

FORUM FOR SOCIAL STUDIES

Gender Policy Dialogue

Gender Policy Dialogue Series No. 1



GENDER AND ECONOMIC POLICY

Edited by Zenebe work Tadesso

Addis Ababa
March 2001

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Introductory Notes on Gender and Economic Policy

Gender Policy Dialogue

One of the core objectives of the Forum for Social Studies is the promotion of gender equality in Ethiopia. To date, it has implemented this commitment by including a substantive number of women in its membership, its governance structures, in all its outreach programmes and through inclusion of gender issues in its research, dialogue and publication activities. At present at least 40% of FSS members, the members of its Advisory Board as well as members of its management committee are women. Initially, the founders of FSS believed that the best way to achieve the goals of gender equality would be through mainstreaming gender in all of the organizations' activities rather than having a separate unit or programme on gender.

However, having assessed the progress made in the last three years, it was felt that it would be best to devise a two-pronged approach: intensifying efforts at mainstreaming gender in all the activities of FSS and introducing a gender policy dialogue series. Hence the programme that is being launched today is a year long bimonthly event known as the **Gender Policy Dialogue**. This initiative will respond to at least two concerns of FSS: public participation in policy making and advocating for gender justice. One of the major objectives of FSS is to promote informed public debates on development issues. In other words, FSS believes that the public should participate in all policy-making processes and that policies have to be based on and responsive to the concrete realities and needs prevailing in this country.

During the last decade, the government has issued a relatively large number of gender-friendly legislation and policies including the 'National Women's Policy'. On the other hand, some of the major macroeconomic and sectoral policies are gender 'gender neutral'. A good case in point is the Agriculture Development Led Industrialization (ADLI), the major development strategy that refers to a homogeneous smallholder that in reality often refers to male farmers and at best female-headed households. Formulated in the absence of information on area specific opportunities and challenges facing male and female farmers, the policy fails to address the numerous constraints faced by women farmers i.e. women's access to productive resources such as land credit and extension services.

The National Women's Policy' states that a major content of the policy:

"Making sure that women participate in the formulation of government policies, laws, regulations, programmes plans and projects that directly or indirectly benefits and concern women as well as in the implementation thereof;"

This policy was issued in 1993 and yet we know of no development policy that has solicited the views of women or men outside of a small circle of decision makers in the formulation of government policies or even projects. Regrettably, ten years after the

National Policy has been promulgated, the participatory method of policymaking envisioned in the policy has not been implemented.

If we glance at the most recent and presumably the most important development strategy at present, “Ethiopia: Sustainable Development and Poverty Reduction Program, gender concerns have been included in only some sectoral programs such as water resource development and education. The brief and selected inclusion of concerns voiced by the NGO community only echoes previous statements of principles i.e. "address both the strategic and practical needs of women to facilitate their access to all forms of assets and optimize their participation in political processes". However, the main body of the policy document fails to address women's needs in any substantive manner.

Given the realities indicated in the foreground, the 'Gender Policy Dialogue' is premised on the belief that the country lacks a coherent gender policy. The final outcome of the year long Gender Policy Dialogue is therefore to draft such a coherent policy that would subsequently be used as an advocacy tool. To this end, the bimonthly forum will solicit the widest possible participation of diverse stakeholders: government officials and decision makers, civil servants (both Federal and Regional), civil society organizations, the private sector, the media and members of educational institutions. While, the bimonthly dialogue will be held in Addis, two day long dialogues will be held in two Regions namely Oromia and the Southern Region to which all other regional representatives will be invited. To ensure the widest possible outreach, the proceedings of selected forums will be broadcast through the radio and all will be published in a new publication known as "Gender Policy Dialogue Series”.

The five sessions that will be held in Addis and the two-day long regional dialogue forums are the following:

- Gender and Economic Policy
- Gender and Poverty
- Gender and Social Development
- Gender, Customary and Statutory Law
- Gender and the Environment
- Gender and Governance

Gender and Economic Policy

The first session was focused on gender and economic policy where the three panelists addressed key components of economic policy. We had hoped to include a speaker on gender and macroeconomic policy but we were unable to find someone willing and capable of addressing the issue. This to me is a key indicator of the level of gender awareness in our society and the entrenched habits of locating gender as a social rather as an economic issue. The absence of a speaker on gender and the macroeconomy deprived us of insights on the gender impact of the reduction in public expenditure and the raise in interest rates. Like wise, it would have been extremely useful to know what are the gender implication of privatization and the levying of user fees for health,

education and other services in the specific case of Ethiopia in the last decade. Similarly what has been the gender outcome of perceiving women as dependents of men and men as the breadwinners in terms of citizen entitlements? These then are all concerns for future research and public consultation.

The Need for Gender Disaggregated Data

A concern of all three panelists was the lack of gender disaggregated data. In fact, the first paper is dedicated to this very topic. Entitled, “Gender in Statistically Surveys in Ethiopia”, it underscores the pivotal role of statistical data in crafting development policies and monitoring outcomes.

During the last two decades, advocates of gender justice have revealed numerous biases in the concepts used throughout the process of data collection and statistical classification as well as technical and methodological issues that influence the outcome of data collection and measurement. Data inadequacies permitted the perpetuation of misconceptions regarding women's work roles. The problem of underestimation of women's economic activity in the labor force statistics and national income accounts, is partly related to the type of work that is defined as 'economic activity'.

Until recently, it was only those activities that were directly connected to the market that were classified as 'economic activity'. Such classification not only grossly underestimated women's economic participation but that of subsistence activities as a whole. Thus the shift towards the inclusion of tasks that are not directly connected to the market has accelerated the progress towards revisions that capture women's labor force participation with greater accuracy.

In this regard, the use of modules that include household-related activities and time budget studies have contributed towards a more systematic data source on women's work. The aforementioned challenges posed by gender justice activists have clearly shown that technical and methodological issues influence the outcome of data collection and measurement. In other words, the accuracy of information on labor force data on women can be influenced by the type of questionnaire used, the sex and age of interviewer and the extent to which respondents are proxies of others. The person from whom information is sought and obtained is often the male head of household or other male members of the household.

Hence when questions related to women's work status are asked, male respondents classify women as housewives and tend to ignore reporting on women's unpaid labour contribution to agricultural activities or women's other income earning activities specially those carried out in the home. But women respondents tend to identify themselves as 'only housewives' due to their internalization of cultural perceptions of the 'appropriate' role of women. Hence very often both men and women respondents underestimate the economically productive content of women's work. To overcome such cultural assumptions that lead to respondent and enumerators bias, a number of steps need to be taken. These include careful formulation of questions and including more

probing questions, seeking female enumerators and soliciting information directly from female respondents.

The first paper provides a brief history of types of data collected by the Central Statistical Authority (CSA) highlighting recent attempts at and challenges in collecting gender disaggregated data. In this context, the recently completed and the first ever Agricultural Sample Census is a highly welcome development, as is the information that the CSA is planning to undertake a Time Use Survey in the near future. We are informed that the Agricultural Sample Census that is presently being processed covers the time spent in the household on each agricultural activity by sex. A major challenge highlighted by the first paper is the difficulty in making explicit distinctions between domestic and non-domestic work.

Social Invisibility of Female Farmers

This is likely to respond to the major concern raised by the second paper which is on 'Gender and the Agricultural sector', a paper that goes to great length to show women's contribution to Ethiopian agriculture. Through the use of sample surveys, the paper demonstrates that women are involved in crop production, animal husbandry, in other types of income generating activities and expenditure replacing activities and yet female farmers are quite often neglected in agricultural development initiatives such as research, extension packages and related services. Accordingly a major concern of the second paper is the social invisibility of rural women's work and the fact that it is given less value and meaning by the society as a whole.

Gap Between Data Availability and Policy Formulation

The availability of adequate and accurate gender-related information is thus critical but a related problem is the gap between available data and their use in policy. Such a gap between data availability and its implementation can be observed in the case of employment a subject addressed by the third paper entitled ' Gender and Employment Policies, here we observe that relative to other issues, one finds gender disaggregated statistics for major if not all aspects of employment and yet the availability of such statistics has not been used to promote gender sensitive employment policies. A case in point is the recent *Sample Survey of the Informal Sector in Regional States* that revealed the high participation rate of the female population in the sector.

Focusing on Unpaid Care Work

All three papers single out the complexities related to women's engagement in both productive and reproductive activities or what gender justice advocates have renamed as 'unpaid care work' The first paper recommends the need for expansion in the definition of economic activity so that it includes work that presently lies outside the 'production boundary'. On the hand, the second paper proposes a redefinition of what is conventionally classified as reproductive work. Finally, the third paper advocates for

recognition of unpaid care work as socially reproductive labor and for the search of new mechanisms that would make costs incurred for doing 'care work' a public responsibility.

The available time limited the time for debates and suggestions. However as this is the first of a year long dialogue, the key issues that were not addressed during this session will be handled during forthcoming panels. In the meantime, it is hoped that the reported measures in the data gathering process and the re-examination of analytical concepts as they relate to women will extend to the forthcoming census and ongoing surveys.

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Gender in National Statistical Surveys in Ethiopia

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1. Background

Policy makers and analysts in the Government who plan, formulate policy, monitor and evaluate the performance of programs and projects require statistical information. Hence, policy formulation and analysis requires large volume of statistical data /information to make informed decisions on wide-range of issues that have an impact on both rural and urban households as well as the country's economy as a whole. Countries involved in preparing and then implementing the Poverty Reduction Strategies Paper (PRSP) not only need to make a better use of existing data, but also identify where new investments are needed. Donors, governments and all participants in the process focus on the need to set appropriate targets, monitor the performance and feed this information back into the policy process.

Problems of unemployment, poverty and destitution have long been the stated concerns of development policy in most Third World Countries. However, the accuracy of national level statistics, which usually serve as the principal data input in the framing of development policies, is severely impaired by biases which lead to an undercounting of women, both as workers and as those available for work. As a result, in their very conceptualization many of the schemes instituted to help the poor are misdirected (Agarwal, 1989).

