



Gender Dimensions

of the Millennium Development Goals
in Sri Lanka



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ERADICATE
EXTREME POVERTY
AND HUNGER



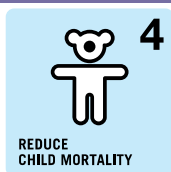
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ACHIEVE UNIVERSAL
PRIMARY EDUCATION



3

PROMOTE GENDER
EQUALITY AND
EMPOWER WOMEN



4

REDUCE
CHILD MORTALITY



5

IMPROVE MATERNAL
HEALTH



6

COMBAT HIV/AIDS,
MALARIA AND OTHER
DISEASES



7

ENSURE
ENVIRONMENTAL
SUSTAINABILITY



8

A GLOBAL
PARTNERSHIP FOR
DEVELOPMENT

Gender Dimensions of the Millennium Development Goals in Sri Lanka

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FOREWORD

At the Millennium Summit in 2000 in New York, all United Nations Member States pledged to pursue an ambitious global agenda for development, embodied in eight time-bound and measurable goals, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), to be achieved by 2015. With the signing of the Millennium Declaration, which includes the commitment to promote gender equality and to empower women in all societies, the centrality of women in development has been universally recognized and formalized.

Since independence, Sri Lanka has made remarkable achievements in reaching gender equality, especially in the area of health and education. The female labour force contributes significantly to economic growth and is a major source of foreign exchange. Nevertheless, these accomplishments have not yet fully translated into commensurate economic, social and political opportunities for Sri Lankan women. Representation of women in parliament and in local governments is low, as compared to other South Asian countries. Women are also under-represented at senior decision making levels, both in the public and private sector, and gender based violence is significantly high.

In 2005 UNDP Sri Lanka commissioned the Centre for Women's Research (CENWOR) to conduct a study on the gender dimensions of the MDGs. This study was conducted with the explicit intent of going beyond the analysis of the status of women in Sri Lanka through the lens of Goal 3, rather to look at gender issues across all dimensions of human development, including income poverty, environment, health, education and others. The main purpose of the study was to collect gender disaggregated data for assessing progress towards the achievement of the MDGs and to inform policy recommendations promoting gender equality in all dimensions of human development.

The MDGs cannot be achieved in Sri Lanka if gender equity and equality issues are not properly addressed. As one of the countries signatory of the Millennium Declaration, Sri Lanka has committed to ensure that adequate policies and programmes are in place, to ensure that women equally participate in their country's development and fully enjoy its benefits. In this perspective the United Nations in Sri Lanka hope that the concrete policy recommendations provided by this study will inform future national policies and programmes and the development agenda of the UN and other national and international development organizations towards greater gender equality for the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals.

I would like to extend my sincere appreciation to the National Council for Economic Development (NCED), lead Government Agency for the implementation of the UNDP supported MDGs Country Support Programme, which, in partnership with the UN MDG Working Group, and particularly the UN Gender Working Group, provided valuable inputs and facilitation for the finalization of this study.



Neil Buhne

UN Resident & Humanitarian Coordinator
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**CENWOR
2007**

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Executive Summary

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were the outcome of the Millennium Summit of Heads of State organised by the United Nations (UN) in September 2000. The Millennium Declaration underscored fundamental values such as freedom and equality. Anchored in the UN Declarations, Covenants and Conventions, it was foregrounded in concepts of human rights, democracy, good governance, peace, security and development. Unlike the Millennium Declaration, however, the eight MDGs initially offered a limited minimalist agenda for development over 15 years to 2015. The goals lacked the vision embodied in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the Covenants on Political, Civil, Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) and the Convention on the Rights of the Child, and the breadth of the outcome documents of the UN Conferences held in Rio, Vienna, Cairo, Copenhagen, Beijing and New York held in the last decade of the twentieth century. From a gender perspective the MDGs initially took forward only some of the provisions of CEDAW and the Beijing Platform for Action which has been the framework for advocacy and action on gender issues over a decade. They did not appear also to give priority to the rights based approach that is such a strong feature of other international documents. However they clearly envisage concrete action with 18 time bound targets and 48 measurable indicators.

Responding to the criticism of the MDGs, particularly by women's groups, the Outcome Document of the World Summit in 2005 re-envisioned the goals to incorporate other international development goals encapsulated in UN Declarations and Conventions and in the outcomes of the UN World Conferences of the 1990s and located the MDGs within the framework of universal, indivisible, interdependent and mutually reinforcing human rights, linking them, for instance, with the provisions in CEDAW and the Beijing Platform for Action which have been the guiding principles for action in the recent past.

This study has drawn from the provisions of CEDAW and the critical areas of concern of the Beijing Platform of Action and has included additional indicators that are consonant with the expanded vision of the 2005 Outcome Document and its stance of national contextualisation. Its objective has been chiefly the exploration of baseline data for monitoring progress towards the achievement of the goals. Limitations have been imposed, however, by the lack of adequate sex disaggregated data and a vacuum in quantitative data regarding the situation in the North and East.

The development context in the country is a pre-requisite to any study of these goals and their implications for policy. In post independence Sri Lanka gender issues were invisible in plans and programmes until International Women's Year (1975) brought them into focus. Women have had equal rights before the law in some respects, fortified by the 1978 Constitution. The ratification of CEDAW and the formulation of the Women's Charter presaged progress towards gender equality. Prior to independence, Sri Lanka had established the right to education and health care for the whole population without gender differentiation, through policies from the early 1940s. Consequently women have achieved gender equality or even a position of advantage in some of the indicators in the education and health sectors. Socio economic constraints rather than gender, affected the utilisation of equal opportunities.

The situation was different in the economy where slow economic growth perpetuated poverty, socio economic and district wise disparities, and further accelerated unemployment as social development outran economic development, while rapid globalisation increased the vulnerability of women. Women tend to be more adversely affected than men as reflected in their position in the labour market of the majority of women as low cost labour and supposedly 'supplementary earners,' their relative exclusion from managerial positions, their higher unemployment rates and their vulnerability to gender based violence. At the same time they make a crucial contribution to the family and the economy. It is in this context of a juxtaposition of some elements of gender equality and unequal gender relations that the potential of the MDGs for change has to be examined.

Over two decades of conflicts and the recent tsunami disaster have exacerbated constraints to progress and to the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals. New areas of deprivation have emerged and the situation has worsened in existing disadvantaged locations. Financial resources have been augmented by the flow of donor funds and donations by individuals to cope with these programmes but purposeful action is necessary to reintegrate these communities in the process of moving towards national goals.

The thrust in national policies conceptualised in the Mahinda Chintana of the government elected to office in late 2005 towards the implementation of people centred, pro poor programmes to reduce socio economic disparities and to improve the quality of life of all strata, if translated into action effectively, will provide momentum to achieving the MDGs. The recognition of the contribution of women to social and economic development offers space for mainstreaming gender in the national policy framework.

Goal 1 Eradicate Extreme Poverty and Hunger

Sex disaggregated data are not available to confirm the global trend towards feminisation of poverty. National surveys have not covered conflict and disaster affected locations to assess the magnitude of the incidence of poverty in these devastated areas. Nevertheless national surveys indicate that the incidence of poverty outside Colombo and Gampaha districts has declined only marginally and that disparities between the Western Province in which the national capital is located and the most disadvantaged districts in the interior in the Uva and Sabaragamuwa Provinces, in the deep south and in the plantation sector are unconscionably wide.

Poverty, however, has multi dimensions and gender differences are clearly visible in access to assets, employment and incomes. It is possible to surmise that women are relatively more impoverished in disadvantaged locations and in a context of intra district disparities as the mean income of women in wage/salaried employment is overall less than that of men in the same situation. Women are also a majority of the workers who are engaged in low skill, low income economic activities in the large informal sector and are also concentrated as unpaid family labour in agricultural communities. Their assets are limited by discriminatory laws and by social practices. Their limited spatial mobility exacerbates their situation in areas without access to infrastructure. More women, too, are found in new poverty groups. At the same time women appear to have benefited more from progressive social policies in terms of educational and health status.

A new dynamism has been created by the pro poor policies and the focus on reducing urban – rural disparities in the programmes envisaged in the Mahinda Chintana document. It is possible to incorporate the principle of gender equality in the formulation and implementation of these programmes so that gender disparities too can be eliminated.

Goal 2 Achieve Universal Primary Education

Despite relatively positive indicators of participation and retention in primary education, Sri Lanka has not achieved universal primary education as a consequence of the socio economic constraints of a substantial proportion of the population and complacency among sections of the implementation structure. Gender disparities, however, are minimal and the gap is narrowing even in the historically disadvantaged plantation districts but pockets of educational deprivation are found in low income urban neighbourhoods, in remote villages, in the plantations and in conflict affected areas. There is, however, little doubt that the effective enforcement of the compulsory education legislation introduced in 1998 will facilitate the achievement of universal primary education before the target date set in the Goal.

Enrolment rates in the 10 – 14 age group in junior secondary grades are around 95% in Sri Lanka and retention rates are over 80%. Hence it is feasible to extend this goal to the universalisation of education of the 10 –14 age group by 2015, and to work towards compulsory education to 16 years. The challenge is to reduce inter district and intra district disparities in provision of education facilities, in terms of infrastructure and science and technology related education programmes and quality of education. The formal and hidden curriculum in educational institutions lack gender sensitivity and it is important that curriculum revision incorporates gender issues if women are to move beyond equality to empowerment.

Goal 3 Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women

This goal encompasses all goals and is critical to their achievement but the tenuous link between this goal and the other goals belie acceptance of gender as a cross cutting issue. It is incredible, too,

that the only target identified for this goal is to eliminate gender disparities in primary and secondary education and eventually at all levels of education. Education is an effective agency to achieve gender equality and empowerment. Yet it is only one dimension of the multi-faceted approach that is required to achieve this goal and only one indicator of empowerment. The three additional indicators - literacy levels, participation in wage employment in the non agricultural sector and the proportion of seats held by women in Parliament - are hardly adequate to assess progress towards the achievement of this goal.

Gender disparities in enrolment in education at primary, secondary and tertiary education and in youth literacy have been eliminated already. There are however wide gender imbalances in enrolment in technical related education. The impact of gender role stereotypes in the content and processes of education tend to limit the aspirations and life chances of women, to impede the development of their personhood and to disempower them.

Gender inequalities in the labour market are a further barrier to empowerment. The unemployment rates of women have been double those of men for over three decades. The quality of employment available to women as low cost labour in the international and local labour market has deteriorated and women are concentrated in as unpaid family labour in the agriculture sector, in unviable self employment producing for the 'poverty market' in the urban informal sector, as semi-skilled workers in assembly line operations in garment factories, facing also the threat of unemployment in the immediate future with the removal of quotas under the Multi Fibre Agreement, and as migrant domestic workers vulnerable to economic exploitation and sexual abuse. The gender based segmentation of the labour market and the 'glass ceiling' that limits their upward mobility and women's incredibly low representation not only in parliament but also in local assemblies are further evidence of inequality. Women however, have been economically empowered by access to independent cash incomes irrespective of levels of employment.

Underpinning these inequalities are the gaps in legislation and law enforcement that deprive women of their rights and increase their vulnerability to gender based violence and the gendered norms of socialisation in the family, education system and society.

There is a long agenda for change, and a need for the inclusion of additional indicators particularly pertaining to employment if this goal is to be achieved for all women. The incorporation of the provisions of CEDAW, the Women's Charter and the Beijing Platform for Action is an essential framework for the achievement of Goal 3 - gender equality and empowerment of women. Mainstreaming gender is necessary as a mechanism to promote gender sensitivity in all policies and programmes and to eliminate gender gaps in order to ensure progress towards the goal. Education policies need to address also the need to transform gender relations on the basis of equality. A life cycle approach to health will improve the health status of relatively forgotten groups such as adolescents and the ageing. Major interventions are necessary to promote equal access to remunerative employment that is consonant with human rights and dignity. Access to high-level decision making positions and increased representation of women in legislatures will accelerate the pace of change. Women need to be empowered to assert themselves and to achieve equitable gender relations within and outside the family, and men need to be socialised to function as equal partners with women and to be non conformist with regard to norms of masculinity which inhibit their personal development and diminish both women and men.

Goals 4 Reduce Child Mortality

Since the 1960s Sri Lanka has sustained a steady decline in under five child mortality, and thus has a current low level of child deaths. Further reductions are only possible if policies and programmes focus on the perinatal and neonatal period during which at present, the maximum number of deaths occur. These relate mainly to maternal factors particularly maternal health which is affected by maternal morbidity, maternal under nutrition and anaemia. Universal access to emergency obstetric care and newborn care are also important factors. Although there is no significant gender disparity where infant and child deaths are concerned, inter district disparities exist. Therefore high mortality districts need greater focus to reduce such disparities. It may also be useful to include the indicators of perinatal and neonatal mortality to the indicators of Under Five Mortality and Infant Mortality. This will need expansion of the data base to include the collection of perinatal and neonatal mortality on a routine basis and a surveillance system to monitor trends. A well developed system of emergency obstetric care, newborn care including neonatal care are also important.

Goal 5 Improve Maternal Health

Both maternal mortality and morbidity are related to maternal under nutrition including anaemia, lack of access to emergency obstetric care, poor quality antenatal care and gender inequalities such as greater vulnerability to violence. The last could contribute to reducing access to care as well as proper nutrition in addition to its psychological impact on the wellbeing of the mother and her unborn child. Since Sri Lanka's maternal deaths are relatively low, it is important to address these issues to reduce them further. Programmes should be implemented on an equitable basis island wide, thus reducing inter district disparities in access to services. Another useful intervention is the strengthening of the current system of maternal death audits. Such audits should include an assessment of factors relevant to gender inequalities including gender based violence. It is also essential to strengthen the current system on maternal death data, and improve reporting, particularly from the more remote areas, conflict affected areas and tsunami affected areas. Additional indicators suggested for Goal 5 include, maternal under-nutrition, anemia complicating pregnancy and access to emergency obstetric care.

Goal 6 Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Tuberculosis

Sri Lanka still remains a low prevalence country for HIV/AIDS. Although the indicators on HIV/AIDS prevalence in Sri Lanka are disaggregated by sex, the indicator of HIV prevalence among 15-24 year old pregnant women, and the country specific indicators assigned to the MDGs of HIV prevalence among women attending antenatal clinics are not collected on a routine basis. These deficiencies in the collection and analysis of data need to be reviewed. However, mother to child transmission and sex disaggregated HIV/AIDS prevalence/incidence information is available. Women and girls are more vulnerable to HIV/AIDS due to biological reasons while gender inequalities increase the risks. Priority interventions include improving adolescent youth services, HIV/AIDS prevention in work places, training in syndromic management, empowering risk groups, preventing mother to child transmission and providing care and treatment to HIV infected people.

Malaria and Tuberculosis (TB) data are not available on a sex disaggregated basis. Thus a new data base including relevant sex disaggregated indicators has to be established. In the case of TB, gender disaggregation of the data is particularly important due to its relevance to HIV/AIDS. Priorities include improving TB detection in all provinces and developing interventions for high risk and vulnerable populations. In the case of the incidence of malaria, all provinces other than the North-East have experienced a decline. Contributory factors to the reverse situation in the North-East include difficulties in detection, inability to obtain prompt treatment and carrying out anti-malaria operations. The incidence of malaria during pregnancy and gender disparities need to be determined. Priorities include improved water management, biological control, use of impregnated mosquito nets particularly for pregnant women and children and improved forecasting systems.

Goal 7 Ensure Environmental Sustainability

In tropical countries environment sustainability is closely bound up with the maintenance of forest cover, particularly in high ground and watershed areas. The forest cover in Sri Lanka has dwindled to approximately 22% dense forest and 7% sparse forest. In the wet zone which is the area of greatest biodiversity and hydrology, it is a mere 9% or even less. The estimated loss of forest cover annually is 10,000 hectares. This would lead to disaster in a few decades.

About 75% of the population live in rural areas, and whether rich or poor, depend on the natural resources available in these areas for water, fuel wood and supplementary foods. For the rural poor and particularly for poor rural women, natural resources are a very important source of poverty alleviation as they get a free supply of water, energy in the form of fuel wood and biomass, supplementary foods, medicines and raw material for handicrafts. The continuing loss of forest cover, of mangroves and biodiversity makes a significant impact on the availability of these resources and has an adverse effect on their lives. This applies not only to female headed households, but to other poor households, because providing water and cooking fuel and even food for the family is considered their gender role and their responsibility.

Women contribute to preserving biodiversity by their caring attitude towards plants and animals and the care of the home gardens which are a refuge for countless plants and animals. Considering that they are major stakeholders in environment conservation it is necessary to involve women in environment planning and management. Hence there should be a quota for women participants from rural and urban neighbourhoods when planning projects which involve the environment.

Energy resources could be differentiated as petroleum, hydro power and biomass (crop residues and wood). Fifty per cent of energy use in Sri Lanka is from biomass as three fourths of Sri Lankan households and a significant percentage of industry use biomass. This source of energy which is the primary domestic fuel, has received little attention from government. A crisis in biomass supply could develop in 2015 due to reduction of forests as a result of development plans which clear existing forests mainly in the dry zone as well as illicit logging. The conversion of rubber plantations into tea plantations contribute to loss of biomass resources. Hence more forest plantations need to be developed for fuel wood supply. Governments have shown no interest in encouraging the manufacture of fuel-efficient and pollution safe stoves but a NGO is implementing a programme. Apart from saving fuel these stoves will reduce indoor air pollution which has a direct effect on the health of women and small children. It is recommended that this area of research be actively encouraged by the government.

Water is a basic requirement of humans and all living things. Given the present position in the availability of drinking water in Sri Lanka, the target to provide safe drinking water to all the population by 2015 is achievable. The provision of sanitation facilities however, particularly in city slums may be more difficult. The role of women in many Community Water Supply and Sanitation Projects shows them capable of leadership, management and commitment. It must be recognised that women should be in a position to have a significant say in the planning of local water projects.

Of the cities, only Colombo has a slum dwelling population of significant size. In some settlements half the households are reported to be female headed but women in all households are responsible for the provision of drinking water. The proper provision of water and sanitation would do much to improve their quality of life. The present provision of water by stand posts by the National Water Supply and Drainage Board should not be stopped as this will impose an impossible burden on these families.

The lack of sanitation and the problems of garbage disposal have a significant impact on the health of these slum dwellers. Government and local government authorities are conscious of the necessity of providing proper housing and sanitation and have introduced many schemes to improve housing and thus improve the sanitation levels. They are also trying to tackle the garbage problem, in which too women are important players.

Following on the Agenda 21 of the UN Conference on Environment and Development (1992) and the Plan of Action of the Beijing Conference on Women (1995) conscious efforts are being made by women's organisations to bring women into environment planning and management in Sri Lanka. Services should also take steps as both environment and gender are cross cutting issues and should find a place in most development plans for the country.

Goal 8 Develop a Global Partnership for Development

Goal 8 relates to the multilateral trading system, overseas development assistance (ODA), youth employment, access to essential pharmaceutical drugs and information and communication technology (ICT). The lack of sex disaggregated data is one of the most critical issues that has to be addressed if measures taken to eliminate gender disparities are to be monitored. Research on gender issues relating to Goal 8, should be undertaken on a priority basis as the multilateral trading system, overseas development assistance and information and communication technology are not gender neutral in their impact. It is imperative that trade negotiations should have national interests as a priority and that gender issues are taken into consideration. A specific percentage of ODA should be used for overcoming gender based disadvantages and for women's empowerment.

Women workers will be the most affected by the termination of the Multi Fibre Agreement (MFA). Women are also the majority in the migrant labour force who are vulnerable and are working in exploitative conditions and who need to be protected through bilateral agreements with labour importing countries. Despite the availability of free medical health services throughout the country citizens do not always have access to essential drugs. The implementation of the National Medicinal Drugs Policy could reduce

the medical expenses of the citizens and make essential drugs available at affordable prices.

Entry of women into the ICT sector and other areas of remunerative employment are constrained by the selection of gender appropriate courses of study, perceptions of employers as well as limited English language skills. Women need to have higher skill levels in ICT if they are to move out of low-end jobs in the sector. Career counselling and job market information should also be provided to them. The diffusion of information and communication technology is heavily biased towards the urban sector and the Western Province. The urban-rural divide in infrastructure is wide. Data on the gender divide is available only in a few micro studies. The indicators for this sector should not be focused only on the availability of infrastructure and hardware.

Institutional Capacity for Implementation of MDGs

Achieving the Millennium Development Goals requires involvement of committed, competent personnel and efficiently organised institutions, creating a synergy to ensure positive outcomes. A multiplicity of institutions are available, each having its strengths as well as weaknesses that need to be remedied.

The apex institutions have their own constraints. The National Council of Economic Development has not engaged so far in a gender dialogue. The National Committee on Women lacks legal status and the Ministry of Child Development and Women's Empowerment, and the Women's Bureau tend to be marginalised in the power structure and lack adequate quality gender sensitive personnel. The National Planning Department and the Monitoring Division of the Ministry of Finance have well equipped professional staff but most lack gender awareness. The role of the Provincial administrations in promoting the advancement of women is unclear. The Department of Census and Statistics and the Central Bank conduct national surveys but sex disaggregated data are not always published or are not available on some issues.

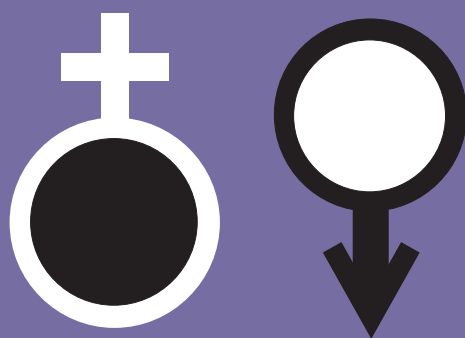
The implementation of Goals 1 and 3, that is, eradicating poverty and promoting gender equality and the empowerment of women, is a task of all Ministries and agencies and need committed persons with empathy for the poor, awareness of micro level realities and gender sensitivity. A large number of institutions are engaged in implementing Goals 2, and 4 - 6 - education and health programmes. While equal access to general education and health services has been achieved, there is an absence of gender sensitivity in the education process and lacunae in programmes in important areas in the health services such as prenatal and neonatal care in the recognition of gender dimensions of HIV/AIDs, malaria and tuberculosis programmes, in the care of the elderly, and in recognition of reproductive rights.

A multiplicity of institutions also deal with environmental issues but gender is virtually invisible in their programmes. A similar situation prevails in the different units in the Ministry of Finance that deal with issues related to international trade and in the institutions that are responsible for the promotion of information technology.

In conflict affected areas and in areas that have been devastated by natural disasters, rehabilitation is a major priority but measures have to be taken to ensure that such programmes are not gender blind.

A common problem that has surfaced, therefore, is the conspicuous absence of awareness of gender issues in all institutions, and the lack of skills in gender analysis, identification of gender sensitive indicators and gender impact assessment, a situation that is detrimental to the promotion of the gender dimensions of the MDGs.

Nevertheless it is clear that these institutions do not lack the capacity to implement programmes effectively if interventions to develop awareness, gender sensitivity, and relevant skills are inbuilt into orientation and training programmes for all men and women personnel. The critical priority is to place gender specific issues on their agenda.



INTRODUCTION

Introduction

The Millennium Declaration underscored fundamental values such as freedom and equality. Anchored in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the United Nations (UN) Covenants, and Conventions such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), it was foregrounded in concepts of human rights, democracy, good governance, peace, security and development.

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) adopted by member states at the World Summit in 2000 as a framework for action, encompass eight goals, 18 targets and 48 indicators that are 'time bound and measurable' and therefore facilitate monitoring progress at international and national levels. Perhaps as a strategy to ensure compliance by 2015, these goals have been minimalist like the basic needs international strategy of the 1970s, and they lack the legality of the rights based UN Conventions and the vision of the UN Conferences of the 1990s and the Millennium Declaration. From a gender perspective there was no clear articulation of a rights based approach to gender issues nor explicit recognition of gender as a cross cutting issue. The narrow range of indicators excluded concerns such as gender based violence.

In response to criticism, including from women's groups, the Outcome document of the World Summit held in September 2005 (UN, 2005) sought to enlarge the vision of the MDGs, included some additional indicators and recognised concepts of universal, indivisible, interdependent and mutually reinforcing human rights and peace, security and development. The Outcome document has sought to link CEDAW, the Beijing Platform for Action and the MDGs when it refers to international development goals including the MDGs. It is also salutary to note that the document promotes national ownership of the MDGs and contextualisation and flexibility.

This study envisaged the collection and analysis of baseline data that can be a basis for assessing progress in the implementation of the MDGs and MDGs Plus. A major constraint is the absence of sex disaggregated data to substantiate some development trends and the lack of quantitative data pertaining to the conflict affected North and East.

The Development Context

Issues surfacing from gender roles and relations cannot be isolated from the development context in which women and men live.

Since the end of direct British colonial rule in 1930 and political independence in 1948 the trajectories of development have been neither linear nor uniform in pace of change, as encapsulated clearly in Sri Lanka's Human Development Index of 0.730, Gender Development Index of 0.725 and Gender Empowerment Index of only 0.272 in 2001 (UNDP, 2003).

Gender issues became visible in the national scene only after International Women's Year was declared in 1975. From a rights perspective, the Constitution of Sri Lanka (1978) guarantees equal rights without discrimination on the grounds of sex and provides space for affirmative action to remove sex discrimination. Sri Lanka ratified CEDAW in 1981 thereby accepting international norms and standards. The formulation of the Sri Lanka Women's Charter in 1993 and its acceptance by the political power structure set standards for policy development. A Women's Rights Bill is in the process of formulation. At the same time, the establishment of the national machinery for women's affairs - the Women's Bureau in 1978 and a Ministry with responsibility for women's advancement from 1983 - created a mechanism for addressing gender issues at national policy level. The nomenclature of the current Ministry is the Ministry of Child Development and Women's Empowerment.

It is the experience, however, of Sri Lanka in common with many countries, that the national machinery for women's affairs has been marginalised in the preparation and implementation of national development policies and programmes and that gender mainstreaming in policies is still an elusive goal. Development policies and programmes have continued to have a differential impact on women and men, particularly where policies have not been gender sensitive, and the social construction of gender is pervasive in its influence on some policy makers and administrators.

All policies were implemented within a conceptual framework of parliamentary democracy. Universal franchise in 1931 and lowering the voting age to 18 in 1958 facilitated the democratic process. Two women, as Prime Minister in 1960 and President in 1994, reached the highest seats of power. Nevertheless, the representation of women has never exceeded 5.0% in Parliament and 3.5% in local assemblies. In the international arena, the polarisation of the world into economically developed and developing countries reflected unequal international economic relations. The rapid pace of globalisation of finance, trade, production and communication has had its impact on macro-economic policies and on the life styles of women and men.

Currently the Mahinda Chintana that featured strongly in the election victory of the present government in late 2005, provides a framework for national policies that are people-centred, social equity oriented and pro poor, and recognises the contribution of women at national level and in the household. These policies, if implemented efficiently, will accelerate the achievement of the MDGs.

The Social Sector

Sri Lanka has been perceived to be an 'outlier' among economically developing countries in its social policies. The provision of extensive health services for over six decades has improved the health status of the population as seen in declining mortality rates and rising life expectancy over the years. Women particularly gained from the provision of Maternal and Child Health services and Family Health Care facilities island wide, and the availability of family planning services helped to reduce population growth to 1.2% in the 1990s. Mortality rates are lower among women than among men and life expectancy is 76 years for women and 72 years for men.

However, demographic changes have contributed to an ageing population structure in a context in which geriatric and support services have failed to meet emerging needs. Nutritional levels are low and both women and men have been affected by the dual disease syndrome of rising incidence of cardiovascular diseases and cancer and mental health and drug related problems in a 'modernising' society and the persistence of environment related diseases caused by lack of universal access to safe water and sanitation. The reproductive rights of women have tended to receive low priority in a context of unequal gender relations within families (Samarasinghe, 2002).

Over these six decades progressive education policies such as free primary, secondary and tertiary including university education since 1945, scholarships, subsidised transport for school children, free midday meals intermittently, and in recent decades free textbooks and uniform material, extended educational opportunity to more levels in the socio-economic structure than in most economically developing countries. These policies were a major factor in promoting gender equality in access to education at all levels, but gender role stereotypes have limited the access of the majority of girls and women to skills in demand in a technologically advanced, globalising environment, and consequently to life chances. Complacency regarding relatively high educational participation rates among girls and boys and female and male literacy rates of around 89% and 92% at the 2001 Census have overshadowed the need to improve gender sensitivity in the content of the curriculum and to maximise the potential catalytic role that education can play in promoting equitable gender relations and the empowerment of women (Jayaweera, 2002).

Overall, socio-economic disparities in provision of facilities and in family resource constraints rather than gender impede the universal utilisation of available services and opportunities in the education and health sectors. Housing, water and sanitation programmes have been activated in recent decades and have improved the living conditions of families, largely in developed districts. The current policy orientation ensures continuity in the provision of free education and health services and shelter to all, and focuses also on the elimination of social problems such as drug addiction, alcoholism, crime and abuse of children and women.

The Economy

Macro economic policies and international pressure caused shifts in the economy that have affected the lives of women, men and families. Falling commodity prices in the 1950s and consequently deterioration in terms of trade, resulted in slow economic growth, a high incidence of unemployment since the late 1960s, and the 'closed' economy of the 1970s. A sharp change in 1978 to market liberalisation led to average economic growth rates of around 4.5% in the 1980s and 1990s, juxtaposed with adverse

balance of payments and high inflation, continuing unemployment, increasing income disparities and persistent poverty despite the introduction of state poverty alleviation programmes (Lakshman, 1997).

Under the present political administration, national economic policy envisages integrating the positive features of the open market and domestic interest and aspirations, adopting a balanced approach that supports domestic enterprises and encourages foreign investment, reducing socio-economic disparities between major urban centres and the rural sector, and improving the efficiency of public institutions.

Women appear to have been disproportionately affected by the impact of the structural adjustment programmes since 1980, and the collapse of local industries and loss of livelihoods, and have had increasingly to seek avenues to contribute their labour inputs. They have been vulnerable to unemployment, the demand for low cost workers in the international labour market, unviable self employment and micro credit programmes, 'voluntary' retirement schemes and privatisation of public enterprises, and gender based segregation in the labour market. However women with resources, have competed along with men entrepreneurs in the local and international labour market. While some women have entered areas perceived as 'non traditional' employment, the economic development scene has surfaced gender issues of inequality, subordination and invisibility. Meanwhile women factory, plantation and overseas domestic workers have held up the economy, particularly in times of crisis (Lakshman, 1998).

Environmental concerns have had relatively serious consideration, especially in response to the articulate lobby that emerged from the popularisation of the concept of sustainable development. Issues such as bio-diversity, natural resource depletion, deforestation, industrial pollution and global warming have implications for development programmes. Nevertheless the main agencies concerned with the protection of the environment appear to lack awareness of the role of women as conservers of these natural resources as envisaged in Agenda 21 of the UN Conference on Environment and Development (1992).

Violence, Conflict and Natural Disasters

Violence appears to be endemic in Sri Lanka particularly as visibility has increased in recent decades. The perennial problem of gender based violence was a private issue till the UN Conference on Human Rights (1993) and its sequel, the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women, the inclusion of this issue in the Women's Charter in 1993 and the amendments to the Penal Code in 1995 and 1998 and the Domestic Violence Act of 2005. Despite these developments there has been increasing incidence or visibility of rape, incest, domestic violence and sexual harassment with minimal services to support victims or potential victims.

Political violence escalated with the ethnic conflict since 1983 and the youth uprising in the south of the country in the late 1980s. These conflicts have devastated affected areas and families and have distorted the development process by diverting scarce resources to defence expenditure. More men than women have lost their lives in battle and around 800,000 Tamil, Muslim and Sinhala families in the North and the East and adjacent districts have been displaced from their homes. Women, and particularly the large numbers of female heads of households in families in conflict areas and widows of soldiers as carers and survivors have the burden of adjustment in welfare centres or in resettled homes. Rehabilitation programmes to ensure the participation of victims in national development programmes are envisaged to address loss of livelihood, access to basic services and infrastructure, and need for psycho-social support (ADB, UN, and World Bank, 2003). Women have been invisible in the peace process and the Gender Peace Committee appointed in 2003 is constrained by the stalling in negotiations.

The tsunami that devastated the eastern and the southern coast in December 2004 caused the loss of around 35,000 lives and over 260,000 families have been displaced. More women than men have been estimated to have died or lost their livelihoods. Both houses and infrastructure have been destroyed or damaged. On-going relief, rehabilitation and reconstruction programmes need to be sensitive to the needs of women and to involve them in planning, implementation and monitoring action plans.

The conflict and the tsunami have been a setback to smooth progress to the realisation of the MDGs. Nevertheless they offer challenges to policy makers and administrators to implement effective, pro poor and gender sensitive programmes to facilitate the reduction of poverty and the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals.

Gender and Socialisation

Underpinning all these facets of development are the gendered norms and gender role assumptions that affect the unequal allocation of resources and labour, the inequitable distribution of skills and opportunities among women and men, and unequal gender relations in the family, economy and society. Ascribed gender roles impose traits of 'masculinity' that cast a heavy burden on men and passivity and subordination on women that tend to reinforce unequal gender relations. Gender roles and relations however are not static and the MDGs could have a transformative role in promoting gender equality.



**ERADICATE
EXTREME POVERTY
AND HUNGER**

GOAL 1

BY SWARNA JAYaweera

Poverty

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
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Indicators	1990	2002	2015
1. Proportion of population below national poverty line	26.1	22.7	13.0
2. Poverty gap ratio (incidence and depth of poverty)	5.6	5.1	
3. Share of poorest quintile in national consumption	5.2	6.2	
*Female and Male unemployment rates	F 23.9 M 9.1	F 14.8 M 7.3	F 6.0 M 4.0

* New indicator

Sources: Department of Census and Statistics, Household Income and Expenditure Survey 1990/91 and 2002, Labour Force Survey 1990 (all island) and 2002

Status and Trends

As the poverty line of US\$ 1 (PPP) per day would give an unrealistic figure in terms of the socio-economic status of population groups in Sri Lanka, the national, sectoral and district poverty lines computed by the Department of Census and Statistics for 1990/91 and 2002 are used here to indicate trends in the incidence and depth of poverty. In this context the absence of sex differentiated data is a major gap in ascertaining the gender dimensions of poverty at national and sub national levels.

According to the data based on the Department of Census and Statistics, Household Income and Expenditure Surveys (HIES) of 1990/91 and 2002, the incidence of poverty is less in 2002 (22.7) than in 1990/91 (26.1). As these figures depict a marginal decline in incidence and as the Household Income and Expenditure Survey of 1995/96 found an increase in poverty from 1990/91 it appears to be unlikely that the proportion below the poverty line will be halved by 2015. Hence the target of 13% in the national report is hardly likely to be achieved. Decline in poverty levels has been impeded by two decades of conflict in the North and East and the recent tsunami disaster. Adequate data are not available however with respect to affected districts and locations.

The poverty headcount ratio by districts (Table 1.1) and the percentage of poor households by districts which may be a pointer to the situation of women in these households (Table 1.2), indicate wide disparities in the incidence of poverty between the districts of Colombo in which the capital city is located (6% in 2002) and neighbouring Gampaha district (11%), and the rest of the country. The poorest districts over the decade outside the conflict affected areas have been Moneragala (37%) and Badulla (37%) in Uva Province, Ratnapura (34%) and Kegalle (32%) in the Sabaragamuwa Province and Hambantota (32%) in the Southern Province.

Table 1.1
Poverty Headcount Ratio by District (Percentage)

District	1990/91	2002
National	26.1	22.7
Colombo	16.0	6.0
Gampaha	15.0	11.0
Kalutara	32.0	20.0
Kandy	36.0	25.0
Matale	29.0	30.0
Nuwara Eliya	20.0	23.0
Galle	30.0	26.0
Matara	29.0	27.0
Hambantota	32.0	32.0
Kurunegala	27.0	25.0
Puttalam	22.0	31.0
Anuradhapura	24.0	20.0
Polonnaruwa	24.0	24.0
Badulla	31.0	37.0
Moneragala	34.0	37.0
Ratnapura	31.0	34.0
Kegalle	31.0	32.0

Sources: Department of Census and Statistics, Household Income and Expenditure Survey 1990/91 and 2002; National Council for Economic Development, Millennium; Development Goals: Country Report 2005: Sri Lanka

Table 1.2
Poor Households Based on the Official Poverty Line by District and Sector (Percentage)

	1990/91	1995/96	2002
District			
Colombo	13.1	8.8	5.0
Gampaha	11.7	11.3	9.2
Kalutara	27.0	24.6	17.7
Kandy	30.9	32.7	20.9
Matale	24.3	36.8	24.5
Nuwara Eliya	15.6	25.9	18.2
Galle	25.0	25.5	21.7
Matara	23.3	29.5	23.2
Hambantota	26.3	26.2	27.8
Kurunegala	22.8	22.6	21.2
Puttalam	18.6	25.8	24.5
Anuradhapura	20.1	21.9	17.2
Polonnaruwa	21.2	17.1	20.1
Badulla	26.8	35.8	31.5
Moneragala	27.4	48.8	32.4
Ratnapura	26.4	40.0	30.1
Kegalle	27.3	31.7	27.5
Sri Lanka	21.8	24.3	19.2
Sector			
Urban	12.9	11.0	6.2
Rural	24.7	25.9	20.8
Estate	16.7	32.2	24.3

Sources: Department of Census and Statistics, Household Income and Expenditure Survey 1990/91, 1995/96 and 2002; National Council for Economic Development, Millennium Development Goals: Country Report 2005: Sri Lanka

These disparities indicate that a substantial proportion of women living in the hinterland in the Uva and Sabaragamuwa Provinces and in the less developed Hambantota district in the South, live in dire

poverty. Poverty in the urban sector is reported to have declined to 6.2% in 2002 but poverty levels are high in the rural sector (20.8%) and estate sector (24.3%), with a substantial increase in poverty in the estate sector where women are half the labour force. These sectoral and district data conceal intra district disparities, as in Colombo district with its low income neighbourhoods in the city of Colombo. The recent Consumer Finances and Socio Economic Survey of the Central Bank (2003/2004), has reiterated concern for the wide socio-economic disparities between the Western Province and the disadvantaged districts.

It is obvious too that the rate of economic growth of around 5% in the 1990s and the decade of 'jobless growth' has not been conducive to a rapid reduction in poverty. The unequal distribution of the benefits of growth has resulted in increase in the inequalities as reflected in the sharp rise in the Gini coefficient from 34% in 1995/96 to 41% in 2002 (The World Bank, 2005).

While the absence of adequate sex disaggregated data makes it difficult to substantiate the claim of feminisation of poverty, there is some quantitative data in the national surveys to indicate that women have less access to financial resources. Table 1.3 presents the male and female income receivers in two socio-economic surveys in 1996/1997 (Central Bank of Sri Lanka) and 2002 (Department of Census and Statistics) and their mean incomes. It is significant that the percentage of women income earners has increased in the urban and rural sectors but that the male/female ratio of their mean incomes has increased from 1.63 in 1996/97 to 1.79 in 2002 in all sectors. The Consumer Finances and Socio Economic Survey Report 2003/04 (Central Bank of Sri Lanka) however states that the male/female ratio has not changed in the 1990s (1.60). Sex disaggregated data with regard to the different sectors are still not available for comparison. Further, in 1996/97 there was a higher percentage of women employees than men employees receiving the lowest weekly earnings (Table 1.4).

The World Bank estimates (2005) based on Household Income and Expenditure Surveys of the Department of Census and Statistics indicate that the highest incidence of poverty among occupational groups in 2002 was among elementary occupations (38%), agriculture, forestry and fisheries workers (34%) and craft related workers (25%), among whom a substantial proportion are women. The highest incidence among education categories was among those with no schooling of whom the majority are women. The computation of poverty levels of male headed and female headed households by the Department of Census and Statistics (2002) found minimal gender differences – 23.0% male headed and 21.5% female headed households living below the poverty line. These households however have not been disaggregated by socio-economic levels.

It is salutary to note that neither in the MDGs nor in the National Report is there explicit concern for the gender dimensions of poverty. Labour is the major asset of the poor and the labour inputs of women in low income families have contributed to their survival and maintenance, while poor returns to their labour have perpetuated poverty. Hence increasing the access of women to financial and material resources is a crucial strategy in reducing poverty.

Table 1.3
Income Receivers

	1996/97						2002					
	Income Receivers			Mean Income			Income Receivers			Mean Income		
	Total No.	Female No.	% F	Male	Female	M/F	Total No.	Female No.	% F	Male	Female	M/F
Total	14,195	4,464	31.4	6,556	4,025	1.63	n.a.	n.a.	37.2	8,476	4,722	1.79
Urban	1,902	628	33.0	10,955	6,521	1.68	n.a.	n.a.	38.7	14,182	7,570	1.87
Rural	11,325	3,372	29.8	6,082	3,810	1.60	n.a.	n.a.	36.4	7,803	4,369	1.78
Estate	968	464	47.9	2,922	2,208	1.32	n.a.	n.a.	45.5	4,190	2,897	1.44

Sources: Central Bank of Sri Lanka, Consumer Finances and Socio Economic Survey 1996/97; Department of Census and Statistics, Household Income and Expenditure Survey 2002

n.a.– not available

Table 1.4
Distribution of Employees by Weekly Earnings from Main Occupations (Percentage)

Weekly Earnings (Rs.)	1996/97	
	Male	Female
300 and below	15.0	24.2
301 – 600	29.4	35.0
601 – 1,000	26.9	23.0
1,001 – 2,000	27.4	15.4
2,001 – 3,000	4.0	1.8
Over 3,000	2.4	0.6
Total	100.0	100.0

Source: Central Bank of Sri Lanka, Consumer Finances and Socio Economic Survey 1996/97

Target 2	Halve between 1990 and 2015 the proportion of people who suffer from hunger
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Indicators	1990	2000	2015
4. Prevalence of underweight children under five years of age	T 37.7 M 34.9 F 39.8 (1993)	T 29.4 M 29.0 F 29.8	T } M } 19 F }
5. Proportion of population below minimum level of dietary energy consumption	50.9	51.3 (2002)	25

Sources: Department of Census and Statistics, Sri Lanka Demographic and Health Survey 1993 and 2000, Household Income and Expenditure Survey 2002

One of the major casualties of macro economic reforms introduced in 1979 was the reduction in the food subsidy and the introduction of food stamps that were not indexed to the cost of living. Hence, nutritional levels fell as low income families could not afford an adequate diet. The only macro data on under nutrition is found in the Demographic and Health Surveys 1993 and 2000 of the Department of Census and Statistics and these are confined to children under five years. Sex disaggregated data are available in these survey reports. It is seen that the percentage of underweight children, both boys and girls, has declined from a high figure of nearly 40% in 1990/91 to 29% in 2000. It is seen also that the gender gap has been virtually eliminated by 2000 – 29.0% M and 29.8% F. The sectoral data in Table 1.5 indicates that the percentage of underweight children is high in the rural sector (30.8%) and unconscionably high in the estate sector (44.1%), reflecting again the high incidence of poverty in these two sectors. District wise data in Table 1.6 points to a high incidence of malnutrition or under nutrition in the plantation districts and in districts in the hinterland in the Uva, Sabaragamuwa and Southern Provinces. These surveys also provide evidence of stunting and wasting among 15% of children. The estate sector has the highest incidence of stunting and the lowest incidence of wasting.

