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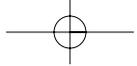
GENDER BUDGETING AS A TOOL FOR POVERTY REDUCTION

CONCEPTS, PRACTICES & CAPACITY IMPLICATIONS

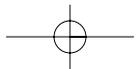
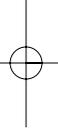
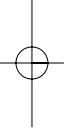


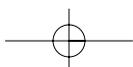
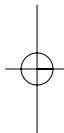
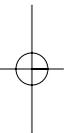
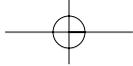
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AN ACBF OPERATIONS RESEARCH



Gender Budgeting as a Tool for Poverty Reduction



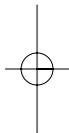
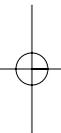
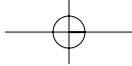


Gender Budgeting as a Tool for Poverty Reduction

Concepts, Practices, and
Capacity Implications

An ACBF Operations Research

AFRICAN CAPACITY BUILDING FOUNDATION



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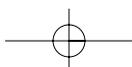
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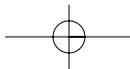
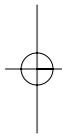
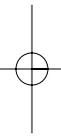
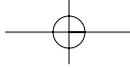
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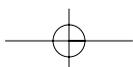
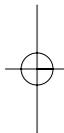
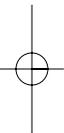
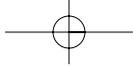
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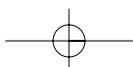
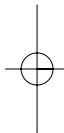
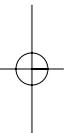
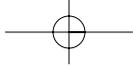
Acronyms

ACBF	African Capacity Building Foundation
ACFODE	Action for Development
AsgiSA	Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa
AU	African Union
BFP	Budget Framework Paper
BNR	National Bank of Rwanda (Banque Nationale du Rwanda)
BPA	Beijing Platform of Action
CASE	Community Agency for Social Inquiry
CEDAW	Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women
CEEWA	Council for Economic Empowerment for Women of Africa
CGE	Commission on Gender Equality
CSO	civil society organization
DEO	District Education Office
DFID	United Kingdom's Department for International Development
DHO	District Health Office
DOT	Department of Transport
DPLG	Department of Provincial and Local Government
EAGEBN	East African Gender Budget Network
ECD	early childhood development
EFA	Education for All
EPWP	Expanded Public Works Programme
ESSP	Education Sector Strategic Plan
FAWE	Forum for African Women Educationalists
FEMNET	African Women's Communication Network
FOWODE	Forum for Women in Democracy
FRRP	Forum of Women Parliamentarians (French acronym)
FTI	fast-track initiative
GDI	Gender Development Index
GDP	gross domestic product

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GER	gross enrollment ratio
GETNET	Gender Education and Training Network
GEWIS	Provincial Gender Equality and Empowerment Implementation Strategy
GFP	gender focal point
GRB	government of Rwanda budget
GTZ	German Technical Cooperation
HCBC	home- and community-based care
HDI	Human Development Index
IBIGEGA	budgetary support to women's district funds
ICD	Independent Complaints Directorate
ICT	information and communication technologies
IDA	International Development Agency
IDASA	Institute for Democracy in South Africa
IFC	International Finance Corporation
IFCDFCU	International Finance Corporation Bank
ISAE	Institute of Agriculture and Animal Husbandry
JLOS	Justice Law and Order Sector
JMC	Joint Monitoring Committee on the Improvement of the Quality of Life and Status of Women
KIE	Kigali Institute of Education
KIST	Kigali Institute of Science and Technology
KPI	key performance indicator
LTSFF	Long-Term Strategy and Financial Framework
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MIFOTRA	Ministry of Public Service and Labor
MIGEPROFE	Ministry of Gender and Women in Development
MIJESPOC	Ministry of Youth, Sports, and Culture
MINAGRI	Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock
MINALOC	Ministry of Local Government and Social Affairs
MINECOFIN	Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning
MINEDUC	Ministry of Education
MININTERE	Ministry of Water and Natural Resources
MINISANTE	Ministry of Health
MLA	Monitoring of Learning Achievement
MTEF	Medium-Term Expenditure Framework
n.d.	no date; undated document
NAADS	national extension service
NEPAD	New Economic Partnership for Africa's Development
NGM	national gender machinery
NGOs	nongovernmental organizations
NGP	national gender policy
NLTSF	National Land Transport Strategic Framework

NMT	nonmotorized transport
NUR	National University of Rwanda
OBC	Outcome Based Curriculum
OSW	Office on the Status of Women
OT	Office of the Treasurer
PCE	Participation and Civic Engagement
PEAP	Poverty Eradication Action Plan
PEO	Provincial Education Office
PRSC	Poverty Reduction Support Credit
PRSP	poverty reduction strategies paper
RHO	regional health office
SADC	South African Development Community
SALGA	South African Local Government Association
SANGOCO	South African Non-Governmental Coalition
SANWIT	SA Network of Women in Transport
SAPS	South African Police Service
SAWID	South African Women in Dialogue
SFAR	Students' Financing Agency for Rwanda
SIDA	Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency
UBOS	Uganda Bureau of Statistics
UDN	Uganda Debt Network
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Education, Scientific, and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
UNIFEM	United Nations Development Fund for Women
UNPAC	United Nations Platform for Action
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
VOICENET	Technical Advisory Panel's Professionalisation of Voices of Civil Society and the Private Sector
WBI	Women Budget's Initiative
WFP	World Food Programme



OVERVIEW

General Perspectives on Gender Budgeting

Conceptual Perspectives on Gender Budgeting

Gender budgeting is an application of gender mainstreaming in the budgetary process. It subsumes a gender-based assessment of budgets, incorporation of a gender perspective at all levels of the budgetary process, and restructuring of revenues and expenditures to promote gender equality.¹ A gender-friendly budget should ensure that general development goals do not work against social and economic equity and do not reinforce the existing development disparities among regions, ethnic groups, race, and other forms of social organization, while taking into account that at the core of these disparities there are persistently hidden sex biases.

Public budgets are not merely economic tools, but summarize policies in monetary terms and express political priorities. Budgets, therefore, are not gender neutral. They affect women and men in different ways, reflecting the uneven distribution of power within society as economic disparities, different living conditions, and ascribed social roles. Gender budgeting seeks to make the gender impact of budgets visible and to transform them into an instrument for increasing gender equality. Gender budgeting basically involves all levels of government: national, regional, and local. Gender budgeting thus involves all stages of the budgetary process² and implies gender-sensitive analysis, assessment, and restructuring of budgets.

While over eighty countries have now incorporated some form of gender budgeting within their decision-making processes, gender budgeting continues to be a process that has not been well understood, properly interpreted, nor fully applied within government policy and budget processes. It could even be said that it has been misinterpreted, misguided, and interpreted ambiguously in both governments and civil society. While gender budgeting was developed as an effective tool for reducing poverty, its value for poverty-reduction strategies within African nations has not been fully recognized by government or

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civil society. Critics and analysts still argue that when it comes to resource allocation, national annual budgets have not made gendering the budget a high priority. Thus, the gender-budgeting initiatives have generally failed in their attempts to influence decision-making process that would have rendered development outcomes more equitable. Yet throughout the world, women and children comprise the majority of the poor and disadvantaged across the spectrum of sectors.

Gender budgeting is premised on the assumption that gendered public policies and budgets within central and local government plans and programs yield more efficient and equitable development outcomes. Yet the practice of mainstreaming gender issues has tended to militate against transparency within many governmental policy-making processes, with many of the critical questions remaining unanswered or outside the purview of policy makers and civil society. This has been a primary unintended outcome of the mainstreaming process, a process that was aimed to ensure the representation of women and children within governmental structures. Furthermore, civil society structures have failed to carry out their primary role of monitoring and evaluation in the gender-budgeting process as a result of poor human and institutional capacity and limited knowledge in budgetary decision-making and advocacy intervention in these institutions.

For gender budgeting to become a high priority by governments within their annual budgetary decision-making processes, it is absolutely vital that government, development planners, and civil society members acquire necessary knowledge and skills in gender budgeting tools and analysis. In addition to the constraints in skills and knowledge, various factors have thus far militated against their ability to make informed budgetary decisions, mainly the lack of gender-disaggregated data and governments' failure to budget for structural programs within ministries and institute monitoring and evaluation procedures to track progress toward achieving gender equality goals.

Various governments around the world have expressed a commitment to obtaining gender equality on all levels and in all areas. This has been evidenced at various levels: their constitutions, ratification of international instruments, legislation and policies, and institutional structures and mechanisms that promote gender equality. As with all initiatives, research to further inform these decisions is required to assist in the examination of how well governments have done in their mission to secure gender equality within governmental structures and programs. Most significantly, there is a need to provide evidence that substantive attention to gender budgeting is a necessary activity to ensure maximization of measures to eliminate poverty.

Definition of Gender Budgeting

The most widely used definition of gender budgeting incorporates the need for developing sensitivity in those processes and tools aimed at facilitating an

General Perspectives on Gender Budgeting 3

assessment of the gendered impact of government budgets (Budlender and Sharp, 1998). This presupposes that these budgets are not separate budgets for women, but rather attempts to analyze the government's mainstream budget according to its impact on women and men, and different groups and men, with cognizance given to the society's underpinning gender relations.

The United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) refers to gender responsive budgeting as budgeting that integrates a gender perspective and tracks how budgets respond to gender equality and women's rights requirements. This entails examining not only allocations and revenue-raising measures, but also budgeting systems, budgeting processes, and the roles of the various actors throughout the process. It also entails investing in making available mechanisms, guidelines, data, and indicators that enable gender-equality advocates to track progress and benefit incidence, as well as demonstrate how supposedly gender-neutral budgets impact women.

The United Nations Platform for Action (UNPAC) explains gender budgeting thusly: gender budgets do not look at whether or not the same amount is spent on men and women, but rather at what the impact of the spending is on men and women and whether or not budgets respond to the needs of both women and men adequately (UN Platform for Action Committee, 1995). UNPAC agrees with others who maintain that gender budgets are not gender neutral. Budgets can either promote women's equality or exacerbate women's inequality; in other words, budgets can either increase income gaps and other forms of inequality between women and men, or they can lessen them. Budgets are but one of the most influential policy documents governments have because without money a government cannot implement most of its policies and programs. Gender budgets are not simply about spending but also about income, which relates to how a government generates the revenue it spends and how it allocates the generated revenue between women and men.

International Legal Instruments that Mandate Gender Equality

As a follow-up to governments' commitment to international legal instruments, gender budgeting was developed to provide institutions with mechanisms to address gender inequities in development. The most significant international gender instruments are the following:

- *The Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women of 1979 (CEDAW)*—Of the 192 United Nations members, 185 have ratified CEDAW, 90 of which have become parties to its optional protocol that enables women to file complaints directly with the CEDAW Committee. Fifty-one of fifty-three African states have ratified CEDAW and twenty-four have signed its optional protocol. This was groundbreaking in that it created an international bill of rights for women and

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established the principle of equality through civil and political rights and rights affected by cultural factors.

- *The Beijing Platform for Action of 1995*—The Beijing Platform for Action (BPA) has been ratified by 189 states and complements CEDAW. The platform addresses twelve areas of action for women’s development: poverty; education and training; health, including reproductive health; violence; armed conflict; economy; power and decision making; institutional mechanisms; human rights; media; environment; and the girl child. The BPA recommends that national machinery be established by United Nations member states to design, promote the implementation of, execute, monitor, evaluate, advocate, and mobilize support for policies that promote the advancement of women.
- *Millennium Declaration and the Adoption of the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) of 2000*—In the Millennium Declaration, 191 governments resolved 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,” to combat all forms of violence against women, and to implement CEDAW. Gender equality was included as a separate goal among the eight MDGs, a breakthrough for women that also strengthened the BPA as an instrument.

Other international instruments with gender as a crosscutting concern include the following resolutions:

- International Conference on Population and Development of 1994;
- Copenhagen Consensus on Social Development of 1995;
- Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court of 1998 (declares rape, sexual slavery, enforced prostitution, enforced sterilization, forced pregnancy, and other comparative forms of sexual violence as crimes against humanity);
- United Nations Convention Against Organized Crime of 2000; and
- International Convention on the Protection of Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families of 1990.

The African Union and Gender Equality Commitments

The African Union (AU) has established a global precedent for gender equality by adopting the principle of gender parity in decision making and electing an equal number of men and women commissioners to lead the AU. The AU is defined within a legal framework in its Constitutive Act, which provides for the promotion of gender equality. The Constitutive Act of the AU provides that the organization “shall function in accordance with the principle of the promotion of gender equality” (Article 4[1]). There is a commitment to extend the

General Perspectives on Gender Budgeting 5

principle of equal representation to all levels of the AU Commission and to other AU organs and programs, including the New Economic Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD).

At its inaugural summit in 2002, the AU affirmed the pivotal role of women and emphasized that the objectives of the AU cannot be achieved without the participation of women. The Commission of the AU comprises 50 percent women. A Gender and Development Directorate has been established in the office of the chairperson. The AU has also adopted the Additional Protocol to the African Charter on Human and People's Rights, addressing the rights of women in Africa, the Durban decision on parity within the structures of the AU, and the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa. Although only ratified by half the AU members, the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa affirms commitments made at Dakar, Beijing, and CEDAW (African Heads of State, 2004). This Declaration takes into account the major challenges facing women and the girl child, like AIDS/HIV and the fight against poverty. The Declaration is based on the areas of critical concern articulated in the BPA. In terms of the Declaration, the chairperson of the AU must report on accomplishments made toward the mainstreaming of gender.

The AU has recognized the role of women in civil society who have worked very hard in campaigning for gender issues to be integrated into all aspects related to its structure and work. The 2005 *Femme Africa Solidarite* presentation at the 49th Session of the United Nations Commission on the Status of Women in New York traced the role of women in civil society in ensuring that 50 percent of the Commission comprised women and in impacting the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa (Parliament of the Republic of South Africa, 2005). Civil society groups held public consultation sessions with women on the African Charter on the Rights of Women and engaged in advocacy work for its adoption, as well as the adoption of the Protocol on the Rights of Women. Because of the time that it could take for the ratification of the Protocol, women's organizations are campaigning for the ratification of the Protocol. Seven countries have ratified the Protocol, including Lesotho, Rwanda, South Africa, the Comoros, and Nigeria. Women's organizations are campaigning to shift the stances of other states, and the indication is that more states will ratify it. Some states have signed, but not yet ratified.

Most African states have adopted the Dakar (the regional meeting held in preparation for the Beijing Conference) and Beijing Platforms for Action, and embarked upon a regional process of creating mechanisms for the eradication of gender discrimination. The AU opened space for the increased participation of women in decision-making structures on the national, subregional, and regional levels. The AU Commission functions on the basis of fifty-fifty gender parity and one in five members of the Pan-African Parliament are required to be women. The AU Women's Protocol contains articles on eradication of discrimination against women; women's rights to dignity, life, integrity, and security;

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the elimination of harmful practices; equal rights in marriages, separation, and divorce; access to justice and equal protection before the law; participation in political and decision-making processes; rights to education, economic, and social welfare and health, including reproductive rights; and rights to protection in armed conflicts.

Heads of state in Africa also adopted a Declaration of Gender Equality in Africa (African Heads of State, 2004) in July 2004, which affirms their commitment to the various international instruments, as well as addresses areas of concern to women on the continent. These include women's access to land; their inheritance and property rights; their exclusion from decision making in conflict resolution while conflicts disproportionately impact them; the recruitment of girl children as soldiers and sex slaves; the strengthening of the gender machineries on the national level with more human and financial resources; the high incidence of AIDS/HIV among women, and the lack of state support, given that the burden of care for AIDS-affected people falls on women; and the adverse impact of gender inequality on economic growth in Africa.

Role of the New Economic Partnership for Africa's Development

NEPAD was adopted in 2001 by the heads of governments represented in the AU. NEPAD's strategy is focused on sustainable development in eight priority areas, as follows:

- Peace and security;
- Infrastructure development;
- Human-resource development;
- Poverty alleviation;
- AIDS/HIV and health;
- Agriculture;
- Science and technology; and
- Arts and culture.

Each of the focus areas stresses that gender equality must be enhanced through the African peer review mechanism's social development indicators. The NEPAD Secretariat has been involved in wide-ranging consultations with regional women's networks since 2001 which resulted in the Maputo NEPAD and civil society organizations (CSOs) consultations in 2003 (NEPAD Gender Task Force, 2005, p. 3). These consultations culminated in Elmina, Ghana; Dakar, Senegal; and Libreville, Gabon; and were finalized in Maputo, Mozambique. Their gender-specific proposals were endorsed by Regional Workshops of the African Women's Communication Network (FEMNET) in Nairobi, Kenya, in October 2003, attended by African women representing over 40 countries.

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The consultation process called on NEPAD to put in place an institutional mechanism to respond to gender and civil society matters. The NEPAD Secretariat responded by instituting a Gender and CSOs Unit at the Secretariat to spearhead a gendering of NEPAD and the mobilization of CSOs participation in the NEPAD process.

The Gender and CSOs Unit at the NEPAD Secretariat has been working on a framework for gender mainstreaming of NEPAD's policies, programs, and activities, as well as ensuring effective participation of civil society in NEPAD's work. Thus, the main objective of the NEPAD Gender Task Force is to develop gender mainstreaming tools, guidelines and protocols; provide technical assistance to sectors; conduct gender audits of the institutional structures; and conduct a comprehensive needs assessment of NEPAD priority sectors, programs, and implementation mechanisms in preparation for gender mainstreaming to be carried out in accordance with the AU/NEPAD Gender Policy (NEPAD Gender Task Force, 2005).

In a 2005 analysis of the implementation of the international gender instruments, Van der Westhuizen argues that despite all these noble intentions and declarations, many of the globe's women are worse off than a decade ago (van der Westhuizen, 2005). She notes that international research conducted by the Women's Environment and Development Organization and released at the Beijing+10 meeting in New York found that "government inaction has stalled progress on national implementation of global commitment." It was reported that not only have few countries dropped their reservations in terms of CEDAW, but "explicitly discriminatory laws still remain in some cases."

Van der Westhuizen also maintains that this situation was confirmed at the preparatory African meeting for the Beijing+10, attended by ministers of women and gender affairs in Addis Ababa in October 2004. It was acknowledged that despite women's mobilization and advocacy and increased political representation at national and regional levels, the "normative gains" made are yet to manifest in "substantive changes in African women's lives." An indication of the difficulties faced in enacting such norms is the inoperative status of national gender machineries in Africa, which is illustrated by the fact that only twenty-two African states responded to the review questionnaire on the implementation of the BPA.³

The persistence of the unequal impact of poverty and conflict on women resulted in the October 2004 ministerial meeting conclusion that laws and policies per se will not bring about gender equity or respect for women's human rights. The ministerial meeting highlighted the following specific areas of concern related to continued gender-specific violations of women and girls' human, sexual, and reproductive rights: the growing number of HIV-infected and -affected girls and women, giving the pandemic a *female face*; the 1 in 16 ratio of pregnancies in sub-Saharan Africa that end in maternal death; and the fact that

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Africa is the only developing region in the world where poverty has become exacerbated in the 1990s with women now constituting 70 percent of both the urban and rural poor in some countries (van der Westhuizen, 2005).

Concerns of the Women's Environment and Development Organization (WEDO) are important for understanding the magnitude of the problems related to the implementation of the legal instruments (van der Westhuizen, 2005). They include the following:

- Except in sub-Saharan Africa and west Asia, universal enrollment in primary education for girls and boys by 2005 contained in the BPA and the MDGs will be achieved in all regions. However, the rate of school drop-out and illiteracy remains inordinately high for girls due to pregnancies and early marriage; higher levels of education remain characterized by gender inequality; and the problem of gender stereotyping in school curricula and texts endures as few governments have taken corrective steps in this regard.
- The issue of access to land is of special significance to African women as they are the primary agricultural producers in Africa. While women sustain households and communities through the management of natural resources, they continue to lack land tenure or inheritance rights in many countries. Trends, like water privatization, undermine their ability to own, use, and conserve these resources and to provide for themselves and their families.
- The exploitation of culture and religion is used to propagate the so-called natural status of women as primarily wives and mothers, thereby mainlining a system of truncated rights for women.

In addition, a report by the Expert Group Meeting that highlighted the achievements, gaps, and challenges in linking the implementation of the BPA, the Millennium Declaration, and MDGs indicated that at "the bottom of the problem lies the enduring lack of commitment to gender equality among governments" (van der Westhuizen, 2005). This is vividly illustrated in the country reports on the achievement of the MDGs, which in some cases omitted the goal on gender equality or failed to include gender issues in the assessment of other goals. The interpretation of the goal of gender equality has been restrictive and the integration of gender equality into other goals has been uneven.

Overview of the Research Report

It is within the backdrop discussed above that the African Capacity Building Foundation commissioned the Technical Advisory Panel's Professionalisation of Voices of Civil Society and the Private Sector (VOICENET) to conduct research into the capacity-building implications for gender-budgeting initiatives.

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The overall goal of the study was to document gender budgeting best practices through the development of case studies at the country and regional levels. More specifically, the VOICENET team was to clarify gender-budgeting issues by providing substantive information on four primary levels:

- Conduct country-level studies by developing a compendium of policies, programs, and structures; determining purpose, activities, and status of activities; documenting the level of gender mainstreaming in policies, programs, and practices; and identifying enabling and innovative approaches and mechanisms for gender responsive budgeting.
- Identify legal issues related to gender budgeting at the country level by examining the constitutional and other government policy documents for inclusion of gender-equality measures and assessing those measures for implementation at the executive, legislative, and judicial levels.
- Provide country-level information by identifying the skills and knowledge gaps for building capacity for analyzing and advocating gender budgeting by governmental and nongovernmental organizations. This objective, which was later modified as explained below, was to examine per country the capacity of two organizations for providing leadership for gender-budgeting processes; identify issues and requirements that militate against inclusion and participation; and identify how partnership can be strengthened between civil society and government.
- Assess the critical questions for gender budgeting across African regional levels by documenting comparative data on gender budgeting; determining if regional differences exist within gender-budgeting processes; identifying mechanisms for coalition-building; and identifying the primary sectors/issues that impact revenue policies; and then making recommendations for improvement of gender budgeting at country and regional levels.

The dual purposes of the gender-budgeting study were to:

- Provide the documentation that will increase knowledge and understanding at the governmental and nongovernmental levels so as to allow more deliberate decision making about the gender-budgeting processes; and to provide additional information to substantiate gender budgeting as an effective mechanism for poverty reduction that could have an impact on the achievement of MDGs⁴; and
- Document applications of gender budgeting by governments and civil societies in South Africa, Rwanda, and Uganda. The primary result achieved was the identification of implications for capacity building that will assist in developing strategies for increasing the level of compliance with gender-responsive budgeting policies and practices.

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Methodology and Limitations of the Study

The study was initiated in November 2006 by a research team of three social scientists and included case studies across three regions: central region (Rwanda); eastern region (Uganda); and the southern region (South Africa). These countries were selected because each has a longer history of involvement in gender budgeting and should provide the substantive detailed analytical models for replication by other countries. A study of these countries should also provide substantial evidence as to where the need is for further research and increased civil society participation.

The study employed a case-study methodology with an in-depth investigation that utilized multiple sources of data. Sources of evidence included government documents; archival records and interviews: open-ended, focused, and structured surveys; and extensive use of the World Wide Web. The anticipation of direct observation and participant observation did not take place due to timing factors and the inability of team members to obtain access to and participate in activities.

Thus, the effort to avoid the most frequent criticism of case-study research did not occur because without direct observation and participant observation, it became impossible to make substantive comparisons of the empirical results. Instead, what is presented are the results of collecting and analyzing data from primarily secondary sources. Accordingly, the process of explaining the complex causal relationships within approaches and mechanisms, as well as the contextual development within the approaches across regions, was not possible. Thus, the case studies have used an explanatory approach because the focus was placed on investigating the causal links to determine why some gender-budgeting approaches were more effective than others and which approaches were judged to provide more effective solutions within the various sectors.

There are a few limitations that were experienced that impacted on the final presentation of results. The project required that the team meet at least twice to be able to engage in a group exercise of categorizing evidence; tabulating the frequency of different events and activities; and examining, as a team, the relationships between variables that would have assisted in the final analysis of data. Unfortunately, the team never conducted a face-to-face meeting so as to afford the opportunity for the members to digest and sort through data, and then determine the best way to identify issues more clearly at the analysis stage. Even communication across the Internet became difficult and each case study is presented independently of knowledge about the others, with one team member developing the final research report with some feedback from the other members.

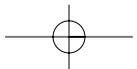
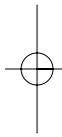
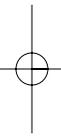
Changes in the original terms of reference took place with the third objective, which was to examine per country the capacity of two organizations for providing leadership for gender-budgeting processes. In the final presentation,

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only one government ministry was chosen for a more in-depth examination of gender-budgeting practices. Selection of only one ministry became a reality when it was determined that one example per country would be sufficient to realize the objective. There was also a time factor involved as the logistical encumbrances of the project proved to be more time intensive than originally planned.

The study provides a wealth of information on gender-budgeting practices across three regions in Africa and identifies areas for the African Capacity Building Foundation (ACBF) capacity building initiatives in support of the development process of the continent.

The report comprises six sections, with the overview on gender-budgeting and its international instruments. Chapters 1 to 3 examine the gender-budgeting experiences of South Africa, Uganda, and Rwanda and specific case studies in these countries. Chapter 4 presents a comparative analysis on gender budgeting processes across African regions. The last chapter draws conclusions and recommendations from the study for gender-budgeting capacity building initiatives.



1

The South African Model

1.1 Introduction

Throughout the first decade of democracy, the South African government has repeatedly and consistently expressed an unwavering commitment to obtaining gender equality on all levels of government and in all sectors. This is evidenced at various levels: the constitution, ratification of international instruments, implementation of national legislation and policies, and establishment of institutional structures and mechanisms that promote gender equality. During the past ten years South Africa's commitment to gender equity has been translated into a National Gender Empowerment Policy that has been designed to guide and direct national, provincial, and civil society efforts to assist the government in this process.

Gender budgeting has been mandated in government departments based on international legal commitments and national policy documents. Activities have also taken into consideration research conducted by the Women Budget's Initiative (WBI) and the Institute for Democracy in South Africa (IDASA). The WBI became possible when South Africa was chosen as one of four Commonwealth countries to participate in a pilot study aimed at integrating gender into macroeconomic policy.

The roots of the WBI go back to February 1994, to the African National Congress Conference on "Putting Women on the Agenda" (Budlender, 2007, p. 3). Early on in the process of gendering budgetary processes in South Africa, Pregs Govender noted in the Foreword to the first Women's Budget in 1996 that there was agreement then that the new government departments must indicate the impact of programs on the status of women when requesting funds. She continued, "Women's oppression in South Africa is mediated by the matrix of the race, class, rural/urban, age, marital status, language, culture and other divides. Yet overall, women are disproportionately represented among the poorest in our country. They are the majority of the homeless, the landless, the unemployed, and the violated" (Budlender, 2007).

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One of the most significant challenges in determining the level of gender mainstreaming is the lack of sex disaggregated data and the inability of national statistical agencies to provide timely and reliable statistics. General statistics provided by the Gender Advocacy Project in 2003 indicate the following profile for the female population in South Africa (Women'sNet, 2007):

- 52.2% of the population;
- 54.8% of registered voters;
- 43.8% of the workforce;
- 44.8% of those earning less than R1,600 per month;
- 52.3% of the unemployed;
- 98% of domestic workers;
- 4.6% of magistrates;
- 17.3% of mayors;
- 29.6% of municipal councils;
- 6.3% of municipal managers;
- 28.2% of members of local government;
- 29.5% of doctors;
- 2.5% of prison population;
- 19% of the news sources in the media;
- 58% of the HIV-infected adults in sub-Saharan region;
- 19.4% of parliamentarians in the southern African region;
- 15.4% of parliamentarians in the world; and
- 49.1% of the working age population.

Within the South African context, race and geographical location are core factors that shape women's experiences of oppression and vulnerability to oppression. Black female-headed households within rural areas are seen as among the most vulnerable groups within South Africa today. Furthermore, because women usually assume the role of primary caregiver to their children, the well-being of women is inextricably linked to the well-being of children.

Placing South African women in a social context reveals other factors that make South African women vulnerable, as follows (Budlender, 2001 and 2002):

- Women experience higher unemployment rates than men, who also receive a higher hourly wage.
- Employed women spend more time than employed men engaging in unpaid tasks, like collecting water.
- Between the age groups of twenty-five years and older, 18 percent of African women have no form of formal education.
- There are no wage earners in 80 percent of female-headed households.
- Two out of five African households are headed by women.

- Three out of five female-headed households are poor.
- Of South African children under six years of age, 70 percent live below the poverty line.
- Of all children living in poverty, 93 percent are African, 6 percent coloured, 0.5 percent Indian, and 0.5 percent are white.
- The majority of children living in poor conditions are denied their right to basic nutrition, shelter, basic healthcare, and welfare.
- The majority of these children are living in households with only one parent and in most cases, the parent is a woman.

A review of the shape of the women and men in the South Africa labor force over time reveals that much has not changed. Using figures primarily from Statistics South Africa and Valodia (1996), Budlender (2004) reveals the following about the situation of the labor force:

- In 1994, women accounted for 44 percent of the economically active population, which includes those aged fifteen to sixty-five who were employed and those who were unemployed and seeking work. In March 2003, women accounted for a marginally higher 45 percent of the economically active population.
- In 1994, the unemployment rate for women was 40.6 percent, while that for men was 26.2 percent. In March 2003, the unemployment rate for women was 48.4 percent, and the male rate was 35.9 percent.
- In 1994, women accounted for 55 percent of all unemployed people. By March 2003, they accounted for 57 percent of all unemployed.
- African women and men were more adversely affected by unemployment than those in other race groups.
- In 1994, the unemployment rate for African women was 50 percent; 34 percent for African men; 9 percent for white women; and 5 percent for white men. In March 2003, the unemployment rate for African women was 55.5 percent and that for African men was 42.5 percent; white men was 11.1 percent and white women was 8.2 percent.
- In 1994, 60 percent of those employed in the informal sector were African women and 19 percent were African men. In March 2003, African women accounted for 53 percent of the informal sector and African men for 35 percent.
- The Labour Force Survey of February 2001 found that 19 percent of employed women earned R200 or less per month, compared to 9 percent of employed men. At the higher end of the employment scale, 23 percent of employed men earned R4,500 or more, compared to only 14 percent of employed men.
- The Labour Force Survey of February 2001 found that mean hourly earnings of employed African women were R8.40 per hour, while mean

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hourly earnings were R9.73 for African men, and R28.17 and R39.92 for white women and men, respectively.

1.2 Gender Budgeting and South African Initiatives

South Africa began tracking gender budgeting in 1996, primarily under the direction of the WBI. Following the example of Australia,¹ various members of parliament, IDASA, and the Community Agency for Social Inquiry (CASE) founded the WBI. Thus, the South Africa WBI was developed through the collaborative efforts of civil society and the government. Through the WBI, each year between 1996 and 2000, the entire national budget was analyzed from a gender perspective. The overall aim was to promote gender analysis to change economic and social policy priorities in an attempt to shift funding to reflect women's interests.

During the activities for the Ten Years Democracy Investigations in 2004, IDASA published a series of gender analyses of the various national departments, including Labor (Budlender, 2004), Justice and Constitutional Development (Pareeze, 2004), Safety and Security (Waterhouse and Mazwayi, 2004), and Social Development (Poggenpoel and Oliver, 2004). These reports were instructive in that they (1) verified that some effort had been made to achieve governmental commitments in gender equity, and (2) made important recommendations to enhance gender analysis. Following a training in gender budget analysis in March 2005 (Workshop Report, 2005), parliamentary researchers conducted a series of studies of national departments in June 2006.²

The South African Model lays out a five-step approach to carrying out gender budget analyses: (1) analyzing the situation of women, men, girls, and boys; (2) assessing the gender responsiveness of policies; (3) assessing budget allocations; (4) monitoring spending and service delivery; and (5) assessing outcomes.

Debbie Budlender, the lead researcher and trainer on the WBI, maintains that the WBI was primarily a research and lobbying mechanism for poor women (Budlender 1996). Women are not viewed homogeneously, but viewed rather from the perspective of differentiated social, racial, and regional backgrounds. WBI does not support the development of a separate budget for women, but analyzes the national budget in terms of its impact particularly on poor women.

1.3 Key International Legal Instruments Ratified by South Africa

The following are the key international legal instruments that South Africa has ratified (Office on the Status of Women and Gender Equality, 2004):

- *The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW)*—Ratified without reservations in 1996, established a

national gender machinery and introduced legislation to address social, economic, and political inequalities between men and women.

- *Beijing Platform for Action (BPA)*—This ensures the full implementation of the human rights of women and of girl children as integral to all human rights and fundamental freedoms.
- *South African Development Community (SADC) Declaration on Gender and Development*—Signed on September 8, 1997, by which the government committed itself, among other things, to ensuring equal representation of men and women at all levels of political decision making.
- *SADC Declaration on Violence Against Women and Children*—This was the March 1998 addendum to the 1997 Declaration, calling for additional regional policies, programs, and mechanisms to enhance the security and empowerment of women and children.

International instruments, like CEDAW, the African Charter on Human and People's Rights, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and the Convention on the Rights of Children, have been disseminated to all public officials who have attended training on the Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act (Presidency of the Republic of South Africa, n.d., p. 164).

The South African government has also disseminated and popularized the SADC Declaration on Gender and Development and its Addendum on the Prevention and Eradication of Violence Against Women and Children, since the commencement of the campaign on 16 Days of Activism Against Gender Violence in 1998. These documents were made available in the form of pamphlets, posters, newspaper supplements, and the Internet.

The training of gender focal points (GFPs) in government incorporates the dissemination of CEDAW, BPA, the Copenhagen Declaration, and related international human rights instruments and a discussion on the interrelatedness of these instruments with regard to the achievement of the human rights of women.

International instruments, like CEDAW, the constitution, and other domestic policy instruments, are reportedly disseminated regularly to the public. Some laws and policies are translated into official indigenous languages that are predominantly spoken in the provinces. Braille versions of key policy instruments with an impact on gender equality have been developed and disseminated.

1.4 Practical Perspectives: Policies, Structures, and Programs

1.4.1 Constitutional Guarantees and Implementation

The South African constitution places nonracialism and nonsexism at the center of the founding values of the Republic of South Africa (Presidency of the Republic of South Africa, n.d., p. 153–154, and Section 1 of the Republic of

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South Africa Constitution of 1996 [Act 108 of 1996]). The founding values also commit the South African democratic state to the protection of human dignity, achievement of equality, and the advancement of human rights and freedoms. Section 9 of the constitution guarantees the right to equality. In line with CEDAW, particularly Articles 1 and 4 thereof, the constitution provides that: “equality includes the equal enjoyment of all rights and freedoms. To achieve equality, legislative and other measures designed to protect or advance persons or categories of persons, disadvantaged by unfair discrimination may be taken.” The constitutional vision of equality and nondiscrimination, which embraces both de jure and de facto equality as envisaged in CEDAW, informs key national transformational priorities like poverty eradication, development, restructuring of the economy, and democratization of the state.

Thus, gender equality and the prohibition of sex and gender discrimination are constitutional guarantees. The constitutional commitment to the protection and promotion of equality includes the prohibition of direct and indirect discrimination on the basis of sex, gender, and various other grounds or combination of grounds. The prohibited grounds are listed and unlisted grounds with the listed grounds covering race, gender, sex, pregnancy, marital status, ethnic or social origin, color, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, conscience, belief, culture, language, and birth (Section 9[3]).

1.4.2 Legislation on Equality and Nondiscrimination

The following legislation addresses equality and nondiscrimination:

- The constitution provides that “national legislation must be enacted to prevent and prohibit unfair discrimination,” thus national legislation has been enacted to deal with the eradication of discrimination and the promotion of equality through positive measures in a holistic manner. In this regard, the key pieces of legislation are the Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act of 2000 (Act 4 of 2000); the Employment Equity Act of 1998 (No. 55 of 1998); and the National Health Act of 2004.
- The Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act of 2000 (Act 4 of 2000) provides a comprehensive legal framework for the prevention and prohibition of discrimination, redress for discrimination, progressive eradication of discrimination, and the promotion of equality. The Act also makes provision for enforcement mechanisms. The central feature of these mechanisms is the specialist Equality Courts that are based at the Magistrates Courts and High Courts.
- The Employment Equity Act of 1998 prohibits unfair discrimination, institutes affirmative action measures, creates a Commission for Employment Equity, and outlines monitoring, enforcement, and legal proceedings for the violation thereof.

- A key legislative measure since 2004, the National Health Act entrenches principles for promotion and the uplift of women in South Africa (Republic of South Africa, 2006, p. 8). This legislation builds upon the provisions of the Comprehensive HIV and AIDS Prevention, Care, Management and Treatment Plan for South Africa that was adopted in November 2003. The size of the program is evident from its financing, which has increased from R342 million in 1994 to a projected R3.6 billion in the 2005/06 fiscal year. Elements of the Comprehensive Treatment Plan include a life skills program, postexposure prophylaxis, prevention of mother to child transmission; femidoms (female condoms), and partnership programs.

1.5 Implementation Mechanisms: Four Primary Structures for National Gender Machinery

In keeping with commitments made with the ratification of international legal instruments, its constitution, and national legislative acts that promote gender equity, South Africa has made steady progress toward the institutionalization of mechanisms to create gender-sensitive policy formulation at all levels of government (Watson, 2005–2006). Emanating from the national government machinery, the framework for policy development for national departments was first laid out in Act 108 in the South African Constitution of 1996. Joy Watson, the primary researcher for gender equity within the South Africa Parliamentary Research Unit, describes it this way: “The constitution laid the basis for the repeal of many pieces of discriminatory legislation and for the introduction of progressive, rights-based legislation, which takes cognizance of gendered realities.” Drawing on the definition of C. Albertyn from the University of the Western Cape Community Law Centre (Albertyn, 1995), Watson describes the national gender machinery (NGM) as being responsible for the periodic review of the changing conditions of women’s lives and for eradicating the factors that perpetuate women’s position of subordination. According to Watson, its purpose is to “create a political, economic, legislative and judicial environment that enables women to enjoy, exercise and defend all their economic, social and political rights on an equal basis with men.”

The role of the gender machinery serves as a basis to develop an overall policy vision, reorientate existing policies and create new ones, promote the enactment of laws that will benefit women, and monitor progress and assist with providing avenues of redress and enforcement. The South African NGM comprises the following four structures:

- Office on the Status of Women (OSW) located in the executive branch;
- Joint Monitoring Committee on the Improvement of Quality of Life and Status of Women (JMC) located in the legislature;

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- Commission on Gender Equality (CGE), an independent statutory body; and
- Gender focal points (GFPs) located in national and provincial government departments.

Watson maintains that while there have been some significant achievements, there have also been areas in which there remains significant work to be done. The following discussion provides a review of the national gender machineries in terms of their purpose, policies, and programs. Efforts to mainstream practices within these mechanisms are outlined in the next section.

1.5.1 Office on the Status of Women

The mission statement of the OSW indicates that it was created to establish mechanisms and procedures that will advance the government toward gender equality. According to a report presented to the United Nations Development Program by OSW (<http://undp.org.za/programs/gender/reports/osw.htm>), the importance of gender equality has been underscored in public statements and official documents at the highest levels of government. The report indicates that five months after the Fourth World Conference in Beijing in September 1995, the deputy president sent a request to all line ministries urging them to identify precise measures whereby they intended to honor their commitments made in Beijing.

OSW is located in the Office of the President with the mandate to support and monitor gender mainstreaming within government departments. The indicated central goal of the OSW is to ensure that the constitutional imperatives underpinning gender equality and supporting political commitments are translated into real and meaningful government programs. OSW is intended to facilitate, advocate, and monitor the transformation of government into a non-sexist institution of state, in accordance with local and international norms and standards. Operationally, OSW is responsible for ensuring that government considers gender in all its policies, procedures, and programs; and that the government adheres to its commitments to gender equality that are spelled out in the South African constitution as well as in the various local, regional, and international proclamations (Office on the Status of Women, 2000).

In accordance with its mandate, the OSW, established in 1997, prepared a draft National Policy Document that laid the basis for gender equality provisions that were designed as corrective measures for gender-based imbalances. Coupling the provisions for nonsexism with nonracism, the burden was placed on government institutions and civil society to develop nondiscriminatory procedures and practices. Therefore, in 1997 the principal goal for South Africa was transformation, with the focus placed on deracialization and engendering institutions at all levels of government.

The intent of the OSW structure, at both the national and provincial levels, is to contribute toward the national goals of gender equality by working through

the GFPs. The OSW is also tasked with working in concert with other structures of the national machinery, particularly the CGE. There are also now fully developed OSWs in each of South Africa's nine provinces.

The OSW has thirteen functions that can be categorized in one of three ways—as Policy Development, Advisory/Coordinating, or Operational—as follows:

1. *Policy Development*—Its policy development functions include: advancing a national women's empowerment policy and prioritization of key concerns, and initiation of policy and action-oriented research relevant to gender mainstreaming.
2. *Advisory/Coordinating*—OSW has enjoyed significant advisory and coordinating functions including: advising the president; liaising between nongovernmental organizations that deal with women's issues and the presidency; liaising between international bodies, like the United Nations, and the presidency; providing a coordination mechanism for structures at the national, provincial, and local government levels; and consulting and liaising with civil society.
3. *Operational*—Critical operational functions include working with all ministries, provinces, and all publicly funded bodies in mainstreaming gender considerations into all policies and programs; developing key indicators for measuring the national progression toward gender equality; arranging for training in gender analysis and gender sensitization; facilitating awareness raising and confidence building among women at all levels; acting as a catalyst for affirmative action with respect to gender; and initiating and promoting cross-sector action on crosscutting issues like violence against women and girl children and AIDS/HIV.