A gender-aware poverty reduction program is one that provides a thorough analysis of the multidimensional link between gender and poverty. The most practical way of handling the government commitment to gender equality is to make the collection of gender disaggregated data in all sectors as routine as the annual budget projection exercises. Appropriate plan to record and process administrative type data need to be strengthened in sectoral ministries, for example, health services should maintain gender-disaggregated data, which could be utilized by policy makers.

This paper consists of five sections. Section one presents the background and objectives of the study, while section two provides an overview of the growth of statistical data in Ethiopia and the CSA's National Integrated Survey Program. Section three discusses the existing challenges in the collection of gender disaggregated data. The fourth section reviews the socio-economic and demographic indicators of CSA. The fifth section presents future considerations in the production of gender-disaggregated data for effective economic planning and policy making.

1.1 Objectives

The general objectives of the paper are to:

1. Review the growth of statistical data in Ethiopia and the CSA's National Integrated Survey Program and its socio-economic and demographic indicators;
2. Discuss existing challenges in data collection of gender disaggregated data; and
3. Recommend future directions in the production of gender disaggregated data.

2. Growth of Statistical Data in Ethiopia and the CSA's National Integrated Survey Program

2.1 Growth of Statistical Data in Ethiopia

The growth and development of statistics could be discussed with the progress of statistical institutions that are responsible to collect, process and disseminate the relevant data. In examining the pattern of statistical growth and its sources since the initiation of compilation of statistical data on various socio-economic fields in Ethiopia, two distinctly historical periods can be identified: Prior to 1980 as "Ad-hoc surveys"; and 1980 – to date as the "National Integrated Survey Program"

Prior to 1980, the statistical services were not adequate and unsatisfactory with respect to coverage, timeliness and reliability. However, during 1974 to 1979, the availability of socioeconomic and demographic data in Ethiopia improved, but was largely out of date. Most of the statistical surveys undertaken were ad-hoc and subject to various shortcomings. There was no national statistical program to ensure a continuous flow of socioeconomic and demographic data needed in development planning, monitoring and evaluation of implemented development programs.

In order to narrow the gap in the demand for socioeconomic and demographic data and to make use of the limited resources effectively, National Integrated Survey Program NISP was initiated in 1980 by the CSO now the Central Statistical Authority (CSA) with the assistance of FAO/UNDP and UNICEF. Furthermore, since the country's economy is based mainly on agriculture, the development and improvement of food and agricultural statistics was also taken into account to establish the Rural Integrated Household Survey Program (RIHSP) in 1980 as a component of the National Integrated Survey Program (Hasen 2000).

2.2 The CSA's National Integrated Survey Program (NISP)

The CSA is the statistical arm of the Government of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia. Since its establishment in June 1960 it has been and is involved in socio-economic and demographic data collection, processing, evaluation, analysis, preparation of reports and dissemination of official statistics. This socio-economic and demographic data is generated by undertaking sample surveys, censuses, vital registration as well as through compilation of secondary data from administrative records. Considering the limited resources available in a developing country like Ethiopia, the

establishment of a National Integrated Survey Program (NISP) is of paramount importance.

NISP enables a national statistical office to run a number of annual national socioeconomic and demographic surveys using the office's available infrastructure, field staff (enumerators, supervisors, drivers, etc.). Logistics support, data processing facilities, etc. This definitely helps in the effective and efficient use of the available limited human and financial resources. Thus, in order to narrow the gap in the demand for socio-economic and demographic data and to make use of the limited resources effectively, the Authority has been running a National Integrated Survey Program starting from early 1980's

Under the umbrella of this program, the Authority plans and executes a number of national socio-economic and demographic surveys on an annual basis. The surveys included in the program are: Main Season Annual Agriculture (crop production forecast, area and crop production, land utilization, and agricultural practices); Livestock population; Belg Season Annual Agriculture; Labor Force; Child Labor; Distributive Trade and Services; Informal Sector; Retail Prices of Goods and Services; Producers' Price of Agricultural Products; Household Income, Consumption and Expenditure; Welfare/Poverty Monitoring; National Family and Fertility; Demographic and Health; Sample Vital Registration System; Health and Nutrition; Disability; Large and Medium Scale Manufacturing and Electricity Industries; Mining and Quarrying Industries; Construction Industries; Cottage/Handicrafts Industries...etc.

Moreover, the Authority has carried-out the 1984 and the 1994 nation-wide Population and Housing Censuses and disseminated the results to users. And in 2001/2002, the Authority has undertaken the first ever National Agricultural Sample Census.

2.3 Quality of Statistical Data

The concept of quality in socio-economic statistics has also developed as in other statistics. Development is towards a broader definition of quality including aspects such as accuracy, timeliness, comparability, availability...etc. (Jorner *et al*, 2001). Furthermore, Eurostat's definition of statistical data quality composes of seven dimensions (Grunewal *et al* 2001). These are relevance, accuracy, timeliness and punctuality, accessibility and clarity, comparability, coherence and completeness. Accuracy was generally defined in terms of sampling errors, total survey errors or coefficient of variations. The main measure of timeliness is the period from the reference point to data dissemination. Timeliness is perhaps the component of quality that has gained most importance by the transition from producer-oriented to user-oriented quality.

The current CSA data fulfills the various dimensions of the quality, for example, accuracy and timeliness. All CSA statistical reports produce the necessary measurements of accuracy along the estimates and the survey results are within reasonable measures of error for the major variables of the survey. With regard to the timeliness, in recent years,

the CSA produces its reports within three to four months after the data collection is completed. The other dimensions of statistical quality are comparability and availability. The CSA produces undisturbed time series agricultural statistics and large and medium scale manufacturing data with good comparability over time and space. With regard to the availability of the CSA's official statistical data, it is available to everyone via printed copies and sometimes press releases.

3. Existing Challenges in Data Collection of Gender Disaggregated Data

3.1 Efforts to Generate Better Statistics on Gender

With the inauguration of the UN Decade for Women in 1975, priority was given to disaggregating by sex, all national economic and social statistics and to making visible the full extent of women's participation in economic activities, health and education. Progress towards achieving this aim has been slow and uneven either because cost implications are too great for some countries or because there is lack of commitment on the part of National Statistical Offices to implement such changes within an acceptable time period (Evans, 1992).

The first World Conference on women in Mexico in 1975 recognized the importance of improving statistics on women. Until the early 1980's women's advocates and women's offices were the main forces behind this work. The collaboration of a Statistical Division of the United Nation Secretariat with the International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of women (INSTRAW) in 1982 laid the groundwork for a comprehensive program of work. By the time of the world Conference in Nairobi in 1985 some progress was evident (UN, 1995).

Since Nairobi numerous developments have strengthened and given new momentum to this work. The general approach in development strategy has moved from women in development to gender and development. The focus has shifted from women in isolation to men and to the role each has, the relationships between them and the different impacts of policies and programs (UN, 1995).

In statistics, the focus has likewise moved from attention to women's statistics to gender statistics. There now is a recognition, for example, that biases in statistics apply not only to women but also to men in their role in the households. That recognition reaches beyond disaggregation of data by sex to assuming statistical systems in terms of gender. The questions raised are: Do the concept and definitions used in data collection reflect the diversities of women's and men's lives in the topics investigated on statistics? Will the method used in collecting data take into account stereotypes and cultural factors that might produce bias?

Some problems identified by the First World Conference such as the measurement of women's economic contribution and the definition of the concepts of household and household head - are still unresolved. Still other areas not commonly addressed in the

regular production of official statistics have begun to be explored: the male role in the family, women in poverty and women's human rights, including violence against women.

A more in-depth approach is recommended against today's changing reality. That is, identification of the data needed to understand the disparities in the situation contributions and problems of women and men; development of new concepts and methods to yield unbiased data. Obviously, every step requires considerable effort and expertise. The integrated approach that put together today's often fragmented, specialized efforts and take a fresh look at methods and priorities, say education, employment, criminal justice...etc. all require a broader, more integrated treatment of social and economic data. More importantly, all require a special effort to improve international comparability.

3.2 Challenges in Data Collection

a. Standards

Let us start with a simple question, what do we gain from having standards for official statistics? Put simply, standards assist in maximizing the effectiveness of statistical outputs (especially in terms of utility to the users) and the efficiency of the production process. The Macquarie Dictionary gives several definitions of the word "standard", the most relevant to our context being anything taken by general consent as a basis of comparison; an approved model; and a level of quality that is regarded as normal, adequate, or acceptable.

Information on all economic and social phenomena needed for policy making and decision taking is not useful until they are distinctly defined. And this is the basic need for making standards and definitions for the collection and consumption of all statistical data. The use of a standard concept and definition can provide a clear linkage between various sectors of economic activities and between various micro and macro database coming from a number of surveys and censuses. In view of this, international statistical agencies have been requested at various forums to provide internationally agreed upon statistical standards to improve the comparability of national data.

Conventionally censuses and sample surveys generally adopt UN recommendations on the definition of economic activity. However, there is a great deal of controversy surrounding the measurement of economic activity from these sources especially to the diverse economic participation of women.

In order to respond to the labor force potential of women, policy makers need to know what kind of activities women are carrying out in the market and in households. How women's work in the market interacts with their work outside it and the factors influencing women's enhancement into formal markets. To obtain this information, policy-makers use population census or labor force surveys data.

b. Conceptual Categories

One important reason why present statistics, even when disaggregated can give a distorted social and economic picture is the choice of conceptual categories used in data collection. The value of an economic activity that excludes the contributions made by the informal economy has an effect on undercounting and undervaluing the contribution of both women and men in the Third World and industrialized countries, but the effect is altogether greater for women.

The standard concept of economic activity refers to participation in a *productive activity*. Economists and planners rarely consider work associated with the household and own-consumption to be productive activities. This directly affects the recording of many aspects of women's work. Hence, a *productive activity* in standard concept of economic activity that refers to participation of women distorts the social and economic picture.