The proportion of the population below the minimum level of dietary energy consumption was high – 50.9% in 1990 and 51.3% in 2002 (51.1% male headed and 52.2% female headed households). Micro studies have indicated also the prevalence of anaemia among pregnant and lactating mothers in low income families.

As low educational levels are found chiefly in poverty groups it can be assumed that the high percentage of underweight children whose mothers had no schooling or only primary education attainment in Table 1.5 reflects also the relationship between under nutrition and poverty. It should be noted that no data are available in conflict affected areas as seen in Table 1.6 although under nutrition and malnutrition are major problems in these areas.

Table 1.5
Nutritional Status of Children (under 5 years)

Background Variables	Weight for Age (Underweight)	
	1993	2000
Sex		
Male	34.8	29.0
Female	40.9	29.8
Sector		
Metro Colombo	31.2	18.2
Other Urban	29.9	21.3
Rural	38.3	30.8
Estate	52.1	44.1
Education of Mother		
No education	53.9	48.0
Primary	47.8	41.4
Secondary	39.1	31.7
More than secondary	24.6	19.5

Sources: Department of Census and Statistics, Sri Lanka Demographic and Health Survey 1993 and 2000

It appears therefore that while there is no strong evidence of starvation in Sri Lanka, the reduction in the percentages of those who do not receive adequate nutrition to 19% is likely to be a formidable task, irrespective of gender.

Poverty is multi dimensional, and income and consumption are not its only dimensions (Sen, 1982). Poverty analysis has therefore to be extended to other facets such as access to assets, employment, human capabilities developed by education and health care, and to access to basic services and infrastructure such as power, transport, water and sanitation, and the powerlessness and voicelessness of the poor. In the Sri Lankan context there is the recent phenomenon of conflict related and natural disaster related poverty. It is necessary to explore gender differences in these facets where feasible.

The poor generally lack assets, but several decades of land distribution policies including large settlement projects such as the most recent, the Mahaweli Development Scheme, village expansion schemes and highland colonisation schemes have increased the asset base of the poor significantly (Alailima, 1988). Nevertheless poverty studies have shown that the lack of sustained and supportive agriculture policies have resulted in low productivity and incomes from the lands of the poor. It was found, in fact, that families in which the male is a small farmer and his wife an unpaid family worker are among the poorest families, and that both men and women in these agriculture communities have had to move out of agriculture – men to the armed forces and women to garment factories or overseas domestic labour – to exit even temporarily from absolute poverty (Jayaweera, Sanmugam and Amarasuriya, 2004).

Gender inequality in the labour market is a major factor in perpetuating poverty (see Tables under Goal 3). The expansion of the labour force has been minimal in the 1990s, the decade of jobless growth (Lakshman, 2004). Women are not only a majority among the unemployed, but also among the 'working poor.' The majority of women in the agriculture sector are unpaid family workers; jobs available to them in export oriented or domestic industry have deteriorated in quality; and women in poverty groups are in the informal sector, moving from one low skill, low income job to another or are engaged in unviable self employment that mires them further in poverty. The Central Bank of Sri Lanka, Consumer Finances and Socio Economic Survey (2003/04) underscored the dominance of small informal economic and commercial activities that reinforce poverty and income disparities. Further the increasing 'informalisation' and casualisation of the labour market as a consequence of accelerated globalisation has exacerbated poverty among women who comprise the majority of workers in the informal sector but are often invisible in labour force statistics. They share disproportionately the powerlessness and voicelessness of the poor.

Women appear to have benefitted more than men from policies to develop human capabilities through education and health care that enable them to utilise opportunities for upward mobility. While a higher proportion of girls than boys are enrolled in senior secondary grades, high drop out rates limit the access of both girls and boys to further education. Importantly, the under representation of girls

in senior secondary science classes has limited their relative access to university courses that lead to prestigious and remunerative professional employment, accounting for the large proportion of women from low income families among unemployed arts graduates. It is salutary to note that persons with a higher education qualification receive five times, those with General Certificate of Education Advanced Level (GCE A/L) receive three times and those with General Certificate of Education Ordinary Level (GCE O/L) twice the income of persons with less than six years of education (Department of Census and Statistics, HIES, 2002).

Table 1.6
Prevalence of Underweight Children (under 5 years) by District (Percentage)

District	Female		Male	
	1993	2000	1993	2000
Colombo	26.56	20.64	21.24	13.27
Gampaha	33.48	19.67	25.42	21.85
Kalutara	38.47	31.53	25.73	26.55
Kandy	35.28	33.62	35.66	36.66
Matale	50.00	34.62	32.26	34.78
Nuwara Eliya	59.95	45.37	52.48	38.21
Galle	33.80	32.69	33.78	21.72
Matara	33.29	31.10	37.92	26.28
Hambantota	61.62	45.82	40.90	34.67
Jaffna	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Kilinochchi	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Mannar	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Vavuniya	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Mullaitivu	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Batticaloa	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Ampara	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Trincomalee	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Kurunegala	38.72	34.62	27.79	24.06
Puttalam	36.37	30.94	45.19	44.27
Anuradhapura	54.32	31.32	46.05	36.27
Polonnaruwa	49.15	35.28	40.03	20.74
Badulla	48.68	31.64	44.12	49.78
Moneragala	47.79	54.31	51.11	21.75
Ratnapura	43.58	29.49	53.63	41.41
Kegalle	34.52	10.83	31.36	36.15
Sri Lanka	39.81	29.81	34.88	29.04

Sources: Department of Census and Statistics, Sri Lanka Demographic and Health Survey 1993 and 2000;
National Council for Economic Development, Millennium Development Goals: Country Report 2005: Sri Lanka
n.a. – not available

The social exclusion of the poor is reinforced among families and communities by lack of easy access to basic services and infrastructure, compounded by distance and absence of transport facilities. Women are particularly disadvantaged in view of conventional restrictions to their spatial mobility.

Finally, women are a majority among new vulnerable groups of poverty. Sri Lanka's ageing population is increasing, and in view of their higher life expectancy and less assets and resources, elderly women

in low income families are more likely to be destitute, particularly in view of the paucity of support services. Workers retired or retrenched under macro economic reforms are a new vulnerable group in the context of limited employment opportunities. Men suffer more psychologically in terms of lack of self esteem as displaced 'bread winners' and women who have contributed to family survival and maintenance have been compulsorily 'domesticated' without resources. Women are more vulnerable than men in the context of unequal gender relations in the family that have adverse implications for their life chances.

Two decades of conflict in the North and East have devastated communities and catapulted families into acute poverty. The recent tsunami disaster has exacerbated poverty in coastal districts as a consequence of loss of livelihoods. Women in female headed families in these communities as well as in other low income families have a greater struggle to survive and maintain families and are increasingly recognised as a special group in need of support.

Social protection for the poor in Sri Lanka has some contradictory features. In retrospect it appears that only universally implemented policies such as free education and health services have helped to reduce poverty and gender inequality. Programmes such as pensions, insurance and traditional public assistance schemes have reached only a minuscule proportion of the poor. Evaluation studies of state poverty alleviation programmes – Janasaviya and Samurdhi – indicate that they have been unsuccessful in reducing poverty substantially as they appear to have been conceptualised in the past as appendages to macro economic policies that lack a pro poor or gender perspective.

Challenges and Priorities for Development

The challenge to policy makers and co-operating agencies is to promote economic growth through modalities that will accelerate reduction in poverty levels so that around 80% to 90% of the population can be categorised as non poor in terms of all dimensions of poverty, over the next ten years. Concomitantly there is need to ensure national and household food security so that hunger will cease to be a threat even in difficult circumstances.

It will be seen from this effort at gender analysis of poverty that multi-faceted policies are required to achieve the two targets of the Millenium Development Goals by 2015.

In the context of a marginal decline in poverty in the 1990s, it is imperative that macro economic policies promote growth with equity by integrating pro poor development strategies in national policies, and by eliminating the bias against small producers that has been a barrier over decades to their exit from poverty. Pro poor policies need in particular to address the constraints of women in low income families who make a crucial contribution to the economy without adequate economic returns. They should ensure also that support services are provided to reduce women's unequal household burden and thereby to facilitate their economic activities.

A major area of concern is the blatant disparity between the poverty levels in the Western Province and the economically disadvantaged Uva and Sabaragamuwa Provinces and the conflict affected North and East. It is clear that economic development in recent decades has by passed these disadvantaged districts and has contributed to increasing regional polarisation. Intra – district disparities further compound the situation. The agriculture sector needs to be revitalised if poverty is to be reduced, and women who are relegated to unpaid family labour need to be given opportunities to enhance their contribution to family income through access to production inputs and income earning opportunities in the non farm sector in industry and services. Industrial and commercial enterprises have tended to be concentrated in the Western Province and in other urban centres, with the exception of the rural garment factories.

Women need assistance to graduate from micro enterprises which tend to perpetuate poverty, to at least small and medium enterprises, individually or in partnership with men. The digital divide is in danger of further polarising the urban and rural sectors, and unless focussed measures are introduced, the gender divide in this respect will widen, confining women to low skilled information and communication technologies. The social exclusion of the poor and barriers to the participation of women have to be countered by the development of infrastructure – roads, railway, electricity, services, safe water – in the rural sector. The increase in poverty in the estate sector despite the expected benefits of privatisation has to be examined, and in the context of the high labour force participation rates of estate women, gender specific constraints need to be identified inclusive of unequal gender relations in the family.

The state has the major responsibility for meeting basic needs such as education, health, and security. It has also to initiate and implement effective mechanisms for the social protection of the poor, from the marginalised destitutes to the 'working poor' women and men. A range of measures are required – social insurance schemes for workers, the self employed and the unemployed; incentives for the economic activities of poor women; ancillary services in education; nutritional supplementation to reduce micronutrient deficiencies, such as iron, iodine, and vitamins; and shelter and economic support for the elderly in low income families.

Rehabilitation programmes are being implemented in conflict affected areas and in the coastal areas devastated by the tsunami. Some areas in the North and East have been battered by political conflict and natural disaster and the challenge is to reach those deprived of access to livelihoods, basic services and infrastructure, and to incorporate women's concerns in these programmes.

An issue that has to be addressed by national level institutions that gather and analyse quantitative data is the inadequacy of sex disaggregated data for gender specific poverty analysis.

During the last few years the government supported by donor funds has carried out a massive exercise to develop a Poverty Reduction Strategy. This strategy was largely gender insensitive and its implementation has been delayed by the vicissitudes of political developments and the different stances of changing governments.

It is reassuring to note that the national policy embodied in the Mahinda Chintana of the government that was elected at the end of 2005, seeks to meet these challenges and has amongst its priorities pro poor policies that are envisaged to reduce social and economic disparities, create jobs, improve productivity, transfer technology, and increase the purchasing power of poor and women.

However, special efforts need to be made to sensitise the vast bureaucracy that will implement the strategy, to the importance of social equity and gender equality and the economic and social empowerment of poor women and men as a priority issue. The revision and implementation of the strategy should focus on

- (i) reducing the blatant disparities documented in surveys and research between the Western Province and the rest of the country,
- (ii) accelerating the implementation of programmes to improve the assets, livelihoods, incomes and food security of poor women and men, and their access to education and health services, and economic infrastructure particularly in the districts that have a high incidence of poverty, and
- (iii) strengthening programmes of assistance to women and men in special poverty groups in conflict affected areas and in communities affected by natural disasters that devastate parts of the country periodically, and new vulnerable poverty groups referred to earlier.

Such a programme involves all line ministries participating in the implementation of the strategy. These line ministries should build in pro poor and gender sensitive policies and programmes into their annual plans so that they become mainstreamed and are not implemented and dispensed with subsequently as special programmes. Currently women's concerns are most often invisible in the programmes of line ministries.

Among the state agencies that will be involved are those involved in land settlements, agriculture, large and small industries, micro enterprises, education, health, transport, telecommunications, power, water, sanitation, social services and rehabilitation. Adequate budgetary provision needs to be made to implement these programmes. Banks, most of which are unsympathetic to the poor, need to adopt measures to facilitate the access of the poor to credit. The Ministry of Social Services also has a role to play in mitigating factors that exacerbate poverty and not merely to provide relief. In this context social protection is a critical and largely undeveloped area in Sri Lanka. More detailed suggestions are made in subsequent sections on specific sectors.



**ACHIEVE UNIVERSAL
PRIMARY EDUCATION**

GOAL 2

BY SWARNA JAYAWEERA

Education

Goal 2 Achieve Universal Primary Education

Target 3	Ensure that by 2015, children everywhere, boys and girls, will be able to complete a full primary schooling
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Indicators	1990	2001	2015
6. Net enrolment ratio in primary school, 6-10 years	T 95.2 M 95.6 F 95.7 (1995/96)	T 96.4 M 97.1 F 95.6 (2002)	{ 99
7. Proportion of pupils in Grade 1 who reach Grade 5	T 91.7 M 91.7 F 92.7	T 97.6 M 96.9 F 98.3	{ 100
8. Literacy rate of 15-24 year olds	T 93.3 M 92.2 F 94.4	T 95.6 M 95.1 F 96.0	{ 99
*Net enrolment ratio 10-14 years	T 93.8 M 93.5 F 96.3	T 96.3 M 93.4 F 96.4	{ 99
*Proportion of pupils in Grade 1 who reach Grade 9	T 72.2 M 67.4 F 77.2	T 83.0 M 79.1 F 86.3	T 96.0 M 95.0 F 98.0

* New indicators

Sources: Department of Census and Statistics, Household Income and Expenditure Survey 1990/91, Census 2001; Ministry of Education and Higher Education, Planning Division

Status and Trends

Sri Lanka has been considered an 'outlier' in economically developing countries in its policies to extend educational opportunity, perceived over six decades ago both as a basic right as well as an instrument to reduce socio-economic inequalities. The introduction of free primary, secondary and tertiary, including university education and Grade 5 scholarships in the 1940s, followed by other incentives over the years such as subsidised transport to school, free textbooks, uniform material and intermittently, midday meals, not only increased education participation rates and promoted gender equality in access to general education but also helped to reduce poverty and other facets of gender inequality.

By 1980, around 85% of primary school children (6 – 10 years old), both boys and girls, were enrolled in schools. Since 1990s a momentum has been created by the ratification of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (1990), the international pressure for 'Education for All' since 1990, two National Plans of Action for Children in 1991 and in 2004, and the introduction belatedly of compulsory education legislation for the 5 – 14 age group in 1998 as a component of a package of education reforms. Nevertheless, reduction in social sector expenditure under the structural adjustment programmes introduced in 1979 and persistent poverty have prevented maximum utilisation of educational opportunities by low income families. Consequently Sri Lanka is very near to achieving universal primary education but has yet to realise this goal.

Total enrolment has declined in the 1990s as a result of falling birth rates with a decline from 1990 to 2002 of over 20% in the number of students in Grade 1. Net enrolment rates in the 6 – 10 age group have stagnated in the 1980s and 1990s, rising marginally from 95% in 1990/91 to 96% in 2002 (Department of Census and Statistics, HIES 1990/91 and 2002) for both boys and girls with a slightly higher percentage for boys (Tables 2.1 and 2.2). Factors that have impeded progress have been poverty, the indiscriminate closure of small schools that traditionally facilitated access to education in

villages, the marginalisation and neglect of the schools of the poor and lethargy in the implementation of compulsory education legislation. A veil of complacency caused by deceptively high gross enrolment rates of over 100% also explains the absence of purposeful action till the late 1990s.

Table 2.1
Enrolment Rates – Age (6 – 10 years)

	Year	
	1995/1996	2002
Sri Lanka	95.7	96.3
Sex		
Male	95.6	97.1
Female	95.7	95.6
Sector		
Urban	96.1	95.9
Rural	95.6	96.4

Sources: Department of Census and Statistics, Household Income and Expenditure Survey 1995/96 and 2002

Table 2.2
Net Primary Enrolment Ratio by District (6- 10 years)

District	1990	1995	2002
Colombo	95.84	96.02	95.3
Gampaha	96.39	95.25	97.9
Kalutara	92.84	96.05	97.7
Kandy	95.00	98.13	96.2
Matale	93.33	96.48	96.3
Nuwara Eliya	91.70	94.62	94.7
Galle	96.19	96.74	96.2
Matara	94.62	95.96	94.9
Hambantota	97.05	97.86	98.8
Jaffna	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Kilinochchi	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Mannar	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Vavuniya	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Mullaitivu	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Batticaloa	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Ampara	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Trincomalee	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Kurunegala	95.88	96.08	98.6
Puttalam	94.40	94.93	97.8
Anuradhapura	95.76	94.48	96.8
Polonnaruwa	98.63	97.52	95.9
Badulla	92.44	95.11	93.7
Moneragala	94.72	96.47	97.8
Ratnapura	95.48	95.38	94.1
Kegalle	97.43	94.74	95.0
Sri Lanka	95.20	95.94	96.3

Sources: Department of Census and Statistics, Household Income and Expenditure Survey 1990/91, 1995/96 and 2002

n.a. – not available

Retention rates in primary schools (Grade 5) however, have increased steadily from 91.7% in 1990 to 97.6% in 2001 as a consequence of declining 'dropout' rates. While a slightly higher percentage of boys than girls in the relevant age group enter Grade 1, more boys than girls - 3.50% and 3.05% in 1990 and 0.81% and 0.54% in 2000 - dropped out of school, and a higher percentage of girls completed primary education - 92.70% girls and 90.70% boys in 1990 and 98.30% girls and 96.90% boys in 2001 (Table 2.3).

The increase in enrolment and retention rates is reflected in the rise in youth literacy rates in the 15 – 24 age group from 92.7% in 1990 (94% female and 92% male literacy) to 95.6% in 2001 – (96.0% female and 95.1% male literacy) with minimal gender differences (Table 2.4).

Table 2.3
Primary Schooling Retention Rate by District (Percentage)

District	1990			1996			2001		
	Primary	Male	Female	Primary	Male	Female	Primary	Male	Female
Colombo	96.4	95.0	97.8	99.8	99.7	100.0	99.9	100.0	100.0
Gampaha	99.0	98.7	99.8	94.9	93.8	96.1	96.8	96.1	97.1
Kalutara	94.9	93.7	96.2	97.0	95.9	98.2	97.8	97.7	98.0
Kandy	96.4	96.2	96.5	97.7	97.1	98.3	99.9	100.0	100.0
Matale	91.8	91.3	92.3	92.4	90.5	94.4	97.1	97.8	99.2
N'Elia	73.6	74.1	73.2	78.0	78.6	77.3	96.7	96.8	96.1
Galle	95.0	94.8	95.2	96.0	94.8	97.3	98.5	98.2	100.0
Matara	91.4	90.4	92.4	95.4	94.4	96.4	98.3	97.3	99.3
Hambantota	87.5	86	89.0	95.2	93.4	97.2	98.2	95.5	99.5
Jaffna	84.4	84	84.7	*	*	*	96.1	96.0	99.4
Kilinochchi	90.8	87.3	94.7	*	20.2	21.3	89.9	95.8	95.4
Mannar	*	*	*	65.6	65.1	66.0	82.2	88.9	80.8
Vavuniya	15.1	16.1	14.0	*	*	*	90.0	82.1	72.1
Mullaitivu	*	*	*	*	*	*	91.2	95.7	97.6
Batticalo	*	*	*	*	*	*	91.0	89.9	90.7
Ampara	*	*	*	*	*	*	95.2	94.0	93.6
Trincomalee	76.2	70.7	75.9	89.3	95.8	92.7	97.9	98.5	96.9
Kurunegala	92.8	91.4	94.3	96.3	94.9	97.8	97.0	93.3	98.0
Puttalam	*	*	*	92.7	90.7	95.0	97.6	98.7	97.1
Anuradhapura	99.0	99.0	99.0	95.6	93.1	98.4	98.7	98.5	98.8
Polonnaruwa	99.4	95.7	99.8	87.5	85.2	89.8	94.8	93.3	96.1
Badulla	84.7	82.7	87.0	91.3	88.9	93.8	98.4	96.9	99.2
Moneragala	95.2	95.6	94.7	92.6	92.1	93.2	97.1	95.7	99.2
Ratnapura	88.2	87.4	89.1	89.1	86.5	92.1	96.4	94.8	97.1
Kegalle	93.5	92	95.0	93.8	92.5	95.1	98.2	97.4	98.8
Sri Lanka	91.7	90.7	92.7	94.8	94.7	95.8	97.6	96.9	98.3

* data not reliable

Source: Ministry of Education and Higher Education, Planning Division

These national level statistics however conceal district wise disparities in enrolment, retention and youth literacy. The lowest rates in the 1990s and the widest gender gap have been in the plantation districts of Nuwara Eliya, Badulla and Ratnapura as a result of their historical educational disadvantage over decades in colonial estate enclaves and male dominance in plantation families, Moneragala, the most disadvantaged district in the country, and Puttalam and Ampara with their concentrations of rural

Muslim communities. Micro studies have shown that educational deprivation is not pervasive in Sri Lanka but is concentrated in pockets of disadvantage – low income urban neighbourhoods or shanties, remote rural villages and plantations (Rupasinghe, 1992; Kularatne et al., 1992; Jayaweera, Sanmugam and Ratnapala, 2002; Gunawardene and Jayaweera, 2004). Non formal 'Literacy Centres' have been opened since the 1980s to offer a 'second chance' and opportunity for lateral entry to formal schools for out of school children but they have suffered from ad hoc distribution and limited resources.

Table 2.4
Youth Literacy Rates by District (15-24 years)

District	1990	1995	2001
Colombo	94.42	96.62	95.3
Gampaha	96.93	94.92	97.3
Kalutara	91.77	96.42	96.0
Kandy	90.67	96.92	96.4
Matale	90.52	95.44	95.1
Nuwara Eliya	82.36	89.68	91.8
Galle	92.94	94.77	96.2
Matara	94.01	95.86	95.5
Hambantota	90.42	95.77	96.6
Jaffna	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Kilinochchi	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Mannar	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Vavuniya	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Mullaitivu	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Batticaloa	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Ampara	n.a.	n.a.	93.5
Trincomalee	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Kurunegala	95.75	96.64	96.7
Puttalam	93.10	96.64	94.2
Anuradhapura	93.53	96.53	96.1
Polonnaruwa	89.49	96.43	95.2
Badulla	89.24	86.37	93.9
Moneragala	90.32	89.05	94.5
Ratnapura	89.82	94.01	94.1
Kegalle	94.94	93.69	95.8
Sri Lanka	92.73	94.89	95.6

Sources: Department of Census and Statistics, Household Income and Expenditure Survey 1990/91, 1995/96 and Census 2001

n.a. – not available

Comprehensive data are not available from the North and East, but clearly non enrolment and dropout (estimated as 15% in the Survey by National Institute of Education) have been exacerbated by devastation of homes and infrastructure, displacement of families, closure of schools, lack of human resources, absence of facilities in 'welfare centers,' sudden poverty, insecurity and the trauma of conflict (ADB, UN and World Bank, 2003). Parts of Moneragala, Polonnaruwa, Anuradhapura and Puttalam districts have been affected adversely as the conflict spilled over to them. The recent tsunami disaster has destroyed 176 schools in the affected coastal areas, damaged others and has had an adverse impact on access to and quality of education. Female headed households are the most vulnerable in these areas and in all poor communities.

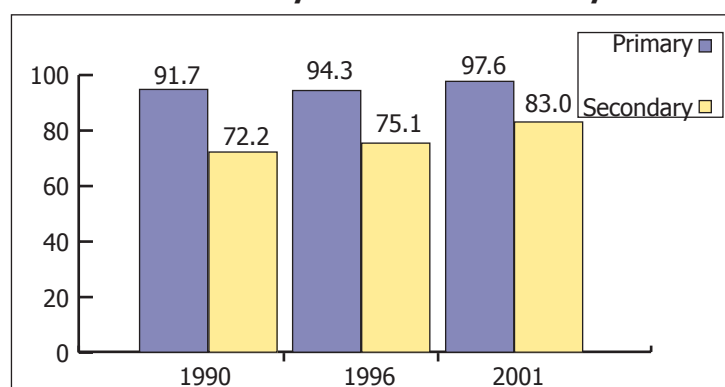
The inequitable distribution of schools and teachers district wise and within districts has been a barrier to promoting equal opportunity in education. Small schools with less than a hundred students have increased from 20.7% of all schools in 1990 to 26.5% in 2000 and over 40% of the schools in some districts belong to this category of the schools of the poor. These schools have been neglected over the years resulting in dropping out, closure of such schools and non schooling for those who lack access to other schools, particularly in remote areas and difficult terrain in the case of girls.

Resource constraints have led to the decline in the quality of education provided in schools as seen in Education For All (EFA) Assessments of mastery in literacy and numeracy. The primary education reforms introduced in 1998 as a pilot project in Gampaha district and island wide grade by grade in 1999 – 2003 have attempted to address the issue of low achievement levels and have developed Essential Learning Competencies for this purpose.

As the barriers to rapid progress are not insuperable, it should be possible to achieve universal primary education or 99% achievement by 2015 if committed action is taken to meet the needs of low income families, and deprived groups such as 'street children,' destitute children, working children and children with disabilities, and to enforce the existing compulsory education legislation.

It should be noted that the vision of Sri Lankan policy makers in the 1940s extended beyond primary education to the stages in the education system that are likely to promote upward socio-economic mobility. The Education Ordinance of 1939 proposed compulsory education to 14 years and the Education Ordinance of 1947 to 16 years. Compulsory education regulations for the 5 – 14 age group were introduced in 1998.

Figure 2.1
Retention Rates – Primary and Junior Secondary Education



Source: Ministry of Education and Higher Education, Planning Division

A proposal was made by the National Education Commission in 2003 (National Education Commission, 2003) and in the National Plan of Action for Children (Sri Lanka. Department of National Planning, 2004) to extend the current age limit of compulsory education to 16 years.

Although disparities in provision and enrolment exist, relative progress has been made particularly in junior secondary education (10 - 14 years). Female and male enrolment rates were 96.4% and 93.5% in 2001, and retention rates to Grade 9 have increased from 72.2% in 1990 to 83.0% in 2001, with a female retention rate of 86.3% and a male retention rate of 79.1% in 2001 (Figure 2.1). Retention rates at the end of junior secondary education have risen in the educationally disadvantaged plantation districts of Nuwara Eliya, Badulla and Ratnapura, and in Moneragala, Hambantota, Matale and Kegalle (Table 2.5). Parental aspirations are high for both girls and boys. Urban and rural literacy rates for young men in 2001 have been 94.9% and 95.7%, and for young women 96.0% and 96.9% (Department of Census and Statistics, Census 2001). Even in the disadvantaged estate sector the district with the lowest rate, Nuwara Eliya had a youth literacy rate of 91.8% in 2001 (Table 2.4). Reliable data are not available however from conflict affected areas in the North and East.

Table 2.5
Retention Rates 1990, 1996 and 2001 - Junior Secondary Education

District	1990			1996			2001		
	Secondary	Male	Female	Secondary	Male	Female	Secondary	Male	Female
Colombo	79.0	76.5	81.7	91.7	96.5	93.5	91.8	88.8	94.2
Gampaha	81.6	78.4	90.0	79.1	75.9	82.6	83.0	81.6	86.0
Kalutara	76.4	72.5	85.0	76.1	71.2	81.4	84.5	81.6	85.3
Kandy	81.8	78.9	84.7	81.1	76.3	86.2	85.0	84.8	91.2
Matale	71.5	67.0	75.9	71.7	66.3	77.5	79.8	77.9	87.5
N'Eliya	52.6	48.6	57.3	48.7	44.9	52.7	67.8	84.7	76.7
Galle	77.2	73.6	80.8	79.6	75.6	83.8	85.3	82.4	96.1
Matara	73.4	67.3	79.9	76.7	70.6	83.2	86.7	82.8	90.5
Hambantota	67.2	59.4	75.2	75.3	68.7	82.2	87.5	80.2	92.0
Jaffna	60.7	55.3	66.4	*	*	*	90.7	84.2	94.0
Kilinochchi	68.4	53.1	87.9	*	*	*	75.3	72	82.3
Mannar	*	*	*	38.7	33.3	44.4	59.2	72.5	80.9
Vavuniya	10.1	8.70	11.3	*	*	*	66.7	56.2	52.9
Mullaitivu	*	*	*	*	*	*	69.0	70.2	80.9
Batalo	*	*	*	*	*	*	65.1	59.3	70.1
Ampara	*	*	*	*	*	*	69.9	68.4	71.6
Trincomalee	49.0	49.5	48.6	59.8	66.7	59.0	84.9	71.1	72.6
Kurunegala	74.9	69.7	80.5	77.3	72.1	82.9	83.2	79.7	90.0
Puttalam	*	*	*	59.1	56.3	62.2	65.3	64.8	72.8
Anuradhapura	81.5	79.2	92.3	75.2	69.4	81.4	80.1	78.8	85.6
Polonnaruwa	81.1	77.7	90.5	62.8	58.5	67.4	82.2	74.7	83.1
Badulla	65.3	60.0	71.0	67.7	60.5	75.6	80.0	77.1	86.5
Moneragala	72.1	71	77.6	69.9	64.6	75.4	83.2	75.8	84.9
Ratnapura	67.5	61.2	74.0	70.6	62.8	79.1	81.5	76.0	86.6
Kegalle	76.4	69.4	83.9	78.4	73.4	83.7	85.7	85.4	90.0
Sri Lanka	72.2	67.4	77.2	75.1	71.6	81.4	83.0	79.1	86.3

* data not reliable

Source: Ministry of Education and Higher Education, Planning Division

In this context, it would be desirable to extend the goal for Sri Lanka or to have a second tier goal of universal junior secondary education or universal education of the compulsory age group (5 – 14 years) by 2015. Such a goal would provide momentum to dispel inertia and to activate the relevant agencies. It would be possible then to move towards achieving over 90% enrolment of the 15 – 16 age group by 2025. National surveys have found that there is a positive correlation between rising educational levels and increased incomes (Department of Census and Statistics, HIES, 2002). Poverty studies have found that dropping out of school before reaching the GCE O/L or Grade 11 prevents access to stable jobs and incomes and to upward occupational and socio-economic mobility (Jayaweera, Sanmugam and Amarasuriya, 2004). A World Bank study estimated that the incidence of poverty declined with rising education levels – no schooling (45%), primary education (30%), junior secondary education (21%), GCE O/L (7%), GCE A/L (2%), university education (1%) (World Bank, 2005). There is clearly a two way relationship between education and poverty. Low enrolment in senior secondary education appears to have affected also Sri Lanka's rank in the Human Development Index and Gender Development Index.

Challenges and Priorities for Development

The challenge to policy makers and administrators is to accelerate action to achieve universal primary education or 99% achievement by around 2010, to move towards universal junior secondary education

to (Grade 9) by 2015, and to implement measures to increase enrolment and retention to Grade 11 or to 16 years as early as possible. Sri Lanka needs to revive the momentum that resulted in an explosion in enrolment in the 1950s and 1960s. Such a stimulus has been offered by the assurance in the Mahinda Chintana of continuing the provision of free education and the existing incentives including free midday meals and additional transport subsidies, increased support to Grade 5 scholars and university Mahapola scholars, and an equitable distribution of education facilities such as well equipped schools in rural areas, science education facilities and qualified teachers. For this purpose a crucial component of the ongoing education reforms should be a time bound plan to remove as many barriers identified in studies as possible. Such a strategy should have several components.

Of prime importance is the task of reducing and eventually eliminating the inter district and intra district disparities in educational provision, enrolment, retention and performance. A primary school within two kilometres and a secondary school within four to five kilometres of residence has been a long established goal which appears to have been aborted by the closure of small schools in the 1990s without adequate consideration of the reasons for declining enrolment in these schools (National Education Commission, 2003). A programme to develop one or two well equipped schools in each administrative division on the model of the Central Schools of the 1940s has been in progress since the mid 1990s but has been stymied by the selection of the schools on non educational criteria. At one end of the spectrum, the equitable distribution of secondary schools with facilities for science education (currently only in around 6% of the schools), is a priority as students and girls in particular appear to be disadvantaged by the lack of such schools in the periphery in districts. At the other end, a strategy needs to be formulated to nurture the small schools that are the main agents of educational opportunity in remote or disadvantaged communities.

Poverty has been a major reason for non enrolment and early school leaving. Hence it is important that current policies of free state education, and the provision of support services such as scholarships, textbooks, uniform material and midday meal for the needy continue and be supplemented by transport facilities in remote areas. Overall, educational expenditure has declined from around 5% of GDP in the 1960s to 2% - 3%. It is necessary that allocation for education should increase in the near future to 5% of GDP and at least 16% of the national budget, and that positive discrimination in the distribution of financial resources in favour of disadvantaged districts be given due attention.

The compulsory education regulations (5 – 14 years) have not been enforced with vigour and zeal and the creation or reactivation of mechanisms to bring all children within the ambit of the school system should receive priority. In this process the currently invisible vulnerable groups of out of school children, such as those with disabilities, the destitute and abandoned including those living on streets, and working children, need to be identified and provided for in an inclusive approach to participation in education. The state should also extend the compulsory education regulation to 16 years in the near future in order to reduce poverty, to prevent wastage of human potential and to energise the administration, particularly at local level.

The quality of education is a major concern and curriculum revision is in progress. Implementation of curriculum reform however is dependent on parallel improvement in teacher education programmes, and in the provision of adequate incentives for teachers to work in difficult areas and outside urban centres to ensure a more equitable distribution of qualified teachers. Gender sensitive curriculum revision should be placed on the reform agenda.

Special attention has to be given to areas affected by the ethnic conflict, to ascertain conditions as recent national surveys have not covered many of these areas, and to channel rehabilitation programmes to restore damaged infrastructure in conflict and tsunami affected areas. A survey in conflict affected areas by the National Institute of Education (2003) has reported a drop out rate of 15% which is far above the national rate. The recent tsunami disaster has destroyed or damaged schools and deprived children of access to education even temporarily. It is imperative therefore to meet the need for human resources, and to strengthen the 'catch up' programmes that have been introduced to fill the lacunae of around two decades of exclusion in some areas in the North and East.

The non formal education programme has to be strengthened to meet island wide needs, partly as a transition measure in locations in which non schooling is concentrated.

Education, however, does not take place in a vacuum. Hence a synergy of effort, including the proposed macro economic policies to reduce poverty and to increase incomes is essential to universalise education.



**PROMOTE GENDER
EQUALITY AND
EMPOWER WOMEN**

GOAL 3

BY SWARNA JAYaweera

Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women

Goal 3 Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women

Target 4	Eliminate gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2005 and in all levels of education no later than 2015
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Indicators	1990	2002	2015
9. Ratio of girls to boys in			
(a) primary	93.1	94.8	100
(b) secondary	104.9	104.6	104
(c) tertiary education	66.2	89.8 (2001)	100
10. Ratio of literate women to men 15 – 24 years old	98.0	109.0 (2001)	109
11. Share of women in wage employment in the non agricultural sector	29	31	50
12. Proportion of seats held by women in national parliaments	5.3 (1994)	4.9 (2004)	10.0
*Female and Male unemployment rates	F 23.9 M 9.1	F 14.8 M 7.3	F 6.0 M 4.0
*Percentage of women of the labour force in salaried/wage employment	55.1	58.8	65.0
*Percentage of women in technology related courses, courses in universities	11.9	16.4	30.0
*Percentage of women and men in managerial / senior administrative level jobs	F 0.9 M 1.7 (1994)	F 0.9 M 1.5	F 10.0 M 10.0

* new indicators

Sources: Ministry of Education and Higher Education, Annual School Census 1990 and 2002; Department of Census and Statistics, Census 2001, Labour Force Survey 1990 (all island) and 2002; University Grants Commission, Statistical Hand Book 1990, Sri Lanka University Statistics 2002

As gender is a cross cutting issue the achievement of this goal will be critical to the achievement of the other seven goals and will reinforce the gender perspective integrated in other sections of this study on poverty, education, health, environment and development co-operation, thereby creating a synergy for action. It underscores also the importance of mainstreaming gender concerns in national development policies and programmes. In view of the fact that the Millennium Declaration and the Outcome Document of the World Summit in 2005 are in consonance with the provisions of the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination (CEDAW) and the thirteen critical areas of action of the Beijing Platform for Action, a rights based approach is required to examine the current situation in Sri Lanka with regard to progress made in promoting gender equality and in empowering women, and to identify gaps that need to be addressed.

Status and Trends

The four indicators identified initially do not capture the different facets of this goal. Eliminating gender disparities at all levels of the education system is important in terms of gender equality but is an inadequate indicator particularly if it is juxtaposed with low participation rates or low achievement. Further, as education develops human capabilities, and most importantly personhood, it has to be perceived in a wider sense as an agent of empowerment. It also follows that gender equality in the labour market is necessary for economic empowerment and that participation in decision making in

the public and private spheres is a measure of political and individual empowerment. Hence there is need to add indicators based on national level statistics pertaining to more aspects of gender equality in the labour market and in the power structure. There are also the facets of gender equality and empowerment that cannot be quantified easily such as women's rights, legal status, violence against women and gender roles and relations in the private sphere of the family that determine the degree of women's empowerment.

This study will therefore examine from a rights perspective –

- (i) gender disparities in education, literacy and skills development,
- (ii) the position of women and men in the labour market,
- (iii) access to decision making position in the public sphere,
- (iv) women's rights,
- (v) gender based violence, and
- (vi) gender roles and relations in the family as they effect women and men.

Gender Equality in Access to Education

Education facilitates access to resources such as information, knowledge and skills and enhances capability to use them, to make choices, to improve life chances and to develop self confidence and autonomy. It is, therefore, an instrument to reduce gender and socio-economic inequalities as well as an agent of empowerment.

Table 3.1
Female to Male Ratio in Primary Education

District	1990	1996	2000
Colombo	95.6	94.8	93.7
Gampaha	93.8	94.6	96.6
Kalutara	92.2	94.3	95.2
Kandy	93.5	94.2	96.0
Matale	91.5	92.2	0.95
Nuwara Eliya	89.7	93.8	94.1
Galle	92.4	93.5	92.9
Matara	90.8	90.8	91.9
Hambantota	92.5	92.4	93.9
Jaffna	96.2	92.6	93.3
Kilinochchi	94.0	93.9	96.8
Mannar	95.6	93.9	95.9
Vavuniya	92.7	93.8	96.8
Mullaitivu	91.0	96.0	95.9
Batticaloa	95.8	94.7	97.0
Ampara	92.5	93.9	93.7
Trincomalee	93.3	95.0	95.6
Kurunegala	92.5	92.1	93.7
Puttalam	93.0	91.7	94.8
Anuradhapura	94.3	92.4	95.1
Polonnaruwa	92.1	93.4	95.7
Badulla	91.6	95.1	96.4
Moneragala	93.6	94.3	96.0
Ratnapura	93.6	93.3	94.5
Kegalle	92.1	94.5	95.6
Sri Lanka	93.1	93.6	94.8

Sources: Ministry of Education, School Census 1990, 1996 and 2000

As referred to under Goal 2 the right to education has been recognised for over six decades in Sri Lanka and free education and related incentives have promoted gender equality in the access of most socio-economic groups to education at all levels. It is not surprising therefore that the first two indicators of Goal 3, the elimination of gender disparities in primary, secondary and tertiary education and in youth literacy have been virtually achieved in Sri Lanka. It is strange that gender equality and universalisation has not been achieved in primary education after so many years. The ratio of girls to boys in primary education has improved from 93.1 to 94.8 with minimal district wise gender differences. Even Nuwara Eliya district, which had a gender female/male ratio of only 89.7 in 1990 has had the same ratio as other districts in 1995 and 2000 (Table 3.1). The gender difference at this stage is largely due to the fact that slightly more boys enter the school at Grade 1, due perhaps to the location of some schools in difficult terrain in remote areas.

The situation changes in secondary education (Table 3.2) as more boys than girls drop out in primary and secondary grades (Tables 3.3 and 3.4) and retention rates of girls are higher than that of boys.

- (i) 92.7% girls and 90.7% boys in 1990, and 98.3% girls and 96.9% boys in 2001, at the end of primary education (Grade 5), and
- (ii) 77.2% girls and 67.4% boys in 1990, and 86.3 % girls and 78.1% boys in 2001 at the end of junior secondary education (Grade 9) (Refer Tables 2.3, 2.5, 3.4 and 3.5).

Table 3.2
Female to Male Ratio in Secondary Education

District	1990	1996	2000
Colombo	97.1	97.2	94.8
Gampaha	101.8	99.9	103.5
Kalutara	106.6	105.2	106.7
Kandy	107.8	105.5	105.4
Matale	107.8	105.2	105.6
Nuwara Eliya	95.7	103.4	104.6
Galle	109.3	105.0	104.9
Matara	109.7	104.9	106.2
Hambantota	112.4	110.0	110.7
Jaffna	107.7	108.5	107.0
Kilinochchi	105.7	113.5	111.2
Mannar	100.7	109.9	108.8
Vavuniya	105.1	107.2	110.8
Mullaitivu	105.5	110.3	113.2
Batticaloa	107.2	106.4	107.9
Ampara	93.5	096.5	97.6
Trincomalee	91.7	088.6	92.1
Kurunegala	106.8	105.1	104.7
Puttalam	101.2	101.7	100.3
Anuradhapura	103.1	105.4	104.3
Polonnaruwa	106.8	104.8	105.1
Badulla	104.1	106.9	108.0
Moneragala	111.4	108.8	109.4
Ratnapura	112.3	111.8	112.8
Kegalle	108.7	107.0	106.8
Sri Lanka	104.9	104.5	104.6

Sources: Ministry of Education, School Census 1990, 1996 and 2000

Primary education retention rates are lower particularly for boys in Hambantota, Kurunegala, Polonnaruwa, Badulla, Moneragala and Ratnapura and gender disparities are wider at junior secondary level as more boys drop out of schools and girls tend to stay on in school, partly because they have less access to employment than boys (Tables 2.3 and 2.5). Sex disaggregated retention data are not available with respect to senior secondary education.