A 1997 OSW report lists the following among its accomplishments:

- Production of a framework for activating the OSW mandate;
- Production of the first draft of the National Policy Document;
- Development of a National Plan of Action;
- Development of nine provincial plans;
- Standardization of approaches among provincial OSWs;
- Development of a comprehensive capacity strategy;
- Development of a gender audit framework;
- Administration of gender audit surveys to all twenty-seven government departments;
- Development of a coordination framework for the National Gender Programme;
- Development of a framework for compiling the biannual Status of Women Report;

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- Identification of clear areas of operation;
- Development of performance indicators for the national and provincial OSWs;
- Identification of priority cross-cutting programs;
- Initiation of a capacity building process for provincial OSWs; and
- Evaluation of three years of operation through strategic planning workshops with provincial OSWs and national GFPs.

In an interview with the OSW Executive Director, Susan Nkomo, who indicated that she would be leaving the position in the near future, she revealed that in more recent years, the OSW has not been able to fulfill its complete mission due to lack of staff, inability to implement the policy within individual national departments, and lack of financial resources.³ Placing OSW in the Office of the President was designed to provide the office with influence and recognition that it would not have otherwise. This has not been the case. The executive director reports to the head of programs within the Office of the President and that person has responsibility for many other programs.

Her opinions about gender budgeting were highly instructive. She believes that gender budgeting is still very much at the discussion analysis stage and has not approached the implementation stage. A better term, she maintains, is that gender budgeting is an “empowering debate.” While Nkomo believes that performance management of gender budgeting is the major problem, at issue is the implementation process in which there has been no hands-on experience and analyses are based on anecdotal experiences. In addition, she believes that given the problems that exist with implementation of the National Gender Policy (NGP), a Ministry of Women’s Affairs needs to be created at the cabinet level.

Nkomo explained, “under the current National Gender Policy implementation strategy, many officials are responsible for gender mainstreaming, but no one is accountable for gender budgeting. Therefore, it would be more effective to appoint an official at the permanent secretary or head of department level who would be responsible for the entire functioning of gender mainstreaming.” She believes that there is need for a gender-budgeting workshop to provide guidance on implementation measures.

1.5.2 *Gender Focal Points: The Primary Role Players in Gender Mainstreaming*

The cabinet memorandum on the role and functions of the OSW establishes it as an integrated coordination framework establishing management information systems and a gender management system through the development of gender units and gender focal points within government departments. The intention is for the staff within those units to carry out functions in support of mainstreaming policies and programs in their respective departments and for

OSW to have an overview of the work being done. Most departments at the provincial and national levels have already taken steps to assign staff to gender planning and monitoring functions; and some have actually established working mechanisms to address gender in their work. For most departments, provincially and nationally, the process of establishing a gender planning structure is still in the formative stages. The noted functions of GFPs (Office on the Status of Women, 2000, p. 28) are to:

- Ensure that gender issues are routinely considered in strategic planning exercises;
- Reflect gender considerations in departmental business plans and routinely report on them;
- Review all policies, projects, and programs for their gender implications;
- Ensure that the department provides and uses gender disaggregated data in its work;
- Coordinate gender training and education of all staff within departments to ensure that gender is integrated into all aspects of the work from the outset;
- Review departmental policy and planning in line with the NGP framework;
- Ensure that each department implements the NGP;
- Monitor and evaluate departmental projects and programs; and
- Establish mechanisms to link up with civil society, in particular, to facilitate electoral organizations in the areas of their work.

Essentially, GFPs are described most frequently as the gender desks/units in national and provincial government departments. Significantly, they are responsible for all of the mainstreaming and monitoring of national policies and legislation and are located at both the national and provincial levels. Most national and provincial government departments have now established GFPs. According to Rustin and Watson (2004) of the Parliamentary Research Unit, many are staffed with only one person and, in most, the GFPs have not been established as per the requirements of the National Policy Framework for Women's Empowerment and Gender Equality. For example, many are not located in the Office of the Director-General as recommended by the policy framework, a fact which serves to undermine their capacity to act from a strategic point of intervention. Many lack resources to execute their mandate and some have been allocated responsibilities other than gender, like dealing with issues of disability. Implementation of mainstreaming activities is discussed under the next section.

1.5.3 Commission on Gender Equality

Chapter 9 of the South African constitution provides for the establishment of the CGE. Section 187 of the constitution specifically grants the CGE powers to promote respect for, and to protect, develop, and attain gender equality. Its

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primary function is to monitor all policies and practices of all organizations, bodies, and institutions in South Africa to ensure that they promote gender equality in their work.

The constitution created the CGE as an independent, statutory institution with advisory, consultative, and research functions. It functions as a watchdog monitoring the policies and practices of the state, statutory bodies, public bodies, and private institutions. The CGE has investigative authority over government and civil society organizations as related to gender-related issues, can receive complaints, can summon persons to appear before it, and can mediate in the event of disputes. Thus, the CGE's functional framework divides work into three areas of operation: public education and information, policy and research, and legal intervention and complaints (Watson, 2005–2006, p. 3).

There are important differences between the OSW and the CGE. The OSW, whose main function is to develop policy, operates within government as a facilitating and coordinating structure for mainstreaming gender considerations into governmental policies and programs at the national, provincial, and local levels. On the other hand, the CGE works in partnership with various civil society structures and other organizations and is responsible for the following (Office on the Status of Women, 2000, p. 30):

- Gathering information and conducting education on gender equality and the human rights of women;
- Monitoring and evaluating the policies and practices of state organs, statutory and public bodies, and the private sector to promote gender equality;
- Evaluating Acts in force, or Acts proposed by parliament, affecting or likely to affect gender-related and women's human rights;
- Investigating any gender-related complaints received or on its own initiative;
- Liaising with institutions, organizations, and authorities with similar objectives; and
- Conducting research to further the objectives of the CGE.

As an independent body reporting to parliament and responsible for monitoring government and civil society, the CGE has come under increasing scrutiny and criticism. Because of its internal strife and resource limitations, researchers have found that “the CGE has become insulated from civil society, closed to debate and engagement with external stakeholders, unwilling to espouse a more transformative feminist agenda and therefore unresponsive to the full range of key issues that impact upon gender equality and the lives of women in South Africa” (Donnelly and Moyo, 2007).

Although referred to in the above-cited report as long on talk but short on delivery, the CGE can boast of the following accomplishments up through the end of March 2005. Most complaints were handled telephonically or referred,

and conveyed personally for face-to-face intervention; they are later referred to relevant institutions. The CGE had handled 429 cases. Of these, 189 were maintenance (support provided to a wife) cases; 121 gender-based violence; 25 labor; 8 culture, tradition, and religion; 16 social security; 15 inheritance; 26 court processes; and 29 sexual harassment.

The CGE supports strategic interventions in litigation, with the aim of encouraging law reform, and stands out in terms of the work for which it has developed best practice guidelines for creating a culture of gender equality in the private sector (Commission on Gender Equality, n.d.). These guidelines were drawn based on principles, values, and obligations contained in the South African constitution, CEDAW, BPA, Charter for Effective Equality, the Reconstruction and Development Programme, and the Employment Equity Act and the Basic Conditions of Employment Act. Development of such guidelines has become imperative due to the increased participation of women in the labor market and the economy in general. The challenge is to ensure that this leads to women's economic empowerment and does not further exacerbate inequalities between women and men. The guidelines proposed in the document have also been developed through an analysis of internationally accepted definitions of gender equality and gender mainstreaming. The stated objectives of the NGP are to:

- Serve as a tool and framework for enhancing gender equality in the private sector, particularly in the workplace;
- Enable business to integrate gender into key organizational practices; and
- Stimulate reflection and provide some direction and a drive to action.

The key goal of a gender policy is to provide a framework for mainstreaming gender equality for business leadership and management. Some of the target groups included: business leaders and policy makers; employment-equity and affirmative-action specialists; managers, especially human resource managers; and organizational development specialists. The policy statement indicates that the guidelines were not meant to be prescriptive but a means to provide a descriptive checklist. The aim was to provide guidelines for businesses to integrate their own vision, goals, and circumstances so that they could become more adept and competent in gender mainstreaming. As such, much of the policy relates to methods for addressing discrimination in recruitment, remuneration, inflexible working conditions, and insufficient services like child care and how these can restrict employment and advancement opportunities for women.

Along with the CGE are other independent statutory bodies that complement its work, including the Human Rights Commission, the Independent Electoral Commission, the Public Protector, the Public Service Commission, the Youth Commission, the Land Commission, and the South African Law Commission (Republic of South Africa, 2004, p. 30).

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1.5.4 *Joint Monitoring Committee on the Improvement of the Quality of Life and Status of Women*

Parliament's central role in guaranteeing women's empowerment and gender equality rests with the JMC. The mission of the JMC is to monitor and evaluate progress with regard to the improvement in the quality of life and status of women in South Africa, with specific reference to the government's commitments toward the implementation of the BPA, CEDAW, and any other applicable international instruments; for example, SADC's Declaration on Gender and Development (Joint Monitoring Committee, 2006). The specifically stated monitoring objectives are to:

- Monitor and ensure that gender-sensitive policies and programs are implemented in all ministries and departments;
- Monitor all legislation including the budget for compliance with the BPA and CEDAW; and
- Monitor all South African ministries and departments to ensure they have mainstreamed gender in all their programs and budgets.

Having initially operated as an ad hoc committee, the work of the JMC, according to Joy Watson, the primary researcher for gender equity within the South African Parliamentary Research Unit, has provided the space for women members of parliament to communicate with women's organizations and also provides a platform to place gender issues on the national agenda as the JMC has invited women to debate obstacles that impede the implementation of legislation (Watson, 2005–2006). For example, the JMC has hosted several public hearings to review the implementation of the Domestic Violence Act, the Maintenance Act, and customary law with respect to issues of inheritance and succession. The JMC has also prioritized socially vulnerable groups that are rendered voiceless due to their socioeconomic status. Their main target group is therefore poor women, particularly rural women.

Noting the achievements of the JMC, former M.P. Pregs Govender (speech before Parliament, "Government Budgets and Gender," Sept. 2005), the first JMC Chairwoman, has indicated that there have been serious resource constraints; however, the JMC has been instrumental in shaping gender-based legislation including: the Domestic Violence Act; the Maintenance Act; the Recognition of Customary Marriages Act; the Skills Development Act; and the Employment Equity Act. The JMC has been successful in ensuring that a sexual harassment code was incorporated into the Labour Relations Act; the Job Summit targeted employment creation for women; and it has consistently engaged with the Ministry of Finance on the need to engender the country's macroeconomic policy and national budget. The JMC has held several public hearings to consult with women on issues related to legislative reform. In

2001, for example, it hosted public hearings on violence against women and HIV/AIDS.

1.6 Gender Mainstreaming Activities and the Implementation of the National Gender Policy Framework

The four structures that make up the South African NGM were created to be complementary, thus integrating the purposes, policies, and practices of mainstreaming activities. Within civil society, however, gender coordination remains a challenge as there is no umbrella body at the national level charged with coordinating women's or gender-related issues.

According to South Africa's Report to the AU Secretariat, currently there are over sixty nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) participating in the NGM meetings (Office on the Status of Women, 2006, p. 6). The report indicates that the strongest and most organized sector among the NGOs includes those working in the areas of gender-based violence, but even these NGOs do not have a coordination point. Civil society organizations that attend national gender machinery meetings are noted in the report as comprising national NGOs, community-based organizations, faith-based organizations, trade unions, and women's groups within political parties.

At the center of the mainstreaming processes is the OSW, which has adopted an integrated and coordinated method of operation. Because the OSW does not consider itself a service delivery office, it is able to work closely and collaboratively with all provincial departments. The OSW has adopted a gender mainstreaming strategy to ensure the integration and inclusion of female empowerment and gender equality issues in the day-to-day business of national and provincial government departments.

OSW defines *mainstreaming* in this context as the organization or reorganization, improvement, and development and evaluation of policy processes, practices, procedures, programs, and budgets so that an equality perspective is incorporated in all policies at all levels and at all stages by the people normally involved in policy making. The OSW gives effectiveness to the above-cited strategy through interaction with all line-function departments. It does this by creating the environment for engendered service delivery and the inclusion of gender consideration into all policies, practices, processes, budgets, programs, and projects. OSW also interacts with external gender-based civil society role-players to foster and enhance working relationships and to ensure needs-based gender equality interventions.

The NGP document refers to gender mainstreaming as a process that is goal-oriented and "that recognizes that most institutions consciously and unconsciously serve the interests of men" (Office on the Status of Women, 2000, p. xvii). The NGP thus encourages institutions to embrace a gender perspective in transforming themselves. It also promotes the full participation of women in

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decision making so that women's needs move from the periphery to the center of development planning and resource allocation.

The NGP emphasizes that gender equality is the responsibility of all institutions of government and gender mainstreaming makes this possible. This is essentially the task of structures of the NGM as well as individual government departments at a national, provincial, and local level.

The NGP document outlines three main areas of intervention that government departments can make in gender mainstreaming. These interventions relate to external and internal gender transformation encompassing the following:

- Promoting women's empowerment and gender equality in their service provision (external transformation);
- Raising public awareness about gender in their interactions with clients and stakeholders in the private and community sectors (internal and external transformation); and
- Promoting women's empowerment and gender equality in their internal employment policies and practices (internal transformation).

One of the first exercises conducted by the JMC to begin the process of gauging the level of mainstreaming, or the success of the OSW in the execution of its mandate, was to conduct hearings in November 2003 to evaluate the level of success in carrying out South Africa's obligations to the BPA and other international instruments. The JMC invited the national and provincial OSW to discuss its structure; the status of GFPs in the provinces; programs and budgets; and impact and monitoring of the programs. The national GFPs were requested to provide an overview of the GFP in the department, including lines of reporting, and to discuss its programs and related budgets (Rustin and Watson, 2004). Altogether the national OSW, seven provincial OSWs,⁴ and twenty-eight GFPs participated in the hearings, either via oral presentation or written submission.

Analysis of the results of these hearings revealed a combination of challenges that required greater attention by the JMC (Rustin and Watson, 2004). OSWs had been established in all provinces that reported at the hearings, with the exception of Gauteng. In Gauteng, the Social Development Directorate performs this function and a Gender/HIV program is currently being established in the Directorate. The number of staff in the OSWs ranged from one to twelve. Most of the heads of the OSWs, with the exception of Mpumalanga, are appointed at the deputy director level and not in the position of director, as is recommended by South Africa's National Policy Framework for Women's Empowerment and Gender Equality.

Although information on OSW budgets was scarce, OSWs reported budgetary constraints in some instances. The report indicates that provincial gender

policies have been developed for Gauteng, while they are being drafted in Kwazulu-Natal and the Western Cape. Gender action plans are operational in Gauteng, while they are in the process of being developed for Kwazulu-Natal. Information on programs undertaken by OSWs was sketchy. Some of the programs that were underway in some OSWs include programs focusing on capacity building, policy development and analysis, gender machinery, and co-ordination and planning.

Nationally, most of the departments have established GFPs, with many reporting that GFPs are staffed with one person and some reporting a staff of three or more persons. In most cases, GFPs are not located in the Office of the Director-General and are instead located elsewhere in the departments, with the Human Resources section being a popular location. In addition, most GFP coordinators are appointed at the deputy director or even assistant director level. It is noted that some GFPs also have responsibilities other than gender. Furthermore, a number of departments raised the lack of resources as one of the greatest impediments to the effective implementation of their work.

Less than half of the departments reported that they are involved in policy development to promote gender equity. In addition, very few departments have developed a gender policy that defines the organizational framework within which gender equity will be promoted. In addition, very few departments indicated their role in embarking on a gender mainstreaming strategy. The implication of this is that government policy for furthering gender equity is adversely affected as guiding policies and concrete gender mainstreaming strategies constitute the foundation upon which gender-related work should be framed.

With regard to programs, many departments focused on the internal projects and programs that they were implementing, like employment-equity issues, recruitment and selection practices, and internal policies. Many departments made little or no mention of programmatic work done externally. Where external work was being done, it was largely centered around the commemoration of calendar events like National Women's Day and the 16 Days of Activism on No Violence Against Women. This was viewed as very problematic, as a comprehensive program of action needs to encompass far more than this schedule.

Generally, information pertaining to the status of provincial GFPs was insufficient and this limits analysis of them. Many departments in the Eastern Cape and Western Cape have established GFPs, while the situation in the North West and Mpumalanga was a concern. Information on this matter is unclear for other provinces. The location of GFPs varies, with many being located in the Human Resources sections. In addition, the rank of GFP coordinators also varies, with most being appointed at assistant director level. The implication of this is that most coordinators are not equipped with the skills and commensurate level of experience as envisaged by the National Policy Framework for Women's Empowerment and Gender Equality.

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While information pertaining to budgets was not available for GFPs in most provinces, two provincial OSWs reported that dedicated budgets are available in some departments in those provinces. With regard to programs undertaken by GFPs, most of the programs reported pertained to external work.

1.6.1 Joint Monitoring Committee Recommendations

Some very specific recommendations, as well as some generic recommendations, were made to the different gender machineries. One of the most important recommendations by the JMC is the need for additional information from all parties that made submissions to the hearings. This would allow the JMC to fill in the gaps and make a comprehensive assessment of the national and provincial gender machinery structures.

Another generic recommendation was for structures to be established and resourced in accordance with the NGP, so as to allow them to fulfill the functions assigned to them. There is a further need to establish the skills level of some of the persons appointed in the OSWs and GFPs and, if necessary, to provide them with the necessary training that will enable them to fulfill their functions in their respective positions or operate at a more senior level.

In November 2003, the OSW undertook its third audit on the status of GFPs in national departments. Twenty-two departments responded to the questionnaire distributed by the OSW. The results indicated the following:

- Of the departments that responded, 31.8 percent (seven) have GFPs at the director level, which is the level mandated by the NGP.
- Six of the departments reported that their GFPs were at the deputy director level and four GFPs were appointed at assistant director level.
- The understanding of the structure of GFPs varied. In fifteen departments, the GFP referred to an individual and in nine departments, the GFP referred to a unit.
- Only nine departments have formally appointed GFPs. In these instances, the person's performance contract refers to their function as that of a GFP, but only six departments assess them on GFP work.
- The GFPs are responsible for work other than gender-related functions. Only six departments perform GFP functions exclusively, while GFPs in two departments perform three functions or less, and in fourteen departments they perform four or more functions, over and above their gender functions.

1.6.2 Key Challenges Facing the National Gender Machinery

The November 2003 hearings were instrumental in outlining a number of critical challenges that impede the work of the NGM structures (Watson, 2005–2006, p. 6). These challenges include the following:

- Most of the heads of the OSWs, with the exception of one province, have been appointed at a deputy director level and not in the position of director as is recommended by the NGP.
- Very little information has been gleaned on the budgets of OSWs, but in some instances, OSWs have reported budgetary constraints.
- Not all provincial OSWs have developed gender action plans and gender mainstreaming policies.
- Although most government departments have established gender focal points, many are staffed with one person. In most cases, GFPs are not located in the Office of the Director-General and are instead located elsewhere in the departments, with the Human Resources section being a popular location. In addition, most GFP coordinators are appointed at deputy director or even assistant director level.
- Some GFPs have been allocated responsibilities other than gender.
- A number of GFPs raised the lack of resources as one of the greatest impediments to the effective implementation of their work.
- Less than half of the GFPs reported that they are involved in policy development to promote gender equity. In addition, very few departments have developed a gender policy that defines the organizational framework within which gender equity will be promoted.
- Very few GFPs indicated that they play a role in embarking on a gender mainstreaming strategy in departments.
- Many GFPs have reported that the internal projects and programs that they are implementing entail work on issues like employment-equity issues, recruitment and selection practices, and internal policies. Many departments make little or no mention of programmatic work done externally. Where external work is being done, this is largely centered around the commemoration of calendar events like National Women's Day and the 16 Days of Activism on No Violence Against Women. This is problematic, as a comprehensive program of action needs to encompass far more than this.

1.7 Mainstreaming National Legislation at the Provincial Level

The October 2005 Report of the JMC on Provinces highlights the study tours conducted in three provinces⁵ to conduct an analysis and assess the level of implementation of the Domestic Violence Act and Maintenance Act (Republic of South Africa, 2006). The multiparty delegation included members of the executive branch, departmental officials, mayors of local municipalities, magistrates, prosecutors, the South African Police Service (SAPS), NGOs, and civil society. Specifically, the provincial hearings were to determine the level

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of implementation, identify problems, and make recommendations for successful implementation of the Acts. The delegation was primarily concerned with an assessment of the implementation of the NGM including the provincial OSWs, GFPs, and the director-general in the offices.

Specifically, the Domestic Violence Act of 1998 affords the victims of domestic violence the maximum protection from domestic abuse that the law can provide; and introduces measures that seek to ensure that the relevant organs of state give full effect to the provisions of this Act, thereby conveying that the State is committed to the elimination of domestic violence (Republic of South Africa, 1998a).

The Maintenance Act of 1998, an amendment to the 1963 Act, was legislated to give high priority to the rights of children, their survival, their protection and development, and to honor the government's commitment to the signing of the World Declaration on the Survival Protection and Development of Children, agreed to at New York on September 30, 1990, and its accession on June 16, 1995, to the Convention on the Rights of the Child, signed at New York on November 20, 1989. This convention, which is very important to gender equality, requires States that are party to the convention to recognize the right of every child to a standard of living that is adequate for the child's physical, mental, spiritual, moral, and social development, and to take all appropriate measures to secure the recovery of maintenance for the child from the parents or other persons having financial responsibility for the child (Republic of South Africa, 1998b).

The output of the study tours by the JMC was a report with recommendations toward ensuring that women access their rights in terms of CEDAW and the BPA. Noting that an understanding of the specific challenges facing women in South Africa is intrinsic to proper implementation and mainstreaming of the NGP, the 2005 Report lists the following challenges facing women in South Africa (Joint Monitoring Committee, 2005):

- *Perception of Gender Issues*—It seems that there is a perception that domestic violence and maintenance are women's issues. Even though the legislation was promulgated in 1998, the nature of the problems experienced by the State, and by women in general, is rooted in constructions of power between males and females in society.
- *Resources*—In the case of the State, magistrates, prosecutors, and SAPS raised the lack of adequate resources and training as a key obstacle to successfully implementing the law (in the case of the Domestic Violence and Maintenance Acts). To make matters more challenging, women are expected to decipher a complex web of interrelations between the SAPS, prosecutors, magistrates, and courts within the criminal justice system. Rural women must travel great distances, as support systems are not close to them. It was clear from responses by the magistrates, prosecutors, and

SAPS that women in situations of domestic violence have little recourse to safe havens, as these do not exist in some areas.

- *Attitudes toward Violence against Women*—In the majority of cases, attitudes of State employees were regarded as a major stumbling block for women. Civil society reflected on the inadequate support available to mostly rural women.
- *Empowerment through Training*—There is a lack of understanding of the Acts and it was suggested that the Domestic Violence Act and the Maintenance Act should be included in the curriculum at secondary schools and in training programs for magistrates, SAPS, and prosecutors. The delegation discovered that people are not well informed about the content of CEDAW and the African Charter and that there is an enormous need for the kind of information and education programs that the CGE must develop, conduct, and manage to foster public understanding. The crucial role of the CGE in expanding its training programs to ensure that there is information sharing and empowerment was recognized.
- *Representation on the National Gender Machinery*—It was stated that there is a need for South African Local Government Associations (SALGA) to be represented in the NGM. At the time of the JMC visit, provinces and local authorities had special projects units, which cover women, children, the disabled, and older persons. The challenge, it was found, was to elevate women from special projects to full projects.
- *Gender Focal Points (GFPs)*—Few GFPs were found to be up and running in departments at provincial and local levels.
- *National Competencies and Reporting at Provincial Level*—An issue pertaining to Home Affairs as a national competence highlighted a gap in the legislation, as it has not set a provision on the reporting between departments at the provincial level.
- *Independent Complaints Directorate (ICD)*—It was suggested that complaints about SAPS must be directed to the ICD. The ICD is increasingly finding that magistrates and prosecutors are calling on the ICD to intervene in cases of SAPS not complying with the Domestic Violence Act.

Essentially, the October 2005 Report found that the structures, namely, the OSW and the GFPs, were not consolidated within the provincial structures nor in departments. There was even less evidence of these structures at the local government level. This dissonance found in the three provinces seems due to a lack of common understanding about the role and function of the OSW in the provinces and the GFPs in departments.

A recommendation of the national OSW was that all provincial OSWs be headed by a staff member at the level of chief executive officer. None of the provinces visited had an OSW official at management level. In addition, the national OSW recommended that the office be staffed by at least four people per

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province. This was not found to be the case in any of the provinces visited. The JMC was requested to assist in an information exchange between the provinces as the impact of the legislation had not been felt. In addition, input was required from communities and success stories needed to be shared among participants.

1.7.1 June 2006 Appropriations Review

In response to a JMC review that took place between January and April 2006 (Joint Monitoring Committee 2006), the JMC Chairperson, M.P. M. R. Morutoa, indicated that the JMC was pleased about parliament's intensified focus on budgetary oversight and the Equality Review campaign. These oversight activities reviewed progress in the implementation of equality legislation, informed and educated the public about equality legislation, and then devised a mechanism of accelerating the implementation of equality legislation. The chairperson noted that during the 2005 study tours and 2003 public hearings, it had become very clear that ordinary people as well as government officials need much more education about their rights and responsibilities. She then drew attention to the complacency within some government departments, both national and provincial, therefore indicating support for renewed education projects about the constitution and equality legislation aimed at government officials and civil society. The full report to parliament includes a memorandum received about protecting women's rights in relation to gender-based violence, recommendations to enhance communications strategies and integrated data systems, and recommendations from a number of government agencies including the Department of Public Service and Administration, Statistics South Africa, Department of Communications, and the South African Broadcasting Corporation.

The November 2006 Report highlights the considerations of the JMC on the 2006 Appropriation Bill and the associated budget votes, then focuses on its deliberations that were reported on June 6, 2006. Over the years, the JMC has consistently directed its attention on the three issues of poverty, gender-based violence, and AIDS/HIV. The reports note the JMC's achievements in respect to gender equality at the top end of the political and economic arenas in the country. In both the public and private spheres, South Africa does much better than average in having women in powerful positions. Indeed, South Africa has reached the point where it is no longer something to remark on that a chief executive officer or a minister or a director-general is a woman.

At the bottom end of these arenas, however, there is still much room for improvement. The JMC's comments therefore focus on what the 2006/07 budget of the government reflects in the areas of poverty, gender-based violence, and AIDS/HIV.

The JMC commended the Treasury and the individual departments on the amount of information that is provided in South African Budget books and

felt fortunate compared with many other countries in having a program-by-program narrative alongside the budget figures. This has been taking place for seven years, allowing the JMC to see patterns over time. The JMC also noted in its report that “it was also fortunate in having information on objectives and targets and indicators. Perhaps unfortunately for government, this information makes us hungry for more!” It was the JMC’s opinion that the potential of this budget format was not being fully utilized. In particular, the JMC wanted to see better use made of the targets and indicators as these are a concrete tool that parliament and civil society can use to monitor government’s achievements.

1.7.2 Joint Monitoring Committee Review of Results on Poverty

The Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) is a flagship program for South Africa in terms of directly addressing poverty. The EPWP was introduced in 2003 as an expansion of activities previously funded through poverty alleviation funding. One of the changes announced in 2003 was that the scope of the activities covered by public works would be expanded. In particular, EPWP would now also include the social sector activities of home- and community-based care (HCBC) and early childhood development (ECD), alongside physical infrastructure activities on which public works traditionally focus.

Having public works in HCBC and ECD is an extremely innovative idea. Perhaps South Africa is the first country to attempt to do this. It is an idea that is welcome from a gender perspective. First, it is innovative to recognize that caring services can also produce a type of infrastructure that is called healthier people. Second, HCBC and ECD are areas of work in which women traditionally predominate, unlike the building of physical infrastructure that is the traditional focus of public works. In the latter area, South Africa instituted a quota to ensure that women, who predominate among the poor, could benefit in proportion to their relative need. This quota has not, however, always been observed. Third, HCBC and ECD are types of work that are often done for no pay, and their inclusion in the EPWP affords some recognition that these activities constitute real, productive work.

The JMC expressed several concerns about the social sector EPWP. First, the program will focus on apprenticeships rather than on payment to people who are doing this work in an ongoing way. If this is the case, the program will not be especially useful to the many poor women who already have the necessary skills for this work, but are providing the services for free both in their own homes and to others in the community. A focus on learnerships also does not acknowledge that there is a great ongoing need for both types of services—and a need that is growing in respect to HCBC. Women cannot be expected to continue to provide these services for free simply because they are given a few months of training during which time they receive a limited stipend.

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Second, and more importantly, it seems that implementation of the social sector of EPWP has not yet occurred. As noted, the EPWP was introduced in early 2003. Yet in 2006, it seems that HCBC and ECD are still only at the planning stage. In his budget vote speech on May 17, 2006, the minister of social development stated that R4.2 billion had been set aside for the social sector EPWP. He added that, with the support of the Business Trust, the sector had “identified the critical path for implementation” and “begun to address the capacity and project management deficits” that had been identified. The JMC is very concerned that three years after the social sector EPWP was announced, this important activity is still only at the planning stage. The estimates of national expenditure state that the Department of Social Development plans to train 5,800 caregivers during that current budget year. JMC thought that this was too little too late.

Another poverty-related issue revolves around divorce and maintenance. When marriages split up, women are often left in a precarious position economically. This is so because men tend to earn more than women, because men are more likely to be employed than women, and because women’s household responsibilities limit the time and energy they can devote to income earning. In addition, the dwelling in which families live is generally registered in the man’s name despite the fact that after divorce the children generally stay with the woman. This places even greater burdens on the woman’s time and greatly limits her ability to earn income. The many women in South Africa who bear children outside marriage face the same impossible burden as those who are divorced and separated.

As indicated in the JMC 2006 Report, research commissioned two years ago by the CGE found that the average amount of maintenance per child awarded to women who were persistent and lucky enough to get such an award was only R200 per month. Meanwhile, the men concerned were earning an average of nearly R3,000 per month. The Department of Justice and Constitutional Development’s Annual Report for 2004/05 acknowledges that even the specialist Family Courts are not able to deliver a satisfactory service in respect to maintenance. The situation in ordinary courts will be even worse. Given these difficulties, the JMC was pleased to see in the department’s Annual Report for 2004/05 that Child Maintenance is regarded as one of the department’s flagship projects. The JMC was also pleased to see in the pages of this year’s Estimates of National Expenditure relating to the Department of Justice that the Legal Aid Board has named women involved in divorces, maintenance, and domestic violence as a priority group.

The JMC was concerned, however, that the 2006 Budget did not seem to say anything about maintenance investigators and prosecutors. Last year’s budget reported that the appointment of 82 investigators and 100 clerks for maintenance and domestic violence courts had helped improve the system. Despite these improvements, the JMC was well aware that women who approach

the courts are still facing major obstacles. The Department of Justice's Annual Report for 2004/05 says that 140 investigators would be in place by the end of 2004–2005, and that they would be employed as permanent civil servants rather than—as in the past—as contract staff. The Annual Report also says that the department has prioritized funds for the appointment of maintenance investigators at the ordinary and Family Courts. The JMC's concern about the absence of a mention of maintenance investigators in the 2006/07 South African Budget book is based on the fact that without this information, it is difficult to monitor if commitments are being carried through.

1.7.3 Joint Monitoring Committee Review on Violence Against Women

The Department of Justice and Constitutional Development has a major role to play in respect to gender-based violence. Unfortunately, the department's Vote in the Estimates of National Expenditure says almost nothing on this topic. The one area related to gender-based violence in which there is an exact number relates to the sexual offences courts. The 2006 Estimates of National Expenditure state that seventy such courts had been established by August 2005, and another thirty would have been established by March 2006. While this was welcomed, the JMC needed more information.

The JMC noted that the department has set for itself a target of a 70 percent conviction rate in sexual offences courts. This is lower than the target set for all other courts. The Annual Report for 2004/05 states that the conviction rate for the sexual offences courts was 63 percent. The conviction rate for sexual offences in other courts was only 47 percent. This means that over half of cases of the women and children who are not fortunate enough to land up in a specialized court do not result in conviction. These rates were very disturbing to the JMC as there are many more women and children who do not report the violence that they experience in the first place. Low conviction rates increase the chances that they will not consider it worth the trouble to file a report.

The significant difference in conviction rates for the sexual offences courts is particularly worrying given recent announcements that the specialist courts are to be abandoned. The JMC was concerned that when available indicators provide strong evidence of the effectiveness of a particular strategy, the government was planning to abandon that strategy. Therefore, JMC urged re-consideration of that decision.

1.7.4 Joint Monitoring Committee Review of AIDS/HIV

JMC's third special area of interest is AIDS/HIV. This issue is particularly burdensome for women for a number of reasons. First, due to both biological and sociological reasons, women are more vulnerable than men to infection, and are likely to be infected at a young age. Second, women and girls tend to

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predominate among those who care for others in the household and community who are ill. Women are thus both more infected and more affected by AIDS/HIV than men.

In terms of AIDS/HIV, the JMC again referred to the issue of HCBC. Until now, there has been a national conditional grant that has provided money to provinces in respect to HCBC. That grant has now come to an end, and provinces are expected to provide for these services in their own budgets. The JMC was not confident that this will happen across all provinces. Government has twice in the past had a bad experience in terms of conditional grants in respect to ECD that, when they came to an end, were not adequately replaced by funding from the provinces. The JMC fears that this will again happen in respect to HCBC. The JMC expressed the need for information on what the government was planning to do to ensure that the careers of the caregivers—and those for whom they provide care—will not suffer. Its concern was especially acute given the lack of progress in implementing the EPWP in the social sector mentioned above.

1.8 Joint Monitoring Committee Review of the Implementation of the National Gender Framework in Provincial Offices on the Status of Women and in Local Government Departments

Following its commitment to both CEDAW and the BPA, the South African government committed itself to taking these commitments forward in the form of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). National departments, other government role-players, and provinces are expected to report regularly on the achievement of the gender policy objectives (Joint Monitoring Committee, 2006).

The August 2005 hearings of the JMC became imperative to evaluate and review how the government has worked toward the goal of gender equality, examining the stated aims of government departments and the budgets that are allocated, relevant policy and legislation that has been in process, and the extent to which transformation has taken place at different levels. As such, in 2005, hearings were held within the Department of Provincial and Local Government, SALGA, provincial OSWs, and provincial GFPs for local government. The hearings focused on these four main aspects (Joint Monitoring Committee, 2006, p. 10):

- To assess achievements toward the CEDAW and BPA objectives;
- To obtain an overview of the various practices;
- To identify areas of concern and to assess implementation of legislation and policies and identification of weaknesses and blockages; and
- To make recommendations for improvements.

The JMC's review coincided with the MDG's review, offering an opportunity for greater coherence and focus on equality and empowerment of women across all MDGs. Similarly, the Beijing +10 process was about accountability for the delivery of existing commitments to ensure gender equality and women's empowerment. Furthermore, it was important for the JMC to ensure that the process of improving quality of life and status of women continues to focus on programs and priorities that remain coherent and coordinated among the different levels of government so as to guarantee equality in the allocation of sufficient human and material resources.

The hearings that formed a basis for the JMC November 2006 report emanated from the August 2005 hearings to which the Department of Provincial and Local Government (DPLG), SALGA, provincial OSWs, and provincial local government GFPs were invited to provide information on these four main aspects:

- Assessment of departmental programs nationally, provincially, and locally aimed at achieving the objectives of CEDAW and the BPFA;
- Overview of the different practices in each local government department or OSW with reference to government policy, international commitments, and the constitution;
- Identification of areas of concern; and
- Assessment of the implementation of legislation and policies, identification of weaknesses and blockages, and recommendations for improvements.

With the DPLG, SALGA, and provincial participation from local OSWs and eight provincial GFPs for local government, JMC made a general observation that the quality of information provided was not of very high standard and that the JMC would need to be more prescriptive with regards to the level and format of the information provided to fill the gaps so as to obtain a more comprehensive, accurate assessment of gender at the local level.

1.8.1 Joint Monitoring Committee Evaluation of Gender Mainstreaming at the Local Government Level and the National Office on the Status of Women: Overview of Findings

The findings for the DPLG include the following (Joint Monitoring Committee, 2006, p. 10):

- An Equity and Development Unit has been established that deals specifically with the coordination of sectorwide policies and programs like gender, AIDS/HIV, disability, and youth. It has both an external and internal gender focus.

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- The Chief Directorate of Human Resource Management and Development is responsible for the internal coordination and monitoring of relevant legislation. Internal focus has been placed on establishment of a women's forum that seeks to promote internal dialogue; the Employment Equity Plan that monitors the department's recruitment and human resource development processes; and gender profiles at senior management service level that are reported to the director general and the minister on the progress in achieving equity.
- The external program focus includes: integrated development plans that incorporate community participation in local government; local economic development that incorporates small, medium, and microenterprises; an urban renewal program; municipal infrastructure grants with an allocation of grants to the poor; and an annual women in local government conference providing a platform for women councilors and municipal managers and officials to share ideas and raise issues collectively.
- A women's forum has been established that seeks to promote internal dialogue around women's issues and provide overall support to female employees in the department.
- In terms of increasing the representation of black South Africans (African, Coloured, Asian) in public service, the target of 75 percent was surpassed in June 2005 with 84.4 percent.
- With regard to women, the public service target is 30 percent. The DPLG achieved 36.4 percent by June 2005.

The following results were found for SALGA:

- A Gender and Women Empowerment Programme has been established that falls under the Directorate of Strategic Affairs headed by the executive director. The political champions of the program are political representatives and officials from all provinces who constitute the Social Development Working Group, chaired by a member of the National Executive Committee.
- There is only one woman of the nine deputy CEOs, and three women out of the fourteen members of the Executive Management Team.
- The 2004 Local Government Gender Audit revealed that there are fifty-four or 19.01 percent women mayors; seventy-seven or 27.11 percent women Speakers; and eighteen or 6.34 percent women municipal managers.
- Successes include the Local Government Gender Audit; development of the Local Government Policy Framework in partnership with DPLG; incorporation of gender empowerment in the SALGA constitution; the annual Women in Local Government Conferences; and the Benoni Declaration of 2005, a resolution by the Women Leadership of South African

Municipalities meeting in Benoni, South Africa, reaffirming its commitment to gender equality and equity in local government.

- Challenges cited include partnerships that sometimes undermine common causes of women's empowerment; and no common programs by government that adequately address roles and responsibilities and take into consideration the mandate of different spheres of government. While the number of political representatives improved, fewer were achieved on the administration side of municipalities.

With respect to the provincial governments, the following were noted:

- With the exception of the Western Cape province, all provincial governments have established OSW structures of various kinds and are situated in the premier's office.
- The Gauteng province does not have an OSW, but functions are carried out by the Gender and AIDS/HIV subdirectorates and reports to the director of Social Development within the premier's office.
- Both the Western Cape and Gauteng argued that it is not the structure but the function that is important.
- All thirty responding departments had appointed GFPs.
- Thirteen of the thirty GFPs have appointed persons responsible for gender-related issues at the director level or higher.
- Of the thirty GFPs, nine (30 percent) focus only on gender issues, while twenty-one GFPs (70 percent) have responsibilities that include gender, disability, youth, child rights, AIDS/HIV, employment equity, human resource management, and employee assistance in various combinations.
- None of the GFPs report directly to the director general in any of the departments.
- The National OSW Audit Report of 2003 indicated that nine (31.03 percent) departments had appointed GFPs at the mandated levels in 2003. There was thus a 7.7 percent drop (from 31.03 to 23.33 percent) in the number of government departments complying with the mandate of the gender policy document and Cabinet Memo of 1997.
- There was not a single female municipal manager in the Eastern Cape province in 2005.
- The Department of Social Development in Gauteng reported that the provincial department's strategic plans are analyzed to assess if gender issues are incorporated and mainstreamed. The province also has had success with the women's dialogue initiative. Although management representation in respect to gender is already in line with minimum national targets (30 percent), there is a drastic decline in representation of females from low level to senior management service, with the majority of female employees at lower levels.

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- Kwazulu-Natal province has a draft gender policy and is working on an implementation strategy and gender monitoring tool.
- There are no GFPs in most municipalities in Limpopo province, except one municipality that had appointed a GFP at the administrative clerk level.
- Mpumalanga province reported that a resolution had been taken at the premier's Coordinating Forum that youth units should be established in all municipalities and that these units would also address gender and disability concerns. The resolution did not address gender concerns. GFP coordinators have been appointed in ten departments.
- Western Cape province has an approved Human Rights Mainstreaming Business Plan (2005–2006). This province had an OSW until April 1, 2006. Since then, the OSW has been restructured, although still situated in the Department of the Premier, but now under the Operations branch. The OSW reports to the deputy director general who in turn reports to the premier. The premier made the office a priority-issue office. The new Directorate of Social Dialogue and Human Rights (that incorporated the previous OSW) is divided into four subdirectorates with an overall budget of R8 million (approximately US\$1.2 million). At least R3.8 million (approximately US\$543,000) has been put aside for the women's program.

