous male headed ones.

Review of literature also show that there are major limitations in measuring the feminization of poverty. The most important limitations in this regard include:

- Feminization of poverty is relatively a new concept. The disaggregation of data based on male and female headship of households was made possible only since 1990. In general, there is a lack of adequate and reliable empirical data that show the magnitude of gender bias in poverty. As a result, "much of the analysis of poverty and gender rests on assumptions and inference from very limited data and case studies, a situation which fostered the circulation of guesstimates of uneven quality " (United Nations, 1995:129; quoted in Marcoux, 1997:1).

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- Most empirical studies have attempted to measure the feminization of poverty based on one indicator—level of income. They have failed to include other important indicators of poverty such as opportunities in terms of employment, asset ownership and accumulation, and access to basic services such as education, health and sanitation. Living conditions—life expectancy, the state of children's health, adult illiteracy—are among the many important indicators of poverty in general and the existing gender bias against women in particular.
- Due to several socio-economic factors there is under-registration of FHHs in most developing countries, so that assessment of the reality in gender bias in poverty incidence is very difficult.

2.2 Factors for the Relative Impoverishment of Female-Headed Households

Observations so far recorded reveal that the following are the contributing factors for the relative impoverishment of FHHs , especially in the developing countries.

- FHHs in general have a larger number of persons (children and elderly) to care for per worker. Field observations show that FHHs with children to care for are among the most vulnerable groups to extreme poverty.
- Most of the rural FHHs in African countries do not have access to adult male labour for agricultural production, particularly during the peak seasons of production activities. For example, empirical observations in Ethiopia show that these households are forced to lease their agricultural land to another male on share cropping basis to get half of the produce.
- Women who are leading their households earn a lower average income than that of men. This is due to the fact that women, especially in developing countries do not have equal opportunity to be educated to men so that they have less access to high-pay employment.
- These women also do not have equal access to what Marcoux call them "individual capability factors" such as land, credit, technology, skill training and to services.
- As claimed by one of the ILO publications, women heads are carrying heavy workload as they assume the whole responsibilities of reproductive, productive and communal roles by themselves. Hence, they are forced to choose jobs or types of income generating activities, which are not well paid.
- Religion and traditional beliefs including social organizations and institutions have something to contribute to the cause of poverty on women. For example, a recent

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observation made in rural Ethiopia has showed that women heads of households who lack adult male labour are forced to plough their land during night times by hiding themselves. This is because the culture of the society considers ploughing as men's job, and a shame for women to do activities recognized as men's tasks which includes ploughing (Itana, 1996).

3. Dimensions of Feminization of Poverty in Ethiopia.

3.1 General Observations

Recent observations indicate that the following are major characteristics of gender biases in most places in Ethiopia:

- Despite women's important contribution to the livelihood systems of communities and to the betterment of the society as a whole, access to and control of productive resources and decision-making at all levels, especially at the household and community levels, remain strongly male-dominated.
- Like elsewhere in most African countries, women's subordination in Ethiopia is attributed to social and cultural constraints and male domination.
- Harmful cultural practices like girls' circumcision, abduction, and early marriage are widely practiced affecting the well-being of women and hindering girl' education to higher level.
- Polygamy is common practice in most places of the country.
- Women's tasks are more hazardous and time consuming when compared to that of men.
- In most cultures women are neither allowed to inherit their father's land or equitably share resources with husbands.
- High maternal death rate.
- Violence against women.
- Lesser opportunity for wage employment. The pay is also very low for women compared to that of male counterparts.
- Literacy rate is very low among women

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In Ethiopia, there is a general lack of data on the major variables that explain poverty and its distribution between males and females. Thus, "the knowledge gained in studying poverty levels, patterns and trends has generally been based on the limited and sporadic cases of poverty and information which have been collected by quick-adhoc surveys or intelligently guessed by a small group of researchers in the country" (Hadgue, 1996:215).

The following observations can also made with regard to absence of adequate and reliable basic data disaggregated by gender:

- There is under registration of FHHs, especially in rural Ethiopia. The percentages of FHHs registered by the 1984 and 1994 Population and Housing Censuses in the country were 22.4 per cent and 22.2 percent respectively. Unlike in most countries in the world, the growth in this type of family structure is static. The reported proportion of FHHs is significantly lower than the Sub-Saharan African average, currently about 30 per cent.

- The 1994 census also indicated that FHHs in rural and urban areas represented 20.1 per cent and 35 per cent of total households in that order, almost static except a modest decline for urban areas as compared to the figures reported by the 1984 census. The proportion of FHHs is significantly higher in urban areas than rural, which is consistent with the pattern observed in developing countries.
- Recent surveys made in rural and urban areas, however, have recorded significantly higher percentages of FHHs than the data reported by the census. For example, four household surveys made in different places have reported the following FHHs proportions:

1. A household survey made in 1997 in Omosheleko Woreda of SNNPR revealed that the FHHs were accounting for 29 per cent of the total rural households in the nine sampled Peasant Associations (PAs).
2. Similarly, findings of the sample survey study carried out in two woredas (Gambella and Abobo Woredas) in Gambella Region in 1996 recorded that women headed 33.6 per cent of the total rural households in four cluster studies.
3. Another survey, which was made in 19998 in Dalocha Woreda in the Guraghe Zone, has also showed that women were heading 39.4 per cent of the rural households in the woreda.
4. A census study of urban households made in 1999 in 13 Kebeles of Woreda Five (Merkato area) in the Addis Ababa Region have shown that 48 per cent of the urban households residing in the woreda are headed by women, which is significantly higher than the national average reported by the 1994 census.

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3.2 Some Empirical Evidences on the Feminization of Poverty in Ethiopia

A comprehensive report on poverty situation in the country was produced by the government for the first time in March, 1999.The report, which was produced using the 1995/96 Household Income, Consumption and Expenditure and Welfare Monitoring Surveys, however, does not adequately analyze and clearly show the existing gender bias in poverty. Some of the findings of the study which are relevant to explain the existing sex imbalances in sharing the burden of poverty are summarized below (DSA, 1999).

- Basic valuable indicators calculated and incorporated in the report include regional price indices, per capita income levels, levels of absolute and relative poverty, distribution of income and other basic welfare indicators such as literacy rate school enrollment and access to safe water and sanitation. These indicators are calculated for national, regional and group of zones levels;
- Since the database for this report refers to a specific period (1988 EC.), all the indicators calculated are static figures that show welfare situation at a specific point in time. Hence, no trend analysis was incorporated in the report;
- It is widely believed that household survey data provide a better estimate of national per capita income than national account, which rely on production, external resource flow and residual estimates to calculate per capita income. Hence, the per capita income figure calculated based on the household surveys and incorporated in this report would have been an accurate estimate of the reality on the feminization of poverty in the country had the data were disaggregated and analyzed by male and female headship of households;
- The analysis undertaken on poverty indicated that, 45 per cent of the population in the country are absolutely poor people, meaning they are people who are unable to lead a life fulfilling the minimum livelihood standard. Poor people in Ethiopia have a per capita income level of only 100 USD while the non-poor people earn a per capita income level of 224 USD on average;
- Other basic welfare indicators incorporated in the report, although refer to the situation in 1995/96 (1988 EC), they provided, however, valuable information especially in terms of welfare status between rural and urban areas and differences by gender. Literacy levels and school enrollment rates are consistently higher in urban areas than rural areas and for male population than female population.
- In addition, by and large, higher incidence of poverty was observed among the less educated. The probability of moving into poverty was quite less among the educated, married family heads and those family heads in the middle age category.

Poverty analysis based on a household panel data collected in 1994-7 also reveals the following important features of poverty in urban Ethiopia (Makonnen, Bereket & Abebe: as summarized by DSA, 1999):

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- In Urban Ethiopia, the sex of the head of the household has significant contribution to the incidence of poverty. In 1994 of male-headed households 36.4 per cent were poor while the analogous figures for female-headed households was 48.4 per cent, a difference of more than 10 per cent. Thus, poverty in urban Ethiopia seems to have a gender perspective.

- A remarkable correlation between poverty and level of education was observed in the urban Ethiopia. The percentage of poor people significantly declined as the level of education of the household head increased. This was typically illustrated by the incidence of poverty among people who never attended school (41.9 per cent) and people with and education of college level or above had no member of the poor population in the survey periods.

- Across employment contours, in 1994 the prevalence of poverty was high among casual labourers (100 per cent), female-headed households engaged in household chores (66.7 per cent), while it was the lowest for public sector employees (23.1 per cent) and the civil service (9.1 per cent). If self-employment represents the informal sector, as it does in most cases, incidence of poverty in 1994 was estimated to be 28.2 per cent.

Empirical findings of a recent study made by DSA in Woreda Five of Addis Ababa has shown that there is an excess female poverty in Merkato area. The following are some of the important empirical results of the study: (DSA, 1999)

- Female-headed households in Merkato were having per capita income, on average, about 11 per cent less than their male counterparts. They are also more food poor. Spending on food was marginally lower, about 3 per cent. Although welfare difference along gender seems not significant in Merkato, it is hard to say that gender, more specifically; female-headedness is not a poverty issue.

- While the number of illiterate women is greater than that of men, the number of males enrolled in grades 1 and above is greater than the number of females. One possible explanation for this may go as follows: Boys have an edge over girls in access to literacy. At the same time, it appears that girls stay stuck at the level of reading and writing while boys manage to go to higher grades.

- Not surprisingly, more males (55.1 per cent) attended school than female. It will be noted that the bias in favor of men holds at all school levels except grades 1 to 4. This is contrary to the situation in the rest of Addis Ababa, where female share of student population was 51.8 per cents in 1998.

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4. Recommendations

Several studies have indicated that poor female-headed households are more likely to transmit the poverty to their children, particularly for "the daughters who are often obliged to quit school to take care of their brothers and sisters while mothers work". These children will have very little chance to get out of the cycle of poverty. The impact of feminization of poverty on the overall development of the country is tremendous.

The following are some of the recommendations of this assessment:

- There is a need to make more efforts to collect better gender-disaggregated data in all aspects of poverty so as to assess the gender biases of poverty and their changes over time. It is also important to make maximum effort to register the exact number of female-headed households especially in rural areas. This requires among other things to find out the bottlenecks for the current under-registration of female-headed households in the country. The number of households headed by women is vitally important variable to measure the feminization of poverty in the society.
- Analysis of poverty and welfare monitoring should be based on the dichotomy of male and female headship of households in the rural and urban areas. Such analysis can yield better perception on the magnitude of feminization of poverty in the country.
- More research is needed on the different aspects of living conditions of female-headed households.
- It is also important to study and assess the gender bias issues such as access to productive resources, education, etc. and their impact on the incidence of poverty.
- There should be a strategy of targeting women in all development intervention in order to avoid the unequal share of poverty. The role of NGOs operating in the country in this regard is significantly important.

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Chapter Five
THE DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC CORRELATES OF POVERTY IN ETHIOPIA

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The Demographic and Socio-economic Correlates of Poverty in Ethiopia

A Paper presented at the CRDA Training on Women, Culture and Poverty

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I. Introduction:

1. Varied Views on the Genesis of Poverty:

1.1 The Medieval Christian View:

The issue of the determinants of poverty has always been surrounded with an endless controversy, in this country. In Christian circles, in this country, the view was held and to some extent continues to be held even at present that peoples positions in the social and economic structure are divinely determined and there is nothing people can do about it except for the haves to treat the have-nots charitably. This view has not been different from views held by medieval Christians in the West where the poor were basically regarded as the burden the fortunate ones must carry. It was believed that people became poor because of the sins committed by their ancestors if not by themselves.

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1.2 The Communist View:

The communists held the view that poverty is a function of the way society is structured, i..e the fact that societies are structured into classes – those who control the means of production and those who do not. To paraphrase what Karl Marx has said:

> *There are three great classes in modern society – those who earn income from rent of land, those who earn it from interest on capital and those who earn it from the sale of their labor in the market place.*

In the terminology of stratification he called these three "Great Classes in Modern Society" the nobility, the bourgeoisie and the proletariat. So the Marxist view can essentially be reduced to a dual relationship, namely, the relationship between ***"exploiters and the exploited".***

The French philosopher, Prouhdon once said: " Property is theft" implying that God intended natural resources to be available to everybody and the division of society into owners and non-owners is a product of greed. The strong grabbed land and said: "This is mine" and the weak were left with no choice but accept it as *fait acomplis*.

1.3. The Contemporary View:

In our time, poverty is explained in terms of *systemic inefficiencies* – the system being the market place. Because the market place is a competitive system, it is those who compete relatively more effectively that can survive in it. This conception of poverty, in a sense, derives from a variant of the Darwinist thought of the principle of natural selection. Because of its inherent imperfection, the market produces ***externalities or unintended consequences***. These unintended consequences represent segments of population that cannot effectively compete in the struggle for survival. As technology becomes more sophisticated it is capital rather than human beings who are the critical actors in modern production systems. So labor's market importance declines and so does its value.

In the West the problem of externalities produced by the Market is dealt with by a system of public assistance made available in the

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form of unemployment benefits, cash or in-kind subsidies to those who are deemed to be under an empirically determined poverty line. But such options cannot be made available to people in underdeveloped countries.

The definition of poverty is not much different from the way poverty is defined in the industrialized countries. People are considered poor if they earn a weekly, or monthly or yearly income [1]below a certain level. If the level of income people earns is below US $ 1.00 per day, they are considered to be poor. This seems to be the boundary of income defining poverty in the Africa Region in general and in Ethiopia in particular. An adequate individual or family income is that level of income that imparts to the individual or the family the capacity to buy nutritionally adequate diet.[1] In the Industrialized countries the definition of poverty goes beyond nutrition and include shelter, health care, education and leisure. In our situation it is reasonable to assume that many other features of deprivation are relatively easy to bear with "full stomach", so to speak.

Available data in Ethiopia indicate that poverty has been getting worse over the years. In 1985 the percentage of total population living with an income of under $1 a day was estimated at approximately 58.8% and this went up to 69.1%.[2] In 1992 the World Bank made an estimate of the level of poverty in rural and urban areas using the one dollar a day criteria. The results were as follows:[3]

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[1] Getahun Taffese, Poverty – Draft Outline , November 1998 ; unpublished
[2] Getahun, op.cit p.4
[3] Getahun ibid p.4

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a) Rural: 53.6%

b) All urban areas: 58.0%

c) Addis Ababa only: 60.0%

A Government sponsored study in 1993 estimated rural poverty at 51.7% and that of urban areas at 63.0%[4]. The conclusion to be drawn from the results of the many attempts to determine the magnitude of poverty in Ethiopia is that the percentage of total population surviving under one dollar a day has been increasing over the last couple of decades.

1.4 The Central Argument of this Paper:

We will argue in this paper that the major factor contributing to increasing poverty is the continuous increase in the population/natural resources ratio over the last several decades. We will also argue that as aggregate demand for population sustaining resources increases in response to rapid population growth, the problem of environmental degradation increases further aggravating the population/natural resource balance.

We will further argue that, while on the whole, poverty is not selective of gender women tend to be at greater risk of being more hurt by it due to their places in the traditional social structure. The division of labor in traditional society relegates women to the hearth and as such denies them community wide opportunities

The phenomenon ***of female headships of households,*** particularly so serious in urban areas, is one of the major causes of

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poverty among women. Either through divorce, widowhood or abandonment, and even displacement due to war and civil strife, women are left to take care of themselves and their children without any visible means of income or any other predictable support. Many of them make a living by engaging in diverse activities like doing people's laundry or baking for families or engaging in such non-formal sector activities as street vending, etc.

II. Population Dynamics, Environmental Deterioration and Poverty in Ethiopia:

2.1 Actual and Projected Population Size in Ethiopia 1985 –2020

The population of Ethiopia grew very slowly during the first half of the present century and began accelerate in the early 1960s. In 1984 when the first nationwide census was taken the crude rate of natural increase was estimated at 2.9% per annum[5]. The Population and Housing Census Commission made projections of what the size of the population of Ethiopia is likely to look like under three population growth assumptions. The results of the exercise are shown below.

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[4] ibid p.4
[5] OPHCC, The 1984 Population and Housing Census of Ethiopia

Table 1. Projected Population Sizes of Ethiopia and three growth rate assumptions

Year	Population in millions under three growth rate assumptions		
	High Variant	Medium variant	Low Variant
1985	44.3	44.3	44.3
1995	60.8	60.6	60.1
2005	86.0	84.9	82.8
2015	123.1	118.9	111.7
2020	146.3	138.8	127.0

Source: Office of the Population and housing Census Commission (OPHCC (1991).

Note: The three variant assumptions are interpreted as follows:
i)High variant assumption is the assumption that the population would grow at the rate prevailing at the time the projection exercise would continue to obtain until the year 2020; ii)the medium variant assumption is the assumption that because of public policy or otherwise, the rate of population growth will somehow moderate between 1985 and the year 2020; iii)the low variant assumption hinges on the expectation that Government would take decisive measures in terms of putting place effective fertility regulation service as a result of which the level of fertility will decline significantly over time.

Clearly, Ethiopia falls under the high variant category and unless some decisive action is taken the population would grow at such a speed that our efforts at adequately generating goods and services to sustain the population will be next to impossible. The Transitional Government of Ethiopia adopted a National Population Policy in April 1993, which set the objective of reducing the total fertility rate (TFR) of 7.7 in 1993 to 4 by the year 2,000. This could be achieved by

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increasing the prevalence of contraceptive us from 4% in 1993 to 44% in the year 2,015.

But this objective is not likely to be achieved. The reason is that the effort at expanding reproductive health services, which includes family planning, has been stunted by the misguided theorizing on the part of some officials responsible for expanding services that the people are not yet ready to effectively utilize modern contraception due to superstitious fears and atavistic adherence to culture. So valuable time was lost on expending scarce resources on information, education and communication, which took the form of endless seminars, workshops etc.

At present it is being claimed that the prevalence of contraceptive use has gone up to something between 11.0% and 12.0% of the eligible population. How such figures are arrived at is not clear in the absence of a reliable contraceptive use survey base on a representative sample of the population.

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2.2 Land Use Patterns In Ethiopia 1977-1987:

The situation we are facing today is that the capacity of the population to multiply outstrips our capacity to generate resources. Unfavorable population/land ratio has resulted into rapid soil degradation, rapid depletion of natural resources as a result of rapidly increasing aggregate demand for population sustaining resources like food, fuel, shelter, etc.

The data in Table 2 shows the various functions land was used from the mid-1970s to the last quarter of the 1980s. It is known that over eighty percent of the total population of Ethiopia lives and works

in rural areas engaged in agriculture and activities akin to it. Arable land represented, around 1987, only 10.7% of the total land area of the country whereas pastureland represented 34.7%. Arable land is reported to have increased by a mere 1.4% during the 10 years between 1977 and 1987 while pastureland decreased by approximately 1.0%. According to the data in Table 2, what is classified as wilderness increased by 19.0% during the decade under consideration.

Table 2. Land use Patterns in Ethiopia between 1997 and 1987

Population Density and Land Use Patterns	Values of Indicators
Population Density (per 1000 ha) circa 1987	415
Cropland (000 ha) - as % of total land - % change since 1977	13,930 (10.0%) 1.4%
Pastureland (000ha) - as % of total land - % change since 1977	45,100 (34.7%) -1.1%
Forests and woodland (000 ha) - as % of total - % change since 1977	27,500 (21.2%) -3.5%
Other land (000 ha) - as % of total land - % change since 1977	23, 570 (16.2%) 5.9%
Wilderness (000 ha) - as % of total land - % change since 1977	19,719 (15.2%) 19.0%
Total Land area (000 ha)	129,916 (100.0%)

Source: World Resources 1990-91 as cited by Seyoum Gebre Selassie in, Population and natural Resources, 1994

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The Following conclusions can be drawn from the data presented above:

a) Crop land represented only 15.0% of total land while grazing land represented about 35.0%;

b) While arable land increased at the rate of 1.4% a year between 1977 and 1987, grazing land decreased at the rate 1.1% probably due to the fact even the range lands are being rendered unusable by recurrent drought and loss of carrying capacity due livestock over-population;

c) The type of land classified as forests and woodland represented approximately 21.0% of total land ;

d) Desertification has increased by 19.0% in the ten years between 1977 and 1987.

2.3 Settlement Patterns by Altitude, Population Size and Access to Life -sustaining Resources:

It is a well-known fact that the majority of the population of Ethiopia lived in the high altitude areas practicing crop husbandry albeit using the most primitive production organization and technology. Highlanders have always resisted going to what they believe to be tropical diseases infected territories. The highland areas are limited in size and never lent themselves to easy expansion within the same altitude. As population grew person/land ration increased leading to a declining per capita share in arable land. The problem of productivity of land was also aggravated by the problem of secular decline in soil quality as a consequence of relentless cultivation.

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The problem of succession has also aggravated the problem. In Ethiopia every child is entitled to apiece of land upon the death of the father. Among the results of this is that there is no more land left to distribute. Consequently, landlessness among youth is becoming rampant. That is probably why the Amhara Regional State redistributed land two to three years ago to make some land available to the growing

Table 3. Population Distribution by Altitude

Altitude (meters a.s.l)	Area of total land (%)	Population Size (%)	Density (per Sq.Km)
2,600meters +	5.8%	10.4%	85.0
2,200 - 2,600	11.8%	39.2%	157.5
1,800 – 2,200	19.4%	27.9%	68.1
1,400 – 1,800	28.1%	11.5%	19.4
1,000 - 1,400	13.4%	8.2%	29.0
Below 1,000	21.5%	2.8%	6.2
Total	100.0%	100.0%	

Source: Adapted from Seyoum Gebre Selassie, Population, Natural Resources and Environment, April 1994 (Unpublished)

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number of the landless. But redistribution is, at best, a stopgap measure designed to provide breathing time until a more durable solution is found.

Clearly natural resources distribution is skewed in favor of those who are engaged in pastoral and semi-pastoral production systems. The data show that 49.6% of the total population lives and works in the high altitude areas working only 17.6% of the land area.

Perhaps this point on differences in land size between different population groups should not be belabored. A nomadic pastoralist production system requires more land than the peasant sector because in the former livestock have to move over a large stretch of territory in search of grass and water which is not the case in peasant agriculture. Both production systems use backward production organizations and technology. Given this state of technology and production organization the continued allocation of this much land to the nomadic sector cannot be justified from a rational point of view. It can be said, at the risk of being labeled callous, that nomadic pastoralism is wasteful of land although there are those who assert that nomadic pastoralism is environment friendly.

Life in nomadic areas is so precarious because they alays live on the brink of climatic disaster. A sever drought wipes out entire herds and people who have sustained such loss have nothing to fall back on. Drought related mortality rates must be very high.

There is no question that people in both production systems are equally poor. Perhaps pastoralists are poorer than peasants because of

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their excessive dependence on livestock, which are vulnerable to vicissitude of changing climatic patterns.

A problem peculiar to pastoral production systems is that in communally owned/used resources each actor, in this case a clan or a family, tries to extract as much advantage out of the arrangement as it can get away with producing disastrous results for the carrying capacity of the echo system. What is happening in pastoral areas is that each clan seeks to maximize its advantages by unduly increasing its herd size. The result is creating an imbalance between livestock population and pastureland.

With the peasant system, relentless cultivation of land without any attempt to use technologies to restore soil quality also produces disastrous results for the carrying capacity of arable land. Thus demographic, environmental and technological factors are the major determinants of poverty in rural areas.

So in both cases as human and livestock populations increase at faster rates than resources to sustain them, productivity goes down. Under such circumstances people tend to overexploit land in the hope of making up for the loss land productivity.

