

Promoting gender equality

Comparing the implementation of the third goal of the Millennium Development Goals in South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa:
Bangladesh, Nepal, Ethiopia and Uganda.



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Preface

In September 2001, I commenced my study of public administration. At the moment this seems a long time ago. Looking back, my life changed a lot. In the third year of my study, I studied for four months in Finland, which I will never forget. The year after this I decided to choose for the International Master of Public Policy and Management. Without going into detail, this has been a special year for me and that is why I first want to thank Sonja Balsem, Frans van Nispen and Christopher Pollitt and all the IMP students who made this possible. In special I would like to thank Mimi, Cui Ying and Blake for the great time I spend with them.

With this thesis I will end my study of public administration on the Erasmus University in Rotterdam. I choose a subject that really interested me and I worked with a lot of pleasure on this research. Especially during the period of writing this thesis, I have to admit that this would not have been possible without the support of a number of people. That is why I want to take this opportunity to thank some people specific. First of all, I would like to express my personal gratitude to Geske Dijkstra for agreeing to be my supervisor. I would like to thank her for her support to improve my thesis. In addition, I would like to thank Piet Terhal for agreeing to be my second reader. Furthermore I would like to thank the employers of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the World Bank for their collaboration for this thesis. I would like to thank them for accepting my request for an interview and providing me with invaluable insights concerning gender equality.

Furthermore I would like to thank my family and friends for their endless confidence and support. Thank you! Next to that I would like to thank Marius for his love, support and motivating words during the time that I was writing this thesis. I also would like to thank Philip, Joost, Cora and Gaby for helping me with my poor English, or in other words my 'Denglish' (Dutch English)! I remember that my first mark for English on high school was a zero. This improved a lot during my school career and I am sure that my English teacher from high school will not believe that I finished this International Master. I realize that I still need to work on my English, so thank you for helping me on this way.

Last but not least I hope that you all will enjoy reading this thesis.

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Abbreviations

ACP	Africa, Caribbean and Pacific
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
DSI	Direction Social and Institutional development
EC	European Commission
EPRDF	Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front
EU	European Union
EWDF	Ethiopian Women Development Fund
GDI	Gender Development Index
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEM	Gender empowerment measure
GNI	Gross National Income
HDI	Human Development Index
HIPC	Heavily Indebted Poor Countries
HPI	Human Poverty Index
IMF	International Monetary Fund
JIF	Joint Initiative against Trafficking
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MGEP	Mainstreaming Gender Equity Programme
MGLSD	Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development
NAWOU	National Association of Women Organizations in Uganda
NCWD	National Council for Women's Development
NLSS	National Living Standards Survey
OCT	Overseas Countries and Territories
ODA	Official Development Assistance
PEAP	Poverty Eradication Action Plan
PEDP	Development Program for Primary Education
PRSP	Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper
SA	South Asia
SAARC	South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
TYRP	Three-Year Rolling Plan
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNHCR	UN High Commissioner for Refugees
UNESCO	UN Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNICEF	UN Children's Fund
WAO	Women Affairs Office
WB	World Bank
WDIP	Women's Development In Initiative Project

Executive summary

In September 2000 the member states of the United Nations unanimously adopted the Millennium Declaration. The common international agenda has formed new goals for 2015. These goals are the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDG). The main goal of the MDGs is the reduction of poverty. In this project the focus is on the third goal of the MDGs: 'promoting gender equality and empowering women'. In 2005 the gender disparity in primary and secondary education should be eliminated and in all levels no later than 2015. There are four objectives to measure this progress. In short these are focused on education, literacy, wage employment in the non-agricultural sector and the seats held by women in the national parliament.

In this project is chosen to make a comparison between South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa. Two countries out of each region will be compared. There is chosen for Bangladesh and Nepal in South Asia and Ethiopia and Uganda in Sub-Saharan Africa. The main purpose of this project is to research how the third goal of the MDGs is implemented. It will focus on what the different countries and implementation agencies are doing to fulfil this goal before 2015. The central question is as following: 'To which extent is the third goal of the MDG, the promotion of gender equality, implemented and how can the differences in outcomes/results in Bangladesh, Nepal, Ethiopia and Uganda be explained?'

Outcome of the research is that the countries are all conscious of the need to work on gender equality and the empowerment of women. This is a positive start, but in practice it turned out that a lot still needs to be done. In fact most of the countries are not half way yet to meet the targets of 2015. The results for the targets differ for each country and for each objective. This is explained by the policies, exogenous factors such as socio-cultural, political and economic factors and by the resources.

In general the highest progress is made on the first objective in all concerned countries. For primary and secondary education, most countries might be able to reach the target before 2015. The government of Bangladesh is paying the most attention to gender equality. For tertiary education it is much more difficult to keep the girl enrolment high and this is even decreasing last years. For the second objective the countries differ between 70 and 80 percent. Although there is a lack of data, only for Bangladesh there is recent data available, the least progress is made for the third objective, the share of wage employment in the non-agricultural sector. In most countries the agricultural sector counts for the biggest sector, for example in Ethiopia and Uganda this is almost 90 percent. Women have fewer chances to work in the non-agricultural sector. Most places are taken by men and next to that the workload for women is much heavier. They are not equally treated and often discriminated mainly due to cultural or religion reasons. Especially Ethiopia needs much more efforts to reach the objectives. In Ethiopia one can see that the circumstances of the country are worse because the country is still suffering from war and conflicts. People are more thinking about surviving than about gender equality. The government of Uganda is paying attention to gender, but there is not enough money available. Next to that the problems of AIDS are much more present in Ethiopia and Uganda. For the fourth objective, some progress is made by Uganda and Ethiopia, while in Bangladesh and Nepal the amount of seats taken by women is only decreasing. All countries are walking on a path of democracy and implemented the CEDAW, in practice however there are differences in the results.

Concluding one can say that there is some progress on the third goal of the MDG, but in practice a lot still needs to be done. It is necessary that there should change things if the countries want to reach the targets in 2015. This is not only in relation to the policies of the governments, but this goes further because the whole culture and attitude towards women should change first and this takes time. Despite observed improvements, there is still a long way to go before women are equally treated to men.

1.Introduction

The introduction, chapter one, is structured by five different paragraphs. In the first paragraph, the subject and the motives for choosing the subject are explained. In the second paragraph, the problem analysis is worked out. The problem analysis will end with the research questions. In the third paragraph, the scientific aim and the practical relevance of the research are explained. The research design will also be worked out in chapter one. In the fourth paragraph the research methods are explained. In the last paragraph, the structure for the rest of this thesis will be explained.

1.1.Subject and motive

In September 2004, I started the master of 'International public management and policy'. The first course was about management and the role of international organisations. I also followed the course 'globalisation and sustainable development'. Already in those courses my interest went to development co-operation, so I decided to write my thesis about this subject.

Eighty percent of the world population lives in less developed countries. While at the same time they constitute only 20 percent of the world trade and commercial economic activity (lecture globalisation and sustainable development, 2004/5). A characteristic of these countries is the high rate of population growth and the low level of technical development. This has a negative influence on for example the environment. Sustainable development becomes much more important. This is not only related to the role of development countries but there is also a big challenge for the western countries.

From the first moment on I was surprised to hear that eighty percent of the world population lives in less developed countries. I started reading about the subject and found out that there was so much more information about it than I ever thought. When I read about the developments of the development process, I found out about the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) as the main topic of this moment. I choose to specify more on gender because it got my personal interest and started focusing on the third goal of the MDGs: promoting gender equality and empower women in development countries.

1.2.Problem Analysis and research questions

Paragraph 1.2 exists of the following elements. First, the Millennium Development Goals in general will be worked out. After this the third goal 'promoting gender equality' will be specified. Third, the regions where the focus is on will be worked out. Lastly, the research questions will be worked out.

1.2.1.The Millennium Development Goals

More than halve of the budget for development aid comes from EU countries (www.europa.eu.int). Every year 30 billion euro of the member states and the commission goes to the development countries. The common international agenda formed new goals for 2015: the Millennium Development Goals. The main goal of the MDGs is poverty reduction.

The goals form a framework for measuring development progress that is commonly accepted. In September 2000 the member states of the United Nations unanimously adopted the Millennium Declaration (www.un.org). The General Assembly recognized the Millennium Development Goals as part of the road map for implementing the Millennium Declaration.

These are the eight goals:

- MDG 1: reduce by half (compared to 1990) the number of people living on less than a dollar a day and who suffer from hunger.
- MDG 2: ensure that all boys and girls complete a full course of primary schooling.
- MDG 3: eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005 and at all education levels by 2015 and promote gender empowerment.
- MDG 4: reduce by two thirds (compared to 1990) the mortality rate among children under five.
- MDG 5: reduce by three quarters (compared to 1990) the maternal mortality rate.
- MDG 6: halt the spread of HIV/AIDS, malaria and TB.
- MDG 7: reduce by half the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water.
- MDG 8: ensure that rich countries lift trade barriers to poor countries, lighten their debt burden, provide access to affordable medicines and make more financial aid available.

The first seven goals are mutually reinforcing and are directed at reducing poverty in all its forms. The last goal, global partnership for development, is about the means to achieve the first seven. Although these goals are not new, it is the first time they have appeared on a common international agenda with concrete, time-bound targets.

The main developing and coordinating organization of the MDG goals is the United Nations. The United Nations is established in 1945. It had 51 member countries (www.un.org). All these countries are committed to preserving peace through international cooperation and collective security. Today, there are 191 member countries. When States become members of the United Nations, they agree to accept the obligations of the UN charter. This is an international treaty that sets out basic principle of international relations.

The International Monetary Fund, the World Bank and 12 other independent organizations known as specialized agencies, are linked to the UN through cooperative agreements. The World Bank adopted a gender and development mainstreaming strategy in 2001 and issued a revised Operational Policy and Bank Procedures statement in 2003. Implementation of the strategy has been documented continuously since its inception. In addition, a number of UN offices, programs and funds work to improve the economic and social conditions of people around the world. Examples of these are the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), the UN Development Programme (UNDP) and the UN Children's Fund (UNICEF). They report to the General Assembly or the Economic and Social Council. All these organizations have their own governing bodies, budgets and secretariats. The UNDP, in collaboration with the national governments, is coordinating reporting by countries on progress towards the UN Millennium Development Goals. The framework for reporting includes the eight goals. For each goal there is one or more specific target, along with specific social, economic and environmental indicators used to track progress towards the goals.

Every year, progress is measured and reported internationally. In this way, pressure can be exerted on rich and poor countries alike to increase their efforts. Achieving the MDGs by 2015 will require more focus on development outcomes and less on inputs. There are yardsticks established for measuring the results, not just for developing countries, but also for rich countries, that help to fund development programs and for the multilateral institutions that help countries to implement them.

In 2015 one can see if the goals are really reached. The targets are spread over different years. Already in 2005, there will be an evaluation of the improvements and this can be measured with the yardsticks. Some targets already should have been reached. The question is in which stage the implementation of the goals is right now and is the strategy working? Is there really a pressure exerted on the rich and poor countries and is improvement going on and are the results of the implementation on target?

1.2.2.Promoting gender equality

To be even more specific, I will focus especially on one goal of the MDGs: the third goal. The third goal is 'promoting gender equality and empowering women'. The purpose is to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005 and in all levels of education no later than 2015. There are four indicators (www.developmentgoals.org):

- The ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education.
- The ratio of literate women to men ages 15-24.
- The share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector expressed as a percentage of total employment in the sector.
- The proportion of seats held by women in the national parliament expressed as a percentage of all occupied seats.

Normally the term gender stands for the differences in social status and the roles of women and men in the society. Traditions, cultural and social circumstances determine in an important scale how people in a society look to the role of women and men. Gender is not going about biological differences, but about expectations and qualities that people give to men or women, and which appreciation people give to this.

Women's organizations, and the various international women's conferences in Mexico City, Copenhagen, Nairobi and Beijing over the last decades, have put gender issues firmly on the development agenda (Henshall-Momsen, 2004; 5). The development process affects women and men in different ways. A new awareness of the importance of gender roles in development has grown. Globalisation, international migration, refugees and conditions of war have brought these issues of gender and development to public attention.

Gender equality is linked to the European Commission development cooperation's overarching goal of poverty reduction through its contribution to effective and sustainable development. In April 2004, the European Commission (EC) approved a new Regulation on the promotion of gender equality in development co-operation. It strengthens the EC approach by implementing specific measures in favour of women in developing countries and establishes a strong link with the Millennium Development Goals. A total of € million will be available for this purpose between 2004 and 2006.

The above raised problems and questions for the MDGs do also count for the third goal specific. In this research is chosen to specify on one specific goal, because this will make it easier to measure the exact improvements and to go more in detail. Next to that, due to the time limit, it is not possible to do this for all the goals for all the countries.

1.2.3.Regions

The thesis has to be fulfilled two requirements. First it has to do with public management and the second it has to be a comparison. That is why is chosen to compare two regions receiving development aid. Next to that it will give me the possibility to measure the exact data for the different countries and for the four indicators that are made.

The Millennium Development Goals focus on six different regions and their countries: Northern Africa, Sub-Saharan Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean, Eastern Asia, Southern Asia and Western Asia. Beneath the available data are presented for the four objectives for the different regions over the last ten years:

Objective 1: Ratio of girls to boys in primary education: ratio of girls' gross enrolment ratios to boys' gross enrolment ratios.

Table 1: Results regions objective 1a: primary education

Regions	1990/91	1998/99	2001/2002
Northern Africa	0.82	0.90	0.93
Sub-Saharan Africa	0.83	0.84	0.86
Latin America and the Caribbean	0.98	0.98	0.98
Eastern Asia	0.93	1.01	0.99
Southern Asia	0.76	0.83	0.84
Western Asia	0.83	0.87	0.89

Source: <http://daccessdds.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N04/465/40/PDF/N0446540.pdf?OpenElement>

Ratio of girls to boys in secondary education: ratio of girls' gross enrolment ratios to boys' gross enrolment ratios.

Table 2: Results regions objective 1b: secondary education

Regions	1998/99	2001/02
Northern Africa	0.94	0.96
Sub-Saharan Africa	0.81	0.79
Latin America and the Caribbean	1.09	1.07
Eastern Asia	Not known	Not known
Southern Asia	0.74	0.77
Western Asia	0.76	0.79

Source: <http://daccessdds.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N04/465/40/PDF/N0446540.pdf?OpenElement>

Objective 2: Ratio of literate women to men, 15-24 year old: ratio of female to male youth literacy rates

Table 3: Results regions objective 2: literacy

Regions	1990	2000/04
Northern Africa	0.73	0.86
Sub-Saharan Africa	0.80	0.89
Latin America and the Caribbean	1.00	1.01
Eastern Asia	0.96	0.99
Southern Asia	0.72	0.77
South-Eastern Asia	0.97	0.99
Western Asia	0.81	0.89

Objective 3: Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector: share of women in total non-agricultural sector (percentage).

Table 4: Results regions objective 3: wage employment

Regions	1990	2002
North Africa	18.9	20.5
Sub-Saharan Africa	Not known	Not known
Latin America	38.4	42.9
Eastern Asia	38.2	39.8
Southern Asia	13.3	18.2
South-Eastern Asia	37.2	38.5
Western Asia	17.8	19.2

Objective 4: Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments: percentage of parliamentary seats occupied by women.

Table 5: Results regions objective 4: seats in parliament

Regions	1990	1991	2004
Northern Africa	2.6	1.8	6.7
Sub-Saharan Africa	7.2	9.0	13.4
Caribbean	22.1	16.6	23.9
Latin America	8.6	10.9	16.1
Eastern Asia	20.2	19.3	18.8
Southern Asia	5.7	5.9	8.5
South Eastern Asia	10.4	10.8	15.3
Western Asia	4.6	3.0	4.9

Source: <http://daccessdds.un.org/doc/UNDOC/GEN/N04/465/40/PDF/N0446540.pdf?OpenElement>

In this thesis South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa will be compared. These two regions are chosen because if one looks at the data and information, one can see that those two regions have the lowest scores on almost every topic. They are the poorest regions, which need the most help. It will be interesting to see what these regions should do to increase gender equality because this is linked to so many other aspects, under which for example poverty. The two regions have so many different characteristics and it will be interesting to see how this will influence the methods the goals are implemented.

In each region there will be chosen two countries for the comparison. First plan was to choose more countries for the comparison but due to the time schedule and the size of the thesis this was impossible. The selection of these countries will depend on the following criteria. First, the main language should not be France, because this will make it really difficult to do my research and find empirical data. Second, it would be preferable to have the same kind of countries in size and population. Third, the relative aid should be the same. This can be measured by the aid in percentage to the GDP. The Human Development Index is also put in the figure because this gives more overview of the human development in the countries. In the figure below these criteria are put in a schedule with the facts of the different countries.

Table 6: Comparison of the countries SA and SSA

South Asia	Surface	Population	Income	Aid/aid in percentage of GDP	Human Development Index
Bangladesh	144 000	133 million (926/km ²)	360 US-d	1 billion/ 0,7 % of GDP	138
Bhutan	47 000	2,1 million	590 US-d	59 million/ 11% of GDP	136
Nepal	140 800	25 284 463	230 US-d	388 million/ 7 %of GDP	143
Pakistan	803 940	141 million	410 US-d	1,9 billion /3,3 % of GDP	144
Sri Lanka	65 610	19,6 million	840 US-d	330 million/ 2,2 % of GDP	96
Sub-Saharan Africa					
Burkina Faso	274 000	13,2 million	220 US-d	389 million/ 16 % of GDP	173
Benin	112 620	7 million	380 US-d	273 million/ 11,5 % of GDP	159
Eritrea	121 320	4,4 million	160 US-d	280 million/ 40 % of GDP	155
Ethiopia	1137 000	67,2 million	100 US-d	1 billion/ 16% of GDP	169
Ghana	238 540	20,5 million	270 US-d	650 million/ 12 % of GDP	129
Kaapverdie	4033	415 thousand	1290 US-d	76 million/ 13 % GDP	103
Kenya	582 650	31 million	360 US-d	4,1 million	146
Mali	1 240 000	11,3 million	240 US-d	350 million/ 13 % of GDP	172
Mozambique	801 590	19,6 million	210 US-d	934 million/ 26% of GDP	170
Rwanda	26 338	7,3 million	230 US-d	290 million/ 17 % of GDP	158
Senegal	196 190	10,8 million	470 US-d	418 million/ 9 % of GDP	156
Tanzania	945 090	35,9 million	280 US-d	1,2 billion/ 13 % of GDP	162
Uganda	236 040	25,6 million	250 US-d	782 million/ 13,8 % GDP	147
Zambia	752 164	10,3 million	330 US-d	373 million/ 10,3 % of GDP	163
South-Africa	1.219.912	44,8 million	2600 US-d	428 million/ 0,4 % of GDP	120

Source: www.minbuza.nl

In both South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa, there is chosen one country with a relatively big population and one country with a relatively small population. Since there is not such a big country in Sub-Saharan Africa in comparison to South Asia, there is chosen for the biggest country in Sub-Saharan Africa. Namely Ethiopia, which has a population of 67 million people. For the bigger country in South Asia is chosen for Bangladesh. Bangladesh has 133 million inhabitants. Bangladesh and Ethiopia both get one billion of aid. This is in relation to the GDP not the same, but there is no big country in South Asia at all that gets so much relative aid as in Sub-Saharan Africa.

For the smaller countries there is chosen for Nepal and Uganda, since in both countries live around 25 million inhabitants. As mentioned above, there is no country in South Asia that gets the same relative aid as in Sub-Saharan Africa. After Bangladesh, Nepal gets the highest (relative) amount of money. That is why there is chosen for Uganda en Nepal. On the Human Development Index they have almost the same score. While Ethiopia is scoring on HDI much lower than Bangladesh.

All these countries made a Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP). Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSP's) describe a country's macro-economic, structural, and social policies and programs to promote growth and reduce poverty, as well as associated external financing needs (www.worldbank.org). Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers provide the basis for World Bank and IMF assistance as well as debt relief under the HIPC (Heavily Indebted Poor Countries) Initiative.

In conclusion, the main purpose of this thesis is to research how the third goal of the Millennium Development Goals, promoting gender equality and empower women, is implemented. There will be a comparison between South Asia and the Sub-Saharan Africa. There will be researched what the different countries and implementation agencies are doing to fulfil this goal before 2005/2015 and what is reached in 2005 in comparison to the targets. How met the results with the objectives and the scores, what needs to be done and where from do the differences originate?

1.2.4. Central question

To which extent is the third goal of the MDG, the promotion of gender equality, implemented and how can the differences in outcomes/results in Bangladesh, Nepal, Ethiopia and Uganda be explained?

1.2.5. Research questions

1. Which policies and amount of resources are used to implement the third goal of the MDG and are they different in Bangladesh, Nepal, Ethiopia and Uganda?
2. Which actors are involved in the implementation process and how do their characteristics influence the implementation process?
3. To what extent is the implementation of the third goal of MDG in Bangladesh Nepal, Ethiopia and Uganda achieved?
4. Which factors can explain the different outcomes/results in Bangladesh, Nepal, Ethiopia and Uganda?
5. In which way can the results be improved?

1.3. Scientific aim and practical relevance

1.3.1. Scientific Aim

Administrative science is the only science that totally concentrates on the study of the public administration in all its manifestations (Rosenthal, 2001; 48). The public administration is a commodious phenomenon. If one defines the administration science broad, than the study-objects are not only the government-bureaucracy and the political authority, but also the semi-government-institutions and several private organizations with public tasks. Here is also a growing importance for the role of Europe. In this thesis administrative science will be broadly defined. The thesis is focusing on different actors, especially at the international level. It is focusing on the government in the donor countries and in the developing countries, but also on other (implementing) organizations with public tasks. It will give more insight on how the MDGs are implemented.

Administrative science is a multidisciplinary study. This means that it uses knowledge from different scientific disciplines. Administrative science can be descriptive, explanatory, normative and/or prescriptive. In this thesis it will mainly be descriptive, because the policy and the implementation will be described. It will also contain some explanatory aspects, because it researches why the results of the implementation are different in the two regions. Next to that it will also contain some prescriptive aspects because it comes with recommendations about what can be improved.

1.3.2. Practical relevance

The thesis is practical relevant because it is an important topic at this moment. The World leaders promised to work together to meet the concrete targets for advancing development and reducing poverty by 2015 or earlier. They are already measuring the progress that is made so far. This thesis will give insights in this implementation process.

Next to that one point of the agenda for the administrative science is the growing internationalization and globalization (Rosenthal, 2001). At international level, the EU and many of its partner countries are signatories to international agreements and declarations. The EU is also participating in initiatives that aim to reduce gender inequalities and promote women rights, for instance the 1979 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women, the 1994 Cairo Programme of Action, the 1995 Beijing Platform of Action and the Millennium Development Goals (www.europa.eu.int).

