

UNIT FIVE

TECHNIQUES OF OPERATIONALIZING GENDER

Unit Introduction

Dear distance learners, welcome to the fifth chapter of the module. The chapter is about techniques/tools of making gender issues operational under development programs and projects. The unit is divided into four sections. The first section gives due concern to gender analysis where issues like definitions, concepts, importance, framework and elements of gender analysis will be discussed. The second section is about gender planning where we will highlight on the importance of appropriate strategies in gender mainstreaming. The third section pays due regard to gender mainstreaming where we will discuss on issues like the definition, concept and steps in gender mainstreaming. The final section of the chapter is about gender budgeting and it is a call for government and other stakeholders to budget and finance their gender commitments and plans.

Section one: Gender Analysis

Section overview

Dear distance learner, do you know the meaning of gender analysis? What is the focus of gender analysis? Why gender analysis is important for mainstreaming? Well, in this section you will learn about the conceptual definitions of gender analysis, the framework of analysis and some key elements of gender analysis at different levels.

1.1 Concept and definition of gender analysis

The concept of gender analysis arose from the need to mainstream women's interests while at the same time acknowledging that women could not be treated as a homogeneous group. It was realized that women's needs were better understood when viewed in relation to men's needs and roles and to their social, cultural, political and economic context. Gender analysis thus takes into account women's roles in production, reproduction and management of community and other activities. Changes in one may produce beneficial or detrimental effects in others.

? How do you define gender analysis?

Gender analysis is a systematic way of looking at the different impacts of development, policies, programs and legislation on women and men that entails, first and foremost, collecting sex-disaggregated data and gender-sensitive information about the population concerned. Gender analysis can also include the examination of the multiple ways in which women and men, as social actors, engage in strategies to transform existing roles, relationships, and processes in their own interest and in the interests of others.

Gender analysis means a close examination of a problem or situation in order to identify the gender issues. Gender analysis of a development programme involves identifying the gender issues within the problem which is being addressed and in the obstacles to progress, so that these issues can be addressed in all aspects of the programme- in project objectives, in the choice of intervention strategy and the methods of program implementation.

Gender analysis is the systematic attempt to identify key issues contributing to gender inequalities so that they can be properly addressed. Gender analysis provides the basis for gender mainstreaming and is described as “the study of differences in the conditions, needs, participation rates, access to resources and development, control of assets, decision-making powers, etc., between women and men in their assigned gender roles”. Gender analysis is also needed to determine whether specific actions are needed for women or men in addition to mainstreaming activities.

Gender analysis refers to the socio-economic methodologies that identify and interpret the consequence of gender differences and relations for achieving development objectives.

? What is the purpose of gender analysis?

Applied to development interventions, gender analysis helps;

- 📌 Identify gender based differences in access to resources to predict how different members of households , groups, and societies will participate in and be affected by planned development interventions;

- ✚ Permit planners to achieve the goals of effectiveness, efficiency, equity and empowerment in designing policy reforms, and supportive programs and strategies;
- ✚ Develop training package to sensitize development staff on gender issues and training strategies for beneficiaries;
- ✚ A gender analysis is important because gender inequalities need to be identified before they can be addressed either through mainstreaming actions or specific actions directed to women or to men.
- ✚ A gender analysis provides information on the different roles of women and men at different levels, their respective access to and control over the material and non-material benefits of society, their priorities, needs and responsibilities.
- ✚ On the basis of a thorough gender analysis it will be possible to understand current gender inequalities in a given situation or sector and to propose a range of measures to be included in the project/program to address and redress the situation.
- ✚ A gender analysis is important when it is focused on institutions in order to determine how the nature of their services affects women and men, or how institutions themselves are also “gendered” in terms of recruitment practices, division of labor and decision-making. Policies and legislation can be analyzed in terms of gender outcomes or potential differential impacts on men and women.

? What can gender analysis tell us?

An analysis of gender relations can tell us who has access, who has control, who is likely to benefit from a new initiative, and who is likely to lose. Gender analysis asks questions that can lead us in a search for information to understand why the situation has developed the way it has. It can also lead us to explore assumptions about issues such as the distribution of resources and the impact of culture and traditions. It can provide the potential on the direct or indirect benefit of a development initiative on women and men, on some appropriate entry points for measures that promote equality within a particular context, and on how a particular development initiative may challenge or maintain the existing gender division of labor. With this information measures of equality can be created to address the disparities and promote equality.

For example, in the case of primary education, gender analysis can tell us that a gender gap exists in most countries; i.e. a gap between girls' and boys' enrolment retention in school. In the majority of countries where there is a gender gap, the gap works against girls, but in others, it works against boys. In India, an average six years-old girl is expected to spend in school three years less than a boy of the same age. Girls in rural areas are at even greater disadvantage; their risk of dropping out of school is three times that of a boy. In Jamaica, however, it is boys who are at higher risk of missing out on education. Boys are often pulled out of school and sent to work to boost family income, and thus, their drop-out rate is higher than that of girls'. In their efforts to balance the needs of both boys and girls, governments are increasingly using gender analysis to investigate the source of the gap and what measures can be adopted to reduce the distortions in the educational system.

1.2 Framework or tools for gender analysis

? What do you understand by a framework for gender analysis?

A framework may outline broad sets of beliefs and goals, or it may be more prescriptive and gives a set of tools and procedures. Because a frame selects a limited number of factors as key for analysis out of the huge numbers that actually have an influence on any situation, each framework produces only an approximate model. The selection of factors will reflect a set of values and assumptions that lie behind the framework and these will also tend to influence which approaches and interventions are considered and selected.

There are varieties of frameworks that have been developed to assist people in asking these questions. Each tool is different, with some advantages and disadvantages, some account for other social characteristics and factors better, while others are more participatory. Following are some examples:

- ✚ The women's equality and empowerment framework (Longwe): builds on an analytical framework based on the interconnected principles of welfare, access, conscientization, participation, control and empowerment.

- ✚ The Harvard Analytical framework (Harvard): is a tool to collect data at the community and household level. It has three main components: an activity profile (who does what?), an access and control profile (who has access and who controls what?), and an analysis of influencing factors (how does gender influence the profile?).
- ✚ Gender Analysis Matrix (GAM) is designed as a tool for participative planning.
- ✚ Capacities and vulnerabilities framework (CVA): is a way of collecting key information together in a visual and immediate format.
- ✚ Social Relations Approach (SRA): is useful analytical tool in trying to understand complex realities.
- ✚ People Oriented Planning (POP)

1.3 Key elements of a gender analysis at different levels

Gender analysis should be conducted at all levels, from the grass roots (the micro level) through intermediate levels (meso level) such as service delivery systems, to the highest political levels (macro level), and across all sectors and programs of development cooperation.

Micro Level (agency, household and community level):

- ✚ What is the division of labor amongst women, men, young and old? Who normally does what? Have there been changes due to war, migration for labor, HIV/AIDS pandemic or other reasons?
- ✚ Are there gendered inequalities in access to resources, including new resources? Who has control over different resources, including new ones, resources from institutions, development projects or other outside interventions (governmental, firms, etc)?
- ✚ What are the implications regarding having or not having control over resources?
- ✚ Resources do include non-material resources such as time, knowledge and information, or relationships (social capital)
- ✚ What factors influence access to and control over resources (for example: age, sex, position in an organization, wealth, rural/urban location, educational level, networks and patronage)?
- ✚ At the community level, how are decisions made about different resources and activities? Are women enabled to participate in informed decision making, if yes how? At household level: who makes the decisions about the use of different resources and the activities of the household members? Who decides about the mobility of the household members?
- ✚ Are there indications for agents of change of gender roles? Are initiatives for change welcome or oppressed?

- ✚ Which rites de passage do women and men have to go through in their life cycle? (cultural steps to take through different initiation rites)
- ✚ How is marriage organized, do women have the right to choose their husbands freely? Is there a bride price system, or a dowry system? Is there a practice of early child marriage and if yes, due to which arguments?
- ✚ What happens to women and girls, if they do not (want) fit into the culturally apt (e.g. arranged) marriage patterns? Does this hamper their access to resources, inheritance, etc?

Meso level (structural + relational level)

- ✚ Do service delivery structures (e.g. all civil service structures at this level – health, education, labor, transport, etc. – the police, the judiciary, etc) reflect gender balance in their membership and management?
- ✚ Do women and men have equal access to employment and services? Is equal treatment in terms of pay and benefit guaranteed for men and women?
- ✚ Do private sector businesses and institutions (including companies, banks, media, etc) reflect gender balance in their membership and management?
- ✚ Do women and men have equal access to employment and services?
- ✚ Is there occupational segregation of the labor market by gender, either horizontal or vertical?
- ✚ How is the participation of women and men in local governance organized?
- ✚ Are there any other culturally important decision-making bodies or structures (kinship, clans, tribal structures, etc.) which do influence people's life? How are women's and men's voices represented and how are decisions taken and implemented?

Macro level

- ✚ Have gender equality commitments have been made by the government in the context of international processes such as the Beijing process, the MDG process, or the ratification of CEDAW (Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women)?
- ✚ What are the concluding observations of the special procedures of the UN human rights system regarding the CEDAW reporting (also the Child Rights Convention is relevant) for special procedures and concluding observation of state reporting to the covenants
- ✚ Do national and sector policies reflect these commitments by their awareness of inequalities between men and women at different levels and the inclusion of means to address them?
- ✚ How do current policies, laws and regulations (e.g. voting rights, rights to inheritance and credit opportunities, rights to divorce and child custody, reproductive rights, etc.) impact differently on women and men?

- ✚ In national-level institutions (parliament, government ministries, universities, businesses) how are decisions made? How are women represented in the system? How are decisions taken?
- ✚ Is gender budgeting in place in parliament and/or local governments?
- ✚ Review the UNDP MDG reports on MDG 3 in a respective country; analyze the data of the Human Development and Gender Development /Gender Gap data available.