Most censuses today use a labor force approach to define *economically active population* as "all persons (in CSA age 10 years and above) of either sex who furnish the supply of labor for the production of economic goods and services" during a given reference period. In this definition, economic goods and services means those presumed to contribute to economic growth. *Active labor* is thus measured in terms of its links with market activity. As a result, the way a census was conducted clearly did not capture the full extent of women's economic activity. Thus, a significant amount of productive work is not enumerated in developing countries because a large proportion of the population is only loosely or informally linked to the market.

c. Measurement Techniques

The 1993 revision of the System of National Account (SNA) recommends for the first time that all production of goods in households for their own consumption be involved in the measurement of economic output – but it continues to exclude own – account production of services, including child care, elderly care, cooking and cleaning. As a result, national income accounting methodologies have been severely criticized for excluding production that is not traded on the formal market. This is particularly significant for the Third World Countries where both volume and value of production for own consumption and for informal exchange is still substantial. This directly affects the recording of many aspects of women's work. However, information on time spent in unpaid work is crucial for development planners to know if they are to succeed with projects and programs that make specific demands on "available labor time".

Furthermore, a number of difficulties arise when trying to measure household production for own-consumption. *First*, a decision must be made as to what should be or should not be counted. *Second*, because households work tends to merge imperceptibly with the process of living, to redefine the concept of productive activity, one must have a systematic observation of the *time spent* on households activities.

Quantitative data on per capita income does not inform policy-makers about the control of use of that income, as data on total household income, does not adequately testify to individual well-being. Most conventional statistics focus on personal and household income derived from employment; self-employment, property and transfers from state or other individuals. Hence, it is very difficult to measure women's income separately from men's or from the total household's income.

Women spend a great deal of time in expenditure replacing activities (home production), which involve the production of goods and services mainly for consumption by household members. By monitoring women's expenditure pattern it should be possible to determine the extent to which data on women's income accurately reflect their full contribution to the welfare of their households and families. Yet measurements of home production are complicated and difficult to compare cross-culturally. Hence, it is unlikely that much progress will be made in the short-to medium-term in incorporating the value of home production and the contributions of women and children into national income estimates.

Analysts argue that the changes in household structure and composition need to be considered in order to understand the relative position of women and men within households. This depends on whether the household is viewed primarily as a kinship unit, a residential unit or economic unit. To provide information needed for such analysis data has to be disaggregated by sex and should have the following categories:

- Organization of household authority - female or male head households;
- Type of marital union – polygamous or monogamous; and
- Household composition - nuclear, joint, extended... etc.

Furthermore, the UN Secretariat with INSTRAW, which is concerned with research on women, suggested that surveys and possibly censuses should distinguish female-headed households at least in the following manners:

- Female headship by household composition - that is due to the absence of an adult male;
- Female headship by economic responsibility - that is household in which a woman is the sole or main economic provider regardless of whether a man is or is not present. However, the process of data collection with these aspects is more time consuming.

4. Socio-economic and Demographic Indicators of CSA

In its socio-economic and demographic surveys, CSA utilizes a standard household definition for all its censuses and surveys. The household unit is central to collection of data on economic activity, income and expenditure as well as social questions such as education, fertility and migration. Socio-economic indicators that measure disparities and inequalities between women and men in relatively conventional conceptual areas are indicators such as education, health and employment. In the CSA, data on education is

collected in its various surveys and census such as Welfare Monitoring, Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) and Population and Housing Censuses. However, there is limited information on the *flow of education* i.e. attendance, transition and retention rates, continuation data specialization and non-formal education.

On the other hand, household expenditure disaggregated by sex on education and health is not available at the CSA since it requires a special survey which is designed to collect those indicators. Hence, the existing data obtained from Household Income, Consumption and Expenditure Surveys can only provide average per capita expenditure. However, this data could be disaggregated by type of headship i.e. female and male headed households.

Agriculture is the main source of livelihood for most households in Ethiopia especially for women. Obviously, the annual agricultural sample surveys of the CSA usually focus on production, area under crop, land-use... etc, overlooking human resource and the role of household members in the agricultural holdings. Measuring women's and men's agricultural work is a critical area of gender statistics. What proportion of rural women may count as "workers"? Generally, in Third World Countries much of women's agricultural work is in subsistence crops rather than cash crops. As in the formal sector economy, women and men in agriculture have different participation rates and different activities. However, the CSA in its first Agricultural Sample Census, the time spent in the household on each agricultural activity by sex of holders was addressed. This is believed to shed some light on women's contribution to Ethiopian Agriculture.

Among those sample surveys mentioned above in section II, one can obtain various types of variables that are already disaggregated/could be disaggregated for further analysis/by gender from both household surveys/censuses/and establishment surveys as shown in Annex I.

5. Future Consideration

Gender disaggregating is important in its own right, since it highlights gender differences in benefit incidence, which is of policy concern. These gender differences are also important in understanding other matters of policy concern. For example, Government spending on primary education is likely to generate more income for women than spending on universities, for the simple reason that there are relatively more women primary school teachers than women university teachers. The following issues need to be addressed in future.

1. Time use and time allocation surveys offer one way of collecting more detailed and more accurate data on women's work. They can be used to measure the flow of labor between productive work, household chores and leisure on a daily, weekly or even seasonal basis. In particular, time use surveys: identify primary, secondary and tertiary occupations; include productive activities on the borderline between economic and non-economic categories; and permit analysis of gender and age

specialization and trade-offs within the household unit. However, there are a number of methodological difficulties involved in conducting a time-use survey.

Time use accounts and household production accounts are two approaches that allow the detail needed for better income and production estimated to be made on an individual basis. They also have the advantage of being linked to national accounts through measurement and distribution of labor inputs and outputs of goods and services. Furthermore, some analytical progress towards improving data on income has come about through the application of sophisticated household models, which attempt to value time spent in household production by imputing a market value to it.

2. It is argued that one of the first steps needed to improve the measurement of women's economic participation is to expand the definition of economic activity so that it includes work that presently lies outside the "production boundary".
3. Unless otherwise, the definition or the concept of income is expanded, it is not possible to obtain a real sense of women's economic contribution using a conventional concept of household income. Thus, one has to consider definitional changes in census or surveys which may reduce comparability of data with previously collected national or international data.
4. INSTRAW has made a number of recommendations that income data should include: individual income in cash or in kind received from all forms of employment; the monetary value or income equivalent of economic activities women perform for the household free of charge, which would have to be paid for under other circumstances. It is also recommended that a corrective measure in the data collection process could be overcome by re-examining analytical concepts that relate to women.
5. Even though the Central Statistical Authority has a strong belief that any survey or census should be demand driven, (i.e. the scope and coverage of the study should fulfill the interest of the stakeholders) it should be noted that these stakeholders include gender analysts in the future. Hence, data users, producers and other stakeholders need to establish a forum where they could discuss and set priorities to fill the existing data gaps by determining appropriate types of variables that would link gender and poverty indicators.

The objective should always be to produce timely statistics on women and men that can inform policy, refine strategy and influence practices. Furthermore, capacity needs to be built in order to provide truly effective monitoring at all levels. This requires continuous and reinforcing dialogue between statisticians and the consumers of statistics.

- Build the necessary capacity for taking all the advantage of emerging information and communication technologies.
- Instituting quality control of information not only at the stage of collection, but also at the stage of the data processing and dissemination.
- Efforts should be made to develop a network system among the major users of the data.

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Annex I

Available Gender Disaggregated Data in Ethiopia

1. Household Surveys/Censuses

1.1 Household Income Consumption and Expenditure Survey

- a. Headship Rates and household size,
- b. Calorie intake could be computed for female-headed households,
- c. Expenditure levels and source of payment/expenditure could be obtained by headship of households,
- d. Level and pattern of household expenditure could be disaggregated by headship of households,
- e. Saving status of household could also be computed for female-headed households.

1.2 Welfare Monitoring Surveys

a. *Education and related indicators*

- Literacy rates by sex and expenditure quintile,
- Educational attainment by sex and expenditure quintile,
- School enrollment rates (both gross and net) by sex and expenditure quintile,
- School dropout rate by sex and expenditure quintile,
- Reasons for dropout by sex and expenditure quintile,
- Type of school attended, and utilization of schools by sex and expenditure quintile

b. *Health and Related indicators*

- Prevalence of illness by sex and expenditure quintile,
- Health consultation by sex and expenditure quintile,
- Type of health institution visited by sex and expenditure quintile,
- Reason for preferring the type of health institutions visited by sex and expenditure quintile,
- Child immunization and prevalence of Diarrhea/ fever by sex and expenditure quintile,

c. *Data on Nutritional Status of Children*

- Weight-for-height (Wasting) by sex and expenditure quintile,
- Weight-for-age (Under Weight) by sex and expenditure quintile,
- Height-for-age (stunting) by sex and expenditure quintile,

d. *Possession of Household Assets*

- Ownership of land, dwellings and other buildings by headship of household and expenditure quintile,

- Other household assets by headship of household and expenditure quintile,

e. Housing, Status of Housing Facilities and Tenure

- Source of drinking water by expenditure quintile,
- Source of energy for lighting by expenditure quintile,
- Tenancy status could be further analyzed by headship and expenditure quintile,
- Quality of Dwelling Houses could be further analyzed by headship and expenditure quintile,

f. Accessibility of Some Basic Services/Facilities

- Proximity to Selected Basic Services (such as Primary school, Health facilities, Drinking water, Grain mill and fire wood) could be further analyzed by headship and expenditure quintile,

1.3 Demographic and Health Survey 2000

- Fertility
- Infant and Child Mortality
- Adult and Maternal Mortality
- Maternal and Child Health

1.4 The 1994 Population and Housing Census

- Educational Characteristics disaggregated by sex and place of residence
- Economic activity disaggregated by sex and place of residence
 - Economically active and inactive population,
 - Reason for not being economically inactive,
 - Type of activity
 - Unemployment

1.5 The 2001/2002 Agricultural Sample Census

- The number of agricultural holders in the private peasant holdings that have benefited from extension packages, and agricultural Credit disaggregated by sex.
- Time spent in the household on each of the following activities by sex of holders. These are:
 - Tilling,
 - Sowing,
 - Weeding,
 - Harvesting,
 - Feeding/ Treating
 - Milking,
 - Marketing of agricultural products
- Status of employment by sex of holders.

- d) Type of agricultural practices by sex of agricultural holders.

1.6 The 1999 National Labor Force Survey (NLFS)

- a. Migration status disaggregated by age and sex,
- b. Economic activity status disaggregated by age and sex,
- c. Occupational distribution disaggregated by age and sex,
- d. Employment status disaggregated by age and sex,
- e. Unemployment and its rate disaggregated by age and sex.