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2.5 Population Dynamics and Change in the Aggregate Demand for Forest products:

The data in Table 4 are presented by way of an example of how population dynamics impacts on the utilization and carrying capacity of natural resources, in this case forest products. There are two ways in

Table 4. Forest products Produced between 1975 and 1987

Type of products	Volume produced in 000cu.m.	
	Volume produced between 1975 and 1987	% Change since 1975
Round Wood	38,927	28.0%
Fuel & Charcoal	37.114	28.0%
Industrial round-wood	1,813	35..0%
Sawn wood	45	-48.0%
Panels	15	7.0%
Paper products	10	33.0%
Total		

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which demand for goods and services increase. The first is through economic and social development. As people become more and more affluent their requirements for quality goods and services increase. To meet this increase natural resources need to be exploited at increasing rates. But this is not the case in Ethiopia.

The second way in which for goods and services increase is through rapid population growth. Demand for goods and services increases and the use of natural resources must increase just to keep people at bare subsistence level.

Deforestation has been taking place in this country with minimal success in replacement efforts.

Table 5.Deforestation and Aforestation in Ethiopia in the 1980s

	Closed Forests	Open forests	Total
Forest resources (000 ha)	4,350	22,800	27,150
Deforestation rate per year (000 ha)	8	80	88
Aforestation rate (000 ha)	-	-	13
Net average annual loss	-	-	75

Poverty in Ethiopia is ubiquitous. Two types of study on poverty in Ethiopia have been undertaken in the early 1990s both using the indicator, % of population subsisting with an expenditure of US$ 1.00 a day. The first was one done by the World Bank,[6] which looked at poverty by place of residence. It was reported that 53.6% of the rural population and 58.0% of the urban subsisted with not more than US $ 1.00 a day. Poverty was reported to be even worse in Addis Ababa where 60.0% of the population subsisted with an expenditure of just $1.00 a day

The second estimate was by the TGE. In this one the Poverty Index was 51.7% for rural and 63.0% for the urban populations. Regardless of some variations in estimates, poverty is still ubiquitous in Ethiopia.

It is not surprising that urban poverty might be getting worse instead of getting better. The main reason is that over the last several decades, particularly since the nationalization of rural land people sought refuge and safe haven in Addis Ababa. While it is true that people were always

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attracted by the bright lights of Addis Ababa, The migration tide increased after the nationalization of rural land. The problem was compounded by the fact that lots of people displaced for a variety of reasons sought refuge in cities and towns, particularly Addis Ababa. The largest proportion of the street children population is found in Addis Ababa.

Of those who are leading marginal lives in economic and social terms are females of all ages. The reason why the majority of the marginalized segments of the population are women is cultural. Lack of access to formal education has effectively barred most women from access to modern sector employment. As society modernizes, cash income is vital for survival. So there is a vital link between poverty and unemployment and employment promotion represents an important feature of the effort to alleviate poverty in this country.

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[6] Reproduced in Getahun Taffesses, op.cit p.4

Chapter Six
BASIC STRATEGIES TO ALLEVIATE POVERTY

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II. BASIC STRATEGIES TO ALLEVIATE POVERTY

(By Dr. Haile Ganoro)

At every stage of development, it is necessary to achieve a balance between policies and investments which:

1. promote growth of economy
2. improve access of all people to social services and infrastructure and
3. provide programmes structured primarily to augment the entitlement of every poor household.

1. Reducing Poverty through Growth

- Reorienting government policies and institutions to help the poor:
  - expanding job opportunities through investment-led employment creation and poverty reduction.
  - expanssion of labour-intensive constructions and community based developments.
  - provision of regulatory, technical and financial supports for the private sectors (formal, informal)
  - increasing agricultural sector labour absorbing capacty.
  - increasing productivity by improving skills and renumerations.
  - improving labour market by expanding market driven training and labour market information.

- Increasing the annual growth rate of GDP by:
  - increasing annual investment rate
  - annual saving rate

- Improving the employment intensiveness of the growth process:

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- using labour-intensive technologies
- checking the elasticity of employment in terms of output

- Improving the Human Resource utilization:

  - improving the training process
  - planning manpower utilization

2. ***Improving the Provision of Social Services***

- Health and Welfare
  (immunization childcare, feeding programmes)
- Nutrition
  (under nutrition/malnutrition)
- Safe water supply
- Sanitation
- Education
- Infrastructure

- Transport and communication:

  - easy access to production and marketing
  - access to health and education services and water services

- Provision of labour-saving devices:

  - tricycles, donkeys etc for loading
  - food processing devices
  - water wells
  - alternative energy sources

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- small-scale processing devices
  (e.g., artisinal processing)

- Healthy and educated man is productive and innovative. Expenditure on education, primary health care, so on are investment in human capital, ultimately equipping the poor to help themselves.

3. *Targeting programmes for the poor*

- Trickle-down vs targeted approach

- Direct Targeting
  - identify the target group - disabled, elderly female headed households or orphans
  - use welfare criteria such as incomes, assets, or the absence of assets

- Self-targeting
  - reward for time and effort
  - public works as eligibility for targeted assistance
  - subsidizing a self-targeted commodity
  - social funds as a self-targeting mechanism

- Safety Net
  - transfer of purchasing power to the poor
  - provision of the poor with increased employment opportunities
  - enhancing their capacity to generate income
  - avoiding tinkering with markets

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4. ***Women Targeting***

- Identification of women-specific problems
- Health status
- Economic self reliance

5. ***Integrated approach to poverty alleviation***

- Poverty alleviation as an integral party of long term development policies
- Cross-cutting activity in all development efforts
- Coordinated and collaborative nature of actions (Donors, Government, Beneficiaries)
- The poor themselves should not be seen simply as beneficiaries in the aid process, but rather as partners, respecting their human dignity and explicitly involving them in decision making, programme development and implementation

6. ***Constraints to Poverty Reduction***

- Wide spread tendency to place less emphasis on agricultural sector development than its relative importance in the overall economic development, limited support to the informal sector etc.
- Lack of any poverty focus in sectoral and general policies, initiatives and incentives
- Lack of long-term commitments by the stake holder

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Chapter Seven
THE ROLE OF WOMEN AND GENDER DEVELOPMENT (WID, GAD) IN ADDRESSING WOMENB'S ISSUE

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THE ROLE OF WOMEN AND GENDER DEVELOPMENT (WID, GAD) IN ADDRESSING WOMENS' ISSUE

(By Almaz H. selassie)

I INTRODUCTION

Women's marginalization is justified on the grounds of culture and socio-economic conditions. The status of women in a society and their participation in development process has grown from time to time. Many schools of thought have recommended positive actions to promote the full participation of women in existing programmes and to ensure that development benefits both women and men equally.

Most programmes did not have major impact on the lives of women. It is important to consider gender equality as a significant factor for the whole society rather than women's issue only. In this regard, a clear understanding to the concepts, evolution of the various approaches of WID are useful in defining the social relationships of the two sexes; the roles, responsibilities, attitude, behavior, needs of women and men are important. The other significant factor is that attention should be to the importance of Gender Mainstreaming into various policies and programmes of national development.

II. THE IMPACT OF GENDER ON WOMEN'S LIVES

A. Globally:[1]

Situation	Gender issue
900 million illiterate	65% Female
130 million school children	70% "
100 million primary school dropouts	66% "
1.3 billion poor	70% "
HIV infection in youth	66% Female in some regions
HIV infection by sex	10% Female in 1995 projected to be 50% in 2000
Labour force participation	40% Female
Women's	60-70% of men's
Managers	14% Female
Parliament	10% "
Executives	1.2% "

[1] Gender Equality, Concepts and Tools for Development. by Center for Development and Population Activities, Washington D.C., 1996

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B. Ethiopia[2]

Fertility rate	7 children per women
Contraceptive usage	3%
Maternal mortality	700/100,000
Illiteracy	75%
Women's share of the total Amount of salaries	21%
Women acount for	17.9% of the total employed in private and government organizations
School girls in high schools	39%
School girls in elementary school	30%
University enrollment	
Diploma students	14.5%
Degree students	8.2%
Post graduate	6.4%

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III POLICY APPROACHES TO WID

The issue of Women in Development (WID) has been a great concern to Government, UN and NGOs during the past 50 years. Since 1950's many different interventions have been formulated. This is due to the changes in macro-level economic and social policy approaches to the Third World Development and national policy towards women. The shift in policy approaches towards women; from the Earliest approach Welfare Approach to Equity, Anti-Poverty, Modernization policies efficiency and lately to Empowerment has led towards sustainable development, redistribution of resources and enhancement of growth in the national economy.

But there has been a problem of clarity in the approaches of Women in Development as Caroline Moser has pointed out that many institutions are not clear in different policy approaches as there are different assumptions in relations to how practical and strategic gender needs of women are met and to which participatory planning procedures are included.

1. The welfare approach

It is the earliest approach in women's issue. This view was popularized in 1950's and its objectives was to bring women into the development process as better mothers and wives.

[2] Gender and Development Workshop – PACT/IIRR, October, 1997

Women were regarded as passive beneficiaries rather than equal participants in development. The reproductive role was recognized and the approach was to meet Gender practical needs and still practiced in the Third World. It is the oldest approach, Pre-WID which focuses on relief and aid.

In 1950's in Ethiopia, the major women institutions were Ethiopian Women Association (EWA), the Army Wives Association (AWA). The major programmes were maternal health services, clinics, orphanages schools, skill training for women etc, and tried to address women's specific needs (PGN)

2. The Anti-Poverty approach

During the 1960's the Anti-Poverty approach focused on providing basic needs for women of low-economic groups, women who were considered as poor and vulnerable. Programmes were developed to improve their income through education, skill training, health programmes and family planning services.

The opening of school of social work in Addis Ababa University and the establishment of social services in Government Institutions and the set-up of different NGOs like Ethiopian Family Planning Association, YWCA took place in Ethiopia during this period. They tried to address women's issue like income-generating programme, skill and leadership training, relief and development, reproductive health services and these promoted self-reliance.

3. Equity Approach

The Equity Approach was realized in 1975. The growing women's movement in the West had an impact on development process. In 1975, the International Women's Year (IWY) was celebrated at the First World Conference on Women by UN in Mexico resulting in a **Plan of Action** to improve the status of women through the theme of "**Equality, Development and Peace**". This was followed by a strong Feminist Movement which created resistance by men.

Ethiopia participated in the Mexico conference and tried to implement the UN resolutions to promote the status of women. Programmes on Advocacy and Awareness Creation againest sex imbalance (suppression) was continuorsly given to the public through mass media and regular meetings in kebeles and Government institutions.

4. Efficiency Approach

This approach is known as WID model and was introduced in 1980's. The objective was to increase efficiency in production by minimizing women's reproductive work load in the Third World, through income-generating activities, capacity building, access to training, credit etc. The problem of women was seen in terms of sex rather than gender

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issue, or the society as a whole, as it only focused on women's problem and needs, and this is still practiced by NGOs.

The Revolutionary Ethiopian Women Association (REWA) which was set-up in 1981 played advocacy and created awareness against sex imbalance. Many women were elected in Kebeles, Factories and in Peasant Associations to promote equality of women. Income generation scheme like cooperative shops, handicrafts, tea-rooms small restaurants were set-up in urban and rural settings as to promote efficiency in production.

5. The Empowerment Approach

This approach has been developed after 1985. It recognizes the Strategic Gender Needs (SGN) in terms of the triple role of women and through bottom-up mobilization. GAD focuses on 3 main issues.

a. Both women and men are seen as agents of change, who can transform the division of labour and recognizes the unequal distribution of wealth and that women are more disadvantaged in this regard.

b. Men and women are socialized differently and therefore, have different needs.

c. Men's and women's priorities have different impact on projects and both should participate equally in development process.

The World conference on population in 1994 and the fourth World Conference on Women, 1995 and the European Council, the 130u Of the Maastricht Treaty recognize and promote gender mainstreaming into all programmes.

The major Global Platform for Actions adpted at the Fourth World conference on Women in 1995;

1. The right of women to decide freely on the sexuality and fertility
2. The valuation of women's unpaid work in and outside home
3. The equal rights of women inheritance
4. The eradication of discriminatory practices againest the girl child
5. The elimination of violence againest women
6. The enhancement of equal participation of women in decision making at all levels of governments
7. Inclusion of women in peace building

The EPRDF Constitution and The National Policy on Ethiopian Women of 1992 address the WID and GAD approaches through the women's affairs office in the Prime Minister's office.

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It promotes:

- Women's equal participation and decision making
- Women's equal access and control over resources (land, property, etc.)
- Constitutional rights of women
- Institutionalization of political, economic and social rights of women

Women's concerns are addressed in the overall national development programmes by Federal, Regional Government Structure

The difference between WID and GAD

a. WID Model
- Improves women's ability to manage their household
- Addresses women's practical needs
- Integrates women in developing process, women's programmes are only considered as issues of women
- Increase efficiency, women's productivity and income

b. GAD Model
- Empower women and transform unequal relations between women and men
- Emphasis on equity and enhancement of sustainable development
- Involve women and men to participate equally in decision making
- Work towards women's equal access and control over resources

IV. UNDERSTANDING GENDER

Gender training and analysis are now considered as key tools in the development process, In many UN conferences, there has been commitment by governments, Internatonal Organizations to Gender Equity. Gender is not well understood and is of ten confused with sex.

1. **Sex:** refers to universal, biological characterstics of women and men. It is static.
2. **Gender:** refers to the 'social construct', reinforced by society'svalues and expectations. It is a learned behavior and change over time.
3. **Gender division of labour:** gender roles are responsibilities of women and men and differ among cultures.

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The roles of women are grouped into three categories,

a. **Reproductive role:** Child bearing and rearing, household maintenance and these are mostly done by women

b. **Productive role:** Both women and men are involved in productive labour and includes wages

c. **Community role:** men tend to have formal leadership roles while women often do support work

4. **Gender Needs:** Gender focused projects recognize all roles and responsibilities of women and men and recognize that the two sexes have different levels of access and control to resources and benefits

a. **Practical Gender Needs (PGN):** are immediate material needs that arise due to circumstances. For instance reproductive health services, income generation scheme, water provision practical interventions can increase women's participation in the development process but do not change gender relations or their relative positions in a society.

b. **Strategic Gender Needs (SGN):** are concerned with changing the positions of women. They are long term and focus on gender based disparities in wages, employment, education, social status, legal and property rights, participation in decision making mechanism.

IV. THE ROLE OF WID/GAD IN ATTAINING EQUITY

1. **Top down strategies:** promote gender equity at institutional levels

a. **Awareness creation:** organizing meetings, workshops, seminars, conferences on gender issues

b. **Advocacy:** campaign to convince policy makers on the importance of GAD

c. **Tools:** workout tools like gender analysis, frameworks, guidelines

d. **Structure:** staff recruitments (Gender experts) resource allocations, mandates, gender training policy guidelines.

2. **Bottom-up Strategies:** to support women's participation in the society/ community Development

a. **Access:** abolishment of cultural and legal barriers

b. **Empowerment:** capacity building for active participation in the national development programmes

c. **Support:** financial and technical support like money, credit, training, education, health facilities etc.

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V. CONCLUSIONS

Society shapes the division of labour and as a result women have less benefits or totally left out without resources. It is also understood that women have different priorities and needs and men can constrain women's options. WID and GAD approaches can contribute to women's advancement, and increase Gender Equity through various programmes that address Ggender Practical needs (feminization of poverty) and strategic Needs.

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Chapter Eight

THE IMPORTANCE OF GENDER DISAGREGATED DATA IN GENDER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

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THE IMPORTANCE OF GENDER DISAGREGATED DATA IN GENDER DEVELOPMENT PROGRAM

(By Sosena Demissie)

1. USE OF STATISTICAL DATA

Statistical data that reflect the socio-economic and demographic conditions of the residence of a country are useful for designing and preparation of development plans and for monitoring and evaluation of the impact of the implementation of the development plans. These statistical data include population size, age, sex, fertility, mortality, migration, literacy and education marital status, occupation industry, housing stocks and conditions, etc.

2. WHAT IS GENDER DISAGREGATED DATA?

Gender disagregated data is a subdivision of statistical information into separate categories for women and men. It is an important aspect to analyze the situation of gender by sex.

3. USE OF GENDER DISAGREGATED DATA

Gender disagregated statistics reveals their numbers, age, and status of women in terms of their education health, income and participation in the development process. It also shows weather they have been advantaged or disadvantaged in different areas in comparison to that of men. For example the 1996 figure for primary and secondary school gross enrolment ratio in Ethiopia was 37.4 per cent and 13.0 per cent respectively. If we gender disagregate this figure, the boys primary and secondary gross enrolment ratio was 44.9 per cent, and 13.7 per cent respectively, whereas the figure for girls was 29.4 per cent and 12.3 per cent respectively. Therefore, as we can clearly see from the above example, disagregating statistics reveals the status of Ethiopian women and men in terms of their educational opportunities in 1996.

Gross Enrolment Ratio by Level of Schooling And sex in Ethiopia in 1996

Level of Schooling	Country	Male	Female
Primary	37.4	44.9	29.4
Secondary	13.0	13.7	12.3

CSA, The Welfare Monitoring Survey March 1999

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We can see from the above data, for both sex's at least 62.6 per cent of the primary school and about 85 percent of the secondary school age population were still outside the school system of the country. Since the data is disagregated by gender, we can easily pin point that out of the total primary and secondary school age female population, 70.6 per cent and 87.7 per cent respectively were outside the school system. We can as well take different examples from different socio-economic indicators and get results, which can help planners to base their assumptions on gender-disagregated data.

Therefore without gender disagregated data, it is very difficult to understand the status of women in every sector, such as the participation and contribution of women in agriculture, industry, trade, service sectors etc. It is also true without gender disagregated data it is very difficult to measure the poverty level, literacy rate, employment status, migration, fertility and mortality rate among different sexes. Without this relevant type of data, the planners can not base their plan on realistic facts to prepare development plans, monitor and evaluate the impact of the implementation of the development plans.

The level of awareness on issues related to women and their role in national development has grown progressively over the last two decades.

Concerted efforts of both international and national organizations have underscored the need for policy interventions to improve the status of women and facilitate their participation in society. Recommendations from most of the international conferences and meetings on women led to a greater sensitivity to the issues and to the establishment of special government machineries, stimulating more concrete programmes for the advancement of women.

Researchers and policymakers are faced with the problem of statistical and information gaps. The need for adequate, timely, and reliable data cannot be overemphasized for policies and action programmes to achieve their goals, and to evaluate the progress made in the implementation of programmes and strategies. The United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development, and Peace convened in Nairobi, in July 1985, which adopted the Forward Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women up to Year 2000 call for timely and reliable statistics on women. It emphasized that accurate statistics have an important role to play in the elimination on stereotypes and the movement towards equality in development. Apart from the general lack of data, statistics, when available, are not fully utilized to describe differentials in the socio-economic situation of women and men, to indicate the extent of poverty and/or inequality in a society, and to change family situations and economic responsibilities that women undertake.

4. UNDER UTILIZATION OF AVAILABLE DATA

While the inadequacy of statistics and data on women has always been referred to as major obstacle in the full recognition of women's participation and contribution in society, it must be pointed out that a lot of statistics are available, but are not fully utilized.

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For example a recent study on 'Poverty Situation in Ethiopia' by Ministry of Economic Development and Cooperation Welfare Monitoring Unit (Feb. 1999) indicated the food poverty line that provide the minimum food requirement per adult in the country is 647.8 birr or 99.00 USD. Accordingly to the World Health Organization, an adult person requires a minimum of 2200 calories on daily basis.

Typical National Minimum Consumption Basket

ITEMCODE	Calorie share	Level of calorie	Level of quantity	Value of poverty line	Share of expenditure
Cereals unmilled	22%	843.95	140.68	76.71	12%
Cereals milled	48%	1049.37	305.89	240.08	37%
Pulses unmilled	6%	133.24	38.23	26.36	4%
Pulses milled or split	5%	106.42	30.71	32.79	5%
Oil seed	1%	13.45	2.74	2.77	0%
Cereal preparations	0%	0.22	0.15	0.25	0%
Bread & other prepared food	2%	39.79	12.94	10.72	2%
Meat	0%	6.88	3.82	12.52	2%
Fish	0%	0.02	0.02	0.03	0%
Milk, cheese & Egg	1%	18.27	27.07	17.45	3%
Oils and Fats	1%	19.29	2.41	12.82	2%
Vegetables	2%	40.81	103.76	27.28	4%
Fruits	0%	1.48	2.23	0.99	0%
Spices	2%	34.08	11.9	38.67	6%
Potatoes & other Tubers	8%	177.47	119.72	59.99	9%
Coffee, Tea and buck thorn leaves	2%	47.92	26.53	71.49	11%
Salt, sugar & others	1%	27.4	20.68	16.85	3%
All items	100%	2200.06		647.81	100%

Source: MEDaC, February, 1999

Level of food Poverty in Ethiopia

	No. of food Poor people	Total Population	%
Rural	24,281,845	47,019,796	52
Urban	2,784,586	7,630,293	36
National	27,066,431	54,650,089	50

MEDaC, February, 1999

Based on the above table, 50 percent of the population in the country cannot afford to spend enough to consume the minimum food requirement. The main source of information for the study is, The 1995/96 Household, Income, Consumption And Expenditure

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Survey Which is conducted by the Central Statistical Authority. Eventhough, gender disagregated data are available in CSA Survey, the study "Poverty Situation in Ethiopia" did not utilize the available data to show the most affected sector of the population which could have been helpful for planners and policy makers. However, the 1995/96 CSA survey shows, the lower the household domestic expenditure group, the higher the number of female population. This information indicates the extent of poverty and /or inequalities of women in Ethiopia.

Sometimes, the wealth of data collected through censuses, surveys, and administrative records are not always made available to the public presented by sex. Despite the fact that data are often collected by sex, data disagregated by sex are seldom published, owing to low priority given to gender issues or of lack of awareness of the role and contribution of women.

On the other hand, users are most of the time, not aware that data do exist and are accessible. It is also true that users of statistics, sometimes, lack the aptitude to put to optimum use and derive useful benefit from the available data. Sometimes the value of undertaking large and expensive surveys is questioned in view of the inability of users to fully utilize existing data. They often lack the knowledge of accessing the data interpreting the schedule, and understanding the format of data. Full utilization of data requires training, to discern poor from good quality data, to select the most appropriate analytical tools and methods of constructing statistical and social indicators, and to make an accurate interpretation of the results.

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5. INADEQUACY AND INACCURACY OF AVAILABLE STATISTICS AND DATA ON WOMEN

It is evident that the available data are, to some extent, inadequate to properly reflect the problem, needs, and potentials of women. One difficulty ensures from the fact that statistics in the national offices and producers of statistics have approached data collection and analysis in very broad and general context, almost to the extent of indifference to the relative differences between females and males, and between other subgroups.

The data collection procedures do not, for instance, reflect the differences in sex roles and division of labour within the family and in society at large. The method of data collection, having been designed to generate statistics primarily for use by planners and policymakers, often do not address the most fundamental issues of sex discrimination, such as biases in access to and distribution of resources. For example, to establish and prove correlation hypotheses on factors relating to women's production, data on control of resources, assets such as land, house, credit, etc should be made available. Similarly, data are inadequate-if not inexistent-to reflect the differences in the wages of women and men having the same educational level, employment, and career development. In the absence of reliable data, although there have been claims of discrimination against women, no scientific conclusion could be drawn to justify this differential in treatment of women and men.

Furthermore, most demographic statistics would have more value if additional explanatory data could be obtained by sex. Migration and urbanization, for instance, are processes which are quite sensitive to sex differential. The practice of treating women's migration as an appendage to men's is misleading, as they completely differ in their economic roles, and when the social and cultural factors are taken into account. Women's migration, in particular, has far reaching consequences on family structure, fertility patterns, and household behavior.

In general, the current approach in statistical or data gathering is inadequate to respond to the need for information that would show separately the status of women and men, and the difference in opportunities and risks they take, given all the other variables constant. Most statistical information and analysis on women are generally on their reproductive roles and very little data is available on their productive contributions.