Section II: Gender planning

Section overview

Dear learner, in this section you are going to be acquainted with what gender planning means and why we require having it. Once gender analysis stage is complete, the following step is to make gender issues as part of the overall socio-economic development planning and so that possible to mainstream at all levels and in all sectors.

? How do you understand gender planning?

There is considerable evidence that women and men use, contribute to and gain from their country in different ways and planning initiatives need to be gender-sensitive. It is critical to both increase women's participation in development along side men as well as to improve the gender awareness of planners, managers and politicians. This can be justified on the grounds of gender equity, ensuring that the priorities of both women and men are addressed and that their needs are met, but it is also important to bring in the knowledge, energy and expertise of both women and men into planning and management processes (Beall, 1997a).

The early literature on women and development critiqued the stereotypical assumptions of policy makers and planners for assuming that a) households were male-headed and nuclear, b) there was a gender division of labor involving men in paid work and women primarily in domestic work and child-rearing, (Moser 1987, 1993) and c) that there is a strong separation between the public and private sphere, with women confined to the latter (Whitzman 1995; Beall 1996; Pain 2001; Grundström 2005; Chant 2007b). But many of the more recent guidelines place considerable emphasis on analyzing the conditions and needs of various groups of men and women in particular contexts, rather than reading these off a priori. Nevertheless, the earlier

formulations which attempted to highlight in generic ways how gender can be understood in relation to development and planning remain useful as tools for thinking about these issues.

For Moser (1987), gender planning is an approach that recognizes the fact that because women and men play different roles in society they often have different needs. Women have particular needs that differ from those of men, not only because of their triple role, but also because of their subordinate position in relation to men. It is, therefore, useful to consider gender needs in gender planning. From the onset of planning, it becomes of paramount importance to distinguish between practical gender needs and strategic interests of women so that the basic goals attempted at to address in planning are clearly identified.

The renewed emphasis on strategic planning enabled gender activists to advocate for gender mainstreaming - to ensure that a gender-blind approach was not reproduced in subsequent development efforts, and instead, that gender equality was achieved.

Reeves (2002) notes the following points to assess whether a strategic plan is likely to promote gender equality:

- ✚ relevant gendered information needs to be collected;
- ✚ women and men need to be represented on decision-making bodies;
- ✚ policies need to reflect different needs; and
- ✚ Measurable goals and outcomes need to be established.

More specifically geared towards practical implementation, much gender mainstreaming toolkit shows how to incorporate a consideration of gender into planning. It is based on a series of questions and can be used at any stage of the plan-making process. In summary, these are:

- ✚ Who are the planners?
- ✚ Who forms the policy team?
- ✚ Which sorts of people are perceived to be planned?
- ✚ How are statistics gathered and who do they include?
- ✚ What are the key values, priorities and objectives of the plan?
- ✚ Who is consulted and who is involved in participation?
- ✚ How are the planning proposals evaluated? By whom?

- ✚ How is the policy implemented, monitored and managed?
- ✚ Is gender mainstreaming fully integrated into all policy areas?

Thus, in the planning process, the implementation of gender mainstreaming usually entails the following elements: gender analysis; sex-disaggregated data; gender-sensitive indicators; institutional mechanisms; gender-responsive resource allocation; and gender partnerships and networks. Gender planning is usually based on the main problems identified at the stage of gender analysis. Once gender analysis is made the planning process involves the following steps:

- ✚ The first step is that key priority “gender objectives” have to be identified to start the process of making the intervention more gender aware;
- ✚ Second step is the identification of the major constraints and opportunities these gender objectives are expected to encounter (what to do?); and
- ✚ The last step is the development of an “entry strategy (planning)” to achieve the gender objectives and the steps necessary to overcome the constraints and assets (how to do it).

Section III: Gender mainstreaming

Section overview

Under this section, the emphasis is on gender mainstreaming. Gender mainstreaming is a contested concept and practice. It is the re-invention, re-structuring, and re-branding of a key part of feminism in the contemporary era. It is both a new form of gendered political and policy practice and it is a new gendered strategy for theory development. As a practice, gender mainstreaming is intended as a way of improving the affectivity of mainline policies by making visible the gendered nature of assumptions, processes and outcomes.

3.1 Definitions and conceptual overview of gender mainstreaming ? How do you define gender mainstreaming?

The commonly accepted and most widely used definition of gender mainstreaming is the one adopted by the United Nations’ Economic and Social Council: “Mainstreaming a gender perspective is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy

for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programs in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality.” (UN ECOSOC, 1997)

Similarly, the Commonwealth Secretariat (Leo-Rhynie et al 1999: 9) defines gender mainstreaming as the consistent use of a gender perspective at all stages of the development and implementation of policies, plans, programmes and projects. It involves:

- ✚ bringing about institutional change to ensure the empowerment of both women and men through equal participation in decision-making on issues which affect their lives
- ✚ analyzing all government policies and practices to examine the differential impact they have on men and women
- ✚ Providing training and capacity-building to enhance gender management and raise the general level of gender awareness.

Gender mainstreaming is a flexible strategy that accommodates mainstreaming women into all projects, women-specific components, and separate projects and programmes directed exclusively at women.

A According to UNDP, gender mainstreaming is a process of identifying and taking full account of the relationships between men and women in all of an agency's policies, strategies, programs, administrative and financial activities at every level. Gender mainstreaming offers a dynamic way of determining and enhancing development potential of both women and men and identifying constraints that each faces, and it entails:

- ✚ Being informed of the gender characteristics of a given population;
- ✚ Taking full account of this information in the development of policy and program activities;
- ✚ Appraising all program documentation in the light of known gender information;
- ✚ Consistent monitoring of all activities to ensure equitable gender outcomes.

Gender mainstreaming includes both the issue of equality and mainstream. Mainstreaming includes gender specific activities and affirmative action, whenever women or men are at a

particular disadvantageous position. Gender-specific intervention can target women exclusively, men and women together, or only men, to enable them to participate in and benefit equally from development efforts. These are necessary temporary measures designed to combat the direct and indirect consequences of past discrimination.

Mainstreaming is not adding ‘women’s component’ or even a ‘gender equality component’ in to an existing activity. It goes beyond increasing women’s participation; it means bringing the experience, knowledge, and interests of women and men to bear on the development agenda. It may require changes in goals, strategies and actions so that both men and women can influence, participate in, and benefit from development processes. The goal of mainstreaming gender equality is thus the transformation of unequal social and institutional structures in to equal and just structure for both men and women.

? How do you think the concept of mainstreaming has evolved?

Gender mainstreaming was adopted as a major strategy for promoting gender equality at the Fourth World Conference of Women in 1995. It called for mainstreaming in all ‘Critical Areas of Concern’ at the conference which included poverty, human rights, economy, violence against women and armed conflict. In addition, the Beijing Platform for Action established that gender analysis should be undertaken on the respective situation and contributions of both women and men before undertaking development policies and programs.

The inclusion of a goal on gender equality and the empowerment of women in the MDGs reestablished the commitment voiced in Beijing. In addition, in outlining the way forward toward achieving that goal, the report of the Task Force on Education and Gender Equality of the UN Millennium Project reinforced the importance of investing in gender mainstreaming as a tool and reiterated (repeated) the need to expedite (accelerate) mainstreaming responses and actions and put in place the systems to hold institutions accountable.

This is especially important now because the United Nations (UN) Millennium Development Goals (MDG), especially MDG3 on gender equality and the empowerment of women, offer an invaluable opportunity to reinvigorate efforts to achieve positive development outcomes.

Besides, the vast body of experience and knowledge gained over the past three decades on what works and what doesn't in development interventions across different sectors is available to be applied to make greater and more rapid progress on mainstreaming gender into operations. As results emerge and development effectiveness improves from mainstreaming gender, it is believed that the success and growing experience will generate additional interest, learning and enthusiasm, and the process will gather momentum. Changes at the operations level will also improve the lives of women and men, the purpose for which gender mainstreaming was adopted. Concrete results in terms of increased development effectiveness constitute a way forward in the current impasse with gender mainstreaming and will make important and growing contributions towards achieving the wider institutional goals of empowerment and equality for low-income and disenfranchised people that are not currently being met.

Gender mainstreaming is a powerful new development in feminist theory and practice. While most frequently understood as a specialized tool of a policy world, it is also a feminist strategy that draws on and can inform feminist theory. It is an international phenomenon, originating in development policies, and adopted by the UN at the 1995 conference of Women in Beijing (Walby, 2003)

Gender mainstreaming was adopted mainly to address the perceived failure of previous strategies such as women-specific projects to bring about significant changes in women's status. There was widespread consensus that the failures of women-specific projects in the 1970s and 1980s were due to their marginalization. Gender mainstreaming was designed to overcome this marginalization and to bring gender equality issues into the core of development activities. In the decade since gender mainstreaming was endorsed and adopted by countries and institutions, however, it has yet to be fully implemented anywhere.

The primary objective behind gender mainstreaming is to design and implement development projects, programs and policies that;

1. Do not reinforce existing gender inequalities (gender neutral)
2. Attempt to redress existing gender inequalities (gender sensitive)

3. Attempt to redefine women and men's gender roles and relations (gender positive/transformative)

3.2 Steps in Gender Mainstreaming

The 10 Steps for Gender Mainstreaming include:

1. A mainstreaming approach to stakeholders: who are the decision makers? This step concerns the project and policy making context. The actors involved in the process, along with their values and understanding of gender issues, will significantly determine the outcome of your policy or project. During step one you should seek answers to the following three key questions:

Who are the stakeholders? Do they include individuals or groups with a “gender perspective”?

Is there gender balance in all institutions and bodies involved?

Where is gender expertise available?

2. Mainstreaming a gender agenda: What is the issue? During this step, you should first identify the main development problem or issue at hand. This can be accomplished by answering the following basic questions:

What is the subject of your project or policy-making initiative?