1.4. Research method

This thesis is mainly a qualitative research. There will be some quantitative data for measuring the outcomes of the implementation process. Qualitative research is characterised by the testing of the research question or hypotheses (Neuman, 2000). The research question can be divided in different concepts. These concepts can be described by different variables. In the theory one can distinguish different causal relations. This is deductive. Deductive means that a research starts with abstract and logical relations between the concepts. These concepts are tested in practice by the founded empirical data. With this data one can try to answer the research question.

In this thesis there will be three different research methods used. The first method is the use of scientific literature. Second the use of documents, articles and the Internet. The third method is interviewing. These methods will be worked out below.

1.4.1. Scientific literature

In this thesis has been chosen for a descriptive research with some explanatory and prescriptive aspects. Already existing material will be used. It will be mainly a literature research. First I planned to go the development countries, but because of the time schedule this was not possible for me. There will be scientific literature used. Especially for developing the theoretical framework, only scientific books will be used.

1.4.2. Documents, articles and Internet

The second research method is the use of documents, articles and Internet. A lot of relevant and important information of the implementation process can be found on the Internet.

First, the UN, the World Bank and other relevant organisations are publishing current data and documents. The different countries are obligated to produce a Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper as told above, which one can find on the Internet. Together with the Progress Reports and the Joint Staff Assessment these papers will be used for a main part for the empirical information. A Joint Staff Assessment (JSA) analyses the main principles underlying the PRSP. It evaluates key questions in the four core elements of a PRSP: a description of the country's participatory process, poverty diagnostics, targets, indicators and monitoring systems, and priority public actions. This forms a basis for concessional assistance from the IMF and the World Bank. This will be used to find out what policies the governments have to improve regarding gender equality. Next to that it gives information about the social, cultural, economic and political circumstances. For the background information of the four countries the Internet and literature books will also be used. Relevant articles can be found in official journals as well as on the Internet. Next to that the ministries, for example, are producing official reports, for example evaluations, which can be used. Also for the information of the implementing agencies, the Internet and articles will be used.

The World Development Indicators and the Human Development Reports will be used to get statistical data about the recent developments of gender equality. This information will form an important basis for the description of the outcomes and for the quantitative fact of the exogenous factors. Interviews will also be an important method for the outcomes.

1.4.3. Interviews

The third research method is interviewing. To start there is an interview made with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Within this ministry, the compartment of 'Women and development of the Direction Social and Institutional development (DSI)' is responsible for the gender policy.

Another information source are the people working in the four development countries. There are different people working for example working for the World Bank, who are responsible for the gender policy in one of the four countries. The information out of these interviews is important to get a clear overview of the outcomes of this moment in the four countries. Since this is done by email, there is a limitation in relevance and reliability of the answers. Next to that it is also more difficult to get response.

For the interviews is chosen to structure them by the main subjects (See appendix 1). The interviews themselves will be semi-structured with open questions. For each person or interviewed organisation, there is chosen to specify on a specific subject in which they are specialized regarding the knowledge and importance of information. In appendix one can find only the whole overview of the interview questions. Some of the questions are based on

Macdonalds book, which is dealing with organisational change and bridging the gap between policy and practice (Macdonald, 1997).

1.5. Structure of the thesis

This thesis exists of eight chapters. The first chapter, the introduction, is described above. The second chapter is the theoretical framework. In this chapter the different theories chosen and used will form a framework to analyse the implementation of the third goal of the MDGs. The empirical data or the research results are showed in four different chapters: chapter three, four, five and six. To get a better overview there is chosen to describe each country in one of these chapters. In the end of each chapter there will be a conclusion where the policies, the exogenous factors and the outcomes are linked to each other. At the end all the empirical information is described. This will be analysed by the theoretical framework and there will be a comparison between the countries in chapter seven. Lastly, in chapter eight the conclusion and recommendations will be worked out.

2.Theoretical framework

In this thesis is chosen to focus on the implementation of the third goal of the MDGs. Within the study of public administration the development of policy can be seen as a policy process. In this process one can distinguish different phases. In short, these are the agenda formation, the policy formation, the implementation and the evaluation. At this moment the MDGs are in the phase of implementing and this is why it seemed most interesting to me to focus on this. In this chapter the theory will be elaborated and will form the framework for empirical research. In paragraph 2.1, the implementation theories in general will be discussed. In paragraph 2.2, the specific chosen implementation theory will be worked out and explained. In paragraph 2.3 this theory will be operationalised.

2.1. Implementation theories

The study of implementation can be seen as a sub-discipline of political science and public administration (Hill & Hupe, 2002; 2). The study of policy implementation has gone through cycles of intense activity during the past few decades. From about the time of the publication of Pressman and Wildavsky's influential book, *Implementation*, in 1973 until sometime around the end of the 1980s there has been a period of very intense academic debate about the understanding of the phenomenon of implementation. However, implementation is still an issue of today and recently the topic has receded somewhat from prominence (O'Toole, 2002; 6). While using an implementation theory today it is important to keep some facts in mind which can influence the study of implementation. First, the fact that implementation can be approached from different sides. Next to that it takes different shapes and forms in different cultures and institutional settings. Lastly, with the transformation of government to governance, there is a wider range of actors that may be participating. This is why simplistic hierarchical models are being abandoned.

There are different definitions of implementation. One of the most influential definitions is the one formulated by Mazmanian and Sabatier: *"Implementation is the carrying out of a basic policy decision, usually incorporated in a statute but which can also take the form of important executive orders or court decisions. Ideally, that decision identifies the problem(s) to be addressed, stipulates the objective(s) to be pursued, and in a variety of ways, 'structures' the implementation process. The process normally runs through a number of stages beginning with passage of the basic statute, followed by the policy outputs (decisions) of the implementing agencies, the compliance of target groups with those decisions, the actual impacts of those outputs, the perceived impacts of agencies decisions, and finally, important revisions in the basic statute (1983:20-1)".* Another definition is from Van Meter and Van Horn. They define it quite explicit. *"Policy implementation encompasses those actions by public and private individuals (or groups) that are directed at the achievement of objectives set forth in prior policy decision".* This definition includes the efforts to transform decisions into operational terms, but also the efforts to achieve large and small changes mandated by policy decisions and will be used in this thesis.

2.2. Van Meter and Van Horn

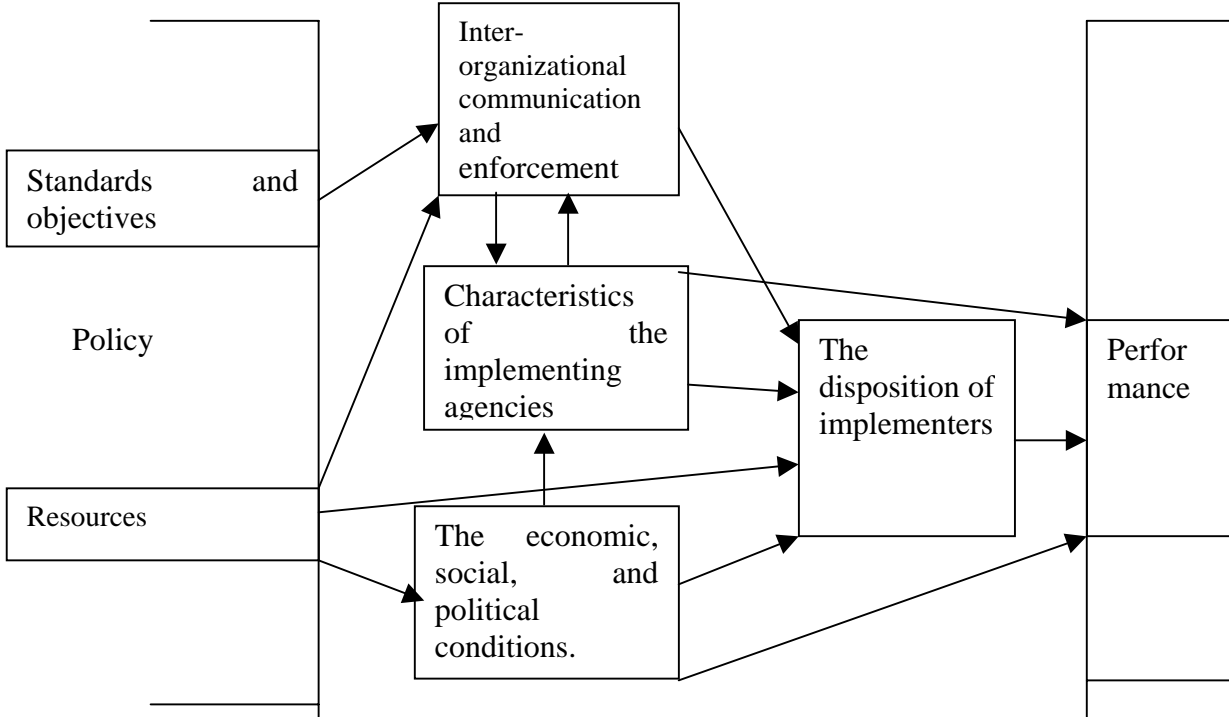
In this thesis is chosen to use the theory of Van Meter and Van Horn. This theory is chosen because the model they made for the implementation process, later on in this chapter explained, involves a lot of different aspects, which have influence on the implementation process. It is a model that can be used to analyse policy implementation, both where it involves actors within a single organisation and across organisational boundaries. They give insight in the policy, in the role of the governments and implementation agencies, but also on

the factors that are different in the countries where the policy is implemented and which influence this can have and although it is quite an old theory, this is still relevant and important. The theory also gives insight in the total performance of the implementation. It gives an overall view of the whole implementation process what made it most interesting to me because it gives a view of how far the implementation of the third goal of the MDGs in practice is. Next to that it can also explain why it is performing that way.

Van Meter and Van Horn made a model of the policy-implementation process (Hill and Hupe, 2002; 45). When Van Meter and Van Horn developed their theory, they used three different aspects. They used studies of organisation theory, studies of the impact of public policy and studies of inter-governmental relations. Van Meter and Van Horn’s presentation of their theoretical perspective starts with a consideration of the need to classify policies in terms that will throw light upon implementation difficulties. Their approach is comparatively simple. They suggest that there is a need to take into account the amount of change required and the level of consensus. Hence they hypothesise that implementation will be most successful where only marginal change is required and goal consensus is high. They present this in terms of an interrelationship.

Van Meter and Van Horn go on to suggest a model in which six variables are linked dynamically to the production of an outcome. This is also called the performance. They clearly see implementation as a process that starts from an initial policy decision. The process is presented as going through a series of stages. It is a clearly top-down approach, but when they stress concerns about consensus and compliance, they recognise the importance of participation in the policy formation by subordinates. The six variables are the policy standards and objectives, the resources and incentives made available, the quality of inter-organizational relationships, the characteristics of the implementation agencies, the economic, social and political environment and the disposition or response of the implementers. The relation between the different variables is shown in the figure below:

Figure 1: Theorie of Van Meter and Van Horn



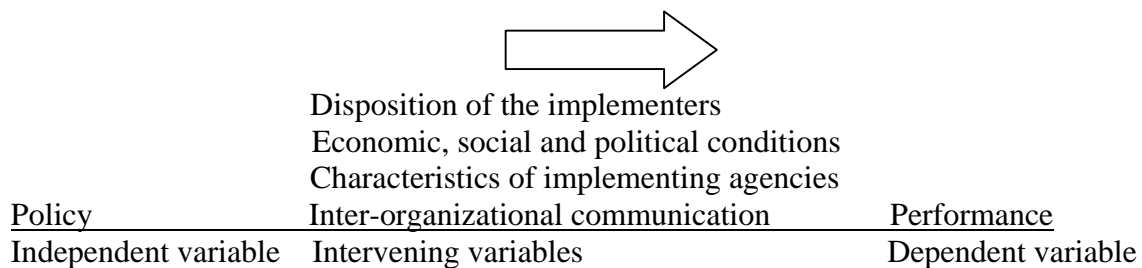
Source: Van Meter and Van Horn, 1975: 463.

2.3. Operationalisation

The theory described above will be used for an empirical research. This means that the theory will be used as a public administration point of view for the subject. In this paragraph the theory will be operationalised. One can descend different kind of variables: the independent, the dependent variable and the intervening variable.

In this thesis the policy will be the independent variable. So the standards and objectives, as well as the resources will be described in the analysis. The performance, in other words the results or outcomes will be dependent. The performance in the different countries will be described in the analysis. The differences in performance can be explained by the four left variables: inter-organizational communication and enforcement activities, the characteristics of the implementing agencies, economic, social and political conditions, and the disposition of the implementers. So these are the intervening variables, because they can explain the different performances and they are different in the countries. The figure below gives an overview of the variables.

Figure 2: Variables



These variables will be operationalised in the next paragraphs. For the four intervening variables one can define different indicators to measure these variables in practice in the four countries. For these indicators also other specific theories will be used.

2.3.1. Policy standards and objectives

There are different ways to define a 'policy'. Rosenthal describes it as following. If governments or other administrative organizations want to steer specific societal developments, they have to decide for each situation how this steering is performed. The resolutions, choices and actions of one or more administrative institutions focused on steering of a societal development are called 'policy' (Rosenthal, 2001: 82). This is a neutral definition because for each case one has to decide how well considered the plans and actions of the administrative institutions are. Policy can also be seen as covering a bundle of decisions, and it involves a predisposition to respond in a specific way (Hague and Harrod, 2001; 273). A policy is a concretization of steering on specific societal ground. This raises complex questions. For example when is a specific societal development asking for policy? When and on which way should the existing policy be corrected? Who are deciding about this and on which grounds? Which specific measure should be taken? Who will execute this? Every time administrators are confronted with the necessity to make careful and well-considered decisions. They are made accountable for their policy.

Van Meter and Van Horn see the policy itself as a natural starting point in the elaboration of their model, because the goals and objectives are at this point established. The goals and objectives elaborate on the overall goals of the policy decision. In the policy formation the starting-points, standards and objectives are fixed in plans, programs and other policy documents. Such documents are formed after many analyses, meetings and negotiations. A lot

of organizations, groups and persons are involved in this formation. In the policy formation becomes clear what the policy makers exactly want to reach and which goals they want to achieve.

It's important that these standards and objective are clear and well defined. Policy makers should ensure that there is complete understanding of, and agreement upon, the objectives to be achieved, and that these conditions persist throughout the implementation process (Hill and Hupe, 2001; 50). A critical feature of the policy is the degree of conflict or consensus over its goals and objectives. In moving towards agreed objectives it is possible to specify in complete detail and perfect sequence and the tasks to be performed by each participant.

Next to that the policy or plans should be well supported by other organizations. The extent to which there is goal consensus among the participants in the implementation process is an important factor. This will make it more likely that the goals will be achieved. Also the amount of change that is involved is an important factor. The implementation will be affected by the extent to which to policy deviates from previous policies and by the amount of organizational change that is required. The implementation will be most successful and effective if there is marginal change required and if the goal consensus is high. Lastly, the different types of decisions will display characteristic processes, structures and relationships among factors that influence the execution of public policy.

2.3.2. Resources and incentives made available

The resources are another part of the policy formation. One can make a distinction between different kinds of resources. One can think of foreign aid, instruments and/or professional expertise. Policy makers should ensure that adequate time and sufficient resources are made available to the program (Hill and Hupe, 2001; 50). There should be no constraints in terms of overall resources, but also at each stage in the implementation process, the required combination of resources should be actually available. Sometimes developments or organizations are dependent on common resources (Desai and Potter, 2002; 168). Resources may also include funds or other incentives in the program that may encourage or facilitate effective implementation.

It is important to work on policies with indigenous systems of co-operation resource management. This means that the co-operations are linked with each other, NGO's or state agencies. In the analysis one will have to distinguish the different resources for the four countries: the foreign aid (ODA), the amount of money that the government is spending on gender or social policies, the technical assistance and/or expertise and advice. Next to that it is important to find out how seriously the policy is implemented. Which amount of resources are used specific for promoting gender equality?

2.3.3. Inter-organisational communication and enforcement activities

Policy makers should ensure that there is a good communication among, and co-ordination of, the various elements involved in the program (Hill and Hupe, 2001; 52). Next to that, those in authority can demand and obtain perfect obedience. It is vital that the participants are concerned with the clarity of standards and objectives, the accuracy of their communication to implementers and the consistency with which they are communicated by various sources of information. Communication within and between organisations is a complex and difficult process (Van Meter and Van Horn, 1975; 465). The way of communication is the first indicator to identify the inter-organisational communication. This can be measured by the way people keep contact. People keep in contact on different ways. First one can distinguish how they keep contact. This can be by the use of email, telephone, conferences or the Internet. Second, it is important to find out how often they have contact and if this is structural or not. Lastly, it is important how this communication is coordinated. Who is organising this

communication and contacts? All these points together form the nature of the communication network.

Next to the identification of how the communication finds place, it is important to know between which actors the communication finds place. Between the formulation of the intentions of a policy and the delivery of related policy outputs, a process of transformation takes place (Van der Veen, 1990). This process is embedded within a range of vertical and horizontal relations between organisations involved in the making of the specific policy. In the world of implementation, horizontal relations concern the connections between the organisation primarily responsible for the implementation and related organisations. Also in the world of policy intentions there are horizontal linkages: for example between political parties and other societal organisations. Vertically, there is the general system of inter-governmental relations within which public policies in a country are formed and implemented. In addition, there is a 'trajectory' specific to a policy. This 'policy trajectory' entails the range of organisations involved in the policy process at stake. A way to achieve influence is to get states and localities to participate in a program.

The horizontal and vertical relations are the second indicator to identify for measuring the inter-organisational communication. It is important to find out how the process is co-ordinated. Who is responsible for what? If the horizontal relationships are clear and if there is a good communication between these relations, it will be easier to implement a policy. For the vertical relations, it is important to see if the process is co-ordinated and controlled from a central point. If there is a clear hierarchical structure it will also be easier to implement a policy. The style of leadership can also influence the individual's identification with the organisation's goals and objectives, either facilitating or hindering effective implementation. Superiors can rely on a wide variety of sanctions, both positive and negative. This will also make it easier to create an accounting system, because the responsibilities are clearer. It is important to specify conditions and procedural requirements, such as through reporting and accounting systems. Lastly, which enforcement activities are possible and which are really used in practice?

2.3.4. Characteristics of the implementation agencies

There are many characteristics of administrative agencies that affect their policy performance (Van Meter and Van Horn, 1975; 470). Van Meter and Van Horn made a list with different elements. These elements are overlapping with the study of Harbin. Harbin has made four key subdivisions. These subdivisions give a clearer and broader overview and that is why in this thesis is chosen to combine the elements of Van Meter and Van Horn and Harbin.

The first subdivision is the climate (Harbin, 1992). The climate consists of the history of services of the organisation, the level of support from decision makers and advocacy groups and the vitality of an organisation. The second subdivision is the resources. These exist of the financial resources, political resources, the qualified personnel (the competence and size of an agency's staff, the disposition of their personnel) and the existence of specialised facilities. The third subdivision is the policies. This consists of current interagency agreement, degree of hierarchical control of sub-unit decisions and processes within the implementing agencies, and existing legislation. The last subdivision is the system, which exists of experience with inter-agency services and the agencies formal and informal linkages with the policy making or policy enforcing body.

In this thesis it will be important to identify first if there are any specific implementing agencies or not. If so, how many, how are they co-ordinated and are they co-operative? Some people suggest that policy makers should ensure that there is a single implementing agency that need not depend upon other agencies for success. Or, if other agencies must be involved, that the dependency relationships are minimal in number and importance (Hill and Hupe, 2001; 50).

2.3.5. The economic, social and political environment

The realisation of policy is influenced by different societal factors. These factors are not directly under control of the policy makers (Rosenthal, 2001; 100). These factors can steer, in a positive or a negative way. They can stimulate the process or restrict it. In this thesis the economic, social-cultural and political factors will be worked out. These factors form conditions, which can influence the implementation of the third goal of the MDG.

2.3.5.1. The social-cultural conditions

The main indicators for the social and cultural conditions are the demographic and societal trends (Rosenthal, 2001; 41). Policy makers should take into account the demographic and social-cultural characteristics of a society. On the short term this is about relatively stable factors. One can think of the population growth and the population composition, life-ideological ideas, life expectancy and the existing societal relations. Migration and immigration is influencing this. Male and female survival chances vary at different points in their life cycle. In the first year of life, boys are more vulnerable than girls to diseases of infancy and in old age women tend to live longer as they are less likely to suffer from heart diseases. Any deviations from these norms indicate location and culture-specific factors. Also the fertility rates and the role of mother starve plays an important role on the equality between men and women. These are the changing limiting conditions for the direction.

Other indicators for the social and cultural conditions are the religion, sex ratio, the social policy and the health policy. The kind of religion has for example influence on the way the woman is seen. Recognition of the importance of the gender gap led to the 1995 establishment of Gender-Related Development Index (GDI). This combines gender-related measures of life expectancy, adult literacy, enrolment in education and estimates of earned income, to arrive at a country-by-country evaluation of the gender gap in achievement. There are some clear links between the level of economic development (Human Development Index, HDI and Human Poverty Index, HPI) and the gender-related index (GDI). The GDI uses some of the same indicators as the HDI: income, life expectation and education (Dijkstra, 2002: 304). If countries rank higher in GDI, it means that gender gaps in income, education and health are smaller than in other countries.

An important question to address is to what extent and how prevailing social and cultural conditions will affect the implementation of the policy in question. Do the social and cultural conditions facilitate or hinder the policy that is implemented? It is important to have a careful analysis of these factors. They can be identified either as a resource or as an obstacle. Identical policies due to such social-cultural factors may have to be implemented differently.

2.3.5.2. The economic conditions

Women are central to development. They control most of the non-money economy through bearing and raising children, and through providing much of the labour for household maintenance and subsistence agriculture. Women also make an important contribution to the money economy by their work in both the formal and informal sectors but these roles are

often ignored. Women's work is generally undervalued and the additional burden of development imposed on women is usually unrecognised. The main indicators for the economic conditions are: the internal economic situation, the kind of economic activities and the role of globalisation/the international relations. These concepts will be worked out below and linked to gender.

The economic circumstances or internal economic situation have direct consequences for the government. On national level, the development of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is a good indicator for the economic situation. Other points are the development of employment, the female economic activity rate, the amount of internal expenditures, the financial debt and the budgetary deficit. Female participation in the labour market gives women more dependency, income and power. There should be economic resources available within the implementing jurisdiction or organization sufficient to support successful implementation.

The kind of economic activities have influence on jobs divided between men and women. One can make a distinction between an agricultural or industrial economy. The modern sector takes over many of the economic activities, such as food processing and making of clothes, which had long been the means by which women supported themselves and their families. But by relieving them of this time consuming chores it gives them the freedom to find other, perhaps better, sources of earned income. Yet a majority of the better-paid jobs involving new technology go to men, but male income is less likely to be spent on the family (Henshall Momsen, 2004; 2). Modernisation of agriculture has altered the division of labour between the sexes, increasing women's dependent status as well as their workload. Women often lose control over resources such as land and are generally excluded from access to improved agricultural methods. More women are being left alone to support children.