1.7 Survey on Informal Sector

- a. Informal sector operators by type of industry are disaggregated by sex,
- b. Informal sector operators by type of training and major reasons for choosing the activity are disaggregated by sex,
- c. Informal sector operators by type of occupation and average hours worked per week are disaggregated by sex.

i. Establishment Surveys

- 2.1 Medium and Large Scale Manufacturing Industry Survey (Annual).
- 2.2 Small Scale Manufacturing Industry Survey.
- 2.3 Cottage and Handicraft manufacturing industry survey.

Note:- Generally, the major types of data that are disaggregated by sex from these establishment surveys are: Number of owners, number of persons engaged, number of employees, number of production workers, and number of administrative and office workers.

Gender and Economic Development: Gender and the Agricultural Economic Sector

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1. Introduction

Poor living conditions and food insecurity have been major concerns of Ethiopia. Low agricultural production, population pressures, drought and lack of improved technologies coupled with cultural gender barriers to agricultural production and low human production capacities are some of the problems that have worsened food insecurity and the poor economic situation of the country as a whole. The problem is even worse among the vulnerable groups like women and children in the society and leaves women in particular to be the poorest of the poor (WI/E, 2000).

This paper therefore, mainly focuses on gender and agricultural related issues and the objectives are to:

- Review agricultural policies and strategies and extension programs in relation to gender,
- Understand gender roles in the Ethiopian rural household and agricultural production sectors,
- Identify challenges to engendering agricultural development, and
- Integrate gender concerns into agricultural development policy framework and economic development.

2. Background: Brief Review on Gender and Agriculture Development Related Policies and Strategies

Ethiopia has taken various initiatives to meet economic developmental challenges and has formulated different policies and strategies, among these are the “Rural Development Policies and Strategies: like Agriculture Development Led Industrialization (ADLI)” and Ethiopian Women, and Population Policies and the Poverty Reduction Strategy This text however, mainly focuses on agricultural related policies and strategies.

The agricultural economic sector contributes 50 percent to the Gross National Product, 90 percent of foreign export earnings and employs 85 percent of the population. It is on this base that ADLI is taken as a major economic development policy and the farmer as the key actor in agricultural development. This is expected to ensure rapid development together with high commitment of both the people and the government in implementing it. Furthermore, according to the Rural Development Policies, Strategies and Instruments (RDPSI) of the country, the people particularly the poor would be the beneficiaries of this economic development as there could not be peace and security without their involvement (MoFPG, 2001; MoA, 2001) For the poor to participate and benefit from development, people’s production capacity should be increased through

improving their skill, health (like sufficient maternal and child care, maternity etc.), nutritional status, home sanitation, and self-initiation to use their labor and improve their living standard in general.

Thus, in order to understand the integration of the poor and gender aspects in particular in agricultural development, it is important to review some of the relevant ADLI/agricultural development policy instruments and/or approaches stated in the RDPSI and agricultural extension system:

- Extensive utilization human labor – is aimed at motivating the human labor in agriculture through agricultural education and training so that they will be able to use modern agricultural technology and techniques; while at the same time promoting the ethics of hardwork among farmers particularly the youth. Eradicating harmful customs and traditions in the work culture and improving the standard of living of the farmer. These are the priority strategies of the policy and they are expected to enhance production capacity of farmers,
- Improving agricultural skills of the farmer through extension services based on demonstration fields, linkage of extension and research, and promoting technology packages that fit the small farmer,
- Improve the generation, multiplication and dissemination of technology,
- Proper use of agricultural land – ensure access to agricultural land for anyone who wants to base his/her life in agriculture,
- Use of indigenous knowledge – use of the existing human power, technology and farmers’ experiences,
- Train agricultural professionals at different levels, researchers, extension agents, veterinarians, cooperative professionals and literate farmers,
- Use of cheap human labor in the provision and expansion of potable water institutions (focus on digging shallow ponds, cleaning spring water etc.) which should be built as near as possible to residences, where it is easily transported and assists to reduce women’s workload,
- Strengthen women’s participation in rural development – is intended not only to ensure the rights and benefits of the women who are half of the society, but also that the rural development capacity will be reduced by half, if half of the development capacity is not in use,
- Create conditions for women to participate in production and development activities – through taking measures to minimize household activities, encourage men to participate in at least some household activities, improving supply of fire wood, and expanding of mills. Likewise, create favorable conditions for women to participate in vocational training (particularly in non-agriculture training) and enable them to use the training on the agriculture sector, and provision of credit,
- Promoting the Participatory Demonstration and Training Extension System (PADETES) – the present agricultural extension system in Ethiopia is also based on ADLI and aims at increasing agricultural production and productivity through the full participation of the farmers as the name of the extension system implies. This in return is expected to increase the income of the small farm household and improve the rural economy as a whole. The extension service is mainly delivered in

the form of packages (provision of fertilizers, improved seeds and advice on better techniques of farming/training) and focuses more on increasing crop production.

- Issuing a National Food Security Strategy – is important and sound steps should be taken to reduce poverty in the country. The strategy gives priority to agrarian development and increase of crop production to improve the lives of the rural poor. It focuses on the small farm holders' economic sector, the diffusion of improved technologies including improved seeds and fertilizer, as well as the promotion of a farm credit system. There is now increased awareness and change of attitudes about the importance of the rehabilitation of natural resources. These strategies would directly or indirectly benefit the rural poor. On the other hand, women's role in the food cycle (production to consumption) was not adequately considered in the Strategy paper.

As noted earlier, agricultural development is viewed as the center of the country's economic development and the engine of growth. The key actor in this development process is the "Farmer", while the means of productions are family labor and the plot of land. On these bases all policies and strategies set, technological packages presented, favor the small farm household. Similarly the various policy strategy approaches devised in order to develop the agricultural sector, particularly the priority focus put on improving the human capital and productivity and encouraging the full participation of women and the youth in rural development activities, are positive initiatives taken by the Government.

However, in a traditional society like Ethiopia, where a farmer is considered to be the male/household head and as the person who ploughs and broadcast seeds, females in the small farm household are quite often left out in the transfer of improved agricultural technologies. They are not informed on improved agricultural technologies and lack other skills (EARO, 2000). This vital issue does not seem to have been dealt well in the policy, because it does not specify who the farmer is and/or recognize the myriad roles of women farmers' who are key actors in food and production of the labour force but lack access to gender sensitive extension services.

Likewise, the strategy seems to depend heavily on achieving agricultural development through field production and practices. Its approach to rural development has failed to take the agricultural development beyond the field level and complete the cycle/chain of production and consumption. The strategy fails to include indicators to monitor how these agricultural products are managed and utilized at the household level. As a result household activities are mainly the responsibilities of women, their needs are not going to be fully addressed nor will they be able to increase their production and productivity in those activities as well as benefit the development of the rural economy.

Furthermore, the strategy does not address gender issues sufficiently as indicated by the absence of clear objectives and an integrated approach that addresses the cultural barriers related to gender and agricultural development. Such a limitation will have an adverse effect on women farmers in acquiring productive inputs and access to other economic resources, despite their key role in the nation's economic development. Studies

on gender roles in agriculture and the rural household sectors and gender challenges to economic development are dealt with further in the next sections of this paper.

3. Gender Roles in the Ethiopian Rural Household and Agricultural Production

Different roles and responsibilities that men and women carry are mostly socially ascribed and based on taboos, biological and religious influences. Studies from industrially developed societies indicate that both the capitalist mode of production and the patriarchal nature of the labor market create circumstances, which lead to a gender based division of labor in the family, in which women remain responsible mainly for the non wage earning socio-economic production at home (Oakly 1980; Brown 1987; Sokoloff 1987). The situation in the Ethiopian household is not very different from that of others, although the rigidity of the gender based division of labour among family members and the amount of housework and farm tasks shared by men and women might vary among nationalities, religious groups and farming systems.

Since both men and women farmers are involved in the agricultural and household production sectors, it is important to have a conceptual understanding of the household production sector. The “Household” as a unit of consumption is commonly assumed as a single decision-making unit, whereas it is a collective of differential power relations, role perceptions, capabilities and entitlements (Banerji and Sen, 2000). Other scholars consider it as a ‘small factory’, which combines knowledge/skill, capital goods, raw materials and labor, to clean, feed, procreate, produce agricultural products and other useful commodities (Wudnesh, 1991).

Household work is therefore, involved in the production of goods and services to satisfy family needs and desires. In order to understand the role of men and women in subsistence production and household activities in Ethiopia, some sample surveys of labour and time inputs of husbands and wives in crop and livestock production as well as household activities were carried out. These studies were conducted in 1997 and 1998 in three regions of Ethiopia – Amhara, Southern nations, Nationalities and Peoples Regional State (SNNPRS) and Tigray. During the survey the following agricultural tasks were included in the data collection.

Crop Production Tasks

- Seed cleaning
- Gulgalo/land preparation
- Sowing/planting
- Weeding and applying manure
- Hoeing
- Scaring birds
- Harvesting
- Preparation of threshing ground (includes provision of dung, water and smearing the ground)
- Collection and pilling
- Winnowing
- Transporting/storing
- Food preparation for labor assistants the field (the extra time and labor women spend in preparing food for people assisting in the field for crop production during the peak agricultural season should be considered as part of farming tasks)
- Crop storage container making and care of stored seeds

Livestock Production Tasks

- Grass cutting or hay processing
- Herding and trekking animals to drinking water sources and vaccination centers
- Provision of water and caring for sick or other animals staying at home
- Barn cleaning
- Milking and milk processing, and
- Animal Health Care.

Table 1: Percent of Labor and Time Inputs of Male and Female Farmers (Spouses) in Crop and Livestock Production in the Sample Surveyed Areas of three Regions in Ethiopia (1997 and 1998)

Agricultural Activities	Amhara				Tigray				Southern	
	N. Wollo		W. Hemra		Eastern		Southern		N. Omo	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Crop Production	50	50	50	50	42	58	53	47	66	34**
Livestock Production	48	52	55	45	23*	52	-	-	33	77

Source: EARO/2000

* Children or hired labor are usually responsible for herding.

