

A Macroeconomic Perspective on the Links between Gender Equality, Economic
Development and Poverty Reduction Strategies

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This paper comprises four parts as follows:

- A Macroeconomic Perspective on the Links between Gender Equality and Economic Development for Poverty Reduction,
- Assess the Impact of Gender Inequality on Economic Growth and Development
- Gender Sensitivity of Poverty Reduction Strategies: Theory and Practice
- Gender Sensitive Poverty Reduction Strategy in Tanzania

1. A Macroeconomic Perspective on the Links between Gender Equality (GE) and Economic Development (ED) for Poverty Reduction (PR)

Efficient utilization of scarce resources helps achieve faster economic development and with a concerted effort to raise the labor force participation rate (LFPR) by the underutilized segment of the labor force, it is possible to achieve accelerated abatement of the poverty level by raising the standard of living of the individual. This thesis is premised on the realistic fact that average income per person goes up with a higher rate of economic growth than a lower one.

An understanding of the term “gender” will go a long way in precise targeting. As given in the WebCT course Glossary, ‘gender’ “refers to the comparative or differential roles, responsibilities, and opportunities for women and men in a given society” (p.4). This definition implies a comparative study of two cohorts of human capital from the viewpoint of a development economist. Since macroeconomic goals also entail economic growth, full employment, economic efficiency, price stability, economic freedom, equitable distribution of income, economic security and balance of international trade (McConnell and Brue, 2005, pp. 8-9), it is pertinent to focus attention on the efficient allocation of the scarce resources, especially human resources in the context of gender analysis. If a segment of the human capital is underdeveloped or underutilized, the result will be a tremendous setback on the achievement of a nation’s macroeconomic goals. Several approaches (Miller and Razavi, 1998, p.1) to gender analysis methodology for collecting and processing information about gender, (UNDP, 2001, p.17) help empower the stakeholders to tackle the gender imbalances in an amicable way.

A precise definition of the term “gender equality” helps avoid any misunderstanding of the issue at hand. GE according to the WBI WebCT course Glossary (p. 5) “refers to norms, values, attitudes and perceptions required to attain equal status between women and men without neutralizing the biological differences between women and men”. To UNDP (2001, p.17), GE “is the result of the absence of discrimination on the basis of a person’s sex in opportunities and the allocation of resources or benefits or in access to services”. GE has got the potential to unleash the latent human capabilities to better serve the family, society and the nation. Already, pro-GE policies across the globe help showcase the tremendous achievements in all walks of life by raising the standard of living of the individual/family as a whole.

One is not sure if poverty exacerbates GE or vice versa. Let us check the ramifications of this egg and chicken problem. King and Mason (2001, p.3) suggest that the relationship goes both ways. We are able to discern that poverty and gender inequality (GI) are intertwined. Active practitioners ranging from individuals to institutions are earnestly trying and succeeding to untangle it. King and Mason opine that gender discrimination “will result in higher poverty, lower quality of life, slower economic growth and development and weaker

governance". The incidence is manifested mainly in poor households of the low-income countries.

In order to capture the complex relationship between poverty and GI or vice versa, empathizing with a simple imaginary, yet realistic scenario of two households is in order. Let us try to capture the real issue at hand for each member in the household. In scenario one, *ceteris paribus*, a poor family of five consists of a young husband and his wife with three children under age six. Needs of this family as elsewhere, include basic needs plus others such as asset ownership, in order to be productive members of the society. The young mother advocates a gainful employment opportunity for her husband to take care of the family. Her intention is not to be a welfare recipient but to live with dignity and respect. This scenario is helpful to trace the direction of poverty leading to GI, although it is a short run phenomenon. In scenario two, *ceteris paribus*, a poor family of six with an old mother who is a widow lives with her two adult sons and three adult daughters. Needs of this family entail basic needs plus meaningful asset ownership to be productive members of the society. The old lady is helpless if her children are not gainfully employed to meet the expectations in this context. She advocates GE to enable her children to find productive opportunities to ensure respect and dignity in the society. She cannot tolerate gender inequality. The second scenario is helpful to trace the direction of GI leading to poverty, although it is a short run phenomenon. This observation may help one appreciate the difficulty in finding a simple all-fit solution to the complex relationship between poverty and GI and vice versa.

To discern the important link between GE and ED, the basic ingredients of economic development (economic and non-economic) need to be identified. Economic development implies going through a natural process of economic growth. Interpretations of the concept "economic development" abound across different spectrums. Still one could consider that the purpose of economic development is to enhance the wealth creating capabilities of the individual, family, society, nation and the world. This means that policy / institutional reforms should ensure the sustained nurturing of the goose that lays the golden egg, along with the honey producing bees and the hardworking ants, as this combined effort will swiftly bring economic development to pass. The purpose of economic development, in addition to increasing the material well being, is to enhance the all round well being of the individual to go forth with confidence and peaceful contentment on every front.

Though imperfect, one of the measures of the annual national output, viz. Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is (apart from the definition: total market value of all final goods and services produced within a country during a given period of time) the aggregate final output produced from the combined utilization of human and physical capital, land and gifts of nature, entrepreneurial talents and technological know how. Raising the output through productive effort of all available resources as mentioned above, results in enhanced wealth creating

capability of the stakeholders achieving a dynamic improvement in the standard of living. As the natural process of economic growth is not spontaneous, conscious public policy interventions including GE enhancing ones, in the macro economy will help reallocate the scarce resources into optimal utilization ensuring both productive and allocative efficiency. Since $GDP = C + I + G + X - M$, (Where C is consumption expenditure, I investment expenditure, G is government expenditure and X-M net exports), each component is a mix of spending by people with gender delineation. In order to equate the aggregate spending with the aggregate output at full employment level, no effort should be spared in harnessing the potential- earning-spending capability of each member in the labor force. It is a solace to know that higher GDP growth rate will help double the average GDP (income per capita) in fewer years and hence the standard of living, than with a lower growth rate.

GE is a vital ingredient in attaining faster economic development, to combat poverty. Gender inequality harms economic development and the spillover effects will adversely affect everyone. The interspersed links between gender issues and economic development will act as catalyst for better GE to reduce poverty through faster economic growth and better governance. As the ultimate goal of development is improving the quality of people's lives, any toll on human life is an added cost on development. GI is a cost on productivity, efficiency and economic progress. Engendering Development through Gender Equality in Rights, Resources and Voices, Summary (World Bank, 2001) succinctly answers the question "why are gender issues important to economic development?" as follows:

"By hindering the accumulation of human capital in the home and the labor market, and by systematically excluding women and men from access to resources, public services, or productive activities, gender discrimination diminishes an economy's capacity to grow and to raise living standards" (p.11).

More income in the hands of the female member of the family has got larger positive impact on higher child survival rates and better nutrition. Over enthusiasm in redressing the gender inequality in no way should cloud our ability to appreciate the importance of the upward-income- creeping capability as a panacea for the ills arising from poverty. Suggestion to emulate the gender equality rights of the "most equal" country in the respective regions is a step in the right direction. A three-part strategy to promote gender equality entails reforming institutions, fostering economic development and active measures to redress persistent disparities in command of resources and political voice. GI in education and employment seems to have reduced Sub Saharan Africa's (SSA) GDP per capita growth rate during the period 1960-92 by 0.8 percentage points per year according to Gelb, (2001, p.6). Challenges ahead include:" how to deepen understanding of the links between gender equality and development and how to reflect these links in policy?" and "how to broaden policy makers'

partnerships with civil society groups, donors and others in the international community?”(World Bank, 2001, pp.27-28).