The economic conditions are connected with international factors: the ups and downs from the world economy, the world prices and the export and import. The new economy is characterised by globalisation and the increasing use of computing and information technologies, but also by deregulation, income polarization and feminisation of employment (Henshall Momsen, 2004: 236). Globalisation, whereby producers and investors behave as if the world is a single market, has been thought of offer both opportunities and difficulties for women and men in poor countries. The process of globalisation of economic activity is not only strongly gendered but is also spatially linked with urban areas, which are seen as the locus of modernization in developing countries. Rural areas are usually considered as more closely linked to the local than the global. They are also becoming more closely integrated with the outside world through migration, improved communications and the growth of multinational agro-industries and mining projects. Such changes are undermining the patriarchal gender contract, under which a male breadwinner supports families, as women move into the labour force in response to new employment opportunities and increasing poverty. Still, illiterate poor women in isolated rural areas remain untouched by these changes.

An important question to address is to what extent and how prevailing economic conditions will influence the implementation of the policy? Do the conditions facilitate or hinder the implementation? It is important to have a careful analysis of these factors.

2.3.5.3. Political conditions

The state as a collection of institutions partly reflects and partly helps to create particular forms of gender relations and gender inequality (Henshall Momsen, 2004: 223). The state

practices construct and legitimate gender divisions, and gender identities are in part the result of legal restrictions and opportunities emanating from the state. Thus the state and the government play a key role in regulating gender relations. The main indicators for these political conditions are the political ideas and relations of power, the governmental systems, the decision-making, the elections and jurisdiction. These concepts will be worked out below and linked to gender.

The political conditions exist of the whole of political ideas and relations of power. This has influence on the decision for which a policy will get support. One can make a distinction between democracy systems and authoritarian rules. The world is increasingly democratic, but there are also still authoritarian countries. Democracy is varied in its operation (Hague and Harrod, 2001; 16). Democracy is a form of government offering a workable solution to the fundamental political problem of reaching collective decisions by peaceful means. There are direct, liberal, new and semi-democracies. A direct democracy is a form of self-government in which all adult citizens participate in shaping collective decisions, in a context of equality and open deliberation. In a democracy everything is more equal, so also more women will get the chance to have an influential position. In the twenty-first century, authoritarian regimes formed a more diverse group than ever before. Military governments or communist parties do not longer dominate most ranks of authoritarian regimes. The rulers have a little in common beyond their rejection of Western democracies. There is often one head of the state. This person has a lot of power. This continuing dominance creates enormous opportunities for corruption. It is important that elite's favour the implementation of the policy instead of opposing it. Next to that it is important that the system, democratic or authoritarian, is well organised/structured, because this will make it easier to implement a policy. Specific for gender it's important that governments pay attention to gender equality. One can check if the government adapted the 1979 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). CEDAW was adopted by the United Nations in 1976 and entered as an international treaty on September 1981. The convention aims to promote women's equal status and rights in the areas of domestic violence, reproductive rights, legal and political rights, among others. Most governments have formally adopted CEDAW, but the implementation of the CEDAW principles is often far from complete (Henshall Momsen, 2004: 220).

In the mature democracies of the west, political culture contributes to the stability of government. Authoritarian rulers, by contrast, face characteristic problems. Lacking legitimacy, which flows from free election, such rulers must find other ways of responding to the political culture of the societies they govern. Their options are to ignore, to manipulate or to seek transform the existing political culture. Elections in established democracies are genuinely competitive. They are free and fair. Through such contests rulers are called to account. In authoritarian systems, elections are often corrupt affairs, with the winner known in advance and electoral malpractices playing its part in delivering the desired results. It is important that women also have the chance to participate and held seats in parliaments. Yet, at the national level, the decision-making position of women deteriorated (Henshall Momsen, 2004). Many of the political inroads women have made are due to gender quotas designed to seat more women in legislative bodies, from national parliaments to village councils. It is important that countries have these quotas or other jurisdiction to improve the decision-making voice of women not only official, but also in practice. A research of the World Bank shows that if women are more closely involved with the political decision-making that this will lead to more transparency and less corruption (AIV, 2002). The Gender Empowerment

Index (GEM) takes into account the political power of women and the proportion of women in professional and technical jobs.

For the political conditions is the question if they facilitate or hindering the policy implementation of the third goal of the MDGs. This can be measured by for example the adoption of the CEDAW. The political factors can be identified either as a resource or as an obstacle. Identical policies due to such political factors may have to be implemented differently.

2.3.6. The disposition or response of the implementers

The concept of disposition will first be more defined before one can make it measurable for a research. The concept exists of three indicators. The first indicator is cognition. This consists of comprehension and understanding. Most significant for this concept is that the general goals and specific norms and values are understood (Van Meter and Van Horn, 1975). These goals and norms should be in common with those from the implementers. The second indicator is the direction of response. Three concepts are central for this indicator: acceptance, neutrality and rejection. The direction of this reaction to the norms and goals is defining for the performance. Good performance is also dependent on the acceptance of the norms and goals. The third indicator is the intensity of the response. This can be described by the way of reacting to new policy. The level of intensity of this reaction is of great importance for the performance of the new policy. If the attitude of the implementers to the policy is positive, the intensity will increase. This can explain the diverse effectiveness of the different implementations.

2.3.7. Performance

One of the most difficult problems in implementation research has been how to measure the concept of successful implementation. From the point of view of Lester and Goggin, policy implementation is a process, 'a series of sub-national decisions and actions directed towards putting a prior authoritative federal decision into effect' (Lester and Goggin, 1998: 8). The essential characteristic of the implementation process, then, is the timely and satisfactory performance of certain necessary tasks related to carry out the intention of the law. This means rejecting a dichotomous conceptualisation of implementation as simply success or failure (Hill and Hupe, 2002; 140).

One can make a distinction between outputs and outcomes. Policy outputs are what the government has achieved. (Hague and Harrop, 2001: 276). The outputs are the immediate effects of what the government does. Policy outcomes are more than only what the governments achieve. Outcomes are the effects, both intended and unforeseen. Outputs are measured easily while outcomes are harder to ascertain. A distinction can be made between policy implementation, performance, and what generally has been referred to as policy impact (Van Meter and Van Horn, 1975; 448). The impact is related to the consequences of a policy decision in general. A policy may be implemented effectively, but can still fail to have a substantial impact because it was ill conceived or because of other circumstances. So successful program performance may be necessary, but a more important condition is the attainment of positive ultimate impact.

In most cases it is difficult to identify and measure performance. This may be due to the wide scale of the program's or the complex and far reaching nature of its goals. It may also be a consequence of ambiguities and contradictions in the statement of standards and objectives. As most policies affect some citizens or clients, who are the recipients of programs both the

process of policy-making and the process of implementation must incorporate mechanisms to elicit changes in behaviour and attitude. Whether it is agriculture, family planning, health or education, the ultimate success of policies or programs depends on the response of the citizens or recipients of programs. This is something that one shouldn't forget in measuring the performance.

To measure the performance in this thesis, there will be made a distinction between two points. First, the achievement of the standards and objectives will be measured. This will be the main focus. There will be measured if there is progress and if the goals are already reached. This will be done by looking at relevant data of the countries about the targets formulated for goal three. If there is any progress, the question is how far the countries are and what should be improved. The progress should be enough to reach the goal in 2015. If a country is on track, there should be significant progress since 2000 and there should be an upgrading line towards 2015. If there is no progress or even decrease, the question is how this is caused. Can this be explained by the differences for the four intervening variables? Second, there will be some attention for the real effect/impact that the implementation of the third goal of the MDGs had so far. This is much more difficult to measure, but it is important to consider for the development of the country.

2.4. Conclusion

In chapter two is the theoretical framework developed. The theory of Van Meter and Van Horn is used as main basis for developing this framework. Their theory exists of six different variables. All the variables are worked out, operationalised and are connected. In the empirical research the main focus will be on the outcomes of the four specific countries on the third goal of the MDG. There will be researched if there are different outcomes and how these can be explained. The policies, the exogenous factors, the agencies and the performance will be described and analysed by this framework. There will be less focus on the characteristics of the implementing agencies and the disposition of the implementers. As described in chapter one, the United Nations, is the main co-ordinating organisation for developing the Millennium Development Goals. The responsibility of the implementation of these goals is on the other hand by the governments of the four countries. They are steering the national executive agencies who are implementing the policies. This will be described in the section of the policies in each of the four countries. Within the time frame of this thesis it will be difficult to get inside those national executive organisations and find objective information about them and their way of operating in the countries. That's why the focus is more on the other variables. In the next chapters the empirical data is presented for the four specific countries.

3. Bangladesh

Chapter three exists of the following paragraphs. First in paragraph 3.1, the background of Bangladesh is worked out. Second in paragraph 3.2, the policies to promote gender equality in Bangladesh are discussed. In paragraph 3.3, the exogenous factors are worked out from different point of view, namely the socio-cultural, the economic and the political conditions. In paragraph 3.4, the outcomes for Bangladesh on the MDGs as well as on the third goal are described. Chapter three will end with a conclusion in which the different concepts described above are linked to each other.

3.1. Background of Bangladesh

Bangladesh is a South Asian country, virtually surrounded by India, Myanmar and the coast (Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1998: 28). The country covers an area of 147,960 square kilometres and has a population of 133 million. Bangladesh has one of the highest population densities in the world at 840 people per km². To the northeast and the southeast lie the hilly regions, a continuation of the mighty Himalayan Ranges. The country has a rich flora and fauna. Much of the country consists of fertile alluvial land overlain along by a network of major rivers. Due to the geography of Bangladesh, floods frequently plague the country: there is prolonged rainfall and rivers often get out of their boundaries.

Bangladesh has been described as a moderate, democratic country with a tolerant society, by the US Congressional delegation in March 2003 (Millennium Development Goals needs Assessment of Bangladesh, 2004). It follows a policy of non-alignment and settlement of issues through peaceful negotiations, territorial integrity, sovereign equality and renunciation of force and interference with neighbouring countries. The South Asia Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) was formed between 7 neighbouring countries in 1985. Bangladesh is a member of the United Nations, the Organization of Islamic Countries, Commonwealth of Nations and also maintains diplomatic relations with 48 countries as well as the neighbouring countries.

Women play a subordinate role to Bangladeshi males, particularly in rural areas (Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1998: 29). In the early 1970s men lived longer than women, mainly in South Asia (Henshall Momsen, 2004: 26). By end of the century women's life expectancy in Bangladesh was equal to or greater than that of men. Rising female education and access to employment opportunities are associated with declines in female mortality, but this has been counterbalanced by the increased use of sex-selective induced abortion, resulting in a higher sex ratio with an excess of boys at birth. In Bangladesh there is failure to enforce laws protecting women.

Among poor women, female-headed households constitute 15 percent of all households, and these are the poorest (MDG Needs Assessment, Bangladesh, 2004). Some 96 percent of female-headed households live below the poverty line. One can make a distinction between agricultural sector and non-agricultural sector. The agricultural sector is much bigger in Bangladesh. Traditionally, much more women work in agriculture. About half of the married women in landless male-headed households work as agricultural labourers. The workforce in public sector industries is predominantly male. Fertility rates declined from six to four children in 2000. The expectation is that this decreasing line will stay.

3.2.Policies in Bangladesh

In the PRSP of Bangladesh is attention for the specific development objective of promoting gender equality. The government actively promotes policies for increasing women's participation in all spheres of development under the poverty reduction strategy (PRSP, Bangladesh, 2003). In part c the strategies for women's advancement and removing gender gaps are worked out. Bangladesh has a strategy with gender concerns into both diagnostic and prescriptive modules concerning economic growth, poverty reduction and social development. Gender concern have been identified both at sectoral and sub-sectoral levels.

The government of Bangladesh sees the burden of poverty that continues to fall disproportionately on women. The underlying factors are low literacy rate, low nutrition, low income with discriminating wage differentials compared to men, low life expectancy and high morbidity. Empowering women is seen as crucial for its intrinsic value as a development goal. Next to that it is crucial as instrument for bringing about favourable social and economic change. The following areas of critical importance will be emphasized for furthering women's advancement:

- Policies and institutional actions to combat continuing negative sex ratios
- Violence against women
- High maternal mortality
- Restrictions on women's employment and economic opportunities
- Policies to ensure formal equality
- Supporting affirmative actions at all levels and in all spheres creating women friendly institutional environment
- Generating gender disaggregated statistics

The programs and projects of Bangladesh will be considered under the strategy and the Three Year Rolling Plan (TYRP). The purpose of TYRP is that the government of Bangladesh wants to finalize a framework for achieving pro-poor economic growth in three years (PRSP, Bangladesh, 2003). This includes first the reviewing of existing policies and institutional measures. Second the setting up of women producer's marketing centres from the grassroots to the national level. Third the enhancing and easing women's access to banking services. Fourth the developing micro enterprises training, production and networking centres. Fifth the establishment of linkages and enhancing capacity of women entrepreneurs for the export markets. Lastly, establishing employment information and skill development network centres for the urban migrant female labour and international migrant female labour. Specific affirmative measures such as childcare and safe transport facilities will be initiated for sustaining and supporting women's employment. The planning and policy-making agencies of the government have been involved in the process. An Inter-Ministerial Task Force was formed to ensure close interaction and coordination. For operational purposes, the strategy paper will form the core of the Three-Year Rolling Plan (TYRP) providing the basis for the annual budget.

An important issue is to increase the political voice of women. This needs much more attention because it will contribute to faster progress in the well being of children and women (PRSP, Bangladesh, 2003). For initiating political empowerment of women, the Government has passed the Local Government Election Bill in 1997 (UN, CEDAW, 2003). This is to ensure grassroots level in women's political participation. Currently women activists and women organizations are lobbying with the government for direct election of women to the National Parliament. To promote and initiate overall development activities for women the

National Council for Women's Development (NCWD) approved National Policy for Women's Advancement in 1997.

The government of Bangladesh puts specific attention to gender parity in school enrolment by 2005 (MDG Needs Assessment, Bangladesh, 2004). In order to reach this goal, the government needs to implement specific policies to attract and retain girls in school. Examples are subsidies to girls, provision to girls' toilets and women teachers. The government is also prioritizing the recruiting of women for teaching positions. Next to that the government has initiated different stipend programs to reach this and to keep students attentive in study at both primary and secondary level. The Development Program for Primary Education (PEDP-II) just started. This is a gender action plan where the ministries of Education and Women and Children affairs on different levels are involved.

During 2001, Bangladesh received the equivalent of \$8,42 per capita in aid. Bilateral donations make up the majority of aid to Bangladesh. Japan is leading in this (MDG Needs Assessment, Bangladesh, 2004). Multilateral organizations also play a prominent role in assistance. For example the International Development Association and the Asian Development Bank contribute substantially. Over 90 percent of aid takes the form of long-term loans. 70 percent of total ODA has been directed towards specific MDG targets. Most money goes to trade, transport and food. For gender is two percent reserved.

3.3.Exogenous factors in Bangladesh

3.3.1. Socio-cultural conditions in Bangladesh

The socio-economic development of Bangladesh can be divided in four historic periods. Namely, the Mughal Empire (16th century), the British colonial period (1757 till 1947), the period under Pakistan rule (1947 till 1971) and the period since independence in 1971 (http://europa.eu.int/comm/external_relations/bangladesh/intro/index.htm). They don't have high military expenditure. This is 1,1 percent of GDP in 2001. Bangladesh is number 139 out of 177 on the Human Development Index (Human Development Index, 2005). It is number 72 out of 103 on the Human Poverty Index rank two. In total they have a female population of 49,7 percent. The country has ratified six of seven basic human rights of the ILO conventions and nine of the thirteen Principal Human Rights Instruments (MDG Needs Assessment, Bangladesh, 2004). The government of Bangladesh had initially ratified the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), but in 1997 it withdrew two Articles. Bangladesh has reservations on Articles 2, 13.1(a), 16.1(c) and (f) on the basis of religious sentiments (see appendix). An inter-ministerial committee for implementation of CEDAW recommended withdrawal of reservations, but the reservations are still there because the government feels that these provisions are in conflict with religious Islamic laws (UN, CEDAW, 2005). Efforts are underway to facilitate the withdrawal of the two remaining reservations. There are problems in implementing existing legal provision due to women's, as well as men's ignorance about their legal rights. The content as well as application of laws put women in a disadvantaged position as compared to men.

The people are predominantly Bengali, speaking the Bengali language. Approximately 88 percent are Muslim, 11 percent Hindu, whilst the remainder is made up of Buddhists and Christians. The fertility rate in Bangladesh was 3.13 in 2000. This is a steep decline from 6.12 in 1980 (World Bank, 2003) and is slightly lower than the rate in the South Asia region. The population growth was 1.74 in 2000, which is similar to the regional rate. Approximately 38

percent of the population is below 15 years of age. The country is rapidly urbanizing. The life expectancy is 61,1 years.

The public health expenditure in 2000 (in % of GDP) was 1.6, while the private health expenditure was 2,0 percent. Malaria and tuberculosis do exist and are a problem for the society. The malaria cases per 100,000 people in 2000 are 40 and the tuberculosis cases are 447 (Human Development Report).

3.3.2. Economic conditions in Bangladesh

The population of Bangladesh ranks among the poorest in the world. It has an estimated Gross National Income per capita of US\$ 380 (World Development Indicators, 2004). The Bangladeshi economy grew at an average rate of 3.1 percent per capita between 1990 and 2001. It is estimated that this growth rate will need to be accelerated for the country to meet the MDGs by 2015. Bangladesh came into existence in 1971 when Bengali East Pakistan seceded from its union with West Pakistan. Since Bangladesh gained statehood in 1971, several transformations have taken place, which are important for its future development. A major factor has been the very rapid globalisation of Bangladesh's society since the 1970s, not only in terms of economic and political linkages but also in terms of greatly expanded Bengali Diaspora.

Bangladesh had adverse initial conditions at the start of its journey three decade ago (MDG Needs Assessment, Bangladesh, 2004). With one of the most vulnerable economies of the world characterized by extremely high population density, low resource base, high incidence of natural disaster and extremely adverse initial circumstances associated with the inheritance of a war-ravaged economy. Although Bangladesh has achieved considerable success in several spheres such as population control, reduction in child mortality, disaster mitigation mainstreaming women into the development process, catalyses grass-roots activism through NGOs and CBOs and in making democratic transition.

In 2001/02, agriculture contributed 16.5 percent to GDP. Manufacturing accounted for 15.3 percent. The economy continues to shift towards services and manufacturing, while the share of agriculture has seen a decline. The export of goods and services in percentage of GDP is 14 percent, while the import is 19 percent. The substantial population pressure and limited natural resources have induced more than one million Bangladeshis to seek job opportunities abroad, particularly in the Middle East. The large and cheap labour force in Bangladesh has also attracted labour-intensive industries from abroad. The dynamics of Bangladeshi society are reflected in the growth and in emerge of non-governmental organisations (NGO's), which have multiplied and diversified as nowhere else. With the phasing out of the Multi Fiber Agreement (MFA) and the Generalized System of Preferences (GSP) in 2005, Bangladesh will be subjected to stiff competition from other exporting countries. These countries have so far been restricted from accessing the US and Canadian markets. The Preferential Trade Policy enjoyed by the MFA quota system (US) and the GSP facilities (EU) have been providing Bangladesh with an opportunity to emerge as an exporter of apparel in the global market. The female economic activity in percentage of male is 76 in 2002. The female employment in agriculture is 144 percent in comparison to that of male. The female employment in industry in percentage of the male rate is 82 percent (Human Development Report).

3.3.3. Political conditions in Bangladesh

Bangladesh is formal a republic (www.minbuza.nl). Bangladesh knows the separation of power. Despite, the independence of the magisterial is only partial; the lower justice authorities are part of the performing power. National political parties, Parliament, the armed forces and other state institutions are dominated by shifting alliances of urban interest groups which relate to, but are not dominated by, rural power holders. The parliament is not functioning well. The president has only a few competences. The president is chosen for a period of five years by the parliament. He appoints the first minister.

The parliament exists of 300 members. These members are direct chosen with the general elections by a district system. In the past, were 30 female members appointed after the elections. They hold the seats put on the other hand, in practice they didn't have so much power as they supposed to have. The provision for reserved women seats in parliament expired in 2001. Since 1972 women have the right to stand for elections. Both the present ruling party and the opposition made clear commitments in their election manifestos to increase women reserve seats in parliament through direct election (UN, CEDAW, 2003). The Ministry of Law, Justice and Parliamentary Affairs is examining pros and cons of it. The number of seats in parliament is now to be raised to 345, in which 45 seats will be reserved for women in the next parliament. Women's groups are lobbying for these seats to become directly elected positions and for the number of reserved seats to be increased.

The most influential parties in the parliament are the AL and the BNP. The Jatiya party of the ex-president Ershad and the fundamental Islamitic Jamaat e Islami party follow these. This last party is small but good organised and is since the last elections part of the government. The BNP and JP are relative nationalistic, Islamic and pro-Pakistan. The AL is relative progressive, secular and pro-India.

Since the '90 is Bangladesh governed on a democratic way. There have been two cruel changes of the power. The internal politic relations are despite strongly polarised. This is an obstacle for the administration and the national developments in the country. The battle for political power is symbolised by two prominent women in the Bengalese politics. As the percentage of the total, there are 9,5 women in the government at ministry level. Women take two percent of the seats in the lower house, while in the upper house this is zero which is very low.

3.4. Outcomes of Bangladesh

3.4.1. Outcomes for the MDGs

Bangladesh suffers from very high levels of poverty (MDG Needs Assessment, Bangladesh, 2004). 50 percent of the population lived below the national poverty line in 2000. The income poverty is reducing but probably not enough to half the poverty by 2015. In recent decades, poor governance has further caused acute deprivation of the poor, women and the disadvantaged, which contributed to widespread poverty. Bangladesh suffers from extremely high levels of malnutrition. Progress has been made in improving health outcomes. Especially maternal mortality rate made a big reduction. However, child and infant mortality remain high and are unlikely to reach the MDG targets in 2015. Recent evidence suggests that the country is close to achieving parity in life expectancy at birth as well. The country has already reached the water MDG because Bangladesh has a very high access to safe drinking water in both rural and urban areas. Urgent investments for sanitation are required because this didn't improve enough.

The government of the People's Republic of Bangladesh has been working to achieve the MDGs. This development process started in the 1990s. The transition from military-led autarchy to democratisation in 1990 has provided the ray of hope. The country's macro economy could be steadied with policy reforms and the economy achieved sustained growth throughout the 1990s. The GDP has been raised. A number of sectoral policies have been formulated, which paved the way for its journey to development. The high population growth has been reduced. There are some successes and Bangladesh might be able meet some of the goals for 2015 but not all. Most important reasons for not reaching these goals are poor governance, bureaucratic and political hindrances (MDG Needs Assessment, Bangladesh, 2004). Most successes are results of a joint effort of the government of Bangladesh and NGOs. NGOs have been particularly focused on providing non-formal and primary education, health care facilities and micro financing to income of poor households. The civil society has always been constructive. The joint efforts of the government and civil society have been supported by the Development Partners, mostly the Overseas Development Agencies of advanced economies. It is also interesting to note that the overall ODA to Bangladesh has actually declined during the same period when the country has been working hard to meet the MDGs.