1.9 Gender Budgeting and Civil Society

Although not viewed as playing an active role in gender equity processes, one of the most significant roles that civil society has played in the budgeting processes in South Africa is the People's Budget campaign. The People's Budget campaign is a program of a coalition of the South African Council of Churches, South African Non-Governmental Coalition, and the Congress of South African Trade Unions.⁶ While not specifically focused on gender budgeting, it is a budget that focuses on an assessment of the budget in terms of the poor. The People's Budget, submitted one year in advance and targeting the next year's budget, is essentially a proposal that presents how the vision and intent of the Freedom Charter⁷ can be realized through fiscal policy. Launched in 2000, the campaign, employing the effective use of the budget as a tool for reconstruction and development, aimed to achieve the following through this process (South African Non-Governmental Coalition, 2006–2007):

- Meeting basic needs, especially by restoring and enhancing the public sector and social spending;
- Enduring the retention and creation of quality jobs in the context of economic growth;
- Assisting the majority of people with access to assets and skills;
- Supporting increasingly democratic and participatory governance; and

- Protecting the environment and ensuring sustainable development throughout the southern African region.

The People's Budget seeks to achieve these aims by:

- Giving voice in debates on the budget to major constituencies in civil society;
- Supporting a broader understanding of how the budget works and how it affects communities; and
- Providing research into key programs for transformation, and improving understanding of development strategies and their resources.

While the 2006/07 People's Budget notes that there are still substantive areas of disagreement between civil society and the government, key changes have taken place due to the People's Budget campaign. This has promoted confidence that the proposals are credible and have had an impact on public policy. These key changes include the following since 2000:

- *Moderately expansionary budget*—Changes have taken place on both the deficit and taxation level, primary measures called for to boost government spending.
- *Free basic services*—Government has allocated resources for this purpose and has restructured the municipal equitable share grant.
- *Zero-rating of paraffin, maize, bread, and transport*. This is primarily on goods and services consumed by the poor, like maize, bread, and transport.
- *Reduced tax cuts*—The minister of finance indicated that tax cuts for 2005/06 would be lower than in previous years. Tax cuts previously benefited the rich disproportionately and reduced resources needed for development.
- *Increased deficit spending*—Government has projected a deficit of 3.1 percent, meaning that more resources will be available for social and infrastructure spending with a potential to kick-start economic growth.
- *Antiretrovirals*—The government remains committed to the provision of free antiretrovirals.
- *State-owned enterprises*—The government agrees with this despite pressure to proceed with restructuring from institutions like the International Monetary Fund (IMF).
- *Expansion of the social security system*—Extension of the Child Support Grant is a positive step that was supported by the campaign.

Employing a participatory research process, focus areas included: national health insurance, education, health, review of the macroeconomic model, tax capacity, monetary policy development, and gender-focused research on the

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implementation of the Domestic Violence Act. The study was conducted by the National Labour and Economic Development Institute, with a national consultative workshop comprising representatives from the three organizations.

Its aims were to locate the fiscal policy within a program of rapid poverty eradication; motivate for the adoption of specific spending proposals; provide revenue and expenditure proposals that translate their vision into practice; and outline strategies to improve the capacity of the public service to deliver services more effectively. Thus, the 2006/07 report maintained that the People's Budget seeks, through its spending proposals, to identify areas of intervention that accelerate the process of poverty eradication. While asserting that the proposals would not only realize but exceed the MDG targets, the report elaborates upon key proposals that civil society would argue for, including:

- Extension of the social security system, including the introduction of the Basic Income Grant;
- Increased spending on land redistribution to meet the targets set by government;
- Extension of free basic services;
- Increased funding to implement the Domestic Violence Act;
- Increased investment in education and systemic improvements to achieve greater educational effectiveness; and
- Reconsideration of the government's Social Health Insurance plans.

To support these proposals, the campaign would develop proposals for economic services, with a focus on utilizing the budget to support trade and industrial strategies that create jobs. This approach is particularly important for gender considerations because government statistics indicate that joblessness is most prevalent among women in rural areas, with that figure standing at 51 percent in 2003.

While the report was very comprehensive with useful data, it is quite apparent that the People's Budget campaign's concern for the poor was not necessarily translated into an articulated concern for gender budgeting. Other than the concern for gender research into domestic violence, the Budget is relatively silent on gender issues. Furthermore, in noting the limitations of the study, the campaign recognized several contextual factors that affected its ability to translate the vision into practice including, such as:

- A budgetary process that is characterized by a closed process, coupled with limited powers for parliament to impact budget decisions;
- No uniform official poverty line exists as yet in South Africa, which leads to different actors using different measures for poverty and absolute poverty; and

- A limited space for civil society to engage with government on issues pertaining to the budget due to the money-law amendments bill still not tabled for discussion.

Given the Peoples' Budget campaign involvement in analysis of budgets for the poor, it is quite apparent that civil society could very well employ these same processes to also begin a systematic analysis of gender budgeting in South Africa.

1.10 Enabling and Innovative Approaches and Mechanisms for Gender Responsive Budgeting

There have been a myriad of enabling and innovative approaches and mechanisms that have resulted from the programs and practices in South Africa. Below is a brief listing of those garnered from the existing literature.

- *Policy and research development* (Office on the Status of Women and Gender Equality, 2004, pp. 14–20)
 - OSW undertook a research project focusing on the implication of CEDAW and BPFA for provincial departments. It was successfully completed in May 2001 with the delivery of nine individual department indicator frameworks. The frameworks were distributed to the relevant departments, who used them as a baseline and support documents to improve their service delivery.
 - The National Women Empowerment and Gender Equality Framework was approved in 2001.
 - OSW then embarked on the development of the draft provincial Gender Equality and Framework and the provincial Gender Equality and Empowerment Implementation Strategy (GEWIS), including internal buy-in and consultation, presented to clusters and the Cabinet and launched in 2004.
 - Short-, medium-, and long-term objectives were developed to guide the integration and inclusion of gender equality issues into policies, programs, projects, and budgets of departments.
 - OSW undertook a provincial consultative road show to popularize and present the GEWIS.
- *Capacity building and training*
 - OSW coordinated a train-the-trainer program called Free-to-Grow for a representative group of people working with gender equality, disability, and youth issues in the provincial administration. The training program focused on self-development and incorporated, among other topics, communication skills, conflict resolution, and group dynamics.

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The aim of the program was to provide a platform for all future training interventions. The first phase was completed in 2001.

- The OSW, in partnership with the Office on the Status of Disabled Persons, developed a mainstreaming training package for trainers in the civil service. The aim of this train-the-trainer package was to put trainers in a position to train strategic persons in departments to enable them to mainstream gender equality into their day-to-day operations. This was done with the assistance of a consultant who was contracted for one year. The training package focused on a methodology to include gender consideration in practical programs, planning processes, and projects of the provincial department as well as in the organizational environment.
- OSW granted funds to the Centre for Rural Legal Studies to help with the empowerment of women farm workers, with the main focus being on employment equity.
- A mainstreaming training package for public servants and specific capacity building for gender focal persons was developed titled Gender Training Course for Public Sector Managers.
- Formal structuring of provincial gender management system and coordination with provincial gender machinery including creation of gender desk at district levels, metropolitan coordination, and capacity building for local government officials.
- *Public education, awareness-raising, and communication*
 - Provincial administration from all departments attended a gender equity workshop facilitated by the national Department of Public Service and Administration.
 - Quarterly women's breakfasts were held for senior women managers and ministers in provincial administration.
 - Procedures to be followed by departments when applying to the OSW for funding for gender-based projects and programs were documented and made available to departmental focal points in 2002.
 - A gender and women's directory of nongovernmental and community-based gender organizations was compiled and made available to departments in 2000.
 - OSW designed and facilitated a planning session for the Gender Focal Unit of the Department of Planning, Local Government and Housing.
 - OSW provided input to the discussion document calling for a revision of the provincial Tender Procurement System.
 - OSW participated in a number of radio and newspaper interviews.
 - Commemorative Days for the International 16 Days of Activism Against Gender Violence led to activities that resulted in a brochure focusing on domestic violence, trauma room facilities were provided at police stations, and trained volunteers assisted the police with staffing

facilities, support for the Women Demand Dignity men's march, and the Stand by Women program in November 2001 to highlight violence against women.

- Promotional materials were developed.
- Partnerships with civil society were developed.
- *Auditing, monitoring, evaluation, and reporting*
 - An integrated audit instrument was developed and completed.
 - The need for international benchmarking was identified.

1.11 Summary Statements

1.11.1 Gender-Budgeting Practices in South Africa

While much remains to be done, the South African government has made significant efforts to ensure that it keeps its commitments to its constitutional mandate to ensure substantive gender equality within society.⁸ The government has ratified all of the important international instruments designed to promote gender equity; passed relevant national legislation; and instituted the NGP that is designed to direct and guide government and civil society. NGM has been institutionalized to ensure mainstreaming of international, national, and provincial legal commitments. Parliament has held hearings to evaluate gender mainstreaming and made recommendations that are to be incorporated into current activities at the national and provincial levels.

There is synergy between South Africa's gender-budgeting activities and the poverty alleviation initiatives in government. While much remains to be done, South Africa has made tremendous strides toward the mainstreaming of national laws and policies that promote gender equality. As carefully outlined in its June 2006 report to the AU Secretariat on the implementation of the Solemn Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa, a number of laws have been passed relating to health, land reform, housing, violence against women, and public service and politics (Republic of South Africa, 2006). Of critical significance is that programs have been established and budgetary allocations have been appropriated that signal that the government is concerned that it keeps its international and national commitments to alleviate poverty through the empowerment of women.

As shown in this research report, there is evidence that there have been attempts in South Africa to engage in the three categories of gender budgeting as follows:

- Identifying gender-based expenditures of government departments and authorities: There have been specifically defined program initiatives for women and girls, including employment-policy initiatives, health programs, and related measures. The JMC has played a dominant role in these activities.

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- Ensuring equal employment expenditures by government departments and authorities for their employees: There have been a series of programs that focus on training for clerical officers, rewriting job descriptions, crèche facilities, and leave provisions.
- Assessing the gender impact of the general or mainstream budget expenditures within government departments and authorities: Some of the departments reflect gender equity objectives, and in some cases, the users of services can be identified.

1.11.2 Capacity-Building Implications

While South Africa has made tremendous gains in terms of putting in place the structures, policies, and practices that promote gender equity, there are many years ahead in which those gains will need to be solidified through intensive training programs and activities. An initial listing of the capacity gaps that will need to be given attention are as follows, but there has been no attempt to categorize or prioritize the capacity gaps; the listing is based solely on a review of the literature:

- *Awareness training*—It was repeatedly indicated that while the government has disseminated documents and policies, few people are well informed about their contents and application in their daily lives.
- *Monitoring and evaluation*—Failure to institute effective monitoring and evaluation procedures to track progress has limited provincial and local government's ability to participate effectively in legislative hearings.
- *Research development*—There is a continuing need for external institutions and organizations to track government progress in its quest to secure gender equality within government structures and programs. Once an active source of research for the Women's Budget, the Institute for Democracy in South Africa is no longer producing the studies that were completed in the past.
- *Gender budgeting and poverty*—Programs are needed that place more emphasis on gender budgeting to ensure maximization of measures to eliminate poverty. More skills development training is required at the national, provincial, and local levels to ensure development of functional knowledge of budgetary processes and constraints and citizen engagement in public decision making.
- *Report writing*—It was repeatedly indicated that reports were too sketchy for the legislature and executive to effectively employ the tools of assessment and to efficiently measure the indicators for success.
- *Policy development and analysis*—Training should take place with GFPs to ensure that national and provincial players understand how to develop strategic gender policies. GFPs need to be able to develop gender action plans and coordinate them to effectively engage in gender mainstreaming.

- *Inclusion of civil society*—While much has been done to ensure that government plays an effective role in gender-budgeting processes, very little has been done to ensure that civil society can effectively acquire the skills and knowledge required to participate.
- *Public media campaigns*—There are many of the policies and programs introduced by government that already promote gender equity and could do more in the future. However, the government has not been as aggressive as it could have been in discussing with and reporting these positive aspects to the public.
- *Disaggregated statistics*—Training needs to be provided in statistics and other methodologies that would allow for the inclusion of disaggregated data in reports and in public campaigns. Such training has taken place with parliamentary researchers and should also become a more regular practice within GFPs. Parliamentary committees should play a more decisive role in passing legislation requiring the disaggregation of data on the national level.

CASE STUDY: GENDER BUDGETING AND THE DEPARTMENT OF TRANSPORT IN SOUTH AFRICA

This section provides an overview of gender budgeting and transport in South Africa. Due to the gender mainstreaming strategy called for in the NGP, it is very difficult to find references to gender specifically or obtain data that has been disaggregated so that gender gaps can be readily analyzed. Thus, determining gender gaps within any national department is a very difficult task as budgets, policies, and programs rarely mention gender, forcing one to analyze data through the use of code words for gender. Specifically, as related to the Department of Transport (DOT), these words include any references to poverty or rural areas.

The aim of this section is to provide, within the South African case study, a specific example examining how one of its national departments, DOT, has dealt with gender equity in terms of policies and programs, but most critically, the effectiveness of its capacity for providing leadership for gender-budgeting processes. The aim is also to identify issues and requirements that militate against women's participation in the South African transport system and then identify ways in which civil society and government's partnership can be strengthened. The discussion begins with a brief update on economic progress as this is so closely integrated with the transport system.

1.12 Economic Growth and Poverty in South Africa

The government's commitment to the eradication of poverty was enthusiastically affirmed by President Thabo Mbeki in his 2007 State of the Nation Address

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(9 February). While not specifically addressing gender disparities, he nonetheless emphasized his commitment to “pursue transforming South Africa into a democratic, peaceful, nonracial, nonsexist, and prosperous country, committed to the noble vision of human solidarity.” He explained the all-encompassing task ahead: “None of the great social problems we have to solve is capable of resolution outside the context of the creation of jobs and the alleviation and eradication of poverty. This relates to everything, from the improvement of the health of our people, to reducing the levels of crime, raising the levels of literacy and numeracy, and opening the doors of learning and culture to all. . . . Therefore, the struggle to eradicate poverty has been and will continue to be a central part of the national effort to build a new South Africa.”

Citing the progress that has been made in alleviating poverty thus far, President Mbeki noted the steady improvement in the advancement of black people in the economy. The number of employed people has increased at about one-half million a year in the past three years; between March 2005 to March 2006 alone, 300,000 jobs were created in the formal sector, outside of agriculture, representing a growth rate of about 4 percent; 11 million poor South Africans are beneficiaries to social grants, an increase of 2 million over 2004 figures; access to electricity and water and sanitation has improved, noting that by 2005, South Africa had achieved the MDG in respect to basic water supply, with 83 percent of the population having access to potable water; and housing has seen new subsidies allocated in the past two years.

President Mbeki continued, “All these economic and social programs form part of our strategies to reduce and eradicate the poverty that continues to afflict many of our people.” He mentioned the work by the South African Women in Dialogue (SAWID)⁹ that has drawn attention to measures required to adequately place poverty at the center of policymaking and related activities. Following SAWID’s advice, President Mbeki outlined the following measures:

- Define clearly the poverty matrix of our country;
- Develop a proper database of households living in poverty;
- Identify and implement specific interventions relevant to these households;
- Monitor progress in these households as the programs take effect in graduating them out of poverty;
- In this context, address all indigence, especially the high numbers of women so affected;
- Coordinate and align all antipoverty programs to maximize impact and avoid wastage and duplication; and
- Accelerate the training of family social workers at professional and auxiliary levels to ensure that identified households are properly supported and monitored.

The president's statements concerning a commitment to poverty reduction or eradication must be interpreted as a commitment to improve the lives of women because statistics show that the majority of individuals living in poverty are women and their children.

1.12.1 The 2007 Medium-Term Budget Policy Statement

President Mbeki's optimism was supported by the national budget put forth by the Minister of Finance M.P. Trevor Manuel, who reiterated the country's continued progress in the October 2007 Medium-Term Budget Policy Statement. Manuel acknowledged that the economic growth and investment in public services are steadily bringing a better life to millions of South Africans.¹⁰ Although Manuel confidently asserted that progress has been recorded and measured, his message was that victory still could not be claimed.

In reaffirming South Africa's commitment to building a stronger economy, faster job creation, broadening participation, and deepening the quality of social and economic opportunities for all, Manuel provided specific hard data to support economic growth and development challenges as follows:

- "In 1966, only 64 percent of our people lived in formal houses. Today, over 70 percent enjoy this right.
- In almost every area of public service delivery—from access to schooling and healthcare to refuse removal, from electrification to access to computers, from roads and streetlights to sport facilities, from telecommunication services to access to public transport—we can point to steady progress in living standards.
- Development is about access to jobs, security of incomes, and redressing past inequalities. We can show measured quantitative progress on these fronts, although we clearly have work to do in these dimensions of reconstruction and transformation.
- National income has risen by 22 percent per person since 1999, with increases across all income groups.
- Employment is rising faster than at any point since the 1960s.
- Fixed investment has increased sharply since 2002, by over 10 percent a year."

Manuel believes these accounts of progress to be substantial steps toward the medium-term economic goals of:

- "Growth of 6 percent a year or more;
- An unemployment rate of below 14 percent by 2014; and
- An aggregate poverty rate half that recorded in 2004."

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Manuel concluded, “on the basis of sound fiscal and economic policies, we have made significant progress in improving the quality of life of all South Africans, but particularly for those in poverty.” He further asserted, “With the right policies in place and through steady improvements in building implementation capacity and monitoring service delivery, we can accelerate progress in transforming the lives of all South Africans.”

1.12.2 South Africa’s Dual Economy: Economic Inequality

Indeed, by accounts of economists and development planners, South Africa is currently undergoing unprecedented economic growth that has catapulted the acceleration of the process of redressing socioeconomic inequalities by broadening access to basic social services like health, education, housing, water, and sanitation. How much of this progress has directly impacted the lives of women is a question for which many gender advocates would like an answer.

Etienne Yemek, a researcher/trainer in the African Budget Unit of the Institute for Democracy in South Africa (Yemek, 2006, p. 1), has not painted as enthusiastic a picture as the president and the minister of finance, however. He maintains that although much has been achieved over the past decade, the country is still characterized by extreme inequalities, due to the persistence of poverty and high levels of unemployment. These inequalities have produced a dual society in which many citizens are unable to meet their basic needs, while a minority enjoy extreme prosperity (Rodrik, 2006). South Africa represents a juxtaposition of two economies. While the first economy is modern and integrated with the global economy and produces the bulk of the country’s wealth, the second economy is underdeveloped and isolated from the first economy and the global economy. The second economy constitutes a large percentage of the population, including the urban and rural poor, and contributes little to the country’s wealth.

Yemek notes that economic growth alone is insufficient to eradicate poverty and inequality in South Africa. The challenge to be met is how to share the fruits of economic growth more equitably, while combating the unfair manifestations of structural poverty, underdevelopment, and marginalization that are rooted within the second economy. With the launching of the Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (AsgiSA), the government has to fund selected programs to act as catalysts for economic development. The initial spending framework of AsgiSA includes six broad categories of government interventions that are primarily aimed at promoting the country’s capacity to meet its development objectives with respect to the MDGs: namely halving poverty and unemployment by 2014.¹¹

AsgiSA is an initiative comprising strategic interventions to counter the main constraints on economic growth, with government interventions taking place in a number of selected social and economic areas. From a social point

of view, the interventions are expected to bring real opportunities to transform the structures of production, income, and ownership in favor of the poorest and most vulnerable social groups. In general, AsgiSA is expected to drive the economy at a higher rate of growth, while expanding its redistributive benefits toward the majority of South Africans, who are trapped in the second economy.

Therefore, Yemek argues, the fundamental elements of a healthy economy, social justice, and good governance, together with broad-based economic prosperity, are needed to eradicate the burden of poverty and lack of access to basic public services and employment opportunities that affect the majority of South Africans. This view has particular significance for the goal of gender equity in South Africa.

Yemek maintains that with economic growth now a realistic prospect over the medium term, with gross domestic product (GDP) expected to rise to 5.2 percent in 2008, South Africa has the opportunity to align economic growth with improvements to the well-being of the poor. In terms of political economy, this requires developmental strategies enabling the poor to participate in economic growth, as well as benefit from it. For example, giving the poor better access to economic opportunities (employment, assets, and markets), as well as to basic public services like education, health, housing, water, and sanitation, would contribute significantly to growth. Thus, there must be budget priorities that reflect the need to direct public expenditure toward reinforcing the country's capacity to improve the well-being of the poorest of the poor rapidly and sustainably.

The case study discussed here attempts to provide a more in-depth understanding of the growth-enhancing mechanisms within an important growth sector in South Africa: transport. In so doing, poverty reduction will be viewed as primarily a gender problem, because women comprise over 50 percent of the poor in South Africa.

1.13 The Economy and Transport

The interrelationship between economic growth and transport is expressed very explicitly in policy documents within DOT. In the foreword to the DOT's Strategic Plan 2007–2010, Minister of Transport J. T. Radebe maintains that DOT has always been the key factor in development and growth (Department of Transport, n.d.). This is evident by the Vision Statement of the department that proclaims:

- “Transport, the Heartbeat of South Africa's Economic Growth and Social Development.”
- The Strategic Plan indicates that the aim of DOT is to establish a national transport system that enables national, provincial, and local provision of

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efficient, affordable, and fully integrated infrastructure and services that best meet the needs of transport users and promotes economic and social development while being environmentally and economically sustainable (Department of Transport, 2006).

The theme of economic and social development is also indicated in the department's mission statement that commits to: "Lead the development of integrated efficient transport systems by creating a framework of sustainable policies, regulations, and implementation models to support government strategies for economic, social, and international development" (Department of Transport, 2006, p. 8).

The DOT's core values are stated as follows:

- Maintain fairness and equity in all our operations;
- Strive for quality and affordable transport for all;
- Stimulate innovation in the transport sector;
- Ensure transparency, accountability and monitoring of all operations; and
- Ensure sustainability, financial affordability, and accessibility, as well as the upholding of the Batho Pele (People First) Principles.¹²

DOT's strategic objectives are aimed at achieving a policy framework and regulation and implementation modes. They include:

- Competitive transport costs;
- Safety and security improvements;
- Reduction of infrastructure backlogs;
- Improvement in access; and
- Reduction of time in transit.

It is significant that the principles of Batho Pele continue to underpin the department's key objectives. The DOT Director-General reiterates in various policy documents, "The Department of Transport will continue to respond to the challenges facing South Africa, both socially and economically." Thus, for DOT, the rate of economic growth requires competitive, sustainable, safe, and reliable transport infrastructure and services. The DOT maintains that it has prioritized and committed investment in areas where the lives of all South Africans will improve for the better. Given the significant contribution of transport in facilitating the mobility of people, goods, and services in the first and second economies, strategic investment is of paramount importance in the public transport sector. The integration of all modes of transport systems into a public transport system will make public transport accessible to all South Africans. That women figure very prominently in this strategic investment is evident in policies and some programs of the department.

Agreeing with DOT, President Mbeki (State of the Union Address, 9 February 2007) mentioned as one of the signs of progress the development and implementation of various programs aimed at improving passenger transport. Mentioning specific national public transport programs, he maintained that these programs were designed to improve the quality of life, especially of the working people.

1.13.1 Brief Situational Analysis

The first step in the gender-budgeting process is to determine the situational analysis of women within the sector under study. This is very important as without an understanding of whether the position of women has been correctly identified, it is not possible to determine if the policies and programs adequately address the situation of the different kinds of women, men, girls, and boys. Thus, the DOT commissioned the National Household Travel Survey in 2003.

Based on the findings of the National Household Travel Survey, the decision was made to focus these findings on rural areas. Statistical studies have shown that 72 percent of the South African population is composed of rural poor. In the rural areas, 53.3 percent of the population is composed of poor women, while 46.7 percent of males live in rural areas. Compare this to 51.2 percent and 52 percent for females and 48.8 percent and 48 percent for males in metropolitan and urban areas, respectively (Statistics South Africa, 2003). The first national survey of the travel habits of individuals and households places the main emphasis on workers and commuter trips to various educational institutions. The information provided includes the modes of travel, periods of travel, travel times, and travel costs.

In the foreword to the completed National Household Travel Survey, Minister Jeff Radebe states that the main objective of the study is to understand the domestic travel behavior and needs of individuals and households in South Africa. As such, the study placed the spotlight squarely on the users of transport services, in the spirit of Batho Pele. He continues, "For too long in the course of our history, the users of transport have either been ignored, or they have been listened to, but not really heard. This applies especially to the majority who are dependent on walking and public transport" (Department of Transport, 2005, p. ii).

While the National Household Travel Survey does not disaggregate based on gender, it does disaggregate according to settlement types, transport analysis zones, municipalities, and provinces. Because women comprise the largest percentage of rural residents, focus has been placed on rural results and, in some cases, those provinces with the highest percentages of rural residents.

The primary results of the National Household Travel Survey are important for the analysis of gender gaps within the DOT policy documents and practices (Statistics South Africa, 2003). The results are described below.

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Total population—As of the Statistics South Africa 2003 census, the total population of South Africa was 46.4 million. The rural population of nearly 19 million is almost double that found in the small urban areas. Data revealed that in the metropolitan areas there are approximately 4.6 million households and 4.4 million in rural areas, while in the urban areas there are 3.5 million. Rural households average 4.3 persons per household, compared with only 3.4 in metropolitan areas.

Household incomes—In rural households 67 percent or over two-thirds have monthly incomes of R1000 or less. Compare this to 30.3 percent of households with the same income in metropolitan areas. For metropolitan households, 17 percent earn more than R6000 per month, as against only 3 percent in the rural areas.

Gender and race—In all provinces the ratio of males to females is very similar with females exceeding males in all cases. Rural areas comprise 53.3 percent females and 46.7 percent males. Compare this to 51.2 percent and 52 percent for females and 48.8 percent and 48 percent for males in metropolitan and urban areas, respectively. While for the whole of South Africa, almost 80 percent of the population is black with other main groups comprising coloured at 9 percent; whites at 9 percent; and Asians less than 3 percent. With regard to settlement types, blacks make up 96 percent of the population in rural areas.

Age—For South Africa as a whole, almost 43 percent of the population is under the age of twenty. This proportion is much lower in the more urbanized provinces where the percentage is 37 percent and lower. In rural areas, typically 50 percent of the population are under the age of twenty. In the productive age group of twenty-six to sixty-five years old, one finds 41 percent of the South African population. The metropolitan population generally has a lower proportion of persons under the age of twenty than the rural areas. Likewise, the metropolitan and urban areas tend to have a larger proportion of working age population.

Education—The more rural provinces have the highest proportion of persons with no formal education. Metropolitan areas have the fewest people with no education as well as the most with high school graduate and postsecondary qualifications, with nearly 31 percent falling in the latter categories. Compare this to 2 percent of persons in rural areas having education up to high school or postsecondary levels.

Access to transport—Ninety-seven percent of households in rural settlements have no access to train stations owing to the fact that train stations are absent or too far away. Compare this to 53.2 percent in metropolitan and 77 percent in urban areas. Considering the relationship between accessibility and settlement type, it is evident that the best general accessibility exists in metropolitan areas (85 percent of households are within 15 minutes of a taxi service). Rural areas have 61 percent of households, however, who do have problems.

Some 12 percent of them claim that there is no available minibus taxi service. Considering that 12 percent of the 4.5 million rural households represent 540,000 families—possibly as many as 2 million individuals with no transport services—this represents a major challenge to transport authorities.

Monthly household expenditure on public transport—In SA, 25 percent of households do not pay for public transportation, which is used as an indicator to measure the dependency rate on this means of transport. Nearly a third of the metropolitan and urban households do not spend money on transport as against 14 percent of rural households. The dependency rate on public transport is thus higher in the rural areas than in the urbanized provinces.

Weekday trip making—The proportion and number of household members who made one or more trips on weekdays are 76 percent, which is 35.2 million people in the whole of South Africa. By settlement types, data indicate that while a somewhat higher proportion of metropolitan and urban residents undertook a trip, the actual number of rural people doing so was greater. As to the purpose of the main trip on weekdays, by settlement type, 51 percent of household members in rural areas indicated education, compared to 33 percent for metropolitan and 37 percent for urban. Compare this to the number shopping, where the numbers per area were 23 percent rural, 32 percent urban, and 36 percent metropolitan, and those going to work at 16 percent rural, 31 percent urban, and 37 percent metropolitan. The importance of trips to educational institutions is apparent, particularly in the rural areas, where education is the main purpose of the trip. While the majority of learners and students walked to their destinations in rural areas, a little over half of those in metropolitan areas walked there. There are more long walks in rural areas than in metropolitan and urban areas.

Most important transport problems—By far, the most important general problem mentioned by nearly half of the households in South Africa was a lack of readily accessible public transport. There is a marked difference between urban and rural households, with households in urban areas complaining about taxi safety and driver behavior while households in rural areas mostly complained about unavailability of public transport. While poor minibus-taxi driver behavior and lack of safety from accidents were cited as problems in urban areas, the greater concern in the rural areas was minibus-taxi fares.

Employment in the formal and informal sectors—For the whole of SA, while close to 74 percent of persons who had a job in the seven days prior to the survey were classified as working in the formal sector, nearly 27 percent were employed in the informal sector. The incidence of informal sector jobs is far higher in rural than in urban areas, as 41 percent of all jobs in rural areas are in the informal sector compared to only 21 percent in the metropolitan areas. The distribution of economic activities reveals stark differences between settlement types, with 31 percent of agricultural jobs located in rural areas, and

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retail trade and manufacturing representing the strongest employment areas in the metropolitan areas. Wholesale and retail trade and community, social, and personal services are the largest employment sectors in urban areas.

Monthly income of workers—Over one-third of rural employees earn less than R500 (about US\$75), compared to roughly one-twentieth of metropolitan workers.

Main mode of travel for people who work regularly—For all South Africa, the mode that carries the largest share of commuters is the motor car, accounting for roughly one-third of all commuters. Minibus taxis account for 25 percent of all trips to work, while for 23 percent the main mode is walking. In the rural areas, the most common means of getting to work is walking, with 42.5 percent falling in this category. The provinces that have the largest amount of nonmotorized travel (NMT) are those with the highest rural populations. Public and private transport use is highest in the metropolitan areas. Also, the incidence of early starting times is highest in rural areas, with 40 percent in the rural areas leaving home before 6:30 A.M.

Thus, based on the National Household Survey, the rural areas, where 53.3 percent of the women live, are more negatively affected by the lack of simple and affordable transport. While the DOT has acknowledged the role of transport in economic growth and social development, it is not evident that it has acknowledged that a direct relationship exists between poverty, rural areas, transport, and gender. There have been, however, recent conferences and workshops that have focused on aspects of transport that affect women directly. One such conference was the First International African Conference on Gender, Transport and Development held in Port Elizabeth, South Africa, from August 27–30, 2006. At this conference, the relationship between poverty and transport was discussed and participants received a commissioned study from the South African National Roads Agency Limited, an agency within the DOT.

1.13.2 Rural Women and Transport

The focus of the Gender, Transport, and Development August 2006 Conference sought to clarify the relationship between poverty and transport, a relationship that has not received a great deal of attention by development planners and researchers. The report explains, “As the primary poverty individuals in society, women have often been left out of the equation when poverty programs are created.” The report specifically emphasizes how the transport issue affects men and women differently and that women in the rural areas carry a heavier burden (Potgieter, Pillay, and Rama, 2006).

As a commissioned study, *Women, Development and Transport* focuses on the situation of women in the Eastern Cape as one of the poorest and least researched provinces in South Africa. Emerging literature resources have confirmed the following findings that in many cases were also confirmed in the

Rural Eastern Cape Study. Some of the findings quoted in the publication include the following:

- Until recently, few transport plans and projects explicated the issue of gender. In fiscal 1997, just 4 percent of the World Bank transport projects included a gender component or gender actions. Compare this with 15 percent for water supply projects, 35 percent for agriculture, 44 percent for education, and 67 percent for population, health, and nutrition. The Bank's transport sector policy review concluded that to date, transport policies have been geared primarily to the needs of men (World Bank, 1996).
- Transport is a key factor for economic and social development. The movement of goods and people over any distance by any possible means facilitates the use of facilities, such as those for health, education, social services, and markets (Rama, 1999).
- Men and women have different economic and sociocultural roles and responsibilities; consequently they have different travel and transport needs (Bamberger, 2000).
- Women's employment, as opposed to men's employment, is undertaken in the context of and in combination with a complex set of domestic and household responsibilities and therefore women are more likely to make multipurpose journeys to scattered locations (Grieco, Picupu, and Whipp, 1989). These trips relate to employment, household/family, and personal needs and demands (Turner, Apt, Grieco, and Kwayke, n.d.).
- Transport planning focuses on the single-purpose and predominantly male journey to work, thereby not adequately capturing the travel needs and patterns of women in both urban and rural contexts (Turner, Apt, Grieco, and Kwayke, n.d.).
- The absence of or lack of awareness of the gendered patterns of travel and of time and task use in planning and policy development can contribute toward reduction in women's economic and social productivity, their access to public services, and their political and community participation.
- Rural women and girls spend all, if not most, of their time and energy on routine domestic tasks, which involve head loading and carrying children often in unsafe environments. Women had much higher participation rates for the trip-generating household chores/work (Mehretu and Mutambira, 1992).
- The unacceptably higher levels of household tasks by women, as opposed to men, contribute to what has been termed *time poverty*, that is, time spent walking long distances to collect water and wood instead of time spent on community participation, accessing healthcare, participating in economic activities, or attending educational institutions. This is a major contributing variable to the feminization of poverty.

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- Another aspect contributing to women's time poverty is the mode of travel utilized. Rural people depend largely on NMT. The ownership of motorized private and public modes of travel are limited in rural areas (Maganya, 1997). The main mode of travel in rural areas is walking.

These findings cited above have specific implications for gender-equity policies and strategies that might be developed by the DOT. The plight of rural people has been highlighted by numerous policy studies, and considerable public awareness has been created by the media. Whereas 50 percent of the population of South Africa is rural, the rural areas contain 72 percent of those members of the total population who are poor (Department of Transport, 2003, p. vi). Statistics South Africa's 2003 midyear estimates indicated that 52.3 percent of the South African population is female, while 53.3 percent of the rural survey were female (Department of Transport, 2005a).

In comparison with urban counterparts, rural people have vastly inferior access to basic social services and the economic mainstream. Thus, the delivery of rural transport infrastructure and services can be a significant catalyst for sustainable economic development, improved social access, and poverty alleviation in South Africa's rural areas. Because rural areas comprise over 50 percent female population, this study focuses on these areas because there is no specific gender policy for the DOT with programs and indicators for performance.

The delivery of rural transport infrastructure and services includes the following main categories (Department of Transport, 2003, p. vi):

- Rural transport infrastructure: access roads, district roads, public transport interchanges, tracks and other NMT infrastructure, which are directly or indirectly involving communities and creating local construction-related jobs;
- Village level and intrafarm transportation where communities, particularly women and farmers themselves, provide transport services that involve headloading, as well as the use of NMT and intermediate means of transport;
- Rural passenger and small-volume freight transport services to and from deep rural areas;
- Passenger transport services along the main connector routes;
- Special needs transportation services to address the needs of persons with disabilities, the elderly, trauma and nonemergency patients, students, and tourists; and
- Bulk freight transportation to and from processing plants, distribution centers, markets, and suppliers provided mainly by commercial producers and transport operators.

1.13.3 Legislative and Policy Frameworks

A second task of any gender-budgeting analysis is to determine if the sector has devised policies and programs to address the situation of women. DOT is in the process of implementing a number of policies and programs that address the situation of women.

The national rural transport strategy encompasses the rural transport component of the National Land Transport Strategic Framework, which in turn is a legal requirement in terms of Clause 21 of the National Land Transport Transition Act of 2000. Essentially, the rural transport strategy maps out sustainable programs of action for the short, medium, and long term, whereas the National Land Transport Strategic Framework (NLTSF) is only focused on the next five years. The Framework gives guidance on transport planning and land transport delivery by national government, provinces, and municipalities for this five-year period (Department of Transport, 2002).

The rural transport strategies are aligned with the following relevant acts, policies, strategic frameworks, programs, and their related requirements:

- The Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme, which is aimed at the coordinated delivery of integrated bundles of services and anchor development projects in terms of a prioritized set of rural development nodes;
- The requirement of the Integrated Development Planning as set out in the Municipal Structures Act;
- The government's main social and economic development programs, like the Poverty Alleviation Programme, the Expanded Public Works Programme, Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development Programme, Environment and Tourism Framework, the Local Economic Development Programme, the Social Development Programmes, and the Freight Transport Programme;
- The 1996 White Paper on National Transport Policy, which among others, has established the principle of a user-focused transport system and the need to prioritize public over private transport; and
- The Road Infrastructure Strategic Framework, as well as the Provincial Land Transport Frameworks that are currently being developed in all of the provinces.

1.13.4 Strategic Challenges that Create Gender Gaps

The Rural Transport Strategy notes that there are various challenges that have caused gaps in the participation of rural residents, over half of which are women. One of the key challenges is to overcome the big jump in access opportunities from the village and its ubiquitous stores or local schools to the nearest town

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center. This problem affects economic access to markets (the economic mainstream) as well as access to education and social services. There is a need to develop viable transportation services from the village to the nearest multipurpose center or market.

A second set of challenges that has limited participation concerns the need to increase the overall level and transform the pattern of investment in rural transport infrastructure and services. Besides general transport infrastructure and services, linkage infrastructure and services should include student-transport and various other sector-specific transport services to address special needs, NMT infrastructure and services, as well as rural freight and postal services, rural logistical services, and the full range of information and communication technologies services. There is also the need to develop appropriate regulatory mechanisms to ensure compliance with the road safety standards and licensing regulations that apply to minibuses and other normal public transport services.

Another set of main challenges concerns institutional arrangements; in particular, how to redress the overly complex and uncoordinated rural roads planning and procurement process that is the result of the current multitude of roads-procuring agencies and funding sources. There are existing technical and managerial weaknesses in most rural district councils.

The final strategic challenge relates to capacity building and monitoring. The ability of a province or local authority to chart and maintain a sustainable development agenda is predicated upon the capacity of its people, its institutions, and its resources. There is an absence of a critical mass of the requisite skills and methodological approaches at the various levels of the decentralized system, which necessitates the development of implementation of massive capacity initiatives. For provincial and local authorities, leadership is decisive and learning is capital.

1.14 Rural Transport Strategy

The Rural Transport Strategy maps out sustainable programs of action for the short, medium, and long term (that is, up to twenty years) for rural transport infrastructure and services. Besides the general transport infrastructure and services, and linkage infrastructure and services, the strategy includes student transport, primarily of schoolchildren, and various other sector-specific transport services to address special needs; NMT infrastructure and services; rural freight and postal services; rural logistical services; and the full range of services based on information and communication technologies (Department of Transport, 2005a).

The main operational aims and rationale of the national rural transport strategy are to achieve improved strategic guidance and coordination both within

the transport sector and within the broader cluster of key rural services delivery sectors, and to facilitate accelerated service delivery in neglected geographical and functional areas.

1.14.1 Programs and Actions

It is accepted that the delivery of most rural transport infrastructure and services will increasingly be a local government responsibility, funded through consolidated capital grants, the equitable share mechanisms, and transfers of monies in terms of the National Land Transport Transition Act. Although some provinces may still have a strong direct delivery role in the short to medium term, the long term focus of all provinces—together with that of the national sphere—will be on the facilitation, coordination, and strengthening of service delivery. Gender issues will need to be carefully identified.

To ensure coherence and facilitate easy reference, the strategic actions have been grouped into the following action areas:

- Alignment with the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Programme and related initiatives;
- High-leverage rural transport infrastructure and programs, rural transport services, and the promotion of NMT and intermediate transport;
- Regulation and safety; and
- Capacity building and monitoring.

One of the reasons for transport being important for the development of women in rural areas is that it has an impact on women's access to health services, educational facilities, employment, and participating in key decision-making forums (Department of Transport, 2003, p. 6). Transport can improve the lives of women by reducing the amount of time they spend on household activities.

The DOT's draft document on Rural Transport Strategy for South Africa states there also needs to be greater awareness of neglected rural access needs—especially those of women, the poor, and the disadvantaged (Department of Transport, 2003). It is also recognized that the needs of rural women have in the past not been taken into account when the document succinctly states that the delivery of rural transport infrastructure and services in South Africa has been characterized by a bias toward roads, motorized transport, and male-defined travel needs and the corresponding relative neglect of off-road infrastructure, like paths and tracks, NMT modes (such as bicycles and donkeys), and the access needs of women and people with disabilities. NMT is the primary mode of transport for women.

This document has a clear commitment to the development of infrastructure for NMT and a section on capacity building that commits to “community

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participation and mainstreaming of women and youth in all aspects of rural transport provision” (Department of Transport, 2003). These are important realizations for DOT and indicate an awareness of the need to promote gender equity within its strategies and policies. The Rural Transport Strategy acknowledges that rural South Africa is characterized by poor infrastructure, large distances, dispersed demand, and low incomes. Because of this and historical backlogs in service delivery, rural people also have poor access to basic social services and the economic mainstream. These recognitions are extremely important for gender-budgeting processes.

