TW
GEN
013

CHRISTIAN RELIEF AND DEVELOPMENT ASSOCIATION

Christian Relief & Development Association
LIBRARY
P.O.Box 5674

TRAINING PROGRAMS ON GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT

CCRDA

PREPARED & CONDUCTED BY :-
SOSENA DEMISSIE AND HER ASSOCIATES,
(FREELANCE CONSULTANT)
AND
RAHEL BEKELE (CRDA)

NOVEMBER 20 - 29, 2000
RIFT VALLEY HOTEL, NAZARETH

Background

I. Introduction

This training programme has been developed for the staff of CRDA members. The purpose of the training programme is to enhance participants awareness about the Gender and Development (GAD) approach and help them appreciate the need to gender mainstream projects for effective development endeavor and to develop the culture of gender sensitivity in the daily activities of the participants. The training deals with awareness-raising as well skills-building of the participants, thus, tries to balance the two elements.

Development, which is interwoven with people's social, economic, cultural and political life, without involving all sectors of a given society would remain an effort that is in vain. Most organizations that are involved in development work also believe that both men and women should be given equal opportunity to benefit from any development endeavors. However, when ever the concept Gender comes in, it is also a tendency of most development works to equate gender issues as women issues. Although the concept gender is deep in its meaning as it relates to development, equating gender issues with women issues indirectly flashes the idea that there exist inequalities from gender differences within both society and the family that women suffer most. Hence, there is a need to support activities which address problems that women face as well as problems that they in common with others in their communities.

Development efforts targeting both men and women is a decisive factor as women are key actors in the economic system of any country and are active forces in the productive and reproductive activities. Women render immense contribution to the society's well-being; despite this however, their contribution is not given due credit. The factors which contribute, to such position of women in many societies could be legal, structural, economic, cultural and ideological. To remove such obstacles, a continuous and unlimited effort is needed to involve women in planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating development programmes, which otherwise would be a failure not to made use of the potential of half segment of the society. Hence, the problem women are facing in various fields must be removed to bring about a positive impact of all development endeavors.

Different approaches have been introduced to minimize the challenges women face in the field of development. The women In Development (WID) approach tries to resolve the constant contradiction that exist between women's role in production and reproduction, labour and time saving devices for the house work. The Gender and Development (GAD) analysis address unequal gender power by seeking to transform unequal relations. Unequal gender power is when one gender is in a dominated position and holds power

CCRDA

over the other in all spheres of life. These unequal relations are targeted by the GAD and it also targets gender inequality. It is now GAD that is most often used by development workers, and getting acquainted with the changing trends in poverty alleviation strategies require better understanding of Gender Development approach.

II. Rationale

Development Programmes for communities must benefit all community members equally. Inequalities arising from gender differences within both society and the family make development difficult to bring positive change in the life of families and communities. Hence, there is a need for special focus on women in development. Most development organizations have programs and projects that address issues of women and also areas where these projects bring about change in development initiatives. The GAD approach being holistic, with a view on equality recognizes the Practical Gender Needs and Strategic Gender Needs.

As most development workers have mission statements to alleviate poverty and deprivation from our nation, gender sensitivity to enhance the aims of development aid, its effectiveness, relevance and sustainability could possibly be addressed if the development workers focus on the approach that recognizes both the practical and strategic gender needs. Therefore, this training program is organized with the intention of equipping and acquainting member organizations about the GAD approach and what makes it different from the WID approach.

CCRDA

III. Objectives of the Training

General Objective:

To enhance participants awareness about the GAD approach and to help them appreciate the need to gender mainstream projects for effective development endeavor.

Specific Objectives:

The aims of this course are to help participants:

- acquire knowledge on the basic concepts of gender and development.
- get acquainted with the key components in gender relations.
- appreciate the relationship between development efforts and gender relations.
- get acquainted with some basic analytical tools.

- practice in developing gender sensitive projects.
- develop tools on how to measure and evaluate development projects against gender specific and impact indicators.

IV. Content of the Course

- Historical Background about Gender
- Introduction to Social Constructs of Gender
    - Definition of Gender
    - Gender and Sex
    - Gender Related Concepts
    - Gender Needs
    - Key Components in Gender Relations
- Gender and Development
    - Triple Role of Women
    - Some Basic Issues in Gender and Development
- Differences and Similarities between GAD and WID
- Gender Analytical Framework
- Gender Sensitive Project Development
- Baseline Survey Indicators
- Gender Sensitive Project Monitoring and Evaluation
- Gender Impact Indicators
- Gender Disaggregated data
- Gender Analytical Planning & Methodology
- How to Strengthen Women Economic Capacity to Fight Poverty
- Situation of Ethiopian Women
- Gender Focused Community Development
- Why Women are Poor
- Introducing Gender Related UN Resolutions, Constitutions and Law's in Ethiopia

V. Mode of Presentation:

The consulting firm, based on the rationale, objective, expected outcome and proposed training topics shall prepare a detailed training activity plan including course contents and schedule as well as methodology. The training should be geared towards enhancing members understanding of the approaches and to help them appreciate the need to gender

CCRDA

mainstream projects for effective development endeavor. The consulting firm will show strong facilitating skills during group discussion and experience sharing. Using relevant Videotapes for training purpose Role play and case presentations with high level of participation among trainees.

The training with mulit-disciplinary comprising individuals who have been exposed to the WID and GAD approach. The team would include individuals who have a background of working with the development sector, individuals who are sociologist, development planners, rural development experts, gender planning and analysis experts with social service management as well as experiences in developing measurable tools for impact indicators and for evaluating projects.

CCRDA

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND ABOUT GENDER AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF POLICY APPROACH TO WOMEN'S INVOLVEMENT IN DEVELOPMENT

TRAINING ON GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME FOR STAFF OF CRDA MEMBERS

CCRDA

NOVEMBER 20-29, 2000

BY SOSENA DEMISSIE
CONSULTANT

Historical Background About Gender And the Development of Policy Approach to Women's involvement in Development

Introduction

Since 1975 when the Mexico World Plan of Action on the objectives "Equality", "Development" and "Peace" was adopted, major developments have taken place on the advancement of women. Then the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1979) was an important turning - point. In this short period of history, which created the judicial basis to abolish discrimination against women, indicate future directions for equality of rights. The Copenhagen Pogramme of Action (1980) went a step further by emphasizing concrete means to implement the objectives set by the Mexico Conference on economic, legal and social rights of women. Later, the united Nations Women's Decade,(1976-1985), and the subsequent World Conferences on Women, the 1985 World Conference in Nairobi and the 1995 Conference in Beijing succeeded in raising the consciousness of the world community for women's needs and concerns on the global development agenda. It also provided forum for creation of a wide diversity of national women's movements and organizations both in the North and South as well as establish networks to link these groups. It promoted institutional changes in governments and in bilateral and multilateral organizations for responding to recommendations emanating from world conferences.

Historically as women's movement grow, the policy approaches have moved towards the integration approach. As the same time, the terminology used in relation to the issues moved from women to gender. Gender and development terminology recognizes that the status of women cannot be addressed as a separate issue. It underscores the need to integrate women's needs, both practical and strategic, into the picture.

This paper will review the historical sequences of women's movement and the adopted policies in response to the issues raised at different period. It attempts to review the women's movement in general and Ethiopian women's in particular from the 50's up to present time. It will also introduce the two major school of thoughts emerged in women's development - Women in Development (WID) and Gender and Development (GAD).

What is Gender?

The concept gender refers to a system of roles and relationships between +women and men that are determined, not by biology but by the social, political and economic context. It is a term, which refers to the socially determined differences between women and men as opposed to sex, which is biologically determined. (ECA, ACW 1997)

Sex refers to female and male biological functions and describes the biological characteristics. Gender on the other hand describes the socially determinant characteristics and does not refer to women and men, but to the relationship between

CORDA

them, their society, community, and the way that is socially constructed. Biological difference between women and men do not change. But the social roles that they are required to play vary from one society to another and at different periods in history. Accordingly the different roles of women generate both practical needs and strategic interest.

The Evolution of thinking about women's development

In the 1950's, the development programme was gender neutral. The prevailing assumption was that the benefit of economic development would go down to families through the male as breadwinner. Women were regarded as passive recipients whose major economic role was child raising. The objective was to bring women into the development process as better mothers and wives. This is called welfare approach.

In the 1960's and early 70's development policy began to focus on meeting basic needs for food, shelter and security. Then it was realized by policy makers that women were among the poorest of the poor. Therefore, programmes began to focus on helping women improve their economic position through education, skills training and health and family planning services. This is called anti-poverty approach.

In 1970, Ester Boserup, demonstrated that women made important economic contribution, which were being ignored by governments to the detriment of national development efforts. Boserup also showed that development had different effects on women and men. Agricultural mechanization, industrialization and urbanization assumed to benefit everyone, in real increased workloads for women and made greater demand on them as food producers and casual louberers.

The Women in Development (WID) movement, grew out of Buserup's work aiming for more efficient, and effective development by incorporating women specific project in to existing development processes (Boserup,1989).

In the 70's, effort to end discrimination against women and to ensure their equal participation in society provided the impetus for most initiatives taken at different levels. Those efforts were also inspired by the awareness that women's reproductive and productive roles were closely linked to the political, economic, social, cultural, legal, educational and religious conditions that constrained the advancement of women and that factors intensifying the economic exploitation and marginalization of women stemmed from chronic inequalities, injustices, and exploitative conditions at the family, community, and national levels.

Women in development (WID) was one of those initiatives by which feminists from different shades tried to solve the women's problem by introducing women based actions and activities. These activities were specifically meant for women and done by women.

GCRDA

There was a great deal of emphasis on the need to assist women by integrating them into the development process. This promoted institutional changes in governments and in bilateral and multilateral organizations for responding to recommendations emanating from world conferences. Many governments established women's offices to handle women's issues with mandates to among other things, ensure that projects, policies adopted would benefit women. Bilateral donors and multilateral organizations created women in Development (WID) units to articulate WID policy and prepare WID plan. Several women's projects were developed and implemented. The majority of these projects focused on income-generation.

The realization that separate development only continued to marginalize women led to the emphasis on mainstreaming that is, the integration of women in all areas of economic, social and political life. That leads to the Gender and Development (GAD) movement in the 1980's.

The gender and Development approach shifts development planning and implementation from being a male domain to one where both women and men are recognized as productive. It recognizes women's reproductive role while maintaining that the traditional division of labour is by and large socially constructed and can therefore be changed and that the exclusion of women in development has not been due to any natural laws but to man-made division of labour, socio-cultural attitudes and ideologies of oppression. Gender and Development therefore, calls for greater involvement of women and men in development process. It also demands a fair distribution of the fruits of development. This is empowerment approach.

The evolution of thinking about women's development parallels the changing pattern of women's development programmes. The following chart summarizes the development of policy approaches to women's involvement in development.

Policy approaches to women's involvement in development

	Welfare	Anti-poverty	Efficiency	Equity	Empowerment
Cause of the Problems.	Circumstances that are beyond control	Lack of resources, causing low standard of living	Failure by development planners to recognize women's key role in production, and necessity to involve women	Patriarchy, exploitation, and operation of women by men.	Women's subordination not only by men but as aspect of colonial and neo-colonial oppression.
Goals or purpose.	To support motherhood as the most important role for women in society. To relieve suffering.	To raise production to ensure poor women increase their productivity. To integrate women into development.	To ensure that development is more efficient and more effective. 'Feed the nation.'	To gain equity for women in development by grafting gender into the development process.	To empower women through greater self-reliance. Building new political, economic and social structure. To challenge/overcome exploitative structures.

ECRDA

Service programmes	Famine relief programmes. Family planning. Nutrition (improving family health, especially of children through material care). Activities to meet Practical Gender Needs.	Training women in technical skills. Small-scale income-generating activities to meet basic needs (practical gender needs)	Program that meet PGN in the context of declining social services. Rely on all 3 roles of women and elasticity of time	Organize to reform structures. To meet SGN in terms of Triple Role.	Programmes that address themselves to SGN in terms of Triple Role – through bottom-up mobilization around PGNs to confront operation.
Type of change	FUNCTIONAL CHANGE (Non-challenging)	FUNCTIONAL CHANGE (Non-challenging)	FUNCTIONAL CHANGE	STRUCTURAL CHANGE (Challenging) Equal Rights/Opportunities	STRUCTURAL CHANGE (Challenging)
Type of leadership	Strong reliance on authority (patriarchal in nature) –residential model of social welfare with the modernization ideology with roots in colonialism.	Consultative – ideological reproduction of values that reinforce patriarchy and women's subordination.	Authoritarian/Consultative. Women seen as resource	Participatory to reform structures. Top-down state intervention to reduce inequality	Enabling, participatory, build solidarity, overcome fear (alternative m/f balanced structures). 'bottom-up'
Type of service	WELFARE – Assuming women are passive beneficiaries of development	ANTI-POVERTY – Development (integrating women into development). Poor women isolated as a category. Recognition of the productive role of women	EFFICIENCY – Policies of economic stabilization and adjustment rely on women's involvement.	EQUITY – Reforming, liberating. Women seen an active participants in development.	EMPOWERMENT Transformation, liberation Largely unsupported by Government or agencies. Show steady growth of underfinanced voluntary organizations.
Period most popular	1950-70, but still widely used.	1970s onwards. Still limited popularity.	Post 1980s – Now most popular approach (ODA, USAID).	1975-85 – Attempts to adopt during Women's Decade	1975 onwards, accelerated 1980s. still limited popularity

Source: The Oxfam Gender Training Manual © Oxfam UK and Ireland 1994

The international women's year, the world conferences held at Mexico city in 1975 and Copenhagen in 1980, the United Nations Decade for Women (1976-85), Equality, Development and Peace, The Nairobi forward-looking Strategies for Advancement of Women in 1985 and the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action in 1995 contributed greatly to the process of eliminating obstacles to the improvement of the status of women at the national and international levels. It also contributed a great deal for the improvement of policy approach on women's involvement in development.

Corresponding to the evolution of women's development in the 50's, in Ethiopia, the major programme were focused to some practical Gender Needs connected to women's

CCRDA

reproductive roles such as maternity health service, orphan schools, and skill training such as knitting, sewing, etc.

In the 60's, activities tended to focus on women's capacity to earn an income especially through small-scale income generating activities. During this period School of Social Work in Addis Ababa University, social services in government institutions, different NGOs like Ethiopian Family Planning Association and Young Women Christian Association (YWCA) were established.

In mid 70's programs on advocacy and awareness creation against women's oppression was constantly given to the public through the mass media and at regular meetings in kebele and government institutions.

In the 80's Revolutionary Ethiopian Women's Association (REWA) was set up. Despite some success at the grassroots level, particularly in organizing women, REWA evolved to become involved more in politics and advocacy than in development. However some specific income generating activities were set up to satisfy practical gender needs.
In the 90's, the major program in Ethiopia was establishment of Women's Affairs Office within the prime minister's office and women focal offices in the regions and ministries. In 1993 the Council of Ministers approved the first women's policy. The Women's Affairs Office is in charge of implementing the national women's policy and for monitoring its implementation. The women's policy emphasizes improving the socio-economic role of women. It also articulates a comprehensive development program for improving women's socio-economic situation. In general it promotes:

- constitutional right of women;
- women's equal access and control over resources;
- women's d equal participation and decision making;
- women's concern are addressed on the national and regional development plan and program.

During this period government and most NGOs tries to address women's issue at diffrent level considering women's practical and strategic needs.

The Difference between WID and GAD

With Women in Development (WID), the dominant rational rationale for women's development programmes was increased efficiency: by decreasing women's reproductive workload (lightening household responsibilities through better access to water, fuel etc.) or increasing their productive efficiency (income-generation, mainly in traditional women's activities, access to training, credit).

With Gander and Development (GAD), the rationale for conducting women's development programmes began to shift from efficiency to equity and empowerment.

CORDA

GAD is concerned with what women and men do; it looks at the impact of development; it seeks to see that both women and men participate and benefit from development equally; it recognizes the different gender roles and stresses the need for both women and men to have access to and control over resources and decision-making processes.

In Gender and Development (GAD) focus has been placed on empowerment in order to move away from the welfarist approach which viewed women as a dependent, vulnerable and disadvantaged group. It is a tool for building self-reliance that stresses people's capacity to promote their own development where proper support and conducive environment are provided. It involves people, women and men, taking control over their own lives; gaining the abilities to do things, to set their own agendas, to change events, in a way previously lacking.

Both WID and GAD approaches can contribute to women's advancement and increase gender equity. With WID approach, women-specific projects enable women to address their practical needs and gain experience for gender mainstreamed projects. Integrating gender into programmes, the GAD approach enables women to address their strategic interest and women and men to work together toward mutual goals and greater equity. Both approaches deserve consideration by development planners.

The major school of thought in Women in Development (WID) and Gender and Development (GAD) represents that the issue can not be ignored since women are part of the society. Both approaches even though they are different aim at getting rid of inequalities between men and women and by so doing close the gender gap and there by achieve sustainable development. The following chart summarizes the two approaches.

CCRDA

Comparison of WID and GAD approach

	WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT (WID)	GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT (GAD)
The Approach	* Seeks to integrate women into the development process	• seeks to empower women and transform unequal relation between women and men
Focus	* Women	* Gender relations
Problem	* The conclusion of women (half of the world's adult resources) from the development process	* Unequal gender relations that prevent equitable development and women's full participation
Goal	• efficiency by integrating women into development • Emphasis on women's productive capacity • More efficient and effective development	• Equitable, sustainable development • Mainstreaming gender issues and not marginalizing them • Sustainable reshaping of the power variables in order to: • Introduce a greater power balance between women and men, while • Giving both a stake in participation and in the benefits of the process so

		• Women and men share in decision-making
Solution	* integrate women in the existing development process	* Empower women and other disadvantaged groups by transforming unequal relations
Strategies	• Increase women's productivity snd income • Improve women's ability to manage their households • Implement women's projects, women's components, integrated projects • Women's participation in project (all women or men-women) without explicitly increasing their empowerment • Improving health, income or resources without increasing empowerment	• strategies are multi-dimentional combine activities that address practical gender needs and strategic gender needs • projects that increase women's and men's rights (whether all-women or all-men) • increase women's capacity and skills to introduce themselves in non-traditional employment • increase women's capacity to control their own bodies, time and movement • identify and address short-term needs determined by women and men to improve their condition • identify women's and men's long term interests
Critique	• Women's multiple roles are not considered • Miscalculation of elasticity of women's time and labor • Not sustainable in the long term	• Not easy to implement: implies long-term commitment • Allows for sustainability of the result, and is also efficient but only in the long run and needs to be tested

Source: Two Halves Make a Whole: Balancing Gender Relations in Development" by L. Moffat, Y. Geadah & R. Stuart, Canadian Council for International cooperation, 1999,)

CCRDA

References:

1. Center for Development and Population Activities (CDPA), "Gender Equity, Concepts and Tools for Development, Washington D.C.,1996.
2. Suzanne Williams with Janet Seed and Adelina Mwau, The Oxfam Gender Training manual, Oxfam UK and Ireland, 1994.
3. Canadian Council for International Co-operation (CCIC), Two Halves make a Whole: Balancing Gender Relations in Development, Ottawa, 1991.
4. United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, African Center for Women (ECA, ACW), A manual on Gender and Gender Mainstreaming, 1997.
5. United Nations, The Nairobi Forward-Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women, 1985.
6. Almaz H.Selassie, The Role of Women and Gender Development (WID, GAD) in Addressing Women's Issue, Training Programme on Women Culture and Poverty, Addis Ababa, 1999.
7. The Transitional Government of Ethiopia, The Prime Minister's Office, Women's Affairs Sector, National Policy on Ethiopian Women, 1993
8. Boserup, Ester (1970), Women's Role in Economic Development, London.

CCRDA

INTRODUCTION TO SOCIAL CONSTRUCTS OF GENDER

TRAINING PROGRAMME ON GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT FOR STAFF OF CRDA MEMBERS

CCRDA
Christian Relief & Development Association
LIBRARY
P.O.Box 5674

NOVEMBER 20-29, 2000

BY TSEHAI YITBAREK
CONSULTANT

Introduction to social constructs of gender

1. Introduction and conceptual framework

For many years it was believed that the different characteristics women and men exhibited were natural and immutable, that is, it is determined by biological differences or that it is divinely ordained. These characteristics included both ideas and values about what was masculine and what was feminine.

E.g. Women are emotional/men are rational; that women are expected to wash dishes while men are expected to work with machines. However several cross-cultural research findings showed that there is a great anomaly in confusing sex with gender perspectives which have been shaped and constructed by societies at different times. For easier understanding of the definitions of gender versus sex, we use the word gender to describe socially determined characteristics, and sex to refer to those that are biologically determined (chiefly, the ability of men to impregnate and of women to bear children.)

Societies in each area try to define certain characteristics as masculine or feminine i.e., certain activities, behaviors, actions, responses are defined as appropriate for men and others for women.

Relationships between men and women are based on certain norms. The conditions of women's and men's daily lives and their societies are embedded in social, cultural, political and economic framework and institutions. The meaning of Gender Relation and Sex are the differences between men and women that are biological and social. Biological differences may be based on 'sex', which refers to universal and unchanging physical and other characteristics. Gender refers to the social differences between men and women, which are learned, changeable over time and vary within and between cultures and societies. Gender finds its basis in natural or biological differences and can be used to analyze the socio-economic roles of each sex and ultimately the individual.

CCRDA

Interactions between individual men and women, gender relations describe the social meaning of male and female, and thus what is considered appropriate behavior or activity for men and women. Gender has to do with how we think how we feel and what we believe we can or we can not do because of socially defined concepts of masculinity and femininity. Gender related to the position and status of men and women in relation to each other.

Through the process of change(s) due to education, exposure, information, urbanization, and economic/social etc, roles and relationships may change. However, people often ridicule or ignore examples that contradict established norms, e.g. Villagers in a remote village in Sudan refused to believe a .Western development worker was women because she was driving the Land Rover. Men trying to increase their share of housework are often belittled by male peers and ridiculed by mothers and wives who resist having them undertake 'women's' work:

There is need to clearly understand how each society/community determines and maintains what is masculine and what is feminine and the causal effects of gender values and practices that indicate how societies are organized, how they function and the potential for social (and gender) change.

2. What is the definition of gender/sex

Gender is a concept that refers to a system of roles and relationships between women and men that are determined, not by biology but by the social, political and economic context. Gender is an analytical term, which refers to the socially determined differences between women and men as opposed to sex, which is biologically and physically determined. Traditionally, society assumes that there are observable differences between sexes but it is known that personality, behavior and abilities are the result of differential socialization and beliefs based on expected roles of men and women, boys and girls.

Ms. Naila Kabeer in her (Gender, Development Training: Raising Awareness in Development Planning) defines that gender identity evolves throughout childhood and during adulthood. People who are born either male or female first learn to be girls and boys and then grow into women and men. They are taught what the appropriate behavior and attitudes, roles and activities are for them and how they should relate to other people. E.g. Boys are expected and taught to be brave, to win, to excel while girls are taught to be shy, quite, non-aggressive etc.)

These learned behaviors make up gender identity and determine gender roles. Sexual characteristics are determined in the womb at the moment of conception. Gender identity evolves throughout childhood and during adulthood. The construction of gender roles and relationships is a permanent process. Parents, and siblings, relatives and friends, teachers, all play a part in reinforcing certain behaviors for boys and girls while discouraging others. Schools play affirmative role, as do the media and other institutions close to have that transmit values, role models and stereotypes.

CCRDA

3. Highlights on Gender related concepts and social constraints

A) ***Gender roles:*** *refer to determined patterns of behavior in terms of rights, duties, obligations and prerogatives assigned to females and males in society.* They differ from one society to another, from place to place, and over time. For example, characteristics of long hair or wearing of earrings considered feminine in one era might be viewed as masculine in another era.

Gender perspectives are based on values and attitudes. There are also defined practices and behaviors that reflect set values and attitudes. However, practices and behaviors change more readily and faster than values and attitudes and are easier to tackle than values and attitudes that normally persist over longer periods of life style.

B) ***Gender division of labor:*** Every society assigns different tasks to men and women (often called the sexual division of labour). In most cultures, both women and men do productive work (produce goods and services for income or subsistence), although in most specific situations, productive work is clearly divided into men's tasks (ploughing, working with machinery) and women are mainly responsible for reproductive works e.g. (planting, weeding, taking care of children, teaching, washing, cooking, preparing food, home care and home making etc.) and they are vested with the responsibility to reproduce and maintain the labour force.

The result of this is that, throughout the world, women have longer working hours than men. In societies, brain work is regarded more valuable and important than physical work, paid work are more important than unpaid or voluntary work, generating income is more important than maintaining household.

The key issue is therefore the way work is valued. For all its enormous and great importance, reproductive work is undervalued.... Taken for granted and its lack of value is expressed by the failure to recognize that it is "real: work. Women who labour in the home commonly say, "oh, I don't work" because their work is not often recognized and remunerated. Women in developing countries spend 16-18 hours a day toiling to make ends meet. The reproductive work consumes a great deal of energy and time. However, those long hours of work and the energy exhausted are not given economic value. Women everywhere are mainly responsible for reproductive work, which is necessary to maintain the members of household and the labour force. Duties and responsibilities for cooking, washing, cleaning, maintaining property, looking after children, fetching water from water source, grinding, collecting wood, etc. all these are mainly unpaid work and are therefore considered as not important and they are not often considered valuable.

In the public sphere: societies define and determine on making laws, policies, policy for ensuring safety and peace, organizing ceremonies and festivals as well as work around community issues or needs such as access to water, light, roads building, bridge building, schools, hospitals and clinics.

In the community, men tend to have the more public, high status, more noticeable tasks (chairing volunteers boards, decision making in councils or village courts, leading ceremonies and policy, while women tend to do the preparatory activities, organizing and support work.

What is socially recognized, noticed and valued as work tends to be mainly that productive work which is counted in national accounting systems (e.g. GNP, labour statistics). E.g. If a farm produces maize or kitchen garden vegetables for a family to eat, the women are not defined as working while the men do. However, the basis for

CCRDA

men to be able to have attained that level of production are the support of women in so many different ways in life.