Does this issue affect men and women in different ways?

3. Moving towards gender equality: What is the goal? Once you have identified the “subject” of your project or policy-making initiative, you should discern what your goal is. You can do this by asking:

What do we want to achieve?

Is the goal disaggregated by gender?

Does the goal include a broader commitment to improving gender equality?

These broad goals will be translated into specific targets and objectives (see step 6), and once you have refined the question (see step 5) you are ready to develop concrete policy interventions.

4. Mapping the situation: What information do we have? Mapping the Situation is a critical stage for introducing efficiency into the mainstreaming process. Three tools and exercises are suggested that will help you answer the above questions:

Mapping exercise

Policy review from a gender perspective

Legislative review from a gender perspective

5. Refining the issue: research and analysis

This phase involves:

- i) Specifying the Research Question:
- ii) Determining necessary inputs:
- iii) Commissioning the Research: Regardless of whether the research is conducted in-house or outsourced, you should refer to the following questions when evaluating any research proposals:

Actors: Who will be involved in the gathering and analysis of data? Is gender balance and a gender perspective (expertise) ensured?

Subjects: Will the situation of both genders be researched? Will data be disaggregated by gender?

Methodology: What methodology will be used? Is it sensitive to both men's and women's particular needs? (e.g. confidentiality, sensitivity to some issues)

Analytical Axes: Does the research include gender as an important variable in determining social processes? Are other important axes for analysis considered (ethnicity, socio-economic status, geographical location, etc.)?

Theoretical Framework: Is knowledge of gender analysis frameworks demonstrated? Will these frameworks be used in the analysis of data?

Credibility: Have steps been taken to ensure that results will be credible in the eyes of all stakeholders (will they have the chance to provide inputs and comments)?

6. Formulating policy or project interventions from a gender perspective

Choosing the “correct” course for policy or project intervention is rarely straightforward. It involves balancing a number of crucial considerations, including efficiency–cost-benefit analysis; effectiveness–the degree to which your goal will be met; and social justice, including gender equality–the extent to which social and historical disadvantages between different groups in society are addressed and compensated.

Gender mainstreaming checklist for project or policy documents includes:

Background and Justification: Is the gender dimension highlighted in background information to the intervention? Does the justification include convincing arguments for gender mainstreaming and gender equality?

Goals: Does the goal of the proposed intervention reflect the needs of both men and women? Does the goal seek to correct gender imbalances through addressing practical needs of men and women? Does the goal seek to transform the institutions (social and other) that perpetuate gender inequality?

Target Beneficiaries: Except where interventions specifically target men or women as a corrective measure to enhance gender equality, is there gender balance within the target beneficiary group?

Objectives: Do the intervention objectives address needs of both women and men?

Activities: Do planned activities involve both men and women? Are any additional activities needed to ensure that a gender perspective made explicit (e.g. training in gender issues, additional research, etc.)?

Indicators: Have indicators been developed to measure progress towards the fulfillment of each objective? Do these indicators measure the gender aspects of each objective? Are indicators gender disaggregated? Are targets set to guarantee a sufficient level of gender balance in activities (e.g. quotas for male and female participation)?

Implementation: Who will implement the planned intervention? Have these partners received gender mainstreaming training, so that a gender perspective can be sustained throughout implementation? Will both women and men participate in implementation?

Monitoring and Evaluation: Does the monitoring and evaluation strategy include a gender perspective? Will it examine both substantive (content) and administrative (process) aspects of the intervention?

Risks: Has the greater context of gender roles and relations within society been considered as a potential risk (i.e. stereotypes or structural barriers that may prevent full participation of one or the other gender)? Has the potential negative impact of the intervention been considered (e.g. potential increased burden on women or social isolation of men?)

Budget: Have financial inputs been “gender-proofed” to ensure that both men and women will benefit from the planned intervention? Has the need to provide gender sensitivity training or to engage short-term gender experts been factored in to the budget?

Annexes: Are any relevant research papers (or excerpts) included as annexes (particularly those that provide sound justification of your attention to gender)?

Communication Strategy: Has a communication strategy been developed for informing various publics about the existence, progress and results of the project from a gender perspective?

7. Arguing your case: gender matters! One crucial aspect of gender mainstreaming involves developing arguments for gender equality. Because experience has shown that decision makers are sometimes reluctant to devote scarce resources to gender equality activities, decision-makers (especially those who control budgets) need to be convinced that their investment in gender equality will have pay-offs.

Decision-makers need to be presented with arguments that highlight, concretely and precisely, why gender matters. In other words, you must illustrate what development problems gender equality contributes to solving, and what specific benefits a gender-aware perspective will bring to the government, individuals –both men and women - and the nation as whole. Well-defined arguments will increase your chances of receiving financial and moral support for any planned interventions. Arguments for adapting a gendered approach and for promoting gender equality in all projects and policies generally fall into one of the following six categories:

i) Justice and equality arguments: These stress the value of democratic principles and basic human rights, which demand gender equality. Justice arguments can be used to argue for equal

representation and participation of both genders in various contexts, premised on the basic notion of their shared human rights. Most states are party to a variety of normative documents (for example, The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women and global conference documents from Beijing, Copenhagen and Cairo), all of which establish gender equality as a fundamental principle. States are obliged to fulfill these commitments, especially as many basic democratic principles articulated here reflect most states' own constitutions.

ii) Credibility and Accountability Arguments: Credibility arguments ask decision makers to “do the math”: because women and men each make up half of the population, any data, policy or recommendation that does not recognize and address both genders equally will be ultimately flawed, and will thus have no credibility. These arguments are useful for justifying gender impact assessments (studies that examine how men and women are, will be or have been differently affected by actions or situational factors), or calling for more gender balance in decision-making processes. Accountability arguments in particular are useful for reminding governments of their responsibility to ensure social justice and sustainable human development.

iii) Efficiency and Sustainability Arguments: These arguments make clear an irrefutable fact: equal inclusion of men and women in all aspects of development and society pays off for the country as a whole. Nations cannot afford to ignore the contributions and economic and social capacities of both men and women in all spheres, and the development of any country that does will ultimately suffer in the medium and long term. This is an argument that addresses “macro” aspects of development – i.e. the welfare and prosperity of a nation as a whole; that investment in gender equality will pay off for the country as a whole in the future.

These arguments are particularly effective because they address the bottom line: money. They prove that investment in gender equality will pay off for the country as a whole in the future. Global studies have been done that prove the overall efficiency arguments

– these can assist you to make your argument, as will any national research you have to substantiate your case. Because gender mainstreaming adopts a “human development” perspective, it is inextricably about ensuring sustainability. And because gender mainstreaming demands a holistic approach to policy making where coordination and cooperation (both vertical and horizontal) are key, interventions are more likely to be sustainable.

iv) Quality of Life Arguments: while it is commonly recognized that women stand to benefit from increased attention to gender equality, quality of life arguments also point out the benefits to be gained by men and families as well. They stress the importance of social relationships and interdependence of social actors, claiming, for example, that if women are empowered, those closest to them stand to gain as well. On the flip-side, inequality or hardship for one gender will negatively affect other social actors as well. For example, the negative effects of depression in men or poor employment opportunities for women affect families, children and spouses as well. Moreover, quality of life arguments are useful for promoting a gender dimension in programs aimed at curbing social “pathologies”. For example, issues such as suicide, alcoholism, addictions and chronic stress are strongly linked to changing gender roles and relations in society and the inability of individuals to cope and adapt. The argument here therefore underlines how a gender perspective can limit these pathologies and improve the quality of life of members of society.

v) Alliance Arguments: Alliance arguments highlight gender equality as a prerequisite for forging formal alliances or partnerships with other nations. In the context of Eastern and Central Europe, the most salient example is European Union integration: candidate countries for EU accession are mandated to implement various instruments for the promotion of gender equality as a prerequisite for EU membership.

vi) Chain Reaction Arguments: Lastly, all of the above arguments are strengthened when the links between them are highlighted. Gender equality can in fact produce a “chain reaction” of benefits, just as the effects of gender inequality can be passed on from individuals to families and communities. The “chain reaction” argument highlights how sound the investment in gender equality actually is: it will bring not only short-term, localized benefits, but medium and long-term benefits that will ripple (flow) through society strengthening the nation as a whole. At the same time, mainstreaming should also remain aware of “chain reactions” that might produce negative gender equality effects if not anticipated and dealt with in an integrated manner. For example, a “top down” mandate for family-friendly workplaces might bring backlash and even greater exposure to harassment against women in their place of work. Similarly, advancement of women may lead to greater depression and pathological behavior among men. These risks highlight the crucial need to create complex strategies for gender mainstreaming, whereby a number of initiatives are mutually reinforcing. Thus a negative chain reaction argument can be

used to convince decision-makers that mainstreaming must proceed in a strategic and holistic manner.

8. Monitoring: keeping a (gender-sensitive) eye on things

Monitoring is an indivisible aspect of gender mainstreaming. Three aspects of monitoring include:

I. Levels of monitoring: Monitoring should take place at two different levels: Monitoring progress towards fulfilling substantive goals and objectives and monitoring the implementation process. Both require setting targets (goals) and developing indicators to measure progress towards meeting those targets. When monitoring progress towards substantive goals and objectives, indicators must be developed that track the delivery of specified outputs (activities) and outcomes (impact). When monitoring the implementation process, targets and indicators must be developed that track the extent to which the process itself is gender-sensitive. Monitoring the process will:

allow you to identify hindrances and gaps in the process that can be immediately redressed

allow you to improve the design of future initiatives

document obstacles to mainstreaming that can be later addressed in a wider institutional context

II. Gender-sensitive monitoring plans: Plans for monitoring both substantive progress and the implementation process should be developed and included in the official document outlining your intervention. These plans should specify:

who is responsible for monitoring tasks

how other stakeholders will participate in the monitoring process

when monitoring will take place

what tools will be used to record observations what mechanisms exist to review progress (periodic appraisal or review sessions)

Questions to consider in monitoring the process might include:

Are men and women equally participating in project decision-making?

