UNITED NATIONS DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

GENDER IN DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMME

LEARNING & INFORMATION PACK

GENDER ANALYSIS

January, 2001
Explanatory Note

This Information Pack is intended for use both as a basic resource on gender analysis for the interested reader or for use in a training setting. It has been developed to reflect UNDP’s needs in particular, especially those of gender focal points in UNDP country offices, but we hope that it will have wider utility. It has been designed to be readily adaptable to different needs.

The Information pack comprises three sections: Section 1 consists of four sets of slides with a brief commentary on each. The slides set out key points for the reader. The accompanying commentary expands on these key points and provides links to materials available in sections 2 and 3 of the pack. Section 2 includes resources such as reading materials, handouts and worksheets to amplify the issues raised in the slides. Section 3 includes reference to internet and other resources on related issues. Full size slides, which can be used for presentations, are in the back of the manual.

The slides and resources included in this Information pack cover four sets of points:

- **What is gender analysis?** These slides look at the purpose of analysis
- **How can gender analysis and policy be linked?** These refer to the information and action that is needed to link gender analysis with policy and planning.
- **What are the key concepts and tools in social and gender analysis?** These slides refer to the concepts and various frameworks that can be used for gender analysis.
- **Men and masculinity in gender analysis.** The contributions of men to gender relations is now starting to get the attention in gender analysis that it merits.

This Information Pack complements others in the series:

- Gender Mainstreaming
- Developing Strategies for Gender Mainstreaming
- Programme and Project Entry Points for Gender Mainstreaming
- Process and Advocacy Skills
- Information, Communication and Knowledge Sharing

Note on hyperlinks (underlined blue text)...

The reader will note underlined text throughout the Pack. These indicate electronic links (hyperlinks) to related information within this particular Pack as well as directly to other packs in the series, and to internet resources (the URL or address of the resource in question). For example, clicking on a link may bring the reader to the related title of the handout or background reading attached to the report, or (if the reader is connected to the internet at the time of reading the document) may bring the reader directly to the Web site of the resource in question. Once you have clicked on a hyperlink it will turn purple. The colours may vary if your computer has different default settings.

Each item in the Table of Contents is hyperlinked to the appropriate slides and resources in the document.
Note on crediting handouts and reproducing materials from this Pack

This Pack includes many materials drawn directly from or adapted from materials produced by others. Where this is the case, the source materials are noted. You are welcome to reproduce any portion of the Pack provided that you credit it appropriately. For handouts without a source noted or other pages in the Pack, please credit as follows:

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Symbols used in this pack

- **Speakers Notes**
- **Training Ideas**
- **Handout or exercise available within the pack**
- **Background Reading**
- **Internet Resource**
- **Recommended additional reading**
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Sample Government Guideline for Adopting Gender Mainstreaming Approach

Table To Illustrate The Distinction Between Sex-Disaggregated Statistics And Gender Data

Elson, T. A Gender Critique of Concepts Used in Neoclassical Economic Analysis


Decision-making (Analytic) Skills for Gender Mainstreaming

Levy…in progress

Equality of Outcome (substantive equality) – Fox and Crane Story

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Introduction

An overview of approaches: This information pack gives an overview of some of the principal approaches to gender analysis that have been developed over the past twenty years. During this period, the emphasis has shifted from a focus on the “roles” of men and women, perceived primarily as discrete activities that can be analysed independently of each other, to an emphasis on the “relationships” among men and women, and between men and women and the sources of power in society.

With this shift has come a greater analytic capacity to capture the highly variable, permeable and fluid character of the sexual division of labour, which is the central social process that gender analysis seeks to uncover. This increased ability to reflect analytically the dynamism of social interaction has been the principal advance within Gender Analysis during the period since the early 80s, and is the foundation of its inherent capacity to foster a more integrated, wholistic approach to development more generally. This potential for strengthening the development endeavor as a whole is a widely overlooked dimension of more recent trends in gender analysis.

The experience provided during the LCB pilot process indicated clearly that a comparative overview of approaches, and their respective implications for policy and programming, is more use to the staff of UN system entities, and most of their development partners, than detailed knowledge of any particular framework. In most cases the actual analysis is undertaken by, and the staff requirement is for sufficient knowledge of gender analysis to be able to guide and supervise expert contractors effectively. For more detailed information on the workings of each approach given in this information pack, references are given on page 116.

Gender Economics: Most of the established gender analysis frameworks emphasise social as distinct from economic analysis. This is a serious shortcoming as the concepts of productive and reproductive work, and the relationship between paid and unpaid work, which lie at the heart of understanding the sexual division of labour, and hence of the gender dimensions of all societies, are profoundly economic concepts. There is nevertheless an extensive and growing literature on gender economics, which is given in the Reference Section of this information pack. An important future task for those working on capacity building for gender mainstreaming will be to translate this information into training materials.

A note on sources: This information pack draws primarily on A Guide to Gender-Analysis Frameworks by Carol March et al, which should be referred to for additional information on each framework. The full texts of the core frameworks are also given in the Resources Section of this manual, as are references to additional frameworks and links to relevant web sites. See also the United Nations and Commonwealth systems prototype database on gender training resources online at http://www.col.org/genderresources/

Using this Information Pack in an LCB Workshop

The materials included in this pack have been used in various ways to give workshop participants the knowledge and confidence to use gender analysis frameworks effectively in their work. Generally one or two workshop sessions are devoted to introducing and giving an overview of the frameworks, with some exercises. In addition, an optional evening session to review gender analysis frameworks in more depth is part of most LCB meetings. Generally, one quarter to one third of the LCB participants take advantage of the opportunity.
The concepts and approaches to gender analysis are reviewed and reiterated at different points of the workshop agenda, and from a range of perspectives, as set out below.

**Objectives of the sessions devoted to gender analysis**

1. To clarify words, terms and concepts
2. To provide an overview of the evolution of tools and frameworks, and of their principal characteristics and uses.
3. To discuss the adaptation of tools and frameworks

These objectives are achieved in the following ways:

a. **Clarification of words, terms and concepts** is part of the focused session(s) on gender analysis, and occurs throughout an LCB as necessary. It is not usually necessary to discuss all concepts given in this pack, but it is useful to request participants to select those concepts that they would like to clarify, and to provide time for thorough discussion of each concept selected, based on participants own personal and professional experiences.

b. **An overview of the evolution of tools, and of their uses** can be provided either at the beginning of the substantive session(s) on gender analysis, or at the end. In the former case, the overview introduces the tools and connections between them. In the latter case, the overview reinforces and summarises the work done previously, usually by participants, and serves to consolidate the points from discussion and reports on experience into a perspective on gender analysis relevant to this particular group.

Three “sub-collections” of gender analysis tools are provided in this Information Pack. Together the Facilitation Team and workshop participants select those that they wish to review. The materials are available for future reference, and further reading for those who are interested.

i. The first is a **collection of seven core gender analysis tools** and a summary of their evolution and relative uses, and some worksheets so that aspects of their application can be demonstrated.

ii. The second is a **collection of readings about additional gender analysis tools**. This collection of readings gives more perspectives on the six basic gender analysis frameworks, along with other tools that have been adapted for specific purposes relating to women’s equality (e.g. adverse impact analysis, social gender analysis).

iii. The third is two **useful tools developed for other purposes** than women’s equality or gender analysis (such as force-field analysis).

c. **Adaptation of Tools and Frameworks:** Many participants in LCB’s believe that gender analysis tools can be applied “as is”, in all presenting development situations.

This is not the case. All gender analysis tools were developed in response to specific development questions and problems, and require adaptation if they are to be used in any other circumstance. Gender analysis does not take place independently of the full complexity of the development process, and one model cannot be superimposed on all situations.

One example of adaptation is given in this Information Pack, in which the POP Framework (Resource 9a) is an adaptation to refugee circumstances of the basic Harvard Framework. (Resource 4a) However, the principal competence required of most UNDP staff in
The Facilitation Teams at LCB workshops make a point of putting “gender analysis” tools and their current uses in the wider context of gender mainstreaming and human development.

Experience in the LCB workshops has established that the most productive way to review gender analysis frameworks is an open, plenary discussion of participants’ experiences with them, followed by a more detailed small group discussion of individual frameworks and their applications. Most useful of all is discussion of how the tools might be adapted to address specific problems being faced by workshop participants at their workplaces.

This option takes considerable time, and cannot always be followed. If a plenary discussion, or even a presentation without discussion, is all that is possible in the time available, the core message is that gender analysis is not an end in itself; it must be planned as part of a coordinated strategy, tailored to contribute to the achievement of country office strategic results. This point is picked up and re-emphasised in subsequent sessions on strategic planning and project and programme entry points for gender mainstreaming.

Reinforcement of gender analysis in all sessions of the workshop

Gender analysis is covered as a main subject during Day Two of a typical five-day LCB workshop, and revisited at different points of the workshop agenda, from the perspectives of other substantive workshop themes. This planned, iterative and reiterative treatment of priority topics has been demonstrated as effective through repeated tests during the LCB pilot cycle, and has become a prominent feature of the LCB methodology.

Introductory Session on participants’ own experiences: LCB workshops open with extended discussion of participants’ own personal and professional experiences of gender mainstreaming. If possible as much as the entire first day of a five-day workshop is devoted to this topic. Together the participants and Facilitation Team look for patterns in their collective experience, which become the basis of the subsequent learning, and of the strategic planning with which the workshop closes. To assist in identifying these patterns, participants use analytic tools such as Force Field or SWOT analyses. This in turn provides a basis for the discussion on gender analysis, which is usually introduced on the second day.

Entry Points for Gender Mainstreaming: These sessions form the heart of the workshop, and are essentially exercises in applied gender analysis. They take place on days two, three and four of a typical workshop. The discussions are always linked with the current workplace priorities of the participants. In accordance with the emerging priorities of UNDP this component of the workshops is structured around the requirements of the Strategic Results Framework. It usually the workshops is structured around the requirements of the Strategic Results opens with an introduction to the logical chain of project design (the Logical Framework, or Log Frame), which is itself an analytic tool that can be adapted to gender analysis.

Development of Gender Mainstreaming Strategies: These are the closing sessions of the LCB workshop, usually on days four and five. They serve to demonstrate how strategic planning must be based on analysis that reflects gender realities, and enable participants to think through ways in which gender analysis can strengthen the work of their offices, and plan systematically for this strengthening.

Process and Advocacy Skills: Because the outcomes of gender analysis must typically be shared, and incorporated into the work of others, communications skills are an essential corollary to gender
The LCB focus on summarising issues and making effective presentations (among other process management skills) provides an opportunity for participants to develop the skills required to link gender analysis with policy and strategic planning. This is the heart of gender mainstreaming. At LCB workshops the discussions of gender analysis become the raw material with which good communications skills can be practiced.

**Information Management**: The ability to distill the outcomes of relevant gender analysis, and make them available to colleagues is nothing if not a dimension of information management. In addressing information-related issues from the perspectives of both technological (familiarity with relevant software) and knowledge related skills (identification and summarising of essential issues – knowledge editing), the typical LCB workshop seeks to use gender analysis as the basis for the development of stronger knowledge management skills, and *vice versa*.

The availability of a range of additional materials, resources and internet linkages reflects the LCB commitment to respond to the learning needs of each participant. *(Please see the Introduction to this series of manuals.)*

Readings have been selected from multiple sources, presenting various perspectives on the same subject matter. They can be used in a variety of ways throughout an LCB workshop, following an iterative approach. There is no “one best way” of organizing existing materials on gender analysis. Moreover, the range and complexity of implementation challenges facing UNDP in relation to gender mainstreaming mean that multiple strategies are needed. Action on these challenges may require the application of more than one perspective.

From the point of view of learning, the main design reasons for including materials from various perspectives, include the following:

- **Reinforcement of the message**: presentation of the core concepts from various perspectives assists learning without undue repetition of materials;

- **Different formats work for different learning styles**: workshop participants respond to the various perspectives and presentations in different ways. The LCB Facilitation Team therefore requires a range of materials from which to draw in response to the learning styles, preferences and priorities of each workshop group, and often to individuals within that group.

The availability of a range of materials from which to select is one of the ways in which the facilitation team can be responsive and flexible, consulting with participants and providing inputs in “learning moments” as they arise during the workshop.

The LCB pilot experience is that being able to respond to participants’ particular needs, interests and questions remains one of the consistently most positively evaluated aspect of capacity building through an LCB process. Even with standard methods of needs assessment and up-front planning in place, the need to be responsive and adapt the agenda remains if each and every participant is to derive their particular needs from the workshop.

The complete package of gender analysis briefing and learning support materials provided here is not necessarily covered in each LCB. The relevant elements are selected as part of the setting of objectives during the opening sessions of the workshop, and even then are normally adjusted as the meeting evolves, and participants gain the basic knowledge that enables them to refine their requirements.

*The repeated experience that the majority of participants adjust their learning priorities as an LCB workshop progresses is the strongest argument for its desirable five day duration (although eight days has been found to be the most effective duration).*
Workshops of four days or less do not provide the minimum of time needed for participants to become sufficiently aware of the scope of gender mainstreaming to be able to take charge of their own learning, which is the only circumstance in which adult learning can take place.

- **Providing a reference collection and a range of options that participants can transfer in relevant ways to their workplaces:** The handouts, readings and internet resources provided in this Information Pack comprise a reference collection from which the user can choose the best combination for a particular situation and objective in their workplace.
WHAT IS GENDER ANALYSIS?

- An intrinsic dimension of policy analysis
- Identifies specifically how public policy affects women and men differently
- Demonstrates that policy and implementation cannot be gender neutral in gendered societies
- Is supported by specific analytic tools

The purpose of socio-economic analysis is to inform policy making, especially the multiple decision-making processes of which policy-making is comprised. Socio-economic analysis is therefore never an object in itself, but is designed to provide specific information needed by the decision-makers to solve the problems that confront them. The precise form that socio-economic analysis will take varies according to the problem to be solved.

Gender analysis is a sub-set of socio-economic analysis. Its purpose is to reveal the connections between gender relations and the development problem to be solved. Its purpose may be two-fold: (i) to “surface” the fact that gender relations are likely to have an impact on the solution to the problem, (some decision-makers may still need to be persuaded of this) and (ii) to indicate exactly what that impact is likely to be, and alternative courses of action. In some cases gender issues may be significant to the policy area, and play a determining role in policy outcomes. In other cases, they may be less significant, and constitute rather a set of factors to be weighed with others.