If women do not upkeep the health, nutritional needs and requirements that children and men need, if women do not provide the assistance required on the farm and or in any given project implementation, if women did not take a prime responsibilities in the care of the home, and if they don't participate in organizing social and cultural events and ceremonials at home and in the community., would it be feasible for men to enjoy their most comfortable status of being who they are? Males often regard themselves superior to females. Is it because they are truly and surely so or is it because of the fact that they are made to feel and believe to be so through the process of socialization which are often based on cultural practices, religious beliefs and attitudinal perspectives?

Men are to work and earn a living. They draw salaries or income. They have access to most development projects. To education, health, technical skills, etc. because boys are given greater opportunities and preferences for success in life. Women are, most of the times, considered to have been created to support, comfort and facilitate men's lifestyle.

However, the issue of equality between men and women is becoming more and more vivid and important on the development agenda through analysis of gender related issues.

C) ***Gender equality:*** The same status, rights and responsibilities for women and men. Access to World's Property (to resource benefits, information, and decision-making: In relation to sharing the world's resources and benefits gender equality is very important aspect to consider. The often-quoted UN statistics show:

i. *women perform 2/3 of the world's work*
ii. *women earn 1/10 of the world's income*
iii. *women are 2/3 of the world's illiterates*
iv. *women own less than 1/1000 of the world's property*

Gender is a determining factor for access to resources and benefits and control over them. In some societies for example, women may not own land, and their access to it for growing food may depend on a male relative or husband. In other cases, there may be no explicit reason why women should not attend, say, literacy classes….but their access to do so would be limited by their work load and lack of extra hours of energy to take advantage of so called equal opportunities.

D) ***Gender equity:*** The quality of being fair and right. A stage in the process of achieving gender equity.

Throughout the world in great instances, women are denied their human rights. Gender differentiation is all about inequality and about power relations between men

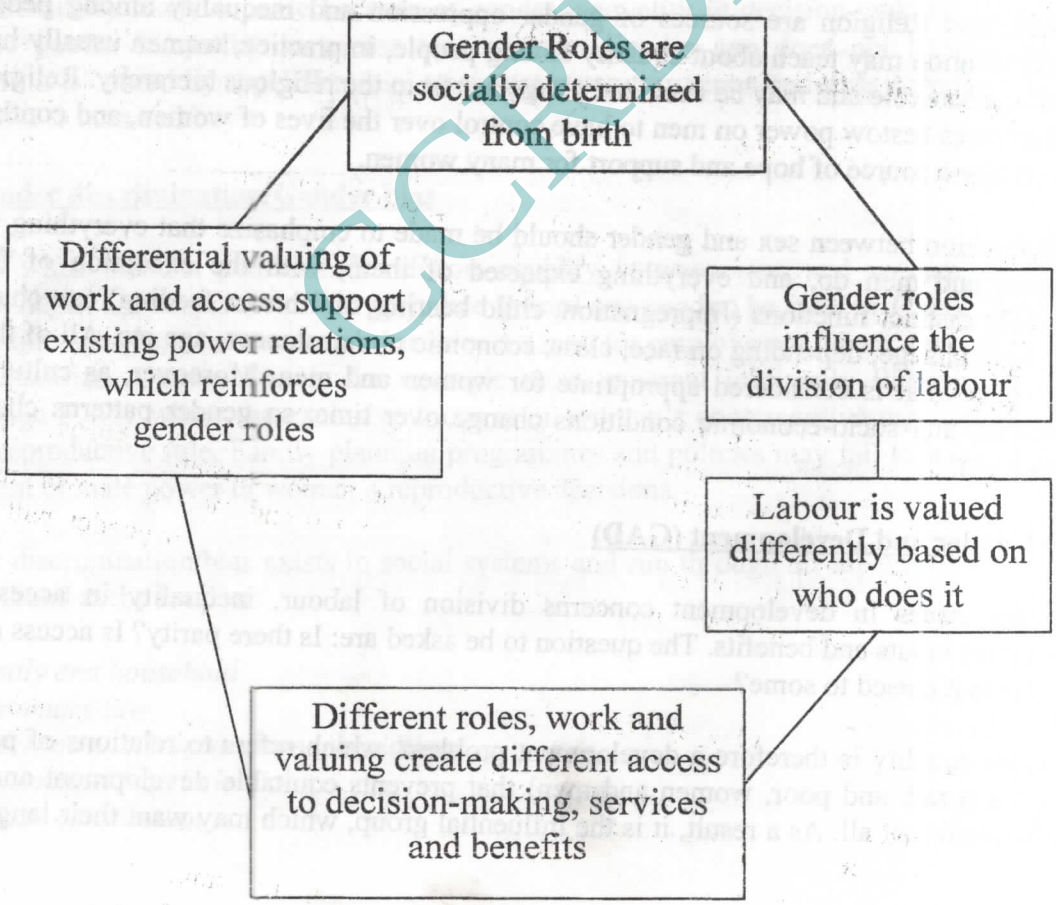
ECRDA

and women. Half of world's people is subordinate to the other half in thousands of different ways because of the sex they are born with; despite international human rights law which guarantees all people equal rights irrespective of sex, race, cast and so on. Women are denied equal rights with men to land, property, mobility, education, employment opportunities, shelter, food, to worship and over the lives of their own children. Women are denied to even manage, control and care for the health of their own bodies and reproductive functions. Women are even beaten up and abused in the name of cultural tradition despite that International human rights law prohibits cultural mal-practices which are damaging to women.

E) ***Gender relations:*** Ways in which a culture or society defines rights, responsibilities, and identities of men and women in relation to one another and their social, economic status in society.

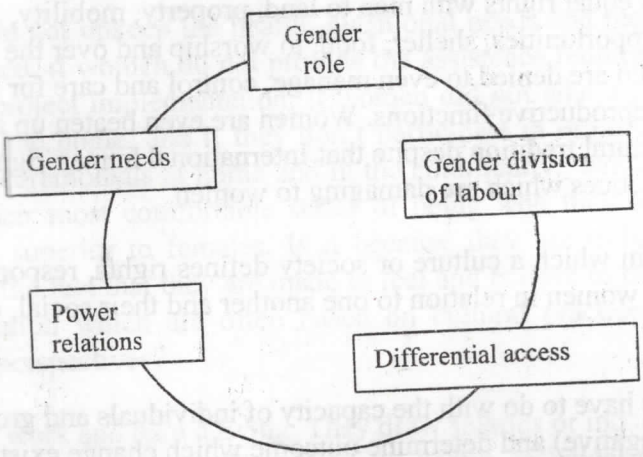
Therefore power relations have to do with the capacity of individuals and groups to initiate action (positive/negative) and determine outcome which change existing social, political and economic systems and norms, to equalize gender relations.

F) ***Gender needs:*** The needs of men and women are different because they have different gender roles, do different types of work, have different degrees of access to services and resources and experience unequal relations. The following chart describes the linkages between the above five components.



CCRDA

Thus the cycle reinforces itself unless development interventions affect the systems that establish gender roles and the valuing of work.



Gender Relations Analysis: A Guide for Trainers, A, Rami Parker, Itziar Lozano, Zyn A, Messuer

What are the other components/constraints of gender?

- **Culture and Religion**

Culture and Religion are sources of gender oppression and inequality among people. While religion may teach about equality among people, in practice, women usually have a subordinate role and may be excluded altogether from the religious hierarchy. Religions and cultures bestow power on men to have control over the lives of women, and continue to promise a source of hope and support for many women.

A distinction between sex and gender should be made to emphasize that everything that women and men do, and everything expected of them, with the exception of their sexually distinct functions (Impregnation, child bearing, and breast feeding) can change and does change, depending on race, class, economic circumstances, age etc. All of these influence what is considered appropriate for women and men. Moreover, as culture is dynamic, and socio-economic conditions change over time, so gender patterns change with them.

- **Gender and Development (GAD)**

Gender issues in development concerns division of labour, inequality in access to resources inputs and benefits. The question to be asked are: Is there parity? Is access open to all? Is it closed to some?

Gender equality is therefore a development problem, which refers to relations of power (between rich and poor, women and men) that prevents equitable development and the participation of all. As a result, it is the influential group, which may want their language

CCRDA

to be the national language and their culture to be the national culture, or if development resources are available that these should go to their area/region.

Gender issues in development are also concerned with the actions to be taken to correct those imbalances.

They are therefore not about women's participation or women's development per se. In the broader sense they are concerned to address imbalances that have existed over the years: and about failures of governments and leaders who have overlooked the problem and have not made sufficient efforts to create conducive circumstances for men and women to participate on equal footing.

Gender is a good tool for planning because gender analysis identifies the imbalance in society. The gender analysis of who does what? Or who controls what> can assist planners to minimize gender gap since in planning the issue at stake is that of power relations or power sharing.

- **Gender gap/disparity**

This is a measure of gender inequality on any socio-economic indicator (e.g. education, health, employment, etc.) is not just male/female gap because it does not arise from biological differences but from gender roles and the social location of women and men.

It is particularly likely to arise because of gender inequality in decision-making, which leads to gender inequality in access to resources. Gender gap does not happen by accident, it is caused by the differential treatment given to women and girls compared to that given to men and boys.

- **Gender discrimination/Gender bias**

This is when benefits and attitudes distort equality between men and women cause outright neglect or despise, outright prejudice toward one gender, be male or female. This occurs, for example, where an employer selects a man for employment where a woman is better qualified. Gender bias is for example most apparent in Family Planning and Population Policy where the exclusive focus is on women's contraceptive use, ignoring men's reproductive role. Family planning programmes and policies may fail to recognize the extent of male power in women's reproductive decisions.

Gender discrimination/bias exists in social systems and run through all aspects of life. It can be found at the level of:

i. Family and household
ii. Customary law
iii. Government administration, regulations
iv. Government legislation
v. A State constitution

CCRDA

Gender discrimination may also interfere with women's needs being met. For example, access to land is a general need of both men and women but in most developing countries land is only allocated to men; or that "all land is to be registered in the name of the head of the household". Through cultural practices, the man is considered to be a head of household. As a result, of this policy, only heads of households would register in Farmers Associations. E.g. a woman who has lost her husband through death, imprisonment and or flown on refugee, may not own the right of owning family property, hence she has to depend on the brother, cousin or father of her husband for any benefit despite the fact that she might be carrying children of her deceased husband.

Women could not thus get credit, could not be voted into office of Farmers Associations, Credit Associations since only registered members could do so. They could therefore be left out of training programme opportunities and other services rendered to Farmers Associations, even when there are cases where women might be heads of household.

- **Gender Block/Gender Blind**

Gender block refers to the perception that gender is a subject for scholars, specialists or simply women and the failure to apply gender concerns as discussed by experts in policies and programmes and day by day work. Gender blindness makes the social relations between women and men invisible, incapable of direct observation and not noticeable and always shaded. A household is a real gender blind spot in so far as programmes often view this basic unit as monolithic.

- **Gender Awareness/Gender Sensitivity/Gender Needs**

This means looking at women and men and realizing that women have needs, desires, vision etc. distinct from those of men, a factor which are invisible in most planning/implementation, monitoring and evaluation processes, with the result that development programmes have not only failed to improve women's lives, but have left them worse off. This realization led to the closer examination of the impact of development on women and to the beginning of gender and development (GAD) analysis. Gender sensitivity helps to readily respond to those issues which have to do with the social, economical, political, religious and cultural relations between men and women within specific societies. It recognizes the gap between distribution of resources and benefits generated from development activities, and decide on access to resources, control and decision making powers of men and women in different ways. The practical and strategic gender needs concepts are used to identify and address gender needs..

- **Gender Analysis**

Gender analysis requires separating data by sex and understanding how labour is divided and valued. Gender analysis must be done at all stages of the development process; one must always ask how a particular activity, decision or plan will affect women differently

ICRDA

from men. It should contribute to changes in development planning and research and also contribute to a process of empowerment leading to equity and efficiency in development.

Gender analysis reveals the need to make visible the linkages between tasks associated with production and reproduction. From the standpoint of women's lives and family survival, human reproduction activities are not limited to giving birth but include childbearing, care and nurture of family, education, nursing the sick, carrying water and wood, growing food, providing shelter and related responsibilities.

In order to fully engage and focus in gender analysis the most important strategy would be gender training which would facilitate to look at the word, "Gender". A lens that brings into focus the roles, resources and responsibilities of women and men within the system under analysis.

The OXFAM Gender Training Manual states Gender training is a strategy used to sensitize staff and partners to gender issues. It is a tool in the process of implementing gender-fair development' it aims to develop thoughts and action in a transformational manner, enabling participants to explore the issues, understand the dynamics of their societies and apply the concept of gender analysis to everyday development practice. It is concerned not with others, but with our work our organizations and ourselves. As such, it is a two-way process where facilitators and participants share knowledge (and experience) and learn (more) together.

Gender training is also considered as a tool that has potential to transform people's perceptions about their own selves and their community. It is used in the implementation of gender policies enabling women to end their vulnerability, assert their power and effect positive changes.

4. Concluding Remarks

In conclusion the social constructs and issues of gender are mostly based on the definition and understanding of the role of men and women of different societies at different time frame. It is a standard norm, belief, assumptions and expected roles that men and women play in the conduct of their life style. Although men and women live together as societal groups, women do not often benefit and they suffer from most unequal opportunities. Therefore, we need to portray both women and men as responsible and capable of changing themselves and society at large, while recognizing that women have a greater interest in organizing for such changes to come forward.

What are the major reasons for women wanting/needing change(s) within their societal framework? To address the social construction and maintenance of gender relations strategically, we need both short and long-term goals. In the short term, getting women and men to undertake what is perceived as each other's work will increase respect and lessen the gap. It would call for men/women to take on or to engage in non-traditional work in order to appreciate each other's work.

CCRDA

Changing to or taking on non-traditional work will increase respect for the type of role which are culturally regarded as inferior, non-appreciated and looked upon as insignificant.

However, taking on non-traditional work is easier for the rich (they may want to) and the poor (they may have to) than for ordinary working or middle class people. Such shifts may also increase women's workload, which is already too high. Education about our social capacity to transform gender relations can take place in the home, the school, the community and the work place. One should be aware of the complex end results that may negatively influence the gender gap in encouraging people to create gender relations that are empowering rather than oppressive: a positive force in the world.

Gaining insight into the complexity and subtlety of gender as socially created helps us understand that other power relations (white/black, rich/poor, ethnic majority/minority, urban/rural, are equally complex.

Regarding power imbalances requires appreciation of how the relationship is structured-attitudinally, socially, institutionally, politically, and economically.

Power base and authority usually benefit most those who are best placed to exploit the additional resources. This tends to be those who are better off, male, educated and well informed…and those who are more accessible, rather than those in remote areas.

Development analysts describe this situation as an unconscious bias against the disadvantaged, especially against women among the disadvantaged. It will take conscious and systematic effort on the part of development planners, managers and implementers to overcome these unconscious bias, and the tendency of project benefits to 'creep' from their intended beneficiaries, and the disadvantaged groups toward those who are already well off.

Systemic discrimination means that some people are better placed to exploit opportunities than others because of color, creed, ethnic, religious and other(s) that has firmer foundation and political, social and economic power base.

Hence, in order to consciously decrease disadvantages and imbalances, whether for women or other disadvantaged groups, we need to consider carefully the underlying barriers to equal participation.

Equal participation calls for strategic methods to ensure that the less advantaged groups are truly involved in the design at equal level in all aspects (not only in sheer number) but in aiming and measuring for equity of impact, not just equality of opportunity which in most cases are opted as a cover up of situation.

What do we mean by equity of impact? How could we ascertain equity between men and women? It is not through sheer number of male/female in participation or in being given

CCRDA

equal opportunity to benefit from and or to share with one another without necessarily addressing the components of attitudinal and cultural behaviors and biases.

CCRDA

Documents Referred/Consulted:

1. Two Halves make a Whole. Balancing Gender Relations in Development, Canadian Council for International Cooperation, Ottawa, august 1991.
2. Gender Concepts in Development Planning, Basic Approach (INSTRAW, 1995)
3. Advancing Gender Equity: From Concept to Action. (The world Bank, Washington, 1995)
4. Report of WID Mission on Gender Responsive Development Programming in Ethiopia, Addis Ababa, 1991
5. Suzanne Williams with Jane Seed and Adeline Mwau: OXFAM Gender Training Manual, (OXFAM Publications, OXFAM UK and Ireland, 1994)
6. A manual on Gender and Gender Mainstreaming, (UNECA) Specially Prepared for ECA Staff, January, 1997.
7. Gender and Culture, African Center for Women (ACW), July 1994.
8. Gender Relations Analysis, A Guide for Trainers, A. Rami Parker, Itziar Luzano and Lyn A. Messner, Save the Children, UK 1995
9. Kebeer, Naila, Revised Realities, Gender Hierarchy's in Development Thought, London and New York. 1994.
10. Gender and Culture: The Socialization Process and Gender Relations, African Center for Women (ACW) July 1994.
11. Gender and Health: Technical Paper, World Health Organization, 1998.
12. Gender Issues in Development: Selected Models, August 1992.

CCRDA

BASIC ISSUES IN GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT

TRAINING ON GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME FOR STAFF OF CRDA MEMBERS

CCRDA

NOVEMBER 20-29, 2000

BY SOSENA DEMISSIE
CONSULTANT

Basic issues in Gender and Development

Introduction

Globally, most Economic issues are discussed, at both technical and popular levels, in which they don't pay explicit attention to gender relations and how these relations subordinate women. Most government economic policy is formulated and implemented in ways that appear to be gender neutral, but on closer examination turn out to be marked by male bias (Elson (ed) 1991).

It the last decade, it is true that pressure from women's organizations and the research and advocacy of women social scientists have in brought about some increase in attention to women's issues in the institutions which analyze economic issues and formulate economic policy. But most economic issues are not thought of as women's issues; and women's issues in the economic sphere are narrowly constructed in terms of discrimination against women in public sector agencies and private sector firms in the distribution of employment opportunities, and access to resources. However economic issues are women's issues, and can be better understood if gender relations are taken into account.

Gender issue in development are concerned with inequalities between women and men and the actions to be taken to correct that imbalance. If gender discussion put more emphasis on women, it is only because gender is about imbalance. Men in terms of development, are more advantaged than women (ECA,ACW).

In Africa including Ethiopia, women shoulder more than 90 per cent of the domestic production tasks. Indeed they have the biological and social tasks of bearing, nurturing and providing initial education for children and ensuring the well-being of the family and that of the entire society. Highlighting the triple responsibilities of women and the tremendous contributions which they make to socio-economic development activities, the late President Captain Thomas Sankara had this to say:

> "Women you are the source of lite, yet an object, mother, yet domestic servant; nurturer, yet pseudo-woman, you can do the bidding of both soil and earth, yet you are invisible, faceless, and voiceless. You are the pivot, the unifier, yet a being in chains, shadow of the male shadow. The women is the pillar of family well-being, the mid-wife, washer woman, cleaner, and cook. She is errand runner, matron, farmer, healer, garden, sales women. she is labour power working with obsolete tools, putting in hundreds of thousands of hours for a hopeless level of production."

The contribution of women towards the soci-economic development and transformation of the African continent, as rightly confirmed by Sankara is enormous.

CCRDA

This paper attempts to address some aspects of gender issues in relations to the gender division of labour and the triple role of women. It also raise issues in the way that the economy is defined, both in the technical analysis of economists and in everyday conversation.

Gender Division of Labour

Gender division of labour refers to the different kinds of work done by women and men and the different value ascribed to the work. This varies from one society to another and from one culture to another and within cultures. Gender roles are particularly evident in the division of labour in families, the market place and communities.

Both men and women have roles in the spheres of production of goods and services and community work. Although in many societies women have a triple role: they undertake reproductive, productive and community managing activities, while men primarily undertake productive and community activities.

The triple roles of women

1. Reproductive work

It involves care and maintenance of the household and its members including bearing and caring for children, food preparation, water and fuel collection, shopping house keeping and family health care.

Mostly in rural areas and in poor communities, reproductive work is, far the most part, manual labour-intensive and time-consuming. It is almost always the responsibilities of women and girls. Though reproductive work is crucial to human survival it is seldom considered real work.

CCRDA

2. Productive work

It involves the production of food for consumption and trade (farming, fishing, employment, and self-employment). Both men and women are involved in productive activities, however women's productive work is after less visible and less valued.

3. Community Work

It involves collective organization of social events and services – ceremonies and celebrations, community improvement activities, participation in groups/associations, local political activities etc. This type of women's work is seldom considered in economic analysis of communities. It is however a vehicle for community organization. Even though, both men and women participate in community work, men tend to have

formal leadership roles while women often do support work. This gender division of labour also prevails in the community work.

Women do all the reproductive and much of the productive and community work and any intervention in one area will affect the other areas. Women's workload can thus prevent them participating in more 'values' work. When they do participate, participating in one means less time for the other tasks, such as child care or food preparation which is supposed to be their exclusive responsibilities.

Thus, all over the world, women have larger working hours than men. In almost every society, since brainwork has been regarded as more important than physical work, paid work more than unpaid or voluntary work, generating income more than maintaining the household, women's work considered as less values.

The important issue is the way work is valued. Even though, it is very important, reproductive work is undervalued. Women who labour in the home usually considered as not working because their work is not recognized and remunerated. According to the OXFAM Gender Training Manual, "if the reproductive (or domestic) work of women were valued at current market rates, women in the United Kingdom, for example, would earn in the region of $12,000 to $15,000 a year for it."

Women everywhere including in Ethiopia are mainly responsible for reproductive work which is necessary to maintain the members of the household and the labour force by cooking, washing, cleaning, looking after children, fetching water, grinding etc. which are mainly unpaid work and are therefore considered by society as not important and under-valued. Its lack of value expressed by the failure to recognize that it is "real" work. Even women who labour in the home commonly say 'I don't work'.

This point is well illustrated by the following story in the OXFAM Gender Training Manual.

Story: Mr. Moyo goes to the Doctor.

'"What is your job?" asked the doctor.

I am a farmer," replied Mr. Moyo.

"Have you any children?" the doctor asked.

God has not been good to me. Of 15 born, only 9 alive," Mr. Moyo answered.

"Does your wife work?" the doctor asked.

"No she stays at home"

"I see. How does she spend the day?"

CCRDA

"Well, she gets up at four in the morning, fetches water and wood, makes the fire, cooks breakfast and cleans the homestead. Then she goes to the river and washes clothes. Once a week she walks to the grinding mill. After that she goes to the township with the two smallest children where she sells tomatoes by the road side while she knits. She buys what she wants from the shops. Then she cooks the midday meal."

"You come home at midnight?"

"No, No she brings the meal to me about three kilometers away."

"And after that?"

"She stays in the field to do the weeding, and then goes to the vegetable garden to water."

"What do you do?"

"I must go and discuss business and drink with the men in the village."

"Ans after that?"

"I go home for supper which my wife has prepared."

"Does she go to bed after supper?"

"No, I do. She has things to do around the house until 9 or 10."

"But I thought you said your wife doesn't work."

"Of course she doesn't work. I told you she stays at home."

This story illustrates very well how women's work is not considered important starting from household up-to the national level.

CGRDA

The impact of gender on women's lives:

The cause of women's poverty is located in the gender division of labour which marginalizes women's involvement in the labour market while at the same time assigning little or no value to their caring and domestic work within the family. Women's unpaid labour in the home helps to free men from the constraints of domestic and caring activities and enable men to engage in paid employment and enhance their earning power. As indicated in the following tables, globally, women constitute 70 per cent of thosose living in poverty, hold fewer than half jobs on the market, and often paid half as much as men for work of equal value. They constitute only 10 per cent of the members of legislative bodies and 1-2 per cent of executives. 66 per cent of women's work is unpaid as compared to 25 per cent for men in developing countries. Women's income is 60-70 per cent of men globally and are generally concentrated in lower paying jobs. Such a difference not only sustain the gender division of labour but perpetuates lower social status as well as disproportionate loss of jobs due to technical progress.

When we look the indicators for Ethiopian women, even though the population of women are equal to men, the disparity between women and men in literacy rate, school enrolment at all levels and the earned income share can easily show the impact of gender on women's lives. Early marriage and child bearing at young age is a normal practice in Ethiopia which endangers the health of mothers and infant, limits women's educational and employment opportunities, and increases the likelihood that women and their children to be poor. According to Ministry of Economic Development and Cooperation report, in Ethiopia 50 per cent of the population are food poor people (MEDaC,1999). The situation is sever in rural areas where 52 per cent are food poor as compare to 36 per cent of food poor people in urban areas. The severity of poverty in the country shades some light the burden carried by Ethiopian Women head of households being responsible for the unpaid reproductive, as well as productive work.

As can be analyzed from the tables, lack of control in sexual relations makes women globally as well as in Ethiopia more vulnerable to sexually transmitted diseases including HIV/AIDS. Because of that HIV increasing most rapidly among younger women. Globally, women comprised 10 per cent of those with HIV in 1985, in 2000, it is predicted to be 50 percent or more of those infected. The trend is even worse in Ethiopia.

The absence of women in political and senior government offices is not limited to Ethiopia only. From the tables, we can see that there is no significant difference in this area globally and in Ethiopia as well.

At all levels, with a few exceptions, it is men who hold the high status positions and have decision-making power. Women tend to fill the roles of support persons and organizers. While men's work in this sphere is highly rewarded, women's work is often under-valued.

Globally:

Gender Disparities: A Development Issue

Situation	Gender Issue
900 million illiterates	65% female
130 million out-of-school children	70% female
100 million primary school drop-outs	66% female
1.3 billion poor	70% women
HIV infection in youth	66% female in some regions
HIV infection by sex	10% female in 1985, Projected to be 50% female in 2000
Woman's work	66% unpaid (25% men's work unpaid in developing countries, 33% in Industrial countries)
Labour force participation	40% female
Women's income	60-70% of men's
Managers	14% women
Parliament	10% women
Executives	1-2% women

Source: 'Gender Equity, Concepts and Tools for Development', The Center for Development and Population Activities, Washington DC, December 1996

CCRDA

Ethiopia:

Gender Disparities: A Development Issue

Situation	Female	Male	Gender Issue
Population (1994)	50%		50%
Household heads (1994)	22%		73%
Illiteracy rate (1994)	83%		70%
School enrolment (1994)			
Primary (6 years)	21%		29%
Junior (2 years)	20%	23%	
Secondary (4 years)	10%		13%
Distribution of students			
Enrolled at higher institutions			
(Deploma/Degree level 1996/97)	19%		81%
Economically active population (1994)	43%		57%
Seat held in parliament (1994)	2.4%		-
Administrative and managers	0.03%	-	
Professional and technical workers	0.3%		-
Legislatures, senior Officials & Managers (1994)	0.03%		0.17%
Earned income share (UNDP 1998)	34.1%		65.9%
Total fertility rate (1994)	6.5%		
Contraceptive preventive rate (1997)	9.8%		
Maternal mortality rate (1995)	700/100,000		
Number of HIV care reported (1997)	63%		
(reported 57 men)			

Source: Human Development Report (HDR), 1998

CGRDA

The poor integration of gender issues in development processes

The poor integration of gender issues stems from both the way in which development is conceptualized and from the way in which public policy is analyzed.

