A GENDER ANALYSIS OF NIGERIA'S MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS IMPLEMENTATION REPORTS

BY

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DEDICATION

To the three pillars of my life: Father, Son & Holy Spirit; walking with you through this journey has given me strength, without you my life would fall apart. And to the loving memory of Efiong Moses Asanaenyi.

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the thesis has been written by me and it is a record of my research work. It has not been submitted in any previous application for a higher degree. All quotations are indicated and the sources of information are specifically acknowledged by way of references.

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CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that this Thesis titled, 'A Gender Analysis of Nigeria's Millennium Development Goals Implementation Reports' written by Asanaenyi, Efiong Quincey - MA/ARTS/06800/2008-2009 meets the requirements for the award of a Degree of Master of Arts (MA) in Development Communication, from Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria and is approved for its contribution to knowledge.

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Abstract

For more than a decade now, one of the centerpieces of socio-economic development, and foreign aid has been the effort to attain the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The MDGs have been an influential framework for global development cooperation, not only in shaping the international discourse, but in driving the allocation of resources towards key global development priorities. They have proved to be a useful communication tool because their established time bound and concrete targets are meant to galvanise political leaders, civil society organizations, media and international organizations around a clearly defined agenda intended to improve human development. Despite the attention given, its dynamism in national policies, the enormous technical and financial energy expended towards the attainment of the MDGs, many countries and Nigeria is reported to be "off-track" (MDGR Nigeria, 2010). The thrust of this study therefore has been a critical interrogation of where some of those gaps emanate from. The thesis argues that gender equality and the empowerment of women as contained in MDG 3, is at the core of all MDGs, ranging from improving health and fighting disease to reducing poverty and mitigating hunger, expanding education and lowering child mortality, increasing access to safe water and ensuring environmental sustainability. It reiterates that gender is an essential ingredient for the successful achievement of all MDGs. These arguments have been outlined in the review of literature in chapter two and in the methodology chapter which adopted a content analysis of the issues in the report. The discussion chapter offers the researcher's thoughts. The study concludes that implementation of development projects, and the narration of the processes and impacts should pay attention to gender for purposes of inclusion and equity. As such, the study provides gender dimensions of each MDG reporting and highlights the need to make available adequate resources at all levels; and to address inequitable global economic policies, as well as gaps between rich and poor countries. The study provides arguments, key findings and learning relevant to the achievement of MDGs from the standpoint of gender equality; and argues extensively that gender inequality is more pervasive than other forms of inequality and is a feature of social relations in most societies. Consequently, the researcher argues that understanding the causes and consequences of gender inequality should concern and inform all societies.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

The shift in development thinking and practice towards a more people-centered programs and the need for participation of people in decision-making concerning their lives is creating new opportunities for social change (Kabeer, 2003). The empowerment of men and women, gender analysis, equity, social factors, holistic approaches and respect for indigenous knowledge are becoming elements of many development programs. At the heart of this change is communication. Communication is fundamental to the achievement of meaningful development in our world today; it is through communication process that people can become aware of their need for development and further help them make informed decisions on issues that matters to them.

Most major issues on the development agenda (e.g. gender equality) in the last decades still remain as challenges facing the world in the new millennium, and are addressed in the eight MDGs adopted by the UN in 2000 Panos (2006). These reflect the multi-dimensional aspects of poverty and the needs of the poorest and traditionally marginalized groups. The UN World Summit of 2005 reaffirmed gender equality as a development goal itself (MDG 3) and underlines its importance as a means to realize all of the other MDGs. But despite efforts by the UN to mainstream gender in their development intervention works, discrimination against women and the girl-child remains the most pervasive and persistent impediment to development today. (UNDP, 2010). It has been estimated by the UN that the world's poorest people are women and girls; less than16% of the world's parliamentarians are women, two-

thirds of children shut outside the school gate are girls. In Nigeria, for instance, although the 2006 National population census, reveals that women make up 48.78 % (about half) of the total population, only a small number of women have achieved prominence in modern political and government spheres (NBS, 2006). Several reasons have been adduced for the present imbalance position of women in Nigerian society today. The reasons include colonization, past independence history dominated by military rule, patrilineal system, non-literacy which relegates women to the background (Eze, 2009). This indicates that gender disparity is affecting women's role in meaningful development since most of their roles are domestic in nature (Agbola, 1996). Again, it can be argued that these issues of inequality are identified by the men, as men are more socially, culturally, economically, educationally positioned in the society. While this issue is raised from the "man" perspective, the solution proffered would usually be a "man" solution and this is further underpinned by the patriarchal nature of societies and the world. The woman and the girl-child suffer exclusion and are kept silent by the social structures, aged long harmful traditional practices and the persisting traditional gender stereotypes. It is only through communication that people can become aware of the negative effects of such practices and beliefs, their perceptions and judgments would come under influence and they would begin to see the need to adapt new ways of thinking and thus, life.

In most developing countries, gender inequality is a major obstacle to meeting the MDG targets (UNDP, 2005). In fact, achieving the goals will be impossible without closing the gaps between women and men in terms of capacities, access to resources and opportunities, and vulnerability to violence and conflict. Millennium Development Goal 3 is 'to promote gender equality and empower women'. The goal has one target: 'to eliminate gender disparity in

primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005 and to all levels of education no later than 2015'. Four indicators are used to measure progress towards the goal: the ratio of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education; the ratio of literate women to men in the 15-to 24-year-old age group; the share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector; and the proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments. The existence of a separate goal on gender equality is the result of decades of advocacy, research and coalition-building by the international women's movement. Its very existence demonstrates that the global community has accepted the centrality of gender equality and women's empowerment to the development paradigm– at least at the rhetorical level. Yet the gap between rhetoric and reality persists: the 2005 primary and secondary school parity target has been missed. But even if it were achieved, it is hardly sufficient to ensure the full participation of women in the political and economic lives of their countries. Much more is needed: full reproductive health rights and access to services, guarantee of equal property rights and access to work, affirmative action to increase political representation, and an end to violence against women and girls. To realize the MDGs, governments and their partners must seriously and systematically 'engender' efforts both in communication and language use in order to achieve all the goals.

Development efforts are not delivering the result the world's poor need and that is promised by the global community in the millennium declaration signed by the world's leaders in the MDGs. (World Bank, 2005). One of the World Bank's forecast predicts that by 2015 more than 600million people will still be living on US $1 dollar day, and "without measures that accelerate change, many countries may fall short of the targets because at present, two out of every five people are living on less than US$ 2 a day. (World Bank, 2005). According to

Hornick (1998), failures of development projects can be divided into three main areas: theory failures, falsely assuming that a development problem is linked with a certain solution; program failures due to inadequately designed or implemented projects; and political failures due to a lack of politically conducive environment. The study has to do more with program failures which is a consequence of theory failure; it emphasizes the relevance and indispensability of gendered communication for guaranteeing the success and sustainability of development projects. The MDGs goal-3 (gender equality and women's empowerment) is central to achieving the objectives of the MDGs, incorporating strategies that promote gender equity at the programmatic level and taking gender norms into account to compensate for gender-based inequalities. A gender critique which would involve a close examination of a problem/ approach in order to identify the gender issues related to it, is what this study intends to look at. This is so because communication provide the roadmap for implementation and if these styles are therefore not adequately gendered, the attempts to mainstream gender is bound to fail and consequently, the objective of the MDGs to halve the scourge of poverty by the year 2015 would be unattainable. It is hoped that this Thesis would highlight the ways in which the communication processes, documents & styles understudy were able or failed to adequately embed gender analysis, with the view to recommending ways in which communication processes of development intervention would be properly gendered.

1.2 Statement of the Research Problem

In spite of being framed to promote development through participation, the way and manner that MDGs was designed and handed down seems to have followed the linear pattern of modernization which is a top-down approached. Evidence shows that the MDG programmes

are designed and implemented without considering the views of the people on whom they are supposed to have direct impact on. Whereas the MDGs represents the international community's commitment to providing an accountability framework and global partnership for progressively eradicating poverty in all its dimensions, in most parts the practice has failed to bring participation as instruments to effectively actualize the developmental goals to the developing countries. Although, one can argue that the United Nations worked in partnership with the leaders of developing nations, even at the various national levels, consultation does not embrace local or indigenous participation. Another area of gap in the MDG exercise is the poor gender participation, and indeed sensitivity to gender issues in the framing (Holmes and Jones, 2010). This gap has been noticed and critical observations of scholars have emerged such that they are calling for gender sensitivity. These scholars reflected the need for community participation to be at the centre of development initiatives (Aribigbola (2009), Bessette, 2004; Diouf, 1995 cited in Melkote and Steeves, 2001; Servaes, 1999). Some research findings also indicated the significance of community participation at the different stages of development programmes, especially in the decision making process (Abu-Ghaida, Dina & Klasen 2004; Anyaegbunam, Mefalopulos & Moetsabi 1999/2004; Chambers, 2003). Lack of participation among target groups or community members in either the planning, implementation or decision making process of development initiatives was also identified as one of the main reasons for the failures of some programmes (Chambers, 1983; Fraser and Villet, 1994; Moemeka,1997; Rietbergen-McCracken, 1996 cited in Mefalopulos, 2003).

It is in view of the inattention to gender dimensions and the failure to recognize the MDGs as communication source, this study focuses on the examination of gender sensitivity in the Nigerian MDGs implementation assessment report of 2004, 2005 and 2010.

1.3 Aim & Objectives

The aim of this study is to ascertain the extent to which gender issues are recognized and factored into the implementation of the MDGs in Nigeria. This is crucial because the actualization and attainment of the MDGs depends to a large extent on the manner with which it is perceived, received and implemented which still lies on the transportation tool of communication i.e., its articulation and presentation. In the light of the above, this study has the following objectives:

- To examine the presentation of gender sensitivity issues in the MDGs implementation reports in Nigeria.
- To examine whether there are implications of gender sensitivity/insensitivity issues as inherent in the MDGs reports
- To investigate the effect of gender sensitivity/insensitivity in its implementation
- To identify ways through which gender issues can be properly expressed and presented in the MDGs programme in order to engender proper and adequate participation and support by men and women.

1.4 Theoretical Framework

This study makes use of participatory communication theory as propounded by Freire (1997/1998/1970) as an extension of Brecht's (1932) idea of communication and also the parallel theory of modernization in order to create a meaningful balance. Participation theory advocates the involvement of stakeholder in the development process. This concept is increasingly considered as a vital component of development projects especially in the

developing world. This concept suggests a radical approach capable of facilitating people's involvement in the decision making process of which democratic vision of international government needed to increase projects sustainability and ensure genuine ownership for the beneficiaries (Mefalopulo, 2003). Participatory communication theory stresses the importance of cultural identity of local communities and of democratization and participation at all levels (i.e, international, national, local and individual levels). It points to a strategy not merely inclusive of, but largely emanating from the traditional "receivers". Freire (1983) refers to this as the right of the people to individually and collectively speak their word: 'This is not the privilege of some few men, but the right of every man. Consequently no one can say a true word alone nor can he say it for another in a prescriptive act which robs others of their words'. Communication in this context does not just mean providing information to people (as in the case of the MDGs, which was simply handed or passed on as a development framework for adoption by world governments without due consideration of local circumstances and inputs). It involves a dialogue in which power-holders listen to, consider, respect and use knowledge and views of the poor thereby carrying all persons both male and female along from the inception to the end. Freire argues, the point of departure must be the community. It is at the community level that the problems of living conditions are discussed and interactions with other communities are elicited. The principle behind participatory communication implies the right to participation in the planning and production of content. However not everyone must be involved in its practical implementation. More important is that participation is made possible in the decision-making regarding the subject treated in the message and regarding the framing procedures. Although it may seem that participation could pose a threat to existing hierarchies, participation does not imply that there is no longer a role for development specialists, planners, and institutional leaders. It simply means that the perceptive of the local

groups of the public is being put into consideration before the resources for development projects are allocated and distributed, and that suggestions for changes in the policy are taken into consideration. It constitutes a step towards giving grassroots communities a gradually increasing role in the decision-making process of development effort. A role that should not be assigned to them by outsiders, but that should be achieved through an awareness-raising process, if empowerment has to occur.

Freire's theory on participatory communication departs from the comforts of the modernization theory (which the MDG's is an archetype of) premised on the universal prescription of identical development packages to diverse regions with varying problems. In his teachings on communication as dialogue, dialogue means that the relationship between group leader (development expert) and group members (the community) is horizontal. The roles of leader and group members are interchangeable, and the leader learns from group members as well as group member from the leader. They relate to each other as subjects as opposed to the authoritarian method of learning where the group leader to member is clearly vertical. Applying this to the development context, the theory seeks to promote indigenous knowledge. It embraces community participation, domestically-induced growth and good governance. It conceives the development process not only as a process for the people but as a process by the people for their own sustained growth. It suggest that the fundamental challenge of meaningful development is the transformation of communities themselves into dynamic and self reliance entities, which, by virtue of their effective organization and development capacities and on the strength of their own internal momentum, are capable of solving most of their development problems on their own on a continuing basis.

The world summit for social development in 1995 stresses that people living in poverty must be empowered through organization and participation in all aspects of political, economic and social life and in planning and implementation of policies that affects them (UNDP, 1995). It makes specific reference to involving the poor themselves by elaborating the strategies to be taken to build on their own experiences, livelihood systems and survival strategies. In opposition to this position, the MDGs are by design top down, even though they can be argued to derive from felt needs of people generally, however, the way and manner MDG programs/project are handled are also top down and they do not involve the people nor its articulation responsive to the different human sexes. Communication is essentially participatory as it involves a process of dialogue, exchange of information and resources, and the capacities that enable understanding, negotiation and decision-making (Panos, 2006).

Parallel to the ideals of modernization, also known as the dominant paradigm argues that the only way in which development can be attained is by the adoption and diffusion of values and approaches that ensured the success of the western way of life. For the proponents of this theory (Lerner (1968); Rogers (1947), development was considered never to be possible for the third world if they do not align with the footsteps of the richer-developed countries, as well as also taking advantage of the economic assistance offered by them. Communication, in this model, was conceived as a one-way process of passing information/messages from one point to many others usually in a vertical top-down fashion.

The theories would be of immense importance to this study in the sense that it would help the research articulate the background from which the MDGs emanate and to examine the modalities of its implementation and appraisal of its impact with the view to bringing out the

substance of gender sensitivity/insensitivity in the MDGRs in Nigeria. These concepts would proof helpful in the analysis and research findings which would be used to support final submission and to also create a platform for further research.