6. WOMEN IN THE ECONOMY

What is not counted is usually not recognized. Economic development planning has, to a large extent, failed to recognize fully or systematically women's potential, participation, and contribution to economic development or in turn its effect on them. Any development design and planning requires adequate information that would justify the need to address the problem identified. It was the vast and ever-growing studies on women that emphasized the need for quantifiable hypotheses explaining determinants of women's role in the economy, and for methodologies that would adequately measure women's contribution and depict when, where and under what circumstances women do participate.

Therefore, one of the major concerns of development should be improving the collection and analysis of statistics and data so they will adequately reflect women's often-invisible productive activity.

For example, in many regions, in Africa, Women overwhelmingly occupy the informal sector: they are growers and vendors of food, traders and unpaid family workers. In predominantly agricultural Africa, women perform 80 per cent of the storing and 90 per cent of the food processing, 60 percent of the marketing and 50 percent of domestic animal care often with few or no modern aids. Women also grow most of the family's subsistence food.[1] Yet activities in the informal sector mostly were not quantified because they were considered to be an extension of family and domestic functions.

African women are overburdened in their daily chores, yet development plans and technical cooperation programs have underutilized their full potential. If development is ever to succeed in Africa, women's specific needs and contributions must be taken into account. Therefore, improving the collection and analysis of statistical data is one the major area of concern for gender development program in Africa.

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[1] Women in Econimic Activity: a global statistical survey, ILO/instraw, 1992

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The demands for gender disagregated data will, without doubt continue to increase. However, unless women are recognized as playing a crucial role in the economic development process, both within the household and in the national economy as a whole, their needs as actors and beneficiaries in development will still not be reflected in planning and programming. Hence, planning for the total involvement of women in development requires a realistic assessment of the present level of their participation, to give a clear view of their roles in the process and to determine how women's potential could be fully utilized.

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Chapter Nine
PROJECT IDEAS THAT ADDRESS POVERTY AND CULTURE

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IV. PROJECT IDEAS THAT ADDRESS POVERTY AND CULTURE

(By Dr. Haile Ganoro)

1. The triple – A- cycle

- assessement
- analysis
- actions

2. Need assessement

- Identify the real poor
  - causes of poverty
  - appropriate project package to address the causes
  - perception of poverty by the poor
  - sociological profiles of the beneficiaries
- Demand driven vs Supply driven approach

3. Prioritizing the need

- Critical problems
- Capacity based
  - human potential
  - capital availability
  - material abundancy

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6. **Women's income generating projects**

- Specific projects for women
  - Flour mill
  - Agro-industrial projects
    - Jaggery, soap, bamboo, etc.
  - Provision of supports
    - Financial
    - Technical
    - Marketing
    - Institutional

7. **Participatory Approach**

- in need assessment
- in planning
- in monitoring
- in evaluation
- in cost-sharing

8. **Ensuring Sustainability**

- Technically
- Financially
- Environmentally
- Socially

9. **Selection of viable project**
- Economically viable
- Technically feasible
- Socially accepted
- Environment friendly

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9. **Problem Diagnosis/Project Response**

Ex.

Problem diagnosis	**Project Response**
Family level	
- Low calorie intake - Low protein intake	- To increase food production, diversify, integrate cash crops, livestock production and home gardens
Child malnutrition	
- Poor child feeding practices - Bulky foods with low nutrient Density - Low intake frequent illness	- Nutrition education and demonstration for mothers - Immunization/mother and child health care/nutrition rehabilitation
- Low food production	- Agricultural production support
- Poverty (inadequate ownership of property, population pressure, low productivity	- Family planning, labour -saving devices, income generating activities
- Low status of women	- To encourage school attendance, access to income earning opportunities
- Poor environmental sanitation	- Water and waste disposal
- Poor access to health services	- Strengthening health services
- Mother's illiteracy (particularly with regard to nutritional value of food, appropriate child feeding and care and personal hygiene)	- Education, demonstration, nutrition through education in schools

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Chapter Ten
STRENGTHENING WOMEN'S ECONOMIC CAPACITY/ERADICATING FEMINIZED POVERTY

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V. STRENGTHENING WOMEN'S ECONOMIC CAPACITY / ERADICATING FEMINIZED POVERTY

(By Dr. Haile Ganoro & Wro. Sosena Demissie)

1. Sensitization of Women

- Awareness creation that women are:-
  - Productive
  - Credit worthy
  - Responsive
  - Socio-Cultural taboos can be broken through
  - Poverty can be eradicated
  - Ways of reducing poverty
  - enhancing women's self determination and confidence

2. Enhancing Women's Status

- Access to resources and opportunities
  - Women lack access to productive services for two reasons
    - they share with their counterpart poor men and due to particular gender factors
    - they need to be organized
    - they need access to credit
    - enhancing saving capacity
    - ensuring their judiciary right on property
  - Removing constraints to women's participation in agriculture and the informal sector

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- Provision of labour saving devices
  - try-cycles, back animals etc
  - food processing devices
  - nearest water wells
  - alternative energy sources
  - small scale processing devices

    Ex. artisinal processing

* better supply of drinking water, alternative energy sources etc would reduce the dudgery of women.
* literacy, training in health and education would improve the hygienic problems.
* improvements in food preparation would lead to improvements in time-consuming traditional food processing methodes and nutritional standard, etc.
* provision of appropriate technologies would lead to labour-saving and increasing productivity.

3. **Upgrading Women's Participation in decision making**

- Deeper recognition of women's productive role
- Stronger voice for women in community decision making and in shaping developmental endeavours
- Empowerment of women in the community
- Counseling service to women in cultural matters

4. **Reorienting Social Policies to help the women**

- Women targeted action programmes:
  - organizational issues
  - support rendering
  - employment opportunities
  - education
  - health
  - legal backings
- Change of the social and cultural patterns that perpetuate discrimination

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6. Eradicating Feminized Poverty

Millions of women in developing countries live in poverty. With women making up 70 per cent the worlds 1.3 billion poor, the feminized poverty is at its peak[1]. The situation is closely linked to women's subordinate status in society, in general and the family in particular.

There are many reasons for the feminization of poverty. A society's attitudes towards women can deny them access to material resources, basic social services, credit, technology, productive employment and training that they need to run their businesses. Women often cannot travel as freely as men and may be limited in the assets they can own. They are at a disadvantage when competing with those who have greater access to markets and new technology.

Globalized of the world economy also affects women's poverty. Small women – run business often can't compete with cheap imported products brought in by trade liberalization.

The eradication of poverty cannot be accomplished through anti-poverty programmes alone but will require democratic participation and changes in economic structures, opportunities and public services.

Economic reforms and poverty eradication programmes must take serious account of gender considerations right form the conceptualization and planning up to the implementation and monitoring. By formulating and implementing specific economic, food security and related polices in support of female headed households.

Given the high predominance of women in agriculture and the informal sector, poverty reduction and economic empowerment strategies must pay serious attention to these sectors and make visible women's central role by addressing the barriers they face within these areas.

7. Strategies to Eradicate Feminized Poverty

- Through Economic Empowerment programmes

Economic empowerment means more than helping women find jobs. It means improving the power relationships in a woman's home, in her community and in the marketplace so that she can take advantage of growing international markets. It means ensuring that women have equal access with men to the increasing range of technological options for production and are not excluded form the latest technological advances. It means

[1] See UNIFEM official website - Http://www.unifem.undp.org/economic.htm

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changing policies and legislation so that women can benefit from economic development. It means making sure that women are prepared to compete in the new global economy.

- Through improving the condition of women by providing basic social services, such as education, public health nutrition and child care and credit facilities;

- Through reducing girls' and women's workload , by provision of appropriate labour saving technologies for all aspects of farming and household tasks;

- Through promoting equitable sharing of work and family responsibilities between man and women, boys and girls;

- Through facilitating women's decision making role at the levels of family, community, marketing organizations and the public/ political spheres and improve their capacities to promote change and manage development in and through the public and private sectors;

- Through strengthening local institution's capacity to train women in different areas of capacity development including environmentally sustainable economic activities;

- Through promoting micro rural agro-industrialization schemes, thus reducing rural/urban migration through the participation of women in design, development, promotion and dissemination of food technologies;

- Through eradicating harmful traditional practices which is affecting the health and development capabilities of women.

- Through raising productivity of women farmers, by focused integrated packages, including research, extension and technology development in conjunction with appropriate financial services;

- Through increasing women's participation in formal labour market.

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Chapter Eleven
DEVELOPING GENDER RESPONSIVE PROJECT PROPOSAL

CCRDA

Developing Gender Responsive Project Proposal

By
Nuri Kedir

1. Objectives of the Paper

The main objective of this paper is to familiarize the workshop participants with the basic techniques of developing gender responsive project proposal on poverty alleviation. The specific objectives are to:

- Overview the different stages in developing project proposal on poverty alleviation.
- Enable participants understand the concept and need of integrating gender issues in project planning.
- Discuss appropriate techniques and checklists that are useful to integrate gender issues in the process of project needs identification, preparation, implementation and monitoring & evaluation.
- Provide a brief guide to the content of a project proposal.

2. Overview of the Project Life Cycle

Prior to dealing with the project life cycle, it is good to have a clear understanding of a development project, its main characteristics, and the relation between a project and a development program.

2.1 Basic Concepts and Relationships

What is a project? A project is a planned undertaking of interrelated and coordinated activities designed to achieve certain specific objectives within a given budget and period of time. It should, however, be noted that there are different views and definitions of a project. Nevertheless, the following few characteristics are usually common to all projects:

- It operates within defined objectives, activities, time, cost, location, target group, and expected outputs.
- It requires the commitment of scarce resources for a specific line of action, such as investment capital, raw material, labor, etc.
- In most cases, it involves special financial arrangements, including loans and grant from different agencies.
- It involves the creation of fixed productive capacity - land improvement, machinery, building and other structures for use in the creation of valuable goods or services.
- It is designed to improve the socio-economic status of the targeted community.
- In some cases, it requires the tailoring of development initiatives to particular local potentials and constraints of the community or beneficiaries.

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What is a development program? It is a wider undertaking, which involves the implementation of several projects to attain sectoral or national objectives. In economic development, one could easily sense the inter-relation between project and development plan/program.

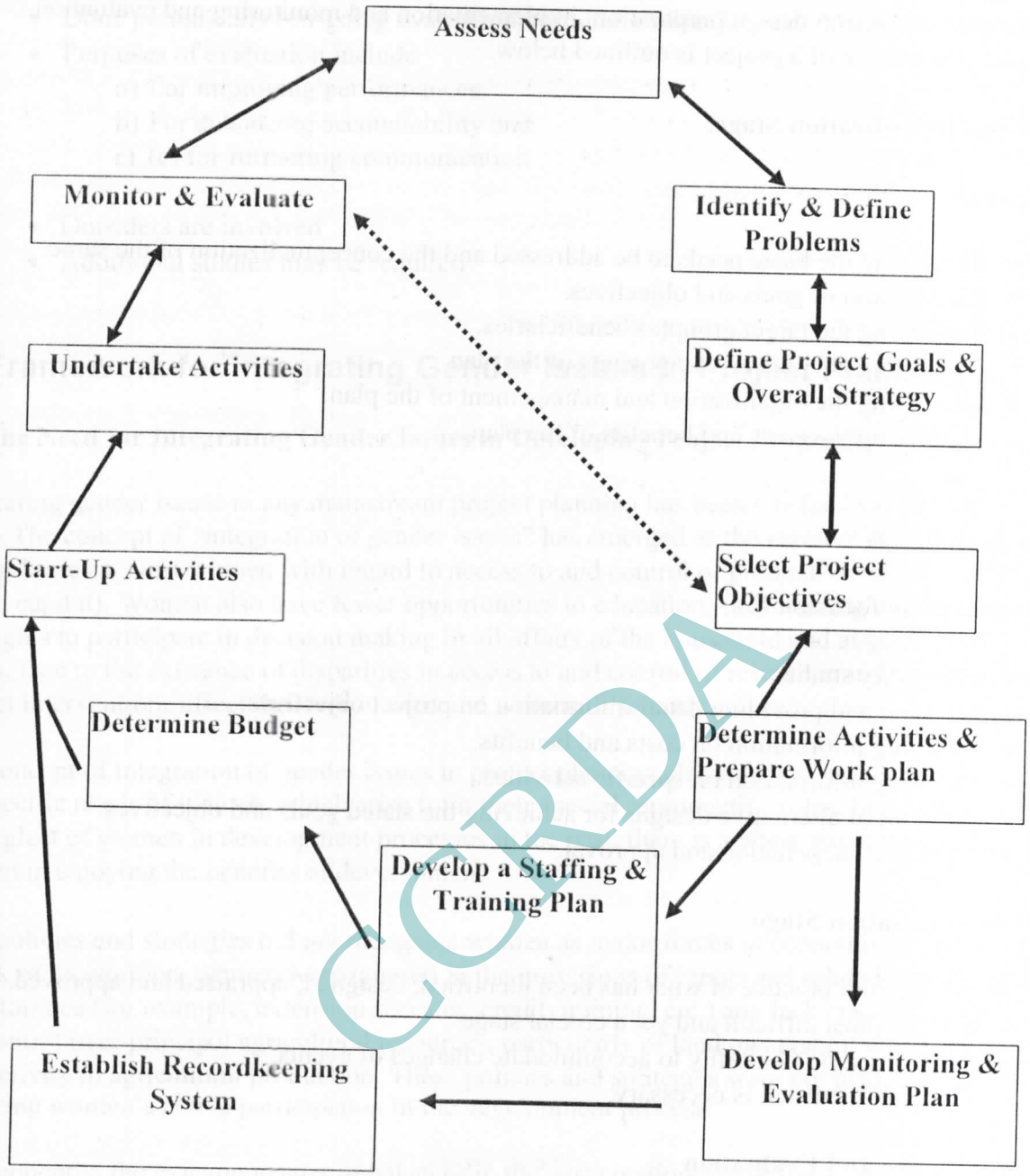
Effective project preparation and analysis, therefore, must be seen in the framework of broader development plan of a country/sector or institution. This implies that projects are part of an overall development strategy and a broader planning process, and there lies the distinction between a project and a program.

2.2 Stages in the Project Cycle

Figure 1 presents the widely practiced or adapted project life cycle. As it is shown in the figure, the project life cycle starts with needs assessment. It also indicates that the project life cycle is a continuous process where project objectives can be refined based on the feedback provided by the regular monitoring and evaluation activities of the project. The project life cycle is also phased in sequential manner where the planning of the various activities and systems must be completed before the project starts its implementation.

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Figure 1: The Project Life Cycle



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This life of a project can be broadly categorized into four stages, i.e., needs identification/assessment, design/preparation, implementation and monitoring and evaluation. The focus in each stage of a project is outlined below:

2.2.1. Needs Identification Stage:

This stage deals with: -

- Identifying the basic needs to be addressed and the conceptualization of the same.
- Formulation of goals and objectives.
- Identifying the target group(s)/beneficiaries.
- Identifying the path or components of the plan.
- Identifying the organization and management of the plan.
- Identifying the costs and benefits of the plan.
- Etc.

2.2.2. Design Stage:

This stages mainly focuses on: -

- Feasibility studies.
- Refining and providing detail information on project objectives.
- Detailing information on costs and benefits.
- Detailing information on specific activities.
- A layout of alternative designs for achieving the stated goals and objectives.
- Appraisal, negotiation and approval.

2.2.3. Implementation Stage

- Putting into practice of what has been identified, designed, appraised and approved.
- It is the most difficult and yet a crucial stage.
- There must be flexibility to accommodate changes of events.
- Constant feedback is necessary.

2.2.4. Monitoring and Evaluation

Monitoring:

- It is done continuously to get feedback
- Internal staff mostly does it.
- Project documents, action plans and periodic reports are important tools for monitoring.
- It focuses on the inputs and expected outputs of the project.

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Evaluation:

- Done periodically (on-going evaluation, terminal evaluation and ex-post evaluation).
- Purposes of evaluation include
  - **a)** For improving performances.
  - **b)** For enhancing accountability and
  - **c)** (c) for furthering communication

- Outsiders are involved
- Additional studies may be required

3. Framework for Integrating Gender Issues in Project Planning

3.1 The Need for Integrating Gender Issues in Developing Project Proposal

Integrating gender issues in any mainstream project planning has been emphasized since recent years. The concept of "integration of gender issues" has emerged as the result of the existing gender biases against women with regard to access to and control of productive resources (land, credit, capital). Women also have fewer opportunities to education, skill training and technology, and rights to participate in decision making in all affairs of the household and at communal issues. Due to the existence of disparities in access to and control of resources and opportunities, project interventions affect the lives of men and women differently.

The concept of integration of gender issues in project planning also refers to the recognition of the specific needs of women, which arise from their special reproductive roles. In addition, due to the neglect of women in development processes in the past, there is a wider gap between men & women in enjoying the benefits of development.

Past policies and strategies did not recognize women as major forces in economic activities. Due to lack of recognition, women were ignored in the provisions of inputs and related services and opportunities (for example, extension services, credit, training, etc.) and lack ensured access to and control over principal agricultural resources, particularly of land ownership, which enhance productivity in agricultural production. These policies and strategies were not geared towards involving women's active participation in the development process.

Consequently, the existing gender imbalances in the participation and sharing the benefits of development have been created. The need for integrating gender issues in project planning is, therefore, emphasized to narrow this gap by involving women in all aspects of the development process. Providing a special attention through positive discrimination to women in development/project interventions is required to the correct the imbalances and enable women to catch up with the modern economic activities.

The various needs that women have can be generally classified into two: - practical needs and strategic gender interests.

- **Practical gender needs** are those needs, which arise from the concrete conditions of women's position within the gender division of labor. Practical gender needs are usually a

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response to an immediate perceived necessity which are identified by women within a specific context (Moser, 1989). The need for clean and accessible water, reducing the need for or easy availability of fuelwood, reducing the task of grinding grains, modern technology on weeding, etc are some of the basic needs that women would like to satisfy. It is a short term strategy that "makes it easier for women to carry out roles and responsibilities assigned to them by society."

- **Strategic interests** basically arise from the subordination of women by men. Women's subordination is the outcome of the existing social and institutional discrimination against women a given country. The overall goal of strategic gender needs therefore is to abolish women's subordination. It is an approach that emphasizes strategic interests "challenges existing social systems and structures in favor of equity for women". Relatively it is a long term objective and more difficult to tackle them. These approach advocates the abolition of the existing unfair sexual division of labour, women's equal rights and obligation in decision-making at household and community levels, personal security, freedom from violence, legal rights, access to education, etc.

Gender responsive project planning, therefore, should start from gender analysis in the target area to identify:

- The division of labor in the household-tasks being accomplished by male and female members;
- Profile of males and females access to and control of productive resources;
- Opportunities that males and females have to employment; access to welfare services;
- The socio-economic factors that constrained women not to enjoy equal status in the community to that of men.

It is important to collect data pertaining to all these and other issues by gender, age, male and female headed households, etc. The dichotomy of the data by rural-urban settings will also be important if the project addresses beneficiaries in both locations.

In sum, to ensure the full integration of gender issues and thereby addressing special needs of women effectively requires appropriate gender analysis study in the initial period of project design. Gender analysis will enable project planners to define and develop progress-measuring indicators with the participation of males and females in the community.

3.2 Appropriate Framework/techniques

Gender analysis is an instrument to find out the situation of the rural/urban community in general and women in particular. It enables project planners to collect important information regarding the existing gender issues that have relevance for development interventions in the area.

The Harvard Gender Analytical Framework is one of the widely practiced tools for gender analysis particularly for designing projects that have focused objective on poverty alleviation. This model serves as a guiding tool to collect adequate data regarding existing situations of the target community and facilitates the development of gender responsive project interventions. The model provides a framework of collecting data in four different but interrelated components. These include:

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3.2.1. Activity Profile

Under this component we record the existing division of labor based on gender, age, and ethnicity. The information to be collected should consider recording the amount of time required to perform each activity, the location of work place and the value attached to it. The data is collected under the two broad categories: production of goods and services; and reproduction and maintenance of the human resources.

The data collected under this component provide useful information for project planners in identifying the problems that need to be addressed and the appropriate strategy to be adopted so as to ensure the active participation of women. Such information also guides planners to design successful projects where the benefits of interventions will reach equally to men and women of all social groups in the target area.

3.2.2. Access and Control Profile

This component records the data regarding the position of men and women in having access to and control of resources and benefits.

3.2.3. Analysis of Factors Influencing Activities, Access and Control

The various factors which could have positive or negative influence on the performance of the project on the one hand, and on determining who does what and what access and control one has, on the other need to be identified so that projects, as much as possible would be planned to tackle the retarding ones, and to exploit those favorable conditions for project implementation. These factors could be economic, cultural, institutional, legal, political or demographic.

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3.2.4. Project Cycle Analysis

This component of the Harvard Model provides a list of gender issues that need to be raised under the different stages of project cycle. Project planners must consider the following gender issues throughout the project life cycle so as to make the project gender responsive.

Needs Identification stage

Under this stage it is important to answer the following questions:

- What activity, male or female, is the project likely to affect?
- What activities are going to be affected?
- Is the likely effect compatible with the project objectives?
- Are there any adverse effects likely on women in the short term and long term? Particularly how will each project component affect women's access to and control over the productive resources?
- How will each project component affect women's access to and control over benefits such as: wages and revenue from the sale of goods; access to subsistence goods; and social insurance.
- Did the needs assessment look into the special or different problems and needs of the women in the community?

- Were women participated in the needs assessment and in defining project objectives and strategies?

Project Design/Preparation Stage

The following issues are important at the design stage:

- Is the planned activity pattern consistent with the current division of labour?
- If it plans to change the pattern of activities, is this feasible? What positive or negative impact would it have on women?
- If there are likely undesirable effects on women, does the project design have provisions for alleviating these effects?

Project Implementation Stage

Issues to be considered for implementation would include:

- Is the project implementation machinery adequate and capable for dealing with women, particularly?
- Is the project office located in areas accessible to women and operate schedule compatible with women's time schedule?
- Do project personnel have sufficient technical skills to provide the services expected?
- Can more women be involved in the management positions in the project?
- Are there mechanisms to ensure that project resources and benefits are not controlled only by men?

Project Monitoring and Evaluation

The following questions serve as a checklist to ensure gender responsiveness:

- Does the project have a management information system to allow for continuous monitoring of its effect on women?
- Is the regular data collected adequate to analyze gender specific effects?
- Is the project flexible enough to allow for periodic corrections?
- Does the final evaluation adequately reflect the project effect on men and women separately?

4. What is a Project Proposal?

The project reflects itself in a project proposal. Project proposal is a document outlining three main functions: a contract, a guide to planning and implementation and a basis for monitoring and evaluation.

Contract

A project document is a contract, which usually involves three partners; the relevant governmental agency, the donor and the local community/ NGO. It lays down the obligations of each of the partners and establishes the basis for accountability.

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Guide to Planning and Implementation

The project document describes the situation, which gave rise to the programme/project and explains the reasons why the programme/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 programme/project and what is expected to happen after the programme/project ends.

Basis for Monitoring and Evaluation

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

The elaboration of a project document should aim at providing answers to a set of basic questions. These are reflected in the contents of a project document, as follows:

Contents of a project Proposal Document

Background and justification

What is the situation that gives rise to the programme/project? What is the socio-economic context in which the programme/project will take place? How does it fit in with development (economic, social, political) priorities?

Target groups and institutional framework

For whose benefit is the programme/project undertaken? Who are the partners? What are their responsibilities? Is the division of labor clear?

Development objective

What are the changes the programme/project itself is immediate objectives and expected to bring about or contribute to? How will success indicators of achievement be assessed?

Outputs, activities and inputs

What will the programme/project produce and deliver? What will the programme/project staff do? What funds, expertise, equipment, etc. are needed?