The process of human reproduction, the way in which children are raised, sick people nursed, old people cared for , as a non commodities process, undertaken without pay, is left out of account. Human resource issues are addressed in terms of 'human capital formation' in which inputs of health and education services, and of food, are transformed by individuals into saleable assets like energy and skills. But this is only one dimension of human resource formation, and leaves out account the care and nurture provided by mothers and fathers, brothers and sisters, friends and neighbors; care that is not translated into cash; care that is central to human reproduction.

Though this care is not provided for direct material reward, it nevertheless entails work; and is often called 'reproductive work' or 'domestic labour'. The primary way this care is organized is through gender ascriptive relations, that is, through social relations, like those of husband and wife, mother and father, daughter and son, which are explicitly genderd in contrast to class relations like worker and boss, peasant and landlord, which are not gender ascriptive. As is well documented, there is sexual division of labour in such work, with the bulk of it being undertaken by women. This happening not as an outcome on choices freely exercised, but as the outcome of social pressures. In support of this, one would point to the fact that refusal by women of such responsibilities is typically met with countervailing force, ranging from social disapproval to violence, both at home and in the society. A critical issue for women is thus how reproductive work is articulated with access to an income; or, how raising children and looking after the sick and old is integrated with getting a living.

The articulation of reproductive work with obtaining an income takes different forms in different societies and changes significantly in the course of development. But generally, in spite of the variety, reproductive work does not carry with it an entitlement to an independent income; and those who bear major responsibility for it must either undertake additional work to generate and income of their own (double burden) or become dependent for income transfers on those who are largely free from this responsibility. That dependence is organized through gender relations.

This point is missed by those who see households as unities, the basic building blocks of society, organized along lines of reciprocity, pooling and sharing. Although it would be wrong to leave these positive aspects of household life out of the picture, there is a wealth of evidence which indicates that negative aspects of dominance, submission, inequality, conflict and violence also structure households. However, women are disadvantaged because if they try to free themselves from gender ascriptive relations, to become 'individuals' in the public sphere rather than daughter, wives and mothers , they are economically and socially vulnerable on that account, The same does not apply to men. The result is the paradox that while the gendered relations of household life may be oppressive to women, they generally offer more security for women and attempts at living free of them are risky (Elson, 1991).

CCRDA

Thus a concept of development adequate to the needs of everyone must address the process of human reproduction as well as the production of commodities, and explicitly consider the way the two are integrated. It must also be prepared to look at relations within households, as well as relations between households. It is the absence of these issues which is the fundamental reason for the poor integration of a gender perspective.

But beyond this, there is also a lack of understanding how gender analysis can be integrated with abstracts like 'exports', 'imports', 'the balance of payments', 'GNP', 'industry', 'agriculture', ' public sector', 'private sector', etc. To integrate gender analysis at the 'macro' and 'sectoral' levels of the economy, it is necessary to understand how the abstract categories are related to the sexual division of labour and income, both inside and outside the household (Elson,1991).

Planners and policy makers should try to understand the essential links between women's productive and reproductive roles, by avoiding the contradiction of placing additional burdens on the same people who are expected to be 'productive'. It should be clear that over-burdening women will undermine the effectiveness and efficiency of policies in the areas of economics as well as in social development, since if women's reproductive roles are undermined the productive capacity of the society is also undermined.

It must also be recognized that gender is indeed a critical variable in development planning and policy making. And gender analysis should be an essential part of the planning process, using the analytical tools devised to ensure that women's needs and interests are taken into account. At the same time, it must be recognized the limitations of these technical tools.

Given the limitations of the analytical frameworks and technical guidelines, as well as those of the employees within the systems which introduce and enforce these policies, the most useful purpose may be to use gender analysis, to raise fundamental questions about the development process itself.

The point of women's development is not primarily concerned with enabling women to be more productive, more efficient or to use their labour force effectively. The central issue of women's development is women's empowerment to enable them to take an equal place with men and to participate equally in the development process in order to achieve control over the factors of production in equal basis with men. This involves women's collective mobilization to overcome institutionalized discrimination. Through participation, women can take decisions alongside men; women can then organize themselves to collectively gain increased representation, capacity building, and thus increased empowerment.

An important empowerment strategy is participation. It enables people to develop skills and abilities to accumulate experience to mange their life better, to have a say, to negotiate, to plan, etc. Participation in development means the full involvement of people (women and men) in development, which affects their lives regardless of gender, race, age, class, sex or disability. It means people (women and men) being able to make their views known, and take decisions which affect their lives. In the case of women, it means that their concerns influence development policy and project aims and that they play apart in evaluating the project impact.

CCRDA

Reference:

1. Canadian Council for International Co-operation (CCIC), Two Halves Make a Whole: Balancing Gender Relations in Development, Ottawa,1991.

2. Center for Development and Population Activities (CDPA),Gender Equality, concepts and Tools for Development, Washington D.C. 1996.

3. Elson. D., (1991), Gender Issues in Development Strategies, Seminar on Integration of Women in Development, Vienna, 9-11Dec. 1991

4. United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA), A study of the Economic Empowerment of Women and their role in the Socio-Economic Development of Africa, Addis Ababa, 1996.

5. Suzanne Williams with Janet Seed and Adelina Mwau, The Oxfam Gender Training Manual, Oxfam Uk and Ireland, 1994.

6. UNDP, Human Development Report of Ethiopia,1998.

CCRDA

GENDER ANALYSIS FRAMEWORK/MATRIX

TRAINING ON GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME FOR STAFF OF CRDA MEMBERS

CCRDA

NOVEMBER 20-29, 2000

BY THEHAI YITBAREK
CONSULTANT

Gender Analysis Framework/Matrix

I. Conceptual Framework

Gender analysis is a complex and multifaceted exercise which calls for an organized approach so that details on issues would be taken care of in the process of monitoring and evaluating developmental projects and programmes that are gender based.

Factors related to gender in the entire process of programme development from the stage of conceptualization, needs assessment, design for program/project implementation and monitoring, evaluation, would call for a very serious re-thinking and understanding about the details on the relationship between men and women at different levels and circumstances of operation which would affect the outcome of gender analysis. Gender analysis is however indispensable to gender focussed development programmes/projects.

A project usually commences with a review of its technical, socio-economic and institutional feasibility. Gender analysis should be an integral part of the feasibility review. Key aspects to be covered include the projects socio-economic, financial, technical and managerial viability and sustainability. Existing information on the project is evaluated, and any gaps in data or changes in the programming environment are identified. Once the mission information is collected, and analyzed, recommendations for the detailed project design can be formulated. Analytical tools such as a problem free or flow chart should reflect gender analysis results.

Christian Relief & Development Association
LIBRARY
P.O.Box 5674

CCRDA

Feasibility Studies

Usually, there is little information available on the situation of women vis-à-vis men in the project area. A feasibility study or a baseline study with an intended gender based approach offers a good opportunity to develop or improve the required database (information) related to men/women. Through interviews with local government officials, representations of non-government organizations, local WID specialists, and project personnel from previous phases and, more importantly from the local women, the objectives and assumptions of the project regarding women can be confirmed or adjusted as required. This information can be used as base line data for monitoring and evaluating any changes in the situation of women (positive/negative effects) as a result of the project.

Project designs often fail to recognize the different roles, contributions and control over resources and income of male and female children, and of women and men.

Socio-economic viability

In order to assess the potential social and economic impact of a project, it is necessary to know men's and women's characteristics and their natural and cultural environment, as related to the projects objectives and activities. The degree of detail will depend on the nature and scale of a given project. For instance, if the project involves new technology for agricultural production, then the gender division of labour for each agricultural activity should be known. (Who is responsible for land clearance, preparation, seeding, weeding, processing?)

The following elements could be included in a gender analysis exercise.

Production of goods and services.

- *Which productive activities do women perform?*
- *How much time is spent on these tasks?*
- *Where are these tasks performed?*
- *What access do women have to resources needed to carry out their productive activities? (e.g. technical assistance, credit, equipment, transport etc.)*
- *Who controls the benefits (such as income) derived from each activity?*
- *Are there any legal, business, or socio-cultural determinants in the existing gender division of labour, and in access to land and control over resources?*
- *Are there variations on the above due to ethnicity, religion or social/kinship structure?*
- *Are there variations on the above in cases where heads of households are female?*

Gender analysis starts with three key questions:

1. Who does what? With what resources?
2. Who has access to the resources, benefits and opportunities?
3. Who controls the resources, benefits, and opportunities? (Power).

CCRDA

II. Objectives of Gender Analysis/Matrix

The purpose of gender analysis is to ensure that development projects and programs fully incorporate the roles, needs, and participation of women and men. A project that does not conduct gender analysis can have unintended and undesired effects on the society, particularly on the women (in many instances). For example, women are largely responsible for reproductive work such as food preparation, fuel collection, water collection, childcare, and home making as well as other assumed productive work, e.g. on the farm, etc. These are time-consuming tasks but are not paid for and they are not considered work. Development activities that increase women's productive work, in agriculture and/or micro-enterprise, for example, often do not take their domestic labour and time consuming reproductive activities into account. Therefore, women may not be able to participate in so called "productive" activities and consequently may be regarded as un-interested, inefficient and not competitive.

When, on the other hand, they participate, the additional workload is often passed on female, children, who may have to leave school.

At Melka Oba, Gojam Region the Fruit Farm was nationalized by the Derg Socialist Government about 25 years ago and the farm was given to displaced families from Harar Region. Although the people had experience in fruit farming, they were given guidelines that every adult member of their families (men, women, and youth) would fully engage in production activities.

The wives had children who were being breast-fed, some were pregnant, and others had no idea about modern fruit farming. The men (husbands) were in full access to decision-making and control over resources (management and sell of fruits). Women had to toil in ensuring that their reproductive activities were fulfilled. A great disaster took place in respect to the care of small children to the extent that some were bitten up to death by poisonous snakes and others drowned in the near by water sources because there was no one to attend their wellbeing. Women also ended up facing worse conditions than ever before. The special needs of women were not taken into consideration. In order to fill in some of the obvious gaps, UNICEF and IFLE (NGO) initiated some support project activities such as child care center, clinic and water delivery services.

In many cases, it is assumed that access to resources may simply clarify the position of control of resources and the relationship and power.

What may appear to be women's control or benefit from resources may prove to be only access. For example, women may have access to family planning methods through clinics or community-based distribution agents, but their husbands may control whether or not they are permitted to use any method or a particular method.

About 10-15 years ago, the experience of the Family Guidance Association of Ethiopia (FGAE) was such that women would not be served with any family planning methods unless their husbands come to the clinic and authorized by signature about their

GORDA

agreement on file. Once the access/control issue is clarified, project planners can develop activities aimed at giving women greater control of their reproductive health.

III. Exemplary Models for Gender Analysis Framework

For many people gender analysis is identified with the Harvard Analytical framework, which is a series of tools for data collection and analysis. However, there are a number of models for conducting gender analysis.

Each model is a flexible tool that can be modified and adapted to fit a specific context. The Harvard Framework and three other models are included in this presentation. They are used to show gender analysis at different stages of the project cycle and for different purposes.

- *The Contextual Analysis model is used before a project starts (developed by Husing A: Norem, 1993 for USAID/WID)*
- *The Women's Empowerment Framework analyzes a project from a women's empowerment perspective. (Sara Hlupekila Longwe of Zambia Gender Equity and Women Empowerment, UNICEF)*
- *The Gender Analysis Matrix used to understand community perceptions of a project. (A manual on Gender Analysis Training for Grassroots Workers)*
- *The Harvard Framework is used during a project. (Gender Role in Development Projects, OXFAM Gender Training Manual)*

a) Contextual Analysis: is a method used to systematically identify constraints and obstacles as well as opportunities and positive results that may occur at all levels of society and how systems at all levels interact to affect equally.

The matrix below analyses factors affecting female inheritance at seven levels of society, e.g. from family/household level, small groups, community, institutions, legal system, political system, culture.

CCRDA

Table 1: Contextual analysis of Female Inheritance in Nepal

CONTEXTUAL ANALYSIS OF FEMALE INHERITANCE IN NEPAL					
SOCIETAL LEVEL	ISSUE	ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT ISSUE	CHANGE NEEDED	CONSTRAINTS TO CHANGE	ACTIONS
Culture	Women do not inherit property	Households will provide for women, and bride price is in place of inheritance	Include women in inheritance decisions	Traditions Women's and men's beliefs	
Political System	Policies do not support women's inheritance	A position supporting women's inheritance would not be popular	Adopt policies that will support women's inheritance	Existing policies Women's lack of political power	Policy dialogue to encourage change of the legal code
Legal System	The law prohibits transfer of property to women through inheritance	Changes in the law are not necessary	Change legal code to provide for equal inheritance rights	Existing legal code Vested interests of men	Change existing legal code
Institutions			Support equal inheritance through equitable procedures	Procedures support the existing legal code	Support changes in procedures to accommodate change in legal code
Community		There is no community interest in change	Develop support for equal inheritance	Traditions	Community education
Small Groups		Women aare not sufficiently interested to organize	Support efforts of women groups to change law	Lack of knowledge about how to effect change	Capacity building for local women's groups, including legal literacy training
Family7House hold	Families do not include daughters when considering inheritance	Families would not transfer property to women through inheritance, even if it were possible	Include both males and females in transforming property through inheritance	Existing legal code Traditions	Inproving girls' education and women's knowledge of law

GCRDA

b) The Women's Empowerment Framework: This Framework was developed to incorporate gender awareness, women's participation, women's issues into development programmes, with the goal of overcoming inequality. The framework consists of a five-level scale of increasing equality and empowerment. The framework also identifies three levels of recognition of women's issues in project objectives; namely,

- *the negative level – ignores women's issues.*
- *the neutral level – recognizes women's issues but ensures only that women's positions are not undermined.*
- *the positive level – focuses on improving the position of women.*

Table 2: Gender Equity and Women's Empowerment

LEVELS OF EMPOWERMENT	DESCRIPTION
CONTROL	Women and men have equal control over factors of production and distribution of benefits, without dominance or subordination.
PARTICIPATION	Women have equal participation in decision-making in all programs and policies.
CONSCIENTIZATION	Women believe that gender roles can be changed and gender equality is possible
ACCESS	Women gain access to resources such as land, labour, credit, training, marketing facilities, public sercices, and benefits on an equal basis with men. Reforms of law and practice may be prerequisites for such access.
WELFARE	Women's mayerial needs, such as food, income, and medical care, are met.

CCRDA

c) *The Gender Analysis Matrix (GAM):* a manual was developed in response to request by grassroots development practitioners for a gender analysis tool that is easily implemented without extensive research, data collection and training. This matrix was done for a project that trained women as community-based distributors (CBDs) of family planning. The purpose of the project was to increase women's access to contraception and to enhance their status and decision making ability.

The matrix reveals perceptions about gender roles at family/household and community levels. The matrix is designed to be completed by women and men of the community regularly over the course of the development project. Once all gender factors have been identified and the matrix completed, the groups review each factor and rate it according to its consistency or inconsistency with project objectives.

The compiled results of the Gender Analysis Matrix (GMA) would indicate the level of gender sensitivity of the project during the process of implementations. Through constant review and discussions on relevant issues related to the objectives of the project, men and women involved at household and community levels would improve outcome of project objectives.

IV. The Harvard Analytical Framework

This framework was developed in 1980 in the Harvard Institute for International Relations to facilitate the integration of women into project analysis. The Harvard Framework, sometimes called the GFA (Gender Framework Analysis) is designed to provide the basis for a gender profile of social group. It is very adaptable and is composed of four basic elements, (tools) to develop a descriptive analysis of gender relations. The framework can also be used as a planning and implementation tool for programmes and projects. There are four inter-related components:

- ***The Activity Profile:*** Identifies all relevant productive and reproductive tasks of the community and addresses the question "who does what?" In each case men's and women's work is shown based upon the gender division of labour, which lists the tasks of women and men, allowing for disaggregation by age, ethnicity or class, as well as where and when the tasks are performed. Activities are grouped under three headings: productive activities, reproductive activities or household activities and social/political/and religious activities.

- ***The Access to Control Profile:*** identifies and lists all the resources needed to carry out these tasks, and the benefits derived from roles described in the Activity Profile. The resources may cover physical and materials such as land, capital, economic, political or social and include time, education, access to these resources and benefits and control over them, disaggregated by gender.

- ***The influence factors: identifies*** the surrounding dynamics that affect the gender disaggregation presented in the above two profiles, namely; 'The Activity Profile' and 'The Access and Control Profile'. These factors can be past, present or future influences. They can be factors of change (political, economic, cultural, educational, legal, and international), or they may be constraints and or opportunities that especially impact women's equal participation and benefit. The Influencing Factors therefore may affect the division of labour and the access and control of resources of the community.

- ***The cycle Analysis:*** is the final component, which consists of examining a project proposal or area of intervention in the light of gender-disaggregated data and social change.

CCRDA

The most useful elements of the Harvard Analytical Framework are:

1. Its capacity to measure the degree (differential) access to and control over resources and the benefits in relation to women's and men's responsibilities and the distinction between access to resources and benefits, and control over them.

2. It provides a very broad view of what resources means not just material resources but also less tangible things such like skills, social organizations, and most importantly for women, the question of "time".

3. The ideas that individuals and groups loose resources over time but also retain some and gain others. This aspect is particularly important for long-term development work with strategic aims, and in relation to emergency relief work. Sudden disasters such as earth quack, war, famine, etc. may destroy available resources and leave men and women empty handed, but other opportunities may occur to provide sources of strength: these are opportunities for relief and rehabilitation work, to focus on people as actors in rather than victims of the circumstances.

The Harvard Framework is a very useful framework and it works well provided that it is used when detailed knowledge and information of social group in question is available. It is difficult to use the Framework without access to a more accurate details.

As an example, an actual case is here by referred to show an analysis of an ongoing community forestry project in Asia.

The analysis was conducted to gather information about the impact of the project on women and men.

The objectives of the project were to improve living standards through increased village production of wood and non-wood forest products; to decrease consumption of fuel wood by testing, manufacturing, and distributing improved stoves; to promote active participation in forest resource management; to reduce environmental destruction through soil conservation, terracing, and protecting water resources, and finally, to improve the role of women in rural development and increase their productivity.

Activities included selling production, development and distribution of improved stoves, and income-generating opportunities for women.

The analysis found that the effect of the project on women was generally negative, for men, it was generally positive: access to credit, well-paying jobs, decision-making power, and seedling production. Women were excluded from seedling production in the nurseries and lost access to and control of a benefit as well as paid work. Women lacked the time to take the training courses and use extension services. Men did have time and access. The project incentives were directed at the heads of households, that is men. Other activities including tree planting and training in construction and marketing of ovens were also considered the jobs of men as farmers and heads of households.

CCRDA

The integrated approach to project cycle management uses the logical Framework as a tool to structure the key components of a project in a more clear and logical way.

The approach underlying the logical Framework should be applied from the time a project is first considered and should be based on a clear analysis of the problem and of the target group. (men/women). The approach therefore needs to be used throughout the project cycle in the approval, implementation, review and appraisal, monitoring, and evaluation stages. Gender Analysis Logical Framework as a tool would depict the details in gaps for the fulfillment of the specific project objectives, as may be designed for articulating gender-based differences in the process of project implementation.

The following five basic questions should be examined in the Logical Gender Analysis Framework.

- Activity profile based on gender division of labour:

  - *Who does what in forestry planting?*
  - *Who does what in fisheries? Or etc.*
  - *How interchangeable are male and female tasks?*

- Time allocation analysis:

  - *How much time is available (per day, per season, per year) divided over various activities?*
  - *Is there a time stress?*
  - *Are there major bottlenecks and if so what are they?*
  - *How can the changes envisaged/desired by the project be realized?*

- Access and Control Profile:

  - *How is access/control determined?*
  - *Who has access, Who has control?*
  - *What changes are brought about eg. by the promotion of labour-intensive cultivation techniques? By introduction of commercial vegetable/ fruit growing?*

- Cost/benefits analysis

  - *Who provides the inputs?*
  - *Are inputs comparable with benefits?*
  - *Are benefits offset by disadvantages elsewhere? (often women's labour is rated as a scarce economic resources and is usually traded offs...and women are prepared for the trade-offs.*
  - *What is the social cost of participation?*
    (Eg. a foreign donor was to supply free seedling to each family in a community and the community members (each household) had to plant and care for the

CCRDA

young trees. Consultations with community leaders (all male), led to the decision to plant fruit trees. The assumption was that this specific project would benefit families with additional income from sale of the fruits. However, since men are the traditional owners of fruit trees and their yields, the project resulted in women having to look after the trees and men retaining the income from the fruits. These income was spent on personal consumption for the men (beer, radios, bicycles, etc.) rather than on family needs.

- Decision-making:
  - *Who takes part in decision-making bodies and who does not?*
  - *Are women structurally excluded?*
  - *What is the 'normal' practice in regard to decision-making?*
  - *What other ways do women have to influence decision-making?*

Gender sensitivity of a Logical Framework/Matrix could be assessed and checked with relevant and specific questions at the various stages of project/programme planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

Table 3: Questions to check the Gender Sensitivity of a Logical Framework/Matrix

	Wider objectives	**Objectives**	**Inputs**	**Outputs**
1. Project structure	Are wider objectives addressed? E.g. problems that men/women face? Does choice of soecific objectives influence relations between men and women?	Do the objectices distinguish between men and women in specifying who is targeted aand who is expected to benefit? Who participated in choosing from the variety of needs to be addressed? What practical and strategic needs of men and women are addressed by the project?	Are the outputs specified separately for men and women? Are they consistent with the needs of the groups specified (male/female)	Are the inputs appropriate to the involvement of men and women? Is there time and budget for participation and for gender analysis? Are budgets flexible and reviewable? And has time planning provided for the possibility of new activities in response to womens constraints? Has local gender and training expertise been involved to the maximum extent possible?
2. Indicators of Achievements	Consistency check with the gender-specific policies of Government or of relevant organized groups. To what extent are wider problems addressed gender specifically at the policy or institutional levels?	- In qualitative and quantitative indicators - What improvements and changes are expected for women/men? - Who is expected to benefit, in terms of gender division of labour and access to and control over resources gained? Were these indicators defined with participation of (mem/womem)? - to what extent will improvements and changes affect gender relations?	What has been achieved for men and for women in terms of: - use of appropriate technology? - adequate policy measures supporting the project? - environmental protective measures? - building up institutional and management capacities? - who (men and/or women, age, class, ethnic background) benefited in reaching each of the	- How accessible and appropriate are project goods, services and facilities for men and for ?women - Are contingencies provided for in work plan and budget? - Is provision made for participatory monitoring and evaluation? - What resources have been devoted to addressing women's strategic needs?

CORDA

			outputs? - to what extent; in what capacity did men and women participate?	
3. How Indicators can be assessed.	- Will participants organized at national level be able (in a position) to provide data? - What alternative data resources can be used to check consistency?	- Was a gender analysis carried out in time to serve as a basis for targeting of activities? - Is strategy set out to tackle constraints? - Are participants' views on impact considered in mid-term and/or final evaluation?	- Do progress technical, monitoring and evaluation reports include gender specific qualitative as well as quantitative data?	- Are participants consulted? (men and women separately) on the appropriateness of inputs during monitoring visits, staff meetings, on going evaluations, mid-term and final evaluations?
4. Assumptions, risks and conditions.	- Do the policy framework and legislative climate support the participation of both men and women in reaching objectives? - Is the political climate favorable to a participatory approach? - Is the policy and institutional context supportive of activities in the sector addressed by the project?	- Are the objectives supported by policies? - By other activities nationally or regionally which will complement or endanger the planned improvements? - Have these been taken into account of linkages provided for?	- Is the social or political status of men and women in the target group such that their interests pose a threat to gender specific project outputs? - Is there sufficient motivation, skills and organizational capacity among target groups (men/women) and particular organizations to encourage and participate in gender sensitive project activities?	- Is the participation plan reasonable in terms of local constraints (seasonal, cultural, gender-related, financial, other) Whish might reduce women's agreement or ability to participate or affect their confidence? - Can the project help them to participate? - Is gender expertise adequate and is it used early enough?

Source: Women and Development. A Guide to Gender Issues, 1993. (Pg. 32-33)

V. Conclusion

As has been discussed, the issue of gender sensitive analysis is rather difficult and most complex within the development process, especially that in developing/poor countries such like Ethiopia.

The importance of poverty reduction as a goal of development policy raises questions about the relationship between poverty and gender advantages/disadvantages. Often, some approaches to poverty reduction are 'gender blind' others confuse gender and poverty concerns. What is most important is to be aware and to know the components of gender…gender awareness and the need for institutional changes required in designing projects and programmes addressing poverty.

The World Bank's new poverty agenda, which was presented in the 1990 World Development Report, was criticized because of its gender blindness. For instance the fact that most projects dictate the promotion of labour-intensive employment overlooks that women already have too much work and often do not receive direct benefits from their long hours of labour.

CCRDA

It has been recognized that where labour intensive economic growth has occurred, as in East and Southeast Asia, there have been significant reductions on poverty but the impact on gender equity is less clear. Labour markets remain highly discriminatory and women often get trapped in low-wage forms of work. (Heyzer Sen, 1994)

'Poverty' also means different things for men and for women i.e. that poverty is gendered. For example, land ownership is often taken as a measure of wealth, but in some countries (North India), where women move to their husband's village on marriage, mobile property such as gold, animals, household goods, etc. are more relevant measure of wealth for women.