It is extremely important to perceive that we live in societies that are permeated by gender differences and gender inequalities. Here is no country in which the outcomes of public policy are equal for men and women, but the dimensions of these inequalities are often so deeply embedded that they are difficult to perceive. Gender analysis reveals these differences, and the fact that in such a social context any gender interventions that profess to be gender-neutral will in fact reflect and probably reinforce the imbalances that exist. Gender analysis of various kinds is therefore required to bring these inequalities to the surface and to the attention of people who can make a difference, so that their decisions are taken in a manner that is sensitive to and reflects the outcome of gender analysis.

Resource 11  Essential Concepts in Gender Analysis
Resource 25  A Gender Critique of Concepts Used in Neoclassical Economic Analysis
Resource 16  Information That A Good Gender Analysis Should Provide
Resource 27  Decision-Making (Analytic) Skills for Gender Mainstreaming
Resource 17  Notes on the Evolution of Main Approaches to Gender Analysis

What gender analysis competencies are required by UNDP staff?

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<td>• Familiarity with main Gender Analysis Frameworks</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Ability to select the Framework most likely to yield solutions to the development problem to be addressed</td>
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<tr>
<td>• Able to interpret data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Able to use strategic decision-making skills</td>
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UNDP staff, and their development partners, do not need to know how to undertake a gender analysis themselves, as this is usually done by gender experts. However, they do need to know enough about the principal analytic frameworks in use to be able to select the most appropriate for their needs, and to be able to supervise consultants and to draw correct policy and programme information from their findings. The experience provided by the LCB programme is that an overview of gender analysis approaches is very useful to build this level of capacity. For more detailed skill in applying the individual frameworks, please refer to the section on Internet and Other Resources indicated in this pack.

It is important to be familiar with the main gender analysis frameworks in use by the development community, the main tools and concepts associated with each, and the core words, terms and phrases that are the building blocks of conceptual clarity on gender issues.

It is advantageous to know when and where the various frameworks are most likely to be useful in supporting gender mainstreaming, given the specific socio-economic context and programme priorities (strategic areas of support).

In addition, the ability to interpret the data and findings yielded by the various gender analysis frameworks in ways that are relevant to the desired outcomes of the intervention is central. To be able to use, and help others to use, the outcomes of gender analysis in relevant ways, and especially by ensuring that findings are fully reflected in all decision-making processes. For this solid communications skills, in addition to analytic capacity, are valuable. Staff members must be capable of combining strategic and situational analytic skills with gender analysis to create and expand opportunities for managers and other staff to ensure that the daily decisions that they make about their work are infused with gender equality considerations.

**Resource 10d.** Cornerstones of a GID/Social Relations Approach

**Resource 27** Decision-Making Skills

**Reading** Gender Mainstreaming Strategy Pack.

**Reading** Process and Advocacy Skills Pack
Attention to women’s concerns and priorities in development policy and activity has evolved since the early 1970’s, when these issues were first discussed, from a focus on projects designed only for women (women specific) through efforts to integrate women’s concerns into projects designed without reference to gender equality (women’s component and integration), to the current perspective that attention to women’s concerns requires a thoroughgoing re-evaluation of development priorities.

**Women Specific:** Projects exclusively designed for women. Historically, such approaches have been much critiqued, as there was a tendency for women’s needs to be analysed as discrete from those of the rest of society. However, a full analysis of gender relations can indicate the need for women-specific interventions in order to compensate for past inequalities. A fully mainstreamed approach sometimes requires women-specific activities.

**Women’s Component:** Projects/activities provide separate resources and activities for women: generally formulated as an “add-on” after regular project planning. Such an approach is usually based on the assumption that women’s needs are the broadly same as men’s, and can be met through the same intervention. Women still perceived analytically as a discrete social category.

**Integrated:** Include women on an equal footing with men in all project activities. This is a further and more thorough implementation of the “add-on” approach. Women’s and men’s situation typically analysed in a relational manner, but interventions are based on the fallacy that issues of gender equality can be incorporated into a “business as usual” approach to development, which unless rigorously interrogated reflects the gender biases of society at large.

**Mainstreamed:** Awareness of, and commitment to, women’s concerns and priorities infuse all the processes that determine development agendas. There is a conscious attempt to eliminate gender bias from project activities. All decision-making reflects the outcomes of socio-economic and policy analysis that is fully “gendered”. Analysis focuses on social relations, and particularly on the power relationships through which gender biases are protected and maintained.

**Resource 10b** Summary of Social Relations Framework “Categories of Gender-Aware Policies”
**Resource 17** Notes on the Evolution of Main Approaches to Gender Analysis
**Resource 23** See a sample government guideline designed to assist staff implement adopt a **gender mainstreaming** approach to implementation.

**Reading** Gender Mainstreaming Learning and Information Pack and the UNDP Guideline Checklist in Entry Points which is designed to provide similar assistance to UNDP staff.

The UNDP definition of gender mainstreaming is: “ensuring that staff fully understand the relevant policy and its context, and have the capacity to implement it, in order that they can bring the outcomes of policy analysis, including socio-economic analysis, into the decision-making processes of the organisation. This includes both the core policy decisions of the organisation, and the small every-day decisions of implementation” (See Mainstreaming Information Pack, Slide 12). Good decision-making skills, and the ability to influence decision-making processes are therefore inseparable from good gender analysis.

See also the Process and Advocacy Skills Information Pack in this series, which outlines some of the skills needed to influence decision-making processes.

In addition, the following tools were developed for other purposes than women’s equality or gender analysis, but are nevertheless useful to help prioritise the issues emerging from gender analysis.

**SWOT Analysis:** This tool is designed to help people identify the internal Strengths and Weaknesses of their organization or group, in relation to the Opportunities and Threats presented in the external environment (hence the acronym “SWOT”).

Guide questions related to this are:

- What major external opportunities do we have?
- What major external threats do we face?
- What are our major internal strengths?
- What are our major internal weaknesses?

This is part of a process of strategic planning, one of whose essential components is examining the relationship between internal and external environments. This should give organizations and groups the basis for identifying strategic issues, and to develop strategies.

**Force-Field Analysis:** Is a technique for approaching and developing plans to address complex problems. The model can be changed for use in different situations. The analysis begins with consideration of a present problem and its desired resolution, identifying:

- Resisting restraining forces which hold back change
- Prompting, driving forces, which reinforce change; and of measures that can:
- Increase or strengthen the positive forces, and
- Decrease or eliminate the negative forces
Activity
Go through over the sections in Resource 2a, 2b and 2c: the Instructions for the Force Field Analysis, the Example Force Field Analysis and the Force Field Analysis Worksheet.

Ask the participants to discuss the feasibility of the two approaches listed in the Example Force Field Analysis. This can be done as a preliminary to, or in conjunction with, the Case Study On Governance given in the Programme and Project Entry Points Information Pack.
Even those trained in socio-economic and policy analysis sometimes have difficulty in perceiving issues relevant to equality between men and women, and particularly the power dimensions of relationship between them. Ways of structuring the socio-economic analysis so that questions of inequality between men and women are revealed are not always self-evident. Nevertheless, experience indicates that a perspective in which gender analysis is integrated into socio-economic and policy analysis requires some specific research activities. It also demands taking the time to interrogate programme discussions with questions designed to reveal the ways in which men’s and women’s distinct situations will impact on policy and programme interventions, and especially their anticipated results.

**What to do:** The management of a UNDP office committed to gender equality will ensure that all staff undertake their work in ways that include gender differentiated information. If such information is not readily available, serious consideration would be given to funding research or similar activities.

Even if not specifically required to incorporate a gender dimension in their work, committed staff can strengthen their results by undertaking some of the activities indicated in the handout “Gender Analysis - What to Do”

**What to ask:** Many people, especially those who are not gender experts, are intimidated by the thought of raising gender equality considerations at project appraisal meetings, or when briefing project design or evaluation mission. Review of questions designed to elicit gender relevant information indicates the kinds of issues to be raised. These questions are also relevant when commenting on project documentation. The [Process and Advocacy Skills Information Pack](#) in this series give some guidance on asking open-ended questions that elicit the most information.

**Activity:** For an introduction to the issue, distribute one or both of the handouts, and ask participants to comment on how they would impact on their work. For a more detailed exercise, ask the participants to use the handouts as a resource for case study work, or in the analysis of a specific project.

**Reading**
- Project Entry Points Learning and Information Pack, Guideline Checklist and document on Gender and Sustainable Livelihoods and Case Studies
A good part of the work of a development professional is “reading analysis” of policy and programme documents to assess their relevance to given national or corporate priorities, and/or to assess the likelihood of their attaining their stated objectives. This reading analysis, and discussion which ensues in project appraisal meetings and similar fora, can be the principal mechanism through which socio-economic data is linked to policy and programme priorities.

For staff who do not have professional expertise in any specific thematic issue, much of this analysis is guesswork. The following suggestions for the review of a project document may be useful starting points for a systematic assessment of a given document, and its potential contribution to gender equality goals.

**Links between document and its policy context.** Does the document explicitly refer to and demonstrate knowledge of: a) global, regional or national policy commitments to the advancement of women; b) UNDP policy commitments to equality between men and women; c) gender equality goals of the Country Co-operation Framework, Common Country Assessment and other existing agreements or plans; and d) country office gender mainstreaming strategy.

**Disaggregation:** All data is disaggregated by sex, and policy implications are reviewed in the light of the differential contributions and requirements of men and women. Is it fully clear that the document is explicitly addressing both men and women, and avoids the tendency to retreat behind gender-neutral terms such as “people” and “beneficiaries”?

**References to gender equality are consistent throughout the project elements,** the objectives; the activities; the budget. In other words, is it clear that any gender issues identified in the project background, and the analysis of the problem to be addressed, are reflected in the results to be achieved by the project.

Implementing projects in a gender-sensitive manner requires either gender expertise among project staff, or commitment to gender equality and willingness to be guided by others. **It should be specified that gender skills are required of all project staff,** and these skills clearly defined in each terms of reference.

Please also refer to Slide 14 on What Good Gender Analysis Should Provide.
When conducting a gender analysis it is important to be able to distinguish between sex-disaggregated statistics, which gives the straightforward numbers of males and females in a given population, and gender statistics, which can reveal the relationships between women and men that underlie the numbers. Gender statistics can indicate the need for a policy intervention, but not what that intervention should be. Gender statistics provide factual information about the status of women, for example a change in their status over time. They do not have to be disaggregated by sex. For example, “73% of married women report experiencing domestic violence at least once in their lives”.

Gender-sensitive indicators “provide direct evidence of the status of women, relative to some agreed normative standard or explicit reference group”\(^2\). For example\(^3\), “a gender statistic could be “60% of women in country X are literate, as opposed to 30% five years ago”. A gender-sensitive indicator could be “60% of women in country X are literate, as compared to 82% of men, and compared to 30% and 52% respectively five years ago”. The norm of reference in this example is men in the same country, but in other cases might be other groups of women, such as women of another country, or in different age-groups.

Social Gender Indicators are among the key means by which planners and policy makers measure gender inequality. Programme indicators show progress towards a gender equality target or policy priority. They also provide information on the basis of which gender specialists advocate for policies likely to lead to greater gender equality. Policy and Programme Gender Indicators facilitate the tracking of project outcomes that advance gender equality.

Resource 13a Some indicators of change in women’s condition.
Resource 13b Some indicators of change in women’s position
Resource 13c The structure of indicators required to show progress towards improvements in women’s position.
Resource 24 Table to illustrate the distinction between sex-disaggregated statistics & gender data.


\(^3\) Beck, T. (1999). Using Gender-sensitive Indicators: a reference manual for Governments and other stakeholders. Commonwealth Secretariat, London. These Speakers Notes were adapted from this publication.

Reading For UNDP staff, the document Selecting Key Results Indicators is helpful. Although it does not address the question of gender indicators, it provides a good deal of useful information on the development of relevant indicators. http://intra.undp.org/oe/methodology/methodology.html
These frameworks were developed to address different aspects of gender equality, and are therefore useful for different policy priorities.

They are designed to explore: the division of labour between men and women in agricultural and in more urban settings (Harvard and Moser respectively), gender mainstreaming in institutions (Levy)\(^5\) gender differentials in the impact of projects at the community level (GAM), assessment of the contribution of interventions in all sectors to the empowerment of women (Longwe), humanitarian and disaster preparedness issues (CVA), refugee issues, based on an expanded approach to the Harvard Framework - (POP), and sustainable development and institutional change (SRA).

The Harvard and Moser frameworks have been extremely important in explaining the sexual division of labour, which is the central social structure that gender analysis seeks to reveal, and the differences between productive and socially reproduction work. Moser also divides socially reproductive work in two categories – household work and community management.

The CVA, Levy and SRA frameworks address questions of organisational change. Insofar as the Social Relations Approach Framework explicitly seeks to identify gender dimensions of improved social well-being (see definition of Human Development given in the Human Development Report 1990, [http://www.undp.org/hdro/e90over.htm](http://www.undp.org/hdro/e90over.htm) Page 1), and addresses questions of institutional capacity and development, it reflects UNDP very closely, as also does the Levy Framework. Nevertheless, all frameworks are relevant to various aspects of UNDP’s work.

\(^4\) These frameworks were developed by Carolyn Moser and Caren Levy of the Development Planning Unit (DPU) of London University

\(^5\) For further information on gender analysis using the Web of Institutionalisation development by Caren Levy, please visit [http://www.ucl.ac.uk/DPU/geindex.htm](http://www.ucl.ac.uk/DPU/geindex.htm) or contact dpu@ucl.ac.uk
Please refer also to the Introduction in this Information Pack, for a discussion of the relative merits for UNDP staff of detailed versus general knowledge of individual gender analysis frameworks.

Further details are given in the summaries of each of the Gender Analysis Frameworks Summary, in the resources section and can also be used as the basis for speakers notes.

**Resource 21**  Extract from March et al on “Comparing Gender Frameworks”

**Resource 17**  Evolution of the Main Approaches to Gender Analysis

**Exercise 2**  After discussion of the differences among these frameworks, ask participants to discuss the exercise "A Fish-smoking Project. This draws together various approaches that address gender relationships.

**Exercise 3**  After review of the Harvard method, ask participants to discuss the exercise “Bumpy Roads”

**Additional Activity 1:** After review of the various frameworks, ask participants to read the extract from the Beijing Platform for Action given in **Resource 22**, and discuss which framework underlies the gender analysis given.