In the IPRSP of Bangladesh (2003) the government identified the following key challenges for the country:

- Lack of physical infrastructure
- Poor law and order situation with high incidence of organized crime, extortion and economic violence.
- Lack of effective local government and decentralization.
- Poor quality of education, health and other social services
- Lack of coordination among development agencies and institutions operating at the local level
- Lack of remunerative employment and economic opportunities.
- Lack of social capital at the community level resulting in low level of collective action
- Lack of democratisation of political processes

3.4.2. Outcomes for gender equality

Bangladesh has achieved some progress in mainstreaming women into the development process (http://www.mdgbangla.org/striving_mdg/index.htm). Bangladeshi women have played an important role in the success of micro-credit, ready-made garment exports, reducing population growth, increasing child nutrition, and in the spread of primary education. On the other hand the overall level of empowerment measured in terms of literacy, work force participation, property rights and credit access leaves much to be desired. Bangladesh has a score of 110 out of 163 on the Gender-related Development Index. While significant gender gaps still persist, the role of women in all walks of life has become increasingly visible and would be instrumental in bringing about wider social and economic changes in future.

While the government has undertaken steps to improve the rights of women and young girls, there is a need for stronger enforcement of laws such as the Child Marriage Restraint Act and the Dowry Prohibition Act (MDG Needs Assessment 2004, Bangladesh). Under the government's TYRP and Annual Development Programs, various initiatives are being taken to further the cause of women like ensuring self-employment, elimination of violence against women, introduction of informal and vocational training, establishment of day-care facilities,

hostels for women, food during education, free education for secondary girl students, health care etc. Gender equality is an extremely difficult goal that requires complex cultural, social and economic changes. Beneath is given a partial estimation of the resources and policies needed to achieve the gender goal, with particular attention to awareness program, sensitisation and training, violence prevention and systemic issues. A major part of the available budget is made free for gender interventions in Bangladesh and goes to vocational training programs with focus on training adolescent girls in secondary school building skill sets that can be applied in the workforce (MDG, Needs Assessment Bangladesh, 2004). Other cost components include the creation and operation of women's ministries within the government and the responses to violence against women. The total costs per capita to gender interventions in Bangladesh estimates in 2000: 1,6 million, in 2005: 2.1 million, in 2010: 2.1 million, in 2015: 2 million.

3.4.2.1. Objective one

Objective one is the rate of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education. Bangladesh made much progress on this objective. Especially in the beginning around 1990 they made a remarkable achievement. Last years this became more stable or even declining on tertiary education. The amount of children that official follows primer education, is increased with 30 percent between 1990 and 1997. This is increasing in the cities as well as in the rural areas. Within this the girls made a big pursuit race in comparison to the boys. By now there are almost as much girls as boys going to school. This doesn't mean that girls and boys are equal treated. For example the quality of the education for girls should be improved and the girls should learn something, which is useful for their life in the society and finding a job. Although there are some laudable initiatives, the implementation of laws regarding oppression against women remains weak (UN, CEDAW, Bangladesh, 2003). Because of the poor performance of policies and laws, discrimination still exists. The dropout rate for girls is also still high with 37 percent. There are more efforts required to retain girls in school and to increase completion rates. The ratio of girls' enrolment to boys was in 2001 1,02 (http://www.minbuza.nl/default.asp?CMS_ITEM=042D088DF1464724B259D5CA33465601X3X47142X58).

Bangladesh made also progress for secondary education. The rate of girls to boys in secondary education in 2001 was 1,10. For tertiary education this is much lower with 50 percent. In the beginning Bangladesh made progress, but last years this is even declining for tertiary education. With giving money and releasing for the paying of the school money they are trying to get more girls from rural areas to secondary education. Next to that the government is trying to get more female teachers. At this moment 37 percent of the teachers are female. The government took a lot of arrangements to improve the equal treatment of women, but in practice this seems to be really difficult. It is important that employees of the ministry of education, the local education authorities, the teachers and the local interest groups are trained to have more view on gender issues and put laws and regulations on this field in practice.

3.4.2.2. Objective two

Objective two is the rate of literate women to men. In Bangladesh the literacy among adolescents (age 14-24) has increased. In 1990 this was 0,65, while in 2004 this was 0,71. On the other hand this is still low and a lot needs to be done.

3.4.2.3. Objective three

Objective three is the share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector. This increased in Bangladesh. In 1990 this was 17,6, while in 2003 this was 24,2. Even though the pace of improvement in social indicators has been impressive in Bangladesh, this has not often been accompanied by equal improvements in gender equality (MDG Needs Assessment, Bangladesh, 2004). A significant gender disparity persists in both income and human poverty, especially at the lower end of the income distribution. Households living in extreme poverty are most likely to be headed by a female. Gender inequality is particularly evident in the context of severe malnutrition, mortality and morbidity. Discrimination in terms of sex, wages, hours of work still exist. Gender inequality and violence are the main reasons for deaths of young women.

3.4.2.4. Objective four

Objective four is the proportion of seats held by women in the national parliament. Bangladesh has a decreasing line on this objective and is not making progress. In 1990 this was ten, while in 2004 this was only two. Discrimination against women in South Asia is still very strong. Bangladesh had women political leaders but they have gained their positions based on their elite status and family connections rather than on their own personal qualities. Next to that high political position does not necessarily lead to anti-discriminatory legislation. Women often still have little power.

It has been suggested that women living through the post-communist transition question the value of seeking public roles, because they do not see the state as a site of liberation (Henshall Momsen, 2004: 223). They rather see the private space of the family as the source of agency, since this offered them the most freedom under communist regimes. At the local government level, however, there is a trend towards more elected women. Thus change is slowly coming.

3.5. Conclusion

Bangladesh is making progress for the third goal of the MDGs. It made some success in mainstreaming women into the development process. The government actively promotes policies to increase the participation of women. Despite, women are still seen as sub-ordinate to men, particular in rural areas and a lot still needs to be done. For some of the indicators Bangladesh is on track and some are probably difficult to achieve.

On the first indicator, Bangladesh made a lot of progress. For primary education Bangladesh is already on track in the way that the ratio of boys to girls in primary education is similar. For secondary education this is close to each other. Only tertiary education is a problem, which only declined last years. Next to that there are still a lot of girls who dropout. Bangladesh made a lot of progress because of the attention from the government for this objective, especially in 1990. The government is hard working on this objective and gets a lot of support from other organisations/countries. For example they have the Three Year Rolling Plan and the PEDP. There are subsidies for girls to go to school and there is a lot of attention for female teachers. They also adopted the CEDAW (except two articles), which has been proven to be successfully. For the second indicator it is more difficult to describe and explain because there is almost no information available. The female literacy rate was 0,71, which is already quite good.

On the third indicator, Bangladesh should still improve a lot. The share of women in the wage employment of the non-agricultural sector increased, but it is still very low. There is still discrimination in terms of sex, wage and hours of work. There is some policy for this

problem, but the economy has been slowly growing and this has a lot of influence. It is a big country with a high population density, low resources and a high incidence of natural disasters. The poverty has most influence on the life of women. Bangladesh is urbanizing and growing. The industry sector is dominated by males. In comparison, nine percent of the females are working in industries and this is 82 percent of the male rate. In the agriculture are 77 percent of the females working. In percentage of the male rate that is working that is working in agriculture, this is 144 percent.

On the fourth indicator, Bangladesh is performing badly. In fact the proportion of seats by women in the national parliament only decreased. Since 2001 this is only two percent. An explanation for this is bad policy, and the fact that in practice there is no democracy. The main obstacles to women's participation lies in the reluctance of political bosses to bring about change, the high cost of elections and the use of arms in elections, the hostility of local politician to cede their constituency to women politicians. In some cases women politicians are themselves reluctant to contest general seats. There has been a quota system for the national parliament, but this expired in 2001, but this will be introduced again.

In short, one can say that Bangladesh made some progress. They made progress to bring about greater women's empowerment. The gap is closing, but they should work on literacy, work force, property rights, credit access and political voice. Bangladesh has place 110 out of 163 on the GDI Index. The government needs to do a lot, but this a long process because the unequal status of women in society and in public life is largely due to the fact of having unequal status in the family life. This is also related to the religion. They need a stronger enforcement of the laws. In total two percent of the money for the MDGs is reserved for gender.

4.Nepal

Chapter four exists of the following paragraphs. First in paragraph 4.1, the background of Nepal is worked out. Second in paragraph 4.2, the policies to promote gender equality in Nepal are discussed. In paragraph 4.3, the exogenous factors are worked out from different points of view, namely the socio-cultural, the economic and the political conditions. In paragraph 4.4, the outcomes for Nepal on the MDGs as well as on the third goal are described. Chapter four will end with a conclusion in which the different concepts described above are linked to each other.

4.1.Background of Nepal

Nepal is a land-locked country with a unique geopolitical situation (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1998; 12). It is bordering India to the East, West and South, and China to the North. All political and economic developments in Nepal need to be viewed against this background. Nepal has a population of 25 million people. Average population density on the total surface of 147,000 km² is estimated at just over 140 people per square kilometre. This is relatively high for a country where natural resources are scarce and unevenly distributed. Nepal has place 140 out of 177 on the Human Development Index and number 69 out of 103 on the Human Poverty Index rank two.

Nepal has traditionally consisted of numerous agricultural communities (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1998: 13). Each of these communities was occupied by one or more valleys watered by rivers and protected by mountain walls. Because of these mountains, communication was difficult and trade was limited. Most families were self-sufficient. Land was the central value in these communities. Some of the characteristics of these old farming communities are still present in some parts of Nepal. Some communities in the west have little or no dealings with the rest of the country apart of the administrative system. These extreme conditions also largely explain the great variety of different cultures that are existing in Nepal. The military expenditure of the government of Nepal is only 1,4 percent of the GDP in 2002.

In most castes and ethnic groups, Nepalese women have both lower status and heavier workloads than men. Disparity has been recognised between the nation's men and women in the Tenth Five Year Plan of His Majesty's Government of Nepal. This plan identifies women as the prime target group for achieving its overall aim of poverty alleviation and human resources development.

In the early 1970s men lived longer than women, just like in Bangladesh. By the end of the century in Bangladesh and most of the countries in South Asia this was equal to or greater than that of men. Nepal, Maldives and Pakistan are exceptions in this (Henshall Momsen, 2004: 26). Nepal is one of the few countries in the world where women have a lower life expectancy than men, a direct reflection of the underprivileged status of women. The life expectancy on average is 59,6.

4.2.Policies in Nepal

In most castes and ethnic groups one can see that women have a lower status (MDG Progress Report, Nepal, 2002). Next to that they have a heavier workload than men. The government is recognising this disparity in its Tenth Five Year Plan. The government should develop more tools and mechanisms that enable women to access, participate and benefit from equitable local planning and governance through programs that are aimed at empowering women. The Mainstreaming Gender Equity Programme (MGEP) assists the Nepalese government in

overcoming gender gaps through building the capacity of policy-makers, bureaucrats, legislators, members of the judiciary, civil society and media. There is also a Joint Initiative against Trafficking (JIT). Next to that a great social challenge to women in development countries is the tackle of HIV/AIDS. His Majesty's Government of Nepal submitted its Initial Report on measures adopted to give effect to the provisions of Convention on the elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women in May 1997 (UN, CEDAW, Nepal, 2002).

For the first objective, the government of Nepal has sought to move towards gender parity in school education by first instituting special incentives to girl children to enroll in school (MDG Nepal, progress report 2002, UNDP). Examples of those incentives are scholarships, day meal and instruction/support of materials. Second policy they followed was that they required that all primary schools hire at least one female teacher who could inspire girl children as role model. Third, they made provisions for special scholarships to a small number of girl children. Governmental encouragement throughout the 1990s to INGOs and NGOs to organize non-formal literacy camps for teenage and adult women also had the effect of popularizing the importance of education among girls and parents.

Since the 1980s the government has adopted a two-pronged strategy (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1998; 17). On the one hand the role of the private sector in economic activities is being enhanced. On the other hand the government is supposed to act as a catalyst in the development of social sectors and the infrastructure. Various studies on the status of women, made around 1980, have indicated that they constitute the backbone of Nepalese agriculture. Their contribution to household production and income was found to be at par with that of man, both in terms of labor input and decision-making. That is why they started to develop policies. The development policies of Nepal are laid down in development plans. In total there are ten such plans developed. Declarations on women and development were included in the Seventh (1985-1990) and Eight (1992-1997) Plans. Most important was emphasizing strengthening of the economic, social, political and legal position of women. The ninth plan (1997-2002) intends to mainstream women into the planning process through training, education and promotion of women's groups. The tenth plan (from 2002) is a continuation of this.

Although on paper the Nepalese government is adopting all the right policies, in practice, the problem lies in the implementation. The results of all liberalization and privatisation measures have been mixed and the country seems to need much more effort to alleviate poverty, enhance employment opportunities and raise the level of income.

4.3.Exogenous factors in Nepal

4.3.1. Social-cultural conditions in Nepal

Nepal is situated at the border of two main areas of culture. Influences from both sides may be found in different parts of the country. Inhabitants of the high Himalayas are of Tibetan origin. They are apart in their looks, their Buddhist religion and their language. In the centre of Nepal groups of Central Asian origin are found. Inhabitants of the Tarai are mainly of Indian origin and speak Indian languages.

Hinduism is by far the most important religion in Nepal with almost 90 percent of the population as adherents. Only nine percent practice Buddhism but the two religions have much in common. The caste system was officially abolished in the Constitution of 1962. In general, women of the lower castes, which continue to play a role, play a more active role in

economic life than those of higher castes. This has positive and negative effects. Increasing numbers of women are forced to work in the manufacturing sector. Most of these workers are relatively young, overwhelming uneducated and compelled by poverty to enter the work force. Apart from socio-economic differentiation, there is compulsion of women to give birth to at least one son to take care of her during old age. Women have no access to parental property. Hence, there is no social or economic incentive for a woman to control her fertility. The fertility rate is 4,3. They have a female population of 48,7 percent.

The government of Nepal was spending 1,5 percent of the GDP in 2001 to Public health expenditure. The private health expenditure was 3,6, which is high. The Public expenditure on education is 1,4 percent in 2002. For malaria there are 33 cases per 100,000 people in 2000 and for tuberculosis 271.

4.3.2. Economic conditions in Nepal

In 1990, following a democratization movement, Nepal became a parliamentary democracy under a constitutional monarch. Although this led to a process of economic restructuring and market liberalization, political instability and years of increasingly dire internal security challenges have undercut the country's economic growth and reform efforts (<http://www.usembassy.it/pdf/other/RL31599.pdf>). Nepal has a Gross National Income per capita of US\$ 230 (World development Indicators, 2004).

At first sight, the structure of the economy is fairly balanced. Agriculture and services are the most important economic sectors. Industry comes after this. According to official statistics a large majority of the people (80 percent) are engaged in the agricultural sector, while the contribution of this sector to GDP remains rather limited. The growth of agricultural production has been unable to keep pace with population growth and per capita availability of food grains is falling. Nepal has recently turned from being a food surplus country to a deficit one and food items constitute about ten percent of total imports. The export of goods and services in 2002 as percentage of the GDP was 16, while this was 29 for the import. Although the industrial sector has shown considerable growth since the beginning of the 1980s in terms of value added as well as employment, Nepal remains one of the least industrialized countries in the world. Also the service sector has shown important growth. The female activity rate in 2002 was 56,8. In percentage to the male rate this 67 percent. Employed women receive wages that are twenty-five percent less than that of men. There is no recent data available of the women working in the non-agricultural sector. The urban population in 2002 was 14,6.

4.3.3. Political conditions in Nepal

First, small states began to emerge in the Hills as told above (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1998; 14). Local leaders were formed and sometimes became kings. These kings required revenues and sharecropping and tenancy started to develop. Three times in the history of Nepal a single principality grew into a sizable state and promised to provide some degree of unity. In 1951 the challenge of a new democratic era started. Popular uprisings due to the non-satisfaction of people's political and economic aspirations brought the collapse of the panchayat system in 1990 and a new democracy developed. A parliamentary system is established with a constitutional monarch as head of state. In 1962 the caste system is abolished, but this still plays a role. Relations with India became better and soon normalized. First single parties had the power, but after this a coalition was formed which the parties of changed in the later years.

Since 1972, women received the right to vote and could also stand for election. The first year that a woman was appointed was actually already in 1952. In 2004, 5,9 percent of the seats in the lower house or single house was held by women. For the upper house fifteen percent. The women's representation in political and administrative offices is very poor (UN, CEDAW, Nepal, 2002). There is a strong tendency among political parties to confine themselves to the constitutional minimum when it comes to fielding candidates in elections.

4.4.Outcomes of Nepal

4.4.1.Outcomes for the MDGs

Income poverty in Nepal remains widespread. On the basis of official data, absolute poverty slightly decreased from 1996 to 2000 (MDG Progress Report, Nepal). The scale of absolute poverty is higher in rural areas compared to urban ones. There is a limited growth rate of the national economy in recent years. Restoring and maintaining security is a key challenge for achieving the MDG. Nepal will probably meet the goal of access to safe drinking water and potentially of child mortality. For the universal primary education the supportive environment is fair and for gender equity this is weak but improving. Also the status of supportive environment for maternal health and HIV/AIDS are weak but improving. The other goals are still unlikely to be met in 2015.

4.4.2.Outcomes for gender equality

As told above, the government is recognising the disparity of women. In practice it is much more difficult to see some real achievements. Feminisation is a striking phenomenon of poverty in Nepal. Women still have a lower status and a heavier workload than men. Most of the result of the policies can be seen in education. Below the specific results for the four indicators will be worked out.

4.4.2.1.Objective one

The 1999 ratios for different levels of school education show that there have been significant improvements in the relative access of girls to school education, especially between 1990 and 1999 (<http://www.undp.org/mdg/nepal/goal3.pdf>). There has been a shift in social norms towards the education of the girl during the 1990s. The ratio of girls to boys in primary education has been rising from 0,80 in 1990 till 0,87 in 2001. The ratio of girls to boys in secondary education has been rising from 0,44 in 1990 till 0,75 in 2001. Since 1999 this almost didn't increase. In tertiary education this has been decreasing last years. The ratio of girls to boys in tertiary education has been decreasing from 0,32 in 1990 till 0,28 in 2001. There are different challenges to improve the provisioning for universal access to education: reducing income-poverty, making education more relevant to local and household's conditions and needs, raising local stakeholders in the management of schools, recognition of primary education as a constitutionally mandated fundamental right of all children etc.

4.4.2.2.Objective two

Nepal has made significant progress in increasing female life expectancy as well as in improving female literacy levels, and primary and secondary school completion rates. Still the large gender gaps remains. The ratio of literate women to men, in the age of 15-24 years old, increased with 0,51 in 1990 till 0,75 in 2004.

4.4.2.3.Objective three

The government of Nepal admits that gender is an important issue to work on. Gender is influencing important elements of the poverty profile such as spatial disparities in incomes

and human development (PRSP 2002-2007, Nepal). The NLSS (National Living Standards Survey) collected data of the households in Nepal. This data shows that female headed households are poorer than male. They also spend less on consumption. Female-headed households constitute 13,2 percent of all households. There are 13 districts, which are mostly in the mountains and in this more remote hill areas where there is a high male migration; the ratio is higher than 20 percent. Because of the poverty more men are leaving to try to get a better job somewhere else. There are sociological factors, which constrain the access to household income and resources for women who live in a male-headed household. Generally it is men who traditionally inherit family land. Women's legal right to inherit parental property is still limited. A women's share in household assets and income is far more uncertain than a men's. On the other hand, the structure of gender relations varies significantly among different social groups in Nepal. The women's active participation in paid employment in the total sector is limited in Nepal (PRSP 2002-2007, Nepal). They only account for a third of the paid labour force and the rest counts for unpaid and self-employment jobs. Their participation is high in the agricultural sector. In the non-agricultural sector are only twelve percent of the women working. Their wages are always lower than men, even for the same type of work. Adjusting for differences in hours worked per day, female workers earn 20 percent less than men.

4.4.2.4. Objective four

Women are engaging in political action in larger numbers and in a more organised manner. Despite this, in terms of the empowerment dimension of poverty reduction, Nepali women are still largely without influence in the public domain. In the influential civil service and in all three levels of elected governments the representation of women lags far behind men. Women make up only a little more than 7 percent of the civil service. Progress to the higher levels is evidently slow. After the last elections, the women made up only 6 percent of the lower house and 15 percent of the upper house. In the lower District and Village level bodies, women have even less voice. This percentage stayed the same for years. The Local Self Governance Act requires a minimum representation of women in the District Councils and the District Development Committees. Most of the women representatives are those that are nominated by their parties to meet the quota. Very few of them end up in the District Development Committee or any of its sub-committees where budgetary decisions are made. Therefore they have little influence on program and expenditure priorities.

4.5. Conclusion

Nepal is making some progress in improving the situation for women. In the Tenth Five Year Plan of His Majesty of the Government of Nepal the disparity is recognized. Women are the prime target group. The government has the right policies, but the problem lies in the implementation. Next to that the status of Nepali women depends upon the social and economic positions of the men in their household. The majority of Nepali women live according to traditional roles.

On the first indicator Nepal is making progress, but especially since 1990 and last year this is more stable. For primary and secondary education counts that the line is slowly increasing last years. For tertiary education this is more difficult and this is even decreasing. The government is paying a lot of attention to this, for example by incentives, scholarships and the requirement for female teachers. This seems to work in practice, but the line should be more increasing to reach the goal in 2015.

On the second indicator there is also progress, but Nepal is not on track for this indicator because last years the results are stable and not increasing. Nepal needs to change something for this. The government of Nepal is organizing non-formal literacy camps, which could have a positive influence.

For the third indicator there is almost no data available, but it can be clear that Nepal is not on track to achieve this indicator in 2015. There are different explanations. The first reason is that the cast system was abolished in 1962, but in practice this has still influence. Women are still seen as lower. From tradition women should stay at home and give birth to at least one son. Only 28 percent of the pregnant women receive prenatal care. A lot of women work in the manufacturing sector. Most women have no access to land property. Another reason is that 80 percent of the employment is in the agricultural sector. Within these agricultural communities trade is limited. The natural resources are scarce and unevenly distributed. In the mountain between India and China there is a lot of poverty. Although women work much longer than men do, their economic contributions go largely unnoticed. Employed women receive wages that are twenty-five percent less than that of men. Next to that the lack of economic alternatives for girls and ingrained cultural beliefs regarding gender roles makes young girls particularly vulnerable to trafficking.

On the fourth indicator, Nepal is performing badly. Women held only six percent of the seats. They introduced a quota system, but in practice this doesn't work, because the women who are elected have no influence. The country is political instable and this causes the bad performance on this indicator.