Divorce presents particular problems for women, even when it is sought as an escape from cruelty. Since, unlike men, women leave their property/wealth when they run away from home. It surely takes a tremendous effort and a lot of sacrifices for women to regain even the smallest she owns when it comes to separating and dissolving marriage.

In general escape poverty is also harder for women, due to gender inequalities from the household to the public level. The gender sensitivity level in development processes has now become more and more vivid through the efforts made by feminist groups at global, regional and local conferences and educational forums.

Gender Focal Points need to be aware of the great challenges to be faced in ensuring that projects and programme efforts ought to encompass details of gender issues their objectives, implementation monitoring and evaluations process.

Hence, knowledge on the most crucial aspects of gender relations at house hold, at community, policy and political institutions, religious practices, customary beliefs etc. as well as the capacities and willingness of implementing agencies, ought to be most important.

CGRDA

Documents Reffered/Consulted

1. Gender Equity – Concepts and Tools for Development, (1996) Center for Development and Population Activities.

2. International Planned Parenthood Federation (1995) Gender Awareness for Population and Development, London

3. Kebeer, Naila (1994) – Revised Realities; Gender Heirarchies in Development Thought, London and New York.

4. Moser, Caroline O. N. (1988) - Gender Planning in the Third World: Meeting Practical and Strategic Gender Needs.

5. Women and Development: a Guide to Gender Issues in Managing – (1993) commission of the European Committees.

6. Gender/WID Approach to the Logical Framework.

7. Anderson, Dr. Mary B., Women on the Agenda: UNIFEM's experience in mainstreaming with women, 1985-1990. Development Fund for Women, New Yourk, 1990.

8. Gaertner (GTZ) Urich and Dannis Hamiltton (UNDP/DTCP). (1992) goal Oriented Project Planning (GOPP). An Introduction to the Methodology.

9. Moser, Caroline O.N. (1991) Gender Planning in the Third world: Meeting Practical and Strategic Gender Needs. From: Changing Perceptions. OXFAM.

10. Parker A. R. (1993) Another Point of View: A manual on gender Analysis Training for Grassroots workers, Training Manual, UNIFEM Women Inc., New York.

11. The OXFAM Gender Training Manual. (1998) Suzanne Williams with Janet Seed and Adelina Hwall. OXFAM UK and Ireland,

CCRDA

GENDER SENSITIVE PROJECT DEVELOPMENT

Christian Relief & Development Association
LIBRARY
P.O.Box 5674

TRAINING PROGRAMME ON GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT

CRDA

PREPARED BY: RAHEL BEKELE
TRAINING OFFICER (CRDA)
NOVEMBER 20 – 29, 2000

Training program on Gender and Development

Prepared and Presented by: Rahel Bekele

Topics

I. **Gender Issues** (Role Play)

II. Gender Sensitive Project Development

III.Gender Analytical Planning and Methodology

IV.Presentation of Project Proposal

CCRDA

Gender Sensitive Project Development

Prepared and Presented by: Rahel Bekele

WHAT ARE GENDER SENSITIVE INDICATORS AND WHY ARE THEY USEFUL?

- In an effort to advance equality and equity between women and men, there is a need to generate accurate and relevant data on the status of women, men and gender relations. This data helps make gender biases more visible and facilitates effective policy-making to bring about greater gender equality and equity.

GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATOR

can be defined as an indicator that captures gender -related changes in society over time. Thus, whereas a gender statistics provides factual information about the status of women, gender-sensitive indictors provide "direct evidence of the status of women, relative to some agreed normative standard or explicit reference groups.

National level gender sensitive indicators are among the key means by which planners and policy makers measure gender inequality. They also provide information on the basis of which gender specialists advocate for policies likely to lead greater equality. Gender Sensitive indicators support the gender and development approach which focuses on changing the gender nature of society through the promotion of gender equality rather than on women in isolation, which was the focus of women in development model and emphasizes gender statistics.

Indicators, like any other methodological tool, have their limitations. Recognizing these limitations is necessary for understanding what can and cannot be achieved by using them.

The major limitation of gender-sensitive indicators is that they do not provide information on wider social patterns: they usually say little about why gender relations have been shaped in a particular way and how these relations can be changed. Indicator systems should, therefore, be complemented by gender analysis, which involves examining, often at a micro-level, the social relations between women and men, and the structural features of society which reinforce gender inequality and inequality.

Another limitation concerns the accuracy of data. Most indicator systems are developed from national censuses. However, much of the data in national censuses is subject to various problems, including infrequent collection, sex bias, poor enumeration, and imprecise definition of key terms. In addition, because of differences in definitions of terminology between nations, indicators are often not comparable internationally. Census data should, therefore, be considered a pointer towards a certain trend rather than definitive evidence of that trend.

A key element in the use of indicators is to interpret correctly the normative element that is inherent in their construction. The same indictor may be interpreted differently in different

CCRDA

settings. Case must, therefore, be taken in defining the norm or benchmark implicit in any indicator and against which change is measured. For example, in examining the status of women, is the norm the situation of men in a particular country, or is it women in other counties? Care must also be taken to ensure that when using indicators to compare gender equity across countries, the indicators have been collected using similar definitions of, for example, economic activity or literacy.

A further problem can be a lack of participation and cross-cultural dimensions. Recommendations for indicator systems and data sets are often developed by specialists, with limited participation from governments, NGOs or the general population. Indicators may, therefore, reflect the interests of a few experts rather than a general consensus; for this reason, as a widespread participation in the development of indicators as is feasible should be encouraged.

Given these problems, caution should be exercised when using an interpreting indicators, especially when drawing cross-country.

The following is a checklist of methodological points to bear in mind when using gender-sensitive indicators at the national level. An indicator or indictor system need not conform to all of the following, but the closer the conformity the more likely it is that it will be useful.

- **Comparison of a Norm**: Use of gender sensitive indicators should involve comparison to a norm, for example the situation of men in the same country or the situation of women in another country. In this way, the indicators can focus on questions of gender equality and equity rather than only on the status of women.
- **Disaggregation**: Data should be disaggregated by sex. Wherever possible, national level indicators should also:
  - be disaggregated by age;
  - be disaggregated by socio-economic grouping;
  - be disaggregated by national and/or regional origin;
  - note the time period;
  - note geographical coverage; and
  - note data sources.

  This kind of information can inform a broader analysis of the social forces that have brought about the specific status of women and men in a particular society.
- **Ease of Access**: Data should be easy to use and understand. Indicators should be phrased in easily understandable language, and should be developed at a level relevant to the institutional capabilities of the country concerned.
- **Scope of availability**: Indicators should be available for the whole country.
- **Reliability**: Data should be relatively reliable. No data is absolutely reliable but reliability checks should be carried out. For example, findings form censuses should be compared to findings from micro-level studies for accuracy.
- **Measurability**: Indicators must be about something measurable. Concepts such as 'Women's Empowerment' or 'gender equity' may be difficult to define and measure. In this case proxy indicators, for example relating to greater choice of

CCRDA

women in accessing health care or education, may be used instead of the less precise concepts.

- **Time-frames**: Gender-sensitive indicators should be reliable enough to use a time series. The time span which the indicator covers should be clearly specified.
- **International Comparability**: Gender Sensitive Indicators should be collected using internationally accepted definitions. While these definitions are sometimes imprecise, they are usually the best terms available and allow for international comparison.
- **Measuring impact**: The indicator should, where possible, measure the outcome or impact of a situation rather than the input. For example, Women's literacy is often a better measure of women's educational status than female enrollment rates because literacy measures the impact of enrollment rates. Similarly, female mortality rates are better measure of women's health status than access to health facilities.
- **Participation**: Indicators should be used and developed in as participatory a process as possible. This will involve setting up inter-departmental government committees but also holding focus group meetings with the public and eliciting public opinion form women and men wherever possible.

Gathering and using Gender Sensitive Indicators

Key areas for gender sensitive indicators at the national level:

- Population composition and change
- Human settlement and geographical distribution
- Households and families, marital status, fertility
- Learning in formal and non-formal education
- Health, health services, nutrition
- Economic activity and labor force participation
- Access to land, equipment and credit
- Legal rights and political power
- Violence against women
- Macro-economic policy and gender

CCRDA

Examples:

Population Composition and Change

Gender Sensitive Indicator	Related Indicator Questions
1. Size of the Population by Sex, total and % under 15	♦ What is the sex ratio in the country? Is there a reverse sex ratio? Does this vary by region? ♦ If there is a reverse sex ratio, what are the reasons for this? What are the means of changing this situation and how can women and men be involved in these changes? ♦ Does international and internal migration vary by sex? If this is the case, what are the reasons for this variation? ♦ Do migration patterns at regional and national levels adversely affect women? If this is the case, how can this situation change and what inputs can women and men make to these changes?
2. Sex Ratio (Number of females to males)	
3. Births and deaths by sex (numbers and rates per 1,000), annually	
4. Net international migration rates by sex	
5. Net internal migration rates by sex	

Human Settlement and Geographical Distribution

Gender Sensitive Indicator	Related Indicator Questions
1. Number, % distribution and density of population by sex, geographical area and urban/rural	♦ Is there a pattern of concentration of women and men in particular regions or in urban or rural areas as a result of migration or other factors? If so, does this impact negatively on women? Is there discrimination against rural women and if so, what policies can be implemented to reverse this situation?
2. Degree of discrimination against rural women: Rural and urban Mortality rates, life expectancy and nutritional status	♦ Do the characteristics of housing differ by male-and female-headed household? Are living conditions worse for female-headed households and by what degree? How can policy improve this situation?
3. Stock and characteristics of housing materials used in construction of outer walls, floors and roofs; number of rooms; kitchen and bathroom facilities; availability of water and bathroom facilities), by region and by female- and male-headed households	♦ Are there constitutional, legal or administrative impediments to women's access to and ownership of land and housing? ♦ Is there Gender bias between different kinds of households concerning energy consumption? If so, how does this affect women? How can policy improve the situation?
4. Tenure of household, by region and by female-and male-headed households	♦ Are women spending more time on household-related activities than men? If so, what are the implications for gender relations within the household and how can these relations be made more equal by policy intervention?
5. Domestic household energy consumption by region and by female- and male-headed household	
6. Time-use in connection with household activities (Collection of water, fuel, food), by region and by female and male-headed households	

ECRDA

Engendering Development Programs

Program Proposal Tool

1) What are the goals of the proposed program? Do both men and women in the region share those goals? Equally by all women and men? If not, what are the grounds for supporting the plans?
2) Whose needs or potentials are being addressed through the proposed program? Who identified and prioritized them and who was consulted in designing implementation strategies?
3) Who is being targeted by the proposed program? Is the target group defined in generic, abstract terms, in gender specific terms or gender inclusive terms? As household units or as individuals? How is the target group being conceptualized: as producers, consumers, experts, agents, victims, clients, participants, or beneficiaries?
4) What assumptions are being made available through this proposed program? Who is likely to have access to these resources; Who is likely to manage them, and who is likely to control them? If extra responsibilities are entailed, are extra resources being made available to match them?
5) What resources are being made available through the proposed program? Who is likely to have access to these resources; who is likely to manage them, and who is likely to control them? If extra responsibilities are entailed, are extra resources being made available to match them?
6) What benefits or gains flow from the proposed program? Who is likely to have access to them, and who is likely to control them? Who is likely to lose from the intervention (which men, which women)?

INCORPORATION OF GENDER ISSUES INTO PROJECTS

The Need for Mainstreaming Gender

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. It, thus, argues that 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

CCRDA

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 current gender imbalances in the participation and sharing the benefits of development.

The need for integrating gender issues in project /program interventions are, 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 correct the imbalances and enable women to catch up with the modern economic activities.

It is also viewed that considering gender issues in development process would ensure the active and meaningful participation of women and tapping their enormous potentials. If women are considered as an integral part of the development process, their talents and potentials can serve as essential ingredients to bring equitable, sustainable and rational development, which benefits all members of the society.

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.

CCRDA

1. The Project Life Cycle and Women's Role

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.

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.

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.

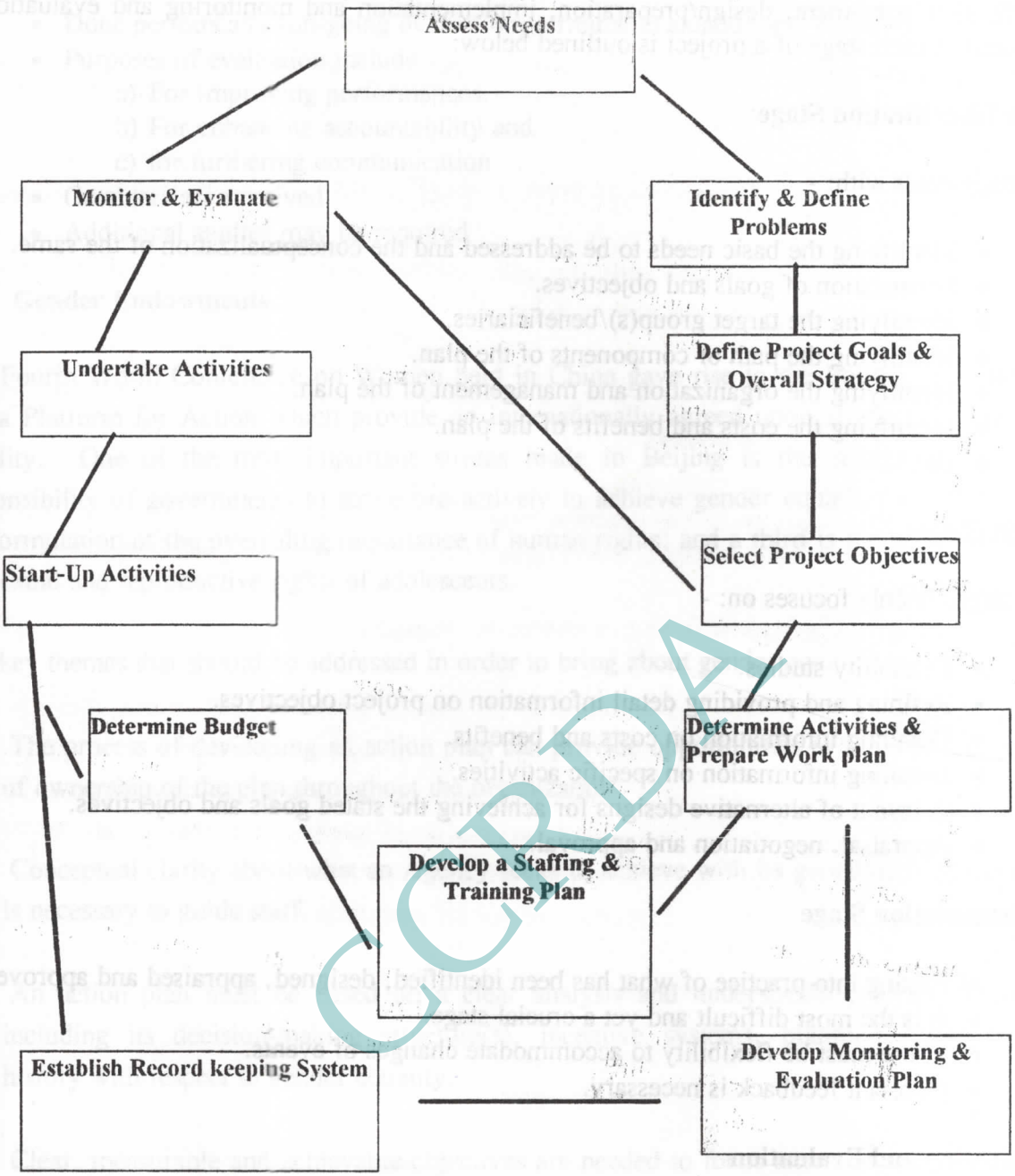
Stages in the Project Cycle

Figure 1 presents the widely practiced or adapted project life cycle. As it is shown in the figure, the project life cycle starts with need 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.

CCRDA

...an Relief & Development Association
LIBRARY
P.O.Box 5674

Figure 1: The Project Life Cycle



CCRDA

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:

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.

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.

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.

Monitoring and Evaluation

CCRDA

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) for furthering communication
- Outsiders are involved
- Additional studies may be required

2. Gender Endowments

The Fourth World Conference on Women held in China gave rise to the Beijing Declaration and a Platform for Action which provide an internationally agreed upon strategy for gender equality. One of the most important strides made in Beijing is the recognition of the responsibility of governments to strive pro-actively to achieve gender equality; the second is the formulation of the overriding importance of human rights; and a third is the recognition of the sexual and reproductive rights of adolescents.

The key themes that should be addressed in order to bring about gender equality are:

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

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

⇒ 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.

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

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

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

Policy inputs and "policy enterprenurship" are important aspects that enable the Agency to respond meaningfully to a complex issue on which continuing innovation is required.

CCRDA

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

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

⇒ Implementation will depend on productive collaboration with host countries.

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

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

For translating these issues into practice, many kinds of strategies are employed. Following is a summary of the main strategies believed to be indispensable for gender endowment:

- 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

- Project screening and rating systems

  i) Project screening system

  ii) Project rating systems

- Personnel reviews

  i) Specific gender training program

  ii) Integration of gender perspective throughout all training provided;

  iii) Seminars and publications on gender equality issues

- **Staff capacity development**

  i) Specific gender training program

  ii) Integration of gender perspective throughout all training provided;

  iii) Seminars and publications on gender equality issues

CCRDA

- Internal networks/committees
    - iv) Focal points
    - v) Formal committees
    - vi) Informal networks

- External advisory or consultative groups

- Tools to assist in implementation

    - i) General comments
    - ii) Country gender strategies

- "Earmarked" funds for gender equality initiatives at agency or country level

- Evaluations

CCRDA

GENDER SENSITIVE BASE LINE SURVEY INDICATORS

TRAINING ON GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME FOR STAFF OF CRDA MEMBERS

CORDA

NOVEMBER 20-29, 2000

BY SOSENA DEMISSIE
CONSULTANT

Christian Relief & Development Association
LIBRARY
P.O.Box 5674

Gender-Sensitive Base Line Survey Indicators: In the case of Project Planning

What is an Indicator?

"An indicator is a pointer. It can be a measurement, a number, a fact, an opinion or a perception that points at a specific condition or situation and measure changes in that condition or situation over time" (CIDA, 1996). In other words, indicators provide a close look at the results of initiatives and actions. Indicators could be different based on the objective of the survey. The evolution of indicator use is summarized in the guide to gender sensitive indicators as follows:

The evolution of indicator use

i. Before the 1970s most attention was paid to economic indicators, particularly those relating to GNP and national accounts systems. This was due to the development focus of the time on economic growth and infrastructure development.

ii. As aid philosophers moved towards human-centered development and basic needs during the 1970s and early 1980s, an expensive literature developed on what were termed "social indicators", that is, indicators related to health, education, employment and population. Social indicators were developed to supplement economic indicators, with a specific purpose related to advocacy around social issues. However, little of this early literature was gender-sensitive.

iii. From the mid-1980s there has been a stronger focus on indicators of empowerment and participation, and on gender-sensitive indicators, again mirroring a shift in development priorities. The redefinition of priorities and the recognition of women as stakeholders in development have established gender-sensitivity as a necessary condition of development efforts. Advocacy by women's organizations and the insights of WID specialists in development agencies have underscored the value of sex-disaggregated data. However, the development of gender-sensitive indicators is still at an experimental level (Beck 1994; Oakley 1991).

Source: Guide to Gender -Sensitive Indicator (CIDA, 1996).

Gender-sensitive indicators have the special function of pointing out gender related changes in society over time. Their usefulness lies in their ability to point to changes in the status and roles of women and men over time, and therefore to measure whether gender equity is being achieved. Use of indicators and other relevant evaluation

CCRDA

techniques will lead to a better understanding of how results can be achieved, using gender-sensitive indicators will also feed into more effective future planning and program delivery. (CIDA, Guide to Gender Sensitive Indicators: 1996)

Gender-sensitive indicators are important for another reason mainstream indicators such as GNP have been used in a way that under-value women's contribution to society. A good example to this is the way in which, in many societies, areas of work customarily considered as child-rearing and housework, are not included as work in national accounting systems. Gender specialists have challenged these undermining women's efforts, and promoted the use of quantitative and qualitative gender-sensitive indicators to illustrate women's and men's participation in different aspects of social life. (The Why and How of Gender-Sensitive Indicators: CIDA, 1996).

Indicators have their limits. For example, an indicator will tell you how many people participated in a project, but it will give you little information about the nature, degree and effects of their participation. To understand their level of participation we need to use qualitative analysis.

The basic strategy with gender-sensitive indicators is one of using quantitative and qualitative methods in combination to measure gender-related changes in society over time.

What are quantitative and qualitative indicators?

Quantitative indicators can be defined as measure of quantity, such as the number of people who own sewing machines in a village. Qualitative indicators can be defined as peoples' judgements and perceptions about a subject, such as the confidence those people have in sewing machines as instruments of financial independence. (Guide to Gender-Sensitive Indicators, CIDA, 1996).

An often used quantitative indicator is the number of women parliamentarians. This indicator can be tracked over time, and is used as a proxy for women's political participation and empowerment (e.g. UNICEF 1995). While this quantitative indicator is useful for assessing gender inequality, if used on its own it misses key points about political participation. Qualitative indicators might be used to show the women parliamentarians' own perspective on their political representation, for example whether they felt they were marginalized or were having an increasing impact on decision-making.

Qualitative analysis would concentrate on the relationship between the number of women parliamentarians and decision-making processes, for example how many times issues related to gender equity are raised in parliament, what legislation related to gender equity is passed and enforced, whether women's speeches are making an impact, and how women could be supported in their pursuit of gender equity or other policy initiatives. It would also concentrate on the impact of women's political representation on broader

CORDA

social issues and the functioning of government. (Guide to Gender-Sensitive Indicators, CIDA, 1996)

Since indicators are tools to elicit results, they are tied to the objectives with which a development initiative begins.

When using indicators, objectives must be clearly articulated. Objectives should be determined in relation to base-line studies, against which results can be measured. Base-line study, which should include data disaggregated by sex, socio-economic grouping and ethnicity, will reveal the situation in the project area before any kind of intervention, and this study can be used for comparison when using indicators through the project cycle. (Guide to Gender-Sensitive Indicators, CIDA, 1996).

Gender-Sensitive base line survey is a planning instrument, which can assist development planners, and policy makers to incorporate gender issues in the planning of mainstream projects. (Gender Assessment Study, A Guide for Policy Staff, 1994).

The objective of gender-sensitive base line survey in case of project planning is:

- to gain insight into gender relations in the project area-that are relevant to the project and in the perceptions of women with regard to the proposed project intervention;

If the objective of the baseline survey is to provide data that would enable formulate gender sensitive project in a specific area, the survey should address three area of concern, the target groups, the institutional setting from gender perspective and the project idea or proposal.

The three components are inter-linked and in the overall analysis attention should be paid to the linkages between the different components. Thus since gender relations are studied as far as these are relevant for the project planning, such analysis can only be made after the preliminary examination of the project idea. Also the findings of the field survey on gender relations should be cross-checked with the findings of the institutional analysis and vice versa. The final project analysis will be done in the light of the data collected on both the gender relations and the gender capacity of the institution. Together, components will provide a sufficient basis for formulating recommendations on how the project should be designed in order to be gender sensitive.

Target group – includes all groups directly affected by the project. Women in a project area usually do not form a homogeneous group. The gender-based labour division, access to and control over resources and therefore their needs and interests may differ substantially, according to socio-economic class, age or ethnic affiliation. In the analysis of the target group this fact should be kept in mind. A first step in this analysis is therefore identification of different categories of women. Possible categories may be: female headed household, other households, different ethnic groups, different socio-economic groups e.g. according to land ownership, age group etc. although it will not be

CCRDA

possible to capture all the existing variation, main categories of women relevant for project planning should be identified.

A description of gender division of labour in the project area includes an overview on what activities women do and men do, if relevant also what boys do and what girls do. A distinction can be made between three main categories of work: Productive, reproductive and community.

A useful and practical guide for collecting gender division of labour data in a community is the Activity Profile, which is part of "Harvard Framework for Gender Analysis". This profile can be specified according to the nature of the project. This category was originally developed by Caroline Moser in Moser and Levy (1986). (refer Annex 1)

It is also important for the planning of gender-sound project to collect data on the gender-related access to and control over resources lack of information on access to and control over resources can led to many incorrect assumption about women's likely participation in and benefits from a mainstream project. There is a distinction between the use of resources and the benefits derived from the use. Resource and services can include means of production i.e. land/capital/labour, knowledge and skills, employment or income earning opportunities, equipment, health, control over fertility and nutrition.

It is also necessary to differentiate between access and control. For example, women may earn an income from productive activities, but have no control over how it can be spent.

Special attention should also be given to the socio-political dimension of women's position, since these may form constraints or opportunities for women to participate in the project. Women's participation in decision-making in the household community and society at large are important. Other aspect to be analyzed is the broader socio-cultural, economic, demographic, political, legal and ecological context, in particular the factors influencing gender relation are important.

Factors that influence gender relations are numerous, e.g. migration, agricultural policy, commercialization, legal structure and economic conditions. In the baseline study, key influencing factors need to be identified that might enhance or impede the achievement of the project objective in respect of gender.

Women and men from the target group should be directly consulted about the project proposal. Group discussion should be held with women and men separately to get insight into their views and expectations with regard to the project proposal. Another aspect that should be looked at is the extent to which the implementing institutions are capable of analyzing gender specific approach. To assess whether a project will be successful in strengthening the position of women, the gender capacity of, institutions to be involved in the project should be investigated. The key areas to look at:

- *major areas of intervention and general capacity to plan and implement projects;*
- *policy with regard to women and development;*

CGRDA

- *activities and experiences with regard to women and development;*
- *organizational structure for women and development;*
- *organizational structure for women and development (number of W&D staff, their function etc.);*
- *training capacity in the field of gender;*
- *perceptions of staff at different levels in the organization (headquarters versus field staff) on gender issues and how these affect their work;*
- *networking and the expected cooperation between the different implementing organizations in respect to gender.*

Finally we have to examine the project idea, especially in the light of the data collected.