Are men and women treated with equal respect, as decision-makers, implementers and participants?

Are those involved in project implementation continually motivated to maintain a gender perspective (opportunities to update their gender knowledge and skills, and discuss gender issues in a non-judgmental environment)?

9. Evaluation: how did we do? The culmination of the monitoring process occurs during Step 9: Evaluation. This stage is vital for establishing good practices and lessons learned from your initiative, for the ultimate purpose of improving initiatives in the future. Evaluation is also a question of accountability for resources used. Three levels of evaluation include: 1. Evaluation of outputs (Have objectives been met?) 2. Evaluation of outcomes (To what extent has the development goal been achieved?) 3. Evaluation of process (How were outputs and outcomes delivered?) In order to mainstream a gender perspective, key questions to consider at all levels of evaluation include:

Who	determines	the	evaluation	criteria?
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What level of importance or priority is afforded to gender equality considerations? Evaluation Actors

Do evaluators' Terms of Reference specify the need for gender expertise?

Are all stakeholders involved in the evaluation process?

Who will provide inputs for evaluation data?

Will the opinions of both men and women be considered?

Who will be responsible for consolidating inputs and determining the validity and priority of differing opinions or observations? Evaluation Process

Will participatory methods be used?

How and to whom will results of the evaluation be disseminated?

Will both men and women stakeholders be given the opportunity to formally comment on or state their reservations about the evaluation results? To ensure the sustainability of mainstreaming efforts, consider the following:

How does your initiative fit into the “big picture”, i.e. more comprehensive government programmes and policy frameworks? What entry points for follow-up and complementary activities does this framework offer?

Does your evaluation include concrete recommendations for follow-up initiatives? What other entry points can be accessed to ensure this follow-up?

Does your evaluation point to implications for other ministries or stakeholders more broadly? How will you communicate these implications? Can you propose any concrete entry points?

Are you documenting the process and results of your initiatives in a way that will guarantee institutional memory?

In general, how and to whom are you communicating the results of your initiatives?

10. En-gendering communication

While “communication” figures as the last step in this gender mainstreaming guide, communication considerations themselves need to be “mainstreamed” or integrated at all phases

of the project or policy cycle. Communication with other stakeholders - from civil society to your superiors – is necessary at all stages and all levels. In every case, the way in which you communicate (both proactively and reactively) will influence the success of your project or policy.

One of the barriers to effective gender mainstreaming is a lack of information on various levels, including:

about the situation, from a gender perspective

about government or organizational mandates for gender equality

about policies and programs targeting gender equality

about stakeholders and efforts of other actors in promoting gender equality Part of your role must be to design and implement effective communication strategies to help bridge this information gap for a diverse set of publics. These publics include:

Top-level policy makers and decision-makers

Other policy-makers

Different groups within civil society (men, women, activists, academics, etc)

Donors and Development Partners Using a gender perspective when designing communication, strategies should highlight the different ways in which men and women respond to different messages. Key questions you might ask during a gender analysis of communication strategies include:

Do men and women read different publications?

Do men and women watch or listen to different electronic media?

Are media consumption patterns (frequency, time) different for men and women?

Do men and women have different credibility criteria (regarding “authorities”, arguments used, etc)?

Do men and women have different values that cause them to respond to certain messages in different ways? Possible interventions for communicating progress in gender mainstreaming:

Preparation of an Annual Report on Gender;

Use of Electronic Media;

Establishment of a Gender Policy Resource Centre.

Section IV: Gender Budgeting

Section Overview

Dear learner, here is the section on gender budgeting. Gender budgets are tools for testing a government's gender mainstreaming commitments - linking policy commitments across government departments with their budgets. Without a suitable economic underpinning, a government's equality commitments are unlikely to be realized. Gender budgeting can be used in any phase of the budget cycle, from planning and identifying objectives and identifying the financial allocations to meet these objectives, to an evaluation of the extent to which these objectives have been met.

4.1. Definitions and concepts of gender budgeting ? Dear learner, how do you think gender budgeting is defined?

A gender budget is not a separate budget for women; instead it is an approach which can be used to highlight the gap between policy statements and the resources committed to their implementation, ensuring that public money is spent in more gender-equitable ways. The issue is not whether we are spending the same on women and men, but whether the spending is adequate

to women and men's needs (Rake, 2002). As Sharp & Broomhill (2002) explain: "gender budgeting is a mechanism for establishing whether a government's gender equality commitments translate into budgetary commitments."

Gender budgeting aims at analyzing any form of public expenditure and income from a gender perspective, i.e. it identifies the different implications that public income and spending have on girls and women, as well as different groups of women, as compared to boys and men. The final objective of gender budgeting is to shape budgets so that they actively promote gender equality.

„Gender budgeting ... means a gender-based assessment of budgets, incorporating a gender perspective at all levels of the budgetary process and restructuring revenues and expenditures in order to promote gender equality.“

? What is a gender budget initiative?

Gender budgeting exercises now take place in more than forty countries around the world, originally inspired by the early experience of countries such as Australia and given further momentum by the United Nation's commitment to gender budgeting in the Beijing Platform for Action. They take place both inside and outside government and there is a wide diversity in the ways in which they are conducted and their scope. Gender budget initiatives go beyond the assessment of programs targeted specifically at women and girls and seek to expose assumptions of 'gender neutrality' within all economic policy - raising awareness and understanding that budgets will impact differently on women and men because of their different social and economic positioning.

Originally the initiatives were termed 'women's budgets' because the focus was on the impact on women and girls. More recently the emphasis has shifted to 'gender' as a category for analysis and to avoid any misunderstanding that activists are working to produce a separate budget for women (Sharp & Broomhill, 2002). Sharp and Broomhill explain that most gender budgeting initiatives have three core goals. They seek to: (1) mainstream gender issues within government

policies; (2) promote greater accountability for governments' commitment to gender equality; and (3) change budgets and policies.

Aims/objectives of gender budgeting:

Increasing women's participation in economic decision-making and budgetary processes.

Enhancing public consultation and participation in the preparation and monitoring of budgets. Gender budgeting not only aims at an increased participation of women, but at an overall increase of citizen's understanding of budgetary issues.

Improving the transparency and efficiency in terms of results of the government's budgetary decisions.

Increasing the possibility to hold governments accountable for their commitments towards gender equality. By making the budgetary process more consultative and transparent; governments can be pressed to assume their responsibility for drawing up gender sensitive budgets.

Providing a critical tool for monitoring spending. Even though commitments to gender equality might be present in the budget, the actual expenditure might still not promote equality between women and men. It is therefore important to not only look at the planned budgetary measures, but to also evaluate the actual spending and their effects on women and men.

Developing an alternative set of values by applying beneficiary assessments which evaluate whether women and men believe that budgets meet their needs or not.

? What are the benefits of gender budgeting?

As Himmelweit (2002) explains, gender budgeting can benefit society both by reducing socioeconomic gender inequalities and by ensuring that public money is better targeted and spent

more efficiently, improving policy outcomes. Gender budgeting also brings internal benefits to government. By strengthening the collection and analysis of gender-disaggregated data and enhancing the ability to determine the real value of resources targeted towards women and men – gender budget initiatives can provide a better understanding of how resources are being spent and increase the efficiency of policy.

? What are the methodologies available for gender budgeting?

It should be noted that gender budgeting is a relatively new concept and as a result the tools and techniques used to apply the theory are still evolving. Additionally, methodology should and will differ internationally, as it is adapted to the national or even regional context. Basically gender budgeting can involve analyzing any form of public expenditure, or method of raising public money, from a gender perspective and identifying the implications and impacts for women and girls as compared to men and boys. Several toolkits for gender budgeting have been developed at different times and one key tool is gender impact assessment (GIA). GIA focuses on analysis beyond the family or household level, looking at the individual and extends beyond the public, paid economy to the more private, unpaid sphere in which women and their caring work predominate at present. It gives consideration to the longer-term consequences of policy and takes account of the differentials in women's and men's responses to economic incentives.

? What policy areas do you think are covered by gender budgeting?

Well, gender budgeting theory and practice has grown out of a widening understanding that economic policy can contribute to narrowing or widening gender gaps across a broad spectrum of policy areas including health, education, welfare, transport and development - hence gender budget initiatives can be applied to any policy area. Additionally, gender budgeting is applicable to both macro and micro level economic policy and to both public spending and revenue. Most initiatives around the world have focused on public expenditure except some, like in UK, where there is private expenditure that focus women. In practice, the extent of gender budget initiatives vary from the broadest analysis of the entire national budget to the more narrow expenditure of selected government departments or programmes or narrower still, the expenditure on new

projects, selected forms of revenue, changes in the tax system or the implementation of new legislation. The extent to which the practice is applied will depend upon government commitment to gender budgeting, resources and expertise available, national and international pressure etc.

? How is gender incorporated to the national budget?

One of the most important areas of government macro-economic policy is the national budget, which deals with both public revenue and public expenditure across all policy areas and expresses the social and economic priorities of the government. The national budget is therefore a key opportunity for carrying out a gender budgeting initiative. Gender budgeting does not focus solely on gender specific programs; rather it aims to expose assumptions of gender neutrality across the policy spectrum. 4.2 Actors in gender budgeting ? Who are the actors involved in gender budgeting? The nature of gender budget initiatives varies internationally. We have international, regional, national and local actors. They have been undertaken at national, provincial or local levels and coordinated and led by both governments and civil society groups. There are advantages and disadvantages of each type of exercise. Inside government groups have the benefits of access to government information and the capacity to make direct contributions to the budgetary and economic policy decision-making process. Outside civil society initiatives (for example in the UK, South Africa and Tanzania) may suffer resource and data constraints, but their distance from government allows them to take a critical stance and encourage public debate (Sharp & Broomhill, 2002).