In short one can say that there is some progress in Nepal. This is most clear for the first indicator. The government is also paying the most attention to education in its policy. Before the government can make more progress on the other indicators, there should first be some economical growth and next to that the whole view on the position of women should be changed and this will take time. The caste system in practice should be abolished and women should get more influence.

5.Ethiopia

Chapter five consists of the following paragraphs. First in paragraph 5.1, the background of Ethiopia is worked out. Second in paragraph 5.2, the policies to promote gender equality in Ethiopia are discussed. In paragraph 5.3, the exogenous factors are worked out from different points of view, namely the socio-cultural, the economic and the political conditions. In paragraph 5.4, the outcomes for Ethiopia on the MDGs as well as on the third goal are described. Chapter five will end with a conclusion in which the different concepts described above are linked to each other.

5.1. Background of Ethiopia

Ethiopia is a landlocked country in East Africa. It is covering an area of 1,127,127 square kilometres and has an estimated population of over 67.2 million people (www.uneca.org/aisi/nici/country_profiles/ethiopia/Ethioab.htm). 80 percent of the population lives in rural areas. Ethiopia remains one of the poorest and least developed countries in the world. On the Human Development Index it has a place of 170 (out of 177) and on the Human Poverty Index a place of 92 out of 103 on rank two. The fertility rate is 6.2.

Ethiopia is a federal republic under the constitution of 1994 (www.worldbank.com). In 2003 Ethiopia continued its transition from an unitary to a federal system of government. In their covenant is written that the Universal Declaration for the rights of the Human being count for the society of Ethiopia. The basis of this is that men and women are seen as equal. Also the president Mengistu, who ruled till 1991, put the equality between men and women in the constitution. In practice there is no equality between men and women at all in Ethiopia. Despite the period with a Marxist policy, Ethiopia is still a feudal-patriarch society where the woman is subordinate to the man. Ethiopia has place 137 out of 163 on the Gender Development Index. There are differences in the position of women in the different ethnical groups and in different social classes. Because of the civil war, some women of the liberation movement could get a bigger autonomy.

5.2. Policies in Ethiopia

The Ethiopian Government and the Women's Affairs Office (WAO) have committed themselves to systemic efforts for the implementation of the Platform for Action and other women's rights treaties and conventions. The National Policy on Ethiopian Women, being the guiding principle provides directives to all concerned in order to translate instruments of women's equal rights into reality.

Several studies and available data have shown that women in Ethiopia are disadvantaged due to their sex, most notably in rural areas (MDG report Ethiopia, 2004). Promoting gender equality for Ethiopia is not only in the best interest of the society at large, but also fundamentally that of ensuring the human and democratic rights of women. The Ethiopian constitution sets clear foundation for this. To address gender issues in Ethiopia is not only about equity and social justice, but also about development and poverty reduction.

The government of Ethiopia admits that girl education is the key to empowerment (SDPRP, Ethiopia, 2002-2003). The girl's enrolment is steadily increasing. A number of activities by government and NGOs have been carried out to change perception and underscore the

important role of women for growth and poverty reduction of the MDGs. The government of Ethiopia is spending 4,8 percent of the GDP on education.

In order to enhance the living condition of women with low living standards, organisation in income generating activities with the view to alleviating their economic and social problems is currently high on the agenda. To achieve these objectives, the Women's Development In Initiative Projects (WDIP) is established under the Ethiopian Women Development Fund (EWDF). This is co-financed by GOE, Italian co-operation and IDA has been established. The main objective of the WDIP is to enhance women's empowerment through development intervention by providing financial and technical support. This would increase women's opportunities and provide them access in decision-making process. To create more capacity building activity the focus was for the federal level on technical assistance to the regional WDIP offices. At the regional level the focus was on awareness creation for officials, NGOs, youth and women associations, the community on project implementation procedures, selections processes and the role of intermediaries and facilitators.

Apart from WDIP and EWDF, there are other initiatives and endeavours being implemented by the governmental and non-governmental agencies, including projects being carried out to improve women's access to critical economic resources such as credit, training, skills and information. Next to that the civil society and international development partners are engaged in activities promoting women's rights (UN, CEDAW, Ethiopia, 2003). They are advocating for proper implementation of policy objectives and CEDAW to eliminate discrepancies and discrimination against women in the society.

5.3.Exogenous factors in Ethiopia

5.3.1.Socio-cultural conditions in Ethiopia

In Ethiopia around 82 percent of the population lives on less than US\$1 a day (www.minbuza.nl). Around four million people are chronically dependent on food aid. Infant mortality and malnutrition levels are among the highest in the world. Average life expectancy is 45,5 years old. This is decreasing as a result of AIDS. The HIV prevalence in 2003 is 4,4. The existing tuberculosis is 508 per 100,000 people in 2002. The public health expenditure in percentage of GDP in 2001 was 1,4, while the private health expenditure was 2,1.

In Ethiopia, 40 percent of the people is Muslim, 40 percent Orthodox and 10 percent Protestant. Ethiopia plays a key role in the Horn of Africa. The main problems in the Horn of Africa are conflicts, food situation, AIDS, refugees and infrastructure. This has a strong regional dimension. Conflicts in one country impede neighbouring countries' progress towards stability and development.

The existing societal practices favour mainly men's interests (UN, CEDAW, Ethiopia, 2003). This has a negative impact on initiatives and efforts towards women's emancipation. Because of the socio-cultural constructions and practices, women are considered to be subordinate to men. This is greatly influenced by the existing societal institutions, whether cultural, educational or media-related. Next to that the socialist Ethiopia does not consider itself bound by paragraph 1 of article 29 of the CEDAW.

5.3.2.Economic conditions in Ethiopia

The economy of Ethiopia is struggling in the aftermath of the border conflict with Eritrea. The transition from wartime to peacetime economy is difficult. Despite signs of recovery, the high

military expenditure (5,2% of GDP in 2002) has been at the expense of investment in infrastructure and the social sectors. The economy has grown, but the effect is not significant due to currency weaknesses. The Gross National Income per capita was US\$ 100 (World development Indicators, 2004). Flows of foreign aid, a return to budgetary discipline and structural reforms (PRSP), have improved the macro economic climate. The export of goods and services as percentage of GDP in 2002 was sixteen, while the import was 34.

More than 85 percent of the population lives at the countryside. Agriculture accounts for approximately 80 percent of the total employment. The female population of Ethiopia that lives at the countryside has an important role. The urban population in 2002 was 15,4. The women do all kinds of work in the agriculture. In the places where industrialisation found place, this was only where men were doing the jobs. The process of feminism of the poverty is in rural sides clear to see. The heavy job of the women in agriculture didn't become easier because of the high fertility (around six a seven). Ethiopia has one of the highest percentages of mothers that starve in the world (20/1000). Female activity rate is 57,2. The female activity rate in percentage of the male rate is 67 percent.

5.3.3. Political conditions in Ethiopia

The seventeen years civil war, from 1974 till 1991, has devastated the economy. The huge cost of the war left little money for maintenance let alone development of the existing infrastructure. In May 1991, the Ethiopian People's Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF) took control of the country and established a transitional government. This geared the country to an all-out economic modernisation programme. A new constitution was promulgated in December 1994 and an elected government was formed in August 1995.

Political, legislative and administrative reforms are gradually taking place. There have been reforms such as financial decentralisation, separation of powers and dialogue with civil society. On the other hand, these reforms and administrative adjustments have not yet truly stimulated the democratic process. Large-scale corruption is relatively rare. The authorities are calling on donors to increase aid in order to support the PRSP and the ambitious reform program.

From 1955 on women received the right to vote and received the right to stand for election. In 2004, women had 7,7 percent of the seats in the lower house and 8,3 percent in the upper house. In total 22,2 percent of the women are taking part in the government at ministerial level.

5.4. Outcomes of Ethiopia

5.4.1. Outcomes for the MDGs

There are different issues of what the government, civil society (including NGOs), the private sector and Ethiopia's development partners should do to meet the challenge of realizing the MDGs (MDG report, Ethiopia, 2004). The government has long recognized that the utmost responsibility lies with it. These include highly focused reform in the area of institutions (capacity building), increased attention to the mobilization of domestic resources, efforts to bring about significant flow of external resources through debt relief and official development assistance. The international community, as identified in the MDGs, has the shared responsibility of assisting Ethiopia achieve these goals. The overall investment requirement to achieve the required growth rate in per capita GDP needs to meet the MDGs poverty target,

which is about 17 percent of GDP, mainly due to the responsiveness of poverty to economic growth. This can be explained by the fact that in Ethiopia, substantial portions of households hover around the poverty line. More than half of the population is either poor or vulnerable to poverty. Thus, Ethiopia is required to grow at the rate of 5,7 percent per annum over the next five years to be able to achieve the goals set in the MDGs. On average, Ethiopia receives 56 percent of the required finance through ODA, but increased aid has to be accompanied by improved effectiveness to bring about economic growth. It will be difficult to match indicators for all targets set in the MDGs in the local context to measure progress. Further research and analytical work needs to be carried out to generate robust indicators in areas in order to be able to monitor progress towards MDGs. Ethiopia's challenge to meet all the targets set in the MDGs is understandably not easy. However, there are different initiatives, reforms and agenda's aimed at improving delivery of social services and hopefully these efforts will have pay-offs in terms of addressing the overriding development agenda.

5.4.2. Outcomes for gender equality

Gender inequality is one of the features of Ethiopian society (MDG report Ethiopia, 2004). In almost all aspects of life, women are at a disadvantage. Particularly in rural areas, cultural, economic and physiological factors place huge barriers across sexes. Poverty within female-headed households is quite substantial in comparison to male headed households.

5.4.2.1. Objective one

A review of the long-term trend shows that the rate of gender inequality in education has been changing. The ratio of girls to boys in primary education increased from 0,66 in 1990 to 0,71 in 2001. In secondary education the rate decreased from 0,75 in 1991 to 0,62 in 2001. For the tertiary education the rate also increased from 0,22 in 1990 to 0,36 in 2001. During the height of the civil war female/male ratios rose mainly due to a fall in the male enrollment, rather than the female enrollment rising faster than male enrollment. Gross primary enrollment was at its lowest in 1990 and 1991, a period in which the civil war had reached its climax. As one looks into the future, the gender gap between male and female may be closed at primary and secondary levels.

5.4.2.2. Objective two

There has been little progress in the opening up of opportunities for women to participate in productive activities. Women are less literate and have smaller enrollment rates at every level of education in Ethiopia. However, the gap has closed significantly between 1995/96 and 1999/2000. The rate of literate women increased with 0,66 in 1990 to 0,82 in 2004. If this trend continues, the gender gap could be closed before 2015.

5.4.2.3. Objective three

The labour force activity rate of females in Ethiopia is 57,2 (MDG report Ethiopia, 2004). Most women work in agriculture. The economy almost didn't saw any change over the last three decades. If there are some changes, they are in the area of informal labour market. This is particular in urban settings where an increasing number of women are becoming active in small trade and income generating activities. The share of women in wage employment in the non-agriculture was in 1990 about 39,9 percent. This almost didn't increase and there is no recent data available.

5.4.2.4. Objective four

The proportion of seats held by women in the National Parliament was in 1990 two in percentage of the total. This stayed two till 2001. From than on it increased to eight and in 2004 it was still eight in percentage of the total.

5.5. Conclusion

Ethiopia is one of the least developed countries of the world. On the Human Development Index it ranks number 170 out of 177. They have a female population of 49,8 percent. The life expectation is relatively low. Women are on almost everything behind. Ethiopia has a constitution and a Universal Declaration in which men and women should be equal. In practice this is totally different.

On the first indicator Ethiopia is making some progress. Primary and tertiary education is increasing, while secondary education is decreasing. The government recognises that girl education is the key to empowerment. 4,8 percent of the GDP is going to education. Another explanation for progress next to the policy is that because of the war and conflict with Eritrea more women could get education because the males had the go in the army and they decreased on the enrolment for education. For the second indicator Ethiopia made some progress. The literacy rate is now 0,82. For this progress count the same explanations as for objective one because this is related to each other.

For the third indicator is no recent data available, but also for Ethiopia it is clear that they are not on track for this indicator. 80 percent of the population lives in rural areas. Especially in these areas women are disadvantaged. This indicator is strongly linked to development and poverty reduction, which is low in Ethiopia. Ethiopia is recovering, but it is still suffering from the war and the conflict with Eritrea. Women should get equal access to basic assets. Only 27 percent of the pregnant women receive prenatal care, which is really low and not positive for the situation of women. A policy that is focused on the improvement of the small-scale agriculture should first be focused on the position of women. In Ethiopia the Department of Women and Development from the ministry of Labour and Social Affairs is active with this policy.

For the fourth indicator there is some improvement, but not sufficient and Ethiopia is not on track to meet this goal. This can be explained by the influences of the war. There started a democratic process, but there is still a lot of corruption. A positive point is that because of the civil war some women liberation movements could get bigger.

In short Ethiopia didn't make so much progress. Most of this is due to the poverty. People are more working to survive than thinking about what should change for women. Here is also a big role for the diseases, for example the high rate of AIDS, which has most influence on women. To achieve the objectives, the Women's Development in Initiative Project is established under the Ethiopian Women Development Fund. This is a good start and the government is paying attention to gender equality, but in practice a lot needs to be done and changed.

6.Uganda

Chapter six exists of the following paragraphs. First in paragraph 6.1, the background of Uganda is worked out. Second in paragraph 6.2, the policies to promote gender equality in Uganda are discussed. In paragraph 6.3, the exogenous factors are worked out from different point of view, namely the socio-cultural, the economic and the political conditions. In paragraph 6.4, the outcomes for Uganda on the MDGs as well as on the third goal are described. Chapter six will end with a conclusion in which the different concepts described above are linked to each other.

6.1.Background of Uganda

Uganda was a British colony since 1900. Uganda achieved independence from the UK in 1962. The dictatorial regime of Idi AMIN, from 1971 till 1979, was responsible for the deaths of some 300,000 opponents. The guerrilla war and human rights abuses under Milton OBOTE, from 1980 till 1985, claimed at least another 100,000 lives. During the 1990s, the government promulgated non-party presidential and legislative elections. The military expenditure in 2002 was 2,4 percent of the GDP.

Uganda is totally enclosed by other countries and the Victoria Lake: Kenya, Tanzania, Rwanda, Zaire and Sudan. It has a surface of 241.038 square kilometres (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1992; 83). There live 25,6 million people. The climate can have a positive influence on the country because of the high location and the temperature is changing between 17 to 26 degrees. Because of the rainfall, Uganda has tropical vegetation in the South and savannas or semi-desert vegetation in the North. 18 % of the country exists of water and swamp, 12 % of national parks, forest and game reserves and 70 % of forest, woodland and grassland (www.umsl.edu/services/govdocs/backgroundnotes/22.htm). The population lives 90 percent on the countryside.

In terms of development the North is laying far behind the South. There are a lot of regional, cultural and ecological differences. In Uganda is a high rate of aids; the HIV prevalence is 4,1. This can result in lower life expectancy, higher infant mortality and death rates, lower population and growth rates, and changes in the distribution of population by age and sex than would otherwise be expected. The life of women in Uganda is much heavier than for men (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1992; 86). They have longer labour hours, more economic responsibilities and more health risks. The government is working on measures to improve the situation of women. The fertility rate was 6,9 in 2000, which was a decline but is still higher than the Sub-Saharan African average. The life expectation for women and men are respectively the same, with 44 for men and 45 for women (World Bank, Gender Stats).

6.2.Policies in Uganda

The Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development (MGLSD) is the national machinery for advancement of women and gender mainstreaming (UN, CEDAW, Uganda, 2000). Its mission is the promotion of employment, labour productivity, industrial peace, protection of rights and freedom and empowerment of communities. It ensures that these communities realize and harness their potential for sustainable and gender responsive development through social transformation.

Uganda has the Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP) as its broad development framework (MDG Needs Assessment, Uganda, 2004). The PEAP was first prepared in 1997. It had four pillars: peace, security and good governance, increasing the incomes of the poor and directly

improving the quality of life of the poor. The Government of Uganda designed and adopted a National Action Plan on Women in 1999. The goal of this plan is to achieve equal opportunities for women by empowering them to participate in, and benefit from the social, economic and political development. Four priority areas for advancing the position of women are: poverty/economic empowerment, reproductive health and rights, legal framework and decisions making and the girl child and education. The plan provides a framework for implementing initiatives under these priority areas by various key players at community, district and national levels during the period from 1999 till 2004.

The government of Uganda has a strategic plan for the education sector for 2004 to 2015 (www.minbuza.nl). In this plan is the Dutch embassy closely involved. There is special attention for gender problems, for example the education of more female teachers.

The government of Uganda made a partial estimation of the costs of achieving the gender MDG. This includes awareness programs, sensitisation and training, violence prevention and systematic capacity building at the ministerial level. The costs of direct education and health interventions are included in the education and health results. The focus is on sensitisation and training programs for government officials, awareness building at the community, school and national level and resources for strengthening national ministries. Comprehensive responses to violence against women form the final component of the estimates. These include the costs of prevention, protection and punishment of offenders. The estimated costs are \$845 million from 2005-2015, which translates into an annual figure of \$2 per capita. Funds from the Ministry of Finance for women programmes are channelled through the MGLSD, while local authorities have been advised to budget for women programmes in their decentralized budgets. However, one of the major constraints facing government machinery for the advancement of women is minimal funding.

The National Association of Women Organizations in Uganda (NAWOU) is the umbrella body for women organizations in Uganda. It is charged with the co-ordination of the activities of all women NGOs, groups and clubs in Uganda. All these NGOs and groups are committed to improving the status of women in different sectors.

6.3.Exogenous factors of Uganda

6.3.1.Socio-cultural conditions of Uganda

In Uganda, 66 percent is Christian. This is equally divided between Roman Catholics and Protestants. About 15 percent is Muslim and the remainder is traditional or has no religion. There are three major languages families found; Bantu, Central Sudanic and Nilotic. The official language is English. Swahili and Arabic are also widely spoken.

Education is not compulsory but is highly regarded. Pupils share the expenses with the central government. 2,5 percent of the GDP is spend on education. Poverty eradication is Uganda's biggest development challenge. Poverty in Uganda is mainly a rural phenomenon. It afflicts women and children relatively more than men. Although the proportion of people below the poverty line declined, the level is still too high. Uganda has place 146 out of 177 on the Human Development Index and place 60 out of 103 on the Human Poverty Index rank two.

In Uganda there is a large number of infectious diseases. Incidence of AIDS is quite high, reaching the epidemic proportions in southern areas. The HIV prevalence is 4,1. Also malaria, tuberculosis and other diseases are a big problem. In 2002 there were 550 tuberculosis cases

and 46 malaria cases on every 100,000 people. Only 7 percent of women use condoms. The public health expenditure in 2001 was 3,4 percent, while the private health expenditure was 2,5 percent.

6.3.2. Economic conditions of Uganda

Uganda has a Gross National Income per capita of US\$ 240 (World development indicators, 2004). The GDP in US\$ billions was 5,8 in 2002. The country is endowed with a wide range of natural resources. The share of agriculture has fallen, while that of the industry increased (MDG Needs Assessment, Uganda, 2004). The urban population in 2002 was 12,2.

Uganda's access to international markets is through the Kenyan port of Mombassa. The Tanzanian port of Dar es Salaam is to a lesser extent used as a seaport for Uganda's exports and imports. The export of goods and services in 2002 was 12 percent of the GDP, while the import was 27 percent. The government's PEAP/PRSP targets, particularly in the social sector require significant resource commitments.

Agricultural programs are not focused on women, while they are the most important agricultural producers. Still, the men are managing the output of the sale. Women don't have proprietary rights on the goods that are accustomed in the time of the marriage. Only nine percent has landed property, which can be just for commercial loan. In Uganda there is a common opinion that women should stay at home and taking care for the family. While women experience the negative influence of a pregnancy, they feel the social-cultural and economic pressure to get children. The female economic activity rate in percentage of that from men is 88 percent.

6.3.3. Political conditions of Uganda

Ethnic, cultural and religious contradictions and differences in economic positions have had influence on the political development in Uganda for a long time (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1992; 77). Since the independence in 1962 a lot of different persons had the power. Since 1989 there are elections in Uganda. In 1995, the country embarked on a path of democracy when a new constitution was promulgated. The country held presidential and parliamentary elections in 1996 and 2001 (MDG Needs Assessment, Uganda, 2004). Decentralization is becoming firmly rooted and local government leaders are elected for defined term limits. On the other hand civil war rages on, especially in the northern part of the country where The Lords Resistance Army has been fighting the government since 1986.

The representatives of tribal, religious and political groups take part of the local and regional administrative bodies. At central level, all the groups are involved in the execution of the power. The representatives have influence, but the highest power has the president, who is also the chairman of the National Resistance Council and the minister of defence. There is no good system of checks and balances for the presidential power.

Since 1962 women received the right to vote and the right to stand for elections. 27 percent of the women are taking part of the government. From the 37 ministries, only two have a woman as minister. Women held 24 percent of the seats in the national parliament in 2005. Uganda has established quotas to seat more women in legislative bodies (Henshall Momen, 2004; 221). Women take part of the Resistance Committees. Per district at least one chair is reserved for women, so they have the assurance to have a voice in the national politic. Together with this, there are some laws that discriminate women revised.

6.4.Outcomes of Uganda

6.4.1.Outcomes for the MDGs

Poverty remains Uganda's major development challenge (MDG Needs Assessment, Uganda, 2004). Since 1990 to 1997 there had been a remarkable reduction in poverty. However, later on the reduction lower and poverty started to increase again after year 2000. It is unlikely that the proportion of people living below the poverty line will have halved by 2015. Also on hunger, it is unlikely that the proportion of underweight under-five year olds will have halved by 2015. Almost a million people are displaced from their homes. They mainly depend on food relief items from United Nations Agencies. Malnutrition is a serious problem. Gender equality in terms of access for boys and girls to primary and secondary schooling by 2005 is likely to be realized. However, retention of girls is more difficult and requires greater attention. Reduction of child mortality by two thirds is unlikely to be achieved in 2015, just like reduction of maternal mortality. The target for AIDS has been achieved. Halving the proportion of people without access to safe drinking water is also potentially achievable; this is the goal of environmental sustainability. Reversal of loss of environmental resources is also potentially possible because of the massive campaign to plant trees.

6.4.2.Outcomes for gender equality

Uganda enjoys a good relationship with donors, especially the Bretton Woods Institutions. Uganda receives substantial amount of aid amounting to an average of US\$ 500 million per year. The country has also benefited from debt relief. With total international assistance at \$ 957 million, direct investment for the MDGs is currently at 47 percent. From all this money goes zero percent to the third goal of promoting gender equality. Uganda will need to spend a total of \$70.2 per capita in 2005 increasing to \$106 in 2015 the meet the MDGs. This translates in a total investment need of \$33,5 billion between 2005 and 2015 on the basis of the interventions that are specific to Uganda.