Among others, Millennium Development Goals (MDG) aim to half between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people worldwide whose income is less than a dollar a day. The inter linkages between GE and other development issues help shed light on the catalytic role of GE in the sustainable achievement of the MDGs. Stern (2001,p.1) explains three perspectives, viz. equality, empowerment and development effectiveness to approach the issue of gender in development. “The active participation of women, whether in education, income generation, social protection or governance, contributes consistently to more effective development” (p.2). The justification for targeting larger transfers towards women is really compelling. The author is of the opinion that “gender should be incorporated into the way we think about and approach development, from project design to methods of work and statistics” (p.4).

MDG3 is to promote gender equality and empower women and mirrors the critical importance of gender equality in facilitating the accomplishment of the remaining goals: viz., raise income level, achieve UPE, reduce infant mortality rate and maternal mortality rate, halt and reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS, malaria and other major diseases, ensure environment sustainability through SD and develop a global partnership for development (World Bank, 2003, p.3). Gender gaps in economic and social sectors are real, not myth in several countries with the exception of a few. An educated mother is an asset to self, family, community and the nation as she is empowered to combat illiteracy, malnutrition, ill health, poverty, maternal mortality, and major diseases and help sustain development.

Klasen (2005) used the non-income growth analysis to examine gender differentials and concluded that:

“While it is exceedingly difficult to say much about gender and income poverty, it is perfectly feasible to analyze non-income growth incidence curves for education and health by gender and to see how gender differentials can be observed at different points of the distribution of these non-income indicators”(p.23).

Obviously, several related issues from the definition of gender, gender equality or other wise as causative factor for change in poverty level, ramifications of GE on ED, components of economic growth, ED enhancing non-economic factors, and above all the urge to redress poverty through pro-GE policies and reforms, tell us the plain truth: gender-sensitive development through rapid economic growth is the panacea for the degenerating cancer of poverty. As the aggregate demand for the annual output of goods and services rise to match the aggregate supply at the full employment equilibrium level emanating from a high MPC of the lower income-out of poverty consumers, the multiplier effect of the increase in the initial spending will be enormous. Indeed prosperity will pervade the globe at the demise of poverty anywhere.

2. Assessment of the Impact of Gender Inequality on Economic Growth and Development

It is an established fact that lower investment in girl's education is not an efficient economic choice for developing countries. Efficiency dictates that the society's scarce resources are used without any wasting, both in the productive and allocative processes. This means that when lower investment in girl's education results in poor human capital formation, high infant mortality and high maternal mortality rates, low LFPR, low income, low saving, low investment and finally low rate of per capita income (PCI) resulting from slow economic growth, there is only one important conclusion: society's scarce resources are being wasted. The very fact that the developing countries are not able to move out from their status quo indicates that they could help themselves by more efficiently utilizing the better half of the human capital.

Quite often GI reflects different social or cultural preferences about gender roles. Among several non-economic explanations for the gender inequality, Dollar and Gatti's (1994, p.22) observation helps reflect to some extent, the social and cultural preferences about gender roles. Their finding on the undesirability of GI on economic growth only as a minor distortion at low levels of development reinforces at least to some extent, the belief that gender equality (GE) is not a cherished goal in maximizing the well being in certain societies especially agricultural. Perhaps an analysis of the reason for such a notion will reveal that a mother's presence at home is the sine qua non of the family ensuring loving and healthy nurture of members, nutrition and cleanliness among others. According to them, although a great house help in performing the daily chores, a maid is not a perfect substitute for the mother. One wonders if there is a leaf to be borrowed from such thinking by modern mothers in all societies. The author really reveres those highly educated mothers staying at home until children are of the school going age in some advanced societies. The message is that a strong family is the firm foundation of a strong nation. Hence the answer to the question is that GI is not by design but is the result of the best practical experience in life. If societies are willing to pay the price for GI, policy intervention may not be very effective in reversing such a trend.

There is a perception that market failures that cause under investment in girls will decline as countries develop. 'Market Failure' means (Mankiw, 2001) "a situation in which a market left on its own fails to allocate resources efficiently" (p.11) and "when markets fail, public policy can potentially remedy the problem and increase efficiency" (p.157). McConnell & Brue (2005) explain market failure as follows: "the inability of a market to bring about the allocation of resources that best satisfies the wants of society; in particular, the overallocation or underallocation of resources to the production of a particular good or service because of spillovers or informational problems or because markets do not provide desired public goods" (p.G-10).

While GE is development inducing, increases in PCI help remove household resource constraints in getting all children well educated, which in turn enhances GE. Grace (1974) found that the highest rate of unemployment among women in Kerala State “reflects their higher educational attainment, compared to their counterparts elsewhere in India” (p.188). There is no question of a market failure in this context since the educated mother is an asset not only to the nation’s labor market as a resource to enhance the GDP and PCI, but also to the family and the community. She is priceless if you calculate her unpaid or paid work. Many women also volunteer in the public/private sectors in addition to the household chores. The shortcomings of GDP per capita as a measure of well-being include the famous example of a decrease in GDP as soon as the gentleman of the house marries the housemaid. The paid maid was visible to the National Income Accountants (NIA), but a wife’s unpaid work is invisible in the NIA net.

Accurate National Income Accounting to capture the explicit and the implicit output in the macro economy is a pre requisite to redress the actual and the perceived GI. The fact of the matter is: the well-being is enhanced with the input of female labor either at home or in the labor market. The status and honor of women even in traditional societies will go up, as published National Income Statistics acknowledge their man-hours of labor in producing that year’s GDP. Therefore it is safe to conclude that the market (the NIA) failure has triggered the peculiar social belief that under-investment by parents in girls is permissible.

A lingering question is: How does gender inequality in education (GIE) play a role in economic growth? Economic growth means an increase in real gross domestic product (RGDP) over a given period of time or an increase in the average RGDP (RGDP/Population) or PCI over a period of time. Growth rate of PCI equals growth rate of RGDP minus growth rate of population. Graphically this increase could be demonstrated as the outward expansion of the production possibility curve (PPC). As far as a developing country is concerned, the dream of an unattainable standard of living could be achieved with an increase in resources and rapid technological advancement. In any measure of economic growth, three basic ingredients are: *supply factors* reflecting the physical ability of the economy to expand (increase in the quantity and quality of natural resources, increase in the quantity and quality of human capital, increase in the stock of capital goods and improvements in technology) to its potential GDP, *demand factors* (spending on goods and services by households, businesses and government) capable of raising the level of aggregate demand (AD) to achieve the higher production potential created by the supply factors(AS), and *efficiency factors* capable of reaching the production potential through productive and allocative efficiency (McConnell & Brue,2005, p.309).

Klasen (1999) is of the opinion that GIE “has direct impact on economic growth through lowering the average quality of human capital. Impact of GE on investment and population growth, also affect economic growth indirectly”

(abstract). The author further states that GIE “prevents progress in reducing fertility and child mortality rates, thereby compromising progress in well-being in developing countries” (ibid). Apart from the adverse effects on the infant mortality, fertility rate and the solid foundation for the expanded education of the progeny, GIE reduces the potential capabilities of women. The statement that reduced GI will enhance the quality of education should take into account the practicality of this wish in developing countries. The quantity, of course will increase with the probability of a diluted quality of education emanating from the inadequacy of school funding. As an economy grows, *ceteris paribus*, PCI follow suit. As the increase in the PCI growth rate is determined by the population growth rate, it is very important to direct our attention to the reduction of GIE to enhance the economic growth rate in the affected economies. A study on the multiplier effect of GIE reducing expenditure will help realize the actual effect of this well debated hypothesis.