1.15 2007 Public Transport Policy

Approved by the Cabinet in 2007, the Public Transport Policy involves two key thrusts that are important for gender considerations:

- Accelerated Modal Upgrading, which refers to initiatives to transform bus, taxi, and rail service delivery in the short-term; and
- In the medium-term, integrated rapid public transport networks that focus on implementing high-quality Phase I networks of rail priority corridors and bus rapid transit corridors, especially in six metropolitan cities (Department of Transport, 2007).

The Policy’s vision is that these thrusts are the mobility wave of the future and are the only viable option that can ensure sustainable, equitable, and uncongested mobility in livable cities and districts. The phased implementation of integrated rapid public transport networks will aim to have operating systems in place in twelve cities and at least six rural districts by 2014. The longer term vision up to 2020 is to develop a system that places over 85 percent of a metropolitan city’s population within one kilometer of an integrated network (road or rail) or feeder corridor.

According to the 2007 Public Transport Strategy, NMT networks (the primary mode of transportation for rural poor, thus, women) will entail walking and cycling networks that align with the public transport networks that will create a wider range of sustainable mobility options for shorter trips. The legacy will be the roll-out of at least 100 kilometers of high-quality dedicated walkways and cycleways in eighteen cities and districts by 2014 (Department of Transport, 2007, p. 7). It is specifically indicated that rural district public transport networks will entail full-scale planned and contracted periodic public transport services that are scheduled and the roll-out of large-scale walking and cycling infrastructure and services in smaller urban and rural districts.

The Public Transport Strategy concludes that achieving the legacy will require a municipality acting as a network authority that procures the required public transport infrastructure, including dedicated road space, dignified public space, good pedestrian and bicycle access, good park and ride facilities for car

users, high-quality stations, stops interchanges, terminals, and depots. In terms of funding, it has been indicated that DOT will need to make a strong evidence-based case for sustained government funding in time for the 2008-09 Medium-Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF) cycle.

Advocacy groups will need to carefully analyze parts of the Public Transport Policy strategies to ensure that women are the beneficiaries. That rural areas are included in the study may not be enough to ensure that policies are not affecting primarily men.

1.16 National Land Transport Strategy Framework

The National Land Transport Transition Act states in Clause 21(3) that the NLTSF “must set out national policy with respect to land transport,” which is highly significant for gender considerations.

Specifically as related to rural areas where 72 percent of the nation’s poor reside and 53 percent of females reside, the framework acknowledges that communities in rural South Africa are often isolated, inaccessible, and immobile, all of which begets poverty of ideas and opportunities. As a result, mobility and accessibility are purchased at a high social and economic cost (Department of Transport, 2002, p. 20). The framework explains that inadequacies of the rural transport sector have had the effect of limiting the participation of developing communities in the formal economic sector. Given the national government’s stated commitment to uplifting the material conditions of rural communities, the need to improve transport efficiency and sustainability by way of policy and institutional reform, as well as to identify and prioritize measures to streamline the planning, design, and appraisal of transport investments within the ambit of the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy, cannot be overemphasized.

In examining the Integrated Sustainable Rural Development Strategy that will be provided with improved transport infrastructure and services, it is found that they do relate to a concern for gender participation. These would include the incorporation of rural transport interventions, measures to strengthen the integration of transport plans, development of rural access roads, and special rural transport initiatives focusing on intermediate means of transport using appropriate technology (Department of Transport, 2002, p. 21). Also identified is the infrastructure for NMT, including improved paths and tracks, as well as bicycle supply depots. Animal-drawn carts and other low-technology transport solutions will be promoted, with the aim of improving the mobility of vulnerable groups.

Critical to the implementation of the framework is that capacity building will be implemented and tools will be provided for rural transport planning, implementation, and auditing. These measures will include the DOT in the following activities:

- Dissemination of requirements, guidelines, and planning-support tools for rural transport planning;

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- Capacity building for integrated rural access planning among the municipalities and consultants responsible for service delivery;
- Nurturing of small, medium, and microenterprises in the rural transport sector, particularly new entrants from previously disadvantaged communities;
- A rural transport development program as a support mechanism for the rural transport strategy; and
- Promotion of various labor-intensive methods as part of the rural transport development program to facilitate job creation and poverty reduction.

Pilot projects will be launched in rural areas to test solutions and develop a rural accessibility strategy.

1.17 National Key Performance Indicators

The DOT will use key performance indicators (KPIs) to help monitor progress in the implementation of key policies for land transport in the national, provincial and local spheres. Two types of KPIs are identified:

1. *Customer-based indicators*—these measure the performance of the land transport system from the customer's point of view; and
2. *NLTSF-based indicators*—these measure the progress of the national and provincial DOTs and local authorities in implementing the strategies contained in the NLTSF.

In line with the priorities as set out in this framework, these indicators will concentrate on the priority areas of promotion of public transport usage, promotion of access to public transport, and traffic safety.

NLTSF will publish performance results for the preceding years to show how historical trends and recent achievements have been integrated into new strategies. Each provincial DOT will be required to report on the national KPIs for its province (where appropriate), as stated in the Provincial Land Transport Framework, and to submit such a report to the minister by the date determined by the minister.

1.18 Funding Transport Initiatives

A third very important process involved in any gender-budgeting process is to determine if the department has allocated adequate funding to implement the gender-sensitive policies and programs.

The NLTSF states that the DOT is committed to detailed programming of the strategies and actions of the NLTSF as part of its budgeting and planning

processes as required by the Public Finance Management Act (Department of Transport, 2002, p. 42–43). The DOT is further committed to the funding of the nationally driven components of the NLTSF through its existing budgets and leveraging additional sources from Treasury. In cases where funding is allocated via the national DOT to provinces, municipalities, and transport authorities, conditions for the use of the funds can be set by the national DOT in accordance with the requirements of the National Land Transport Transition Act 22 of 2000. The following guidelines can assist planning authorities with the funding of transport plans:

- Authorities at the national and provincial level, as well as municipalities and transport authorities, should link programs arising from their transport plans to their budget planning.
- New and additional programs and outputs arising from the transport plans for a given financial year should be justified with specific outputs and costs.
- Where additional funds are required, authorities should explore options for public-private partnerships so that implementation of the transport plans is not delayed.

1.19 Department of Transport's Budget Vote 2007

Because gender is not disaggregated within budget processes, it is very difficult to analyze the budget of the departments without having a more intimate knowledge of the budgeting process at the national department and provincial levels. Nonetheless, a number of gender-budgeting issues were addressed by DOT officials.

That transport plays an important role in the South African economy was emphasized most recently by the DOT in October 2007. Director-General Mpumi Mopho reiterated, "In South Africa, the transport sector plays a crucial role in economic development and generates over 10 percent of the country's GDP, which is over US\$10 billion, and over 150,000 people are employed in the road, rail, marine, and aviation sectors" (Mopho, 2007).

In his parliamentary address during his 2007 Budget Vote speech, M.P. Radebe, minister of transport, reiterated South Africa's impressive acceleration of economic growth while maintaining that South Africa continues to face major social challenges of widespread unemployment, poverty, and service delivery at the local level (Radebe, 2007). Noting the role of transport, he continued, "Strategic interventions in all sectors of the economy are required and development in transport infrastructure and services is fundamental in meeting the country's objectives of sustained economic growth, increased investment, job creation, and poverty alleviation. Public transport's role during the MTEF period will be that our public transport system will aim to radically change the

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lives of our people for the better, to similar and at par with what other societies take much for granted.”

Minister Radebe believes that with the Cabinet’s approval of the Public Transport Strategy and Action Plan, South Africa will be able to create a lasting legacy and a better life for all and will continue to focus on the marginalized rural communities and the urban poor. Therefore, he concluded, the 2007 “budget reflects the collective effort as a nation to transform our transport system to a more efficient and sustainable medium that supports growth, equitable access to opportunities, and development. As you are aware, practice is the only criterion of truth. It is through practical action that Transport will become the Heartbeat of economic and social development, deliver jobs, and shared growth.”

While several program purposes are proposed, there are several that would be of particular significance for gender budgeting. Radebe has called for allocations for transport policy, research, and economic analysis to effectively manage a national innovative research and development program, develop and analyze strategic policies, develop appropriate legislation, and provide economic advice and analysis for all modes of transport. This is an area where civil society can push for more gender-specific research and analysis so that one can see where the gaps are, particularly in terms of women and children.

Other programs that have particular significance for gender budgeting would be the integrated planning and intersphere coordination that would be necessary for management and facilitation of transport infrastructure and operations. The program for public transport is important because it would develop the practices and norms that will increase access to appropriate and quality public transport that meets the needs of both rural and urban passengers. The Public Entity Oversight and Economic Regulation Programme is also very critical for the gender-budgeting processes because it would develop appropriate mandates and monitoring mechanisms for public entities, developing and overseeing transport economic regulation in line with broad economic and transport policies. The challenge is to ensure that gender receives attention on the implementation of these policies.

These programs are included in the Budget Vote Presentation as the 2007 Estimates of National Expenditure. The stated mission of the DOT is to lead the development of integrated, efficient transport systems by creating a framework of sustainable policies, regulations, and viable models to support government strategies for economic and social development. Thus, the GFP for the department needs to understand and be trained in how to mainstream gender into the mission statement, its policies and strategies, and monitoring and evaluations mechanisms.

Transport is important to South Africa’s development and its ability to meet its requirements and obligations under national and international instruments. Because the recent strong growth in the South African economy has led to a

greater need for transport capacity, the department has developed strategies to address the need for safe, reliable, and affordable public transport. Critical action requires substantial attention to gender in the implementation of these strategies.

1.20 Monitoring Activities Within the Department of Transport

GFPs were assigned the specific task of monitoring policies and programs to determine if the national departments were reaching their targets of gender mainstreaming. As mentioned in the first part of this case study, GFPs within government departments were established to carry out functions in support of gender mainstreaming policies and programs in their respective departments. Essentially, GFPs are described most frequently as the gender desks/units in national and provincial government departments. Significantly, GFPs are responsible for all of the mainstreaming and monitoring of national policies and legislation and are located at both the national and provincial levels. Most national and provincial government departments have now established GFPs, but they remain ineffective and require training not only in gender awareness, but in most of the skill areas they were assigned to perform. The monitoring functions of the GFPs are to (Office on the Status of Women, 2000, p. 28):

- Ensure that gender issues are routinely considered in strategic planning exercises;
- Reflect gender considerations in departmental business plans and routinely report on them;
- Review all policies, projects, and programs for their gender implications;
- Ensure that the department provides and uses gender disaggregated data in its work;
- Coordinate gender training and education of all staff within departments to ensure that gender is integrated into all aspects of the work from the outset;
- Review departmental policy and planning in line with the National Gender Policy Framework;
- Ensure that each department implements the National Gender Policy;
- Monitor and evaluate departmental projects and programs; and
- Establish mechanisms to link up with civil society, in particular, to facilitate electoral organizations in the areas of their work.

An address by E. G. Pahad, minister in the presidency, speaking in August 2007 at the high-level roundtable on Gender Mainstreaming in the Public Service, raised the primary question: Are we really in full compliance with the requirement of our institutional mechanism in all three spheres of government

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so as to advance gender equality in public service (Pahad, 2007)? Referring to the OSW's role in ensuring mainstreaming of gender in government, he stated, "while the NGM has to provide the mechanisms through which women exercise policy influence with regard to women's interests and ensure women's participation in decision making, gender mainstreaming as a strategy for realizing gender quality rests with all officials in the public sector." While agreeing that great strides had been taken toward creating an enabling environment for the advancement of women's empowerment and gender equality, Pahad argued that "the lack of skills, lack of know-how, and lack of an integrated coordination framework with clear lines of communication and accountability have rendered the gender agenda ineffectual as we continually experience challenges with respect to implementation and monitoring and evaluation of gender programs." Pahad noted the findings of the 2006 Public Service Commission Audit as follows:

- There is a general lack of knowledge and understanding of gender concepts and gender mainstreaming in most departments and across all levels with the result that senior management does not know how to move from policy to strategy to action.
- Women with disabilities are not adequately represented at senior management service levels.
- In seven of the provinces, no women with disabilities are employed in the senior management service.
- In general, the empowerment of women is not occurring in any significant way.
- There is a lack of a clearly defined institutional framework necessary to drive the vision of gender equality.
- The environment, in general, is not enabling for the empowerment of women.

Pahad concluded, "All the evidence points to one important reality: compliance is sporadic; it is strong in some areas and woeful in others. The corollary is that compliance as well as effective monitoring and evaluation need to be strengthened. In an era when we continually talk of accelerating skills shortages and the lack of capacity, we must take responsibility to break down the steel doors that prevent the entry of women as equals into the labor market and we must break down the glass ceilings that inhibit their upward mobility within our political and administrative structure." Also instructive are his comments on the way forward. He stated, "We need as a government to speed up our training, mentoring, and coaching of women in the public sector whom we identify as potential future senior managers. This is an important part of the empowerment of women in the public service, an integral component of career planning and ensuring that we remain an employer of first choice for women, and is an important part of meeting both our national and our international commitments and obligations."

In an interview with the GFP within the DOT (Althea Belford and Marlon Ronals, 2 April 2007, Pretoria), it was confirmed that most of the findings of the June 2006 rapid survey of government departments were found to be existing, including that the GFP was also responsible for issues pertaining to child rights, AIDS/HIV, and youth; she was not appointed at the director level; and she did not report directly to the director-general.

More specifically, the DOT GFP confirmed the following:¹³

- There is no involvement of the GFP in preparing the budget.
- Last year, special programs received no funding and funding for capacity development was used mainly for events like Women's Day.
- There is some coordination of projects with other departments, especially water affairs and forestry, and establishing working teams.
- The South African Women in Transport Network Business Plan has been presented to the director-general for approval.
- A gender audit within the department was scheduled to be completed in July 2007; the action plan is currently being developed.
- There are women's discussion sessions that focus on gender equity; three sessions have already taken place.
- Gender mainstreaming courses for GFPs are needed as well as transport-related courses, training, and mentorship.
- There is a need to better understand how to analyze the gaps in gender.
- Help is also needed in business management training.
- Key participants in any kind of training should be government officials, especially financial officers.

1.21 Department of Transport Gender-Sensitive Programs

1.21.1 South African Network of Women in Transport

Launched in August 2007, the South African Network of Women in Transport (SANWIT) is a national network organization that facilitates and monitors the socioeconomic advancement of women and their positive impact on the country's economy in the context of the transport sector. As a support mechanism for the success and growth of women-owned and -managed enterprises by ensuring their access to relevant resources and support, SANWIT targets all women entrepreneurs in the transport sector throughout South Africa. Special attention will be given to integrating rural-based women, youth, and people with disabilities (South African Network for Women in Transport, 2007).

SANWIT plans to become self-funding within a five-year period (the project period). Some attention will also be given to incorporating larger and financially stronger companies into the membership as well. This includes the range of large- and medium-sized companies that are situated in South Africa's

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large urban centers, most notably Johannesburg, Pretoria, Cape Town, and Durban. The establishment of SANWIT is a response to the fact that women entrepreneurs in South Africa continuously face a wide array of obstacles and barriers in their business operations. The SANWIT concept will provide women entrepreneurs with solutions to these challenges by addressing the constraining factors. According to the August 2005 meeting, the wide range of problems cited included: a male-dominated transport environment with the nature of operations against women; victimization and discrimination against women; insufficient funding for training of women; lack of facilities that will build knowledge of the industry; women's lack of confidence; skills shortage among women; lack of funds and access to assets; nonconducive working environment for women; balancing responsibilities (i.e., home and work; culture, traditions, and socialization); men's insecurities; and the AIDS/HIV pandemic. All of these impact on women's participation. SANWIT's goal of encouraging women to enter and succeed in the transport industry includes the following objectives:

- Adding to the body of knowledge and guiding best practices through research and development on the women-related issues;
- Promoting empowerment training and skills transfer;
- Providing coaching and mentorship; and
- Providing a central reference point for publications and experiences.

SANWIT's delivery mechanism includes delivery of services to its target market through members, local enterprise development structures, and organizations, thereby improving upon local capacity for service delivery to women entrepreneurs in the transport sector.

1.21.2 *Nonmotorized Transport and Intermediate Means of Transport—Low-cost Sustainable Transport Options*

There is minimal usage of nonmotorized transport (NMT) as most people depend on motorized transport. Until recently, NMT has been at the bottom of the transportation system agenda and priorities. However, there has been growing realization that one key element and potential area of improvement of mobility is the use of NMT systems, which provide low-cost, healthy, and optimum utilization of space, while reducing externalities associated with transportation.

The challenge is to change the mind-set of people on the use of NMT. To succeed in making NMT an attractive and viable mode of transport, DOT is considering a number of interventions that are necessary to transform the mind-sets and the priorities in the planning, design, operation, and marketing of the transport systems. NMT is included in DOT's draft Rural Transport Strategy, which guides the delivery of rural transport infrastructure and services. The Rural Transport Strategy guides the movement of persons and goods (includ-

ing female-dominant tasks such as the collection of water or firewood), by any conceivable means and on various types of infrastructure, which includes unproclaimed roads, tracks, and footpaths. This implies that the mode of travel does not necessarily need to be motorized or conventional, but should be cost-effective, suited to the communities' needs and suitable for the environment. A variety of modes have to be considered during rural transport planning and service delivery.

From February 22 to 23, 2007, DOT hosted a Non-Motorised Transport and Intermediate Means of Transport Conference and Exhibition as part of the short-term quick-win strategies detailed in the department's strategic plan for 2006 to 2009.

The theme of the conference was: "Expanding the boundaries of non-motorized and intermediate means of transport for sustainable livelihoods." NMT experts from South Africa, the Netherlands, India, Brazil, and North America gave presentations on NMT policy, strategy, traffic legislation, road safety, infrastructure and planning, intermodalism, the efforts of NGOs and private enterprise in developing cycling, NMT and the 2010 Soccer World Cup, and the developing of NMT prototypes.

Shova Kalula Bicycle Program. The objective of the Shova Kalula (Ride Easy) program, which was implemented as a pilot program in 2001, is to promote and maximize the use of NMT to enable communities to access social and economic opportunities at a lower cost. Shova Kalula also aims to create an enabling environment that will mainstream bicycle transport into the public transport system through the provision of institutional support mechanisms. The main focus of this project is to promote cycling as a low-cost mobility solution to low-income households, targeting mainly students, women, and farm workers.

DOT's role in Shova Kalula is to oversee the implementation of the project and focus on the development of a long-term sustainable NMT strategy and policy formulation. DOT's budget for the program is sometimes augmented by provincial budgets. Provinces draft business plans for the distribution of bicycles and the setting up of cycle shops and enter into agreements with municipalities. DOT procures the bicycles and sends them to the provinces, as per the approved business plans.

The Shova Kalula project implementation is now in phase 4 and has a target of rolling out 1 million bicycles countrywide by 2010. This delivery target is in line with the resolution and action plan of the African Ministers' Transport Summit held in Addis Ababa in 2005. This meeting agreed to a range of targets that countries must meet by 2010 in line with the Millennium Goals of the United Nations. These targets include, among other things, the need to provide safe, affordable, and reliable transport to learners and schoolchildren in rural and urban areas. In practical terms, this includes the construction of ded-

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icated bicycle pathways and safety education for cyclists as well as the promotion and rollout of bicycles. Partnerships with private sector and civil society are being developed to promote cycling and rollout of bicycles.

To reach this target of 1 million bicycles to be rolled out by 2010, the DOT's strategic plan for 2007–2010 sets out the following targets for the distribution of bicycles:

- 60,000 bicycles during the 2007/08 financial year;
- 200,000 bicycles during the 2008/09 financial year; and
- 500,000 bicycles during the 2009/10 financial year.

The 10-year Shova Kalula plan for the rollout of the 1 million bicycles includes criteria for the selection of beneficiaries for bicycles and the monitoring and evaluation framework. The plan will be available on the website soon.

Animal-drawn carts. DOT is piloting the use of animal-drawn carts as a transport solution in deep-rural areas, where there are hardly any motorized vehicles, very little transport infrastructure, and people cannot afford to make use of motorized public transport where these are available.

Because this country still lacks appropriate and sustainable NMT designs in accordance with engineering, technical, and environmentally approved standards, DOT participated in the two-week workshop in the North West province hosted by the Design Institute of South Africa, a subdivision of the South African Bureau of Standards. During the workshop, entitled “Inter-design 2005—Sustainable Rural Transport,” international and local industrial designers participated in the design of donkey carts and bicycles. DOT is financing the development of workable prototypes for these designs, which have the potential of being manufactured or at least assembled within the local rural communities.

One of the options being considered for the manufacturing of animal-drawn carts is the Kgalakgadi model, where members of the community build the carts themselves and thus stimulate the local economy via the manufacturing process.

Intermediate means of transport. The National Road Traffic Act does not allow for the use of pedal cycles that are powered by anything but human pedaling. DOT is considering introducing standards to allow for bicycles that are powered by electricity as well. The current definition of motor vehicles in the Act includes electric cycles and requires that they comply with other specifications that are applicable to motor vehicles.

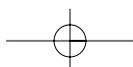
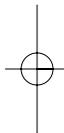
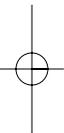
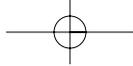
Pilot projects to make motorcycling safer, while increasing the awareness of electric cycles once the standards have been introduced, are also being considered.

1.22 Recommendations

It is very evident that some of the policies and programs being implemented within the DOT have the potential to benefit women and children. Nonetheless, without a specific gender policy and action plan to address the situation of women in transport, there is the risk that billions of funds will go into developing infrastructure and services that will only marginally affect women and therefore not contribute to the nation's goal of eradicating poverty. The challenge is to ensure that DOT does recognize that the existing transport system affects women differently from men and that their priorities and needs are different. Without a policy and plan to ensure gender equality in transport, the gender gap could very well widen.

Therefore, the primary recommendations are as follows:

- DOT seeks, with a deep sense of urgency and decisiveness, to develop, implement, and fund an NGP for Transport that follows the guidelines laid down in the South African National Policy Framework for Women's Empowerment and Gender Equality. National performance indicators should be aligned with the NGP, including the requirement for gender disaggregated data.
- DOT establishes, implements, and ensures adequate funding for GFPs within national and provincial transport offices to ensure the effective implementation and monitoring of its policies and programs. There is no evidence that the DOT participated in the audit conducted by the Parliamentary JMC's 2003 audit of GFPs.
- DOT makes every effort to engage civil society in all aspects of its operation, especially policy formulation, program development, and monitoring and evaluation. The newly launched SANWIT should incorporate not only the private sector objectives, but attempt to include a broader range of NGOs as well.



2

The Ugandan Model

2.1 Historical Background

Work on gender budgeting was spearheaded by civil society organizations (CSOs) in Uganda in the early 1990s. The Forum for Women in Democracy (FOWODE) and the Uganda Debt Network (UDN) took on the work of analyzing existing budgets and advocating for the government to take action. The UDN was primarily concerned with government spending on the poor and with monitoring the poverty action fund, an instrument for reducing poverty in certain areas. Uganda's approach was to introduce specific budget lines that focused on reducing poverty into the national budget. Monitoring by CSOs kept the government on track.

Uganda is among the countries that have been hailed for having a gender-sensitive constitution and policies, especially the National Gender Policy (NGP) and Poverty Eradication Action Plan (PEAP), which were first formulated between 1997 and 1998, respectively. Since 1999, FOWODE, a nongovernmental organization (NGO) has been at the forefront of lobbying government to translate gender-sensitive policies into gender-sensitive budgets by introducing a gender budget program. This work was inspired by the work of Institute for Democracy in South Africa (IDASA), the Community Agency for Social Inquiry (CASE), and the Women's Budget Initiative (WBI). The Commonwealth Secretariat also produced a gender-budgeting tool that informed gender-budgeting work in Uganda.

During the poverty reduction strategies (PRSP)/PEAP revision process in 2004, the linkages between poverty and gender became a focus of discussion. A group of gender analysts and advocates from various government ministries and CSOs formed the PRSP/PEAP Gender team. The team conducted several studies to show the links between gender and poverty and the role of gender in economic growth. The results of those studies revealed the following (Ssewakiryanga, 2006):

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- *Gender is the number one poverty issue*—There was quantitative evidence of households headed by women that showed they were poorer than households headed by men. Divorced, widowed, and married female-headed households were more prone to being poor at one point in time, with divorced female-headed households more likely to move into poverty and female-headed households more likely to be chronically poor.
- *Gender poverty impacts development*—Differences in gender roles and capacities constitute a major obstacle to development and the eradication of poverty.
- *Gender poverty impacts growth*—Gender inequality affects growth, output, and productivity, especially in agriculture. In Uganda 80 percent of the population is occupied in the agriculture sector. Evidence emerged that men and women face entirely different incentives as economic producers, depending on who controls the income. When there is a market for a food crop that was previously grown for household consumption, control over the disposal of that crop passes from women's hands to men's hands.

These studies proved to be very important in terms of influence on the government's policymaking processes and why it is so important that gender budgeting presents high-quality data. The evidence came out of the government's own analysis and was consequently not interrogated for its credibility. The data used was the data routinely used by government. Even though there were limitations because the data instrument used was not attuned to a gender analysis, the findings were critical because they made it clear that there was a need to focus on gender and poverty.

FOWODE's approach was a three-step process:

- Imparting skills and techniques of gender budgeting to selected government officials;
- Conducting after-fact gender analysis of government budgets of selected priority sectors and local governments; and
- Publishing easy-to-read, gender-analyzed information called Issue Briefs.

In 2002, the East African Gender Budget Network (EAGEBN) was formed under the guidance of FOWODE. It comprises civil society members from Kenya, Tanzania, Burundi, Rwanda, Eritrea, Ethiopia, and Uganda. It was formed to "ensure that the design, implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of local and national poverty reduction strategies (PRSP), macroeconomic policies, and budgets of member countries were gender responsive" (FOWODE, 2005, p. 7).

At about the same time, Uganda formed a PEAP Gender Team comprising government officials, donor representatives, and NGOs. The team's main role has been to ensure that gender, which is identified as a cross-cutting issue in

the PEAP, is mainstreamed in all government policies and programs. One of its main outputs has been the *Manual for Facilitators: How to prepare a Budget Framework paper that addresses gender and equity issues*. The PEAP Gen-

Box 2.1 Demographic and Socioeconomic Data

General

- Women comprise 51 percent of the estimated 28 million Ugandans.
- Mean age at first marriage is 24.1 years for men and 19.9 for women.
- Only 7 percent of women are owners of registered land.
- The percentage of women in parliament and local councils is 30 percent.

Health

- Percentage of households within 5 km of a health center is 70 percent for rural areas and 96 percent for urban areas.
- Fertility rates are 6.7 children per woman differentiated by area as 7.1 for rural and 4.4 for urban.
- Comprehensive knowledge of AIDS/HIV is 31 percent for women and 42 percent for men.
- Sexual intercourse by age fifteen is 16 percent for girls and 12 percent for boys.
- Women in the fifteen to forty-nine age group who have experienced physical violence is 60 percent.
- Women in the fifteen to forty-nine age group who have experienced sexual violence is 39 percent.
- Women in the fifteen to forty-nine age group who have experienced violence during pregnancy is 16 percent.
- Mothers and infants who have received antenatal care from a skilled health worker is 94 percent.
- Infants who have been delivered by a skilled health worker is 42 percent.

Education and Literacy

- Literacy rate for the ten and above age group is 77.4 percent of which women are 62.4 percent.
- Enrollment in primary school is 84 percent for boys and 85 percent for girls.
- Completion of primary school is 42 percent for boys and 33.9 percent for girls.
- Enrollment in secondary school is 23.5 percent for boys and 22.5 percent for girls.

Safe-water Coverage

- Availability of safe water is 63.6 percent for rural areas and 86.8 percent for urban areas.

Source: Republic of Uganda, 2006a and 2002

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der Team has broadened the concept of gender budgeting to include gender and equity budgeting. Its main philosophy is to be proactive by ensuring that budget framework papers (BFPs) cover gender and equity issues. This is different from the reactive approach of analyzing the budgets after the fact.

2.2 Institutional Mechanisms for Gender and Equity in Uganda

The 1995 constitution of Uganda has been hailed as a landmark in the promotion of gender equality and equity (e.g., Mwesigye, 1998; Orach, 2002). Some of the provisions include:

- Equality of women and men before and under the law in all spheres of political, economic, social, and cultural life (Article 21[1]);
- No discrimination on grounds of sex, ethnicity, disability, etc. (Article 21[2]);
- Right to education (Article 30);
- Right to marry and have a family, to equal rights in marriage, and equal rights at dissolution (Article 31[1]); and
- Right to equal pay for equal work, collective bargaining, etc. (Article 40).

More specifically, the constitution provides for full and equal dignity of women; their right to equal treatment with men, including equal opportunities in political, economic, and social activities; the right to affirmative action for purposes of redressing the imbalances created against women by history, tradition, or custom (Article 33[5]); and protection of women during pregnancy and after birth (Article 40[4]).

Pursuant to the above, the constitution obliges the state to establish an Equal Opportunities Commission; to provide the facilities and opportunities necessary to enhance the welfare of women to enable them to realize their full potential and advancement and to protect women and their rights, taking into account their unique status and maternal functions.

Other laws that provide for gender and equity include: The Local Government Act of 1997, which provides for women's representation in political leadership from village to district level in at least one-third of all offices and the Children's Statute 1996 on stability of families. In addition, there are policies government has put in place including the National Gender Policy 1996 and the National Population Policy 1995, which are geared toward eliminating gender imbalances. Others include the Land Act, which, in response to women's unequal access to land and its implication on Ugandan women's lives, aims to provide a legislative framework for equitable ownership of land. In relation to international instruments, Uganda ratified the Convention on Elimination

of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) without reservations in July 1985. CEDAW is perhaps the most comprehensive codified international legal instrument articulating equality between men and women and which sets out the Bill of Rights for Women.

2.3 Legal Constraints

In addition to weaknesses in the implementation of the provisions of the constitution, laws, and policies, however, constraints remain due to inadequacy of the law. In an interview with the principal gender officer in the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development, the major legal constraints include the fact that the Uganda Bureau of Statistics Act does not incorporate the requirement to produce gender-disaggregated data. In gender and equity budgeting, gender-disaggregated data is critical. Another constraint is the Budget Act of 2000, which does not have gender and equity budgeting as a provision. The Ministry of Finance, which currently includes Gender and Equity Budgeting in the Budget Call Circular for the preparation of the budget framework papers and budget estimates for all government cost centers, has done so for the past two fiscal years, but it could easily drop this. The PRSC matrix, which is a set of government undertakings for donor funding, incorporates gender and equity budgeting; however, this is an agreement that can be dropped quickly at the whim of one powerful donor.

2.4 Government Programs and Structures to Support Gender Budgeting

In preparations for the Public Investment Plan 1995, the government of Uganda acknowledged the contribution women make to economic development (Mwesigye, 1998). The Public Investment Plan highlights the strengthening of the Ministry of Gender and Community Development as among its priority objectives so as to make the ministry able to ensure gender-responsive development and equal opportunities for both men and women. In this regard, between 1992 and 1993, the Ministry of Gender and Community Development initiated a review of five sectoral policies to make them more gender sensitive and responsive. These were (1) Local Government; (2) Agriculture; (3) Animal Industry and Fisheries; (4) Trade, Commerce and Industry; (5) Natural Resources; and Planning and Economic Development. (Note that the names of most of the ministries have since changed.)

The sector plans, however, mainly considered “mere inclusion of women” without addressing structural constraints. To redress this, an NGP was formulated to guide and direct the planning, resource allocation, and implementation of development programs with a gender perspective at all levels of government. The objectives of the NGP include:

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- Providing policymakers and other key actors in the development arena guidelines for identifying and addressing gender concerns in policy and decision making;
- Identifying and establishing an institutional framework with a mandate to initiate, coordinate, implement, monitor, and evaluate national gender-responsive development plans;
- Ensuring the participation of both men and women at all levels of government;
- Promoting equal access to and control over economically significant resources and benefits; and
- Promoting the recognition and valuation of women's roles and contributions to development.

In 2002 the PEAP Gender Team and Poverty Eradication Working Group were formed with full participation of the Directorate of Gender in the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development. The role of the PEAP Gender Team is to ensure that gender and equity are streamlined in the PEAP, the Medium-Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF), and the annual Budgets. The team also provided technical support to the sector ministries and local governments. Under this program, the planning departments of six sector ministries have been trained and supported in gender and equity budgeting. These are: (1) Health; (2) Education; (3) Agriculture; (4) Water; (5) Justice; and (6) Local Government. The role of the Poverty Eradication Working Group is to review all the budgets according to the guidelines issued in the Budget Call Circular, which include gender and equity budgeting.

An incentives mechanism has been put in place to encourage compliance. In July 2004 the Ministry of Local Government published an *Assessment Manual of Minimum Conditions and Performance Measures for Higher Local Governments*. A similar one exists for lower local governments. Essentially, before the local governments access the local government development grants, which are discretionary and therefore very much desired by local governments, they have to meet a set of minimum requirements. In addition, an assessment of performance is done in retrospect, to reward local governments that perform well by giving them 20 percent more funds and to penalize those that perform poorly by giving them 20 percent less than their allocation. Those at median remain static. The *Minimum Conditions and Performance Measures* are derived from the government laws and guidelines including, among others, the Local Government Act of 1997 (as amended 2000), Finance and Accounting Regulations of 1998, Local Government Tendering and Procurement Regulations of 2000, and the National Gender Policy of 1997.

It is noteworthy that the objectives of the assessment are to verify compliance, provide incentives, and identify functional capacity gaps and needs. Interestingly, gender mainstreaming has equal scoring weight to other criteria

Table 2.1 Summary Scoring and Eligibility Criteria for Rewards and Penalties for Local Governments

Performance Measure	Total Score	Minimum Score for 20 Percent Reward	Minimum Score to Remain Static	Score Below which Warrants a Penalty
Quality of the Development Plan	10	7	5	<5
Staff Functional Capacity	10	7	5	<5
Capacity Building Performance Communication and Accountability Performance	10	7	5	<5
Allocation Performance	10	7	5	<5
Local Revenue Performance	10	7	5	<5
Gender Mainstreaming Performance Council, Executive, and Committee Performance	10	7	5	<5

Source: Republic of Uganda, 2004

like revenue performance and accountability. It is also important to note that the basis of performance is the law and policy of government, not morality or other subjective criteria.

The PEAP Gender Team is performing the tracking of five priority sectors. It has conducted public sector reviews, including a gender review of the Plan for Modernization of Agriculture and Health.

2.5 Involvement of Nongovernmental Organizations

There is a very active Gender Budget Coalition spearheaded by FOWODE, which is a member of the PEAP Gender Team. Essentially FOWODE introduced the concept of gender budgeting in Uganda. FOWODE, with the support of the Royal Netherlands Embassy, developed the Gender and Equity Guidelines and trained some government officials in the skills of gender and equity budgeting. It also undertook lobbying members of parliament to raise gender budgeting and equity issues and demand a program from the executive.

Specifically, the FOWODE Initiative had the following outputs:

- Gender-budgeting guidelines for five priority sectors developed;
- A team of trainers developed;
- Skills in gender and equity budgeting imparted to government officers;
- Gender-budgeting support provided to the three districts of Kamuli, Luwero, and Kabale to produce district gender policy documents (two of which were seen by the researcher and published in June 2006);
- Contribution to the development of the *Users Manual on How to Prepare a Budget Framework Paper that Addresses Gender and Equity Issues*

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published by the Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development in May 2006;

- Assessment of sector and local government budgets made for the five priority sectors and three districts; and
- A snapshot analysis of the MTEF 2006/07 undertaken from a gender and equity perspective, with the aim of assessing the extent sectors that had been trained to use the skills to incorporate gender and equity issues; correlation was established.

2.6 Benefits for Women

There isn't yet a body of research to demonstrate benefits to women of the introduction and mainstreaming of gender and equity budgeting. However, anecdotal evidence suggests that gender-sensitive sector and local government budgets are having a positive impact on women. For example, in Jinja district, funds for utilities for health centers were ring-fenced when it was discovered that women were not using them because of a lack of water and electricity. In Arua district, a maternity center that could not be used because it faced the east, which was culturally unaccepted, was remodeled to cure the problem and then registered higher deliveries.

2.7 Efficiency and Effectiveness Mechanisms

From the interaction with the Ministry of Gender officials, mechanisms put in place to enhance the buy-in and fast implementation included the following:

- *Institutionalization of gender and equity budgeting*—Anchoring it to the Poverty Eradication Action Plan, the National Planning framework made it easier for sector ministries and local governments to adopt gender and equity budgeting, making it mandatory by law and government policy. When incentives are clear, it makes compliance easy.
- *Inclusion of equity*—Expanding the concept of gender budgeting to include equity brought in the issues of marginalized and vulnerable groups. The ministry found that including orphans, persons with AIDS/HIV, and other groups enhanced donor buy-in.
- *Links to aid modalities*—Linking gender budgeting to aid modalities ensured the allocation of aid resources to it.

2.8 Main Challenges

Despite the progress highlighted above, there are challenges to effective implementation as highlighted in this section. The biggest challenge to gender and equity budgeting is lack of capacity. This issue of capacity can be summed up as: *too few technical experts within government and among CSOs, and too*

many local governments to support. In Uganda there are well over 1,000 local governments (80 districts and over 900 municipal councils and subcounties). All these local governments prepare BFPs annually. They do so in a time frame of three months (October to December). Each of the BFPs is originated by the smallest of the units in the local government. In practice, there is a small team of technical experts to train all local governments in gender and equity budgeting and to monitor compliance.

According to the principal gender officer in the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development, “demand for gender and equity budgeting has been created but supply cannot be sustained. Presently, there are only ten technical staff to support over 1000 local governments.” Consequently only the six districts of Arua, Jinja, Kabale, Kayunga, Mukono, and Yumbe have been trained out of the eighty districts in the country. Under the support of the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) Gender Project, another nine districts (Gulu, Tororo, Mukono, Lira, Kapchorwa, Busia, Kanungu, Hoima, and Kiboga) will be supported. To these one can add those supported by NGOs like FOWODE, Action for Development (ACFODE), Council for Economic Empowerment for Women of Africa (CEEWA), and Action Aid. This remains a drop in the ocean.

For an initiative that requires intensive support supervision, there isn't sufficient critical mass of technical expertise in Uganda to effectively implement gender and equity budgeting. Considering the very restrictive time frame within which BFPs have to be prepared, the few experts available are over-stretched and fatigued. For example, the Poverty Eradication Working Group is supposed to review all BFPs for compliance with Budget Call Circular Guidelines but the task is impossible for the few people in the group. Even with the tracking exercise, the PEAP Gender Team is only working on the five priority sectors for only a few days at a time.

As a result, although making gender and equity budgeting a prior condition for release of funds under the PRSC has been considered, it was discouraged for lack of capacity to assess it. Even among NGOs, there are only a few staff (e.g., FOWODE has two) working on gender and equity budgeting.

The next big challenge is lack of data that is disaggregated by gender. For example, the Ministry of Agriculture, Animal Industry and Fisheries does not have data on how many of its users are women and how many are men (interview with Mabuya Mubarak). This is a serious constraint in planning for boosting agricultural production and productivity.

The team leader for the Ugandan Participatory Poverty Assessment Process within the Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development has articulated the challenges as follows (Ssewakiryanga, 2006, p. 10):

- Some sector officers are still resistant to the concept.
- It is not easy to clearly articulate the gender issues in each sector. Some sectors need researched information, especially when reviewing past

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performance and identifying emerging issues, for example, in public administration.

- The work depends on the interest of a few champions as it has not yet gained momentum to propel itself. The number of people who are willing to think out-of-the-box in the Ministry of Finance are limited. Currently there are only thirteen people from government, civil society, and the donor community who are strong advocates for gender and equity budgeting.
- Sectors immediately think that taking on new issues implies additional funding. They use this to resist taking on anything new. In fact, what is involved is the reallocation of existing resources, but allocation is a political issue that always has to be negotiated.
- The impact of the work may only be seen over the medium term. It is difficult to assess the impact of last year's budget on gender and equity issues. It can take two to three years to see the impact of programs that have been implemented in different regions. Governments like to make investments that catch the public eye, like building a road or installing a water pipe.
- Identifying the incremental steps to address gender inequality is complex, but necessary. Access to health, for example, cannot be achieved in one year.
- The key lesson is the need for partnerships. Gender-budgeting work cannot rely on government or civil society alone, but partnerships are not necessarily harmonious. For example, in Uganda one participant wanted to publish the gender budgeting study as his own work. The repercussions of this would have been extreme because it is unlikely that government departments would be willing to take on board the work of one individual or institution.

2.9 Conclusions

Through the introduction and advocacy by NGOs of the language and concept of gender budgeting, government has fully adopted it and extended the concept to incorporate equity. In normative terms, gender and equity budgeting has been mainstreamed. A legal mechanism is firmly in place at constitutional and policy levels. An incentives mechanism for compliance is also in place, and some progress has been made toward its implementation. Due to capacity constraints and lack of disaggregated data, however, full implementation is yet to be realized.

CASE STUDY: GENDER BUDGETING AND THE MINISTRY OF FINANCE, PLANNING AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT IN UGANDA

There has been a steady evolution in the government of Uganda's approach to budgetary management over the past decade. According to the Ministry of

Finance, Planning and Economic Development, past budgeting processes in the 1980s and early 1990s were more concerned about inputs and less on outputs and outcomes arising from public expenditure.