Table 3.3
Female to Male Ratio among Literate Youth (15-24 years)

District	1990	1995	2001
Colombo	100.0	106.0	101.7
Gampaha	98.0	102.0	101.1
Kalutara	104.0	94.0	101.7
Kandy	100.0	96.0	100.1
Matale	93.0	100.0	101.8
Nuwara Eliya	103.0	89.0	98.2
Galle	104.0	109.0	101.0
Matara	92.0	108.0	101.2
Hambantota	97.0	113.0	101.5
Jaffna	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Kilinochchi	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Mannar	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Vavuniya	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Mullaitivu	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Batticaloa	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Ampara	n.a.	n.a.	100.0.
Trincomalee	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Kurunegala	92.0	107.0	101.2
Puttalam	102.0	108.0	101.5
Anuradhapura	93.0	83.0	101.4
Polonnaruwa	92.0	88.0	101.6
Badulla	100.0	94.0	100.2
Moneragala	103.0	96.0	101.5
Ratnapura	100.0	95.0	101.2
Kegalle	97.0	101.0	101.5
Sri Lanka	98.0	100.0	100.9

Sources: Department of Census and Statistics, Household Income and Expenditure Survey 1990/91, 1995/96 and Census 2001

n.a. – not available

Table 3.4
Dropout by Sex in Government Schools 1989/1990

District	Sub Total Years 2 -5			Sub Total Years 6-8		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Colombo	3.28	2.34	2.34	6.17	4.45	5.33
Gampaha	2.62	2.95	2.78	5.15	4.46	4.81
Kalutara	1.72	1.35	1.54	5.35	4.53	4.95
<Western>	2.65	1.96	2.32	5.62	4.47	5.06
Kandy	3.55	2.59	5.09	7.14	4.5	5.98
Matale	2.99	2.64	2.82	7.84	4.66	6.27
Nuwara Eliya	3.82	3.31	5.15	8.23	4.97	6.7
<Central>	3.28	2.81	3.06	7.72	4.65	6.22
Galle	2.14	1.67	1.91	5.77	3.67	4.72
Matara	3.3	2.62	2.97	6.7	4.76	5.5
Tangalle	3.19	2.48	2.82	7.32	4.36	5.83
<Southern>	2.8	2.18	2.5	6.45	4.04	5.26
Jaffna	2.34	1.94	2.14	5.74	5.07	5.41
Kilinochchi	2.93	7.38	7.15	12.43	9.51	11.03
Mannar	7.38	8.82	8.09	15.34	10.69	13.12
Mullativu	7.37	7.92	7.63	10.52	7.85	9.19
Vavuniya	9.89	8.19	9.07	12.77	10.95	11.55
<Northern>	4.52	4.32	4.42	8.00	6.55	7.28
Batticaloa	9.41	7.95	8.69	14.91	14.26	17.58
Ampara	8.57	6.31	6.45	3.25	9.41	8.81
Trincomalee	8.62	8.56	8.59	12.81	14.64	13.67
<Eastern>	7.99	7.42	7.71	11.33	12.2	11.76
Kurunagale	2.23	2.59	2.4	5.73	3.9	4.82
Chillow	4.61	3.75	4.19	9.76	8.63	9.23
<North Western>	2.99	2.96	2.97	6.87	5.24	6.07
Andradhapura	2.78	2.12	2.46	6.69	5.53	6.11
Polonnaruwa	2.23	2.97	2.59	7.05	4.95	6.01
<North Central>	2.61	2.37	2.5	6.79	5.37	6.08
Bandarawela	3.09	3.27	3.18	7.98	4.93	6.49
Monaragala	2.48	2.19	2.34	10.23	6.17	8.2
<Uva>	2.88	2.88	2.88	8.75	5.37	7.09
Ratnapura	3.06	2.23	2.66	8.88	4.26	6.56
Kegalle	3.21	3.03	3.12	5.82	4.26	5.05
<Sabaragamuwa>	3.11	2.57	2.86	7.59	4.26	5.89
Sri Lanka	3.45	3.03	3.25	7.2	5.3	6.27

Source: Ministry of Education, Planning Division

Note: Provinces indicated in bold text

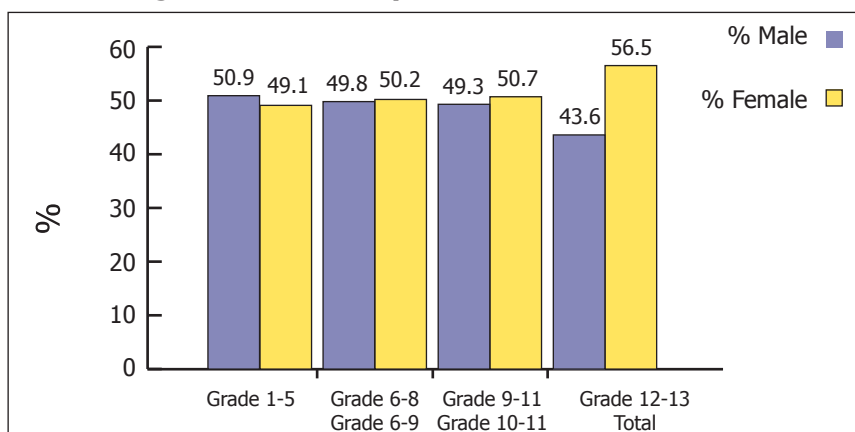
Table 3.5
Dropout Rates by Gender and Grade in Government Schools – 2000

District	Grades 1-5			Grades 1-10		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Colombo	-0.64	-0.27	-0.46	1.40	1.41	1.41
Gampaha	0.98	0.27	0.80	2.13	1.60	1.87
Kalutara	0.31	0.06	0.19	2.38	1.47	1.93
<Western>	0.19	0.14	0.17	1.90	1.50	1.70
Kandy	0.18	-0.46	-0.13	2.54	1.14	1.85
Matala	0.78	0.70	0.74	2.89	1.90	2.41
Nuwara Eliya	1.47	1.63	1.55	4.42	3.71	4.07
<Central>	0.71	0.43	0.57	3.18	2.08	2.64
Galle	0.59	1.27	0.92	2.55	2.29	2.42
Matara	0.27	0.02	0.15	2.15	1.39	1.78
Hambantota	1.03	0.22	0.64	3.21	1.83	2.53
<Southern>	0.60	0.60	0.60	2.58	1.88	2.24
Jaffna	-1.50	-2.24	-1.86	0.57	-1.44	-0.42
Kilinochchi	4.60	4.10	4.35	8.15	6.68	7.42
Mannar	0.76	-1.95	-0.54	2.74	0.25	1.51
Vavuniya	1.67	-1.60	0.08	5.33	2.50	3.93
Mullaitivu	4.09	4.37	4.23	7.80	6.19	6.99
<Northern>	1.06	-0.09	0.50	3.72	1.71	2.72
Batticaloa	3.01	1.48	2.26	6.38	4.62	5.50
Ampara	1.35	1.45	1.40	4.36	3.76	4.07
Trincomalee	1.27	0.85	1.07	4.06	3.27	3.68
<Eastern>	1.86	1.31	1.59	4.89	3.91	4.41
Kurunegala	0.05	-0.11	-0.02	1.90	1.19	1.55
Puttalam	1.31	1.06	1.19	3.95	3.96	3.96
<North Western>	0.50	0.31	0.41	2.60	2.13	2.37
Anuradhapura	1.12	0.58	0.86	3.99	2.98	3.49
Polonnaruwa	2.07	1.96	2.02	4.68	3.52	4.11
<North Central>	1.41	1.01	1.22	4.20	3.15	3.68
Badulla	1.44	0.98	1.21	3.82	2.57	3.19
Monaragala	0.26	0.47	0.36	3.57	2.30	2.93
<Uva>	1.01	0.80	0.91	3.73	2.47	3.10
Ratnapura	1.25	0.86	1.06	3.74	2.07	2.91
Kegalla	0.82	0.82	0.82	2.49	1.69	2.10
<Sabaragamuwa>	1.07	0.84	0.96	3.22	1.91	2.57
Sri Lanka	0.81	0.54	0.68	3.06	2.16	2.62

Source: Ministry of Education, Planning Division

Note: Provinces indicated in bold text

Figure 3. 1
Percentage of Girls and Boys of Total Enrolment in Schools



Source: Ministry of Education, School Census 2004

Computation of the percentage of girls of total enrolment at different levels in the school system too shows that the percentage of girls is higher at senior secondary level - 49.1% in Grades 1 – 5, 50.2% in Grades 6 – 9, 50.7% in Grades 10 – 11, and 56.5% in Grades 12 and 13 in 2004, with little change from 1990 (Table 3.6 and Figure 3.1). Inevitably the female/male ratios in enrolment in secondary education (Grade 6 – 13) were 104.9 in 1990 and 104.6 in 2000 (Table 3.2). It is only in Colombo District that the percentage of boys exceeds that of girls, perhaps as a result of the influx of boys to Colombo schools from outside Colombo.

Table 3.6
Enrolment in Schools

	1990			2001			2004		
	Female	Total	% Female	Female	Total	% Female	Female	Total	% Female
Grade 1 - 5	100,337	2,081,082	48.2	864,170	1,775,700	48.7	794,021	1,617,419	49.0
Grade 6 - 8	485,993	982,792	49.5	493,651	1,005,422	49.1	683,089	1,362,028	50.2
Grade 9 - 11	449,844	866,011	51.9	513,631	1,010,338	50.8	319,749	630,065	50.7
Grade 12 – 13 Arts	51,939	74,498	69.7	131,240	196,881	66.0	85,040	129,461	65.7
Grade 12 – 13 Commerce	26,664	51,907	51.4	55,203	112,781	48.9	40,957	83,694	48.9
Grade 12 – 13 Science	24,867	54,982	45.2	42,403	90,786	46.7	30,130	63,094	47.8
Grade 12 – 13 Total	103,470	181,387	57.0	228,846	402,448	56.9	156,127	276,249	56.5
Grade 1 - 13	2,042,644	4,111,272	49.7	2,100,298	4,193,908	50.1	193,493	3,870,639	50.0

Sources: Ministry of Education, Annual School Census 1990, 2001 and 2004

Conflict affected areas in the North and East have a similar pattern of lower enrolment rates for girls in primary education and a higher rate for girls in secondary education. Retention rates however are much lower than in other districts as more children have dropped out of schools (Tables 3.1 – 3.4). It has been estimated that the dropout rate in the North and East is 15%, a figure several times higher than the national rate (National Institute of Education, 2003). It is necessary to rehabilitate damaged buildings and to re-open schools to return to normalcy in these areas. Although damage to schools and displacement and disruption in families denied children access to education temporarily after the tsunami, this setback is unlikely to prevent the achievement of the second and third goals with respect to education in the context of several decades of positive development and the educational aspirations of most parents.

At the tertiary level, the absence of planning within a holistic framework makes it impossible to compute an overall figure. It is disturbing however that only 2% to 3% of young women and men in the relevant age cohort are in national state universities.

Table 3.7a
University Admission by Sex 1990/91 & 2004/05

	1990/91				2004/2005			
	T	M	F	% F	T	M	F	% F
Arts	2,387	880	1,507	63.3	4,363	1,259	3,104	71.1
Management Studies	653	368	285	43.6	2,560	1,307	1,253	48.9
Commerce	804	421	383	47.6	320	154	166	51.9
Law	189	86	103	59.5	225	56	169	75.1
Science	1,256	721	535	42.6	3,087	1,846	1,241	40.2
Medicine	828	471	357	43.1	911	418	493	54.1
Dental Science	73	41	32	43.8	78	34	44	56.4
Veterinary Medicine	45	19	26	57.8	77	33	44	57.1
Agriculture	289	155	134	46.4	786	313	473	60.2
Engineering	636	569	67	10.5	1,089	888	201	18.5
Architecture	46	21	25	54.4	184	81	103	55.9
Quantity Surveying	35	31	04	11.4				
Computer Science and Information Technology	-	-	-	-	398	297	101	25.4
Indigenous Medicine	-	-	-	-	283	91	192	67.8
Food Science	-	-	-	-	129	62	67	51.9
Nursing	-	-	-	-	30	12	18	60.0
Total	7,145	3,780	3,458	47.7	14,520	6,851	7,669	52.8

Sources: University Grants Commission, Statistical Hand Book 1990, University Statistics 2005

At the institutional level, gender disparities have declined in universities as the percentage of women students enrolled has increased from 42.9% in 1990/91 to 54.5% in 2004/2005 (Tables 3.7a and 3.7b). The percentage of women in institutions preparing for employment in the services sector has been high over the years - 65% to 69% in National Colleges of Education, and around at least half in the Law College, and in institutions delivering courses in accountancy. Educational opportunity is limited at this level as universities lack space to admit all qualified students and there are few alternative opportunities to university education. The alternative facilities that have expanded are chiefly in the private sector so that only the affluent have access to them.

Table 3.7b
University Enrolment 1990/91 & 2004/05

Academic Stream	1990/91				2004/05			
	M	F	T	% F	M	F	T	% F
Arts	4,615	5,051	9,666	52.3	6,502	14,579	21,081	69.2
Commerce/ Management Studies	3,279	2,626	5,905	44.5	6,995	6,908	13,903	49.7
Law	455	512	967	52.9	1,524	1,599	3,123	51.2
Science/IT	3,385	2,410	5,795	41.6	6,803	6,730	13,533	49.7
Medicine	2,092	1,523	3,615	42.1	3,156	3,071	6,227	49.3
Dental Science	206	192	398	48.2	224	289	513	56.3
Veterinary Medicine	143	118	261	45.2	161	186	347	53.6
Agriculture	878	624	1,502	41.5	1,400	1,705	3,105	54.9
Engineering & Applied Science	2,689	365	3,054	11.9	4,076	954	5,030	18.9
Architecture / Quantity Surveying	184	103	287	35.2	439	373	812	45.9
Performing Arts	-	-	-	-	929	2,679	3,608	74.2
Information Technology	-	-	-	-	1,245	458	1,703	26.9
Indigenous Medicine	-	-	-	-	404	771	1,175	65.6
Total	17,926	13,521	31,447	42.9	33,858	40,302	74,160	54.3

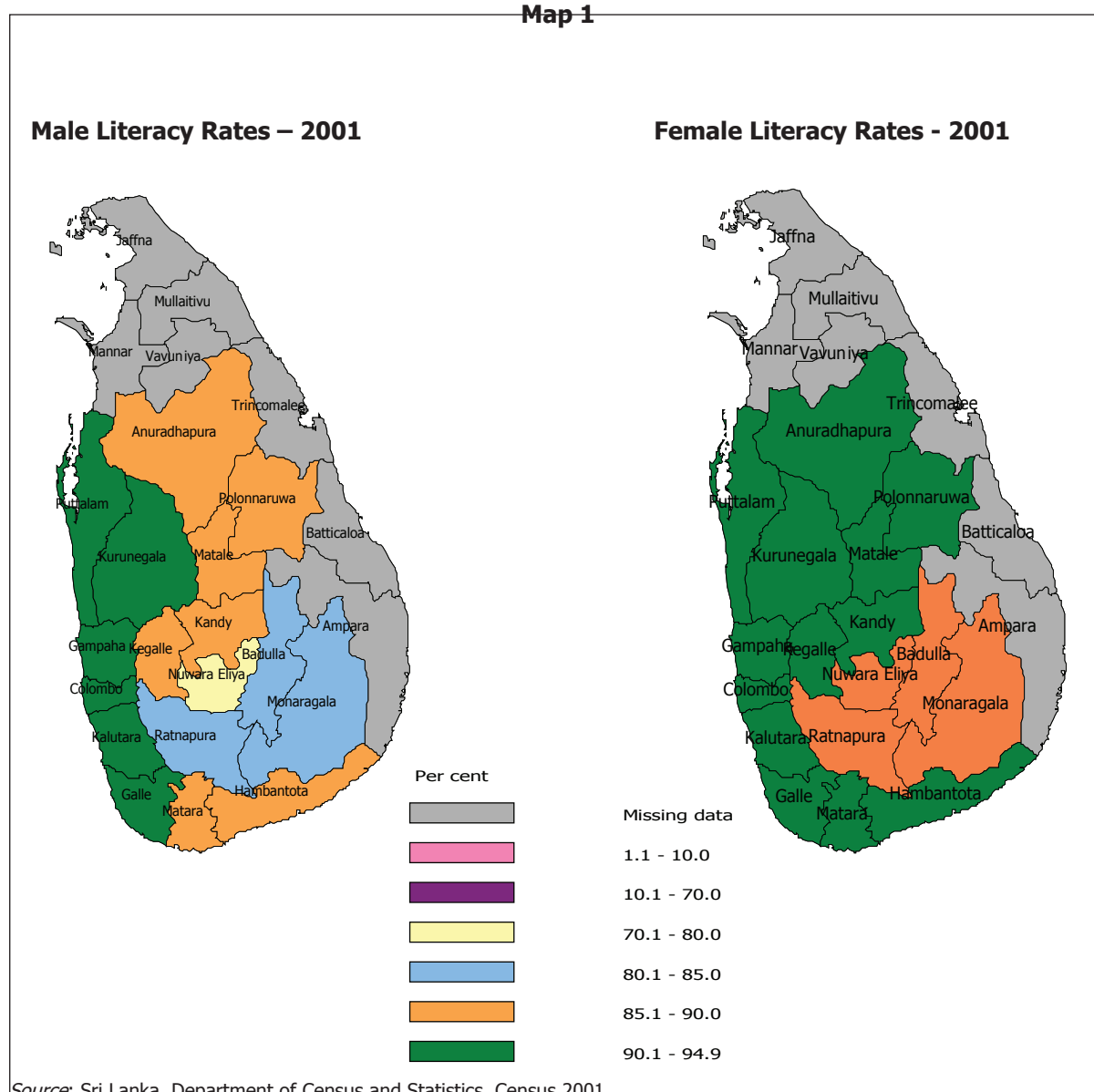
Sources: University Grants Commission, Statistical Hand Book 1990, University Statistics 2005

Table 3.8
Literacy by Districts (Percentage)

District	1990/91			2001		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Colombo	93.4	89.4	91.3	94.0	93.1	93.6
Gampaha	96.4	92.2	94.3	95.6	94.9	95.3
Kalutara	91.7	86.6	89.1	93.4	92.3	92.8
Kandy	87.7	79.2	83.3	92.8	89.0	90.9
Matale	85.2	76.9	81.1	90.2	86.0	88.1
Nuwara Eliya	82.6	64.8	73.5	87.1	76.6	81.7
Galle	91.3	84.6	87.8	93.7	92.2	92.9
Matara	91.7	82.9	87.1	91.5	88.2	89.8
Hambantota	82.5	75.9	79.2	91.4	86.8	89.1
Kurunegala	91.9	85.4	88.7	93.4	90.6	91.9
Puttalam	88.8	83.2	86.0	91.6	90.2	90.9
Anuradhapura	90.4	83.5	87.0	92.3	88.9	90.6
Polonnaruwa	84.3	82.7	83.6	90.9	88.8	89.9
Badulla	85.6	72.9	79.1	88.1	80.2	84.0
Moneragala	85.9	76.2	81.1	88.0	83.6	85.8
Ratnapura	85.4	75.2	80.3	89.4	85.0	87.2
Kegalle	92.1	85.5	88.8	93.9	89.6	91.3
Ampara	-	-	-	87.8	81.6	84.7
Sri Lanka	90.2	83.1	86.6	92.3	89.2	90.7

Sources: Department of Census and Statistics, Household Income and Expenditure

Survey 1990/91 - Northern and Eastern Provinces excluded, Census 2001 - Includes Ampara district

Map 1

Youth literacy rates (15 – 24 years) were also 95.6% (96.0% female and 95.1% male). National literacy data are available for the population over ten years – 89.2% female literacy and 92.3% male literacy at the 2001 census. It is seen in Table 3.8 that Nuwara Eliya, Ampara, Badulla, Moneragala and Ratnapura have the lowest female and male literacy rates and that gender differences are widest in the plantation districts of Nuwara Eliya and Badulla (Maps 1 & 2). Overall, the gender gap has narrowed from seven percentage points to three percentage points from 1990 to 2001 (Table 3.8).

Table 3.9
Enrolment in Technical Colleges

Skills	1998			2003		
	T	F	% F	T	F	% F
Technology/ Engineering	2,555	589	23.1	3,780	668	17.7
Industrial Technicians	-	-	-	306	73	23.9
Jewellery Design & Manufacture	29	13	44.8	69	25	36.2
Gem Cutting and Polishing	15	8	53.3	7	4	42.9
Quantity Surveying	577	202	35.0	993	343	34.5
Draughtsmanship	1,001	555	55.4	1,105	585	52.9
Marketing/ Business Studies	501	284	56.7	417	233	55.9
Accounting Technicians	1,412	823	58.3	1,718	1,160	67.5
Secretarial/Steno/ Typing	1,998	1,898	94.9	1,340	1,310	97.8
Computer Applications	173	102	58.9	130	90	69.2
Public Administration	157	93	59.2	-	-	-
Nursing	56	56	100.0	23	23	100.0
Home Economics	45	45	100.0	-	-	-
Hotel Housekeeping	37	01	2.7	-	-	-
Tailoring	-	-	-	42	13	30.9
Textiles/Batiks	147	126	85.7	39	35	89.7
Technical Trades	3,206	219	6.8	4,038	36	0.9
Furniture/Crafts	61	09	14.8	34	2	5.9
Construction	509	36	7.1	621	203	32.7
Agriculture	140	75	53.6	224	113	50.4
English	2,129	1,228	57.7	2,257	1,403	62.2
Japanese	20	12	60.0	21	13	61.9
Total	14,794	6,375	43.1	17,164	6,331	36.9

Sources: Department of Technical Education, Data base 1998 and 2003

Regarding the important issue of linkages with the labour market,

- (i) in Technical Colleges, around 25% enrolled in technical courses and 70% - 98% in secretarial, textiles, and accountancy courses are women (Table 3.9) while similar gender imbalances are seen in other technical/vocational programmes provided by agencies such as the Vocational Training Authority (VTA), the National Apprenticeship and Industrial Training Authority (NAITA) and the National Youth Services Council (NYSC);
- (ii) in universities the percentage of women enrolled in technology related courses has not increased significantly over three decades, increasing marginally from 11.9% in 1990 to 18.9% in 2005 while over 70% – 75% of students admitted to Arts and Law faculties were women in 2004/2005 (Tables 3.7a and 3.7b).

In comparison with men therefore women are equipped with a narrow range of skills that disadvantages them in access to expanding areas in the labour market and perpetuates the existing inequitable gender division in the labour market.

It is also doubtful whether the centralised, uniform, examination oriented curriculum has equipped women and men with the decision making and problem solving skills required for functioning effectively in the economy and in society. Gender role stereotypes in educational materials and gender differences in the behavioural expectations of girls to be passive, quiet and nice, and boys to be active and even aggressive leaders, tend to condition the attitudes of both boys and girls, to constrain the aspirations and self confidence of girls and women, and to reinforce gendered norms in the home and social environment and thereby to perpetuate gender inequality and subordination. School education and higher education have made no explicit contribution towards empowering the majority of women to challenge oppressive social practices and influencing men to recognise the role of women as equal partners in all spheres of life. Education has, in fact, tended to perpetuate gender inequality in employment and in society

and unequal gender relations in the family and society. Gender sensitive changes in the content of education and in the learning – teaching processes have yet to be made to enable education to perform a transformative role in empowering women.

Gender Equality in the Labour Market

In contrast to the education and health sectors, the labour market is the source of wide gender inequalities. In view of the fact that labour is the main asset of the poor and that access to an independent source of income, most often through employment, promotes economic empowerment, it is necessary to examine the relative position of women and men in the labour market.

The majority of women workers are in the amorphous informal sector which according to the recent Central Bank Survey in 2003/2004 accounts for the largest share of the employed (Bandaranaike, 2004). Their relative invisibility in this sector is reflected in their labour force participation rates which have been around half of that of men – 39.4 % female participation and 67.4% male participation in 1990, 33.6% and 67.9% respectively in 2002 and 30.9% and 67.1% in 2005. The percentage of women in the total labour force declined from 32.8% in 1990 to 30.9% in 1995 for reasons that are unclear and was around 33.4% in 2002 and 33.2% in 2005 (Table 3.10a). It is significant that the highest female labour force participation rates are in the plantation sector which is in the formal sector, in Nuwara Eliya (47.5%) and Badulla (58.0%) districts, and also in the Moneragala district (52.2%) in 2002.

Table 3.10a
Labour Force Participation

Total Participation	1990	2002	2005
Total labour force participation	53.3	50.3	48.3
Male labour force participation	67.4	67.9	67.1
Female labour force participation	39.4	33.6	30.9
% Female labour force of total labour force	37.3	34.1	33.2

Sources: Department of Census and Statistics, Labour Force Survey 1990 (all island) 2002 and 2005 (excluding North and East)

A critical index to gender inequality is the lack of equal opportunities for women in employment, underscored in the unemployment rates of women which have been consistently double that of men since the late 1960s. Unemployment rates overall have declined in the 1990s but the gap has not narrowed between female and male unemployment rates which have been 23.9% and 9.1% in 1990 and 11.9% and 5.5% in 2004 (Table 3.10b).

Table 3.10b
Unemployment in Sri Lanka (Percentage)

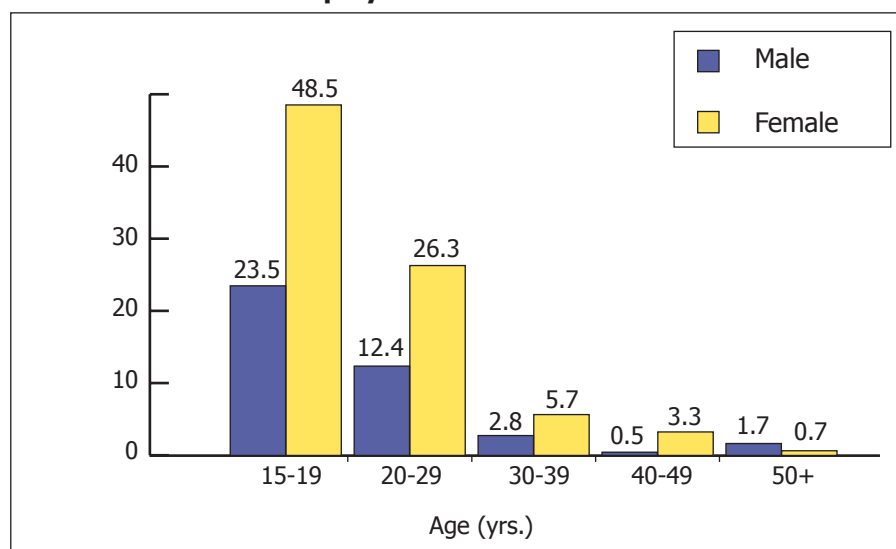
Year	Total	Male	Female
1963	7.3	8.9	7.6
1973	24.0	18.9	36.3
1981/82	11.7	7.8	21.3
1990/91	14.0	9.1	23.4
2002	8.8	7.3	14.8
2005	7.7	5.5	11.9

Sources: Department of Census and Statistics, Census of Ceylon 1963; Labour Force Survey 1990 (all island), 2002 and 2005 (excluding Northern and Eastern Provinces); Central Bank of Ceylon, Consumer Finances and Socio Economic Survey 1973; Central Bank of Sri Lanka, Consumer Finances and Socio Economic Survey 1981/82

Sri Lanka's crucial problem has been youth unemployment and 'educated unemployment.' As seen in Tables 3.11 and 3.12, gender equality is a far cry, as the unemployment rates of women relative to

those of men in the age group 5 – 19, 20 – 24 and 25 – 29 have been unconscionably high. Similarly, the unemployment rates of women with secondary and higher education qualifications have been double or even more than double those of men with the same educational attainment, a pattern that has persisted since the 1970s. A recent study of graduate employment and unemployment has pointed to the continuing concentration of women undergraduates in arts courses, and the preponderance of arts graduates, women and men, among the unemployed (Jayaweera and Sanmugam, 2002). Unemployment rates have been highest in Hambantota for both women and men (25.8% and 7.9%) and in Polonnaruwa (25.4% and 7.2%) and the lowest rates are in the plantation sector - Nuwara Eliya (6.9% and 4.2%) and Badulla (8.8% and 4.4%) (Table 3.13). Many women have been unable clearly to translate what they have perceived to be educational achievements into economic gains.

Figure 3. 2
Unemployment Rates – 2005



Source: Department of Census and Statistics, Labour Force Survey, 2005

Table 3.11
Youth Unemployment Rates

	1990			2002			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total Unemployment Rate	14.0	9.1	23.4	8.8	6.6	12.9	7.7	5.5	11.9
15 – 19 years	29.0	23.4	38.8	30.1	26.9	35.4	30.8	23.5	48.5
20 – 24	34.8	22.5	50.5	27.0	22.7	33.8	17.2	12.4	26.3
25 – 29	17.2	10.6	28.1	11.6	7.4	18.7			

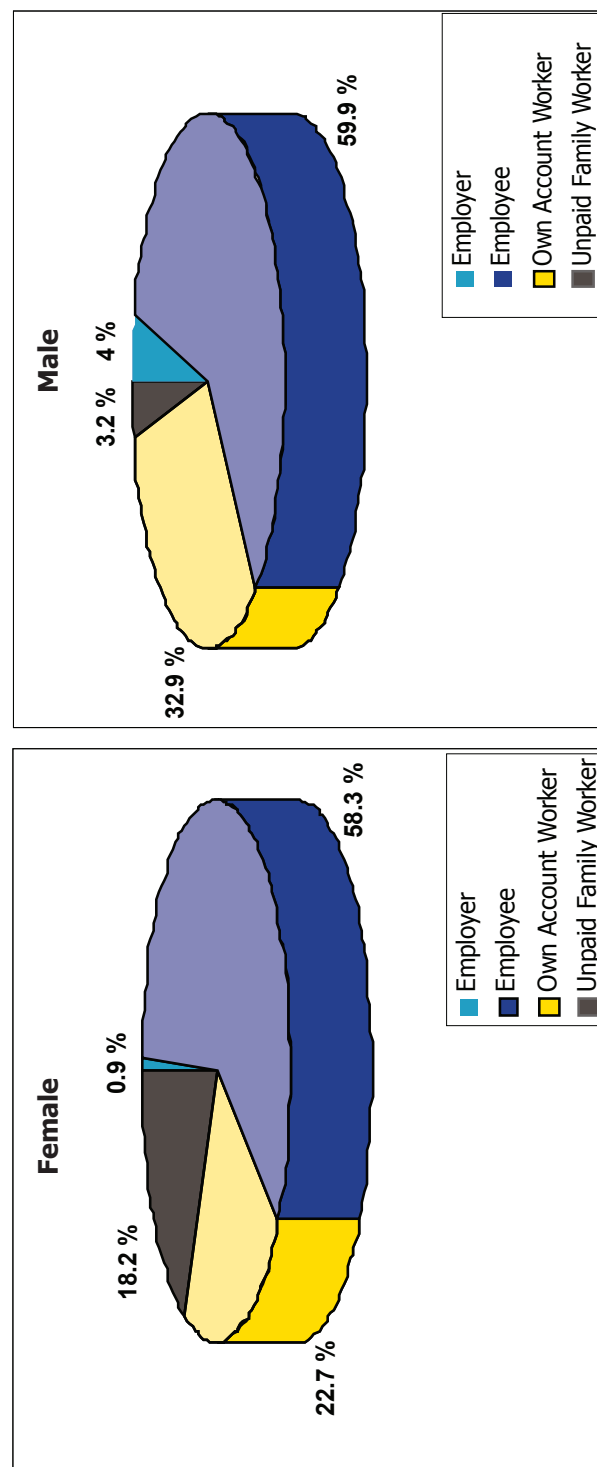
Sources: Department of Census and Statistics, Labour Force Surveys 1990 (all island), 2002 and 2005 (excluding North and East)

Table 3.12
Unemployment Rates by Educational Level and Sex (2004)

Educational Level	Total Rates	Male Rates	Female Rates	% Female of Total Unemployed
Below Grade 5	1.8	1.7	2.1	41.7
Grade 5 – 10	7.9	6.7	9.8	39.0
GCE O/L	13.3	9.8	19.8	51.2
GCE A/L Grade 13	16.3	10.8	23.0	66.9
Total	8.8	6.6	12.9	50.4

Source: Department of Census and Statistics, Labour Force Survey 2004

Figure 3.3
Percentage Distribution of Employed by Employment Status and Sex - 2005



Source: Department of Census and Statistics, Labour Force Survey 2005 (excluding North and East)

Table 3.13
Unemployment Rate by District and Sex 2002

District	Total	Male	Female
Total	8.8	6.6	12.9
Colombo	9.1	7.2	13.0
Gampaha	8.2	7.7	9.2
Kalutara	9.8	7.7	14.5
Kandy	11.6	8.2	18.5
Matale	7.6	5.4	11.5
Nuwara Eliya	5.4	4.2	6.9
Galle	8.8	7.5	11.4
Matara	11.0	6.8	18.6
Hambantota	13.3	7.9	25.8
Kurunegala	7.9	5.5	12.5
Puttalam	7.5	5.7	11.7
Anuradhapura	7.1	3.7	13.3
Polonnaruwa	11.7	7.2	25.4
Badulla	6.3	4.4	8.8
Moneragala	5.2	2.7	8.5
Ratnapura	9.2	6.9	14.3
Kegalle	10.6	8.2	15.7

Source: Department of Census and Statistics, Labour Force Survey 2002

Further, women are the majority in the vulnerable groups that have emerged - those retrenched under economic reforms, female heads of less affluent households, and women who have been affected by armed conflict and the tsunami who have lost their livelihoods and are in urgent need of access to income earning opportunities.

Women are relatively disadvantaged in the employment structure. Women and men employees are just over half the female and male labour force, 58.3% and 59.9% in 2005, while more men are employers and self employed and more women are unpaid family workers (Table 3.14 and Figure 3.3).

Table 3.14
Percentage Distribution of Employed by Employment Status and Sex

	1990			2002			2005		
	T	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F
Employer	3.3	4.4	1.2	2.8	3.7	0.8	3.1	4.0	0.9
Employee	58.2	59.5	55.6	57.9	57.5	58.8	59.3	59.9	58.3
Own Account Worker	25.0	28.4	18.1	28.6	34.0	17.4	29.7	32.9	22.7
Unpaid Family Worker	13.5	7.7	25.1	10.7	4.8	23.0	7.9	3.2	18.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Sources: Department of Census and Statistics, Labour Force Survey 1990 (all island), 2002 and 2005

The MDG indicator of the share of women in non agricultural wage employment ignores the fact that the highest proportion of women workers are still in the agriculture sector. In Sri Lanka, agriculture continues to be a major source of livelihood for the rural population, but the neglect of this sector over the years as reflected in its low productivity and incomes, has compelled women and men to move out so that the percentage of women and men in the non agricultural sectors has risen from 55% in 1990 to 60% in 2002 for women and 60% in 1990 to 68.2% in 2002 for men. Men small farmers and women unpaid family workers have had no alternative but to attempt to escape from poverty by seeking employment outside the sector.

The declining percentage of women and men in the agricultural sector reflects the trend towards the shift from the agriculture sector to the industry and service sectors in a globalising environment. It is doubtful however whether exit from this sector has contributed to gender equality. Women have

sought employment chiefly in garment factories or in overseas domestic labour - occupations in which they are at the bottom of the hierarchy - and men in the armed and security services or in minor service occupations in the formal sector. The Millennium Development Goals have envisaged wage employment to be an agent of empowerment for women. In the Sri Lankan context, empowerment of women through wage employment is contingent on their control of the income they earn. In the plantation sector in which women have been wage earners for over a century, lack of control of their earnings in a male dominant family structure has brought no change in unequal gender relations in their families (Kurian, 1982). Studies indicate, however, that many women workers in garment factories and in overseas domestic labour have control over their wage income and have been empowered economically and have moved towards more equitable gender relations in their families. (Dias and Weerakoon, 1995; Jayaweera and Sanmugam, 2001b).

While wage employment has provided more stability, incomes and economic independence than unviable self employment in which the majority of women in the informal sector are enmeshed, deterioration in the quality of wage employment has affected women. The demand in the international and local labour market has been for low cost female workers which has been a 'comparative advantage' for national policy makers.

Around half the women wage employees are casual workers and are employed in the garment, textiles and other conventionally 'feminine' areas of employment. Women workers who are the majority of garment workers, overseas migrant domestic labour and plantation workers have made a crucial contribution to national revenue and balance of payments but have not had commensurate economic or social returns. In the export oriented garment factories within and outside the Export Processing Zones, in which 70% to 80% of employees are women, 80% of the women employees are semi skilled machine operators and unskilled workers, and 70% of the management, technical and supervisory staff are men. Around 80% of migrant workers are housemaids and 87% of those who have migrated for professional and middle level jobs are men (Table 3.15). These employment opportunities have therefore reinforced the gender based segmentation of the labour market, vertically by level of occupation and horizontally by women's low representation in technical related employment. The gender digital divide in the burgeoning information technology sector is one more area of emerging inequality (Jayaweera and Wanasundera, 2006).

The working conditions of most of these wage earners belie any claim to gender equality. Both women and men machine operators are exposed to the same poor working environment but there are substantially fewer men employed in these jobs. The harsh working conditions of plantation workers, the job insecurity, long working hours, low wages and occupational hazards and lack of avenues of upward occupational mobility of many women factory workers, and the continuing economic exploitation, physical harassment and sexual abuse of migrant domestic workers (Tables 3.15 and 3.16) except perhaps in Cyprus, have been extensively documented and cry for action (Weerasinghe, 1989; Centre for Women's Research, 1994; Jayaweera and Sanmugam, 2001a; Dias and Weerakoon, 1995; Wanasundera, 2001; Dias and Wanasundera, 2002).

Table 3.15
Departure for Foreign Employment

	1997				2005			
	Total	Male	Female	% Female	Total	Male	Female	% Female
Professional Jobs	573	534	39	6.8	2,678	2,481	197	7.4
Middle Level Jobs	1,635	1,386	249	15.2	8,040	7,148	892	11.1
Clerical and Related jobs	3,579	3,008	571	15.9	7,731	6,978	753	9.7
Skilled Jobs	24,502	15,832	8,670	35.4	45,590	38,833	6,757	14.8
Unskilled Jobs (Other than Housemaid)	20,565	16,792	3,773	18.3	41,870	38,525	3,345	8.0
Housemaids	99,429	-	99,429	100.0	125,054	-	125,054	100.0
Total	150,283	37,552	112,731	75.0	230,963	93,965	136,998	59.3
% Housemaids	66.2		88.2		54.1		91.3	

Sources: Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment, Annual Statistical Report of Foreign Employment – 2004,
www.slbfe.lk/statistics

Table 3.16
Total Number of Complaints Received by Sex

	1999				2004			
	Total	Male	Female	% Female	Total	Male	Female	% Female
Non-payments of Agreed Wages	2,268	483	1,785	78.7	1,626	150	1,476	90.8
Lack of Communication	1,973	166	1,807	91.6	2,165	87	2,078	96.0
Sick	711	152	559	78.6	610	51	559	91.6
Harassment	1,805	144	1,661	92.0	1,753	78	1,675	95.6
Death –Natural	111	36	75	67.6	153	73	80	52.3
Death-Accidental	02	01	01	50.0	75	43	32	42.7
Death-Murder	03	-	03	100.0	8	3	5	62.5
Death –Suicide	-	-	-	-	9	3	6	66.7
Not Sent Back after Completion of Contract	710	239	471	66.3	206	15	191	92.7
Stranded – Lack of Reception on Arrival	65	08	57	87.7	13	0	13	100.0
Problem at Home (Sri Lanka)	16	01	15	93.8	343	13	330	96.2
Breach of Employment Contract	1,249	1,063	186	14.9	1,144	695	449	39.2
Stranded without Employment	02	01	01	50.0	13	0	13	100.0
Illegal Money Transaction	-	-	-	-	81	5	76	93.8
Others (Domestic Sector)	643	25	618	96.1	131	11	120	91.6
Others (Non-domestic Sector)	281	189	92	32.7	23	0	0	0.0
Total	9,839	2,508	7,331	74.5	8,353	1,227	7,103	39.2

Sources: Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment, Statistical Handbook on Migration – 2001, Annual Statistical Report of Foreign Employment – 2004

Access to Decision Making Positions

The Gender Empowerment Measure in the Human Development Report as well as the Millennium Development Goals give prominence to the number of seats held by women in Parliament. In Sri Lanka, the seat of power was held for several years by two women as Prime Minister under the 'Westminster Constitution' and as Executive President under the 1978 Constitution. Yet the Parliamentary scene is bleak with the minuscule percentage of women representatives declining from 5.3% in 1994 to 4.9% in 2004. The same pattern of under representation prevails in the local assemblies, around 3% in Provincial Councils and Municipal Councils and around 2% in Urban Councils and Pradeshiya Sabhas or local councils - perhaps among the lowest record globally. The contradictions in the situation pertaining to access to the political power structure indicates that gendered norms of leadership and barriers of multiple roles and a vicious climate of violence can be challenged and overcome only by charismatic women politicians unless special measures are taken to increase the number of candidates for elections.

In the public and private sectors the 'glass ceiling' that impedes the access of women to the top echelons of management is still firmly entrenched and shows little signs of dismantling in the near future (Aturupana, 1997). Labour force surveys of the Department of Census and Statistics have found that 0.9% women in the female labour force in 1990 and 1.4% in 2005 and 1.7% of the male labour force in both these two years were in senior managerial or administrative positions. These figures underscore the minuscule presence of women among Secretaries of Ministries, Chairpersons of Commissions, Vice Chancellors of Universities, Judges and heads of private sector establishments in what are largely male dominated positions of authority although there is no dearth of women qualified for these positions. Women too appear to have internalised gendered norms or to be overwhelmed by their multiple roles to accept opportunities and challenges.

It is clearly untenable to even envisage substantial representation of women in high level decision making positions in the public domain or Parliament or local government unless the promised quota is enforced, in the foreseeable future.

Women's Rights

Besides these quantifiable targets and indicators other facets of gender equality impinge on the lives of women and men as well as on the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals. The principle of equal rights is inbuilt in CEDAW but Sri Lanka has yet to introduce laws to incorporate all these provisions in national legislation. The right to universal franchise and the right to education and health care were recognised in the 1930s and 1940s. The 1978 Constitution guarantees equal rights without discrimination on the grounds of sex and provides for affirmative action to remove sex discrimination. The Penal Code was amended in 1995 and 1998 after a century, increasing penalties for rape and criminalising grave sexual abuse, sexual harassment and incest. The Domestic Violence Act was passed by Parliament in 2005. Labour regulations conform to most of the provisions of ILO Conventions and citizenship regulations that discriminated against women who married a foreign spouse unlike men who did so, were amended to ensure gender equality.

Nevertheless gaps in the legal system provide space for gender based discrimination. Women's land rights in settlements have been jeopardised by the inheritance schedules in the Land Development Ordinance (1935) that favour men. Women's organisations have made sustained efforts to amend the schedule without concrete results. Land rights are a critical issue in conflict and disaster affected areas where women face problems in establishing their rights. The general law gives women and men equal rights with regard to property, financial transactions, and family support responsibilities but divorce laws impose unequal conditions. The personal laws of the Sinhalese, Tamil and Muslim communities contain provisions that discriminate against women (Goonesekere, 1980). Attempts earlier to have common non discriminatory personal laws failed and women are vulnerable to unequal treatment under these laws with regard to issues such as marriage and inheritance.