- *Are gender issues correctly and systematically incorporated in the existing propped idea or proposal?*
- *In what way and to what extent will the target group in general, and women in particular, be able to participate in the different stage of the project?*
- *What likely positive or negative effects will the intervention of the project have on women and men?*

In the analysis of the project documents use can be made of: checklists to analyze the integration of gender issues in the project cycle such as the checklist "question to ask" in Two Halves make a whole (Canadian council for International Cooperation, 1991) (refer annex 2)

Based on the assessment of the project design from gender perspective, suggestions should be made as to how the design can be improved. Recommendation may involve one or more aspects of the project design (project strategy, institutional setting, human resources development, budget, etc) and may imply an elaboration or adjustment of the original design.

Since the baseline survey varies based on the objective of the survey it is very difficult to adopt a standard indicators as such. However, in case of baseline survey for gender sensitive project planning the following chart could be used as one of the possible guide:

CORDA

WHAT to do	➢ <u>Conduct baseline survey</u> to identify problems, actors, interests, visions, restrictions, expectations and potentials, with regard to • Geographical conditions and demography • Target groups (TG). Reflecting division of labour, access to and control over resources and socio-political position • Participating/concerned institutions - Identification of gender capacities of staff, their gender-senstization and experience - Acceptance of the organization by the target group (women and men) - are concepts and methodologies gender sensitive? • Policy Framework All aspects are analyzed in view of the influencing factors, leading to the identification of practical and strategic gender needs ➢ <u>Establish system of objectives</u> Based on the analysis of the causes and effects of problems and the identification of practical and strategic gender needs. ➢ <u>Identify alternatives</u> Evaluate and select problem solutions reflecting practical and strategic gender needs.
HOW to do it	• Review relevant secondary data • Consult representatives of relevant institutions: - key figures from women/GAD machinery (focal points), - gov. and non-govt, organizations (incl. Women NGOs) • Collect and analyze data - using Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) or Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) - holding workshops with different social groups
WHO does it	Project team consisting of representatives of local parties concerned (target groups, Gos, NGOs) in co-operation with local and external consultants who have gender expertise, are familiar with participatory methods and participatory co-operation management

CCRDA

Furthermore, checklists for the analysis of project proposal, question on problem identification could be a useful tool.

Questions to Ask

The following questions are part of a paper by Sara Hlupekite Longwe of Zambia, which is taken from Two Halves Make a Whole: Balancing Gender Relations in Development.

- Did the baseline survey look into the special of difference problems and needs of the women in the community?

- For the problem selected for project intervention, how does this problem affect women in the community?

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

- Has there been as 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?

The content of the report of gender-sensitive baseline survey varies, but an example table of content is attached next.

CCRDA

A possible Table of contents for a report of Gender Sensitive Baseline Survey.

1. Introduction
   - background and objectives of the study
   - methodology

2. The project area
   - short description of the project and its background
   - some general characteristics of the project area
   - (profiles of case villages/urban areas)
   - demographic characteristics
   - social characteristics
   - economic characteristics

3. Gender relations in the project area
   a. macro and meso context:
      - the socio-cultural, economic, political, legal, ecological context relevant for understanding the gender relations
      - women's role in the sectors concerned
   b. micro context
      - socio-economic and cultural differentiation within the population affected by the project and main categories of women
      - gender division of tasks
      - access to and control over resources, services and revenues related to the project intervention
      - women's (self) image; participation in decision making; organizational capacity
      - views and expectations of women in relation to the project

4. Institutional capacity with regard to women and development
   - national (and regional) W&D policy
   - gender capacity of (future) implementing organizations
   - other relevant organizations and projects in the project area

5. Project idea/proposal
   - gender analysis of the planned project design (objectives, strategies, target group, TOR for project team experts, inputs, budget, institutional arrangements activities, planned outputs and monitoring indicators)
   - expected effects of the planned project on (different categories of) women as compared those on men
   - possibilities for participation of the target group, in particular women

6. Conclusions and recommendations
   - conclusions
   - recommendations for further formulation or changes in project design, specified fot he different parties involved
   - recommendation for the monitoring of the gender specific impact of the project

CCRDA

- **References:**

1. Canadian Council for International Co-operation, Two Halves make a Whole: Balancing Gender relations in Development. Ottawa, 1991.

2. Moser, Caroline O.N. and Karen Levy, A Theory and Methodology of Gender Planning: Meeting women's practical and strategic needs, London University college, 1986.

3. Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA): Guide to Gender-Sensitive Indicators, Canada, 1996.

4. Special Programme Women and Development Directorate General International Cooperation, Netherland Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Gender Assessment Study, Guide for Policy Staff, 1994.

CCRDA

FROM : TWO HALVES MAKE A WHOLE /1991

THE HARVARD ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

The Harvard Analytical Framework is outlined in *A Case Book: Gender Roles in Development Projects* edited by Catherine Overholt, Mary B. Anderson, Kathleen Cloud, James E. Austin (Kumarian Press, 1985).

This framework is a useful data-gathering tool that charts and organizes information and can be adapted to many situations. The information collected can be as general or as detailed and sector-specific as required. The Framework can be an effective training and consciousness-raising tool, both within development organizations, and at the community level.

The Framework is used to develop a description and analysis of gender relations in a given community; but it provides no guidance in determining development directions. The gender analysis presented in this kit combines elements of the Harvard Analytical Framework with such concepts as women's subordination, strategic gender interests and the transformation of gender relations, for a specific development approach that strives for social justice and the full participation and self-determination of women and men.

The Harvard Analytical Framework has three main components:

- **The Activity Profile** — identifies all relevant productive and reproductive tasks and addresses the question: Who does what? For our purposes, a Community Work category can be added to complete the information base. Depending on the context, the time, frequency and location of work may also be indicated and additional subgroups can be added (eg: girls/boys, elder women/men).
- **The Access and Control Profile: Resources and Benefits** — identifies and lists the resources used to carry out the work identified in the Activity Profile. It indicates who has access to resources and control over their use. Categories may be added for political and economic resources, and the resource of time. Benefits realized from household (and community) production and use of resources are also identified and listed. Columns indicate whether or not women and men have access to them and control over their use.
- **The Influencing Factors** — charts the factors which affect the gender differentiations identified in the Profiles. Identifying past and present influences can give an indication of shifts and trends for the future. These factors can also be considered for the opportunities and constraints they present for increasing the involvement of women in development projects and programs.

CORDA

THE HARVARD ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK (continued)

1. ACTIVITY PROFILE

	Women/girls	Men/boys
A. Production Activities		
Agriculture:		
activity 1		
activity 2, etc		
Income Generating:		
activity 1		
activity 2, etc.		
Employment:		
activity 1		
activity 2, etc.		
Other:		
B. Reproductive Activities		
Water related:		
activity 1		
activity 2, etc		
Fuel related:		
Food preparation:		
Childcare:		
Health related:		
Cleaning and repair:		
Market related:		
Other:		

2. ACCESS AND CONTROL PROFILE

	Access		Control	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
A. Resources				
Land				
Equipment				
Labour				
Cash				
Education/training, etc.				
Other				
B. Benefits				
Outside income				
Asset ownership				
Basic needs (food, clothing, shelter)				
Education				
Political power/prestige, etc.				
Other				

3. INFLUENCING FACTORS

	Impact?	Opportunities?	Constraints?
Political			
Economic			
Cultural			
Educational			
Environmental			
Legal			
International			
Other			

CCRDA

ANNEX 2

CHECKLIST FOR THE ANALYSIS OF THE PROJECT PROPOSAL

1. Questions to Ask. In: Two Halves Make a Whole: Balancing Gender Relations in Development (CCIC, MATCH and AQOCI), Ottawa, 1991.

QUESTIONS TO ASK

The following questions are part of a paper by Sara Hlupekile Longwe of Zambia[9]. We have excerpted the section called "Examples of Questions to Ask About a Project's Contribution Towards Women's Development".

1. Questions on Problem Identification

- *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?*

2. Questions on Project Strategy

- *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?*
- *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?*

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?*

CCRDA

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?*
- *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?*

5. *Questions on Project Implementation*

- *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.*

6. *Questions on Project Outcome*

- *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?*

CCRDA

THE IMPORTANCE OF GENDER DISAGGREGATED DATA IN GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT

TRAINING ON GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME FOR STAFF OF CRDA MEMBERS

CCRDA

NOVEMBER 20-29, 2000

BY SOSENA DEMISSIE
CONSULTANT

The Importance of Gender Disaggregated Data in Gender and Development

Most people would agree with the old saying that women's work is never done, but what is her work really worth? Since it is not counted is not recognized. There is almost no available data, especially in the developing countries, on the extent and value of what women do. They are largely invisible in the statistical profiles of many countries. Their economic contributions, especially if they are outside the conventional labour force, are unvalued or at best undervalued not only by men and governments but also by the women themselves. When asked what she does, even the most educated and sophisticated women who stays at home to care for her children – never an easy job – will probably reply, "Oh, nothing, I am just a housewife."

Unpaid and household production clearly needs to be measured and valued. This was recognized in principle nearly two decades ago, in 1975, at the first International Women's Conference in Mexico City. Ten years later, at the 1985 UN women's conference in Nairobi, the Forward-Looking Strategies adopted by over 150 countries specifically called for the inclusion of women's unpaid work in national accounts and statistics.

Effective policy-making depends on accurate and comprehensive statistics. Without knowing how much, how often, where and why certain activities are carried out, it is impossible to know if or how they might be changed or improved. In assessing the status of public health, for example, it is not enough to count the number of doctors and hospital beds, the figure should also reflect the health care provided by women to the sick, the old and the young at home.

The current System of National Accounting (SNA), which determines Gross Domestic Product (GDP), broadly based on paid or marketable goods and services. This method tends to leave as much as it includes: A women cooking for her family is not considered a marketable activity, for example, and is therefore not included. But if the women go out and cook for food industry, then it is considered marketable activity. The line between marketable and unmarketable services is clearly arbitrary.

Beginning with the 1975 International Women's Conference in Mexico City, Women have sought better measurement of their contribution to development and to the economics of their countries. There are three main problems in this area:

1. *The National Accounts' definition of an economic goods or service*
2. *The effective and unbiased application of that definition in national accounts and labour force statistics.*
3. *The lack of separate measurement of women's and men's income and production to determine women's relative contribution and return.*

The current version of the United Nations system of National Accounts (SNA) recommends relatively wide coverage of non-monetary as well as monetary goods and

CCRDA

services in the concept of economic activity. For example, all kinds of agricultural production for family consumption and own account capital formation (such as home construction) are included. But the SNA covers other goods and services produced in the household for its own consumption only if those goods are sold on the market. It excludes childbearing, childcare, family-care, housekeeping, cooking, and shopping.

The major unresolved issues in measuring women's contribution to economic output are:

- *Many goods and services predominantly produced by women are undercounted in national accounts or are estimated with such rough assumptions that the resulting figures are unusable for policy.*

- *Women's productive role is undercounted in labour force statistics.*

- *Childbearing, childcare, family-care, and other unpaid house and community works are not counted at all in either national accounts or labour force statistics.*

If unpaid house and community work were valued at the cost of purchasing comparable goods and services or hiring someone to do the work, the measured value of GDP in countries would increase by 25-30 percent according to most estimates (INSTRAW News, 1991).

It was the vast and ever-growing studies on women that emphasize the need for quantifiable hypothesis 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 circumstance women do participate. Therefore, the major concerns of development should be on how work is valued and improving the collection and analysis of statistics and data so they will adequately reflect women's contribution.

In Sub-Saharan Africa, women are thought to be responsible for more than 80% of food production for home and over half of all agricultural production. GDP figures for Africa, however, generally count only the produce activity brought to market or exported. Distorted figures, therefore, tend to distort policy as well. The major barrier to putting a value on unpaid activities has been lack of appropriate methodology, particularly lack of gender-specific data.

What is measured, and not measured depends on the techniques of measurement that are chosen and on the perceptions and attitudes about what is important or relevant information. For example, in 1994 population and housing census of Ethiopia (1998), the economically active population comprises all persons aged ten years and over who were employed and unemployed. The unemployed population consists of those who were working during the reference period and were actively looking for work or were discouraged job seekers, that is those who were not actively looking for work but were ready and willing to take up a job if one was available. (Table 1)

Christian Relief & Development Association
LIBRARY
P.O.Box 5674

In the same population and housing census, non-active population are classified as home makers, students, disables, too young, pensioners, prostitutes and others. However, students, pensioners, etc are considered economically active if they were productively engaged during the reference period. (Table 2) Here we can clearly see that women are considered non active and not working in the national accounts of Ethiopia. Out of "non-active" population in rural Ethiopia, 68% are female. In urban area 64% are female and in the country (rural + urban) 68% are female. Out of the total "non-active" population in rural and urban areas 37% are female homemakers.

A number of recent studies criticize census and National Income Accounting methodologies that excludes production outside of the market. These studies argue that some aspects of informal sector production and production for use within the household must be assessed in economic terms (Oxfam UK and Ireland, 1994).

This approach holds particular significance for the economically developing countries like Ethiopia, where a great deal of production continue to go unrecognized in the estimates of national accounts. In this case if estimates of the national accounts excludes informal and non-market output, along with the labour effort involved, then the value and composition of national economic activity are grossly misrepresented.

Since women are the major contributors of informal and non-market output, 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.

Ethiopia's economy is agriculture dominated, and the government policy puts priority to the sector. The agriculture of Ethiopia is characterized by subsistence small holder mixed farming systems. Cereals mainly wheat, teff, maize, barley, and sorghum, contributes about 65% of calories consumed in the country. In the production process of these cereals and other agricultural commodities, all members of the household including women and children participate. In a typical household in rural Ethiopia, the average family size is 5-7. Men are usually responsible for preparing land, planting weeding, harvesting, threshing, storing, herding and marketing (if in large quantity). Women actively participate in cleaning seeds, weeding, harvesting, winnowing, transporting and routine marketing of produce (Addis Tiruneh, 2000).

How can we consider these women participating in the production process as non-active and as the same time think to bring a meaningful improvement in the agricultural sector? It is essential that all research outputs by all institutions concerned with social and economic development be gender disaggregated to close the gap.

As illustrated above the contribution of women to the Ethiopian economy has been underreported. And from the gender perspective it is essential to bring together the macro and the micro information for a better understanding of the issue and for planning the countries development. The macro economic data which the country's development plan depends on, the way it is done currently, by and large gender neutral while micro studies

CSRDA

based on household analysis reveal a lot of hard facts which were grossly omitted by the nationally aggregated data. There is a lot of effort towards making the macro data to be disaggregated by sex. However, the increase in the availability of micro level data with a rigorous economic analysis is a necessary condition to enable the macro data to be disaggregated and gender-sensitive (Addis Tituneh, 2000).

While the inadequacy of statistics and data on women has always been referred to as major obstacles in the full recognition of women's participation and contribution in society, it must be pointed out, the available statistics, which is disaggregated by sex, are not fully utilized by policy makers in Ethiopia. For example, a recent study on 'Poverty Situation in Ethiopia" by Ministry of economic Development and Cooperation, Welfare Monitoring Unit (February 1999) indicated the food poverty line that provide the minimum food requirement per adult in the country is 647.8 birr or USD 99.00. According 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, Welfare Monitoring Unit, Poverty Situation in Ethiopia, Fwb. 1999 Addis Ababa

CCRDA

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 is in the country cannot afford to spend enough to consume the minimum food requirement. As we can see this information is gender neutral. How many of these or what percentage of the poor are women is not indicated in the study of the most important policy organ of Ethiopian economy. Despite the fact the main source of information for the study, the 1995/96 household income, consumption and expenditure survey by Central Statistical Authority is disaggregated by sex, the Ministry of Economic Development and Cooperation in "poverty situation in Ethiopia" did not utilize the available data to show the gender aspect of existing poverty. Although the role of male and female in the economy are different and needs different interventions to alleviate poverty.

A quicker look to the 1995/96 CSA Survey also shows, the lower the household domestic expenditure group, the higher the number of female population in Ethiopia. (Table 3) This information indicates out of total food poor population in Ethiopia most of them are the female, since their ability to spend the minimum is low.

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.

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.

CORDA

Most statistical information and analysis on women are generally on their reproductive roles and very little data is available on their productive contributions.

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 (ILO/INSTRAW, 1992). Yet activities in the informal sector and unpaid women's work mostly were not quantified because they were considered to be an extension of family and domestic functions.

African women however, are overburdened in their daily chores, yet development plans and technical cooperation programs do not take these into account, for preparing their plan. 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.

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.

Researchers and policy makers are faced with the problem of statistical and information gaps. The need for adequate, timely, 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 the year 2000 call for timely and reliable statistics on women. It emphasized that accurate statistics have an important role to play in the elimination of 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 op poverty and /or inequalities in a society.

In general without gender disaggregated 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 disaggregated data it is very difficult to measure the poverty level, literacy rate, employment status, migration, etc among different sexes. Thus, without this relevant type

CCRDA

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.

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.

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.

CCRDA

Table 1: Economically active population of the country aged ten years and over by sex, and employment status: 1994

Urban/Rural And sex	Economic-ally active	Status in Employment							
		Employer	Self Employed	Gov't Employee	Private Employee	Member of Cooperative	Unpaid Family Worker	Others	Not Stated
Urban + rural									
Both sexes	25,883,194	675,254	10,232,386	711,559	771,118	35,540	13,235,648	25,367	196,322
Male	14,711,259	525,447	7,548,267	517,209	519,913	19,951	5,455,685	18,421	106,366
Female	11,171,935	149,807	2,684,119	194,350	251,205	15,589	7,779,963	6,946	89,956
Urban									
Both sexes	2,266,220	68,334	884,197	556,330	384,869	7,679	237,522	16,084	111,205
Male	1,373,530	43,957	535,939	399,948	208,716	5,287	103,717	12,320	63,646
Female	892,690	24,377	348,258	156,382	176,153	2,392	133,805	3,764	47,559
rural									
Both sexes	23,616,974	606,920	9,348,189	155,229	386,249	27,861	12,998,126	9,283	85,117
Male	13,337,729	481,490	7,012,328	117,261	311,197	14,664	5,351,968	6,101	42,720
Female	10,279,245	125,430	2,335,861	37,968	75,052	13,197	7,646,158	3,182	42,397

CSA, The 1994 Population and Housing Census of Ethiopia, June, 1998, Addis Ababa

The economically active population comprises all persons aged ten years and over who were employed and unemployed. The unemployed population consists of those who were not working during the reference period and were actively looking for work or were discouraged job seekers, that is, those who were not actively looking for work but were ready and willing to take up a job if one was available.

Table 2: Economically non-active population of the country aged ten years and over by sex, reason for not working, urban and rural: 1994

Urban/Rural And sex	Total Non-Active	Reason for Not Working						
		Students	Home makers	Disabled	Too young	Pensioners	Prostitutes	Others
Urban + rural								
Both sexes	10,040,831	2,726,310	3,858,015	217,004	1,989,293	829,501	46,034	374,674
Male	3,272,934	1,574,563	189,805	103,726	963,945	263,737	-	177,158
Female	6,767,897	1,151,747	3,668,210	113,278	1,025,348	565,764	46,034	197,516
Urban								
Both sexes	2,762,811	1,469,925	790,782	37,611	145,508	222,511	25,719	70,755
Male	995,876	740,729	26,425	19,113	67,747	101,063	-	40,799
Female	1,766,935	729,196	764,357	18,498	77,761	121,448	25,719	29,956
rural								
Both sexes	7,278,020	1,256,385	3,067,233	179,393	1,843,785	606,990	20,315	303,919
Male	2,277,058	833,834	163,380	84,613	896,198	162,674	-	136,359
Female	5,000,962	422,551	2,903,853	94,780	947,587	444,316	20,315	167,560

CSA, The 1994 Population and Housing Census of Ethiopia, June, 1998, Addis Ababa

Non active population are classified as: students, home makers, disabled, too young, pensioners, prostitutes and "others". However students, pensioners, ...etc. are considered economically active if they were productively engaged during the reference period.

CERTA

Table 3: Distribution of members of households by household size, sex, and domestic expenditure group – country level

Domestic Expenditure Group (Birr)	Male	%	Female	%	Total	%
Below 600	2,374	-	37,359	.07	39,733	.08
600-999	59,517	.11	156,193	.30	215,710	.41
1000-1399	216,938	.41	331,127	.63	548,065	1.04
1400-1999	879,392	1.67	1,168,794	2.22	2,048,186	3.89
2000-2599	1,608,628	3.05	1,676,566	3.18	3,285,194	6.24
2600-3399	2,837,490	5.39	2,908,830	5.52	5,746,320	10.91
3400-4199	3,430,002	6.51	3,584,671	6.80	7,014,673	13.31
4200-5399	4,814,672	9.14	4,791,802	9.09	9,606,474	18.23
5400-6599	3,961,175	7.52	3,809,099	7.23	7,770,274	14.75
6600-8999	4,502,484	8.55	4,243,952	8.05	8,746,436	16.60
9000-12599	2,638,800	5.01	2,422,489	4.60	5,061,289	9.61
12600-16199	678,459	1.29	653,113	1.24	1,331,572	2.53
16200-19999	290,366	.55	322,478	.61	612,844	1.16
20000 & over	325,720	.62	336,577	.64	622,297	1.26
Total	26,246,017	49.81	26,443,050	50.19	52,689,067	100.00

CSA, revised Report on the 1995/96 household income, consumption and expenditure survey, June 1998, Statistical Bulletin 204

CERUA

References:

1. Addis Tiruneh, (2000), The Missing Link Between Micro and Macro Level Gender Disaggregated Economic Data in Economic Policy formulation and Planning in Ethiopia, economic Focus, Vol 3, No. 3, EEA.

2. Central Statistical Authority (CSA), June, 1998, The 1994 Population and Housing Census of Ethiopia.

3. CSA (1998), The Revised Report on 1995/96 Household Income, Consumption and Expenditure Survey, Addis Ababa.

4. CSA (1999), Report on the 1996 welfare Monitoring survey, Addis Ababa.

5. INSTRAW, (No. 21, 1994), News, Women and Development.

6. ILO/INSTRAW (1992) Wmen in Economic Activity: a Global Statistical Survey.

7. Ministry of Economic Development and cooperation, Welfare Monitoring Unit, (1999), Poverty Situation in Ethiopia.

8. OXFAM UK and Ireland, (1994), The OXFAM Gender Training Manual.

CCRDA

Christian Relief & Development Association
LIBRARY
P.O.Box 5674

GENDER ANALYTICAL PLANNING AND METHODOLOGY (ACCESS AND CONTROL)

TRAINING PROGRAMME ON GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT

CCRDA

PREPARED BY: RAHEL BEKELE
TRAINING OFFICER (CRDA)
NOVEMBER 20 – 29, 2000

Gender Analytical Planning and Methodology (Access and Control)

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.

There are several gender analytical frameworks that can be used as tools in gender analysis. This paper however introduces the widely practiced frameworks namely, the Harvard Gender Analytical Framework; and the Women's Empowerment Framework.

Harvard Gender Analytical Framework

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. This gender analytical framework is useful to:

- Analyze and consider the impact that a development project/program may have on women, men, household and community.
- Recognize that in order to take women's needs, roles and priorities into account in development programming, accurate information is needed.
- Identify the type and quality of gender disaggregated data that is needed for good programming.

CGRDA

The Harvard Gender Analytical Framework is based on a knowledge of the fundamental features of women's social and economic roles and experiences. It is usually applied to development projects, although the principles outline regarding the collection and application of data can equally be applied to other types of programs. To be an effective program management tool, the model requires ongoing commitment to the collection, analysis and review of data and to applying this data to change the reviewing project objectives. The four categories of analysis are the potential changes in labor, time, resources and socio-cultural factors for each level of analysis.

The model provides a framework of collecting data in four different but interrelated components. These include:

Activity Profile

This profile:

- Identifies what work is done in a community and by whom- women and men (adults, elders, and children)- disaggregated data on the gender division of labor within the household.
- Identifies how much time is needed to accomplish each activity, and when the work is done (e.g. daily versus seasonal, identifying periods when there is a high demand for labor, and what extra demands project/program activities will make on women, men and children). "The scares resources for low-income women is time".
- Identifies where each activity takes place (e.g. home, village, marketplace, fields, and urban center- how far away from the household). This gives insight into female and male mobility, and allows an assessment to be made of the impact of the program on mobility, method of travel, the travel time needed to accomplish each activity and potential ways of "saving" time.
- Considers all categories of activities- women's triple role- productive, reproductive and community service and community management activities.
- Considers all the above for each of the socio-economic or ethnic groups targeted by the proposed project/program, or affected by the program.

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.

Table 1 is a format used where all the elements of the activity profile are to gather the required information.

Table 1: Activity Profile

Socio-economic Activity	Gender/Age[1]							
	FA	MA	FC	MC	FE	ME	TIME[2]	LOC
I. Production of Goods and Services								
a. Product/Services								
1. Functional Activity								
2. Functional Activity								
3. Functional Activity								
a. Product/Services								
1. Functional Activity								
2. Functional Activity								
3. Functional Activity								

CCRDA

I. Reproduction & Maintenance of Human Resources

a. Product/Services

1. Functional Activity
2.
3.

a. Product/Services

1. Functional Activity
2.
3.

Code:

1/ FA= Female Adult; MA = Male Adult; FC = Female Child; MC= Male Child; FE = Female Elder; ME = male Elder

2/ Percentage of time allocated to each activity; seasonal; daily

3/ With home; family, field or shop; local community; beyond community

CCRDA

Access and Control Profile

- Considers who has access to productive resources (including natural resources) such as land, forests, water supplies, equipment labor, capital/credit and education/training.
- Distinguishes between access to these resources (for example, informally or traditionally) and control over how these resources are used and who can use them.
- Identifies who benefits from the product of women's and men's labor, as well as who benefits from development activities or new programs. For example, cash cropping projects often rely on the unpaid family labor of women and girls, but women are less likely to control or have access to the income from cash crops.
- For example, the proposed programs may undermine women's access to productive resources. It may (intentionally or unintentionally) change the balance of power between women and men regarding control over resources, and how the benefits of these resources are distributed within the household or community.
- For example, project participation and consultation processes may be designed to either enhance or restrict women's access to information about the program, and the resources, which it offers. Program management mechanism (such as the creation of water user groups, credit groups or farmer cooperatives) may determine who knows about the program, and who gets control over its resources. These factors will have an impact on women and men's current production activities and will often change existing gender relations.