Increased investment in human capital including GIE reducing, helps raise the labor productivity. Bade & Parkin (2004) explain the sources of economic growth as: factors that increase aggregate hours and factors that increase labor productivity. In this sense, RGDP equals aggregate hours times labor productivity. The ingredients of higher labor productivity are “saving and investment in physical capital, expansion of human capital and discovery of new technologies” (pp.403-405). Emphasis on the investment in human capital creates a win-win situation actually creating a ‘virtuous circle’ instead of a vicious one. Thus reducing GIE promotes investment in human capital, hence economic growth.

As the RGDP equals aggregate hours times labor productivity, GIE reducing investment in human capital as well as population growth are of immense importance in our study. In the context of population growth, the growth economist is searching for increased LFPR from a productive labor force. How to ensure this output from a growing population? There come the four mechanisms (Klasen) at the center of the demographic impact on economic growth (p.7). They are: reduced fertility will lower dependency ratio; large work force will boost the investment demand; lowering fertility rates will raise the future LFPR; interaction between GIE, high fertility, low investment in human capital reduce economic growth. Each of these mechanisms is amenable to further probe for clarification as the awakened tigers (or elephants?) of South Asia showcase their latest shades of economic growth theory, and practice.

Theories of economic growth include *Classical (Malthusian)* theory (postulates that increase in RGDP leads to population explosion that lowers the amount of capital per hour reducing the labor productivity and hence RGDP), *Neoclassical* theory (states that RGDP will increase with advance in technology, birth rate will fall with increase in the wage rate of women and technological change results from chance), and the *New Growth* theory which explains that perpetual economic growth ensue from increasing productivity as a result of the

increase in the unlimited wants. Choice causes growth in human capital, discoveries lead to profit and productivity curve constantly gets shifted upwards as a result of increase in capital and technology (Bade & Parkin, 2004, pp.409-415). Some earlier growth models include: the Harrod-Domar model, the Kaldor's model of growth, Joan Robinson's model of capital accumulation, Meade's Neo-Classical model of economic growth, the Solow model of long-run growth, the Models of technical change, and Steady-State growth models, among others.

Endogenous Growth Theory (EGT) emphasizes that economic growth is not constrained by diminishing returns to capital. This may be true especially in the context of human capital development. EGT is premised on the understanding that improvements in productivity can be linked to a faster pace of innovation and extra investment in human capital. Knowledge is the determinant of economic growth. India's knowledge economy endowed with the current impressive development of human capital is moving ahead with a competitive advantage in certain growth industries (service centers outperforming demands of the global outsourcing works) in the global economy, arising from positive externalities and spill over effects as predicted by the EGT framework.

Lagerloff (1999) has conducted research on the links between GIE on fertility and economic growth. The results show a self-perpetuating low-level equilibrium as pointed out by Klasen (p.3). A study by Bloom and Williamson (1997) on the temporary effect of the 'demographic gift' seems to postpone the burden of the inevitable ageing problem to the future generation; current fall in fertility allows higher well-being now, but the fewer workers of next generation will pay the price for our current action. The US debate on the funding for social security in 2040 is a case in point. Nations will suffer from labor shortage. But New Growth Theory guarantees a perpetual economic growth from ever increasing labor productivity.

Tutor2u.net (2005, p.1) summarizes the main points of EGT as follows:

- The rate of technological progress should not be taken as given in a growth model-appropriate government policies can permanently raise a country's growth rate particularly if they lead to a higher level of competition in markets and a higher rate of innovation.
- There are potential increasing returns from higher levels of capital investment.
- Theory emphasizes that private investment in research and development (R&D) is the central source of technical progress.
- Protection of property rights and patents can provide the incentive to engage in R&D
- Investment in human capital (education and training of workforce) is an essential ingredient of growth.

Gary Becker (1992, as quoted in tutor2u, p.1) taught that

"Expenditure on education, training and medical care could all be considered as investment in human capital because people cannot

be separated from their knowledge, skills, health or values in the way they can be separated from their financial and physical assets.”

Aghion and Penalosa, (1999) have examined the effect of inequality on growth and provide

“A theoretical framework which explains two empirical findings, namely, the negative impact of inequality and the positive effect of redistribution upon growth” (p.1655).

Most of the economic growth models have high- lighted the positive role of human capital accumulation in economic growth. However, only very ‘FEW’ models analyzed GIE and its impact on economic growth. These studies help us search for a perceived vicious circle (high GIE through high fertility leads to low economic growth triggering the high GIE). In the classical model of economic growth, Malthus should have relished this reasoning.

Dollar and Gatti (1999) attempted to show the positive relationship between female secondary education and economic growth (Klasen, p.5). Other studies in this arena, as mentioned by Klasen are: Barr& Lee (1994), Hill& King (1995) and Sen (1999). To reiterate, reduced gender bias in education furthers two development goals: reduced fertility and child mortality, apart from its positive impact on economic growth.

There remains a lot (Klasen, p.23) of grey areas (short comings of the model specification, limitations of the OLS and TSLS and the inadequacy of the data set for study) in the search to establish robust regression results to convince the policy makers, that the emancipated or the additional human capital from gender equality in education (GED) drive, is efficiently utilized, in the sense that the marginal cost at least equals the marginal benefit. These linkages are explained in terms of the New Growth Theories, especially the Endogenous Theory of economic growth.

3. Gender Sensitivity of Poverty Reduction Strategies: Theory and Practice,

This section examines a set of interconnected questions in the context of gender sensitivity of the Poverty Reduction Strategies (PRS). Appropriate answers to these questions will help shed enough light on the authenticity and relevance of a gendered approach to development as a remedy to poverty. Bamberger, et al, (2002), state that gender sensitive PRS will help improve economic conditions for the poor, enhance human capital and quality of life, improve economic and physical security of the vulnerable and increase political participation and gender equality (p.335).

The first question to be tackled is: why incorporate gender into poverty reduction strategies? It is shown that gender sensitive development strategies contribute significantly to economic growth and equity objectives by ensuring that all groups of the poor share in program benefits (ibid). It is suggested that policy makers and planners be better educated on the importance of gender as a key development issue (ibid). Although all poor men and women suffer from poverty (be it in any form: Capability, Opportunity, Security or Empowerment (COSE)), the lot of women is much worse than their male counterparts. Unequal burden arising from social constraints on women is a composite of family upkeep duties, subsistence agricultural and non-agricultural production activities, reproduction and community management roles ending up in long hours of daily work among others, is summed up in *womens' triple responsibility* (p.339).

It is an established fact that gender inequality is a potential threat to development. In Tanzania, 41 per cent of the urban labor force worked in the informal sector of the urban economy out of which 34 per cent were women (Sunny, 1987). Constraints on women participation included the daily load of work women have to perform at home and outside, numerous pregnancies and children. Population explosion is the biggest problem facing Kenya. Rapid economic growth is to be achieved to raise the per capita income as it takes long time for the fertility rate to fall (Sunny, 1988, p.36). Research in this field has confirmed that the efficiency and equity impact of PRS could be enhanced through a solid gendered approach. Gender disparities are not conducive to economic growth, the linchpin to raise the standard of living and hence the well being.

The proposed steps in incorporating gender into poverty reduction strategies (WBI, 2005, p.337) are:

- Integrating gender into poverty diagnosis. This process comprises another three steps as follows: ensuring that gender is addressed across the four dimensions of poverty, viz, (opportunities, capabilities, security and empowerment); documenting the experience of poverty for both women and men for all four dimensions of COSE; and conducting gender analysis of the data gathered and integrating findings into poverty diagnosis.
- Using a gender-informed poverty analysis in defining priority public actions in the PRS. Just as the first step, this process is a summation of another three viz, defining the policy implications of gender analysis in the country; identifying gender-responsive priorities for the PRS; and integrating gender-responsive priorities for the PRS
- The last step is integrating gender into monitoring and evaluation, which entails: integrating gender dimension into outcome monitoring and the PRS evaluation strategy; and building institutional capacity for gender-sensitive monitoring and evaluation.