Assumptions and prior obligations

Can we control everything? What are the external factors that may affect the implementation and the performance of the programme/project? What conditions must be satisfied by the partners before the programme / project starts?

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When will the project be evaluated and by whom? Will the partners be informed and involved? Before completing the document make a last check by answering the following questions:

- Does the programme/project include explicit interventions to protect and conserve the environment?
- Have the sources of environmental effects (positive and negative) been identified?
- Have those who will be affected by the environmental effects been identified?
- Does the programme/project include mitigation measures?
- Have the potential conflicts of interest been addressed?
- Does the project ensure the integration of pertinent gender issues, i.e., strategic and
- Practical needs of women?

5. Concluding Remarks

It is important to realize that gender issues need to be integrated in project planning to address women's concerns. Gender responsive projects/programmes as a development strategy should have the following characteristics:

- Recognize women as major contributors of development activities.
- Recognize women as equal to that of men in productive activities.
- Increasing women's productivity by providing the necessary production supports.
- Ensuring women to have access to and control over productive resources and benefits.
- Empower women by giving them a chance to actively participate in each stages of planning cycle.
- Ensure that women's specific needs are properly addressed.
- Enabling women to have equal to men access to education, vocational training, health and other services.
- Solving the cultural, legal and institutional constraints that hinder women's integration in poverty alleviation projects.

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Chapter Twelve
DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS

CCRDA

III. DEVELOPMENT INDICATORS

(By Dr. Haile Ganoro)

- Provide information on the main features of social and economic development

- They include:

1. Basic Indicators

-	Population	60.0Mil (1999)
-	Area	1.1km^2
-	GDP/GNP per capita	US$ 90 (1999)
-	GNP annual growth rate	5% (1998)
-	Annual rate of inflation	>3%
-	Life expectancy at birth	48.7 years
-	Adult illiteracy rate	35.5%

2. Growth of production

(average growth rate 1984 -90 E.C.)

-	GDP	5%
-	Agriculture	2.1%
-	Industry	9.4%
-	Service etc.	8.0%

3. Domestic Absorption

-	Consumption	82%(1990)
-	Investment	18%(1990)
-	Structure of consumption	

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- durable
- non-durable food

4. Fiscal and monetary accounts

- Expenditure

  - Capital
  - Roads 44%
  - Agriculture 16%
  - Transport 15%
  - Recurrent
    - Salary and wage
    - Others

- Revenue

  - Tax 65%
  - Others 35%

5. Core International Transactions

- Export

- Agricultural items

  - Coffee
  - Hides and Skin
  - Others

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- Import
    - Machineries
    - Raw Materials
    - Others
- Balance of Payment
    - Deficit
    - Surplus

6. External Finance

- Official development assistance
    - Loan
    - Credit
    - Aid
- External debt
    - Total debt
    - Debt ratio
- Terms of external borrowing
    - Concessional
    - Grace period
    - Long term

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7. Human Resource

- Population
    - Total
    - Growth rate

- Demography and Fertility
    - Crude birth rate
    - Crude death rate
    - Women of child bearing age
    - Total fertility
    - Women using contraceptive

- Health and nutrition
    - Population/physician
    - Population/nursing person
    - Births attended by health staff
    - Babies with low birth weight
    - Infant mortality rate
    - Daily calorie supply

- Education
    - Total primary enrollment
    - Female

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- Total secondary enrollment
    - Female
- Tertiary enrollment
- Primary net enrollment
- Primary pupil-teacher-ratio

- Income Distribution
- Urbanization
- Women in Development
    - Health and welfare
        - Risk of dying by age five
            - Female
            - Male
        - Life expectancy at birth
            - Female
            - Male
        - Maternal mortality
        - Education

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- Primary enrollment
  - Female
  - Male

- Secondary enrollment
  - Female
  - Male

- Tertiary enrollment
  - Female
  - Male

- Drop outs
  - Female
  - Male

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Chapter Thirteen

THE ROLE OF COMMUNITY LEADERS IN POVERTY ALLEVIATION PROJECT INTERVENTIONS IN RURAL ETHIOPIA: PRELIMINARY OBSERVATIONS

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The Role of Community Leaders in Poverty Alleviation Project Interventions in Rural Ethiopia: Preliminary Observations

By
Nuri Kedir

1. Objectives of the Paper

The main objective of this paper and the subsequent presentation in discussion sessions is to familiarize workshop participants with the concept of community leadership and its importance in poverty alleviation project undertakings. The Specific objectives are to:

- Enable workshop participants to identify community leaders and appreciate their role in poverty alleviation project intervention at the grassroots level.
- Familiarize the concept and importance of community participation in all stages of project cycle.
- Overview some experiences of NGOs working with the involvement of community leaders in rural Ethiopia.

2. The Concept of Leadership

2.1 Definition

Leadership is the ability to influence a group towards the achievement of goals. It is the process of influencing the activities of individuals or groups towards the achievement of goal(s). The source of influence may be formal but it could also be informal. It is a learnt behavior.

Theoretical explanations of the leadership process have examined such aspects as traits, styles, power bases, organizational context, and visionary and ethical qualities (Chamala, 1990). Leadership emerges "when persons in communities, grounded in hope, are grasped by inauthentic situations and courageously act in concert with followers to make those situations authentic". Some scholars argued that leadership empowers human beings to claim ultimate fulfillment. Thus leadership is not reducible to traits, skills, organization, power vision or even ethical vision alone. It is a fundamental and profound engagement with the world and human condition.

Community leaders are the influential members of a community. They are persons who are approachable by most members of the community. These individuals, most literatures also call them as "opinion leaders", play a leadership role in the community. They are a source of communication for groups within the community and with outsiders. In both rural and urban areas, people who are involved in numerous indigenous organizations and

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institutions and who contact large numbers of people in the course of their daily activities are highly likely to be opinion leaders. They play the role of linking the various groups in the community and mobilize popular support for development activities.

Experiences have shown that community leaders play significant role in the dissemination and adoption of new technology, especially in the rural part of developing countries. Thus, identifying and listing them for further contact is the first step in any efficient communication with the community in development interventions at local level. Asking farmers whom they go to for advice on farming problems can identify opinion leaders in rural areas.

2.2. The Concept of Community/Beneficiary Participation

Participatory development is considered the key to success of all poverty alleviation projects or programmes. Some people go as far as saying that it is futile to expending resources in any project without first ensuring that the project has the undivided commitment of its beneficiaries.

The major role of community leaders is to mobilize the target beneficiaries and ensure their active participation in poverty alleviation project activities. Thus, the concepts of community leadership and beneficiary participation are inseparable. Experiences show that the opinion of community leaders are always need to be sought to ascertain any felt need of the community and to secure popular participation at the grassroots.

What is participation? Participation is a process in which the poor themselves become more aware of their own situation, of the socio-economic reality around them, of measures they themselves can take to begin changing their situation.

In a project environment, participation means the involvement of the beneficiaries in deciding in all aspects of project design - from the inception to post project evaluation. Any project designer (an individual or a team) needs to apply participatory action research (PAR) method.

The principle of the method is that the researcher or the team must be aware, first and for most, that he/she is ignorant about the local problems he/she is researching on compared with that of people involved.

The basic tool of participatory action research is dialogue; an interchange and discussion of ideas based on a process of open and frank questioning and analysis in both directions between the investigators and the people, both individually and in small groups.

The essentials of the dialogical approach to participatory action research are the following:

- It is based on a participatory principle which eliminates through effective

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dialogue the distinction between the researcher and the poor although the external researcher may draw his or her own independent inferences from the research;

- A basic premise is that the (rural) poor's perceptions of their own conditions are different from the perceptions of outsiders however sympathetic they may be. It is the perceptions of the (rural) poor that should form the basic point of reference for any analysis. These perceptions can be identified and understood only through intimate and continuous dialogue and joint reflections;

- A convergence of perceptions between the concerned outsider and the rural poor is possible only through such a dialogical process, which is essentially action-based.

Why is Beneficiary "Participation in Project Development" important? It is important because:

- Theorists behind desks do not hatch new ideas and social designs or politicians constrained by expediency, but spring from the praxis of working with people in local communities.

- The beneficiaries know much more than outside investigators about the local conditions, development problems, and even the possible solutions to the problems.

- Sustainable development is a serious problem that makes demands on beneficiary's time and requires considerable discipline from the beneficiary. All of this will be unlikely to occur without a genuine participation of the beneficiary in all aspects of project that seeks " Sustainable development" as an objective.

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PAR in project preparation has been in practice since the 1980s in many developing countries. Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) or Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) techniques are part of PAR, and are often employed while preparing or evaluating projects.

The advantages of participatory approach over that of blue print are: -

- It is rooted in a dialogue with the intended beneficiaries and, therefore, is more responsive to their needs and potentials.

- It allows for variations in bureaucratic structures and thus is adaptable to political, economic, and socials changes.

- It is based on learning by doing and on building institutional capacity, so it is well directed toward the promotion of self-sustaining development benefits.

- It transfers the development initiative to the implementers and beneficiaries, creating an environment supportive of innovative problem solving (rather than the routine application of predetermined and perhaps inappropriate solutions). And

- Through this involvement, it avoids negative side effects by eliminating design components that are found inappropriate. Thus, it lessens the danger that implementation will become locked into a bad designs.

Participatory approach does not mean that planning is de-emphasized. Without a clear specification of the structure and timetable for decision making, information use, and management arrangements, project implementation will be difficult.

The inclusion of the following notes/points in a project document could help government agencies, donors and external evaluators to understand the extent of beneficiary participation in the project design:

- Explaining how the community/beneficiaries have been involved in the identification of problem and their involvement in the different project cycle.

- Specifying how the project will make use of participant's skills and local resources.

- Identifying transparently the contribution of the beneficiaries is it in cash or in kind.

- Indicating how the community will ultimately manage the project.

- Explaining how the project will generate new skill or knowledge and enhance group decision-making and cooperating in the beneficiaries.
- Indicating all past experiences of the beneficiaries with regard to project activities in their locality.

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3. Observations on Community Leadership in Rural Ethiopia.

Lack of proven approach to initiate effective participatory development is perhaps one of the major problems of NGOs operating in rural Ethiopia. There are several local organizations with varied objectives in rural Ethiopia including Idir, Kebele Administration (KA), religious association, cooperatives, sectoral government agencies, Woreda Council, and political groups.

Each of these institutions has their own style of leadership to achieve their specific purposes. The styles, roles, compositions and effectiveness of community leaders are highly influenced by leaders of these organizations with which they work.

Field observations on the experiences of some NGOs in rural areas reveal that a "committee approach" is the most popular pattern of community leadership promoted by project implementing agencies. The "committee approach" envisages that community leadership can be initiated by establishing committees at various levels and for specific purposes to seek the active participation of beneficiaries in poverty alleviation project interventions.

Practical experiences in many parts of the country also show that members of these committees are drawn usually from the local organizations mentioned earlier. Influential individuals and elders in the community are also included in the composition. Typical committee members are a composition of influential persons, local sectoral government agencies, elders, and religious leaders, leaders of kebele administration and cooperative and idir leaders.

From the discussion made with some NGOs field staff, it was noted that committee members as a group play a role of community leadership. They are expected to serve as a bridge between the NGO and the larger target community. The specific tasks of committee members identified by NGOs staff are to:

- Mobilize the community for active participation in all aspects of project interventions.
- Collect community cash contributions.
- Mobilize community members and coordinate their local material and labour contributions.
- Play advocacy role.
- Create awareness among their fellow community members.
- Assist in site identification for project activities.
- Provide information on the situation of their localities.

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- Disseminate important information to the community and serve as committed development facilitators.
- Make the activities and benefits of the project sustainable.
- Solve problems that might arise at local level in the course of project implementation.

It has also been observed that networking between the NGOS and community leaders is being facilitated largely through regular committee meeting and training sessions.

Preliminary assessment showed that the current community leadership in rural areas is ineffective due to the practical limitations mentioned below:

- Committee members have differences in motives, experience, attitudes and awareness of problems/opportunities.
- Most committee members lack basic skills and experiences on leadership and hence are not able to mobilize the community for development activities at the desired level.
- There are cases where NGOs have initiated projects without proper consultation with the target community. In such instances, community leaders are reluctant to play active role in facilitating project activities. Experiences elsewhere reveal that community participation can only be ensured when there are pressures for change among all stakeholders, a common understanding of the problem and of the desired state of affairs, a capacity for change, and actionable first start (Chamala, 1990).
- Some NGOs have attempted to create their own committee structure parallel to government initiated grassroots community organizations at KA level for similar purposes. In some places, it has been observed where beneficiaries are confused by the existence of two parallel community structures with too many committees.
- The modality of committee formation and the desire for its composition could not allow women to have significant participation in community leadership. As we all know, women have lesser opportunities to be leaders of local organizations. And hence create a power of influence. As a matter of fact, women's voices are usually unheard due to the social and cultural reasons.
- Field observations also revealed that some members of community leaders are not seemed popular among the community. They are included in the leadership structure because of their important position in political

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leadership in the area. These individuals are not expected to be effective in securing real community participation for development interventions.

- The influential and knowledgeable community leaders are over-exposed in many of the community activities and hold positions in several local organizations. Thus, they are not able to provide effective leadership for activities of poverty alleviation projects.

4. Recommendations

The following are the recommendations of the preliminary observations reviewed in the paper:

- Observations in rural Ethiopia indicated that extensive leadership training is needed to upgrade the management skill of community leaders. The current level of leadership skill is inadequate to sustain the resources and benefits provided by projects initiated by NGOs.

- There is a need to make efforts for the existence of a permanent structure that harmonizes all relevant development activities of the community. Any community leadership structure should have a clear understanding of its purpose, philosophy and history. It should also be clear on its role in relation to any other organizations. Individual members should understand their roles within their local organization

- It is important to note that knowing who are the most influential members helps to identify whom we will need to convince if we wish to alter the direction of project activities. There are several good reasons to doubt whether the current composition of community leaders has adequately accommodated the influential leaders of the community.

- Studies on the role of community leadership and appropriate structures are required.

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Chapter Fourteen
COLLABORATION AND NETWORKING AMONG STAKEHOLDERS FOR ERADICATING FEMINIZED POVERTY

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VI. COLLABORATION AND NETWORKING AMONG STAKEHOLDERS FOR ERADICATING FEMINIZED POVERTY

(By Dr. Haile Ganoro)

1. Poverty as a global problem

- Collaborative and coordinated nature of poverty alleviation
- Long-term international commitment
- Exchange of information and experience

2. Donors response (multilateral, bilateral, NGO's)

- Specialization in intervention/avoiding effort and resource duplication
- Financial and technical assistance
- Technology transfer
- Echange of experience
- Strategic planning
- Infrastructure development involving food aid
- Education and trainging
- Human resource development
- Relief of indebtedness

3. Government Responsiveness

- Avoid unnecessary market interference.
- Establish appropriate enabling environment to facilitate poverty reduction.
- Promote participation by NGOs in poverty reduction and amelioration programmes
- Recognize the special circumstances of the poor in welfare and social service provisions.

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- Moves to user-pays principles or subsidy changes.
- Effect national planning with associated training.
- Collaborate on research
- Buildup institutions and infrastructures to promote the involvement of poor communities in poverty alleviation programmes.

4. **Beneficiary Participation**

- Initiatives to involve women in poverty alleviation moves.
- Make communities responsible for planning.
- Implementing, monitoring and evaluating their own development programmes.
- Enable poor communities to form their own target groups.
- Define mechanisms that will promote the development of effective partnerships between the poor, government and donors.

5. **Three-Partide Collaboration**

- Commonly defining the poor, poverty, and assess, analyze and take actions.
- Commonly planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating.
- Commonly committing for poverty alleviation sharing costs.
- Common responsibility and accountability.

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ADDITIONAL MATERIALS

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Gender Equality Action Plans:
A Think Piece

CCRDA

Prepared By:

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Helen Thomas
Johanna Schalkwyk

January 1996

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Fourth World Conference on Women, held in China in August-September 1995, resulted in ijing Declaration and a Platform for Action which provide an internationally agreed upon egy for gender equality. The Platform for Action clearly involves a moving forward of ns with respect to several important aspects. One important gain is the clear recognition e responsibility of governments to work actively to achieve gender equality; another is ishment of the overriding importance of human rights; and a third is the recognition of and reproductive rights, in particular the needs and rights of adolescents - to name but

ms of methodologies important gains were made in the recognition (even if not always as gly expressed as could be desired) of the the need to see gender equality as an important for the whole of society rather than as a "women's issue" - which of necessity requires sed attention to the roles, responsibilities, attitudes, behaviour and needs of men as well men as well as new and active roles for men in relation to promoting gender equality. In ion, the attention given to the important goal of "mainstreaming"- the recognition of the to influence all methodologies, analyses, policies and planning from a gender perspective - es an important step forward. Sex-disaggregation of statistics is also clearly established important instrument.

ever a considerable amount of work has to be undertaken to consolidate the gains made gh the Beijing process. There still remain, for many, important questions regarding the ing and implication of basic concepts such as "gender analysis", "gender planning" and streaming". It will be extremely important to support the development of awareness and ity in order to transform the rhetoric in the Platform for Action on these important issues reality.

ntribute to this process Sida will commission a series of short "think pieces" or discussion ers which will present the state-of-the art on some of the most important issues. Since the lution from the General Assembly on follow-up to Beijing (December 1995) recommends development of strategies for implementation of the Platform for Action, and many national organizations, including Sida, are currently involved in developing action plans trategies, the first "think piece" is on Gender Equality Action Plans. The second "think " under development is a state-of-the-art on mainstreaming.

hope that this report, and any others which may follow, will be of use to you in your rtant work and can contribute in some way to ensuring active and constructive follow-up ijing.

Edgren
tant Director General

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Gender Equality Action Plans: A Think Piece

> Ten years ago, in the UN *Nairobi Forward-Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women to the Year 2000 (FLS)*, governments of the world set out formidable goals for themselves, agreeing to a host of recommendations for achieving women's equality and empowerment. The plain fact is that these goals have not been achieved, and little or no progress has been achieved...
>
> This is despite the fact that after the 1985 World Conference on Women, all major development agencies altered their policies to ensure a better focus on various aspects of women's equality and empowerment. We are left, therefore, with the large question of why such a large collective development policy has produced so few results.
>
> -Sara Hlupekile Longwe (1995).

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INTRODUCTION

Following on the heels of the Fourth World Conference on Women held in Beijing (September 1995), institutions and organizations are looking to understand the progress that has been made to date and obstacles that still stand in the way of equality between women and men.

Development cooperation organizations face specific challenges. Sida and other agencies have completed over two decades of work in this area. Lessons have been learned, progress has been made, but much remains to be done.

In looking to develop an action plan to implement its revised guidelines on gender equality, Sida requested input from a variety of sources. This paper is one contribution to that process.

This "think piece" is designed to raise questions and put issues on the agenda for discussion. The authors drew on the many studies now available (see the bibliography in Section VI) and their own experiences. It is not a detailed comparative analysis of what has been done; instead it represents brainstorming and an assessment of varying strategies.

Section II outlines key themes or considerations for the development of action plans. It contains questions that should be asked by those involved in that process. Section III reviews the strengths and weaknesses of some specific strategies that have been used by development cooperation agencies to date.

Section IV was unplanned and evolved throughout the discussions among the authors as the piece was written. We discovered that after reviewing the major strategies that have been used to date, several key themes had been relatively neglected or "under-resourced." Thus, this section is more speculative as it outlines areas where more work is needed and where there are few specific initiatives to evaluate and learn from.

Section V offers a very brief conclusion and an extensive bibliography of relevant documents is provided in Section VI.*

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* This paper was prepared by Beth Woroniuk (Goss Gilroy Inc.), Helen Thomas (Helen Trevor Thomas Consulting Ltd.) and Johanna Schalkwyk.

KEY THEMES

A range of studies on the efforts of development cooperation organizations to implement "women in development" and gender equality/equity policies is now available. Although each institution faces specific challenges, a series of general lessons is slowly emerging. This section outlines key themes relating to action or implementation plans, together with several questions that could be considered.

Summary of Key Themes

1. *The process of developing an action plan can provide opportunities to increase the sense of ownership of the plan throughout the organization.*
2. *Conceptual clarity about what an agency seeks to achieve with its gender equality policy is necessary to guide staff.*
3. *An action plan must be based on a clear analysis and understanding of the Agency; including its decision-making structure(s), incentive systems, planning routines and history with respect to gender equality.*
4. *Clear, measurable and achievable objectives are needed to focus attention and to provide a basis for monitoring, reporting and accountability.*
5. *The role and responsibility of senior management for progress in implementation should be clearly outlined.*
6. *Strategic choices must be made for effective channelling of efforts and resources.*
7. *Policy inputs and "policy entrepreneurship" are important aspects that enable the Agency to respond meaningfully to a complex issue on which continuing innovation is required.*
8. *The need for professional expertise should not be under-estimated.*
9. *The varying nature and level of staff competence required across the Agency should be clarified.*
10. *Implementation will depend on productive collaboration with host countries.*
11. *Productive relationships with domestic constituencies can also provide insights and momentum for gender equality policies*
12. *Agency credibility in presenting a gender equality policy is assisted if the policy is reflected in internal practice.*

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1. *The process of developing an action plan can provide opportunities to increase the sense of ownership of the plan throughout the organization.*

The drafters of an action plan should have a clear sense of the priority that will be given to the plan. A plan that assigns responsibilities to specific units or positions with no authority to follow-up or grant resources holds little potential for success.

Thus the process of developing the plan itself is important. Consultation and involvement of representatives from across the agency can result in both a better plan and build momentum.

- Who should be involved in the development of the plan? Will these people require extra resources or special training?
- How can consultations be structured? There are bound to be differing expectations and opinions – what sort of process would best reconcile these differences?
- What is the role of consultations and input from organizations and people outside the agency (both domestic and from partner countries)?
- Once it is finished, how will the plan be communicated to staff inside the agency and to partners?

Conceptual clarity about what an agency seeks to achieve with its gender equality policy is necessary to guide staff.

The goals of the policy – and their relationship to the overall goals of the Agency – form the backbone of the action or implementation plan. If this foundation is not solid, the entire plan will be weak.

A major source of conceptual confusion in WID/gender equality efforts has been the tendency to confuse the means with the goals. That is, gender equality is the goal, and techniques such as gender analysis, the integration of a gender perspective and mainstreaming, are means of working toward that goal.

- Is there a clear statement of what the Agency seeks to achieve by pursuing gender equality as a priority theme? Is gender equality clearly stated as a development objective of the Agency? Is gender equality defined?
- Is the policy consistent with Agency expectations for policies in general? Is it based on a clear understanding of the role that policy plays within the Agency?
- Is there a clear relationship between the gender equality strategy and other Agency priorities?
- Should the action plan include a communications strategy to ensure that staff, partners, contractors and the public are aware of the basis and emphases of the gender equality strategy? Are additional measures required to strengthen understanding and acceptance of these goals and commitment to them?

An action plan must be based on a clear analysis and understanding of the Agency: including its decision-making structure(s), incentive systems, planning routines and history with respect to gender equality.

An implementation strategy must be firmly rooted in the organizational culture of the institution and it must acknowledge the organization's strengths and

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weaknesses. The strategy cannot be based on an "idealized" vision of an organizations; rather it must be grounded in its reality. For example, an action plan that involves the integration of gender considerations into performance appraisals of individual staff members holds little possibility for success in an institution that does not have a functioning system of regular staff evaluations.

Although at one level this sounds obvious, many organizations have adopted common strategies and tactics despite their varying mandates, structures and cultures (Razavi and Miller, 1995). The specificities of each organization have not always been taken into account.