With the introduction of participatory budgeting in the mid-1990s, this scenario is changing to one where the concern is about results-oriented management with a closer link between resource use, outputs, and eventually outcomes at the central and local government level. This necessitates that government pays closer attention to the manner in which national and subnational sector budgets are executed and that data on the impacts on men and women are disaggregated. Furthermore, the ministry notes that there is a growing realization that gender inequalities are not only unfair and unjust, but are also costly as evidenced by lower economic efficiency, output, and well-being.

In this regard, the government of Uganda initiated gender and equity budgeting within the policy-making, implementation, and monitoring processes. Its objective is to ensure that gender and equity concerns are integrated into all national, sector, and district policies, plans, programs, and budgets. The issue of equity arises because women are not a homogeneous category, but are differentiated by many factors including level of economic well-being, ethnicity, educational attainment, geographical location, rural/urban location, disability, and religious beliefs.

2.10 Phases of Gender Budgeting

The government of Uganda has gone through two distinct phases with regard to gender and equity budgeting. Prior to fiscal year 2004/05, the first phase focused on development of gender-oriented policies premised on the assumption that if policy is gender sensitive, then at the planning and budgeting stage the policy would transform into activities that address gender gaps. This phase, driven by the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development, undertook development of sector policies for Agriculture, Local Government, Natural Resources (which at the time comprised water and energy), Education and Trade, Tourism, and Industry.

The aim was to define the concepts and to convince the respective ministries of the importance of identifying gender issues and how to address them. As a result, the Ministry of Education started addressing girl-child education and was able to effectively input into the African conference on Empowerment of Women through functional literacy and education of the girl child that took place in September 1996. In agriculture, the sector began documenting women's participation in the labor force and their role in food security. For local government, the issues were women's participation in decision making. Through the local councils then known as resistance councils (now local councils), the ministry initiated the policy of affirmative action for women, moving the standard from one woman in charge of women's affairs to at least one-third of the council being women.

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In 1997, at the same time as the launching of PEAP, an NGP was put in place to mainstream gender. Gender was no longer just a sector choice, but a national policy. Recognizing the instructive value in a policy, sectors across the board were compelled to include gender in all their plans and programming. This was further reinforced in the Sector Investment Plans that followed the introduction of the sector-wide approach. At both the national and district level, however, there was a gap between the adoption of the terminology and use of statistics, and the budget allocations. So, while this phase increased awareness and institutionalization of gender issues, there was a need to move it further by introducing gender budgeting.

Since FY 2004/05, there has been a shift to budget as the entry point. According to an interlocutor in the Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development, this shift was influenced by the work of NGOs like FOWODE; ACFODE, and PRSC, one of whose requirements is gender-sensitive budgeting.¹ This phase is driven largely by the Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development, that is, the ministry responsible for the national budget, the most important policy instrument of government that reflects its commitment to fulfill its priorities. The budget sets revenue and spending patterns for all sectors of government and affects income distribution and social change. Therefore, until a policy has been translated into an approved budget, it remains on paper. Budgets go beyond meeting technically feasible objectives to fulfilling political aspirations.

As gender has become mainstreamed and gender-budgeting introduced, there have been discernable outcomes, including, more girls in school, particularly at primary and secondary level, “which is now a given” according to the principal gender officer in the Ministry of Gender, Labour and Social Development. In collaboration with the Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE), the Ministry of Education now has a girl-education strategy, with senior women teachers appointed to support girls particularly at puberty stage.

In agriculture, the National Extension Service that works through farmer groups now registers over 60 percent of the groups as women’s groups. The role of women has been transformed as women take leadership and decision-making roles in these groups.

With lessons learned from this experience, the NGP has been reviewed and a new one is now in place as of 2007. The government has unveiled a new gender policy that would act as a guiding tool in addressing gender imbalances. Some of the distinctive elements include a better analytical basis and stronger linkages. The first policy was weaker on analytical basis as it was driven more by activism. The current one benefits from studies commissioned to inform the review. “The aim of this policy is to guide all levels of planning, resource allocation, and implementation of development programs,” Gender, Labour and Social Development Minister, Syda Bbumba, said while launching the policy on December 5, 2007 (Ssenkibirwa, n.d.). She said the aim is to see the role of women in society being recognized and that new policy gives

her ministry and other line ministries a clear mandate to mainstream gender in all sectors. The policy compels all community development officers, both public and private, to consider gender responsiveness. She said the decision to amend the policy was taken to suit the dynamic nature of the country's development process.

In both approaches, the key issue was identified to be the capacity to identify the issues and analyze them, and the capacity to turn this information into sector and subsector objectives, programs, activities, and eventually outcomes. From discussions with the officials of the Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development, four aspects of the problems with capacity were highlighted, as follows:

- Analytical capacity is still weak in many of the sectors and local governments.
- The quality of the data, including reliability, credibility, and timeliness, is poor, although the Uganda Bureau of Statistics is endeavoring to deliver better quality and gender-disaggregated data.
- The ability and will by civil servants to use the data in programming is still problematic.
- There is inadequate capacity to convince politicians at various levels and the public of the need for attitudinal change.

To identify gender and equity issues, the ministry bases itself on review of existing data and inference or anecdotal evidence. Credible and robust data is also needed to convince senior policy makers and politicians, like ministers and legislators.

2.11 Capacity for Leadership

In terms of institutional arrangements for gender and equity, the Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development, along with that of Gender, Labour and Social Development, set up a Poverty Working Group that has a subcommittee, the Gender Working Group. These are under the Budget Policy and Evaluation Department in the Directorate of Budget and include representatives of government, development partners, and other stakeholders. There are about twenty people involved. In the ministry, there are also sector desk officers who are secretaries to the sector working groups.

The Ministry of Finance's approach has been to have the Poverty and Gender Working Groups work with sectors and local governments when developing their BFPs and to review compliance with the Gender Budget and Equity Guidelines. To achieve this, the ministry has put in place guidelines for mainstreaming gender and equity budgeting and made them part of the Budget Call Circular for the past three years. Members of the sector working groups have requested technical support for the mainstreaming process. The Gender

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Working Group is supposed to provide this technical support.

The Gender Working Group has developed a users and facilitators manual on gender and equity budgeting. These are hands-on manuals made to be user-friendly and tailored to the structure of the BFPs. Using these manuals, the gender team assists sectors to identify and take into account gender and equity issues.

2.12 Role of Donors

Prior to the shift to budget support, donors were more visible in their support for gender issues through project support. A number of donors still provide gender-based financial support for projects and through NGOs. The United Nations Capital Development Fund, for example, supports district development projects that pilot concepts and initiatives that get replicated through the Local Government Development Programme. The UN Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM), UNDP, UNFPA, and UN Children's Fund (UNICEF) were identified as donors that directly support gender-related programs. Furthermore, donors support the activities of over one hundred women-focused NGOs. Government is not able to track what goes on as it does not always get the necessary information. It would enhance the status of donor support to gender issues if information on their support to NGOs was shared with government.

Others like the United Kingdom's Department for International Development (DFID) provided assistance to gender initiatives through budget support and technical assistance. According to Ministry of Gender officials, with the shift to budget support, it has become harder to track the gender elements, as support is not earmarked and, hence, not always automatic.

For industry, an International Finance Corporation (IFC) initiative was singled out as aimed at strengthening women entrepreneurs. The funding window is through the Development Finance Company of Uganda. It was noted that this initiative was inspired by the NGP. The work of women-focused microfinance institutions like CEEWA; Uganda Finance Trust, which began as Uganda Women's Finance Trust; and Uganda Women Entrepreneurs Limited is all inspired by a good NGP.

2.13 Capacity Gaps

According to the Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development, there are two main capacity challenges: (1) the technical experts are few and the task mammoth; and (2) data is not sufficiently disaggregated and does not tell the household story. Regarding the enormity of the problem, there are thirteen active sectors, ranging from agriculture, education, and health through to works, trade, and public administration. In addition, there are eighty districts and thirty municipalities that comprise higher local governments. Each of these

prepares a BFP, and the process takes place at the same time. The same Gender Working Group is supposed to review the BFPs of all the districts and municipalities for compliance. While sector officers are being trained to augment the technical support expected from the Gender Working Group, clearly there are not enough human resources to go round. Currently there is no massive training being implemented.

Related to this, the gender-budgeting champion in the Ministry of Finance expressed concerns at the rate of attrition of officers trained in gender and equity budgeting. At the Ministry of Gender, where he worked for nine years, most of the officers trained have either died or moved out of the government.

Much of the data needed for gender and equity budgeting is inadequate and out-of-date. The Ministry of Gender is working with the National Bureau of Statistics to get gender disaggregated data. According to Ministry of Gender officials, the Bureau has been responsive. "We are happy with its quality of work," they reported. However, while the Bureau has been conducting National Household Surveys and Demographic and Health Surveys for decades, no agricultural census has been conducted. This is finally underway and the Ministry of Gender is trying to influence the data collection process to ensure gender disaggregating is taken into consideration.

Also a national statistical plan is under development and will decentralize data collection and management and make it user friendly. The recently introduced (by the Ministry of Finance) community information system that is being piloted is also expected to address the household- and community-level data gaps. The extent to which the NGOs concerned with gender and equity budgeting are engaged in these developments was not apparent, however.

Despite these challenges, the Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development is determined to enforce gender and equity budgeting through the implementation of financial incentives and penalties contained in the gender budget guidelines. A grace period of five years has been given, and after FY 2008/09, these sanctions and incentives will be progressively implemented. The logic is that if there are clear performance indicators and requisite financial rewards and penalties, sectors and local governments will take the initiative to comply with the provisions of the Gender and Equity Budget Guidelines in the Budget Call Circular.

2.14 Factors that Militate Against Participation

The biggest problem militating against participation is the lack of enough trained facilitators in gender and equity budgeting and poor quality of data. Due to budget constraints and inadequate fiscal space, training depends on availability of donor resources (some training is currently going on under the Local Government Development Programme and UNIFEM support).

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The problem, however, is not limited to the inadequacy of trained government personnel, but extends to attitudes and resistance to change. For example, the Ministry of Finance officials revealed that oftentimes at discussion level a lot of inputs are made, but as the BFPs are refined for submission, a lot of relevant material is “edited out, leaving a few hanging statements on gender and equity.”

What the study revealed is that while a few NGOs sit on the Poverty and Gender Working groups, and while the work of the FOWODE is acknowledged as having been foundational to the mainstreaming of gender budgeting in government, there was no clear plan of effective partnership with civil society. In particular, there were plans put forward by the government for training of these partners that were not implemented due to lack of resources. As put by one ministry official, “Government is not likely to take the initiative due to resource constraints.”

What was indicated was that if CSOs (like the Uganda National NGO Forum) organized their members for training (instead of each doing it separately when they want to), government would provide facilitators. Because these groups play a key role of monitoring and advocacy, it is important that their technical capacity in gender and equity budgeting be built. As a Ministry of Finance official put it, “It is difficult to monitor what you do not understand technically.”

Although there are many NGOs active in gender focused advocacy, FOWODE is the only CSO in Uganda that has specialist knowledge and skills in gender budgeting. It and other advocacy NGOs have succeeded in having government mainstream gender, largely because they are dedicated and have persevered. They also identified policy enclaves like the powerhouse Ministry of Finance, Planning and Economic Development and legislators in parliament (largely because the founder of FOWODE was a strong woman parliamentarian and her successor is the government Chief Whip). However, FOWODE has only one staff member working on this with serious resource constraints. Yet, it has emerged that to reverse citizen apathy in terms of holding government to account, not only CSOs, but also citizens, need to have such concepts as gender and equity budgeting demystified and made applicable to their everyday realities. Officials of the Ministry of Finance revealed how districts like Bushenyi and Rukungiri, which are food baskets, still have among the highest rates of stunting among children. This has been attributed to food crops being turned into cash crops and going into the control of male household heads who do not plough some of the proceeds back into food purchases for family consumption. Another issue is that girl children drop out of school as they reach puberty due to lack of appropriate sanitation facilities. If changes are to occur, people need to understand how to assess if the public servants are analyzing and prioritizing the problems correctly.

2.15 Performance Indicators

According to the Ministry of Finance gender desk officer, “Performance indicators are not yet fully developed as the Ministry has concentrated on getting local governments, Ministries, and sector buy-in and only now has begun the process of developing indicators.”

Essentially, the focus has been on helping local government to appreciate the gender-budgeting guidelines and to use them. As indicated earlier in this research report, there is a five-year grace period before sanctions are to be strictly applied, and the Ministries of Gender, Labour and Social Development and Finance, Planning and Economic Development do assess the extent to which the BFPs and the sectoral prioritization reflect critical analysis of the gender issues.

Ms. Zigit, the gender desk officer at the Ministry of Finance, reported that for sectors like education, it is easy to agree about the performance indicators because the ministry can report on, and one can count, the number of girls enrolling and completing school, the number of latrine stanzas built for girls’ sanitation, and so on.

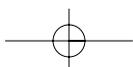
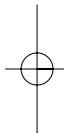
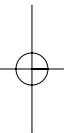
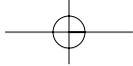
For the Justice Law and Order Sector (JLOS), it is easy to assess gender-based violence by reported cases of domestic violence, how many are reported to police, how the police handle them, and how facilitating these processes is prioritized in the respective BFPs.

The gender desk officer also reported that with government procurement, because contracts must undergo a bidding process, it will be a relatively simple task to assess how many women firms are awarded contracts.

On the poverty count, there are ongoing assessments on who moves in and out of poverty and the share of women included. It is the same with women in decision making, as it is easy to establish how many women are in decision-making positions within government.

These are some of the indicators the Ministry of Finance is building on to develop a comprehensive set of performance indicators that are local government and sector specific. But this is still a work-in-progress as the focus has been on adoption rather than on performance.

Clearly this is a niche for capacity-building institutions like the Africa Capacity Building Foundation (ACBF). In fact gender budgeting has been identified in the Uganda National Capacity Building Programme in which the Uganda National NGO Forum is a beneficiary. Training in gender budgeting at national and district levels are components of their program in collaboration with FOWODE.



3

The Rwandan Model

3.1 Background Information for Examining Gender Budgeting in Rwanda

In 2006, the landlocked country of Rwanda had a population of nearly 9 million inhabitants and a population density of 360 people per square mile, the highest in Africa, where the average is 31 for Sub-Saharan Africa. Only 10.5 percent of the population lives in urban areas; 44 percent of the population is under the age of 14. The average life expectancy at birth is 44 years, as against 59 in other low-income countries (Republic of Rwanda, 2006).

Over the past decade, Rwanda has had to address specific challenges wrought by war and the 1994 genocide, including the resettlement of 3 million people, a large number of orphans, a depleted skilled population, and decimated infrastructure. Rwanda has made significant progress on many fronts, and continues to establish institutions, systems, and policies to address the immense needs of a very poor country. Today, key challenges are economic growth, poverty reduction, and achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDG).

In the case of Rwanda, the need to define a budget that integrates a gender dimension at all levels of decision making and planning, particularly poverty reduction strategies (PRSP), becomes obvious with even a brief look at socio-economic data. Women represent 52 percent of the total population, with the largest share in the active age range (between 15 and 64 years). They are demographically more represented among the population in the active age range. Their contribution to and participation rate in the overall economic and social development process have improved, although 62 percent of female-headed households lie below the poverty line as opposed to 54 percent of male-headed households.

An even larger difference is found in the net participation rate of women in the urban areas, which shows how much women have been sacrificing their own development prospects to gain some sources of income to take care of

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other members of their families as compared to men. In the rural areas, the fact that the gross participation rate is higher among men, but the net participation rate is equal for both of the sexes indicates the relatively smaller number of men in active age as compared to women. Therefore, women are the strongest contributors to the household welfare. Women's reproductive role constitutes one of the reasons for their significant participation in the economic production. But the issue of most concern is the very rudimentary level of their occupational positions. Table 3.1 of Rwanda base indicators illustrates their situation.

In Rwanda, gross rate of school attendance for girls in primary education rose steadily from 86.4 percent in 1998/99 to 109.2 percent in 2002/03. However, the rate is still low when compared to the rate of 111.2 percent for boys. The latest household survey data indicates that girls enrollment has exceeded that of boys. This trend persists as the level of education increases. The 2002/03 data show that the proportion of girls attending secondary school (48%) is only slightly lagging behind that of boys (51.9%). The current disparities are an indication of how prospects for gender equality can be compromised if actions are not taken to improve school attendance and professional training for girls. Adult illiteracy is another constraint for women. Just above one-third of the adult population can write and read. But among women, this rate falls to one-fourth. In the rural areas 48.5 percent of the women are illiterate compared to 36.7 percent of the men.

Table 3.1 Rwanda Base Indicators

Illiteracy Rate (15 years and more) (August 2002)	Women	48%	Men	52%
Primary School Enrollment (1998/1999)	Girls	82%	Boys	95%
Proportion of Girls in School (1998)				
• Primary		50%		
• Secondary		49%		
• Higher Education		26.9%		
Head of Households (1996)				
• Uneducated	Women	34.1%	Men	56.9%
• Primary Education	Women	67.4%	Men	40.8%
• Post-Primary Education	Women	27.5%	Men	50.7%
	Women	5.1%	Men	8.5%
Employment by Activity (1996)				
• Agriculture	Women	56%	Men	44%
• Industry	Women	16%	Men	84%
• Services	Women	22%	Men	78%
Women at Decision-Making Level (1999)				
• Parliament		20%		
• Ministries and State Ministers		7.2%		
• Secretaries General		28%		
• Provincial Governors		0		
• District Mayors		0.7%		
• Public Enterprises		5.0%		

Source: NEPAD, 2006

Women's health indicators are also cause for concern. Eighty percent of the total population live in rural areas where healthcare is limited. In 2005, only 37.9 percent of the rural population had access to a health post or center, and the median distance to a health center was estimated to be 12 km, primarily due to population dispersion. More recent data indicates that there is an improvement in bringing health centers closer to the population and to expand the range of services beyond primary care. Yet, one-third of rural women do not receive prenatal care. Postnatal care is accessible to only one-half of the rural women, and less than one-half of rural women can benefit from institutional birth delivery. It is not surprising, therefore, that the country has registered one of the highest maternal death rates. In 2001, it was as high as 1,071 deaths per 100,000 live births. Women using family planning methods are estimated to be only 16 percent in 2005 (Table 3.2).

Other aspects contributing to women's lower working and living conditions are those related to employment and income-earning opportunities. Women's income improves when they are employed outside the agriculture sector, primarily

Table 3.2 Rwanda Health Profile

Indicator	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Population per Doctor	66,666	52,000	52,705	50,000	—	—	50,000	26,500
Population per Nurse	9,500	9,850	6,365	5,000	—	—	3,900	3,400
Access to Health								
Facilities/Centers (%)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	37.9
Prenatal Consultations (%)			31	67.1	9	81	81.6	
Assisted Births (% of births)	26	14	26.2	31	—	—	31	38.7
Maternal Mortality Rate for								
Every 100,000 Live Births	1,300	1,300	810	1,071	—	—	847	750
Infant Mortality for								
Every 1,000 Infants	—	—	—	—	—	—	107	86
Mortality for Every 1,000								
Children under 5	—	—	—	—	—	—	196	152
Rate of Vaccine Coverage for								
P3, DTC3 (%)	77	44.5	69.9	76.6	—	80	85.8	85
Severe Malnutrition under								
5 Years (% of total population								
under 5 years)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	19.4
HIV Prevalence								
(% of total population)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3
Vaccination Centers/Sites	—	1	2	4	33	53	120	217
Access to ARV Drugs	—	—	—	—	—	—	8,355	16,000
PMTCT Sites	—	—	—	—	—	—	105	250
Systematic Fertility Index	6.3	6.3	6.5	5.8	—	—	—	5.8
Family Planning: Contraceptive								
Prevalence Rate (%)	—	—	4	—	—	—	—	16
Use of Modern Contraceptive								
Methods (%)	—	—	4	4.3	3.2	3.2	3.1	10

Source: NEPAD 2006

Note: ARV = antiretrovirals

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in trade. However, the 1996 population census indicated that the majority of women (56 percent) are employed in the agriculture sector. It is in this sector that poverty is the most widespread. Factors like past policies biased toward urban development through price control of agricultural outputs, financial sector underdevelopment, weak agricultural and trade networks, and low human development have contributed to the actual situation. While this sector makes up one-fourth of the GDP, its share is dwindling each year. Rural consumption per capita is estimated at less than US\$1 per day. But if women constitute the majority of the rural population and are responsible for the household's well-being, the burden of rural underdevelopment ends up falling on their shoulders. Gender disparities in development are stronger in regions with low human development indicators, where women's socioeconomic conditions are worse.

The government of Rwanda considers gender mainstreaming to be an important factor in realization of gender equality. Recent macroeconomic policy developments and the introduction of the poverty reduction strategies paper (PRSP) gave priority to reduction of the fiscal burden to the population at lower-income levels, and to increased expenditures on social areas like education, health, infrastructure, and rural development. Additionally, the awareness of the need to integrate the gender dimension into development planning has improved.

Even though some progress is visible when comparing the actual situation of women with past periods, the challenges for an effective implementation of the gender budget and its resulting contribution to gender balance and women's development are still considerable. The responsibilities fall onto the government as well as the civil society. As for the government's responsibility, it is to effectively and with transparency implement programs to meet the needs of women by defining specific budgets. Civil society and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) can be called upon to share the government's responsibility by playing the advocacy and lobbying role. However, this role has been restricted to government institutions, leading NGOs, and the donor community. The Parliament, as well as common citizens, have had limited intervention on this core issue of women's development.

3.1.1 Rwanda Gender-Budgeting Initiative

The Rwanda Gender Budgeting Initiative (GBI) is part of a bigger strategy, developed in 1999 with the establishment of the Ministry of Gender and Women in Development (MIGEPROFE), in support of the government's commitment to reduce gender inequalities throughout the development process. The gender-budget initiative was launched in June 2002, spearheaded by the newly formed ministry in collaboration with the ministries of finance and planning.

The initiative started with a gender analysis to inform the formulation of a National Gender Policy (NGP). The NGP was then integrated into other policy frameworks including PRSP, MTEF, and Vision 2020. Adopting a pilot-phase approach, the coverage of the initiative was initially limited to the recurrent budget focusing on expenditure with no revenue aspects and covering five

Box 3.1 Overview of the Budgetary Process

The following aspects of the budgetary process are examined in more detail in the subsequent lists:

- Clarity of roles and responsibilities
- Public availability of information
- Open budget preparation, execution, and reporting
- Assurances of integrity

Clarity of roles and responsibilities

- The coverage of the central government budget is restricted to the central government excluding the pension fund.
- The fiscal responsibilities of lower levels of government are specified by law.¹
- The budgets of districts are not consolidated at the central level.
- Not all central government spending is included in the annual budget.
- The privatization process is transparent.
- Partial ownership of several commercial banks² by the government poses significant fiscal risks, which are not reported in the budget documents.
- The central bank has day-to-day operational independence for the implementation of monetary policy and does not carry out quasi-fiscal activities.
- The formal relationships between the National Bank of Rwanda (BNR) and the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (MINECOFIN) are clear.
- Government activities are mostly distinguished clearly from public non-financial corporations, but some quasi-fiscal activities continue.
- Government regulation of the nonbank private sector is conducted openly and procedures appear to be applied in a nondiscriminatory way.
- Government equity holdings are not reported.
- A new constitution was adopted by referendum in May 2003, which specifies the main roles of the executive, legislative, and judicial branches.
- Parliament has the right to modify the composition of the proposed budget, but not to change the overall fiscal deficit.
- The legal framework for budget management is incomplete and outdated, but new laws are envisaged.
- Institutional arrangements for fiscal management are evolving in an effort to clarify responsibilities.
- Taxes and exemptions have a legal basis, but some tax laws are unclear.
- The “investment code” provides discretion for tax advantages for investors or to specific beneficiaries.

Public availability of information

- The budget documents presented to parliament cover most central government fiscal activities, but do not provide revenues and expenditures for general government.
- The budget documents provide parliament with a medium-term analysis of the main budget targets.
- Defense expenditures are treated in some detail in the budget documentation.

(continues)

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- Information on contingent liabilities is not reported.
- Estimates of tax expenditures and quasi-fiscal activities are not published.
- Information on gross public debt and government assets are not published.
- Fiscal data are now published on the MINECOFIN website.
- There are no formal commitments for regular publication of fiscal data and advance release date calendars are not announced.

Open budget preparation, execution, and reporting

- The annual budget has traditionally focused on financial compliance; but in recent years, a program-budget approach has been initiated.
- The recurrent and development budgets are not integrated.
- The domestic balance and the overall balance of central government are the main indicators of the fiscal position.
- Medium-term projections of each expenditure program are prepared in the context of the Medium-Term Budget Framework (MTBF).
- New policies are clearly described in the MTBF paper.
- The main fiscal risks are not fully disclosed in the budget documentation.
- Internal control, although administratively cumbersome, appears to be effective for controlling expenditures.
- Internal audits in spending ministries are weak and focus on preaudits of documentation.
- The accounting system is neither comprehensive nor integrated.

Assurances of integrity

- Statements of accounting policy are not included in the budget.
- The data on which the annual budget projections are based are generally reliable for revenues and recurrent spending.
- Regular reconciliation of all government bank accounts is not done. As a result, there are discrepancies between the monetary accounts and fiscal accounts, casting a doubt on the quality of reported revenues and expenditures.
- The quality of expenditures recorded in monthly flash reports is undermined by recording transfers as expenditures.
- The national audit body is currently not independent of the executive, nor does it provide timely reports to the legislature and public on the financial integrity of government accounts.
- External scrutiny of macroeconomic models and assumptions underlying the budget are not carried out.
- The national statistics agency is not institutionally independent and does not verify the quality of fiscal data.

Source: International Monetary Fund (IMF), 2003

pilot ministries selected for participation in 2002 so as to be able to influence their 2003 budget:

- Ministry of Education (MINEDUC);
- Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock (MINAGRI);

- Ministry of Health;
- Ministry of Water and Natural Resources (MININTERE); and
- Ministry of Local Government and Social Affairs (MINALOC).

This approach was adopted taking into account an inadequate capacity within the implementing agencies and the officials' request that they wanted to focus on the current budget rather than development because donors controlled the latter, and that effective gender budgeting can only occur when the following principles are incorporated into the process:

- Sustained political will and commitment;
- Awareness-raising and advocacy;
- Transparency and participation;
- Capacity and resources;
- Coordination;
- Research and analysis; and
- Gender-based assessment.

3.1.2 The Objectives of Gender Budgeting in Rwanda

The Rwanda gender-budget initiative takes forward the government's political commitment to tackle gender imbalances. It is based on the premise that gender analysis is essential to the elaboration of budgets that enhance rather than hinder gender equality and human development in Rwanda. Its overarching objective is to translate the government's commitment into effective actions to promote gender equality and equality throughout the development process.

The specific objectives of the GBI are to inform the national debate about policy and the appropriate allocation of public resources; ensure that the policies and programs of ministries and provinces take into consideration the specific constraints, options, incentives, and needs of women and girls, men and boys; and, ensure that resources are allocated accordingly.

The GBI is consistent with the comprehensive system reforms that are being introduced to rebuild the country. The reforms and priorities are articulated around the following policy frameworks:

- Vision 2020, which presents the national aspirations for the year 2020;
- The PRSP, which guides the national strategy and interventions for the reduction of poverty from 60 percent to 30 percent by 2015;
- The MTEF, a coherent approach to budget management involving integrated, performance-related expenditure programs formulated within a realistic three-year resource framework;
- The NGP and Gender Plan of Action, which provide the strategic guidelines for actions to promote gender equality and equity in all sectors;
- The decentralization policy whose objective is to put the population at the heart of the decision making and actions that shape their lives; and

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- The elaboration of a new constitution and, more specifically, Rwanda's process of *engendering the new constitution* to promote a judiciary and legal system favorable to gender equality and equity.

3.1.3 Key Actors in Gender Responsive Budgeting in Rwanda

The Rwanda gender-budgeting initiative is part of the country's national strategic plan to promoting gender equality and development. It is driven by the Ministry of Gender and Family Promotion (MIGEPROF) in close collaboration with MINECOFIN, specifically the Directorate of Budget PRSP Unit; Directorate of Statistics; and the MINEDUC Directorate of Planning playing a key role. It is entirely funded by the United Kingdom's Department for International Development (DFID) through the Gender Mainstreaming and Development Programme housed at the Ministry of Gender and Women in Development (MIGEPROFE).

3.2 Government Commitment to Gender Equality

In spite of many issues, women's participation in economic and political life is very high in some aspects, such as the following:

- Rwanda has, with 45 percent of parliamentary seats held by women, the world's second highest ratio of females in parliament.
- Female-earned income is 62 percent of male-earned income demonstrating that the authorities have been promoting gender equality and the empowerment of women.
- MIGEPROFE was created and mandated to spearhead the elimination of gender imbalances in all sectors. In addition, grassroots-based national women councils were created.
- A law on succession and matrimonial regimes was enacted improving the rights of women to property ownership.
- Besides ratifying the international convention of all forms of discrimination, gender sensitization campaigns have been ongoing across the country.
- The NGP has made gender empowerment and inclusiveness a constitutional requirement and all public sector institutions, beginning with the civil service, are to be reviewed in their structures, behavior, and human capital to make them conform to the gender-related provisions of the constitution.

Gender mainstreaming is a priority in the country's policies, and the government's political will is illustrated, among other actions, by the establishment in 1999 of MIGEPROFE. MIGEPROFE has a clear mission to promote gender equality and equity throughout the development policies of the country and government (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3 MIGEPROFE Budget Allocations from 1998–2004

Year	Budgetary Allocation (RWF)	Total Government Budget (RWF)	% of Total Rwanda Budget (Approx.)
1998	10,153,650,618	189,514,510,078	5.4
1999	1,695,045,716	1,174,089,686,661	0.98
2000	412,538,099	174,484,055,624	0.2
2001	2,695,257,450	18,488,000,440	1.5
2002	419,321,251	2,535,073,578	0.17
2003	3,044,387,569	252,027,871,901	1.2
2004	3,886,328,617	328,905,057,297	1.18

Source: NEPAD, 2005 and MINECOFIN, 2005.

3.2.1 Government Structure to Support Gender Budgeting

The Rwandan government has shown a strong commitment to gender equality as have decision-makers in ministries, NGOs, and donors. The following institutional framework has been put in place to facilitate gender mainstreaming activities:

- The drafting of a new constitution;
- The finalization of the National Poverty Reduction Strategy;
- The set-up of the NGP;
- The launching of an affirmative action agenda for increased women's participation at the political level;
- The identification of discriminatory legal structures in the reform process; and
- The launching of the decentralization program.

The constitution. Rwanda's new constitution that was formally adopted in May 2003 enshrines a commitment to gender equality. The preamble, for instance, cites various international human rights instruments and conventions to which Rwanda is a signatory, including specific reference to the 1979 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW). It also states a commitment to "ensuring equal rights between Rwandans and between women and men without prejudice to the principles of gender equality and complementarily in national development." Title 1 of the constitution also establishes, as one of its fundamental principles, the equality of Rwandans. This respect for equality is to be ensured in part by granting women "at least" 30 percent of posts "in all decision-making organs."

The bicameral legislature and women's councils. The Senate, which is Rwanda's upper house of its bicameral legislature, has twenty-six members, who are elected or appointed for eight-year terms. Some members of the Senate are

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elected by provincial and sectoral councils, while others are appointed by the president and other organs (e.g., the national university). Women, as mandated in the constitution, hold 30 percent of the Senate seats.

The lower house of the Rwandan parliament is the *Chambre des Députés* (Chamber of Deputies). There are eighty members serving five-year terms, fifty-three of whom are directly elected by a proportional representation system. The additional seats are filled as follows: twenty-four deputies (30 percent) are elected by women from each province and the capital city, Kigali; two are elected by the National Youth Council; and one is elected by the Federation of the Associations of the Disabled.

The twenty-four seats that are reserved for women are contested in women-only elections, that is, only women can stand for election and only women can vote. The election for the women's seats was coordinated by the national system of women's councils and took place in the same week as the general election in September 2003. Notably, in addition to the twenty-four reserved seats in the Chamber of Deputies, the elections saw an additional fifteen women elected in openly competed seats. Women thus had in total thirty-nine out of eighty seats, or 48.8 percent.

While the women's councils are important in terms of decentralization and grassroots engagement, lack of resources prevents them from maximizing their impact, and they are not consistently active throughout the country. Members of local women's councils are not paid, and because they have to volunteer in addition to performing their paid work and family responsibilities, the councils are less effective than they could be (<http://www.idea.int/publications/wip2/upload/rwanda.pdf>).

The role of parliament in gender budgeting. When the new constitution was adopted in 2003, women representation at all levels became a fundamental principle. To cement this notion, commitment to the rule of law as well as gender equality became paramount. The women parliamentarians with 49 percent representation have played key roles in gender-budget initiatives and have helped to strengthen female parliamentary budgetary capacity. This representation by women could be strong enough to create an awareness of women's rights and advocate for actions toward better living conditions and opportunities for women. The inclusion of women in national legislature results in positive policy outcomes for their children and families, who actually make up the majority of the nation. For example, the Forum of Rwandan Women Parliamentarians (Forum des femmes rwandaises parlementaires, FFRP) has helped review existing laws, introduced amendments to change discriminatory statutes, and examined proposed laws, all with the aim at promoting gender sensitivity in the country. Under the leadership of the minister of Gender and Family Promotion and president of FFRP, Honorable Judith Kanakuze, the FFRP adopted in 2005 a five-year strategic plan to guide its activities through 2009 and reach

its goal of developing policies, laws, programs, and practices that ensure equality between men and women and gender equity. During debates on the education budget, for example, women pushed to ensure that there was support for children from poor families.

Further, it is also true that the effect of gender on the attitude of parliamentarians who draft and pass laws in most parliaments around the world changes positively when women have an equal representation in decision making. This will definitely have a significant effect on policies related to gender promotion with regard to legislation and influence on the national budget. However, even though members of parliament are aware of women's needs, they lack the methodological framework from which they can start to advocate in favor of the different matters concerning gender budgeting. It is recently that the parliament benefited from a training program on this matter. The fruits that this can bring may only be observed in the next budget exercises. But it is worth mentioning that if members of parliament do not take the gender budget issue as a number one priority, the risk that the debate on advocacy of gender issues will be shifted or become weak is strong, mainly due to their busy schedule. This means that they will have to set special time aside to analyze the budget documents, while taking into account the need to be aware of the real situation of women in the different areas of education, health, agriculture, water, communication, and others.

3.2.2 Policy Documents

Rwanda has been using planning instruments that work to bring together each sector's objectives, population target groups, and financial resources while ensuring that the budgeting principles like comprehensiveness, discipline, transparency, and accountability are met.

The most important planning documents are: the PRSP, the MTEF, the NGP and Gender Plan of Action, the decentralization policy, the VISION 2020, and the public budget.

The poverty reduction strategy paper. The PRSP³ was developed in consultation with the people of Rwanda, and it enjoys broad popular support among Rwandan civil society. As a result, donors have aligned their work in Rwanda with the plan's six priorities that are all geared to promoting economic growth of particular benefit to poor women and men, which are as follows:

- Rural development and agricultural transformation;
- Human development;
- Economic infrastructure;
- Good governance;
- Private sector development; and

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- Institutional capacity building as the focus for public actions on poverty reduction.

The PRSP targeted the halving of poverty by 2015 through a private sector and rural-led growth strategy.⁴ The PRSP can be considered the most comprehensive planning tool. Based on government policy, it explicitly defines programs (or strategic areas), their actions, targets, and the time frame concerning the macroeconomic and sectoral fields. It is able to identify public revenue and expenditure targets, the key reforms and policies needed to induce and sustain public financial sustainability, good governance and economic growth, and the resource allocation among all line ministries, while considering development discrepancies and the poverty impact. Given this framework, the gender objectives and their respective specified targets have the space to ensure that they are tackled and easily monitored. Box 3.2 highlights findings of the PRSP audit.

The medium-term expenditure framework. The MTEF is a medium-term (three years) budgeting instrument (see Figure 3.1 for MTEF linkages in the planning and budgetary process). The financial implications of the programs and objectives specified in the PRSP have their expression in this instrument. This transparency and accountability of the framework ensure that the long-term objectives of the country can be met, which include gender equality, while avoiding unplanned resource transfers among sectors. Within this framework, the objectives of the MTEF Action Plan are to:

- Create a consistent, predictable national policy and budget framework;
- Introduce an output focus into budget preparation and execution;
- Improve financial management and accountability;
- Develop a comprehensive, integrated budget; and
- Link policies to planning and budgeting.

Vision 2020. The development of Rwanda is supposed to be guided by its long-term perspective, Vision 2020, which has the following seven goals (Figure 3.1). These goals mirror the MDGs (Appendix, Table 1).

- Good political and economic governance;
- Rural economic transformation;
- Development of services, manufacturing, and mining;
- Human resource development;
- Lowering risks and costs of doing business in Rwanda and development of the private sector;
- Regional and international economic integration; and
- Poverty reduction.

Box 3.2 A Gender Audit of Rwanda PRSP*Economic Strategies: Macroeconomic Structural Adjustment, Trade, Budgets, Fiscal Policy; Microeconomics*

- Gender is unevenly mainstreamed into macroeconomic and microeconomic discussions.
- Expenditures prioritize activities that address gender inequalities.
- All sector expenditures incorporate MIGEPROFE inputs.
- Annual macroeconomic monitoring indicators including gross domestic product (GDP), employment and wages, and public expenditure data will be gender disaggregated wherever possible and that time-use monitoring data will be especially gender disaggregated.
- The new land strategy advocates ending discrimination against women and protects women's and children's land rights in informal marriages.
- The agriculture strategy promotes gender sensitive agricultural extension, but the policy matrix does not budget for this.
- The credit strategy targets poor female households in only a few districts.
- The PRSP compares the high unemployment among young men with women overburdened by domestic chores, lacking time for productive work.
- An issue exists in terms of women's and girls' water and fuel-wood carrying burden.
- There are exceptions to disaggregation including the revenue egg taxation; privatization; housing strategy; a strategy targeting coffee farmers with improved varieties and other inputs although women now constitute 25 percent of coffee farmers in a previously male-dominated sector; and the entire transport sector.

Human Capacity Strategies: Education, Health Care, AIDS/HIV, Social Protection

- The reproductive health strategy promotes population growth control through female literacy programs, midwife training, and increasing family planning services, but does not discuss male roles; and that the HIV/AIDS analysis is gender sensitive.
- The water and sanitation discussion is linked to improvements in maternal health, reduced drudgery time spent by women collecting water, and increased girls' school enrollment.
- The strategy strongly promotes girls' education and adult female literacy. It includes sex disaggregated data of primary level enrollment and completion rates. It explains girls' attendance is weak due to work burdens and sexual harassment by school staff. It promises that "all teachers will be trained in gender sensitivity" and campaigns will sensitize the population on girls' education benefits. Scholarships for girls from poor families will be provided, and studies will follow the education pattern of girls.
- There is little gender analysis of tertiary and vocational education. It promises human development outcomes (e.g., life expectancy and nutrition) and access (health, education, housing, lighting, and radios).

(continues)

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- All laws discriminating against women have been promised to be replaced. This replacement is actually underway, but the policy matrix does not mention it.
- Post genocide problems are flagged, including polygamy, nonlegal marriages, and prostitution.
- The impacts of rape during and following the genocide, including the gendered impact on household disintegration and on AIDS/HIV, are analyzed well.
- A strong link between human rights and poverty is noted, but it lacks gender dimension.
- Governance issues that neglect gender including national reconciliation, police, and civil service reform are noted.

In the final analysis, there is strong gender mainstreaming in many issues, but lack of it in many others.

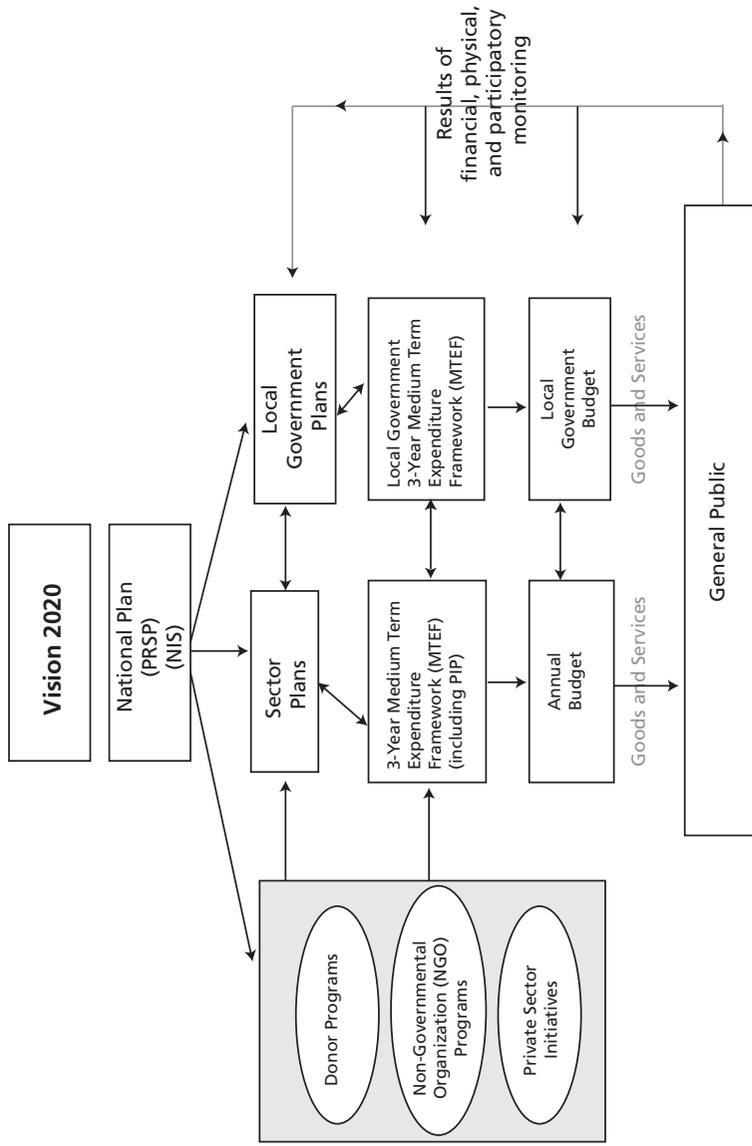
Source: Zuckerman and Garrett, 2003

This long-term development tool has been elaborated on to serve as the basis for transforming the country from a third-world, low-income country to a middle-income democracy.