The first part of the second question is: what tools are available to identify gender issues in poverty analysis? Gender Analysis as given in the WebCT course glossary, “examines the access and control that men and women have over resources. This includes analyzing the sexual division of labor and the control women and men have over the inputs required for their labor and the outputs (benefits) of their labor. It also refers to a systematic way of determining men’s and women’s often differing development needs and preferences and the different impacts of development on women and men. It takes into account how class, race, ethnicity, or other factors interact with gender to produce discriminatory results (p.5).”

Country gender assessment (GA), Sex disaggregation of data and indicators, Gender empowerment measure (GEM) and Gender related development index (GDI), Gender analysis of survey and other poverty data, Time Budget analysis, Gender balance in the team preparing the poverty reduction strategy paper (PRSP), Gender–inclusive mapping of stakeholders and gender-inclusive consultation with the poor, constitute a set of tools to identify gender issues in poverty analysis. Further it also includes the use of different data collection methods to produce key indicators in the four dimensions of poverty as mentioned in COSE. The questionnaire design is of critical importance. The gender embedded questions; coverage and response, among others determine the usefulness of collected data for gender analysis. Besides, applying tools of poverty measurement to non-monetary indicators is cumbersome. Limitations of the estimates (especially when categorical regressions are used) are to be taken care of, as they are amenable to specification errors.

Poor people’s priorities for improving their situation; causality data; opportunities poor people see for improving their situation; locality differences; perceptions on quality service delivery and governance at the local level; and identification of who are the poor, are the types of qualitative data required for PRS design and monitoring (World Bank, 2000).

The second segment of the second question reads as follows: How are women constrained by poverty differently than men? The nature, causes and impacts of poverty are different for men and for women in the COSE. This necessitates the specification of gender-based inequality in access to and control of economic, human and social assets (p.336). Income and non-income provisions through the hard work of both men and women are essential to avert a plunge into the abyss of deep poverty. In that pre-emptive effort, women still carry a higher burden than men due to the unique nature of their engagement. Rigid gender roles (such as: low-productivity agricultural jobs, undercapitalized female-owned enterprises, labor market segmentation cornering women to low paid jobs and inadequate property rights) adversely restrict the full capacity utilization of this section of the human resource despite the positive multiplier effect of an educated woman in the family, society and the nation (by reducing infant, child and maternal mortality, lowering fertility, improving the nutritional status of children and members of the family and above all, laying the foundation of an educated family), and better governance in the country as more women hold public office. Demand for fuel wood exceeds its supply, and in this

context poor women in rural areas of developing countries suffer most in terms of lost labor time, uncooked food and malnutrition of family members due to low agricultural productivity arising from environment degradation (Sunny, 1992, p.65). Micro enterprises run by women face several constraints including inadequate capital, very low and unstable income with low skill and productivity. Provision of cheaper line of credit and advice on improving the quality of the product and service will go a long way in easing these inhibiting factors in Botswana (Sunny, 2000, p.92).

Gender differentiated barriers in the context of Opportunities (gender differences in the impact of economic downturns, unequal access to labor markets and to productive assets and pay discrimination); Capabilities (unequal access to education, unequal access to health and limited access to water and energy); Security (vulnerability to economic risk, to natural disasters, to civil and domestic violence and to the environmental risks); and Empowerment (state institutions not accessible to poor people, lack of voice in local and national politics and women do not have voice in family and community decision making) teach us the important and unique constraints faced by poor women (p.342).

The methods that can be used to analyze gender differences are:

“All methods of data collection, whether quantitative or qualitative, participatory or non-participatory, can be gender sensitive or not, depending on how they are applied” (p.345). It is the responsibility of the PR task team to address gender across the four dimensions of poverty, document the experiences of poverty for each of the COSE and undertake the gender analysis of the data gathered and integrate the findings into the country’s poverty diagnosis. Quantitative methods of data collection include Household Surveys, Attitude Studies, Willingness and Capacity to Pay, and Time Use Studies. As several factors contribute to the understatement of poverty by household budget surveys (HBS), Poverty Manual (WBI, 2004) recommends adjustment of the HBS consumption data upwards by multiplying with 1.125. It is also important to note the divergence between National Income Accounts (NIA) and HBS data on consumption. In the NIA, consumption data is assumed to be reasonably good as $GDP - (X-M) + Gc$ estimates consumption. This warrants a hybrid approach to measuring poverty combining NIA and HBS methodology which is used by the World Bank to extrapolate poverty count between survey years and to generate forecasts of poverty reduction.

Qualitative methods are: Stakeholder Analysis, Institutional Analysis, Focus Groups and Community Forums, Participatory Rural Appraisal and other participatory methods and lastly Photographs and Videos (p.350). Potential PRSP interventions (p.342) also constitute a set of powerful methods to analyze gender differences.

Last set of questions is a synthesis of theory and practice and it is given below: “based on your personal, country-specific experiences, how can the PRS strategy process be improved? How do you see theoretical aspects of the PRSP process different from experiences in the field?”

Lessons from the analysis of the first PRSPs and interim PRSPs (pp.338-339) refer to the omissions as follows: “the analysis shows that while most of the I-PRSPs and PRSPs identify gender issues as being important in at least some sectors, the discussion of how to integrate gender into the selection and design of priority public actions is quite limited, and there are many missed opportunities. In view of this anomaly, the chapter on Gender by Bamberger, et al (2002) is a prescription for practical guidance on: how to identify gender issues in the poverty diagnosis. It is given below: translate the gender dimensions of poverty into the selection and design of priority public actions; design indicators to evaluate the effectiveness of the PRS programs in reaching and benefiting both women and men; and ensure participatory consultations give voice to both women and men.

Klugman (2002) cites the priority areas for public action in a PRSP as: “macroeconomic and structural policies to support sustainable growth in which the poor participate; improvements in governance, including public sector financial management; appropriate sectoral policies and programs; and realistic costing and appropriate levels of funding for the major programs” (p.4).

Some of the challenges in synchronizing theory and practice at the macro level are: “availability of adequate poverty data; analysis to identify the nature and determinants of poverty outcomes and trends over time; extent of income or consumption and other dimensions of poverty and their evolution over time; analysis of gender dimensions of poverty; distribution of assets of various types; and identification of economic, social, and institutional constraints to poverty reduction” (Klugman, p.8). The author is of the opinion that, despite the difference in the initial conditions and the social and political forces that shape the process of building a PRS by a particular country, a common thread across the countries could be discerned in priority public actions, public expenditure management system; and monitoring and evaluation systems (pp 23-24).

PRSP’s high expectation of reducing poverty is not yet realized because pro-poor growth policy is not accorded sufficient emphasis to find out the extent to which those at the lower end of the income distribution benefit from the growth process itself. Poverty Manual (2004) states that the elasticity of poverty with respect to growth varies over time and space (p.168).

Evans and Diesen (2002) describe the Tanzanian approach as unique and capable of providing key lessons of experience for other countries preparing national system of poverty monitoring, the most important being (p.17):

- Adopting a multi-stakeholder approach to enhance legitimacy, help build consensus on key goals and objectives and bring on board as much existing capacity as possible to meet the many demands that will come to bear on the system.
- Taking a coordinated approach to working both within Government and with external partners, again to build legitimacy but also to tap a wide range of

expertise and financing during the early phases of the Poverty monitoring system (PMS) design.