- How has organizational change been facilitated in the past? What has been the experience with other "cross-cutting themes"? What can be learned from these experiences?
- Are there champions/advocates for gender equality?
- How do planning routines support or hinder the integration of a gender perspective and the pursuit of gender equality as a development objective?
- What is the current internal incentive and reward system (both formal and informal) and how can this be used to promote gender equality objectives?
- Are there consistent "bottlenecks" that efforts to integrate a gender perspective always encounter (for example, the failure to incorporate gender considerations into contracts or the difficulty of raising the issue during sector reviews)?
- Does current restructuring present new opportunities?
- Are the expectations of gender equality advocates realistic given the nature of decision-making and their access to resources?

4. *Clear, measurable and achievable objectives are needed to focus attention and to provide a basis for monitoring, reporting and accountability.*

One of the key failings of WID/gender policies to date has been the absence of institutional targets and indicators. In the absence of short-term specific and measurable targets at both the Agency level and at sector and country levels, there is little impetus for consideration of the gender equality policy in Agency and programme emphases. The policy is also often neglected in the allocation of resources and in the establishment of the context for particular programme and project activities. Specific, measurable targets are also required to provide a basis for monitoring, reporting and accountability for individual staff, units of the Agency, or the Agency as a whole.

Experience has demonstrated that the integration of a gender perspective is complex. A policy or action plan developed today will not be able to address all issues, no matter how broadly framed. A more realistic and effective approach would be to focus on defining objectives to be pursued in a specific time-frame, with an explicit provision for later revisiting and revising the policy/action plan on the basis of experience gained through this process.

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- Have clear, measurable and time-defined objectives been set at the institutional level? Is there a clear definition of what successful implementation might look like? Is there a process for setting and reviewing these targets in relation to overall Agency planning? Where is responsibility (and accountability) for progress on meeting these targets lodged?
- Are there requirements for units within the Agency to establish clear, measurable and time-defined objectives (ie., at sector and country levels)? Are the responsibilities for specifying these objectives clearly stated (e.g., managers of sectoral and country divisions)?
- Is there a reporting system to track efforts and progress in relation to these targets? Who reports? To whom do they report? What are they to report on? What is to be done with these reports?
- Have means of publicizing successes and rewarding efforts and innovation been identified?

The role and responsibility of senior management for progress in implementation should be clearly outlined.

Leadership by senior management has been identified as an essential condition for the implementation of gender policies. This is due to both the formal and informal processes within large bureaucracies: only senior management can properly oversee a cross-cutting theme that by definition intersects the various management structures of the organization; in addition, it is senior management action that signals the relative priorities of the organization and provides the impetus for staff efforts.

- How are senior management involved in guiding, monitoring and reviewing the policy and action plan? Is there a senior management committee on this issue? Is there a clear statement of the composition, head, and function of this committee?
- Is the reporting/accountability structure for the policy linked to senior management?
- Has the role of senior management in ensuring that the gender equality policy is reflected in key Agency policy and management statements been specified?

Strategic choices must be made for effective channelling of efforts and resources.

While gender is a cross-cutting theme relevant to all areas of development, opportunities for significant impact are not the same in all areas -- these opportunities are influenced by experience and capacity within the Agency, the interests and capacities of partners, the nature of each sector, etc. In this context, and given the inevitable limitations of resources (expertise and time as well as financial resources), an across-the-board or mechanical approach that treats all sectors and programmes equally is unlikely to be an effective use of resources.

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- What have been the Agency's successes in the past? What are the Agency's strengths in the area of gender equality? How can these be built on?
- Where are the best opportunities for change? Do specific programme priorities offer possibilities for the successful integration of a gender perspective?
- Has consideration been given to the different types of resources/inputs that might be required in different sectors? For example, there may be a need for research and conceptual development in energy and infrastructure to lay a foundation for the integration of a gender perspective in policy, programme and project initiatives; by contrast, in such areas as agriculture and community development there is a good basis of conceptual and empirical research and the focus might rather be on investment in innovation in programme strategies.

7. *Policy inputs and "policy entrepreneurship" are important mechanisms for enabling the Agency to respond meaningfully to a complex issue on which continuing innovation is required.*

Despite a growing literature on gender and development issues, there is a constant need to link "leading edge" thinking on this theme to ongoing Agency priorities. The relevance of gender issues should be demonstrated in a clear and exciting fashion. There is a need to demystify concepts and communicate them in a manner that is relevant to staff members and partners. It is also important to articulate the integral relationship of a gender analysis with other development themes (i.e., it is not something to be "added on").

Development cooperation is becoming increasing complex, as we witness a mushrooming of "issues" (sustainable development, conflict resolution, participatory development...). There is a need for an ongoing investment to ensure that gender equality issues are part of the discussions on these cutting edge issues.

- How can the resources (personnel, expertise, research) be built into the action plan in a flexible yet responsive manner?
- Does the action plan encourage an approach to gender equality issues that is multisectoral, multidisciplinary and participatory?

8. *The need for professional expertise should not be under-estimated.*

The need for professional expertise is often under-estimated. Specific (and varied) skills and experience are required for high-quality programme and project design and implementation. These are professional skills and should be recognized as such.

A two-pronged approach taken by many agencies has been to invest in general, introductory training for staff throughout the Agency and to draw on consultants where additional or specific expertise was required. This approach raises a number of concerns: training has increased staff awareness but not actual competence in applying frameworks and concepts; and reliance on consultants means that

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knowledge and experience is developed outside rather than inside the Agency and the Agency's capacity for institutional learning is constrained.

- What provisions should be made for the Agency and various sectoral and country programmes to access the required expertise?
- What provisions should be made for building in-house gender capacity, particularly within the priority themes and sectors on which the Agency focuses? (This will require more than 3-day courses.)
- How are the gender experts to be located in the Agency? Is the number and level of staff, or the amount allocated for consultants, realistic in light of the demands for expertise that will arise?

9. *The varying nature and level of staff competence required across the Agency should be clarified.*

Along with different responsibilities for policy implementation, a range of skills is also required. Not everyone needs to be a "gender analyst" or a "gender expert." Has consideration been given to the level of knowledge and skills required by different categories of staff in the implementation of the policy?

- Can staff communicate the policy (and the concepts behind the policy) to a wide range of people (women's organizations, government officials, Swedish consultants...)
- Can staff adapt the concepts and demonstrate their relevance in specific situations?
- Can staff identify what needs to be done to work toward the implementation of the policy and take the necessary steps (seek out specific technical expertise, write appropriate terms of references, include gender considerations in policy dialogue...)?
- Can staff work effectively as advocates for gender equality objectives with a range of partners and beneficiaries?
- Do staff have the skills to discuss the policy fruitfully with partners and contractors? Can they identify resistance and develop strategies to overcome that resistance?

Key considerations that have been raised around training programmes include:

- *Who is the target group?* What do they do? What do they have in common? Can one course meet all the different needs and expectations?
- *What do they know?* What is their level of conceptual understanding regarding gender and social equality issues?
- *What do they need to know?* What do they think they need to know? What is the organizational perspective of what they need to know to do their job?

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- *What is the best way for them to learn?* Is participatory learning best? What is the organizational culture around training and learning styles? What other training is going on?

10. *Implementation will depend on productive collaboration with host countries.*

Effective and sustainable initiatives require "ownership" by key actors in host countries. Efforts to seek common ground with governments in host countries will derive some impetus from the agreements reached on the Beijing Platform for Action. Effective strategies also require efforts to seek out gender equality advocates and to strengthen their position.

- Are staff engaged in policy-programme level discussion with partners well-equipped to seek common ground on gender equality issues with these partners? (What do they require to do this effectively: knowledge, communication skills, contacts with the national constituency? What strategies could be developed to assist them?)
- How can opportunities to assist partners to develop positions on these issues and to strengthen their capacity for fruitful dialogue be identified? This might include:
  - allocation of resources to assist partner countries to research and prepare papers on women's position/ gender equality for use in policy dialogue;
  - measures to encourage national governments to include representatives of women's affairs offices in the process of policy dialogue, joint planning, and assessments of development cooperation;
  - initiatives to develop the capacity of partners, such as ministries of finance and planning, on gender equality issues;
  - initiatives to increase the capacity and impact of ministries of women's affairs;
  - support for national gender equality advocates to recognize strategies of resistance and to develop strategies to deal with that resistance;
  - identification of opportunities to increase representation of gender equality advocates in the consultation process with partner countries (e.g., sectoral consultations, formal and informal dialogue).

11. *Productive relationships with domestic constituencies can also provide insights and momentum for gender equality policies.*

Relationships with the constituencies for gender equality within donor countries can provide stimulus and support for gender equality policies in development cooperation. These constituencies might include, for example, parliamentary committees on gender equality or women's position, the ministry for women's affairs, and advocacy organizations concerned with gender equality and women's interests.

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- What would be required to develop ongoing relationships with these constituencies?
- Is there a strategy for communication, consultation, dialogue with these constituencies?

Agency credibility in presenting a gender equality policy is assisted if the policy is reflected in internal practice.

Equal opportunity in the Agency is an important objective in its own right, but it also influences the way in which an Agency is perceived by its partners and clientele. Efforts to work with partners to increase women's participation in decision-making and to target reductions in gender disparities can only be assisted when women are visible among Agency decision-makers, experts, consultants, etc., and when representatives of the Agency in all of these categories are able to communicate a serious commitment to these issues.

- Has consideration been given to Agency recruitment and promotion practices for professional staff and their influence on the gender balance of employment? Or on the gender balance among consultants?
- Has any consideration been given to strategies to deal with resistance to gender equality issues on the part of staff or consultants?

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SELECTED STRATEGIES: STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES

Strengths and weaknesses of some of the main strategies that have been used by development cooperation agencies to implement women in development and gender equality policies are outlined below. As these strategies have been used in various combinations under different organizational cultures, they present options to be considered when designing an action plan.

Summary of Strategies Reviewed

1. *Placement of gender specialist resources in the agency*
   - i) *Placement of all gender specialist staff in one division or unit, whose services are called on by other branches as required*
   - ii) *Placement of gender specialist staff within programming (which may be or may not be in combination with gender specialist staff in policy or planning branches)*
   - iii) *Placement of gender specialists in field offices*
2. *Project screening and rating systems*
   - i) *Project screening system*
   - ii) *Project rating systems*
3. *Personnel reviews*
4. *Staff capacity development*
   - i) *Specific gender training programme*
   - ii) *Integration of gender perspective throughout all training provided:*
   - iii) *Seminars and publications on gender equality issues*
5. *Internal networks/committees*
   - i) *Focal points*
   - ii) *Formal committees*
   - iii) *Informal networks*
6. *External advisory or consultative groups*
7. *Tools to assist in implementation*
   - i) *General comments*
   - ii) *Country gender strategies*
8. *"Earmarked" funds for gender equality initiatives at agency or country level*
9. *Evaluations*

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1. *Placement of gender specialist resources in the agency*

Several options exist for placement of specialist staff. These are not mutually exclusive and could be used in combination.

i) Placement of all gender specialist staff in one division or unit, whose services are called on by other branches as required:

Strengths	Weaknesses
This approach can promote uniformity in approaches and methodologies. Working within one unit can promote solidarity among gender specialist staff. A critical mass of information and expertise can be focused in one place within the institution that can be spread back out to other "policy entrepreneurs" and gender advocates within and outside the institution. One unit with one large budget can take the lead on Agency-wide initiatives.	Central placement can isolate staff from programming branches and the day-to-day concerns of programme staff. Particular technical expertise may be lost or weakened (e.g., a gender specialist with extensive experience in the African context or in agricultural development may not be able to dedicate sufficient time to maintain expertise in those areas). Strategic planning for influence (and time management) can be very challenging for gender specialists -- especially if they are far from the working processes of the other branches (what activities are being planned, etc.). This structure can dilute accountability for gender equality outcomes in projects. Staff in other branches may tend to defer to the central "gender unit" and avoid direct decision-making and hence accountability. The potential strengths of this approach can be undermined by assigning too broad a mandate to too few staff. In particular, if the gender division is responsible for providing technical support to programme branches in project design, as well as providing policy and strategic leadership on gender issues within the Agency, demands on staff can be overwhelming. In this instance, policy and strategic leadership is likely to give way to the more immediate demands from programme divisions for technical support.

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ii) **Placement of gender specialist staff within programming** (which may be or may not be in combination with gender specialist staff in policy or planning branches):

Strengths	Weaknesses
Gender specialists placed in programming branches tend to be more integrated into the work and organizational culture of a particular division than if located in a central division. Decentralized placement can create closer working relationships with other staff and increase the likelihood that gender specialists are called upon to participate in the planning and monitoring of projects. They are more aware of activities, integrated into work planning procedures, etc. Where staff with gender responsibilities, have abilities to seek out opportunities and to communicate this often confusing field to colleagues, they can be effective as catalysts for the integration of a gender perspective in the daily operations of programming divisions. The Agency can develop gender expertise that is relevant to specific regions or branches (e.g. gender and health, gender issues in South Asia). When combined with the provision for a central policy-focused gender unit, and a strategy for regular communications among all gender specialists, the Agency can benefit from the interaction of broad strategic/policy thinking and daily programming concerns and experiences.	Relationships between gender specialists may become less cohesive, as corporate activities may be less coordinated and communication can be a problem. If sufficient professional status is not accorded to gender specialists, their efforts may be marginalized. Gender specialists also require other institutional supports (leadership, a budget, demonstrated support for their work, etc.) Without a supportive institutional climate, gender specialists are not able to perform effectively. Centralized quality control (based on corporate policy priorities) over advice and support provided by decentralized gender specialists may be constrained by reporting structures within divisions. It may be difficult to support corporate initiatives as different priorities and needs may be generated in the different branches. In this case a clear process for planning and setting priorities across the Agency is required.

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iii) Placement of gender specialists in field offices:

The placement of adequate professional resources to meet the needs of staff in Embassies/Development Cooperation Offices (DCO) raises several issues: level of professional expertise, status within structure, allocation of financial resources, etc.

Strengths	Weaknesses
The ability of gender specialists to maintain base-line information regarding gender equality, to analyze and integrate this information into programme planning processes (sectoral reviews, annual reviews etc.) and to support programme officers is enhanced by being present in the field. A staff member with specific gender expertise and responsibility can be a strong advocate for gender equality issues and ensure that they stay "on the agenda." A field gender officer can develop and maintain networks with women's organizations and local gender specialists. These contacts can then be used in programming planning and implementation.	The locally-engaged staff identified by many agencies as appropriate for this function can become marginalized from the core Embassy/Agency staff, especially if their status is perceived as secondary. Staff may assume that the gender specialist will carry out all required tasks to integrate a gender perspective into their work (i.e., the catalyst role may not be fully utilized). This highlights the importance of clear roles and responsibilities. Communications and Agency-wide consistency (priorities, conceptual approaches) can be difficult. The knowledge and experience gained by locally-engaged staff is not always "recycled" back into the organization, given that these staff members rarely are transferred to other posts.

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2. *Project screening and rating systems*

i) Project screening system

Projects can be screened during the design stage or immediately prior to approval (and/or during implementation) to ensure that a gender perspective has been integrated. This could be considered as a "quality control" procedure.

A screening system might include an internal committee of peers, including gender specialists, to review project documents and provide comments, discuss aspects of the project design or implementation and make recommendations for changes.

Strengths	Weaknesses
A project screening system provides for a review of all projects in a routine manner, affording predictable opportunities to monitor the design and implementation of gender aspects. Screening carried out at a programme/country level can foster opportunities for staff to learn about gender-related activities and experiences in other projects and programmes. In theory, this type of screening process can provide a mechanism to reject projects that do not adequately incorporate a gender perspective.	Staff may use a screening process to limit their own responsibility for integration of a gender perspective. This mechanism relies upon sufficient technical expertise/resources being available to review all projects and to provide consistency in the approach and quality of the gender perspective. Screening of all projects is a very time consuming process and may delay project approvals, and implementation. Given the level of staff and Agency commitment to a project by the time it reaches the approval stage, vetoes on grounds of gender equality issues are seldom used (even if authority for this formally exists). Other strategies for supporting any redesign needs identification are therefore necessary to maintain the credibility of a project screening process.

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ii) Project rating systems

Projects can be rated according to various aspects of the manner in which a gender perspective has been integrated. Rating systems might consist of:

- coding according to percentage of women among participants or in the principal target group, percentage of women beneficiaries, percentage of women involved in training etc.
- levels of funds earmarked for gender equality initiatives
- numbers of women in project teams (partner organizations or consulting firms)
- subjective coding on how well a gender perspective has been integrated (i.e., a rating out of 5)

Strengths	Weaknesses
ting systems can facilitate monitoring of titutional changes in the integration of a nder equality policy or plan of action cording to inputs in projects and grammes. For example, a rating system enable an organization to say that 24% of jects incorporated a gender analysis in one and that increased to 35% two years	The information sought may not be thoughtfully supplied nor clearly understood. The completion of a form can become a "tiresome" prerequisite, automatically completed only to obtain approval. This mechanism generally only tracks project inputs. Other measures would be needed to track whether intended activities actually took place and their impact. Considerable time would have to be invested to develop a project rating system that appropriately reflects all Agency policies and project emphases. Not all projects lend themselves to a rating system. For example projects involving large proportions of construction or supply of goods/materiel, but which make efforts to enforce employment equity measures with partner agencies, would not appear as significantly contributing to the gender equality policy objectives. Projects in which participation is not the most significant aspect of gender equality impact also fit uneasily into rating systems; for example, institutional strengthening projects aimed at increasing the economic analysis capacities of a ministry of finance.
ese systems also facilitate reporting of gress towards gender equality objectives ncerned bodies such as the national rnment, OECD/DAC, etc.	
g systems encourage compliance with rely objective interpretations of gender ity integration if project approvals are tional upon reporting.	

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3. *Personnel reviews*

When the performance of individual officers, at all levels within an Agency, is reviewed by their superior on an annual basis, this can become an opportunity to monitor the extent to which gender equality objectives/goals have been met. These goals/objectives could be established at the beginning of each cycle by the individual officers and related to project activities, programming and planning achievements, etc. according to job responsibilities.

Strengths	Weaknesses
This can be one way of ensuring accountability for gender equality objectives.	Staff setting gender equality goals and staff assessing whether they have been attained must have adequate grounding in criteria for success. Both a programme officer and supervisor may be unable to judge whether non-performance is related to external constraints or a shortcoming in an individual's performance.
Mainstreaming of gender equality initiatives can be encouraged if performance is monitored alongside other thematic or policy-based issues within the Agency, e.g. environment, participatory approaches.	Poor performance, as assessed by a superior, in an area which often crosses personal belief systems can create antagonism and defensive behaviour on the part of staff. Resentment and backlash toward gender equality as an issue may result.
Individual goal-setting could be an effective incentive for performance, ensuring that gender equality becomes part of the mainstream of professional expectations in development assistance work.	The difficulty of conducting an adequate review increases when the number of issues or themes against which the performance of a staff member is to be judged increases.
Recognition of good work by a superior in the course of completion of other tasks can provide a strong incentive to perform.	Performance appraisal on gender issues can only be done effectively where an established system of periodic performance appraisal is in place.
	In order to be effective, this system must work throughout the organization, with senior management holding managers responsible and so on down the chain.

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Staff capacity development

Many development cooperation agencies have invested considerable resources in training to support their gender equality policies. Strategies have included the development of specific gender training programmes, the incorporation of gender perspectives throughout staff training programmes, and seminars and publications on gender issues. (These are not mutually exclusive and could be developed concurrently.)

i) Specific gender training programme

Methodologies adopted have ranged from intensive "residential" courses over several days that focus on the theoretical rationale of gender equality, gender analysis, etc; to shorter courses focussing on practical applications in specific professional or geographic circumstances. In some agencies, training has been focussed on Agency staff; others have also extended it to programme partners.

Standardized core courses present the following potential strengths and weaknesses:

Strengths	Weaknesses
motes a common understanding of cepts between Agency staff and partner ncies, between upper and lower levels of etc.	Formal training can be expensive to design and deliver, especially if new materials are developed (case studies, etc.).
und grounding in the basic concepts can trengthened by sessions providing ical applications. This approach can staff in advocating the gender equality with partners and in overcoming ance.	It is difficult, if not impossible, to develop one core course that will meet the needs of staff with different functions in the Agency, at different levels of the hierarchy, and with different levels of knowledge and commitment. "Mixed" groups of staff attending training can make application of theory/rationale etc. difficult and a shared understanding hard to achieve.
any instances there is resistance to or ue concerning gender equality issues, revitalization of the debate, based on a practically-based rationale, presented context of professional development, generate interest and commitment.	Many gender training courses have implied that carrying out a gender analysis, for example, is a straightforward task which does not require technical staff, or that it can be carried out adequately in an overall social analysis without special attention to gender equality issues.

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Strengths	Weaknesses
	A common response to gender training has been "this is all very interesting, but how do I use it?" One challenge is to make the training relevant and applicable in people's day-to-day work. Gender training has often been seen as a panacea for gender equality challenges. Many institutions (and projects) start their efforts with gender training, but then fail to establish other supportive mechanisms.

ii) Integration of gender perspective throughout all training provided

An additional strategy for building staff capacity to integrate a gender perspective into all their work can be to integrate a gender perspective into all training programmes. Several agencies have put this issue on their agenda but there are no examples of confirmed successes.

Strengths	Weaknesses
Where a gender perspective is integrated into mainstream courses, gender issues can be presented in a concrete and practical (as opposed to theoretical) form through the application of a gender lens to other processes and topics. Where gender equality issues are addressed in all topics for professional development, this approach demonstrates and reinforces the priority the Agency places on gender equality.	Leadership and coordination are required by gender advocates to ensure consistency of approach and avoid differing interpretations of the application of the gender equality policy Ensuring that gender inputs are not integrated as an "add on" and that opportunities are not missed as training modules are developed requires extensive logistical support and an adequate pool of experts for follow up. The tendency is often to add another module on gender analysis, rather than integrate it throughout the course. Trainers can be difficult to find.

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iii) Seminars and publications on gender equality issues:

This refers to a strategy of presenting seminars and publications that provide information, data and opportunity for discussions around the integration of gender equality issues.

Strengths	Weaknesses
If the topics and content of the seminars and publications are relevant to both the concepts and practical applications associated with gender equality, these can be effective vehicles to convey leading-edge information and revitalize the internal debates concerning the gender equality policy. Linking of gender equality issues to other current "hot" topics can assist the process of mainstreaming. Readily available current, interesting information and data is an important resource for all staff, as well as gender specialists: seminars can be opportunities for respected and credible experts/academics to bring, in concentrated form, leading-edge information and thinking on gender equality issues to staff with limited time or motivation to inform themselves on these topics; publications such as newsletters presenting project-based lessons learned, or commissioned research can be presented in an engaging format to promote circulation through the agency; videos have been successfully used to present alternative visual images of the potential for women's participation in programming in non-traditional ways, or to present women's own voices.	If information is not presented in an adequately accessible manner, little interest will be expressed in these forms of professional development. Ensuring that resources of this kind are relevant and accessible is time consuming and usually requires specialized skills (communications experts, editors, graphic designers) and corresponding resources. A reliance on voluntary "lunch-time" seminars can tend to reinforce the idea that gender equality is an optional theme, only to be pursued by those interested in it.

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5. *Internal networks/committees*

Various types of internal networks and committees have been established by development cooperation agencies to facilitate the exchange of information and provide continuing momentum for policy implementation.

i) Focal points

Strengths	Weaknesses
A system of staff members acting as "focal points" can facilitate communication and the exchange of information. Focal points can be "communications" facilitators without being "gender equality experts." Focal points can provide information to gender specialists as well. They can report on how different tools are being used in their section or what difficulties staff are encountering.	Focal points are often unclear on their roles and responsibilities. Staff are rarely allocated additional time to fulfil this responsibility and thus it is often left undone. Focal points are often chosen for their interest in the theme, rather than their strategic position in the organization; on the other hand, a focal point chosen strictly on the basis of strategic position may not have the personal interest to pursue these responsibilities.

ii) Formal committees

Formal committees such as senior management committees to provide leadership for the Agency on gender equality issues and monitor progress in implementation.