Table 2 below illustrates how information on Access and Control can be summarized.

Table 2: Access and Control Profile

RESOURCES	**ACCESS (M/F)**	**CONTROL (M/F)**
Land		
Equipment		
Labor		
Production		
Reproduction		
Capital		
Education/Training		
BENEFITS	**ACCESS (M/F)**	**CONTROL (M/F)**
Outside Income		
Asset Ownership		
In-kind goods (Food, Clothing, Shelter, etc.)		
Education		
Political Power/Prestige		
Others		

CCRDA

Analysis of Factors Influencing Activities, Access and Control

Recognizing that development programming occurs in a complex and changing social context, this aspect of gender analysis considers social, cultural, religious, economic, political, environmental, demographic, legal and institutional factors and trends:

- How will these factors and trends influence and change the gender division of labor, women and men's access to and control over resources and benefits, and other aspects of gender relations.
- How will these factors and trends constrain or facilitate the program, and the likelihood of success in achieving program objectives.
- How the program might influence these factors and trends either positively or negatively.

This analysis corresponds in part to the consideration of assumptions in the logical framework matrix. Women's experiences and perspectives need to be considered when identifying critical planning assumptions. Program objectives and methods may need to be modified in the light of these various factors.

For example,

- Demographic trends such as male migration may mean there are large seasonal variations or long term changes in the numbers of households supported solely by women. If so, assumptions about the availability of women's and men's labor for program activities may need to be reconsidered.
- Cultural factors restricting women's and girls' mobility may mean that services are industrialized if they are located outside the immediate locality.
- For cultural and religious reasons, it may be important to establish separate groups for women and men. Training and consultation may need to occur separately with women and men and female extension agents and community workers may be required.
- Legal factors and customary practices may make it very difficult to transfer resources directly to women (such as ownership of land or hand pumps or access to credit).

On the other hand changing attitudes, economic circumstances and trends may provide opportunities for improving women's social, economic and legal status. Analyzing such factors and trends may assist planners to identify areas where the project/ program can address both women's practical needs and strategic gender concerns (as defined by women themselves) to address current inequalities in gender division of labor, and in women's access to and ownership of productive resources.

CORDA

This analysis requires the formulation of a range of questions, which will vary according to the nature and sector of the project/program, and the social and development context. An effective gender analysis requires "gender sensitivity". The process is as much about formulating relevant questions as answering them.

- How will the project or program affect:
  - The gender division of labor: the different types of work that both women and men do (productive, reproductive and community service/management): where and when they do this work and how long it takes to do it.
  - The access that women and men have to productive resources, and their control over these resources.
  - The benefits which women and derive from their labor and how these benefits are distributed.
  - The factors and trends, which determine the type of work women, do the productivity of that work, and their economic and social status.

Using triple A method of programming the framework embodies their cyclical stages. These are assessment, analysis and action.

At each stage, practical activities enable participants to identify and explicate details of GAD. At all times, the framework addresses the presence of both women and men in relation to each other. Therefore, as much as possible the roles, tasks, responsibilities of women and men, girls and boys, in the development process will be examined.

Assessment

At the first stage of the cycle, an **assessment** is made of the relevant responsibilities and activities in a given situation or area to draw out in detail who (women and men) does what. It is important to recognize activities both around and outside the household, and describe them as they are. Once identified, the differences between what women do and what men will reveal a gender based division of labor and the actual and dissimilar ways in which activities affect girls and boys. This exercise also generally illustrates that the over-whelming amount of work performed by women and girls is associated with their gender role expectations, just as men and boys' work is circumscribed by their role expectation.

A primary reason for assessment is to understand how current realities of women's lives absorb the **time and resources.**

Analysis

At this stage the Hierarchy of causes is applied to a specific problem which has been identified either through the assessment or prior to the assessment. Examples included the low participation of girls in education, high maternal mortality rate, high pregnancy and child-

CCRDA

bearing rates of female children, the high incidence of poverty and female headed households etc.

A hierarchical process of analysis deals with understanding the complex nature of a problem, it's implications and significance, which will influence the response or action to be taken at the next stage. The causes are identified at three levels of increasing complexity and visibility: **Immediate, Underlying and basic/structural categories.**

This classification of causes is most useful in pinpointing different sources of influences and control, and in identifying in a focused manner the appropriate levels at which interventions should be undertaken. To provide a 'depth of analysis' the causes are further separate into Socio-Cultural, Economic, Political categories.

The hierarchy of causes also makes it easier to conceive some preliminary decisions about the types of interventions required. For example, in societies where girls are at risk because of the lower status accorded to their gender, an immediate intervention might be to increase their access to resources such as health care, food and education. However, advocacy to improve the overall status of girls may be necessary which is an underlying factor in their well-being.

The identification of the different categories of people and agencies from outside the household that have to undertake development interventions is made possible through use of the hierarchy of causes. For example, Woreda and Regional level officials may play a crucial role in terms of the influence; authority and control they wield over issues that directly affect women's lives.

Depending on the type of problem, for example high pregnancy rate, the immediate causes could include poverty levels, employment opportunities, and educational levels; institutional structures and government policies as underlying causes and community norms, traditions, beliefs and arrangements as structural causes.

Shifts in land usage, reductions in children's education nutrition, health, and seclusion practices are potential causes contributing to manifestations that are detrimental to women and the community.

Action

Having made an assessment of the problem or manifestation, and analyzed its cause, answers are sought to the question what should be done, what can be done? Assuming by this stage, a specific problem has been targeted the following steps and processes should be completed: **Identification, Planning and Formulation, Implementation, Monitoring and Evaluation.**

Within a specific context the first stage of action is **Identification** of what needs to be done and where, who the key players are, what they will do and at what level the intervention is to be made. For example, based on the hierarchy of causes the immediate cause(s) for the low participation of girls might turn out to be the lack of women teachers, or an all girls school or the lack of household funds to pay for school fees and other related expenses. Frequently all the three immediate causes manifest. The **Identification** stage could be used to a) decide

CCRDA

which of the immediate causes to address, e.g., absence of women teachers; b) identify the community leaders including men and women, officials and agencies to be involved.

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.

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?

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?
- 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?

CCRDA

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 labor?
- Do any of the objectives challenge the existing or traditional sexual division of labor, 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?

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?
- 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?

Questions on Project Implementation

- Did women participate in design, selection, and 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?

CCRDA

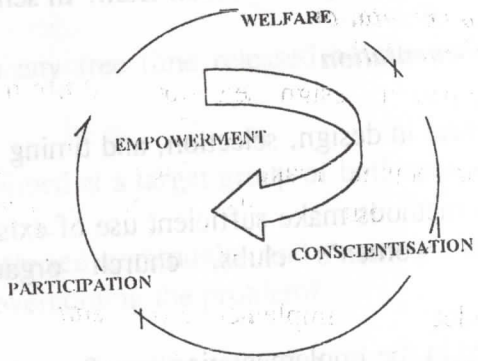
Questions on Project Outcome

- How will women's workload, health, etc. be affected by the program? How will it affect their schedules?
- Do women receive a fair 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 and to take collective action to solve problems?

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

The Women's Empowerment Framework

Welfare, which is the first level, addresses only the basic need of women, without recognizing or attempting to solve the underlying structural causes, which necessitate provision of welfare services. At this point, women are merely passive beneficiaries of welfare benefits. **The second level, access,** is essential for women to make meaningful progress. This involves equality of access to resources, such as educational opportunities, land and credit. The path to empowerment is initiated when women recognize lack of access to resources as a barrier to their growth and overall well-being and take action to redress this.



The Women's Empowerment Cycle

Conscientisation is a crucial point in the Empowerment Framework for women to take appropriate action to close gender gaps or gender inequalities, there must be recognition that their problem stem from inherent structural and institutional discrimination. They must recognize the role they can and often play in reinforcing the system that restricts their growth

CCRDA

Participation is the point where women are taking decisions alongside men equally. To reach this level, however, mobilization in necessary. By organizing themselves and working collectively, women will be empowered to gain increased representation, which will lead to increased empowerment and ultimately greater control.

Control is the ultimate level of equality and empowerment. Here, the balance of power between men and women is equal and neither party has dominance over the other. At this stage in the Empowerment Framework, women are able to make decisions over their lives, the lives of their children and play an active role in the development process. Further, the contributions of women are fully recognized and rewarded.

Using the Framework, development planners can determine whether a project or program is at the welfare, access, conscientisation, participation are control level, and determine the point of intervention, to move women to higher levels or equality and empowerment.

Currently, it is observed that the general picture that emerges from most project profiles is what is described as a fade-away patter, where the strategy statement of project/programmes show higher levels of consideration in terms of gender issues, but gets low at the implementation and evaluation stages. As a result, they generally remain stuck at the welfare or access levels.

CCRDA

Example on Project

Title: Provision of Water to community X

Goal: Improved living Standard of community X through the provision of Portable Water supply.

Strategy:

1. Promote community based portable water development works
2. promote partnership with concerned line ministries
3. encourage participation of women in the community based portable water development work
4. Enhance the partnership and capacity of the community through awareness creation programs and training.

Objectives:

- to provide portable water supply to 25% of the population (3 Peasant Associations at the end of the year 2003.
- to reduce the prevalence of water born diseases by 5% as compared to the base year in the year 2002.
- 45% of women will be involved in the community based portable water development works at the end of 2002.
- At least four training programs will be held each year to 50% of the target communities (Out of which 25% are women) due to the project life time.

Output:

- 9 hand dug well constructed
- 3 springs developed
- 12 water committee formed
- 12 water fee system established
- 36 water care-taker trained (Out of which 24 are women)
- 1500 people trained on awareness
- tool kits and spare parts provided (50,000_)
- Six workshops conducted

Activities

- Construction of 9 hand dug well
- Development of 3 to 5 springs
- Formation of water Committee
- Establishment of water fee system
- Training on Awareness creation for target communities
- Training for water care takers on maintenance of water points
- provision of tool kits and spare parts
- Conduct sensitization workshop for LDS and Stakeholders
- Recruit staff
- Rent house offices
- procurement of materials, supplies
- Monitoring and Evaluation.

ECRDA

Budget

Description	Amount
• Hand Dug well	225,000
• Spring Development	30,000
• Water Committee Station	10,000
• Training for Water Care Takers	40,000
• Awareness Creation	120,000
• Tool Kits and Spare parts	500,000
• Sensitization Workshop	10,000
• Staff Recruitment	100,000
• office Rent	10,800
• Materials and Supplies	100,000
• Monitoring and Evaluation	649,200

Christian Relief & Development Association
LIBRARY
P.O.Box

Monitoring and Evaluation

- Report
- Field Visit
- BI-annual Meeting
- Monitoring Objects

Evaluation

- Mid-term Evaluation by the project holders and Stakeholders
- Terminal Evaluation: By Consultants/outsiders

CCRDA

REFERENCES

1. DSA (1999): Training Manual on Participatory Development Planning
2. Nuri Kedir (1999): Developing Gender Responsive Project Proposal
3. Parker, R.A (1993): Another Point of View: A Manual on Gender Analysis Training for Grassroots Workers. New York, UNIFEM/United Nations Development Fund For Women
4. Tsion Dessie (1997): Introduction to Basic Concepts Related to Gender.
5. Zewde Abegaz (1994). Gender Issues in Development
6. Nuri Kedir & Associates. (2000) Poverty Alleviation and Gender Analysis Training Manual
7. Tony Beck (1999) A Quick Guide to Using Gender Sensitive Indicators. Gender Management System Series.

HOW TO STRENGTHEN WOMEN'S ECONOMIC CAPACITY TO FIGHT POVERTY

TRAINING ON GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME FOR STAFF OF CRDA MEMBERS

CORDA

NOVEMBER 20-29, 2000

BY DR. HAILE GONORO
CONSULTANT

How to strengthen women's Economic Capacity to Fight Poverty

Definition and Indicators of poverty

Definition of poverty

1. The multi dimensional nature of poverty does not allow us to define it in single term and nature. Different institutions have different approaches to define poverty and give different meanings. According to the UNDP – Poverty Report 2000, basic poverty definitions include Income and Human Poverty (1; p. 20):

- ***Income poverty comprises:***
  - Extreme Poverty: Lack of income necessary to satisfy basic food needs. Usually defined on the basis of minimum calorie requirements (often called absolute poverty)
  - Over all poverty: Lack of income necessary to satisfy essential non food needs, such as for clothing, energy, and shelter as well as food needs. (often called relative poverty)
- ***Human poverty:***
  - Lack of basic human capabilities, illiteracy, malnutrition, abbreviated life span, poor maternal health, illness from preventable diseases. Indirect measures of the human poverty are lack of access to goods, services and infrastructure – energy, sanitation, education, communication, drinking water-necessary to sustain basic human capabilities.

2. Poverty "as an ethical, social, political and economic imperative of human kind"2 need to be eradicated. Its eradication requires more resources, a shorter focus and a stronger commitment. Since poverty is not lack of income alone but a multi-dimensional phenomenon, it ranges to reducing malnutrition, expanding literacy, increasing life expectancy, guaranteeing empowerment, etc. Explicit target, adequate resource and effective management can help reduce poverty. A comprehensive approach including multi-sectoral activities have more effect on poverty and build a base for sustained poverty reduction endeavor.

Poverty Indicators

3. Poverty has a number of indicators. Absolute poverty indicators viz lack of essentials might include: extreme or overall poverty rate, per capita average growth rate, food insecurity, etc. According to these indicators 45.5 percent of the population in Ethiopia

CCRDA

are absolutely poor people. 50 percent are food insecured and average calorie intake adult/day is 1954 at a national level.

Table 1: Absolute Poverty Indicators in Ethiopia

Indicators	Rural	Urban	National
1. Calorie intake Adult/day	1936	2050	1954
2. Food insecurity (%)	52	36	50
3. Absolute Poverty (%) Extreme Overall	47.5 - -	33.2 - -	45.5 24* 46*
4. Private consumption per capita average annual growth rate (%) 1980-97	-	-	-1.3*

Source: Poverty situation in Ethiopia, MEDaC, 1999.
*UNDP, Poverty Report – 2000, p. 26

4. Human poverty indicators include: literacy rates, health coverage, social services, etc. For instance the overall level of health service coverage in Ethiopia is estimated to be nearly 50 percent. But coverage estimates for the individual programs are very low; the proportion of birth attended by trained health personnel is estimated at 10 percent: (3; P. 4). In Ethiopia only one in three primary school-age children attends school. (4; p.1)

Table 2: Human Poverty Indicators

Indicators	Year	%
1. Adult Illiteracy Rate	1997	65
2. Female illiteracy rate	1997	51
3. Children under-weight	1990-98	48
4. Children – wasting	1990-98	8
5. Death rate under 15	1997	24
6. Death rate under 40	1997	42

Source: UNDP, Poverty Report – 2000, p 29

CCRDA

5. Other basic poverty indicators would include:

- *Availability of safe water*
- *Sanitation*
- *Energy consumption*
- *Infrastructure (road-ratio)*
- *Communication*
- *etc.*

Poverty indicators are not gender disaggregated at all levels. They usually are carelessly assessed and inadequately analyzed as far as their gender content is concerned. However, limited information indicate that the most vulnerable groups include:

- *small holder farmers who face pressure of land subdivision and depend on erratic rainfall,*
- *female-headed households who are often among the most vulnerable of the rural population with poor access to resources available to other farmers.*
- *pastoralists who are dependent on the precarious balance of grazing land availability and herd size,*
- *(lend-less, squatters, migrants and other displaced families who usually lack access to resources and depend on safety net operations.*
- *unemployed youth who are new school leavers, new entrants to job market with limited/no skill for alternative income generating activities.*
- *marginalized women with limited opportunities to make their own future.*
- *informal sector operators whose survival depends on others income and who lack policy supports.*
- *low level employees especially under structural adjustment, who can easily-join the rank of the poorest of poor.*

Strengthening Women's Economic Capacity

6. Women in poor countries are among the poorest and most vulnerable people in the world, and the incidence of their poverty is increasing. They constitute a good number of the population living below the poverty line.[5] At least four factors contributed to the women poverty:

- *poor government development policies*
- *rapid population growth*

CCRDA

- *nuclearisation of families (with an increase in the households headed by women), and*
- *accentuation of rural poverty under socio-economic and environmental pressures*

Constrained as they are by inter-linked socio-cultural factors, macro-economic policies and development strategies, women are triply disadvantaged:

- *as poor people, they live under the same harsh conditions as poor men;*
- *as women, they suffer cultural and policy biases which undervalue their contribution to development and prevent them from increasing productivity of their labour, and*
- *as heads of households, they face the same problems as men while having to carry out the full burden of household management and production for which they get very little support. Hence in order to enhance the economic capacity of women, first and foremost it would be essential to:*

  - ***recognize the productive role of women in all development efforts:*** It has become increasingly clear that targeting benefits to the poor in general and hoping women will get their share, simply does not work. Classical theories like "trickle-down" effect and cross-cutting activity have limited effects. On the other hand, poor women should not, moreover, be treated merely as the "target" groups of social welfare programmes; rather their productive role must be recognized and enhanced. For rural women are the major food producers in poor countries and generate a large part of the family's cash income. According to some studies, in many African countries, rural women account for 60 percent of the agricultural labour force and up to 80 percent of total food production (6; p.15). Any poverty alleviation efforts, therefore, will be destined to failure unless they promote the advancement of women as producers in their own right and as direct beneficiaries.

  - ***empower women:*** women as producers need to be entitled to improve their welfare status and have to get access to resource. Conscientization of women would help to enhance their participation in development efforts and have say to control their benefits.

  - ***Organize women:*** If women are organized on voluntary basis, they get strength to take decision by their own, can easily be reached and managed, and can acquire knowledge, skills and resources to manage their programmes.

  - ***Provide policy and support backings:*** designing and implementing poverty alleviating policies focusing on women would help women to fight poverty. Both training and post-training supports like technical, financial and advisory service would help poor women to enhance their entrepreneurial skill and alternatives for productive self-employment.

GCRDA

Mainstreaming Development into Poverty Alleviation

7. Development is growth plus change. It is an upward movement of the entire social system which require the interaction of political, social and economic factors of production. Above all, poverty is a multi-dimensional phenomenon requiring a comprehensive multi sectoral approach – much more than a few projects "targeted" at poor. Poverty alleviation strategy ranges from political commitment to implementing poverty targeted projects.

Hence mainstreaming development into poverty alleviation requires:

1. Political commitment:

8. All poverty alleviation activities need to be led by poverty alleviation policies, Implementation guidelines/strategies and practical programmes end projects on ground. Developing national anti-poverty plans help focus and coordinate national activities and build support. National plans need to be comprhensive, adequately funded and coordinated by influential government institution. To optimize their efficiency anti-poverty plans need to nationally owned and determined, not donor driven, long-term, self-financing, and sustainable. National policies need to focus on making development more pro-poor, target in equality and emphasize empowering the poor.

2. Organizing the poor:

A major source of poverty is people's powerlessness. To avoid such status of the poor it is essential to help the poor to organize themselves to advance their interests. Once the poor are organized, the foundation for success will be emanated. A new generation of poverty programmes focus on building community organizations to directly articulate people's needs and priorities, rather than concentrating on income generating activities alone. Mobilizing and organizing especially the poor women is a successful experience. Once afforded the opportunities, communities can quickly build their own organizations and develop their own leaders for common purpose. "If the poor lack organization and power, the benefits of poverty programmes are unlikely to reach them – or if they do, to make a lasting difference" (7; p. 13)

3. Focussing resources on poor:

9. Targeting the poor means focusing poverty reduction resource on the poor. Effective targeting can only be achieved by empowering the poor. Resources focusing on poor can be practiced through:

- *adjusting macroeconomic policies to make development more pro-poor;*
- *directing resources to sectors where the poor are employed – agriculture, rural off-farm enterprises, urban micro-enterprises.*

CCRDA

- *Allocating resources to poor areas or communities.*

Effective targeting also requires a geographical map of poverty based on a reliable set of human poverty indicators. Geographical targeting invariably includes many non-poor households. In such a case directing resources to poor households alone might be both difficult and expensive. The matter will be further complicated if the channel of delivery is not solved. The choice is government, donor or beneficiaries. If the delivery of resources to the poor is tied to their empowerment – let community organizations take the lead, if so they can reach the poorest of the poor and disadvantaged social group like women, ethnic minorities, indigenous peoples and low status castes.

4. ***Integrating poverty alleviation effort:***

10. The linkage between poverty alleviation efforts and the rest of the national development programmes is loose. Poverty is seen as a residual that can be solved without separate policies and programmes of action. Another part of the integration problem is that efforts made to address poverty problems usually fail to bring satisfactory results mainly because they are piecemeal in approach and fragmented in nature. Funds are not sufficient to adequately run poverty alleviation programmes. Host nation lacks resources commitment for poverty alleviation. Official development assistance is not only declining markedly, but also ill focused. Many donors still do not make poverty reduction a priority, or know how to focus their resources on the poor or monitor their impact. They say that they are opposed to aid conditionality but have not yet figure out how to make their counterparts in host nations equal partners. Thus, party to blame is donors' hit-and-miss project approach to development – by passing the government, dispersing efforts and eroding sustainability. Therefore, it is mandatory to coordinate all poverty alleviation activities, so that resources and efforts can be saved and duplications can be avoided.

5. ***Monitoring Impacts:***

11. Developing a comprehensive and workable monitoring system help to gauge progress against poverty. Availability of carefully formulated and adequately substantiated database helps all stakeholders to design poverty alleviation programmes, especially policy makers. Database on poverty can be established by:

- *conducting surveys on income and expenditure*
- *conducting rapid monitoring surveys focused on human poverty.*
- *poverty mapping information, etc.*
- *conducting impact assessments against the set targets and objectives.*
- *Generating information more frequently for policymaking, etc.*

Several techniques can be used in monitoring progress against poverty. Participatory assessments are particularly useful for policy-making because they provide valuable insights into how poor people assess their situation and what they think should be done. Thorough the process also basic questions like; Who is poor? How is poor? And Why is

CCRDA

Ethiopian Relief & Development Association

poor? Can be answered. There is a need to design poverty monitoring system in such a way that it can provide evaluations of anti-poverty policies and programmes. If so, it might contain a systematic verification of what policies work and what policies do not. Such approach would help countries to move closer to their poverty reduction targets.

NOTES

1. United Nations Development Programme, Poverty Report 2000: "Overcoming Human Poverty. Further reference can be made to the UNDP 1997 Report which defines poverty as "deprivation in resources".

2. World Summit for Social Development, Copenhagen, 1995.

3. Ministry of Health, Program action plan for the Health sector Development Program, 1998.

4. Ministry of Education: Education Sector Development Program Action Plan, 1999.

5. Women – men ratio in Ethiopia is almost equal.

6. The state of world Rural Poverty; A profile of Africa, IFAD, 1993.

7. Refer Note No. 1 above.

CCRDA

SITUATION OF ETHIOPIAN WOMEN

TRAINING ON GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME FOR STAFF OF CRDA MEMBERS

CCRDA

NOVEMBER 20-29, 2000

BY SOSENA DEMISSIE
CONSULTANT

Situation of Ethiopian Women

Background

Ethiopia is the second most densely populated country in Cub-Saharan Africa. With a population growth rate close to 3 percent per annum, the population of the country as of July 2000 estimated to be around 63 million, of which half are women. Out of the total population, 86% resides in rural areas, and 14 % resides in urban areas. It has been projected that in less than a quarter of a century the population of Ethiopia will be 100 million (CSA Statistical abstract, 1999).

As is the case with a rapidly growing population, the age composition shows a high percentage of young individuals. About 44% of the population are young, falling below 15 years of age while about the same percent of the population lies between the age of 15 and 49 years. The percentage of the population aged 65 and above is about 3%. This reveals the high dependency ratio. Women being the caretakers of the children and the elderly, by in large carry this burden of the society.

Table 1: The social indicators of Ethiopian Women:

Description	**Ethiopia**	**SSA**
Population growth rate (%) (1994)	*3*	
Total fertility rate (%) (1994)	*6.5*	*5.7*
Life expectancy (Years) (1994)	*50.7*	
Male	*49.8*	
Female	*51.8*	
Adult literacy rate (%) (1994)	*23.4*	*50*
Male	*29.8*	
Female	*16.9*	
Combined 1st, 2nd, and 3rd level gross		
Enrollment ratio (%) (1994)	*20.5*	
Male	*23.3*	
Female	*17.7*	
Access to health services (%) (1994)	*45*	
Access to safe water (%) (1994)	*26*	*47*
Access to sanitation (%) (1994)	*8*	*48*
Earned income share (1994)		
Male	*65.9*	
Female	*34.1*	
Infant mortality rate (1994)	*120/1000*	*92/1000*
Maternal mortality rate (1995)	*700/100,000*	
Under-five mortality rate	*135/1000*	
Underweight children under 5 (%) (1993)	*47*	*32*
Contraceptive prevalence rate (%) (1997)	*9.8*	
Number of HIV care reported (1997)	*57,000*	
(of which 63% women)		
No. seats held in parliament (1994)	*2.4*	
Administrative Managers	*0.03*	
Professional and Technical Workers	*0.30*	

Source: Human Development Report, 1998, Ethiopia

CCRDA

The above social indicators for human development and the quality of life in Ethiopia show that the majority of Ethiopians particularly women live under severe hardship.

With literacy rate of 30 percent for men and 17 percent for women in 1994, a combined 1st 2nd and 3rd level gross enrolment ratio of 23 per cent for men and 18 percent for women and the social services which is very low as compared to Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) indicate the poor condition of the country which are not an easy task to overcome. The challenge also has a significant gender aspect that cannot be ignored if growth is to be sustainable and equitable in the long run. As we can see from the above indicators, women disproportionately bear the burden of poverty in Ethiopia. This is mainly a result of the gender-based division of labour.