1.5 Justification of the study

The MDGs goal-3 (Gender equality and women's empowerment) is central to achieving the objectives and targets of the MDGs, yet while there are sure positive trends in gender equality, there still are many areas of concern. This study which seeks to adopt a communication-based approach in the critique of gender responsiveness in the implementation of the MDGs in Nigeria is significant as it will expose the need for widening the range of equal opportunities, choices and rights of women and men in all development and empowerment areas: education, information, economic, legal, political, and social including sexual and reproductive health. It would contribute to the literature on how communication for development can be theorized, and thus provide a framework to better understand social change initiatives. Again, findings arising from this study will correct misconceptions concerning gender roles and will bring about public policies that are goal oriented and gender-sensitive. Furthermore, this study will provide necessary guidelines for program planners to understand how program effectiveness might be improved by integrating gender issues at the project conception stage, or for those who want to understand why they are not achieving anticipated results. Additionally, this study will further illustrate the significance of communication that takes into account gender considerations which serves as frame work for meaningful and sustainable change. More so, this these study would allow development organizations/agencies to shift from a needs-based, problem-solving approach to one that uses the existing strengths and capacities of communities as the starting point for the design of programs policies and practices. Finally, it

would recognize that interventions can be more effective if they integrate a gender perspective.

1.6 Research Questions

- Are there issues in the Millennium Development Goals Reports (MDGRs) that demand gender sensitivity?
- What are the implications of gender sensitivity or its lack in the MDGRs?
- How does gender sensitivity/insensitivity affect the implementation of the MDGs?
- How may gender issues be expressed and presented in the MDGs programme in order to engender proper participation and support by both men and women?

1.7 Scope and Delimitation of the Study

This study examines the communication as used in the MDGs Nigerian implementation reports of 2004, 2005, and 2010 with the investigating gender considerations in the development of the goals, indicators and how they are being implemented in Nigeria. The overview, however presents a gender critique as it is used, articulated and implemented in the context of the MDGs. This study is not a project based assessment rather it is an analyses and critique of Nigerian perspective of MDG assessment; this means a gender sensitive analysis of each MDG Nigeria report. The study is restricted to MDGs documentary materials and what these materials say or spell out about gender since these documents/materials constitute communication sources and materials. The underlying design document for the implementation of the MDGs in Nigeria is not made available; therefore the conclusions reached here are based on the materials that are made available.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, an assessment of current literature on gender and of communication as it relates to development is being done. A general overview of development is provided in order to gain an in-depth understanding of how the earlier schools of thought reinforced a masculinist discourse. Similarly, gender and communication are discussed as being relevant factors to meaningful development. Hence the first part begins by providing an overview of some theoretical approaches in development including how it has promoted male-bias. Following this section, the concept of gender is being discussed extensively in relation to the achievement of the MDGs and then, the final section deals with issues related to communication and participatory approaches to development.

2.1 Development

Over the years, scholars have experienced difficulties in articulating a definite concept of "development". This is due to the absence of an archetype of development, therefore changes considered to be development in the present may be considered primitive in the future. It is inexplicably a normative term which at various times has meant economic growth, structural growth, autonomous industrialization, and self-actualization as well as individual, national and cultural reliance. However, a few definitions shall be highlighted in order to draw a connection between them and the subject matter of this study. Development, according to Walter Rodney (1976) is the ability of the State to harness its natural resources or endowment for the well-being of the citizens. But Sen (1989) views the concept as encompassing the economic, political, social, cultural and environmental dimensions. While economic and social progress and the elimination of poverty are the objectives of development, it includes also freedom

from fear and arbitrary arrest; free speech, free association and the right to vote and be voted for. In his contribution to the meaning of development, Seers (1969) argues that, the questions to ask about a country's development are; what has been happening to poverty, unemployment and inequality? If all these have declined from high levels then beyond doubt has this been a period of development for the country concerned? If one or two of these central problems have been growing worse & especially if all have, would it be strange to call the result development even if per capita income double? This definition is centered on the improvement of the living condition of the citizens and it means that an economy could grow without developing. It also means that poverty could be at least alleviated to a reasonable degree, i.e. the living condition of the percentage/sex of the population that constitutes the poor, unemployed and subjugated is being considered and enhanced.

Theorists have claimed that by the mid-1980s, development studies had reached a standoff (schuurman, 2000). This standoff developed partly because the dominant discourse, intellectual traditions and development practices were subjected to critique. One of the crisis was found in the way in which orthodox development knowledge and practice had been shaped by a western and masculinist bias being identified by postcolonial and feminists scholars as a process that claimed universality but instead derived from particular interests and understandings. The 1990s marked an increase in critiques of development that questioned the belief in modernization and instead prospected for progress which has eluded much of development theory and practice since the 1950s. Some of these prospects offer alternative visions and approaches (Korten, 1990; Rahman, 1993; Escobar, 1995; Carmen, 1996).

Mainstream development theory and practice is said to have perpetuated Eurocentric and male bias on the assumption that there was little information on what women's roles and needs were in the society. Because national economic and social statistics did not disaggregate data by sex, many policies and plans were based on the experiences and lives of men but generalized to all people (Evans, 1992). Thus the interest and needs of men were taken to reflect and represent society as a whole. This masked the extent of women's participation in the economy and society, and the status of women in terms of, for example, income, health and education; and there was the assumption that men were the bread winners and the women and children their dependents. The dominant view held that women's participation in the development was outside the economic mainstream. Postcolonial theory is most often used as an umbrella term for diverse critical approaches that deconstructs western thoughts, Bhabhain, 1996 states that "the term postcolonial is increasingly used to describe that form of social criticism that bears witness to those unequal and uneven process of representation by which the historical experience of the once-colonized third world comes to be framed in the west". Kothari (2002) is concerned with both cultural and gender blindness in development thought and practice and with the continuities between colonial and postcolonial periods. According to Kothari one way in which power inequalities are sustained is through the "masculinist discourse" within development, which for some time meant that "women were virtually invisible to development planners and policy makers". This was in part the product of the absence of research into or information about women's roles and needs, partly because economic activity (up to the 1970s the principal concern of development planners) was seen as a male province. This male bias seriously distorted the development policies and its outcomes. New approaches now labeled "gender and development" have tried to redress these distortions by forcing on the socially constructed relations between men and women, with particular reference to sexual division of

labour and understandings of the household. The main focus of the gender and development approach is not women intrinsically, but the socially constructed relations between men and women. Importantly, it recognizes that men and women are positioned differently and not all women and men share the same experiences (Kothari, 2002). According to Mohanty 1991 (cited in Kothari, 2002), the gender in development approach is a mode of intervention in a particular hegemonic development narrative in that it has affected men and women differently, with women being increasingly marginalized. The gender and development approach also challenged the notion that the household was a homogeneous unit within which resources were shared equally and the behaviour of the members were uniform (Kabbeer, 2003). Young (2009) identified general lack of knowledge and understandings of the dynamics of household resource management, the failure of household-focused policies to deliver the intended benefits to all household members particularly women and children, and evidence that women were chronically under-resourced relative to men, particularly in poor households. This emphasized that the household was difficult to conceptualize theoretically, for although concrete examples could be described, relations within households were partly structured by gender and seniority, and household members did not always operate collectively, have equal right and obligations, or carry out similar activities. These critiques have important implications for development policy by stressing the need for more types of information, and to anticipate the differential effect on men and women of development interventions. A gender perspective emphasized that it was important for men and women to benefit equally from processes of change and Kothari suggests that while it is now widely accepted by development agencies that men and women should benefit equally from the processes of change, gender inequality should be reduced, but the masculinist discourse persist in various forms within the

aid system. At this juncture, it is imperative to conceptualize gender as this will be particularly helpful for the holistic understanding of issues pertaining to gender.

2.2 Gender

The late 1980s marked the introductory era of gender into social parlance and practice. It appears at both national and international spheres in the wake of development-initiatives through various agencies and especially through feminist writings, women's movements, Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs), Community Based Organisations (CBOs), among others. Gender has become a replacement for "Women and Development" (WAD) and subsequently a second generation concept for equity (Rathberger, 1991).There has been considerable levels of misunderstanding and misinterpretation of the concept of gender. In fact it should be acknowledged that it is not straight forward and it is difficult to visualize given its abstract nature (it does not have a concrete, visible, countable body as women do); its relational nature (gender does not refer to women or men, but to the systems of relations between them). There also usually exists the confusion on the boundaries between the two words: sex and gender. It is a fact that there are differences between men and women which are biologically determined from conception. It is also a fact that many of the roles assigned by society to men or women are not biologically determined but mainly socially constructed and imposed. Whereas "sex" is a biological term connoting maleness or femaleness depending on the sex organs, "gender" on the other hand, has social, cultural and psychological connotation. A widely accepted definition of gender is that of UNESCO which defines gender as socially determined characteristics of men and women (UNESCO, 1998). Other attempts to define gender include that by (Overholt, 1998) which refers to gender as the roles which each society assigns to men and women. It is not a matter of biology but social convention. In a

recent definition by Hannan (2002), gender relates "to the attributes and opportunities associated with being male and female, and the socio-cultural relationships between women and men, boys and girls". These attributes, opportunities and relationships are socially constructed and learned through socialization processes and not static but dynamic context-specific and changeable. Gupta (2003) sees gender as the widely shared expectations and norms within a society about appropriate male and female behavior, characteristics, and roles. It is a social and cultural construct that differentiates women from men and defines the ways in which women and men interact with each other. Everts (1998), asserts that the term gender also acknowledges the specific contents and meaning of male/female differentiation which are culturally determined and that can be changed. The concept of gender can also provide a catalyst for social and economic change. If the differing roles and responsibilities ascribed to men and women are socially constructed, then by definition, they may be changed by society. As observed by Everts above, gender is a dynamic concept, gender roles for men and women vary greatly from one culture to another, as culture is dynamic, socio-economic conditions change, so gender patterns change with them. The UN world Survey on the Role of Women in Development (2000) refers to gender "as the social meaning given to biological sex differences" as well as "ideological and cultural construct" that is also reflected in influencing material practices. The UN further asserts that "..gender is a social stratifier, and in this sense it is similar to other stratifiers such as race, class, ethnicity, sexuality, and age". Udegbe (1999) views gender as a "stimulus that frames expectations, evaluations, and response patterns of individuals" this indicates that gender is a social construct which emphasizes that roles and responsibilities of men and women in development process are not always determined by biology but also cultural principles and practices. They posited that gender as a

concept, “easily accommodates race, class, and ethnicity, male and female relationship” and its theory spans the household to the international economy.

Over the years several major theories have been proposed to explain gender development. The theories differ on several important dimensions. One dimension concerns the relative emphasis placed on psychological, biological, and sociostructural determinants. Psychologically-oriented theories tend to emphasis intrapsychic process governing gender development (Freud, 1905/1930). In contrast, sociological theories focus on the sociostructural basis of gender role development and functioning (Eagly (1987). According to biologically oriented theories, gender differences arising from the differential biological role played by males and females in reproduction underlie gender role and differentiation (Buss, 1985).

The perception of gender as social problem especially among women is provoked by widespread discriminatory philosophies and practices that majority of female population is exposed to in the patriarchal social structure globally (Pietila 2002). Studies show that very few women are economically empowered because of their occupation and lack of formal education. The knowledge and skills used by females are mainly their traditional indigenous skills as majority of them are uneducated. This yields little economic reward and keep the women poor. As observed by UNICEF (2004), gender disparities work to the benefit of men who have political control. Operational conception of gender is therefore circumstantial in content and context as it is derived from individual and group perception and gradually translated into institutional sanctioning through patriarchal displays. Thus Pietila (2002) indicates that gender mainstreaming is not only a new formula but also extends far above seeking for equality in development agenda.

In recent years literature has produced evidence indicating that gender inequality tends to have a negative effect on economic development. Klasen (1999) asserts that if countries of South Asia, sub-Saharan Africa, the Middle East and North-Africa had achieved gender equality in schooling during the period 1960-1992 as rapidly as in the east-Asian countries, their income per capita could have grown by an additional 0.5 to 0.9 percentage point per year. For Africa this would imply an almost doubling of per capital income growth. Several advances have been made to address such issues associated with gender inequality and major institutions such as the World Bank, the UN and all its agencies have expended enormous professional and financial energy to advance it, "inequality and inequity persist across all societies and in all institutions and sectors worldwide" (World Bank Report, 2005). Gender mainstreaming, endorsed at the Beijing World Conference on Women, has stagnated due to lack of political will and insufficient resources in the public and private development institutions (William 2004). Women are still the poorest of the world's poor, representing 70% of the 1.3 billion people who live in absolute poverty; nearly 900million women have incomes of less than 1 US dollar per day (UNESCO, 2001).

It has become widely understood that promoting gender equality is an essential component of an effective economic and human development strategy. World Bank (2003) reports: "There is now a shared understanding within the development community that development policies and actions that fail to take gender inequality into account and fail to address disparities between males and females will have limited effectiveness and serious cost implications." Dollar and Gatti (1999) find empirical evidence indicating that increases in per capita income lead to reductions in gender inequality. They premise stems from four different types of measures of

gender inequality: (1) access and achievement in education (2) improvement in health (3) indexes of legal and economic equality of women in society and marriage (4) measures of women's empowerment (representation in parliament, right to vote).

However, it is important to stress that gender mainstreaming is not an end in itself, but a means to an end. The calls for increased gender mainstreaming in the Economic and Social Council (ESCSOC), agreed Conclusions (1997/2) are not for increased gender balance within the United Nations but for increased attention to gender perspectives and the goal of gender equality in the work of the United Nations. Gender mainstreaming does not entail developing separate women's projects within work programmes, or even women's components within existing activities in the work programmes. It requires that attention is given to gender perspectives as an integral part of all activities across all programmes. This involves making gender perspectives – what women and men do and the resources and decision-making processes they have access to – more central to all policy development, research, advocacy, development, implementation and monitoring of norms and standards, and planning, implementation and monitoring of projects. The concept of gender needs to be understood clearly as a cross-cutting socio-cultural variable. It is an overarching variable in the sense that gender can also be applied to all other cross-cutting variables such as race, class, age, ethnic group, etc. Gender systems are established in different socio-cultural contexts which determine what is expected, allowed and valued in a woman/man and girl/boy in these specific contexts. Gender roles are learned through socialization processes; they are not fixed but are changeable. Gender systems are institutionalized through education systems, political and economic systems, legislation, and culture and traditions. In utilizing a gender approach the

focus is not on individual women and men but on the system which determines gender roles / responsibilities, access to and control over resources, and decision-making potentials.

In recent years there has been a much stronger direct focus on men in research on gender perspectives. There are three main approaches taken in the increased focus on men. Firstly, the need to identify men as allies for gender equality and involve them more actively in this work. Secondly, the recognition that gender equality is not possible unless men change their attitudes and behaviour in many areas, for example in relation to reproductive rights and health. And thirdly, that gender systems in place in many contexts are negative for men as well as for women – creating unrealistic demands on men and requiring men to behave in narrowly defined ways. A considerable amount of interesting research is being undertaken, by both women and men, on male identities and masculinity. The increased focus on men will have significant impact on future strategies for working with gender perspectives in development.