- Linking traditional survey based instruments with the administrative data system and a program of participatory poverty assessment (PPAs) to create a holistic analysis of poverty trends and progress against public actions identified in the PRSP.

In short, one could say that gender sensitive poverty reduction strategies will help nations to achieve development more effectively and efficiently.

4. Gender Sensitive Poverty Reduction Strategy in Tanzania

This section attempts to assess the gender sensitivity of the poverty reduction strategy (PRS) in Tanzania. Aside from this introduction, the following sections, viz. a brief background of Tanzania; areas exhibiting gender inequality within the country; review of gender indicators depicting current progress in addressing gender issues; summary of analysis and policy recommendations; and conclusion, adorn the writing that follows. The thesis of this presentation is that Tanzania is at the forefront of a gendered approach to development to conquer and defeat poverty.

A brief background of the country reveals that Tanzania is a beautiful and friendly country in East Africa with a population of 36 million in 2003. The fact that half of the population is female highlights the importance of a gendered approach to development. Density of population is 41 in 2003 and Tanzania is a country of enormous potential in terms of unexploited natural resources (Sunny, 1983, p.72). Describing Tanzania's external debt and the structural adjustment programs, Sunny (1989) has suggested the following: "instill confidence in investors that their assets will not be nationalized again; rehabilitate existing infrastructures, productive capacity, small scale farming and small enterprises; invite foreign investment to fully utilize the farmland to produce surplus food; encourage a healthy private sector in a mixed economic system; and utilize the South-South cooperation with full support from the North"(p.34).

According to Government of Tanzania (GOT),
"Since independence in 1961, the GOT has been preoccupied with three development problems: ignorance, disease and poverty. National efforts to tackle these problems were initially channeled through centrally directed, medium-term and long-term development plans, and resulted in a significant improvement in per capita income and access to education, health and other social services until the 1970s. Thereafter, these gains could not be sustained because of various domestic and external shocks, and policy weaknesses. Indeed, despite sustained efforts since the mid-1980s to address the country's economic and social problems, one half of

all Tanzanians today are considered to be basically poor, and approximately one-third live in abject poverty”(2000, p.3).

In trying to locate the areas exhibiting gender inequality within the country, the relevant information is as given below:

“Available data for Tanzania suggest that gender disparities persist, and that gender inequality is costly to Tanzania’s economic and social development and to the realization of its growth with poverty reduction objectives. Poverty has significant gender dimensions in Tanzania, where women predominate among the core poor. Most gender inequities result from economic policies and sector strategies which do not recognize gender differences in resources, roles and constraints; legal system which limit women’s access to land and other forms of property; and political systems which limit women’s voice and participation at the national, local and community levels” (Blackden, et al, 2004, p.27).

Table 1 tells us a unique story of weak wealth creation capability as exemplified in the PCI in the country as a result of the combined shocks mentioned above. A sharp decline in female adult literacy rate, emulated in the female youth literacy rate is a cause of concern. The same pattern is discernible in the female gross primary enrollment ratio as per cent of age group.

Tanzania Gender Networking Program (TGNP) has identified the characteristics of the female headed households (FHH) from household budget surveys (HBS) 1991/2 and 2000/1; and the integrated labor force survey (ILFS) 2001. The findings include the following:

“Between 1991/2 and 2000/1, the percentage of FHH with men decreased and the percentage of FHH with women and children increased. FHH headed by widowed women are the most likely to be poor. FHH own less area of farm land than their counterparts. Women spend money to meet the food needs of the family. In most cases, woman is the breadwinner of the family. The ILFS showed that more men were employed in the urban sector than their female counterparts. Women are mainly self-employed in the informal sector and in the farm and family chores. Women earn less than men in paid employment” (pp.1-11).

Inequalities exist in the areas of: land laws; inheritance laws; marriage laws; and laws on money for children. Recommendations by TGNP are: “ include FHH in policy formulation; investigators in the field for statistical data collection should be better trained to capture the concepts like “head”, “ household”, “household head”, “marriage systems and size of the family”, “types of households”; change the affiliation ordinance; reform laws causing gender inequality, immorality; introduce old age grant; and conduct a study on child headed households, a time use study to record the gender burden of the unpaid work”(pp1-11)

Table 1 Tanzania Gender Indicators: 1980/2000

#	Gender Indicators	Tanzania			SSA		
		1980	2000	change +/-	1980	2000	change +/-
1	GNP per capita (US\$)	190*	270	+80	660	480	-180
2	Female population as % of total	50.8	50.6	-0.2	50.2	50.5	+0.3
3	Female life expectancy at birth(years)	52	45	-7	49	47	-2
4	Female adult literacy rate (% of people aged 15+)	66.2	33.5	-32.70	72.4	46.8	-25.6
5	Female labor force (% of total)	50	49	-1	42	42	0
6	Female youth literacy rate (% of people aged 15-24)	43	12.1	-30.90	56.2	27.5	-28.70
7	Total fertility rate (births per woman)	6.7	5.3	-1.4	6.6	5.3	-1.3
8	Infant mortality rate (per 1000 live births)	106	104	-2	116	104	-2
9	Under 5 mortality rate (per 1,000)	175	165	-10	197	175	-22
10	Female gross primary enrollment ratio as % of age group	86	64	-22	67	76	+11

*1990

Source: [http:// genderstats.worldbank.org/genderRpt.asp?rpt=profile&city=TZA, Tanzania &hm=ho](http://genderstats.worldbank.org/genderRpt.asp?rpt=profile&city=TZA,Tanzania&hm=ho), retrieved 11/22/2005

“Women are one of Africa’s hidden growth reserves, providing most of the region’s labor but their productivity is hampered by widespread inequality in education and access. Thus gender equality can be a potent force for accelerated poverty reduction. There appears to be only sporadic analysis of the costs of gender inequality for economic growth in Tanzania (Blackden, et al, 2004, pp.27-28).

According to UNDAF, 2001 “ over the past 15 years, Tanzania has embarked on a long process of economic, social and political reforms to improve the environment for increasing economic growth and reducing poverty. In the past five years, despite adverse weather conditions and deteriorating terms of trade, the economy of Tanzania has been growing at an average rate of more than four per cent “(p.ii). “ Tanzania’s development gateway- Tanzania On-Line (www.tzonline.org) is a site established by Government with the UN system support” (p.5) “The main development challenge, which all efforts in Tanzania

eventually aim to address is widespread and persistent poverty in all its dimensions. Poverty in Tanzania is characterized by low income and expenditure, high mortality and morbidity, poor nutritional status, low educational attainment, vulnerability to external shocks, and exclusion from economic, social and political processes. Poverty is particularly widespread in the rural areas, but is not insignificant in urban areas” (p.7). “Poverty reduction requires an enabling environment as well as sound macro-economic management, and a conducive framework for investment by small – scale producers and larger scale enterprises. Tanzania intends to work harder to ensure that the poor, including the small-scale producers can more easily contribute to and benefit from the growing economy” (p.26).

“By mid-1990s it was observed that the growth that began to be recorded since mid-1980s did not have a notable dent on poverty reduction” (Shein, 2004, p.3). The author is explaining the narrative history of poverty reduction in Tanzania as follows: “Tanzania prepared the National Poverty Eradication Strategy (NPES) in 1997 with a target of reducing absolute poverty by half by 2010, following the World Summit for Social Development (WSSD) held in Copenhagen in March 1995” (p.4). “The poverty reduction process has undergone changes. The poverty reduction strategy paper (PRSP) was prepared in the context of highly indebted poor countries (HIPC) initiative to enable Tanzania qualify for debt relief under the initiative and Tanzania came out first to complete the requirements (p.6).