**Additional Activity 2:** Review the summary of each Gender Analysis Framework, and discuss which would assist most in undertaking each of the tasks indicated in Resource 3a – Gender Analysis – What to do.
Attempts by development authorities (colonial governments and development agencies) to understand the specific situation(s) of women progressed during the latter half of the nineteenth century. Initially addressing the welfare of women as if it were external to any other development activity, and as if women made no contribution to development itself, after the 19970s the principal concern became to make development interventions as efficient as possible by taking account of every aspect of the situation to be addressed, including gender roles. Since the mid-80’s women from developing countries have developed and advocated initiatives based on the rights and priorities of the women concerned, and their ability to control their own lives (empowerment). This progression has not been linear, and elements of all approaches are currently in use.

**Welfare:** Focus on poor women, mainly in the roles of wife and mother. This was the only approach during colonial periods, and was favoured by many missionaries.

**Equity:** Focus on equality between women and men and fair distribution of benefits of development

**Anti-poverty:** Women targeted as the poorest of the poor, with emphasis on income-generating activities and access to productive resources such as training and micro-finance.

The Harvard Framework incorporates many of these perspectives.

**Efficiency:** Emphasis on need for women’s participation for success, effectiveness of development; assumes increased economic participation will result in increased equity

The Harvard, CVA, GAM and POP Frameworks emerged from, and reflect, this approach. They are most likely to be useful when advocacy for the advancement of women is based on the more effective use of all factors of production, and/or desire for stronger and more sustainable project results. This is the approach currently most favoured by development agencies

**Empowerment:** Focus on increasing women’s capacity to analyse their own situation and determine their own life choices and societal directions.

The Moser, Levy Longwe and SRF Frameworks are based on this perspective, and are likely to be most useful where a human development and rights-based approach to development predominates, or is desired.

[Resource 5a](#) Summary of Moser Framework, Tool 5. This gives more details on each approach.

[Resource 5b](#) WID/GAD Policy Matrix Handout
Gender Analysis Concepts (Part 1)

- Sex and Gender
- Gender Relations
- Changes in Gender Identity and Gender Relations
- Gender Division of Labour
- Gender Roles and Responsibilities
- Productive work
- Reproductive work
- Differential Access to and Control over Resources and Benefits

Please refer to Resource 11, Essential Concepts in Gender Analysis. This provides speakers notes, and should be used as a handout for discussion of these concepts.
Gender Analysis Concepts (Part 2)

- Practical Needs & and Strategic Gender Interests
- Condition and Position
- Transforming Gender Relations
- Transformatory Potential
- Empowerment

Please refer to Resource 11, *Essential Concepts in Gender Analysis*. This provides speakers notes, and should be used as a handout for discussion of these concepts.

**Resource 12a** Table on Practical Gender Needs and Strategic Gender Interests - One
**Resource 12b** Table on Practical Gender Needs and Strategic Gender Interests - Two
**Resource 13a** Some Indicators of Improvements in Changes in Women’s Condition
**Resource 13b** Some Indicators of Improvements in Changes in Women’s Position
**Resource 13c** The structure of indicators required to show progress towards improvement in women’s position.

**Resource 19** Extract on Condition and Position of Women by Canadian Council for International Cooperation
**Resource 20** Extract on Gender and Empowerment by Oxaal, Z. with Baden, S.

**Resource 22** The Beijing Platform for Action addresses both the practical and the strategic needs of women. Resource 22 gives extracts from the Platform for Action which address strategic gender interests.
Slide 12  Concepts Used in Gender Analysis (Part 3)

Concepts Used in Gender Analysis (Part 3)

- **WID/GID**
  - Women in Development (WID)
  - Gender in Development (GID)

- **Equity**
  - Equity and Sustainable Development
  - “Understanding Gender Equity”

- **Equality**
  - Gender Equality
  - Gender Equality as a Development Objective
  - Discrimination
  - Systemic Discrimination
  - Equality of Outcome (Substantive Equality)

Please refer to Resource 11, *Essential Concepts in Gender Analysis*. This provides speakers notes, and should be used as a handout for discussion of these concepts.

- **Resource 14a**  Table on Women in Development Considered in Relation to Gender and Development
- **Resource 14b**  Table on Contrasting Two Approaches
- **Resource 10d**  Cornerstones of a Gender in Development/ Social Relations Approach
- **Resource 29**  Background Reading. The Story of the Fox and the Crane
This slide serves as the basis for a discussion of the relationship between gender analysis and the overall development goal of equitable, sustainable and participatory development. It should be used in conjunction with the Resource 15a [Summary of GID Approach](#), which indicates how gender analysis may be applied at each stage of project formulation and implementation. See also the Information Pack on [Entry Points to Gender Mainstreaming](#) which provides discussion and exercises in project analysis and the logical chain of project design.

The return arrows are intended to indicate the reflexive, cyclical and dialectical nature of the relationship between objectives, implementation and analysis, in which each both emerges from, and informs, the others.

[Resource 15b](#) Summary of Main Messages, Gender in Development Approach
This slide and its associated handout summarise the principal issues that are “surfaced” when a
gendered approach is taken to development. The purpose of a gender analysis is to identify the
specific dimensions of each of these issues, in a given socio-economic context. A good gender
analysis will provide precise information in all or most of these categories, in such a way as to be
easily incorporated into programming and other decision-making processes.

A gender analysis should provide the following broad types of information:

**Gender Awareness:** What in general is the relative situation of women and men in the context
under review?

**Activities, Access and Control:** What are the principal and/or most relevant features of the sexual
division of labour (taking account of both productive and socially reproduction activities), and their
implications for the productivity and economic sustainability of the context under review?

**Women’s Priorities: Restraining and Driving Forces:** How can this information best be applied
to the development problem to be addressed, and/or to the better attainment of specific outputs and
outcomes? What are the trends and changes emerging in the sexual division of labour which could
be leveraged for greater equality between women and men? Would it be feasible to support and
strengthen driving forces (preferable) or minimize restraining forces?

**Practical Needs and Strategic Interests.** Would it be more appropriate in the given circumstances
to address women’s (and men’s) practical gender needs, or to take a more transformatory approach
and address the underlying causes of their situation, hereby responding to their strategic interests,
and why? How would these approaches impact upon likely project outcomes, and on men and
women in the situation under review. How would they impact on the overall social context. The
application of gender analysis to project and programme design is developed further in the
Information Packs on Project Entry Points for Gender Mainstreaming, and Strategy Development for
Gender Mainstreaming.

**Resource 16** Information on What A Good Analysis Should Provide
Men and Masculinity in Gender Analysis

- Biological Destiny
- Cultural construction
- Discourse(s) of Power

Just as in debates around “WID” and “GID” have sought to define which aspects of being either a man or a woman are biologically determined, and which are learned through socialisation, and therefore subject to change and variation. Is “nature” or “nurture” more significant in determining the different positions that men and women hold in their societies? According to the “nature” side of the debate, the subordinate position of women is due to their “natural” maternal instincts and proclivity towards deference, altruism and the care of others. Men on the other hand derive the political, economic and social privilege from a predisposition to aggression, and to greater physical strength and sexual drive.

However, there is increasing interest in explaining men’s privilege as the result of cultural norms and social pressures that help to determine the roles, rights, responsibilities and relationships that are available to, and imposed upon, men. Fostering the perception that men’s superordination is not inherent in their maleness, opens the way to further refinement and specificity of gender analysis, and a much fuller understanding of the conflict and complementarity that characterise gender relations.

To discuss gender relations is to discuss hierarchies of power, not only between but also within the genders. Even though in general and in all societies men have higher status that women, some men also subordinate other men, and some categories of women subordinate other women. In most societies it is also true that certain groups of women subordinate certain groups of men (for example, high caste women and low caste men in India). A gendered approach to development reveals the ways in which the values and practices (individual and institutional) that create gender inequality are also involved in the creation of other hierarchies of power, including those that produce and maintain poverty. Challenging these values and practices implies working with both women and men, at the policy and programme level, to mobilise constituencies for change in which gender equality goals are integral to movements and partnerships for social justice for all.

Resource 18 Extract from Development Assistance Committee (1998), Source Book on Concepts and Approaches Linked to Gender Equality,


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Instructions for SWOT Analysis

SWOT Analysis - Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats

SWOT Analysis is an effective method of identifying your organisation’s Strengths and Weaknesses, and to examine the Opportunities and Threats you face. Often carrying out an analysis using the SWOT framework will be enough to reveal changes which can be usefully made. To carry out a SWOT Analysis write down answers to the following questions:

- **Strengths:**
  - What are your advantages?
  - What do you do well?
Consider this from your own point of view and from the point of view of the people you deal with. Don't be modest, be realistic. If you are having any difficulty with this, try writing down a list of your characteristics. Some of these will hopefully be strengths!

- **Weaknesses:**
  - What could be improved?
  - What is done badly?
  - What should be avoided?
Again this should be considered from an internal and external basis - do other people perceive weaknesses that you don't see? Do your competitors do any better? It is best to be realistic now, and face any unpleasant truths as soon as possible.

- **Opportunities**
  - Where are the good chances facing you?
  - What are the interesting trends?
Useful opportunities can come from such things as:
  - Changes in technology and markets on both a broad and narrow scale
  - Changes in government policy related to your field
  - Changes in social patterns, population profiles, lifestyle changes, etc.
  - Local Events

- **Threats**
  - What obstacles do you face?
  - What is your competition doing?
  - Are the required specifications for your job, products or services changing?
  - Is changing technology threatening your position?
  - Do you have bad debt or cash-flow problems?

Carrying out this analysis is will often be illuminating - both in terms of pointing out what needs to be done, and in putting problems into perspective.
It is useful to organise a SWOT analysis in the following manner.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strengths</th>
<th>Weaknesses</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opportunities</th>
<th>Threats</th>
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Resource 2a  Instructions for Force Field Analysis

Force Field Analysis

Force Field Analysis is a method used to get a whole view of all the forces for or against a plan so that a decision can be made which takes into account all interests. In effect this is a specialised method of weighing pros and cons.

Where a plan has been decided on, force field analysis allows you to look at all the forces for or against the plan. It helps you to plan or reduce the impact of the opposing forces, and strengthen and reinforce the supporting forces.

Where a plan has not been decided on, force field analysis can help you weight the likely outcomes of alternatives approaches, and refine emerging priorities.

Carrying Out a Force Field Analysis

To carry out a force field analysis, follow the following steps:

- **List all forces** driving change in one column, and all forces restraining change in another column.

- **Assign a score** to each force, from 1 (weak) to 5 (strong).

- **Draw a diagram** showing the restraining and driving forces, and the size of the forces.

Please see an example of a Force Field Analysis in Resource 2b.

Once you have carried out the analysis, you can decide on the viability of the proposed change. Where you have already decided to design a project to achieve the desired change, force field analysis can help you to decide how to address obstacles. Here you have two choices:

- To reduce the strength of the forces restraining the project

- To increase the strength of the forces driving the project

Often the most elegant solution is the first: just trying to force change through may cause its own problems as e.g. staff can be annoyed into active opposition to a plan instead of merely not welcoming it.

Summary

Force Field Analysis is an effective method of getting a picture of all the forces for and against a plan. It helps you to weigh the importance of these factors and assess whether a plan is worth pursuing.

Where you have decided to proceed with a project, carrying out a Force Field Analysis helps you identify changes that might be made to strengthen it.
Working to weaken resistance may be the best tact; just trying to force change through may cause its own problems as e.g. Government staff can be annoyed into active opposition to a plan instead of merely not welcoming it.

If you were faced with the task of pushing through the project in the example above, the analysis might suggest a number of points to adjust the balance of forces, and make a successful outcome more likely:

- Working closely with the WID Unit at the Public Service Management Institution, and/or including training for staff of the Institution, could raise that positive factor to 2 or 3
• Building the capacity of the NGO to provide training more focused on local government issues and involving them explicitly in the preparation and implementation of the project could raise that factor to 5.

• Planned involvement of the media, in conjunction with collaboration with the NGO could raise that factor to 5

And/Or

• Planned capacity building and/or relevant study tours for the head of planning services may reduce that factor by a point or two

• Inclusion in the project of capacity building in participatory planning would address the final negative factor, reducing it to 3.

Putting all these changes in place would swing the balance of points to marginally favour this project.

**Two alternative approaches:**

1. Develop a project to address one of more of the issues identified in the force field analysis – for example, to build the capacity of the local statistical office to gather and analyse statistics disaggregated by sex and gender statistics. See Resource 24.

2. Refocus the project on building capacity for Participatory Planning, and design it to be gender sensitive, in that all planning activities and consultations would seek to uncover and address inequalities between men and women.
Resource 2c  Force Field Analysis Worksheet - A Problem Solving Activity

1. Describe the Problem.

2. State the Problem: (Statement should say what the situation is now & what you want it to be).

3. Driving Forces
   1.
   2.
   3.
   4.

4. Restraining Forces
   1.
   2.
   3.
   4.
5. Possible Steps to Increase:
Driving Force 1.

Driving Force 2.

Driving Force 3.

Driving Force 4.

6. Possible Actions to Decrease:
Restraining Force 1.

Restraining Force 2.

Restraining Force 3.

Restraining Force 4.

7. List Most Promising Actions (resource available, human and material):
7. List Most Promising Actions (continued):

8. Plan

9. When and how will you evaluate the results of your plan?

All UNDP programme staff, especially but not only Gender Focal Points, should include at least some of the following information-gathering activities in their workplans, and or be aware of where to obtain the relevant information.

- Gain an understanding of gender relations, the division of labour between men and women (who does what work), and who has access and control over resources.
- Include both productive and reproductive activities in the work profile. Recognise the ways women and men work and contribute to the economy and their family’s survival, and by doing both contribute to society.
- Consult with women as well as men -individually, women’s organisations, and gender experts.
- Identify barriers to women’s participation and productivity (social, economic, legal, political).
- Gain an understanding of women’s and men’s practical and strategic interests and identify opportunities to support both.
- Consider the differential impact of a given development initiative on both men and women and identify constraints to be addressed.
- Establish baseline data, disaggregated by sex , as the foundation for measurable gender equality targets, gender sensitive indicators of achievement, and expected results expressed in terms of their impact on women as well as men.
- Outline the expected risks related to gender equality issues, (including resistance to change from various quarters, and possible backlash) and develop strategies to minimise these risks.
Resource 3b Gender Analysis – What to Ask.

Both project staff and management should ask at least some of these questions when reviewing project documents, collaborating in project design activities, participating in project review meetings and debriefing project design, evaluation and backstopping missions.