6.4.2.1.Objective one

In second half of the nineties there was a turning point for the amount of participating girls to boys in the primary education. Since 1960 the government obligated that everybody could get access to primary education. The ratio of girls to boys in primary education increased from 0,80 in 1990 to 0,96 in 2001. Mr. Mpuga, Country Office Local Economist for the World Bank says that with the primary school enrolment rates at about 90 percent for both girls and boys, gender equality of access at this level is largely met. In secondary education this increased from 0,56 to 0,77 and in tertiary education from 0,39 to 0,52. Mr. Mpuga also admits that some gaps still exist and that especially at the secondary level more attention is required. Because the ratio for tertiary education is so low, there is a policy of affirmative action in accessing university and tertiary education in favor of female students. Every female applicant to university and tertiary institutions is awarded a bonus of 1,5 points. Similarly, in the job market preference is given to female applicants with the same qualifications of a boy applicant.

In theory the girls and boys have equal chances. The gender gap decreased. The marks give different views. The amount of girls and boys that go to primary education stayed the same. While later, in secondary education it seems that a lot of girls leave school earlier. The government of Uganda wants to focus on this issue of gender in equality. The most important causes for this early leaving is the money, the not interesting lessons, failures for exams, no meals, pregnancy, marriage, work in household, taking care for the younger children and sick people at home. Some of these points are related to HIV/aids.

6.4.2.2. Objective two

The ratio of literate women to men increased with 0,76 in 1990 to 0,86 in 2004.

6.4.2.3. Objective three

The share of wage employment in the non-agricultural sector was in 1990 35,6. Further specific result for this goal is not available. In 2002 the percentage of female labor force was 47,1 (WDI, 2005). The female economic activity rate in 2002 was 79,3 percent (in percent of ages 15 and above). In percentage to the male rate this was 88 percent.

6.4.2.4. Objective four

The proportion of seats held by women was in 1997, 18 percent. In the recent years and still at this moment this is around the 24 seats. A parliamentary committee dedicated to women has been established, often with mandates to examine the impact of all legislation on gender. Just like for education, also in politics, there is affirmative action implemented through a policy of having a women representative for every district. There are 56 districts in Uganda. Although, the affirmative action notwithstanding, there are still wide disparities in positions held between women and men in various categories of employment. The probable cause of this problem is the patriarchal society in which men are viewed as the natural leaders, and therefore few women take up or even contemplate taking up such challenges (UN, CEDAW, Uganda, 2000). Mr Beck, from the Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs, also says that the government of Uganda is handling the right policies and that there is some improvement, but because the democratization process is lacking behind, there is no development as there could be.

6.5. Conclusion

Uganda is making some progress. The north is lays far behind the south. On the Human Development Index it has place 146 out of 177. Also for Uganda counts that diseases and poverty have a lot of influence, for example the high rate of AIDS, the life of a woman is much heavier than that of a man. They have a female population of 50,0 percent.

On the first indicator Uganda made some progress and is on track because it will probably reach the target before 2015. For secondary education this is more problematic because last years there was no progress. Also the tertiary education improved a lot, especially since 1990, but last years this was more stable. Primary education is compulsory, but the government is also paying. 2,5 percent of the GDP goes to education. Also for indicator two, literacy, Uganda made some progress.

For indicator three is no recent data available, but also Uganda is not on track for this indicator. The economy of Uganda is mainly formed by agricultural activities. 90 percent of the people live at the countryside, where the life is much harder especially for women. 92 percent of the pregnant women receive prenatal care, which has a positive influence on both the economic situation as the political development of women. Women have no property right in time of marriage and this makes it more difficult to get an equal change to develop. Despite, the industrial activities are increasing, but there are more men working in this sector. The female economic activity rate in percentage to men in 2002 is high with 88 percent.

On indicator four is Uganda performing quite well, which is surprising. Women hold 24 percent of the seats in the national parliament. Uganda has established quotas to seat more

women in legislative bodies and women take part of the Resistance Committees and this seems to have a positive influence on the position of women in politics.

In short, Uganda is making some progress. It has place 113 out of 163 on the Gender Development Index. Uganda will need 845 million till 2015 to reach all the goals. From the money reserved for the MDG goes direct zero percent to gender. The government admits that one of the major constraints for the advancement of women is the minimal funding and the amount of money that is available. The government is promoting gender equalities on other ways and indirect there goes a lot of money to this goal, but still the government should reserve specific money to promote gender equality.

7. Analysis

In chapter seven the performance of the four countries will be analysed. First in paragraph 7.1 the results of the four countries on the four objectives will be described. Second in paragraph 7.2 the policies of the countries will be compared. There will be analysed if the policies of countries influence the different outcomes. Third in paragraph 7.3 the exogenous factors of the four countries will be compared. There will be analysed if the exogenous factors influence the different outcomes. Fourth in paragraph 7.4 the resources of the four countries will be compared. Fifth in paragraph 7.5 an agenda for change will be described.

7.1. Performance

Progress towards goal three is assessed by measuring gender equality in four areas: education, literacy, employment and political decision-making. In assessing progress towards goal 3, it should be noted that the indicators used measure only certain aspects of reality, that is gender equality in the spheres of education, work and political participation. True equality for women involves much more. Gender is a specific focus, not only in goal three, but also maternal mortality and HIV/AIDS. Below the performance on the four indicators will be discussed.

7.1.1. Indicator one

Gender equality in primary school enrolment has been nearly achieved in seven out of ten regions in the developing world and the CIS. The ratio of girls' to boys' enrolment is 93 percent or higher. Southern Asia, Sub-Saharan Africa and Western Asia lag behind. They have ratios that remain low, from 85 to 89 girls per 100 boys. These regions will most likely miss the target of closing the gender gap by the end of 2005. They lag behind in primary as well as secondary education. For the four countries, Bangladesh, Nepal and Uganda might be able to reach the target of primary education of 2015. Ethiopia, with 71, is one of the countries where 75 or fewer girls for 100 boys are enrolled in primary education. This is 62 for secondary education. The exact data for the regions is shown in chapter one, in the problem analysis.

On indicator one, for primary education is Bangladesh performing the best in absolute levels, followed by Uganda, Nepal and Ethiopia. On the other hand, if one compares the progress in the last years, one can say that the other countries made more progress since 1999. For secondary education this is different, because in Ethiopia and Uganda the level stays the same and in Nepal there is only a small increase. For tertiary education is Uganda performing the best, followed by Bangladesh, Ethiopia and Nepal. In Ethiopia this is low but growing and in Bangladesh and Nepal this is even decreasing. This is showed in the figures below in this paragraph.

The greatest progress was achieved in regions where the gap was widest, for example in Northern Africa. In general, the countries where the progress has been slow, these are countries where resources and school facilities are severely limited and total enrolment is low. The gender gap in access to tertiary education reverses itself in the developed regions, with 124 girls for every 100 boys. In developing regions as a whole, 80 girls are enrolled for every 100 boys. The widest gap is in sub-Saharan Africa, where only 68 girls for every 100 boys are enrolled in university or other tertiary level education. This is followed by Southern Asia with 71 girls. The situation by each country shows very large disparities. The gender gap in tertiary enrolment ranges from 15 to 340 girls for every 100 boys. The gender disparity favours girls in countries where overall enrolments are high like developed countries. Of some 65 developing countries, about half have achieved gender parity in primary education, about 20

percent in secondary and only 8 percent in higher education. In most developing regions, gender disparities become progressively more marked when girls enter secondary school and later go to university.

Figure 3: Results indicator 1a, primary education

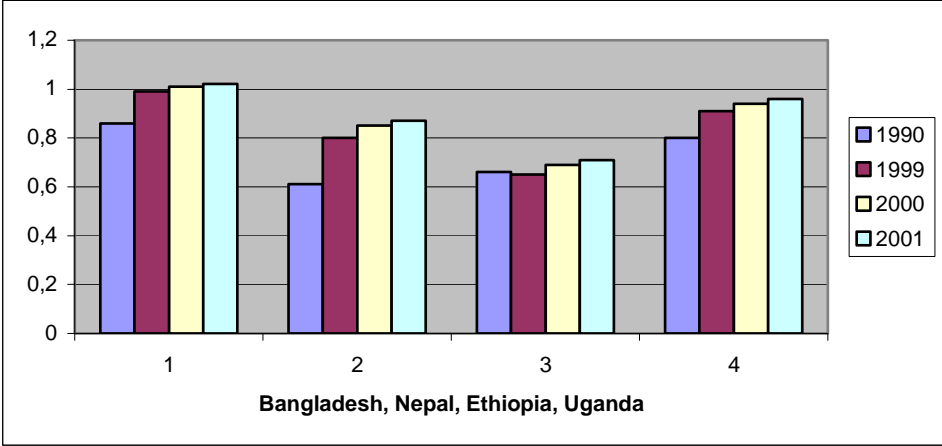


Figure 4: Results indicator 1b, secondary education

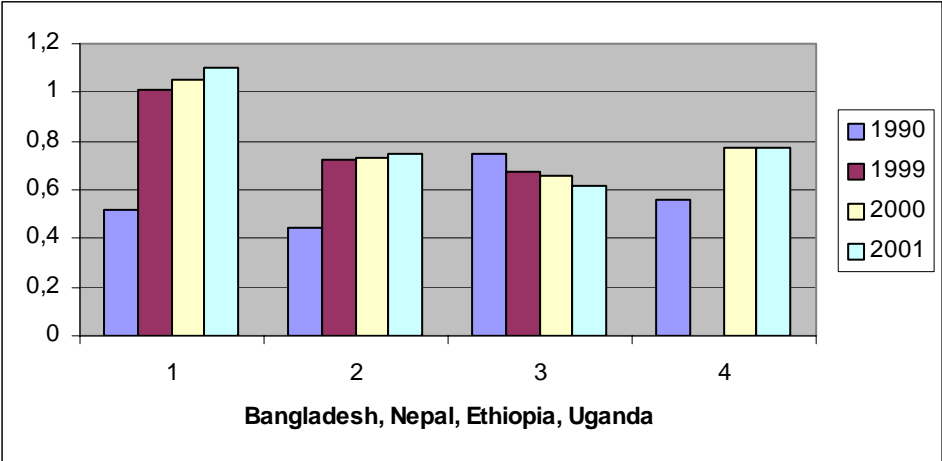
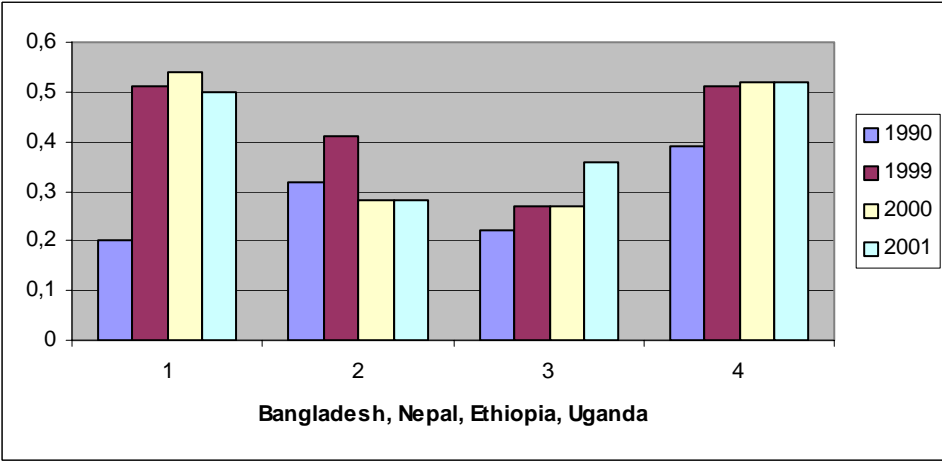


Figure 5: Results indicator 1c, tertiary education

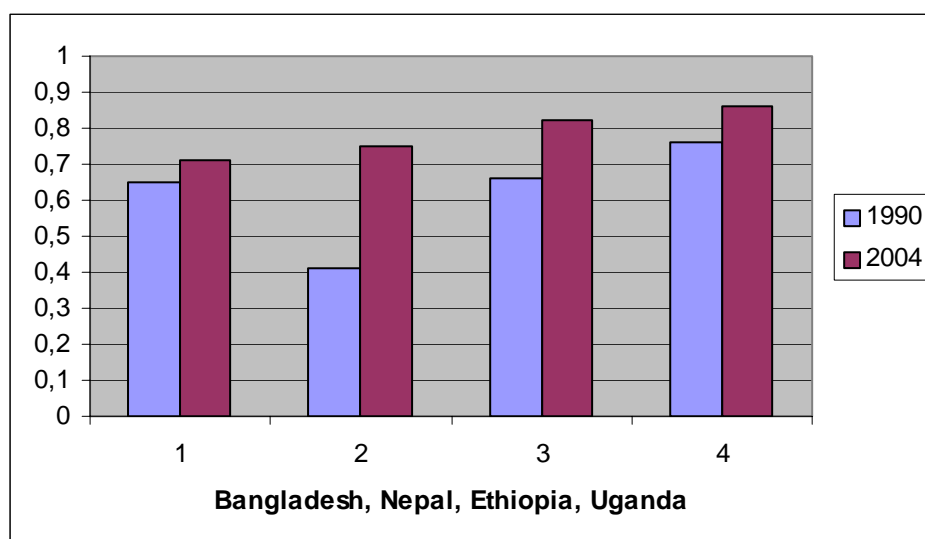


7.1.2.Indicator two

According to UNESCO almost two thirds of the world's 800 million illiterates are women. In almost all countries where literacy is below 90 percent, women are more likely than men to be without reading and writing skills. Literacy is a fundamental skill that empowers women to take control of their lives, engage directly with authority and access the wider world of learning. Progress in school enrolment has resulted in higher literacy rates for the younger age groups. In some regions literacy rates remain still low and when these are low, the gender gap remains a serious concern. The largest gap is in South Asia, where women's literacy rates are 19 percentage points lower than men's. The gender gap in literacy for the four countries is also the biggest in Bangladesh and Nepal. This is something one should not expect, because literacy is linked with education and on education Bangladesh is performing the best. A reason for this could be the high dropouts of girls when the level gets higher. Bangladesh is also not well performing for tertiary education. Still, one can see that there is still progress. The results are shown in the figure below.

Although there has been some progress in the 1990s in reducing the gender gap in literacy, at the current rate, Southern Asia, Western Asia en Northern and Sub-Saharan Africa will not achieve the MDG target by 2015.

Figure 6: Results indicator 2, literacy

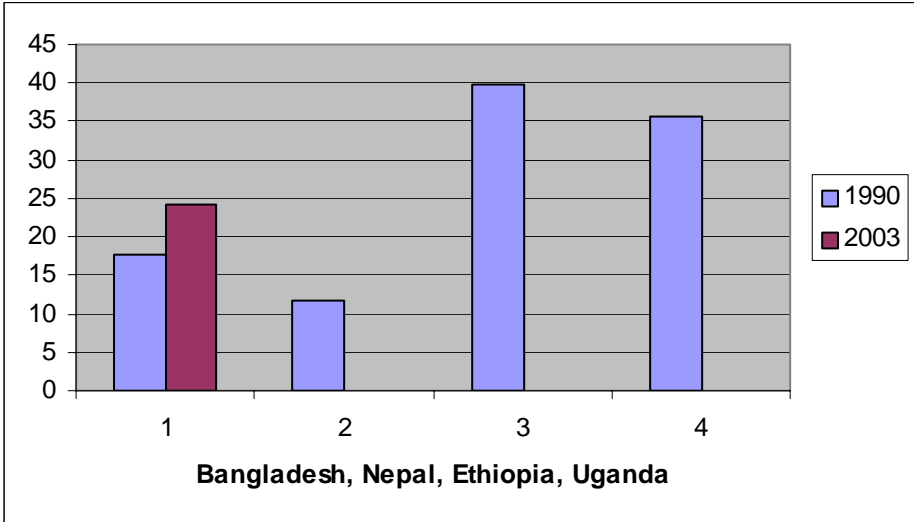


7.1.3.Indicator three

Globally, the presence of women in non-agricultural paid employment increased from 1990 to 2003. On the other hand, the type and quality of jobs available to women have not necessarily improved. Women continue to suffer more acutely than men from lack of decent work. Next to that, the women's share of the labour market in non-agricultural employment remains well below 50 percent in all developing regions. For the four countries count that almost 80 percent of the population lives at the countryside and does agricultural work. Especially in agricultural jobs women play an important role, but are often not equally treated. In fact, only for Bangladesh there is recent information available of the share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector. Only in the developed regions are women and men approaching parity.

Over the period of 1990 to 2003 there was a significant progress in Oceania and Southern Asia, although in the latter the share of women in paid, non-agricultural employment remains the lowest in the world. Progress was also evident in Latin America and the Caribbean. Western Asia and Northern Africa have experienced only minimal progress and are unlikely to achieve the MDG target of gender equality in the labour market. There are significant differences among regions and countries in the share of women in non-agricultural wage employment. These reflect various socio-cultural attitudes towards women and work. They also reflect differences in legislation, policies and programs and in the support available to women and men to enable them to balance work and family responsibilities.

Figure 7: Results indicator 3, wage employment



7.1.4.Indicator four

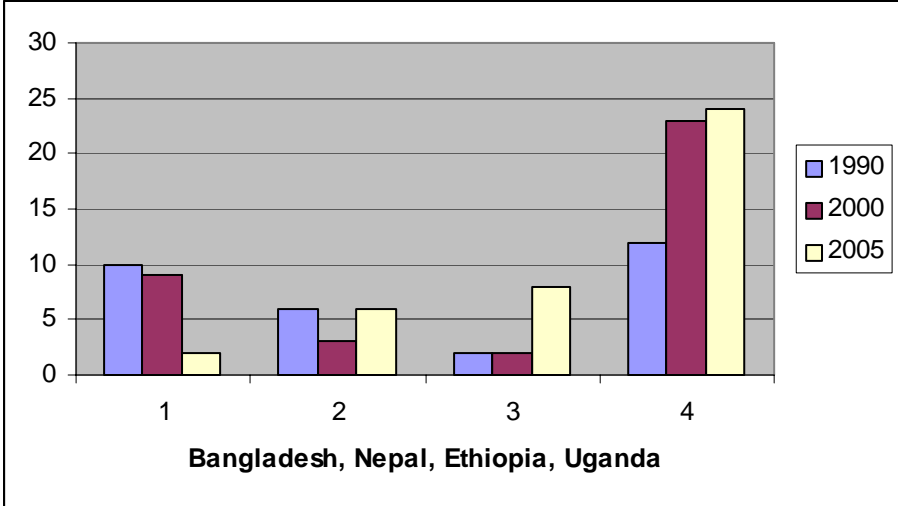
The number of women in national parliaments continues to increase, but no country in the world has yet reached gender parity. It has been suggested that, compared to economic opportunity, education and legal rights, the political representation is the aspect in which the gender gap narrowed the least between 1995 and 2000 (Henshall Momsen, 2004). By the first of January 2005, only 17 countries had met the target set by the UN Economic and Social Council in 1990 of having 30 percent or more women in national legislative seats. By the first of January 2005 the proportion of seats held by women in single or lower houses of parliament was 15,9 percent, up from 13,5 percent in 2000. The number of countries where women are completely absent has declined. Next to that the reserving seats for women or party quotas, were being implemented by 81 countries across all regions. There are different factors that influence the women’s parliamentary representation:

- the type of electoral system in place in a country
- the role and discipline of political parties
- women’s social and economic status
- socio-cultural traditions and beliefs about women’s place in the family and society
- women’s double burden of work and family responsibilities

Since 1990, most regions have seen substantial increases. The largest relative increase has been in Northern Africa. This is followed by Latin America, the Caribbean and Sub-Saharan Africa. Especially Uganda, out of one of the four countries is performing as only one really well, with 25 percent. In Ethiopia this is only eight percent. The lowest representation of

women in national parliaments continues to be in Oceania and in Western Asia where women’s presence remains on average 5 percent. This is also so in Bangladesh and Nepal, with respectively two and six percent. In a lot of countries there is a process of democratisation. Many post-conflict countries recognized the importance of including women in reconstruction processes and in ensuring women’s participation in new democratic institutions. It is important that this is adopted in the national constitution, also quota mechanisms/legislation by political parties have a lot of influence. For example Rwanda reached because of this 48,8 percent of women in the parliament.

Figure 8: Results indicator 4, seats in parliament



7.1.5. The standards and objectives

In paragraph 2.3.1, there were different elements appointed for the standards and objectives to get the best performance, for example the relation to other goals, the clarity of the objectives, the goal consensus and marginal change. This concept will be discussed below.

The exact goal is to promote gender equality and empower women. One main target is to eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2005 and at all levels of education by 2015. The four objectives are as following:

- The ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education.
- The ratio of literate women to men ages 15-24.
- The share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector expressed as a percentage of total employment in the sector.
- The proportion of seats held by women in the national parliament expressed as a percentage of all occupied seats.

The official indicators to measure gender equality can be seen as narrower than the goal itself. Gender equality exists of much more aspects, for example discrimination. Next to that it is not always about the percentage but also about the content and the real influence that persons can have. This is something to consider, which doesn’t become clear only by the percentages. Next to that one could also take a look on the proportion of women in local administration units, law enforcement agencies, law-making bodies and other institutions, where real authority makes differences. On the other hand, one can see that if a government is concerned with gender equality, they will involve much more facets of gender in their policy. Next to

that these indicators are clear and give a good overview of the general status of gender equality. The goal consensus depends on the kind of government. Often there is consensus about the policies, but in practice this is much more difficult. For example in Nepal the caste system is abolished, but in practice it still exist, so there can be consensus about the goal, but in practice this still doesn't work out. This brings also to the fact that the goal is interrelated with the other goals of the MDG. All these goals are related to each other. For example the poverty status of a country has direct influence on the position of women. This makes it not so easy to change things; it is a long process. Lastly the change can be seen as marginal, if one looks to each step, but in the end it is one big process and change, which will take a lot of time and makes it much more difficult.

7.2.The policies

7.2.1.Comparison of the policies

On 8 September 2000, 189 Member States of the United Nations adopted the United Nations Millennium Declaration (United Nations, 2001). Most of the targets set by the Millennium Declaration were not new. They derived from the global conferences of 1990s and form the body of international norms and laws that had been codified over the past half century. The Millennium Development Goals are the world's time bound and quantified targets for addressing extreme poverty in its many dimensions (UN Millennium Project, 2005). Many countries are reaping the benefits of globalization and are on track to achieve at least some of the Goals by the appointed deadline of 2015. It is crucial that the Millennium Development Goals become national goals and serve to increase the coherence and consistency of national policies and programs. The goals need to be achieved at the country level, because key economic policy decisions and development assistance activities take place at the level of individual sovereign states. Not just on the global or regional level because at the country level, the governments can hold accountable for signing on to them. They must also help reduce the gap between what needs to be done and what is actually being done. The widening gap between goals and achievements implies that the international community has failed to deliver on crucial commitments it made during the 1990s.