“ Just as the MDGs help member countries of the United Nations stay alert on poverty reduction goals and interventions, Tanzania as a UN member nation is staying very much focused on the task at hand, exemplified in the celebration of the annual Poverty Policy Week. In Tanzania, poverty reduction strategy is a participatory process with effective monitoring mechanisms in place. Three broad outcome areas as critical pillars of Tanzania Strategy for Growth and Reduction of Poverty are: growth and reduction of income poverty; improved quality of life and social well being; and governance and accountability” (p.8).

National Strategy of Growth and Reduction of Poverty (NSGRP) launched in October 2003 is embedded with a bottom up consultation process (village and community level, district level, regional level, national level) and departs from the PRS to some degree. It has got a five year framework.

Gender indicators measure gender-related changes in society over time (WBI WebCT course Glossary, p.5). Blackden (2005) found that “women’s lack of equality in SSA has exacerbated, or at the very least, made it more difficult to reduce poverty”. Poverty and quality of life indicators include: GNP per capita, per cent of population below poverty line, female life expectancy at birth in years, prevalence of child malnutrition as per cent children below five years and female adult literacy rate as per cent of people over 15 years (WBI, Poverty Manual, 2004, p.26).

Blackden, et al, 2004 observed that “Tanzania has long been at the forefront of gender analysis and practice, and has often articulated the importance of gender equality” (p. i). The authors narrate the achievement of Tanzania on the gender issues in the context of PRS as follows:

- Tanzania adopted women and gender development policy (WGDP) in 2000 and a national strategy for gender development (NSGD).
- Through a special amendment of the Constitution passed in 2000, discrimination on the basis of gender is prohibited.
- The Sexual Offences Act (SOSPA) 1998 and two Land Acts were enacted by the Parliament to enhance women’s economic and social wellbeing.
- The government has taken affirmative action to promote women’s participation in politics and decision making.
- Tanzania has been at the forefront of work to pioneer ‘gender-responsive budgeting’ (GRB) through the work launched by the Tanzania gender networking Program (TGNP) in 1997 (p.i).

Tanzania’s Summary Gender Profile given in the spider web and the relevant tables (Blackden, et al 2004, pp. 33-37) is reproduced in this section as an annex. Most important points that emerge from Blackden, et al (2004) are: When juxtaposed with Sub Saharan African (SSA) Countries, with a lower GDP per capita than the SSA average, Tanzania’s performance is really commendable in the field of primary school enrollment gap (the ratio of female to male gross primary school enrollment rate). Second point to note is the higher female representation in government than the SSA norm (p.33).

In the IMF-IDA (2004) PRSP Progress report, it is noted that “Despite a drought, real economic growth is estimated to have been about five per cent, sound macroeconomic management was maintained, and notable progress was made in the areas of education and financial sector reform, among others. Foremost among the emerging weaknesses in the PRS process are the need to link the technical level reviews with a more policy-based debate on sector strategies; strengthening the link between the PRS and the budget process; stronger quantitative monitoring and a deeper understanding of the relationship between economic growth and poverty outcomes. There exists little new survey data to track changes in income poverty over the past year.”

The Progress Report and the Poverty and Human development Report (PHDR) reiterate the earlier findings that the growth in the past decade has had less impact in terms of reducing poverty than would have been hoped for. Better understanding the dynamics at work is a major part of the agenda as Tanzania moves forward to update the PRSP. Recommendations include:

- Analytical work on growth-poverty linkages
- Deeper analysis of the geographic dispersion of poverty changes
- Better understanding of the transmission mechanisms (including rural-urban and farm/non-farm linkages), and how sector productivity changes affect incomes especially agriculture and
- Assessment of the welfare impacts of liberalization and reform measures.

Work is already committed to on the relation between growth, poverty and inequality; preparation of a poverty map; the impact of shocks on household welfare; and on the relation between rural income growth and nutrition. Tanzania continues to make significant progress in the implementation of the PRSP, and the policy measures of the year 2003 represent a credible set of reforms. The PRSP process now firmly forms the basis for government-donor dialogue in Tanzania. Based on this PRSP Progress Report, Tanzania's poverty reduction strategy remains a sound basis for the Bank and Fund concessional assistance" (pp.1-8).

The section on the summary of analysis and policy recommendations shows that. Tanzania means business in reducing poverty with a clear gender focus, by harnessing the full commitment from all stakeholders (individual, households, institutions, well-wishers and friends, bilateral and multilateral donors, to mention a few).

Blackden, et al (2004) have suggested a number of recommendations and some of them are as follows:

- PRS revision should consider a rigorous analysis of the costs of gender inequality for economic growth in Tanzania. Commission a gender analysis of the available HBS data sets and incorporate this analysis into the PRS 11 revision.
- Concurrent in time-saving infrastructure is a necessary priority alongside prioritizing investment in human capital development. Commission further work on "time poverty" including specific time allocation surveys to incorporate into subsequent HBS and participatory surveys.
- As access to justice remains a key issue for the poor in Tanzania, it is important to practice the Implement the gender and law Program supported gender-responsive law reform program, and follow upon this in the framework of subsequent PRSCs.
- Support GOT in addressing the linkages between culture and poverty (pp.28-30).

Challenges abound on implementation, monitoring and financing. On the implementation front, interfacing with the government budget; coherence of sector strategic plans and review of sector and district development plans with NSGRP, and skill and knowledge upgrade for outcome based approach pose as problems. Steering the poverty monitoring system (PMS) review to reflect NSGRP and MDGs; developing capacities to effectively monitor, data collection, process, analysis and dissemination; participation process, deepening and institutionalization of consultation; and constructing monitoring indicators, present problems.

"IMF approved a set of measures including assurance of adequate financing for the IMF's main concessional loan facility, a new tool to support policy programs without financing, and debt cancellation for the HIPC's. The

cancellation of 100 per cent of multilateral debt owed by the HIPCs is expected to free up significant resources for countries' efforts to reach the MDGs and reinforce long-term debt sustainability" (IMF Survey, 2005, p.291). Tanzania stands to benefit from this facility to fight poverty.

One of the difficulties in analyzing the data on performance achievement over time is that some of the boxes in the data matrix are empty. This is in addition to the non-comparable definitions of concepts used in different data sources. For example, let us take a look at Blackden's Annex 1 tables. Gender indicators are all lined up. But very few entries help at least a tabular analysis some of which are as follows:

- Maternal mortality ratio (per 100,000 live births) declined from 1,100 in 1995 to 530 in 1996
- Young adult (female) illiteracy rate (15-25 years old) declined from 64 in 1970 to 11 in 2000.
- Gross primary (female) enrollment rate (% of age group) rose from 26 in 1970 to 66 in 1997.
- Gross secondary (female) enrollment rate (% of age group) increased from 2 in 1970 to 5 in 1997.
- Progression to grade 5 (% of cohort) increased from 82 in 1975 to 84 in 1996.
- An important observation is that in the context of structural change, the share of the female labor force (as per cent of total) in the primary sector has declined from 92 in 1980 to 91 in 1990, with stagnation both at the secondary and tertiary sectors (2 in 1980 and 2 in 1990 in industry; and 7 in 1980 and 7 in 1990 in services respectively, pp.34-35).