Ethiopian women, by virtue of being members of multi-ethnic cultural groups, live and work in these diversities, affected by them and affecting them. Although very little in-depth studies have been done regarding the socio-cultural factors that affect their lives. Ethiopians have a dominant patriarchal system in which women hold an inferior status and lack of economic opportunities. While the role of women vary from one ethnic group to another, gender division of labour generally limit women to the role of wife, mother, housekeeper, livestock trader, and provider of agricultural labour.

In general women in Ethiopia lack decision making power, access to and control over productive resources. They have limited access to education, and other social services, and low level of awareness, which have exposed them to harmful traditional attitude and practices. Apart from historical, cultural and religious factors, the current situation of women in Ethiopia is exasperated by the overall poor economic situation (poverty, economic insecurity, poor social services provision) and the negative effects of war and natural disasters, all of which affect the entire population but place a heavier burden on women who are usually responsible for household welfare in terms of provision of food, fuel, water, and health care.

According to MEDaC (1999), an estimated 27 million people in Ethiopia live below the poverty line which is about 50 percent of the total population. It is estimated that the rural poor make up 44% of the total population, while the urban poor are estimated to reach 5% of the total population. Out of the total food-poor people, 89% resides in rural area while 11% resides in urban area. Within these group children, pregnant and lactating mothers, and the elderly people are most at risk of food insecurity. The food poverty situation in Ethiopia is a serious and large challenge to social development. Moreover, as stated above, the poor are also disadvantaged not only interms of food nutrient deficiency but also in terms of access to all kinds of social services. The most disadvantaged group of women in Ethiopian society appears to be female-headed households. (According to 1994 census estimate 22.2% of the rural, and 35% of the urban households are headed by female). Because as poor people, they live under the same condition as poor men. As women they suffer from cultural, social and policy biases which undervalue their contribution. As heads of household they face the same problems as men while having to carry out the full burden of reproductive and productive work with out support.

CCRDA

Rural Women in Ethiopia

According to the Economic Policy of Ethiopia, Agricultural Development-led Industrialization (ADLI), agriculture is the most important sector.

In the rural area the activity of 95% of women is agriculture, animal husbandry and forestry. Women in rural Ethiopia are unpaid family workers whose output is excluded from measurements of national accounts. In fact the classification of economically non-active in the census includes homemakers (CSA 1998). This classification leaves out all of the work that Ethiopian women do, unpaid, in family farms and businesses, and as mothers, wives, and daughters with obligations and responsibilities to look after others. The work that is particularly 'women's work' is classified as 'non-economic', though without it, the Ethiopian economy could not function.

Within the traditional division of labour in the highland Ethiopia, farming is considered man's work though ploughing is the only exclusively male activity. In contrast, in hoe culture (Gurage, Kembata and Hadya etc.) women plat, major roles in food production, they are also the main cultivators of crops grown in the homestead such as ensete, coffee and vegetable (Senait, 1993). Most farmers base labour and other input decisions on traditionally gender-defined roles. Women are often not consulted and never make the final decision. Women's involvement in marketing is also varies depending on the scale and type of agricultural operation. Where production is subsistence oriented, there is a tendency for women to be involved in marketing small amount of grain, vegetables, spices, dairy products or handicrafts. As production surplus increase, men take over marketing. A case in point relates to marketing of livestock products. Women usually own small stock (poultry, sheep and goats) and are solely responsible for processing and marketing dairy products. However, marketing of large quantities or cattle, sheep and goat is the sole domain of men. Thus, the benefits of women from marketing livestock and livestock products in most areas is limited.

CCRDA

In rural areas, female-headed households appear to suffer greater limitations in meeting household needs than male-headed households. Some observation reveals that rural female headed household do not have access to adult male labour for agricultural production particularly during the peak seasons of production activities. Therefore, these households are forced to lease their agricultural land to another male on share cropping basis to get half of the produce where there are labour constraints, some of their land may, in fact, be left uncultivated. In some cases female-headed houschold 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 the women to do such activities recognized as men's tasks (Nuri, 1999).

Urban women in Ethiopia

As shown on table 2, some 9 percent of the employed force in Ethiopia are found in urban areas whose job on the most part include transport operators and labourers, and sales and service workers. Professional and technical workers are no more than one

percent of employed work force of which almost all are in urban areas are men. Although a very small number of women hold position-jobs that requires college training and technological know-how, most Ethiopian women are engaged in all types of odd jobs. These include selling injera and tella, walking as housemaids as well as prostitution or bar management. Working as housemaids is, of course, the first occupation most young women who move to cities from rural areas in search of better life embarks on. Another area of occupation is prostitution, degrading to women, a manifestation of backwardness and a breeding ground for many kinds of diseases as well as HIV/AIDS and social evils. Yet a staggeringly large number of Ethiopian women deserve their livelihood from it, because they have no alternative employment opportunities.

Employment

As shown in the following table, agriculture being the dominant sector of employment in Ethiopian economy, the second sector where there is high participation of women is hotel and restaurant followed by wholesale and retail trade. According to the Federal Civil Service Commission of Ethiopia in 1995/96 fiscal year, there were around half a million employees in the public sector, of which 28% were female (HDR,1998). This indicates involvement of women in non-agricultural activities is very low.

Table 2: Percentage of economically active population by type of activity (1994 Census)

No.	Activity	Urban			Rural			Total		
		M	F	Both	M	F	Both	M	F	Both
1	Agriculture, hunting forestry and fishing	0.8	0.3	1.1	50.0	38.1	88.1	50.8	38.4	89.2
2	Mining and quarrying	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1
3	Manufacturing	0.7	0.4	1.1	0.2	0.5	0.8	1.0	0.9	1.9
4	Electricity, gas and water supply	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	0.1
5	Construction	0.3	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.3
6	Wholesale and retail trade, repair of goods	1.1	0.6	1.6	0.2	0.4	0.7	1.3	1.0	2.3
7	Hotels and restaurants	0.2	0.9	1.1	0.0	0.8	0.8	0.2	1.6	1.9
8	Transport, storage and communication	0.5	0.1	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.5	1.1	0.6
9	Financial intermediation	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
10	Real estate, renting and business activities	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1
11	Public administration and defense, social sectors	0.7	0.2	0.9	0.09	0.0	0.1	0.8	0.3	1.0
12	Education, health and social work	0.4	0.2	0.6	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.5	0.2	0.8
13	Other social, cultural, personal and household activities.	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.3
14	Private households with employed persons	0.1	0.5	0.6	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.6	0.8
15	Extra-Territorial organizations and bodies	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
16	Not stated	0.3	0.2	0.5	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.8
	Total	5.3	3.5	8.8	51.1	40.1	91.2	56.4	43.6	100

Source: Population and housing census commission, 'Results at country level', statistical report volume I, Addis Ababa June 1998.

CCRDA

With the limited employment opportunities offered by the formal sector, the majority of poor women make their living in the informal sector. Most are employed as fuel wood gatherers and sellers, petty market traders, crafts-people, domestic workers and commercial sex workers.

In spite of the attention given to the private sector expansion, little has been achieved in addressing unemployment. In private sector competition and maximization of profit is the motivation. In a situation where many are unemployed and the opportunity is limited the market is with the employer. The result of this particularly for the most of women is low income, long hours of work, poor security packages. Poor women are more victimized since their mobility is limited to seek employment opportunities.

This is also attributed to the fact that some of the structural adjustment programme (SAP) measures also bring shifts in labour force composition. As the public sector employment opportunities decline, women increasingly turn more to the informal sector to compensate for a husband's job loss and the sharp fall in the purchasing power of the family's income.

A participatory poverty assessment conducted with 15 poor women in Mesalemia area, Addis Ababa, also indicated that six of the women were housewives some five years ago and they were depending on their husbands' wage/salaries. Their husbands were reportedly employed in either the construction industry, military sector etc. But since the last five years, their families main sources of income has shifted to petty trading/peddling. On the other hand, the remaining nine women were already heads of families and they pointed out that their income from petty trading was not as good as five years ago since a number of families in their neighborhoods started the same business and their markets have reached saturated points.

Even though the entry of women to informal sector increased in the urban area because of the adjustment measures their access to credit is not given much thought. This situation lead women to exploitation and increase poverty.

As a result of the retrenchment on men and women from formal employment, more people are now engaged in informal sector. Thus the business of the urban women who already engaged in the informal sector is becoming over saturated. This coupled with the lack of sufficient credit and legal support to the sector, has made their business engagement worse.

In addition the urban land lease system and the drastic increment of rents have been chasing out considerable number of women petty traders form their business. This compelled women headed families and their children to engage in begging and prostitution.

CCRDA

Health

The health profile of an Ethiopian women is characterized by four major events that she experiences in life, at infancy, childhood, teenage and adulthood. During infancy, girls are exposed to traditional practices such as female circumcision, which leave them with life long health complications, especially during and after childbirth. Girls from age 5 are given heavy household chores that are well beyond their physical capacity with less nutrition, which precludes their healthy up bringing. When they are teenagers the majority of girls are forced in early marriages.

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 some amount of risk. Food consumption patterns give priority to men's needs. Other cultural taboos and action further nutritional deprivations. In some regions, pregnant women are not allowed to eat milk, eggs or meat. When girls reach adulthood they have to perform back breaking household and farm activities, collecting fuel and water from far distances, looking after animals and helping in the fields as well as preparing food, taking responsibilities for children and the household's healthcare. The heavy workload with malnutrition lack of family planning, reliance on traditional medicine and lack of access to modern medical facilities contribute to their health problems. This situation of Ethiopian women can be verified from the above social indicators, which reviles higher fertility rate, infant mortality rate and maternal mortality rate as compared to Sub-Saharan Africa .

Data limitations preclude an objective assessment of the HIV/AIDS situation in Ethiopia. However, available evidence suggests that the HIV/AIDS epidemic in Ethiopia is increasing at an alarming rate. HIV has now spreading throughout the country, according to Ministry of Health cases are reported from every region in Ethiopia with greater concentration in urban areas. Over eighty percent of cases of HIV/AIDS are found between the ages of 20-49, the most economically productive age group of the population. Surveys from the National Aids Control Programme of Ethiopia have found that HIV/AIDS affects certain at-risk populations and localities more than others do. Commercial sex workers, long distance truck drivers and the military were found to have been the most severely affected. In addition the study revealed HIV prevalence in Addis Ababa and the regions indicate HIV prevalence among women raising from 4.0% to as high as 21%. Since the epidemic is attacking the country's labour force it has serious implications for future development strategies. Given the low level of public health service, Ethiopian women are over burdened taking care of the sick people. At present no services exist to reduce mother to child transmission in Ethiopia (National Guidelines for Voluntary HIV Counseling and Testing in Ethiopia, 2000).

Education

As shown in table 3, the majority of the people in Ethiopia are illiterate, the level of illiteracy being high among women than men. Women's low participation is observed at

CSRDA

all levels of education and the situation is worse in the rural areas. Women's enrolment at tertiary level is even worse than the other levels. Out of the total enrolment in 1995/96 at higher institutions only 11% are female while 89% are male (table 4). Education facilities tend to be concentrated in urban areas. In both rural and urban areas female participation and enrollment tend to be very low. Constraints of girls greater participation in education, include, early marriage, the tendency of keeping female labour for domestic work, and cultural attitudes.

Table 3: Primary and secondary enrolment (net), 1994

Urban/Rural Sex		Primary (%)	Secondary (%)
Urban	Male	60.3	27.9
	Female	58.3	26.6
	Total	59.2	25.5
Rural	Male	6.9	1.1
	Female	4.8	0.8
	Total	5.9	1.0
Country	Male	12.9	5.0
	Female	11.5	5.2
Total		12.2	5.1

Source: Population and housing census commission, 'Results at country level', statistical report volume 1, Addis Ababa, June 1998.

Table 4: Tertiary enrolment

Year	Male	Female	Total
1992/93	13650	2140	15790
1993/94	13290	2148	15438
1994/95	13916	2059	15975
1995/96	15520	1858	17378

Source: Ministry of Education, 'Education Statistics', Addis Ababa, July 1997

Law

Until 1960, customary laws governed all personal matters (inheritance, wills, marriage, divorce, property division, and child maintenance and custody). In 1960 the civil code attempted to modernize the legal framework governing social structures and relationships. It invalidated customary law or religious law concerning personal matters governed by the code. In 1994, the constitution of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, ratified unequivocally guarantees gender equality in social and economic matters. It also incorporates international agreements ratified by Ethiopia. Article 13 of the constitution requires all government organs to comply with and interpret the provisions in conformity with international human rights conventions to which Ethiopia is a party.

ECRDA

Despite this fact, the law have little or no impact on the majority of rural households that continue to apply customary, religious, and traditional practices in personal relationships.

Laws are reflections of society's political and economic life. Ethiopian women have long been unable to have their rights ensured by making proper use of the legal instrument available to them on equal terms with men due to societal pressure, lack of legal knowledge and fear of court appearances.. The intervention by Women's Lawyers Association by creating awareness of their legal rights and lobbying for change discriminatory articles toward women is a big step toward safeguarding women's democratic and legal rights.

Evolution of Ethiopian Women's Movement

Prior to the 1974 revolution, development interventions for women were the product of welfare-oriented approaches that responded to the immediate needs. After 1974, in response to the growing need to organize women for development activities, the Revolutionary Ethiopian Women's Association (REWA) was established to oversee issues related to women. Despite some success at the grassroots level, particularly in organizing women, REWA evolved to become involved more in politics and advocacy than in development. Women perceived REWA as being political than developmental. In spite of its close relations with the government, it remained a political wing of the ruling party and did not introduce gender integration into government policies and interventions.

In 1993 the transitional government drafted and the Council of Ministers approved the first women's policy, underscoring the need to move toward an institutionalized strategy for enhancing women's development through policy measures. Recognizing the productive role of women and their contribution to the national economy, the policy moved the government's focus from relief to development. For the first time, it provided a broad framework for incorporating women in the planned development process. As a result, there is greater awareness of women's economic potential and growing acceptance and recognition of women's demands and aspirations.

The women's policy emphasizes improving the socioeconomic role of women. It also articulates a comprehensive development program for improving women's socioeconomic situation, acknowledges the social and economic consequences of neglecting the concerns of women, and stresses the need to create national awareness of those costs.

It pledges to facilitate women's access to economic opportunities. The strategy reiterates the need to ensure greater employment opportunities in both urban and rural areas and highlights the need to accord women, as citizens and productive human resources for national development, rights, obligations, and opportunities equal to those of men. While the policy mandates specially designed programs in health, education, social welfare, population planning, and employment, it also stresses the need to integrate gender

CCRDA

concerns in all economic sectors. It emphasizes the need to improve the effectiveness of social service delivery to women.

As part of the government's commitment and initiative, the policy established a women's affairs office within the prime minister's office and charged it with implementing the national women's policy and for monitoring its implementation. The women's affairs office promotes, catalyzes, and monitors women's issues concerning programs and projects in various sectors and plays equally important role in coordinating the operations of donors and non governmental organizations. It also maintains functional linkages and coordination with the women's units established in all regions, within central ministries, and in public organizations. In return, these women's units are expected to foster collaboration and to develop a system for monitoring the role, participation, and integration of women at the policy and program levels. At the regional levels, the women's policy envisages to principal players—the women's affairs bureaus and the women's departments in select sectoral bureaus. These units are expected to contribute to the gender sensitivity of the regional development plan. They are the primary units charged with ensuring gender-sensitive inputs and outputs in project formulation, appraisal, implementation, and monitoring.

The announcement of the National Policy on women in 1993 and promulgation of the new constitution in 1995, the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia decided its commitment to the equitable socio-economic development of women. The women's policy aims to institutionalize the political, economic, and social rights of women by creating appropriate structures in government offices and institutions so that public policies and interventions are gender-sensitive and can ensure equitable development for all Ethiopians. Article 25 of the new constitution guarantees all persons equality before the law and prohibits any discrimination on ground of gender. In addition, article 35 reiterates the principle of equality of access to economic opportunities, including the right to e quality in employment related matters.

The implementation of women's policy, however, faced a number of difficulties. In the study made by the Women's Affairs Office and the World Bank (1998), the difficulties in materializing the women's policy revolve around the legal and regulatory systems, institutional issues and preparation and implementation of development plans. Applicability of customary laws especially in rural areas, the lack of facilitation and support of the legal framework for women's entry in markets, the administration of land by kebeles in which customary attitudes still limit women's ownership of them. In addition, high level of legal illiteracy, the biases of the family arbitration system, absence of legal aid for women and inadequate framework for women's groups are some of the legal and regulatory issues which made the implementation of women's policy difficult task. Among the difficulties identified in the study was inadequate power and duties of Women's Affairs Offices, lack of institutional capacity of regional governments and lack of capital budget are institutional constraints. The preparation and implementation of development plans are not in accordance to women's policy due to lack of gender disaggregated data, absence of women's groups and weak collaboration with non-

CCRDA

Christian Relief & Development Association
LIBRARY
P.O.Box 5674

governmental or private entities. These constraints have to be tackled in order to ensure the effective implementation of the women's policy.

Despite the commitment to equitable public policy, and implementation of the women's policy, interventions for women largely consist of a number of ad hoc and unconnected self-standing projects, with standard process for the delivery of services. If this persist, mainstream development plans will remain gender neutral and ineffective in delivery benefits to women, marginalizing women's concerns even further. Development intervention will then not be sustainable in the long term. The lack of institutional capacity at regional and sub regional levels particularly at the wereda and kebele levels, pose one of the biggest challenges to the effective implementation of the women's policy.

In Ethiopia where the burden of poverty is disproportionately borne by women, gender-neutral development interventions affect men and women differently. Being more disadvantaged in skills, availability of time, access to economic resources, social services and subject to greater cultural taboos and restrictions than men, Ethiopian women are unable to access or receive equal benefits from an expanding economy. This further exacerbates gender differentials, increasing the burden of poverty on women.

The socio-economic situation of women in Ethiopia needs significant improvement. The needs are urgent. It is, therefore, important that the legal, social, economic and institutional constraints and issues should be addressed.

CCRDA

Reference:

1. UNDP, Human Development Report of Ethiopia, Addis Ababa,1998

2. Implementing the Ethiopian National Policy for Women, Institutional and Regulatory Issues, The Women's Affairs Office, FDRE and The world Bank, Washington D.C., 1998.

3. Ministry of Economic Development and Co-operation, Poverty Situation in Ethiopia, Addis Ababa, 1999.

4. National Guidelines for voluntary HIV Counseling and Testing in Ethiopia, A paper presented at National Workshop on Voluntary Counseling and Testing in Ethiopia, October 16-18, 2000.

5. National Policy on Ethiopian Women, The Transitional Government of Ethiopia Office of Prime Minister, Addis Ababa, 1993.

6. CSA, Population and housing Census of Ethiopia, Addis Ababa, 1998.

7. Senait Seyoum and Ruth Buckley, Gender Analysis for USAID/Ethiopia Program Strategy, 1993.

8. Situation Assessment on Voluntary Counseling and Testing in Ethiopia, A paper presented at National Workshop on Voluntary Counseling and Testing in Ethiopia, October 16-18, 2000.

9. Feleke Taddele, The Gender Dimensions of economic Reform Programme in Ethiopia: Concerns and Symptoms, 1997.

10. Nuri Kedir, Feminization of Poverty: Review of Concepts and Some Emperical Evidences in Ethiopia, in CRDA Training Programme on Women, Culture and Poverty, 1999

CRDA

WHY WOMEN ARE POOR?

TRAINING ON GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME FOR STAFF OF CRDA MEMBERS

CORDA

NOVEMBER 20-29, 2000

BY DR. HAILE GONORO
CONSULTANT

WHY WOMEN ARE POOR?

1. The "Why" Scenario

1. A short look at different scenarios why someone is poor is not merely for academic nit-picking, but helps to examine the real cause(s) of poverty. Some views conclude that poverty is caused by personal behaviors. Such poverty, categorized as: "poor in the culture of poverty" is the consequences of dependency syndrome. The later is the result of social security, aid, begging, crimes and other short-lived income generating activities for survival. The second view includes that poverty is the result of cultural pressures such as; religious, lack of efforts, etc. The third category of the views believe that poverty is caused by or someone can be poor due to circumstances beyond control". Such circumstances can vary from lack of policy commitment by the government to lack of power to fight poverty by the poor.

2. Manifestation of Poverty

2. Poverty can be manifested in several types:

a) Transitory Poverty

Transitory poverty is caused by natural or man made disasters or through transitional phase of structural adjustment. Such poverty includes those vulnerable groups who teeter on the edge of poverty. Since they are the potential addition to the poor refugees, displaced returnees, soldiers and redundant civil servants are those most likely to be affected under transitory poverty

b) Attributional poverty

Attributional poverty is caused by disease, mental and physical disability, malnutrition, age or position under the household. Affected groups of population under such poverty manifestation are women, children, aged people, and others.

c) Chronic poverty

5. The third way of poverty manifestation is in its chronic poverty type. Such poverty can be caused due to a general lack of access to adequate resources and opportunities.

According to the world bank assessment of 1993, 16.6 million of the Ethiopian people were chronically poor, while the number of Ethiopians expected to be affected by transitory poverty was about 10.32 million.

CCRDA

Table 1: Poverty in Ethiopia (in millions)

Types of poverty	Rural	Urban	Refugees	Displaced returnees Ex-soldiers	Redundant civil servants	Total
1. Chronic	12.6	4.0	-	-	-	16.6
2. Transitory	7.4	-	0.49	2.1	0.33	10.32
Total	20.0	4.0	0.49	2.1	0.33	26.92

Source: ETHIOPIA: Towards Poverty Alleviation and a Social action Program; World Bank, Washington D.C. 1993. P. 26

Hence, it can fairly be concluded that, of course, religious and behavioral factors might print their cliché and contribute directly or indirectly to poverty.[1] But basically poverty is a result of circumstances beyond control.

3. *Women Poverty*

4. Although gender disaggregated poverty data are missing, it is a common consensus that women are highly deprived and disadvantaged groups in the society. In our earlier discussions we have also noted that constrained by socio-cultural, macro-economic policies and development strategies women are triply disadvantaged sections of the society (2: p. 15)

a. *As poor people, they live under the same condition as poor men. Incidence and depth of poverty in Ethiopia is high. About 46 percent of the total population live below absolute poverty. 50 percent of the population are food insecured. Per capita income is hardly 90 dollars per annum, etc. In all these women take a good share of the burden.*

Table 2: Poverty Indicators in Ethiopia

S. No.	Indicator	Ethiopia	LDCs/SSA[3]
1	Per capita income	90 US$ (1999)	550 US$ (1997)
2	Life expectancy	48.7Years	62.2 years
3	Access to safe water	27%	47%
4	Access to sanitation	10%	48%
5	Human resource development	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	School enrolment	20%	36.4%
10	Food insecurity	50%	-
11	Calorie intake	1954 (89%)	-

Source: - Poverty situation in Ethiopia, MEDaC, 1999
- Human Development Report – Ethiopia, UNDP, 1998.

CCRDA

b. *as women they suffer from cultural and policy biases which undervalue their contribution to development and prevent them from increasing the productivity of their labour and,*

c. *as heads of household they face the same problem as men while having to carry out the full burden of household management and production for which they get very little support.*

5. The marginalization of women is obvious. Women in Ethiopia constitute almost half of the society (49.8%) in year 2000 (4; p. 315). Although they are the best human resource or human capital of the country, do not occupy positions as they deserve. For instance, women's participation in the civil service is not only limited (18%) but also less remunerated. About 54 percent of the women civil service employees are paid less than 200 birr per month. Women usually occupy lower and casual jobs (5; p. 16). The story does not end here. Although women are untapped human potential of the country, their participation in decision making, gender equality, etc. is still limited. For a country with half of the population comprising females, this is a big loss. Women in Ethiopia have short lives, less nourished, labour continuously for long hours, have limited access to basic services and property ownership, per capita income etc. Thus, these all made women the most disadvantaged group of the society. Cultural pressures, low level of development and limited policy commitment contributed to the poverty of women. Although there are some indications[6] to mainstream women's issues to the over all development process, it is still seen as a cross-cutting activity. Hence, they have limited job opportunities but high unemployment.

Table 3: Women's Status Indicators

S. No.	Indicators	Women	Men	National
1	Women in population	49.8%	50.2%	-
2	Human Resource Development	-	-	0.235
3	Gender Development Index	0.230	-	-
4	Gender Empowerment Measure	0.036	-	-
5	Share in Civil Service	17.9%	82.1%	-
6	Primary Enrollment	31.1%	52.0%	41.8%
7	Secondary Enrollment	7.4%	10.3%	8.9%
8	Below Poverty Line	13.7 million	13.81 million	27.37 million
9	Wage Employment	33.3%	66.7%	-
10	Unemployment	70%	30%	-
11	Women's Status Index	0.222	-	-

Source: Survey of Ethiopian Economy – Employment, Unpublished, MEDaC, 2000.

CCRDA

4. The Way Ahead

6. As reiteratively said poverty is a multidimensional phenomenon that requires comprehensive interventions ranging from public to private involvements. The fight against poverty needs more resources, a sharper focus and a stronger commitment. This is to say that there will not be a single panacea for poverty alleviation. Hence, a new approach to poverty alleviation comprises making growth pro-poor, targeting inequality and empowering the poor. Thus an entry point to alleviate poverty is that at every stage of development it is necessary to achieve a balance between policies and investments which:

1. *facilitate policy backings*
2. *promote growth of economy and improve access of all people to social services and infrastructure and,*
3. *target the poor*

1. Policy commitment to poverty alleviation

7. Poverty alleviation requires both national and international political commitment. Promulgation of pro-poor policies, designing of strategies, working out of programmes and annual action plans and implementing of poverty alleviation projects are duties of good governments. Securing local funds, willingness to mobilize resources, establishing responsible and influential institutions and manning with technical staff and following up performance would help to alleviate poverty. International supports through finance and technical know-how will enhance the local capacity to draw and implement poverty alleviation policies, and activities on the ground. A coordinated approach to poverty alleviation not only saves resources and avoids the duplication of efforts but also brings satisfactory results.