1. International Agencies: A number of multi- and bi-lateral agencies have expressed support of gender budget initiatives, including: the Commonwealth Secretariat; the International Development Research Centre (IDRC); the European Union (EU); the Nordic Council (of their own budget); the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD); the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM); the Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA); the Swiss Development Corporation; German Technical Cooperation Agency (GTZ); the UK Department for International Development (DFID); the Governments of Denmark, the Netherlands and Norway, and the United Nations Development Program. Most significantly the United Nations' Beijing Platform for Action called for the

integration of a gender perspective into budgetary decision-making and called for governments to be accountable for their gender equality commitments. Additionally the World Bank has promoted the idea of gender budget analysis through its gender publications, in particular the models used in Tanzania and South Africa. And the UN European Economic Commission also has plans to support work on gender and budgets.

2. National Actors: At national level a range of actors can play a role in gender budgeting. Initiatives should engage across as many of these groups as possible. The most important actor is, obviously, the government, but other actors are also involved as follow;

Government: Experience has shown that gender budget initiatives are most effective when the Ministry of Finance (due to its role in the budgeting process) takes the lead in a government initiative - ideally with close engagement with the Ministry for Gender or Women's affairs. However Budlender et al (2002) note that due to absence of established working relationships between the two ministries, some countries have experienced a sidelining of the latter - and so valuable gender expertise is lost from the process. Although the Ministry of Finance is likely to take the lead, other ministries should also play a significant role in the process as it should not be assumed that any government policy is gender neutral. At the outset of the gender budgeting process most governments involve just two or three other key departments - typically health and education – departments that account for a large proportion of government expenditure and have particular relevance for women and those experiencing poverty. Another sector such as agriculture or transport may also be selected to demonstrate that gender budgeting has a role to play outside of the social sector. Within each ministry it is important that the more senior civil servants understand the need for gender budgeting initiatives and support them in principle and that there are civil servants who are equipped with the skills to carry them out.

Parliament: Gender budget initiatives are also likely to engage with parliamentarians - particularly women members - for example through lobbying activities, awareness raising seminars and fact sheets for their reference and use in the scrutiny and audit of government's public expenditure and revenue plans. However Budlender et al (2002) suggest that the effect of this methodology is limited - most parliamentarians are likely to have little or no powers to

amend the national budget, although there is unrealized potential in their powers to audit the national budget. However parliamentarians have had a prominent role in both the South African and the Ugandan initiatives - but a few key individuals have led this participation. The Swiss parliament has a high level of budgetary power, but this is set to decrease dramatically with the introduction of New Public Management.

Civil Society groups: As the Australian example proved, the success of gender budgeting initiatives is limited without the involvement of civil society groups to keep up the pressure and provide expertise. Often the people involved in these groups are the contemporaries of the government officials so have a good working relationship. They are drawn upon to conduct research and even provide training for Government officials. In the South African, Tanzanian and Ugandan examples, NGO groups work alongside the government, acting as 'critical friends' and nudging the government further in the direction of a gender equality agenda. In the UK, the Women's Budget Group has been instrumental in encouraging the Government to commit to a gender budgeting approach. However there can be skepticism among some external gender economists about the ability of government to tackle gender issues adequately and, conversely, governments can be suspicious of NGOs. Additionally, NGOs have concerns about maintaining their independent voice and critical distance. In the Tanzanian example, in which NGOs have worked especially close to government, this was a particular concern amongst the activists.

Academics: Some of the NGO initiatives draw on the expertise of academics, particularly feminist economists. Several initiatives, such those planned in Bangladesh and Italy are led by academics. Other initiatives, such as the UK Women's Budget Group are led jointly by academics and others from NGOs and trades unions. It is useful for these groups to come together to ensure that research is focused on what is useful for advocacy purposes and so that advocates have enough depth of knowledge to pursue their gender budgeting objectives.

Individuals: Individuals in key positions have been essential in ensuring the success of many projects - for example in Barbados, the Philippines, Sri Lanka and Namibia. But ideally initiatives should not be reliant on the support of individuals, as once these key players move on or are replaced the project may suffer setbacks - as in South Africa and Mozambique. Initiatives

should aim to build up a firm support base and institutionalize gender budget processes while these people have power and the climate is favorable.

3. Regional and Local Actors: An increasing amount of gender budgeting work is being done at the sub-national level, encouraged by the international trend to decentralize budgeting functions and power. Chile, Mexico, Peru, the Philippines, South Africa, Tanzania, Uganda and Spain (in the Basque Country) are among the countries who are already having initiated work at this level. There are benefits to the decentralization of both the budgets and the gender budget projects - with the public becoming more engaged with the process now they can see the direct impact of budget decisions. The Ugandan Forum for Women in Democracy argues that local level interventions are most appropriate in their country where women are unlikely to have the resources to engage with decision making outside of their own locality. However, Budlender et al (2002) advise gender budget activists to be wary of decentralization. Inequality can grow between regions, functions may be decentralized but not the spending power and it can mean the state is absolving itself of responsibility of the budgeting function and hence nationally agreed gender budgeting arrangements.

GENDER ISSUES IN ETHIOPIA

Dear learners, well come to the last but the most interesting chapter. This chapter takes you to consider some issues of gender in Ethiopia and also some policy measures taken by the government of as well. Hence, the chapter is divided in to two main sections. After brief introduction of the concept to Ethiopian context, the first section provides a discussion on some gender related issues in Ethiopia which includes gender and poverty, violence against women, women and participation, women and health, women and education, women empowerment, women and media, women work status, etc. The last section is on gender policy and implementation machinery in Ethiopia where you will be overviewed with some international and national commitments made by Ethiopian government and the means to implement these commitments.

1.1 Conceptual overview The issue of gender inequality can be considered as a universal feature of developing countries. Unlike women in developed countries who are, in relative terms,

economically empowered and have a powerful voice that demands an audience and positive action, women in developing countries are generally silent and their voice has been stifled by economic and cultural factors. Economic and cultural factors, coupled with institutional factors dictate the gender-based division of labor, rights, responsibilities, opportunities, and access to and control over resources. Education, literacy, access to media, employment, decision making, among other things, are some of the areas of gender disparity.

The problems of gender inequalities discussed above are very much prevalent in and relevant to Ethiopia. Ethiopia is a patriarchal society that keeps women in a subordinate position and remains one of Africa's most traditions bound societies. (Haregewoin and Emebet, 2003). There is a belief that women are docile, submissive, patient, and tolerant of monotonous work and violence, for which culture is used as a justification (Hirut, 2004).

The socialization process, which determines gender roles, is partly responsible for the subjugation of women in the country. Ethiopian society is socialized in such a way that girls are held inferior to boys. In the process of upbringing, boys are expected to learn and become self-reliant, major bread winners, and responsible in different activities, while girls are brought up to conform, be obedient and dependent, and specialize in indoor activities like cooking, washing clothes, fetching water, caring for children, etc. (Haregewoin and Emebet, 2003; Hirut, 2004).

The differences in the ways in which individuals are treated through the socialization process, mainly due to their sex status, leads to the development of real psychological and personality differences between males and females (Almaz, 1991). For instance, a female informant in Arsi stated that a man is a big person who has higher social position and knowledge, who can govern others and think in wider perspectives; while a woman is a person who can serve a man, who is like the husband's object transferred through marriage, and to whom he can do anything he wishes to do (Hirut, 2004). These socially induced differences between males and females result in discriminatory rewards, statuses, opportunities and roles as shall be discussed below.

1.2 Critical areas of gender issues in Ethiopia

? What are some of the issues related to gender in Ethiopia?

a) Poverty and gender

Although women's contribution to their households, food production and national economies is immense, it has not been translated into better access to resources or decision-making powers. As a result, women remained to be the poorest of the poor constituting 70% of the global poor. Women in Ethiopia face similar constraints. Due to the different roles and responsibilities men and women have in the society, the causes and experiences of poverty also differ by gender. Rights such as, access to land, credit and other productive resources are difficult for women to attain. Women make up half of the population and the majority of the poor and illiterate in the country. Though women play a vital role in production activities, in addition to shouldering reproductive responsibility, they are denied recognition and access to resources. Cultural attitudes and harmful traditional practices are major factors which relegate women to a subordinate position.

Like other least developing countries (LDCs), Ethiopia in 2002 also started the preparation of the final draft of poverty reduction strategy paper immediately after the approval of the interim poverty reduction strategy paper. The final document entitled "sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Program (SDPRP) provides a sound basis to continue the implementation of the sustainable development and poverty reduction program activities in the country. Given poverty reduction will continue to be the core of the agenda of the country's development, the strategy is built on four pillars (building blocks). These are Agriculture Development led Industrialization (ADLI), Justice System and Civil Service Reform, Decentralization and Empowerment, and Capacity building in public and private sectors.

Taking the significance of addressing the gender dimension of poverty into consideration, a lot of advocacy and lobbying work has been done by the government and Non Government Organization (NGOs) and other actors to incorporate gender issues in both the interim and final poverty reduction programs. Efforts have also been done by the Women's Affairs Office of the Prime Minister Office (WAO/PMO) in terms of advocacy and lobbying the issue to be embedded in the overall SDPRP. As a result of these and other effort made by various stakeholders, gender and development has been incorporated as a cross cutting issue in the SDPRP.

b) Violence against women

Violence against women is a general problem in Ethiopia, where culturally based abuses, including wife beating and marital rape, are pervasive social problems. A July 2005 World Bank study concluded that 88 percent of rural women and 69 percent of urban women believed their husbands had the right to beat them. While women had recourse via the police and courts, societal norms and limited infrastructure prevented many women from seeking legal redress, particularly in rural areas. The government prosecutes offenders only on a limited scale. The population sex ratio in Ethiopia has been stable (around 99%) for the past 50 years, and the occurrence of missing women is not widespread in the country.