Therefore the starting point to have a good pragmatic analysis of the issue at hand is to equip the country statisticians to thoroughly overhaul the methods of collecting data to reflect continuity with meaning and usefulness of their output. There should be an automatic mechanism to remove the incompatibility of results on the same concept used in the census, sample surveys and household budget surveys, to mention a few.

Wolfensohn, (2004) reports that "The global imbalances in the distribution of income and wealth are huge, and the awareness of these imbalances grows as information flows ever more quickly around the globe. The opportunity is to put into practice what we have learned about increasing opportunity and reducing poverty, at a time when demographics, economics and even geopolitics should make that possible. Not doing this will sow discouragement about development and progress in wealthy and poor nations alike-creating barriers to future development efforts, even feeding civil and international conflict."(p.2) The author states that "the conflict-development trap is responsible for much of the extreme poverty remaining in the world. The Comprehensive Development framework (CDF) is a framework for how the World Bank (WB) should do business with recipient countries and other development partners. CDF principles are:

- Development efforts be rooted in a long term, holistic view of a country's needs (macro, social and structural)
- Focus should be on results rather on inputs
- Based on country-owned strategies
- Development actors should foster partnership to support the country-owned strategy.

These principles led to a major innovation in aid delivery-the PRS process adopted in 2001 by the boards of WB and IMF. This process became the basic springboard for all low income country access to expanded debt relief, and then to the concessional funding windows of two institutions-the International development Association (IDA) and the Poverty reduction and growth facility (PRGF). More aid is delivered to the poor countries that have proven able to improve their policies and governance, with the aid based on the development vision that each country develops for itself" (pp.10-14).

A glance at Tanzania's PRSPs confirms that all the pre-requisites for one are met as suggested above. It is Tanzania made, with focus on outcome and bottom up participatory consultation process. It is sad to observe that in SSA where GDP PC declined 14 per cent, poverty rose from 41 percent in 1981 to 46 per cent in 2001 (PovertyNet, 2004). Among others, it will be of great educational value to find out if SAP at least partially contributed to this outcome. In Tanzania, the dissipation of the value of the currency (Shilling) to meet the conditionality for aid, may have added to the burden of the poor. It took almost two decades for the Washington Consensus to recognize that the SAP failed as an instrument to spur economic growth and raise the well being. Who will compensate for the loss of welfare of the poor in Tanzania?

Ell/dem (2004) report "serious short comings of the PRSPs. Operation Evaluation Department of the (OED) WB and the Independent Evaluation Office (IEO) of the IMF have concluded that PRSPs do not address how to achieve more growth in poor countries in order to provide the resources required to reduce poverty. The actual goal of the papers-to identify country specific problems and to work out priorities for poverty reduction is missed. Kindernothilfe study notes that the poorest developing countries desperately depend on the inflow of funds and are therefore bowing to the task imposed on them of drawing up PRSPs" (p.391).

As noted by McConnell and Brue (2005), improvement in the standard of living is linked to labor productivity (output per worker per hour). $\Delta \text{RGDP} = \Delta 1/3L + \Delta 2/3 \text{LP}$, where L is labor and LP is labor productivity. Labor inputs (hours of work) depends on the size of the employed in the Labor Force and the average hours of work. On the other hand, Labor productivity (average output per hour) is determined by technological advance, quantity of capital, education and training, allocative efficiency and other factors (pp.308-321). Therefore, in order to make the fight against poverty effective in Tanzania, the major players in the PRSP should rethink about the ways in which to increase the RGDP in the country, paying attention not only to labor but also to labor productivity of both genders.

Poverty Analysis according to WB PovertyNet (2004) include: overview; measuring poverty; analyzing poverty; and mapping poverty. Poverty Monitoring include selecting indicators; setting targets; setting up Poverty Monitoring Systems to track progress; and running Statistical systems to collect, analyze and the data required monitoring poverty reduction.

Evans and Diesen (2002) inform us that “the GOT has established a Comprehensive PMS, which will guide the collection, analysis, dissemination and utilization of evidence on poverty in the country” (p.1). Likwelile (2002) describes the details of the PMS in Tanzania as follows:

- It is meant to provide evidence to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of the PRS
- The user guide is launched in 2002
- Importance of data on poverty necessitates a System
- A comprehensive PMS needs to be sensitive to the COSE
- The main features of the PMS are: an institutional framework; outline of information needs and indicators; research priorities; choice of data collection instruments; dissemination plans; a three year work plan updated annually; capacity building plans; a budget and a funding mechanism.
- Four components of the PMS are: Surveys and Census; Routine data Systems; research and Analysis; and Dissemination, sensitization and Advocacy (pp.1-20).

In reiterating the thoughts on gendered approach to PRS as presented above, one could state that in Tanzania women really constitute a better than half of the labor force. Full utilization of this human capital as a scarce resource would help the country to scale mountains in terms of human welfare and standard of living. The right blend of gender inequality reducing policy and practice is in the making, thanks to the commitment of all stakeholders. As an HIPC, Tanzania stands to benefit from extra sources of financial resources from the multilateral donors (especially from debt cancellation) and the fungibility of these funds will ensure gender specific poverty abatement expenditure as the right candidate; because strengthening the prospect of the poorest in the society from all angles of COSE is a basic responsibility of all who care for the dignity of human life. There are still several constraints to be faced and tackled by those who are intent on defeating poverty. Recognition of the existence of such stumbling blocks on the way to prosperity in itself is a great achievement to the warriors against poverty. As soon as the obstacles are identified, pragmatic operational strategy to remove them are lined up in different guise, such as passing new laws and changing constitution to create a pro-poor policy and practice to development as we have come across this paper. Although not yet crowned with full victory, GOT, WB and all other stakeholders in poverty eradication in Tanzania are performing a fantastic job and the author wishes them Godspeed in their endeavors.

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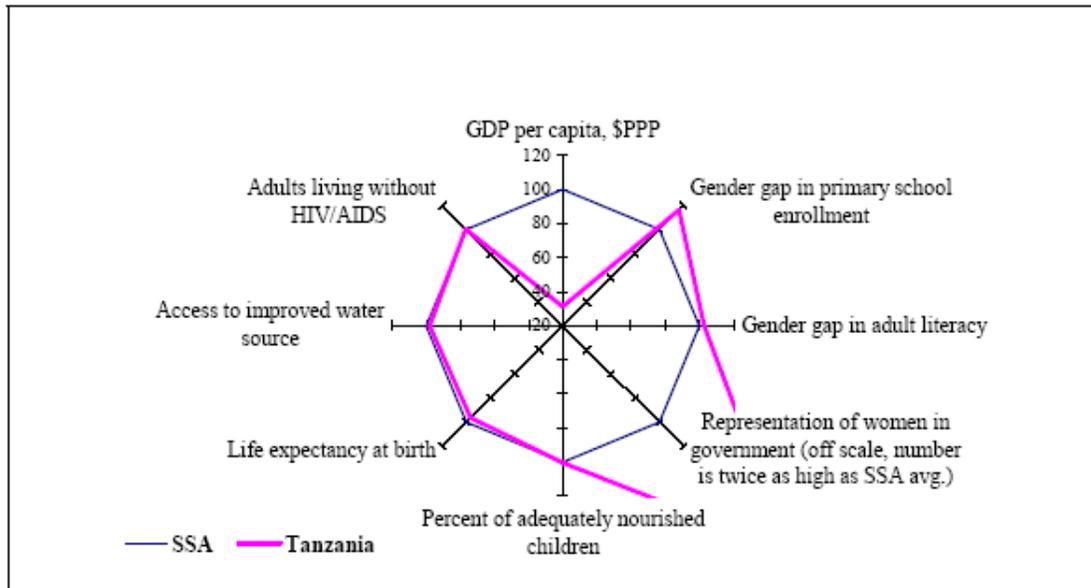
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Tanzania Summary Gender Profile



Note: This figure indicates that Tanzania has a GDP of less than 40 percent the average of SSA. Despite this low economic development, the country maintains average levels of development in its health related indicators. The gender disaggregated data for education, literacy and especially the high representation of women in parliament show a gender gap that is smaller than the SSA averages.