2.3 Millenium Development Goals

Hulme (2008) studied the process that led to the formulation and implementation of MDGs and observes that it is an incremental and ongoing process of negotiation and bargaining with no clear cut phases or precise end. He is of the view that while the key actors present policy as an outcome of a linear-rational process based on scientific analysis and weighing up evidence, the real process that they are engaged in are quite different. He explains that no leader or agency is 'in control'. Olayode (2006) argues that for MDGs objectives to be realized there is need for establishment of an appropriate political and institutional framework to guide state intervention, market reform and poverty alleviation. He observes that MDGs being benefits accrued from globalization, requires Africa repositioning through appropriate policy measure.

He argues that with appropriate policy measure, Africa in general and Nigeria in particular can attract more capital flows and benefit immensely from full integration into the world economy, which will culminate into speedy realization of the MDGs objectives. Agbu (2006) observes that for Nigeria to part take of the benefits of MDGs, it is imperative for the country to adopt a practical approach by collaborating with the other countries of the South, and other south multilateral groups in negotiating for better terms of engagement with the developed world. He cited the membership of Nigeria in the Developing Eight (D-8), consisting of Nigeria, Iran, Indonesia, Turkey, Egypt, Bangladesh, Pakistan and Malaysia who unanimously agreed to promote trade among themselves through reforming their custom services and other policies that hinders the free flow of goods and services across their borders. This he believes to be crucial to the fulfillment of MDGs objectives and targets. He advocates for attraction of Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) in the agriculture and manufacturing sectors as crucial to MDGs goals achievements as it has the capacity to increase job creation and reduce poverty knowing that about 70% of the rural populace engage in agriculture and there is a strong relationship between agriculture and manufacturing.

Afolabi (2009) studied the institutional constraints to achieving the MDGs in Africa, using the example of Akure Millennium City and Ikaram/Ibaram Millennium Villages both in Ondo states, and observes that although both the Millennium City and Millennuim Village projects have taken off as programmed, the effect of the programme has not been widespread especially in Akure, though the effect of the programme seems visible in the millennium village. He discovered that the problems which programmes are design to solve are still widespread and lack adequate conceptualization of the project and militates against full implementation of the project. He indentifies lack of conceptualization and understanding both

by the implementers and the will-be beneficiary (people at the grass root), over-politization by the government, lack of interest on the part of grass root would-be beneficiary / community and inadequate funding and capacity under utilization as the major problems militating against the success of the project. He recommends collective participation that will carry the community along in project design, and implementation as crucial to achievement of the MDGs cum complete removal of civil service bureaucracy. In the same vein, Ajayi (2008) studies the success of MDGs in Millennium Village project and finds out that Nigeria is at present off track and very slow when it comes to MDGs implementation and execution. He therefore calls for a better understanding between the policy formulators and executors.

Similarly, Falade (2008) observes that most African countries are backward when it comes to implementation and execution of the MDGs, when compared with other region of the world. This, he explains is due to poor technical capacity in formulating, implementing and monitoring the operational MDGs based Poverty Reduction Strategy Process (PRSP). Shela & David (2005) observe that MDGs represent a new attempt to increase the effectiveness of development assistance in reducing poverty with a time bound targets and strong commitment to monitor progress. They point out that in order to achieve these laudable MDGs objectives, it is imperative to address the need for water sanitation, health care, schools, employment and poverty crisis especially among the less developed economies. Roy Culpeper (2005) appreciates the global commitment to move about 50 percent poor of the world out of extreme poverty by 2015 through MDGs projects. However, he advocates for a more thorough approach on the ground that not just 50 percent, but 100 percent of the people living in poverty should be elevated. He explains that if we still had 40 percent or 50 percent of humanity struggling to subsist at between one and two dollars a day, then we needs a deeper approach to

fighting poverty. He equally observes that MDGs pay little or no significant attention to poverty in the urban economy, he is of the opinion that the MDGs should focus as well on provision of decent employment in the productive sector for urban dwellers. He advocates for restructuring of the tax system which he described as being regressive at current based on the extreme reliance on sales and consumption tax system. He argues that in most developing economies, elites hardly pay tax (a very regressive distributional tax system). Mistry (2005) observes that MDGs are laudable projects aimed at poverty reduction. He establishes a divergence between MDGs and Developmental goals. He points out that ever since independence, most Africa states have been faced with developmental failure, and he observed that aid to Africa has not worked because human, social and institutional capital – not financial capital – poses as binding constraint. He advocates for a shift in FDI on concentration of funding to a blend of funding and know-how so as to maximize the benefits of MDGs. Vandemooretele (2009) is of the opinion that MDGs are the finest set of goals or promises to the third world especially African countries; however there is need to blend MDGs with economic growth. They identify four major reasons for Africa's slow growth: low capital accumulation; high price of investment goods for African investors; low productivity of investment; and geographical disadvantages. They advocate for aggressive investment in infrastructure as key to economic growth that will complement MDGs achievements and improved social outcomes. Furthermore, they identify the importance of regional cooperation and integration. According to them, regional integration helps growth and infrastructure and vice versa, which will have a lasting effect on MDGs beyond 2015.

The UNDP (2005) in its review of national MDGs reports argues that gender equality and the empowerment of women, MDG 3, is at the core of all MDGs, from improving health and

fighting disease to reducing poverty and mitigating hunger, expanding education and lowering child mortality, increasing access to safe water and ensuring environmental sustainability. The document quotes the report by the Task Force on Education and Gender Equality, which provides evidence and argumentation on the ways in which gender equality is necessary for achieving each MDG. The report argues that "gender issues are highly relevant for achieving all the MDGs"; and, moreover, that "MDGs are mutually reinforcing", whereby progress towards one Goal "affects progress towards the others". Exposing and analysing the pervasive gender inequalities worldwide, the report uses examples of the gender gap in political representation, access to education and educational attainment, and participation in the wage sector. The report suggests multi-dimensional and gender-sensitive approaches to poverty reduction that take into account all dimensions of poverty, including economic growth, opportunity, capacity, security and empowerment. Mehrotra (2003), underscores two main points, namely, that gender equality is central to development strategy in general; and that is not just a goal in its own right, rather it is central to achieving all other goals. Providing an overview of economic and population growth over the past decades, the presentation argues that MDGs cannot be achieved without challenging the global paradigms of economic growth as a strategy to address poverty. The author introduces the issue of individual human capabilities, especially for poor people, and the need to address their definition to include employment-generating economic growth; equitable asset distribution; investment in health and education; and collective voice and collective action by poor people. After a similar analysis for remaining MDGs, the author concludes that "gender equality is central to achieving the great transformation in developing countries, in a way that it was not to the transformation in the now industrialized countries". The author argues that unless "the Washington Consensus" begins to recognize that growth alone is not the means to poverty

reduction, and that what happens to income distribution during the growth process is central to reducing poverty, no amount of posturing about MDGs is going to make the slightest difference to the poor, let alone to poor women. On the same issue, Brunat (2008), paper emphasizes the United Nations commitment to realizing gender equality and uses the efficiency argument whereby economic growth is better realized with gender equality. Pointing out the advances made since the Fourth World Conference on Women, held in Beijing in 1995, it indicates that those changes have been slow and uneven, given that women still bear the burden of poverty and that gender inequalities persist, notably in access to education. Moreover, the paper discusses the centrality of gender equality for achieving democratic governance and poverty reduction, addressing energy and environment issues, and combating HIV/AIDS, and argues for mainstreaming gender in each of the seven MDGs. Timothy (2002) in a paper which was prepared for the 2002 World Bank Workshop on Poverty and Gender in Washington, D.C., presents a review and historical overview of MDGs and maintains that while MDG 3 reflects the "push in the 1990s at the international level for gender equality", "the gender dimensions of other MDGs were not made explicit" and gender was not prominent in the set targets and indicators. Within that context, the paper examines MDGs and related targets and indicators from a gender perspective and, in so doing, groups MDGs into three categories, namely: (a) Goals with spillover effects/positive externalities (Goals 2, 3 and 5); (b) Goals where gender is an instrument (Goals 4 and 6); and (c) Goals where gender is both an instrument and a basis for targeting (Goals 1 and 7). Also, the paper provides a brief review of the status of global progress in relation to each Goal, with a focus on gender gaps in relation to achievement of MDGs. A gendered pathway for achieving each Goal is then postulated and evidence to support the pathway is cited from available research. However, the report falls short of undertaking a similar exercise for MDG 8, which has been

criticized as the least time-bound and the most challenging in view of its importance in shaping enabling global policies for the achievement of MDGs and of gender equality. Grown, Gupta & Khan (2003) in a background paper of the Taskforce on Education and Gender Equality reviews progress made so far and presents propositions to hasten that progress. Within that context, the paper seeks to convey four essential messages, namely:

(a) The current MDG gender equality target and indicators do not capture all the essential gender equality components. Consequently, the paper proposes the inclusion of three key domains of gender equality, namely, capability, opportunity and agency; (b) Each of the domains listed in (a) is amenable to relevant policy interventions; (c) Current international initiatives, including "Education for All" (EFA), such conventions as Convention for Eradication of All Kinds of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), and mechanisms, including the ILO Decent Work Agenda, provide reasonable frameworks for achieving gender equality; (d) The absolute need to increase the availability and quality of sex disaggregated data, increase financial resources of organizations engaged in promoting the status of women, and enhance political commitment to gender equality at the highest level.

2.4 Participatory Communication for Development

Beginning in late 1970s and early 1980s, a critical or alternative approach to development was proposed. This approach stressed the need to listen to and involve those people (men and women alike) in development process for whom the project is implemented. Communication in recent times, is no longer seen as a one-way, top-down transfer of messages and information through the media, instead, when applied to development, communication is used to promote a two-way process of sharing and participation. FAO (1984) defines communication as "a social process, designed to seek a common understanding among all the

participants of a development initiative, creating a basis for concerted action". However, communication technologies and the media are useful tools for facilitating this process (as aforementioned above) but should not be considered as ends in themselves.

Freire's (1970, 1998, 1973) ideas about participation influenced and led the way to rethink the role of communication as not information dissemination, but as a two-way process. Freire emphasized the importance of dialogue between the community and the agents of change with active participation of the community in the social change programmes. However the contemporary model for development underscores the importance of community participation and relies on communication as a means to empower the community. Communication grew out of the realization that beneficiaries needed to be involved in the development programs that are meant for them. This means devolution of power and social change interventions to reflect people's real needs (Melkote & Steeves, 2001; Servaes, 1991; Jacobson & White, 1996; Wilkins, 2000). However it is evident through communication process that different issues in the development process can be unveiled and made easily recognizable. Narula and Pearce developed the revolutionary notion that "development is a form of communication, not a political or economic process which includes communication as a more or less important component". This assertion was revolutionary precisely because of the way communication had been envisioned and understood in modernist development to that point. Although communication was seen as an indispensable tool for making the people of underdeveloped societies more modern, communication was not understood as a transactional process, but as a means of "conveying informative and persuasive messages from a government to the people in a downward, hierarchical way" (Rogers, 1976). Thus, in modernist development models, communication was conceived of and examined in terms of the "message" rather than the

process. As a result, theories of media persuasion and marketing were the primary theories employed in the planning and implementation of development programs. In this framework, even the concept of participation was treated as a matter of persuasion. Jacobson and Kolluri (1999) indicate that participation was advanced as a method that could be used, particularly in media programming, to ensure better success rates in development. The result was development programs which consulted with local peoples about their dis/likes as grounds for creating the most effective messages. This is certainly not participation in the spirit of PAR. Narula and Pearce (1996) document some of the simplistic and ultimately destructive notions of communication: Development strategists thought of communication (that is, the mass media) as "conveying" a commodity to the masses. Acquiring information and education as commodities, they thought, the masses would acquire more "modern" attitudes, adopt innovations, and participate in an increasingly industrialized economy. These one-dimensional conceptions of communication treat individuals as objects, deny them agency and rely on the assumption that listeners are simply passive receivers of messages which are crafted (either well or poorly) by the sender. In contrast, both PAR and Freire highlight the importance of viewing individuals as active participants in social change, negating the concept of the "passive receiver." The links between PAR and communication need to be examined more carefully, for, although it is through communication that knowledge systems are shared and solutions generated, in PAR there is no specific treatment of communication as the means by which participation happens. Freire, with his emphasis on dialogue provides a clearer acknowledgement of the importance of communication as the means to achieve critical awareness. But ultimately, both of these approaches to social change view communication as one tool among many that a community can use in its struggles. Rogers (1983 cited in Jacobson, 2003) in his landmark survey of communication and development, redefined

development in a general way as participatory". Later, as noted above, Narula and Pearce (1986) brought the role of communication in development to the forefront when they asserted that development should be understood as "a form of communication", not as a process which simply includes communication among other components. Communication holds a central position in creating, maintaining and enacting participation. A co-construction model of communication presents "communication as a phenomenon that emerges in dynamic inter-action" (Arundale 1999). A co-construction understanding of communication differs substantially from most common assumptions about the nature of communication, like most assumption on communication is the encoding/decoding model which presumes that senders take their meaning and encode them into language which is then decoded by the receiver. The assumption is that as long as the sender and the receiver share the same code (language), successful communication will be achieved. Clearly, this model of communication does not acknowledge the place of interaction in creating meaning, the co-construction model of communication, however, insist that the "conversational interaction is the primordial locus for… sense-making" (Jacoby & Ochs, 1995). Co-construction can provide insights into the face-to-face communicative element of participation.

Central to the concept of participation is the belief as articulated by Freire (1970), that true participation requires dialogic interaction. In particular Freire's processes of investigation, analysis and action must be the product of critical thinking, which "perceives reality as process, as transformation rather than as a static entity-thinking which does not separate itself from action. This collaboration of thinking and action is precisely what Freire means by dialogue. Indeed dialogue both "requires critical thinking and is also capable of generating thinking". Dialogue as a particular type of communication, is therefore required for successful

participation, however, as Jacobson & Kullori (1999) explain, Participatory Communication for Development (PCD) lacks a "framework explaining specifically what constitutes dialogue and how one might evaluate it as a communication process". Co-construction process provides one of such frameworks. Anderson (1998), argue that dialogue is neither an individual process, nor historical processes, and that, moments of dialogue are "reality defining and might even be world-making". Anderson focuses on heavily on the notion that dialogue is something which occurs only occasionally and only momentarily. He looks at dialogue as mutuality which is different from "reciprocity, in which one person does something to or for another, and in return the other is allowed or expected to do something for the first". Stewart & Zediker (2000) examine dialogue from an even more communication-centric position, and propose that dialogue can be understood either descriptively or prescriptively. The descriptive approach to dialogue simply asserts that because humans are irreducibly social beings, "dialogue is a prominent, pervasive and consequential feature of the human condition" while the prescriptive approach treats dialogue as especially useful because it "can serve as an ideal towards which communication may fruitfully move in many different contexts, including teacher-student and peer relationships in education.. and citizen deliberative relationship in politics". Stewart & Zediker's prescriptive approach is consistent with the centrality of dialogue to the process of participation. The prescriptive understanding of dialogue acknowledges the centrality of face-to-face communication as informed by co-construction model. A co-construction focus on dialogue and consequently on the process of participation requires that communication be viewed, not simply as the means for achieving participation, but as the foundation for all interaction that strives towards dialogue as a communicative ideal. A focus on dialogue as the foundation for the process of participation, particularly from a co-construction framework, requires that participants understand that action and reflection are

intertwined. Neither can be successfully performed or understood without the other. Indeed, to first analyze and then act is to deny the importance of dialogue, and the solutions which will emerge from dialogic interactions. Rahnema (1992) warns that often in participatory projects, "rather than participating as a sensitive party to the process of mutual learning, the development agent becomes a militant ideologue or a self-appointed authority on people's needs and strategies to meet them".