- Who is the target (both direct and indirect) of the proposed policy, program or project, Women, Men, or both? Who will benefit, who will lose? Which Women? Which Men?
- Have women and men been consulted on “the problem” the intervention is to solve? How have they been involved in the development of “the solution?”
- Does the intervention challenge the existing division of tasks, responsibilities and resources among men and women?
- Which needs of women and men will the intervention address: practical, strategic, or both?
- What is the relationship between the proposed intervention and other activities, and with national, regional and international organisations?
- Where do opportunities, or entry points, for change exist? And how can they best be used?
- What specific mechanisms can be proposed to encourage and enable women to participate in the policy initiative or programme, despite their traditionally more domestic location and subordinate position?
- What is the long-term impact in terms of women’s increased ability to take charge of their own lives, and to take collective action to solve problems?
- What is the best way to build on and strengthen the government’s commitment to the advancement of women?
Resource 4a  Summary of Harvard Analytical Framework*

The Harvard Analytical Framework sets out firstly, to make an economic case for allocating resources to women as well as men, and secondly, to assist planners to design more efficient projects. It is most useful for projects that are agriculturally or rurally based, and/or that are adopting a sustainable livelihoods approach to poverty reduction. It is also useful to explore the twin facts of productive and socially reproductive work, especially with groups that have limited experience of analysing differences between men and women.

The framework is designed as a grid (or matrix) for collecting data at the micro level. It has four interrelated components:

Harvard Tool 1: The Activity Profile  (see page 41, Resource 4b)
This tool assists in identifying the productive and socially reproductive activities of women and men, girls and boys. Other data disaggregated by gender, age or other factors can also be included. It can record details of time spent on tasks and their location.

Tool 2: Access and Control Profile – Resources and Benefits  (see page 42, Resource 4c)
With this tool the resources women and men use to carry out the tasks identified in the activity profile can be listed. It identifies whether women or men have access to resources, who controls their use and who in the household or community controls the benefits from them (benefits can include outside income, basic needs, training).

Tool 3: Influencing Factors
These are a list of factors which determine the gender differences identified in the Activities and Access and Control profiles. Identifying changes over time, can give an indication for future shifts.

Tool 4: The Project Cycle Analysis
This is a list of questions which the user can apply to a project proposal or area of intervention to examine it from a gender perspective using gender disaggregated data, and charting the differential effects of social change on women and men.

Comments on the Harvard Analytical Framework: Uses and potential limitations
This framework is useful for collecting and organizing information that can then be used at any stage of the project cycle. It provides clear information on the gender division of labour and makes women’s work visible. It makes a distinction between access and control over resources. The framework is more useful for projects than for programmes as it depends on micro-level analysis. It can be adapted and used, for example, with the Moser Framework (see p.32) (e.g. tool 2 practical and strategic gender needs assessment). It can be useful as a gender neutral “entry point” for introducing discussions on gender issues with counterparts, especially where there may be resistance.

By reviewing the question of control over resources, this framework is useful as the basis for a preliminary discussion of power relationships, although this was not its original intention.

**Potential limitations:** The Harvard Analytical Framework has a perspective which is efficiency rather than equity oriented, focusing on allocating new resources in order to make a programme more efficient rather than addressing unequal gender relations. It tends to focus on material resources rather than on social relationships. The analysis can be carried out in a non-participative way without the involvement of women and men from a community.
### Tool 1: Activity Profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Women/girls</th>
<th>Men/boys</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Production Activities</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Agriculture:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Activity 1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Activity 2, etc.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Income Generating:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Activity 1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Activity 2, etc.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Employment:</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Activity 1</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Activity 2, etc</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Other:</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Reproductive Activities</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Water related:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Activity 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Activity 2, etc</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Fuel related:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Food preparation:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Childcare:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Health related:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Cleaning and repair:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Market related:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Other:</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

## HARVARD ANALYTICAL FRAMEWORK

### Tool 2: Access and Control Profile

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Access</th>
<th></th>
<th>Control</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>Men</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Resources</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Land</td>
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<tr>
<td>Equipment</td>
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<tr>
<td>Labour</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cash</td>
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<tr>
<td>Education/training, etc.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Benefits</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Outside income</td>
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<tr>
<td>Asset ownership</td>
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<tr>
<td>Basic needs (food, clothing, shelter etc)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>Political power/prestige</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other</td>
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Resource 5a  Summary of the Moser Framework*

The Moser Framework (gender planning) was developed as a planning tradition in its own right. It takes the view that gender planning, unlike other mainstream planning, is “both technical and political in nature”. It assumes conflict in the planning process. It involves transformative processes and it characterises planning as a “debate.” There are six tools in the framework that can be used for planning at all levels from project to regional planning.

It can also be used for gender training.

**Tool 1: Gender roles identification/triple role**

This tool includes making visible the gender division of labour. It can be carried out by mapping all the activities of men and women (can include girls and boys) in the household over a twenty-four hour period. A triple role for low income women is identified by Moser productive, reproductive and community management roles.

**Productive work:** This is work that produces goods and services for consumption by the household or for income and is performed by both men and women. Women’s productive work is often carried out alongside their domestic and childcare responsibilities (reproductive work) and tends to be less visible and less valued than men’s productive work.

**Reproductive work:** This work involves the bearing and rearing of children and all the tasks associated with domestic work and the maintenance of all household members. These tasks include cooking, washing clothes, cleaning, collecting water and fuel, caring for the sick and elderly. Women and girls are mainly responsible for this work which is usually unpaid.

**Community roles.** Women’s community activities include provisioning and maintenance of resources which are used by everyone, such as water, healthcare, education. These activities are undertaken as an extension of their reproductive role and are normally unpaid and carried out in their free time.

In contrast it is mainly men who are involved in politics at the community level. This work may be paid or unpaid but can increase men’s status in the community.

**Tool 2: Gender Needs Assessment**

Moser developed this tool from the concept of women’s gender interests which was first developed by Maxine Molyneux in 1984. Women have particular needs because of their triple role as well as their subordinate position to men in society. Women’s needs differ from men’s needs. A distinction is made between practical gender needs and strategic gender interests/needs.

**Practical gender needs:** Women and men can easily identify these needs as they often relate to living conditions. Women may identify safe water, food, health care, cash income, as immediate interests/needs that they must meet. Meeting women’s practical gender needs is essential in

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order to improve living conditions, but in itself it will not change the prevailing disadvantaged (subordinate) position of women. It may in fact reinforce the gender division of labour.

Strategic gender interests/needs: Strategic gender interests/needs are those that women themselves identify as due to their subordinate position to men in their society. They relate to issues of power and control, and to exploitation under the sexual division of labour.

Strategic interests/needs may include changes in the gender division of labour (women to take on work not traditionally seen as women’s work, men take more responsibility for child care and domestic work), legal rights, an end to domestic violence, equal wages and women's control over their own bodies. They are not as easily identified by women themselves as their practical needs, therefore, they may need specific opportunities to do so.

Practical and strategic gender interests/needs should not be seen as entirely distinct and separate, but rather as a continuum. By consulting women on their practical gender needs entry points to address gender inequalities in the longer term (strategic gender interests/needs) can be created.

Tool 3: Disaggregating control of resources and decision-making within a household (intra-household resource allocation and power of decision making within the household)

This tool is used to find out who has control over resources within the household, who makes decisions about the use of these resources, and how they are made.

Tool 4: Balancing of roles

This relates to how women manage the balance between their productive, reproductive and community tasks. It asks whether a planned intervention will increase a women’s workload in one role with consequences for her other roles.

Tool 5: WID/GAD policy matrix 8 (see WID/GAD matrix, page x)

The WID/GAD policy matrix provides a framework for identifying/evaluating the approaches that have been (or can) be used to address the triple role, and the practical and strategic gender needs of women in programmes and projects. Five different approaches can be identified.

Welfare: Earliest approach, predominant 1950-1970. Its purpose is to bring women into the development as better mothers. Women are seen as the passive beneficiaries of development. It recognises the reproductive role of women and seeks to meet practical gender needs (PGNs) in that role through a top-down handouts of food aid, measures against malnutrition and family planning. It is non-challenging, and therefore still widely popular.

Equity: The original WID approach, emerged during in the 1976-85 UN Women’s Decade., in the context of the predominant “growth with equity” development paradigm. Its purpose is to gain equity for women who are seen as active participants in development. It recognises the triple role, and seeks to meet strategic gender needs (SGNs) through direct state intervention giving political and economic autonomy and reducing inequality with men. It challenges women's subordinate position. It is criticised as western feminism, is considered threatening and is unpopular with governments.

Anti-Poverty: The second WID approach, a toned-down version of equity, adopted from 1970’s onwards in the context of Basic Needs approaches to development. Its purpose is to ensure that poor women increase their productivity. Women’s poverty is seen as a problem of underdevelopment, not of subordination. It recognises the productive role of women, and seeks

8 Ibid. pp. 55-57
to meet their practical and strategic needs to earn an income, particularly in small scale income generation projects. It is still most popular with NGOs.

**Efficiency:** The third and now predominant WID approach, adopted particularly since the 1980’s debt crisis. Its purpose is to ensure that development is more efficient and effective through women’s economic contribution, with participation often equated with equity. It seeks to meet PGNs while relying in all three roles and an elastic concept of women’s time. Women are seen principally in terms of their capacity to compensate for declining social services by extending their working day. Very popular approach.

**Empowerment:** The most recent approach, articulated by third-world women. Its purpose is to empower women through greater self-reliance. Women’s subordination is expressed not only in terms of male oppression but also in terms of colonial and neo-colonial oppression. It recognises the triple role and seeks to meet SGNs indirectly through bottom-up mobilisation of PGNs. It is potentially challenging, although its avoidance of western feminism makes it unpopular except with third world women’s NGOs.

**Tool 6: Involving women, gender aware organisations and planners in planning** The aim of this tool is to ensure that practical and strategic gender needs are identified by women ensuring that “real needs” as opposed to perceived needs are incorporated into the planning process.

**Comments on the Moser Framework: Uses and potential limitations**

The Moser framework has a wide appeal and can be used for planning in a variety of settings from NGOs to government ministries. It recognises that there may be institutional/political resistance to addressing and transforming gender relations. Its approach to planning challenges unequal gender relations and supports the empowerment of women. The concept of practical and strategic gender needs is a very useful tool for evaluating the impact of a development intervention on gender relations. The triple role concept is useful in revealing the wide range of work that women engage in. Furthermore it alerts planners to the interrelationship between productive, reproductive and community roles.

**Potential limitations:** The framework looks at the separate activities of women and men rather than how these activities interrelate. Not everyone accepts the concept of the triple role, particularly in relation to community roles. Other forms of inequality such as race and class are not addressed. It is argued by some that a strict division between practical and strategic gender needs is unhelpful as there is often a continuum from practical to strategic.

Moser does not consider the strategic gender needs of men. There are arguments for and against their inclusion. In adapting Moser’s work the DPU (Development Planning Unit, London University) has included men’s practical and strategic needs in its framework.

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1 See Nalia Kabeer, Reversed Realities, 1995 Chapter 10.
### WID/GAD Policy Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ISSUES</th>
<th>WELFARE</th>
<th>EQUITY</th>
<th>ANTI-POVERTY</th>
<th>EFFICIENCY</th>
<th>EMPOWERMENT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Origins</td>
<td>Earliest approach: residual model of social welfare under colonial administration modernisation/accelerated growth economic development model</td>
<td>Original WID approach: failure of modernisation development policy-influence of Boserup and First World feminists on Percy Amendment -declaration of UN Decade for Women</td>
<td>Second WID approach: toned down equity because of criticism -linked to economy Redistribution with Growth and Basic Needs</td>
<td>3rd and now predominant wid approach: deterioration in world -Third World -policies of economic stabilisation and adjustment rely on women’s economic contribution to development</td>
<td>Most recent approach: arose out of failure of equity approach -Women’s feminist writing and grassroots organisations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose</td>
<td>To bring women into development as better mothers: this is seen as their most important role in development.</td>
<td>To gain equity for women in the development process: women seen as active participants in development.</td>
<td>To ensure poor women increase their productivity: women’s poverty seen as problem of underdevelopment not of subordination.</td>
<td>To measure development is more efficient and more effective: women’s economic participation seen as associated with equity.</td>
<td>To empower women through greater self-reliance: women’s subordination not only seen as problem of men but also of colonial and neocolonial oppression.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Needs of women met and roles reorganised</td>
<td>To meet PGN* in reproductive role, relating particularly to food aid, malnutrition and family planning.</td>
<td>To meet SGN** in terms of triple role-directly through state top down intervention giving political and economic autonomy by reducing inequality with men.</td>
<td>To meet PGN in productive role, to earn an income particularly in small-scale income generating projects.</td>
<td>To meet PGN in context of declining social services by relying on all 3 roles of women and elasticity of women’s time.</td>
<td>To reach SGN in terms of triple role-indirectly through bottom up mobilisation around PGN as means to confront oppression.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment</td>
<td>Women seen as passive beneficiaries of development with focus on reproductive role. Non-challenging therefore still widely popular especially with government and traditional NGOs.</td>
<td>In identifying subordinate position of women in terms of relationship to men, challenging, criticised as Western feminism, considered threatening and not popular with government.</td>
<td>Poor women isolated as separate category with tendency only to recognise productive role; reluctance of government to give limited aid to women means popularity still at small-scale NGO level.</td>
<td>Women seen entirely in terms of delivery capacity and ability to extend working day. Most popular approach both with governments and multilateral agencies.</td>
<td>Potentially challenging with emphasis on Third World and women’s self-reliance. Largely unsupported by governments and agencies. Avoidance of Western feminism criticism, means slow significant growth of underfinanced voluntary organisations.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Resource 6a  Summary of the Gender Analysis Matrix (GAM) Framework\(^3\)*

The framework aims to find out the different impacts of development interventions on women and men by providing a community-based technique for the identification and analysis of gender differences. Secondly, it assists the community to identify and challenge their assumptions about gender roles in a constructive manner. It may be used for different purposes, for example, transformatory gender training, or as a participatory planning tool.

The analysis is conducted at four levels of society, women, men, household and community. The GAM examines impact on four areas: labour, time, resources and socio-cultural factors.

Comments on GAM : Uses and potential Limitations

It is simple, systematic and uses familiar concepts. It encourages “bottom-up analysis” through community participation. It is transformatory and technical in its approach, combining awareness-raising about gender inequalities with development of practical skills. It includes men as a category and therefore can be used in interventions that target men.

Potential limitations: A good facilitator is necessary. The analysis must be repeated in order to capture changes over time. The GAM does not make explicit which women and which men are most likely to experience positive or negative impacts. It does not include either macro or institutional analysis.