** Enset is the main crop of the surveyed sample areas in North Omo and about 60 percent of the activities are carried out by women.

As shown in Table 1 female farmers provide more than half (50-58 percent) of the total labor and time inputs required for crop production in the surveyed areas. Similarly, they cover up to 77 percent of the labor and time inputs required in livestock production.

Likewise, female farmers are not only involved in crop and livestock production, but also in generating additional income for their families. They produce goods such as storage containers, baskets for cleaning food, and mats for drying grains both for household use and sale. They are engaged in brewing beverages and in petty trading of agricultural produce.

Furthermore, female farmers play key roles in maintaining the daily life of their families and maintaining the social cohesion of families.

Sample surveys of husband's and wife's role in maintaining the daily life of their families were surveyed in South Gonder, North and South Wollo and Wag hamra of the Amhara Region; North Omo of SNNPRS and in eastern Tigray (Table 2).

Table 2: Percent of Male and Female Farmers Roles Played in Maintaining the Daily Living of their Families’ in the Sample Surveyed Areas of the Three Regions

Description	Amhara		SNNPRS		Tigray		Average	
	Husband	Wife	Husband	Wife	Husband	Wife	Husband	Wife
Labor and time inputs	39	61	28	72	31	69	33	67
Estimated monetary value	42	58	44	56	40	60	42	58

Source: EARO/2000

Rural family daily living maintenance = housework + crop production + Livestock raising + off-farm activities + social obligations (labor assistance in special occasions, ikub, edir activities, etc).

As shown in Table 2, 33 and 67 percent of the overall total labor and time inputs to housework, farm production income generation and off farm activities, etc. required in maintaining the daily lives of small farm families are covered by husbands and wives, respectively. When respondents estimate this in terms of percent of contribution in monetary value husbands’ and wives’ averaged 42 and 58, respectively.

As indicated in these and other sample surveys, Ethiopian women farmers are the key actors in maintaining the daily lives of their families and in contributing to the rural economic development as a whole. It is hoped that this information will create a better understanding in the gender policy dialogue. It is also to raise questions as to whether ADLI has sufficiently addressed gender disparities that exist in access and control of the vital means of production and in recognizing the economic contribution of female farmers to agricultural development.

4. Challenges to Engendering Agricultural Development

Gender gaps in Agricultural Development

It has been over three decades since women’s issues – and more recently gender issues have gained recognition on development policy-making platforms of the world. Many gender issues have received government and public attention, where various attempts have been made by different governments to improve these development issues. However, a World Bank Study (2001) report on “Engendering Development” indicated that, despite the greater prominence of gender issues in the development debate, the importance of bringing a gender perspective to policy analysis and design is still not widely recognized. Moreover, women’s household work remains uncounted for and not yet valued. Therefore, their economic contribution to development still remains invisible in national statistics. It is noted also that women in many countries do not enjoy equal rights with men. Women still lack independent rights to own land, manage property or conduct business.

Similarly, rural development initiatives taken by the Ethiopian government such as ADLI, Food Security Strategy and PADETS are expected to favorably address gender issues. Although these initiatives might have created awareness, they have not yet brought the expected outcome in agriculture, rural development and in improving the socio-economic status of women. Various studies indicate the existence of gender disparities in access and control of vital means of production and in increasing women's economic production and productivity in the agricultural sector (WI/E, 2001 and 2000; EARO, 2000; UNDP/ECA, 1997; 1998). It is found that:

- Female farmers are quite often neglected in agricultural development initiatives, such as research, development of extension packages and services. For instance, the multiple roles of female farmers in doing research in identifying their priority problems and developing extension systems that are appropriate to the life cycle of the farm family are not acknowledged. So very little efforts have been made to address and reduce the heavy burden of work that female farmers face both at home and on the farm,
- Female farmers' agricultural activities are not considered as priorities that require improved technologies to enhance women's production and productivity,
- Inadequate effort has been invested in addressing the cultural/gender barriers to agriculture production and food management (example taboos against women's ox ploughing/sowing) and lack of alternative technologies that assist them to perform such tasks. As a result even those women farmers who have the access to land, lease their plot of land to men, because of lack of supportive services (oxen, credit services, labor and alternative technology, taboos of "female" ox-ploughing etc). Therefore, they are quite often disadvantaged in getting their share of produce from their land
- There is a lack of properly documented gender disaggregated data in the agricultural sector which indicates the roles and economic contribution of the small farm household,
- Often more emphasis is given to on farm level production while failing to acknowledge the fact that rural households also produce goods and services using farm products as raw materials. This sector equally needs developmental attention, because the household is the basis of the economy though it is the individuals who participate in economic activity.

The household plays a crucial role in consumption as much as in production and serves as the key link in the circular flow of the economy. Hence, it is necessary to realize that the household and the farm are closely integrated phenomena in a subsistence economy. In this respect we need to acknowledge much more clearly and equally the role of men, women and children in our farming system.

Challenges and Issues of Concern in Engendering Agricultural Development:

Based on the reviews made and experiences shared in gender and agricultural development, I would like to draw three major and interrelated challenges in engendering agriculture and more broadly in economic development. First despite the significant role of female farmers in agricultural production, food processing and management,

marketing, promoting indigenous technologies, and generating supplementary income for their families, these activities are by and large considered as secondary roles in the agricultural sector. The society as a whole has been unfair when it comes to the low perception and lack of recognition of women in small farm household sectors as “Farmers”. The outcomes of undermining their roles and the basic tenant of the perception that female farmers are merely homemakers results in the marginalization of female farmers in the agricultural development activities stated earlier. Hence, it is important to note that the incongruence between women’s contribution on the one hand and the lack of recognition and support on the other continues to undermine agricultural development and to marginalize women in all spheres of development.

The second challenge is basically the issues of women’s socio-economic status and economic contribution, which are mostly interrelated with the stereotyped problems of the housework. Female household labor is commonly characterized as unproductive, marginal, intermittent, and dispensable, less valuable, less skilled and less physically demanding. Therefore, women’s work is seen as a marginal contribution to the national economy (Wudnesh, 1991). These views are also related to women’s biological roles of childbearing and rearing, which have contributed towards their lower status. Likewise, others have observed that women’s family labor is often viewed as an essential part of the obligations of the wife, mother and daughter, which is noted as women’s social roles rather than real work referred to as paid work. (Ostergaard, 1992).

Recently however, the value of unpaid women’s labor has become a major issue of concern in many societies. There is also increased awareness that the housework plays a crucial role in consumption as much as in production and serves as the key link in the circular flow of the economy both in money and real terms (Banerji and Sen, 2000). However, it is only in a handful of countries that some effort to allocate economic value to housework and to making it visible in national statistics has been made. As a result investment on women’s production and productivity increase in the household sector has not received priority attention by development planners, researchers and technology innovators. It is only when this sector is considered as economically viable and one that commands a market value that the government is likely to diverse policy measures that would engender development.

Thirdly, the major root cause of gender disparities, besides cultural barriers observed particularly in undermining women’s economic contribution to the agricultural sector and development as a whole is the classification of work in the small farm household as ‘productive’ and ‘reproductive’ activities. Productive activities are commonly understood as activities, which have market exchange or monetary value whereas activities under reproductive have use-value and are non-market, which do not have monetary value and hence considered as non-economic. Under such a classification, the on-farm/agricultural activities fall under the productive activity; while the housework activities like fetching water and firewood, food processing and preparation, childbearing and rearing and care of the sick and disabled, herding and care of animals are reproductive or non-economic activities. Culturally male farmers play fewer roles in the reproductive activities, whereas females carry the major responsibilities. This does not

only discredit women's socio-economic contributions to the society's well being and development, but it also promotes gender disparities and affects women's social status and makes them economically dependent on their husbands.

One could argue that this type of labor value classification is unfair and out dated, because any activity that can be delegated to a second person, can be bought, or delivered as services either through the market, exchange opportunity cost or other means. For instance, a female farmer can buy firewood from the market, hire labor to fetch or do it herself to save money. So almost all housework activities nowadays including childbearing (surrogate mothers are making money for childbearing for others) do have market exchange or monetary value, even though the person who performs the task might not be paid for the services rendered. Activities that could be classified under reproductive are those tasks that have to be carried only by an individual himself/herself like personal care, studying, and eating, etc. (Wudnesh, 1991).

Thus, as it is noted by (Banerji and Sen, 2000) redefining the concept to include economic aspects of use value as well as exchange value will ensure an economic dimension to work in the household or any work of similar nature and increase the value of women's productive economic contribution.

5. Integrating Gender Concerns in Agricultural Development Policy and Economic Development

Generally the problem associated with engendering development is that the concept of gender is the most misunderstood development variable partly because of its late entry into development, but also because of the cultural environment in which it is situated. To many, gender is about women and has minimal relevance to development. This is not however what gender is all about. It is about men and women and how they relate to each other in terms of roles, responsibilities, obligations and entitlements. Therefore it is linked to development, for development entails use of resources and subsequent utilization of development benefits.

Formulating agricultural development policies alone without clearly targeting, budgeting and monitoring the implementation process and evaluating the outcome in light of the stated objectives cannot ensure bringing about the envisaged rural economic development. It is to be appreciated that the ADLI policy targets the poor small farm household, where women farmers would be among the beneficiaries of the policy adapted. On the other hand these initiatives could only effectively achieve their goals, if the various gaps identified earlier in the ADLI policy strategy are reviewed and improved to reduce gender disparities so that meaningful rural development is attained. In order to promote gender equity and development effectiveness in the agricultural sector, the following major gender concerns are suggested for active policy actions and interventions:

Gender issues in agriculture:

Development activities affect men and women differently. Therefore, gender specific interventions are often needed to make sure that both men and women benefit equally from the efforts to increase growth in the agricultural sector.

Access to agricultural extension services and information – The existing extension policy does not give preferential treatment to rural women. Women often compete with their male-counterparts for scarce resources. In communities where women are still not regarded as real farmers, lack of services limits the ability of women farmers to increase their production and productivity in the agriculture sector.