Approaching participation from a co-construction perspective will ensure that the focus on communication processes remains central to the understanding of the process of participation, and will reduce the potential for development workers or agencies to control or manipulate situations in the name of "participation." A vigilant focus on dialogue will reduce the chance that facilitators of development guide the project with their own agendas, and will encourage a process which is truly participatory. Finally, it is important to remember that persons in dialogue are indeed active participants. As such, a co-construction perspective "affirm(s) that participants to interaction are not passive robots living out pre-programmed linguistic 'rules', discourse 'conventions', or cultural prescriptions for social identity" (Jacoby & Ochs, 1995).

A final element of PCD that requires consideration is local knowledge. In their introduction to Theoretical Approaches to Participatory Communication, Jacobson and Servaes (1999) argue that "the knowledge, experience, and goals of local communities themselves must occupy a central role in development planning, execution, and evaluation". From the foregoing, it is evident that participation must be dialogic and this involves some communication process amongst stakeholders and facilitators. It therefore, follows that since the stakeholders constitute men and women in the community, the process of communication should be

necessarily gender-sensitive. If development must be adequately participatory, the language of communication must be gender sensitive at all stages of the project.

At the planning stage, the prompting questions should be:

- Are both men and women involved in identifying program needs?
- Are program goals, objectives and activities beneficial to both women and men?

Management Personnel:

- Are both women and men involved in management of the program?
- Are both women and men involved in the implementation of the program?
- Are both women and men involved in service provision?

Services:

- Are both women and men considered service beneficiaries?

In development, a lot of approaches and strategies have been applied in programme assessment, design, implementation, and evaluation to take gender norms into account and to compensate for gender based inequality. The process of doing this is called gender analysis. Gender analysis is a close examination of a problem or situation in order to identify the gender issues related to it. It is a process through which the different aspects of gender issues in the development process are examined, unveiled and made easily recognizable. In the examination, obstacles to progress and prospects for development are identified, the choice of intervention strategies is made and the programme to be implemented is also identified.

During program and project design, gender analysis is the process of assessing the impact that a development activity may have on females and males, and on gender relations (the economic and social relationships between males and females which are constructed and reinforced by social institutions). It can be used to ensure that men and women are not disadvantaged by development activities, to enhance the sustainability and effectiveness of activities, or to

identify priority areas for action to promote equality between women and men. (Hunt, 2004). Yet it has been proposed that to adequately involve the people (men and women), and for development to be at the people's own terms, communication is a basic component of people's empowerment. A genuine revolution, aiming at eliminating the patterns of domination in society, can be achieved and legitimized only through dialogue with people, (Freire, 1970). This is the thrust of communication in development. From the foregoing, it is evident that the importance of communication to development is borne out of the realisation that development is human-centred and thus requires communication for its full realisation. FAO (1994) points out that "communication is the key to human development and the thread that binds people together". This corroborates Moemeka's (1991) view that development efforts cannot be successful without planned communication because its flow determines the direction and pace of dynamic social development. In practical terms, effective planning must make a deliberate effort to determine what people want to do, can do and can continue to do in a sustainable way. To find this out, communication techniques go far beyond the simple question-and-answer survey. Meaningful gendered discussion, generated by people trained in interpersonal communication skills, can help the community to identify its true problems and priorities and where its capabilities and needs lie. This self-analysis can help a community to generate realistic proposals for new development initiatives and stimulates tremendous interest to have these initiatives succeed.

From the foregoing, the conclusions of this study would be drawn from a critical analysis of gender element in the MDGRs - Nigeria's response to a global development framework. However, it is hoped that the theoretical implications of this study will be useful in stimulating future theoretical elaboration, and the practical implication will both provide suggestions for

action, and will direct practitioner towards additional resources for facilitating participation and gender sensitivity.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research approach. It discusses other methodological issues such as the instrument of data collection and the approach to data analysis and interpretation.

3.1 Research Design

This research adopts content analysis as research method. The focus of content analysis in this study has been systematic analysis of textual information in a standardized way that allows evaluators to make inferences about the information (Bailey, 2006). This method is considered important because it is capable of being used to make inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages. As a research tool, it is used to determine the presence of certain words or concepts within texts or sets of texts. Content analysis method, which describes or summarizes the content of written materials, the attitudes or perceptions of its writer, or it effects on its audience is what has been used in this research. The method enabled the researcher to quantify and analyse presence, meanings, and relationships of key words and concepts, then make inferences about the messages within the text, the writer(s), the audience, and even the culture and time of which these are a part. It is used, therefore, in this study to analyze message content and message behaviour as regards gender sensitivity in the Nigerian MDGs Implementation assessment reports.

3.2 Instruments of Data Collection

This study adopts the latent content analysis method. The latent content analysis involves interpreting the underlying meaning of unit of observation in the text. This study does not intend to count or determine the frequency of appearance of gender sensitive words or phrases

but draws attention to gender dimensions or its lack in the reporting language of the MDGRs with the view to making inductive interpretations and inferences regarding its implications on the implementation outcomes. In making use of the content analysis method, the researcher focused on, and coded specific words or patterns that are indicative of the research questions. The process of latent content analysis for this study has been the examination of the presence of gender sensitivity in the expressions of the MDGs' implementation reports. On the basis of the examination, the study has made inductive meanings and their consequent implications in MDGs projects implementation.

3.3 Population

The population of study in this research is not persons or individual respondents. It is instead a selection of the Millennium Development Goals Report (MDGRs). For the purpose of this study the researcher examined the MDGs implementation reports of 2004, 2005, and 2010. The choice of 2004, 2005 and 2010 reports and statement is based on the fact that 2004 report was the first report and the researcher was also interested in the second report to observe the difference in the reporting trend and format and also the report of 2010 is also examined to observe the trends in the long run. The 2010 report stands almost at the mid-point of the MDGs period. It is therefore an important report in many respects.

3.4 Sampling

This study uses purposive sampling method to arrive at the choice of documents for analysis and their period (year) of implementation. The universe of content is the eight (8) MDGs in which gender dimensions are identified in the reporting language of the MDGRs.

3.5 Method of analysis/presentation

Content Analysis often encompasses two (2) types of content units: (1) the unit of analysis which concerns the general idea or phenomenon being studied (For this study the unit of analysis is the MDGs). (2) The unit of observation which is concerned with the specific item measured; for this study, it is the gender sensitive language of the MDGRs. The measurement method for examining units of observation is a process known as coding. The process of coding is basically one of selective reduction. Texts are being reduced to manageable content categories in matrices consisting of words, set(s) of words or phrases. This study uses the inductive measurement method which supports the practice of emergent coding, which means that the basic research questions emerge from the units of observation. For this study, the goal is to determine to what extent the MDGRs are gender-sensitive in its reporting methodology, the report content is examined before the categorization process begins. Coding matrices is developed to facilitate data collection. However, such collection is based on the apparent communication content of the selected MDG reports (2004, 2005, and 2010).

3.6 Coding

Coding matrices are used to segment the various issues regarding gender sensitivity, implementation in line with the research questions. Developing a coding matrix means developing a classification system or categories into which each sampled unit can be placed. Content Analysis requires that all sampled units be placed in a category. It is within the coding matrices that all instances of the content being analysed (gender-sensitivity or its lack) are noted.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Matrices are developed to contain specific data which are reduced to categories to be analysed. In discussing the results, the research questions would be placed in view, they would be interpreted, answered, as well as buttress the answers with qualitative data. This is to give a distinct picture of the extent to which the MDGRs were gender sensitive.

4.1 Presentation of Data on MDG 1 – Eradicate Extreme Poverty and Hunger

MDGR 2004	MDGR 2005	MDGR 2010
On the basis of the sex of the household head, the data indicate that male-headed households (MHHs) were more impoverished than female- headed households (FHHs).	FHHs tends to be less poor than MHHs.	At the year 2000, the percentage of the population living in relative poverty was 60%. This is supposed to fall to 21.35% in 2015 in line with the MDG1 target. In 2007, which was the midpoint for implementation of the relevant MDG programmes in Nigeria, the percentage of the population living in extreme poverty should have fallen to 28.78%, if the MDG target is to be met.

Discussion

The matrix above shows that in MDG 1, gender sensitive reporting is centered on the sex of the household head. Addressing the first research question of this study, reporting on poverty issues demands gender sensitivity because poverty weighs on men and women differently, however, MDGR 2004, reports a higher incidence of poverty in male-headed households than the female-headed house hold over the same period. The same trend was reported in MDGR 2005, but by 2010, MDGR was not gender sensitive in reporting poverty. While data on

household headship can be useful in identifying poor women and / or men, defining female-headed households is difficult and the approach varies by culture. In most, it is a self-declared category and may or may not mean that there is an adult male resident in the household. In some cultures, it is almost inconceivable that a woman would be identified as the head if any adult male also lived in or, if a migrant, 'belonged to' the household. In other cultures, a woman may be identified as the household head even though she has a living spouse (probably by virtue of her economic power).

Consequently, interpretation of data on female-headed households is difficult and cross-cultural comparisons are especially difficult. It is therefore important to examine the composition of female-headed households and identify different categories of female headship. In many cases, female-headed households are not on average (since the MDGRs seems to have reported the average situation) poorer than male-headed households. However, the average may conceal a polarized distribution. At the higher end of the income distribution are households which are female-headed by choice, where the woman tends to be well-educated and in good employment, often single, and with few or no dependants. At the other end are households which are female-headed because of divorce, separation, or widowhood. In these households the woman is often less well-educated, not employed, and there tend to be more children and other dependants. If analysis focuses only on the average across all female-headed households, (as apparent in the reports) these poor households will be overlooked.

The implication of the lack of adequate gendered data is that if most household data can be disaggregated in terms of both income levels and household headship, it would enable the

poorest female- and male-headed households to be identified and their situation analyzed. (This position is in response to the second research question).

This analysis shows that some female-headed households, particularly those without adult males and older women living alone, are among the poorest and require special assistance. In male-headed households, some women are also poor because they are powerless and suffer serious deprivation in all areas of capability. Some of the poorest women may live in male-headed households and even in male-headed non-poor households, particularly if they are elderly, disabled or the victims of gender-based violence.

Gender sensitive monitoring and reporting therefore should not place so much emphasis on whether female- or male-headed households are poorer. The real issues are which households, regardless of headship, suffer from poverty and hunger, and what gendered dimensions can be learned about their characteristics in order to formulate and implement policies and programme to address poverty and hunger?

The reports also mention poverty incidence to be higher in homes with low levels of education, among large households, and pronounced amongst farmers and forestry operators, yet there are no sex disaggregated data on persons of low levels of education, farmers / forestry operators. The danger of the such blanket statements on the incidence of poverty among the listed categories above give rise to gender blind policy implementations and program(s) which would fail to address inequalities such as that which exist in farm inputs. A gendered poverty program which consider such equality, would be implemented bearing in mind that women farmers form a significant proportion of the rural poor; in this way, increase

in agricultural production and productivity would be achieved, and hence reduce hunger and poverty. This assertion is in response to the second and third research questions.

Reports was not able to draw attention to the interface between gender and other forms of vulnerability, by again, presenting sex disaggregated data on especially vulnerable groups, e.g., sex-workers, landless agricultural farmers, racial and ethnic minorities, persons with disabilities, single-parent households, fixed income earners, etc. With these shortcomings, it became difficult for MDGRs to go further to propose any strategy for poverty reduction, what is stated in the reports specifically MDGRs 2004 & 2005, are policy/ supporting environment which identifies some initiatives that have been put in place to address poverty. Initiatives like National Poverty Eradication Program (NAPEP), Youth Empowerment Scheme (YES), National Economic Empowerment and Development Strategies (NEEDS), these initiatives all has poverty reduction at its core; and obviously the "so-called" poverty reduction programs, much as it is passable to set up programs targeted at poverty reduction (and its possible for the programs implementations to have had positive impacts), such programs having being implemented leave unexamined and unaddressed the social structures, and the power relations, (which has a gender overtone) that have generated and continue generate poverty. These gender-blind program implementations give rise to gender-blind monitoring and reporting and gender-blind outcomes (as evident in the MDGRs). This being the reason for the increase in the incidence of poverty (reported in MDGR 2010 which is a long-run assessment report). Gender sensitive reporting on poverty should be centred on the indicators of poverty which recognizes power-relations at every human sphere, and the social structure that reinforces the oppression of certain human sexes. For example, to engender proper participation by all sexes in the MDG programs from the formulation to the terminal stage, MDGRs reporting should be

detailed with data on women's part of the GNP as compared to men, proportion of women's land ownership, proportion of women's access to credit (versus men) and to other means of production, including employment. Also, reporting should cover gender audit of national budgets allocated to social sectors and, specifically to women, poverty headcount ratio, poverty gap ratio, disaggregated by sex, age and sex of household head proportion of women benefitting from social security, proportion of women represented amongst economic policy makers, gender disaggregated data on employment in the public sector, gender disaggregated data on unemployment, gender disaggregated data on average salaries, income distribution within members of the same households, disaggregated by sex, age; sex of household head and other relevant socio-economic variables. Reporting using gender parameters would ensure policy commitments to tackling poverty right from its roots, and successful project implementation outcomes. (These suggestions give answer to fourth research question in this study).

The obvious cause of this reporting shortcoming is the misconception of the dynamics of poverty and its gender nuance and the belief that economic growth is sufficient to tackle poverty. The result of these is the slow rate in progress as observable in the three MDGRs.