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### Project Objectives:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Labour</th>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Resources</th>
<th>Culture</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Men</td>
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<tr>
<td>Household</td>
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<tr>
<td>Community</td>
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Resource 7a  Summary of the Women’s Equality and Empowerment (Longwe) Framework

The Women’s Empowerment framework aims to assist planners question what women’s equality and empowerment means in practice and to what extent a development intervention is supporting empowerment. Women’s empowerment is defined as “enabling women to take an equal place with men, and to participate equally with men in the development process in order to achieve control over the factors of production on an equal basis with men”.

The Longwe framework introduces the concept of five levels of equality by which to assess the level of women’s empowerment in any area of economic and social development.

**Women’s Empowerment Tool 1: Levels of Equality**

- Control
- Participation
- Conscientisation
- Access
- Welfare

These levels of equality are hierarchical, suggesting that a development intervention that focuses on the higher levels are more likely to increase women’s empowerment, than one focusing on the lower levels. Equal control over resources such as land is on a higher level (control), than access to the land, a lower level (welfare). This approach takes the view that if equality is intrinsice to the definition of women’s development, this brings with it the necessary corollary of women’s empowerment as the means to overcoming obstacles to the achievement of equality between men and women.

The Framework suggests that women’s advancement can be understood in terms of a concern with the five levels of equality shown below. Empowerment is a necessary part of the development process at each level for women to advance to the next level, and for them to advance progressively through all the levels towards equal status with men.

**Welfare:** This is defined as the level of women’s material welfare (income, food supply, health care) relative to men

**Access:** This is understood in the framework as women’s equality of access with men to the factors of production such as land, credit, labour, training, marketing facilities, and all public services and benefits. Equality of access is linked to equality of opportunity, which usually needs reform of the law to remove all forms of discrimination against women.

**Conscientisation:** This concept relates to being aware of the difference between sex and gender, and to recognise that gender roles are cultural and can change. The sexual division of labour should be fair to both women and men and both should agree with it. Neither

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women nor men should dominate the other, economically or politically. The basis of gender awareness is a belief in sexual equality.

**Participation:** This is defined as women’s equal participation with men at all levels of decision making, policy development, planning and administration. It relates particularly to development projects where participation at all stages of the project cycle is essential.

**Control:** Women’s conscientisation and mobilisation can contribute to achieving control over the decision-making process, in order to achieve a balance of control between women and men over resources and benefits.

**Women’s Empowerment Tool 2: Level of recognition of “women’s issues”**

As well as assessing the level of women’s empowerment that a development wishes to address, it is also necessary to establish to what extent women’s issues are being recognised or ignored in the project objectives. A “women’s issue” is defined by Longwe as all issues which relate to equality with men, and includes any social or economic roles, and all levels of equality (welfare, access, conscientisation, participation and control).

Three levels of recognition of women’s issues in project design are identified:

- **Negative level:** There is no reference to women’s issues in the project objectives. It is likely that the project will have a negative impact on women.
- **Neutral Level:** Women’s issues are included but there is doubt as to whether the outcomes will be positive for women.
- **Positive Level:** Project objectives are positively concerned with women’s issues and with improving women’s position relative to men.

**Women’s Empowerment Framework: Comments on uses and potential limitations:**

The framework can be used for planning, monitoring and evaluation. It can be useful in questioning whether or not development interventions have transformative potential or not (see speakers notes, p28) and to translate a commitment to women’s empowerment into policy and plans. It can also be used for training. It encourages users of the framework to examine what is meant by empowerment. The Longwe Framework shares some common ground with the Moser Framework’s concept of practical and strategic gender needs (see speakers notes, p33). However, Longwe moves beyond the notion of separate needs showing in the framework that development intervention can contain both.

**Potential limitations:** The framework is not complete as it does not take into account a number of aspects. It does not track how situations change over time. The relationship between men and women is examined only from an equality perspective, failing to take account of the complex system of rights, claims, and responsibilities that exist between them. By not taking into account other forms of inequality, women may be seen as a homogenous group. Using a hierarchy of levels may give the impression that empowerment is a linear process.
Women’s Equality & Empowerment Framework

Equality & Empowerment

Control

Participation

Conscientisation

Access

Welfare
This framework was designed specifically for use in humanitarian interventions, and for disaster preparedness. It was developed from a review of thirty case studies of NGO responses to disaster situations around the world.

It aims to assist outside agencies to plan interventions in a way that meet the immediate needs of people, build on their strengths, and support their efforts to achieve long-term development.

The core concept of the CVA is that people’s existing strengths (capacities) and existing weaknesses (vulnerabilities) determine the effect that a crisis has on them and their response to it. Capacities relate to people’s material and physical resources of people, their social/organisational resources and their attitudes. Vulnerabilities are the long-term factors that weaken people’s ability to cope with unexpected disaster or prolonged emergencies. They exist prior to disasters and continue after it. In the CVA a distinction is made between vulnerabilities and needs. In the context of a disaster needs are addressed by providing short-term interventions, (for example, food, or shelter), whereas vulnerabilities require strategic long-term development.

**Tool 1: Categories of Capacities and Vulnerabilities**

The CVA using a matrix divides capacities and vulnerabilities into three categories (Resource 8b page 54). These are physical, social and motivational capacities and vulnerabilities.

**Physical/ material capacities and vulnerabilities**

These refer to characteristics of the land, environment, climate, where people live or lived prior to the crisis. It also includes details of housing, food and water supply, access to income and other assets. These will all be different for women and for men. Despite the material losses, men and women possess resources including various skills and capacities which agencies can build on.

**Social /Organisational capacities and vulnerabilities**

This category includes features of the social structures and systems through which communities organise themselves. It refers to formal political structures and the informal systems people use to make decisions or organise economic and social activities. Gender analysis is critical in this category because the roles and responsibilities of women and men can differ greatly from one form of social organisation to another. Women may be excluded from decision-making systems in various social groups. Gender analysis can also identify systems set up by women for the exchange of labour and goods.

**Motivational/ Attitudinal capacities and vulnerabilities**

How people react to a crisis can be influenced by psychological and cultural factors, for example religious beliefs, previous crises and their expectations of emergency aid. Appropriate interventions will build on people’s own skills, and increase their confidence. In contrast, inappropriate aid may result in people feeling dependent and despondent, and thereby reducing their capacity to cope with and recover from a crisis.

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Tool 2: Additional dimensions of complex reality

Five other dimensions are added to the CVA matrix to ensure that it captures the complexities of reality (see Resource 8c, Page 55).

**Disaggregation by Sex**
Capacities, vulnerabilities and needs are different according to gender. Because of their gender roles women and men will have different needs and interests. Women can be more at risk in a crisis because of their lower socio-economic and political status. Gender roles may undergo rapid change in a time of crisis.

**Disaggregating other dimensions of social relations**
Information related to levels of wealth, political affiliation, ethnic groupings, age and so on in a community can also be analysed using the Capacities and Vulnerabilities Analysis.

**Changes over time:**
The CVA matrix can be repeated at intervals to reflect the dynamic changes in a community. This allows for changes in gender relations to be assessed.

**“Interactions” between different categories of the analysis:**
Interaction between the categories of analysis used in the CVA is ongoing. There is a relationship between different categories of capacities and vulnerabilities which means that changes in one category can effect the others.

**Analysis at different levels and scales of society:**
CVA can be used to assess vulnerability to disaster and potential for development from village to national and regional level and also between levels of society.

**Comments on Capacities and Vulnerabilities Analysis: uses and potential limitations**

CVA is particularly useful in humanitarian interventions having been designed for that purpose, but it can also be used for long-term development.

It can be used for both planning and assessment of change over time, for example, tracking changes in gender relations in the aftermath of a disaster or agency intervention. The CVA can be used at different stages of a crisis and encompasses a short-term and long-term perspective. It ensures that social and psychological, as well as material dimensions are included in an analysis.

It can be adapted to include all categories of social differentiation, such as, gender, age, class, caste, ethnicity, disability.

**Potential limitations:** CVA could be used without including a gender analysis, resulting in gender blind-analysis and responses. Although the framework was not specifically designed to promote women’s empowerment it can be used to create more equal gender relations provided this aim is made clear. The CVA has been found difficult to use in a participatory way, particularly with communities in a crisis situation.
## CAPACITIES AND VULNERABILITIES FRAMEWORK WORKSHEET 1

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Vulnerabilities</th>
<th>Capacities</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Physical/material</strong></td>
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<td>What productive</td>
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<td>resources, Skills</td>
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<td>and hazards exist?</td>
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<td><strong>Social/organisational</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>What are the</td>
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<td>relationships and</td>
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<td>organisation among</td>
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<td>people?</td>
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<td><strong>Motivational/attitudinal</strong></td>
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<td>How does the community</td>
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<td>view its ability to</td>
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<td>create change?</td>
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## Gender Disaggregation

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Vulnerabilities</th>
<th>Capacities</th>
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<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>Men</td>
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<tr>
<td>Physical/material</td>
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<tr>
<td>Social/organisational</td>
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<tr>
<td>Motivational/attitudinal</td>
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## Disaggregation By Economic Class

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<th></th>
<th>Vulnerabilities</th>
<th>Capacities</th>
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<td>Rich</td>
<td>Middle</td>
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<td>Physical/material</td>
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<td>Social/organisational</td>
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<td>Motivational/attitudinal</td>
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This framework is an adaptation of the Harvard Analytical Framework for use in refugee situations. The POP framework was designed to ensure equitable and efficient delivery of resources and services to female as well as male refugees. It aims to target aid more appropriately, and to reduce gender inequalities.

Three elements are emphasised: change, participation, and the importance of analysis.

**Change:** People displaced by conflict or other crises experience rapid and ongoing change in their lives. Crises can change the roles of men and women. In some situations changes in roles will be resisted and the traditional values reinforced.

In contrast a crisis may provide opportunities for change in gender relations

**Participation:** Participation by all refugees, women, men and children is critical to the success or failure of a programme.

**The importance of analysis:** Socio-economic and demographic analysis is essential when planning programmes for refugee situations.

**Components of the framework:**

The framework has three main elements:

- The Determinants Analysis, (also called the Refugee Population Profile and Context Analysis);
- The Activities Analysis;
- The Use and Control of Resources Analysis

**Tool 1: Refugee Population Profile and Context Analysis**

Both the population profile and the social and cultural context are factors which influence the roles and responsibilities of women and men in a refugee situations. The population profile involves gathering demographic data on the refugees and the host population. Who are the refugees? Women? Men? Children? Assessing the refugee context helps to identify factors which shaped gender relations before the crisis, for example, community norms and values; community power structures; religious beliefs; economic and political factors.

The purpose of analysis of these factors is to understand how they affect activities and resources and are affected by them. It also assists in identifying external constraints and opportunities which must be considered when planning programmes.

**Tool 2: The Activities Analysis** (See Resource 9b, page 58)

This tool helps to establish the tasks women and men do, as well as where and when they carry out those tasks. The division of labour changes in flight, therefore it is essential to know both what women and men did before, and what they do and can do now in the refugee situation. The activities analysis and the population must be linked. The reason being, that if, for example, the refugees are

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mainly men, the tasks normally performed by women cannot be carried out in the usual way. Protection in the refugee situation is a critical concern particularly for women and girls. Protection of refugees must be viewed from both legal and social perspective, for example, who is offering protection? Under which circumstances is it being offered? Protection is provided by communities, but it is important to identify any gaps that may exist (see Table, page x).

**Tool 3: Use and Control of Resources Analysis** (See Resource 9c, page 59)

This tool is similar to the Harvard Tool 2 (Access and Control Profile). It helps to identify how resources are distributed and who has control over their use. Using this tool it is possible to find out what resources were used and controlled by women and men before the crises and what resources do they now control and use in the refugee situation. Resources can be material and intangible, for example, labour, education, social networks, time, community structures. All refugees will have lost different resources. They may have gained some new resources such as access to food aid. While the new situation will affect gender relations it may open up new opportunities for women.

**Comments on POP: Uses and potential limitations**

POP is designed specifically for refugee situations but with some adaptation it would be useful for planning in emergency situations.

Similar to the Harvard Analytical Framework, the POP framework is useful for gathering and analysing data. It is not difficult to administer and draws together in a short period of time a very useful refugee profile and socio-economic data. The framework includes two features that are significant for gender relations in refugee groups. The first is it changes over time, which can inform both short and long-term planning. The second feature is the importance of protection, especially for women and girls, and its recognition as an activity that has to be provided by someone. The framework uses a wider definition of resources than the Harvard Framework by including the notion of material and less tangible ones. It also links resources to responsibilities. The POP framework can help identify indicators that show if the gap between women and men in relation to benefits is increasing or decreasing.

**Potential limitations:** It is difficult to use with groups that are not homogeneous. Such a situation would necessitate applying the framework first to each group independently. The question of who has control in the refugee community is problematic because control over areas of social life resides with external actors. Finally, it doesn’t put sufficient emphasis on the long-term development of refugees.
### Resource 9b  POP Worksheet 1: Activities Analysis

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<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Production of goods….</td>
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<tr>
<td>eg carpentry</td>
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<td>metal work</td>
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<tr>
<td>and services</td>
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<tr>
<td>eg teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>domestic labour</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Agriculture</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>eg land clearance</td>
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<tr>
<td>planting</td>
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<tr>
<td>care of livestock</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Household production</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>eg childcare</td>
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<tr>
<td>Home garden</td>
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<td>Water collection</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Production activities</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>eg of unaccompanied</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Children</td>
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<tr>
<td>Single women</td>
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<tr>
<td>Elderly people</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Social, political, Religious activities</strong></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>eg community meeting</td>
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<tr>
<td>ceremonies</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

## Resource 9c  POP Worksheet 2: Use of resources analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resource lost due to flight</th>
<th>Who used (this gender/age)</th>
<th>Who controlled this (gender age)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Land</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Livestock</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Shelter</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Tools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Education system</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Health care</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Income</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Resource brought by refugees</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who had this (gender/age)</td>
<td>Who has this (gender/age)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Eg political</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Carpentry</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sewing</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cleaning</td>
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<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Animal husbandry</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Eg literacy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teaching</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>medicine/health</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource provided to refugees</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To whom is this provided (gender/age)</td>
<td>How/where/when is it provided (through males? females? Adults?)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shelter</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Clothing</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Legal services</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Health-care services</td>
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<tr>
<td>etc.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The three essential components of the Social Relation Approach are:

- the goal of development as human well-being
- the concept of social relations
- institutional analysis

The aims of the Social Relations Approach are to analyse existing gender inequalities in the distribution of resources, responsibilities and power and to design policies which enable women to be agents in their own development. Concepts rather than tools are used in this framework in order to focus on the relationships between people, and their relationship to resources and activities, and how they are re-worked through institutions.