Strengths	Weaknesses
A senior management steering committee can reinforce the priority placed on this issue, provide overall leadership and create incentives through recognition of good performance. This type of committee can also function as a monitoring mechanism -- if it holds regular meeting and requests regular reports.	If the committee's mandate is weak or if there is little commitment from members reflected in their other responsibilities the credibility of the committee may be undermined. If the credibility of the committee is low, reporting requirements from the Agency will become burdensome, and the related tasks counter-productive to the promotion and/or monitoring of gender equality integration. Quite often the unit responsible for gender equality issues will function as the "secretariat" for this committee. This can be a time-consuming role.

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iii) Informal networks

Informal networks can develop spontaneously based on discussions of gender equality issues within the Agency and of programming work carried out by staff. Institutional support, when provided, can nurture a network such that it develops into a resource for the implementation of the gender equality policy.

Strengths	Weaknesses
The energy and drive of staff can be an important force in supporting gender equality initiatives. These networks offer support and solidarity for their members. People can feel less alone. These networks can provide good forums for sharing lessons learned and promoting institutional learning.	Participants in informal networks often lack institutional support and resources for their efforts. (For example, meetings are held on lunch hours.) These networks often have difficulty reaching out to people who have not been convinced of the importance of this issue. The existence of an informal network may forestall official recognition of the need for more formal structures. Tensions can develop between people who have the formal responsibility for gender equality in their job description and those who do not and work on the issue in their "spare time."

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6. *External advisory or consultative groups:*

A group outside the Agency can provide another perspective on policy approaches, priorities, or strategies, or on particular technical issues. The particular type of contribution depends, of course, on the role defined for the group and the manner in which it is constituted.

Strengths	Weaknesses
These groups can offer important contributions: - share domestic experiences with gender equality programming; - provide advice on progress achieved in implementation of the policy; - encourage interest from domestic constituency in gender-sensitive overseas development cooperation; - form a domestic political lobby in support of gender equality measures.	Where the role and function of such advisory groups are not clearly defined, or members not selected according to the role they are expected to play, the result can be frustration on all sides. An organization has to have a structure to incorporate the contributions of this group. These committees/advisory groups will require resources.

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7. *Tools to assist in implementation*

A large range of tools has been developed to assist staff with policy implementation. These include: generic and sectoral guidelines, checklists, sample terms of reference (TORS), issue summaries etc. This section makes general comments on the strengths and weaknesses of such tools and more specific comments on one tool - country gender strategies.

i) General comments

Strengths	Weaknesses
Where tools are easily accessible, simple to use and relevant to the context of the work the user carries out, they can assist staff who are willing to use them to identify and act on gender issues.	If staff are unaware of the existence of particular tools or how to use them, the investment required for their design will not be effective. A communication strategy should be developed for each tool as it is prepared. While staff continue to call for more guidelines, directives etc. and more concrete "how-to" materials, such materials are often rejected for being insufficiently specific, practical or immediately applicable. The failure to use those materials is not necessarily attributable to their quality, but to resistance from staff to supply the intellectual and professional effort required for the task of gender integration. The use of generic tools, sample texts and checklists alone cannot ensure that a gender perspective has been integrated into project or programme activities. These can only be a support to the process of thinking through an issue, and a stimulus to addressing it within the specifics of a particular region or sector. Given the resources and staff investment necessary to increasing the number of gender materials, this may be less effective than revising the key documents that staff use to guide their day-to-day work.

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ii) Country gender strategies

As an example of a tool, several agencies have developed specific strategies for the integration of a gender perspective at the country programme level. Such strategies can cover various topics, including for example:

- an outline of priority areas for action/promotion of gender equality for specific country circumstances
- links into priority areas within the planning framework of that country
- gender-equality related objectives to which all sectoral programming can contribute
- anticipated results and impacts from strategic steps provided in the objectives
- indicators (based on base-line data gathered for the country-level gender analysis) to guide and monitor programming through specific time frame
- an outline of resources required to carry out the strategy that will link programming with objectives.

Strengths	Weaknesses
The gathering of good data, and the preparation of sound analysis based on the specifics of a particular country or region, can provide a useful basis for programme planners, project designers and partner organizations to identify entry points for activities to promote gender equality. A country gender strategy can provide a basis for monitoring and adjustments in response to changes in overall environment and to specific impacts of programming (positive and negative). A country strategy can assist all staff in planning and allocating adequate resources to achieve overall planned results.	A gender strategy that is too conceptual for practical application at micro or project level can cause confusion or resistance (e.g., extensive use of exclusive jargon from gender experts). While the preparation of a separate country gender strategy can focus attention on opportunities and priorities with respect to gender issues, it can also have the result of decreasing the pressure to properly address the issues in the overall country strategy.

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8. *"Earmarked" funds for gender equality initiatives at agency or country level*

These are funds specifically set aside to finance additional activities in support of the gender equality policy.

Strengths	Weaknesses
These funds may support policy research, methodological development, innovative pilots, etc. at the agency or country level that would otherwise not be possible, or provide seed money to encourage developments or leverage funds in other divisions or programmes. This is a means of providing new knowledge and experience on gender equality issues and/or increasing the amount of Agency resources devoted to these issues. Specific budget allocations can demonstrate the commitment to the issue ("money talks"). Another type of earmarked funds is an allocation for travel funds specifically for gender specialists to facilitate access by field offices to gender specialists.	Without committed protection of these funds for incremental, innovative activities, the funds can be treated as a pot from which all gender-related initiatives can be financed and thus reducing allocations for such initiatives from mainstream project or programming sources.

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9. *Evaluations*

Strategies could be established requiring all evaluation terms of reference (TORs) to include gender issues, regardless of the stated project objectives.

Strengths	Weaknesses
Can provide a base for the Agency learning from experience where certain conditions are met: - TORs specify what Agency and partners want to learn regarding gender equality - expertise is allocated to the task - findings and lessons learned are communicated to other staff and partners.	There is little result where gender-equality related requirements are not specifically stated in terms relevant to the project. There is little result if no expertise is allocated to this function. There is continuing reluctance to assess projects in terms of broad Agency policy (rather than stated project objectives). These broader cross-cutting issues tend to be ignored or considered in a perfunctory fashion that adds little to Agency knowledge on the subject.

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CHALLENGES FOR FUTURE STRATEGIES

During the review of initiatives to date, it became clear that fundamental areas relating to the implementation of gender equality policies have been neglected. This list of "themes", which goes beyond tools or procedures, recognizes the political nature of both gender policies and institutions, and highlights crucial areas for institutional change.

Summary of Challenges

1. *Generating and demonstrating leadership.*
2. *Building intellectual capital on gender equality and development.*
3. *Improving "policy entrepreneurship".*
4. *Rewarding achievement and risk-taking.*
5. *Strengthening institutional learning.*
6. *Refocusing development on people and supporting participatory approaches.*
7. *Examining the link between the policies and strategies that promote the advancement of women within organizations and progress toward the implementation of gender equality policies.*

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Generating and demonstrating leadership.

A constant theme in recent evaluations and assessments of both WID and gender equality policies is the importance of both the commitment and the leadership of senior management. Staff respond to the priorities -- both implicit and explicit -- of an organization's leadership.

Two questions emerge: how can this commitment be stimulated and how does senior management demonstrate that commitment?

- Discussions with senior managers who are already strong advocates of a gender perspective could explore why they support gender equality objectives. What convinced them? Was it key arguments? Was it specific evidence? Was it contact with women from developing countries? Was it participation in grass-roots projects that promoted gender equality? Was it something from their personal life such as the consideration of the options and constraints that their daughters face? An understanding of what makes these individuals leaders and advocates can contribute to a strategy to bring others on board.

- Senior management must also be aware of the importance of their implicit as well as explicit messages to staff. It is not enough for someone to say every once in

awhile "gender equality is important to this organization." They have to demonstrate this importance in an ongoing fashion by, for example:

- making demands on staff for information, ideas, and progress reports on gender equality issues;
- providing recognition for staff for innovation or achievement related to gender equality goals;
- integrating gender equality in speeches and statements on a range of subjects and not reserving comments on this theme for specific occasions;
- allocating sufficient resources (human and financial);
- participating in discussions on gender equality issues: opening workshops, chairing panels, sponsoring discussions;
- providing moral support for staff working on gender equality issues -- both inside the organization and outside;
- supporting policy advocacy/dialogue on gender equality (for example, raising gender equality issues in discussions with politicians and representatives of other development cooperation organizations).

2. *Building intellectual capital on gender equality and development.*

Section II highlighted the importance of recognizing that work on gender issues requires professional skills, expertise and analytical clarity. It is important to build in-house capacity, as well as access external resources.

While external resources can provide specific inputs, an organization should emphasize the development of its institutional capacity. The focus of many capacity development initiatives to date has been general gender training for all staff. Short courses provided an introduction to the main issues and gave staff a common vocabulary to discuss gender equality issues. What is needed now, however, is the development of gender specialists at both the technical advisory level and the policy level. These staff must have in-depth knowledge of the field and an ability to communicate issues to their colleagues. Special training may be required in order to have current staff function in this type of position.

Success in mainstreaming has been observed when gender equality objectives, rationale and relevance have been "translated" into terms that are understandable to the people working on the programme or project. It is not enough for a staff person to say "gender should be integrated throughout this project," they should be able to say why and offer examples of what would be different about the project once a gender analysis has been done.

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3. *Improving "policy entrepreneurship".*

"Policy entrepreneurship" is a relatively recent term used by a growing number of analysts. For example in a recent UNRISD paper Razavi and Miller (1995) write:

> An important factor conditioning response is the presence of staff members willing and able to promote a new issue and equipped with skills ranging from the more technical and analytical, to brokering and bargaining with different actors to line up support.... WID/gender "entrepreneurs" have had to provide convincing justifications for the relevance of WID/gender to their organization's activities. Policy entrepreneurs are staff members who actively identify new issues and specialize in acquiring new knowledge about them.... The term entrepreneur is used to emphasize the importance of specialized knowledge and bargaining skills which the word advocacy may not necessarily convey.

This concept highlights the importance of investing in a gender function that is not only technical advisory support at the programme/project or sector level. There is a need for personnel with the knowledge, experience and credibility to provide leadership in policy and strategy development. They should have a clear sense of the organization's "politics" and know how to intervene strategically in agency process. This is a very different skill set than that required by technical advisors at the project level.

When these "policy entrepreneurs" are at the heart of the organization, they are positioned to influence early discussions on key policy issues such as macro-economics, poverty, good governance and institutional strengthening. By bringing a gender perspective to these issues while they are in the initial stages of consideration, the "tacking on" of a gender dimension at the end may be avoided. Instead of standing on the sidelines and repeating "don't forget gender, don't forget gender," policy entrepreneurs will be involved in key agency discussions, demonstrating in a concrete and articulate fashion why gender is an important dimension and how gender equality goals relate to the overall goals of the policy discussion. They will seek out allies and mobilize resources.

4. *Rewarding achievement and risk-taking.*

Work toward gender equality goals involves risk. There are no "tried and true" recipes to follow. There are also many vested interests that work against gender equality – at many different levels. It is important, therefore, that organizations develop mechanisms to acknowledge achievements and encourage risk-taking.

Bureaucracies tend to be conservative. It is quite rational for individual staff members to minimize their risks and repeat previous programme designs. These designs or models may not produce new results, but they stand a very good chance of avoiding major disasters.

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An exploration of risk-taking should consider the costs of taking a risk that fails. Even the most reasonable risk may not pay off and high penalties for failure will discourage even the most enthusiastic staff person.

Any measure to encourage experimentation must be grounded in the "organizational culture" of a specific organization. For example although the fast-food chain McDonalds has found posting the picture of the "employee of the month" a successful motivation mechanism, it is unlikely that this would work in development cooperation organizations. That said, possible options to consider include:

- sabbatical/study leaves earned by effort and on merit -- findings could be presented to the agency and even published;
- employees who take risks could be recognized through promotion;
- awards to attend conferences or short courses outside the agency;
- periodic internal seminars sponsored by senior management in which staff present specific initiatives (senior management sponsorship is crucial); and
- an annual publication describing gender equality achievements with special recognition going to the staff responsible.

5. *Strengthening institutional learning.*

Although there is general agreement on the importance of "institutional learning," there are still many factors that inhibit this process:

- ongoing staff reassignments mean that few staff follow a project or initiative through its entire "life" and there are few people able to reflect on the consequences of choices made at different moments;
- there is a general reluctance to highlight failures and negative experiences which inhibits constructive investigation of what can be learned from the experience; and
- high workload demands reduce the time and energy available for reflection.

Institutional learning related to gender equality issues is further complicated by the following factors:

- the delegation of gender responsibilities to consultants or locally-engaged staff who are not in the position to "recycle" knowledge through an organization;
- weak monitoring mechanisms (there is often little attention paid to what is relevant to monitor);
- a weak link between information gathered (and lessons learned) at the project level and policy and programme planning processes. (Ideally, there should be a complementary relationship among project/programme implementation, policy making and general planning processes. However, the exchange between people involved in these different activities is often limited. There is

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no framework to assess what information is important and few processes to close the feedback loop); and

- the tendency of evaluations to focus on project management and disbursement issues rather than on human aspects (this parallels the emphasis on inputs and short-term outputs rather than effects and impacts).

Some agencies have commissioned studies aimed at drawing lessons from their experiences. The next challenge will be the communication of these lessons to staff, consultants and other involved in programme implementation so that they can learn from these experiences.

Refocusing development on people and supporting participatory approaches.

In recent years, efforts to bring a gender perspective to projects and programmes have highlighted the fact that many development initiatives do not have people (men and women) and people's needs as their primary concerns. All too often technical concerns dominate: the number of water pumps installed, the number of condoms distributed, the number of electric outlets established. While these aspects may be easy to measure, their relationship to improved human development is not always straightforward.

Examining the link between the policies and strategies that promote the advancement of women within organizations and progress toward the implementation of gender equality/equity policies.

Throughout the 1980s, many organizations deliberately kept "women and development" policies and structures separate from programs to promote women within the organization's structure. Attention to "gender issues" was presented as a professional responsibility and advocates were careful to stress that the incorporation of a gender perspective should be part of "good development practice."

Although this approach has strong merits, it may be time to re-examine the total separation of these two themes. One hypothesis is in order for the outputs of an organization to change (ie. a stronger promotion of women's equality), the organization itself has to change.

There is no proof that increasing the number of women inside organizations will automatically move an organization towards a more active pursuit of gender equality goals. On the other hand, to date, the vast majority of gender equality/equity advocates have been women. It has been women who have mobilized resources and put pressure (both internal and external) on development cooperation agencies to support gender equality.

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CONCLUSION

The implementation of gender equality action plans that implicitly rest on institutional change has proven to be stubbornly difficult. Organizations have been better at statements of intent than specific movement toward implementation. At one level, this should not surprise – gender equality goals challenge privilege, ways of working, structures and established precedence.

In the development of this "think piece," several observations struck the authors:

- Several key areas for success of actions plans remain rather "undeveloped." Although issues such as leadership, accountability and institutional learning are often mentioned, there have been few specific strategies to strengthen institutions in these areas as they relate to gender equality.

- Gender equality plans have both a technical and a political dimension. There are technical issues (data collection, the integration of a gender perspective in different areas, data analysis...) and there are political issues (the battle to convince sceptics that this is important, attempts to secure resources...). Many organizations have focused on the technical side, providing training and developing tools. They have not always acknowledged that the obstacles to improved work in this area may not always be technical. Opposition is often more difficult to define and, in turn, more difficult to deal with. The issue of who has supported gender equality efforts and why has not been fully explored. Perhaps the time has come to look a little closer at this issue.

- There is a need to open up discussions on gender equality policies and action plans. Cross fertilization from other fields could offer useful insights. Do we know enough about bureaucracies, how they operate and how they change? What can be learned from business management and organizational development theories? Are there lessons from other cross-cutting themes such as the environment?

- Do we know the experiences of our own organizations well enough? What has produced success in the past and how can these experiences be repeated and multiplied? Have organizations taken seriously the rhetoric about becoming "learning organizations"?

- Monitoring change is an important, yet elusive, activity. Organizational cultures are rarely static. They respond to changing external and internal circumstances. Monitoring technical changes can be relatively effectively with sound planning and follow-up. Yet changing attitudes are more difficult to track.

- Finally, although some generalizations are possible across organizations, each agency has its own culture and operating principles. Lessons can be drawn from the experience of others, but careful analysis is required before they are applied to another institution. Opportunities for change exist – but they are not always the same for each agency nor do they exist forever.

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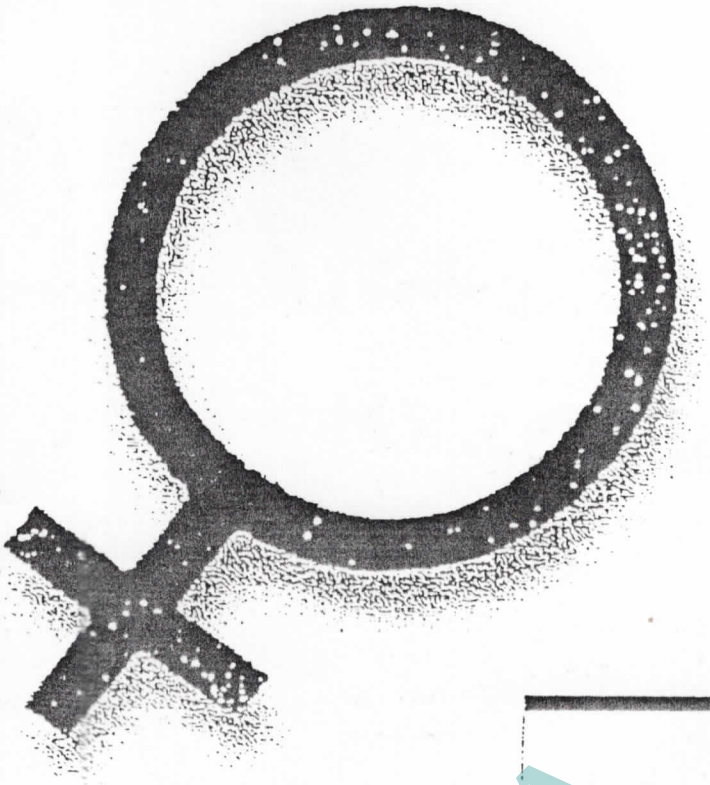
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gender guidelines for donor-funded projects

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Glossary of key terms

Biological sex

The biological differences between women and men (adjectives, *female* and *male*).

Gender

The socially constructed roles and responsibilities of women and men (*feminine* and *masculine*). *Gender* also includes expectations about characteristics, aptitudes and likely behaviours of women and men. These roles and expectations vary across cultures and societies.

Gender relations

Power relations between men and women in a range of practices and ideologies, including the division of labour, roles and resources, and the ascribing to men and women of different abilities, attitudes and personality traits.

Gender-disaggregated statistics

The subdivision of statistical information into separate categories for women and men. For example, the 1990 figure for combined first- and second-level school enrolment in India is sixty-eight per cent. If we gender-disaggregate this figure we see that the boys' combined school enrolment ratio is seventy-nine per cent whereas the figure for girls is fifty-five per cent. Disaggregating statistics reveals the status of women in terms of their education, health and income as well as how far they really participate in the economy. Project planners need to base their assumptions on gender-disaggregated data or the bias of a project tends to be towards men.

Gender and Development (GAD)

This emphasizes the relationships between women and men, usually characterized by inequality. Although the focus is on the situation of women as the subordinate gender, both men and women are responsible for bringing about change. If men are not involved in projects from the start, they may later take over project benefits accruing to women.

The term gender and development (GAD) is widely used to refer to development projects, policies and programmes throughout the developing world. However, gender analysis should not be limited to projects in these regions. Gender analysis is also crucial for projects in transitional economies, e.g. to assess the impact on women and men of a civil service reform project.

Gender, work and incomes

Women everywhere in the world earn less than men. In many regions, women tend to be concentrated in low-productivity subsistence agriculture and informal sector work, with less access than men to credit, extension services or technology. Women often work longer hours than men since they combine income-earning activities and/or food production with childcare, domestic work and fuel and water collection.

Gender equity

Moving beyond a focus on equal treatment, the concept of gender equity highlights equality of outputs or results. It calls for the differential treatment of women in order to end inequality and foster autonomy. Thus, special measures for women (e.g. women-specific projects) are often required. (For an example, see 'Stakeholder analysis', section B4.3.)

Gender roles

In general, women have to balance more roles and responsibilities than men, without commensurate resources and decision-making power. Gender analysis and planning recognize that in most societies women and men are involved in reproductive, productive, community managing and constituency-based politics activities.

- Reproductive role: Child bearing, daily child rearing and domestic tasks primarily done by women, including the reproduction of the labour force and social reproduction.
- Productive role: Work done for pay in cash or kind, it includes market production with an exchange value, and subsistence or home production with actual use value and potential exchange value. For women in agricultural production, this includes work as independent farmers, wives and waged workers.
- Community managing role: Activities undertaken mostly by women, but also by men, at the community level. Examples include water provision, health-care and education. This is voluntary, unpaid work.
- Constituency-based politics role: Political and decision-making activities undertaken at community, local, national and/or international levels on behalf of interest-based groups. In many contexts, except in women's organizations or in organizations promoting the interests of women, men tend to hold leadership positions.

Gender division of labour

The nature and extent of men's and women's involvement in reproductive, productive, community managing and constituency-based politics roles reflects the gender division of labour in a particular place at a particular time.

Gender differentials in access to and control over resources

Women in many contexts, particularly in low-income groups, tend to have less access to skills, assets and productive resources than men. In many contexts, women do not have the right to own and inherit land. Where they do have access, e.g. to land, they may not have decision-making power over these resources.

Understanding gender roles and resources in a particular project context forms the core of gender analysis. It provides an effective basis for planning project activities and the allocation of resources within projects, and increases understanding of who is likely to participate in and benefit from particular project inputs such as training opportunities.

Practical gender needs arising out of different activities and roles

Women and men have differing 'gender needs'. Practical gender needs are what men and women need in order to perform their current roles more easily, effectively and efficiently. They are often concerned with inadequacies in living conditions, employment, water provision, health care and so on. Projects can be designed to meet the practical gender needs of both men and women without necessarily changing their relative position in society. A UK example would be food deliveries to the home which make it easier for a woman to undertake the tasks she currently performs in the household. In Ghana, a project to meet women's practical gender needs could introduce food-processing technology to save time on everyday tasks customarily

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A1 Gender is good for business

Gender is a demonstrated priority for the donors who form the Council's major clients (see section A3). Like other organizations which aim to follow good development practice, DATS needs to treat gender as a serious issue to ensure successful project outcomes in all sectors. Attention to gender concerns in a project proposal will enhance its credibility by demonstrating our awareness of, and commitment to, an issue that concerns most major development agencies and DATS clients.

The high profile taken by the Council worldwide in the run-up to the UN Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing 1995, has provided us with a perceived comparative advantage as regards gender. We should build on this by using examples of our experience in gender work (both DATS and GIA) in project proposals, and by showing how gender issues can be effectively addressed; and also, by pursuing the increasing number of gender-specific projects which are coming on-line in the aftermath of the Fourth World Conference on Women. For example, in September 1996, DATS, in partnership with the Institute of Social Studies, The Hague, won a contract with the European Commission to deliver gender-trainer training and gender training to EC delegation staff in countries in sub-Saharan Africa.

The gender team in UK Partnerships are always willing to provide advice and examples of successful gender-integrated work.

In her report, Dr Emma Hooper states that several DATS staff expressed concern that some clients might be alienated by overt discussion of gender in a proposal, if this has not been highlighted in the invitation to bid. However, she argues that it is the responsibility of an agency involved in the management and implementation of development to influence the client in a responsible, sensitive way, by demonstrating the potential benefits to the project from including gender considerations (see section A.2). As with all aspects of proposal writing, this advice must be used in a way which is appropriate to the client and the context.