In the field of employment, the informal sector is outside the ambit of labour legislation thereby exposing women who are the majority of workers in this sector, and men, to discrimination and exploitation. Even the recent ILO Convention on Home based Workers has been confined to piece rate workers and the large group of self employed workers continue to be unprotected. Although Sri Lanka has ratified the UN Convention on Migrant Workers and their Families, countries that receive labour have not done so. Hence in the absence of even bilateral agreements, migrant workers, the majority of whom are women, are unprotected in their workplaces. The state is currently taking steps to enter into bilateral agreements to protect migrant workers.

Law enforcement is weak in Sri Lanka so that discrimination continues although laws have been revised. There has been an increase or greater visibility of the level of gender based violence seen in the instances of rape and sexual harassment, multiplied in conflict affected areas, and incest and domestic violence without effective mechanisms to seek redress (Wijayatilake, 1995 and 2004). Sri Lanka also lacks adequate facilities for legal aid and counselling and support services for victims of sexual and domestic violence. As laws are the bedrock of gender equality, their review and enforcement are crucial to realising the Millennium Development Goals.

Gender and Socialisation

Policies, programmes and trends are not determined in a culture free environment but are influenced by gender role assumptions stemming from the social construction of gender, which in turn tends to result in asymmetrical gender relations in a binary power structure of dominance and subordination. These assumptions and gendered norms have a pervasive impact, inter alia, on policy makers and administrators who introduce or implement laws and policies; employers who are apt to recruit employees according to their perceptions of productive and reproductive roles and preconceived notions of differential abilities; educators and vocational trainers responsible for the distribution of knowledge and skills; and women and men who tend to internalise them and to shape their aspirations and attitudes uncritically.

The most pernicious forms of gender inequality such as female foeticide and infanticide, the neglect of the girl child, and even dowry deaths are not visible in Sri Lanka. Nevertheless, unequal gender relations within the family are reflected in the inequitable division of household labour that limits the time available to women to fulfil their multiple roles and tasks, and in adherence to unscientific 'virginity tests,' male control of female sexuality and perceptions of women as men's property that generate sexual and domestic violence. Both men and women are vulnerable to the negative impact of internalisation of gendered norms. Men are stressed by their fear of failure to perform well as 'breadwinners' and

by norms that demand suppression of emotions. An outcome could be the high levels of suicide and alcoholism among men. Women are affected by their sense of dependence or subordination and loss of self confidence, self esteem and personhood as seen by the fact that even those with high educational attainment do not often challenge oppressive social practices.

Gender role and relations however are not static and women and men are not homogenous groups. Access to education, employment and independent incomes have promoted joint decision making in the family and more equitable gender relations in the home, economy and society. Studies indicate that there is an amalgam of continuity, resistance and change and that women are not always passive victims but are also actors in determining their future (Jayaweera and Sanmugam, 2001b). There is space therefore for gender sensitive policies and programmes to transform social relations and to empower women within a framework of human rights and dignity.

Challenges and Priorities for Development

The challenge is to reduce existing gender inequalities through gender sensitive policies and programmes and to promote empowerment through developing capabilities as well as self confidence through socialisation, particularly through the education process. A second challenge is to work expeditiously to achieve the MDGs and to work towards a second tier of goals in the education and health sectors and to include additional targets in achieving gender equality and the empowerment of women (Goal 3) particularly with respect to women's position in the labour market or employment structure, and, where possible, other relevant targets and indicators (see p.29). Priorities for programmes to achieve Goal 3 encompasses virtually every dimension of policy and action.

Recognition and guarantee of women's rights is the core strategy to achieve gender equality. The agenda is long but a holistic approach would be the incorporation of the provisions of CEDAW and the Sri Lanka Women's Charter in national laws and expediting the enactment of a Women's Rights Bill as proposed. Other immediate measures would be the amendments to the inheritance schedule of the Land Development Ordinance, and the ratification of all ILO Conventions. In the context of poor law enforcement and the gap between the law and practice, strategies should be devised to activate legal processes, sensitise law enforcement personnel, and at the same time, to create awareness among the public through legal literacy programmes and to extend legal aid to resourceless families.

Concomitantly gender has to be mainstreamed in all national and provincial programmes. The national machinery for women's affairs, the Ministry and the Women's Bureau, as well as senior personnel in line ministries need to be equipped with skills in gender analysis and be sensitised so as to ensure equitable outcomes of development programmes. At the community level, gender should be integrated in social mobilisation so that women and men become agents of change and the existing gap between social and economic empowerment is eliminated.

Complacency regarding education and health indicators should be replaced by a renewed commitment to the right to education and health care of girls and boys, women and men, and to the equitable distribution of education opportunities and particularly science and technology related studies that are in demand in a globalising environment as well as affordable quality health services in the periphery. Policies should go beyond access to transformative learning-teaching processes in educational institutions, eliminating gender role stereotypes in the formal and hidden curriculum and empowering women to challenge obscurantist practices that negate their personhood. In the health sector the life cycle approach should replace the exclusive 'mother and child syndrome' with special attention to reproductive rights and the health needs of groups such as adolescents, working women and the elderly who have tended to be relegated to the periphery of policy and action.

Inequalities in the labour market require multi-pronged strategies. They encompass a wide range of important issues such as creating in all sectors, employment opportunities that are not mere responses to the demand for low cost female labour; revitalising the agricultural sector to improve productivity and incomes; promoting transfer of technology that will upgrade skills; motivating women to enroll in diverse vocational training programmes including in technology related skills development and in information and communications technology; and removing the bias against small producers that has reinforced poverty in the informal sector.

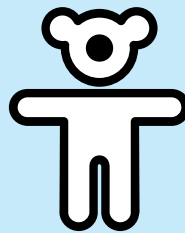
Another step towards gender equality in the labour market is ensuring job security and opportunities for upward occupational mobility for industrial and service workers including subcontracted workers in the submerged economy. The post Multi Fibre Agreement (MFA) situation has to be addressed. The Ethical Trading Initiatives group in UK has already commenced audits in the factories that supply them to monitor working conditions, and this is an initiative that needs to be strengthened and replicated. Migrant women workers have received some support from the state in the last ten years but bilateral agreements with receiving countries are necessary to protect them from abuse in their workplaces. Micro credit has been hailed as a panacea for self employment but studies have shown that credit per se has minimal impact unless integrated in a package of services that includes vocational and management skills, and access to technology and market information. Poverty reduction strategies should provide an enabling environment created by policies to address the multi dimensions of poverty, in order to assist families to move out of poverty and to support vulnerable groups that require social protection.

Purposeful action to promote qualified and capable women to high level decision making positions and thereby to shatter the 'glass ceiling' is necessary to ensure equal opportunities for upward mobility. There has been considerable debate in the country regarding the need for affirmative action to increase the representation of women in legislatures, and the proposed 25% quota for nominations for election to Pradheshiya Sabhas could be a beginning.

An area of concern and a location of inequality and disempowerment is gender based violence as women more often than men are apt to be victims. They need the support of the law and law enforcement personnel who should be made aware of their responsibilities. Special units such as the Women and Children Police Desks need to be adequately resourced to function effectively, and the lacunae in the provision of support services such as crisis centres, shelter, legal aid and medical counselling should be met.

Gender equality and empowerment appear to be only words in the context of conflict areas in the North and East and in contiguous districts. Women and men survivors and the increasing number of women heads of household who are all carers of families have come through horrendous experiences and are in need of psycho-social support as well as access to assets such as land, sustainable livelihoods, rehabilitation of housing and social and economic infrastructure and security. The needs assessments of international organisations have identified the total spectrum of programmes pertaining to local government, transport, telecommunications, power, water supply and sanitation, agriculture, irrigation, livestock, fisheries, micro finance, education, health and social protection of vulnerable groups such as the elderly. It is imperative that resources for rehabilitation are utilised optimally and that women are not overlooked by administrators implementing conventional gender insensitive programmes. These priorities are relevant also to accelerate recovery from the impact of the tsunami disaster, particularly providing access to livelihoods, services, infrastructure and security, as observed in need assessment surveys, which indicate that women workers in the informal sector have suffered disproportionately.

Overarching all facets is the need for comprehensive sex disaggregated data that can provide a reliable base for policy and action. It appears that national data gathering agencies collect gender specific data but that they need adequate financial and human resources to process and publish this data for state and non state users. It is necessary, too, to use multi media messages to create public awareness of the importance of this goal.



**REDUCE
CHILD MORTALITY**

GOAL 4

BY HIRANTHI WIJEMANNE

Child Mortality

Goal 4 Reduce Child Mortality

Target 5	Reduce by two thirds between 1990 and 2015 the Under Five Mortality Rate
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Indicator	1991		1997		2015	
13. Child Mortality Rate (rate per 1,000 population of 0-4 year age group)	M	F	M	F	M	F
	4.0	3.3	4.7	4.1	1.4	1.1
14. Infant Mortality Rate	17.7		16.3		5.9	
15. Proportion of 1-year old children immunised against Measles	79.2%		89.5%		99.0%	

Sources: Registrar General's Office and Ministry of Health, Family Health Bureau

Status and Trends

The under five mortality rate (2002) was 19 per 1,000 live births and Sri Lanka's infant mortality was estimated at 11.3 per 1,000 live births in 2003 (Registrar General's Office). Although the infant mortality rate is relatively low, approximately 83% of the reported infant deaths occur during the neonatal period with 61.5% occurring during the first seven days (early neonatal period). Both infant and child mortality rates are higher among boys than among girls. The estimated number of births for 2001 was 342,225 of which 99% were institutional deliveries and 1% home deliveries. Seventy five percent of pregnant mothers are registered at home during 14 - 22 weeks of pregnancy.

Sri Lanka has adopted and implemented policies and programmes related to improving maternal and child care for several decades since the 1940s. These policies have contributed to the consistent decline in both Infant and Under Five Mortality. The main components include the establishment of a widespread system of Maternal and Child Health (MCH) clinics as well as an outreach of MCH care services at home level through home visits by Public Health Midwives (PHMs) (one per 3,000 population). These initiatives supported by family planning programmes, particularly family spacing have also contributed to declining mortality. Over 90% of births take place in institutions with skilled attendants providing services which is an important contributory factor in the decline of infant mortality. Increasing levels of female literacy, equal educational opportunities for girls and thus improved health seeking behaviour by women and reducing gender inequalities have been other important factors. Policy developments since the 1990s to improve access to emergency obstetric care if implemented on an equitable basis island wide, can help in further reducing child and maternal mortality.

The current database for under five deaths is obtained from two sources, the Registrar General's Office (RGO) and the Family Health Bureau. However the latter records a higher number of deaths and this discrepancy needs to be rectified. In addition, the RGO records age specific mortality. Thus infant mortality, 1-4 mortality and under five mortality need to be recorded to comply with the data base required for the monitoring of the MDGs. Further, the information available for Sri Lanka is based on 0-4 child mortality, as 0-5 data were not available and needs to be computed. Both infant and under five mortality rates are higher among the boys as compared to the girls.

Where immunisation data is concerned, the data base is located in the Epidemiological Unit of the Ministry of Health (MOH). This is a very reliable data base which has been maintained for several years. However, sex disaggregated data were not available for immunisation status although the data are collected on sex basis. In terms of assessing gender dimensions, it is necessary to introduce gender analysis in the data that is collected and analysed.

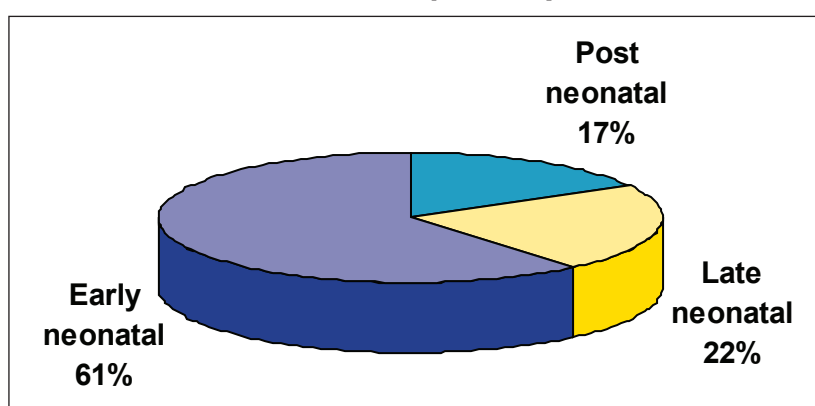
Since the larger proportion of child mortality in Sri Lanka now occurs during infancy, greater attention needs to be paid to the 0-1 year age group in order to achieve further declines in under five mortality. However since Sri Lanka's infant mortality is relatively low, it is useful to focus on the period of infancy where the higher number of deaths occur. According to data available in the Family Health Bureau/MOH, approximately 83% of the reported infant deaths have occurred during the neonatal period with 61.5% occurring during the first 7 days (early neonatal period) (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1
Infant Deaths

Mortality Indicators	Number Reported	Percent
Infant deaths	3,591	78.1 (of estimated infant deaths)
No. investigated	2,698	75.1 (of reported deaths)
Neonatal deaths (1-28 days)	2,980	83.0 (of reported infant deaths)
Early neonatal deaths (1-7 days)	2,209	74.1 (of reported neonatal deaths)
Post neonatal deaths	611	17.1 (of reported infant deaths)
Perinatal deaths	5,696	
Childhood mortality	926	

Source: Ministry of Health, Annual Report on Family Health Sri Lanka 2001

Figure 4.1
Infant Deaths Reported by PHMs



Source: Ministry of Health, Annual Report on Family Health Sri Lanka 2001

Thus in relation to the indicator of Under Five Mortality including Infant Mortality, the challenge to achieve a decline in a perinatal and neonatal mortality. Gender related aspects become important as the causes of perinatal and neonatal mortality are closely linked to the mother's health and nutrition status during the pregnancy. The most significant conditions relate to maternal under nutrition including anaemia complicating pregnancy, low birth weight, poor quality antenatal care, poor management of pregnancy complications, sepsis during delivery, and lack of proper newborn care including lack of means for resuscitation. Gender inequalities could be among the root causes, resulting for instance in violence during pregnancy which is only being recently recognised as an important factor that affects pregnancy outcome and the well being of the child.

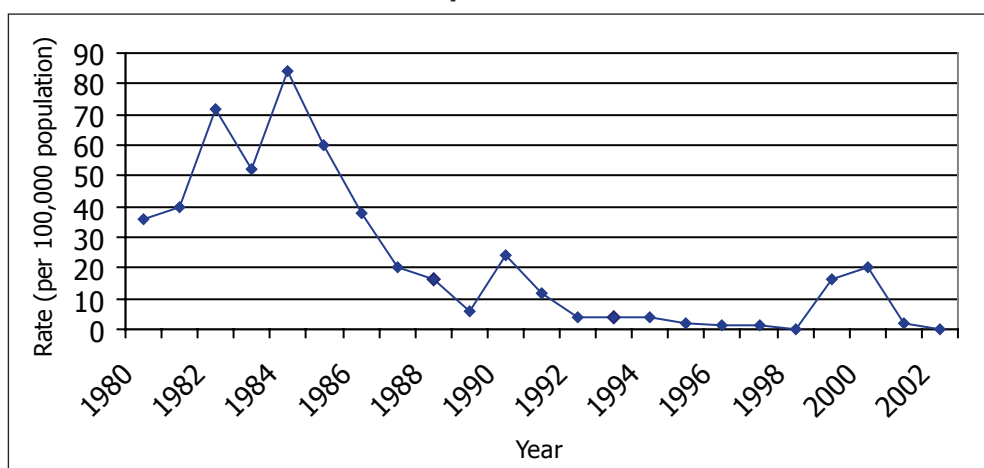
Perinatal and neonatal mortality data need to be collected on a routine basis for trends to be determined and policies and programmes developed and monitored. Although progress in measles coverage has been successful, there are some districts where coverage is less than in others (Table 4.2).

Table 4.2
Measles Coverage of Infants by District – 2002

Deputy Provincial Director of Health Services (DPDHS) Division	Measles Coverage of Infants (coverage as a percentage of estimated target population)
Colombo	104.2
Gampaha	100.9
Kalutara	100.1
Kandy	98.5
Matale	100.2
Nuwara Eliya	97.4
Galle	108.8
Matara	96.2
Hambantota	98.6
Jaffna	105.5
Kilinochchi	83.9
Mannar	100.5
Vavuniya	96.2
Batticaloa	102.5
Ampara	99.9
Kalmunai	110.8
Trincomalee	100.0
Kurunegala	103.7
Puttalam	100.4
Anuradhapura	99.1
Polonnaruwa	108.4
Badulla	99.0
Moneragala	99.8
Ratnapura	100.0
Kegalle	99.8
Sri Lanka	101.0

Source: Department of Health Services, Epidemiological Unit, Annual Health Bulletin 2002

Figure 4.2
Trends in Reported Measles Cases



Source: Department of Health Services, Epidemiological Unit; Annual Health Bulletin 2002

Challenges and Priorities

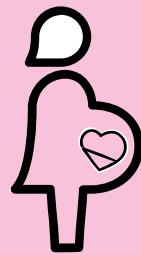
In the context of the Under Five Child Mortality Goal, there is a need to highlight neonatal and perinatal mortality where the maximum number of child deaths in Sri Lanka now occur. A data base needs to be established for this purpose although some data is available with the Family Health Bureau/MOH. Health staff from hospital institutions particularly the maternal care and paediatric wards will need to

be involved in this task. There are gender dimensions, as the causes of perinatal and neonatal deaths are closely linked to pregnancy, antenatal, natal and postnatal care and newborn and neonatal care. It is important to emphasise that these are more difficult indicators to improve further, and will need more resources. Gender dimensions such as violence during pregnancy including domestic violence and its impact will also need further consideration. Sub national variations need to be given special priority particularly the identification of high child mortality districts and even certain administrative divisions within districts where child mortality levels are relatively high.

Such geographical areas will include the tea plantations, conflict affected areas, and tsunami affected areas. Some of these areas now record low mortality levels because of the under-reporting of deaths. Deaths tend to be recorded at site of occurrence. Hence if there are referrals to teaching hospitals, the death is recorded there. There is also a possibility of under-reporting of infant deaths in plantation and conflict affected, and tsunami affected areas which need further examination.

Relevant gender related issues such as violence against women, female illiteracy and female headed households should be given greater priority. The impact of such factors on pregnancy outcome and perinatal and neonatal mortality are yet to be fully assessed, determined and given due recognition.

Quality of care during the perinatal and neonatal periods will need skill development programmes on improved care for Public Health Midwives, Public Health Nurses and other health professionals involved in providing such care. Quality of care for the newborn should also be improved on an equitable basis in all institutions where deliveries take place. There will be a need also for greater resource allocation to improve such services. Immunisation data which includes measles needs to be analysed on a sex disaggregated basis.



**IMPROVE MATERNAL
HEALTH**

GOAL 5

BY HIRANTHI WIJEMANNE

Maternal Health

Goal 5 Improve Maternal Health

Target 6	Reduce by three quarters, between 1990 and 2015 the Maternal Mortality Ratio
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Indicators	1991	1997	2000	2015
16. Maternal Mortality (Rate per 10,000 live births)	4.2	3.5	1.4 (2002)	1.4
17. Proportion of births attended by skilled health personnel	n.a.	n.a.	96.0%	99.0%

Sources: Registrar General's Office and Ministry of Health, Family Health Bureau

Status and Trends

Sri Lanka's maternal mortality ratio is estimated as 14 per 100,000 live births in 2002. Approximately 75% of pregnant mothers were registered with Public Health Midwives in 2003. There were 8% of teenage pregnancies.

The indicator of maternal mortality can be used as a proxy indicator to measure gender equality. Maternal mortality not only indicates maternal well being but also the overall health situation of women and their access to health care services. It is also a reflection of female literacy and education status which influences health seeking behaviour by women and family planning acceptance. The level of maternal mortality also signifies the priority given by the State to fulfill the needs of women during pregnancy and the allocation of resources to enable easy access to maternal care services, thus preventing delays during delivery and thereby reducing vulnerability to the risk of maternal death. Female literacy is particularly relevant as mothers themselves need to make the right choice to seek proper maternal care. Community support is also relevant for them to be able to access care, particularly in the more remote and rural areas where transportation is difficult. Greater gender equality and concern for women contribute to overcoming such constraints.

Sri Lanka's consistent decline in maternal mortality for over five decades (Table 5.1) is attributed to a wide network of free maternal services integrated with child care services. A well trained cadre of Public Health Midwives who provide domiciliary care is another important factor.

The service network includes clinic services in addition to domiciliary care. Antenatal care at home level and at MCH clinics is provided by well trained Public Health Midwives. Access to skilled care at delivery has been one of the most significant factors which has contributed to the decline in maternal mortality. Over 90% of deliveries take place in institutions which is unique in South Asia. Although there has been an overall decline in maternal mortality, there are still geographical areas where maternal deaths are higher than the national average. Such areas include the tea plantations where female illiteracy remains high. Access to skilled care without delay remains a problem in the more hilly areas upcountry. Other areas where maternal deaths are higher than the national average include conflict affected areas.

The rising rate of illegal abortions is an unresolved issue which is yet to be addressed. It is increasingly becoming a contributor to maternal deaths. Most abortions occur among married women. The use of scientific contraception, both temporary and permanent methods, indicates that while oral contraception use, Intra Uterine Devices (IUDs) and tubectomies occur, vasectomies and condom use are very low. This reflects gender disparity in the use of family planning services.

Maternal deaths are reported to the Registrar General's Office (RGO), Family Health Bureau/Ministry of Health and the Medical Statistician through the Indoor Mortality and Morbidity Reporting System. Studies indicate that the number of maternal deaths recorded through the Family Health Bureau is 3.9% higher than that reported through the Civil Registration System. There could be under reporting to the RGO from the more remote areas including conflict affected areas. It is also important to re-examine the data base which has three sets of mortality data, the most accurate at present being that of the Family Health Bureau, Ministry of Health.

Current policies continue to place priority on improving the quality of maternal care but with added emphasis on expanding access to Emergency Obstetric Care. This also includes greater attention to reducing disparities in terms of access to care.

Another important decision made in the mid 1980s which has continued to date is the conduct of Maternal Death Audits by the MOH. This is an important practice which needs to be continued.

Additional indicators suggested under Goal 5 are related to maternal morbidity such as anaemia complicating pregnancy, weight gain during pregnancy/maternal under nutrition and access to emergency obstetric care. However, gender based violence during pregnancy and its impact on maternal health has not been addressed. This is an area for research and further attention to remedy gender inequalities as it can also help further reduce maternal mortality and improve maternal health.

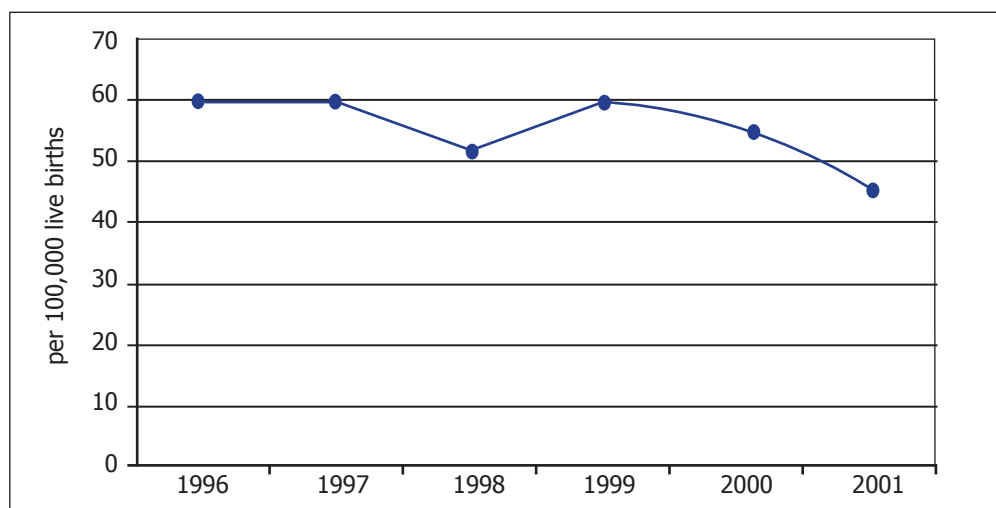
Table 5.1
Maternal Mortality Rate

Year	Maternal Mortality Rate per 10,000 Live Births
1945	165.2
1950	55.5
1955	40.5
1960	30.2
1965	23.9
1970	14.5
1975	10.2
1980	6.4
1985	5.1
1990	-
1991	4.2
1992	2.7
1993	2.5
1994	2.1
1995	2.4
1996	2.3
1997	3.5
1998*	-
1999*	-
2000*	-
2001*	-
2002*	1.4

* Provisional

Source: Department of Health Services,
Epidemiological Unit; Annual Health Bulletin 2002

Figure 5.1
Maternal Mortality Ratio 1996 - 2001



Source: Ministry of Health, Annual Report on Family Health Sri Lanka 2001

Challenges and Priorities

It is necessary to establish a more accurate database which reflects the overall maternal mortality situation as well as district disparities. Even the divisional level needs to be considered to plan interventions.

Policies on access to Emergency Obstetric Care and the quality of services particularly in terms of reducing intra district variations and disparities need to be implemented efficiently.

It is important to examine in greater detail the rising level of abortions which are illegal and its input on maternal mortality, and to correct gender imbalances in the use of scientific methods of contraception.

Gender based violence and its impact on pregnancy outcome is an area for research and more attention.



**COMBAT HIV/AIDS,
MALARIA AND OTHER
DISEASES**

GOAL 6

BY HIRANTHI WIJEMANNE

HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Tuberculosis

Goal 6 Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Tuberculosis

Target 7	HIV/AIDS halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS
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Indicator	1990	1997	2015
18. HIV prevalence among 15 – 24 year old pregnant women*	n.a.	n.a.	
19. Condom use rate of the contraceptive use rate	n.a.	n.a.	
20. Ratio of school attendance of orphans to school attendance of non orphans aged 10 – 14**	n.a.	n.a.	

Ministry of Health, National HIV/AIDS and Sexually Transmitted Infections (STI) Campaign

* Sri Lanka is a low prevalence country for HIV/AIDS. The antenatal population is not routinely screened

** There are only two such orphans in Sri Lanka

HIV/AIDS

Status and Trends

The current cumulative total of those affected by HIV/AIDS is 591 Sri Lankans and 54 foreigners. The male: female ratio is 1.4:1 (346 males to 245 females) and there has been a rising trend of more women getting infected. It is estimated that there are 3,500 (15 – 49 years) persons living with HIV at present. The main mode of transmission is heterosexual and the current cumulative perinatal transmission is 12 which is an indicator of maternal infection. The cumulative AIDS cases are 174 of which 125 are males and 49 are females. Sri Lanka is considered a low prevalence country for HIV/AIDS and there are only two AIDS orphans in Sri Lanka. However, the antenatal population is not routinely screened (Ministry of Health).

Current policies place the control and prevention of HIV/AIDS high on the national agenda. The World Bank has provided a grant of US\$12 million for HIV/AIDS programmes to be implemented through the government sector and NGOs.

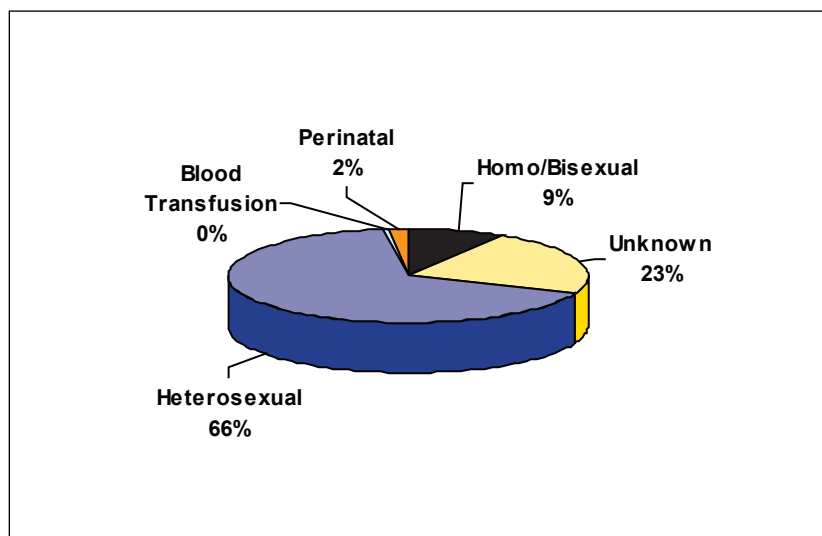
Gender is critical in the prevention and control of AIDS as women and girls are more susceptible to infection due to physiological factors as compared with men. Gender based violence, particularly rape and incest can also contribute to HIV infection including AIDS. Gender inequalities which make it difficult for women to negotiate for safer sexual practices are a key issue. This is relevant to married couples as well as female sex workers. Vulnerable women at risk in the population include female sex workers, migrant women, and girls working in the Free Trade Zone. Children are affected when there is mother to child transmission. Women are also involved in providing most of the care for AIDS affected family members and in carrying an economic burden when there are deaths due to AIDS.

Table 6.1
Incidence of HIV/AIDS – 1987 to 2002

	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
HIV+ Male	2	3	8	6	10	19	26	15	12	20	16	29	24	34	28	26
HIV+ Female			3	1	3	8	11	8	10	10	16	26	18	20	19	24
AIDS - Male	2	2	1	2	2	8	8	13	9	9	3	11	7	9	11	6
AIDS - Female			2		2	2	3	1	2	2	5	4	5	5	2	1
Deaths from AIDS		1	4	2	3	10	8	10	11	8	4	8	6	14	10	9

Source: Department of Health Services, Epidemiological Unit, Annual Health Bulletin 2002

Figure 6.1
Reported HIV Positives During 1987-2002 by Mode of Transmission



Source: Department of Health Services, Epidemiological Unit, Annual Health Bulletin 2002

Challenges and Priorities

A sustained level of priority needs to be given to HIV/AIDS prevention as Sri Lanka has many risk factors which can contribute to a rapid increase. The risk factors include a young population, a large migrant labour force and proximity to countries with a high prevalence.

Women are particularly vulnerable to HIV/AIDS infection and this includes the predominantly female migrant labour force, girls working in the Free Trade Zone and female sex workers. Mother to child transmission is another issue which needs to be addressed. Thus the gender dimensions of HIV/AIDS need to be more fully explored and addressed.

Behavioural changes and communication particularly involving girls and young women need to be introduced through schools, youth groups and networks.

Malaria and Tuberculosis

Target 8	Have halted by 2015 and begun to reverse the spread of Malaria
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Indicator	1990	2001	2015
21. a) Incidence of Malaria b) Death rate associated with Malaria	n.a. *	n.a. *	
22. Proportion of population in malaria-risk areas using effective malaria prevention and treatment measures**	n.a. *	n.a. *	
23. Prevalence and death rates (10*5) associated with TB	n.a. *	n.a. *	
24. Proportion of TB cases detected and cured under directly observed short course (DOTS)	n.a. *	n.a. *	

Sources: Ministry of Health, Anti Malaria Campaign and Anti Tuberculosis Campaign

**This is a new indicator for Sri Lanka and the data is not available

* Sex disaggregated data is not available

Malaria

Status and Trends

All the Provinces except the North East experienced a decline in malaria by 2002. The total number of malaria deaths was 76. In the North-East the cases increased by over 90% as a result of low detection, lack of prompt treatment and poor control of activities. The lowest rates were in the Western and Southern Provinces. However, sex disaggregated data are not available.

Table 6.2
Malaria Cases Reported by Province 2000 – 2002 (Percentage)

	2000	2001	2002
Western	1.1	1.2	0.9
Central	1.1	1.1	0.9
Southern	2.7	1.3	2.8
North Eastern	50.3	66.3	70.4
North Western	10.7	10.6	8.1
North Central	8.2	7.3	9.4
Uva	22.2	7.1	2.7
Sabaragamuwa	3.7	5.1	4.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Department of Health Services, Epidemiological Unit; Annual Health Bulletin 2002

Sex disaggregated data on malaria were not available.

Tuberculosis

Status and Trends

The prevalence of TB has increased from 6,174 cases in 1991 to 8,884 in 2002. In 2000 the most number of cases were from the Western Province followed by the Central and Eastern Provinces. Early detection is poor in the North and East, due to lack of personnel.

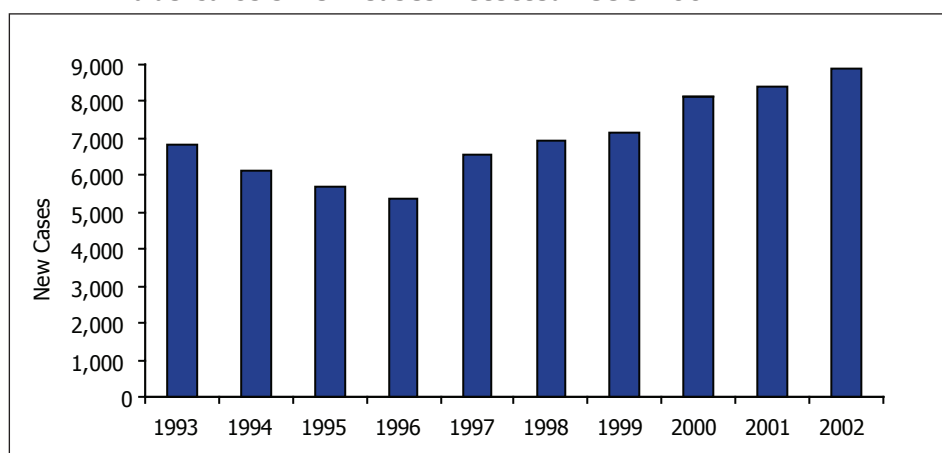
There is a low level of TB in children due to universal immunisation with BCG. Factors responsible for vulnerability to TB include HIV/AIDS, urban and internal migration, lack of resources, poor information and limited laboratory and district capacities.

Table 6.3
Prevalence of Tuberculosis

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002
New cases	6,809	6,132	5,710	5,366	6,542	6,925	7,157	8,129	8,418	8,884
Rate	38.7	34.4	31.7	29.2	35.6	37.3	38.2	42.9	45.0	46.9

Source: Ministry of Health, Anti Tuberculosis Campaign

Figure 6.2
Tuberculosis New Cases Detected 1993-2002



Source: Department of Health Services, Epidemiological Unit, Annual Health Bulletin 2002

Sex disaggregated data on tuberculosis were not available.



**ENSURE
ENVIRONMENTAL
SUSTAINABILITY**

GOAL 7

BY KAMINI MEEDENIYA VITARANA

Environment

Goal 7 Ensure Environmental Sustainability

Target 9	Integrate the principles of sustainable development into country policies and programmes and reverse loss of environment resources
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Indicator	1990	2001	2015
25. Proportion of land area covered by forest			
*a. Dense forest	23.9	22.4	No loss of forest
*b. Sparse forest	7.0	7.2	
26. Ratio of area protected to maintain biological diversity to surface area	12.5 1996	13.0	Increase by 1%
27. Energy use (Oil equivalent) TOE			
*a. Hydro percentage	6.8m	7.3m	10.0
*b. Petroleum	11.4	9.0	40.0
*c. Biomass	31.5	41.0	45.0
*d. Other renewable	57.1	50.0 estimated	5.0
28. Carbon dioxide emissions	Not relevant to Sri Lanka	Not relevant to Sri Lanka	
29. Proportion of population using solid fuel	88.0	80.0	75.0

Sources: Department of Census and Statistics, Statistical Abstract 2002; Energy Conservation Fund, Sri Lanka Energy Balance 2001; Natural Resources Energy and Science Authority, Natural Resources of Sri Lanka: Conditions and Trends; National Science Foundation, Natural Resources of Sri Lanka

Land Area Covered by Forest

Status and trends

This land area could be divided into dense forest (70.0% canopy cover) and sparse forest. Land satellite imagery in 1992 showed 23.9% dense forest and 7.0% sparse forest giving a total forest cover of approximately 30% of total land area. In 2001, land satellite imagery showed 22.6% dense forest and 7.0% sparse forest, giving a total of 29.2% forest cover.

Dividing into dense and sparse forests is suggested as sparse forests are an indication of forest degradation and it is these forests that are used by people for seasonal cultivation (chena) and eventually occupation. There is an increase of sparse forests from 463,842ha in 1994 to 471,583ha in 2000 and there is an estimated loss of 10,000 ha of forests per year [Appendix Tables 7(i) and 7(ii)]. Sparse forests temporarily help women in their search for fuel wood, but eventually are encroached upon and disappear.

Table 7.1
Designated Forest Area in Sri Lanka 1999

Category	Number	Area (Ha)	% of Total Land Area
Department of Forest			
Forest reserves	177	518,199	7.8
Proposed reserves	217	621,147	9.4
National heritages	1	11,187	0.2
Sub Total	395	1,150,533	17.4
Department of Wildlife Conservation			
Strict nature reserves	3	31,573	0.5
National Parks	13	524,660	10.0
Sanctuaries	52	256,902	3.8
Nature reserves	3	38,720	0.6
Jungle corridors	1	10,364	0.2
Sub Total	72	862,219	13.0

Source: Ministry of Forests and Environment, Statistical Compendium on Natural Resources Management: Sri Lanka - 2000

According to the Department of Forests it is the small forests earlier known as Government Agent forests that are being encroached upon and have disappeared in many areas. Also forest lands vested in the Land Reform Commission have been sold and subsequently cultivated. For sustainability our target for 2015 should be no loss of dense natural forest cover.

Proper land use is the key to environmental sustainability in tropical agricultural countries which are densely populated like Sri Lanka. The maintenance of forest cover is one aspect of the use of land which will maintain both soil and water. Where human habitation exists in the rural areas, the home gardens perform that role. In Sri Lanka, particularly in the sub-mountain areas, they have been called 'Kandyan Forest Gardens.' They are a mixture of agro forestry and multi cropping, they provide a vital refuge for native fauna and flora thereby assisting in preserving biodiversity and preventing soil erosion. They are a source of wealth to women who mainly tend the home gardens. Women find their fuel wood, supplementary foods, and even get a small source of income from the sale of produce.

Forests have a great impact on the availability of water stored in the catchment areas which receive and retain the water in the springs which in turn feed the rivers from which the population receives water for its use.

In Sri Lanka, the rural areas in which 75% of the population live, have 87% of the poor. The free natural resources available to the rural poor are the greatest contribution to poverty alleviation. It is women who fetch water, find fuel wood and supplementary food for the family. For poor women the support from the natural environment is indeed a boon, if not the means of survival. According to available sex disaggregated data (Ministry of Women's Affairs, 2003), there are between 10 - 24% female headed households in 17 districts of Sri Lanka. Data are not available for the North and East, where we may expect figures to be higher, considering the conflict in the last 23 years. But often women are also supporting the so-called male headed households, due to alcoholism and sheer indolence among males. The degradation of the environment, the loss of forests, soil erosion, drying up of water sources, pose the greatest threat to these families which are sustained by women.

The Nairobi Forward Looking Strategies for the Advancement of Women (1985), the Rio Declaration and Agenda 21(1992) and the Beijing Platform for Action (1995,) all stressed the role of women in the environment and the necessity of involving women in environment management and decision making. Although there are some women in these positions in the Central Environment Authority and Ministry of Environment gender perceptions are lacking.

Biodiversity

Status and trends

The ratio of area protected to maintain biological diversity is relevant in the context of environmental sustainability as the protected areas contain the highest biodiversity. This is the storehouse for genes which are the source of new crops, new medicines and are essential for preserving the ecological balance of the land. Since biological diversity is highest under wet tropical forest conditions and these areas are of high hydrological value, maintaining the remaining wet zone forests is of the highest priority.

The satellite image [Appendix Tables 7(i) and 7(ii)] shows that tropical rain forests are now reduced to a little over 3% of the total land area of the country. The figures indicate a decrease of approximately 17,170 hectares in ten years.

Of the Tropical Wet Zone forests of Sri Lanka the Sinharajah forest is protected as a National Heritage site and together with the reserve forests adjacent to it, comprise about 47,000 hectares. These, together with the small forest areas surviving in the South West lowlands, accepted as areas of 'high biodiversity and endemism' are considered the richest in fauna and flora diversity in South Asia. They are now being protected as conservation forests under the Forest Department. Logging of all wet zone forests has been stopped from 1983. But the density of the population in the southern areas, the high value tea now being produced there (lowland wet zone tea fetches the highest yield and commands the highest prices in the Middle East markets) and various development works such as the construction of roads to remote villages, pose an ever present threat to the small forests and even to Sinharajah. A strong civil society effort is necessary to help in preserving these forests.

It is the many ecological climatic zones with rich ecosystem variety that accounts for Sri Lanka's high biodiversity. However these ecological systems face great threats due to habitat loss. This is happening continuously; loss of wetlands for housing, of mangroves for prawn farms, coral reefs blown up for building materials and blast fishing, all contribute to the loss of biodiversity. In the coral reefs and in inland waters, fish are being collected for a lucrative and growing market in ornamental fish. There has been a recent ban on the collection of certain species, but smuggling continues. It is not an exaggeration to say that there is a threat to biodiversity with a poor prognosis for the year 2015.

Biological diversity also means the diversity of crops and animals reared by human beings and developed over the centuries. For instance in the case of rice, over 120,000 varieties have been developed worldwide. In Sri Lanka 2,800 varieties have been listed. But with the green revolution, these have been sacrificed for varieties giving greater yields. Appendix Table 7(iv) shows that in 1990, 36,140 hectares were sown with traditional seeds while in 1998 this was reduced to only 888 hectares. This trend continues. Bananas, yams, pepper and other spices all have many varieties which fit into different ecological zones and soil patterns. This table indicates the trend in loss of traditional varieties. There are some civil society groups, some of them led by women, non governmental organisations and others attempting to preserve these old varieties, not only of rice, but other fruits and vegetable cultivars as well.

Agriculture and fisheries form a major part of the economic and food security of the country. Wild varieties continuously interact with cultivars giving rise to varieties that can adapt to changing climatic and edaphic conditions. Women could be motivated to preserve traditional seeds and cultivars, if given the opportunity.

The loss of habitats such as wetlands are of particular significance to women, who used the reeds and grasses to make handicrafts for home use and for sale. Mats, baskets, boxes, measuring and cleaning equipment for grain were all products of the raw material of wetlands. Their loss has increased the poverty of rural women.