The main concepts of the Social Relations Approach are:

**Concept 1: Development as increasing human well-being**

The definition of development in the Social Relations Approach is about increasing human well-being and not just about economic growth or increased productivity. The core elements of human well-being are survival, security and autonomy. Development interventions must be assessed on the extent to which they contribute to human well-being as well as what they contribute in terms of technical efficiency. Production therefore includes not only market production, but encompasses a wide range of tasks that people perform, in order to reproduce human labour, to survive and to safeguard the environment.

**Concept 2: Social Relations**

In this framework “social relations are understood as the way in which different groups of people are positioned in relation to resources”. Social relations determine people’s roles, responsibilities and claims, as well as the rights and control they have over their own lives and those of others. Social relations include gender relations, class, ethnicity, race. Social relations are not static, they can change over time and are influenced by changes at the macro level. The access people and groups have to material and intangible resources are also determined by social relations.

**Concept 3: Institutional Analysis**

The factors which produce gender inequalities are not found solely in the family but exist across a wide range of institutions, including the international community, the state and the market place. An institution is defined by Kabeer as a framework of rules for achieving particular economic or social goals. Social difference and inequalities are created and perpetuated by institutions. Organisations are defined as the specific structural forms that institutions take. Gender-awareness necessitates an analysis of the way these institutions create and reproduce inequalities.

The Social Relations Approach identifies four key institutions: the state, the market, the community, and the family/kinship.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INSTITUTIONAL LOCATION</th>
<th>ORGANISATIONAL/STRUCTURAL FORM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>State</td>
<td>Legal, military, administrative organisations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market</td>
<td>Firms, financial corporations, farming-enterprises, Multinationals etc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community</td>
<td>Village tribunals, voluntary associations, informal networks, patron-client relationships, NGO’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family/kinship</td>
<td>Household, extended families, lineage groupings etc</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Challenging the ideological neutrality and independence of institutions:

Much of mainstream planning is based on two erroneous assumptions about institutions, one is that they are ideologically neutral, and second, that they operate independently of each other and therefore a change in one of them will not affect the others. Institutions have “official ideologies” which underpin their policies and planning. The predominant official ideologies are based on four assumptions:

- the state operates in the national interest and national welfare
- the market is about profit maximisation
- the community, including NGOs, is about service provision
- the family/kinship is about altruism; that it is co-operative and non-conflictual

To understand how social difference and inequalities (in roles, responsibilities, claims, and power) are produced, reinforced, and reproduced through institutions, it is essential to move beyond the official ideology of bureaucratic neutrality, and examine the actual rules and practices of institutions.

Five aspects of social relations shared by institutions:

Although institutions differ and vary across cultures they do have some features in common. All institutions have five distinct but inter-related elements of social relationships: rules, resources, people, activities, and power. These elements are critical to the analysis of social relations, and gender inequality.

1. Rules: How things get done

Rules either permit or constrain the following:

What is done; how it is done; by whom will it be done; who will benefit?

2. Activities: What is done?

Activities can be productive, distributive, or regulative. The questions to be asked about activities are: who does what? who gets what? who can claim what? Certain tasks can be
associated with a particular social group, for example in most societies women are considered to be responsible for the care of children and the sick within the household, and within the state and market institutions.

3. Resources: What is used, what is produced?
Institutions mobilise and distribute resources. These may be human resources (such as labour, education), material resources (such as land, food), or intangible resources (information, political).

4. People: Who is in? Who is out? Who does what?
Institutions are selective about:
Who is allowed in and who is excluded? Who is given various tasks, resources, and responsibilities. Who is positioned where in the hierarchy? How institutions select and exclude reflects social inequalities including class and gender.

5. Power: who decides, and whose interests are served?
Relations of authority and control are core dimensions of institutions. A combination of the unequal distribution of resources and responsibilities with official and unofficial rules which promote and legitimise this distribution, ensures that some institutional actors have authority over others.

Concept 4: Institutional gender policies
Gender policies are divided into three categories depending on the extent to which they recognise and address gender issues (see diagram in Resource 10b, page 64).

Gender-blind policies: Such policies fail to distinguish between women and men. Policies are biased in favour of existing gender relations and therefore are likely to exclude women.

Gender-aware policies: Gender-aware-policies recognise that women as well as men are actors in development and that they are often constrained in a different way to men. Their needs, interests and priorities may differ and at times conflict. Gender aware-policies can be sub-divided into two policy types:

- Gender-neutral policies approaches use the knowledge of gender differences in a given context to target and meet the practical needs of both women and men. Gender-neutral policies do not disturb existing gender relations.

- Gender-specific policies use the knowledge of gender differences in a given situation to respond to the practical gender needs of either women or men. These policies do not address the existing division of resources and responsibilities.

Gender-redistributive policies aim to transform the existing distribution of resources and responsibilities in order to create a more equal relationship between women and men. Women and men may be targeted or one group alone may be targeted by the intervention. Gender-redistributive policies focus mainly on strategic gender interests, but can plan to meet practical gender needs in a way which have transformatory potential (provide a supportive environment for women’s self empowerment).

Concept 5: Underlying and structural causes (see table in Resource 10c, page 65)
When undertaking an analysis for the purpose of planning an intervention this framework examines the immediate, underlying and structural factors which are responsible for the problems, and their effects on those involved (see Table 2, p48).

Comments on Social Relations Framework: uses and potential limitations

The Social Relations Approach can be used for project planning and policy development. It can be used for planning at different levels including the international. The Social Relations Approach aims to present a broader picture of poverty by revealing the interacting and cross cutting inequalities of, for example, gender, class, race. The framework focuses on structural analysis, material poverty, and the process of powerlessness and marginalisation. It enables links to be made between macro and micro- analysis.

The Social Relations Approach undertakes to develop a new framework for development thinking, one which puts gender at the core of the analysis. Its intention is not to develop a methodology to add on gender, or to plan for women separately. The Social Relations Approach emphasises gender relations and recognises the different needs and interests of women and men.

By focusing specifically on institutions The Social Relations approach offers a way for understanding how they interrelate and how they can bring about change. The Social Relations Framework is not static but dynamic, which allows it to show the processes of impoverishment and empowerment.

Potential limitations: The analysis produced by using the Social Relations Approach can convey an impression of large institutions where change will be difficult. However, although this may be true, it can result in overlooking the potential for people to effect change. This framework can be used to look at all cross cutting issues that cause institutional marginalisation. By doing this it is possible that women get subsumed into individual categories such as class or sector. If this occurs, women may not appear as a category. The Social Relations Approach can appear to be complicated, but it can be adapted to use in a more simplified form.
Categories Of Gender-Aware Policy

Gender-blind policies
(often implicitly male-biased)

↓

Rethinking Assumption
Rethinking Practice

↓

Gender-sensitive policies

Gender-neutral
(interventions intended to leave distribution of resources and responsibilities intact)

Gender-specific
(interventions intended to meet targeted needs of one or other gender within resources and responsibilities)

↓

Gender-redistributive
(interventions intended to transform existing distributions in a more egalitarian direction)

### Immediate, underlying and structural causes

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<th>Analysing causes and effects</th>
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<tr>
<td>Long-term effects</td>
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<td>Intermediate effects</td>
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<td>Immediate effects</td>
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### THE CORE PROBLEM

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<td>-community</td>
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<td>-market and/or</td>
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<td>-state</td>
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<th>Intermediate causes at</th>
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<td>-state</td>
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Resource 10d  Cornerstones of a Gender in Development/ Social Relations Approach

The following points summarise some of the general development outcomes of working in a gender-sensitive manner, and ways to strengthen the gender-relevant impact of project interventions.

- Women are active participants, agents and architects of their own development - not represented by someone else, but consulted and involved directly at all stages of a project cycle, in all capacities, particularly in decision-making.

- Alliances work to mutual benefit. Connect with groups and institutions working for connected or common cause, and support each other in becoming more effective.

- Gender dynamics are maintained in two main ways in each society and culture - ideology, people's and beliefs about the way things should be between the sexes; and material practices, the day-to-day behaviour through which discriminatory practices are, often unwittingly, maintained. (From an adult education and “learning as change” point of view, changing behaviour is more efficient than changing ideology or attitudes. Requiring a change in behaviour results in a change in attitude more reliably than attention to change in attitudes [first] leads necessarily to a change in behaviour.)

- Projects and programmes that work to change the position of women must take into account the points of resistance and flexibility in social systems in which women - and men - live. Planning and supporting women in development or gender and development projects means understanding a change agent's role – and the context, well.

- Plan as carefully as you can with the best baseline data you can get, and structure relationships or projects according to what's most needed and possible. Useful project types include women only, women's component, and integrated – as long as a good link is maintained between practical needs and strategic interests (a link and a balance).

- Be clear about long-term goals and vision of development, as well as shorter-term project goals and outputs. A gender and development approach is explicit about the goals of development including "economic self-sufficiency and political self-reliance".

- Support organized work of people in target groups of reference. Consider building “skills of influence” and competencies for change management, co-operation, organization for influence, into all project and programming activities, where and when opportunities can be identified or created.

- Couple a participatory approach with an openness to plan and find solutions together. There aren't many known right answers in questions of gender and development or women in development – more identified entry points. Certain things have worked in certain situations; some good practices are available; but as to definitive knowledge on what combination of factors positively influences women’s equality? Not yet.

- Create conditions that enable people to empower themselves - which seems to be critical for sustainable development, as well as for achievement of policy on women’s equality and advancement in a sustainable human development approach. Consultation is key – ongoing consultation, with accountability measures for response and action by managers.
**Resource 11 Essential Concepts in Gender Analysis**

**Sex and Gender:** Sex refers to the **biological** differences between men and women, which are universal and do not change. Gender refers to **social** attributes that are learned or acquired during socialisation as a member of a given community. Because these attributes are learned behaviours, they can and do change over time (with increasing rapidity as the rate of technological change intensifies), and vary across cultures. Gender therefore refers to the socially given attributes, roles, activities, responsibilities and needs connected to being men (masculine) and women (feminine) in a given society at a given time, and as a member of a specific community within that society. Women and men’s gender identity determines how they are perceived and how they are expected to think and act as men and women. Even more, gender is one of the principal intersecting variables (along with race and caste or class) deployed in the distribution of privilege, prestige, power and a range of social and economic resources.

It is worth noting that when the word “gender” was first used in this way, to signify social rather than grammatical difference, at the Institute for Development Studies at the University of Brighton, in the mid-1970s, the intention was not so much as to distinguish men from women, but to find an analytic tool to disaggregate the category “women”. In other words, the intention was to refine analysis of the differing impacts of development on different groups of women, as well as differences between women and men.

**Gender Relations** “These are the social relationships between women and men. Gender relations are simultaneously relations of co-operation, connection, and mutual support, and of conflict, separation and competition, of difference and inequality. Gender relations are concerned with how power is distributed between the sexes. They create and reproduce systemic differences in men’s and women’s position in a given society. They define the ways in which responsibilities and claims are allocated and the way in which each are given a value.”

The term “gender relations” also refers to the relationships between people and their broader community, if these relationships vary with the sex of the people concerned. For example, the relationship between members of a village community and their local government entity is a gender relationship if men and women experience different benefits and controls from it. See “Access and Control” below.

**Changes in gender identity and gender relations:** Gender roles and characteristics in almost all societies have undergone many recent adjustments and changes in response to technological change, which has led to massive economic and social changes in all parts of the world. Changes in gender roles and relations often meet resistance, in particular from cultural forces of tradition. Anticipating and preparing for most likely forms of resistance in relation to change in activities or the status and position of women is a valuable part of a project’s gender strategy. Gender analysis can demonstrate that change in certain aspects of social roles and relations between women and men can improve the quality and conditions of life for everyone.

**Sexual Division of Labour:** In all societies, tasks and responsibilities are typically undertaken by either women or men. This allocation of activities on the basis of sex is known as the sexual division of labour, and is learned and clearly understood by all members of a given society, as are the circumstances under which the typical practices can be varied, and the limitations of this variation.

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Change usually takes place when the society is under some form of stress, for example when community migrate to find work, and their tasks must be undertaken by other members of their families. The sexual division of labour is perhaps the most significant social structure governing gender relations.

**Gender roles and responsibilities**: This is another term for the division of labour. It tends to be used most frequently in those analytic frameworks, especially the Harvard Framework and it derivatives such as the POP Framework which emerged before the use of the term “gender relations” became widespread during the 90s.

**Productive work**: This is work that produces goods and services for exchange in the market place (for income). Some analysts, especially those working on questions of equality between men and women, include the production of items for consumption by the household under this definition, even though they never reach the market place, regarding this as consumption of a form of non-monetary income. Both men and women contribute to family income with various forms of productive work, although men predominate in productive work, especially at the higher echelons of remuneration. Historically, in most societies, changes in economic structure, and hence in the structure of productive activities, have led to changes in the sexual division of labour and gender relations.

**Reproductive Work**: This work involves all the tasks associated with supporting and servicing the current and future workforce – those who undertake or will undertake productive work. It includes child-bearing and nurture, but is not limited to these tasks. It has increasingly been referred to as “social reproduction” to indicate the broader scope of the term than the activities associated with biological reproduction. Socially reproductive activities include childcare, food preparation, care for the sick, socialisation of the young, attention to ritual and cultural activities through which the society’s work ethic is transmitted, and the community sharing and support which is essential to the survival of economic stress.

The fact that reproductive work is the essential basis of productive work is the principal argument for the economic importance of reproductive work, even though most of it is unpaid, and therefore unrecorded in national accounts. Women and girls are mainly responsible for this work which is usually unpaid.

The intersection of peoples’ productive and reproductive responsibilities with policy priorities, which has repercussions at all levels of an economy and society, is the principal focus of a gender analysis.

**Differential Access to and Control over Resources**: It is important to distinguish between access to resources and control over them when examining how resources (land, labour, credit, income, etc) are allocated between women and men.

- **Access**: gives a person the use of a resource e.g. land to grow crops.
- **Control**: allows a person to make decisions about who uses the resource or to dispose of the resource e.g. sell land. Base-line data in a complete gender analysis establishes whether there is any differential in men’s and women’s access to three key categories of resources:
  - **Economic/Productive/Resources**: (land, credit, cash income, employment)
  - **Political Resources**: (education, political representation, leadership)
  - **Time**: (a critical resource, which increasingly acquires a monetary value).
Practical Gender and Strategic Gender Interests/Needs: Women and men have different roles and responsibilities and therefore have different interests/needs. These are called gender interests/needs, practical and strategic. Practical and strategic gender interests/needs should not be seen as separate, but rather as a continuum. By consulting women on their practical gender interests/needs an entry point to address gender inequalities in the longer term (strategic gender interests/needs) can be created.