A2 Gender is good development practice

Bilateral and multilateral funding agencies have recognized that by neglecting gender issues, projects simply do not achieve the fullest possible economic and social returns on inputs, while attention to gender almost always leads to improved project performance.

Project and development goals cannot be achieved without a clear understanding of the target group involved. Many development failures can be traced to assumptions that project beneficiaries were a homogeneous group, rather than men and women doing different types of work, with different needs and interests.

The rationale for a consideration of gender issues in development projects is threefold:

- economic efficiency
- effective development
- equity

Economic efficiency

There is increasing evidence that a focus on gender equity and gender-sensitive planning makes sense from an economic efficiency perspective. Multilateral development agencies such as the World Bank (see section A.3.3) recognize that investing in gender issues is central to sustainable development. Seventy per cent of the world's poor are women. Investing in women leads to lasting economic growth, improved family welfare, a reduction in poverty and a more equitable distribution of the socio-economic benefits of development.

Effective development

Gender analysis is crucial to effective development practice. Project and development goals cannot be achieved without a clear understanding of the project's target group. Knowing who does what work and documenting women's and men's roles are thus essential components of project design and implementation. Investing in women helps to ensure sustainability, as women are central in passing on project benefits to others.

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A3 The British Council and donor policies on gender

The integration of gender into all DATS and GIA projects is British Council policy. It also plays a very prominent role in the policy and practice of major development agencies and DATS clients. The great majority of development agencies have stated that GAD issues form an integral part of good development policy and practice, alongside poverty alleviation and environmental conservation. Gradually agencies are building into their appraisal systems criteria for measuring how much gender planning there has been during the tender preparation process as well as how much is written into the proposals themselves. If we fail to deliver on gender, we will lose business.

A3.1 The British Council

The British Council Board approved a gender policy statement in March 1996. The policy represents an acknowledgement of the importance of gender at the highest level of policy-making in the Council.

The policy statement runs as follows:

> The British Council works to promote the status of women and their participation in the political, social and economic life of their societies, by providing access to information, education and training. It is our aim to incorporate the principles of gender equality into all our grant-funded, educational enterprises and development work, while ensuring that the Council's own personnel, training and monitoring policies maintain the same commitment.

Box 2

Implementing the Council's gender policy: DATS systems at home and overseas

Emma Hooper comments in her report that DATS staff see the performance management system as a key management tool for the institutionalization of gender considerations in Council work. She recommends that:

- all DATS staff should be strongly encouraged to write gender-related objectives into their own personal development plans and amend job descriptions to incorporate gender
- an assessment of gender awareness in project work should form part of a suitability assessment for Council staff taking up DATS posts both in the UK and overseas
- gender should be incorporated as a criterion of the peer-review process for project proposals.

A3.2 The Overseas Development Administration (ODA)

The ODA's mission statement is as follows:

> ODA's purpose is to improve the quality of life in poorer countries by contributing to sustainable development and reducing poverty and suffering.

The ODA states four aims:

- to encourage sound development policies, efficient markets and good government
- to help people achieve better education and health, and to widen opportunities, particularly for women
- to enhance productive capacity and to conserve the environment
- to promote international policies for sustainable development and enhance the effectiveness of multilateral development institutions.

The ODA's Social Development Department is responsible for ensuring that all new project proposals are gender-integrated and that the ODA undertakes gender-sensitive implementation, monitoring and evaluation of all projects. The range of systems for putting ODA's gender policy into practice include gender markings under the Policy Information Marker System (PIMS), gender written into Terms of Reference (TORs), logframes, etc. for implementation, monitoring and evaluation; gender training for ODA staff, consultants and counterparts; and gender-impact guidelines.

The ODA's follow-up plan to the UN Fourth World Conference on Women includes among its outputs:

> New policy initiatives in response to priorities of the Beijing Platform for Action including:

- institutional development and capacity building for national machineries (government structures established to promote women's interests)
- improvement of data collection and statistics to better measure women's contribution to the economy
- legal frameworks for gender equality
- promotion of women's participation in government and politics
- direct support to civil society institutions concerned with promotion of gender equality.

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Summary

nder concerns should be appropriately addressed at all ges of the project cycle, in design and planning; plementation; monitoring and evaluation, within the rall project context and taking into account explicit nt requirements. Gender is the concern of all staff olved in projects, though you may need to bring in der expertise during different stages of project ning, implementation and evaluation to ensure that der concerns are properly addressed.

n actions at each main stage are:

gn and planning

der analysis of current project context

nsultation with women

ntification of ways to promote women's participation.

Implementation and monitoring

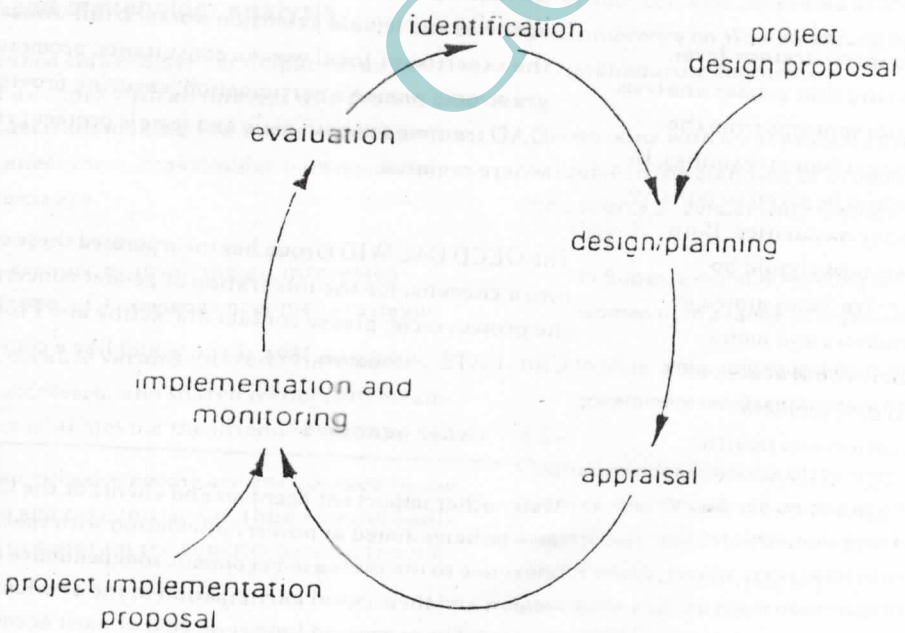
- enable women's participation
- undertake measures to strengthen women's participation even further
- ensure project benefits reach women as well as men
- review implementation using gender criteria derived from gender analysis at design phase and from logframe
- feed back into project implementation.

Evaluation

- review whether project has met women's practical and strategic gender needs.

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Simple project cycle



- analysis of differences and disparities between women and men must be a key criterion for assessing the goals and results of development policies and interventions
- development co-operation must encourage and support changes in attitudes, structures and mechanisms at political, legal, community and household level in order to reduce gender inequalities and in particular
  - political power sharing and full and equal participation at all levels
  - economic empowerment and equal access to and control over economic resources must be strengthened
  - equal access to and control over social development opportunities must be fostered.

The resolution goes on to outline means for ensuring that all EU development projects are gender integrated. In the areas of policy formulation and policy dialogue the resolution states:

> The formulation of all development policies should explicitly take into account the general principles for gender-sensitive development co-operation. In particular, macro-economic policies such as structural adjustment should properly take into account the indications coming from micro- and meso-level analysis, and the interdependence between women's and men's roles both in production and in the reproduction and maintenance of human resources.

The resolution goes on to focus on the planning and negotiation of development interventions:

> At project, programme and country-strategy level, external assistance should ensure that gender analysis will orient all development interventions from the planning to the evaluation phase (mainstreaming). In addition, special attention should be given to positive actions addressing major gender disparities. Both mainstreaming and positive actions should be considered as complementary strategies aimed at enabling the full release of women's and men's development potential and their equal access to economic, political and social development opportunities, including education and health

A3.5 The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)

The OECD's Development Assistance Committee (DAC) has a specific expert group on WID, known informally as OECD's DAC WID Group. The ODA plays a major part in influencing policy of the DAC WID group. The group has drawn up some of the best criteria to ensure that women's interests are considered in measuring project inputs. The criteria stipulate that:

- Women participating in a project should be consulted in its design.
- A project document should make it clear how this consultation will take place. Methods for consultation might include working with women's groups.
- Barriers to women's participation must be stated in the project document and measures to overcome these barriers explicitly outlined. Methods might include a situation analysis, identification of factors causing barriers, and the planning and implementation of measures to overcome barriers.
- Women beneficiaries must be active participants during project implementation; project documents are to indicate clearly how women will be involved in project implementation. Methods can include participation as technical agents, participants in training courses, use of women trainers and instructors.
- GAD expertise must be utilized throughout the project cycle to ensure the full participation of women; project documents should state clearly how this expertise and identified GAD factors will be applied. Methods might include having women on the staff of local implementing agencies and female extension workers; full utilization of the expertise of local women consultants; promotion of grassroots women's participation; ensuring provision of GAD training for both male and female project personnel where required.

The OECD DAC WID Group has incorporated these criteria into a checklist for the integration of gender concerns into the project cycle; please contact Marketing and Production Unit, DATS, extension 7894, if you would like a copy.

A3.6 Other agencies

Many other important agencies and clients of the Council have policies aimed at poverty alleviation with special reference to the increased economic independence of women and their equal participation in the development process. The expressed long-term goal of most agencies in supporting women is to increase the efficiency and sustainability of development programmes and projects.

CCRDA

B2.1 Project design

It is easier and more effective to integrate gender issues early in the design and planning process than to try and incorporate them in an ad hoc way at later stages. Gender-related problems which reduce project effectiveness are more likely to be minimized if they have been taken into account at the design stage. Similarly, gender equity is more likely to be promoted if a clear strategy, with verifiable indicators, is formulated from the start.

Gender should form part of the terms of reference for all project design teams. Teams should:

- consider gender alongside other questions in the set of issues to be addressed
- ensure the participation of women stakeholders (see section B2.2)
- specify what could be done to ensure the success of the project by including gender (see also section A3.2 for CIDA's reinforcement of this approach)
- specifically seek out gender-disaggregated information when collecting information or to inform the design of a project. Over the last five to ten years there has been a great surge in the publication of gender-disaggregated data. The *UNDP Human Development Report* and the UN's *The World's Women: trends and statistics*, both published annually, are excellent sources of up-to-date gender-disaggregated information.

B2.2 Gender and stakeholder analysis

CIDA has defined stakeholder participation as the process whereby all those with an interest in a project play an active role in decision-making and in the consequent activities which affect them. Stakeholder participation means that projects are:

- more efficient, because by involving all interested parties, a wider pool of knowledge becomes available
- more effective, because various interests have been identified and addressed, and shared ownership means a greater chance of achieving the intended outputs
- more sustainable, because people are encouraged to use their knowledge and take initiatives, thus gaining skills and confidence to maintain the benefits beyond the life of the project.

Women usually form more than fifty per cent of a country's population, reflecting their longer life expectancy in most countries (other than China and parts of South Asia). This should be borne in mind when identifying stakeholders in a project.

It is often essential to access gender-disaggregated statistics in the design and planning phase of a project. Projects need to go beyond terms such as 'farmers', 'communities', 'people' and 'staff', and state explicitly whether women and men farmers, female-headed households and men and women stakeholders are to be included.

If the makeup of a stakeholder project-planning workshop is fifty per cent female, it is not adequate simply to measure their attendance at the workshop as evidence of a 'gender-equitable' approach. Special measures may be needed to ensure that women participate as fully as men: for example, the project-planning team may wish to set up women-only discussion groups to feed back women's interests and gender needs more fully into the stakeholder analysis.

Many organizations can assist in providing background gender information to teams planning a stakeholder analysis, for example:

- women's networks in-country
- national women's bureaux, community organizations and professional associations
- NGO networks in-country
- donor GAD (or WID) networks (many of which were established or enhanced as a result of the UN Fourth World Conference on Women and its preparatory activities)
- electronic mail networks on gender
- gender contacts generated at the UN Fourth World Conference on Women and its preparatory process in neighbouring countries.

Networking with local women's groups can be particularly valuable in the planning of projects, providing access to a rich source of gender information. For example:

> In Sudan, a monthly meeting is held at the Council for women from a range of organizations.
>
> In Chile, a monthly round-table meeting between NGO and government representatives is held at the Council.

Council gender contacts often have excellent networks in-country who can advise on the gender division of labour in a particular context, women's practical and strategic gender needs, recent achievements in the local women's movement and the main operational constraints in a particular sector.

The Council's gender contacts are staff working in our overseas offices who have a special interest in and

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B3 Development of management proposals

B3.1 Capability statements

Every capability statement prepared by DATS should include reference to the Council's gender capability at appropriate points. This should not just be a paragraph on gender, which can look like paying lip-service to a concept to which we are not committed.

The Council's general capability statement in governance is an example of good practice:

- The 'British Council's experience in governance' section refers to the Council's gender strategy to the year 2000 and includes examples of gender and governance activities such as Government NGO co-operation; reduction of violence against women; management and business skills training for women; equal opportunities; and reduction of gender stereotyping in the media.
- A table summarizing governance issues and corresponding British Council strengths highlights the importance of full participation of women as voters, elected representatives, decision-makers and heads of household, and confirms the Council's in-house capacities thus: 'Strong headquarters gender team and network of 200 gender contacts overseas facilitates planning of gender-sensitive activities.'
- Gender is highlighted in the section 'British Council access to resources relevant to governance'.
- An overview of Lead Consultant Gender's track record is given under 'Personnel'.
- The summary of country programme activities includes a range of examples of gender and good governance activities, including local support to the ODA project *Women in Public Life* in Ghana and links in women's legal rights between Bangladesh and the UK.

The gender team in UK Partnerships can advise on the incorporation of gender concerns and examples of GAD activity into capability statements.

B3.2 Proposal writing

Standard practice on receipt of an Invitation to Bid, or Terms of Reference for the development of a proposal, is for the project team to respond to a checklist of questions. Even where the Invitation to Bid does not mention gender, writers should specify what can be done to ensure the success of the project by including gender (see section A3.2 for ODA's reinforcement of this approach).

The aim of the proposal in this context is to provide an indication:

- that the Council has the capacity to address gender considerations
- of how it proposes to do so in a given project context
- that the importance of the equity and efficiency arguments for gender are recognized (even where the client does not mention them) and the importance of stakeholder participation including women stakeholders.

In a proposal, the Council should aim to demonstrate an understanding of gender roles and the gender division of labour; [illegible] of how women's practical needs and strategic interests can be integrated into the project's goal, purpose, inputs, outputs, verifiable indicators, means of verification and important assumptions.

It is important to determine whether the local institutions involved are aware of the benefits of women's participation. Where this awareness does not exist, it will need to be generated through demonstration of potential benefits to the client. Civil service or public sector reform projects, for example, can be strengthened by the inclusion of support for implementing sound personnel and equal opportunities policies. Policies based on judging individuals by merit contribute to the efficiency of the organization. The introduction of training for all employees and managers will demonstrate the existence of prejudice and the steps needed to eradicate it.

Project proposals should demonstrate real analysis of the gender issues involved. There should be integral treatment of gender questions throughout the proposal, following the checklist of questions outlined in Box 3. The gender team in UK Partnerships can help to incorporate gender into proposals.

B3.3 The logframe

When designing a project or commenting on a client's logical framework (logframe) in a proposal, it is essential to ensure that the goal, purpose, outputs, inputs, verifiable indicators, means of verification and assumptions specified in the logframe have taken gender into account. The checklist in Box 3 can also be used when designing the logframe.

Under 'means of verification' you need to establish what gender-disaggregated information is already collected by project institutions. Where this is not routinely collected, a project component should focus on the development of systems to collect gender-disaggregated statistics, either by

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B4 Implementation and monitoring stages

B4.1 Project implementation

The whole project team should aim for gender-sensitive project implementation, whatever the project sector. Issues to bear in mind throughout project implementation include:

- gender roles of male and female stakeholders
- gender needs of male and female stakeholders
- the gender division of labour and whether the project has any impact on this.

Checklist for ensuring and measuring gender-sensitive project implementation

- Is the project providing measurable benefits for women?
- Do women make up at least fifty per cent of direct participants and stakeholders?
- Does the project provide the means to reach women facing particular constraints?
- Is the project taking measures to increase the number of women as decision-makers?
- Has there been any increase in women's workload since the start of the project?
- Has the project been able to increase the number of women in project implementation and management roles at all levels?
- Could women contribute better to project decision-making if they received training in how better to participate?
- Is the project successful in identifying barriers to women's participation in the project and acting to overcome these?
- Is the project considering the differential impact of project activities on women and men, and identifying strategies to narrow any gaps?
- Is gender-disaggregated data of sufficient quantity and quality being collected?
- Are the project's gender targets realistic and measurable?
- Are women's organizations and networks sufficiently involved in the project?
- Would any stakeholders benefit from gender training?
- Are equal numbers of women and men receiving training opportunities?

Recruitment of project staff and consultants

Basic competence in gender analysis and planning should be one of the selection criteria for project staff and consultants. This can be assessed by demonstrated ability to address gender issues through examples of past work; participation in gender-training activities; and evidence of having taken a relevant development course, if this is combined with relevant practice. Where a particular staff member or consultant is clearly the best person for the job but has no relevant experience in gender, a short course in gender analysis and planning should be considered before the staff member takes up post. It may be possible to develop local capacity to provide gender training. The contract to provide gender training for EC staff in sub-Saharan Africa (see section A1) involves the training of local trainers who then participate in training EC staff.

The orientation phase of all project staff should include sessions on gender in the UK for staff or consultants going out to post, and in-country for local counterparts. Training in gender issues should be considered even in sectors where it is felt to be 'not relevant'.

UK staff, consultants and counterparts can work together to develop a 'gender strategy' for their project, taking forward gender-sensitive indicators specified in the logframe. Wherever possible, consultancy teams should include a gender specialist. Such expertise is often available in-country. If not, then the UK has some of the best consultants in gender analysis and planning anywhere in the world. Gender expertise is not exclusively the domain of women, but of women and men trained in gender analysis and planning in a specific sector.

Writing consultants' TORs and in-country briefing

Gender should routinely form a component of consultants' TORs, even in projects which, at first sight, do not appear to have a potential gender impact. This does not mean adding a final clause including gender as an add-on. Considerable thought should be given to incorporating gender throughout the TORs. This will help to ensure that monitoring of consultants' performance includes attention to gender concerns in project implementation.

Where possible, consultants' briefings should include an overview of gender concerns in the particular sector and country or region where they are working. Individual countries or regions might consider developing a booklet on gender to be available for all consultants' use (particularly team leaders). British Council Kenya has commissioned the production of an excellent document, *Gender Guidelines for Consultants Visiting the East African Region*, specifically for this purpose. Contact British Council Kenya for further details.

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WID-focused	Gender-focused
Improve enrolment in and quality of primary education in Sundia with specific emphasis on girls	Improve enrolment in and quality of primary education in Sundia with a specific focus on increasing enrolment of girls in relation to boys, thereby reducing the gender gap in primary school education in Sundia
Improved enrolment in primary education, and quality of teaching and learning, as measured by the increase in girls' enrolment in government schools from 35% (1996) to 65% (2000)	Improved enrolment in primary education, and quality of teaching and learning, as measured by the increase in girls' enrolment in government schools from 35% (1996) to 65% (2000), compared with boys' enrolment anticipated to remain steady at 81%
Improved, sustained management of primary education, human and financial resources, with particular reference to girls' enrolment and recruitment of female teachers and headteachers	Improved, sustained management of primary education, human and financial resources, with particular reference to increasing girls' enrolment as a percentage of boys and number of female teachers and headteachers compared to male
Evidence of self-generated management improvement by officials of the Education Department by 2000 with particular focus on including impact on girls in educational planning	Evidence of self-generated management improvement by officials of the Education Department by 2000. Education Department Managers demonstrate capacity to design and implement gender-sensitive planning initiatives by the year 2,000. Increased participation by female staff on decision-making committees in Department of Education and in primary schools throughout Sundia.
Improved project planning and implementation with a particular focus on differential project impact on girls and women	Improved project planning and implementation. Improved gender planning skills amongst senior, middle and senior management.
Staffing strategy developed with particular focus on enhanced effectiveness of female staff currently on payroll, by December 1997	Staffing strategy developed to create equal opportunities for female and male staff, responding to constraints identified by staff by December 1997 All Senior Management participate in gender-planning training by December 1997, middle management by September 1998 and junior management by February 1999 Senior Management commission gender disaggregated research to enable Department of Education to respond to the needs of female students and education service by April 1997
Training materials written, trialled (with particular emphasis on feedback from female students) and functional by June 1997	Training materials written with 2 x consultancy by local gender specialist. Trialled and functional by June 1997.
Management courses conducted for all senior educational officers with positive targets to include women on courses	Management courses conducted for all senior education officers including course component in gender awareness and planning. Positive targets to include women on courses.
Training for counterpart officers to include assertiveness training for female counterparts	Training for counterpart officers to include seminars on gender awareness and planning plus follow-up training identified by female counterparts to enhance their effectiveness 2 x 12 months UK fellowship training in gender and education to support gender analytical and mainstreaming skills. One female and one male staff member to be nominated by Education Department
Management training impact evaluation study with particular focus on impact on female staff	Management training impact evaluation study including evaluation of gender planning skills and their application to project implementation

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C1 Education

- Which groups lack access to the level of education proposed for support?
- What is the percentage of project stakeholders who are women or girls? What is the percentage of project beneficiaries?
- Is the data available to the project on girls' and boys' enrolment, participation, retention and progression rates? If not, how can the project address this? (Refer to availability of data in the proposal.)
- How can the project address gender gaps, e.g. in school or training enrolment, participation or drop-out rates?
- Are female drop-out rates related to teenage pregnancy, number of children, marital status?
- Are there structural constraints which restrict girls' access? (e.g. more secondary places available for boys; number of women in positions of decision-making authority in the educational environment).
- Is payment of school fees a constraint on girls' access? How can the project address this?
- How can participation by girls and women be enhanced: childcare arrangements, timing of classes, materials of relevance to women's lives, presence of women facilitators and supervisors?
- Could the project increase girls' and women's access through funding a specific access or equality component? (e.g. scholarships for poor girls, incentives to teachers, gender component in teacher training).
- Does increasing girls' access to education involve any opportunity costs, i.e. in girls' labour? If so, how can the project take account of this?
- Are the educational prerequisites for participation in the project (e.g. literacy) realistic for women?
- How does the project aim to affect women's livelihoods: either directly (skill or knowledge provision); or indirectly (teacher training or equipment provision)?
- What is the relevance of the curriculum to the life-skill needs of women?
- Are curriculum, course and publicity materials gender-sensitive or do they inadvertently target and advantage boys and men?
- What types of skills training are women most frequently given? What types of skills training are men most frequently given? Are the returns to both comparable?
- Do systems of information distribution and publicity for the project reach women, i.e. are verbal rather than written methods used? Does project information, e.g. on opportunities for basic education target mothers or male heads of households?
- Is the training location accessible by public transport? Are co-operative arrangements made or facilitated by the project?
- Are childcare facilities provided at the education or training location? Are they socially perceived as adequate?
- Are accommodation and/or chaperones provided for female trainees?
- What is the gender balance of teaching and management staff in the project and the educational environment? How can the project increase the number of women teachers and women in positions of decision-making authority, i.e. in the Ministry of Education? (Consider how the use of training awards and in-country training can contribute to this aim.)
- Does the physical school or training environment impose any constraints on girls and women, e.g. lack of female latrines? Consider how the project can create a more female-friendly environment, e.g. a project in India increased girls' access to education by providing school benches, so girls no longer had to sit on the floor.