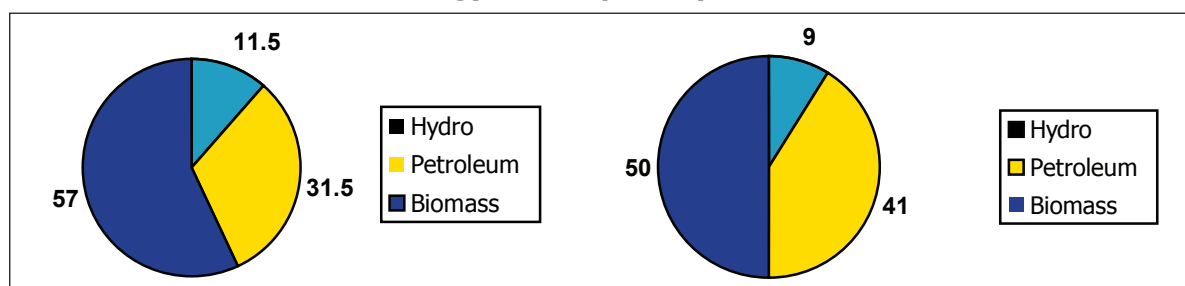
Mangroves provided food in the form of fish and fruit from the trees. They are the fishing grounds of small fisherman and women who can fish in the relative safety of lagoon waters. They also provide wood for fuel. Mangrove roots are a good breeding place for prawns and lagoon fish. Loss of mangroves and lagoons affect men and women alike.

Energy Use

Status and trends

There are three major sources of energy in Sri Lanka. Hydro energy, petroleum and wood fuel (termed biomass). The proportion of population using biomass fuels should be considered together with energy use. Other forms of renewable energy do not make an impact as yet. The relevant figure is how much wood based fuel is used and how it is used.

Figure 7.1
Energy Consumption by Sectors



Source: Energy Conservation Fund, Sri Lanka Energy Balance 2001

Biomass is made up of two components - biomass as crop residues generally from coconut and rubber plantations, and fuel wood from forests. Crop residues account for the major part of fuel used in cooking, while industry uses wood from jungles or plantations. At present there is an over supply, but the quantity of excess biomass is decreasing. When demand exceeds supply there will be a problem and there will be an adverse effect on the natural forests. Therefore forest plantations should be grown fast to fulfil this need. Plantations can provide 10 million tonnes of fuel which is equivalent to 3.8 million tonnes of oil (National Science Foundation, 2000: 120).

The burning of wood sends carbon dioxide into the atmosphere. The coal power plant at Norochchalai has been approved after many years of wrangling and is expected to supply 300 - 900 megawatts in ten years - about 3% of power - and will contribute to the carbon dioxide in the atmosphere. Carbon dioxide is neutralised by the forests which are considered to be a carbon sink. For the balance to be maintained it would be essential not only to maintain present forest cover but also to increase it. Hydropower does not contribute to greenhouse gases, but has other effects on the environment. Practically all major sources of hydropower have been exploited in Sri Lanka and mini and micro hydro systems are being developed.

Population Using Solid Fuel

Although Appendix Table 7(v) shows that there is an increase of the percentage of petroleum energy used, with the very high prices of petroleum at present there would be a movement towards energy from renewable sources. Wood based energy will continue to be used as long as there is a supply. Energy from wind, solar and dendro-power and from mini hydrosystems, although negligible today, are also being encouraged. An estimate from these sources for 2015 should be made on a reasoned basis. The present middle class movement towards using gas for cooking, may not increase as rapidly as expected because of the recent steep price increases, unless gas is found in the country. It is therefore important that more efficient and women friendly wood stoves be developed.

Fuel-efficient stove programme

Fifty per cent (50%) of the total energy supply in the country comes from biomass and is estimated to be used by 76% of households and industry use, biomass. Yet this sector operates without any policy support from the government. Billions are spent on other forms of energy, but even the fuel-efficient stove programme has got no real government support.

In the 1970s the Ceylon Electricity Board (CEB) and the NGO, Sarvodaya designed low priced fuel-efficient clay stoves to decrease the amount of fuelwood or biomass used in domestic cooking. Of these, the CEBs ANAGI stove has survived because the construction and popularisation of this stove was taken over by an NGO, the Integrated Development Agency (IDEA). Today IDEA has produced a large number of stoves and trained a number of traditional potters to produce this stove. However, further improvement is possible. About 300,000 stoves are being produced per year. In addition, larger stoves for small industrial purposes such as curd and yoghurt making and treacle and jaggery production have been introduced. Apart from saving in fuel, the stoves also reduce the amount of smoke produced and so reduce indoor air pollution.

For rural women, whether rich or poor, the fuel consumed for cooking is biomass and/or wood fuel from forests. This stove therefore directly benefits women with regard to health as well as time spent in searching for fuelwood. The draw back is that being made of clay they are liable to break and have to be replaced. Poor families are reluctant to make an outlay unless compelled to do so, particularly if the women have no income of their own. The development and propagation of the ANAGI stove will help women as it will reduce the workload and improve health. Therefore the development of this stove for greater efficiency and propagation, island wide should be encouraged.

Women collect their fuel from the environment, from their own home gardens, hedges, and from forests. Going into forests alone is dangerous and generally it has been a planned undertaking. Women have been generally careful about what they took from the forest as they knew that sustainability of the resource was important. "We were careful only to take the dead wood. When we gathered what was in the forest in season, like mushrooms or fruit, we took only what was necessary for the day," said the women of Kinchigune, a village that was inundated to form the Samanalawewa on their experiences while living there (Vitarana, 1996).

Dense forests are being illegally logged to supply the need for fuel wood. Currently, lorry loads of wood for fuel are being transported from forests over the country illegally. These activities constitute a danger to the conservation of forests turning dense forest into sparse forest and eventually to scrub land. With the reduction of crop residues due to conversion of rubber plantations to tea plantations, the situation can worsen and the forests will be at risk. It will affect the women who have to go further to find domestic fuel. It is imperative therefore that government pays attention to the need for encouraging plantations even by private sector or rural inhabitants to supply this need in the future.

Indoor air pollution – A health hazard for women

Indoor air pollution (IAP) is an important factor that has to be considered when biomass fuel in poor homes where there is insufficient ventilation. Indoor air pollution due to the inhalation of wood smoke during cooking on the present types of hearths, presents a health hazard for women and children in all developing countries. The World Health Organisation (WHO) has identified Indoor Air Pollution (IAP) as a source of acute lower respiratory infections (ALRI) in children under five years and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) in women who are subject to this very high level of pollution indoors. The particulates (minute particles which can enter the lungs) are present when biomass fuels are burnt. They are most harmful to women and young children who are in the kitchen, when their mothers cook. In May 2006, WHO conducted an Inter Regional Workshop on Indoor Air Pollution (IAP) and Household Energy Monitoring because of the dangers posed by IAP. WHO estimates that about three fourths of exposure to particulate air pollution occurs indoors both in the rural areas (50%) and in cities (25%).

One of the targets of the Plan of Action drafted by the Ministry of Women's Affairs and the National Committee of Women was the provision of better ventilation in kitchens and provision of fuel stoves.

Carbon Dioxide Emissions

Carbon dioxide emissions are found to be heaviest in the cities and the Western Province where vehicular emissions are responsible for about 65% of the air pollution. The emissions will be mainly cancelled by the carbon dioxide sink that the forests provide but could do harm to the population before that. The use of ozone depleting substances are also very small, but may rise by the year 2015. Other emissions such as sulphur dioxide have also been found in the Colombo city air. The Clean Air surveillance keeps people informed about the air pollution in the city and the Clean Air Action Plan tries to mitigate the gases going to the atmosphere.

Environment Impact Assessment

Environment Impact Assessment (EIA) is a very important tool in the pursuance of environment sustainability. In fact it is the link between development and environment sustainability. In Sri Lanka the formulation of Environment Impact Assessment studies for major development was made a necessity under the National Environment Act (1988). Many improvements have been made to the procedures to improve the social impacts under the environmental impacts. Social Impact Assessment (SIA) is now an essential part of EIA. Under the Environment Impact Regulations, public views and participation are called for (although sometimes in the breach). It is recognised that a special effort has to be made to get the views and participation of women into the EIA if we are to consult women on the impact of development plans on their lives and livelihoods (Vitarana, 2000). There is a move, in other countries, to include a Gender Impact Assessment.

Unfortunately there is a trend in Sri Lanka today to treat the EIA as an unnecessary impediment to development and even to circumvent it. Proponents of projects which, in addition to making adverse impacts on the environment, displace families, take them away from the source of water, fuel and livelihood, make little attempt to particularly address and get the views of the women or even the general public. In fact the tendency to alter the EIA recommended paths with no reference to people or environment (or the Central Environmental Authority) is a disturbing development. Women are thus generally ignored when development projects are mooted. For instance, when there was a great deal of development going on in the coastal regions mainly for the tourist industry, which affected the fisher folk and their families, especially their housing, women were not consulted.

The tsunami changed the face of the coast line and its development. The 100 meter buffer zone rule has forbidden damaged houses being repaired or those destroyed being rebuilt within the buffer zone. The extent of the buffer zone has been modified in December 2005. However we hope that the old unsanitary housing units will no longer be seen and that a larger proportion of people will have basic sanitation facilities as envisaged in the MDGs.

The plus side of the picture is that more women are becoming aware of the dangers to the environment due to deforestation and pesticide use and have formed organisations (NGOs and CBOs) to counter these trends. They are taking an interest in more environmentally friendly forms of agriculture such as organic farming, using organic compost and researching into indigenous varieties of food such as yams. This is only a very small percentage at present, but women once motivated can make a difference to environment sustainability. In fact particular attention has to be given to bring in the participation of the entire population to achieve this goal.

Target 10	Halve, by 2015 the proportion of people without sustainable access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation
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Indicator	1994	2001	2015
30. Proportion of population with sustainable access to an improved water source (urban and rural)	72	82	*100
31. Proportion of urban and rural population with access to improved sanitation	86	92	100

Source: Department of Census and Statistics, Census of Population and Housing 2001

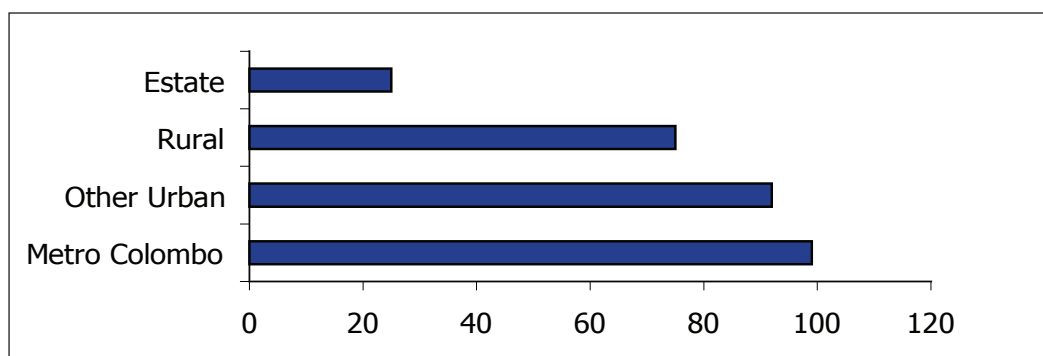
Considering the figures given for 2001, the target for 2015, should be changed to - universal access to safe drinking water and basic sanitation.

Status and Trends

Providing drinking water for the human population is a goal towards improving human quality of life and alleviating some effects of poverty. But this alone will not ensure environment sustainability unless there is sufficient water for other activities such as agriculture and the environment - apart from other

calls on water. Sometimes drinking water is given priority at the expense of agriculture and the natural environment. Therefore since the supply of fresh water cannot be increased, its loss in other ways mainly by pollution should be prevented.

Figure 7.2
Access to Safe Drinking water



Source: Department of Census and Statistics, Sri Lanka Demographic and Health Survey 2000

It is seen from Figure 7.2 that the estate area is very poor with respect to the supply of safe drinking water. However, in estates in the hill country, where most estate labour lives, there are many mountain streams which supply clean water even if it is not chlorinated.

In the more 'developed areas' much water is lost particularly to homesteads because of pollution. Pollution of water is caused by effluents from industry, excess of nutrients, such as nitrates from fertilisers and pesticides, bacterial pollution from sewage, sediments from cleared lands, toxic compounds from hospital and industrial waste. These reduce the quantity of water that is available to support life, for domestic purposes and even for industry. Therefore pollution if not checked affects environmental sustainability. Since it has an important effect on the target of providing necessary access to drinking water, the reduction of pollution should be used as an indicator.

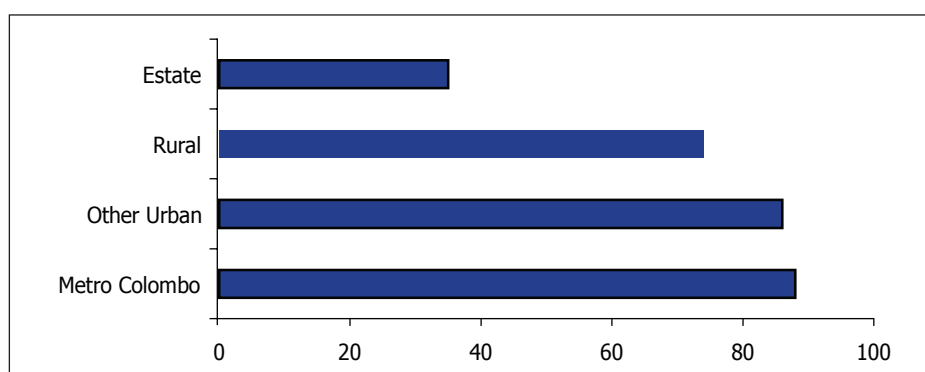
Safe drinking water is supplied to major and minor towns by the National Water Supply and Drainage Board (NWSDB) to 5.16 million beneficiaries in 2005. It targets a further two million by 2015. The Board insists that it does not ever supply untreated water and that at least basic chlorination is always done. The water supplies to Colombo, particularly from Labugama and Kalatuwawa, are stringently treated and are said to be of high quality. The wells in and around industrial estates suffer from untreated effluent going into the ground or surrounding water bodies. Every industry is expected to treat its effluent before discharge and is the subject of the environment protection license issued by the Central Environment Authority.

Almost a hundred thousand families displaced by the tsunami were accommodated in temporary shelters and had to be supplied with clean water. The bulk of this work fell on the NWSDB, ably assisted by UNICEF and international NGOs. However, nearly 15 months later, there were still a large number of families in shelter sites who had problems with the supply of drinking water, causing problems to the women who are entrusted with the task of obtaining clean water. The Tsunami would have been a set back to NWSDB's plans for the country, but they will try to achieve their target by the year 2015. Appendix Tables 7(vi) and 7(vii) give figures of the proportion of the population with access to safe water and sanitation obtained from the demographic survey carried out in 1993 and 2000 by the Department of Census and Statistics. These tables do not include the North and East.

However one must be wary of these statistics. They are computed on the basis that pipe borne water, water from protected wells (with surrounding walls) or from tube wells, are safe drinking water. Water from unprotected wells and other sources, that is, from streams and wewas (tanks) are considered unsafe. However, by this criterion Ratnapura District, a large area of which has the highest annual rainfall and highest number of rainy days per year (229 in 2000), and an abundance of springs and rivulets with good quality water, is stated to be an area of limited safe drinking water. In 2000 it was said to have only 58.0% of households with safe drinking water, while Anuradhapura, where annually chronic droughts affect the area, had in 2000, 84% households with safe drinking water. But during the dry season in Anuradhapura, women have to go long distances to find any drinking water, while Ratnapura has an abundance all year round.

The availability of safe drinking water affects women most in their lives, and the situation should be carefully investigated in each Divisional Secretariat before allocating resources. Water is the most important factor in the domestic scene for a woman. It is her task and responsibility to find good quality water everyday. In this situation it is very necessary that housewives, be they labourers or lawyers, should be consulted on water supply schemes for their areas. Women should also be represented on development schemes that will affect the water supply. Women in arid zones have to go long distances in search of water. Sometimes the water is inaccessible at the very bottom of a deep well during the drought and women have to go to the wewa (tank), which may be depleted and/or contaminated. There are many traditional schemes, but modern technology also can help. In these areas schemes for domestic rain water harvesting are important. Care should be taken to monitor the ground water sources for availability and contamination. This should be considered a priority for Provincial Councils in those areas. Women must agitate for their right to safe drinking water. Environmental rights are coming to be accepted as a human right. They should also be included in among women's rights.

Figure 7.3
Access to Sanitary Facilities



Source: Department of Census and Statistics, Sri Lanka Demographic and Health Survey 2000

Sanitation is a part of environment sustainability and goes hand in hand with water supply. Appendix Table 7(vii) indicates the situation in 1993 and 2000. Provision of toilets has been carried out by numerous non governmental organisations, enabling the present position to be reached. In fact the Water Decade, which was heavily involved in rural water supply projects, is still involved in this activity of providing toilets in rural areas. Plantation housing units are the worst off. In fact the Sri Lanka Demographic and Health Survey 2000, said "[t]he proportion of households with sanitary latrines is 73.0% on the average, but differs from 87.3% in metro Colombo, 86.5% in other urban areas, to 72.6 % in the rural sector; and 35.5 % in the estate sector" (p.12).

One of the projects to help the rural sector to have sufficient drinking water is the Community Water Supply and Sanitation Project (CWSSP), which was inaugurated by the Ministry of Housing in 1993 and is now conducted by the Ministry of Urban Development and Water Supply. One of the objectives of the project is Capacity Building of Community Based Organisations (CBOs), Partner organisations and other stakeholders to deliver and manage water supply and sanitation services effectively and in a sustainable manner. It aims to improve the quality of life of the rural population.

It is innovative in that the projects under this programme should be community planned, constructed and community managed. It should also be community owned. What is of great interest to us is that according to the director of the CWSSP, in this process, there is a high involvement of women, from the planning stage to the implementing and managing stages.

The first phase of the project was carried out in the Matara, Badulla and Ratnapura Districts. From 1999, the following districts were added Colombo, Gampaha and Kurunegala. The second CWSSP covered Kurunegala, Kandy, Nuwara Eliya, Trincomalee and Hambantota.

Low Income Urban Dwellers

Target 11	By 2020 to have achieved a significant improvement in the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers
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Indicator	1990	2000	2015
32. Proportion of households with access to secure tenure	n.a.	n.a.	

Status and Trends

In Sri Lanka, most of the slum dwellers are found in Colombo city and cannot be counted in terms of millions as the entire population of greater Colombo is approximately 1.5 million. They live in tenements euphemistically called 'gardens' (translation of watta) or in unauthorised shanties. Other towns of Sri Lanka do not have large groups of slum dwellers as such as the populations are small and most people travel from villages to work in the city.

Some settlements are estimated to have over 50% of female headed households. Although claimed to be male headed (many other households) are in actual fact maintained by the wage earnings of the woman, while in many instances the so-called head even if he works, spends it on alcohol often resulting in domestic violence.

Some of them work as Municipal labourers, sweeping roads, others work in the informal sector, yet others in private sector establishments packing tea or goods, but generally in the cleaning department. Wages are low, but there is work to be found.

Generally Colombo Municipality/Central government has programmes to improve the housing of the very poor. For example in the 1980s the Navagamuwa housing scheme, gave about 2-4 perches of land and a loan to build house, but with common toilets which were not very good for hygiene. The problem is that as soon as families leave the shanties, there are others to move into them unless promptly demolished.

Water is available from the stand posts supplied by the National Water Supply and Drainage Board. Although it has been shown that the loss from the stand posts is only 4%, the Board has tried to dispense with these in the last few years and have made efforts to supply individual tenements with water. Attempts to remove these stand posts on the grounds of being wasteful have to be resisted, as without these the poor of Colombo will be deprived of clean drinking water and fall into even greater poverty. The slum dwellers of Colombo are better off compared to those of other Asian cities, with huge slum populations, in some of which water supply has been privatised and the poverty of the poor is exacerbated by having to pay huge sums to water providers.

The problem lies with the lack of proper sanitation, which accounts for the pollution of the canals that go through the city. Almost all toilets in slums and shanties end up in the canals. The sewerage system is old and bursting at the seams. Authorities have to address this in the very near future.

Another problem in the city is the disposal of garbage. There is a tendency to call on the women to help solve this problem, but as the women have rightly refused to bear the burdens alone, the men should be equally addressed on this issue. The Central Environment Authority and the Municipality have two sections working on this problem and are still trying to solve it. The difficulty of finding a suitable landfill is a major obstacle.

The women living in these slums show a remarkable resilience in overcoming their problems. Many have gone to the Middle East and returned with sufficient money to put up a house, however small, and even if unauthorised. Many buildings are unauthorised, but eventually the municipality may give them an assessment number and a water connection after investigation. Many have put up toilets whose contents end up in a drain or canal. Many women go to the Middle East leaving their families, with no

proper care for young children, and exposing children to trauma and abuse. Since many of these migrant workers bring in so much foreign exchange to the country, the government should spend some money in developing a system of social visits or supervision programmes for these very vulnerable children.

Challenges and Priorities

Challenges and priorities to enhance the role of women as conservers and managers of the environment are manifold.

A The first set of priorities pertain to the protection and the management of the environment:

- i) to maintain the present forest cover; to regain the degraded forests through re-afforestation; to maintain remaining village forests, so that they could be used in a sustainable manner by village people; and to involve women in maintaining the sustainability of the environment,
- ii) to maintain the present protected areas of wet zone forest, particularly lowland wet zone forests so rich in biological diversity; to give assistance to women who wish to preserve traditional seeds and cultivars; and to protect the remaining areas of wetlands and mangroves, and
- iii) to research into more efficient means of using biomass so that less could be used and health hazards to those who use this fuel reduced; to grow more plantations and encourage agro-forestry among the people wherever possible so that the pressure on the forests will be reduced; and to encourage the use of renewable energy to produce electricity.

B The second group of priorities relate to living condition in the immediate environment:

- i) to ensure a supply of safe drinking water to the entire population of Sri Lanka by 2015; to ensure sanitary facilities to 90% of the population (including the North and East); and to improve the sewerage system of Colombo and to install sewerage systems in at two more cities, and
- ii) to involve women in the slum improvement programme; improve the sanitation and garbage situation in Colombo and evolve care programmes for children in vulnerable groups.

Many UN conferences in the 1990s and their publications, namely Agenda 21 from the Earth Summit of 1992, the Declaration of the 1994 conference on Population and Development, and The Beijing Platform for Action in 1995, together with CEDAW and its protocol have indicated that women should be involved in the policy making and management of the environment along with men. In attempting to achieve Millennium Development Goals, the recommendations of these conferences should be taken into account.

In Sri Lanka with the election of a new President, the new policy spelled out in the Mahinda Chintana, is very much in favour of poverty alleviation in the rural areas through the improvement of the rural economy and the rural people. It follows that environment sustainability must be achieved for this rural improvement to take place.

There is in the environmental scene in Sri Lanka, a supportive structure in the form of legal enactments and a desire on the part of the government - generally the minister in charge of environment and natural resources - to implement these laws. However, environment is a cross cutting subject, practically every ministry is involved in one aspect or another and it is difficult to expect the same commitment to environment sustainability all round. The practice of democratic government where generally politicians have to seek votes every five or six years to get elected, tends to encourage a short-term view of things which is not good for environment sustainability.

Similarly, gender is also a cross cutting issue, but is seen mainly as a matter for the Ministry of Women's Affairs. Empowering women to participate in management, will increase their self respect and confidence and will enable them to face other difficulties in their lives. In this respect civil society has a major role to play. Since environment degradation affects women in their gender roles both in the rural and urban environment and particularly in the health of the children, it is important for women to take a very proactive role in environment management.

To achieve the Millennium Development Goals with a gender perspective it is necessary to get the help of civil society in the form of non governmental women's organisations and community based organisations (NGOs and CBOs). There are some very active organisations with women in the lead, but environmental awareness has to be increased among women for them to play a significant role. Some have formed themselves into a forum, the Sri Lanka Women's NGO Forum at which environmental

aspects are also represented. Other regional NGOs and CBOs have addressed themselves to the environment particularly in the area of agriculture, maintaining plant nurseries and in a leadership role in water supply and sanitation projects.

Infrastructure is necessary for women in civil society at the 'grass roots level' to play lead roles as they do in the Community Water Supply and Sanitation Projects. The difficulties that limit them are lack of infrastructure, particularly communication, regionally. There are also problems when there are young children and household duties. It is important to note that women already carry a heavy workload, particularly if they are employed. Sensitising of policy makers and executives in the government sector is necessary to achieve this goal.



**A GLOBAL
PARTNERSHIP FOR
DEVELOPMENT**

GOAL 8

BY LEELANGI WANASUNDERA

Global Partnership for Development

Goal 8 Develop a Global Partnership for Development

Trade and the Reform of the Global System of Trade

Target 12	Develop further an open, rule-based predictable, non discriminatory trading and financial system
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Indicators	1990	2002	2015
None	-	-	-

The final goal, Goal 8 of the MDGs, which is to develop a global partnership for development, has seven targets of which five are relevant to Sri Lanka, namely the reform of the global system of trade, overseas development assistance, productive work for youth, pharmaceutical drugs, and information and communication technology. Indicators have been identified for all the targets except for Target 12 – develop further an open, rule-based predictable, non-discriminatory trading and financial system. Goal 8 is primarily directed at the industrialised countries and international organisations and is therefore one that is fundamental to the achievement of MDGs. However, women's roles and needs are not taken into account in this Goal and they are referred to only in respect of youth employment and the number of Internet users.

Status and Trends

International trade regimes, liberalisation, and trade regulations have gender dimensions especially through the sectors of the economy which have a concentration of women. These differential impacts are seen in Sri Lanka with liberalisation and greater integration with the global economy. Women are concentrated in, and are the majority in export oriented industries especially in the free trade zones and in the migratory labour force. The plantation sector had been already employing women. These employment opportunities have provided a much needed income for women and their families but the quality of employment has in many instances reinforced gender inequalities without empowering them. Greater gender equality can promote growth and benefit the economy as a whole by increasing female productivity.

The scope of the World Trade Organisation (WTO) multilateral trade regime, which replaced the General Agreement on Trade and Tariffs (GATT) (and the Tokyo Round of Plurilateral Agreements) is wider and its effects far-reaching. The WTO has been criticised for its flawed conceptualisation, bias against developing countries and for taking non trading issues. The multilateral system, it is argued, should first determine the type of system that would best enable countries to achieve their development objectives without just focusing on maximising trading and investment opportunities. The Outcome Document acknowledges that domestic policies, especially trade, are framed by international commitments and global market considerations and that each country needs to determine the trade-off between international commitments and national interests. Nageer and others (2003) argue that a focus on equity, development and poverty eradication will have far reaching implications for the manner in which the international trading regime and the WTO functions.

Sri Lanka is firmly committed to the WTO (Central Bank of Sri Lanka, 2006). The possible impact of the WTO on women has not been researched widely and consequently trade negotiators have not been sensitised to gender issues. If trade liberalisation aims at raising of living standards for all, then gender impacts need to be addressed, just as the impact of trade measures on rural - urban and poor – rich populations are addressed.

Sri Lanka's integration into the global economy was as a supplier of labour intensive products, the major products being garments and the low cost labour of migrant workers. Of the labour intensive products the textiles and garment industry provided the major share of exports with total exports increasing from just 2.0% in 1977 to 45.6% in 2005 (Central Bank of Sri Lanka, 2006). An estimated 330,000 women were employed in over 1,000 factories in the industry.

Trade in garments was carried out mainly under the Multi Fibre Agreement (MFA) through individual producer-buyer agreements. However non-quota items have grown in recent years and now, account for almost 50% of the exports. It is expected that the various measures that have been taken will enable the garment industry to meet the post-2005 challenges when the Agreement on Textiles and Clothing replaced the MFA. The Central Bank of Sri Lanka (2006) reports that the sector had been able to retain its market share while recording a growth rate of 3% in 2005.

While major companies are adjusting to the post-MFA period small and medium scale producers have become vulnerable. Job losses were estimated to be around 20% of the total workforce - that is about 66,000 were expected to be retrenched. However some of these workers have found employment with the small and medium scale industries that undertake subcontracting work for the larger companies. Those who are retained in the industry may benefit from better working conditions as Sri Lanka complies with the WTO rules on fair-trading. While job losses will occur in the short term, retrenched workers are expected to find alternative sources of employment in the long term (Weerahewa and Ariyawardana n. d.). One such avenue is as migrant domestic workers and garment factory workers. In the short term however the women, who are mainly from rural areas, and their families that were supported by them will be under considerable economic strain.

The implications of General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS), the Agreement on Agriculture (AoA), Trade Related Investment Measures, Trade-Related Aspects of Intellectual Property Rights (TRIPS) on Sri Lankan women have not been analysed. Under the GATS countries will gradually liberalise their service sectors. The areas that are being negotiated include health, water, food security, sanitation, and education - services that are essential to women's social reproductive work in the care economy. However, government policy is to maintain educational and health services.

The Agreement on Agriculture (AoA) has three issues namely market access, export subsidies and domestic support. The impact of AoA on women in agriculture cannot be ascertained since their work is not valued and unaccounted for. Since women's involvement in agricultural activities is predominantly as unskilled, unpaid family workers, more in depth research is required to ascertain the impact of AoA on them.

Challenges and Priorities

Liberalisation of trade and greater integration with the global economy will affect women at the macro, meso and micro levels. From a gender perspective liberalisation will have positive effects if the sectors that expand are more female-intensive than the sectors that contract. Greater integration with the global economy will have a negative effect at the meso level if a loss of revenue from trade liberalisation results in the curtailment of services such as education and health that primarily affect women. At the micro level effects will depend on whether trade creates or destroys sources of independent income for women.

In Sri Lanka economic liberalisation did expand sectors that employ women in large numbers such as the garment industry and has provided them with independent incomes that contributed to their greater autonomy and empowerment. This holds true for migrant women workers as well. However, there have been negative effects. Garment factory workers and to a greater extent migrant women workers have worked under exploitative working conditions. The challenge then would be to put in place minimum standards in keeping with accepted norms and provide protection especially to migrant workers.

The implementation of the Agreement on Clothing and Textiles (ACT) was expected to result in a large number of women being retrenched. Alternative employment opportunities must be created, re-training should be put in place and products that use female labour should be developed and promoted. Women who can be successful entrepreneurs must be supported through training, skill development, access to information and marketing support among others.

Gender analysis and gender and social impact assessments should be undertaken to ensure that national policies related to international and regional trade agreements do not have an adverse impact on women's new and traditional economic activities. A gender analysis must be made mandatory in all future trade negotiations and gender issues taken for discussion at trade negotiations. Research on the relationship between trade and gender should be conducted focusing on areas of women's competitive advantage.

Overseas Development Assistance (ODA)

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 run
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Indicators	1990	2000	2015
33. Net ODA \$	42.9	14.3	
34. Proportion of ODA going to basic social services		23.0 (2002)	
35. Proportion of bilateral ODA that is untied			
44. Debt service as a percentage of exports of goods and services	17.8	14.7	
* Proportion of ODA going to achieve gender equality	n.a.	n.a.	15

Source: Department of External Resources, Foreign Aid Review 2004

Status and Trends

Sri Lanka has been in receipt of overseas development assistance since 1965. The quantum and type of aid as well as donors have changed over the years. Total foreign assistance declined from Rs.22, 792 mn. in 1996 to Rs.15, 215 mn in 2000 but has increased substantially to Rs.86,460 mn in 2005¹ (Central Bank of Sri Lanka, 2006). As a low middle income country Sri Lanka's access to concessional funds has declined over the years while the loan component increased three-fold from 1996 to 2004. Grants increased by approximately 12% with a substantial increase being recorded in 2005, in the aftermath of the tsunami disaster.

The Asian Development Bank (ADB), the Government of Japan and the World Bank together have accounted for the bulk of ODA during the past decade. The major donors for the year 2004 were ADB (34%), Government of Japan (25%), World Bank (20%), UN agencies 2.2%, and India (2%) (Sri Lanka. Department of External Resources, 2006).

The total debt outstanding increased by 30% as at end 2004. The principal payment increased by 26% while the interest payment recorded an increase of 20% and the total debt service payment increased by 25%. According to the debt service forecast debt service payments on the current debt stock will increase by an annual average of 9% from 2005-2009 (Sri Lanka. Department of External Resources, 2006).

In the period 1990-2002 the bulk of foreign aid has been committed for economic infrastructure (34.9%), social infrastructure (19.7%), agriculture (14.8%) and finance and banking (13.0%). In 2003 and 2004 ODA commitments for economic infrastructure had declined to 25.6% and 10.4% respectively while social infrastructure accounted for 45.7% in 2003 and 39.2% in 2004 (Table 8.1) Other sectors that were beneficiaries were trade, environment, private sector development, industrial development, science and technology, labour and vocational training, construction, justice, cultural activities defence, and media.

Social infrastructure and agriculture have a direct bearing on women. Foreign assistance for education and health sub sectors has been fluctuating during the period and averaged 4.4% and 2.1% respectively of aid disbursements in the period 1990-2002 but increased substantially in 2003 and 2004. Assistance for education, which declined from a high of US\$69.5mn in 2000 to US\$9.5mn in 2002 increased to US\$46.9mn in 2004. Assistance to the health sector has also been increasing from 1990-2004.

The agricultural sector was in receipt of 3.6% aid from 1900 - 2002. However the amount has been declining steadily in the three years 2000-2003 but increased in 2004. The amount allocated for rural development also showed significant increases in 2002 and 2004. A majority of women live in rural areas and are engaged in subsistence agriculture. More women than men are unemployed. If the individual projects include gender as a cross cutting issue and women's concerns are incorporated in projects they could benefit from the increased assistance going into agriculture and rural development.

¹ Provisional

Table 8.1
Aid Commitments by Sector Classification (USD in mn)

Sector		1990	1999	2000	2003	2004
01. Agriculture		80.8	148.0	74.7	73.3	229.0
1.1	Agriculture	36.4	36.5	7.3	0.4	82.3
1.2	Forestry	24.9	0.0	38.1	0.0	0.0
1.3	Fisheries & Aquatics Resources	0.6	39.4	20.6	6.2	2.5
1.4	Livestock Development		0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
1.5	Land & Irrigation	0.0	11.7	1.1	50.7	0.0
1.6	Plantation	0.0	37.3	0.2	15.5	0.0
1.7	Rural Development	18.9	23.0	7.4	0.5	144.2
02. Economic Infrastructure		217.0	351.2	88.5	270.5	123.1
2.1	Air Transport	0.0	107.2	0.0	0.0	0.0
2.2	Communication	43.1	4.8	0.0	1.4	57.8
2.3	Ground Transport	191.4	207.9	12.5	157.8	38.7
2.4	Ports & Shipping	40.3	19.1	49.5	0.0	0.0
2.5	Power & Energy	114.8	12.2	26.5	111.3	26.6
03. Social Infrastructure		129.8	109.1	132.6	483.5	452.6
3.1	Education & Vocational Training	62.1	20.6	69.5	187.6	46.9
3.2	Health	5.2	0.6	4.8	33.1	86.6
3.3	Housing & Urban Development	1.8	0.5	0.0	3.0	0.4
3.4	Rehabilitation	13.5	6.9	1.4	124.9	233.1
3.5	Social Welfare	1.9	0.7	32.9	16.5	42.2
3.6	Water Supply & Sewerage	45.3	79.8	24.0	118.4	43.4
04. Finance & Banking		355.8	6.3	4.9	161.3	94.2
4.1	Balance of Payment	46.1	6.3	4.8	159.3	45.9
4.2	Finance & Banking	309.7	0.0	0.1	2.0	48.3
05. Private Sector Development		8.4	62.8	28.8	34.4	171.4
06. Industrial Development		28.2	0.1	0.5	0.0	27.8
07. Trade		0.0	0.0	4.2	6.8	8.2
08. Environment		2.5	2.2	3.4	11.2	52.3
09. Cultural Activities		0.3	0.4	0.5	0.0	18.3
10. Defence		0.0	0.0	10.5	0.0	0.0
11. Science & Technology		2.8	18.8	0.3	12.2	0.0
12. General		2.4	40.2	1.9	1.5	0.0
13. Other		29.0	6.0	18.2	1.5	0.6
Total		1039.2	745.1	369.0	1058.1	1179.6

Sources: Department of External Resources, Foreign Aid Review 2003 and 2004

Donor priorities change periodically as also their preferences. Several donors such as the ADB prepare country strategies in which priorities are formulated based on emerging imperatives. Some of the other donors also have included gender through the development of gender strategies or by identifying it as a priority area.

The country strategy of the ADB, one of Sri Lanka's largest donors has an explicit reference to gender. The main components of the strategy are: (i) strengthening the Government's capacity to analyse the situation and needs of poor women, especially ageing women, in order to identify some of the main issues and how they can be incorporated into ADB's future lending programme; (ii) supporting the Government's efforts to collect, monitor and evaluate data on the impact of poverty reduction programmes on women; (iii) if feasible, to document the impact of the civil conflict on women, particularly the economic impact of the creation of thousands of female headed households; and (iv) assessing the needs of returning women migrant workers and how they could best be reintegrated into the economy.

The World Bank aims at reducing gender disparities in access to education and health, increasing women's economic participation and influencing institutional changes.

Of the UN agencies UNICEF focuses mainly on children and women, while the UNFPA and UNIFEM focus almost exclusively on women. UNIFEM was also responsible for introducing a gendered approach on the development of immediate and mid-term support programming for the peace process and the UN. The UNDP is using the recently developed gender mainstreaming strategy to guide its work in the 2002-2006 Country Cooperation Framework. The focus of UNFPA is largely on reproductive health and gender is a cross cutting theme. The FAO works in a sector that is of vital importance to women. However gender is not incorporated into its programmes.

Among the bilateral donors Japan has been contributing the highest amount of foreign assistance throughout the review period. Its priorities include infrastructure development, development of the manufacturing industries, agriculture, forestry and fisheries, human resources development, improving the health and medical care system, poverty alleviation and environment. Within these priorities Japan gives preference to funding projects, which address inter sectoral issues such as poverty alleviation, reduction of economic disparities between regions, and women. However Japan has no explicit gender strategy. Bilateral donors that have identified women and gender as a priority area are Germany, the Netherlands, NORAD and Australia. While Canada does not have gender as a priority area it expects gender to be considered as a cross cutting theme and to be incorporated where appropriate. Assistance from the United Kingdom and Italy, which includes the health and education sectors, would benefit women. The other donors - China, India and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia concentrate on infrastructure development.

Challenges and Priorities

The lack of disaggregated data and sex disaggregated data precluded a more detailed analysis of the disbursement and utilisation of foreign assistance to be carried out from a regional and gender perspective. However the majority of donors have recognised the need to address gender issues but it was not possible to identify the quantum of assistance that benefitted women due to the difficulty in disaggregating project components. To ensure that foreign assistance contributes to the elimination of gender disparities and improves the economic and social conditions of women a more targetted approach to the identification of priority areas will need to be followed.

Indicators – A new indicator - the Proportion of ODA allocated to Achieve Gender Equality is proposed.

Productive Work for Youth

Target 16	Develop and complement strategies for decent and productive work for youth
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Indicator	1996			2002			2015		
Unemployment rate of young people aged 15-24 years, each sex and total	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
	26.2	40.3	31.9	23.8	34.3	27.9	8	10	9
*Number of bilateral agreements entered into with labour importing countries	-		-			-			10

Sources: Department of Census Statistics, Labour Force Survey 1996 and 2002

The population comprising young adults between the ages 15-24 years constituted 38% of the total population in 2001 (Sri Lanka. Department of Census and Statistics, 2001). The female population in the age group 15 - 24 accounted for 18.7% while the corresponding figure for males was 19.3%. Thus over a third of the total population comprises young adults who are at an age when they are most productive. Creating appropriate employment opportunities for them will be an important challenge for Sri Lanka.

The total unemployment rate in Sri Lanka has declined over the years but the rate for women remains higher than for men. Unemployment has affected women, those with a secondary or higher education, and youth. Unemployment has been the highest among both men and women in the age group 15-19 and among females aged 20 - 24. In both these age groups the unemployment rate for women is higher than for males (Table 8.2).

Table 8.2
Unemployment in Sri Lanka (Percentage)

	1990*			2002**			2005		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total unemployment rate	14.0	9.1	23.4	8.8	6.6	12.9	7.7	5.5	11.9
15-19 years	29.0	23.4	38.8	30.1	26.9	35.4	30.8	23.5	48.5
20-24 years	34.8	22.5	50.5	27.0	22.7	33.8	17.2	12.4	26.3

*Excludes North and East; ** Excludes Mullaitivu and Kilinochchi districts

Sources: Department of Census and Statistics, Labour Force Survey 1990 and 2005

The unemployment rates differ across urban and rural sectors. In 2002 more women in the rural sector were unemployed as compared with their counterparts in the urban sector (Table 8.3).

Table 8.3
Urban-Rural Unemployment Rate of Young People aged 15-24 years

Sector	Male		Female	
	1996	2002	1996	2002
Urban	29.1	24.0	38.1	28.2
Rural	25.8	23.8	40.7	35.1

Source: Department of Census and Statistics, Millennium Development Goals in Sri Lanka

Unemployment is also seen to increase with educational level. The unemployment rate is higher for both males and females who have GCE A/L or higher qualifications. Unemployment is lowest for males and females whose educational level is less than Grade 5, while female unemployment rates are more than double that of males for other educational levels. Although graduates form only a very small proportion of the labour force their continued unemployment has been a cause for concern due to past experience with violent insurgencies. The State has intervened periodically to absorb them into

public sector employment but graduate unemployment has been increasing with the downsizing of the public sector and a greater role being given to the private sector. In 2005 however, the unemployment of this category of youth declined with the implementation of the government's graduate employment scheme.

Among graduates unemployment has been the highest among arts graduates, the majority of whom are women. The majority of these women who are from rural areas have inadequate marketable skills including English language proficiency. Additionally women have to contend with biases of employers and images of gender appropriate jobs for women.

A group of young women who have not entered the ranks of the employed in large numbers are school-leavers who have obtained vocational training. The 'mismatch' between their skills and labour market demand mainly is due to their enrolment in 'traditional' areas of courses such as secretarial, beauty culture and not diversifying into areas such as technology, which have a better market demand. In recent years women are also enrolled in computer related courses. However they are mostly in low-end data processing courses. Women who enrol in hardware and other technical areas of information and communication technology are few as compared to men.

Economic liberalisation after 1977 provided greater employment opportunities for women both at home and overseas. The manufacturing sector, especially the garment and textile industries absorbed a greater number of women who were unskilled or semi-skilled. Women are the majority in this industry but are concentrated at lower levels of the hierarchy. Women have also found employment in the service sector. Overseas employment opportunities also became available from the late 1970s when the economy was liberalised.