Furthermore, experiences in the extension system in Ethiopia reveal that generally household heads/men are targeted in extension service delivery and assumed that they will transfer the information received to their spouses. In reality, transfer of information rarely takes place; women's access to improved agricultural technologies is hampered. They are not only by passed from getting proper extension services, but also there are stereotyped perceptions among those delivering the services regarding women farmers. Some of these stereotypes are:

- Women do not make such significant contributions to agriculture as long as their husband participate
- Women are always tied up with household chores and children
- Women are shy and difficult to reach
- Women are unresponsive to calls for public gathering
- women are unprogressive in dealing with innovations
- Denial of the existence of "Female farmer and male farmer", hence the need for gender specific intervention in extension work or agricultural development in general as long as the household head participates.

Such perceptions or stereotypes result from cultural biases and the lack of understanding of women's triple roles and gender specific needs. For the best results of extension services in this case, male and female professionals and decision makers in agricultural, extension agents need gender awareness training and gender sensitive development approaches

Measures therefore, have to be taken and be made sensitive to make sure that agricultural extension programs directly target women and address their needs. Gender based appropriate mechanisms and approaches of delivering extension services need to be clearly defined and adapted.

In this regard Winrok International/Ethiopia has for instance managed to give emphasis to women farmers' problems through its gender focused food security project. In four target Weredas, the proportion of women participating in various agricultural development technologies and activates has reached over 65% from a mere figure of less than 10% in four years since the project was initiated.

Women have been empowered through participation in various income generation activities. WI has addressed over 3,000 women farmers' households and they benefited from various credit schemes such as vegetable production, poultry, bee keeping, sheep production, irrigation, fishery etc. Rural women have had high repayment rates. As a sustainable mechanism for ensuring their success, 12 saving and credit-based women's associations have been established voluntarily.

WI has given women farmers and extension agents several ONFARM technologies and gender awareness training activities. Results have been very encouraging, and the replication effect has been enormous. A significant number of rural women have become role models, thus training and changing other women farmers.

WI has been the only organization that has given higher-level (certificate to Ph.D.) training opportunities exclusively for women. In so doing, it has addressed women professionals who were denied of the chance for higher-level training. So far, WI has provided training opportunities locally and abroad for about 130 women professionals.

- **Appropriate technology** - Recent studies conducted by Winrock International/Ethiopia on Appropriate technologies Development to Increase Women's Production and Productivity in Ethiopia (2001), shows that women farmers still perform all the housework and farm tasks using age -old rudimentary techniques. This is because technology centers and research institutions engaged in the production of some technologies for women are not based on the specific needs of women. Technology developers should therefore, involve women farmers from the outset to ensure their participation in choice of technologies and to make technologies responsive to women's specific needs and constraints. Thus, women farmers as special clientele of appropriate technologies should be explicitly specified in policy statements of rural technologies centers, research institutions and government and non-government agencies. However, programs engaged in the provision of improved or new technologies should ensure that it will not have an adverse impact on women.
- Men's and women's roles in farming and household work can be better understood with quantitative and qualitative information in activities, access and control of resource and roles in decision-making. This however lacks in the agricultural policy framework. Therefore, it should be revisited to give due attention in adapting built-in mechanisms of providing gender disaggregated data in all agricultural sectors. Likewise special steps need to also be taken to establish built-in monitoring and evaluating systems and develop impact indicators in order to monitor the gender responsive agricultural development.
- Gender issues and disparities could only be addressed or narrowed through engendering the agricultural sector budget and when there are measures that ensure accountability of effective implementation of the program.

6. Conclusions

In conclusion various studies on gender and development highlighted that 'gender disparities' hamper development and these disparities generally disadvantaged women (World Bank 2001; Chao 1999). Therefore, engendering development has to be part of any sustainable development strategy. On the other hand, changing socially deep-rooted roles and attitudes are long processes and require clear policy directives and commitment of all actors involved in development processes and the agricultural sector in particular. In line with these, the ADLI policy and strategy needs to revisit its approaches in order to have clear mechanisms in the major gender and agricultural development components noted earlier and these include:

- Recognition of women farmers' economic contributions to the agricultural sector which is basic in improving women's socio-economic status and increasing their production and productivity. This needs research priority attention in developing their production and productivity. This needs research priority attention in developing mechanisms to redefine and identify women's reproductive and economic roles. It is possible to allocate value to these activities following a time budget survey of small farm households and classifying the labour time spent on personal (classified under reproductive roles), family (include all housework activities) and activities (on -farm and/or wage earning activities). According to such an approach, if time spent on housework together with on-farm and/or wage value is all considered as economic activities, they would be allocated exchange value.
- To date, efforts to increase production is mainly focused on field crops and lacks a view of the complete chain of the production process that goes on beyond the field to promote efficient and effective utilization of the agricultural food products at the household level. It has been already observed that such an approach cannot bring the envisaged rapid agricultural and rural development as a whole. Unless effective and efficient management of the available resources complements the increased food production, food insecurity at the household level will continue to be a major challenge to agricultural development. Therefore, measures have to be taken in developing appropriate post harvest and food processing technologies as well as promotion of storage facilities that can be used at the household level.

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Gender Policy in Relation to Employment i.e Public and Private Sector, Formal and Informal*

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1. Introduction

To avoid the common confusion between gender and women, this paper will start by defining gender. What it means according to a gender policy and its reflections on both sexes in the world. It will also explore employment in relation to gender and discuss employment in agriculture, construction, trade and tourism, manufacturing, private/public sector, etc in Ethiopia.

It will also try to see what the existing Gender Policies, Laws, rules and regulations are in Ethiopia. Do we require a gender policy? Why? What are the laws, rules, regulations, programs and plans required to enforce the policy framework. What type of implementation, monitoring, feed back and corrective measures need to be taken into account to make the policy effective and consistent with the desired outcome.

The writing of the paper was rendered difficult due to the absence of gender disaggregated data on employment, education, entrepreneurship, self-employment, wages, etc. The availability of timely and gender disaggregated data itself is an issue which requires gender sensitive policies.

In this paper, we use gender to refer to the relationship between males and females that is created by society, culture, religion and economic development of a given country. On the other hand, the natural biological difference between males and females is referred to as sex. As gender relations and needs are context specific and vary in accordance with the gender division of labour, control of resources and changing economic situations, strategic policies and innovative planning approaches are required.

2. Gender Role

In most societies women have a triple role, especially low income women. Women undertake reproductive, productive and community managing activities, while men primarily undertake productive and community activities:

- Productive role: - work that generates income and carried out by both women and men, including both market production with an exchange-value, and subsistence production with actual use-value and potential exchange-value. This includes work as independent farmers, wife of peasants and wage workers.

* I would like to thank Ms. Zenebework Tadesse for providing me with some useful reading and reference material.

- Reproductive role: - refers to domestic tasks carried out by women and child-bearing/rearing responsibilities, required to guarantee the maintenance and reproduction of the labor force. Not only biological reproduction but, also care and maintenance of the work force i.e. infants, children, male partners, who are the future work force.
- Community managing roles: - Activities done by women primarily at the community level. These are undertaken voluntarily without pay to ensure the maintenance and provision of scarce resources of collective consumption like health care, education, water etc,
- Community political role: - such activities are primarily undertaken by men at the community level. Organizing at the formal, political level, mostly within the national political framework, which is usually, paid work, through states or political parties.

Gender 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. According to Moser it is useful to distinguish between two types of women needs.

1. **Practical Gender needs:** - are those needs that arise from women's *socially accepted roles in society*. Such needs result from the gender division of labor and women's subordinate position in society. Practical Gender needs are a response to immediate perceived necessity, identified within a specific context. They are practical in nature and often concern inadequacies in living conditions such as water provision, health care and employment.
2. **Strategic Gender needs:** - are needs women articulate in order to overcome their subordinate position in society. They vary according to a particular context related to gender division of labor, power and control. And they may include issues such as equal wages, legal rights, domestic violence, and women's control over their bodies. Strategic gender needs, are requirements geared towards achieving greater equality through changing existing gender relations aimed at challenging women's subordinate position.

3. Gender and Employment

The basic indicator regarding the sufficiency of employment in any country relates to the extent of unemployment and poverty and to the productivity and quality of work. Many developing countries register low open unemployment rates. This reality results from the degree of involuntary underutilization or inadequate remuneration (underemployment) of labor. It is the degree of underemployment which closely reflects the extent of poverty in an economy. However, in some countries the open unemployment rate is increasing especially in urban areas. Furthermore, the degree of poverty, unemployment, underemployment varies within each county, region, social groups and gender. The pattern of unemployment is different in some more industrialized countries which can afford unemployment benefit schemes.

In numerous countries at all stages of economic development, women continue to face discrimination, in the labor market, in employment opportunities, wages rates and conditions of work, as well as schooling. In a large number of developing countries about 80-94 percent of females are engaged in subsistence and household activities. Women constitute less than one fourth of the organized labor force, even though, there is substantial increase in economic well being, there are considerable gender inequalities in terms of wages and employment.

In Morocco for example the over all participation of women in the labor force is low, even though, women account for a sizeable proportion of urban, scientific and professional workers. In some developing countries the female activity rates have fallen faster than those for men. In some cases women constitute less than 10 percent of all wage employees.

Even where the opportunities for employment for women have increased faster than those for men, the male female wage gap has declined. The women's average wage is still significantly lower than that of men. Moreover, women migrant workers face special problems and there is increasing evidence of exploitation and abuse, particularly of female domestic workers abroad.

4. Gender and Employment in Ethiopia

The Ethiopian economy is dominated by subsistence agriculture and in urban or rural areas women and men play different roles. Women have triple roles, that are productive, reproductive, not only the biological reproductive work of child bearing, but also rearing responsibilities and domestic work. Child care and the care of other members of the family lies on the shoulders of the women. However both in rural or urban areas, women have a subordinate position due to different factors such as religion, culture, power relations etc.

4.1 Employment in the Public Sector

According to a study conducted in 1998 the total number of civil servants in Ethiopia is around 303,590 of which 72 percent are men and 28 percent are women. Out of which 98.2 percent of the employed women are working in the lower echelon especially in the services. [Mahtsente, 1998].