C2 Health

- What proportion of women does primary health care provision currently reach, as compared with men?
- Who has access to primary health care, by geographic location, by income level, by 'risk' status (pregnant and lactating women and children under one year)?
- What particular health-care problems adversely affect the life chances of women, particularly the poorest?
- What are the health problems which cause greatest morbidity and mortality rates amongst women and men?
- Will the project address these directly or indirectly?

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emphasis on performance as a criterion for retention or promotion as opposed to time-serving?

- How can the reform process strengthen institutional commitment to equal opportunities?

C3.3 Public sector institutional strengthening

- Does the project institutionalise delivery services which meet the needs of women as well as men?
- In designing new systems and services in participatory workshops, are women well represented amongst service delivery staff as well as amongst recipients of services? Is the participation of female participants as effective as male? If not, consider setting up separate discussion groups for women only.
- Are there constraints on women's access to particular services which the project should address?
- How can decentralized structures create opportunities to increase women's participation and responsiveness to women's needs?

C3.4 Law

- How do both formal legal systems and customary law affect women?
- Are laws relevant to the project gender-equitable? If so, are they enforced with the same degree of gender equity? If not, how could the project address this?
- How does law relating to marriage (both formal and customary) affect women's rights to property and child maintenance? How do systems of dowry/bridepriceimpact on women's rights?
- Can men and women instigate divorce on equal grounds? Does a divorced wife have an equal right to custody of the children? Is the divorced husband required to make child maintenance payments?
- Are women's rights to own and inherit property equal with men's?
- Do women and men have equal rights of employment in public and private sectors? How do these equal rights translate into practice? Is there currently any equal opportunities legislation?
- How does the law deal with rape?
- Do women have full reproductive rights?
- Do women have equal access to legal services with men?
- Do current legal literacy programmes target women equally with men? What is the take-up by women and men of any existing legal aid schemes?
- What is the level of women's participation in the judiciary? Does low participation influence judgements made on women plaintiffs and defendants as well as women's confidence in legal systems?
- How gender-sensitive are all branches of the judiciary and law enforcement agents?
- How can the project work with local women's groups to strengthen women's legal rights?

C3.5 Media

- Is the ownership and running of the media predominantly in male hands? How does this impact upon the portrayal of women in the print and electronic media? Does formal training of journalists and broadcasters include a component on gender analysis?
- How could the project use the media to inform women of their rights? If literacy statistics are higher for men than for women, is it more appropriate to use radio than the press? What style of presentation is more influential with women?

C3.6 Conflict resolution and violence against women

- What are women's attitudes to conflict perpetuation? How can these be channelled to influence male behaviour?
- Are women's groups and individual women represented in conflict prevention and resolution committees and procedures?
- How can the project strengthen the role of key civil society groupings (e.g. youth clubs) to reduce male violence and crime against women?
- Can the project employ male role models (e.g. popular sportsmen) to promote non-violent forms of behaviour?

C4 Private sector development

- Does the project include a component of policy dialogue with the government on improving the economic and regulatory environment for formal and informal enterprises? How can the project ensure that any dialogue includes a gender dimension?
- What are the project criteria for selecting companies or enterprises? Do these include equal pay for female and male employees, with real commitment to equal opportunities policies? Or have companies been selected with no such commitment, where most female employees are working at lowest-paid levels?

CCRDA

means testing of social ...

women's and men's income, or on the basis of the household as a unit? Does this have a differential impact on women and men (both single and married/cohabiting)?

Are key benefits, such as child benefit, payable to the male as head of the household or directly to women?

Do pro-active employment measures being established under the project target female groups equally with male? Do such measures tend to reinforce the gender division of labour or actively to promote strategies to increase women's participation in traditionally male-identified sectors such as engineering?

Participation

Where does the government stand on participation?

Is the service provider aware of the benefits of participation, or does this need to be generated?

Benefits might include:

- better understanding of users' problems leading to a better response in provision
- more appropriate fee structure (where relevant)
- improved payment (where relevant) and improved utilization
- use of community pressure to encourage take-up and payment
- more efficient and effective ways of addressing beneficiaries' needs
- better administration and better community-understanding that everybody's subsidy is someone's additional cost.

Will improvements initiated under the project be accessible to all groups including women and children? How can the project ensure this?

Will negative impacts lead to the exclusion of any groups? What steps could avert this?

Will indigenous knowledge be used in the design phase? How can project design effectively incorporate local knowledge?

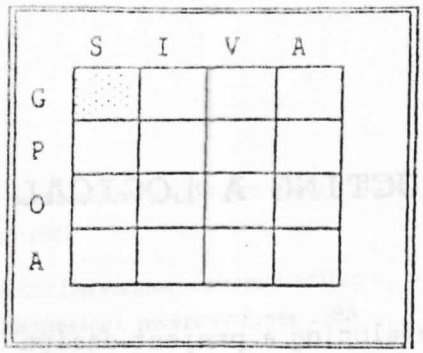
How will local communities be informed about the project? How will women be informed (bearing in mind literacy levels, participation in existing community organizations)?

Is there a tradition of community self-help? What are the existing institutional structures?

enough to deliver?

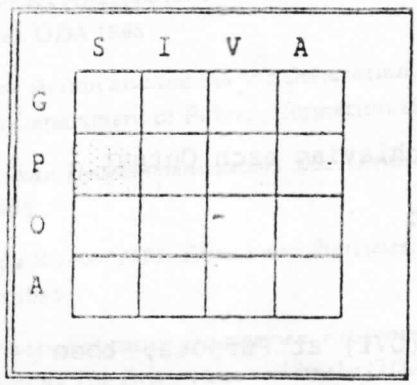
- Is the degree of planned community involvement consistent with the skills and experience of the project target groups?
- Will women users feel themselves adequately represented?
- What channels of communication already exist between service institutions (e.g. education, health) and the local community, especially women? Do the structures of existing service providers impede or facilitate dialogue with the community, especially women?
- What are the mechanisms by which participation is achieved or attempted?
- Are there community-based initiatives already which represent or could represent women?
- Do women participate fully in these existing community organizations? Are there women's organizations which represent a cross-section of women?
- Should new, representative organizations be established with proper representation of women?
- How will community interests, including those of women, be represented during the design and implementation phases of the project?

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Rationale: the higher-order objective that this project, combined with others, will achieve. Usually this is a programme or sector objective. For example, if farm production is increased (Purpose), then farm family income will bebe increased (programme Goal). Very often a portfolio of projects will share a common Goal statement.

Step b: Define the Purpose



Why the project is being done. The Purpose describes the desired impact we hope the project will have, or how the world will be changed as a result of producing the project's Outputs.

The purpose-level objective is very often the change in behaviour of the project beneficiaries. For example, a Purpose typically describes the use of project outputs: "New production methods USED or new systems IMPLEMENTED."

A project should have only one Purpose. The reason for this is practical. Experience demonstrates that it is easier to focus project Outputs on a single Purpose. Multiple Purposes diffuse project efforts and weaken the design.

By definition, the Purpose is outside the control of the project team. It is the reasons why the Outputs are being undertaken. But it is ultimately beyond the control of the implementors. The principle is that we can hold a team responsible for producing a set of results, but not for what people or institutions will do with those results. We will insist that the project team achieve these Outputs so as to produce the desired impact, but not hold them accountable for it. If the project is designed to provide farmers with new skills and inputs (credits, seed, tools, etc.), then the Purpose of the project defines what farmers will do differently as a result of these Outputs. We hope that they will produce more food.

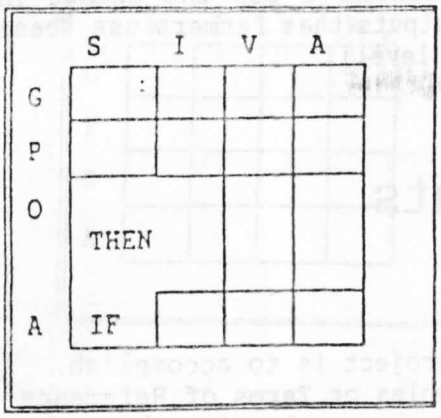
For example, the project may be able to produce the following Outputs:

training for farmers conducted and

appropriate credit system established, and

farm inputs.

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The main concept underlying the logframe's structure is Cause and Effect. The better the cause and effect linkages between objectives, the better the project design.

By definition, each project has this If/Then or cause-and-effect logic embedded in it.

If we produce certain outcomes under certain conditions, then we can expect certain other outcomes to result. For example,

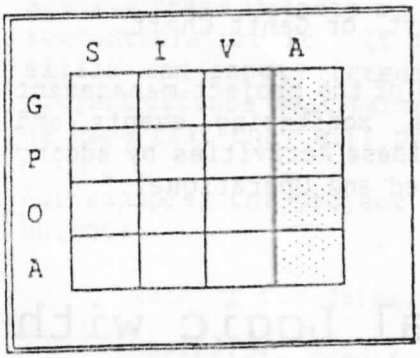
IF we supply farmers with improved seed and put a credit system in place,

THEN production will be increased.

The LogFRAME forces you to make this logic explicit. But it does not guarantee a good design. The validity of the cause and effect logic depends on the quality and experience of the design team.

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Step f: Define the Assumptions required at each level

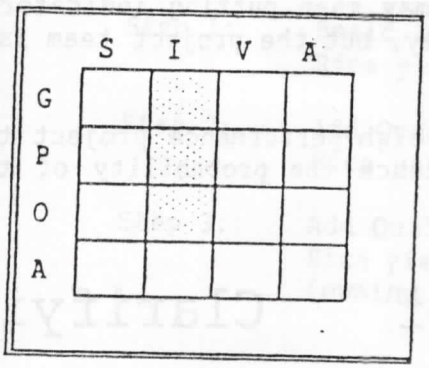


Assumptions are statements about the uncertainty factors between each level of objectives; external factors over which the project chooses not to exert or does not have control. this is the external logic of the project.

The Assumptions may describe important natural conditions, such as 10 inches of rain falls between May and October, or factors such as no labour strikes during start up of project, timely release of budget, crop prices remain stable, farmers willing to try new methods, farmers willing to use new credit

objectives (necessary conditions) plus the assumptions (sufficient conditions) give us a much clearer idea of the project's design.

Step g: Define the Objectively Verifiable Indicators (OVI) at Purpose, then Output the Goal Levels



Narrative Summary column.

The basic principle of the OVI column is, If you can measure it, you can manage it. Indicators demonstrate results. As performance measures, they tell us how to recognise successful accomplishment of objectives. They are not the conditions necessary to achieve those results. There is no cause and effect relationship. But, they define in measurable detail the performance levels required by objectives in the

CCRDA

The Necessary and Sufficient Test

The OVIs tell us not only what accomplishment is necessary but also what will be sufficient performance to assure that we can reach the next level of objective. For this reason, it is best to begin at the end. that is, begin with the higher order objective and work backwards through the causal chain. Goal then Purpose, then Outputs, then Activities.

Quantity, Quality and Time (QQT)

Normally, Indicators are stated in terms of Quantity, Quality and Time (and sometimes place and cost). In the Team Up process, you will Quantify the Indicators in Step 3 Performance Plans. The act of putting numbers and dates on indicators is called Targeting. It is not true that higher order objectives are not measurable. We may choose not to put targets on them, but Goals, Purposes and Outputs can all be given indicators and targets.

How Many Indicators?

mechanism. They may describe other projects that must be done in conjunction with this project, like World Bank irrigation project remains on schedule, or UN fertilizer project completed by start-up.

Assumptions complete the If/Then logic (describing the necessary conditions between each level) by adding the if/AND/then logic (describing the necessary and sufficient conditions between each level). Determine the assumptions by asking, "What conditions must exist in addition to my objective (Activity, Output, Purpose, Goal) in order to achieve the next level?" By definition, the project team is not responsible for assumptions. These are outside their control. The team is responsible for producing Outputs. When Assumptions fail or change, this management agreement is abrogated. The project team agrees to monitor changes in assumptions; therefore it is valuable to make the assumptions as specific as possible. This may mean putting indicators on assumptions so they can be tracked more easily, but the project team is not responsible for producing them.

But, with this said, we must also say that high-performance project teams spend a great deal of time trying to influence the probability of their project assumptions holding true.

The Importance of Clarifying Assumptions

Assumptions are external conditions over which the project chooses not to exert or does not have control, but on which the accomplishment of objectives depends.

In our farm example, we assume that sufficient rain will fall. Without this rainfall, the new seeds will not give the increased production we expect. If you want to measure the degree of uncertainty, you need to know the probability of this assumption holding true. If 20 inches of rain during the planting season is the minimum requirement for projected crops yields, and this has occurred only three years out of the past ten, the probability of this assumption holding true for this project is bleak (30% probability).

There is never 100% certainty that project Outputs will cause the Purpose or the Purpose cause the Goal. In working with projects we make assumptions about the degree of uncertainty between these levels of objectives. The lower the uncertainly, the stronger the project design. Any experienced project manager will agree that the killer assumptions, the failing assumptions, can derail a project as often as poorly executed outputs.

Necessary and Sufficient Conditions

If cause and effect is the core concept of good project design, necessary and sufficient conditions are the corollary. The cause and effect relationship between the Activity-to-Output, Output-to-Purpose and the Purpose-to-Goal objectives describes the necessary conditions for accomplishing project objectives, or the internal logic. But it does not define the sufficient conditions at each level for accomplishing the next higher level.

These other conditions are the assumptions. This is the external logic. The

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The fewer the better. Use only the number of indicators required to clarify what must be accomplished to satisfy the objective stated in the Narrative Summary column.

How Do You construct an OVI?

Begin with the basic indicator. Ensure it is numerically quantifiable and then add Quality and then Time dimension.
(Quantity + Quality + Time = QQT).

For example:

Step 1: Basic Indicator:
Rice yields of small farmers increased.

Step 2: Add Quantity:
Rice yields of small farmers increased by X bushels.

Step 3: Add Quality:
Rice yields (of some quality as 1987 crop) of small farmers (owning 3 hectares or less) increased by X bushels.

Step 4: Add Time:
Rice yields (of same quality as 1987 crop) of small farmers (owning 3 hectares or less) increased by X bushels by the end of 1988 harvest.

Goal Level Indicators

The Goal level indicators often describe the program or sector objectives to which this project and several others are directed. For this reason, the Goal level indicators may include targets beyond the scope of this project, such as small farmer income increased, where farmer income may be increased by the combined outcomes of several projects. Improved rice yields may be one necessary condition; but pricing policy, government subsidies, etc. may also be required to hit income levels set at the goal level.

Examples of a Goal statement might be "wheat production in northern province doubled in 1991" or "small farmer income in northern province increased", or "import of X products reduced."

Purpose Level Indicators

The project Purpose is the primary reason why you are doing the project. It is why you are producing Outputs. But the Purpose very often defines the change in behaviour of project beneficiaries, or the change in the way institutions function as a result of the project's Outputs. This makes defining the OVIs at Purpose level difficult and complex. Nevertheless, the End of Project Status (EOPS), or the OVIs for Purpose, require QQT targeting as much as the Outputs do. Getting good clarity on Purpose level targets

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Also when you do a cost/effectiveness assessment of a project design, it is the relationship between EOPS and costs that you look at, rather than simply Outputs and costs.

We recommend a single Purpose in the NS column. therefore we suggest that the EOPS be stated simply and be easily grasped. Its power will depend on its ability to galvanise action on the Outputs such that they result in Purpose. To that end, Purpose EOPS should be motivational in design.

Output Level Indicators

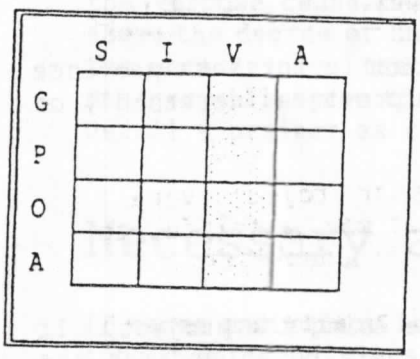
By definition, these indicators establish the terms of reference for the project. If a project team or contractor is responsible for all the Outputs, then these indicators define the deliverables for which the contractor is accountable.

Activity Level Indicators

The OVIs at the Activity level are usually the Inputs or the Budget. Often this will look like a performance budget, since costs can be related directly to activities. Some agencies enter budget costs using standard categories like Commodities, Technical Services, Training, etc. The budget statement is usually a summary of resources which are described in greater detail in an attached document. the cost requirement defined in these OVIs are used for analysing the cost-effectiveness comparing budget with EOPS.

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Step h: Define the Means of Verification (MOV)

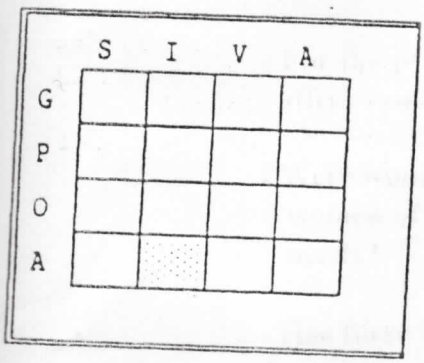


The Means of Verification (MOV) describes the sources of information that will demonstrate what has been accomplished. If our objective is "Farmer income raised by X% in 19___", where will we get the information to demonstrate this has happened? If we decide that a survey is needed, then we may need to add some action steps to

the Activities List. If this costs money, we must add this to the budget.

The rule is: the indicators you choose for measuring your objectives must be verifiable by some means. If they are not, find another indicator.

Step i: Put Costs on the Activities: The Performance Budget



Put costs to the activities. Many times this box will be referenced to a detailed budget plan to allow for activities to be monitored against assumed costs.

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Step j: Consult the Checklist for the Logical Framework

Utilize the Logical Framework Checklist and ensure that your project overall meets all the requirements of a well designed LogFRAME. It may be helpful to print your LogFRAME prior to reviewing the project with the checklist.

Review the Logical Framework design in the light of historical experience with similar efforts.

QUESTIONS TO ASK

The following questions are part of a paper by Sara Hlupekile Longwe of Zambia. We have excerpted the sections called "Examples of Questions to ask about a project's contribution towards Women's Development" and the Tribune Development Quarterly, International Women's Tribune, Newsletter 43,1989.

1. *Questions on problems Identification*

- Did Women participate in setting priorities and objectives?

- Did the needs assessment look into the special or different problems and needs of the women in the community?

- For the problem selected for project intervention, how does this problem affect women and men differently?

- Were women involved in conducting the needs assessment and were the women of the community asked for their opinion on their problems and needs?

- Has there been an assessment of women's position in terms of such possible problems as their heavier work burden, relative lack of access to resources and opportunities or lack of participation in the development process?

- What baseline data had been collected?

2. *Questions on project strategy*

- What will women do with any free time released by the project? Will there be any negative impact?

- Is the project intervention aimed at a target group of both men and women?

- Have the women in the affected community and target group been consulted on the most appropriate ways of overcoming the problem?

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- Is the chosen intervention strategy likely to overlook women in the target group, for instance because of their heavier burden of work and more domestic location?

- Is the strategy concerned merely with delivering benefits to women, or does it also involve their increased participation and empowerment, so they will be in a better position to overcome problem situations?

- Have current patterns of problem solving been fully understood?

3. *Questions on project objectives*

- Do the project objectives make clear that project benefits are intended equally for women as for men?

- In what ways, specifically, will the project lead to women's increased empowerment? e.g. Increased access to credit? Increased participation in decision-making at the level of family and community? Increased control of income resulting from their own labour?

- Do any of the objectives challenge the existing or traditional sexual division of labour, tasks, opportunities and responsibilities?

- Are there specific ways proposed for encouraging and enabling women to participate in the project despite their traditionally more domestic location and subordinate position within the community?

4. *Questions on Project Management*

- Is there a clear guiding policy for management on the integration of women within the development process?

- Are women and men of the affected community represented equally on the management committee?

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- Is there a need for management training on gender awareness and gender analysis?

- Has management been provided with the human resources and expertise necessary to manage and monitor the women's development component within the project?

- Proportion of female staff implementation team? In senior functions? Decision Making?

5. *Questions on Project Implementation*

- Did women participate in design, selection, timing of project components?

- Do implementation methods make sufficient use of existing women's organizations and networks such as women's clubs, church organizations and party political organizations?

- Are women included in the implementation team?

- Are women the target group involved in project implementation?

- Are there methods for monitoring the progress in reaching women? For instance, by monitoring their increased income, increased occupation of leadership roles, increased utilization of credit facilities, increased participation in project management and implementation, increased influence over decision-making process.

Are the technologies suitable for women? Can they maintain/repair?

6 *Questions on Project outcome*

- How will women's workload, health, etc. be affected by the program? How will it affect their schedules?

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- Do women receive a fair share, relative to men, of the benefits arising from the project?

- Does the project redress a previous unequal sharing of benefits?

- Does the project give women increased control over material resources, better access to credit and other opportunities, and more control over the benefits resulting from their productive efforts?

- What are the (likely) long-term effects in terms of women's increased ability to take charge of their own lives, understand their situation and the difficulties they face, and to take collective action to solve problems?

How will the program affect women's income?
Who makes final decisions?
Are these westernisms representing the views of women?
Is training given to women equally?
Are women's organizations identified, notified, involved?

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I. GENDER CONCEPTS AND TERMINOLOGIES

1. Sex:	Category that distinguishes males and females by referring to biological characteristics.
2. Gender:	Culturally prescribed social roles and identities of men and women.
3. Gender awareness:	Conscious knowledge that benefits and resources do not imply equally to all members of the society.
4. Gender issue in development:	An issue that involves gender roles or relations which has an impact on the goals of development.
5. Gender relations:	Ways in which culture defines the rights, responsibilities and identities of men in relation to women.
6. Gender sensitivity:	All development workers, planners, consider the roles of men and women when formulating, implementing and assessing policies, programmes and projects.
7. Gender disparity:	Exclusion of women from development process.
8. Gender inequality:	Is a political and social discrimination that consider women as an inferior to men.
9. GAD:	Addresses gender issues interms of power relationship of men & women. It attempts to transform the existing structure of the society through empowering women.
10. WID:	Focuses on women needs by integrating women's programmes into the existing structure (development process). The focus in on women mainly, separates from men.
11. Gender roles:	Division of labour of men and women imposed by the community. Women of low-income group have triple role, reproductive , productive and community role while men undertake productive & community activities.
12. Sex roles:	Division of labour of men and women due to biological differences.
13. Empowerment of Women:	Enabling environment for women to influence the integration of their needs into the existing development process (Balance of power.)

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14. Gender analysis:	Is a systematic attempt to understand the roles of women and men within a given context; the division of labour for both productive & reproductive activities. It also tries to understand who has access and control over resources.
15. Gender blindness:	The inability to perceive that there are difficult gender roles and responsibilities, the failure to analyze policies & projects and their different effects on women & men.
16. Gender planning:	A planning approach that recognizes women's and men's different roles and different needs in society.
17. Gender expertise:	The ability to recognize different needs, roles & responsibilities between the sexes and their relationship to development and the ability to integrate gender issues in the project cycle of development.
18. Practical gender needs:	Are needs of women related to their roles in society which are basic in life; like water provision, health care, employment, can be addressed without having impact on the relation between men & women.
19. Strategic gender needs (SGN):	Needs of women to obtain greater equality in their status through changes in their roles, responsibilities and decision making. SGN may include legal rights, issues on domestic violence, equal wages, women's control over their bodies.
20. Women specific roles:	Projects that explicitly addresses women. They are small projects and can take up women's time rather than relieve their workload. Separate projects for women tend to marginalize women and have no impact on mainstream of economic progress.
21. WID/Gender integrated approach:	They are gender sensitive mainstream projects. Their design on gender analyzes, strategies to overcome barrier to women's participation involve Gender/WID expertise.
22. WID/Expertise:	Responsible for women in development and for systematic integration of gender issues in mainstream projects.

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