? What are some of the traditional and socio-cultural practices against women in Ethiopia?

Violence against women such as rape, domestic violence, abduction for marriage, sexual harassment, female genital mutilation, early marriage are widely spread in the country and are being widely recognized, as a violation of women's right apart from the physical and psychological consequence it has on the life of a woman. Women in Ethiopia as anywhere else are also victims of various violence and harmful traditional practices simply because of their gender. Patriarchal domination, cultural and traditional practices, economic deprivation etc are among the reasons for violence against women in Ethiopia.

The practices of female genital mutilation (FGM) and early/and forced marriage, impinge on the rights and health of women. Traditional discriminatory practices such as FGM and widow inheritance (including all her property) continue to persist. In Ethiopia, 80% of women (and in some parts of the country up to 100%) are mutilated, as a means of women's loyalty to culture and faith (Haregewoin and Emebet, 2003). It is also estimated that, in each of the 28 Woredas in Addis Ababa, three women are raped each day making it a total of 30,660 rape cases every year (Haregewoin and Emebet, 2003). Data compiled by the Ethiopian Women Lawyers Association from woreda police stations in Addis Ababa showed a 39% and 54% increment of abduction and assault and bodily injury to women and young girls between 1999 and 2001 (Federal Civil Service Commission, 2005). The rapid spread of HIV/AIDS is also posing a serious threat to the development of the country.

Cognizant to this fact, a lot of awareness has been undertaken by various stakeholders including the WAO/PMO, Sectoral women's affairs machineries, and civil society organizations. FGM is forbidden according to national law, and is presumed to be declining. The new penal code

criminalizes FGM by imprisonment of no less than three months, or a fine. Likewise, infibulations is punishable by imprisonment of five to ten years. However, no criminal prosecutions have ever been sought regarding FGM. Various strategies, including IEC materials, training's/workshops, media campaign (both print and air), panel discussions, legal aid for women etc were used in this regard. Taking the multi-dimensional consequences of violence against women into consideration, the government of Ethiopia has taken measure in creating conducive environment for the revisions of legal reforms that are discriminatory to women. Accordingly, the family law has been revised in a gender sensitive manner and the penal code is at stake.

c) Female -headed households

According to the 2004/05 household survey the average household size for the country is 4.8 (4.9 in rural areas and 4.3 in urban). Of the estimated 13.4 million households, about 75% are male headed and 25% female-headed. It is estimated that about 16% of households are urban dwellers and 84% rural. A much higher proportion of female-headed households reside in urban areas compared to rural areas. About one in five rural households (22%) and nearly two in five urban households (39%) are female-headed.

d) Women's economic participation

The backbone of the economy in Ethiopia is agriculture, which accounts for 54% of the gross domestic product (GDP) and 60% of exports, and 80% of total employment. The agricultural sector suffers from frequent drought and poor cultivation practices. Under Ethiopia's land tenure system, the government owns all land and provides long-term leases to tenants.

? What is the status of women in agriculture in Ethiopia? Rural women in Ethiopia engage as equally as their male counterparts in agricultural activities, in addition to carrying the heavy burden of household duties. Even in areas where women are excluded by custom from farming and planting, they participate in weeding, transporting harvest and storing grain, as well as in livestock husbandry activities. In areas where production is based on the use of the hoe and shift cultivation, women participate in all farm activities including soil preparation. In pastoral societies, like Afar and Somali, where animal products are the predominant source of income, women play a critical role in rearing animals and processing animal products for home consumption and the market.

Women's access to land is not only smaller, but they are also disadvantaged in terms of using their land. This is because their land is often in a worse condition than those used by male-headed households. This is due to the fact that women do not have the necessary resources to cultivate the land, which in a lot of cases forces them to rent out their land to others.

Women also lack agricultural labor; this is another reason why they are forced to rent out the land. This is not necessarily because they are incapable of working on their plot, but because the culturally accepted gender divisions of labor prohibit women from such activity. For example, in the grain producing areas of the country social norms prohibit women from farming land (Yigeremew, 2001). Studies have also revealed that in areas where oxen are essential for farming, such as in plough agriculture, women do not have enough oxen or the necessary implements to farm their land. Women also have problem accessing credit because they do not have property for use as collateral. In effect, this means that they are prevented from improving their land.

e) Gender and Education Studies have shown that women are seriously disadvantaged regarding educational attainment. Women's education was found to be significantly far behind from that of men. For school age population the participation or enrolment rates in schools has shown a remarkable increase for both boys and girls in recent years. However, the gender gap remained to be there. Dropping out after enrolling for few years is the main obstacle to girls' educational attainment. As education of girls and women is rightly considered to be the key for improving women's status at all levels, it is indeed necessary to explore further what specific factors work against girls' education in the society.

Factors affecting educational attainment of girls include early marriage, living in rural areas and poverty (being in households grouped in lower and poorest wealth quintile groups), etc.

Further exploration of causes for poor educational status of women, by means of qualitative data that are collected from selected regions in the country, revealed that early marriage is the single most important reason mentioned in all Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) and interviews with key persons as to why girls' education is undermined in almost all regions. Most cultures strongly urge girls to get married early and take the responsibility of serving their husbands. The cultural pressure in favor of early marriage is so strong that families who do not get their daughters married at an acceptably young age will be scorned and ridiculed; the girls may also

not get husbands if they pass that age. To respect this tradition, parents continue defying the Constitution that set minimum age of marriage.

Other reasons given for early marriage and dropping out from school were fear of sexual violence, such as rape and abduction, that befall young girls before marriage and fear of promiscuity and unwanted pregnancy before marriage on the girls' side. Yet another reason mentioned in the FGDs held in Gambella was the dowry paid to parents of the girl, upon her marriage. Parents do not believe that girls' education is useful and girls are employable. Once married, women will have no time and permission to go to school. Young girls are also expected to share the work load of their mothers at home, taking care of their younger siblings and helping in household chores which lead to being absent regularly and later results in drop out from school. It is also indicated that any financial stress in the household will lead to pulling girls out of school to cut expenses or involve them in household maintenance. In most societies girls' main role is believed to be learning household activities, cooking, cleaning, rearing children and taking care of the family as a whole, rather than going to school. It is believed that educating girls is not that useful as they are going to get married and assume their role soon anyway. These reasons are shared by almost all rural communities of the country to different degrees while some are indicated even in urban settings.

Some region-specific, (in Somali, for example), reasons indicated that girls are not allowed in many cases to attend classes with boys in the same classroom. In addition, the pastoralist lifestyle, which involves relocating temporary residence and family maintenance, burdens women and girls and leads to the disruption of girls' education (Somali and Afar).

Low educational level is one of the causes and consequences of females' low socio-economic status. In spite of the fact that significant progress has been realized in girls' education during the last decade, gender gap is still observed. According to various statistical abstracts of the Ministry of Education, the share of female students has increased from 21% to 25% between the years 1998/99 and 2002/03. Nevertheless, the sex disaggregated Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER), the ratio of total enrolment at primary or secondary education to the corresponding school age population, shows disparity between the two sexes. Though female GER in primary education

has increased from 41% in 1999/2000 to 54% in 2002/03, the respective figures for males are 61% and 75%. In the year 2002, the rate of adult literacy for women was 34%, while it was 49% for men (MOE, 2002). The gender gap is clearly observed when the Gender Parity Index (GPI), the ratio of female to male enrolment, is considered. Between the years 1999 and 2003, GPI was found to be 0.7, indicating that there were only 7 girls enrolled at primary schools for every 10 boys (Federal Civil Service Commission, 2005). The gender inequality in education widens as one goes up higher in the educational ladder. In the academic year 2001/2002, among the students who managed to enter colleges at diploma level, only 24.9% were women. This figure goes further down for females in undergraduate and postgraduate degree programs of various higher education institutes; only 15.0% in undergraduate and 7.3% postgraduate degree programs were females. If one sees the percentage share of females in higher education teaching staff it is on the average of 5.73% (Emebet, et al, 2004).

One of the strategic objectives and actions in the Beijing Declaration and the Platform of action is education and training of women. The strategic objective clearly states that education is a human right and an essential tool for achieving the goals of equality, development and peace. Following the declaration, Ethiopia has been trying to close the gender gap in education through formulation of policies, strategies and action oriented measures. The new education and training policy declared in 1994, has addressed the importance of girls education and among others it clearly stated that the government will give financial support to raise the participation of women in education. It further stated that, special attention would be given to the participation, recruitment, training and assignment of female teachers. ? What is proposed in MDG as far as education is concerned in Ethiopia?

f) Women's work status Analysis of the DHS (Disease and Health Survey) data (2005) has shown that employment of women was significantly less than that of men. The factors identified as positive predictors for women to be engaged in non- household work were living in urban area, later age at first marriage (above age 18), having some education and being in a household at a better economic status (indicated by households in richer and richest wealth quintiles). In rural areas where girls' education is discouraged and the role of a woman is believed to be solely marrying, bearing and raising children and maintaining the family, tradition

and culture do not support women to go out and work for earning. This is believed to be the role of the man only. According to the FGDs and interviews, it is thought in some societies that letting women to go out and work for earning could be opening door for them to be unfaithful and disrespectful to their husbands as it involves interactions and some level of independence. Conforming to the culture and tradition husbands do not allow women to go out and work; otherwise they will be considered as deviators from the norm. In addition to this cultural barrier, for the uneducated poor women economic constraint makes it difficult to start even small scale income generating work. In many instances having many children coupled with the heavy daily workload at home to maintain the family does not leave much time to venture working outside. The cultural barriers preventing women from working to earn a living were strongly stated in Gambella, Somali and SNNP regions.

? What is the status of women employed in formal institutions?