The consistently high level of unemployment for young women made women especially from rural areas seek overseas employment. While the number of migrant workers under 19 years is small, a substantial number of men and women who departed for contractual employment overseas are between the ages of 20 and 24 years. In 1990 women constituted 63.9% of the total number of migrant workers who left for employment. In 1995, the number increased to 73.3% of the total but decreased to 64.5% in 2002 and further to 59.0% in 2005 due to an increase in male migrants. However, the percentage of women who migrated for employment as domestic workers increased from 52.0% in 2004 to 54.0% in 2005 and accounted for about 86% of total placements for 2005 (Central Bank of Sri Lanka, 2006). Migrant worker earnings have assisted households to overcome poverty and increase their standard of living even temporarily, while contributing to the country's foreign exchange earnings, national savings and to covering a proportion of the trade deficit and the deficit in the goods, services and income accounts (Central Bank of Sri Lanka, 2004).

Protective and welfare measures taken by the government on behalf of migrant workers have improved over the years. Sri Lanka is a signatory to the UN Convention on Migrant Workers and their Families. Licensing of recruiting agencies, pre-departure training, mandatory registration with the Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment (SLBFE) and attendant insurance cover and other benefits, introduction of employment contracts, opening up of diplomatic missions and the appointment of Labour Attaches in high outflow countries, and the provision of safe houses have provided a measure of security to migrant workers. However up to now the government has entered into bilateral agreements to ensure that the Sri Lankan workers are afforded decent work and that the terms and conditions of work on which they were contracted are honoured with only one country. The urgency of entering into bilateral agreements with labour importing countries is underscored by the fact that the majority of complaints received by the SLBFE are from women migrant workers and that these complaints pertain to non-payment of wages, breach of contract, lack of communication and physical and sexual harassment.

Challenges and Priorities

Women who were traditionally engaged in agricultural activities are now in a variety of economic activities both in Sri Lanka and overseas. They have entered the ranks of the educated, acquired skills that can be used for income generation and are active in many non-traditional areas of work. Young women now have greater opportunity than their mothers and as major beneficiaries of developments in education have access to a variety of employment opportunities that have opened up. But it is mostly horizontal occupational mobility and not vertical mobility that they have achieved. Gender role stereotypes, cultural norms and societal attitudes still constrain women and preclude them from moving up the ladder and accessing lucrative avenues of employment.

A major challenge is to ensure that young women have access not only to employment but also to quality employment. Sri Lanka will have to move into producing higher value goods and services in all sectors. Thus women should have access to appropriate education and training that would meet the demands of the labour market. An example of one such area is the Information and Communication Technology (ICT) sector. Women will need to pursue courses of study in mathematics, science and technology if they are to benefit from the high-end jobs that are available in this sector. Women should also have access to training in general personality development, communication skills, and especially in the use of the English language.

As societal and individual attitudes inhibit women's access to non traditional courses of study attitudinal changes should be brought about by sensitising teachers and other stakeholders and making the curriculum and educational materials gender sensitive. Awareness programmes should be conducted to change perceptions of traditional gender roles and the division of responsibilities between women and men.

Career guidance services should be established and girls and young women encouraged to branch out into new areas of learning and skill development that would enable them to access better employment. Career guidance should be accompanied by developing a system to provide information on jobs, and developing networks using new information and communication technology. These services should not be urban based. For example the web based JobsNet should be expanded to make it accessible to rural areas.

Employer attitudes also prevent women from having access to jobs in the formal sector, especially the private sector. Gender sensitisation programmes should be conducted through employer federations. Incentives could be provided to employers who follow model recruitment, remuneration and promotion practices and such employers should be recognised.

The migration of women for contractual employment will continue into the foreseeable future. The labour market information system for prospective migrant workers should be improved. More skilled migration should be encouraged and protective measures should be strengthened to ensure the well being of migrant women workers. The Sri Lankan embassies should be strengthened, and the staff trained to prevent and respond to worker problems. Focus on reintegration of migrant workers has been negligible and confined to a few ad hoc measures. A coherent reintegration policy should be developed. It is imperative that Sri Lanka enters into bilateral agreements with labour importing countries to minimise the abuse of workers.

Indicators

The new indicator that is proposed for this target is the number of bilateral agreements that have been signed with countries that import domestic workers.

Pharmaceutical Drugs

Target 17	In cooperation with the pharmaceutical companies provide access to affordable drugs		
Indicators	1990	2002	2015
Proportion of population with access to affordable, essential drugs on a sustainable basis	95-100%	95-100%	95-100%

Status and Trends

The provision of free healthcare services using a network of medical facilities throughout the country has enabled citizens to have access to essential drugs. Even with drawbacks this service has been a boon to low income receivers who cannot afford the services of private medical facilities. However

cut backs in health expenditure have seriously affected the functioning of hospitals and other medical facilities especially in disadvantaged and remote areas and in the conflict affected areas. Essential drugs are reported to be in short supply at different times and in different areas but there has been no monitoring of this aspect except on an ad hoc basis. The inadequacy of health services in areas that the government has restricted access due to the secessionist conflict also needs to be noted.

Currently Sri Lanka imports around 9,000 pharmaceutical drugs, including non essential drugs under expensive brand names. The production of essential drugs by the State Pharmaceuticals Corporation and the State Pharmaceuticals Manufacturing Corporation has enabled the prices in the open market to be kept under check. Further, education and training of health professionals have kept the focus on the national drug supply policy and system including the concept of essential drugs (Jayathilaka, 2005). A National Medicinal Drugs Policy has been drawn up to provide for the implementation of an essential medicines concept. The Mahinda Chinthana document (2005) reiterates the implementation of the Senaka Bibile drugs policy. If this policy is implemented rigorously it would be possible to reduce the medical expenses of a citizen by about 50% and meet the MDG target.

However, the TRIPS agreement has adverse impacts on Sri Lanka. This agreement has closed the avenues of importing less expensive drugs from countries such as India, and instead Sri Lanka has to import drugs at a higher cost from developed western countries. While a higher amount for health expenditure has to be diverted to import drugs the cost of drugs to the people has also increased placing burdens not only on the poor but also on a rapidly ageing population that has no access to health insurance. Women are the majority among the elderly and are chiefly responsible for health care of the family and this places an added burden on their financial resources. The majority of the ageing population is also women.

Challenges and Priorities

The major priority is to implement the policy rigorously and ensure that all public medical facilities in the country are stocked with essential drugs at all times. The local manufacture of essential drugs should be encouraged. Drug prices could also be controlled.

Information and Communication Technology

Target 18	In cooperation with the private sector make available the benefits of new technologies especially information and communications technology		
Indicators	1990	2002	2015
Telephone lines and cellular subscribers per 100 people	0.7	9.5	
a) Personal computers in use per 100 people*		0.8	
b) Internet users per 100 people * by sex		2.0	
* Percentage of government sponsored community information centres owned by women	nil	nil	45
*Percentage of women in decision making positions in the ICT sector	nil	nil	30
*Female IT professionals as a percentage of males	n.a.	n.a.	30
*Number of women's groups with connectivity	nil	n.a.	All women's groups

Source: Telecommunication Regulatory Commission of Sri Lanka, 2006

Status and Trends

Technology is not gender-neutral and a new technology will impact differently on women and men. These differences are already visible in Sri Lanka with respect to new Information and Communication Technology (ICT.)

The few research studies that have been carried out on gender and ICT point to the existence of gender disparities in education and training, employment, in the representation of women in decision making positions and in access to and use of new ICT. While some factors that inhibit the greater use of ICT such as the cost of hardware and connectivity affect both women and men, women in addition have to contend with ideological, systemic and institutional barriers in accessing and using ICT. The gender digital divide is of critical importance and it has to be bridged if women are to reap the benefits of new ICT, to build on the gains made by them within the last half century and to prevent their marginalisation.

The ICT sector has grown within the past three to four years. The restructuring, deregulation and dismantling of monopolies in the telecommunications sector that started over two decades ago have had beneficial effects. Both fixed and mobile telephones (Table 8.4) have grown significantly with the latter growing at a faster rate than fixed telephony while CDMA technology is contributing to the extension of telephone services to remote areas. Of significance is the increase in demand for fixed line telephones from areas outside the Colombo Metropolitan area, and semi-urban and rural areas (Central Bank of Sri Lanka, 2005). However further expansion has been impeded by inadequate bandwidth expansion, restricted licensing, and regulatory risk due to the delay in the adoption of the National Telecommunications Policy.

Table 8.4
Fixed and Cellular Mobile Sectors

	1996	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	6th March 2006
Fixed Telephone Subscribers (in'000)	255	767	827	866	939	991	1,130	1,387
Cellular Subscribers (in'000)	71	430	667	931	1,393	2,211	2,774	3,715

Source: Telecommunication Regulatory Commission of Sri Lanka, 2006

The number of computers in use too has increased over the years. The household survey of the Department of Census and Statistics (2004) shows that nearly 150,000 households had a computer, over 40% of which had been acquired after 2002.

Sri Lanka was the first South Asian country to obtain Internet access but commercial services became available only a decade later in 1994. Subscribers increased from 2,504 in 1996 and reached 61,532 in 2002 and 125,800 at the end of June 2006 (Table 8.5). UNDP (2004) estimates Internet users to be around 375,000. For a country to be considered substantially on-line at least 10% of the population must access the Internet. Consequently Sri Lanka would be considered as standing at the low end of countries using the Internet.

Table 8.5
Growth of Internet Subscribers

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	30th June 2006
Subscribers	2,504	10,195	18,984	25,535	40,497	61,532	73,468	85,500	93,444	115,000	125,800

Source: Telecommunications Regulatory Commission of Sri Lanka, 2006

While fixed and mobile telephony, the number of computers and Internet/email accounts have increased, these developments are still very much concentrated in the Western Province. For instance, as at the end of June 2006 over half (53.6%) of the total fixed access phones were in the Western Province. The majority (54%) of the 7,260 pay phones that were operating at the end of June 2006 were also in the Western Province while the balance 46% was distributed in the rest of the country (Telecommunication Regulatory Commission of Sri Lanka, 2006). Regional disparities are wide and despite progress in expanding telecommunication facilities the vast majority of people have no access to telecommunication services and IT (Table 8.6).

Table 8.6
Provincial Distribution of Fixed Phones

	1995	2000	2005	30th June 2006
Western	150,480	409,663	650,257	808,670
Central	148,45	65,986	90,824	151,655
Southern	130,68	46,035	71,124	151,353
Northern	737	5,509	17,089	22,127
Eastern	3,068	25,626	24,977	56,713
NW	6,697	34,313	60,003	108,991
NC	4,159	16,297	25,653	56,650
Uva	5,569	16,544	28,755	61,027
Sabaragamuwa	7,340	30,515	44,185	92,727
Sri Lanka	205,963	650,488	1,012,867	1,509,913

Source: Sri Lanka Telecommunications Regulatory Commission, 2006

The household survey on ICT referred to above (Sri Lanka. Department of Census and Statistics, 2004) shows that 8% of the households in the Western Province had a computer while in the Uva Province only 0.4% had a computer. Ten per cent (10%) of the urban sector households had a computer while in the rural sector 3% had one and in the estate sector only 0.3% had one reflecting the wide urban rural digital divide. Island wide email and Internet facilities were available to 0.9% and 0.7% of households (ibid). These facilities were obviously concentrated in the Western Province in which 23 households out of 1,000 had email facilities and 18 households out of 1,000 households had Internet facilities as compared with the availability of email and Internet to one household per 1,000 in the Uva and North Central Provinces. Thus email and Internet access is still very much an urban phenomenon. Computer literacy was the highest in the Western Province followed by Southern, Central and Northern Provinces.

The policy statements issued over two decades since computers and Internet services were introduced recognised the urban-rural divide but none had an explicit reference to the gender digital divide. The current policy and programme – The ICT Roadmap: eSri Lanka - has the objective of taking the benefits of new ICT to the people and to all areas of the country, using ICT as a leverage for development, alleviating poverty, achieving a higher standard of living and changing the way government works. However this policy too has not incorporated a gender perspective. Unless a specific gender analysis is made of the policy based on macro data, and gender equity is an explicitly stated objective, such a gender-neutral policy could translate into gender discriminatory action when the policy is implemented.

Several measures have been taken to reduce the urban-rural digital divide. Under the e-Sri Lanka programme 1,000 village knowledge centres – Vishwa Gnana Kendra – are to be set up in selected locations in the Southern, Sabaragamuwa, Uva, Northern and Eastern Provinces. These centres are to be owned and managed by the community or individuals selected from the locality. The Ministry of Science and Technology is setting up a Vidartha Centre throughout the country in each of Divisional Secretariat divisions. The Department of Posts has opened 70 communication centres – Sannivedana Piyasa. Several other projects are also being implemented in rural areas with the objective of taking the benefits of ICT to rural areas. If women are to benefit from the community information centres proactive measures need to be introduced to overcome gender constraints.

Despite the demand for engineering and technology graduates, a dearth of computer science professionals, and high unemployment of women who had graduated in arts and commerce based courses, the trend has been for women to pursue studies in law, social sciences, humanities and education. However, an increasing number of women have been enrolled in the computer degree programmes conducted by the University of Colombo and the University of Moratuwa but the numbers are still very much below that of men. It is also seen that the performance of women falls far short of men although they achieve better results than men in other disciplines (Tables 8.7, 8.8 and 8.9). In computer-related courses of study conducted by the private sector approximately 20-25% of the total enrolled are women. However they are crowded in word processing and in the use of a limited number of computer packages. Their numbers are small in areas such as programming, networking, web designing and hardware.

Table 8.7
Enrolment in Computer Science Degree Programme by Sex

University	1998/99		1999/00		2000/01		2001/02	
	Total	% F	Total	% F	Total	% F	Total	% F
Colombo	21	14.3	20	10	44	29.5	44	15.9
Moratuwa	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	51	37.3	n.a.	n.a.

Source: University of Colombo, Institute of Computer Technology, Fiscal Year 2000;
Survey for Joint Promotion Programme in Information Technology Human Resources in Sri Lanka

Table 8.8
Bachelor of Information Technology (External) Degree Programme of UCSC

	Certificate in IT (Year 1)		Advanced Certificate in IT (Year 2)		New Registration for Academic Year 1 2004/05	
	F	M	F	M	F	M
Enrolment	204	367	141	212	613	1,077

Source: University of Colombo School of Computing, data base

Table 8.9
Enrolment in and Results of Special Computer Science Degree-University of Colombo by Sex

Year	Total	% F	1 st Class	% F	2 nd Class	% F	Pass	% F	Fail	%F
1992/1993	32	12.5	4	0.0	13	6.3	8	6.3	3	0.0
1993/1994	36	20.0	6	2.8	14	38.9	11	0.0	3	0.0
1994/1995	33	15.2	11	12.1	10	0.0	6	0.0	1	0.0
1995/1996	37	23.3	5	2.7	13	8.1	7	2.7	0	0.0
1996/1997	41	36.7	13	7.3	7	28.6	7	4.9	1	0.0

Source: University of Colombo School of Computing, data base

The UN Committee on the Convention on the Elimination of All forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) noting the low enrolment of women in science and technology urged the government to "take all necessary measures to increase the representation of women in engineering and technology related courses in tertiary education" (UN CEDAW Committee, 2002).

In 2004 computer literacy levels in the general population between the ages 5-69 years was a low 9.7% (Sri Lanka. Department of Census and Statistics, 2004). Computer literacy was the highest in the Western Province followed by the Southern, Central and Northern Provinces (Table 8.10). Lack of training facilities as well as the lack of infrastructure and hardware has resulted in such regional disparities. The majority of institutions that offer computer education are located in the district of Colombo. The vocational and technical training institutes have a wide outreach but the courses that are offered by them are at the basic and intermediate level.

As a step towards universal access, the government introduced computer literacy in all schools with computer studies as an optional subject at the GCE O/L and a new examination, General Information Technology, in Grade 12. At the university level all undergraduates are required to follow computer literacy classes. IT has been introduced into pre-service teacher education programmes to create opportunities for system wide professional development. Regular computer awareness programmes are conducted over the electronic and print media. These efforts are expected to reduce existing gender imbalances by ensuring equal opportunities to both girls and boys.

Table 8.10
Computer Literacy of Household Members by Province

Province	Computer Literacy %
Western	15.3
Central	9.3
Southern	9.7
Northern	8.5
Eastern	7.3
North Western	7.6
North Central	5.0
Uva	5.1
Sabaragamuwa	6.9
All Provinces	9.7

Source: Department of Census and Statistics, Sri Lanka: Computer Literacy of 2004

Employment patterns in the IT sector reflect the educational background of women. The majority of women is concentrated at the lower end of the hierarchy in the IT sector and is employed in word processing or as data entry operators. A survey by the Institute of Computer Technology, University of Colombo (2000) found that out of the 462 professionals employed in the 138 organisations only 96 or 20.8% were women. There are indications that women are gradually entering the higher levels of the IT workforce but they constitute only a very small percentage in maintenance and design personnel in networks, operating systems, or software development (ibid). There is a glaring absence of women in all ICT decision making structures including policy and regulatory institutions, ministries responsible for ICT, boards and at top/senior management level of private ICT companies (Jayaweera and Wanasundera, 2006). Similarly in the universities there were no women functioning as heads of faculties or departments related to science and technology and computing. However the Board of Management of the Arthur C. Clarke Centre for Modern Technologies included one woman, while the University of Colombo, School of Computing included several women at senior management level.

It is apparent that gender role stereotyping that is evident in other occupations are being reproduced in the ICT sector. Women are concentrated in areas of work that are considered appropriate for women such as education and training, while men dominate areas that are considered inappropriate for women.

Challenges and Priorities

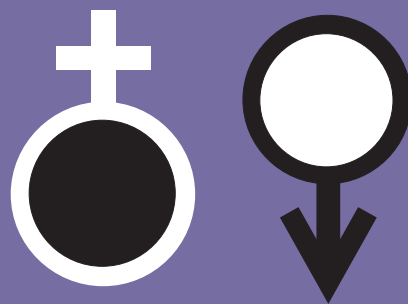
In addressing issues relating to women's access to and use of information technology income level, geographical area, class, ethnicity, and age should be taken into account. Women are constrained by a range of factors, including literacy and education, language, time, cost, geographical location of facilities, social and cultural norms and the household division of labour. Some of these factors are applicable to men as well. However, the disadvantages women face because they are women compound these constraints. As stated earlier women are not a homogenous group and all these constraints do not apply uniformly. Further targets in Goal 3 are also applicable as for example in mainstreaming gender in ICT policies and programmes, participation of women in decision making etc.

- Improving women's access to IT should begin with creating an enabling policy environment. Women and men who are committed to ensuring an inclusive IT policy and strategy should be at the helm of bodies entrusted with these tasks.
- The government should have a policy of including a minimum number of women in such policy and decision making bodies.
- Gender issues need to be considered in all the national programmes and projects that are launched to popularise the use of IT.
- The process of policy formulation and implementation also should have the participation of women's organisations, relevant government and private sector organisations that will also monitor and evaluate the process. In this exercise women themselves must spell out their information needs and sensitise all involved to the gender dimensions of IT.
- One of the most important prerequisites for the planning and policy making process is the availability of sex disaggregated data. The collection of disaggregated data should be a mandatory requirement.
- As many women are not aware of the potential of IT extensive awareness raising programmes should be conducted.

- Career counselling is required to make women aware of the importance of studying science and technical subjects and of the more rewarding employment opportunities that are available in non traditional sectors such as IT.
- Sexism and gender role stereotyping should be eliminated from the school system and students encouraged to chose a career path based on ability, interest and labour market demand.
- Strategies should be identified for women to overcome their inhibitions and to channel more women into tertiary level computer education.
- Innovative approaches including the combination of old and new communication technologies can be used to overcome some of the disadvantages that the majority faces in using IT.
- Because of the high cost of hardware, connectivity and usage, the recommended model is community access points such as tele centres. While women can access these centres for their information needs, they should also be considered for owning and managing such centres to improve their economic status by using IT for income generation.

Indicators – Additional indicators proposed are

1. Percentage of government sponsored community information centres owned by women.
2. Percentage of women in decision making positions in the ICT sector.
3. Women IT professionals as a percentage of men professionals.
4. Number of women's groups with connectivity.



REVIEW OF INSTITUTIONAL CAPACITY TO IMPLEMENT
PROGRAMMES TO ACHIEVE THE
MILLENNIUM DEVELOPMENT GOALS

Review of Institutional Capacity to Implement Programmes to Achieve the Millennium Development Goals

An overarching factor that will ensure the successful achievement of the Millennium Development Goals is political will at all levels and a positive and enabling external policy environment. Regrettably, gender issues have not received the priority they need in recent decades as they have been overshadowed by the ethnic conflict that has had a devastating impact on the economy and on the lives of both women and men.

Four sets of institutions play a critical role in facilitating progress in the pursuit of all the Goals - (i) the National Council for Economic Development which has responsibility for MDGs, (ii) the national machinery for women's affairs (iii) Department of National Planning, the state monitoring institutions and Provincial administrations and (iv) national institutions responsible for the collection, analysis and publishing of data.

National Council for Economic Development (NCED)

The NCED was created to bring together State, private sector, and members of civil society to develop national economic policies and action plans. It has around 18 cluster committees with over 200 members, dealing with specific areas of activities. One of this clusters is responsible for overall plan and implementation programmes to achieve the Millennium Development Goals. This cluster committee comprises secretaries of relevant line ministries, a representative of the Chamber of Commerce and a non governmental organisation. A National Coordinator was responsible for preparing the first national MDG report in 2005. It is important that the cluster committee is gender sensitive and that the Chairperson of the National Committee on Women is a member, in order to ensure gender mainstreaming in programmes pertaining to the achievement of the MDGs by 2015.

The National Machinery for Women's Affairs

The national machinery consists of three institutions – the Ministry of Women's Affairs, (1983) the Women's Bureau (1978) and the National Committee on Women which was envisaged in the Women's Charter (1993) to be an autonomous body.

As in many other countries, the Ministry of Women's Affairs has tended to be marginalised in the administrative power structure. Its inclusion in large ministries such as health, transport or social services or children (currently) reduces the time available to the Secretary of the Ministry to conceptualise, formulate or incorporate programmes with a gender perspective. It has had little sustainability as Secretaries change with governments. It tends to be sidelined by the Department of National Planning in the formulation of national plans such as the Public Investment Programme. The Ministry's inputs into the Six Year Plan in 1999 lacked targets and indicators to measure progress. There are Gender Focal Points in many ministries but their effectiveness is limited by the high turnover of senior officials who have been identified to perform this task.

Women's Affairs was not a devolved subject under the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution in 1987 but the subject has been entrusted to a Minister who has other responsibilities also in seven of the eight Provinces. The Central Ministry and the Provincial Ministries have operated in isolation without any interaction until a Committee of Secretaries to these Ministries was established in the late 1990s. As its personnel belong to the transferable administrative service, the Ministry has considerable difficulty in obtaining the sustained services of committed, gender sensitive officials.

The **Women's Bureau** was demoted in status and functions after the establishment of a separate Ministry. Its major concern appears to be the promotion of conventional income generating projects at divisional level supported by a revolving loan fund in each division. The Bureau has established over 2,000 women's societies – Kantha Kariya Samaja- federated at divisional level as Pradheshiya Bala Mandalayas. In the last few years eight Counselling centers have been set up which are not fully utilised. They conduct mainly awareness programmes. On the whole, the Bureau's activities are circumscribed by being preoccupied with a project syndrome and by the lack of qualified and committed staff.

The **National Committee on Women (NCW)** was first appointed in 1993 with representatives from state agencies and NGOs. It had a mandate to operationalise the Women's Charter. It was envisaged as an independent, high level Commission. This transformation has yet to take place even after a decade. The NCW developed a National Plan of Action for Women immediately after the Beijing Conference in collaboration with the Ministry and with NGOs. This Plan was virtually relegated to oblivion as it was not integrated in the six year plan in 1999, thereby underscoring the compartmentalisation of programmes and an institutional hiatus. The Plan was revised by the NCW in 2000 and is being revised again currently but appears to be still in the shadows. The NCW was involved in lobbying for law reform and has set up a Complaints section under a legal officer as was envisaged in the Charter. A new Women's Rights Act is being formulated and hopefully will create a National Commission as planned ten years ago.

Despite this bleak cameo of the status and achievements of these three units over a quarter century, they have the potential with the right support and capacity building to make a fruitful contribution to reach MDG targets. If the National Commission is set up as an independent body under a new Act of Parliament and its members are appointed by the Constitutional Council, it will have the power and authority to network with the Department of National Planning and line ministries to participate in the formulation of policies to meet targets. The NCW will then be able to monitor progress from an independent stance. The Ministry of Women's Affairs needs to create mechanisms to co-ordinate with (i) line Ministries and (ii) Provincial Ministries to implement gender sensitive programmes to meet the targets of all the Goals. The Women's Bureau could ensure the implementing of programmes at divisional level in collaboration with divisional Secretariats and women's societies/organisations. They should also monitor these programmes and provide feed back to the Ministry and NCW.

Most importantly both the Ministry and the Bureau need the services of trained and sensitive personnel and an urgent task is to organise gender sensitisation and training programmes by qualified resource persons.

The Department of National Planning

This Department is an important unit of the Ministry of Finance which allocates resources. The Department is the focal point for planning as it is responsible for formulating plans to translate national policy into action. A Gender Audit of planning and monitoring institutions in 2000 (Jayaweera, 2000) found that there was no explicit statement of gender concerns in any official document in the Department and no practice of collecting and analysing sex disaggregated data as a basis for planning. The Department appears to have been unaware of the National Plan of Action for Women referred to earlier and had not incorporated its proposals in its national plan. Over half of the staff of the Department were women but there was a general lack of awareness of gender issues, in some instances even of CEDAW and the Charter. There was also no mechanism such as a Gender Committee to incorporate gender concerns in plans and to make any gender impact analysis.

There was however a general willingness to incorporate gender issues and there were adequate human resources if sensitised to support all the Goals. In recent years some steps in this direction have been taken under a woman Director General who also led the study sponsored by the Commonwealth Secretariat on 'Engendering the Budget.'

The Department needs to set up a Gender Committee including representatives from the Ministry of Women's Affairs and women's organisations and to have the gender dimensions of the goals on its MDG agenda. Technical assistance should be sought to train the staff to use tools of gender analysis, development of gender sensitive indicators and gender impact assessment. The MDGs straddle several Ministries and institutions and the Department of National Planning Department is in the best position to coordinate policies and programmes.

Monitoring and Progress Review Division (MPRD) of the Ministry of Finance

This Division has always been the most important monitoring agency in the public sector because it reviews the progress of the annual implementation programmes of all Ministries and public sector institutions. The Gender Audit (2000) found that the Division had very detailed guidelines and criteria for the assessment of programmes but that gender was invisible in these documents and that there was no monitoring guidelines to direct attention to gender issues. There was no mechanism also to collect sex disaggregated data to assess implementation. There were adequate resources of competent personnel who were responsive also to the need for incorporating gender issues. But as was apparent

in many state institutions among both women and men officials, there was little awareness of the importance of gender sensitivity in monitoring progress.

Its task now would be to introduce gender as a variable in its monitoring tools and to use baseline and progress data disaggregated by sex in order to ascertain gaps in implementation. It should also integrate gender in its monitoring of the Mahinda Chintana Programme. Its monitoring role should help it to ensure that MDGs are mainstreamed in policies and programmes.

Provincial Administration

Although gender is not a devolved issue or a concurrent issue, Provincial Ministries of Women's Affairs and other responsibilities have been functioning in seven of the eight Provinces. They have operated independently of the central Ministry of Women's Affairs and have implemented largely conventional income generating projects or health and nutrition programmes within their limited budgets. The Gender Audit (2000) found that these Ministries were anxious to expand their gender related programmes but had not received any guidance on objectives or modalities. A major problem noted was that the Ministry of Women's Affairs and the Women's Bureau of the central government and the Provincial authorities had parallel lines of authority reaching down to the Divisional Secretariats in the implementation of their compartmentalised projects. There was often confusion and conflict in the perceptions of Divisional Officers that affected adversely the implementation of all programmes.

It is necessary to channel the interest of provincial ministries in gender specific programmes to incorporate gender concerns in programmes directed to achieving the MDGs in the Provinces. The Committee of Secretaries of all Ministries of Women's Affairs should operate more forcefully as a coordinating mechanism and the Women's Bureau and provincial authorities should collaborate in the implementation of programmes by the Divisional Secretariats so that resources are maximised, duplication is eliminated and efforts are not diffused. It is unlikely that targets can be achieved expeditiously unless the potential for action at provincial, district and divisional level is tapped. A pre-requisite would be the sensitisation and training of the relevant officials to ensure gender sensitivity in the implementation of programmes.

Sex Disaggregated Data

The two major national institutions responsible for the collection, analysis and dissemination of data on an island wide scale are the Department of Census and Statistics and the Central Bank of Sri Lanka. Line ministries also collect data relating to their own mandates with varying degrees of efficiency as seen in the annual censuses or reports. Research institutions publish data from generally micro level studies that are qualitative and complement national data.

A seemingly intractable problem experienced in studies is the lack of easy access to comprehensive sex disaggregated data at national or sub national levels. It transpired that data is usually collected by sex but that financial constraints limit the analysis and publication of all this data. Hence there is an absence of adequate published sex disaggregated data at sub national level as well as gaps in poverty data as the household is the unit of analysis.

It is necessary therefore that adequate financial and human resources are allocated to the Department to enable timely production and dissemination of such data. Support should also be provided for special programmes to generate data that cannot be obtained by large national surveys. Currently only data from micro studies are available in these important areas. Since the MDGs are a major focus of attention there is a case for regular publication at reasonable intervals of relevant data to monitor progress with respect to all the goals.

Goal 1 Eradicate Extreme Poverty and Hunger

As poverty affects all MDGs and as two approaches are envisaged, macro economic policies formulated to reduce poverty and through sectoral policies to facilitate a synergy, institutional capacity needs to be strengthened in all line Ministries and other state agencies. The State bureaucracy in all line ministries and the eight provincial administrations, the 24 district administrations and the approximately 300 divisional secretariats distributed island wide need to be strengthened to have empathy for the poor as

integral members of society, and to recognise the importance of social equity, national and household food security and basic rights and gender equality. The task is of some magnitude as it encompasses a multiplicity of institutions. In view of the multi dimensions of poverty these include the four key institutions identified earlier, the data providers and the administration at provincial and lower levels, as well as a large number of line ministries and other agencies responsible for land settlement, agriculture, industry, small industries, education, health, transport, telecommunication, power, water, sanitation, environment, social services and rehabilitation.

It is important to note that a major factor that perpetuates poverty is the lack of access of the poor to basic services and infrastructure. For instance, distance to facilities such as public transport and communication and lack of power have limited their capacity for income generation. Absence of transport facilities to schools and health centres and lack of access to safe water and sanitation affects survival and upward mobility. The two decades of conflict require strengthening the capacity of institutions to assist those affected to enjoy satisfactory living conditions. Victims of national disasters need immediate relief as well as follow up action to assist those impoverished by these events. The destitute and disabled need what they lack most at present – social protection.

Ministries have suffered from resource constraints in recent years and budgetary allocations need to be increased and utilised more effectively. Monitoring mechanisms at all levels need to be formalised and feed back provided to policy makers so that there should be no illusions regarding outcomes.

Goal 2 Achieve Universal Primary Education

Besides the political structure, a multiplicity of institutions and agencies are responsible for education policy and programmes. The National Education Commission established in 1991 as an independent body, advises the government on education policy. The efficiency of the Ministry of Education depends largely on the availability of an adequate number of committed and qualified personnel to direct and monitor education reforms and the operation of the education system. The Ministry also has a competent statistics division with a useful Geographical Information System. The National Institute of Education which is the agency responsible for curriculum development and the education of teachers and educational administrators, lacks adequate staff to perform its tasks.

Education is a devolved subject under the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution (1987) and the Provincial administrations run the school system with the exception of the 'national schools' while the Central Ministry has responsibility for national level planning, universities, teacher education institutions, curriculum development and assessment and examinations. The links between the Central and Provincial administrations are somewhat blurred and devolution has not increased the efficiency of the system. Evaluation studies of the education reforms indicate that implementation and monitoring are weak at the Zonal and Divisional levels.

Knowledge and skills are distributed and legitimised and attitudes and behaviour conditioned by different institutions and personnel operating island wide - around 10, 000 schools of varying sizes and quality and their Principals and nearly 200,000 teachers, 15 universities and networks of technical/vocational education institutions. A more equitable distribution of teachers and facilities is required to improve the quality of rural and plantation schools.

Education policies per se have not been gender differentiated and girls and boys, women and men have had equal access to education. However, in all these constituent units of the Ministry of Education, there is, with the exception of a few individuals, a deplorable lack of awareness and sensitivity to gender issues. Consequently these issues have received low priority over the years. All these institutions have the potential for change. From a gender perspective there is urgent need for a comprehensive programme of gender awareness integrated in the curriculum and inbuilt in the organisation of institutions.

Goal 3 Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women

As this goal is critical to the achievement of all other goals and to ensuring women's right to equality and human dignity, the entire political and administrative system and economic structures need to be strengthened to facilitate its realisation. The national machinery for women's affairs, the Department of National Planning and the Monitoring and Progress Review Division, the Provincial administrations

and the line ministries comprise the state implementation structure while the national data institutions provide the data base for planning and monitoring. As seen in section four these institutions have the potential for implementation and monitoring the gender dimensions of the goals, but they lack sensitivity in their approach to policies and action with adverse consequences for women.

The institutional capacity of the education, health, and environment sub sector has been discussed under other goals. It was seen that the national, provincial and local administrations, had their strengths and weaknesses. The Ministry of Agriculture has to be revamped to vitalise their programmes to increase productivity, and the Board of Investment and the Export Processing Zones need to minimise the effects of the end of the Multi Fibre Agreement and to monitor the working conditions of women. The Department of Small/Rural Industries and banks need to be motivated to support women's enterprises in non farm employment and their economic activities in the informal sector. The Industry Training Institute and the Industrial Development Board should extend technology to women island wide. The Sri Lanka Bureau of Foreign Employment has a major role in the training and protection of migrant domestic workers. These institutions need to operate optimally in order to support women workers on equal terms. The political system and its unfortunate corollary, polititisation, has to be transformed to operate transparently and ensure equal opportunity for men and women.

Women's rights to equality and security from violence are often denied by the gender biases of judicial officers and law enforcement personnel, and by those responsible for curriculum and skills development. There is a long agenda to strengthen institutions in these areas.

Goal 4 Reduce Child Mortality

Over 90% of maternal and child health care including care at delivery is provided free through the government health infrastructure. This includes provincial, teaching, base, district hospitals as well as peripheral units, maternity homes and central dispensaries. Preventive health care which includes antenatal and postnatal care, immunisation services, nutrition related interventions as well as micronutrients are provided through a network of maternal and child health clinics. Over 93% of deliveries take place in government health institutions, mainly the Teaching and Provincial Hospitals. Smaller institutions such as the base and district hospitals tend to be underutilised, while the provincial and teaching hospitals are over-crowded. The public prefer such hospitals on the basis that the quality of care is better and that there are more skilled personnel available. Thus there is a need to re-structure both in terms of the re-distribution of skilled personnel as well as supplies and equipment to peripheral institutions. This also includes access to blood and specialist care and particularly to emergency obstetric care. More financial resources and staff will be necessary for this purpose. To reduce the Under Five Mortality further, better quality neonatal and perinatal care is necessary. Resources will be needed to establish more neonatal care units and improve and train staff.

Institutional capacity building for the generation of up to date information is essential. Both medical statistics as well as information on maternal and child health services are only available for 2002. These indicate an intra district disparity in the rates particularly for Public Health Nurses, Public Health Midwives and Hospital Midwives who are very relevant to the well being of children and mothers, relating to child and maternal mortality and morbidity. Efforts are needed to reduce such disparities and ensure a more equitable distribution of key health staff.

Goal 5 Improve Maternal Health

To reduce maternal mortality further, it will be necessary to examine both the current institutional network on the basis of improving access to emergency obstetric care as well as the quality of antenatal and postnatal care. Services need to be made available on an equitable basis island wide with extra support being placed in the high maternal mortality districts. Institutional support will also be necessary to improve the current system of maternal death audits with effective follow up action. Postnatal care needs to be strengthened through public health midwives at homes and at MCH clinics. This will include addressing outstanding maternal health issues such as anaemia and under nutrition which needs a more public health approach to reduce the problems. Greater attention is also needed to improve the health of adolescent girls, particularly to reduce anaemia during adolescence. Institutional capacity building and support is necessary to improve the timeliness and completeness of maternal mortality and morbidity data. This is essential for planning purposes as well as the monitoring of programmes.

Goal 6 Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Tuberculosis

The institutional framework for HIV/AIDS prevention and control activities needs a multi-sectoral approach which includes civil society represented by NGOs. The current National HIV/AIDS and STI Campaign could be further strengthened through its sub committees to respond in keeping with the urgency needed. It is essential to address HIV/AIDS as a primary behavioural problem involving lifestyle issues including attitudes towards sexuality. There is a greater need for youth and adolescent focused programmes and more behaviour change communication activities.

In the case of TB and Malaria, the current programme expansion needs to be continued within the context of strengthening both the Anti Malaria Campaign as well as the Anti TB Campaign and adding the gender dimensions which hitherto have not been addressed. This will include improving the infrastructure for prevention and control activities at district level, with the allocation of more financial and other resources.

Goal 7 Ensure Environmental Sustainability

The Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources is the lead ministry for the Environment. There are several institutions under this Ministry.

The Central Environment Authority (CEA) is the key institution for environment management and protection. The National Environment Act No.47 of 1980, amended in 1988 is the legal enactment through which the CEA derives its authority. The granting of environment protection licenses (EPL) to industries is one of its main activities in connection with the control of pollution, be it in air, water or land. CEA plays a major role in future development plans through the Environment Impact Assessment laws. There are about 300 divisional field officers attached to the Divisional Secretariats. Altogether there is a cadre of over 550 in the CEA.

At present the Additional Director General of the Central Environment Authority and two out of the three Deputy Directors General are women. Over fifty percent of the Environment Officers (field staff) posted to the Divisional Secretariats are women. Some work with the Women's Bureau organisations in their areas.

The Department of Forests celebrated its hundredth anniversary a few years ago. It was formed to manage the forests for timber extraction. Today under the Forest Policy of 1995 and the Forestry Master Plan 1995 this policy has changed to recognise the need for undisturbed conservation of forests for hydrology and biodiversity. The community will be able to use some forests for limited non wood uses. Women were active in the participatory re-forestation programmes, as keepers of plant nurseries and also as participants, but this was at the lowest category. Not many women join the Department of Forests, due to the nature of the work.

The Department of Wild Life Conservation (DWLC) is in charge of the country's National Parks, Strict Natural Reserves and Sanctuaries. The most important legislation from a biodiversity point of view is the Fauna and Flora Ordinance as amended by Act No.49 in 1993. The management of the National Parks is now being reorganised under an ADB funded Protected Areas Management Project, which seeks also to amend this Act. This amendment is viewed with a certain degree of misgiving by environmentalists as the Ordinance protects the fauna and flora from illicit sale and export. There are no women among the field officers of the DWLC.

The Ministry of Fisheries and the Department of Coast Conservation are institutions which look after marine biodiversity. The EIA laws also operate under the Department of Coast Conservation which is the lead agency for coastal development. Restoration of the coastal areas after the tsunami is one of its responsibilities.

The Ministry of Urban Development and Water Supply has the responsibility for the water supply to both urban and rural sector and for urban development.

Under this Ministry the National Water Supply and Drainage Board, supplies water to the large and small towns in Sri Lanka - 284 of water supply schemes in towns and in 23 districts including Jaffna,

Vavuniya, Mannar and Killinochchi. The Board is the major contributor of safe drinking water to the population. The Board has laboratory facilities in major towns and provides a service in analysing samples of well water for bacterial and chemical contamination.

NWSD is also responsible for organising the sewerage schemes in Colombo, Greater Colombo and sewerage facilities in three industrial promotion zones. The Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Project is also under this Ministry.

The Ceylon Electricity Board, under the Minister of Power is responsible for the energy supply to the entire country and energy issues comes under its purview.

There are practically no women in the managerial posts in the last mentioned departments.

Goal 8 Develop a Global Partnership for Development

The institutions that will be directly involved in achieving the targets of Goal 8 include the Department of External Resources, the Central Bank of Sri Lanka, the Ministry of Finance, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Department of National Planning, the Ministry of Labour Relations and Foreign Employment and the Ministry of Skills Development, Vocational and Technical Education (MOSDVTE). Developing the policy framework and ensuring that these policies are implemented will be their task. Some of these agencies have economists who have expertise in international trade and finance. However there is a need to develop their expertise on gender analysis of the trade regimes and international agreements. The Centre for Poverty Analysis and the Centre for Women's Research, two institutions that have expertise in gender analysis could be involved in undertaking research into areas that impact on women.

The MOSDVTE as the focal point of the International Youth Employment Network initiated by ILO is in the process of finalising a national report on youth employment, which will feed into the National Action Plan on Youth Employment. The National Apprentice and Industrial Training Authority (NAITA), the Universities, and the Information and Communication Technology Agency (ICTA) are the agencies that will have to ensure that women's education and training needs are addressed.

The Ministry of Science and Technology, Information and Communication Technology Agency and the Telecommunications Regulatory Commission of Sri Lanka are some of the key institutions that are charged with the development of the ICT sector. These are policy making authorities that have an impact on gender and it is vital that they are sensitised to the need to mainstream gender in all policies and programmes, and projects. ICTA has recognised the cross cutting nature of gender and has set up a focal group of civil society representatives to identify gender issues, but the draft ICT Policy for Government prepared by ICTA had only a passing reference to gender. The same is true of the draft telecommunications policy that was prepared in 2002. All these agencies therefore must be sensitised to address gender issues.

All the institutions have the expertise and the capability in the specific target areas. However participation of females at policy making and decision making levels is minimal and the males who are at the helm lack awareness of specific gender concerns. Consequently extensive gender awareness programmes will have to be carried out.

Institutional Capacity to Meet Special Needs – Conflict and Natural Disaster

Special needs require that institutional capacity should be strengthened to meet these needs. Two decades of conflict in the North and East and lack of political stability has cast a heavy burden on state institutions functioning in these areas. The Peace Secretariat is active in solving problems. The Triple R programme – Rehabilitation, Reconstruction and Reconciliation – was formulated a few years ago and the Ministry of Rehabilitation has the onerous task of implementing the programme and delivering state services to a section of the population that has had limited access to services in a volatile environment. The Ministry of Rehabilitation has to be equipped with personnel and resources to meet the needs of those affected by the conflict and displacement.