Technical notes: this spider web is constructed to show where the country is in relation to the Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) average in the aspects of economic development, health and education. The SSA average was normalized to 100. The indicators were constructed in a way that a higher magnitude of an indicator indicates a higher level of development. To achieve this consistency, we inverted the percent of malnourished children and the HIV/AIDS prevalence to percent of children being adequately nourished and adult living without HIV/AIDS, respectively. If a country line is inside the SSA line, the country's development level is below the SSA average, and vice versa.

Definition of indicators:

- GDP per capita, \$PPP = GDP per capita converted to international dollars using purchasing power parity rates;
- Primary school enrollment gap = the ratio of female to male gross primary school enrollment rate;
- Literacy gap = the ratio of female to male literacy rate for people aged 15+;
- Life expectancy = life expectancy at birth in years;
- Representation of women in parliament = percent of women in parliament;
- Adult living without HIV/AIDS = percent of adults living without HIV/AIDS;
- Access to improved water source = percentage of the total population with reasonable access to an adequate amount of water from an improved source;
- Percent of adequately nourished children = 100 minus the percent of under-five children suffering from moderate & severe underweight, below minus two standard deviations from median weight for age of reference population.

Sources: Africa Country Gender Database (ACGD)

Source: Blackden, C.Mark & Rwebangira, Magdalena.(2004) Tanzania: Strategic Country gender Assessment, Office of the sector Director, Poverty Reduction and Economic Management Network Africa region, June 30, pp.33-37

Indicator	Data (early period)				Data (most recent period)				Source ¹
	Female	year	Male	year	Female	year	Male	year	
HUMAN ASSETS: CAPABILITY									
Health									
Life Expectancy at Birth	47	1970	44	1970	46	1999	44	1999	1
Crude Birth Rate (per 1,000 people)	50 (1970)				40 (1999)				1
Infant Mortality Rate (per 1,000 live births)	129 (1970)				95 (1999)				1
Infant Mortality Rate (per 1,000 live births) richest quintile					65 (1997)				2
Infant Mortality Rate (per 1,000 live births) poorest quintile					87 (1997)				2
Under 5 mortality rate (%)	218 (1997)				152 (1999)				1
Total Fertility Rate (births per woman)	7	1970			5	1999			1
Total Fertility Rate (births per woman) richest quintile	NA								2
Total Fertility Rate (births per woman) poorest quintile	NA								2
Adolescent Fertility Rate (births per 1,000 women aged 15-19)	126	1996			130	1999			1
Maternal Mortality Ratio (per 100,000 live births)	1,100	1995			530	1996			2
Risk of unintended pregnancy (% of married women aged 15-19)					24	1999			2
Contraceptive Prevalence (% women aged 15-49)	1	1977			25	1999			1
Births Attended by Skilled Health Staff (% of Total)	50	1977			35	1999			1
Education									
Adult Illiteracy Rate (15+)	80	1970	45	1970	33	2000	15	2000	1
Young adult illiteracy rate (15-25 years old)	64	1970	27	1970	11	2000	6	2000	1
Net Primary Enrollment Rate Rural (% of age group)	NA								3
Net Primary Enrollment Rate Urban (% of age group)	NA								3
Net Primary Enrollment Rate (% of age group)	65	1981	68	1981	49	1997	48	1997	1
Gross primary enrollment rate (% of age group)	26	1970	41	1970	66	1997	67	1997	1
Gross secondary enrollment rate (% of age group)	2	1970	4	1970	5	1997	6	1997	1
Share of Secondary Enrollments net (%)	NA								1
Share of Tertiary Enrollments gross (%)	0	1970	0	1970	0	1997	1	1997	1
Progression to Grade 5 (% of cohort)	82	1975	88	1975	84	1996	78	1996	1
HIV/AIDS									
Adult HIV Prevalence (% of age group 15-49)					8 (1999)				4
Females % of infected adults population					56	1999			4
HIV Prevalence Rate in Young People (15-24)					8	1999	4	1999	4
Adults (15-49) Living with HIV/AIDS					1,200,000 (1999)				4
Percent infected in age group 15-19					28	1999	2	1999	4
Percent infected in age group 20-29					46	1999	28	1999	4
Percent infected in age group 30-39					31	1999	39	1999	4
Total Number of People Currently Infected					1,300,000 (1999)				4
AIDS Orphans (Cumulative)					1,100,000 (1999)				4
Women Attending Antenatal Clinics in major urban areas (% infected)					14	1996			4
Women Attending Antenatal Clinics outside major urban areas (% infected)					19	1998			4

Indicator	Data (early period)				Data (most recent period)				Source ¹
	Female	year	Male	year	Female	year	Male	year	
HUMAN ASSETS: CAPABILITY									
Female Sex Workers / Male STD patients in major urban areas (% infected)					50	1993	13	1997	4
ECONOMIC ASSETS: OPPORTUNITY									
Labor Force Participation									
Adult economic activity rate					82	1998	NA		5
Agricultural Labor Force % of total female/male labor force	92	1990	80	1990	91	1990	78	1990	9
Industry Labor Force % of total female/male labor force	2	1980	7	1980	2	1990	8	1990	9
Services Labor Force % of total female/male labor force	7	1990	13	1990	7	1990	14	1990	9
Gender Intensity of Production									
Agriculture labor force (% female-male)	NA								6
Industry labor force (% female-male)	NA								6
Services labor force (% female-male)	NA								6
Informal Sector employment (% female-male)					55	1993	45	1993	6
Contribution to GDP (%)									
PHYSICAL ASSETS: SECURITY									
Access to improved drinking water source (%)		50 (1990)				54 (2000)			1
Access to improved drinking water source (%) Rural		42 (1990)				42 (2000)			1
Access to improved drinking water source (%) Urban		80 (1990)				80 (2000)			1
Access to improved sanitation (%)		88 (1990)				90 (2000)			1
Access to improved sanitation (%) Rural		40 (1990)				86 (2000)			1
Access to improved sanitation (%) Urban		93 (1990)				98 (2000)			1
Traditional energy use (%)		81 (1971)				91 (1997)			1
Total Time Allocation (hours/week)	NA								-
Time Allocated to Water/Energy Provision (hrs/day)	NA								-
Transport Tasks (hours/week)	NA								-
Share of earned income (% of total)	NA								-
Land Ownership (%)	NA								-
Access to Financial Services (%)	NA								-
SOCIAL ASSETS: EMPOWERMENT									
Representation in Parliament, 1999 (%)					22	1998			7
Representation in Cabinet, 1999 (%)	NA								7
Representation at Ministerial Level					13	1998			2
Country Policy on Gender Equality ²					1	2000			8
Household Headship (%)					12	1993	98	1993	3
Household Headship, Rural (%)					10	1993	90	1993	3
Household Headship, Urban (%)					18	1993	82	1993	3

¹ Sources: 1 GDF/WDI, 2 WDI 2001, 3 Human Welfare Indicators, 4 UNAIDS, 5 ILO/UNSD, 6 Standardized Data Files, 7 IPU, 8 UNDP-HDR, 9 genderstats

² Convention on the Elimination of all forms of discrimination against women (1979): 1=ratified, 2=signed 3=not signed