In the sub-professional category the official statistics, according to the same source, indicates that in the period of 1994/95, 4091 men and 1702 women were hired as permanent employees. In 1996/97 the number of male recruits went up to 6412 and only to 2383 for women. The number of women administrators in regional states seems to be decreasing. In 1994/95 there were 197 men and 34 women administrators but by 1996/1997 the number of administrators hired declined to 108 male and 11 females. Available statistics and day to day observation indicate that, generally, the professional, sub-professional, administrative, managerial, highly paid, better working condition jobs are dominated by males, while the higher percent of hired women are working in the lower echelon with the lowest pay and unfavorable working conditions [Mahtsente,

1998]. The nature of women's employment is shown in the following table. It is noted that they are in the lowest income generating activities or unpaid engagement and in unfavorable working conditions than males as indicated in the following table.

Table 1. Economically Active Population by Status in Employment: Ethiopia and Urban 1984 and 1994

Status in Employment	1984			1994		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female
Country Total	14618361 (100%)	8522881 (100%)	6095480 (100%)	25883199 (100%)	14711261 (100%)	111719 (100%)
Employer	0.9	0.9	1.0	2.6	3.6	1.3
Self Employed	57.1	71.1	37.6	39.5	51.3	24.0
Government Employee	4.0	5.1	2.4	2.7	3.5	1.7
Private Employee	2.2	1.8	2.7	3.0	3.5	2.2
Member of Cooperative	0.9	1.0	0.7	0.1	0.1	0.1
Unpaid Family Worker	34.2	19.4	54.9	51.1	37.1	69.6
Others/Not Stated	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.9
Urban Total	1364961 (100%)	838323 (100%)	526638 (100%)	2266217 (100%)	137329 (100%)	892688 (100%)
Employer	1.7	1.4	2.3	3.0	3.2	2.7
Self Employed	40.8	19.1	43.6	39.0	39.0	39.0
Government Employee	32.8	40.3	20.9	24.5	29.1	17.5
Private Employee	18.6	13.3	27.2	17.0	15.2	19.7
Member of Cooperative	1.8	2.2	1.0	0.3	0.4	0.3
Unpaid Family Worker	2.4	3.4	1.7	10.5	7.5	15.0
Others/Not Stated	1.9	2.0	1.6	5.6	5.5	5.7

Source: 1984 and 1994 Census

4.2 Gender and Employment in the Private Sector

In the private sector, be it in the informal or formal - agriculture, manufacturing, sales or service , urban or rural, in most cases the female percent is higher than that of males engaged in self-employment and unpaid family work. Though, women make up the larger percent in this sector the types of jobs they are engaged in is either unpaid/ low paid and or characterized by unfavorable working conditions.

According to the Ethiopian Economic Association, most employed Ethiopians both males and females were engaged in agricultural activities i.e. in 1984 (88 percent) a rate that had declined to 70 percent by 1994 [EEA, 2000].

Regarding unemployment, according to the same source, in Ethiopia unemployment is measured on the assumption that there is no unemployment in rural areas i.e. all the labor force is fully employed and that unemployment is exclusively an urban phenomenon. As can be observed from the following table except for service workers and elementary occupation where the remuneration and or working condition may be poor, in all others, be it public or private, the percent of occupation of females is much lesser than that of males.

Table 2: Economically Active Population 1984 and 1994

Occupational Group	1984						1994					
	National			Urban			National			Urban		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female
Total	14618361 (100)	8522881 (100)	6095480 (100)	1364961 (100)	838223 (100)	526638 (100)	25883197 (100)	14711261 (100)	1171936 (100)	2266223 (100)	1373531 (100)	892692 (100)
Legislator, Senior Official & Managers							0.2	0.3	0.1	2.0	2.8	0.7
Professional and Technical	1.3	1.7	0.3	10.4	13.1	6.2	0.9	1.1	0.5	7.8	9.2	5.6
Administrative and Managerial	0.1	0.0	0.2	1.3	1.8	0.3						
Clerical/Related	0.6	0.5	0.6	5.6	5.6	5.8	.4	0.4	0.4	4.6	4.0	5.5
Sales Worker	3.3	2.0	5.1	23.5	17.1	33.8						
Service Workers and Shop & Mark Sales Workers	1.9	1.3	2.9	18.6	11.4	30.0	3.4	2.5	5.4	27.7	21.6	37.1
Agricultural Animal, Husbandry & Forestry	88.5	89.1	87.6	9.0	11.4	5.0	70.4	72.4	67.8	10.1	12.8	7.5
Production/Related Worker, Transport Operator & Laborer	3.7	4.5	2.6	28.8	36.4	16.7						
Crafts & Related Trade Workers							2.2	1.9	2.5	14.9	16.4	14.6
Plant and Assemblers							0.4	0.7	0.1	4.3	6.4	1.0
Elementary Occupations							20.7	19.6	22.2	20.0	18.2	22.8
Not Stated	0.6	0.6	0.6	2.8	3.2	2.2	0.8	0.8	0.9	6.0	6.0	6.1

Source: 1984 and 1994 Census

Prior to the process of privatization that has been taking place since the early 1990s, the total number of women constitute up to 32 percent of the total industrial workforce. While the vast majority were engaged in the textile industry. A smaller percent of women are also employed in food, tobacco, leather, footwear, beverage, paper and printing services. However, not only is the women's share of employment very low, but even here, most women are to be found in the low skilled, low paying position. [Aster et al 2002].

4.3 The Informal Sector

The majority of Ethiopian women are engaged in the informal sector. The sector includes - 'gulit' (petty trade), 'suk-bederate' (rotating petty trade), carrying water, selling firewood, domestic services, food and drink processing like ('Enjera', 'Tella', 'Tejje', 'Areke', bread, 'Besso juice', etc.) handicraft and prostitution.

According to the 1996 sample survey of the informal sector in regional states undertaken by CSA, it is indicated that women constitute about 65 percent of the total labor force employed in the informal sector. However, even within the micro enterprise sector, women that owned businesses constituted the smallest enterprises. The survey underscores that over 90 percent have only one worker the micro entrepreneur herself and that most are in petty trade, small scale manufacturing and service activities. (CSA, 1996)

The informal sector plays a big role in employment creation and addressing the market where the public and formal private sectors are unable to survive due to the institutional costs involved in marketing, sales and distribution. Thus, the informal sector which is dominated by women is responding to the diverse needs of the mass of consumers, despite the extremely low margins or the bear minimum of the benefits drawn by micro entrepreneurs.

4.4 Profile of Women's Employment in Specific Sub-Sectors

4.4.1 Education Sector (Public and Private)

Education is one sector where a relatively large number of women are employed. Female teachers constitute 27 percent of the primary, 11.8 percent of the junior secondary and 8.5 percent of the senior secondary teaching force [EEA]. The size of women's employment decreases as the level of required skill and level of education increases [MoE, 2001]. Women are mostly assigned to elementary schools firstly because of their lower educational achievement, secondly because it is a job considered to be 'appropriate' for women due to their roles as mothers and child caregivers and thirdly, because of the regular pattern of confining women to low paying jobs.

4.4.2 Manufacturing Sector Public/Private

Both the 1984 and 1994 Censuses revealed that a male worker engaged in production related occupation is higher than that of females. But in both cases there were more females in sales and services than males. "The predominance of females in sales

and services reflects the increased pressure on poor women to take poor quality, low paying jobs to make up for the falling family income as well as the urgent need for income by the growing phenomenon of female maintained urban households. "It has also stated that "most women working in paid employment in service and sales lack protection, promotion and women's human rights at work. [EEA, 2001]

4.4.3 Construction Sector/Formal and Informal

A new and visible trend in female employment is the growing involvement of women in the construction sector which until recently was a truly male preserve. Although, the performance, dedication and discipline of women in the construction sector is highly appreciated, most female employees are to be found in the unskilled and lower paying category of employment. Moreover, they constantly face harassment by their co-workers and others in the field but lack any form of protection.

Migration and Gender - Globalization has meant International migration for an increased number of women. Though the numbers of men migrants out number that of women, globally, the number of women migrants increased at a faster rate. Although there is a lack of reliable and timely migratory data in Ethiopia, it is possible to presume that women's migration especially to Middle Eastern countries is increasing faster than males.

Due to globalization, the movement favors those in top professional positions where women are discriminated against, as those posts are male dominated. Women are over represented in the low wage and poor condition work places. Therefore women who migrate to other countries or to urban from rural areas face many problems.

Gender and Family Life- Due to a women's greater responsibility in the unpaid work of maintaining the family and providing social care, women remain stuck in a cycle of poverty far longer than men. Women want to participate in the labor market and profit from the benefits of global trade. But they are at the same time expected to carry the main responsibility which is unpaid care work. Women's reproductive and domestic responsibilities are perceived as their primary function. These functions are unremunerated and un-recognized. There are also structural barriers to women's full participation in social, political, economic and cultural life. Since women's autonomy is inevitably linked to issues of care such as child care, elderly care, and care for other dependents. It is fundamental for greater gender equality that care for dependants is taken into consideration as an issue for the society as a whole.

Trafficking in Women and the Sex Industry - The liberalization of certain services has had negative effects on women. The opening and promotion of the tourism sector in many countries has led to an increase in prostitution and the new "slave trade" involving women and children. The UN report on status of the population 2000 reveals that two million girls between 5-15 year are introduced into the sex trade every year, as an economic activity because the sex industry is integrated into the economic, social and political life of many countries, it doesn't mean they should passively accept this situation

as a normal system. The sex industry and sex tourism segregates women and perpetuates sexual servitude and gender inequality.

In countries where prostitution has been recognized as work and as an economic sector the illegal traffic of women for prostitution has increased. Even in countries where prostitution is not legally recognized as an economic activity, women working in bars, hotels, public services etc., are suffering from harassment and losing jobs for not servicing the sex trade in the absence of any form of protection.

The International community has agreed that poverty is a problem. Its eradication requires democratic participation and change in the economic structure in order to ensure more equitable distribution of wealth. In addition women do not have the same access as men to education, resource, technology and information.

5. Factors Affecting Participation in Economic Activity or Employment in Regards to Gender

Education - of the economically active population, the share of women is much less than that of males mostly due to lack of education in those categories of employment that require some levels of education See table 3.