Women are underrepresented in the formal sector of employment. The survey conducted by the Central Statistical Authority (CSA, 2004) showed that women account for less than half (43%) of the total employees in the country. Considering the percentage of female employees from the total number of employees by employment type, the highest was in domestic activities (78%) and followed by unpaid activities (59.3%). In other types of formal employment (e.g. government, NGOs, private organizations), the percentage of female workers is less than 35. On the other hand, the survey showed overrepresentation of female workers in the informal sector. About 58% of working women work in the informal sector whereas the percentage of working men in the informal sector was 37.7 % (ibid).

The breakdown of the federal government employees by occupational groups also indicated gender disparity. From federal government employees found in the clerical and fiscal type of jobs 71.3 % were female, while the percentage of females was slightly more than half (51%) in custodial and manual type of jobs. Women make up 25% and 18% of the administrative and professional and scientific job categories, respectively, indicating that upper and middle level positions are overwhelmingly dominated by men (Federal Civil Service Commission, 2005). This concentration of women in the informal sector and low level positions has implication on their earnings. In this regard, the survey showed four out of ten women civil servants earn Birr 300 a month compared to two out of ten for men (Federal Civil Service Commission, 2005).

g) Gender and desire for more children The research results indicated that men have consistently shown greater desire for having more children than women. Demand for limiting family size is higher for women than men. On the other hand, men are the principal if not the sole decision makers regarding controlling fertility of women in most of the societies particularly in rural areas. Studies revealed that the desire for more children by men has cultural basis. A man with many children has better prestige since having many children is considered strengthening the clan one belongs to (Somali, Afar). It is also believed that children will provide support to their parents at old age. In Gambella, having many children, especially daughters, is desirable, as they may bring dowry money to parents and are, thus, sources of income. Religion is also another strong reason for both men and women to consider having many children. Children are believed to be God's gifts. Having many children is considered observing the religion rightly (Somali, Afar and other regions). Given all these traditional beliefs, women still desire to limit their children since raising children and family maintenance are their sole burden.

h) Gender and Health Women's health problems, which were formerly conceived as biological and reproductive issues, are nowadays re-conceptualized to encompass gender issues. This is because reproductive health issues do not give the full picture of the problem as women's health is also embedded in the social and cultural settings. Accordingly, Yegomawork et al. (2005) classified the health problems into two. The first is maternal health problems which are directly related to child bearing complications such as prolonged labor, retained placenta, maternal malnutrition, etc. In this regard, Ethiopia is one of the developing countries with high Maternal Mortality Ratio (871 deaths per 100,000 live births in 2000) (Mukuria et al., 2005). Although the MMR has reportedly decreased since then to 673 deaths per 100,000 live births for the period 2000 to 2005, according to the recent DHS 2005 result, it is still on the higher side. Similarly, among women aged 15 – 49 and with children under three years, 25% have Body Mass Index of below 18.5, a cut-off point used to identify chronic energy deficiency (Mukuria et al., 2005). The authors also stated, according to the categorization of World Health Organization, this percentage shows a serious nutritional situation in the country. ? Who are more vulnerable to HIV/AIDS, men or women? Why? HIV/AIDS epidemic is a threat to socio-economic advancement of most countries in the world. The issue goes beyond health problem and it

becomes a cause for social disintegration and economic deterioration of many developing countries including Ethiopia. The problem is aggravated by the existence of gender discrimination and violence against women. In Ethiopia, like many other developing countries, the social definitions and expectations of gender put women at higher risk with respect to HIV apart from their biological vulnerability to the disease.

To this effect, measures are being taken to integrate gender issues in response to HIV/AIDS. Among these, the formation of a national coalition of Women against HIV/AIDS is a pioneer in terms of building the leadership capacity of women to prevent the spread of HIV at the grassroots level. A 'core group' comprised of senior leadership from the government, including the first lady, and other prominent women has been set up to manage and steer the process leading up to the formal launch of the Coalition in June 2003. The vision of the Coalition is to create and promote leadership of women at all levels that will inspire and lead a national movement of committed men and women throughout Ethiopia to make HIV/AIDS, poverty and harmful traditional practices a thing of the past. The work of the National Coalition for Women Against HIV/AIDS, will complement the existing leadership of the Ethiopian Government in reversing the spread and impact of HIV/AIDS by focusing in particular on addressing the gender and poverty related causes which fuel the epidemic.

Other attempts made in fighting the Gender dimension of HIV/AIDS include:

The formation of a national policy on HIV/AIDS in 1998. The policy has addressed gender concerns in its objectives, recognizing gender inequality and socio-economic disempowerment of women as one of the root causes for the spread of HIV/AIDS;

As per the policy a national coordinating body, HIV/AIDS prevention and control Office (HAPCO) is established and a task force at Minister Offices ranging from Federal to Regional level.

Various guidelines such as HIV/AIDS mainstreaming, monitoring and evaluation etc have also been developed by HAPCO in a gender sensitive manner;

HIV/AIDS and gender project, which is financed by the Ethiopian multi sectoral AIDS program, has been established under the Women's Affairs office of the Prime Minister Office (WAO/PMO) with the objective of reducing the risk of women to the epidemic.

I) Women and Media

? To what extent do Ethiopian women get access to media?

Ethiopian women's access to mass media is one of the lowest. In their DHS comparative report, Mukuria et al. (2005) show that, among 25 Sub-Saharan African countries, Ethiopia was the last with respect to percentage of women who have access to newspaper. In the same report it was indicated that in 2000, among women aged 15-49 in Ethiopia, only 1.7% read newspaper at least once a week, compared with 15% in Uganda, 36% in Gabon and 37% in Namibia. Regarding women's access to television, among the 25 countries, Ethiopia was the second from the last with only 4.4% of women aged 15-49 watching television at least once a week, surpassing only Malawi (3.8%). Women's access to radio was relatively better than access to newspaper and television, with 11% of the women listening to radio at least once a week. It is, however, the lowest compared to other sub-Saharan African countries; 72% for Gabon, 53% for Uganda, 52% for Malawi and 39% for Rwanda.

j) Women in Power and Decision Making Due to the various obstacles that women have such as triple role, violence against women, lack of education etc, their representation and participation in leadership and decision making position has also been limited. Despite the Government policies of equal opportunity for both men and women to participate in the democratization of the country, women have not been adequately represented at all levels of decision-making positions.

? Comment on the extent at which females are making decision in your family?

Out of 547 seats reserved for parliamentarians in 1995, it was only 15(2.74%) that was occupied by women. However, by the next round election, an increasing trend of women's participation has been observed. During the 2000 House of People's Representative election, about 42 (7.7%) of the candidates for parliamentary seats were women compared to 2.7% in 1995. Although not satisfactory, women participation in local authorities has also improved. With the introduction of

a Federal System of Government, in 1991, by devolution of decision making power and responsibilities to regional states, an increasing trend of women participation in local authorities have also been seen. During the 1995 general election for regional council, out of 1355 members 77 (5.0%) were women. This number increased both in terms of membership and number of women in 2000 election. Thus, in the election held in 2000 for regional council, while the number of members increased to 1647, there were 244 (12.9%) women, which have shown an increase by 10%. At the lowest level of Woreda Council, only 6.6% are women out of the 70,430 council members. At the lowest administrative unit, the Kebele, women constitute only 13.9% of the 928,288 elected officials.

It is also the case that women have little or no power of making decisions on matters related to their own households. Their decision making power is limited regarding land use in rural areas (Haregewoin and Emebet, 2003) and even on sexual interactions (Adanech and Azeb, 1991).

Haregewoin and Emebet noted that less than 25% of women are able to decide by themselves on contraceptive use. Mostly women in the country have the power to make decisions on issues related to the daily life of their family, but decisions about large household purchases, degree of participation of a woman in social activities, and reproductive health issues are dominated by men.

Further, at the level of international representation, among the 28 ambassadors that Ethiopia appointed at different mission abroad, only 4 (14.3) are women. In the area of employment, while the number of women in the Ethiopian civil service has been relatively small, the senior positions are overwhelmingly held by men. Federal Civil Service Commission recent statistics revealed the fact that the overwhelming majority of women civil servants are concentrated in positions such as secretary, cleaner, and others.

Section II: Gender policy and machinery Section overview

Dear learners, this section focuses on gender policy and implementation machinery in Ethiopia. Since coming to power in 1991, the current government has introduced several laws and policies to address issues of democracy, decentralization, poverty reduction, institutional capacity and improvement of the social, economic and political status of the citizenry. Moreover, the Constitution of the federal government that was proclaimed in 1994 has domesticated

international instruments which Ethiopia has ratified or adopted. Ethiopia has ratified major international conventions, protocols and treaties.

The issue of gender equality has become an area of concern in development planning during the last few decades. The marginalization, from development programs, of women for a long period of time is challenged with changing policy perspectives from Women in Development (WID), which aims to include women in development projects in order to make the latter more effective, to Gender and Development (GAD), which aims to address inequalities in women's and men's social roles in relation to development (March et al., 1999).

Despite recently introduced policy instruments and legislative commitments serving women's interests, the vast majority of Ethiopian women - particularly in rural areas - are far from being well off, independent and direct beneficiaries of development initiatives. Hence, gender mainstreaming, the integration of gender issues into every aspect of development programs, is aimed at empowering women to enable them participate in and benefit from the programs equally as men, being supported by international and national policies.

? What are some of the international agreements related to gender equality to which Ethiopia is a part?

Global effort had been underway to alleviate the low status of women since the 1990s. In the framework of the general conferences held in Cairo (1994) and in Beijing (1995), direction was set and recommendations were made targeting mainly the removal of all the obstacles to gender equalities. The outcomes of these conferences recognized that the integration of gender issues into the general development plan and program of a country is crucial and unavoidable step for overall sustainable development and that needs to get proper attention by governments.

At international level, the Convention on Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), the Beijing Platform for Action (BPA), and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) are the main strategies and conventions introduced for the achievement of gender equality. CEDAW incorporates the following measures that governments have to take to guarantee gender equality: elimination of discrimination against women in employment opportunities and benefits of service; ensuring gender equality in all areas of socio-economic life such as legal rights to contracts and property, and access to financial credit; equality of women in

national constitutions; and abolishing existing laws, regulations, customs and practices that discriminate against women.