Addressing gender disparities at a systemic level requires capacity at various levels of the government to design policies, implement programs and monitor progress towards the Goal (MDG Needs Assessment). These systemic sets of interventions include:

- Strengthening ministries and government agencies
- Implementing international agreements on ending gender discrimination such as CEDAW.
- Supporting the set-up of data systems monitoring progress towards the gender equality goal.

These interventions consist of legislative and/or administrative changes. This will require more resources to implement them. Important is also the increase of budget of the Ministry for Women's Affairs. This might not be possible, but this of course does not diminish the importance for meeting the MDGs in any way.

The governments of the four specific countries have different policies to achieve the third goal of the MDGs. Some elements are analogical, for example the requirement for female teachers or the introduction of the quota systems for the parliament. Important is that they are all paying attention to gender, so this is a start. In the PRSPs one can find a lot of information of these policies. On the other hand, from the outcomes one can see that often these policies don't work out in practice. There is some progress going on, but not on all indicators and not

in all countries. The most attention of the governments goes to education. For this indicator one can also see the most improvements. The policies of the governments have some influence on the outcomes, but this is also depending on the implementation. Next to that the circumstances in which the policy is implemented plays a big role.

7.2.2. Implementation process

Women are still the poorest of the world's poor. They are representing two thirds of those living under a dollar a day. Over the past two decades, the number of rural women living in absolute poverty has risen by 50 percent. This is 30 percent for men. To change this severe inequality, women will need to gain control over financial and material resources and will also need access to opportunity through education. The goal of the implementation process is to promote gender equality and the empowerment of women as effective ways to combat poverty, hunger and disease and to stimulate development that is truly sustainable (United Nations, 2001).

First there will be explained what has done for this goal in the years before. In the five year review of the Beijing Platform for Action, governments committed themselves to removing all discriminatory provisions in legislation and eliminating legislative gaps that leave girls and women without effective legal protection and recourse against gender-based discrimination by 2005 (United Nations, 2001). In 1999, 177 Member States adopted 'the key actions for the further implementation of the International Conference on Population and Development. This was calling on governments to protect and promote women and girls' human rights through the implementation and enforcement of gender-sensitive legislation and policies. Strategies included first the urging of greater efforts in the areas of maternal mortality, the prevention of HIV and gender sensitivity in education. Second, advocating women empowerment in employment. Third, supporting the inclusion of women in government and other decision-making bodies at a high level. Another goal is to develop and implement strategies that give young people everywhere a real chance to find decent and productive work. The United Nations system established the High-Level policy Network on Youth Employment in 2000.

The Millennium Development Goals are mutually supportive and require multi-sectoral programs. These programs should tackle each of the goals simultaneously (United Nations, 2001). Countries should ensure that poverty reduction strategies increase the focus on the poorest and most vulnerable through an appropriate choice of economic and social policies. Human rights should be at the center of peace. It is necessary to broaden partnerships between all stakeholders, such as civil society and the private sector. The United Nations system will monitor goals that are directly related to development, in cooperation with other partners in development. Strategies include:

- Urging national policy makers to accept girls' education as a strategy for achieving universal primary schooling.
- Urging national governments, local communities and the international community to commit significant resources towards education
- Making education systems adaptable to the needs of girl children, especially those from poor households.
- Supporting school feeding programs and take-home rations programs that can attract girls to school.

The implementation challenge has two main aspects (UN Millennium Project, 2005). First, the sheer range of interventions that should be implemented simultaneously to achieve the goals. Second, is the need to reach large parts of the population. The larger parts are needed to

have a measurable impact on national outcomes. There are some core elements of successful scale-up programs to achieve the MDGs. The first element is that there should be political leadership and strong government commitment. Once the government has committed to reaching the Goals, it must lead on four specific actions:

- Setting concrete objectives and plans of work
- Building national and local capacity in public management, human resources and infrastructure.
- Adopting replicable and locally appropriate delivery mechanisms.
- Monitoring to measure progress and allow for mid-course corrections.

The second element is the involvement and ownership of communities and civil society organizations. The third element is the mobilization of the private sector. The last element is the long-term and predictable funding commitments and technical assistance from donors to give countries the means to proceed.

To ensure that the process is MDG oriented and stays on track for 2015, there should be concrete long-term objectives and short-term guideposts for monitoring progress. The MDG scale-up strategy must begin with an understanding of the status of poverty and its manifestations in the country. Each country should set ambitious coverage targets for 2015 that will lead to reaching the goals. These targets should take into account the local circumstances, for example human rights obligations of the state, rights to health and food for all. Another critical feature of the MDG work plans are sequencing investments. Each country will need to decide on policy and investment priorities for implementation, depending on local circumstances.

Support for reporting at the country level includes close consultation by UNDP with partners in the UN Development Group, other UN Partners, the World Bank, IMF and OECD and regional groupings and experts. All the organizations recognize the importance of the achievement of the MDGs. The UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs is coordinating reporting on progress towards the goals at the global level.

There are no real enforcement activities. The countries all need to report about their policies, status and progress. It is important that the governments are made accountable for their policies. Monitoring progress is easier for some targets than for others. Good quality data for some indicators are not yet available for many countries. This underscores the need to assist countries in building national capacity in compiling vital data.

7.3.Comparison of the exogenous factors

7.3.1.Socio-cultural conditions

In paragraph 2.3.5.1, there were different socio-cultural elements discussed, which have influence on the equality of men and women:

- Demographic and societal trends
- Population growth, sex ratio and composition
- Life ideological ideas and life expectancy
- Religion
- The social policy and health policy

Below the socio-cultural elements of Bangladesh, Nepal, Ethiopia and Uganda will be compared to see if they are linked to the performance of the countries on the third goal of the MDG.

The percentage of female population is in all the four countries around the fifty percent. In Nepal this is the least with 48,7 percent. The life expectancy in Bangladesh is the highest with 63 for females and 62 for males. In Ethiopia this is the lowest with 43 for females and 41 for males. Nepal is the only country where the life expectancy for females is lower than for males. These rates are also in comparison with the performance of the four countries, in which Bangladesh is performing the best and Ethiopia the worst. This also comes back in the GDI. Bangladesh has the lowest rank, followed by Uganda, Nepal and Ethiopia. On the HDI this is not the same, because Nepal is performing better here than Uganda.

In Bangladesh is 88 percent Muslim (See appendix). This is 40 percent in Ethiopia, where also 40 percent is Orthodox. In Nepal 90 percent of the religion is Hinduism. In Uganda is 66 percent Christian. This is totally different from each other. The religion will have some influence on the way that women are seen, but from these data there is no clear explanation of a direct influence.

On public health expenditure is Uganda scoring the highest, followed by Bangladesh and Nepal. On private health expenditure is Nepal scoring the highest, followed by Uganda and Ethiopia. Striking is that Ethiopia is spending the highest amount of money on military expenditure. Also in Ethiopia is the HIV prevalence the highest, while they are spending the least on health. Better governance of social expenditures along with higher allocations through government and non-government channels would provide additional momentum to the process of social development.

7.3.2.Economic conditions

In paragraph 2.3.5.2, there are different economic elements discussed which could be related to gender equality: economic situation, kind of economic activities and the role of globalization/international relations.

For the economic situation in the four countries, it is clear that Bangladesh is performing the best if one compares the Gross National Income per capita. This is followed by Uganda and Nepal. The lowest is Ethiopia because they are under economic restructuring. The economic activity rate in Uganda is the highest, probable due to fact that women are most active in the agricultural sector in Uganda.

Reducing gender inequality has its implication for economic growth. For example, if Bangladesh undertakes a reduction in the rate of gender inequality at the level of primary education, then there is a positive impact on the economy. This result is mainly linked to the assertion that gender inequality poses a threat to the human capital formation of a country that works through several channels. One is the direct effect of raising labor productivity. The other is the indirect effect of the role of women in the household as principal actors in the determination of fertility rates, health of children and other aspects of household well-being. Time spent in education also lowers the chance of early marriage. Next to that, educated women take care of the health of children much better than uneducated ones.

Equal access to opportunities refers to equality in access to assets, work and infrastructure (United Nations, 2001). Specific interventions falling under this category include:

- Ensure access to the right to own and inherit property (e.g. legislation, land titling, registration, issuance of identity documentation and enforcement).
- Promote access to credit and work (equal access to work and pay, recognition of women's responsibility to care for dependents).
- Provide access to infrastructure to reduce women's work burden (e.g. access to clean cooking fuel and access to safe drinking water).

7.3.3. Political conditions

In paragraph 2.3.5.3, there are different political elements discussed which could be related to gender equality: political ideas and relations of power, the governmental systems, the decision-making, the elections and the jurisdiction.

Uganda and Nepal got both in 1962 independence. Bangladesh got independent in 1971 and in Ethiopia this is much later. In Nepal the caste system was abolished in 1962, but in practice this still exists. The amount of women in government at ministerial level is in Uganda the highest, followed by Ethiopia. There is a difference between the seats in the lower house and upper house (in 2004). For the lower house Uganda is scoring the best, followed by Ethiopia and Nepal, while for the upper house Nepal is scoring the best. All the countries are walking on a path of democracy. In Ethiopia there is a constitution, but the country is suffering a lot from the war and conflicts. All the countries introduced the CEDAW, but in practice it differs how this works out. This also counts for the quota systems. Striking in comparison with the performance is that in Nepal women received in 1951, as earliest, the right to vote followed by Ethiopia, Uganda and Bangladesh.

It is important to ensure the ability to improve political representation. Interventions designed to increase women's participation in the work place include vocational training that is targeted to reach 25 percent of the adolescent female population. Interventions that enhance women's ability to participate in political opportunities focus on training women candidates to contest and participate in national electoral seats, and increasing awareness around women's right to contest elections. These interventions aim to reach all women candidates for national electoral seats by 2015.

7.4. Resources

In paragraph 2.3.2, there are different resources summed up. These are as following:

- Official Development Assistance (ODA)
- The amount of money that the government is spending on gender and/or social policies
- Technical assistance
- Expertise and advice.

In the appendix is an overview of the ODA that the countries received in 2002. If one compares the ODA received in total US\$ millions, one can see that Ethiopia get the highest amount, followed by Bangladesh, Uganda and Nepal. If one compares the ODA received as percentage of GDP, one can see that Ethiopia still has the highest percentage, followed by Uganda, Nepal and Bangladesh. Bangladesh gets also some private flows of money. This can be related to the performance of the countries. Ethiopia is performing the worst on almost all indicators, so this is corresponding with the amount of aid that they get. Bangladesh is performing the best, except for politics and literacy and also gets the lowest amount of money. This doesn't mean that the amount of money is directly of influence on the improvement of

the countries. Ethiopia gets the highest amount, but is still performing worst. This means that there are other indicators influencing the performance. This is for example also depending on how the money is used and where it comes. Ethiopia is spending the least of the four countries on health expenditure.

Governments are spending also different on gender. For example Bangladesh is spending two percent on gender, while the government of Uganda reserved zero percent for gender. The government of Uganda also admits that this is a restricting factor for them. The amount of money can be directly or indirectly linked to gender equality, because indirectly Uganda does spend indirectly money to improve gender equality.

Next to that some aspects of promoting gender equality need money, for example the education of female teachers. Other aspects, for example equal access to the employment market don't need money, but this is a total culture change. Mr Beck, from the Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs also argues that money is not always the right solution to empower women. Good governance is important and next to that there should also be some responsibility for the society itself. The four countries are all assisted and dependent on other organisations for the development and implementation of their policies.

7.5. An agenda for change

At current rates, the target of eliminating gender disparity in educational enrolment by 2015 will not be met in many regions (UN, Millennium Project, 2005). The slow pace of progress is a particular concern in Southern and Western Asia and in Sub-Saharan Africa. To understand the multiple dimension of inequality, both inside and outside the confines of school, one has to keep the following in mind. First relates to constraints within the family and society that affect girls' access to education. Second relates to how school systems take, or fail to take, the specific needs of girls into account in their curricula, teaching methods and learning environment. Third takes up the issue of how girls perform in school and the extent to which achievement translates into equal opportunities in social and economic spheres.

Progress for women in the area of work is also slow. To promote equal employment opportunities for women, gender-sensitive policies and programs must be developed and implemented. Supporting women's entrepreneurship through targeted micro-credit schemes is a key strategy. The burden of care and family responsibilities is a constraint to women's employment promotion and economic empowerment. Public policies should aim to free women from this burden. Balancing paid and care-giving work is a critical issue, especially in countries where AIDS is on the rise. Countries will need to take special measures to support those who are infected by AIDS. Recognizing the economic and social value of unpaid care work in national legislation, policies and programs can do this. An important component of countries' efforts to eliminate sex-based discrimination in employment is their ratification and implementation of the ILO Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work.

Also women's representation in politics continues to lag, although there is some progress. In most of the 17 countries where the 30 percent target has been reached, is some kind of affirmative action measures have been instituted. These can take the form of reserved seats in parliament, electoral candidate quotas endorsed by political parties or other affirmative action measures. Parliament themselves need to become more gender sensitive. A parliament's structure and rules, and the attitude of its members can all have an impact on the capacity of women parliamentarians to contribute and participate fully.

8. Conclusion and recommendations

In the conclusion the research questions will be answered. The research question in this project is as following: ‘To which extent is the third goal of the MDG, the promotion of gender equality, implemented and how can the differences in outcomes/results in Bangladesh, Nepal, Ethiopia and Uganda be explained?’ Before one can answer the main question, first the other research questions need to be answered.

8.1. Research question one

The first question is as followed: ‘Which policies and amount of resources are used to implement the third goal of the MDG and are they different in Bangladesh, Nepal, Ethiopia and Uganda?’ Beneath the different policies of the countries will be compared.

The policies of the countries start with the adopted United Nations Millennium Declaration in September 2000. The Millennium Development Goals are the world’s time bound and quantified targets for addressing extreme poverty in its many dimensions. The goals need to be achieved at the country level (UN, Road map towards the implementation of the UN Millennium Declaration, 2001). There should be implemented a range of interventions simultaneously and there is a need to reach large parts of the population. If the relevant government has committed to reaching the goals, it should follow four specific actions. First, setting concrete objectives and plans of work is necessary. Second, one needs to build national and local capacity in public management, human resources and infrastructure. Third, adopting replicable and locally appropriate delivery mechanisms is advised. Fourth, countries need to monitor progress and make mid-course corrections. Addressing gender disparities requires a lot of effort of the relevant governments. It is their responsibility to design policies, implement programs and monitor their progress towards the goals. Each country will need to decide on policy and investment priorities for implementation, depending on local circumstances. This is different for each government and one can say that the policies of Bangladesh, Nepal, Ethiopia and Uganda do differ. To illustrate this, the main policies of the countries will be shortly described and compared below.

Bangladesh has specific attention for the development of promoting gender equality. Their policies can be found in the PRSP. The government actively promotes policies for increasing women’s participation in all spheres of development. It has a strategy into both diagnostic and prescriptive modules concerning economic growth, poverty reduction and social development. The programs and projects of Bangladesh will be considered under the strategy and TYRP. The government puts specific attention to gender parity in school enrollment. They are implementing policies to attract and retain girls in school, for example by subsidies, provision to girls’ toilets and women teachers. Bangladesh started the Development Program for Primary Education. By taking into account the country’s past international commitments and evolving national realities, the strategy visualizes that by the year 2015, Bangladesh wants achieve the following goals/targets for gender:

- Attain universal primary education for all girls and boys of primary school age
- Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education
- Reduce infant and under five mortality rate by 65 percent, and eliminate gender disparity in child mortality.
- Reduce the proportion of malnourished children under five by 50 percent and eliminate gender disparity in child malnutrition.
- Reduce substantially, social violence against disadvantaged groups, especially against women and children.

In Nepal the government is recognizing gender disparity in its Tenth Five Year Plan. The government is developing tools and mechanisms that enable women to access, participate and benefit from equitable local planning and governance. These are Programs aiming at the empowerment of women. The Mainstreaming Gender Equity Programme assists the Nepalese government in overcoming gender gaps. Just like in Bangladesh, most attention goes to the gender parity in school education. Their policy is to institute special incentives to female children, the requirement to hire at least one female teacher, scholarships and literacy camps. It counts both Bangladesh and Nepal that there are almost no specific implementation programs found for the third and fourth objective. They did implement the quota system for the fourth objective, but in practice this did not worked out as shown later.

In Ethiopia gender issues are not only about equity and social justice, but strongly related to development and poverty reduction. The government admits that this is an important issue and their policy is described in the PRSP. The government sees female education as the key to empowerment. Next to that the organization of income generating activities with the view to alleviating their economic and social problems is currently high on the agenda. The Women's Development Fund established the Women's Development In Initiative Projects. The main objective of the WDIP is to enhance women's empowerment through development intervention by providing financial and technical support. The focus at the regional level was on awareness creation for officials, NGOs, youth and women associations, the community on project implementation procedures, selection processes and the role of intermediaries and facilitators.

Uganda has the Poverty Eradication Action Plan. The policies are focused on awareness programs, sensitization and training, violence prevention and systematic capacity building at the ministerial level. The policies of the government of Uganda to gender equality are still general. There is not so much attention for specific implementation programs. Most attention goes to awareness building at the community and other levels.

The governments of the four specific countries have different policies to achieve the third goal of the MDGs. Some elements are analogical, for example the requirement for female teachers or the introduction of the quota systems for the parliament. Most attention of the governments goes to education. This is also the objective for which most government made specific implementation policies/programs. Important is that they are all paying attention to gender. In all the PRSP of the countries their policies are described. On the other hand this is just a very small start. Especially in Uganda this is really in the start phase. There is attention for gender equality and they are working on it, but if it comes to specific implementation programs for all the objectives, this is lagging far behind.

8.2. Research question two

The second question was as following: 'Which actors are involved in the implementation process and how do their characteristics influence the implementation process?' This question will be answered below.

The main developing and coordinating organization is the United Nations for the Millennium Development Goals. There are 191 member countries, under which Bangladesh, Nepal, Ethiopia and Uganda. The International Monetary Fund, the World Bank and twelve other independent organizations are linked to the UN through cooperative agreements. The World Bank adopted a gender and development mainstreaming strategy in 2001. The UNDP, in collaboration with the national governments, is coordinating reporting by countries in

progress towards the UN Millennium Development Goals, so also for gender equality. Support for reporting at the country level includes close consultation by UNDP with partners in the UN Development Group, other UN partners, the World Bank, IMF and OECD and regional grouping and experts. All the organizations recognize the importance of the achievement of the MDGs. There are no real enforcement activities. The countries all need to report about their policies, status and progress. Governments should be made accountable for this and monitoring is an important issue.

8.3. Research question three

The third question was as following: ‘To what extent is the implementation of the third goal of MDG in Bangladesh Nepal, Ethiopia and Uganda achieved?’ The achievements of the four countries will be described and compared beneath.

Bangladesh achieved considerable success in mainstreaming women into the development process. While the government has undertaken steps to improve the rights of women and girls, there is a need for stronger enforcement laws. Bangladesh has made a lot of progress for objective one. On primary education Bangladesh will probably reach the goal in 2015. On the other hand they made the most progress in the beginning and last years there is no more progress. On secondary and tertiary education the dropouts are still high, but this is improving. The literacy rate is also slowly improving. The share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector increased in Bangladesh. Despite this is still low because women play such a big role in the agricultural sector. Next to that discrimination in terms of sex, wages and hours of work still exist. Bangladesh is not performing well on the fourth objective, because this only decreased. Discrimination against women is still very strong. If women can gain a high political position this is only because of their elite status and not because of their own personal qualities. At the local government level there is a trend towards more elected women. It is not expected that Bangladesh will reach this objective in 2015. The gap is closing, but Bangladesh should work on literacy, work force, property rights, credit access and political voice.

In Nepal it is much more difficult to see real achievements in practice. Most of the results can be seen in education. There have been significant improvements in the relative access of girls to school education, especially for primary and secondary education. On this objective Nepal might be able to reach the target of 2015. Although there is still a gap for the female literacy levels, this improved a lot. On the third objective Nepal is not performing so well and it is hard to find data about this objective. The women’s active participation in paid employment is limited in Nepal. Next to that their wages are lower than men. For the fourth objective, Nepali women are still largely without influence in the public domain. They held only 6 percent of the seats. In all three levels of elected governments the representation of women lags far behind men.

In Ethiopia is gender inequality still one of the main features of the society. In almost all aspects of life, women are at a disadvantage. The rate of gender inequality in education has been changing. Although women are still less literate, the gap has closed significantly. If this trend continues, the gender gap could be closed before 2015. For the third indicator there is no recent data available, but the share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector is low. 80 percent of the population lives in rural areas and especially in these areas women are disadvantaged. For objective four, Ethiopia is also not on track. Women hold only eight percent of the seats. On the other hand this is increasing because in 2001 this was only two percent.

In Uganda the gender gap for education decreased. For primary education Uganda might be able to reach the target in 2015. Primary education is still increasing, but secondary and tertiary education is not increasing and even declining. The ratio of literate women to men increased with 0,76 in 1990 to 0,86 in 2004. The share of wage employment in the non-agricultural sector was in 1990 35,6 percent. There is no recent data available, but it can be clear that Uganda is not on track for this indicator. 90 percent of the people live at the countryside, where the life is hard, especially for women. The economy of Uganda is mainly formed by agricultural activities, but the industrial activities are increasing. On the fourth objective is Uganda performing really well. The proportion of seats held by women is 24.

8.4. Research question four

The fourth question was as following: ‘Which factors can explain the different outcomes/results in Bangladesh, Nepal, Ethiopia and Uganda?’ For each objective there are different aspects that can explain the different outcomes or results. For objective one, education, is the most attention. The countries where the progress has been slow are the countries where the resources and school facilities are severely limited. Next to that the total enrollment is low in these countries. The governments of the four countries all have a specific policy to increase this rate. For primary and secondary education the best effects can be found in Bangladesh and Nepal, which might be able to reach the targets of 2015. In Bangladesh the subsidies, the CEDAW and the attention for female teachers has had a positive influence. For tertiary education Uganda is performing better than Nepal. In Uganda is the north lying far behind the south. Diseases and poverty have negative influence on women and make their life much heavier. Education is not compulsory in Uganda. Ethiopia is performing the worst. This can be explained by the influence of the civil wars, poverty and the health problems, for example problems of AIDS, which has most influence on women.

Objective two is also increased for the four countries. For this objective Uganda and Ethiopia are performing better than Bangladesh and Nepal. Progress in school enrollment has resulted in higher literacy rates for the younger age groups. In some regions literacy rates remain still low and when these are low, the gender gap remains a serious concern. The largest gap is in South Asia. In South Asia the women’s literacy rates are 19-percentage point lower than men’s. The gender gap in literacy for the four countries is also the biggest in Bangladesh and Nepal. This is something one should not expect, because literacy is linked with education and on education Bangladesh is performing the best. A reason for this could be the high dropouts of girls when the level gets higher. Bangladesh is also not well performing for tertiary education.