Table 3: Level of Unemployment by Education and Sex, 1984 and 1994, ('000)

Level of Education	1984			1994		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Illiterate	33.0	45.2	78.2	136.4	143.2	279.6
Non-regular	5.7	3.0	8.7	11.7	7.4	19.1
Grade 1-6	21.6	16.4	38.0	71.2	50.2	121.4
Grade 7-8	3.7	2.3	6.0	43.2	30.2	73.4
Grade 9-11	4.4	3.6	8.0	43.4	20.5	72.9
Grade 12	13.5	15.0	28.5	101.7	88.2	189.9
Beyond grade 12	1.0	1.0	2.0	13.4	8.9	22.3
Not stated	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.4	0.9
Total	83.1	86.5	169.6	421.4	358.1	779.5

Source: Ethiopian Economic Association Calculated from CSA 1984 and 1994 Census.

Culture and Tradition - in most cases, even females, who fulfill the educational requirements, rarely secure high-level managerial and administrative posts in the public or private sector when compared to the percent of the female population, due to cultural, traditional and educational biases.

Access to resource – due to lack of access to finance or land or gender sensitive credit schemes, female fail to form sustainable enterprises.

Policy, Laws, Regulations, Programs, Plans, etc. - absence or inadequate policy, laws, regulations, a more conducive environment etc., which may not enforce gender

balance in all aspects will not encourage women to adequately participate in economic development adequately participate in the economic development.

Support Facilities - family support facilities like child care, elderly care centers will enhance female workers engagement in more economic development activities. Absence of such support facilities will affect them adversely.

Capacity Building –

1. General

Where the employees, civil servants, government authorities, private sector activities, NGOs, CBOs, religious leaders and activists, civil society groups, judicial bodies, and support organizations are not provided with step by step capacity building and awareness creation programs on gender equality, female employees will be highly affected by discrimination.

2. Internal Capacity Building

Building a capacity to create a vibrant private sector is very important for both females and males. But it requires special focus to enhance women's capacity through different support measures in addition to training and basic education. Our education system focuses more on academic training and is based on a one way communication, where it does not cultivate the creative entrepreneurial capacity of students, even for male students leave alone for women who lack equal exposure. Thus, lack of education and proper training largely inhibits women in their search of employment or meaningful self-employment.

3. Economic Development

A country's economic development is one of the factors affecting employment for both males and females. But when the economy is underdeveloped it is women who suffer disproportionately.

6. Is There a Gender Policy in Ethiopia?

The existence of a National Women's Policy and some laws and regulations for women like the labor law of 1993 and amended public service regulation of 1998 which states equal right of employment (Art.35 (8) and equal pay (Art. 42 (1) d), the Family Law, etc. can not be denied. But so far there is no gender policy to my knowledge, given the fact that gender is not about women but about the relationship that is socially constructed and thus accepted by society.

In the view of some observers, in comparison with many African countries, statistics on gender related issues are at a preliminary stage in Ethiopia. Despite their equal share with men in socio-economic life, Ethiopian women have little decision making power and a smaller share of resources and benefits. Eighty seven per cent of women in Ethiopia are engaged in agriculture, contributing to about 50 per cent of income based on subsistence agriculture (UNICEF 1993). However, little attention has

been given to involving women in rural development efforts and enabling them to benefit directly from agricultural extension services. Girls make only 33 per cent of the school enrolments... among educated women who work in the formal labor force, only 11 per cent have managed posts, the rest are engaged in manual and clerical jobs... (ibid). Others have also argued that existing data “offer” compelling evidence for the need to work on gender-determined power relations and to promote women’s right. Such studies have begun, at least in theory, at the government level and within the NGO sector. Ethiopia has a National Gender Policy in place, and women’s desks have been established within various government departments”. (OXFAM, 1999: 32)

However what is required is a policy that facilitates the promotion of changes in these socially constructed relationships in terms of power, decision making, family relations, access to education, access and control of other resources, respect for women’s human rights, etc.

7. Is a Gender Policy Required?

Some may think that it is too early to talk about gender policy while there are so many other economic and social development priorities such as poverty alleviation facing the country.

It is true. But the fact is that any development policy which doesn’t consider gender policy and which has no laws, rules and regulations in place will never attain the required or expected social or economic transformation or outcome in this global economy. Thus, it is wise to have a gender policy on time and ensure its implementation though it is likely to be a long journey.

8. What are the Important Points to be Considered in the Policy Framework:

Employment

Any policy framework addressing the involuntary labor, underutilization and low pay issues can be phrased only in broad terms. That is the emphasis to be given to any particular policy measure, or the way in which different policy measures are combined, depending on the particular national situation. Whatever, the prescribed policies, they must be tempered by considerations of equality and social justice. Like equality of gender and ethnic equality, etc. The burdens of reform and adjustment must be equitably shared. The most vulnerable of the labor force needs special attention.

- Women do not have the same access as men to education, training, credit technology and information which are necessary to take advantage of new economic opportunities arising from trade liberalization due to globalization or to compete for job opportunities which require education and qualification.

In order to favor full integration of women in the national and global economy it is important to promote legislative and administrative reforms that give women equal rights with men to economic resources including access to ownership, control over

land, other forms of ownerships, access to information and communication technology, access to saving and credit mechanisms and institutions.

- Adopt and maintain macro-economic policies and development strategies that address the need of women in poverty.
- Mainstream gender equality in employment policies. This however, requires benchmarking and improved gender disaggregated data.

Social development must also be a crucial cornerstone of trade policy. It is also important that gender impact analysis and gender perspectives be integrated into the design, implementation and review of trade policies and programs as well as in social protection systems.

- ♦ Due to the global labor market, International organizations and national governments have to eliminate pay discriminations and reinforce legislation in this field. In addition in sectors dominated by women, in order to close the pay gap, a reevaluation of wages is important.
- ♦ To overcome the structural barriers to full equality between women and men in the labor market, government should allow for positive measures.
 - Regarding labor standards,
 - While the women suffer disproportionately in this regard, regulations that can provide opportunities for women to organize and demand more attention in their working condition are essential.
 - The labor and social regulations that adhere to and enforce the policy framework should cover the following major points in relation to gender
 - Prevention of forced labor
 - Establishment of a minimum wage;
 - Prohibition of any form of discrimination, including gender disparities and barriers
 - Rights to freedom and association;
 - Paid right to maternity leave
 - Promote a broad-based consultation process to include organizations representing women's workers.

Gender and the Family

To enhance the economic participation of women, globalization also demands the time of women in the non-domestic sector of the economy. But society needs an equal sharing of responsibility and rights between women and men in all the various spheres. The chance for women to engage both in paid work and to have children and family life must be supported by adequate legislation which calls for care centers and other support

measures. Government should address the fundamental needs for childcare and other services to be established. Women have to be able to be integrated on the same footing as men in the labor market and compete for jobs on an equal basis as men. Women's reproductive rights have to be based on freedom to make decisions, and to equal access to sexual and reproductive health education and information starting from an early age.

Trafficking in Women and the Sex Industry

Instead of accepting the situation that some women earn more in prostitution than any where else, it should be questioned why this is the only place where a large number of women can turn to, when all others fail. Thus, it is beneficial if the International Community in cooperation with Nation States and tourist agencies stop offering information on sex trips both in developing and developed countries.

Nation States with the International Organizations and institutions should consider the International Conventions on Human Rights. Trade in any way can not be an excuse to violate human rights. Trade agreements are required to compliment International human rights agreements and instruments.

9. How to Go About It

The presence of some laws may help to attain a desired outcome. But without a clear policy framework and clear policy guidelines, legal and institutional transformation can never be achieved.

At times, people argue that it is better to have no laws. Fragmented policies which are not brought together in a coherent policy framework and the resultant isolated interventions may further complicate matters, than bring about the desired changes or transformation.

Thus, it is crucial that a Gender Policy with clear guidelines and a framework should be in place to enable fair participation and combat discrimination of labor and attain economic development. Based on this

- Strong advocacy should be encouraged
- More involvement of public, private service giving organizations in policy inception, design, implementation, execution, monitoring and evaluation ought to be encouraged.
- This form of participatory and inclusive policy making should be sustainable and not a one off engagement
- The promotion of attitudinal change requires the holding of continuous public dialogue and public forums i.e. in every walk of life i.e. at all levels schools, Kebeles, NGO's, CBOs, government organization, etc
- Commitment of all stakeholders should be cultivated.
- Decision makers should check and inquire if projects are gender friendly before approval of projects and programs of institutions

- Such requirements should be considered as legal and enforceable
- Incentive schemes such as yearly awards should be promoted, for those regions, institutions, organizations which make a difference in policy implementation. As models their success should be given media coverage and should be disseminated to the public so that other should learn and emulate
- Though, the labor law of 1993 and in the amendment of 1998 calls for equal pay and equal right in employment, in the absence of measures that simultaneously address conditions like education, culture, access to information with a view to bringing about social transformation and gender equality as well as ensure their implementation, the outcome of the labor law will be highly limited.
- Without serious consideration of gender issues, it is impossible to achieve the targets set in political, economic and social development policies. Some may be achieved, but will not attain the intended goals. Thus 50 percent of the population who are women should reasonably participate in the economic activity if the country is to face the global challenges.
- Past activities should be assessed and monitored.

I personally believe that, the reproductive role of women is one big factor that hampers or restricts women from participating fully in economic activities. Care centers for children and the elderly may lighten the workload of women. But may not fully help women to be accepted as equal employees or in any other engagement; because of maternity leave and absenteeism when their children are sick. To me by giving birth, taking care and maintaining the future labor force, women are engaged in socially productive work, though it is not recognized, paid or accounted for.

Public/private organizations or companies who employ women and bear the absenteeism are incurring costs which will make them uncompetitive in the global market. Therefore, new mechanisms should be designed as a policy, so that such costs should be public costs. And costs incurred in this regard be deducted from the income tax to be paid to the government from those companies employing women and accommodating the absenteeism.

All companies should pay a reasonable percent to the government on top of the other existing taxes to help compensate the companies incurring cost for social wellbeing and for replacing the future labor forces. Because the issue of replacing and maintaining the future labor force is not only a concern of the family or government alone, but an issue and concern of the whole society.

Thus, to promote the long-term development of our country through enhancing the capabilities of 50 percent of the population and not to be caught by surprises resulting from global changes, a gender policy should be put in place as soon as possible.

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