Gender cuts across issues in all fundamental pillars, with targeted actions like updating and adapting laws with gender aspects; supporting education for all; eradicating all forms of discrimination; combating poverty; practicing practical positive discrimination in favor of women; promoting female presence in associative and cooperative networks; and generalizing training and information regarding gender and population issues.

Decentralization policy. The decentralization policy framework in Rwanda is currently elaborated in four policy instruments: (1) the Decentralization Policy, adopted in 2000; (2) the Decentralization Implementation Strategy adopted in 2000; (3) the Fiscal and Financial Decentralization Policy adopted in 2001; and (4) the Community Development Policy adopted in 2001. The need for a decentralized policy framework was due to some of the key identified past challenges like poor representation and participation in administrative and economic and political management issues. This policy envisions active representation of women and youth in the councils that function as their parliament. The strategic objectives and the challenges and constraints of Rwanda's decentralization policy framework are summarized in Box 3.3.

Figure 3.1 Linkages in the Planning and Budgetary System



Source: Repim, 2003

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Box 3.3 Strategic Objectives and Challenges/Constraints

Strategic objectives

- To enable and reactivate local people to participate in initiating, making, implementing, and monitoring decisions and plans that concern them
- To strengthen accountability and transparency in Rwanda
- To enhance the sensitivity and responsiveness of public administration to the local environment
- To develop sustainable economic planning and management capacity at local levels
- To enhance effectiveness and efficiency in the planning, monitoring, and delivery of services

Challenges and constraints

- Developing sustainable financing of decentralization
- Coordinating the process
- Building human and institutional capacities
- Establishing coherence in the planning process, including:
 - Collecting accurate and reliable statistical data to monitor poverty indicators at all levels and other development activities
 - Harmonizing the local government planning activities with national planning strategies and priorities
 - Integrating crosscutting concerns of gender and environment and their implications

Source: Reports by USAID/Rwanda Decentralisation Assessment

National Gender Policy. The NGP was drafted in 2001 and updated and approved by cabinet in January 2004. This policy is a framework for gender mainstreaming in the development process both for the government and its partners. The NGP objective is to have the gender dimension mainstreamed in designing, implementing, monitoring, and evaluating the various policies, programs, and government budget.

3.3 Gender Integration

3.3.1 Strengths

- *Political will*—There is strong political will at the highest level of the government of Rwanda. The budget of a government expresses its priorities and choices, and as pointed out by Budlender (1997), “any budget is intrinsically political. The budget determines from whom the state gets resources, and to whom and what it allocates them. Each decision

is a political one, as is the decision on the overall size of the budget.” This means there is the political will and decision to ensure that the government’s budget meets the specific needs of women and men, girls and boys, and makes gender budgeting a success within the government of Rwanda’s budget (GRB). For example, women’s stand-alone budgetary allocations have been undertaken as budgetary support to women’s district funds, commonly known as IBIGEGA.

- *Ministries’ staff gender awareness*—Prior to the planning of the Rwanda budget, MIGEPROFE undertook training on gender awareness for ministries and provincial government staffs. This made them sensitized to gender issues.
- *Strong involvement of the leadership of MIGEPROFE*—The minister and the secretary-general of MIGEPROFE have strong commitment to the initiative.
- *Existence of other reforms*—The fact that the GRB is taking place alongside a set of reforms whose objectives are consistent with the gender budget creates a synergy that is conducive to the implementation of the initiative.
- *Existence of strong collaboration between MIGEPROFE and MINICOFIN*—MIGEPROFE is small, and the fact that it collaborates with MINICOFIN, which is considered very powerful, enhances its capacity to influence the government’s budget. At the same time, the collaboration enables MIGEPROFE to sensitize MINICOFIN on gender issues so that it can further engender its own work.

3.3.2 Lobbying for Gender Integration

In Rwanda lobbying for gender integration is a task that has been developed at the government level by such organizations as FFRP or at the civil society level. It is in this context that UNIFEM and other forums for women in Rwanda have been undertaking capacity-building programs to all concerned sectors on the integration of the gender dimension into the planning level. At the implementation level, for instance:

- MINICOFIN initiated the exercise of introducing the gender dimension into the budgeting procedures, mainly the public budgets.
- Women’s stand-alone budgetary allocations have been undertaken as budgetary support to women’s districts funds, known as IBIGEGA.
- A gender desk was established with support by UNIFEM in the Ministry of Law, which resulted in reformed inheritance and marriage laws.
- The Justice and Reconciliation Committee incorporated women after being criticized for not having any female judges and for humiliating female witnesses.

3.4 Constraints to Gender Budgeting

3.4.1 Economic and Social Constraints

Rwanda was ranked 129 out of 144 countries in the 2004 UNDP Human Development Report in terms of the status, treatment, and participation of women. It also ranks equally poorly in the Gender-related Development Index (GDI). Table 3.4 provides background information for some of the socioeconomic constraints impacting gender budgeting in Rwanda.

Extreme poverty. Rwanda is one of Africa's poorest countries, a situation exacerbated by conflict and political instability—both national and regional—in the 1990s. Per capita income has slipped from US\$370 in 1990 to US\$220 in 2004. Sixty percent of the population falls below the national poverty line (US\$125), compared with a sub-Saharan average of 46 percent. Nearly 98 percent of the poor live in rural areas, while 75 percent of Kigali-urban residents occupy the top expenditure quintile.

The economy rests on a narrow base that is highly vulnerable to weather conditions and fluctuations in international commodity prices for the main exports, which are coffee, tea, cassiterite, coltran, and tin. Agriculture accounts for 90 percent of the labor force, but remains predominantly at a subsistence level. A large number of rural household farm plots are too small to earn a living, while demographic pressures aggravate already intense exploitation of land.

Table 3.4 Rwanda Demographic and Socioeconomic Data

Item	Data
Total Population (2005)	9,038,000
Population in Urban Areas (2005)	21.7%
GDP per capita (2004)	US\$893
Life Expectancy at Birth (2003)	45 years
Healthy Life Expectancy at Birth for Males/Females (2002):	36.4/40.2 years
Child Mortality per 1000	211
Adult Mortality for Males/Females per 1000	518/435
Adult Literacy Rate for Males/Females (2000–2004)	70%/59%
Total Health Expenditure per capita (2003)	US\$32
Total Health Expenditure as % of GDP (2003)	3.7%
AIDS/HIV Infection Rate for People Aged	7–11% urban
15–49 (2004)	2–5% rural
Human Development Index (HDI) Rank (2003)	159th of 177
Gender Development Index (GDI) Rank (2003)	122nd of 140
% of Total Budget Funded by Donors (2001)	65%

Source: UNDP, 2004

Healthcare issues. There is high dependence on donor aid for healthcare, which has some limitation on expenditures, as in the case of the Ministry of Health. Aid is spent in public or public-sector assisted facilities, but government manages only 14 percent of aid to health, and only 20 percent of total health expenditures—less than the NGOs' 27 percent. The result of projects by-passing government planning and budgeting results in a distorted spending pattern and high administrative costs absorbing 27 percent of health spending (Table 3.5).

Limited capacity. The limited expertise in general, and in gender analysis and gender mainstreaming in particular, is one of the critical constraints of the government of Rwanda's budget (GRB). This is due to one of the aftermaths of the 1994 genocide that destroyed the country's human resources. The average education level of the labor force is low and the labor market offers few opportunities for paid employment outside the public sector. In 2000, the labor force had only an average of 5.7 years of education, 3.5 in the informal sector (World Bank, 2004). Almost two-thirds of the population had completed some primary schooling, but only 3.5 percent and 0.4 percent had completed some secondary or tertiary education, respectively. Unemployment among Rwandans with only some primary education is a high 61 percent (compared with the sub-Saharan average of 29 percent), and considerably higher than that for graduates of secondary and tertiary education (24 and 6 percent, respectively) (Appendix, Table 4). As a result of the limited capacity, the sustainability of the GRB is very critical, and will need regular assistance on gender mainstreaming, although the officers have been sensitized to gender issues.

Staff turnover. Staff turnover in ministries as the result of a limited human resource base to meet the increasing developments and investments represents a risk as officers who have already been trained and involved in the process of engendering budgets might be lost. This will affect the sustainability of the government of Rwanda's budget.

Table 3.5 Management of Donor Aid for Health

Funding Agent	Share of donor aid (%)
NGO	55%
Development Partner Direct Management	19%
Central Government	14%
Local Government or Health District	12%
TOTAL	100%

Source: Ministry of Health, Rwanda, 2005

3.4.2 Policy Document Constraints

The complexity of the existing planning instruments shows that Rwanda has a good framework from which gender issues can be integrated either at the policy level or with budgeting procedures. Evaluation of the progress made by line ministries in engendering their budgets, however, indicates that there still are constraints to making the process effective, as will be shown by the case study on education. The following hypotheses are considered to be the reasons for this discrepancy:

- There is a lack of consensus on who should be responsible for defining the gender indicators to be integrated into the above-mentioned policy documents. Line ministries and public institutions still consider the promotion of gender equity the sole duty of MIGEPROF. This places a lot of demand on the latter, which does not have enough capacity to satisfy the growing number of requests.
- There is a lack of institutionalization of the promotion of gender equity. For example, the limited consistency of the MINEDUC team in following up the institutionalization of the gender-budgeting exercise is related to the lack of institutionalization of the promotion of gender equity in general in Rwanda (Diop, 2004). Although there is high political will, this is yet to be accompanied by a process of institutional changes, specifically changes in structures, procedures, and mechanisms to spread responsibilities and accountability throughout the ministries for an effective delivery of gender equity.
- There is a lack of technical capacity to define specific gender indicators within the policy documents.
- There is weak awareness or resistance by leading policy makers on the need to integrate the gender dimension into the policy documents.
- There is misunderstanding among key players. An interview report carried out in relation to the 2003 Gender and Education Review indicated that some role players are still expecting definite numbers and percentages attached to gender expenditure. This is a misunderstanding as gender budgeting is a mainstream exercise (Diop, 2004). A definite number and percentages may be found for some girls and women's specific and gender-targeted expenditure like FAWE's programs that are specifically designed for girls and women. The most important aspect of gender budgeting is its analysis on how general expenditures affect and reach male and female citizens differently (Budlender, 2003).
- Sustainability is an issue due to the fact that the noninstitutionalization of the exercise along with the lack of capacities compromise effective understanding and implementation of the gender-budget initiative by local officers without external assistance.

There is resistance by some of the development partners to channel their financial support through the government's basket funds, preferring to continue controlling their funds through projects. Therefore, the potentialities to promote gender equity in education through a sector-wide approach are at present extremely limited. In this case, one can stress that there is a gap between donors' declared intention and what they do in reality.

There are resource constraints. The cash budgeting system adopted by the government to address the resource constraints constitutes a disincentive for the officers including those of MINEDUC.

3.4.3 Budget Process Constraints

Administrative capacity. The administrative capacity at the provincial and district levels is generally weak, although the central government has started first initiatives under the coordination of the MINALOC to strengthen administrative capacity at the decentralized units, particularly with regard to public accounting and procurement. There isn't as yet a well-defined system for ensuring the availability of data in a form that will facilitate consolidation of district data with central government information or the analysis of resources and requirements across districts. Similarly, there are no provisions, as yet, for revenue sharing between districts or between districts and the central government to meet basic equity considerations and ensure standards can be met by all districts.

Funds transfer. There are delays in transfers of public resources from the central administration to primary beneficiaries, and possible leakages between regional and district health offices. The discrepancy between the amount transferred by the Rwandan Central Bank (BNR; Banque Nationale du Rwanda) to regional health offices (RHO) for local administration of health services and the total amounts recorded to have been received by the RHOs tended to be significant and variable across gender responsive budgeting. Box 3.4 shows the funding process for regional health offices (RHOs), district health offices (DHOs), provincial education offices (PEOs), and district educational offices (DEOs).

An assessment review by the MTEF revealed that while the processes for the release of operational funds to the PEOs and RHOs are systematic, the actual releases were irregular and often delayed, but the release of funds from the PEOs and RHOs to the DEOs and DHOs was unsystematic. The amounts and timing appeared to be at the discretion of provincial and regional officers and there were no systems and requirements for accountability for the budgetary resources provided to the PEOs, RHOs, DEOs, and DHOs.

Budget reporting. Although Rwanda budget reporting broadly follows the government financial statistics definition of consolidated general government,

116 *Gender Budgeting as a Tool for Poverty Reduction***Box 3.4 Flows of Fund Processes for RHOs/DHOs and PEOs/DEOs**

Step 1. Operational Budget: Once the National Assembly approves the budget based on the Annual Finance Law, the flow of funds process starts with a request by the sectoral ministry to MINECOFIN for the release of funds from specific budget lines. Release of funds proceeds to RHOs and their respective DHOs and PEOs and their respective DEOs.

Step 2. Sector ministry: The budget accounting officer in the ministry submits a formal request to MINECOFIN for the release of funds, with clear indication of the amount to be paid to the commercial bank account of the provincial/regional office.

Step 3. MINECOFIN: The Department of Budget in MINECOFIN reviews the request and verifies that it is consistent with the budget appropriations. Once cleared, the request is transmitted to the Office of the Treasurer (OT) for verification of the availability of funds. Note: Any delays at this level would not be the result of cumbersome administrative procedures but are often due to non-availability of funds at the time of the request.

Step 4. OT: Once the request goes through the internal clearance process within MINECOFIN and is approved, the OT authorizes the BNR to credit the account of the provincial office at a commercial bank.

Step 5. The BNR: The BNR transfers the funds to the Kigali headquarters of the commercial bank with the account of the provincial office.

Step 6. Commercial banks: The headquarters office of the commercial bank remits the funds to the relevant branch for the benefit of the provincial office. No delays occur at this level because the transaction is purely internal to the bank.

Step 7. PEOs and RHOs: These administrative units remit funds to the district level offices.

Step 8. DEOs and DHOs: This is the end of the flow chain, as no funds were remitted to schools or health centers.

Source: World Bank, 2003

the budget coverage is comprehensive for consolidated central government. Districts and the social security fund (*Caisse Sociale du Rwanda*) are not consolidated.⁵ The budget covers central government ministries, provinces, autonomous, and semiautonomous agencies under the ministries with their full budget detail. The budget also contains one-line allocations for special funds (e.g., Victims of Genocide Fund, National Road Network Fund), some of which are funded out of earmarked revenues with the expenditure framework determined by the revenues collected.⁶ The development budget, which is largely externally funded and comprises about one-third of the total budget, is budgeted only by highly aggregate programs and projects. In the past, several ministries and agencies have benefited from nonbudgeted funds from fees, for which tracking was quite limited.

Government activities are not funded through extra budgetary sources to a significant degree. The central government expenditures from domestic resources are largely accounted for. In the past, nontax revenues (fees and charges) were spent directly by ministries and agencies, and some funds (e.g., the National Forestry Fund or the National Road Network Fund) directly received earmarked resources. From 2002, virtually all revenues are to go through the treasury account at the BNR. Resources for the National Road Network Fund will retain a separate account at the BNR, but will be managed by the Treasury.

Lack of a comprehensive chart of accounts and associated procedures, nontax revenue reporting, especially for autonomous and semiautonomous designations, makes the agencies somewhat ad hoc. The monitoring of external donor inflows—especially for projects—is poor. Thus, while total commitments on expenditures for donor-funded projects are known, incomplete reporting results in an imprecise record of actual outlays.

3.5 Recommendations

In sum, there is a strategic framework for engendering the existing budget in Rwanda. However, the following factors should be put in place to improve gender budgeting, and thus produce a greater impact:

- At the planning and budget level, gender targets should be clearly defined with targets with specified financial implication for all sectors of the country. This may be better viewed on the budgeting system by program. The budget allocation report should be able to reflect these specifications.
- At the budget execution level, the internal audit on spending should be strengthened. All reports on public budget execution should have the same reporting structure as the budget allocation so that it is possible to evaluate the level of budget implementation and plan future gender activities. In addition to the budgeting procedures, actions are needed to accelerate the process of budget decentralization and the integration of the accounting systems. In conjunction with the delays in resource availability, this can be a problem at subnational levels, when sectors try to plan and execute their activities.
- There is need to build capacity in gender budgeting as it is key for the gender development objective.
- The gender-budgeting process requires an improved coordination capability with other sectors impacting gender, to be able to identify programs or innovative approaches that can help meet the needs of women.

CASE STUDY:
GENDER BUDGETING IN THE EDUCATION SECTOR OF RWANDA

3.6 Introduction

Within the Rwandan government and among development partners, the education sector is widely regarded as one of the only sectors to have developed a comprehensive plan with a sectorwide approach to planning, budgeting, and donor harmonization.

The education sector has remained at the forefront of the government's priorities. The government has implemented a policy of fee-free primary education in which school fees have been abolished and replaced by a capitation grant, which has increased to RWF2,500 (US\$4.50) in 2006. Shortfalls in financing at the school level persist, however, with parents typically being asked to finance this gap. Nonfee barriers to primary education also remain and are thought to have some effect on access to education, especially for girls. For example, the cost of school uniforms and learning materials widens the gender gaps. This has led to the need of new perspectives toward institutionalization of gender equity in education in Rwanda. The Rwandan government has prioritized education of girls; and gender development is recognized as a key component in improving economic and social well-being. The government is fully aware that investing in girls' education contributes to the achievement of critical social objectives like decreased fertility and infant mortality, increased child health, and improved productivity.

In Rwanda, gender budgeting is viewed as a transformative strategy for promoting gender equity in education, and as such it needs time, consistent efforts, and resources. To do so, MIGEPROFE has elaborated its strategic plan based on wide consultations, including with MINEDUC.

The key actors for engendering the education budget are as follows:

- MINEDUC, with the Directorate of Planning playing a key role;
- MIGEPROF; and
- MINECOFIN, particularly the Directorate of Budget, PRSP Unit, and Directorate of Statistics.

The plan will be implemented by promoting the:

- GFPs to be institutionalized, including advocacy for establishment of mechanisms to define responsibilities and accountability at the managerial level.
- Actions undertaken by the MIGEPROFE to use as an entry point for the reform of the civil service that is underway.

- The fact that the new constitution is gender sensitive is a critical advantage as it enables a concrete approach to advocate for effective change. The constitution also stipulates the creation of a gender observatory, with the mandate to oversee effective translation into actions at all levels—strategic, institutional, and operational—of the government’s commitment to gender equity. This will help address the need to institutionalize gender equity in Rwanda.
- Certain donors like DFID are keen to support such an institutionalization for greater impact on gender equity in education, including gender budgeting. DFID is currently supporting MINEDUC to carry out a comprehensive and updated gender review of the education system so that an effective implementation of a specific gender policy in education can be formulated.
- The government is currently engaged in discussion with development partners on coordination of interventions in all sectors. The development partners are organized into clusters, and the key partner in each cluster is assigned the coordination responsibility. This process could open opportunities for furthering the gender budgeting in education through a sectorwide approach.

3.7 Education Sector Institutional Framework

Rwanda has had a medium-term (three-year rolling) Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP) since 2003. The ESSP is derived from the Long-Term Strategy and Financial Framework (LTSFF), which in turn is guided by Vision 2020. The ESSP is directly linked to the government’s rolling three-year MTEF. The ESSP is fully consistent with PRSP priorities listed earlier.

The LTSFF and ESSP advance seven main policy goals, as follows:

- Achieve universal completion of quality primary education by 2015, and expand opportunities for all Rwandans to achieve nine years of basic education;
- Provide increased opportunities for early childhood development, adult literacy, secondary and tertiary education, and children with special needs;
- Improve quality, efficiency, and cost-effectiveness at all levels;
- Promote multilingualism and the teaching of science and technology with a special focus on information and communication technologies (ICT) for a more adaptable labor force;
- Integrate cross-cutting issues like respect for human rights, AIDS/HIV prevention, gender equality, environment, hygiene, and health throughout the education system;
- Improve governance and transparency, and planning, management, and administration capacities; and

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- Promote research for national development in partnership with the private sector.

3.8 General Context and Recent Development

Rwanda's education system, which comprises four levels: preschool and kindergarten; primary; secondary; and tertiary education, has improved remarkably in recent years after a steep decline due to the 1994 genocide. Thus, the gross primary school enrollment ratio currently exceeds 100 percent while the net ratio is estimated at 93 percent. The Rwanda education system is organized as follows:

- *Preschool and kindergarten*—This level, for children aged three to six, was only institutionalized in 1985. It is still not widely available and comprises some 260 daycare centers, almost all of which are private (only two are government owned). In 2003, 18,399 children, representing 1 percent of total preschool-age children, were enrolled in preschool. There is no national training program for preschool teachers, whose training is often limited to on-the-job training.
- *Primary education*—In 2003/04 primary education comprised 2,262 schools and 1,752,588 pupils, 51 percent of whom were girls. Of the 29,385 classrooms inventoried, over 50 percent were permanent structures, 38 percent semipermanent structures, 5 percent wooden structures, while 4 percent operated practically in the open air. The increasing number of students has led to the quasi institutionalization of double shifting. The transition rate from the primary to the secondary level is currently 64 percent. The repeater and drop-out rates are 21 percent and 15 percent, respectively. Primary education has increased sharply in recent years, but the completion rate remains low (44.5 percent in 2003/04). In the same year, there were 26,192 teachers, 55 percent of whom were women. The proportion of qualified teachers was 88 percent in 2003/04. The teacher/pupil ratio was estimated at one teacher to 67 students in 2003/04.
- *Secondary education*—Currently secondary education comprises two cycles: a lower cycle (*Tronc Commun*) that lasts three years followed by an upper cycle that also lasts three years. It comprises the following streams: general education, vocational training, and technical education. Overall, in 2003/04, 203,551 students were enrolled in 504 secondary education institutions: 147 government, 139 private or subsidized, and 218 private schools. The total number of students enrolled in the lower cycle in 2003/04 was 131,427, of whom 40.6 percent were in private schools, 31.6 percent in private subsidized schools, and 27.6 percent in public schools. The total percentage of girls (47.63

percent) remains relatively stable during the three years of the lower cycle. The repeater rate is slightly higher in the second and third years (11 percent and 15 percent, respectively). The second cycle comprises 72,124 students, 46.71 percent of whom are girls. These students are enrolled in 15 streams. Among these streams, the arts stream represents 5.44 percent; social sciences, 17.60 percent; maths-physics, 7.03 percent; biology-chemistry, 13.81 percent; and teacher training in teacher training colleges, 13.26 percent. With respect to internal performance, overall, the drop-out rate has stood at about 5 percent since 2001, but is slightly lower for girls. In 2003/04, the number of teaching staff at the secondary level was 7,750, of whom 20 percent were women. The proportion of qualified teachers is estimated at 51 percent in total and at only 23 percent for women.

- *Tertiary Education.* In 2003/04, there were fourteen government institutions of tertiary education and eight private institutions, with a total of 25,233 students, 39.10 percent of whom were female. Economic sciences and management and the social sciences accounted for 43.4 percent of student enrollment, compared with 14.1 percent for science and technology. Most of these institutions employ expatriates to meet their need for qualified teachers.

3.9 Gender Patterns in Education in Rwanda

Gender differentials in Rwanda have been documented in various studies and surveys. The Household Living Conditions Survey (2001) estimates women's illiteracy rate at 48.6 compared to 37.5 percent for men. The 2003 administrative data from MINEDUC estimate the net enrollment rate at primary school at 74.9 percent for girls and 74 percent for boys, with a little advantage for girls. Although there is no difference between girls' and boys' enrollment rates at primary school, girls' admission to public secondary school is far behind that of boys: 36 percent for girls against 63 percent for boys.

Girls' attendance and performance constitute one of the main challenges of Rwanda's education system. The 2001 Household Living Conditions Survey estimates that about 3.5 percent of primary school pupils drop out before the completion of the primary cycle, with a higher incidence among girls and differences between rural and urban areas. While girls might be enrolled, their poor attendance results in their poor performance. Girls drop out due to the costs, which are estimated at 41 percent compared to 32 percent for boys. In addition, 17 percent of girl dropouts compared to 11 percent for boys is due to the fact that the girls have to help their mothers with the domestic tasks. Girls' low attendance and performance are also related to the low importance communities attach to girls' education, as highlighted by the study on *Beliefs, Attitudes and Practices in Relation to Gender in Rwanda* carried out in 2000 by

122 *Gender Budgeting as a Tool for Poverty Reduction***Table 3.6 Progressive Performances of Girls from Primary through Upper Secondary School by Percent**

Year	Primary % Girls Passed	Lower Secondary % Girls Passed	Upper Secondary % Girls Passed
2001	37	41	44
2002	37	35	47
2003	42	34	48
2004	39	33	48
2005	39	34	41

Source: NEPAD, 2006

the Ministry of MIGEPROFE. The 2000 Festival organized by the Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE) Rwanda Chapter emphasized that girls are subject to sexual harassment in school. Also, the lack of sanitation in many schools constitutes a critical disincentive for girls' attendance and performance at school.

Low attendance and performance exist in all levels from primary to high education for girls. With regard to the latter, gender disparities persist and become worse. Females account for only 26.8 percent of the student body in public institutions of tertiary education. In contrast, they are a slight majority in the private institutions whose quality is considered by many observers as poorer. Although recent accurate data on females' dropout rate at the higher education level is not available, they are considered higher than that of males. The main reasons are related to societal pressures to marry, pregnancy, and abortion.

One of the main causes of the low level of education of the population as a whole and gender inequalities in particular is the bad governance and discrimination that characterized Rwanda's history that culminated in the 1994 genocide.

3.9.1 Disparities Based on Category and Level of Schools

The differences seem to be at three levels: (1) the rate of promotion in the two secondary education sublevels, (2) the type of school, whether public or private; and (3) the survival rate in secondary school (Appendix, Table 4).

The repetition rate of a class is different between the two sublevels: 10.4 percent (9.1 percent in 2003) at the entire general education certificate level compared to 5.3 percent (6.4 percent in 2003) at the advanced education certificate level. These rates differ depending on the legal status of the schools (public and private schools). It is higher in public schools.

The supply of education services has particularly been dominated by the private sector: Out of 504 schools that Rwanda had in 2004, only 29 percent (19 percent in 2003) of them were public schools, 27.6 percent (28 percent in

2003) were subsidized schools, while 43.3 percent (53 percent in 2003) belonged to the private sector. These national averages hide major differences and disparities between provinces. For instance, 77.6 percent (85 percent in 2003) of secondary schools in Kigali city council were private.

The analysis of all secondary schools has revealed a gap between a general school certificate education (the first three years of secondary school) and the higher or advanced certificate of education level (the last three years of the secondary education). Of 100 students admitted in the first year of secondary school, only 65 reach the third year. At the higher certificate level, the rate is 65.9. Thus, the average rate of survival in the six years of secondary school is 35.3 percent (43 percent in 2003).

3.9.2 Reasons for the Gender Gap

Girls are facing problems in their education, as early as primary education. Indeed access rates for boys and girls are similar at primary level, but the gender gap does exist for performance, retention, and repetition. According to MINEDUC 2003 statistics, only 20.0 percent of girls pass form 6 (primary 6) exams, as against 31.6 percent for boys. The gap widens in secondary education with 26.8 percent of girls passing secondary 3 exams as opposed to 49.3 percent of boys; and even more at the tertiary level (only 26 percent of girls graduated from the national University of Rwanda, Butare, in 2003).

A number of studies have already shown the reasons for gender disparities in Rwanda. The following list summarizes many of these disparities:

- At the macro level, factoring in overall poverty results in inadequate allocation of resources for education.
- AIDS/HIV pandemics, war, and genocide with their consequences on girls and women add to the difficulties.
- Sociocultural factors hinder the education of girls. Some parents have attitudes that girls and boys are different and favor boys. Such factors also include child labor, early marriage for girls, and gender socialization. To address these issues, attitudes need to be targeted through an informed advocacy.
- Legal and policy factors need to be addressed. Until recently, there was no national girls' educational program. There were limited and poorly coordinated interventions and implementation of existing laws and policies that are often slow or difficult.

3.10 Gender-Specific Interventions to Promote Female Education in Rwanda

The Rwanda gender dimension has been mainstreamed in the education sector strategy as well as the ordinary budget of MINEDUC. Some positive and

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precedent-setting key actions to promote girls' education have been adopted and implemented. Examples of Rwanda's initiatives to promote gender equity and equality in education include the following:

- Setting up Centres of Excellence for girls and creating a favorable environment for improved performance of girls.
- The Education-for-All (EFA) policy has been adopted, including fee-free primary education.
- Incorporating gender studies in the life skills curriculum of primary and secondary schools to increase gender awareness among teachers and students.
- Affirmative action for girls' accommodation in public universities, especially at the Kigali Institute of Science and Technology (KIST), the National University of Rwanda (NUR), the Kigali Institute of Education (KIE); and admission to science and technology courses at KIST.
- The Rwanda Chapter FAWE has established a model girl's secondary boarding school in the country, but the demand for such schools far exceeds the supply. FAWE intends to establish four more similar schools in different regions of the country to improve the quality of education delivered to the girl child and to improve excellence in education countrywide.
- Government has facilitated the establishment of a Students' Financing Agency for Rwanda, for extending student loans (to women and men) to those who wish to undertake tertiary education. However, the competition for these loans is intense, and the resources available are limited compared to demand. Yet, in the midst of this competition, there is no provision for treating female applications differently, neither is there a specific quota for women.
- Other affirmative measures include several bursaries offered by the First Lady and women leaders' initiatives to encourage girls' participation and excellence in secondary schools. These include awards to best girl students and payment of tuition for brilliant girls in the best schools in the country. Unfortunately these schemes are not sufficiently regular. There is, therefore, a need to establish a system by which such schemes can be brought together, consolidated, and extended to more recipients.
- The government's policy of universal primary education started being implemented in 2003 and has helped reduce the gap between primary school enrollment for girls and boys. The government recently announced a policy change in which children would spend nine instead of six years in primary school, but its gender implications are yet to be determined.

Vision 2020 education and vocational training has made impressive gains in terms of access and quality; budgetary allocations to education have been increased for that purpose. This resulted in the increase in primary education.

For example, over a four-year period 1998/99 to 2002/03, the gross enrollment rate (GER) increased from 86.4 percent to 109.2 percent (26 percent increase) for girls while that of boys rose from 89.5 percent to 111.2 percent (24 percent increase). For the same period, the net enrollment rate (NER) rose from 69.7 percent to 78.9 percent (13 percent increase) for girls and from 70.2 percent to 77.7 percent (11 percent increase) for boys. However, females are still underrepresented even in primary education, albeit the gender gap is closing slowly over the four-year period (from 3.1 percent to 2 percent in the GER).

3.11 Engendering the Budget of the Ministry of Education

MINEDUC was selected in 2002 to be one of five pilot ministries for the first phase of implementation of the Rwanda gender-budget initiative. Integrating gender perspectives into the budget of MINEDUC aims at translating into actions the government's dual commitment on gender equity and education so as to drastically reduce the observed gender imbalances.

3.11.1 Specific Objectives of Engendering the Education Sector

Because the main challenge Rwanda is facing with regard to gender equity in education is females' attendance and performance, the specific objectives of engendering the education sector emphasized by the gender-budget initiative are as follows:

- Go beyond access to education and promote a qualitative and equitable education attendance and performance for females and males at all levels of education;
- Use the human rights framework to promote gender sensitive education policies, programs, and budgets;
- Ensure that the budget decision-making process and resource allocation to education take full account of the gender patterns analyzed in the national education system (e.g., girls' high repetition, high dropout rates, and very low performance compared to that of boys, and women's high illiteracy rate compared to men; and
- Raise the awareness level of the technicians on the importance of gender equity in education as a human right, a development goal in its own right, and a condition sine qua non for achieving other development goals.

3.12 Programs to Support Gender Budgeting in the Education Sector

The following describes the programs and their role in supporting gender budgeting in education:

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- *Institutional framework*—MINEDUC is currently the only ministry responsible for formal and nonformal education, although other ministries are also involved in the education sector. These include MINALOC, the Ministry of the Public Service and Labor (MIFOTRA), services formerly under the responsibility of the Ministry of Youth, Sports, and Culture (MIJESPOC), and MIGEPROF.
- *Budget allocations to education*—The government's efforts to promote gender equality in education are also translated into the budget allocation to the education sector. As noted above, total education spending increased by 12 percent between 2004 and 2005, and on its own accounted for almost half (49 percent) of the total priority expenditure in 2005. The increase was mainly allocated to the implementation of the free primary education policy. In the 2005/06 budget for education, a specific budget line (RWF70 million) for a girls' empowerment program in science and technology at KIST has been developed, targeting 215 girls.
- *Education sector strategic plan*—Within the framework of poverty reduction and of Vision 2020, Rwanda prepared and adopted a new education sector policy in September 2002. The stated mission of this strategy is to contribute to poverty reduction while improving the well-being of the population. This involves fighting illiteracy and providing the human resources capacity needed for the socioeconomic development of the country. The objectives are to: (1) provide quality education that is accessible to all; (2) improve the quality and relevance of education; (3) promote science and technology education, with special emphasis on ICT; (4) promote trilingualism; (5) promote respect for human rights; and (6) promote health and research as a factor of human capital development.
- *International development targets*—Rwanda is committed to international development targets (IDTs) in education like EFA by 2015, narrowing gender disparity in education by 2005, and the use of ICT in education. It is also committed to regional goals like outcome-based curriculum and constant monitoring of learning achievement, and the development of partnership with donors and the private sector in education. The role of education and training in globalization cannot be overemphasized and Rwanda recognizes the benefits and advantages that it can receive from globalization.
- *Vision 2020*—The government's primary objective in Vision 2020 for education is to provide universal primary education by 2010 and subsequently EFA by 2015. Achieving these targets will mean addressing the high drop-out and repetition rates that are higher for girls than boys and with different underlying causes, and reviewing the school curricula and teaching methodology so as to give students skills for development like life skills, including entrepreneurial, practical, and psychosocial skills related to AIDS/HIV. Also, health education, hygiene, environmental protection, and gender studies are to be given due attention.

- *The Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper*—In terms of the PRSP, Rwanda's objective is that every Rwandan citizen—women and men, girls and boys—should be healthy, educated, and housed. Education provides the human capital necessary for poverty reduction, making available the only kind of negotiable capital to which the majority of the population will have access. Key priorities within the PRSP include achieving the international development targets of EFA by 2015 and reducing gender inequality in education; providing textbooks and relevant curricula at all levels of the system; training of more teachers particularly at primary level; and the provision of AIDS/HIV education to all children from an early age.
- *The Medium Term Expenditure Framework*—The MTEF is an important tool for enabling the education and training sector to offer a substantial contribution to the development of Rwanda and its population. The need to increase the current economic capacity and skills base of the country is critical because education and training require careful and sustained planning, guidance, and monitoring if they are to produce the necessary skills and attitudes. It also requires an accurately targeted and monitored expenditure, as well as a close working partnership of all the actors concerned. To this end, it provides a three-year budgetary framework through which ministries are provided with reliable ceilings within which to develop sector strategies and agreed outputs. The MTEF has the following key aims:
 - Link policies, plans, and budgets;
 - Match resource availability with resource requirements over a three-year planning horizon;
 - Allow informed choices among policy objectives;
 - Increase levels of efficiency and effectiveness; and
 - Improve transparency of resource use against an agreed set of outputs.

3.13 Education Financing

3.13.1 Education Budget Allocations

- Education accounts for 15 percent of the national budget. Education expenditure⁷ is on average from 2003 to 2006 RWF52.9 billion (US\$93.9 million). Between 2003 and 2006, education has been 17.4 percent of the total public spending; however, much of this was channeled into secondary and tertiary education at the expense of primary (Appendix, Tables 2 and 3).
- Public expenditure on education, despite the fact that there is room for improvement in some areas, is broadly moving in the right direction, with a particular focus on primary education.

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- Recurrent expenditure on education has averaged about 17.4 percent of total public recurrent expenditure over the period 2003–2006, compared to the Fast-Track Initiative (FTI) benchmark of 20 percent.
- Primary education's share of education recurrent expenditure rose from 40 to 45 percent between 2003 to 2006. This level lies below the 50 percent FTI benchmark.
- Recurrent nonsalary expenditure increased from 16 to 43 percent over the period, raising nominal recurrent expenditure per student from US\$28 to US\$40. The increase is mainly due to the capitation grant.
- Salary expenditure per staff is around four times GDP per capita, reasonably in line with the FTI benchmark of 3.5.
- The share of the education recurrent budget allocated to secondary education has increased from 18 percent in 2003 to 20 percent in 2006.

3.13.2 Education Expenditure

The average education development expenditure from 2003–2006 was RWF8.7 billion and represented 16.2 percent of the total development expenditure. The average recurrent expenditure in the same period was RWF44.2 billion and 3.9 percent of GDP (Tables 3.8 and 3.9).

There seems to be an over-investment in the preprimary and primary education at the expense of other seemingly important subsectors like science, technology, and research and secondary education that would absorb the primary education graduate.