The government urged regional governments to make CEDAW part of the regional law and encouraged them to proceed with the full implementation of the provisions of the Convention throughout the country, through the enhancement of cooperation between federal and regional governmental bodies and institutions, to achieve uniformity of results in the implementation of the Convention. The Committee assigned by the government also recommended that the State party improve its efforts to systematically monitor progress achieved in the implementation of the Convention at all levels, and in all areas. Particular focus being placed on the improvement of the capacity of all public officials in the area of women's human rights, and the seeking of resources through international development assistance programmes, as necessary. It was also recommended that the State party launch, at the national level, a comprehensive programme of dissemination of the Convention, targeting women and men, in order to enhance awareness and promote and protect the rights of women. However, CEDAW has not been implemented in regional law, even though the Constitution encourages it.

According to CEDAW committee report (2003), women in the civil services, the largest employer in the country, remain a small minority. In the legislative and judiciary branches, the situation is worse. Women are seriously underrepresented. In the Federal Parliament, the highest decision making body, women hold only 7.7% of the total seats. The figure sheds light on how far the country has to go in the direction of empowering women. Especially in this key area, the government has a long way to go. For without a vigorous effort to level the political playing from a gender perspective, the gap in this area, critical in measuring women's empowerment, will remain wide. The government cannot fully meet its CEDAW obligations and commitments so long as the political representation gap remains as high as it is at present."

The measures that are included in the BPA are ensuring women's equal rights and access to economic resources; elimination of occupational segregation and all forms of employment discrimination and promoting women's access to employment, appropriate working conditions and control over resources; facilitating women's equal access to markets, trade, information, and technology; promotion of harmonization of work and family responsibilities for women and men; and conducting gender-based research and dissemination of its results for planning and evaluation.

? What domestic policies were developed to translate global commitments in to action?

The key commitments of governments and other development partners set in the MDGs include gender equality and women's empowerment. The commitments include ensuring universal primary education for both boys and girls by 2015; elimination of gender disparity at all levels of education by 2015; and reducing maternal mortality ratio by three quarters between 1990 and 2015. Ethiopia adopted these agreements to promote gender equality and improve the lives of women. As a means to implement these global agreements, different policies and legislations have also been enacted. These are the National Policy on Women, National Population Policy, Education Policy, Cultural Policy, and other legal documents.

The National Policy on Women, introduced in 1993, was the first policy that is specifically related to the affairs of women (Jelaludin et al., 2001). The objectives of the policy include facilitating conditions conducive to the speeding up of equality between men and women so that women can participate in the political, economic and social life of their country on equal terms with men; ensuring that their right to own property as well as their other human rights are respected and that they are not excluded from both the enjoyment of the fruits of their labor or performing public functions and participating in decision making.

Cognizant of the adverse impact of low status of women on the overall economic development in general and on reproductive health issues in particular, the National Population Policy of the country, which was also endorsed in 1993, included in its objectives women's status and health issues such as reduction of incidence of maternal mortality, improvement of females' participation at all levels of education and enhancement of the contraceptive prevalence rate (TGE, 1993).

The 1994 Education and Training Policy affirmed the importance of girls' education. It focused on the reorientation of the attitude and values of the society towards recognizing the roles and contributions of women in development. The policy included gender equality issues such as increasing girls' school enrolment ratio, preparing a gender sensitive curriculum, and reducing girls' dropout and repetition rates (FDRE, 1994).

In an attempt to address customary practices and backward traditions that undermine the roles of women in society, the National Cultural Policy was enacted in 1997. The main objectives of this policy are to ensure equal participation in and benefit from cultural activities, and to abolish traditional harmful practices that violate the rights of women such as early marriage, female genital mutilation and abduction (FDRE, 1997). ? What are the rights of women guaranteed by the constitution of Ethiopia?

In addition to the aforementioned national policies gender equality is guaranteed by the Constitution of the country. Article 25 of the FDRE Constitution states that all persons are equal before the law and it prohibits any discrimination on grounds of gender. In Article 35, equality in matters related to employment, equality in acquisition and management of property, equal participation in policy and decision making, and right of women to plan families are stated to ensure gender equality. Similarly, Article 42 states the right of female workers to equal pay for comparable work (FDRE, 1995). ? What is the implementation machinery of these policies?

On the basis of the Women's policy of the Country, a considerable number of women's machineries have been set at different government level ranging from Federal to the lowest administrative unit. From 1991-1995 the Women's Affairs Office (WAO) is constituted in Prime Minister's Office with a mandate of coordinating, facilitating and monitoring of women's affairs activities at national level. In 1995 this was changed to a separate ministry; the Ministry of Women's Affairs. The following are some of the duties and responsibilities/mandate of WAO:

Coordinate, facilitate and monitor of women's affairs activities at national level;

Create conducive atmosphere for the implementation of women's affairs policy in various governmental organization and the country in general and monitor its realization,

Encourage the establishment of women affairs organs in all the regions, central ministries and public organizations at all levels, as well as the formation of self initiated women's organizations

in order to strengthen and expand the activities of the Ethiopian women.

Coordinate the financial and material aids to be secured from various sources;

Process information and reports to be received from women's affairs departments and self initiated women's organization and provide solutions to their problems in consultation with higher authorities;

Organize seminars, workshops and symposiums at the national level

Other Women's Affairs Department (WADs) is also set up in 16 sectoral Ministries, two Commissions and in all regional governments at department level. According to the policy, these WADs are accountable to the organization in which they are formed and have equal power with other departments. The WADs are, therefore, responsible to monitor, follow up and design ways of implementing the national women's affairs policy effectively in accordance with the powers and duties of the organization in which they are based. Based on the decentralized development program of the country, gender focal points have also been established in each Woreda (district) in order to incorporate gender issue in local development program.

Being placed in the highest governmental office, the 'Women's Affairs Office play a primary role of facilitating, coordinating and monitoring activities of the Women's affairs departments and bureaus established in the various line ministries and regions. Although the implementation of the national policy on women lays mainly with the government machineries, NGOs, Women's Organization and other stakeholders also play a pivotal role for the successful implementation of the national policy. Concurrently, it is within this already established institutional mechanism for the advancement of women that the BPA is being implemented in Ethiopia.

Even if women in Ethiopia formally have the same rights as men, their situation is difficult and does not show any sign of improvement. According to the UN's Equal Rights Index (GDI) on health, education and work, Ethiopia is ranked as 142 out of 146 countries. Despite the existence of policy instruments and legislative and institutional commitment to women's causes, the vast

majority of Ethiopian women, especially in rural areas live in poverty. Their status in the socio-political, economic and cultural contexts is critical.

The main reasons for the situation are the socio-cultural portrait of women and girls and their assigned role; existing practices of resource distribution; the division of labor, and the distribution of opportunities. Moreover there is a considerable gap between the needs and concerns of women and girls, and the actual effort being made in response to them (CEDAW). In most cases this is associated with implementation, or lack of implementation, of the policy, laws and constitutionally given rights of women, and to national poverty.

Unit Summary

Dear learner, in the preceding unit we hope that you have acquainted yourself with the basic tools and techniques employed to make gender issues operational in development interventions. These include gender analysis, gender planning, gender mainstreaming and gender budgeting. Gender analysis is the primary and basic step to get gender disaggregated data on gender roles, responsibilities, and opportunities. The Harvard Analytic Framework is the most popular tool in gender analysis. Gender analysis generally provides information on which gender planning is to be based so that gender issues could be duly mainstreamed into development programs and projects. Gender planning will rest on the information obtained from the analysis of gender relations that tells us who has access, who has control, who is likely to benefit from a new initiative, and who is likely to lose. Gender planning is an approach that recognizes the fact that, as they play different roles in society, women and men often have different needs. Women have particular needs that differ from those of men, not only because of their triple roles, but also because of their subordinate position in relation to men. In light of this, gender planning takes gender needs into account. There are thus key steps to follow in gender planning which facilitate ways for mainstreaming gender concerns into all development programs at all levels. Realizing the mainstreaming of gender into development programs and projects centrally depends on government commitment through budgetary measures. Gender budgeting provides a conclusive step toward integrating gender concerns in development. The solution for gender inequality is not only creating awareness about the existing gap but also designing appropriate techniques and tools that takes countries to avoid or at least narrow the gap. In this respect, the tools discussed above are so interrelated and interdependent and that the absence of one could distort the full

implementation of gender policies and commitments at national and international levels. Hence, it is so important to look at the sequence of the techniques and apply them accordingly.

Gender issues can be seen from different point of view in Ethiopia. In ancient time Ethiopia it was considered quite natural that a woman should have held supreme power. Here was a woman to whom courage and endurance were attributed, who had intellectual and spiritual interests, and was willing to endure hardship in search of knowledge (Pankhurst, 1991). On the other hand, though there have been few studies concerning women in Ethiopia, many observers have commented that Ethiopian women traditionally have suffered socio-cultural and economic discrimination and have had fewer opportunities than men for personal growth, education, and employment (Lewis). What could be observed at this time is gender disparities is high, revealing in social and traditional phenomena like women's economic dependency and lack of access to education, health service, etc.

However, since recently gender issues in Ethiopia have got attention, though not that significant. Zenebeworke and Rahel (2004) state that in recognition of the historical legacy of inequalities and discriminations suffered by women, the Ethiopian Constitution include affirmative action as a remedial measure. However, to date, the government has not devised any measures that would facilitate the equal participation of men and women in economic, social and political lives of the country.

Despite the fact that the country adopted global agreements and endorsed country-specific laws and policies, there are gaps and limitations in implementation, as a result of which the status of women in the country remained very low. It is imperative, therefore, to revisit policy implementation strategies and programs, identify problem areas and take appropriate action for improvement.