2. Reducing Poverty through Growth

8. Reorienting government policies and institutions to help the poor certainly helps to reduce poverty Equally improving economic growth may lead to poverty reduction if there will be fair distribution of the growth. Unless and otherwise the trickle-down theory has little to do with poverty reduction. Hence, to bring positive results in the area of poverty reduction, it will be necessary to:

- *increase the annual growth rate of the national economy by increasing investment rate through increasing saving rate and efficiency of investment. Increasing the investment rate alone cannot bring a satisfactory result in poverty reduction, hence it is equally important to enhance the employment intensity of the growth process in order to increase the income generating capacity of the growth there from.*

- *Expand job opportunities through investment-led employment creation and poverty reduction activities. This can be achieved by expanding labour intensive communities and public works, increasing the labour absorbing capacity of the agricultural sector,*

CCRDA

by improving working environment for informal sector operators and providing advisory services for marketing.

- *Build the entrepreneurial capacity of the poor by improving labour market through expanding market-driven trainings. Provision of post-training supports like credit, advisory service, etc. would further expand the job opportunities of the poor to be hired or find self-employment. Improving conditions, like legal, regulatory, etc. will create opportunities for easy entry to job for unemployed and job seekers.*

- *Expansion of social services like education and health would help the poor improve their health status and expand their choices. Healthy and educated poor have high productivities and their choices for income generation would be wide. Guaranteeing food security to the poor would be basis to think for better future. Innovative and pro-poor provision of technologies for instance, labour saving devices for women would help to save their time and use the spare time for alternate productive purposes.*

3. Targeting the Poor

9. Targeting the poor means focussing the poor starting from the policy formulation to the project implementation. Targeting has several advantages:

- *to analyzing who are the poor and what are their needs and then redirecting the energies of public and private institutions to meet those needs,*

- *to identifying what technology the poor require and how that can be provided;*

- *to restructuring or informing donors which can provide resources need*

- *to helping the formulation of redirection of group organizations which can serve as intermediaries between individual poor and public and private institutions.*

10. It is obvious that the poor are not an enclave entity within the society. As part and parcel of the society, it may be difficult to identify who is poor in a society like ours unless head count is made. Targeting can be made first and foremost:

1. *by organizing the poor. If the poor are organized on common goals basis, they can fight their social evils together, they can be reached and managed less costly, and they can be powerful/empowered to take their own decisions.*

2. *by enhancing the participatory role of the poor. To expand the capabilities of the poor, their full participation in the design and implementation of projects is critical. With direct involvement, project design becomes more relevant to their needs. Costs of implementation are reduced. Hands on involvement by the poor in implementation creats a sense of ownership of the project which encourages action to maintain and sustain its benefits.. Participation equips the poor to undertake further initiatives on their own, creating the basis of self-sustaining development. Hence, participation is*

CCRDA

Christian Relief & ... LIBRARY ... P.O.Box 5674

the way to build partnership between the donor and the poor and to accept the later as an equal partner in fighting poverty but not only a recipient.

3. *By building the development capacity of the poor. The poor can be development partner if and only if they are aware of its benefits and acquire skill. Hence, it will be imperative to sensitize the poor. Access to the resources help and empower the poor well. One effective means of helping the poor is through providing the right kind of credit. Targeted credit, using group collateral requirements and building where possible on traditional informal financial institutions can sharply reduce transaction costs and offer the poor the means to use modern means of production to improve their productivity. To build sense of responsibility and respect to the resources they obtain, it would be advisable to deliver at cost-sharing basis. After all the poor, especially women are resourceful, bankable and also credit worthy.*

CCRDA

NOTES

1. Culture plays a significant role in women poverty through deprivation of resource in many societies.

2. The state of World Rural Poverty, IFAD, 1993.

3. LDCs – Least Developing Countries, SSA – Sub Saharan Africa.

4. The 1994 Population and Housing Census of Ethiopia, Results at Country Level. 1999.

5. Ethiopian Economic Performance Evaluation – Employment and Wage; Amharic Version, MEDaC, 1999.

6. See for instance "Social Policy of Ethiopia" on women's Affairs which boils down the whole women issues to three points, namely "equality, amending discriminatory laws and access to basic services"., 1994.

7. Survey of the Ethiopian Economy – "Employment", MEDaC, 2000 Unpublished.

CCRDA

UN-RESOLUTIONS, CONSTITUTIONS, LAWS AND POLICIES IN ETHIOPIA

TRAINING ON GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME FOR STAFF OF CRDA MEMBERS

CRDA

NOVEMBER 20-29, 2000

BY DR. HAILE GONORO
CONSULTANT

UN – Resolutions, Constitutions, Laws and Polcies in Ethiopia

Introduction

1. Poverty is an international concern, which can only be eradicated jointly. Any international development principle rests on ethical or moral principle which puts human beings and their basic needs at the center of all deliberations of development and which treats issues of rights, equality, dignity and the security of the person as central to sustainable development. With the same talken, women's needs are no longer viewed in a piecemeal fashion; today they are seen from an integrated perspective, with cultural, social, economic, physical and psychological dimensions. Hence, notwithstanding their specific mandates, international conferences, debate and give emphasize on poverty in general and women in particular. In line with the above indication, what follows, we shall discuss on gender themes on international conferences, and their implications in Ethiopia.

Gender and International Convention and Conferences.

2, Both internationally and nationally a number of legal commitments have been made for the empowerment and equality of women. Forums on which gender issues have been discussed at length can be grouped into two: those groups on which conventions have been adopted and , those groups on which entertained conferences have passed different resolutions concerning women's empowerment equality and equity, human rights, male responsibility and participation, poverty, health, education, employment, violence, etc.

A) Convention

- Convention on elimination of all forms of discrimination against women.

The convention on the elimination of all forms of discrimination against women (CEDAW) was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly on 18 December, 1979 and came into force as an international treaty on 3 September 1981. (1; p. 43). As of early 1997, 155 countries had signed, ratified or acceded to the convention. The convention takes a central place among other international conferences in so far as it addresses the human rights concerns of the female half of humanity. The convention having the basic rights enshrined in the different conventions and declarations adopted earlier and having added a new dimension to those rights, became the cornerstone of the human rights of women (2; p.2). The convention provides the framework within which the unjust discrimination and violence against women can be avoided. As its main objectives the convention:

- *is a statement of how to achieve women's human rights as well as a framework for women's participation in the process of development,*
- *outlines principles and standards for achieving equality between women and men while taking children and family into account,*

CRDA

- *requires all states and parties to take all appropriate measures, including legislation, to guarantee women, the exercise and enjoyment of their human rights and fundamental freedom on a basis of equality,*

- *concerns with women's civil and political rights; i.e. to vote, be eligible for election and hold office, participate in policy formulation and organize and join NGOs, access to health care and family planning information and services, and impact of cultural factors on gender relations.*

- *Stresses the importance of social, cultural, and traditional norms and values in determining legal, political and economic constraints on the advancement of women and mandates States to eliminate all prejudices and negative practices and stereotypes, for instance, Article 5 of the convention advocates modifying gender stereotype based on ideas of superiority and inferiority.*

- *Encourages the "proper understanding of maternity as a social function" and recognizes the need for shared responsibility of both sexes for children's upbringing. Maternity protection and childcare deemed as essential rights and incorporated in all areas of the convention, in employment, family law, healthcare, and education. Society is obliged to provide social services, particularly childcare facilities, so that individuals can combine family responsibilities with work and participation in public life. Article 10 (c) calls for the elimination of stereotypes at all levels and in all forms of education by revising textbooks, programmes and teaching materials.*

- *Lays the foundation for women's reproductive rights by recognizing that "the role of women in procreation should not be a basis for discrimination...". It is the only treaty that specifically and unambiguously posits the connection between women's rights and their access to information, advice, and services in family planning as part of insuring access to education and health care [(Article 10(h). 12.1 and 14(b)]. It affirms women's equal right to reproductive choice, "to decide freely and responsibly on the number and spacing of their children and to have access to the information, education and means to enable them to exercise these rights" [Article 16(e)].*

B. Conferences

3. International conferences focusing on gender, social issues and sustainable development have been held in different venues ranging from Nairobi to Beijing during 1985-95. Such conferences constitute a continuum in the global search for equality, development and peace for every individual. Each of these conferences raised questions of gender, equity, equality and human rights that transcend national boundaries and are inextricably related to empowerment and human development. They all dealt with these dimensions with a special focus on one area or a set of areas. Most significantly, they all viewed improvement in the status of women and their role in development as the sine qua non for sustainable development. The issues, by and large, remained the same in all conferences; the objectives, however, evolved from one conference to another, with new objectives added. Each conference reaffirmed and, thereby, helped reinforce the goals

CCRDA

and targets of earlier conference. The combined outcome helped to create a broader and integrated view of development paying greater attention to the needs of the female half of the population. What follows a short summary of human rights, social issues and sustainable development content of the conferences are presented.

A. World Conference to Review and Appraise the Achievements of the United Nations Decade for Women: Equality, Development and Peace, Nairobi, Kenya, 1985.

4. The conference was attended by 157 countries. The conference adopted by consensus the Nairobi Forward Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women (NFLS). The conference continued the focus on human rights specifically, on women's rights. It was the third in a series of women's conferences:

- *the first was held in Mexico city in 1975 – International women's Year, and*
- *the second was held in Copenhagen – Denmark, in 1980*

The Nairobi conference:

- *reflected the deep understanding of obstacles to improving the status of women, a result of increasing awareness that women's reproductive and productive roles are closely related to their social, cultural, economic, political, legal, educational and religious conditions. Women's advancement is constrained by factors such as intensified economic exploitation , marginalization and operation resulting from chronic unequal and unjust socio-economic conditions present at the family, community, national, regional or international levels.*

- *recognizes the objectives of equality, development and peace are interrelated and mutually reinforcing and that women's rights can be best promoted under conditions of peace and security.*

B. World Conference on Human Rights.

5. This is the Vienna conference held from 14-25 June 1993. The conference was attended by 171 member countries. It was the first to address all dimensions of human rights including the rights of women and children and the rights to development. The conference confirmed the right to development as an integral part of human rights and fundamental freedom.

C) International conference on Population and Development

6. The conference held in Cairo – Egypt from 5-13 September 1994, was attended by 177 member states.

The conference:

- *incorporated the themes of the earlier UN conferences held in Nairobi, etc.*

CCRDA

- *broadened the debate interms of shifting population issues away from an emphasis demographic concerns and targets towards an emphasis on the well-being of individual women and men,*

- *Acknowledged the salience of demographic goals for macro level development but underscored that these can best be accomplished by meeting the needs of individuals and increasing the role of all groups in civil society in activating sustainable development.*

D) Fourth Conference on Women: Action for Equality, Development and Peace.

7. The conference held in Beijing – China from 4 – 15 September 1995, Was attended by 165 member states.

In the conference:

- *member states submitted national reports on the appraisal and implementation of the Nairobi Strategies.*

- *the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action was declared. International commitments and actions to promote equality, development and peace for and with all the women of the world ensuring that a gender perspective is reflected in all policies and programmes at national, regional and international levels has been promised.*

- *an inclusive and comprehensive agenda for action to empower women in political, economic and social spheres, and in private and public life, and to eliminate all forms of discrimination against them was defined,*

- *obstacles to women's equality and empowerment remain and exacerbated by increasing poverty have been recognized.*

- *for the first time the problems of the girl child are treated as a critical area of concern.*

E) Other Conferences Focusing Primarily on Gender, Social Issues and Sustainable Development Include:

1. World Conference on Education for All-meeting Basic Learning Needs.

- *held in Jomtien – Thailand, 5-9 March 1990 by representatives from nine countries.*
- *Adopted a world declaration and framework for action, which demonstrates that providing universal basic education is a critical and attainable goal through international cooperation, solidarity and revitalizing partnership at all levels.*

CSRDA

2. World Summit for children

- *held in New York – USA, from 29-30 September, 1990.*
- *Attended by 71 Heads of States,*
- *Adopted a World Declaration on the survival, protection and development of children and , for implementing it, a Plan of Action which identifies the empowerment of the younger generation with knowledge and resources, as the key goal of national development.*

3. UN – Conference on Environment and Development

- *held in Rio De Janeiro – Brazil from 3-14 June 1992.*
- *Represented by 177 countries.*
- *Produced the Rio Declaration and Agenda 21, which put human beings at the center of concerns for sustainable development, emphasizing that environmental protection and poverty eradication are indispensable and integral to its achievements,*

4. World summit for social Development

- *held in Copenhagen, Denmark from 6-12 March, 1995.*
- *attended by 118 World Leaders*
- *agreed to alleviate poverty, expand productive employment and enhance social integration.*

Is Ethiopia Keeping-up with its Promises?

8. Women in Ethiopia have constitutional protection against violence and human right abuse.[3] The social policy of the country also guarantee to women equal rights in political economic and social activities. The policy further promises to women amendment and change of existing laws, regulations, social customs and, creation of a better environment for the provision of basic social services to women and to give priority to their needs (4; p.26). But the case in point is the evaluation of practical move in issuing legislations and proclamations to implement the constitutional provisions and policy promises. I am of the opinion that the very policy and constitution are not taboo to touch.

9. On the other hand, Ethiopian women suffer from discriminatory legal practices (5; pp. 67-69). Other studies also reveal that limited access to basic social services, existence of violence, lack of participation and violetion of human rights, etc. are the day-to-day practices of Ethiopian women (6; p.12). In addition, the National Report on the Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action also admits the challenges it faced to keep up the promises it made (7; p. 53).

10. Ethiopia is one of the signatories and have adopted the resolutions of the International conferences focusing on Gender. The issues raised and adopted in the conventions and conferences have a significant importance. The translation of the issue into practice has to be weighed against the commitments Ethiopia made to the international community. Let

CSRDA

us poise the discussion on the conventional commitments to see how the law is gender sensitized:

1. Civil and Political Rights

   - *right to vote and assume public office.*
   - *representation of women in the public offices.*
     - *House of representatives*
     - *House of Federation*
     - *Public Institutions*

2. Personal, Maternal and Family Rights

   - *abolition of unjust and discriminatory laws*
   - *husband-wife relationship*
   - *right on property*
   - *first name of child*
   - *marriageable age*
   - *etc.*

3. Absence of effective protection against violence

   - *spousal battering*
   - *abduction*
   - *rape*
   - *female gental mutilation*
   - *exploitation of the immorality of others*
   - *abortion*

4. Employment and Working Condition

   - working safety
   - *equal opportunities*
   - *equal pay for equal work*
   - *maternity leave*

5. Pension Rights:

   - *transfer*

6. Right to Property

7. Nationality:

CCRDA

- *confer upon husband*

11. It is also worthy enough to look at the Beijing Platform of Action to examine how the development process of the country is gender sensitized:

1. Women and Poverty

   - *resource availability*
   - *employment opportunities*
   - *policy support*
   - *technical supports*
   - *female-headed households*

2. Education and Training for Women:

   - *basic universal education*
   - *curriculum*
   - *special training for women*

3. Women and Health

   - *Mother, child and health*
   - *pre and post natal care*
   - *nutrition and hygiene*

4. Violence Against Women

   - *battering*
   - *rape*
   - *abduction*

5. Women and Armed Conflict

   - *rehabilitation programmes*

6. Women and Economy:

   - *agriculture sector*
   - *employment*
   - *informal sector operators*

7. Women in Power and Decision-Making

   - *representation*

8. Institutionalizing Mechanisms for the Advancement of Women:

CGRDA

- *organizing*
- *capacity building*
- *empowering*

9. Human Rights of Women:

- *equality*
- *equity*

10. Women and the Media

- *access to media*

11. Women and Environment:

- *provision of alternative source of energy*
- *labour saving devices*

12. The Girl Child:

Conclusion:

13. Women's rights are human rights and their promotion and protection is the responsibility of the government and the international community. Development is also remote without the active participation of half of the society, women. Global achievements on the issues of women have applicability in Ethiopia. Provision of the constitution adequately guarantee equal rights of women within the framework of international laws. Proclamations have been passed for the implementation of international commitments and constitutional provisions; reforming discriminatory laws such as the family law, the pension law, the civil servants maternity duration provision are cases in point. Women's rights issues and mainstreaming of gender in all development processes are debated more seriously than ever women issue is a cross-cutting activity in all development efforts. However, the major gap between laws and policies, the persistence of harmful traditional practices, inadequate mechanisms for law enforcement and lack of access to legal literacy and services are some of the obstacles to eliminate gender based discrimination.

ECRDA

NOTES

1. Gender, Population and Development Themes in United Nations Conferences 1985-1995, UNFPA.

2. Gender and Law: The Ethiopian Context, Country Report Presented at the "East Africa Speaks" Gender and Law Conference; Addis Ababa, 1997.

3. FDRE Constitution, Addis Ababa, 1994.

4. Social Policy, March 1994

5. Hillina Tadesse "Discriminatory Norms and Application Against Women in the Ethiopian Laws of Nationality, Pension, Employment and Land, Addis Ababa, 1996.

6. Meaza Ashenafi: Honoring the Beijing Commitment to women's Himan Rights, Addis Ababa, 2000.

7. National Report on the Implementation of the Beijing Platform for Action.

CCRDA

GENDER RESPONSIVE MONITORING AND EVALUATION

TRAINING PROGRAMME ON GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT FOR STAFF OF CRDA MEMBERS

CCRDA

NOVEMBER 20-29, 2000

BY: TSEHAI YITBAREK
CONSULTANT

GENDER RESPONSIVE MONITORING AND EVALUATION

1. Introduction to conceptual Framework

Generally, monitoring and evaluation are critical processes for assessing and improving development practices and impacts through out the various phases of project implementation and at the completion of project life.

Gender responsive monitoring and evaluation is a systematic approach for assessing/ understanding the different impacts of development programmes and projects on women and men. Because men and women have varying gender roles that influence division of labour and reinforces unequal access to resources, benefits, information and decision making, it has become more and more evident that monitoring and evaluation exercises need to be gender responsive and gender sensitive.

Monitoring, and evaluation, (and reporting on) of project/programme activities are expected and follow rational practices to review and assess the impact/result of the interventions so as to make draw lessons and take needed actions to improve the processes of implementation and fill gaps if any as well as pronounce success stories.

Before discussing the issue of Gender responsive monitoring and evaluation, it is important to recognize that in development practices 'putting people first' (Cemea, 1985) evaluation, has been neither automatic nor systematic. Even today a large number of monitoring and evaluations are not 'peopled' and those that are, are not necessarily gendered due to a number of subjective and biased attitudes.

- In the absence of specific objectives or goals concerning women's participation and gender equality (at either the agency or project level), there are few criteria against which to measure progress or achievements. Assessments through monitoring and evaluation(s) are rather subjective, and often influenced by the values and assumptions about gender and equality on the part of the evaluator(s).

- Setting unclear objectives, particularly in the case of gender (sex disaggregated data) e.g. 'to improve the status of women' is a classic example of an unclear and complex objective; where global indicators become difficult to identify e.g. 'to bring women into development' is vague; 'to alleviate poverty and empower women' is ambigous and can bring about conflicting objectives between different actors involved.

- Hence gender responsive monitoring and evaluation methods would not serve properly and would fail to come out with any effective outcome in cases where objectives are not clear enough.

CCFDA

- Issues of women's participation and equality between women and men are frequently considered an 'add-on' in project monitoring and evaluation, and are often separate from the overall discussion of the initiative. This can result in conclusions about benefits to women even though only a minor part of project resources were directed to them and where as men received substantially greater benefits. (Such an equal distribution of benefits can mean that the overall impact on equality is negative despite only some level of benefits by women.)
- Monitoring and evaluation criteria for projects are also limited by the projects origional rationale and objectives. A gender responsive monitoring and evaluation of project(s) would call for the definitive and conscious plan for women and men to fully participate in situation analysis to formulate the project plan and project objective(s) which would guarantee to draw up gender issues and concerns through project implementation process.

2. *Key components of Gender Responsive Monitoring and Evaluation:*

Gender responsive monitoring and evaluation is a systematic approach to assess, understand, review the process of project implementation and the overall direction of ptoject interventions on the life of all those involved, men and women concerned with quantitative and qualitative data. As gender roles influence division of labour, which reinforces unequal power relations and unequal access to resources, benefits, information and decision-making , gender responsive monitoring and evaluation have to take all the details into account.

The purpose of gender-responsive monitoring and evaluation is to bring to light the positive and negative effects of project interventions on both men and women, considering their different roles and responsibilities.

3. *Requirements of Gender-responsive Monitoring*

- *That objectives and outputs are stated in gender-specific terms in the Logical Framework.*
- *The indicators of achievements need to give well-defined targets (male/female)*
- *Define clearly who will participate at various stages of project planning/implementation.*
- *What results are expected from their participation.*
- Indicators of success should be determined by consensus. The use of gender impact indicators would be most practical as they would draw attention on the nature of the problem and of the priorities/objectives set for the project. The achievements and

CGRDA

outputs to be expected, the degree of participation and organization of target group (sex disaggregated and setting targets for improvement).

- Assessment in quantitative terms of the progress of activities, the funds disbursed, and the outputs (outcomes) expected will need to be complemented by assessment of qualitative progress, differentiating between gender and social groupings.

- Participatory monitoring and evaluation implies a collective review and critical assessment of accomplishments (or lack of accomplishments) by the parties involved, and can as such become an integral part of the projects planning and implementation process. With the help of adequate monitoring tools, project conception can be refined within reasonable time-frame. This requires that data be collected often enougn to enable necessary adjustment to be made timely during th course of the project; hence a well-defined monitoring system can thus become a tool for self-correction, rather than a control mechanism.

4. Aspects of Gender Monitoring Process

4.1 - *Progress reports and technical reports, (with gender-specific/responsive information) periodic visits to the site of projects, should specify what has been achieved, and whether this benefits men and/or women. This requires gender-specific data.*

- *Participation and integration of women in the project cycle at the same level as men (see Gender Assessment Form in Gender Analysis Framework/Matrix)*

- *Access to and control over resources (such as land, technology, credit, information)*

- *Access to and control over benefits (economic, social, political, judicial, etc.)*

CCRDA

Access and control over project results

	Access		Control	
	women	Men	women	Men
A. Resources - Land - Equipment - Labour - Cash - Education/Training etc. - Other access				
B. Benefits Improvements at strategic level: - Level of knowledge skills and awareness - Decision making capacity - Organization - Status Improvements at practical level: Basic needs (food, clothing, shelter) - Employment - Income - Workload - Other				

The above indicators are suggested for measuring benefits for women and men in monitoring and evaluation of projects/developmental programs. (Table extracted from: Women and Development to gender issies, 1993)

CCRDA

4.2 Mid-Term Review

- *This in-depth analysis of progress could also make use of gender analysis Framework/Matrix. Specific attention should be paid to policy issues influencing gender development and to institutional barriers to gender participation – e.g. in counterpart staffing.*

4.3 Evaluation

- *The project completion report cover the results obtained with respect to gender/WID, The evaluation team (mission) should complete the gender/WID impact Assessment from (Annex 1) (p. 98 of Women and Development, A Guide to Gender Issues, 1993)*

1.1 Objectives

Whose needs and interests are targeted in the immediate objectives? If women are not mentioned, what is the reason? What practical and what strategic needs are addressed?

Needs and interests addressed in objectives:

	Women	Men
Practical needs		
Strategic needs		

1.2 Outputs
which project outputs directly relate to women's needs, and which to men's needs?

1.3 Inputs
Has a social/gender analysis been carried out to identify constraints to women's participation in project activities?

What measure and/or inputs are contemplated to overcome these constraints?

1.4 Monitoring and Evaluation
What provision is made for monitoring and evaluating the nature and quality of women's and men's integration and participation in objectives, outputs and inputs?

What provision is made for monitoring and evaluating project impact on men's and women's access to, and control over the benefits generated by the project?

CGRDA

- *The evaluators must have gender expertise, and experience of participatory monitoring and evaluation systems. The would require sufficient time to conduct an evaluation on participatory basis, using both quantitative and qualitative methods. The team of evaluators should ensure to identify an expert on Gender issues (local consultant) to participate in the gender-responsive monitoring and evaluation exercise.*

5. ***If Gender/WID objectives are not reached the following recommendations may offer alternative solutions to the problem. (Women and Dev't, 1993)***

   i. Add a women's component

   This solution risks isolating women's activities from overall project goals, and may hinder women's integration into all project components. Women's household activities tend to be emphasized by this approach, which often under estimates their economic and social role.

   If this alternative is desired, a women's component should only be added.

ii. **Quotas and Targets**

- *Can serve as a benchmark for progress, once there is agreement on how to overcome the identified constraints.*
- *Quotas and targets also help to bring out into the open the issue of participation by female members of the target group, hence reasons for success and failure in reaching the targets can be explained, acting as reference point for further improvement in project methodology.*

iii. *Replacement of consultants who engaged in the evaluation function; in case they may have overlooked the set guidelines in assessing the gender/WID component of project evaluation. Often majority number or all of the team members could be gender biased.*

iv. **Redesign Strategies and Reallocate resources**

- *If it appears necessary to redesign, the strategy, and reallocate resources, the revised project design, will have to be re-submitted to funding agency, especially if amendment calls for more than 20% increase over the previously approved budget.*
- *Areas in which gender constraints are mostly commonly found, through monitoring and evaluation exercises, are issues such as basic education, communication, membership of organizations, and institutional support and etc.*

6. *Concluding Remarks*

Gender responsive monitoring and evaluation of development projects are most challenging to undertake and require to be well versed with all the knowledge and sensitivity of the complex aspects of the exercise on an ongoing basis so as to bring about positive changes to improve conditions for better implementation and effective impact of project interventions at a more equitable basis for men and women, boys and girls, social and ethnic groupings.

CGRDA

Documents Refered/Consulted

1. Towards Gender Equality: A World Bank Publication; Second Printing 1997.
2. Women and Development, (Gender/WID Impact assessment Form) Aguide to Gender Issues in Managing… 1993.
3. The OXFAM Gender Training Manual Suzanne Williams with Janet Seed and Adelina Hwan (Oxfan UK and Ireland, 1994.)
4. Gender Equity (Concepts and Tools for Development) 1996.
5. Advanced Gender Equity, Form Concept to Action (The World bank, 1995).
6. Parker A. R. Another Point of view: a manual on Gender Analysis – Training Manaual for UNIFEM, Women Ink. NY, 1993.
7. Moser, Caroline O. N. "Gemder Planning in the third world. Meeting Practical and Strategic Gender Needs. 1988.

Christian Relief & Development Association
LIBRARY
P.O.Box 5674

CCRDA