4.2 Presentation of Data on MDG 2 – Achieve Universal Primary Education

MDGR 2004	**MDGR 2005**	**MDGR 2010**
Gross enrolment ratio (GER) by sex shows consistent increase for males than for females by over 10% points.	Enrolment consistently increased over the years for both males and females, from 7% in 2000 to 8%, 11% and 44% in 2001, 2002 and 2003 respectively.	Steady increase in net enrolment. Completion rate calculated at the percentage of the total number of pupils

There were imbalances in completion rates between boys and girls in favour of boys. Literacy rate among the male declined from 81.35% in 1991 to 69.8% in 1999. Decline among the females was from 62.49% to 5.3% during the same period.	Primary school enrolment rates were consistently higher for boys than for girls. Literacy rate (15 – 24 age bracket) among the male, declined from 81.3% to 69.8% while decline for female was from 62.49% to 59.3% during the same period.	enrolled in primary 1in a given school year who reach primary 5. The literacy rate for the age group 15-24 was 61.4% in 2000, declining to 60.4% in 2005 and 2007. Literacy rates were significantly higher in urban areas than in rural areas.

Discussion

In the matrix above, gross enrolment ratio in MDGR 2004 and MDGR 2005 shows a consistent increase for males than for females. Completion rates for boys are reported to be higher than for girls. For literacy rates in MDGR 2004 and 2005, the percentage margin shows that females within the age bracket 15 – 24 were more disadvantaged than males in the same age bracket, even though there were declining rates for both males and females. In reporting this goal it is evident that a gender dimension is considered even though there were blanket statements like *gross enrolment ratio by sex shows consistent increase for males than for females.* There are convincing data to back-up the claims Also, completion rates is higher for boys that for girls. Data was not further disaggregated to show the disparities. MDGR 2004 talked about the Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) as the best available indicator of participation in education in the country. The 3 reports report fluctuations in GER over a period of a decade; GER by sex (in MDGR 2004 and 2005) showed a consistent increase for males than for females by over 10 percentage points over a period of 10 years. In the same vein, primary 6 completion rates for boys is reported to be higher than for girls; the cause of this disparity is

blamed on politico- economic cum poor finance attitude towards education. Since the sex-disaggregated data showed gender-gap in the enrolment ratio, the completion rates and literacy rates, the implication is that, the country would be dealing with both a rights/development issue as well as a gender and women's rights issue, as evidenced by the gender gap and this should inform policy formulation and analysis. A different trend was reported in 2010 assessment report which was preceded by 2004 and 2005 MDGRs; there were no gender dimensions to the analysis and this creates a major problem for policy analysis because it reported aggregate levels of enrolment, completion and literacy and so it is difficult to identify whether aggregate levels are general education and development issue or a specific gender issue or both. As a result of this vagueness, the specific problems faced by a particular sex (especially the girls whom were reported to be disproportionately under-represented as reported in earlier assessments) would be masked and often not recognized. The implication of a masked or identified problem of a particular outnumbered sex in educational levels would translate into flawed and inaccurate implementation strategies which would aggravate or leave unresolved the development issues/ gender disparities in education and this to an extent could lead to deficits in per capita income because the higher one's educational attainment, the greater the chances of higher income and earnings which could translate to a decent living. (The above validates the first and second research questions of this study). Therefore, for all education indicators, it is important to disaggregate by sex and other socio-economic categories and to disaggregate by sex within these, since there are often significant differences in the educational experience and access of girls and boys within particular remote, minority and disadvantaged groups.

In reporting on education, it is clear that gender issues have been mainstreamed, but there is little analysis of the reasons for the identified gender gaps in education. In order to elucidate the third and fourth research questions of this study, a very important aspect of reporting on education is on education content and curricula as gender stereotyping in the curricula could have perverting effects on either or both sexes. This is important because the findings arising from its review could be highlighted for policy formulation. MDGRs were completely mute in this aspect but rather place too much emphasis on enrolment and completion rates which does not measure learning. The focus on enrolment and completion seem to be at the expense of learning achievements and outcomes or the quality and content of education. In some context, enrolment can mean a little more than having one's name recorded in an enrolment register. Enrolment ratio does not indicate regular attendance, participation in learning activities or achievement of learning outcomes, intelligence or performance. Gender issues regarding education in the MDGs program may be better expressed by establishing targets for decreasing gender gaps in enrolment ratio, specific targets for increasing girls' enrolment rates, proportion of schools with separate toilets for girls and boys, Proportion of female teachers, by school type, school location and education level, Proportion of parents with positive attitudes to girls' education, by sex of participating parent or community member and, where relevant, sex of child/children. Other socio-economic variable which hinder a particular sex from accessing education should be considered for reporting as they would prove useful to policy makers and the MDG programme managers, to assess whether a particular strategy is achieving the intended result and to indicate where and when a strategy may need to be adjusted or replaced.

4.3 Presentation of Data on MDG 3 – Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women

MDGR 2004	MDGR 2005	MDGR 2010
There are higher levels of inequality at the tertiary level of education compared to the primary and secondary levels. Gender difference in adult literacy rates for south-East and south-west zones for female were 60% and 55% respectively, compared to male literacy of 74.2% and 74.4%. The North-west and the North-east zones had female literacy rate of 22% and 21% respectively, compared to 40.3% and 42.1% for their male counterparts. On share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector, general household survey indicates 46% in 1996 but by 1997 it climbed to 62% and stabilized around this figure up till 2000. Share of women in nation parliament is reported a rise from 31.78% in 1999 to 35.91% in 2003. There was only one female out of 57 members of the senate, also 3 females out of 445 in the federal house of representatives.	Enrolment at primary school level has been consistently higher for boys (56%) than for girls (44%) between 2000 and 2003. At the secondary school level enrolment has been higher for males with the percentage share of female falling from 48% in 1999 to 44% in 2003. As for the tertiary education, smaller proportions of female applicants as compared with male applicants succeed in gaining admission into tertiary education. Women in wage employment and political participation increased from 46% in 1996 to 62%by 1997 and stabilized around this figure up till 2000. By 2003, this share increased to 79.4%. The national gender disparity for the same year was 12%. A smaller proportion of female applicants (as compared with male applicants) succeed in gaining admission into tertiary institutions. The share of women in wage employment stood at 46% in 1996 but increased to 62% by 1997 and stabilized around this figure till 2000.	The proportion of girls enrolled is still lower than that of boys across all levels of education. The ratio of girls to boys in primary education shows long-term progress despite occasional deviations. The enrolment number of girls per 100 boys in 2008 was at 85.4 across all levels of education. The proportion of seats held by women in national parliament rose from 3.1% in 2000 to 7.5% by 2008. The situation in the state house of assembly is not much better. The south-east has the highest percentage of all the regions with 5.7% compared to the lowest which is the North-west with 0.5%. Appointments to the federal cabinets and in MDAs have witnessed a flow of female nominees and successful candidates since 1999 to position previously reserved for men.

Discussions

The matrix above reveals that MDGs policies seemed to have yielded positive results in terms of increased participation of girls in the educational system even though the gross enrolment ratio for boys remains consistently higher than that of girls by over 10%. As with goal 2 reporting on education targets to achieve the goal, MDGRs fall short of statistical data in more complicated aspects that would likely close the gender gap in education, for example, the changes associated with education are likely to be conditioned by the context in which it is provided, and the social relationships that it embodies and promotes. Consequently, in certain context, education for females is seen in terms of equipping girls to be better wives and mothers and increasing their chances of getting a suitable husband. These are legitimate aspirations given the realities of the society; however, they do little to girls and women to question the world around them. Concerning the relationships embodied in the delivery of education, social inequalities are often reproduced through interactions within the school system. There is evidence of widespread gender bias, with teachers showing more attention to boys and having a lower opinion of girls' abilities. The absence or minority presence of female teachers tends to deepen this bias; reinforcing the male dominance of public services, it can act as barrier to girls' access to, and completion of schooling. In considering all these factors as impediments to gender parity in education, reporting should capture areas such as gender issues in curriculum and orientation of teachers with a view to placing censor on educational contents that seem to foster traditional gender roles in society and acts to limit the kinds of future that girls are able to imagine for themselves, with the implementation of such governmental policy, gender gap in education would be bridged.

On the other hand, equality in education as a target for measuring progress towards gender equality and empowerment of women is justified but insufficient to measure the achievement of this goal because achieving parity between boys and girls in terms of schooling outcomes is not the same as ensuring the quality of that education, i.e., it does not ensure that all girls are properly educated and can fully develop their capabilities, it is also important to note that although education tends to provide women with the essential capability and has intrinsic value, the goal of gender equality and empowerment of women will not be attained if these women cannot have the opportunity to fully use that capabilities. As demanded by the fourth research question of this study, MDGRs must adopt monitoring and reporting style that provides data on the proportion of educated women who do not have the opportunity to fully utilize their capabilities; the issues concerning such limitations should be flagged for government strategies to evolve to address them. Such gender sensitive strategies would be developed to expand paid work opportunities for women just as for men, as a result, it often allows fundamental shifts in gender relation, greater gender shift in self worth and societal respect, a say in critical life choices such as postponing the age of marriage, and a greater role in household decision-making and ability to speak out against abuse.

Regarding women's representation in government, it is obvious that there has been a gradual but steady increase in the proportion of seats held by women in national parliament from 2000 to 2008, but it does not show equal share with those held by men. (The reporting under Goal 3 shows that gender issues in education have been recognised, but the other two indicators (1. share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector. 2. Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament) have not received the same level of gender analysis)

MDGRs reports an encouraging trend and gives the picture that if a good number of women are elected in their respective constituencies, they are expected to represent and further the cause for women welfare and well-being, this may be the generally expected pattern but not necessarily the reality as the increase in number of women parliamentarians does not guarantee their sensitivity to gender issues or their willingness to promote gender equity legislative agenda. Ensuring that both men and women will be able to influence decisions and resource allocations requires going beyond simply increasing the number of women in different positions, to providing real opportunities for influencing the agendas, institutions and processes of decision-making. In addition, the three reports have avoided 'difficult' issues like violence against women and other several intrinsic women's rights issues such as adult literacy, freedom from domestic violence, forced/child marriage, reproductive health, etc., which are vital areas of extreme inequalities; other areas of empowerment not clearly captured in the MDGRs are about the fundamental physical hurdles women encounter starting within the family, often the extended family where cultural practices may treat the woman as the property of the male relatives, where in-laws may assert control to the point of violence over a young wife brought into the household. It is arguable that even educated, politically active women can have a very low personal status and virtually no rights in making reproductive decision in a large majority of families. They also face widespread violence, much of it linked to personal relationships. Economic empowerment without reproductive rights and the corresponding health care will leave women as less than full citizens. For example, education without an end to sexual harassment and violence against women will make it difficult for girls and women to make full use of their educational qualification or serve in parliament. However, there are encouraging signs. For example, the MDGRs tended to be more analytical in reporting on Goal 3, in terms of identifying underlying causes of a repeated trend, which

helps to expose deep-rooted gender inequality. A remedial measure were stated as follows: "Addressing cultural barriers in the (north of the) country, and to provide the economic incentives for boys to attend school (in the south-east).Addressing cultural barriers and offering scholarship incentives are acceptable measures which can be acted upon if gendered data are adequately collected regarding the victims / sufferers of the burden of culture.

Areas to be flagged in the MDGRs include comprehensive research on the issues of violence; not just gender-based violence, but the broader issue of violence in the society (which is also a gender issue); Proportion of woman and girl victims of sexual and other forms of violence who have access to legal, psychological and medical assistance and services, attention should be paid to the consequences of literacy for women, e.g., does it really gain them access to income activities in the modern world? Is literacy really an asset to these women? State and local government efforts will thus be critical to the achievement of this goal.

4. 4 Presentation of Data on MDG 4 - Reduce Child Mortality

MDGR 2004	**MDGR 2005**	**MDGR 2010**
HIV has a direct effect on child mortality. Children who become orphans in their early years as a result of the death of one or both parents form HIV/AIDS area at high risk of not reaching their 5^{th} year even when they are not HIV positive themselves.	Mortality rates are generally higher for boys than for girls. The percentage of female children age 12 to 23 months who are fully immunized is almost twice that of their male counterparts (17% versus 9%).	The under-five mortality rate reflects the probability of a child dying between birth and the fifth birthday. Data obtained from the Nigeria Demographic Heath Survey reports (1990, 1999, 2003 and 2008) show that the under five mortality rose to 201per 1000 live births in 2003 but declined to 157 in 2008.

		The proportion of one-year-old children fully immunized against measles is the third indicator of MDG 4. From 46% in 1990, it rose to 61.8% in 2002 and the declined over the next two years, rose to 60% in 2005 and remained at that level in 2006 and 2007. The country then experienced a reversal in the progress on this indicator in 2008, the last year for which concrete data are available when it declined significantly to 41%.

Discussion

Under MDG 4 (Infant mortality), there is only one report (MDGR 2005) which provides age-specific death rates disaggregated by sex, though without identifying the factors that accounts for the higher mortality rates in boys than in girls. Further in the reports assumptions that suggest women are and should be solely responsible for care of infants were made. Specifically, 2005 Nigeria report put the blame of infant mortality on insufficient or inappropriate care by mothers as a leading cause of infant mortality in the absence of any data to substantiate this claim and without any explanations of the reasons underlying it, the assertion appears to be in tune with tendency to place the entire responsibility of child care and child survival on mothers. However, the role of mothers is recognized as critical in improving child survival because it is the mothers who are primarily responsible for the care of under-five (U-5) children; they may lack the economic resources, time, and or access to transport which is necessary to access health care of their children; they often lack the power and

authority to make critical decisions that may make the difference between a child living or dying. Therefore, the role of fathers or male household heads in improving child survival (particularly as key decision-maker) is often overlooked. This man and woman dimension is essential for reporting this goal as require in the first research question of this study.

Sensitivity in gender is important because, improving the understanding of child health and nutrition among fathers and other significant decision makers in the family and community, as well as among mothers, can empower mothers to make decisions on child health and increase the likelihood that childhood illness can be prevented or detected and treatment sought. Another important area for consideration is the gender imbalance in higher education attainment reported in the MDGRs where females were disproportionately out-numbered in secondary schooling enrolment and completion rates. Although mothers' education is not included as an indicator for child mortality goal, higher levels of mothers' education could result in a significant reduction in child mortality. A mother's education and empowerment is an important determinant of child survival as better educated mothers space child births after long periods; ensure their children are immunized and are aware of the dangers of delayed immunization or not having a full-course of immunization, they are better informed about children's nutritional needs, and adopt improved sanitation practices. Literate mothers are more likely to have read about health concerns and to be confident in explaining problems to health providers. All of these practices are capable of lowering infant and child mortality. Therefore, a thorough statistical data should be produced in-line with these parameters for reporting. These parameters would be used in turn to develop implementation strategies which tend to focus primarily on women as mothers and on a health and health education perspective. However, fathers and male decision makers in families and communities are often

equally important in ensuring that children receive appropriate preventive and curative health care. Reporting language should include indicators that have monitored the number of pregnant women who suffer certain disease like malaria, tuberculosis, etc, since such disease when they occur during pregnancy can lead to underweight and pre-mature babies whose chances of survival are diminished. It follows also that policies would be put in place and if properly implemented, would help reduce pre-natal and post-natal death as well as identify mothers and children at the highest risk on child mortality.