Table 3.7 Education Budget Allocations

Year	Budgeted 2003	Actual 2004	Actual 2005	Budgeted 2006	Average 2003–2006
Total Education Budget (RWF billion)	41.7	49.5	54.6	65.9	52.9
Total US\$million	72.9	87.5	98.5	116.7	93.9
Annual Growth (nominal; RWF billion)		18.7	10.3	20.9	18
Annual Growth (2002 constant; RWF billion)		15.2	15.3	22.7	17.5
% of GDP	4.6	4.7	4.6	5.1	4.7
% of Total Revenue	21.3	18.1	15.6	16.3	17.8
% of Public Expenditure	19.3	18	16	16.3	17.4
% of Public Expenditure-Interest	19.4	18.3	16.2	16.5	17.6

Source: Republic of Rwanda, 2006

3.13.3 Gaps in Education Financing

Some of the major gaps in education financing include the following:

- Only a small amount is budgeted for instructional materials.
- Public expenditure on education has fallen as a share of the total government expenditure (from 19.3 percent in 2003 to 16.3 percent in 2006). Development expenditure fell from over 10 percent of total government development expenditure in 2003 to 7 percent in 2005/06. This is low relative to the continued need for primary and lower secondary infrastructure. Further, 35 percent of development expenditure in 2003 was expenditure on tertiary education.
- Expenditure on tertiary education fell moderately from 35 percent in 2003 to 31 percent of recurrent education expenditure in 2005, but remains high. Student subsidies comprise 42 percent of higher recurrent expenditure, up from 37 percent in 2005. The subsidy covers tuition payments (minimum RWF300,000 a year), and monthly allowance that

Table 3.8 Education Development Expenditure

Year	Budgeted 2003	Actual 2004	Actual 2005	Budgeted 2006	Average 2003–2006
Education Development Expenditure (RWF billion)	7.8	8.9	8.3	10.7	8.7
% of Total Government Expenditure	3.6	3.2	2.4	2.5	2.9
% of Total Development Expenditure	15.6	21.7	16.2	11.2	16.2
% of Total Capital + Net Lending	15.3	9.9	6.8	7.9	10
% of Total Education	18.7	17.9	15.2	15.2	6.7
% Externally Financed	92.6	91.4	63.8	64.9	78.2

Source: Republic of Rwanda, 2006

Table 3.9 Education Recurrent Expenditure

Year	Budgeted 2003	Actual 2004	Actual 2005	Budgeted 2006	Average 2003–2006
Education Recurrent Expenditure (RWF billion)	33.9	40.6	46.3	55.9	44.2
Total US\$million	59.3	71.8	83.6	99	
Annual Growth (nominal; RWF billion)		19.9	14	20.9	16.3
Annual Growth (2002 constant; RWF billion)		16.4	19.2	22.7	24.7
% of GDP	3.7	3.9	3.9	4.3	3.9
% of Public Recurrent Expenditure	21	42.2	21.5	20.1	21.7
% Public Recurrent Expenditure- Interest	21.2	24.8	21.8	20.4	22.1
% of Total Education Expenditure	81.3	82.1	84.8	84.8	83.3

Source: Republic of Rwanda, 2006

130 *Gender Budgeting as a Tool for Poverty Reduction***Table 3.10 Distribution by Level of Education (% of Total Education)**

	Budgeted 2003	Actual 2004	Actual 2005	Budgeted 2006	Average 2003–2006
Distribution by Level of Education by % of Total Education Year					
Preprimary and Primary	40.8	39.3	45.1	44.5	42.4
Secondary	17.7	19.8	17.9	20.1	18.9
Tertiary	35.1	34.5	30.6	28.7	32.2
Science, Technology, and Research	1.8	1.6	1.2	1.8	1.6
Other Levels of Education	0.0	0.3	1.4	3.2	1.2
MINEDUC	4.6	4.4	3.8	1.7	3.6
Total	100	100	100	100	100
Functional Distribution					
Preprimary and Primary	100	100	100	100	100
Salaries and Benefits	84.2	83.6	71.5	57.2	74.1
Goods and Services	15.8	16.4	28.5	42.8	25.9
Transfers	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Secondary	100	100	100	100	100
Salaries and Benefits	64.8	55.4	66.5	54.5	60.3
Goods and Services	35.2	44.6	33.5	24.5	34.5
Transfers	0.0	0.0	0.0	21.0	5.3
Tertiary	100	100	100	100	100
Salaries and Benefits	58.4	59.4	57.1	55.6	57.6
Goods and Services	2.1	1.6	6.1	2.2	3.0
Transfers	39.5	39.0	36.8	42.2	39.4
Low/Internal Scholarships	66.8	65.5	60.0	71.6	66.0
Low/External Scholarships	33.2	34.5	40.0	28.4	34.0

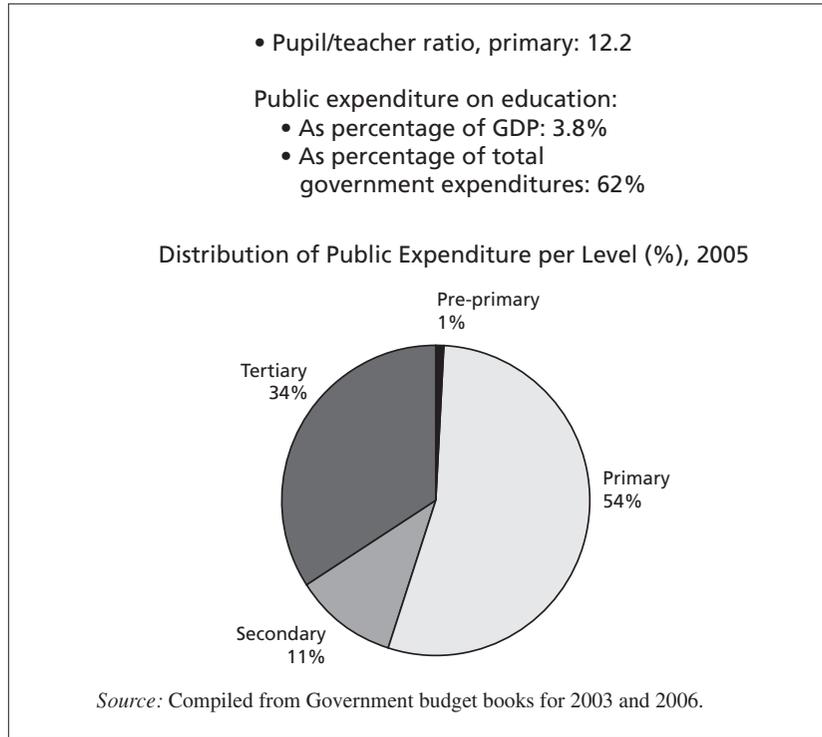
Sources: Government Budget books for 2003 and 2006; outturns for 2004 and 2005 in World Bank, 2006.

Note: Total education expenditure includes education expenditure under MINEDUC and MINALOC.

is over double the monthly per capita income. The gross salary of teaching staff averages 41 times the GDP per capita salary compared to 3.8 times for a primary school teacher. In contrast, the private sector charges substantially lower fees and has accounted for most of the recent growth in tertiary education, particularly among women.

- In 2005/06, external aid as a share of total education expenditure averaged between 37 percent (excluding off-budget expenditure) and 45 percent (including off-budget). Expenditures should have a high priority for tracking across levels of education and functions and showing expenditure reported by donors. This level corresponds roughly to the share of external grants in total government expenditure. However, a large percentage of aid remains off budget. The education sector will require an even higher level of external financing in the future. For proper planning and monitoring of resource flows, it is important that all resources be on budget.

Figure 3.2 Public Expenditure on Education and Distribution per Level of Education



3.13.4 Financing of the Sector and Donor Operations

In an effort to promote equal access to basic education, the government sought to reduce family spending by creating “a fixed allowance per student system.” This fixed allowance, which was RWF330 in 2003, was increased to RWF1,500 in 2005 and RWF2,500 in 2006. Since 2003, this fixed allowance is sent directly to schools. This allowance, which replaces school fees, is provided to make education more accessible to underprivileged populations. The recent decentralization policy implies that funds will be allocated to each province according to its school-age population.

In 2004, education spending represented 23 percent of the operating budget. As a priority area, basic education was the necessary focus of medium- and long-term education spending. Thus, according to MTEF projections for 2005–2007, the share of basic education will rise from 41.7 percent in 2004 to 43.2 percent in 2007. The share of education spending in relation to the operating budget is also projected to grow by 14.55 percent between 2005 and 2007, rising from 22 percent to 25.2 percent.

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In addition to government funds, the sector is currently supported by a combination of budget support from DFID, International Development Agency (IDA), European Union, and Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA); and project support from United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), African Development Fund (ADF), the Netherlands, United States Agency for International Development (USAID), German Technical Cooperation, France, Belgium, IDA, DFID, SIDA, World Food Programme, and UNESCO.

3.14 Education Policy Analysis

3.14.1 The Education Sector Strategic Plan

ESSP is underpinned by the sectoral strategy. It was prepared in 2003 and updated in April 2005 and February 2006 and currently covers the 2006-2010 periods. The ESSP is based on the government's commitment to make education an instrument for promoting social well-being and reducing poverty. This philosophy is in line with the MDGs for education, which seek to ensure primary education for all and to eliminate gender-related disparities.

The ESSP has the following six fundamental principles, which are derived from Vision 2020, the PRSP, and the education sector policy:

- A sectorwide approach;
- Results-based management, particularly with respect to the performance of girls in schools and to women's access to education;
- An MTEF that is consistent with medium-term planning and financial management;
- Strong partnerships at the national and international levels;
- Special emphasis on gender issues; and
- The use of ICT in education as a key element of the education system.

The ESSP is the culmination of the government's efforts to coordinate planning in the education sector using the sector-wide approach. The process is based on a holistic sector approach with the participation of stakeholders and beneficiaries who should be involved in the implementation and future readjustments of the ESSP. The document presents the main development priorities for the education sector, based on a realistic projection of internal and external resources. It is the foundation of the MTEF and of the sector's annual budget. Furthermore, the ESSP could constitute a credible framework for Rwanda's admission to the EFA/FTI in 2006.

The ESSP has five main thrusts, four of which are the school levels: (1) basic education, (2) secondary education, (3) higher education, and (4) science, technology, and research, that integrate the objectives and guiding principles of the education policy, and (5) planning and management, which is a cross-cutting objective. In this context, an array of actions have been planned

to expand education services to all levels, with emphasis on basic education and on improving the quality of its services. These actions include: building and equipping classrooms; revising and adapting programs; training trainers and management personnel; and providing school textbooks and science and ICT equipment, with emphasis on science and technology education.

The strategic objectives of each of the five thrusts, summarized in Table 3.11 below, will be achieved by (1) building new classrooms; (2) training teachers and educational and management staff; (3) acquiring teaching equipment and materials, including ICT; (4) acquiring school textbooks that are adapted to the program, with emphasis on mathematics, science, and technology; and (5) strengthening the education management information system. MINEDUC will prepare annual work plans for all these activities, including the costs, time frames, and responsibilities.

3.14.2 Organization and Management of the Ministry of Education

According to its new organizational chart, MINEDUC comprises the minister, the secretary of state responsible for primary and secondary education, the secretary general, and three units (former directorates): (1) Finance and Human Resources Management; (2) Information and Communication Technologies; and (3) Planning, Policy and Capacity Building.

Table 3.11 Strategic Objectives of the ESSP

Thrust	Strategic Objective
1. Basic education	Increase access to, retention in, and quality of nine-year basic education; improve institutional management and reduce disparities and inequalities.
2. Secondary education	Expand secondary education in line with nine-year basic education by improving access, quality and relevance, with emphasis on the development of science and technology and on ICT.
3. Higher education	Reform and modernize higher education with a view to making it more relevant to better contribute to the training of the human resources needed for the socio-economic development of the country.
4. Science, technology, and research	Create science and technology knowledge bases and the expertise needed to achieve the objectives defined in Rwanda's Vision 2020.
5. Planning and management	Strengthen the capacities of MINEDUC and of other relevant structures at the central and decentralized levels to promote efficiency in the management, monitoring and evaluation of the education system in general and in the implementation of the ESSP in particular.

Source: Ministry of Education, 2006

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3.14.3 Main Constraints Facing the Education Sector

As a result of reconstruction efforts since the 1994 genocide, there has been a general increase in access to all levels of education. The education system, however, still faces weaknesses. These weaknesses include:

- Inadequate resources, despite efforts made in recent years to increase budget allocations to the sector;
- Low completion rates at the primary level (44.5 percent), owing to the high repeater and drop-out rates (21 percent and 15 percent, respectively), resulting in low transition rates to the secondary level;
- Inadequate quantitative and qualitative infrastructure and teaching materials;
- Poorly qualified teaching staff; and
- Gender disparities.

The high drop-out rates are attributable to the poor quality of infrastructure and to parents' lack of resources to meet costs related to educating their children. With respect to girls, several other sociocultural factors come into play, such as parents' preference for educating boys, the obligation for girls to participate in household chores, as well as other factors discussed above.

4

Making Gender Visible in the Budget

4.1 Obligations in International Agreements

As discussed in the Introduction of the research report, most UN members have agreed to abide by international and national instruments that mandate gender equity. Gender budgeting represents a very important mechanism in response to government's commitment to significant international gender instruments including the groundbreaking International Bill of Rights for Women and the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women of 1979 (CEDAW), signed by fifty-one African nations, that enables women to file complaints directly with the CEDAW Committee. United Nations member countries agreed in the Beijing Platform for Action (BPA) of 1995 to twelve primary areas of action for women's development and agreed to establish national machinery to design, promote the implementation of, execute, monitor, evaluate, advocate, and mobilize support for policies that promote the advancement of women. The signatories of the Millennium Declaration and the Adoption of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) resolved in 2000 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," to combat all forms of violence against women, and to implement CEDAW. The African Union (AU), which set a global precedent for gender equality by adopting the principle of gender parity in decision making and elected an equal number of men and women, passed a Constitutional Act that provides for the promotion of gender equality. This commitment has extended the principle of equal representation to all levels of the AU Commission and to other AU organs and programs, including the New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD).

Yet, despite many becoming signatories to critical international agreements, adopting constitutional requirements, and implementing domestic legislation and programs designed to promote gender equality, African countries have not been able to live up to the promises to pursue gender equality. While

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there has been significant progress, taking more deliberate and specific steps to end gender discrimination must be given a higher priority. A review of the most recent Global Gender Gap Index sheds light on where African nations stand on the achievement of gender equality.

4.2 2007 Global Gender Gap Index

The status of 128 countries in closing the gender gap was reported recently in the Global Gender Gap Index (World Economic Forum, 2007). While development planners and policy makers argue that there are issues with applying global standards to African nations, it is quite instructive to review the findings of the recently released Global Gender Gap Index Study for 2007. While acknowledging that gender-based inequality is a phenomenon that affects the majority of the world's cultures, religions, nations, and income groups, the Global Gender Gap study maintains that there are differences in the way gender disparities manifest themselves and how they evolved over time.

The study team developed a framework that was designed to capture the magnitude of these disparities to design effective measures for reducing them. Introduced at the World Economic Forum in 2006, the Global Gender Gap Index aims to provide a tool for benchmarking and tracking global gender-based inequalities on economic, political, education, and health-based criteria. The 128 countries are ranked according to these variables following three basic concepts that make the Index less prejudicial for developing nations (Hausmann, Tyson, and Zalidi, 2007, pp. 3–4):

- *Measurement of gaps and not levels*—This involved taking the focus off levels of available resources and opportunities and placing it on measuring the gaps in access to resources. Thus, countries are ranked according to their gender gaps and not on the level of development.
- *Evaluation of countries based on outcome variables rather than input measures*—Outcome variables are measured in terms of where women and men stand as related to basic rights like health, education, economic participation, and political empowerment. Variables related to inputs like country specific-policies, culture, or customs are not included.
- *Ranking of countries according to gender equality rather than women's empowerment*—The aim here is to focus on if the gap between women and men in the chosen variables has declined, rather than if women are *winning the battle of the sexes*.

A brief review of the regional performance for sub-Saharan Africa is important here. The 2007 Global Gender Gap Index ranks South Africa at 20th among the 128 countries, with South Africa the only country from the region

to hold a place among the top 20 (South Africa ranked 18th in 2006). While its performance in political empowerment is strong, with over 40 percent of its ministers women and over one-third of the positions in parliament held by women, its score on economic indicators is poor, improving only slightly over the 2006 scores. Compared globally, South Africa's gender gap ranking for economic participation and opportunity puts it at 85th in the world, education attainment at 52nd, and health and survival at 65th.

While Rwanda is not included in the Index,¹ Uganda is included and ranks 50th on the global scale; for economic participation and opportunity, it is ranked 41st; education attainment, 104th; health and survival, 64th; and political empowerment, 24th. Other African countries were ranked within the top 50 countries globally, including Lesotho, 26th; Namibia, 29th; Tanzania, 34th; and Mozambique, 43rd. Closely behind were Botswana, 53rd and Ghana, 63rd.

With Lesotho and Namibia holding 2nd and 3rd place in the sub-Saharan region, they moved up in rankings from 2006 where they were in the 43rd and 38th positions, respectively. As in 2006 Lesotho is the only country in the region to have no gender gap on education and health. In Namibia, labor force participation of women rose from 47 percent to 48 percent and wage equality for similar work went up by 10 points. The report notes that Namibia continues to be a strong performer on political empowerment.

African countries that lost places in the Global Gender Index in 2007 were Tanzania, which fell 10 points from 2006; and Botswana, which fell 19 points from 2006, now ranking 34th and 53rd, respectively. Tanzania, which had previously held the top spot on economic participation and opportunity in the world, falls to 4th position due to increases in perceived wage inequality. Botswana, which previously held 34th position, fell due to a widening gap between women and men's estimated earned income and a worsening of the health gap, for which Botswana already holds one of the worst positions in the world, ranking 118 out of 128. The healthy life expectancy of both women and men is excessively low, in part due to the AIDS/HIV epidemic, and Botswana continues to be among the few countries in the world where women have lower life expectancies than men. The rankings for African countries that fall within the highest rankings globally in the survey are reflected in Table 4.1.

According to the survey, there are six African countries that rank first in terms of the health and survival gender gap: Angola, The Gambia, Lesotho, Madagascar, Mauritania, and Mauritius. In terms of economic participation, Mozambique ranks first in the world, while Ghana and Tanzania rank third and fourth. Lesotho is the only African country ranking first in educational attainment, along with fourteen other countries, including the United Kingdom, Australia, France, and Denmark. The next ranked African country is Namibia, which trails far behind, ranking 46.

138 *Gender Budgeting as a Tool for Poverty Reduction***Table 4.1 Global Gender Gap Index Ranking for Top Ten Ranked Sub-Saharan Countries for 2007**

Country	Overall	Economic	Education	Health	Political
South Africa	20	85	52	65	10
Lesotho	26	53	1	1	27
Namibia	29	44	46	103	31
Tanzania	34	4	109	99	29
Mozambique	43	1	120	57	22
Uganda	50	41	104	64	24
Botswana	53	63	30	118	53
Ghana	63	3	106	105	91
Kenya	83	59	97	104	104
Mauritius	85	100	75	1	82

Source: World Economic Forum, 2007, pages 8–9

Consideration must be given to global and regional patterns in terms of the gender gap as reflected in the 2007 rankings. The gender gap survey, which reportedly represents 90 percent of the world's population, indicates that the world is close to eliminating the gap between women and men's health and education outcomes: almost 92 percent of the education outcomes gap and 96 percent of health outcomes gap have been closed. Nevertheless, the gap between women and men on economic participation and political empowerment remains wide: only 58 percent of the economic outcomes gap and only 14 percent of the political outcomes gap have been closed. Further, the report reveals that progress has been made globally since 2006 with the narrowing of the educational attainment gap by 0.5 percent; the political empowerment gap by 0.08 percent; and the economic participation gap by 1.52 percent. With regard to health, however, the gap increases by 0.44 percent.

In terms of regional trends, sub-Saharan Africa and Asia have closed 63 percent of their gender gap, just ahead of the Middle East and North Africa, which occupied the last place with 58 percent. Oceania (Australia and New Zealand) continues to hold the top spot, followed by Western Europe and North America. All three regions have closed over 70 percent of the gender gap. They are followed by Latin America and Eastern Europe, each of which has closed 67 percent of the gender gap.

The findings of this report are significant for African initiatives in gender responsive budgeting. While only twenty-three African countries are included in the 2007 Survey, all are countries that have pledged to promote gender equality and for the most part have taken decisive steps to create nonsexist societies. Most critically, as in the case of South Africa, Uganda, and Rwanda, most have become signatories to the primary international agreements that call for gender equality, have constitutional requirements calling for gender equality, have passed national legislation, and have created programs to support these actions. Yet, there is still much to be done as has been shown in the case

studies within this research report. There are still many issues related to policy implementation, program development, management, and capacity-building that must be addressed in a decisive and concrete manner to make gender policies and programs benefit women and men alike.

4.3 CEDAW as an Instrument for Gender Budgeting

It is significant that international instruments have obligated nations to embrace gender equality as a strategic-policy priority. Thus, this research report has drawn on one of the most comprehensive international agreements for gender equality and reviewed it in terms of what nations should consider to improve gender equality gaps and thereby increase the contributions of women to improve upon economic and social progress. Making women visible in the budgeting processes would then become a reality.

CEDAW sets the standard for substantive equality and autonomy. Its preamble specifically asserts that “State Parties to the International Covenants on Human Rights have the obligation to ensure the equal rights of men and women to enjoy all economic, social, cultural, civil, and political rights.” Through CEDAW, state parties have agreed minimally to the following Articles:

Article 1: State parties accepted the definition of discrimination against women as “any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women . . . of human rights.”

Article 2: State parties agreed to pursue “by all appropriate means and without delay a policy of eliminating discrimination against women.”

Article 3: State parties agreed to take “all appropriate measures, including legislation, to ensure the full development and advancement of women, for the purpose of guaranteeing them the exercise and enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms on the basis of equality with men.”

Article 4: State parties recognized the legitimacy of “temporary special measures aimed at accelerating de facto equality between men and women.”

Article 5: State parties agreed to take all appropriate measures “to modify the social and cultural patterns of conduct of men and women, with the view to achieving the elimination of prejudices and customary and all other practices which are based on the idea of the inferiority or the superiority of either of the sexes or on stereotyped roles for men and women.”

Most significantly for the purposes of this research report, CEDAW has set the precedent by providing the guidelines for analyzing public expenditure programs. CEDAW guidelines call for transparency of budgets aligned with accountability to human rights; and critical to this process is that the budgeting process be aligned with national development plans and goals. For CEDAW, access to services and resources is determined by how budgets are formulated

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and discrimination can either be reinforced or eliminated by budget policies. Thus, gender-responsive budgeting requires a participatory and transparent process, an equitable base, a nondiscriminatory rationale, and calls upon states not to regard women as a vulnerable group who are the beneficiaries of government assistance, but rather as rights holders, whose governments are under obligation to empower and protect them. Drawing upon the findings of the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) report on CEDAW (Elson, 2006, hereafter referred to as the CEDAW Report), this chapter will discuss those critical findings that have particular significance for gender budgeting, utilizing, where possible, the comparisons with the three countries that are the primary subjects of this research report.

Because of the significance of CEDAW and the fact that each of the countries within this research report is a signatory, we have used its framework for applying a rights-approach to budgets from a gender perspective that defines the requirements for good budget performance in the planning, formulation, and execution stages. Most significantly, the CEDAW perspective responds to the challenge of implementation and the need for more concrete measures to be undertaken to increase accountability and to ensure the achievements of the MDGs. Each of the countries in this study has serious problems with implementation of policies and programs designed to promote gender equality in budgetary processes.

The CEDAW framework is appropriate because it provides gender-budget analysis tools to assist in identifying gender gaps, biases in budget allocation, spending, and revenue raising measures. Specifically, CEDAW requires that the raising and spending of public money be nondiscriminatory and consistent with substantive equality between women and men, as autonomous possessors of rights. This implies that a gender perspective on budgets should be primarily concerned with the direct benefits from, and contributions to, government budgets that women and men get as persons in their own right.

Because equality does not necessarily imply identical treatment of men and women, CEDAW recognizes that nonidentical treatment is necessary under certain circumstances to address the biological and socially constructed differences between men and women. For example, CEDAW provides for the following (Elson, 2006, p. 4):

- General measures to improve the position of women and to guarantee their full enjoyment of economic, social, and cultural rights; e.g., the different social roles currently assigned to men and women means that to ensure equal access to services like housing, sanitation, electricity, water supply, transport, and communication (as required by Article 14 [g]), services must be designed and delivered with the differing needs of women and men in mind.
- Adoption of temporary special measures to accelerate the achievement of de facto (or substantive) equality between women and men (Article

4[1]); e.g., measures to accelerate equal participation in politics by women. Such measures are in place until their desired outcomes are realized and have been sustained for a period of time. (CEDAW, General Recommendation 25, paragraph 20.)

- Permanent gender-specific special measures necessitated by biological differences (Article 4[2]). These measures include maternity healthcare services (Article 12[2]). Such measures last until their review is required by scientific and technological knowledge referred to in Article 11(3). (CEDAW, General Recommendations 25, paragraph 16.)

CEDAW not only requires governments to assess how women compare with men as beneficiaries of and contributors to government budgets, but it also clearly sets out three state obligations that must be central in efforts to eliminate discrimination against women in government budgets (CEDAW, General recommendation 25, paragraph 6). These obligations are to ensure that:

- Relevant laws and policies do not discriminate (directly or indirectly) against women in either form or effect and to provide protection against discrimination;
- There is improvement of women's de facto (or substantive) equality; and
- Programs are enacted of which women are beneficiaries and the revenue systems to which they contribute, transform relations and stereotypes that inhibit women's enjoyment of substantive equality.

Other key CEDAW obligations include the requirement that the government secures women's participation as active citizens in decisions about budgets and in their ability to hold governments accountable for the way in which public money is raised and spent.

While most African countries have signed the CEDAW Convention, only twenty-four African signatories² are bound by the CEDAW Optional Protocol, which enjoins states to recognize the competence of CEDAW to: (1) consider petitions from individual women or groups of women who have exhausted all national remedies through a communications procedure; and (2) conduct inquiries into grave or systematic violations of the CEDAW Convention through an inquiry procedure.

4.4 CEDAW's Most Critical Agreed-on Obligations

4.4.1 Analyzing Government Expenditures

This is based on human development expenditure ratios that focus on the share of the expenditure that goes to services that are argued on a priori grounds to be important for poor people (Elson, 2006). Prioritizing expenditures for economic and social rights benchmarks include the following:

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- Public expenditure ratio (share of national income that goes to public expenditure)—Benchmark: 25 percent;
- Social allocation ratio (share of public expenditure that goes to social services including health, education, welfare, social security, water, sanitation, housing, and amenities)—Benchmark: 40 percent;
- Social priority ratio (share of human priority concerns with social services, which for poor countries will be basic education, primary health-care, and basic water)—Benchmark: at least 50 percent of social sector expenditure; and
- Human expenditure ratio (share of national income that goes to expenditure on human priority concerns, which for poor countries are specified as basic education, primary healthcare, basic water)—Benchmark: 5 percent of the GNP.

An attempt to increase the priority given to basic social services was made through the 120/20 Initiative agreed upon at the World Summit on Social Development in 1995. Governments of developing countries agreed to increase spending on basic social services until it amounted to 20 percent of public expenditure, while governments of countries agreed to increase aid to basic services so that it amounted to 20 percent of official development.

As discussed in the CEDAW Report, there are a number of factors that make the calculation of these ratios within the budgetary process difficult and why these ratios for South Africa, Uganda, and Rwanda are not included in this study. In the first place, governments do not represent their budgets in formats that make it easy to examine priorities and resource distributions. Because the primary purpose of the budget is to authorize expenditures and provide a standard against which actual expenditures can be audited, budgets are presented showing allocations to different government agencies and programs, current capital expenditures, and purchase of different kinds of inputs.

Another difficulty is the presence of multiple tiers of government where lower tiers generally fund a high proportion of their expenditure from financial transfers within government. Clarifying how much is spent on what is particularly difficult when a great deal of public expenditure has been decentralized to the local level. The challenge is guarding against underestimating expenditure by counting only central government expenditure. A further complication is that actual expenditure is often different from budgeted expenditure.

Thus, accurately calculating the public expenditure against the human development ratios has significant implications for the monitoring processes to determine if a state has met the obligation. The process of making any particular group visible in the budget takes decisive actions to ensure that expenditures are evaluated in relation to specific benchmarks for priorities equality and adequacy. These are critical considerations for those who will be trained to track the budget and determine gender-specific expenditures and revenues.

4.4.2 Setting Standards for CEDAW-Compliant Budgets

The CEDAW Report recommends a step-by-step approach, examining particular dimensions of the budget separately, taking into account their interactions where appropriate and possible. Concluding that it is not possible to sum up the total comparative impact of the budget on males and females with just one indicator, key dimensions to be considered include:

- *Public expenditure*—This is required to fund the appropriate measures repeatedly mentioned in CEDAW. Measures must not be introduced without a commitment of funding for their implementation. The gap must be closed between funding and policy. Not only does CEDAW require funding allocation for implementation, but it also requires that there be no substantive discrimination in the distribution and impact of public expenditure in general. This is where “temporary special measures” (Article 4) may be needed to both accelerate access to equal participation and accelerate resource redistribution.
- *Public Revenue*—CEDAW positions women as autonomous citizens possessing their own rights and obliges states to treat them as such, not merely as dependents of men. Article 16 requires that in family relations, men and women should be treated as equals with the same rights. Thus, revenue must be raised in ways that do not discriminate against women and do not perpetuate those traditional roles that are incompatible with substantive equality, like assigning men the role of the family breadwinner and women to the role of their dependents. Tax systems must not be designed and implemented in ways that amplify preexisting gender inequalities; for example, systems that reinforce women’s unequal access to the labor market. Fees charged for public services or privatization measures must not result in substantive inequality or jeopardize the equality, full development, and advancement of women.
- *Microeconomics of the budget*—Aggregate expenditure and revenue must be managed in ways that create adequate fiscal resources for the elimination of discrimination and the full development and advancement of women. Cuts in expenditure should not be designed in ways that add to the amount of unpaid work that women have to do in families and communities. Sufficient tax revenue should be raised to provide adequate funding for the measures that are necessary to implement CEDAW, and debt repayments must not be allowed to crowd out funding for services essential for realization of CEDAW.
- *Budget decision making*—Article 7 of CEDAW requires that women should participate equally with men in budget decision making and the exercise of related legislative, judicial, executive, and administrative powers (CEDAW, General Recommendation 22, paragraph 5). This means that women should participate equally with men in a number of different

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capacities, like government officials and ministers; members of legislatures; members of boards and trade unions; and members of the judiciary. This applies to the budget cycle at all stages: formulation, legislation, implementation, auditing, and evaluation.

4.4.3 Conducting CEDAW-compliant Evaluations and Assessments

The process of evaluating and assessing the gender impact of budgets implies that a number of questions be answered, as required by various CEDAW Articles such as:

- What criteria should be used to determine if there is equality of access to public expenditure?
- What criteria should be used to determine if there is adequate financing of specific programs for promoting equality between women and men?
- What methods can be used to assess if women's particular economic, social, and cultural rights receive a share of the overall health budget comparable with that for men's particular economic, social, and cultural rights, taking into account their different needs?
- What criteria should be used to assess the gender impact of the state budget?
- If reliance is placed on gender budget initiatives to ensure that the member state conducts its budget in compliance with CEDAW, then what constitutes an effective gender-budget initiative?

Data obtained from these questions should assist member states in achieving these primary action calls from the recommendations from the CEDAW Report:

- Greater efforts to institutionalize capacity for gender-budget analysis in both governments and civil society;
- Greater efforts to build links between the CEDAW reporting process and gender-budget initiatives;
- Development of guidelines for what government should report to CEDAW about their budgets; and
- Development of some guidelines as to how nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) can incorporate gender analysis of budgets into their shadow reports.

As gender budgets for each country are diverse and vary in scope and effectiveness, it is therefore recommended that as a starting point for determining if design and implementation of gender-budget initiatives are sufficient and CEDAW compliant, answers to the following questions should be obtained:

- What kind of government gender-budgeting initiative is planned or is operative in the country?
- What are the roles of the government, parliament, and civil society?
- What is the role of the Ministry of Finance and the Office of the Budget?
- Is the gender-budget initiative institutionalized in ongoing, regular, transparent procedures?
- Do women enjoy equal participation in budget decision making?
- In what ways have women and girls been made visible in the budget?
- What impact is it expected to have, or has had, on women's substantive enjoyment of equality?
- What benchmarks or standards are used to assess the budget?
- How do the results of gender analysis influence the formulation and implementation of budgets?

4.5 Focus on Gender Priorities

The distribution of expenditure on public goods can be analyzed in terms of gendered priorities, comparing the funding allocated to those prioritized by men with those prioritized by women. Diane Elson, the author of the CEDAW Report, maintains that a focus on priorities would be particularly useful for those public goods that are more in the nature of national *overheads* not directly utilized by households, like defense, dams, trunk roads, and ports, where it is inappropriate to refer to distribution expenditure in terms of men and women. But it is appropriate to speak of meeting men's priorities or women's priorities that require that men and women participate in the decision making about the budget. According to CEDAW, the principle of participation means that the state must ensure that different groups of women have an equal opportunity to articulate their priorities and that the space for participation is not monopolized by privileged women's groups (wealthy urban women) at the expense of others (poor rural women).

The development of benchmarks for adequacy requires going beyond financial inputs to look at required activities, outputs, and outcomes. The CEDAW Report indicates that this process requires agreement on:

- Outcomes to be achieved;
- Investigation of the activities and outputs required to achieve the agreed upon outcomes;
- Investigation of the costs of providing these activities and outputs; and
- Comparison of the actual cost with the budget allocation.

Once a benchmark has been established and funding is found to be inadequate, it is also important to consider how more resources can be found, in ways that are in compliance with CEDAW. This might entail redistribution of

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funding between programs, measures to increase tax revenue, increased foreign aid flows, and extension of debt relief.

4.6 CEDAW Compliance in South Africa, Uganda, and Rwanda

In all three countries, gender-budgeting initiatives are continuing the institutionalization of the processes and in one way or the other, they have begun to emphasize the urgency of gender budgeting. In each of the case studies, however, one would find that none of the three countries has taken appropriate measures to ensure allocation of implementation of policies and programs. This is a violation of the CEDAW agreement.

In South Africa, while *gender* is a term rarely used in policy documents, there are concrete steps that have been taken to ensure that policies are in place that affect the rural poor, most of whom are women. In Uganda, very definite steps have been taken to ensure that local government structures have adopted and are beginning to implement gender policies and programs. In Rwanda, gender has been incorporated directly into major policy documents and programs, but upon closer examination, programs are beleaguered with lack of financial and human resources. It appears that in the three cases, gender budgeting has not yet made an explicit link with CEDAW obligations and perhaps this may explain those areas in which progress remains elusive.

As revealed in each case study, government measures in South Africa, Uganda, and Rwanda have attempted to be nondiscriminatory and have sought to achieve substantive equality between women and men as autonomous possessors of all human rights—civil, political, economic, social, and cultural. There is the existence of the formal legal requirement as each national constitution makes very explicit provisions for gender equality. There is also evidence that each nation has national legislative acts and programs aimed at ensuring equality in families, communities, markets, and business, as well as in the public sector and throughout operations of the state. In so doing, each has, in fact, attempted to live up to the obligations of CEDAW by enforcing “special measures” and attempting to modify social and cultural patterns of conduct, two of the primary CEDAW principles.

In addition, there is evidence that some human rights advocates and civil society budget analysts are beginning to work together to analyze if budgets are being designed and implemented in ways that realize the human rights of children, the poor, and indigenous people. These efforts, however, are not consistent and have not produced the kind of data that would impact policy. For example, there is the case of the People’s Budget campaign in South Africa, the national NGO coalition, the South African Non-Governmental Coalition (SANGOCO), that has been monitoring the national budget since 2000 and has claimed some victories in terms of changes in national fiscal policy. But there

is not much evidence that its activities have been widely shared by the rank and file members. SANGOCO has complained that it has not been involved in all aspects of the national budgeting process, especially at the formulation stage. In Uganda, the Forum for Women in Democracy (FOWODE) has been actively engaged in lobbying the government in pursuit of more gender-responsive budgets with some success, but it has been plagued by a lack of human and financial resources. In the case of Rwanda, there is little evidence that civil society has played a role in promoting gender budgeting. The most significant lobbying group for gender integration was developed at the government level by the Forum of Women Parliamentarians (FRRP).

As revealed throughout the country case studies, there is not a specific model or template for gender budget initiatives. Owing to a wide variety of socioeconomic and political contexts, there is considerable diversity and experimentation. As is true in many other countries, within the three case studies there is a multiplicity of actors who are not effectively communicating with each other: ministers of finance and women's ministries, parliamentarians, policy research nongovernmental organizations, nongovernmental and civic coalitions, women's advocacy groups, and academics. As in the case of Rwanda and Uganda, gender-budget initiatives have received substantial support from international development agencies and foundations.

In most gender-budgeting initiatives within countries, the primary achievement of the initiative has been to make gender visible in government expenditures and revenues. There have also been other governments where the aim of gender budgeting is to assess the impact of government budgets on gender equality outcomes, although this approach was not visible in the three case studies here. In the case of South Africa, the aim has been to mainstream gender throughout the various ministries and departments of governments, with little success. In Uganda the aim has been to introduce specific budget lines in the national budget that focused on reducing poverty, while civil society organizations sought to keep the government on track. In Rwanda, gender budgeting became a part of a larger strategy of the government's commitment to reduce gender inequality through the development process. While gender outcomes may have been identified, none of the three governments have effectively planned for the funding for the implementation of policies and programs, a step that would allow one to gauge the extent of the achievement gender equality outcomes.

In all three countries, the political leadership for gender analysis of government budget emanated from elected representatives in legislatures, working closely with civil society organizations. In South Africa, it was through a coalition of civil society activists and parliamentarians. Gender budgeting (the Women's Budget) in South Africa came out of a profound mobilization of South African women in the Women's National Coalition as apartheid came to an end. Now defunct, the South African Women's Budget employed the policy

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research NGO, Community Agency for Social Enquiry, that coordinated the budget analysis and informed parliament of the results and trained the research unit in budget analysis tools.

Uganda's gender budgeting was led by civil society, FOWODE, which was an NGO established by women members of parliament. In cooperation with academic researchers, government planners researched three sectors—education, health, and agriculture—producing reports and policy briefings that were used by members of parliament in their assessment of the budget.

The Rwanda gender-budgeting initiative is a government initiative that is part of the country's national strategic plan for promoting gender equality and development. Driven by the Ministry of Gender and Family Promotion in close collaboration with the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning, it is entirely funded by the United Kingdom's Department for International Development (DFID).

An expected similarity between all three case studies is the expectation that gender equality will promote a more even distribution of expenditure on poverty alleviation programs. Perhaps this has more to do with the need to reach the MDGs for the eradication of poverty and hunger than with gender equity. Nonetheless, CEDAW requires, under Article 3, that substantive equality must translate into activities that concretely improve the position of women in relation to resources and power. All three case studies provide examples of how governments have promoted greater equality in the gender distribution of expenditure on poverty alleviation and through the development of rural development programs. In some cases, quotas have been used to reflect the needs of different groups and relate to the percentage of women in the target group (poor people and people who need skills development). Thus, creating a good benchmark that would be the female proportion of beneficiaries of poverty alleviation programs should be equal to the female proportion of population in poverty.

CEDAW (Article 7) obliges government to take all appropriate measures to ensure that women participate on equal terms with men in budget decision processes, as the CEDAW Report found that nowhere are women yet playing a role equal with men. This was found to be particularly true in Uganda among civil society organizations (CSOs) and parliament. In South Africa and Rwanda, budgetary decision making by a concentrated group of women could be traced primarily through parliament. Through the East African Gender Budget Network, Uganda and Rwanda have built linkages in some countries between gender-budget initiatives and women elected representatives. In South Africa, during the earlier years, gender-budget initiatives included building the capacity of women elected representatives. There has been training of researchers within the South Africa parliament and in the earlier years of operation of the Office on the Status of Women (OSW), gender focal points (GFPs) were trained at the provincial and local levels. The results of the training has not been evaluated over the short or long term.

In Uganda, gender-budgeting initiatives have taken place more extensively at the local level in training and through the dissemination of Issue Notes. There are also examples of successful grass-roots mobilization of Ugandan women to hold government to account for their allocation and use of public expenditure. Such efforts, however, are hampered by lack of information, especially sex-disaggregated information, and lack of means of redress if money is squandered.

There are three requirements presented in CEDAW that are necessary to achieve full equality for women in budget decision:

- Increasing the presence of women;
- Increasing the capacity of women; and
- Reforming the budget decision-making processes to make them more transparent and participatory.

The CEDAW Report recommends special measures to increase women's presence in national parliaments, and in parliamentary committees that scrutinize budgets; local councils, and in council committees responsible for budgets; and participatory planning and budget processes. While South Africa and Rwanda both have over 40 percent women in parliament, research has to be done to determine their level of knowledge, skills, and capacity for leadership on gender-budgeting measures. It is very critical that qualitative and quantitative measures be applied when assessing the effectiveness of parliamentarians in advancing gender concerns.

Also critical is that CEDAW recommends ongoing support for existing efforts to build links between women elected representatives and support for new efforts to build links between women elected representatives and gender-budget initiatives. The CEDAW Report maintains that men and women, as full participants in the life of their country, must have a right to information, including sex-disaggregated information, and a right to demand a formal investigation or seek legal redress for misappropriation of funds and poor delivery of services.

Most critically, there must be collective mobilization of women to actively use CEDAW and gender-budget initiatives to bring about real changes and the full implementation of the vision of gender equality and the advancement of women that is set out in CEDAW. Especially in the case of South Africa, one of the parliamentary studies revealed that women had very little knowledge of international and national instruments designed to protect and promote their rights as women.

4.7 Creating an Enabling Environment for Civil Society

In the South African, Ugandan, and Rwandan case studies, it was very apparent that civil society needs to strengthen its ability to influence budgetary processes.

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Throughout all three governments, civil society has become an increasingly important participant in social and economic development. CSOs have assisted in building necessary social consensus for economic reforms and in promoting effective governance by fostering transparency and accountability of public institutions in efforts to fight inequality and exclusion. In addition, it has been shown that civil society can become increasingly important in the direct delivery of social and economic services and in improving natural resource management and environmental protection through collective action. Yet, civil society has not assumed the role that it was intended to play due to lack of skills and resources.

The work of the Participation and Civic Engagement (PCE) group may be instructive for civil society groups in Africa. This World Bank group has developed and piloted tools that feed into upstream analytical work that seeks to deepen the understanding of constraints and opportunities for effective civic engagement at the country level. These tools have particular significance for increasing the involvement of civil society and assisting it to identify priorities and enhance its effectiveness for greater social accountability in its activities (Ackerman, 2005).

The promotion of wider civic engagement with budgets means that public-sector management must receive wider focus. Under the World Bank's PCE Group, a number of strategies have been identified that have been designed to increase civil society participation in budget decision processes. Under its social accountability initiatives, the World Bank's PCE Group has identified the following strategies:

- *Participation in policy and budget formulation*—This involves direct participation in formulating public policy and budgets, where civil society engages in activities designed to allow for proposing projects and allocating funds. Participatory policy formulation has become an increasingly common trend, particularly with the introduction of poverty reduction strategy programs (PRSPs) at the national level and community-driven development initiatives at the local level.
- *Participatory budget review/analysis*—Here civil society reviews budgets to assess if allocations match the government's announced social commitments. This may involve analyzing the impact and implications of budget allocations, demystifying the technical content of the budget, raising awareness about budget-related issues, and undertaking public education campaigns to improve budget literacy. This has been shown in the activities of the People's Budget campaign in South Africa.
- *Participatory public expenditure/input tracking*—This involves citizen groups tracking how the government actually spends funds, with the aim of identifying leakages and bottlenecks in the flow of financial resources or inputs. Typically, these groups employ the actual users or beneficiaries

of government services (with the assistance of civil society) to collect and publicly disseminate data on inputs and expenditures. The participatory tracking of primary-education expenditures in Uganda is an example of such an approach.