For indicator three is almost no recent data available. This is in relation with the performance on this indicator. In most of the four countries lives often 80 percent of the population of agriculture. For example the economy of Uganda is mainly formed by agricultural activities. 90 percent of the people live at the countryside, where the life is much harder especially for women. Women have no property right in time of marriage and this makes it more difficult to get an equal change to develop. Despite, the industrial activities are increasing, but there are more men working in this sector. Especially in agricultural jobs women play an important role, but are often not equally treated. In fact, only for Bangladesh there is recent information available of the share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector. Only in the developed regions are women and men approaching parity. The government of Bangladesh sees the burden of poverty that continues to fall disproportionately on women. The underlying factors are low literacy rate, low nutrition, low income with discriminating wage differentials compared to men, low life expectancy and high morbidity. It is a big

country with a high population density, low resources and a high incidence of natural disasters. The poverty has most influence on the life of women. Bangladesh is urbanizing and growing. Traditionally women should be homestead. There are significant differences among regions and countries in the share of women in non-agricultural wage employment. These reflect various socio-cultural attitudes towards women and work. They also reflect differences in legislation, policies and programs and in the support available to women and men to enable them to balance work and family responsibilities. In Nepal the cast system has still influence on the development of women. This was abolished in 1962, but in practice it still exists. From tradition women should stay at home and give birth to at least one son. Another reason for Nepal is that 80 percent of the employment is in the agricultural sector. The natural resources are scarce and unevenly distributed. In the mountain between India and China there is a lot of poverty. Although women work much longer than men do, their economic contributions go largely unnoticed. Although on paper the Nepalese government is adopting all the right policies, in practice, the problem lies in the implementation. For Ethiopia counts that it is recovering, but still suffering from the war and the conflict with Eritrea. People are more working to survive than thinking about what should change for women. This can also be seen in the low life expectancy in comparison to the other countries. Ethiopia has a temporary constitution and a Universal Declaration in which men and women should be equal. In practice this is totally different. 80 percent of the population lives in rural areas. Especially in these areas women are disadvantaged. This indicator is strongly linked to development and poverty reduction, which is low in Ethiopia. Striking is that Ethiopia is spending the highest amount of money on military expenditure. Also in Ethiopia is the HIV prevalence the highest, while they are spending the least on health.

For objective four is Uganda performing the best. The two countries in Sub-Saharan Africa are performing better than the two in South Asia. Many post-conflict countries recognized the importance of including women in reconstruction processes and in ensuring women's participation in new democratic institutions. It is important that this is adopted in the national constitution, also quota mechanisms/legislation by political parties have a lot of influence. All the countries introduced the quota systems, but the influence in practice is different in the countries. The main obstacle to women's participation in Bangladesh lies in the reluctance of political bosses to bring about change and implement their policy and the hostility of local politician to cede their constituency to women politicians. In some cases women politicians are themselves reluctant to contest general seats. There has been a quota system for the national parliament, but in practice this never worked. In Nepal they also introduced a quota system, but in practice this doesn't work, because the women who are elected have no influence. The country is political instable and this causes the bad performance on this indicator. In Ethiopia there is some improvement, but not sufficient and Ethiopia is not on track to meet this goal. This can be explained by the influences of the war. There started a democratic process, but there is still a lot of corruption. A positive point is that because of the civil war some women liberation movements could get bigger. In Uganda the quotas system had a positive influence. Next to that women take part of the Resistance Committees. There are different factors that influence the women's parliamentary representation:

- the type of electoral system in place in a country
- the role and discipline of political parties
- women's social and economic status
- socio-cultural traditions and beliefs about women's place in the family and society
- women's double burden of work and family responsibilities.

If one compares the ODA received as percentage of GDP, one can see that Ethiopia still has the highest percentage. This is followed by Uganda, Nepal and Bangladesh. This can be related to the performance of the countries. Ethiopia is performing the worst on almost all indicators, so this is corresponding with the amount of aid that they get. Bangladesh is performing the best, except for politics and literacy and also gets the lowest amount of money. There are also other indicators influencing the performance. Governments are spending different on gender. For example Bangladesh reserved two percent to spend on gender, while in Uganda there is zero percent reserved. Some aspects of promoting gender equality need money, for example the education of female teachers. Other aspects, for example equal access to the employment market don't need money, but this is a total culture change. The four countries are all assisted and dependent on other organisations for the development and implementation of their policies.

8.5. Research question five

The last question was as following: 'In which way can the results be improved?' The countries are performing the best on objective one. This is also the main focus of the governments of the four countries. The governments are using good policies to increase this and most will be likely to meet the goal before 2015. Only for tertiary education there should be more attention, because at this level there are still a lot of dropouts. Next to that there should be more attention for what happens after the school education. If for example in Uganda 90 percent lives at the countryside and does agricultural work, one can question if the education level can be used in practice. The governments should consider the following points in their policies. First relates to constraints within the family and society that affect girls' access to education. Second relates to how school systems take, or fail to take, the specific needs of girls into account in their curricula, teaching methods and learning environment. Third takes up the issue of how girls perform in school and the extent to which achievement translates into equal opportunities in social and economic spheres. Objective one stands in connection with objective two. Objective two is less increasing, but still most countries might be able to reach this goal. Prominent is that Bangladesh and Nepal are both performing less than Ethiopia and Uganda on this objective.

For objective three is almost no recent data available. This means first that this should be improved, so one can measure the progress for 2015. On the other hand there is no recent data available because the countries are performing so badly on this objective. This is not so easy to change because it is much deeper. In some countries the industry is growing, but in the non-agricultural as well as the agricultural sector there should be much more attention for the circumstances of women. Progress for women in the area of work is slow. To promote equal employment opportunities for women, gender sensitive policies and programs must be developed and implemented. This is something where the governments of the four countries should work on. Next to that they should introduce, implement and control laws which make it no longer possible that men can get more wages for the same job as women. The burden of care and family responsibilities is a constraint to women's employment promotion. Employers may be able to create more solutions for this problem. Especially in Ethiopia and Uganda the government should also take measures to restrict the problems because of AIDS. Equal access to opportunities refers to equality in access to assets, work and infrastructure. Specific interventions falling under this category include:

- Ensure access to the right to own and inherit property (e.g. legislation, land titling, registration, issuance of identity documentation and enforcement).
- Promote access to credit and work (equal access to work and pay, recognition of women's responsibility to care for dependents).

- Provide access to infrastructure to reduce women's work burden (e.g. access to clean cooking fuel and access to safe drinking water).

For objective four is only Uganda performing well. Also this objective has much deeper grounds. For example in South Asia the whole attitude to women should first be changed. Women should not be restricted to be homestead and not be dependent on the status of their husband. For Ethiopia it's important that they first become more stable, without corruption. All the countries introduced the quota systems, but in practice this works out different. The parliament themselves needs to become more gender sensitive. A parliament's structure and rules, and the attitude of its members can all have an impact on the capacity of women parliamentarians to contribute and participate fully. Interventions designed to increase women's participation in the work place include vocational training that is targeted to reach 25 percent of the adolescent female population. Interventions that enhance women's ability to participate in political opportunities focus on training women candidates to contest and participate in national electoral seats, and increasing awareness around women's right to contest elections.

8.6.Main research question

Together all the research questions form the answer to the main question: 'To which extent is the third goal of the MDG, the promotion of gender equality, implemented and how can the differences in outcomes/results in Bangladesh, Nepal, Ethiopia and Uganda be explained?' A short overview of the answer to this question will now be worked out. In the four countries the governments are working on the implementation of the third goal of the MDGs. There is attention for gender and one is aware of the importance of this goal. On the other hand this is only the start of the process to improve the situation of women in development countries. In practice the implementation works out different in the four countries.

Most attention is focused on the first objective, the ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education. The influence of this can be seen in the outcomes. All countries are making progress on this objective and might be able to reach the target in 2015 for primary education. For secondary this needs much more efforts. On the other hand the most progress has been made between 1990 and 1999. Bangladesh and Nepal are performing the best on this objective, but made the most progress in the beginning. Only tertiary education is lagging behind. The same counts for the second objective, the ratio of literate women to men, but this is lagging something more behind. Next to that it was more difficult to find recent data good information of this objective. Most governments have no specific policies to improve the literacy rate of women, but the four countries might be able to meet this objective in 2015 if they could create a more increasing line.

On the third objective, the share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector, the four countries are performing badly. There is almost no recent data available and only descriptive information about the economic circumstances. As described above this comes from the fact the countries are not performing well. Only of Bangladesh there is some information available. Especially in Ethiopia and Uganda 90 percent of the population lives at the countryside and does only agricultural work, which is prominently done by women. Local circumstances of the countries have most influence on the different outcomes and the performance of the countries. Women have no property rights in most countries and the life is hard. From tradition they should stay at home. It is hard to change these relationships, because this has much deeper roots. Next to that this is in relation with the economic growth. For example in Ethiopia one is more thinking about surviving than about the conditions of the

women. It is important that the government is focusing much more on this objective and that this situation improves. Despite the policies to this objective, it won't be possible to reach this goal for 2015.

The fourth objective, the proportion of seats held by women in the national parliament, is improving, but this is a small improvement and the countries are not on track to meet this goal in 2015. Uganda is performing well, but especially Bangladesh and Nepal are performing badly on this objective. For this objective the problem also lies much deeper. The government should first change the whole attitude and culture towards women before this situation can really improve. The quota systems can work out positive in practice, but this is also dependent on the implementation and other societal factors.

Concluding one can say that in all observed countries there is progress on the third goal of the Millennium Development Goals. However the progress is not big enough to realize the future targets of 2015. Although there are noticeable differences in policies and implementing strategies between the countries, also other factors like economical or social factors occur and have influences. Furthermore it seems to be obvious that cultural changes have to be forced in the observed countries in order to reach the objectives. Despite the observed improvements, there is still a long and hard way to go before women are equally treated to men.

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Appendix

1. **Interview questions**
2. **List of interviewed people**
3. **Overview of results of the indicators**
4. **Overview of results of the exogenous factors**
5. **Overview of ODA (in 2002)**
6. **Articles of CEDAW**

1. Interview questions

Subject	Specific questions
Outcomes	<p>*To what extent is the implementation of the third goal of MDG in Bangladesh Nepal, Ethiopia and Uganda achieved?</p> <p>*Are there differences between the achievements of the four indicators and if so, why? Are they different in the four countries?</p> <p>*Are the outcomes of the third goal related to the outcomes for all the goals of the MDGs?</p> <p>*Why has Bangladesh such a good score for education, but not for literacy, while this is the other way around for Ethiopia and Uganda?</p> <p>*How are the countries performing on the third indicator, because here is almost no data available?</p> <p>*What should the government do to increase the score for the third indicator (share of women in wage employment of the non-agricultural sector)?</p> <p>Only for Bangladesh is was possible to find recent data for this indicator.</p> <p>*Why has only Uganda such a high score for the fourth indicator?</p>
Bangladesh	<p>*What kinds of position have the women in Bangladesh in general?</p> <p>*How is Bangladesh performing on the third goal of the MDGs?</p> <p>*Is the government working on the third goal, official and in practice? No, why not. Yes, in which way and does it has influence?</p> <p>*Is there any improvement? No, why not?/Yes, what kind and why.</p> <p>*Why has Bangladesh such a high score for education, but not for literacy?</p> <p>*The score for education is really high, but what kind of influence has this in practice?</p> <p>*What could the government do to increase the score for the third indicator?</p> <p>*Why are there so few women in the parliament? What should the government do to change this?</p>
Nepal	<p>*What kinds of position have the women in Nepal in general?</p> <p>*How is Nepal performing on the third goal of the MDGs?</p> <p>*Is the government working on the third goal, official and in practice? No, why not. Yes, in which way and does it has influence?</p> <p>*Is there any improvement? No, why not?/Yes, what kind and why?</p> <p>*Why is the ratio of girl to boys in tertiary education so low in Nepal?</p> <p>*What could the government do to increase the score for the third indicator?</p>

	<p>*Why are there so few women in the parliament? What should the government do to change this?</p>
Ethiopia	<p>*What kinds of position have the women in Ethiopia in general?</p> <p>*How is Ethiopia performing on the third goal of the MDGs?</p> <p>*Why does Ethiopia have the lowest score on almost everything (Human Development Report)?</p> <p>*Is the government working on the third goal, official and in practice? No, why not. Yes, in which way and does it has influence?</p> <p>*Is there any improvement? No, why not?/Yes, what kind and why?</p> <p>*What should be changed first before one can increase gender equality?</p> <p>*What could the government do to increase the score for the third indicator?</p>
Uganda	<p>*What kinds of position have the women in Uganda in general?</p> <p>*How is Uganda performing on the third goal of the MDGs?</p> <p>*Is the government working on the third goal, official and in practice? No, why not. Yes, in which way and does it has influence?</p> <p>*Is there any improvement? No, why not?/Yes, what kind and why?</p> <p>*What could the government do to increase the score for the third indicator?</p> <p>*How does it come that the position of seats held by women in the national parliament is so high? Do women have real influence on the decision-making?</p>
Concluding	<p>*Do you think that the countries will reach the MDGs for 2015?</p> <p>*What should be done to make this possible?</p> <p>*What should be changed?</p>

2.List of interviewed people

- Dutch Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Beck, F., DSI-department of women and development.
- World Bank, Diwan, I., Country Director for Ethiopia & Sudan.
- World Bank, Mpuga, P., Country Office Local Economist of Uganda.

3. Overview of results

Indicators	Bangladesh	Nepal	Ethiopia	Uganda
1.a. Ratio of girls to boys in primary education	1990: 0,86	1990: 0,61	1990: 0,66	1990: 0,80
	1999: 0,99	1999: 0,80	1999: 0,65	1999: 0,91
	2000: 1,01	2000: 0,85	2000: 0,69	2000: 0,94
	2001: 1,02	2001: 0,87	2001: 0,71	2001: 0,96
1.b. Ratio of girls to boys in secondary education	1990: 0,52	1990: 0,44	1991: 0,75	1990: 0,56
	1999: 1,01	1999: 0,72	1999: 0,67	1999: ?
	2000: 1,05	2000: 0,73	2000: 0,66	2000: 0,77
	2001: 1,10	2001: 0,75	2001: 0,62	2001: 0,77
1.c. Ratio of girls to boys in tertiary education	1990: 0,20	1990: 0,32	1990: 0,22	1990: 0,39
	1999: 0,51	1999: 0,41	1999: 0,27	1999: 0,51
	2000: 0,54	2000: 0,28	2000: 0,27	2000: 0,52
	2001: 0,50	2001: 0,28	2001: 0,36	2001: 0,52
2. Ratio of literate women to men, 15-24 years old	1990: 0,65	1990: 0,41	1990: 0,66	1990: 0,76
	2004: 0,71	2004: 0,75	2004: 0,82	2004: 0,86
3. Share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector	1990: 17,6	1990: 11,8	1991: 39,9	1990: 35,6
	1995: 21,1	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown
	2000: 22,9			
	2002: 23,8			
	2003: 24,2			
4. Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament, in percent.	1990: 10	1990: 6	1996: 2	1990: 12
	2000: 9	1999: 3	2000: 2	1997: 18
	2001: 9	2000: 6	2001: 8	2002: 25
	2003: 2	2002: 6	2002: 8	2003: 25
	2004: 2	2004: 6	2004: 8	2004: 25
	2005: 2	2005: 6	2005: 8	2005: 24
Gender-related development index (GDI) rank 2002	110	116	137	113
GDI value, 2002	0,499	0,484	0,346	0,487
Gender empowerment measure (GEM) rank	76	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown
GEM value	0,218	Unknown	Unknown	Unknown
Ratio of estimated female to male earned income	0,56	0,50	0,51	0,66

4.Overview of the results of the exogenous factors

Social, Economic and Political factors	Bangladesh	Nepal	Ethiopia	Uganda
Demographic trends: -surface and population -kind of country	147,960 km2. 133 million people. A low-lying deltaic country, with three important rivers	147,000 km2 25 million people. Land locked country	1,127,127 km2 67,2 million people <i>Land locked country</i>	241,038 km2 25,6 million people <i>Land locked country</i> <i>Good climate for agriculture.</i> <i>North is laying far behind the south.</i>
Life expectation in 2002	61,1	59,6	45,5	45,7
HDI	138	140	170	146
HPI rank	72	69	92	60
Socio-cultural characteristics: -Language and religion.	Bengali with Bengali language 88% Muslim 11% Hindu 1% Buddhist and Christian	Lot of different cultures: Himalayas or Tibetan. Indian influences 90% Hinduism 9% Buddhism	Still Feudal-patriarch society, where women are subordinate to men. <i>40% Muslim</i> <i>40% Orthodox</i> <i>10% Protestant</i>	66% Christian 15% Muslim
Migration and immigration	One million seek for job opportunities abroad			
Public health expenditure in 2001, in % of GDP	1,6,	1,5	1,4	3,4
Private health expenditure in 2001, in % of GDP	2,0	3,6	2,1	2,5
Military expenditure as % of GDP in 2002	1,1	1,4	5,2	2,4
Public expenditure on education as % of GDP in 2001	2,3	3,4	4,8	2,5
HIV prevalence in 2003 (age 15 till 49).	<0,2	0,3	4,4	4,1
Malaria cases per 100,000 people in 2000	40	33	556 in 1995	46
Tuberculosis in 2002 per 100,000	447	271	508	550
Male or female headed households	15 % female headed			Pressure to get children. 3% using anti-conception.
Fertility rate 2000-2005	3,5 declining	4,3	6,1	7,1 More health risks for women
Internal economic situation (GNP/GDP & financial debt)	GDP (US\$ billions) in 2002, 47,6	GDP (US\$ billions), in 2002: 5,5	GDP (US\$ billions) in 2002: 6,1	GDP (US\$ billions) in 2002: 5,8

		Economic restructuring		
Export & import	The natural resources are limited.	Resources are scarce and unevenly distributed.		
Export of goods and services as % of GDP in 2002	14	16	16	12
Import of goods and services as % of GDP in 2002	19.	29	34	27
Female economic activity rate (% ages 15 and above) in 2002	66,4.	56,8.	57,2	79,3
Female economic activity rate (% of male rate) in 2002	76	67	67	88
Female employment in agriculture (in % of female labour force and in % of male rate)	77 and 144	unknown	unknown	unknown
Female employment in industry (in % of female labour force and in % of male rate)	9 and 82	unknown	unknown	unknown
Female employment in services from 1995-2002(in % of female labour force and in % of male rate).	12 and 40	unknown	unknown	unknown
Industrial or agricultural	Urban population in 2002 was 23,9	Urban population in 2002 was 14,6. From origin numerous agricultural communities, still 80 %. Industrial sector is growing.	Urban population in 2002 was 15,4. 80% lives in rural areas.90% of female live at country side where they have an important role	Urban population in 2002 was 12,2. Agriculture. Programs not focused on women while they are so important. No proprietary rights.
Power	Independence since 1971	In 1962 is the caste system abolished, but this plays still a role	From 1974 till 1991 civil war (cost money but some women could get bigger authonomy). 1994 a new constitution	Independence since 1962 from the UK. Lots of civil wars. Highest power has the president. Also chairman.
Decision-making system (quota)				
Laws for protecting women			Equality between men and women in the constitution.	Women take part of the Resistance Committees. Per district at least one chair is reserved for women, so voice in the national politic. Some laws for discrimination against women. Missing

				institutional capacity.
Governmental systems (democracy or authority)		Since 1990 parliamentary democracy under a constitutional monarch	Temporary constitution	Since 1990s, government promulgated non-party presidential and legislative elections.
Women in government at ministerial level (as % of total), 2001,	9,5	unknown	22,2	27,1
Seats in lower house or single house held by women as % of total, 2004:	2,0	5,9	7,7	24,7
Seats in upper house or senate held by women as % of total in 2004:	NA	15	8,3	NA
Elections Year women received right to vote	1972	1951	1955	Since 1989 elections 1962
Year women received right to stand for election	1972.	1951	1955	1962
Year first women elected or appointed to parliament	1973 elected	1952 appointed	1957 elected	1962 appointed
Party systems		coalition		

Main source: Human Development Reports

5.Overview of ODA (in 2002)

	Bangladesh	Nepal	Ethiopia	Uganda
Official development assistance (ODA) received Total US\$ millions, 2002	912,8	365,5	1,306.7	637,9
ODA received per capita Total US\$, 2002	6,3	14,9	18,9	25,5
ODA received as % of GDP in 1990	7,0	11,7	11,8	15,5
ODA received as % of GDP in 2002	1,9	6,6	21,6	11,0
Net foreign direct investment inflows as % of GDP in 2002.	0,1	0,2	1,2	2,6
Other private flows, 2002 as % of GDP	0,2	Nothing	-0.1	Unknown
Total debt service as % of GDP 1990	2,5	1,9	2,7	3,4
Total debt service as % of GDP 2002	1,5	1,8	1,8	1,4

6. Articles of CEDAW

The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), adopted in 1979 by the UN General Assembly, is often described as an international bill of rights for women. Consisting of a preamble and 30 articles, it defines what constitutes discrimination against women and sets up an agenda for national action to end such discrimination (www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/cedaw).

Content and Significance of the Convention

PREAMBLE

PART I

Discrimination ([Article 1](#))

Policy Measures ([Article 2](#))

Guarantee of Basic Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms ([Article 3](#))

Special Measures ([Article 4](#))

Sex Role Stereotyping and Prejudice ([Article 5](#))

Prostitution ([Article 6](#))

PART II

Political and Public Life ([Article 7](#))

Representation ([Article 8](#))

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PART III

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Health ([Article 12](#))

Economic and Social Benefits ([Article 13](#))

Rural Women ([Article 14](#))

PART IV

Law ([Article 15](#))

Marriage and Family Life ([Article 16](#))

PART V

Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women ([Article 17](#))

National Reports ([Article 18](#))

Rules of Procedure ([Article 19](#))

Committee Meetings ([Article 20](#))

Committee Reports ([Article 21](#))

Role of Specialized Agencies ([Article 22](#))

PART VI

Effect on Other Treaties ([Article 23](#))

Commitment of States Parties (Article 24)
Administration of the Convention (Articles 25-30)

Bangladesh is rejecting the following specific articles:

Article 2. States Parties condemn discrimination against women in all its forms, agree to pursue by all appropriate means and without delay a policy of eliminating discrimination against women.

Article 13.1. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in other areas of economic and social life in order to ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women, the same rights, in particular:
[a] The right to family benefits.

Article 16.1. States Parties shall take all appropriate measures to eliminate discrimination against women in all matters relating to marriage and family relations and in particular shall ensure, on a basis of equality of men and women:
[c] The same rights and responsibilities during marriage and at its dissolution;
[f] The same rights and responsibilities with regard to guardianship, wardship, trusteeship, and adoption of children, or similar institutions where these concepts exist in national legislation; in all cases the interests of the children shall be paramount.