Child mortality reduction issues could be better expressed in the MDGRs by expanding monitoring to: specify targets for reducing gender gaps in infant and child mortality, specify target for reducing gap in vaccination coverage, specify target for reducing gender gap in malnutrition, collect age and sex disaggregated data on U-5 mortality rate, proportion of U-5 in malaria infested area sleeping under treated anti-malaria nets, proportion of children who complete full-course immunization against infant diseases, clinic attendance and immunization rates should be monitored by the sex of the child in order to develop follow up mechanisms where boys are known to not have received immunization, etc. The above outlined issues, if articulated in MDGRs would have far reaching effects on the MDGs program implementation. In the long term, gender equality and empowerment of women will increase women's capabilities and their ability to make strategic decisions about their children's health. Apart from empowering women, working with fathers and other men is an important and complementary intermediate strategy.

Of serious concern is the link established between child mortality and HIV. MDGR 2004 specifically, identifies HIV as having a direct effect on child mortality. Such linkage should

inform HIV and child mortality prevention measures, but this was visibly not noted in the reports. The strategies required to address very serious and complex gender issue of this sort, are also broader and complex as they centre on promoting gender equality and women empowerment; many of the gender-sensitive implementation strategies required to achieve this goal are embedded in goals 1, 2 and 3.

4.5 Presentation of Data on MDG 5 – Improve Maternal Health

MDGR 2004	MDGR 2005	MDGR 2010
The proportion of births attended to by skilled medical personnel dropped from 45% in the early 1990s to31% in 1998 but rose again to 42% in 2000. Only about 63% of mothers receive antenatal care from medically qualified personnel. Attitudes to antenatal care, postnatal care and the quality of health delivery are factors that greatly affect maternal mortality and morbidity. In some parts of the country, husbands still insist that only female health personnel should attend to their wives. Since there are limited numbers of female medical personnel available, this attitude hinders improvement in maternal health.	Maternal Mortality Rate (MMR) is 704 per 100,000 live births. Maternal Mortality is more than twice as high in the rural areas (828 per 100,000 live births) than in the urban areas (351 per 100,000 live births) One in ten women mentioned getting permission to go (i.e. access health care) as a problem. Getting money was the most commonly reported problem by women of all social groups.	The proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel was 45% in 1990 so far the country has not achieved a better level than that. On contraceptive prevalence, the country recorded a prevalence rate of 8.2% in 2003 and 2004, 12% from 2005 t0 2007 and 14.6% in 2008. There has been a rise in maternal mortality from 704 to 800 recorded between 2003 and 2008.

Discussion

In all of the reports concerning maternal health, there is the continued dominance of techno-medical approach to maternal mortality (MM). It is reflected in the identification of lack of physical access and the quality of health services, the proportion of births attended to by skilled medical personnel as the leading cause of maternal mortality. MDGR 2005 identifies attitudes to ante-natal care, post-natal care and the quality of healthy delivery. It also states that the commonly cited problems are getting money for treatment (30%) and distance to health facility and having to take transport (24%). Striking issues like poverty due to mother's limited resource, poor education and harmful traditional practices were highlighted as causes of MM but not supported with data. A very positive and important element of reporting under goal5 should be the shift away from a purely medical approach to the recognition of some key concerns around cultural and attitudinal factors, e.g., women's inability to take decisions regarding their own health (which is a gender issue) which is a factor that reflects women's agency and a critical marker of gender inequality and is de-emphasized in all of the MDGRs understudy. Although MDGR 2004 states that cultural and attitudinal factors (such as men/husbands insistence on their wives being attended to only by female health personnel, having to be granted permission to access health facilities and lack of money) were the leading cause of MM, the importance of male involvement and male responsibility in ensuring safe motherhood was not recognized in any of the MDGs. Just like the child mortality goal, the reporting language on maternal mortality should be characterized by the broader and complex gender issues which bothers on gender equality and women's empowerment (i.e, educational enrolment and completion at all levels, income equality for same work, proportionate representation in decision-making bodies, freedom from violence and obnoxious societal/cultural norms and practices, etc); maternal mortality, and the conditions that

heightens or diminishes it does have a gender dimension which needs to be visibly acknowledged with substantial and accurate statistical data in the MDGRs.

4.6 Presentation of Data on MDG 6 – Combat HIV / AIDS, Malaria and Other Diseases

MDGR 2004	MDGR 2005	MDGR 2010
Several factors have contributed to the rapid spread of HIV in Nigeria including sexual networking practices such as polygamy, a high prevalence of untreated sexually transmitted infections, low condom use and low status of women. The most group at risk include pregnant women and children. The issue of poverty and low status of women are also great impediments to fighting HIV and malaria. In 2003 it was estimated that approximately 86% of women and 97% of men had heard about HIV and AIDS. 42% of the women and 60% of the men had knowledge of HIV prevention by using condoms or limiting sex to one uninfected partner. The age bracket with the least knowledge of HIV/AIDS was the 15 to	40.3% of young women and 58.4% of young men possess adequate knowledge of HIV prevention methods; while only 20.6% of the young women and 23% of the young men hold no incorrect beliefs about AIDS. The knowledge gap between men and women with regards to the correct approach to HIV prevention is remarkable and alarming. Less than one half of young men (46.3%) and less than a quarter of young women (24%) reported at the last high-risk sex. Young women are less than one half as likely as young men to know a source for condoms (24% versus 58%). Knowledge of availability and reported use of condoms greatly increases with the level of education particularly for young women. Most sexually active young women have a partner with whom they are living. While most young men who are sexually active are not living with their partners. Deaths recorded for malaria shows the group most at risk are children	Condom use shows faster improvement overall.

19 years old where only 37% of the women and 525 of the men had any knowledge of how to prevent the disease.	under 5 of age and pregnant women.	

Discussion

Under MDG 6, only two reports (2005 & 2010) identify gender inequality as a specific cause of women's vulnerability to HIV/AIDS. Quoting the 2003 Nigeria Demographic Health Survey (NDHS) in 2005 report, 40.3% of young women and 58.4% of young men possess adequate knowledge of HIV prevention methods, while only 20.6% of the young women and 23% of the young men hold no incorrect beliefs about AIDS. Considering the gender dimension regarding HIV / AIDS as shown in the table above, it is evident that gender issues are central to understanding and controlling the disease as women are reported to be more vulnerable to the disease even though HIV / AIDS affect both men and women. Gender relations are characterized by an unequal balance of power between men and women, with women having fewer legal rights and less access to education, health services, income-generating activities and property. This situation affects both their access to information about HIV/AIDS and the steps that they can take to prevent its transmission. Both men and women are subject to ideas about what is normal behavior for one or the other sex, what are 'typical' male and female characteristics, and about how women and men should act in particular situations. For example, men are generally expected to be more knowledgeable than women about sex which can make them reluctant to seek information. Women may also have limited access to information about HIV/AIDS, sexuality and reproductive health because of social pressure and cultural norms (culture of silence) that stresses their innocence. Cultural beliefs and expectations tend to make men responsible for deciding when, where and how sex will

take place. This heightens not only women's but also men's vulnerability to HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted infections.

Cultural factors remain one of the key obstacles to the HIV/AIDS prevention strategies and programmes as culture means different things to different groups and communities. Religion is also a major obstacle as they advocate the conformity of women. Prevention strategies are also hampered by some definitions and use of terms, for example, the term 'sex worker' is often associated with women when it should apply to both men and women, therefore statistical data on vulnerability often present females as sex workers. The implication is that preventive programs and strategies often tend to target women as the vulnerable target group, while men are equally vulnerable.

Again, the MDGRs are replete with excessive emphasis on condom use as a preventive method. The gender gap issue here is that, socially, it is unacceptable for a woman to possess or buy condoms, if they do, they are perceived as being promiscuous. If the male sexual partner on the other hand obtains condoms, he has the exclusive right to decide whether to use it or not thereby leaving the female vulnerable. The failure to recognize, the female control barrier instruments (e.g. the female condom known as femidone) presupposes that in instance where women are unable to negotiate condom usage leaves them vulnerable thereby, giving the men the priority to protect themselves. However, HIV / AIDS cannot be tackled without giving women (just like the men) more power over their bodies. The education, knowledge and access to femidone are a way of ensuring healthy sex choice and negotiation for females. It is critical for MDGRs as advocacy tools to monitor and provide data on women's access to reproductive health services and health education; gender gap in HIV prevalence and

vulnerability; women's and girls' (versus men's) knowledge on the modes of transmission and vulnerability factors, policy-makers knowledge of gender-specific vulnerability factors; proportion of the usage of female condoms; levels of acceptability of female condoms; utilization of female versus male condoms; availability of female condoms in female health centers; analysis of national budgetary allocation to HIV/AIDS and proportion allocated to women; level of mainstreaming gender in policies and programmes on HIV/AIDS.

Reporting on malaria, those at high risk are young children and pregnant women vulnerability differences were not analysed and supported with data. MDGRs needs to report on the extent to which differential needs and rights of women and men are met and achieved by the providers in the health care delivery system and or family care in the family care as relates to malaria; biological factors influence patterns of malaria with men being slightly more susceptible to infection than women. However women's biological immunity is compromised during pregnancy, making malaria an important cause of maternal mortality, spontaneous abortion and stillbirths. Gender roles and relations are also important in shaping exposure to the relevant vectors. The gender dimension in reporting will bring about gender strategies and programs that would make the goal attainable.

4.7 Presentation of Data on MDG 7 – Ensure Environmental Sustainability

MDGR 2004	**MDGR 2005**	**MDGR 2010**
Only a small proportion of land is covered by forests, this area has declined from 15% in 1990 to 14% in 2000. Over last two decades the	The rapid rate of deforestation annually, estimated at 3.5% which translates into more than 400,000 ha loss of forest	The proportion of Nigeria's land area covered by forest declined from 14.4% in 2000 to 12.2% in 2005 and 9.9% in 2010.

rate of deforestation grew from 0.7% in 1980/90 to 0.9% in 1990/95 and 2.6% in 1990/2000. This translates to a loss of 1, 200, 1,214 and 3,984 square kilometers respectively. Average annual commercial energy use grew from 2.9% between 1990 4.6% between 1990 and1994. Available figure shows that the GDP per unit of energy use was PPP $0.7 in 1980. By 1997 the figure rose to $1.1 but it has been virtually stagnant at $1.2 in 1990 and 2000. The largest sources of air pollution and carbon dioxide (Co_2) emissions include secondary energy (refined petroleum products and thermal electricity), household energy use, industries and vehicles. Since 1992, total Co_2 emissions have declined to 83.3 million metric tons in 1996, 78.5 million tons in1998 and 40.4 million metric tons in1999. There was a decline in the proportion of gas flared from 77% in 1990 to54% in 2000. However, this reduction did not translate to a reduction in the volume of Co_2 emissions since the volume of gas flared in 2000 (25, 592 million cubic meters) was higher than that of 1990 (21, 820 million cubic meters. During the last decade,	lands. Commercial energy use including consumption of hydropower, natural gas and petroleum products has grown considerably. The proportion of population with access to portable water rose from 30% in 1999 to 60% in 2004. On housing, renters still constitute about 70% of the populace, while the proportion of those with access with to secure tenure is less than 30%.	Nigeria's progress towards the increasing the proportion of people with access to improved drinking water source is 55% recorded in 2008.

expansion of water supply and improvement in sanitation was aimed at poverty alleviation, increased food production and improved public health as well as enhanced environmental protection. The proportion of population with access to improved water sources rose from 49% in 1990 to 57% in 2000.		

Discussion

It is apparent that there are no gender dimensions in reporting under Goal 7. MDGRs failed to mention women as stakeholders in environmental issues. The implications of environmental degradation for girls' and boys' education, maternal health and child survival has been completely ignored instead, all the reports approach the issue of environmental sustainability from a technical perspective which only looked at the issue of environmental degradation in terms of carbon dioxide emissions and change in the ozone layer . MDGRs could not provide sex-disaggregated data and information on access to water, sanitation and housing as the survival of women and men (and of course, community), depends on access to and control over natural resources. Access to water, energy, land and bio-diversity are central for gender sensitive reporting. Even where there is no data, highlighting the connections between Goal 7 and the other MDGs with qualitative information on key gender issues such as women's access to water and sanitation, urban safety and participation in planning and implementing environmental programme, the number of irrigation projects which addresses the differential needs of women and men, was not visible in any of the three reports.

Although the mere presence of women in decision-making does not guarantee that initiatives will be gender-responsive or meet the needs of most women. The women most likely to obtain decision-making positions are not necessarily representative of the majority of women users and may not understand their needs. Project and programmes that are not gender responsive are likely to fail because women will not be able to access their benefits. However, there are still ways in which environmental, water and sanitation issues can be gender-responsive, they include: mainstreaming a gender-responsive perspective in all environmental projects and programmes to ensure that factors such as location, cultural appropriateness, timing of services and other aspects related to women's gender roles are taken into consideration; incorporate specific measures to empower women to play an active role in environmental projects and programmes; undertake gender analysis of the budgets of environmental projects and programmes to ensure that women's needs are being adequately addressed and appropriately funded; monitor through sex-disaggregated data women's share of the benefits of environmental projects, paying particular attention to poor women and women from female-headed households; undertake gender analysis of all water supply, irrigation and sanitation projects in order to ensure that women benefit and to avoid unintended and unexpected negative consequences.

4.8 Presentation of Data on MDG 8 – Develop Global Partnership

MDGR 2004	**MDGR 2005**	**MDGR 2010**
Nigeria actively participates in regional initiatives such as the African Union (AU), New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD) and the Economic Community of	At present, the level of the country's indebtedness is unsustainable; the trend is however declining since 2002. Total outstanding external debt as a proportion	The flow of ODA (including debt relief gains) from developed countries to Nigeria has increased dramatically since 2004, rising from US$4.49 per

West African States (ECOWAS). Nigeria is also an active participant in the Doha round of negotiations under World Trade Organization (WTO) which advocates for the implementation of all commitments under previous agreements and a rejection of measures that would prevent governments from taking measures for protecting health and nutrition. Tariff liberalization and removal of non-tariff barriers in both the agriculture and textiles and clothing sector by Nigeria following the previous trade agreements has led to an increase in goods imported into the country, including textile from Asia, Brazil and Europe. This has had a negative effect on domestic production of textile. International cooperation in the global trading system, especially in the areas of the removal of subsidies on agricultural exports as well as an enhanced export capacity, would provide Nigeria with the opportunity to improve its revenue base and achieve significant reduction in its external debt. The level of external indebtedness is unsustainable. Rather than support economic development, it cripples the economy. Total outstanding external debt rose from USD 30 billion in 1990 but climb	of GDP increased between 2001and 2002 from 61.2% to 72.0% and dropped to 61.1% in 2003. It further declined to 59.2% in 2004. Also external debt as a proportion of exports of goods and services declined from 68.67% in 2003 to 65.52% in 2004. Debt servicing, as a proportion GDP, increased from 2.6% in 2002 to 3.3% in 2003, showing an improvement in the ability of the country to fulfill its repayment obligations. The same trend was observed for debt service as proportion of exports had increased from 7.5% in 2002 to 8.1% in 2003. Official Development Assistance (ODA) is increasing, but it still quite low. In addition, Nigeria still faces the challenge of improved access to markets in the European Union and the united states.	person in 2004 to US$81.67 per person in 2006 and 2007 however this figure include the large volume of debt relief negotiated by Nigeria, which was received in tranches spanning both 2005 and 2006. Many people have access to cellular phones as a result of the deregulation of communication sector in 2001. Foreign investment in Nigeria's telecommunication sector increased from US$2.1 billion in 2002 to US$8.1 billion in 2006. This has significantly expanded infrastructure and activity in the sector.

substantially to USD 31billion in 2000.There is considerable cooperation with the private sector in provision of new information / communication technology (ICT). In 1999, teledensity (telephone lines per 1000 persons) was 4.2% below that of Ghana and South Africa which stood at 8 and 125 respectively. Nigeria's teledensity rose to 6.1 in 2001and 19.6 in 2002.		