- *Participatory performance monitoring and evaluation*—This entails citizen groups or communities monitoring and evaluating the implementation and performance of public services or projects, according to indicators they themselves have selected. This is achieved through the use of participatory monitoring and evaluation tools (e.g., community score) and at a more macro level, through the use of public opinion surveys, citizens' juries, or citizens' report cards (Paul, 2004). The findings of participatory monitoring and evaluating exercises are presented at interface meetings, where users and service providers come together to discuss the evidence and seek solutions. In the case of citizen report cards, they are publicly disseminated and presented to government officials to demand accountability and lobby for change.

It is maintained that it is important to distinguish joint decision making by citizens and government from other kinds of citizen participation. It is important, too, to make a distinction between consultation and joint decision making. Joint decision making depends on access to government data and officials, and the availability of effective mechanisms to enable civil society to hold governments accountable. It is also argued that it is vital that citizens have concrete rights to response from public actors.

While recognizing that mechanisms for effective participation, including joint decision making, tend to be strongest at the local level, Anne Marie Goetz, a political scientist, argues that for accountability practices to be meaningful and productive for citizens, to produce both the answers and the hope of seeing complaints addressed and misdemeanors redressed, some of the following conditions should be fulfilled (Goetz, 2003, and Goetz and Jenkins, 2004):

- Legal standing or formal recognition for nongovernmental observers within policy-making arenas or institutions of public sector oversight;
- A continuous presence for these observers throughout the process of the agencies' work;
- Structured access to the flow of official documentary information;
- The right of observers to issue a dissenting report directly to legislative bodies; and
- The right of service users to demand a formal investigation or seek legal redress for poor or nondelivery of services.

Making gender visible in budgets will require a great deal more attention to the CEDAW obligations and especially to more decisive measures by

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government and civil society before the policies and programs are able to make gender visible in budgeting processes. Primary among these is the need for countries like South Africa, Uganda, and Rwanda—three countries that have been actively engaged in gender budgeting and have continued to struggle with its implementation procedures—to realize some successes so that there are models for effective replication by others. There is a myriad of problems that have militated against women's participation in budgeting processes, but following the dictates of CEDAW, an international instrument to which most African countries are signatories, is a great starting point in making women more visible in the budgeting process.

5

The Way Forward: Raising the Standard for Accountability

Gender budgeting represents a special type of policy-making work. As such, the budget becomes a very effective tool for advancing gender issues through gender assessment of national budgets. The budget, then, also becomes a benchmark against which government is held accountable for its performance in achieving gender equality to ensure that women participate fully and as equals in all sectors of society. Thus, the budget represents the most important policy-making tool because it provides the funds for the policies without which the policy remains only on paper. Policy makers should represent different sub-groups within society to ensure that the policy does not negatively impact or only unintentionally affect women, children, and youth.

Increasing policy efficiency in the monitoring and evaluation stage will ensure that the nation's priorities are transformed into practical programs and activities. Only then does this become a critical goal of gender budgeting. Only then can the benefits of gender-budget analysis for governments be realized. These benefits include (Budlender and Hewitt, 2003, p. 7):

- Improved efficiency and impact by ensuring that expenditure benefits those who need it most;
- Provision of a reporting mechanism to assess government's progress on its commitment to democracy, equitable economic development, and women's rights and equality;
- Improved transparency and accountability to help implement policies effectively;
- Efficient tracking of budgets and reduction of corruption;
- Provision of a space for government to work with civil society to enhance development impact, democratic governance, and transparency;
- Provision of a reporting mechanism to assess government's progress on compliance with national and international gender-related commitments, recommendations, and action plans; and
- Provision of a mechanism for addressing poverty more effectively.

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The benefits for women and citizen's groups within civil society are also tremendous, as gender budgeting:

- Strengthens advocacy and monitoring initiatives by citizens;
- Provides information to challenge discrimination, inefficiency, and corruption and to propose feasible policy alternatives;
- Recognizes the ways in which women contribute to the society and economy with their unpaid labor in bearing, rearing, and caring for citizens;
- Provides a way of holding public representatives accountable for their performance; and
- Recognizes the needs of the poorest and most powerless citizens.

In sum, gendered budgetary oversight and scrutiny can be an important component of efforts to deal with government abuse and corruption, can improve fiscal accountability, and increase the value of money for government expenditures. Gender analysis promotes public access to government budget information as a way of ensuring government accountability, while enabling citizens to participate in and understand policy decisions that profoundly affect daily lives. Thus, accurate, timely, and comprehensive information during each stage of the cycle is required to ensure accountability.

With the promise of greater strides toward equity for women, who have traditionally undergirded their societies, yet represented the poorest sector, there are few questions as to why various African countries have now sought to establish gender-budgeting initiatives. African countries where gender-responsive budgeting had been implemented by 2003 include (Budlender and Hewitt, 2003): Botswana, Egypt, Kenya, Malawi, Mauritius, Morocco, Mozambique, Namibia, Nigeria, Rwanda, Senegal, South Africa, Tanzania, Uganda, Zambia, and Zimbabwe.

5.1 Accountability Measures in the Gender-Budgeting Process

The chapters on South Africa, Uganda, and Rwanda examined the five basic steps of the gender-budgeting process¹ so that accountability measures can be assessed according to relevancy, effectiveness, efficiency, impact, and sustainability (Ogiogio, 2005):

- *Description of the situation of women served by a particular sector or ministry*—This statistical data was provided for each of the countries and in the sectors that were under study. The gender situation analysis determined and analyzed the social and economic situation of women and men with respect to the sector. This was necessary to ensure that there is a way to determine the relevancy of policies and programs.

- *Examination of government policies and programs in the sector to determine the level of gender gaps and the inequalities in services offered by certain sectors*—All three research case studies attempted a gender analysis of policy to determine gender gaps and identify needs. The level of gender gaps and inequalities in services was identified within the sectors under study: transport, finance, and education. This was necessary to determine the level of effectiveness within the policies and programs.
- *Examination of the budget to see if sufficient money has been allocated to implement effectively the identified gender-sensitive policies and programs*—While this gender analysis is an important activity, the conduct of this activity within this study was limited due to the lack of disaggregated data, a problem that exists across the board with monitoring agencies. It is significant to determine the level of efficiency, to determine if the funds allocated have in fact delivered a quality program; that is, increased output in service delivery. This analysis must focus on if the budget addresses the gender situation and if it matches policy commitments.
- *Monitoring if the allocated money has been spent and who benefited from the funding*—Performance indicators have been developed and can be identified in policy documents in South Africa and Rwanda, but such indicators have yet to be developed in Uganda. Performance indicators should be developed along with the policy document because monitoring and evaluation are necessary to measure impact. Without the purpose, objectives, and the goal of the allocated funds, gender analysts will not be able to identify the expected outcomes or results.
- *Reexamination of the situational analysis to determine if the budget and programs in fact improved those conditions and statistics*—Feedback on monitoring and evaluation procedures are at the nascent stages in all three countries. Without an effective feedback mechanism in place, gender analysts will not be able to measure the sustainability or long-term effects of the policies and programs.

While the Ugandan and Rwandan models were patterned after the South African Women's Budget Initiative, each gender-budgeting process took on a different pattern of implementation. In South Africa, the burden has been subsequently placed at the executive branch level in that gender focal points (GFPs) at the national and local levels within each ministry were expected to assume the role of ensuring compliance with the National Gender Policy (NGP). In Uganda, the task of gender budgeting is much more widespread and it has become the responsibility of ministries and FOWODE, which has ensured that the NGP has been passed down to the local levels. In Rwanda, it is the responsibility of the national government.

The one common denominator in all three cases is that gender budgeting is expected to assist in achieving the eradication of poverty. In each country,

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gender perspectives have been built within the policy process, program development, and proposed implementation strategies. The primary issue here is with monitoring and evaluation to determine if, in fact, women are beneficiaries. While these policies have been tied to the programs that are designed to reduce poverty and increase the contributions of women and men on a more equal level, it is very difficult to actually measure who is really benefiting from interventions to eradicate poverty. Measurement becomes impossible because there is no objective set of data from which to draw conclusions because monitoring and evaluation procedures have neither been funded nor implemented.

The socioeconomic and political contexts within South Africa, Uganda, and Rwanda are very similar, except that in South Africa there is the added variable of a multiracial society. Women held similar positions comprising the highest percentage of the poor population, with female-headed households tending to be poorer than male-headed households; rural citizens poorer than urban, with women having the highest unemployment rate and the least access to health, sanitation, and water services.

5.1.1 National Performance Indicators

Raising the standard for an increased level of accountability involves designing, developing, and implementing a monitoring and evaluation system that runs throughout the various stages of the gender-budgeting process. Thus, monitoring and evaluation processes are a critical component of gender budgeting and an activity that was found to need substantive capacity building in gender processes. It was the monitoring and evaluation processes that were the least developed in the case studies, primarily because the implementation of policies and programs were not operational.

Monitoring and evaluation serve a number of functions, the most primary of which is the provision of national, regional, and international indicators for measuring the success and impact of the programs that seek to implement gender equality principles. Other functions include measuring the effectiveness and impact of policy and assessing if, in the long term, there has been positive impact for women in particular and for the whole of society in general (Office on the Status of Women, 2000, Chap. 6).

The South African National Gender Policy Framework maintains that the national indicators (legislative and policy documents) and international indicators (like CEDAW, the Beijing Plan of Action [BPA], and the African Union Declaration) must be used to guide the monitoring and evaluation process. Additionally, the South African NGP requires policy makers to develop short-term and long-term indicators that should be applied on both the national and local levels. Short-term monitoring should determine the extent to which the state incorporates a gender perspective as a part of the internal transformation process, while long-term monitoring measures the actual transformation in

society from its current state of gender inequality to the gender equality envisaged in the NGP and the constitution.

- *Short-term performance indicators* measure the extent to which the state incorporates a gender perspective in the way it conducts its business as part of the process of internal transformation.
- *Short-term results/outcomes* focus on the institutionalization of a gender perspective in the sectoral policies, programs, and practices of national, provincial, and local departments. The assessment of these outcomes will reveal the effectiveness of the structures that have been put in place to coordinate and monitor the implementation of the national policy for gender equality; and the gender sensitivity of the policies, procedures, practices, and structures of government, as well as private and non-governmental institutions.
- *Long-term performance indicators* measure success by the actual transformation in society from the current state of gender inequality to the gender equality envisaged in the NGP and by the constitution.
- *Long-term results/outcomes* are to be measured according to the extent to which women have achieved:
 - Equality of access to the means of developing basic human capabilities;
 - Equality of access to basic needs and services;
 - Equality of opportunity to participate in all aspects of economic, social and political decision making; and
 - Equality of rewards and benefits.

A second level of assessment will also measure the extent to which women and men have changed those cultural beliefs, values, norms, and practices that subordinate, exclude and prevent women from upholding their basic rights and realizing their full potential.

Also, specific performance indicators should be proposed for determining the effectiveness of structures within the various branches of government as well as some of the mechanisms and processes on which these structures must impact. Indicators should be applicable at the national, provincial, and local levels; therefore, indicators may need to be developed for various levels of government. These generic indicators would include some of the following:

- Development of a national gender action plan;
- Inclusion of gender-equality principles in vision and mission statements as well as in their strategic plans and goals;
- Identification of gender-related targets in business plans;
- Training of staff in gender awareness, gender analysis, and gender planning;
- Development of policies and programs that address gender issues;

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- Collection of data disaggregated by gender;
- Ability to respond to the needs of both women and men within their respective sectors;
- Clear coordination and communication network between all key structures of the national gender machinery;
- Gender-sensitive indicators for all programs and projects, particularly those considered of high national priority; and
- Mechanism in place for implementing obligations under national, regional, and international instruments.

The South African NGP framework offers the following exemplary performance indicators that will prove instructive as gender analysts begin to grapple with how to approach the monitoring and evaluation process. Short-term and long-term performance indicators are delineated in Tables 5.1 and 5.2.

5.1.2 Long-term Performance Indicators

Long-term performance indicators will measure the impact of the NGP on women and society in general. From this perspective, a positive policy impact will have been made if it can be shown that women participate fully and on an equal footing in the creation of a nonsexist, nonracist democratic society. In addition, long-term indicators will measure the changes in those societal attitudes, beliefs, and cultural practices that affect women negatively. Indicative long-term results are outlined in Table 5.2.

While closely related to the monitoring process, evaluation does take researchers a number of steps further in the assessment process. Evaluation has to do more with the qualitative application of what the quantitative measures (monitoring) have revealed. The benefits to be accrued from using the data obtained from the monitoring process to probe more deeply into the indicated outcomes will allow a more comprehensive assessment of progress toward completion of the goal, the implementation processed to stay focused on goals, and for corrective actions along the way.

As such, gender analysts will need to develop capacity in evaluation techniques as well. For example, evaluative questions will focus on providing more extensive information as follows:

- Is the government doing what it said it would do when it said it would do it? Was the plan developed? Was the plan implemented? Were barriers encountered? How were the barriers overcome? What were the lessons learned? Were the accomplishments documented?
- Did the government get it right? Did the plans, activities, and experiences match the stated program goals, objectives, and activities?

Table 5.1 Key Short-Term Performance Indicators

Focus Points	Indicators
Capacity Building	<p>Number and quality of gender training programs introduced to develop staff gender-programming capacity and the number and categories of people trained;</p> <p>Number and quality of in-house programs (including affirmative action programs) introduced to enhance women's participation in decision-making structures and the number of women from such programs.</p>
Gender-Sensitive Staff Recruitment and Discipline	<p>Existence of appropriate guidelines for recruitment committees indicating the desired gender mix;</p> <p>Existence of appropriate guidelines for gender awareness training for all staff responsible for recruitment and selection as well as for newly recruited staff;</p> <p>Number and effectiveness of national, provincial, and local level-institutions that have developed and utilized gender-sensitive policies and guidelines for reporting and disciplining cases of sexual harassment;</p> <p>Number and effectiveness of internal structures established to deal with gender-based discrimination and sexual harassment.</p>
Gender-Sensitive Terms and Conditions of Service to Address Practical Gender Needs	<p>Extent to which gender-sensitive and -responsive programs have been established to enhance the roles of both male and female employees as parents and professionals; e.g., day care centers in the work place.</p>
Women's Increased Access to Management and Leadership	<p>Increased proportions of women managers in positions in senior government and other public and private institutions, in accordance with national and international obligations;</p> <p>Increased levels of skills in gender sensitivity and analysis among all managers.</p>
Transformation in Programs	<p>Number and quality of sector-related gender analysis training programs in place, and the number of professional staff who have undergone the training;</p> <p>Extent to which sector-based gender analysis and gender disaggregated data are being used effectively in program design;</p> <p>Extent of technical support and guidelines provided for gender-responsive reviews of sector programs.</p>
Transformation in the Allocation of Resources	<p>Level of human and financial resources allocated to programs to advance women's empowerment and gender equality;</p> <p>Specifically identified, gender-based expenditure by national and provincial departments (for example, on women's health programs or special education programs for girls);</p> <p>Equal employment-opportunity expenditure by such departments on their employees (for example, training for women managers, and job descriptions that reflect equal employment opportunities);</p> <p>Gender mainstreaming of budget allocations and expenditures (for example, allocations to support rural women agriculturists).</p>
Data Collection and Utilization	<p>Effective process of production and utilization of gender disaggregated data and statistics;</p> <p>Gender disaggregated data collection that reflects the relevant situation, problems, and concerns of women and men;</p> <p>Gender disaggregated data and statistics reviewed and updated regularly for use in program development, planning, and implementation;</p> <p>Adequate capacity (human and financial) for collection, analysis, and dissemination of gender-related statistics.</p>

Source: Department of Provincial and Local Government, South Africa, 2004

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Focus Points	Indicators
Increased Representation Through Affirmative Action Programs	Increased representation of women, especially at professional and managerial levels, in all organizations, and specifically in government departments; Establishment of effective affirmative action programs; Numerical targets established by key national policy documents.
Economic Empowerment and the Reduction in Women's Poverty	Equal legal status and capacity in customary law for women, including full contractual rights to acquire and hold property, to inherit, to obtain credit, and to participate in decision-making processes in the country.
Recognizing Women's Contributions to the Economy Adequate Health and Social Security Services	Full recognition of women's work and contributions to the national economy, including in the informal sector and subsistence economy. Measures for protection from violence, sexual abuse, or harassment in all places, as well as improved health and safety services in all sectors of women's work; Quality (measured by the level of gender sensitivity) of reproductive health services, and training for women to enable them to make their own reproductive decisions.
Access to Basic Social Services and Productive Resources	Improved access to basic resources for all women; Improved access, for rural women in particular, to basic education, training services, and facilities, safe water, sanitation, energy, communication services, housing, healthcare, social welfare, land, and security of tenure.
Participation in Political and Decision-making Structures	Extent to which mechanisms and structures have been put in place to ensure that women, either as individuals or groups, are able to participate at all levels of decision-making structures and in all levels of political, civic, and community life.
Recognition of the Principle of Women's Rights as Human Rights	Translation of this principle into practice; Recognition of women's responsibilities and rights in the family by ensuring that women and men have equal rights in the division of property, maintenance, and arrangements in regard to children; Equitable access for women to the financial resources of the household, including adequate maintenance for the children; Customary, cultural, and religious practices that subordinate women should be subject to the equality clause in the Bill of Rights.
Protection from Violence	Establishment of an effective mechanism and facilities for dealing with all forms of gender-based violence and abuse; Measurement of the quality and number of public education and training programs established for the police, prosecutors, magistrates, judges, and all the categories of institutions involved in dealing with gender-based and all forms of abuse.
Positive Portrayal of Women in the Media Improved Self-Images	Increased frequency with which the diversity of women's lives, and experiences and contributions in all spheres of public and private life are positively portrayed by the media; Increase in the number of women who are able to participate as decision makers in the media.

Source: Department of Provincial and Local Government, South Africa, 2004

- Did the government get the intended results? Did the policy and program lead to enhanced opportunities for women, increased understanding of women's role in society, greater economic development, or improved relations between government and civil society?

There are many aspects of monitoring and evaluation that will not be discussed here. However, it is important to understand that the process provides a continuous opportunity to improve upon the quality of the policies and programs. The measurement of the level of success of the gender-budgeting initiatives should be based on a series of qualitative and quantitative indicators that are measured over time.

5.2 Raising the Standard for Accountability: Recommendations for Change

5.2.1 Gender-disaggregated Data

This type of data are needed to demystify the apparent neutrality and, more specifically, the gender neutrality of budgets. This is by far the greatest impediment to completing gender budgeting analyzes in an objective manner. As one author noted, gender disaggregated data will assist in demonstrating how education, employment, taxation, tariffs, and labor relations impact women due to their different location and priorities in the family and society. Who gets jobs and what is the nature of the jobs that are created? Who gets the subsidies? Who gets the housing and what is the nature of the homes and communities in which they are being developed? What are the traditional policy assumptions in the budgets? For example, are women dependent on the men as the breadwinners? The fact of the matter is that the same rules and procedures can often reinforce existing inequalities and work against the interests of women. The bottom line is that ambiguous information on the differences between men and women impedes formulation and utilization of gender approaches that promote active participation in decision-making processes, especially in the rural areas.

Specific Recommended Action: Interventions should focus on training gender analysts on how to collect and disaggregate data and how to lobby the government for a policy to promote the disaggregation of data.

5.2.2 Development of a Targeted Plan of Action

The development of a targeted plan of action will ensure the effective implementation of CEDAW (Foster and Harper, 2004). An action plan for each of the articles with time frames will be necessary. The question has to be asked, "What is the segment-by-segment benchmarking of progress? The target action plan has to take into account the present obstacles to the full enjoyment

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of rights. The state has to ensure that the backward linkages are taken into account. The backward linkages refer to the obstacles that may prevent access to the opportunities created by government. The identification of special measures to ensure the realization of every right enshrined with CEDAW must be put in place. Every government department will have to gather data on an ongoing basis. There must be a mechanism by which women can report obstacles, and this would be the basis of the data collection process. The data collection must be systematized so that transgressions can be penalized.

Specific Recommended Action—Interventions should focus on developing action plans that are specific to the sector or problem to be resolved and align themselves with CEDAW obligations.

5.2.3 Creation of a Committee of Advocates

The Committee of Advocates (Foster and Harper, 2004) can work with existing institutions like Gender Equity and Human Rights Commissions to establish a pilot CEDAW implementation project. This model must focus on one region or district and it must aim to address a specific form of discrimination. The model must have a complaints cell that is widely publicized in the targeted region or area.

Specific Recommended Action—Training must be identified and resources allocated for development of the CEDAW implementation project. Implementers of the first project can train the implementers of the next phase. This will ensure progressive implementation of CEDAW by trained advocates.

5.2.4 Clarification of Roles and Responsibilities

This refers to those of national and provincial fiscal spheres of government. Even with specific constitutional provisions and requirements, identifying who is accountable for what is not a simple task. Depending on the country, allocation of roles and responsibilities may be complicated by: (1) constitutional requirements for equitable division of nationally collected revenues between national, provincial, and local government; and (2) constitutional requirements that assign joint or current responsibilities for a number of important functions to the national and provincial spheres. Thus, media, civil society, and the public at large struggle to come to grips with and have poor understanding of budgetary procedures. This impedes stakeholders from holding government accountable.

Specific Recommended Action—This requires hands-on interventions to clarify fiscal roles and responsibilities, including national and provincial budget decision makers and all major stakeholders.

5.2.5 Training Material for Diverse Budgeting Processes

While many elements will be different, development of workshop materials will need to vary according to country because gender-budgeting processes in each

country are different. The materials will need to be specifically tailored for different audiences, government workers, parliamentarians, civil society audiences, and levels of government. Materials development is critical to the success of the training exercise. There are few examples available for the development of modules for gender analysis; however, the work of the Gender Education and Training Network (GETNET) with offices in Cape Town, is well known throughout the southern African region for its training activities on gender analysis of budgets.² For GETNET, materials development, like research, is linked to training and has produced materials that can serve as a model for the production of materials in accordance with the specificities of a given country and has explored the production of materials in various different forms of media. Likewise, a training manual has been developed by the Action for Development (ACFODE), a civil society organization in Uganda. ACFODE's training strategies incorporate enhancing awareness of the decision makers and other stakeholders to the importance of integrating gender in plans and budgets (Action for Development, 2005). This is achieved by imparting skills and techniques of gender budgeting so that they can oversee the integration of gender concerns during the formulation of national and district budgets, as well as the implementation of gender-sensitive budgets. For ACFODE, it is important that training challenges the beliefs of both participants and trainers, consciously and unconsciously.

Specific Recommended Action—Develop workshop materials that can be used with general audiences, but adopted to specific country situations and sector requirements.

5.2.6 Effective Information Dissemination Strategic Campaign

With the number of gender-budgeting implementation activities in Africa, there is a need for research studies that will be designed to draw out constructive responses from government. In this way, information becomes an important monitoring device. As guidelines are developed for advancing gender-responsive budgeting, such advances can only be made if the information generated is taken up and used by the role-players. No matter how well planned or well executed, a gender-budgeting analysis can do little on its own to bring about real changes for women. Information is thus a crucial part of the gender-budgeting initiative. Good information draws the attention of key target groups for information dissemination, including government officials, parliamentarians, gender rights advocates, and national and international gender rights organizations (Streak, 2003, pp. 97–102; Cassiem, Perry, Sadar, and Streak, 2000). The most common and effective information packaging and dissemination methods for disseminating this type of research can be classified into three main categories: (1) print and electronic media; (2) radio and television; and (3) workshops, conferences, and presentations in formal and informal meetings. It is also important to pay attention to the timing of research dissemination, paying

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particular attention to releasing research findings at a time and in a manner that will ensure maximum impact. For example, United Nations committees will be interested in research findings on the budget allocations and other measures government has taken when it is set to review this performance. Parliamentarians will be most interested in this type of information in the second stage of the budget cycle. This is when the budget plan may be debated, altered, and approved by the legislative branch of government. Government policy makers will be particularly interested in information on government's performance in budgeting for and implementing programs to deliver a particular right when they are planning to redesign programs and budget allocations. The recognition of special days of the year highlighting human rights and gender issues is also a good time to distribute research findings on government programs and budget allocations.

Specific Recommended Action—Develop research and information dissemination campaigns across African nations that are implementing gender responsive budgets.

Appendix

Table 1 Poverty Monitoring Indicators

Subject	Vision 2020	Millennium Development Goals
Poverty, Economic Growth	Reduce the population living below the poverty line from 60% to 30% by 2015; achieve annual economic growth equivalent to 7–8% of GDP until 2020.	Lower by 50% the proportion of people whose income is less than US\$1 a day; lower by 50% the proportion of people who suffer from hunger between 1990–2015.
Gender Equality	Achieve equal (50%) participation of women in tertiary education.	Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2005, and at all levels of education no later than 2015.
Population Growth	Reduce the population growth rate from 3.2% to 2.5% by 2010.	
Fertility Rate	Reduce the average number of children per family from 6 to 4 by 2010.	
Maternal Mortality	Reduce the maternal mortality ratio from 810/100,000 to 202/100,000 by 2015; make reproductive health services available to all.	Reduce the maternal mortality ratio by three-fourths between 1999–2015.
Infant and Child Mortality	Reduce infant mortality from 107/1,000 to 35/1,000 by 2015.	Reduce the under-five mortality rate by two-thirds between 1990–2015.
Literacy, Basic Education	Increase net primary enrollment from 72% to 100% by 2015.	Ensure that all children will be able to complete primary schooling by 2015.
Prevalence of AIDS/HIV	Lower the prevalence rate from 14% ^a to 5% by 2020.	Halt, and begin to reverse the spread of AIDS/HIV by 2015.
Protection of Soil Against Erosion	Increase protected area from 20% to 70% by 2020.	Mainstream the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programs; reverse loss of environmental resources.

Source: Republic of Rwanda, 2006

Note: a. 2000 estimate, since revised downward by UNAIDS to 3.4–7.6 percent.

166 *Appendix***Table 2 Government Revenue and Expenditure, 2001–2006 Budget**

Year	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Total Revenue (RWF billion)	148.2	160.3	195.5	272.6	349.6	404.7
% of GDP	19.6	19.4	21.6	25.9	29.3	31.0
Domestic Revenue (RWF billion)	86.2	101.2	122.3	147.1	180.3	196.2
% of Total Revenue	58.2	63.1	62.6	54.0	51.6	48.5
% of GDP	11.4	12.3	13.5	14.0	15.1	15.1
External Grants (RWF billion)	62	59.1	73.1	126.7	169.3	171.8
% of Total Revenue	41.8	36.9	37.4	46.5	48.4	42.4
% of GDP	8.2	7.2	8.1	12.0	14.2	13.2
Total Expenditure + Net Lending (RWF billion)	158.1	174.6	216.0	274.9	340.7	404.7
Recurrent (RWF billion)	107.4	122.7	160.9	168.1	214.9	278.2
% Recurrent	67.9	70.3	74.5	61.1	63.1	68.7
Wages & Salaries, % of Total	24.6	23.3	20.4	17.6	15.0	15.3
Goods & Services, % of Total	18.6	20.1	21.2	17.3	18.9	17.3
Interest Payment, % of Total	3.9	4.0	1.0	4.3	3.0	3.9
Subsidies & Transfers % of Total	9.6	11.7	10.3	15.2	15.7	17.2
Exceptional Expenditure % of Total	10.8	11.0	18.6	6.6	10.4	8.2
Other, % of Total	0.4	0.2	3.1	0.0	0.0	7.0
Capital (RWF billion)	50.0	40.7	51.1	89.5	121.4	111.4
% Capital	31.6	23.3	23.7	32.6	35.6	27.5
Domestic	2.2	4.0	6.1	9.9	10.2	7.0
External	29.4	19.4	17.5	22.7	25.4	20.5
Net Lending (RWF billion)	0.5	0.6	4.0	17.3	4.4	15.1
% Net Lending	0.3	0.3	1.9	6.3	1.3	3.7
Memo Items						
GDP (nominal; RWF billion)	754.3	825.0	905.3	1054.3	1192.2	1300

Sources: IMF online data and PRGF reviews 2004, 2005, 2006; Government of Rwanda MINECOFIN Budget Estimates for 2006

Table 3 Education Expenditure

Year	Budgeted 2003	Actual 2004	Actual 2005	Budget 2006	Average 2003/06
Total Education (RWF billion)	41.7	49.5	54.6	65.9	52.9
Total US\$ (million)	72.9	87.5	98.5	116.7	93.9
Annual Growth (nominal)		18.7	10.3	20.9	18
Annual Growth (2002 constant)		15.2	15.3	22.7	17.5
% of GDP	4.6	4.7	4.6	5.1	4.7
% Total Revenue	21.3	18.1	15.6	16.3	17.8
% Public Expenditure	19.3	18	16	16.3	17.4
% Public Expenditure-Interest	19.4	18.3	16.2	16.5	17.6
Education Development Expenditure (RWF billion)	7.8	8.9	8.3	10.7	8.7
% of Total Government Expenditure	3.6	3.2	2.4	2.5	2.9
% of Total Development Expenditure	15.6	21.7	16.2	11.2	16.2
% of Total Capital + Net Lending	15.3	9.9	6.8	7.9	10
% of Total Education	18.7	17.9	15.2	15.2	6.7
% Externally Financed	92.6	91.4	63.8	64.9	78.2
Education Recurrent (RWF billion)	33.9	40.6	46.3	55.9	44.2
Total US\$ (million)	59.3	71.8	83.6	99	
Annual Growth (nominal)		19.9	14	20.9	16.3
Annual Growth (2002 constant)		16.4	19.2	22.7	24.7
% of GDP	3.7	3.9	3.9	4.3	3.9
% of Public Recurrent Expenditure	21	42.2	21.5	20.1	21.7
% Public Recurrent Expenditure-Interest	21.2	24.8	21.8	20.4	22.1
% of Total Education Expenditure	81.3	82.1	84.8	84.8	83.3

Source: Republic of Rwanda, 2006

168 *Appendix***Table 4 Education Indicators**

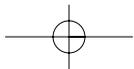
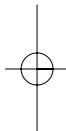
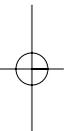
Year	1990	2000–2001	2005	Sub-Saharan Africa	Low-Income Countries
Primary Education					
<i>Access Indicators</i>					
School-age Population (7–12 years; million)	—	1.30	1.37	—	—
Total Enrollment (million)	1.10	1.48	1.86	—	—
% girls	49.8	50.0	50.9	46.4	46.3
% Enrolled in Private Schools	0.75	—	0.83	—	17.2
Out-of-School Children, Total (7–12 years)	—	—	104,061	—	—
Gross Intake Rate to Grade 1					
GER	96	—	206	110	122
Gender Parity					
(Female:Male GER)	71	114	136	91	104
Urban	0.98	0.97	1.01	0.86	—
Net Enrollment Ratios					
Girls	67.4	83.5	92.4	63.7	78.3
Lowest region	—	82.4	93.7	60	76
	—	66	—	—	—
<i>Input Indicators</i>					
Number of Schools	—	2,142	2,295	—	—
Number of Classrooms	—	27,339	29,748	—	—
Students per Classroom	—	54	62	—	—
% Classes Double-shifting					
(Grades 1–3)	—	—	92	—	—
Percent of Teachers Trained	—	63	87	73	—
Pupil:Teacher Ratio	57	51	64	50	42
<i>Efficiency and Effectiveness Indicators</i>					
% Repeaters					
Female	12.4	31.8	17.7	10.9	6.4
	12.0	36.2	17.6	10.9	6.3
% Drop-out Rate					
Survival to Grade 5	—	14.2	18.1	—	—
Female	59.9	39.1	—	68.6	—
	58.9	39.9	—	64.1	—
Gross Primary Completion Rate					
(FTI method)	45.3	24.2	—	61.1	77.8
% Passing National Exam					
% Boys Passing National Exam	—	26.0	—	—	—
% Females Passing National Exam	—	31.3	—	—	—
	—	20.1	—	—	—
<i>Secondary Education</i>					
Transition Rate from Primary					
Nab of Schools	—	42	—	60	—
	—	376	553	—	—
Total Enrollment	—	141,163	218,517	—	—
% Private	—	43.5	41.2	—	41
% Female	—	50.2	47.2	44	43
% Female in Public and Subsidized	—	45.6	42.5	—	—
% Female in Private Schools	—	56.3	53.9	—	—

(continues)

Table 4 Cont.

Year	1990	2000–2001	2005	Sub-Saharan Africa	Low-Income Countries
Gross Enrollment Ratio					
Gender Parity (Female:Male GER)	—	11.4	16.7	28.4	—
Pupil:Teacher Ratio	—	25.9	28.7	—	32
Repetition Rate	—	14	8.7	13	5
% Boys Passing National Exam	—	81	—	—	—
% Girls Passing National Exam	—	71	—	—	—
<i>Tertiary Education</i>					
Total Enrollment		12,802	27,787	—	—
% Public		68	48	39.0	38.0
% Female in Public		34	40	—	—
% Female in Private		50	48	6.0	9.1
Gross Enrollment Ratio					
		2.3	4.5	—	—
<i>Student:Administration Ratio</i>					
UNR		—	43	—	—
KHI and KIST		—	10	—	—
KIE		—	7	—	—
ISAE		—	4	—	—

Source: Republic of Rwanda, 2006



Notes

Overview

1. This definition of gender budgeting takes into account the definition of gender mainstreaming agreed upon by the Council of Europe's group of specialists on gender mainstreaming. The following definition of gender budgeting was drawn up by the Council's Steering Committee for Equality between Men and Women's informal group of experts on gender budgeting.

2. This includes the basic four-phase process: formulation, approval and enactment into law, implementation, and audit and evaluation.

3. These states are: Algeria, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Cameroon, Central African Republic, Chad, Congo, Cote d'Ivoire, Djibouti, Egypt, Ethiopia, Guinea, Kenya, Liberia, Malawi, Mauritania, Namibia, Sudan, Togo, Tunisia, Uganda, and Tanzania. South Africa did not respond to the questionnaires but did supply the preliminary report as required by the Beijing Platform for Action. South Africa had not handed in any of the four required yearly reports.

4. Millenium Development Goals include: *Goal 1: Eradicating Extreme Poverty*; *Goal 2: Achieving Universal Primary Education*; *Goal 3: Promoting Gender Equality and Empowerment of Women*; *Goal 4: Reducing Child Mortality*; *Goal 5: Improving Maternal Health*; *Goal 6: Combating HIV/AIDS; Tuberculosis, and Other Diseases*; *Goal 7: Ensuring Environmental Sustainability*; *Goal 8: Developing a Global Partnership for Development*.

Chapter 1

1. Australia was the first country to develop a gender-sensitive budget with the federal government publishing in 1984 the first comprehensive audit of a government budget for its impact on women and girls. Women's budget exercises were also undertaken by each of the Australian states and territorial governments. South Africa started working on gender-sensitive analysis of budgets in 1995.

2. Budget votes analyses were completed for the Departments of Housing, Health, Labour, Education, Justice and Constitutional Development, Social Development, and Trade and Industry.

3. Interview with Susan Nkomo, executive director of the Office on the Status of Women, President's Office, April 16, 2007.

172 Notes

4. Eastern Cape, Free State, KwaZulu-Natal, Gauteng, Mpumalanga, North West, and the Western Cape.

5. Eastern Cape, Gauteng, and KwaZulu-Natal.

6. In a telephone conversation with Zanele Twala, executive director of the South African NGO Coalition, who refused a face-to-face interview, she expressed that she did not believe that she could play a role in the South Africa gender budgeting research project and advised me to contact individual NGOs concerned with women. She felt that the organization was too broad for her to speak for individual needs projects. April 13, 2007.

7. Adopted in 1955, the Freedom Charter is the central policy document for the African National Congress.

8. Substantive equality is defined as taking into account the different realities of women. It aims to provide a situation where the realities of women and men are granted equal worth and concern. It acknowledges that in some cases this may mean that women and men are treated differently (from Budlender, 1996, p. 27).

9. SAWID, initiated by President Mbeki's wife, Zanele Mbeki, is a voluntary association of women from government, nongovernment, and community-based organizations established to provide a platform for ongoing dialogue among South African women to establish a common agenda for the development of women and to seek to strengthen Pan-African women's partnerships in conflict resolution and the management of peace and stability on the continent.

10. M. P. Trevor Manuel, minister of finance, Speech to Parliament on the Medium-Term Budget Policy Statement 2007. South Africa Government Information (October 30, 2007). The annual Medium-Term Budget Policy Statement sets out indicative allocations for the upcoming three fiscal years, and has in recent years become entrenched as a critical component of South Africa's overall fiscal and policy environment. All fiscal authorities provide a mid-year articulation of assumptions and benchmark allocations for the medium-term period in an accessible manner.

11. Components of AsgiSA include: infrastructure investment sector strategies, skills and education, second economy, public administration, and macroeconomic management.

12. A Sotho translation of *People First* is an initiative to get public servants to be service oriented, to strive for excellence in service delivery, and to commit to continuous service delivery improvement. It is a simple and transparent mechanism to hold public servants accountable for the level of service delivery.

13. Interview session with DOT Gender Focal Point, Althea Belford and Marlon Ronald. Pretoria. April 2, 2007.

Chapter 2

1. Poverty reduction strategies are instruments through which the World Bank provides budget support to the government premised on policy reforms.

Chapter 3

1. Laws establishing provinces, districts, urban authorities, and the city of Kigali were adopted in 2000 and 2001: Law No. 43/2000 establishing the Organization and Functioning of Provinces; Law No. 4/2001 establishing the Organization and Functioning of Districts; Law No. 05/2001 establishing the Organization and Functioning of Urban Authorities; and Law No. 07/2001 establishing the Organization and Administration of the City of Kigali.

2. For example, the government has a 49.4 percent share in the *Banque Commerciale du Rwanda*, a 50 percent share in the *Banque du Kigali* (including ownership by government-owned entities), and a 4 percent share in the *Banque Continentale Africaine du Rwanda*. The government also has a 47 percent direct stake in the *Banque Rwandaise du Developpement*, which is also partly owned by government-owned enterprises or banks.

3. This strategy was endorsed by the Boards of the IDA and the IMF on 12 August 2002.

4. For the purposes of the PRSP, the poverty line was established at an annual per capita expenditure level of RF64,000 in 2000 prices (equivalent to US\$0.37) per day.

5. CSR operates as a defined benefit scheme; benefits are based on last salaries, length of service, and similar criteria; CSR benefits are fully guaranteed by the government.

6. The Fund for the Victims of the Genocide is financed by the allocation from the earmarking of revenues equal to 5 percent of domestic resources, with additional support from external donors. The Road Network Fund is financed primarily from tolls and gasoline taxes mandated in the Law on the Road Fund.

7. It is very difficult to obtain a clear trend on expenditure by level of education and function. The categorization of the budget varies from one year to another, particularly with respect to salaries, which are not consistently disaggregated by level of education, nor is salary expenditure disaggregated between teaching and administration. Additionally, the salary line in the Ministry of Local Government budgets for 2005 and 2006 has been distributed between primary and secondary education at a rate of 85:15 in order to obtain some estimate of a trend. In the future, proper and consistent categorization of the budget would lead to clearer trends.

Chapter 4

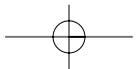
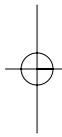
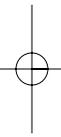
1. Inclusion in the index is predicated upon the team's ability to obtain data for a minimum of twelve indicators. However, the research report included in this study raised questions about Rwanda's ranking in the 2004 UN Human Development Report that ranks Rwanda 129 out of 144 countries in terms of the status, treatment, and participation of women and also ranks equally Rwanda poorly in the gender-related development index (GDI), although women's participation in economic and political life is very high in some aspects. In Rwanda 45 percent of seats in parliament are held by women, the world's second highest ratio of females in parliament. Female-earned income amount to 62 percent of male-earned income.

2. As of November 2007, Angola, Benin, Botswana, Burkina Faso, Burundi, Cameroon, Gabon, Ghana, Guinea Bissau, Lesotho, Liberia, Libya, Madagascar, Malawi, Mali, Mauritius, Namibia, Niger, Nigeria, Sao Tome and Principe, Senegal, Sierra Leone, South Africa, and Tanzania.

Chapter 5

1. Both Uganda and Rwanda patterned their gender-budgeting process after that established in South Africa under the Women's Budget Initiative, headed by Debbie Budlender.

2. One example of GETNET's training results can be found in its publication on the results of a Regional Workshop on Gender Budget Analysis in Southern Africa, South Africa, May 3-5, 2006.



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About the Book

Budgets are not gender neutral. They affect women and men in different ways, reflecting the uneven distribution of power within society as economic disparities, different living conditions, and ascribed social roles. Despite being signatories to the major international agreements that call for gender equality, most African countries have fallen short of their promises as their gender initiatives are facing a host of challenges relating to policy implementation, program design, management and tracking, and capacity building issues.

These are some of the findings of this book on *Gender Budgeting as a Tool for Poverty Reduction*. The book seeks to highlight the centrality of gender budgeting as a tool for improved transparency and accountability in the fight against inequity and poverty. Using the Convention on Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) framework, it showcases national and sectoral gender budgeting experiences in the selected three countries—South Africa, Rwanda, and Uganda—to serve as models for other African countries. The findings reveal that there is no specific template for gender budgeting and that all three countries studied are experiencing serious constraints in terms of implementation of policies and programs designed to promote gender equality in budgetary processes.

Making gender visible in budgets would thus require that African countries pay greater attention to the CEDAW obligations, take concrete and decisive measures to improve accountability, and contribute to achieving the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The book also identifies capacity weaknesses in gender budgeting that should be addressed in order to raise the standard for accountability and transparency in the countries' budgetary processes.