**Practical Gender Needs:** These are gender needs that women and men can easily identify, as they relate to living conditions. Women may identify safe water, food, health care, cash income, as immediate needs which they must meet. Meeting women’s practical gender needs is essential in order to improve living conditions, but in itself it will not change the prevailing disadvantaged (subordinate) position of women. It may in fact reinforce the gender division of labour.

**Strategic Gender Interests/Needs:** Strategic gender interests/needs are those women identify because of their subordinate position to men in their society. They relate to issues of power and control and the gender division of labour.

Strategic interests/needs may include, changes in the gender division of labour (women to take on work not traditionally seen as women’s work, men take more responsibility for child care and domestic work), legal rights, an end to domestic violence, equal wages and women's control over their own bodies. They are not as easily identified by women themselves as their practical interests/needs, therefore, they may need specific opportunities to do so.

**Condition and Position:** Development projects generally aim to improve the condition of people’s lives. From a gender and development perspective, a distinction is made between the day-to-day condition of women’s lives and their position in society. In addition to the specific conditions which women share with men, differential access means women’s position in relation to men must also be assessed when interventions are planned and implemented.

**Condition:** This refers to the material state in which women and men live, and relates to their responsibilities and work. Improvements in women’s and men’s condition can be made by providing for example, safe water, credit, seeds. (practical gender needs).

**Position:** Position refers to women’s social and economic standing in society relative to men, for example, male/female disparities in wages and employment opportunities, unequal representation in the political process, unequal ownership of land and property, vulnerability to violence (strategic gender need/interests).

**Transforming Gender Relations:** Changes in gender relations transform long-standing patterns; one change is acknowledged to bring others, and the nature and the degree of changes that occur in women’s and men’s lives as a result of successful interventions, explain why “transform” is the active construct chosen in this model. Transformation of this kind requires an understanding and parallel or concurrent attention to practical needs and strategic interests. The choice is not “one or the other”; the challenge is how to work with both --strategically, and practically.

**Transformatory Potential:** A gender analysis guided by this approach, applying the analytical framework to development programming, uses the interwoven framework of concepts to assess the transformatory potential of a given set of options -- which ones are most likely to ensure women get

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1 The term “gender interests” was first used by Maxine Molyneux (1985) & developed into a planning tool by Caroline Moser. Source; C..Moser (1993) Gender Planning & Development, Routledge, London. See hand out p.65

1 See Reading 2 Condition and Position p. 73 & Handouts pp. 62, 63, 64
equal access to the resources they need to maximise their productive and reproductive contributions to their households and societies.

**Empowerment**: Empowerment is about people, both men and women. “It is a “collective undertaking, involving both individual change and collective action.” Women’s empowerment means developing their ability to collectively and individually take control over their own lives, identify their needs, set their own agendas and demand support from their communities and the state to see that their interests are responded to. In most cases the empowerment of women requires transformation of the division of labour and of society.

**Gender in Development (GID)**: The GID or Gender in Development perspective emerged in the late 1980’s as an alternative to the prevailing Women in Development or WID approach. Unlike WID, which focused on women only, and called for their integration into development as producers and workers, GID focuses on the interdependence of men and women in society and on the unequal relations of power between them. The GID approach aims for a development process that transforms gender relations in order to enable women to participate on an equal basis with men in determining their common future. The GID approach emphasises the importance of women’s collective organisation for self empowerment.

**Note**: There are two very similar terms in current usage – Gender in Development (GID): Gender and Development (GAD). There is no substantive difference in the meaning of these two terms, which may be used interchangeably. However, UNDP favours the use of the GID formulation, as it has a slightly more “integrated” connotation. Of course, if gender perspectives were fully mainstreamed into development thinking and action, there would be no need for either designation, as it would be understood that gender inequality is a fact of socio-economic life, and therefore must be addressed as integral to all development initiatives.

**Women in Development (WID)**: WID first came to prominence in the early 1970’s as an approach to include women in development. Research and information collected throughout the UN Decade for Women (1975-85) highlighted the existing poverty and disadvantage of women and their invisibility in the development process. Different policy responses and interventions focused on women as a separate group resulting in women’s concerns being “added on” and peripheral to mainstream development efforts. WID policies and interventions have in the main concentrated on women’s productive work. The failure to make an explicit link with their reproductive work often adds to women’s workload. Focusing on women in isolation means that unequal gender relations in various social and economic settings remain unaddressed.

**Equity and Sustainable Development**: Two types of equity are required for full human development to take place- equity for human generations yet to come, whose interests are not represented by standard economic analyses or by market forces that discount the future, and equity for people living now who do not have equal access to natural resources or to social and economic “goods”. There is, in fact, some conflict between these two types of equity. Some commentators point out that environmental issues in developing countries cannot be resolved without alleviating poverty and call for redistribution of wealth or incomes both within countries and between rich and poor nations.

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2 See Reading 3 Empowerment: Implications for Policy and Strategy, p.75


“Understanding Gender Equity”: Gender equity is concerned with the promotion of personal, social, cultural, political, and economic equality for all…The term gender equity emerged out of a growing recognition in society of pervasive gender inequities. Continuing traditions of stereotypical conceptions and discriminatory practices have resulted in the systemic devaluation of attitudes, activities and abilities attributed to and associated with girls and women. The negative consequences of stereotypical conceptions and discriminatory practices adversely affect males as well as females. However, in the short-term, greater emphasis in the gender equity initiatives will be placed on improving conditions and attitudes as they affect girls and women. In the long-term, these initiatives will also improve the situation for boys and men.

**Gender Equality:** In the context of international human rights, the legal concept of gender equality is enshrined in the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights as well as in the 1979 United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women. The Convention which has been ratified by 100 countries, states clearly and unequivocally that “discrimination against women violates the principles of equality of rights and respect for human dignity.” The governments of the world reaffirmed their commitment in 1995 to “the equal rights and inherent human dignity of all women and men” in the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action.

**Gender Equality as a Development Objective:** “At the United Nation Fourth World Conference for Women held in Beijing2 1995, both DAC members and their partner countries made commitments to gender equality and women’s empowerment. The Beijing Declaration adopted at the Conference builds on the perspectives and strategies outlined at the previous United Nations conferences on education – Jomtien, (1990), environment- Rio(1992), human rights- Vienna (1993), population – Cairo (1994), and social development – Copenhagen (1995), including the Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW, 1979). It is based on the principles of human rights and social justice. It clearly recognises that gender equality and women’s empowerment are essential for addressing the central concerns of poverty and insecurity, and for achieving sustainable, people centred- development.”

**Discrimination:** The Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), approved by the United Nations in 1979, states that “Discrimination against women shall mean distinction, exclusion, or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field”

**Systemic Discrimination:** Systemic discrimination is caused by policies and practices that are built into the ways that institutions operate, and that have the effect of excluding women and minorities. For example, in societies where the belief is strong that whatever happens within the household is the concern of household member only, the police force and judiciary, organisations within the institution of the state are likely routinely to avoid addressing questions of domestic violence, leading to systemic discrimination against all the women who experience violence within the home.

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2 See Reading 4, Extracts from Strategic Objectives and Actions, Beijing Platform for Action., P.77
Equality of Outcome: This is sometimes also referred to as “substantive equality”, and refers to the insight that equality of opportunity may not be enough to redress the historical oppression and disadvantage of women. Because of their different positions in society, women and men may not be able to take advantage of equal opportunities to the same extent. In some cases equal opportunities can actually have a negative impact on women’s well-being, if women exert time and energy to take advantage of them with no result. In order to ensure that development interventions result in equality of outcome for women and men, it is necessary to design them on the basis of gender analysis. “Equal” treatment therefore does not mean “the same” treatment.
## Resource 12a Table: Practical Gender Needs and Strategic Gender Interests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. Practical Needs</th>
<th>B. Strategic Needs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Tend to be immediate, short-term,</td>
<td>• Tend to be immediate, long-term.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Unique to particular women,</td>
<td>• Common to almost all women,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Relate to daily needs; food, housing, income, health, children, etc.</td>
<td>• Relate to disadvantaged position; subordination, lack of resources and education, vulnerability to poverty and violence, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Easily identifiable by women.</td>
<td>• Basis of disadvantage and potential for change not always identifiable by women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Can be addressed by provision of specific inputs; food, handpumps, clinic, etc.</td>
<td>• Can be addressed by; consciousness-raising, increasing self-confidence, education, strengthening women's organisations, political mobilisation, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Addressing Practical Needs
- Tends to involve women as *beneficiaries* and perhaps as *participants*
- Can improve the *condition* of women’s lives
- Generally does not alter traditional roles and relationships

### Addressing Strategic Interests
- Involves women as *agents* or *enables* women to become agents
- Can improve the *position* of women in society
- Can *empower* women and *transform* relationships
The following is a summary of some of the principal differences between practical gender needs and strategic gender interests.

**Practical needs**
- Short-term, immediate (e.g. clean water, food, housing, income)
- Unique to particular women (i.e. site specific)
- When asked, women can identify their basic needs.
- Involves women as beneficiaries/participants
- Problems can be met by concrete and specific inputs, usually economic inputs (e.g. water pumps, seeds, credit, employment)
- Benefits the condition of some women
- Is potentially successful in ameliorating the circumstances of some women

**Strategic interests**
- Long-term
- Common to all women (e.g. vulnerability to physical violence, legal limitations on rights to hold or inherit property, difficulty of gaining access to higher education)
- Women are not always in a position to recognize the sources or basis of their strategic disadvantages or limitations
- Solutions must involve women as active agents
- Must be addressed through consciousness raising, education and political mobilization at all levels of society
- Improves the position of all women in a society
- Has the potential to transform or fundamentally change one or more aspects of women's lives. This is called 'transformatory potential' of the project/policy.
• Increased acceptance by women and men of women as community decision-makers

• Greater personal and economic independence and self-confidence for women

• Increased women’s involvement in personal, family or community development

• New, more visible, and more effective women’s organisations

• More women in education and training programmes

• Improved health of women and children
Resource 13b Indicators of Positive Changes in Women’s Position

- Improvements in women’s legal status
- A decline in violence against women
- Increased women’s control over their fertility
- Reduced institutional discrimination and bias against women
- Increased public awareness of women’s issues
The Structure of Indicators Required to Show Progress towards Improvement in Women’s Position

Improved Women’s Empowerment

Improved Social Position for Women

Greater Access and Control

Increased Autonomy for Women

Self Empowerment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assertion of Rights</th>
<th>Legal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Articulation of Skills</td>
<td>Political</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical Thinking</td>
<td>Economic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness</td>
<td>Social</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-image</td>
<td>Familial</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Strategies for Social Transformation

Note: Each level of change will require the articulation of indicators that can show the achievement of desired goals.

Women in Development considered in relation to Gender in Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WID</th>
<th>GID</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Focus on women</td>
<td>Focus on gender relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stress on practical needs</td>
<td>Stress on strategic interests/needs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rationale is effectiveness</td>
<td>Goal is equity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enabling</td>
<td>Empowering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changes the condition of women</td>
<td>Changes the position of women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aims to enhance women's participation</td>
<td>Aims to integrate gender consideration into mainstream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women primarily as agents</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 From: Two Halves Make a Whole, Balancing Gender Relations in Development. Canadian Council for International Co-operation (with Match International Centre and AQOSI Quebec), Ottawa, Canada, 1991.
Contrasting Two Approaches: Women in Development And Gender in Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Women in Development (WID)</th>
<th>Gender in Development (GID)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>The Approach</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>An approach which views women as the problem</td>
<td>An approach to development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The Focus</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>Relations between men and women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The Problem</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The exclusion of women (half of the productive resources from the development process)</td>
<td>Unequal relations of power (rich and poor, women and men) that prevents equitable development and women’s full participation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The Goal</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More efficient, effective development</td>
<td>Equitable, sustainable development with women and men as decision-makers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The Solution</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrate women into the existing development process</td>
<td>Empower the disadvantaged women and transform unequal relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The Strategies</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women’s projects</td>
<td>Identify/address practical needs determined by women and men to improve their condition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women’s components</td>
<td>At the same time address women’s strategic interests.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated projects</td>
<td>Address strategic interests of the poor through people-centred development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase women’s productivity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase women’s ability to look after the household</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 From: *Two Halves Make a Whole, Balancing Gender Relations in Development*. Canadian Council for International Co-operation (with Match International Centre and AQOSI Quebec), Ottawa, Canada, 1991.
1. **THE COMMUNITY SITUATION**
   - Communities are complex.
   - Two major contributors: women and men.
   - Two different/essential perspectives: women’s and men’s.
   - Women’s position is subordinate.
   - Sexual/gender division of labour: women’s work is less valued.
   - Three categories of work: productive, reproductive, community.
   - Women and men: differential access to/control of resources and benefits.
   - Women are more often excluded from decision making.
   - Gender relations vary/change over time and place.

2. **DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES**
   - Empower/enable women and men collectively to determine their development.
   - Increase the access of women and men to resources, options and political power.
   - Involve women and men as development decision-makers.
   - Transform gender relations.
   - Achieve equality of impact/benefit.

3. **DEVELOPMENT ACTIONS**
   - Carry out gender analysis and analysis of general power relationships of ‘community situation’.
   - Establish means of consultation with women and men.
   - Identify/address condition and practical needs of women and men.
   - Identify/address position and strategic interests of women.
   - Address strategic interest of community for greater economic and political strength.

4. **GOAL**
   - Equitable, sustainable, participatory development.

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1 From Two Halves Make a Whole, Balancing Gender Relations in Development Projects. Canadian Council for International Cooperation, Ottawa, Canada, 1991.
Resource 15b  Summary of Main Learning Messages, Gender in Development Approach

RATIONALE

1. Women as well as men are major contributors to the social and economic survival and well-being of households and communities.

2. The roles, responsibilities and activities of women and men:
   - are largely separate and interdependent - they overlap, interchange;
   - are determined by society
   - are influenced by culture, economics, politics, environment, etc.
   - Vary among and within societies (not static), and
   - Change over time.

3. Women's experience, knowledge, perspectives and priorities are DIFFERENT from those of men.

4. Neither men nor women can necessarily represent the interests and perspectives of the other, and neither one alone can necessarily represent the total community view.

...THEREFORE ...

5. Development projects must involve both women and men in problem-identification and solution design; as agents, as well as participants and beneficiaries.