The tsunami that unexpectedly devastated the eastern and southern coastal districts in December 2004 resulted not only in loss of lives but also caused damage to livelihoods and infrastructure estimated at 4.5% of GDP. Funds and goods estimated to be at least Rs.800m (Alailima, 2005) have been received in response to the crisis and continue to flow to the country. The state responded by organising relief programmes that provide families affected with food, day rations and cash grants for specific needs. Problems of inequitable distribution surfaced in the course of this massive exercise. Currently the Reconstruction and Development Agency (RADA) has been placed in charge of supervising and monitoring relief and the current phases of rehabilitation and reconstruction. The tasks that await action are wide ranging such as the provision of temporary and subsequently permanent shelter for the displaced, grants to repair damaged houses, restoration of state infrastructure such as schools hospitals, transport, water, sanitation and other services, equipment and loans to restore livelihoods, nutritional supplements, school kits and psycho-social support.

The task of strengthening institutional capacity at national and local level needs priority if normalcy is to be restored and the needs of affected families are to be met. In both conflict and disaster affected areas progress towards meeting MDGs depends on the efficient functioning of state agencies responsible for implementation and their gender sensitivity in integrating women's concerns.

(Refer Appendix II for tables)

Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs)

Sri Lanka has a long tradition of voluntary workers engaged in shramadana (voluntary service) at community level and more formal organisations such as local religious societies and Death Donation Societies have met community needs. A wide range of organisations are engaged in activities that are relevant to the Millennium Development Goals and have enormous potential for advocacy and action within their resources. Four groups can be identified.

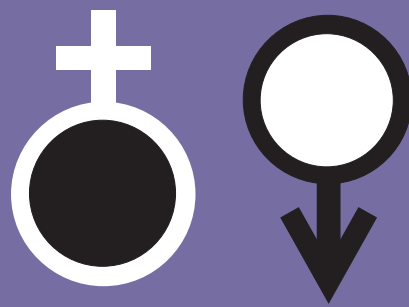
- (i) National NGOs including women's organisations which represent a multiplicity of interests – research institutions, community development oriented organisations, and those concentrating on specific issues such as support for victims of violence against women, economic participation of women, the role of the media, and human rights.
- (ii) International NGOs such as World University Service, CARE and OXFAM.
- (iii) Most importantly, Community Based Organisations (CBOs) island wide that implement programmes and can be a catalytic force at the so-called 'grassroots' level.
- (iv) Umbrella organisations such as the Sri Lanka Women's Conference, the Sri Lanka NGO Forum and district based federations of CBOs.

Although Sri Lanka has not had a strong and highly visible women's movement as in some countries, women's organisations, have been active in preparing the CEDAW Shadow Report, lobbying with the government, networking for solidarity specially on critical, specific gender issues, disseminating information using also IT, and implementing multifarious programmes. Poverty, livelihoods, environment and gender-based violence have emerged as special concerns.

Hence there is potential for harnessing efforts to facilitate the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals, particularly because these organisations have a high level of commitment, a deep awareness of gender issues and linkages within and outside the country in a common cause. Women's organisations however have a major constraint of lack of financial resources. As a result these activities are short term and lack continuity for sustainability.

The Private Sector

In an age when the private sector is claimed to be the 'engine of growth' and is a major employer of women workers, it is necessary also to activate establishments in this sector to develop gender sensitivity to assist in addressing the problems of women, particularly women workers. The Chambers of Industry and Commerce specially have a role to play in this task, not only the Women's Chamber of Industry and Commerce but also the National Chambers and the district based Chambers, which in the past have tended to perceive women chiefly as labour units. Private sector establishments with a social conscience have already taken gender sensitive initiatives. There is potential therefore for a stronger focus on gender equality and space for channelling some of the resources generated by the private sector to support social equity, gender equality, and the empowerment of women.



RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations

These recommendations are drawn from Chapters 2 - 10 and are presented here as potential components of an action programme to be prioritised and developed by agencies responsible for action to move towards meeting the MDG targets, and even beyond to meet national needs. They are predicated on the recognition of the fact that women can play a critical role as agents of change in achieving these goals, and that the goals should be situated within a framework of human rights and dignity, social equity, gender equality and the empowerment of women, and national development.

Goal 1 Eradicate Extreme Poverty and Hunger

1. As poverty is multi-dimensional, a comprehensive approach that focuses on all its facets is necessary to reduce its incidence.
2. Macro economic policies should promote both growth and equity so that an enabling environment can be created within which low income families can move out of poverty as articulated in the new policy document – Mahinda Chitana.
3. Policies and programmes should increase the access of both poor women and men to financial and material resources. As the labour inputs of women and returns to their labour are crucial to the survival and advancement of low income families, it is important from a national and gender perspective to
 - create employment opportunities that are not limited to creating a demand for low cost female labour but offer prospects of upward occupational mobility in the context of advancing technologies and the burgeoning field of information and communication technologies,
 - provide relevant inputs to increase agricultural productivity to raise rural incomes and to ensure household food security,
 - expand non farm economic activities in the rural sector that can provide a niche for women workers,
 - eliminate the bias in policy against small producers which has perpetuated poverty, and
 - provide support to the low skill, low income multi – economic activities in the informal sector in which the majority of women workers are trapped by offering a package of services to ensure viable self employment and ensure that banks and other agencies develop empathy for the poor.
4. Human capabilities should be developed through education opportunities, health care and nutritional supplementation and by promoting diversity in skills development among women so that they have the capacity to utilise opportunities to exit poverty.
5. Access should be provided to basic services of safe water and sanitation and to infrastructure such as roads, transport and electricity to prevent the social exclusion of the poor and their marginalisation in the development process.
6. In particular, priority should be given in resource allocation and in programmes to reducing the existing unacceptable disparities between the living conditions in the Western Province and the rest of the country.
7. It is necessary to support new vulnerable poverty groups such as ageing women, those who have lost their livelihoods through retrenchment and have had no access to alternative opportunities, female heads of poor households and the destitute.
8. Special attention should be given to assisting victims of two decades of conflict related poverty in the North and East and to those recently impoverished by the tsunami disaster by facilitating
 - access to assets and resources to rebuild their lives such as land, credit, education, skills development and sustainable livelihoods,
 - access to health and basic services,
 - rehabilitation of housing and infrastructure,
 - security,
 - psycho-social support, and
 - support to female heads of households without family support.
9. Social protection for the vulnerable poor should be provided through social insurance and universal access to education, health and employment.
10. Community based organisations should be mobilised to assist in strengthening the capacity of poor women to be actors in the struggle to move out of poverty.

Goal 2 Achieve Universal Primary Education

Sri Lanka is very near the achievement of this goal as a consequence of several decades of positive policies but steps need to be taken to dispel complacency and lethargy and to accelerate progress.

1. It is imperative to motivate local officials to implement the compulsory education regulations for the 5 – 14 age group effectively and to introduce a monitoring mechanism to assess progress.
2. Free education and the provision of incentives such as scholarships, textbooks, uniform materials, school meals and subsidised transport should be continued as these programmes have been major factors that have promoted gender equality in access to education as well as relatively high participation and retention rates in education.
3. Inter district and intra district disparities in the provision of and participation in education should be reduced in the immediate future and special attention should be directed to
 - pockets of educational disadvantage in low income urban neighbourhoods, remote rural areas and plantations, and
 - vulnerable groups that are currently outside the ambit of the education system such as 'street children,' working children, children with disabilities, orphans and destitute children, and children in Remand Homes.
4. For this purpose educational expenditure should be increased from the present proportion of 3% of GDP to 5% and from 8% of public expenditure to 15% and a committed policy of positive discrimination in the distribution of financial resources should be introduced in favour of poverty locations.
5. In the provision of educational opportunities it is necessary to
 - ensure a more equitable distribution of schools and qualified teachers,
 - develop 'centres of excellence' in the Divisions to which the children of the poor have access through the present system of scholarships,
 - enforce the policy of providing access to primary schools within 2 kms of residence and to secondary schools within 5 kms, and
 - nurture and develop the small, co-educational schools in rural areas that have traditionally provided educational opportunity for girls and boys.
6. The quality of education provided in schools should be improved to ensure higher standards of performance in literacy and numeracy and to facilitate access to higher education and to more remunerative employment opportunities.
7. Gender issues should be incorporated in the curriculum and girls motivated to acquire technical skills in order to change the existing inequitable gender division in the labour market, to promote gender equality and to improve their life chances.
8. In conflict and tsunami affected areas priority should be given to
 - rebuild schools that have been destroyed or damaged and to equip them with resources and teachers to provide a quality education,
 - expand 'catch up' educational programmes to enable children who have had no access to education due to family disruption or displacement to re-enter schools and to accelerate their progress, and
 - provide psycho-social support programmes for children traumatised by their experiences.
9. In the Sri Lankan context the second MDG should be amended to universal education for the 5 – 14 compulsory age group and two indicators added
 - enrolment rates of girls and boys in the 10 – 14 age group, and
 - retention rates of girls and boys in Grade 9.
10. Compulsory education regulations should be amended early, extending the maximum age to 16 years or to the GCE O/L grade.

Goal 3 Promote Gender Equality and Empower Women

This is a cross cutting goal that affects the achievement of all other goals. Hence programmes need to eliminate gender inequalities in all sectors and to move beyond to empower women to develop as self confident, autonomous individuals who can make decisions and choices, assert their rights and function as equal partners with men in the family, economy and society.

1. The targets given of eliminating gender disparities in enrolment in primary, secondary and tertiary education and literacy have been virtually achieved in general education in Sri Lanka. It is necessary to go further and to reduce gender disparities in enrolment in specific courses such as in science and technology related courses in senior secondary grades, in universities, in tertiary level employment

- related institutions and in technical and vocational education that are major avenues to remunerative employment and upward occupational mobility.
2. To go beyond gender equality in access to education to the empowerment of women, gender role stereotypes that reinforce negative gendered norms need to be eliminated in curriculum materials and the content and processes of education restructured to perform a transformative role in empowering women to challenge oppressive social practices and in promoting equitable gender relations in the family, economy and society.
 3. Access to employment and control over independent incomes have been seen to empower women. While wage employment in the non agriculture sector will contribute to empowering women as envisaged in the third indicator, there are many gender inequalities in the labour market that need to be reduced if women are to have equal access to employment and to adequate incomes that will promote their empowerment.
 - Women need to have more access to wage employment in all sectors of the economy in a context in which their unemployment rates have been double those of men for three decades.
 - Agricultural productivity needs to be increased and non farm employment opportunities expanded to enable unpaid female family labour to have access to independent incomes.
 - Working conditions need to be improved in factories within and outside the Export Processing Zones to ensure job security, protection from exploitation and upward occupational mobility.
 - Support including a package of services encompassing credit, vocational and management skills, technology and market information should be assured to women engaged in low skill, low income economic activities in the informal sector to enable them to be economically empowered through access to adequate incomes.
 4. The abysmally low representation of women in Parliament should be increased by the proposed 25% quotas in local assemblies and by gender sensitivity in identifying candidates by political parties.
 5. At the same time, more qualified women should be appointed to high level positions in the employment structure such as in management.
 6. Underpinning all policies and programmes should be the rights based approach encapsulated in the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) ratified by Sri Lanka in 1981 and the Women's Charter of Sri Lanka (1993).
 - Their provisions should be incorporated in national legislation.
 - Relevant legislation should be introduced or amended and enforced e.g.
 - amendments to the Land Development Ordinance that have deprived women in settlement areas of their land rights,
 - bilateral agreements to protect migrant women domestic workers who are vulnerable to economic and sexual exploitation,
 - o extension of the ILO Home Based Workers Convention to self employed women,
 - o enforcement of the punishments for rape, sexual abuse and harassment and incest in the Penal Code,
 - o enforcement of domestic violence legislation,
 - o eliminating discriminatory provisions in the Family Law of the Muslim, Tamil and Sinhalese communities, and
 - o strengthening law enforcement, Women and Children's Police Desks, legal aid counselling, and legal literacy programmes.
 7. In health services, reproductive health and rights, measures to cope with occupational health hazards and geriatric care should receive more priority.
 8. The needs of women and men survivors and the increasing number of women heads of households in conflict and tsunami affected areas should be expeditiously met by the total spectrum of state agencies and special attention given to access to assets, land, sustainable livelihoods, shelter, infrastructure and psycho-social support, within a framework of gender equality and empowerment of women as individuals and as careers of families.
 9. Programme requisites are gender sensitisation of policy makers, administrators, professionals, employers and educators, and incorporation of gender issues in social mobilisation programmes at community level to enable both women and men to function as agents of change in challenging gendered norms, unequal gender relations and myths of dependent, passive 'femininity' and aggressive or stoical 'masculinity.'
 10. Data gathering institutions need to be motivated to analyse and publish sex disaggregated data as a basis for planning and monitoring programmes.
 11. Additional gender specific targets and indicators are necessary to reach this goal, particularly in the area of employment and unemployment, employment status, management positions, and participation in technology (including ICT) related training and employment.

Goal 4 Reduce Child Mortality

1. The current primary health care infrastructure including the Maternal and Child Health Care system should continue to be strengthened including efforts to ensure equitability in the coverage of MCH clinics and staff particularly Family Health Workers.
2. Reallocating more resources towards reducing neonatal and perinatal care with special emphasis on conflict and tsunami affected districts. This should include improving antenatal and postnatal care including access to emergency obstetric care on an equitable basis covering all districts with special emphasis on the conflict and tsunami affected areas as well as the tea plantations. This will also link with Goal 6 on maternal health. Gender related issues of violence, particularly during pregnancy, female illiteracy and female headed households need more priority and interventions. Interventions are also important to improve the nutrition and health of adolescent girls.
3. An up to date and comprehensive reporting and analysis of under five mortality and infant mortality data on a sex disaggregated basis should be ensured. This should also include adding perinatal and neonatal death indicators to the existing infant and under five mortality indicators.
4. All immunisation data with special reference to Measles data needs to be sex disaggregated. Due to displacement, there could be a reduction in immunisation coverage in tsunami affected areas which need extra monitoring. Inputs may be needed to strengthen the cold chain and vaccination services. This also includes strengthening of the current system on immunisable disease surveillance.
5. Parent education at community level on health issues affecting infants and under five children including the importance of the vulnerability during the perinatal and neonatal periods need attention.

Goal 5 Improve Maternal Health

1. Strengthen and improve the quality and coverage of obstetric care as well as antenatal and postnatal care. This should include more equitable access to emergency obstetric care.
2. Direct greater attention to maternal morbidity, particularly anaemia during pregnancy and the promotion of weight gain during pregnancy through antenatal clinics as well as home visits by Family Health Workers.
3. Improve the database on maternal deaths, to ensure completeness as well as timeliness and district/divisional disaggregation.
4. Strengthen the conduct of maternal death audits and effect follow up. This should involve both Public Health staff as well as obstetricians and other staff supporting care in institutions.
5. Undertake research/studies to determine the reasons for the increase in illegal abortions and seek solutions. This should include post-abortion counselling and improving access to family planning in those areas where such abortions are high.
6. Promote greater priority for the health and nutritional status of adolescent girls.

Goal 6 Combat HIV/AIDS, Malaria and Tuberculosis

1. HIV/AIDS prevention and control need continued prioritisation to reverse the spread although Sri Lanka is considered to be a 'low prevalence country.' A multi-sectoral strategy which includes both the government and NGO sector is important but one which also addresses gender issues. Thus the rising trend of infected women should be noted including gender based violence. This also includes greater emphasis on adolescents and young people and the need for behaviour change through communication strategies which reach out to adolescents and young people and lead to healthy life styles.
2. Develop a database to collect information in relation to HIV prevalence among pregnant women and condom use rate and contraceptive use.
3. Other indicators may need to be developed as Sri Lanka is considered a low prevalence country for HIV/AIDS including behavioural indicators.
4. Develop a database to include newly established TB and Malaria indicators including sex disaggregation of the data.
5. Ensure sex disaggregation in the collection and analysis of TB and Malaria incidence and death data.

Goal 7 Ensure Environmental Sustainability

1. Women must be involved in the decision making on aspects of environmental policy and particularly those aspects which directly concern their lives and in the case of the rural poor, their very survival.
2. The present forest cover, particularly the protected forest cover should be maintained at all costs and with determination by the government.
3. The Wilderness areas should not be interfered with in any way in the name of eco tourism or other reasons, as the biological diversity of these areas is very high.
4. The Mangrove areas, which apart from their usefulness as a source of food, fuel wood for women and breeding places for fish and crustaceans have now also been shown to have a protective function in case of ocean disturbances, should be maintained and restored wherever possible.
5. Women could be mobilised and encouraged to maintain and preserve the cultivars of various crops which would otherwise be lost for ever.
6. The government should have a policy to give support and direction to the efficient use of fuel wood for domestic purposes as biomass and wood meet the needs of over 80% of the population and will probably continue to be so for many more decades. Particularly, it should support research into fuel efficient stoves which will also minimise the risk to women's health.
7. While the goal of access to safe drinking water for 50% the population is already met, we should aim for universal access. At the same time the claims of agriculture should not be ignored.
8. Groundwater which is now extensively used in both wet and dry zone areas should be carefully monitored for availability for pollution with bacteria and chemicals.
9. The stand posts now available to slum dwellers for the supply of clean drinking water should not be removed under any circumstances as this will affect their health and increase their poverty.

Goal 8 Develop a Global Partnership for Development

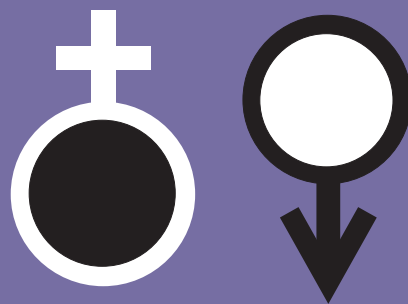
1. As there is very limited research on the possible impact of the WTO on women, research has to be undertaken on the relationship between trade and gender focusing on areas of women's competitive advantage.
2. A gender analysis and gender and social impact assessments should be undertaken to ensure that national policies related to international and regional trade agreements do not have an adverse impact on women's new and traditional economic activities. A gender analysis must be made mandatory in all future trade negotiations and gender issues taken for discussion at trade negotiations. Trade negotiators have to be sensitised on addressing gender issues.
3. As the implementation of Agreement on Clothing and Textiles (ACT) will result in a large number of women being retrenched alternative employment opportunities must be created. Re-training should be put in place and products that use female labour should be developed and promoted. Women who can be successful entrepreneurs must be supported through training, skill development, and information among others.
4. Migrant workers, especially women work under exploitative conditions. Minimum standards should be ensured and protection provided to workers through bilateral agreements.
5. More skilled migration should be encouraged and protective measures strengthened to ensure the well being of migrant women workers.
6. Reintegration of returnee migrant workers should have more focus and a policy developed for this purpose.
7. Career guidance services should be established and girls and young women encouraged to branch out into new areas of learning and skill development that would enable them to access better quality employment.
8. Gender should be incorporated into all ICT policies, programmes and projects.
9. Women's representation at the highest level of ICT decision making should be ensured.

Strengthening Institutional Capacity

1. Political will is required to give higher priority to gender issues in public policy and to promote a pro poor and gender sensitive policy environment.
2. The state must review the MDGs and add targets and indicators to meet national needs.
3. The proposed Women's Rights Bill should establish the National Commission on Women as an

independent statutory body so that it can function effectively as the lead agency in gender related policies and programmes. The members of the Commission should be appointed by the Constitutional Council.

4. The National Commission on Women or the Ministry of Women's Affairs should appoint a committee of representatives of the NCW, key ministries, and resource persons from NGOs/women's organisations and academia to review policies and programmes from a gender perspective.
5. The Women's Bureau should liberate itself from its project syndrome and should be pro active and collaborate with Provincial and Divisional authorities to implement and monitor programmes to promote gender equality and to empower women.
6. The Department of National Planning and State monitoring agencies should develop guidelines to review and monitor policies and programmes from a gender perspective and to engender the national budget.
7. The Department of Census and Statistics should be provided resources to collect, analyse and publish sex disaggregated data required for monitoring progress towards achieving the Millennium Development Goals.
8. The major institutions responsible for implementing programmes pertaining to the MDGs have been identified in Chapter 10. It is necessary to strengthen their capacity to function as gender sensitive institutions.
9. Gender mainstreaming is still a distant goal in the policy environment. Technical assistance should be provided to all relevant institutions to develop skills in key personnel in gender analysis, in identifying gender sensitive indicators, and in gender impact assessment in order to facilitate gender mainstreaming in policies and programmes and to review the impact of programmes within a framework of human rights, social equity and gender equality.
10. Special attention should be given to incorporating gender issues in rehabilitation programmes in conflict affected areas and the coastal locations recently affected by the tsunami.
11. The state must establish a mechanism to enable the participation of NGOs, women's organisations, community based organisations, or 'civil society' in planning, implementing and monitoring policies and programmes to achieve the Millennium Development Goals.
12. Civil society organisations should take separate or collective action to mobilise community participation in developing programmes to reach MDG targets. They should be assisted with financial resources by donors to engage in these activities.



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Goal 7

Appendix Table 7(i)
Natural Forest Cover by District - 1994

	Montane	Sub – Montane	Lowland Rain	Moist Monsoon	Dry Monsoon	Riverine Dry	Mangrove	Sparse	Grand Total
Ampara				45,190	69,265	10,160	292	41,760	166,667
Anuradhapura					180,083			116,693	296,776
Badulla	93	3,888		17,517	3,353			27,843	54,271
Batticaloa				13,302	21,770		1,421	16,325	52,818
Colombo			1,832					36	1,868
Galle			18,903				187	1,699	20,789
Gampaha			273	14			122	20	429
Hambantota			220	739	19,169	3,710	539	55,077	79,454
Jaffna					822		260	298	1,380
Kalutara			20,240				70	1,266	21,576
Kandy	935	8,504	14,258	3,545				5,980	33,222
Kegalle		3,655	11,791					492	15,938
Kilinochchi					32,374		312	6,042	38,728
Kurunegala					8,153			14,766	24,746
Mannar					111,389	795	1,261	11,762	125,207
Matale	89	5,314	12,833	41,337	15,237			9,207	84,015
Matara		519	16,686	2,174	516		6	2,076	21,977
Monaragala		65	768	63,558	113,627	4,584		52,569	235,171
Mullaitivu					153,769		463	17,987	172,219
Nuwara Eliya	1,943	31,078	3,977	2,649				3,273	42,920
Polonnaruwa				47,266	68,093	523		22,949	138,831
Puttalam					79,452	814	2,264	17,104	99,634
Ratnapura	48	15,816	38,194	4,755	3,545			4,491	66,849
Trincomalee				4	110,491	1,826	1,491	17,629	131,441
Vavuniya					103,182			16,503	119,685
Kalutara		68,839	142,549	243,877	1094,287	22,4111	8,687	463,842	204,6599
% of the Total Land Area	0.05	1.04	2.14	3.68	16.54	0.34	0.13	7.01	3,0.93

Source: Ministry of Forests and Environment, Statistical Compendium on Natural Resources Management Sri Lanka - 2000

Appendix Table 7(ii)
Natural Forest Cover by District - 2001

	Montane	Sub – Montane	Lowland Rain	Moist Monsoon	Dry Monsoon	Riverine Dry	Mangrove	Sparse	Grand Total
Ampara				455192	67197	10148	299	40966.2	164129
Anuradhapura					1164794	82.4		99525	264402
Badulla	94.5	3030	1610.6	15750	2266			26645	49398
Batticaloa				13378	19733			17766	52733135
Colombo			1359					488	1847
Galle			18849				104.3	1584.6	20538
Gampaha			240				121.5	1	362
Hambantota			207	570	18218	3709	492	59630	82828
Jaffna					794		242	317	1354
Kaluthara			14021					4575	18596
Kandy	935	8633	14065.	3543.9				7146.2	34324
Kegalle		3705	9985	44.2				1096.4	14831
Kilinochchi					32149		424	5026.6	37599.8
Kurunegala				1260.9	6264.6			11973	19498.6
Mannar					104888	568	1486	16797	123740
Matale	89	4780	8217	31108.7	12330			13461.4	69987
Matara		536.2	15717.6	1772	441		1.4	1773.8	20242
Monaragala		11.2	392	56769	104089	1366.5		57579.8	22020.7
Mullaitivu					148745		405	20152.8	169903.5
Nuwara Eliya	1940	29384	3639	121.4				4620	39105
Polonnaruwa				46388	67430	523.6		21333.7	135675.3
Puttalam					66615	129.4	2337.5	17545.7	86627.6
Ratnapura	40.8	15711	36035	5746	1393			14446.7	126746
Trincomalee				04	108710	1823.7	1761.6	14446.7	126746
Vavuniya					101482			15568.8	117050.7
Total	3099.5	65792.3	124340.8	221977	1027544	18352.1	9530.5	471583.2	1942219.5
% Of The Total Land Area								7.2	29.6

Source: Ministry of Forests and Environment, Statistical Compendium on Natural Resources Management Sri Lanka - 2000

Appendix Table 7(iii)
Proportion of Land Area Covered by Forest - North and East

Indicator	1993 (or nearest available date)	1998 (or nearest available date)	2015
Proportion of land area covered by forest (ha)		17.4 (1999)	
Ampara	8,856	9,088	
Batticaloa	5,463	5,463	
Jaffna	198	198	
Kilinochchi	864	864	
Mannar			
Mullaitivu	5,152	5,152	
Trincomalee	6,786	6,786	
Vavuniya	887	896	

Sources: Department of Forests, Administrative Reports

Note: Data not verified

Appendix Table 7(iv)
Paddy Extent Sown by Variety of Seeds 1986 - 1998 (Hectares)

Variety Of Seeds	1986	1990	1995	2000
New Improved	474,979	491,748	501,398	522,652
Old Improved	35,962	14,852	14,249	11,138
Traditional	44,268	10,576	17,543	1,786
Maha Total	555,209	517,176	533,190	535,576
New Improved	297,022	216,486	322,233	322,202
Old Improved	7,475	7,031	3,237	2,513
Traditional	35,613	36,140	4,836	1,566
Yala Total	340,110	259,657	330,306	326,281

Sources: Department of Census and Statistics, Statistical Abstracts

Appendix Table 7(v)
Fuel Consumption by District

Districts	1990			2001		
	Fuel-wood	Gas	Kerosene	Fuel-wood	Gas	Kerosene
Ampara				85.6	8.4	2.0
Anuradhapura	97.18	2.36	0.27	91.7	5.6	0.4
Badulla	95.99	3.34	0.09	92.2	5.4	0.5
Colombo	52.32	37.69	7.51	32.0	49.3	14.4
Gampaha	84.52	12.98	1.58	65.7	24.4	6.8
Galle	95.15	5.32	0.25	85.6	12.5	0.7
Hambantota	97.19	2.27	0.72	94.9	3.8	0.3
Kalutara	91.51	7.44	0.37	81.5	15.0	1.5
Kandy	91.31	4.98	0.62	85.1	11.9	1.3
Kegalle	98.47	1.09	0.12	94.1	4.2	0.3
Kurunegala	97.73	1.81	0.12	94.8	3.8	0.3
Matara	95.78	3.66	0.25	89.0	8.9	0.6
Matale	96.19	2.87	0.23	92.4	5.9	0.5
Moneragala	98.27	1.21	0.16	95.0	2.7	0.1
Nuwara Eliya	95.86	2.67	0.67	88.8	5.9	2.4
Puttalam	94.55	4.36	0.65	88.3	8.2	1.8
Polonnaruwa	98.06	1.20	0.12	94.9	3.4	0.1
Ratnapura	97.39	2.00	0.18	94.3	4.4	0.4

Source: Energy Conservation Fund, Sri Lanka Energy Balance 2001

Appendix Table 7(vi)
Population with Access to Safe Drinking Water (Percentage)

District	1993				2000			
	Piped	Protected Well	Unprotected Well	Tube Well	Piped	Protected Well	Unprotected Well	Tube Well
Badulla	41.00	20.35	23.46	2.22	37	29	11	3
Moneragala	19.21	36.71	34.55	7.07	14	43	19	7
Ratnapura	22.69	28.17	30.91	1.78	27	31	11	1
Kegalle	15.35	41.60	35.90	0.95	18	52	17	0
Nuwara Eliya	60.65	12.89	14.61	1.20	52	14	7	3
Kandy	24.80	19.72	14.61	8.43	40	34	9	8
Matale	23.56	29.45	19.63	19.71	21	43	14	15
Galle	12.12	47.24	37.49	1.29	19	60	14	3
Matara	19.25	43.11	33.77	0.74	29	48	12	1
Hambantota	15.35	36.72	25.71	8.04	28	48	9	8
Kurunegala	2.02	66.68	25.56	3.80	4	77	12	5
Puttalam	7.86	64.96	15.20	9.56	11	66	5	14
Anuradhapura	5.29	47.69	28.95	18.03	10	61	13	13
Polonnaruwa	6.49	35.28	29.61	23.55	11	54	18	12
Colombo	55.86	58.40	4.30	0.84	64	31	1	1
Gampaha	12.15	66.31	17.71	2.94	24	62	7	5
Kalutara	9.37	57.26	27.92	1.75	18	63	12	2
Ampara					11	73	10	2
Average for 18 districts					27	50	10	5

Sources: Department of Census and Statistics, Sri Lanka Demographic and Health Survey 1993 and 2000

Appendix Table 7(vii)
Households by Type of Toilet (Percentage)

District	1993			2000		
	Water Seal	Flush	Pit	Water Seal	Flush	Pit/ Bucket
Ampara	NA	NA	NA	50	13	13
Puttalam	45.12	19.47	5.19	66	12	4
Kurunegala	35.18	20.43	21.23	69	10	11
Nuwara Eliya	25.00	25.80	19.58	41	24	16
Matale	23.80	29.00	37.85	50	16	30
Kandy	36.30	30.30	24.13	66	18	12
Anuradhapura	16.80	24.20	31.51	48	14	22
Polonnaruwa	21.10	29.16	34.63	56	11	25
Badulla	26.40	22.17	31.19	55	21	17
Moneragala	16.30	13.48	43.42	44	9	36
Ratnapura	35.60	14.61	35.29	66	8	20
Galle	39.50	29.12	15.73	74	13	8
Matara	55.20	15.50	19.53	82	6	9
Hambantota	31.10	12.40	47.47	57	9	30
Kegalle	30.06	25.73	35.62	63	16	16
Colombo	54.36	35.14	11.60	78	17	2
Gampaha	44.26	31.46	16.52	78	14	4
Kalutara	46.24	30.59	10.81	78	14	4
Average	34.26	24.03	25.90	67	14	12

Sources: Department of Census and Statistics, Sri Lanka Demographic and Health Survey 1993 and 2000

Review of Institutional Capacity to Implement Programmes to Achieve the Millennium Development Goals

Goal 2

Appendix Table 2(ia) - Government Schools by Medium and District - 1990

District	Sinhala Medium		Tamil Medium				Both Medium						Total
	Sinhala Schools		Tamil Schools		Muslim Schools		Sinhala Schools		Tamil Schools		Muslim Schools		
Colombo	385	85.7%	34	7.6%	11	2.4%	10	2.2%	0	0.0%	9	2.0%	449
Gampaha	557	95.2%	7	1.2%	17	2.9%	2	0.3%	1	0.2%	1	0.2%	585
Kalutara	401	86.2%	41	8.8%	17	3.7%	3	0.6%	0	0.0%	3	0.6%	465
<Western>	1343	89.6%	82	5.5%	45	3.0%	15	1.0%	1	0.1%	13	0.9%	1499
Kandy	496	72.2%	100	14.6%	70	10.2%	10	1.5%	7	1.0%	4	0.6%	687
Matale	258	82.7%	33	10.6%	20	6.4%	1	0.3%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	312
Nuwara Eliya	219	45.2%	252	52.0%	5	1.0%	3	0.6%	6	1.2%	0	0.0%	485
<Central>	973	65.6%	385	25.9%	95	6.4%	14	0.9%	13	0.9%	4	0.3%	1484
Galle	489	96.8%	2	0.4%	11	2.2%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	3	0.6%	505
Matara	374	94.7%	6	1.5%	14	3.5%	1	0.3%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	395
Tangalle	307	97.8%	0	0.0%	7	2.2%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	314
<Southern>	1170	96.4%	8	0.7%	32	2.6%	1	0.1%	0	0.0%	3	0.2%	1214
Jaffna	1	0.2%	475	98.8%	5	1.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	481
Kilinochchi	1	1.3%	72	94.7%	3	3.9%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	76
Mannar	2	1.9%	72	69.9%	29	28.2%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	103
Mullativu	0	0.0%	83	96.5%	3	3.5%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	86
Vavuniya	20	15.6%	99	77.3%	9	7.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	128
<Northern>	24	2.7%	801	91.6%	49	5.6%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	874
Batticaloa	0	0.0%	209	85.3%	36	14.7%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	245
Ampara	158	48.2%	66	20.1%	104	31.7%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	328
Trincomalee	60	29.7%	80	39.6%	60	29.7%	0	0.0%	1	0.5%	1	0.5%	202
<Eastern>	218	28.1%	355	45.8%	200	25.8%	0	0.0%	1	0.1%	1	0.1%	775
Kurunegala	869	91.1%	7	0.7%	78	8.2%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	954
Chilaw	272	81.0%	23	6.8%	40	11.9%	1	0.3%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	336
<North Western>	1141	88.4%	30	2.3%	118	9.1%	1	0.1%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	1290
Anuradhapura	486	88.7%	2	0.4%	60	10.9%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	548
Polonnaruwa	180	89.1%	6	3.0%	16	7.9%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	202
<North Central>	666	88.8%	8	1.1%	76	10.1%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	750
Bandarawela	388	69.4%	156	27.9%	13	2.3%	1	0.2%	0	0.0%	1	0.2%	559
Monaragala	204	97.1%	1	0.5%	5	2.4%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	210
<Uva>	592	77.0%	157	20.4%	18	2.3%	1	0.1%	0	0.0%	1	0.1%	769
Ratnapura	492	83.2%	92	15.6%	3	0.5%	4	0.7%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	591
Kegalle	513	84.0%	65	10.6%	31	5.1%	0	0.0%	2	0.3%	0	0.0%	611
<Sabaragamuwa>	1005	83.6%	157	13.1%	34	2.8%	4	0.3%	2	0.2%	0	0.0%	1202
Sri Lanka	7132	72.4%	1983	20.1%	667	6.8%	36	0.4%	17	0.2%	22	0.2%	9857

* Seven schools temporarily closed

Source: Ministry of Education, and Higher Education, Annual School Census 1990

Note: Provinces indicated in bold

Appendix Table 2(ib) - Government Schools by Medium of Study - 2000

District	Sinhala Medium		Tamil Medium		Bimedia Medium		Total
	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	
Colombo	373	85.7	43	9.9	19	4.4	435
Gampaha	536	95.5	22	3.9	3	0.5	561
Kalutara	389	86.3	55	12.2	7	1.6	451
<Western>	1,298	89.7	120	8.3	29	2.0	1,447
Kandy	474	71.1	171	25.6	22	3.3	667
Matale	263	82.4	55	17.2	1	0.3	319
Nuwara Eliya	214	41.4	295	57.1	8	1.5	517
<Central>	951	63.3	521	34.7	31	2.1	1,503
Galle	449	96.4	14	3.0	3	0.6	466
Matara	365	95.1	17	4.4	2	0.5	384
Hambantota	319	97.6	8	2.4	0	0.0	327
<Southern>	1,133	96.3	39	3.3	5	0.4	1,177
Jaffna	0	0.0	403	100.0	0	0.0	403
Kilinochchi	0	0.0	90	100.0	0	0.0	90
Mannar	0	0.0	94	100.0	0	0.0	94
Vavuniya	18	9.9	163	90.1	0	0.0	181
Mullativu	1	1.0	95	99.0	0	0.0	96
<Northern>	19	2.2	845	97.8	0	0.0	864
Batticaloa	0	0.0	306	100.0	0	0.0	306
Ampara	195	48.8	205	51.3	0	0.0	400
Trincomalee	65	26.3	181	73.3	1	0.4	247
<Eastern>	260	27.3	692	72.6	1	0.1	953
Kurunegala	836	90.9	84	9.1	0	0.0	920
Puttalam	277	79.8	68	19.6	2	0.6	347
<North Western>	1,113	87.8	152	12.0	2	0.2	1,267
Anuradhapura	493	88.8	61	11.0	1	0.2	555
Polonnaruwa	193	90.6	20	9.4	0	0.0	213
<North Central>	686	89.3	81	10.5	1	0.1	768
Badulla	398	69.3	175	30.5	1	0.2	574
Monaragala	244	93.1	18	6.9	0	0.0	262
<Uva>	642	76.8	193	23.1	1	0.1	836
Ratnapura	495	83.5	96	16.2	2	0.3	593
Kegalle	471	82.9	97	17.1	0	0.0	568
<Sabaragamuwa>	966	83.2	193	16.6	2	0.2	1,161
Sri Lanka	7,068	70.9	2,836	28.4	72	0.7	9,976

Source: Ministry of Education and Higher Education, School Census 2000

Note: Provinces indicated in bold

Appendix Table 2(ia) - Government Schools by District and Sex of Pupils - 1990

District	Total						
	Boys	% Boys	Girls	% Girls	Mixed	% Mixed	Total
Colombo	38	8.50%	55	12.20%	356	79.30%	449
Gampaha	13	2.2%	19	3.2%	553	94.5%	585
Kalutara	10	2.2%	12	2.6%	443	95.3%	465
<Western>	61	4.1%	86	5.7%	1352	90.2%	1499
Kandy	12	1.7%	20	2.9%	655	95.3%	687
Matale	1	0.3%	2	0.6%	309	99.0%	312
Nuwara Eliya	1	0.2%	4	0.8%	480	99.0%	485
<Central>	14	0.9%	26	1.8%	1444	97.3%	1484
Galle	12	2.4%	13	2.6%	480	95.0%	505
Matara	4	1.0%	3	0.8%	388	98.2%	395
Tangalle	0	0.0%	1	0.3%	313	99.7%	314
<Southern>	16	1.3%	17	1.4%	1181	97.3%	1214
Jaffna	11	2.3%	16	3.3%	454	94.4%	481
Kilinochchi	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	76	100.0%	76
Mannar	1	1.0%	3	2.9%	99	96.1%	103
Mullativu	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	86	100.0%	86
Vavuniya	0	0.0%	1	0.8%	128	99.2%	129
<Northern>	12	1.4%	20	2.3%	843	96.3%	875
Batticaloa	4	1.6%	5	2.0%	236	96.3%	245
Ampara	4	1.2%	5	1.5%	320	97.3%	329
Trincomalee	6	2.9%	6	2.9%	195	94.2%	207
<Eastern>	14	1.8%	16	2.0%	751	96.2%	781
Kurunegala	3	0.3%	3	0.3%	948	99.4%	954
Chilaw	7	2.1%	7	2.1%	322	95.8%	336
<North Western>	10	0.8%	10	0.8%	1270	98.4%	1290
Anuradhapura	1	0.2%	1	0.2%	546	99.6%	548
Polonnaruwa	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	202	100.0%	202
<North Central>	1	0.1%	1	0.1%	748	99.7%	750
Bandarawela	3	0.5%	7	1.3%	559	100.0%	559
Monaragala	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	210	366.2%	210
<Uva>	3	0.4%	7	0.9%	769	0.0%	769
Ratnapura	1	0.2%	1	0.2%	591	100.0%	591
Kegalle	5	0.8%	3	0.5%	611	100.0%	611
<Sabaragamuwa>	6	0.5%	4	0.3%	1202	100.0%	1202
Sri Lanka	137	1.4%	187	1.9%	9560	96.9%	9864

Source: Ministry of Education and Higher Education, Annual School Census 1990

Note: Provinces indicated in bold

Appendix Table 2(iiib) - Government Schools by Sex of Pupils - 2000

District	Boys	%	Girls	%	Mixed	%	Total
Colombo	38	8.7	57	13.1	340	78.2	435
Gampaha	12	2.1	22	3.9	527	93.9	561
Kalutara	8	1.8	12	2.7	431	95.6	451
<Western>	58	4.0	91	6.3	1,298	89.7	1,447
Kandy	3	0.4	22	3.3	634	95.1	667
Matale	2	0.6	3	0.9	314	98.4	319
Nuwara Eliya	2	0.4	4	0.8	511	98.8	517
<Central>	15	1.0	29	1.9	1,459	97.1	1,503
Galle	8	1.7	10	2.1	448	96.1	466
Matara	4	1.0	4	1.0	376	97.9	384
Hambantota	2	0.6	2	0.6	323	98.8	327
<Southern>	14	1.2	16	1.4	1,147	97.5	1,177
Jaffna	11	2.7	13	3.2	379	94.0	403
Kilinochchi	0	0.0	0	0.0	90	100.0	90
Mannar	4	4.3	4	4.3	86	91.5	94
Vavuniya	0	0.0	2	1.1	179	98.9	181
Mullativu	0	0.0	0	0.0	96	100.0	96
<Northern>	15	1.7	19	2.2	830	96.1	864
Batticaloa	5	1.6	6	2.0	295	96.4	306
Ampara	4	1.0	7	1.8	389	97.3	400
Trincomalee	8	3.2	11	4.5	228	92.3	247
<Eastern>	17	1.8	24	2.5	912	95.7	953
Kurunegala	3	0.3	3	0.3	914	99.3	920
Puttalam	6	1.7	8	2.3	333	96.0	347
<North Western>	9	0.7	11	0.9	1,247	98.4	1,267
Anuradhapura	1	0.2	1	0.2	553	99.6	555
Polonnaruwa	0	0.0	0	0.0	213	100.0	213
<North Central>	1	0.1	1	0.1	766	99.7	768
Badulla	3	0.5	6	1.0	565	98.4	574
Monaragala	0	0.0	0	0.0	262	100.0	262
<Uva>	3	0.4	6	0.7	827	98.9	836
Ratnapura	2	0.3	1	0.2	590	99.5	593
Kegalle	3	0.5	3	0.5	562	98.9	568
<Sabaragamuwa>	5	0.4	4	0.3	1,152	99.2	1,161
Sri Lanka	137	1.4	201	2.0	9,638	96.6	9,976