Discussion

Reporting on goal 8 is arguably the responsibility of donor countries as aid-recipient-developing countries have limited stance in allocation of resources by donors. This goal requires governments, civil society structures and the private sector world-wide to work together in partnership in order to ensure the complete fulfillment of the MDGs. Reporting on this goal should, however, shed light on the implications of trade and aid measures on men and women, and for their equal benefits, also, information on measures being taken to protect human rights and women's right will make a strong statement about the political commitment of the national government to human development.

A gender sensitive approach to trade explores the roles women and men play in the economy as producers, traders and consumers, and how trade accords affect them in those roles. For example, dumping of cheap food imports, which devastate local markets mainly, affects women, who are primary food growers. The massive migration of males from rural agriculture

to the cities in search of work (sometimes within a country, sometimes across borders) has divided families and may increase risk of sexual diseases. Women, too, are migrating in increasing numbers to provide income for themselves and families at home, as jobs and livelihoods disappear at home. Remittances become a major source of development financing, but at a major cost for women migrants. Gender bias in access to credit and export facilitation may hurt women entrepreneurs who seek to export, as does lack of access to long-distance transport. One of the key issues raised in the MDGRs is the liberalization of telecommunications and the impacts of tele-density in Nigeria. No sex-disaggregated data was provided to show the differential impact of its rise on men and women. MDGRs mention the debt reliefs from developed countries but no information / data was provided to show the benefits on men and women. One pertinent gender sensitive approach to this goal requires states to seek out international partnership and development assistance to support the development and implementation of gender- responsive rights-based policies and programmes, including accessing technical assistance to improve gender responsiveness and sex-disaggregated data.

It is apparent from the analysis of the MDGRs contained in the table above that this is an area where the Nigerian government is failing. MDGRs regarding this goal were completely mute on gender issues. As required by the fourth research questions of this study, gender sensitive strategies to be highlighted in the MDGRs for effective program implementation include to involve gender experts and women's research groups analyse donor aid programmes and budgets from a gender-responsive rights-based perspective to provide data to advocate for increased aid funding for gender equality and women's empowerment; gender advocates and women's organizations use the analysis to work with donors to integrate a gender-responsive

rights-based approach throughout their aid programmes, focusing particularly on the new aid modalities such as direct budget support and sector wide approaches; gender advocates and women's organizations advocate for and provide technical support to gender-responsive rights-based analysis of donor budgets and programmes; gender experts and women's research groups collaborate with national monitoring mechanisms to develop gender-responsive rights-based indicators for monitoring commitments under the Paris Declaration; gender advocates and women's organizations use the analysis to collaborate at the sub regional, regional and international levels to advocate for incorporation of a gender-responsive rights-based perspective to the monitoring of aid effectiveness under the Paris Declaration and related instruments.

4.9 General Discussion

The MDGs which is predicated upon the nucleus provided by the United Nations conferences of September 2000 is not only a synthetic and integrated package, it also represents a bold attempt to tackle the global development stagnation via a set of tangible quantifiable targets that are central to the actualization of meaningful development. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) has been at the centre of all the activities to ensure that countries prepare their MDGs progress report. These reports are further used as essential instruments for tracking and monitoring progress on the achievement of the MDGs and have enabled countries to take ownership of the goals which is critical to shaping their development priorities.

The MDGRs is a snapshot showing where the country stands in relation to the attainment of the global goals – the MDGs. They are currently emerging as tools for awareness raising,

advocacy, alliance building, and renewal of political commitments for this reason, it is expected that reporting should be gender-responsive; because MDGRs are conceptualized as key instruments for tracking and monitoring overall progress on national poverty goals. Ideally, the report should reflect an accurate picture of reality by showing how the country as a whole is progressing and making visible the differential situations of vulnerable groups. Whatever the criterion, by which this vulnerability is defined, be it race, social grouping, age, and location and so on, women are at the bottom of the ladder because they are additionally disadvantaged by gender inequality (World Bank, 2005). Without a gendered approach, the fact of women's special vulnerability and its linkages with gender inequality will remain hidden and invisible, making the MDGRs less accurate and blunting its effectiveness as a means of public advocacy.

Again, the fact that MDG3 centers on gender equality affirms that gender equality is a value in its own right and, is as important as the social justice and fairness that should be enjoyed by the sexes of humans that are affected by the development issues outlined in the MDGs. This further strengthens the point that other 7 MDGs cannot be attained without a gender-sensitive monitoring and reporting.

If the selection of the excerpts above can be taken as an indication of a general outlook of the MDG Nigerian reports, they demonstrate disappointing and patchy attention to gender issues. Except for MDG 3 which deals specifically with gender and thus has been addressed by all the MDGRs under review, gender issues did not appear as a cross-cutting issue in any of the reports. Women's issues (as opposed to gender issues) appear most frequently under maternal mortality, HIV / AIDS, education and poverty. Gender is markedly absent in all of the reports

on “environmental sustainability” and “global partnership for development”. This corroborates the first research question of this study.

Reviews of the reports have led to the identification of problems. First of all, in the analysis of poverty (MDG 1), the problems results from measurements and conceptualization; poverty is being narrowly conceived using the household (MDGR 2004 & 2005), and income as units of measurements. All three reports follow a particular reporting trend of providing baseline data which is in turn used to make projections of current/actual poverty incidence. Gender or women are not explicitly mentioned and non of the reports make linkage between sex-disaggregated data, analysis of the causes and consequences of poverty, poverty reduction policies and ensuring rights for women; even when studies on poverty (Chant, 2006; Rodenberg, 2004; UNDP, 2003; 2010) have proven that poverty wears a gendered / feminine face, and the primary causes of the feminization of poverty are linked to the absence of economic opportunities for women and their autonomy; their lack of access to economic resources such as finance and land; their lack of access to education and support services; and inadequate participation in decision-making. Even though the MHHs reported a higher incidence of poverty than the FHHs, the approach of analysis usually is the household income (Nussbaum, 2003) which renders women and their experiences of poverty within the household invisible, the methodological baggage of the most commonly used income / consumption poverty approaches and ‘household’ as the measuring unit may ignore issues of women and girls, thereby creating significant gaps in the analysis of poverty and gender inequality at an intra-household level, and the approach is greatly flawed.

There is also the challenge of accurate, reliable and credible statistics in reporting, While monetary poverty may be the easiest to quantify, it is not always amenable to accurate data collection this might be seen as particularly pertinent to women whose earnings may be subject to fluctuations or who possess little or no knowledge about their spouses' income. In UNDP's (2008) study on household income levels, it posits that women have high levels of income poverty; it goes further to state that in developing countries, only a tiny fraction of women hold real economy or political power, and also, on the average, women are paid 30 to 40% less than men for comparable work. Even though the relevant gender-specific statistics are scant in substantiating the figures, it remains a shocking paradox for the FHHs to be less impoverished than the MHHs as reported in the MDGRs. On another hand, gender research, (Kabeer, 2003), has identified that unequal domestic relations with male partners constitutes a major cause of women's poverty, this suggests that, when women are without men, their situation is better. Anyawu (2009) lends credence to the above. He maintains that, a woman's decision to maintain a household of her own may serve as an avenue out of a relationship marred by violence. If poverty is understood not only as income thing but a massive restriction of choices and options, a step of this kind not taken in isolation, may also mean an improvement of women's life circumstances.

The paucity of sex-disaggregated data on income poverty as seen in the MDRs calls for more holistic perspectives. The treatment of poverty in its totality would bring to bear its gendered intricacies. A holistic approach to poverty would not only perceive poverty in terms of income rather poverty has many dimensions of deprivation that range from physical, economic, social, cultural to political deprivations. The causes of this deprivation are situated within economic, situational and political factors (Adesopo, 2008). A combination of these deprivations is used

to determine the poverty profile of a given society. Therefore, the failure to deal with gender issues risk failing to understand properly the gendered nature of many poverty problems and is a barrier to achieving the MDGs (Holmes and Jones, 2010). As with income, this is somewhat paradoxical not only on account of tenuous data but on conceptual grounds. Somehow, the notion of FHHs being less poor could stem from the observation that although women are often income poor (Klasen, 2004), (and this needs to be addressed), gender differences in inputs to household livelihoods may to a greater degree have impressive outcomes for women's lives.

Approaches to development that disregards gender dimensions risk leaving existing inequalities unchanged or only slightly improved for half the world's population. Take for example, reporting on MDG 3 is very narrow in scope and has failed to capture several intrinsic women's rights issues such as adult literacy, freedom from domestic violence, forced/child marriage, wife inheritance, female genital mutilation, reproductive health, etc; which are vital areas of extreme inequalities. Also, the issue with undefined "empowerment" is apparent as MDGRs are mute about the fundamental physical hurdles women encounter within the family, often the extended family where cultural practices may treat the woman as the property of the male relatives, where in-laws may assert control to the point of violence over a young wife brought into the household. The only measurements in goal 3 are in education and literacy. It is arguable that even educated, politically active women can have a very low personal status and virtually no rights in making reproductive decision in a large majority of families. They also face widespread violence, much of it linked to personal relationships (Bradshaw, 2006). Worthy of note is also, the fact that economic empowerment without reproductive rights and the corresponding health care will leave women as less than

full citizens. For instance, education without an end to sexual harassment and violence against women will make it difficult for girls and women to make full use of their educational qualification; it is arguable that women's education is strongly correlated with positive maternal outcomes (UNIFEM, 2003) as the more educated women have greater bargaining power and control over their bodies, the existence of societal norms which limit women's mobility or that require that they obtain the consent of a male family member before seeking health care (as flagged in the MDGRs) is likely to interfere with positive maternal outcomes irrespective of educational attainment or empowerment. Although "empowerment is difficult to measure, the Gender Development Index (GDI) and the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) conceptualize empowerment under three factors of power: Resources (Pre-conditions), Agency (Process), and Achievements (Outcomes) (Kabeer, 2005). Within these categories, a wide range of indicators far beyond education captures the experience of empowerment; common indicators of empowerment focus on the allocation of income and resources within a family; less common indicators look at division of household labour, freedom from violence, couple negotiation regarding sex, these aspects should be reported with relevant data.

A particular problem with the MDGRs is the extent to which global goals have been inappropriately interpreted as national ones. The MDGs at the global level seek to reduce income poverty (defined as per capita income of below US$1 per day) with target deadline which is 2015 and do not give room for adjustment at country level target but have been applied thereby ignoring local context and the inter-country difference in technical feasibility and financial affordability. It is therefore, inappropriate not to tailor the goals to reflect local circumstance and development priorities, as using the global target and indicators as

measurement for national progress could result in inaccurate, unrealistic and unsustainable program and project outcomes.

There is also the problem of fragmentation of goals at the global level which results in the inevitable loss of unity and coherence in reporting. For example, the fragmentation of goals 4 (Reduce child mortality) and 5 (Improve Maternal Health) is superfluous as women's education and empowerment to a very large degree determines child mortality (WHO, 2003). Better educated women space child births over long periods, ensure their children are immunized, are better informed about children's nutritional needs and adopt improved sanitation practices. All of these lower infant/child mortality rates and also reduce maternal mortality. However, the splitting of child mortality, maternal health, education, HIV/AIDS and malaria, environmental sustainability, gender equality, poverty and hunger, and many other issues incorporated in the MDGs is a clear indication of the lack of analytical power on the multidimensional nature of poverty. The summation of the MDGs under a single theme of poverty would have positive implications for a better understanding of the nexus between gender and poverty thereby, leaving implications for measurements, reporting and associated policy prescriptions.

At this juncture, it is imperative to say that the MDGs lack focus on local participation and empowerment this could be partly adduced to the fact that the statement of the MDGs is patterned the modernist tradition by introducing an undue mechanistic association of poverty reduction with economic growth with no reference to the structural causes of poverty, to deprivation, and to inequality as a core development challenge. This static approach has not helped to stimulate an assessment of policy options to achieve desired outcomes and has

overemphasized social expenditures and narrowly defined sector-specific interventions to achieve results (Fukudar-Parr, Sakiko & Joshua, 2010). From the foregoing, it is pertinent to suggest that gender issue can be adequately expressed in the MDGRs by paying adequate attention to the collection of sex-disaggregated data on beneficiaries of MDG programmes and interventions, to track their impact for accurate reporting; all data should be disaggregated by age and sex (this should be the norm); expand monitoring on women's health beyond maternal health (e.g data should be collected on the proportion of contraceptive demand satisfied, access to consistent health care, percentage of women who suffer poor health as result of restrictions by societal / cultural norms), data should also be collected to monitor Gender-based violence (GBV) (E.g. data should reflect type of crime, age and sex of aberrant, versus age /sex of victim, MDGRs should place emphasis on gender rather than sex, data disaggregated by sex is necessary but not sufficient for analysis on gender issues; report should identify main obstacles to addressing gender issues; MDGRs should include gender-sensitive costing and budgetary allocations on issues.

From the foregoing, the following are the findings obtained from this research:

- Sex disaggregated data are scant in the MDGRs; where sex disaggregated quantitative data were used, they were not supported by qualitative data or adequate gender analysis.
- MDGRs were unable to contextualize and localize poverty indicators; indicators were not tailored to reflect local circumstances.
- There are low levels of inter-institutional collaboration between the producers and users of statistics, hence the challenge of reliable and credible statistics. Interactions

between them should be promoted in order to better respond to the needs of policy makers and beneficiaries.

- The MDGRs reporting language is informed by the global paradigms of economic growth as a strategy to address poverty.
- There are no marked differences in MDGRs reporting language format and, the progress status reported later in MDGR 2010 shows inadequate focus on the issues flagged earlier in MDGRs 2004 and 2005 this may be attributed to lack of political will and the lack of commitment of resources to support the strategies proposed in the reports.

In concluding this chapter, based on the findings, the content analysis of MDGR gender-sensitive language shows a clear indication that in consonance with the literature on the subject; the reports are vague and shallow. It has also been highlighted that a multidimensional and gender-sensitive approaches to poverty reduction that takes into account all dimensions of poverty, including economic growth, opportunity, capacity, security is central to development strategy in general, and to the achievement of the MDGs. The added value of gender-sensitivity is demonstrated by the integration of gender dimensions in all of the MDGs and further illustrating that gender-based approach to MDGRs reporting is in conformity with participatory paradigm of development which is at the heart of every meaningful and sustainable development effort.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The focus of this chapter is to present the summary of the findings in relation to the gender critique of the communication of the implementation reports of the MDGs in Nigeria.

5.1 Summary

The main purpose of this study was to determine the extent and importance of gender sensitivity reporting on the implementations of development projects with particular reference to the MDGs. To accomplish this goal, it became necessary to reach an understanding about gender and development. Determining the centrality of gender approach in the MDGs, gender and development assumed a high degree of importance in the literature review conducted for this Thesis. Related to that effort, it became imperative to do an overview of some theoretical approaches in development studies. The theoretical framework proposed that development programmes were bound to fail if the recipients are not factored in to the conception stage of projects; participatory communication was brought to the fore as an efficacious process in which knowledge is shared and participation enhanced. Again, the centrality of gender perspective was made clear by integrating gender as a cross-cutting issue in the MDGRs. Once these fundamental stages were achieved, this research was able to go forward.

Content Analysis approach was employed in this study to identify and make inferences on the extent of gender sensitivity or its lack in the reporting language of the MDGRs, and their implications towards the success and achievement of the MDGs in Nigeria. The study relied mainly on MDGs- related documents. Documents reviewed include among others; Journals, Reports on country progress, countdown strategies documents, online/offline publications on

development, gender and communication, academic publications on similar topic, etc. This documents served as substitute for records of activities that researcher could not have access to or observe directly. They were used to corroborate interviews/questionnaires as well as to provide basic description of the reporting trend of the MDGs. Valuable insights were also gained from the World Bank publications and UN publications available online. Doing a gender analysis of each MDG strengthened the argument for gender as the key to the success of the MDGs implementation outcomes. This approach created an understanding that development challenges affected men and women differently. Gender Analysis answered the question in terms of the different measures required for outcomes to be equitable for men and women; it stressed the importance of sex disaggregated data, indicators and statistics in guiding development policies and programs. The conclusion drawn from the findings is that there is a need for an adequate understanding of the gendered nature of the development concerns flagged in the MDGs, this understanding should however be evident in the language of analysis of the MDGs implementation, and without which the goals remain unattainable despite the enormous technical and financial resources channeled towards the successful programme.

5.2 Achievement of the Study

This study was able to demonstrate the rationale for gender mainstreaming in all the facets of development programs and specifically the MDGs. The study showed evidence that for the MDGs (in Nigeria) to be properly actualized gender sensitivity is crucial. It would then follow that the language of reporting the achievements or failures of the implementation activities would in consequence be gendered. Some other achievements of this study may be listed as follows:

- By suggesting gendered indicators for the MDGs targets, the study was able to provide useful guidelines for program planners to understand how program effectiveness might be improved by integrating gender issues at the project conception stage, or for those who want to understand why they are not achieving anticipated results.
- It illustrated the significance of gender-sensitive strategy that optimizes participation by moving from a message-based approach to a more participatory approach that can cause behavioral and attitudinal change, and which can further serve as a framework for meaningful and sustainable change.
- The contents of this study have also contributed as literature for related studies.
- By presentating gender dimensions for each MDG reporting, it underlines the ways in which the subordinate position of women within the social relations of gender contributes to their vulnerability to poverty. In doing so, the research goes beyond a common definition of poverty in relation to poverty lines and economic growth to addressing it as an issue related to capabilities, opportunities, access and empowerment.
- The research concludes with a set of recommendations for engendering the MDG reporting process, including introducing an engendered approach to the range and scope of reporting, namely, disaggregating data and using qualitative data; establishing linkages across MDGs; and strengthening ownership among the various stakeholders.
- The study stresses the need for collective process of articulating a shared vision of sustainable human development and translating it into reality (through policy, programmes and budgets); hence the need for the effective participation of men and women.

- Finally, this study concludes by reiterating that attempting to meet the MDGs without promoting gender equality will both increase the cost and minimize the likelihood of attaining the Goals.

5.3 Weakness of the Study

In the course of doing a gender critique of the communication of the MDGs implementation in Nigeria, the researcher did a review of progress reports rather than extend its analysis to MDGs intervention program design document (which was not made available to the researcher). Depending solely on reports could lead to some bias conclusions in this research.

One of the major possible weaknesses of this study is in the findings which places so much emphasis and importance on gender sensitivity and gender-oriented strategies as a key for sustainable meaningful development, and the attainment of the MDGs. There is a very high possibility that other perspectives could be offered to contradict such position. Further research would prove otherwise.

Secondly, the researcher makes some notes on the role that development agencies/planners and global economy policy makers can play in ensuring that men and women's practical and strategic needs are adequately captured in project designs. However, the researcher appears to place the onus almost exclusively on international institutions and consequently misses the role of social institutions in developing countries, and their policies, cultural and traditional practices in undermining the achievement of the MDGs particularly in terms of gender equality.

Thirdly, it is possible that the conclusions in this study are pervasive as the research was based on reports only, future research should go beyond the use of reports for analysis. Project implementation and design papers should be made available for future study.

5.4 Recommendations

The following recommendations are offered for related research in the field of Development Communication, for development practioners / government, and for improving the study.

- There is need for the national gender policy framework that Nigeria has in place to inform policy formulation and implementation. In this way the principle of gender and processes in which women's roles in production and reproduction are not only valued but are seen as the core of the nation's wealth upon which national development is anchored.
- Government should carry out periodic gender audit and subsequent gender review of national laws and policies to guide a system-wide approach to gender mainstreaming and implementation policy.
- There is need for a gender-responsive budgeting which should be incorporated within the existing national budgeting system and the existing system of data collection, monitoring and evaluation. This process should involve the collaboration among budget officials, line departments and the federal ministry of women's affairs, the focus should not be only on increasing budgetary allocations for programmes for females but also on monitoring and evaluation to ensure that implementation is gender responsive.
- There should be in existence an operational gender-specific department within line-ministries and public institutions.
- There should be in existence equality clauses in all policies, which should be strictly adhered to and recognized.
- There is an exigent need for producers of data to improve quality and coverage of sex-disaggregated data on poverty. An essential starting point should be to expand poverty

analysis beyond household income, although it may be restricted to this unit of analysis, a comparative poverty assessment of households should be carried out.

- The results of the current study can be used for intervention plans and policy-making. Future research would make it possible to evaluate if gender dimensions did have a positive or negative effect on development project implementations and specifically, on the attainment of the MDGs.
- Related research should accommodate other perspectives of analyzing development project implementation strategies e.g., poverty analysis, human-rights approach, etc.
- This research reviewed many reports and published documents on MDGs. However, it has yielded some remarkable results by demonstrating that, despite worldwide improvement in general health indicators, maternal mortality rates have shown little change. That is directly linked to gender inequality in the control of a household's economic resources, mobility and decision-making. Further evidence is provided regarding the linkage between gender equality and HIV/AIDS in terms of vulnerability, proportion of affected population, ability to take decisions regarding bodily integrity, and access to health care. Similarly, the research suggests gender-sensitive approaches to meet the health-related goals, which include an analysis and recognition of social and cultural factors that affect health. Perhaps future research will be able to give explanations for the unexpected results.
- Development project planners should adopt a participatory communication approach in programme development and while applying the principle from the initial conception stage, it should be ensured that all relevant stakeholders are not only taken on board, but involved in the conception and design of all objectives and activities.

5.5 Conclusion

This Thesis focuses on the Nigeria's MDGRs, and argues that gender equality and the empowerment of women, MDG 3, is at the core of all MDGs, from improving health and fighting disease to reducing poverty and mitigating hunger, expanding education and lowering child mortality, increasing access to safe water and ensuring environmental sustainability. It reiterates that gender is an essential ingredient for the successful achievement of all MDGs. As such, the study provides gender dimensions of each MDG reporting and highlights the need to make available adequate resources at all levels; and to address inequitable global economic policies, as well as gaps between rich and poor countries.

The study provides arguments, key findings and learning relevant to the achievement of MDGs from the standpoint of gender equality; and argues extensively that gender inequality is more pervasive than other forms of inequality and is a feature of social relations in most societies. Consequently, the researcher argues that understanding the causes and consequences of gender inequality should concern and inform all societies.

This Thesis was able to demonstrate that policy makers are still informed by mindsets that operate under the notion of "male breadwinners", thereby failing to put in place redistributive policies. Gender inequalities in the household are further exacerbated and reinforced by inequalities within other supposedly neutral institutions, namely, the market and the State. That means that women and men experience poverty differently and unequally, and become poor through different, albeit related, processes. Poverty and gender inequalities therefore have to be tackled at the societal level, as well as through explicit interventions tailored to addressing specific forms of disadvantage.

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Appendix: The Millenium Development Goals Statement

THE MILLENIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS, TARGETS AND INDICATORS	
Goals & Targets	**Indicators for monitoring Progress**
Goal 1: Eradicate Extreme Poverty and Hunger	
Target 1: Halve, between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day.	**1.** Proportion of population below $1 (PPP) per day **2.** Poverty gap ratio [incidence x depth of poverty] **3.** Share of poorest quintile in national consumption
Target 2: Half between 1990 and 2015, the proportion of people who suffer from hunger	**4.** Prevalence of underweight children under-five years of age. **5.** Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption.
Goal 2: Achieve Universal Primary Education	
Target 3: Ensure that, by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls alike, will be able to complete a full course of primary schooling	**6.** Net enrolment ratio in primary education **7.** Proportion of pupils starting grade 1 who reach grade 5 **8.** Literacy rate of 15-24 year-olds
Goal 3: Promote Gender Equality And Empower Women	
Target 4: Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education preferably by 2005	**9.** Ratios of girls to boys in primary, secondary and tertiary education **10.** Ratio of literate females to males of 15-24

and to all levels of education no later than 2015	year-olds **11.** Share of women in wage employment in the nonagricultural sector **12.** Proportion of seats held by women in national parliament
Goal 4: Reduce Child Mortality	
Target 5: Reduce by two-thirds, between 1990 and 2015, the under-five mortality rate.	**13.** Under-five mortality rate **14.** Infant mortality rate **15.** Proportion of 1 year-old children immunized against Measles
Goal 5: Improve Maternal Health	
Target 6: Reduce by three-quarters, between 1990 And 2015, the maternal mortality ratio.	**16.** Maternal mortality ratio **17.** Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel.
Goal 6: Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases	
Target 7: Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS.	**18.** HIV prevalence among 15-24 year old pregnant women **19.** Condom use rate of the contraceptive prevalence rate. **20.** Number of children orphaned by HIV/AIDS.
Target 8: Have halted by 2015 and begun to Reverse the incidence of malaria and other major diseases	**21.** Prevalence and death rates associated with malaria **22.** Proportion of population in malaria risk areas using effective malaria prevention and treatment

	measures. **23.** Prevalence and death rates associated with tuberculosis **24.** Proportion of tuberculosis cases detected and cured under directly observed treatment short course (DOTS)
Goal 7: Ensure environmental sustainability	
Target 9: Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse the loss of environmental resources	**25.** Proportion of land area covered by forest **26.** Ratio of area protected to maintain biological diversity to surface area **27.** Energy use (kg oil equivalent) per $1 GDP (PPP) **28.** Carbon dioxide emissions (per capita) and consumption of ozone-depleting CFCs (ODP tons) **29.** Proportion of population using solid fuels
Target 10: Halve, by 2015, the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water	**30.** Proportion of population with sustainable access to an improved water source, urban and rural
Target 11 By 2020, to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers	**31.** Proportion of urban population with access to improved sanitation **32.** Proportion of households with access to secure tenure (owned or rented)

Goal 8: Develop A Global Partnership For Development	
Target 12: Develop further an open, rule-based, predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system Includes a commitment to good governance, development, and poverty reduction – both nationally and internationally **Target 13**: Address the special needs of the least developed countries Includes: tariff and quota free access for least developed countries' exports; enhanced programme of debt relief for HIPC and cancellation of official bilateral debt; and more generous ODA for countries committed to poverty reduction **Target 14:** Address the special needs of landlocked countries and small island developing States (through the Programme of Action for the Sustainable Development of Small Island Developing States and the outcome of the twenty-second special session of the General	*Some of the indicators listed below are monitored* *separately for the least developed countries (LDCs), Africa,* *landlocked countries and small island developing States.* *Official development assistance* **33.** Net ODA, total and to LDCs, as percentage of OECD/DAC donors' gross national income **34.** Proportion of total bilateral, sector-allocable ODA of OECD/DAC donors to basic social services (basic education, primary health care, nutrition, safe water and sanitation) **35.** Proportion of bilateral ODA of OECD/DAC donors that is untied **36.** ODA received in landlocked countries as proportion of their GNIs **37.** ODA received in small island developing States as proportion of their GNIs *Market access* **38.** Proportion of total developed country

Assembly) **Target 15:** Deal comprehensively with the debt problems of developing countries through national and international measures in order to make debt sustainable in the long term **Target 16:** In co-operation with developing countries, develop and implement strategies for decent and productive work for youth **45.** Unemployment rate of 15-24 year-olds, each sex and total **Target 17:** In co-operation with pharmaceutical companies, provide access to affordable, essential drugs in developing countries **Target 18:** In co-operation with the private sector, make available the benefits of new technologies, especially information and communications.	imports (by value and excluding arms) from developing countries and LDCs, admitted free of duties **39.** Average tariffs imposed by developed countries on agricultural products and textiles and clothing from developing countries **40.** Agricultural support estimate for OECD countries as percentage of their GDP **41.** Proportion of ODA provided to help build trade capacity *Debt sustainability* **42.** Total number of countries that have reached their HIPC decision points and number that have reached their HIPC completion points (cumulative) **43.** Debt relief committed under HIPC initiative, US$ **44.** Debt service as a percentage of exports of goods and services. **45.** Unemployment rate of 15-24 year-olds, each sex and total. **46.** Proportion of population with access to affordable essential drugs on a sustainable basis.

	47. Telephone lines and cellular subscribers per 100 population **48.** Personal computers in use per 100 population and Internet users per 100 population.
The Millennium Development Goals and targets come from the Millennium Declaration signed by 189 countries, including 147 Heads of State, in September 2000 (www.un.org/documents/ga/res/55/a55r002.pdf	