Source: Ministry of Education and Higher Education, School Census 2000

Note: Provinces indicated in bold

Appendix Table 2(iia) - Government Schools by Type* and District - 1990

District	No. of Schools	1AB	1AB (%)	1C	1C (%)	2	2 (%)	3	3 (%)
Colombo	449	55	12.2	72	16.0	207	46.1	115	25.6
Gampaha	585	43	7.4	81	13.8	249	42.6	212	36.2
Kalutara	465	25	5.4	70	15.1	211	45.4	159	34.2
<Western>	1499	123	8.2	223	14.9	667	44.5	486	32.4
Kandy	687	38	5.5	118	17.2	237	34.5	294	42.8
Matale	312	10	3.2	53	17.0	98	31.4	151	48.4
Nuwara Eliya	485	12	2.5	38	7.8	117	24.1	318	65.6
<Central>	1484	60	4.0	209	14.1	452	30.5	763	51.4
Galle	505	32	6.3	84	16.6	177	35.0	212	42.0
Matara	395	20	5.1	73	18.5	164	41.5	138	34.9
Tangalle	314	16	5.1	45	14.3	139	44.3	114	36.3
<Southern>	1214	68	5.6	202	16.6	480	39.5	464	38.2
Jaffna	481	41	8.5	37	7.7	143	29.7	260	54.1
Kilinochchi	76	6	7.9	7	9.2	18	23.7	45	59.2
Mannar	103	5	4.9	9	8.7	30	29.1	59	57.3
Mullativu	86	4	4.7	5	5.8	19	22.1	58	67.4
Vavuniya	129	3	2.3	2	1.6	27	20.9	87	67.4
<Northern>	875	59	6.7	70	8.0	237	27.1	509	58.2
Batticaloa	245	11	4.5	17	6.9	39	15.9	178	72.7
Ampara	329	19	5.8	34	10.3	78	23.7	198	60.2
Trincomalee	207	9	4.3	30	14.5	63	30.4	105	50.7
<Eastern>	781	39	5.0	81	10.4	180	23.0	481	61.6
Kurunegala	954	38	4.0	189	19.8	397	41.6	348	36.5
Chilaw	336	19	5.7	31	9.2	157	46.7	129	38.4
<North Western>	1290	57	4.4	220	17.1	536	41.6	477	37.0
Anuradhapura	548	15	2.7	77	14.1	198	36.1	258	47.1
Polonnaruwa	202	6	3.0	30	14.9	87	43.1	79	39.1
<North Central>	750	21	2.8	107	14.3	285	38.0	337	44.9
Bandarawela	559	24	4.3	80	14.3	194	34.7	261	46.7
Monaragala	210	5	2.4	31	14.8	104	49.5	70	33.3
<Uva>	769	29	3.8	111	14.4	298	38.8	331	43.0
Ratnapura	591	26	4.4	77	13.0	227	38.4	261	44.2
Kegalle	611	19	3.1	89	14.6	213	34.9	290	47.5
<Sabaragamuwa>	1202	45	3.7	166	13.8	440	36.6	551	45.8
Sri Lanka	9864	501	5.1	1384	14.0	3584	36.3	4399	44.6

Source: Ministry of Education and Higher Education, Annual School Census 1990

Note: Provinces indicated in bold

Appendix Table 2(iiib) - Government Schools by Type and District - 1996

District	1AB	%	1C	%	Type 2	%	Type 3	%	Total
Colombo	60	13.5	90	20.2	193	43.4	102	22.9	445
Gampaha	46	7.9	113	19.5	218	37.6	203	35.0	580
Kalutara	29	6.3	74	16.0	221	47.8	138	29.9	462
<Western>	135	9.1	277	18.6	632	42.5	443	29.8	1487
Kandy	47	6.8	146	21.2	241	35.0	255	37.0	689
Matala	13	4.1	66	20.8	107	33.6	132	41.5	318
Nuwara Eliya	15	2.9	59	11.3	132	25.3	315	60.5	521
<Central>	75	4.9	271	17.7	480	31.4	702	45.9	1528
Galle	37	7.4	108	21.6	169	33.9	185	37.1	499
Matara	26	6.6	91	23.1	159	40.4	118	29.9	394
Hambantota	17	5.2	72	21.8	139	42.1	102	30.9	330
<Southern>	80	6.5	271	22.2	467	38.2	405	33.1	1223
Jaffna	40	10.1	43	10.8	127	31.9	188	47.2	398
Kilinochchi	6	7.6	10	12.7	24	30.4	39	49.4	79
Mannar	8	9.3	9	10.5	24	27.9	45	52.3	86
Vavuniya	4	2.3	21	11.9	30	17.0	121	68.8	176
Mullaitivu	5	5.6	10	11.2	20	22.5	54	60.7	89
<Northern>	63	7.6	93	11.2	255	30.8	447	54.0	828
Batticaloa	14	4.6	39	12.8	51	16.7	201	65.9	305
Ampara	22	5.6	49	12.5	112	28.6	208	53.2	391
Trincomalee	11	4.8	49	21.3	72	31.3	98	42.6	230
<Eastern>	47	5.1	137	14.8	235	25.4	507	54.8	926
Kurunegala	45	4.7	222	23.2	393	41.1	297	31.0	957
Puttalam	21	6.0	57	16.2	161	45.7	113	32.1	352
<North Western>	66	5.0	279	21.3	554	42.3	410	31.3	1309
Anuradhapura	17	3.1	102	18.3	230	41.4	207	37.2	556
Polonnaruwa	7	3.3	46	21.6	82	38.5	78	36.6	213
<North Central>	24	3.1	148	19.2	312	40.6	285	37.1	769
Badulla	33	5.7	113	19.6	203	35.2	227	39.4	576
Monaragala	12	4.6	41	15.8	117	45.2	89	34.4	259
<Uva>	45	5.4	154	18.4	320	38.3	316	37.8	835
Ratnapura	28	4.7	97	16.2	232	38.8	241	40.3	598
Kegalla	21	3.5	100	16.6	210	34.8	273	45.2	604
<Sabaragamuwa>	49	4.1	197	16.4	442	36.8	514	42.8	1202
Sri Lanka	584	5.8	1827	18.1	3667	36.3	4029	39.9	10107

Source: Ministry of Education and Higher Education, Annual School Census 1996

Note: Provinces indicated in bold

Appendix Table 2(iic) - Government Schools by Type and District - 2000

District	1AB	%	1C	%	Type 2	%	Type 3	%	Total
Colombo	62	14.3	83	19.1	215	49.4	75	17.2	435
Gampaha	48	8.6	94	16.8	266	47.4	153	27.3	561
Kalutara	32	7.1	71	15.7	221	49.0	127	28.2	451
<Western>	142	9.8	248	17.1	702	48.5	355	24.5	1,447
Kandy	38	5.7	153	22.9	258	38.7	218	32.7	667
Matale	13	4.1	62	19.4	107	33.5	137	42.9	319
Nuwara Eliya	15	2.9	60	11.6	168	32.5	274	53.0	517
<Central>	66	4.4	275	18.3	533	35.5	629	41.8	1,503
Galle	38	8.2	96	20.6	199	42.7	133	28.5	466
Matara	23	6.0	82	21.4	192	50.0	87	22.7	384
Hambantota	19	5.8	67	20.5	159	48.6	82	25.1	327
<Southern>	80	6.8	245	20.8	550	46.7	302	25.7	1,177
Jaffna	37	9.2	44	10.9	142	35.2	180	44.7	403
Kilinochchi	7	7.8	13	14.4	32	35.6	38	42.2	90
Mannar	6	6.4	11	11.7	39	41.5	38	40.4	94
Vavuniya	5	2.8	19	10.5	42	23.2	115	63.5	181
Mullativu	5	5.2	12	12.5	27	28.1	52	54.2	96
<Northern>	60	6.9	99	11.5	282	32.6	423	49.0	864
Batticaloa	16	5.2	47	15.4	65	21.2	178	58.2	306
Ampara	23	5.8	55	13.8	142	35.5	180	45.0	400
Trincomalee	15	6.1	48	19.4	97	39.3	87	35.2	247
<Eastern>	54	5.7	150	15.7	304	31.9	445	46.7	953
Kurunegala	45	4.9	206	22.4	429	46.6	240	26.1	920
Puttalam	20	5.8	67	19.3	183	52.7	77	22.2	347
<North Western>	65	5.1	273	21.5	612	48.3	317	25.0	1,267
Anuradhapura	19	3.4	93	16.8	259	46.7	184	33.2	555
Polonnaruwa	11	5.2	41	19.2	88	41.3	73	34.3	213
<North Central>	30	3.9	134	17.4	347	45.2	257	33.5	768
Badulla	22	3.8	123	21.4	228	39.7	201	35.0	574
Monaragala	13	5.0	40	15.3	130	49.6	79	30.2	262
<Uva>	35	4.2	163	19.5	358	42.8	280	33.5	836
Ratnapura	23	3.9	97	16.4	269	45.4	204	34.4	593
Kegalle	20	3.5	101	17.8	218	38.4	229	40.3	568
<Sabaragamuwa>	43	3.7	198	17.1	487	41.9	433	37.3	1,161
Sri Lanka	575	5.8	1,785	17.9	4,175	41.9	3,441	34.5	9,976

Source: Ministry of Education and Higher Education, School Census 2000

Note: Provinces indicated in bold

Appendix Table 2(iv) - Schools by Size - 2002

No. of Schools	1990	2002
<100	21.5	26.5
101 – 200	20.2	20.1
201 – 500	31.7	28.4
501 – 1000	17.9	14.8
1001 – 2000	7.7	7.3
Over 2000	1.6	2.9

Source: Ministry of Education and Higher Education, School Census 2000

Appendix Table 2(v a) - Teachers by Qualification – 1990

District	% Graduates	% Uni. Dip	% Trained	% Certificated	% Uncertificated	% Others	Total No.
Colombo	31.7	0.4	54.4	2.6	7.1	3.8	15424
Gampaha	24.0	0.2	60.2	1.9	8.8	4.9	14177
Kalutara	23.7	0.2	55.4	2.7	14.1	3.9	9989
<Western>	26.9	0.3	56.7	2.4	9.5	4.2	39590
Kandy	23.1	0.1	55.8	2.4	14.0	4.5	13986
Matale	19.0	0.0	44.4	6.1	24.1	6.4	5117
Nuwara Eliya	16.1	0.0	31.7	6.3	31.0	14.8	5904
<Central>	20.6	0.1	47.8	4.1%	20.1	7.4	25012
Galle	23.5	0.2	49.5	3.6	14.5	8.7	10825
Matara	23.5	0.0	53.9	2.4	12.8	7.4	9103
Tangalle	27.4	0.0	29.9	4.6	19.7	18.4	6119
<Southern>	24.9	0.1	47.3	3.5	13.5	10.8	25552
Jaffna	18.4	0.1	62.0	2.5	16.4	0.6	6790
Kilinochchi	33.8	0.0	40.8	7.9	16.9	0.5	733
Mannar	18.0	0.2	48.7	3.3	29.0	0.8	846
Mullativu	21.9	0.0	42.9	2.9	32.1	0.2	557
Vavuniya	20.9	0.0	39.4	7.6	31.7	0.4	736
<Northern>	19.9	0.1	56.4	3.4	19.6	0.6	9662
Batticaloa	16.0	0.0	50.7	2.7	29.6	0.9	2743
Ampara	16.8	0.1	36.9	8.7	27.2	10.3	4997
Trincomalee	16.9	0.1	43.0	5.8	33.3	0.8	2345
<Eastern>	16.6	0.1	42.1	6.4	29.3	5.5	10085
Kurunagale	23.0	0.1	46.7	3.7	18.2	8.3	17715
Chillow	19.5	0.1	40.3	2.7	23.0	14.4	5836
<North Western>	22.1	0.1	45.1	3.4	19.4	9.8	23551
Andradhapura	19.5	0.1	35.3	5.5	23.5	16.0	8383
Polonnaruwa	24.0	0.0	25.4	6.8	33.3	10.5	3352
<North Central>	20.8	0.0	32.5	5.9	26.3	14.5	11735
Bandarawela	21.5	0.1	40.9	3.3	26.6	7.6	9180
Monaragala	24.8	0.0	26.5	8.1	34.9	5.7	3638
<Uva>	22.5	0.1	36.8	4.7	28.9	7.1	12818
Ratnapura	18.6	0.1	38.4	9.3	24.5	9.1	9869
Kegalle	19.0	0.1	52.0	4.9	20.4	3.6	9959
<Sabaragamuwa>	18.8	0.1	45.2	7.1	22.4	6.3	19828
Sri Lanka	22.4	0.1	47.3	4.1	18.7	7.3	178333

Source: Ministry of Education and Higher Education, Annual School Census 1990

Note: Provinces indicated in bold

Appendix Table 2(v b) - Teachers by Qualification – 1996

District	Graduate		University Diploma		Trained		Certificated		Uncertificated		Others		Total No.
	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	
Colombo	5312	36.0	129	0.9	7407	50.2	284	1.9	1330	9.0	298	2.0	14760
Gampaha	4325	30.9	67	0.5	7479	53.5	258	1.8	1573	11.2	286	2.0	13988
Kalutara	2885	30.2	46	0.5	5130	53.8	165	1.7	1092	11.4	222	2.3	9540
<Western>	12522	32.7	242	0.6	20016	52.3	707	1.8	3995	10.4	806	2.1	38288
Kandy	4414	29.7	51	0.3	8048	54.1	336	2.3	1715	11.5	322	2.2	14886
Matala	1206	23.0	7	0.1	2562	48.9	147	2.8	1137	21.7	175	3.3	5234
Nuwara Eliya	959	16.1	19	0.3	2558	43.0	187	3.1	1917	32.2	308	5.2	5948
<Central>	6579	25.2	77	0.3	13168	50.5	670	2.6	4769	18.3	805	3.1	26068
Galle	3191	28.8	39	0.4	5440	49.1	233	2.1	1643	14.8	531	4.8	11077
Matara	2987	29.7	25	0.2	4929	49.0	136	1.4	1451	14.4	523	5.2	10051
Hambantota	1960	29.7	10	0.2	2330	35.3	146	2.2	1937	29.3	226	3.4	6609
<Southern>	8138	29.3	74	0.3	12699	45.8	515	1.9	5031	18.1	1280	4.6	27737
Jaffna	1305	27.6	72	1.5	2530	53.5	61	1.3	381	8.1	376	8.0	4725
Kilinochchi	308	24.2	11	0.9	541	42.6	24	1.9	168	13.2	219	17.2	1271
Mannar	149	21.8	2	0.3	243	35.6	8	1.2	196	28.7	84	12.3	682
Vavuniya	323	21.1	7	0.5	558	36.4	33	2.2	430	28.0	182	11.9	1533
Mullaitivu	220	23.0	7	0.7	466	48.6	26	2.7	122	12.7	117	12.2	958
<Northern>	2305	25.1	99	1.1	4338	47.3	152	1.7	1297	14.1	978	10.7	9169
Batticaloa	821	22.5	7	0.2	1716	47.1	75	2.1	497	13.6	529	14.5	3645
Ampara	908	14.5	10	0.2	2545	40.5	168	2.7	1756	28.0	894	14.2	6281
Trincomalee	423	12.0	6	0.2	1413	40.1	83	2.4	948	26.9	649	18.4	3522
<Eastern>	2152	16.0	23	0.2	5674	42.2	326	2.4	3201	23.8	2072	15.4	13448
Kurunegala	5111	28.3	39	0.2	8745	48.4	345	1.9	2921	16.2	905	5.0	18066
Puttalam	1255	21.0	9	0.2	2807	47.0	185	3.1	1498	25.1	218	3.7	5972
<North Western>	6366	26.5	48	0.2	11552	48.1	530	2.2	4419	18.4	1123	4.7	24038
Anuradhapura	1745	19.0	23	0.3	3825	41.6	342	3.7	2526	27.5	726	7.9	9187
Polonnaruwa	688	20.3	2	0.1	1144	33.8	106	3.1	1206	35.6	241	7.1	3387
<North Central>	2433	19.3	25	0.2	4969	39.5	448	3.6	3732	29.7	967	7.7	12574
Badulla	2274	22.3	56	0.5	4478	43.9	349	3.4	2111	20.7	940	9.2	10208
Monaragala	1057	24.4	3	0.1	1483	34.2	125	2.9	1144	26.4	521	12.0	4333
<Uva>	3331	22.9	59	0.4	5961	41.0	474	3.3	3255	22.4	1461	10.0	14541
Ratnapura	2133	21.2	16	0.2	5076	50.4	272	2.7	2340	23.2	242	2.4	10079
Kegalla	2489	25.1	16	0.2	5200	52.5	218	2.2	1731	17.5	246	2.5	9900
<Sabaragamuwa>	4622	23.1	32	0.2	10276	51.4	490	2.5	4071	20.4	488	2.4	19979
Sri Lanka	48448	26.1	679	0.4	88653	47.7	4312	2.3	33770	18.2	9980	5.4	185842

Source: Ministry of Education and Higher Education, Annual School Census 1996

Note: Provinces indicated in bold

Appendix Table 2(v c) - Teachers by Qualification – 2000

District	Graduate		University Diploma		Trained		Certificated		Uncertificated		Total No.
	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	Total	%	
Colombo	5536	37.7	8040	54.7	263	1.8	423	2.9	434	3.0	14696
Gampaha	4534	32.7	8356	60.2	179	1.3	288	2.1	524	3.8	13881
Kalutara	3058	32.0	5749	60.1	133	1.4	203	2.1	428	4.5	9571
<Western>	13128	34.4	22145	58.1	575	1.5	914	2.4	1386	3.6	38148
Kandy	4673	31.0	9110	60.5	157	1.0	392	2.6	726	4.8	15058
Matale	1252	24.0	3289	63.1	63	1.2	246	4.7	360	6.9	5210
Nuwara Eliya	1093	18.1	3718	61.6	72	1.2	338	5.6	812	13.5	6033
<Central>	7018	26.7	16117	61.3	292	1.1	976	3.7	1898	7.2	26301
Galle	3158	29.5	6526	60.9	176	1.6	284	2.7	568	5.3	10712
Matara	3011	31.4	5783	60.3	87	0.9	239	2.5	465	4.9	9585
Hambantota	2175	31.1	4104	58.6	89	1.3	238	3.4	397	5.7	7003
<Southern>	8344	30.6	16413	60.1	352	1.3	761	2.8	1430	5.2	27300
Jaffna	1802	31.6	2735	47.9	31	0.5	175	3.1	965	16.9	5708
Kilinochchi	165	19.8	373	44.8	4	0.5	23	2.8	268	32.2	833
Mannar	167	24.4	342	49.9	1	0.1	41	6.0	134	19.6	685
Vavuniya	346	20.8	932	56.1	10	0.6	93	5.6	279	16.8	1660
Mullativu	187	25.5	393	53.5	9	1.2	28	3.8	117	15.9	734
<Northern>	2667	27.7	4775	49.6	55	0.6	360	3.7	1763	18.3	9620
Batticaloa	944	24.8	2356	61.9	19	0.5	98	2.6	387	10.2	3804
Ampara	1062	16.5	4391	68.2	82	1.3	182	2.8	717	11.1	6434
Trincomalee	558	15.1	2589	70.0	43	1.2	106	2.9	400	10.8	3696
<Eastern>	2564	18.4	9336	67.0	144	1.0	386	2.8	1504	10.8	13934
Kurunegala	5663	30.9	11277	61.6	318	1.7	526	2.9	534	2.9	18318
Puttalam	1479	23.6	4086	65.3	98	1.6	291	4.7	300	4.8	6254
<North Western>	7142	29.1	15363	62.5	416	1.7	817	3.3	834	3.4	24572
Anuradhapura	1660	18.4	6176	68.4	106	1.2	530	5.9	557	6.2	9029
Polonnaruwa	631	17.8	2205	62.3	55	1.6	248	7.0	400	11.3	3539
<North Central>	2291	18.2	8381	66.7	161	1.3	778	6.2	957	7.6	12568
Badulla	2257	22.9	6213	63.1	137	1.4	440	4.5	797	8.1	9844
Monaragala	942	21.4	2437	55.3	79	1.8	266	6.0	681	15.5	4405
<Uva>	3199	22.5	8650	60.7	216	1.5	706	5.0	1478	10.4	14249
Ratnapura	2243	22.3	6701	66.7	139	1.4	334	3.3	634	6.3	10051
Kegalle	2496	26.7	6259	66.9	130	1.4	239	2.6	230	2.5	9354
<Sabaragamuwa>	4739	24.4	12960	66.8	269	1.4	573	3.0	864	4.5	19405
Sri Lanka	51092	27.5	114140	61.3	2480	1.3	6271	3.4	12114	6.5	186097

Source: Ministry of Education and Higher Education, School Census 2000

Note: Provinces indicated in bold

Appendix Table 2(vi a) - Teachers by Sex in Govt. Schools - 1990

District	Male	Female	Total	% Female
Colombo	3957	11467	15424	74
Gampaha	4059	10118	14177	71
Kalutara	2724	7265	9989	73
<Western>	10740	28850	39590	73
Kandy	4636	9355	13991	67
Matale	1875	3242	5117	63
Nuwara Eliya	2253	3651	5904	62
<Central>	8764	16248	25012	65
Galle	3212	7613	10825	70
Matara	2845	6263	9108	69
Tangalle	2168	3951	6119	65
<Southern>	8225	17827	26052	68
Jaffna	2627	4163	6790	61
Kilinochchi	272	461	733	63
Mannar	421	426	847	50
Mullativu	243	314	557	56
Vavuniya	292	444	736	60
<Northern>	3855	5807	9662	60
Batticaloa	1316	1427	2743	52
Ampara	2502	2495	4997	50
Trincomalee	1117	1228	2345	52
<Eastern>	4935	5150	10085	51
Kurunagale	6824	10891	17715	61
Chillow	2282	3554	5836	61
<North Western>	9106	14445	23551	61
Andradhapura	3376	5007	8383	60
Polonnaruwa	1465	1887	3352	56
<North Central>	4841	6894	11735	59
Bandarawela	3684	5496	9180	60
Monaragala	1472	2166	3638	60
<Uva>	5156	7662	12818	60
Ratnapura	3412	6457	9869	65
Kegalle	3412	6547	9959	66
<Sabaragamuwa>	6824	13004	19828	66
Sri Lanka	62446	115887	178333	65

Source: Ministry of Education and Higher Education, Annual School Census 1990

Note: Provinces indicated in bold

Appendix Table 2(vi b) - Teachers by Sex in Govt. Schools - 1996

District	Male	Female	Total	% Female
Colombo	3158	11602	14760	78.6
Gampaha	3340	10648	13988	76.1
Kalutara	2305	7235	9540	75.8
<Western>	8803	29485	38288	77.0
Kandy	4235	10651	14886	71.6
Matala	1829	3405	5234	65.1
Nuwara Eliya	2249	3699	5948	62.2
<Central>	8313	17755	26068	68.1
Galle	3043	8034	11077	72.5
Matara	2934	7117	10051	70.8
Hambantota	2199	4410	6609	66.7
<Southern>	8176	19561	27737	70.5
Jaffna	1660	3065	4725	64.9
Kilinochchi	407	864	1271	68.0
Mannar	215	467	682	68.5
Vavuniya	480	1053	1533	68.7
Mullaitivu	316	642	958	67.0
<Northern>	3078	6091	9169	66.4
Batticaloa	1522	2123	3645	58.2
Ampara	2854	3427	6281	54.6
Trincomalee	1551	1971	3522	56.0
<Eastern>	5927	7521	13448	55.9
Kurunegala	6270	11796	18066	65.3
Puttalam	2165	3807	5972	63.7
<North Western>	8435	15603	24038	64.9
Anuradhapura	3589	5598	9187	60.9
Polonnaruwa	1342	2045	3387	60.4
<North Central>	4931	7643	12574	60.8
Badulla	3722	6486	10208	63.5
Monaragala	1751	2582	4333	59.6
<Uva>	5473	9068	14541	62.4
Ratnapura	3325	6754	10079	67.0
Kegalla	2990	6910	9900	69.8
<Sabaragamuwa>	6315	13664	19979	68.4
Sri Lanka	59451	126391	185842	68.0

Source: Ministry of Education and Higher Education, Annual School Census 1996

Note: Provinces indicated in bold

Appendix Table 2 (vi c) - Teachers by Sex in Govt. Schools - 2000

District	Male	Female	Total	% Female
Colombo	2933	11763	14696	80.0
Gampaha	3135	10746	13881	77.4
Kalutara	2199	7372	9571	77.0
<Western>	8267	29881	38148	78.3
Kandy	4028	11030	15058	73.3
Matale	1752	3458	5210	66.4
Nuwara Eliya	2317	3716	6033	61.6
<Central>	8097	18204	26301	69.2
Galle	2824	7888	10712	73.6
Matara	2677	6908	9585	72.1
Hambantota	2266	4737	7003	67.6
<Southern>	7767	19533	27300	71.5
Jaffna	1838	3870	5708	67.8
Kilinochchi	248	585	833	70.2
Mannar	219	466	685	68.0
Vavuniya	520	1140	1660	68.7
Mullativu	221	513	734	69.9
<Northern>	3046	6574	9620	68.3
Batticaloa	1518	2286	3804	60.1
Ampara	3012	3422	6434	53.2
Trincomalee	1761	1935	3696	52.4
<Eastern>	6291	7643	13934	54.9
Kurunegala	6042	12276	18318	67.0
Puttalam	2279	3975	6254	63.6
<North Western>	8321	16251	24572	66.1
Anuradhapura	3397	5632	9029	62.4
Polonnaruwa	1358	2181	3539	61.6
<North Central>	4755	7813	12568	62.2
Badulla	3552	6292	9844	63.9
Monaragala	1793	2612	4405	59.3
<Uva>	5345	8904	14249	62.5
Ratnapura	3251	6800	10051	67.7
Kegalle	2658	6696	9354	71.6
<Sabaragamuwa>	5909	13496	19405	69.5
Sri Lanka	57798	128299	186097	68.9

Source: Ministry of Education and Higher Education, School Census 2000

Note: Provinces indicated in bold

Goals 4 - 6
Appendix Tables 4 - 6 (i)
Key Health Personnel - 1980 - 2002

Year	Medical Officer ¹		Dental Surgeons ²		Registered/ Assistant Medical Officers		Nurses		Public Health Nursing Sisters		Public Health Inspectors		Public Health Midwives		Hospital Midwives	
	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate
1980	2,055	13.9	218	1.5	1,018	6.9	6,123	41.5	213	1.4	913	6.2	1,817	12.3	1,533	10.4
1982	2,035	13.4	275	1.8	911	6.0	6,931	45.6	241	1.6	962	6.3	2,296	15.1	1,512	9.9
1984	1,951	12.5	288	1.8	984	6.3	7,400	47.4	209	1.3	916	5.9	3,001	19.2	1,538	9.9
1986	2,217	13.7	318	2.0	1,047	6.5	8,019	49.7	189	1.2	966	6.0	3,102	19.2	1,463	9.1
1988	2,316	14.0	355	2.1	1,100	6.6	8,317	50.1	154	0.9	977	5.9	3,209	19.3	1,531	9.2
1990 ³	2,440	15.5	317	2.0	1,074	6.8	8,957	57.1	140	0.9	886	5.6	3,321	21.2	1,638	10.4
1991	2,934	17.0	358	2.1	1,201	7.0	9,934	57.6	101	0.6	914	5.3	3,583	20.8	1,776	10.3
1992	3,345	19.2	381	2.2	1,253	7.2	11,214	64.4	113	0.6	846	5.0	4,108	23.6	2,025	11.6
1993	3,713	21.1	390	2.2	1,305	7.4	11,818	67.1	109	0.6	876	5.0	4,361	24.8	2,172	12.3
1994	4,047	22.7	387	2.2	1,357	7.6	13,060	73.1	117	0.7	928	5.2	4,400	24.6	2,214	12.4
1995	4,577	25.3	421	2.3	1,376	7.6	13,403	74.0	174	1.0	932	5.1	4,383	24.2	2,288	12.6
1996	5,117	27.9	462	2.5	1,397	7.6	13,933	79.1	189	1.0	915	5.0	4,352	23.8	2,393	13.1
1997	5,628	30.1	481	2.6	1,384	7.4	13,815	73.8	145	0.8	901	4.8	4,497	24.0	2,284	12.2
1998	6,427	34.2	521	2.8	1,340	7.1	14,448	77.0	183	1.0	888	4.7	4,578	24.4	2,410	12.8
1999	6,994	36.7	529	2.8	1,340	7.0	14,052	73.8	237	1.2	1,142	6.0	4,625	24.3	2,503	13.1
2000	7,963	41.1	637	3.3	1,349	7.0	14,716	76.0	270	1.4	1,486	7.7	4,798	24.8	2,596	13.4
2001	8,384	44.8	751	4.0	1,343	7.2	15,797	84.4	259	1.4	1,401	7.5	4,654	24.9	2,723	14.5
2002	9,290	48.9	867	4.6	1,326	7.0	16,517	86.9	310	1.6	1,470	7.7	4,819	25.4	2,794	14.7

Source: Medical Statistics, Unit Rate per 100,000 Population

¹All Medical Officers in curative, administrative and preventive services including Specialists and Interns ²Included Regional and Consultant Dental Surgeons ³Excludes the Northern Province

Appendix Tables 4 - 6 (ii)
Distribution of Health Personnel by District and the Rate for 100,000 Population - September 2002

District	Medical Officers Curative Services ¹	Medical Officers Administrative & Preventive Services	Medical Officers of Health	Total (Medical Officers)		Dental Surgeons ²		Registered/ Assistant Medical Officers		Nurses		Public Health Nursing Sisters		Public Health Inspectors		Public Health Midwives	
				No.	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate
Colombo	2,523	16	23	2,562	113.1	257	11.3	95	4.2	3,899	172.1	44	1.9	75	3.3	285	12.6
Gampaha	671	6	26	703	33.8	50	2.4	101	4.9	1,125	54.2	43	2.1	97	4.7	402	19.4
Kalutara	375	10	23	408	38.5	37	3.5	52	4.9	589	55.5	44	4.1	68	6.4	370	34.9
Kandy	1,180	10	35	1,225	95.1	88	6.8	205	15.9	1,955	151.8	8	0.6	72	5.6	388	30.1
Matale	183	5	17	205	45.8	19	4.2	48	10.7	296	66.1	9	2.0	32	7.1	143	31.9
Nuwara Eliya	113	4	8	125	17.7	18	2.5	36	5.1	201	28.4	7	1.0	21	3.0	125	17.7
Galle	536	12	23	571	57.1	39	3.9	73	7.3	1,094	109.4	17	1.7	73	7.3	283	28.3
Matara	242	8	23	273	35.5	25	3.2	49	6.4	528	68.6	8	1.0	80	10.4	265	34.4
Hambantota	109	3	13	125	23.6	17	3.2	36	6.8	235	44.4	4	-	59	11.2	209	39.5
Jaffna	118	5	2	125	23.5	15	2.8	40	7.5	323	60.7	-	-	71	13.3	66	12.4
Kilinochchi ³	5	-	2	7	2.2	2	0.6	16	5.0	26	8.2	-	-	17	5.3	17	5.3
Mannar	12	-	1	13	13.3	1	1.0	0	0.0	37	37.8	-	-	15	15.3	17	17.3
Vavuniya	33	2	2	37	25.3	6	4.1	7	4.8	72	49.3	-	-	15	10.3	22	15.1
Batticaloa	98	6	7	111	21.3	15	2.9	24	4.6	344	65.9	4	0.8	63	12.1	131	-
Ampara ⁴	96	4	13	113	19.0	11	1.8	17	2.9	204	34.2	1	0.2	91	15.3	100	16.8
Trincomalee	84	5	5	94	26.3	10	2.8	17	4.7	139	38.8	-	-	39	10.9	81	22.6
Kurunegala	400	8	32	440	30.1	55	3.8	150	10.3	1,191	81.5	39	2.7	113	7.7	438	30.0
Puttalam	205	2	11	218	30.6	23	3.2	42	5.9	321	45.0	7	1.0	49	6.9	169	23.7
Anuradhapura	367	8	26	401	53.2	35	4.6	58	7.7	968	128.4	9	1.2	75	9.9	283	37.5
Polonnaruwa	179	6	10	195	53.7	13	3.6	23	6.3	200	55.1	5	1.4	37	10.2	104	28.7
Badulla	262	10	27	299	38.0	35	4.4	69	8.8	634	80.6	10	1.3	57	7.2	223	28.3
Moneragala	90	1	17	108	26.9	12	3.0	27	6.7	192	47.9	6	1.5	38	9.5	153	38.2
Ratnapura	305	6	25	336	32.9	37	3.6	62	6.1	694	68.0	15	1.5	103	10.1	297	29.1
Kegalle	220	5	17	242	30.9	18	2.3	66	8.4	523	66.7	14	1.8	66	8.4	248	31.6
Central Government	252	102	0	354	1.9	29	0.2	13	0.1	727	3.8	16	0.1	44	0.2	-	-
Total	8,658	244	388	9,290	48.9	867	4.6	1,326	7.0	16,517	86.9	310	1.6	1,470	7.7	4,819	25.4

Source: Medical Statistics Unit - Rate per 10,000 population

Includes - ¹Specialists and Interns, ² Regional Dental Surgeons and Consultant Dental Surgeons, ³Mullaitivu District, ⁴Kalmunai DPDHS Division

Appendix Tables 4 - 6 (ii) (contd.)
Distribution of Health Personnel by District and the Rate for 100,000 Population - September 2002

District	Hospital Midwives		Pharmacists		Dispensers		Medical Laboratory Technologists		Radiographers		Physio-therapists		ECG Recordists		EEG Recordists		Supervising / Dental Therapists	
	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate	No.	Rate
Colombo	295	13.0	200	8.8	63	2.8	207	9.1	134	5.9	87	3.8	56	2.5	14	0.6	76	3.4
Gampaha	175	8.4	67	3.2	61	2.9	69	3.3	20	1.0	27	1.3	12	0.6	2	0.1	1	0.0
Kalutara	106	10.0	41	3.9	28	2.6	40	3.8	7	0.7	9	0.8	5	0.5	-	-	43	4.1
Kandy	253	19.6	68	5.3	76	5.9	63	4.9	44	3.4	18	1.4	15	1.2	4	0.3	2	0.2
Matale	88	19.6	16	3.6	34	7.6	11	2.5	4	0.9	2	0.4	2	0.4	-	-	14	3.1
Nuwara Eliya	94	13.3	6	0.8	28	4.0	4	0.6	2	0.3	1	-	1	0.1	-	-	7	1.0
Galle	193	19.3	53	5.3	57	5.7	45	4.5	21	2.1	13	1.3	13	1.3	2	0.2	9	0.9
Matara	148	19.2	26	3.4	36	4.7	22	2.9	6	0.8	3	0.4	6	0.8	-	-	24	3.1
Hambantota	104	19.7	10	1.9	25	4.7	9	1.7	3	0.6	-	-	1	0.2	-	-	13	2.5
Jaffna	60	11.3	43	8.1	27	5.1	13	2.4	8	1.5	2	0.4	4	0.8	3	0.6	8	1.5
Kilinochchi ¹	24	7.5	3	0.9	10	3.1	2	0.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.3
Mannar	21	21.4	5	5.1	4	4.1	2	2.0	1	1.0	1	1.0	-	-	-	-	-	-
Vavuniya	13	8.9	11	7.5	4	2.7	4	2.7	2	1.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Batticaloa	61	11.7	23	4.4	15	2.9	15	2.9	3	0.6	3	0.6	1	0.2	2	0.4	3	0.6
Ampara ²	110	18.5	21	3.5	19	3.2	9	1.5	2	0.3	-	0.0	-	0.0	3	0.5	8	1.3
Trincomalee	34	9.5	13	3.6	24	6.7	8	2.2	1	0.3	1	0.3	1	0.3	-	-	3	0.8
Kurunegalas	276	18.9	48	3.3	97	6.6	58	4.0	14	1.0	8	0.6	9	0.6	2	0.1	33	2.3
Puttalam	90	12.6	24	3.4	37	5.2	24	3.4	4	0.6	3	0.6	4	0.6	-	-	9	1.3
Anuradhapura	153	20.3	45	6.0	56	7.4	44	5.8	21	2.8	12	1.1	8	1.1	-	-	17	2.3
Polonnaruwa	45	12.4	12	3.3	15	4.1	7	1.9	4	1.1	3	1.1	4	1.1	-	-	7	1.9
Badulla	124	15.8	29	3.7	56	7.1	29	3.7	10	1.3	5	0.6	5	0.6	1	-	1	0.1
Moneragala	64	16.0	10	2.5	29	7.2	11	2.7	3	0.7	-	0.2	1	0.2	-	-	8	2.0
Ratnapura	144	14.1	37	3.6	44	4.3	27	2.6	11	1.1	7	0.7	7	0.7	1	0.1	22	2.2
Kegalle	119	15.2	30	3.8	41	5.2	15	1.9	5	0.6	2	0.4	3	0.4	-	-	18	2.3
Central Government	-	-	70	0.4	6	0.0	133	0.7	12	0.1	12	-	-	-	3	0.0	5	9.0
Total	2,794	14.7	911	4.8	892	4.7	871	4.6	342	1.8	219	0.8	158	0.8	37	0.2	332	1.7

Source: Medical Statistics Unit - Rate per 10,000 population

Includes - ¹Specialists and Interns, ² Regional Dental Surgeons and Consultant Dental Surgeons, ³Mullaivu District, ⁴Kalmunai DPDHS Division

Appendix Tables 4 - 6 (iii)
Distribution of Specialists in Curative Care Services¹ by District - September 2002

Districts	General Physicians	General Surgeons	Obstetricians & Gynaecologists	Cardiologists	Neurologists	Dermatologists	Haematologists	Psychiatrists	Paediatricians	TB & Chest Physicians	ENT Surgeons	Eye Surgeons	Paediatric Surgeons	Orthopaedic Surgeon	Plastic Surgeons	Genito Urinary Surgeons	Neuro Surgeons	Thoracic Surgeons	Anaesthesiologists	Pathologists	Bacteriologists / Microbiologists	Radiotherapists Oncologists	Radiologists	Others ²	Total
Colombo	17	16	18	5	4	3	4	-	14	1	6	12	5	6	3	3	2	5	24	8	7	13	6	13	195
Gampaha	9	8	10	1	1	-	-	3	9	4	1	3	-	1	-	1	-	2	8	4	1	3	-	2	71
Kalutara	4	4	5	-	-	2	1	-	4	1	1	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	1	-	-	29
Kandy	11	10	9	3	2	1	1	4	8	1	3	3	1	2	1	1	2	-	8	3	2	2	5	4	87
Matale	2	2	3	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	-	-	1	1	15
Nuwara Eliya	1	1	1	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5
Galle	8	6	8	7	1	1	1	6	13	1	1	1	-	1	-	1	-	-	4	3	3	-	1	2	69
Matara	1	2	2	1	1	-	-	1	2	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	1	1	17
Hambantota	1	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6
Jaffna	5	4	3	-	1	-	1	1	1	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	19
Kilinochchi	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mannar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mullaitivu	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Vavuniya	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Batticaloa	1	1	2	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6
Ampara ³	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	--	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
Trincomalee	1	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
Kurunegala	4	3	5	1	1	1	1	1	3	-	1	2	-	1	-	1	-	-	2	1	-	-	2	1	31
Puttalam	3	3	3	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	16
Anuradhapura	2	2	3	-	-	-	-	1	2	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	1	-	1	1	2	19
Polonnaruwa	1	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6
Badulla	3	4	4	1	1	-	-	1	4	1	1	1	-	1	-	-	1	-	3	-	-	-	1	-	27
Moneragala	1	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	6	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	5
Ratnapura	2	2	4	1	2	1	-	1	6	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	25
Kegalle	1	2	3	-	-	1	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	13
Sri Lanka	78	76	90	20	14	11	9	20	82	9	19	31	6	13	4	7	6	7	61	26	13	23	18	26	669

Source: Medical Statistics Unit

(contd.)

Includes:

¹Specialists of the Faculties of Medicine working in Teaching Hospitals and MSF Consultants in the North and East of Sri Lanka

²Haematologists, Virologists, Mycologists, Venereologists, Consultant JMOs

³Kalmunai DPDHS Division

Excludes:

Anti filarial Campaign (Colombo)
Blood Bank (Colombo)
Faculty Staff (Colombo)

Faculty Staff Colombo South (Colombo)
Fever Hospital (Colombo)
Mental Hospital Angoda (Colombo)
Rehabilitation Hospital, Ragama (Gampaha)
N I H S Kalutara (Kalutara)
STD Clinic Katugastota (Kandy)
B H Kalmunai South (Ampara)
B H Dehiattakandiya (Ampara)
D H Madirigiriya (Polonnaruwa)
B H Nikavaratiya (Kurunegala)

Notes on Contributors

Swarna Jayaweera has a Master's and a Doctoral degree from the University of London and was a post-doctoral Fellow at Columbia University, New York and has Hon D.Litt degrees from the University of Colombo and the Open University of Sri Lanka. She taught in the Universities of Peradeniya and Colombo and was Professor of Education and Head of the Department of Social Science Education of the University of Colombo. Subsequently, she was in turn UNESCO Advisor and UNICEF Consultant on the Access of Women to Education in Nepal and has been a consultant to UN agencies and bilateral agencies in Sri Lanka and in the Asian Region, on Education and on Women's Issues. She is one of the founders of the Centre for Women's Research (CENWOR), Sri Lanka, and its Joint Coordinator. She has contributed extensively to books and to local and to international journals on women and on education. She is Emeritus Professor of Education, University of Colombo and a Fellow of the National Academy of Science and is a Senior Fellow of the Faculty of Graduate Studies of the University of Colombo.

Hiranthi Wijemanne is a medical graduate of the Faculty of Medicine, University of Colombo, Sri Lanka. She also has a Master's in Public Health from the Department of Public Health, Harvard University, Boston, USA. She has spent most of her working life with the United Nations Children's Fund in Colombo. Some of the highlights of her work include Maternal and Child Health, Nutrition, Primary Education and Early Child Development, providing services for Children Affected by the Conflict, Child Abuse and Exploitation, and Gender based Violence. She has been a member of the National Committee on Women and Chairperson of the National Child Protection Authority. She is Executive Director of the South Asia Women's Fund. She is a strong advocate of Women's and Children's Rights.

Kamini Meedeniya Vitarana has a B.Sc. Honours degree in Zoology from the University of Ceylon and has a M.Phil. from the University of London in Microbiology. She was scientific officer in charge of the laboratory of the Ceylon Coconut Board and later General Manager of the Coconut Processing Board. She was a consultant to UNIDO and the South Pacific Economic Commission on Coconut Processing. Later she joined the Environmental Foundation Ltd. (a not-for-profit law firm) as Environmental Officer. In Australia, she worked with the Australian Conservation Foundation as Research and Liaison Officer, on water and sewerage. As a member of the Sri Lanka Association for the Advancement of Science she was President of the Earth Science section and Chairperson of the Environment Committee.

As President of the Tree Society, (a non governmental organisation) she set up the Women's Environment Centre which brought together women's organisations working in the environment field. She was a member of the National Committee on Women until 2006 where she was representing environmental interests. She is a member of the Sri Lanka Women's NGO Forum and is a member of the National Steering Committee of the UNDP/GEF/Small Grant's Programme as a gender representative; and was a member of the Water Resources Council from 1999-2005 to represent gender interests.

Leelangi Wanasundera graduated from the University of Peradeniya in Economics with specialisation in Banking, Finance and International Trade and obtained post graduate qualifications in Library and Information Science. She has worked at the Sri Lanka Institute of Development Administration, the People's Bank and at the Centre for Integrated Rural Development for Asia and the Pacific, Dhaka Bangladesh. She has been with the Centre for Women's Research for nearly ten years and has undertaken research, action research and information projects. She has published articles in reputed journals and has contributed to seminars and conferences. She has membership in several professional associations and serves on the National Committee on Women.