BUT ...

6. Women have a subordinate position in society, which can prevent them from benefiting from and participating in development projects, particularly at a decision-making level.
   - Women are overburdened with work; have less time, flexibility, mobility
   - Women have less access to and control over productive resources
     - Women have less access to and control over the benefits of productive activity (household and personal)
   - Women have less access to education and training
   - Women have fewer economic options
   - Women have less experience, self-confidence and credibility in public-sphere activity
   - Women lack political power

...THEREFORE ...

1 From Linda Moffat, notes for training in Gender and Development with NGOs (jointly with Carole Houlihan). 1990.
7. In order to enable women to be more significantly involved in development decision-making in the long-term:

   Development projects should not only strive to improve the day-to-day condition of women's lives (as well as men's) by addressing practical needs and priorities, and enhancing their ability to undertake their traditional social and economic roles.

   **BUT ...**

8. Projects should also contribute to improving women's position in society.

9. Initiatives that contribute to improving the position of women include:
   - Identifying and understanding gender relations
   - Separate consultation with women
   - Increasing access to information, education and training
   - Promoting collective organization and networking
   - Reducing workload
   - Increasing access to productive resources
   - Increasing income
   - Increasing opportunities for public-sphere decision-making, management and control
   - Influencing government, policy, legal change, public education
UNDERSTANDING OF GENDER RELATIONS

• The experiences of women as distinct from, and in relation to, the experiences of men,
• The ways in which women are producers and contributors to the community under review
• Information on the ways in which women are subordinate to men. The ways in which women’s access to resources such as land, income, inheritance and political influence is less than men’s, and through what mechanisms this inequality is maintained and preserved.

ANALYSIS OF THE SEXUAL DIVISION OF LABOUR

• Definition of the different but linked activities and responsibilities of women and men.
• The ways in which men’s and women’s activities, in both the productive and socially reproductive spheres, are both separate and linked, cooperative and conflictual
• Discussion of fluidities, change and variation in the relationships between men and women, within their specific social context. This discussion will indicate possible opportunities for change.
• How are men and women positioned in relation to the resources, constraints and benefits available in society at large.

WOMEN’S PRIORITIES: RESTRAINING AND DRIVING FORCES

• The different, but equally significant, needs and interests of women and men
• Definition of the barriers faced by women in seeking to meet their practical and strategic gender interests.
• Identification of opportunities for greater equality and empowerment for women

RECOMMENDATIONS

• How will addressing the concerns of women, and improving equality between women and men, contribute towards strengthened and more sustainable project results? (efficiency)
• How can women’s practical needs and strategic interests best be supported and advanced in the project environment envisaged? (empowerment)

9 Adapted from: Gender Analysis, Gender and Development Approach (Social Relations Analysis), CIDA, October 1998
NOTES ON THE EVOLUTION OF MAIN APPROACHES TO GENDER ANALYSIS:

Adapted from: Keays, Patricia. New York Consultation for UNDP Gender Focal Points, February 1998

1940s and 1950s

Principal Development Paradigm - Reconstruction and Development: after the end of WW II the development emphasis was on public investment in economic infrastructure. The Marshal Plan was put in place for the shattered economies of Europe, and the Bretton Woods agreement of 1948 lead to the establishment of international agencies to direct similar processes for the “backward” economies of developing countries. These agencies were the International Monetary Fund and the World Bank (the full name of which is “The International Bank for Reconstruction and Development”). UNDP’s predecessor, the Expanded Fund for Technical Assistance was established.

Perspectives on Women: With the emphasis on building or rebuilding infrastructure and economies. “People”, whether men or women, are de-emphasised in most debates and policy-making.

Gender in Development Benchmarks: “Equal rights of men and women” included in the United Nations Charter (1947), but this is not reflected in any debates around development policy.

1950s and 1960s

Principal Development Paradigm - “Basic Needs” and “Anti-Poverty”: The UN System (led by ILO) began in mid-50s to add a human aspect to the economic focus on infrastructure. The “Basic Needs” approach introduced a commitment to provide for the basic needs of all the world’s people by the year 2000. Poverty alleviation begins to be taken into account as a goal, through expansion of infrastructure and production, enabling increased expenditure on social issues. 1955-65 was declared The Decade of Basic Needs, and by 1965 the social as well as economic dimensions of the problems of poverty were becoming more clearly defined. The principal response was to strengthen assumed “trickle-down” effects, whereby the benefits of economic growth were thought to diffuse automatically to the poor. In 1965 the Expanded Fund for Technical Assistance was transformed into United Nations Development Programme.

Perspectives on Women: “People” begin to be considered as a force influencing development, but little or nothing is done to elaborate which people. Very limited social analysis of development situations is undertaken, and western assumptions about social and family structures (male public sphere, female private sphere, male bread-winner, female caregiver) are not questioned, rather are “exported” through development assistance as the models guiding development. In anti-poverty approaches women are seen as wives and mothers, involved in household activities but not directly in economic production. They were assumed to be absent from the public and paid spheres.

Gender in Development Benchmarks: Development continues to reflect the predominance of economic analysis, assumed to be gender-neutral.

1960s and 1970s

Principal Development Paradigm - “Rural Development” (a combination of the “reconstruction” and “anti-poverty” approaches): There was growing recognition that even while industrialisation was taking place in urban and peri-urban areas, most of the world’s poor still remained in rural areas.
This was accompanied by early analyses of rural/urban gaps. Large-scale, comprehensive multi-sectoral projects became widespread, under the leadership of the World Bank, in an attempt to address the recognised complexity of rural poverty. Many of these projects retained the strong infrastructural emphasis of previous decades, with massive irrigation, road building and electrification components, funded by the World Bank. Loans entered into to fund these projects became the bed-rock of later debt and balance of payment difficulties faced by the countries concerned. Nevertheless, the limitations of a narrowly economic approach become clearer, partly on the basis of extensive social surveys that were often part of Rural Development projects. Non-governmental organizations and other groups begin to voice concerns about the social and economic distortions introduced by mega-projects. Later concerns were also expressed about their negative environmental impact, especially in the case of irrigation, dam-building and watershed management projects.

**Conventional perspectives on Women:** Despite the emphasis on rural development, women’s huge contribution to both production and social reproduction remains largely invisible to policy makers, not counted in economic statistics and national accounts. Most agriculture and rural development projects assume production by “male farmers”, ignoring that many farmers are women. This period was the apogee of the “master farmer” approach to agricultural development, with massive support to national extension services. Projects linked to health, education or social development do involve women, but only as wives and mothers and mainly from a welfare perspective; their unpaid labour and informal economic activity only gradually begins to be seen and counted.

**Gender in Development Benchmarks:** Meanwhile, economists and feminists begin to question economic analysis and instruments that do not accurately or adequately consider gender dimensions.

Publication of *Women’s Role in Economic Development*, by Esther Boserup in 1970 marks the beginning of the end of women’s “invisibility” in development. The book presents detailed comparative review of economic and social statistics in many countries, especially in Africa, to demonstrate that women are active in economic production. A principal argument is that development initiatives, by ignoring women, have systematically undermined their existing extension contributions to economic activity, resulting in counter-efficiencies.

The *Percy Amendment* is passed in the US in 1972, requiring that all development projects funded by US/AID include a “Women in Development” component. This was primarily the result of work by a “WID Group” within the Washington branch of the Society for International Development.

At the United Nations, the Commission on the Status of Women is the focus of pressure to develop greater understanding of the ways in which the UN can promote the issues emerging from debates in the contemporary “women’s liberation movement”.

**1970s and 1980s**

**Principal Development Paradigm - “Redistribution with Growth”:** Led largely by the World Bank, this paradigm reflects a perception that the continued emphasis on economic growth both enables redistributive interventions (health, social development and education) as a result of increased productivity, and demands such interventions in order to strengthen the growing labour force. These relatively progressive approaches were adopted by many newly-independent governments as a means to respond to the high expectations of their recently enfranchised citizens. Nevertheless, support to industrial development and infrastructure projects continued as the principal development focus, and development was seen as a technical rather than a human question. Concerns were raised in many quarters as the debt-laden features of developing economies became more evident, and as the accelerating globalisation of the world economy expanded demand for the
new forms of labour and transition to the provision of global services by many countries of the third
world, and hence pressure for more monetarist and open economic strategies

Conventional Perspectives on Women: “Integrating” women into existing development
practices became an increasing although still a marginal focus. This was often expressed as
integrating women in the “mainstream” of economic life (not to be confused with “gender
mainstreaming” – see below). Increasing women’s access to paid labour is emphasised, leading to
many income generating projects and small-scale enterprise development. However, the projects are
mostly extensions of “women’s work” – crafts, small-scale food processing, knitting etc – and
women’s direct access to the levers of economic development is only rarely promoted through these
interventions. Women’s socially reproductive activities were not perceived, or not perceived to have
any value, and women’s time was assumed to be infinitely elastic. Therefore, their entry into more
expanded income opportunities, marginal as these usually were, frequently resulted in a double
burden for women, and increased family stress, including the malnutrition of children.

Gender in Development Benchmarks

The activities of the Commission on the Status of Women culminated in the UN declaration of 1975-
1985 as the “Decade of Women”, with an inaugural conference in Mexico City in 1975 (The First
World Conference on Women). The UN Voluntary Fund for Women (later UNIFEM) and the
International Centre for Research and Training on Women (INSTRAW) were established in 1978.
Second World Conference on Women held in Copenhagen 1980. This resulted in an explosion of
research and analysis on women’s role in development, principally within an “efficiency” paradigm.
UNDP has a WID Officer within its Technical Advisory Division from 1978-86.

During the late 70s work on underdevelopment issues, mainly in UK, was exploring the relationship
between men and women, and among groups of women. An important dimension of this work was
to explore differences in the position of men and women vis a vis sources of power in their societies.
These debates included adapting use of the word “gender” to analysis of the social, rather than the
grammatical, implications of being masculine or feminine in a given society. This led to what was
originally called the Gender and Development approach (GAD), (later adopted by the UN system as
Gender in Development (GID)), and to analysis of gender relations rather than the more static
concept of “women’s roles”.

1980s

Principal Economic Paradigm - “Structural Adjustment”: The ascendant influence within the
Bretton Woods institutions becomes the conservative fiscal and economic approaches favoured in
many donor countries in this period (“Reaganism” in the US, “Thatcherism” in the UK). This
underlay the newly hegemonic concern to maximise economic expansion in developing countries by
reigning in public spending and strengthening the ability to repay debt through export-led growth.
These priorities led to major structural changes in developing economies (enforced through
conditionalities attached to loans). The impact upon overall standard of living, and upon increased
poverty, was severe, even in countries where GDP expanded. The impoverishment and social
upheaval led to a questioning of neoclassical economic formulations in some quarters, and a major
expansion in analysis of the social dimensions of development. UNICEF published Development
with a Human Face in 1986. In 1988 the United Nations initiated a series of world conferences on
social dimensions of development by convening a global meeting on education in Jomtien, Thailand.

Conventional Perspectives on Women: WID Units and policies are established by most donor
Governments and in many UN agencies. In UNDP the Division for Women in Development was
established in 1986. The social dimensions of development are steadily more acknowledged through
this period, even though economic growth continues to be seen as the principal indicator of
development. Analysis of the social impact of reductions in public spending on health and education challenges the analytic separation of productive from socially reproductive activities and brings to the fore the fact that the principal burden of structural adjustment is falling not only on the poor, but above all on poor women. Structural adjustment was found to be profoundly, if unconsciously, gendered in the sense that the sectors in which public expenditure was cut were precisely those that supported women in their socially reproductive functions, and the negative effects were disproportionately felt by women.

**Gender in Development Benchmarks.** US/AID contracts a group at Harvard University to the develop of what becomes known as “the Harvard WID” model. *Gender Roles in Development Projects* is published in 1983. Staff training in gender analysis begins in many bilateral and multilateral agencies (Canada, Australia, Britain, the Netherlands, the United Nations) begins in the early to mid 1980s (established at UNDP by Sarah Murison in 1987). In 1986 the Division for Women in Development is founded at UNDP, with four staff members.

In 1985 the United Nations Decade for Women closes with a conference in Nairobi, and commitments by governments to *The Forward-Looking Strategies for Women*. Just before the Nairobi conference a global organisation of women based in the “south” - Development Alternatives for Women in a New Age (DAWN) - distributes *Development, Crises and Alternative Visions: Third World Women's Perspectives*, (by Sen, G., and Grown, C, published by Monthly Review Press in 1987) which challenges the development agenda itself, rather than seeking more effective means to integrate women in it. This had a major impact on discussions at the conference and after it, leading to stronger perspectives on women’s own empowerment. It heralded the beginning of a stronger involvement of women’s organisations from the south in the emergence of global policy.

### 1990s

**Principal Development Paradigm - “Human Development”:** The serious problems of poverty and collapse of social reproduction brought about by structural adjustment become a policy focus for development agencies, including a critique of purely economic indicators of development. UNDP publishes Human Development Report in 1990, and annually thereafter, and through this becomes a leading force in the development of this paradigm. The report argues for a range of social indicators of development to be added to the standard macro-economic indicators. The Global Conferences on the human dimensions of development, initiated in 1988, continue (Environment, Rio de Janeiro, 1992; Human Rights, Vienna, 1993; Population and Development, Cairo, 1994; Women, Beijing, 1995; Urban Development and Habitat, Istanbul, 1996) and produce a “global consensus” on key development targets, including the Secretary General’s policy priorities of poverty reduction and the education of girls. Nevertheless, the accelerating processes of globalisation, fueled by rapid technological innovation, drive continuing restructuring of the economies of all nations, generally to the detriment of the poor. A major aspect of this is a profound restructuring of the global labour market, with an increase in migrant work, expansion of employment in service and export zones and extreme pressure on social reproduction. The gap between rich and poor, north and south widens, and the term “digital divide” is coined to reflect the relative difficulty that people from the south have in participating the global technological explosion.

**Perspectives on Women** Gender equality and equity policies emerge as the principal policy concern of those advocating women’s advancement, rather than the WID policies of the previous decade. Policy commitments to gender equality become widespread, although actual implementation of these commitments remains more problematic. The Beijing Conference identifies 12 “priority areas of concern. Language of gender “equality” and “women’s empowerment” becomes more widespread, partly because the series of world conferences gives a louder voice to women from
developing countries. Many argue that the “digital divide” has specific gender dimensions as women tend to have less access to technological innovation than do men. Nevertheless, understanding of how to link these insights to policy priorities, and redress gender gaps, remains generally weak in policy analysis.

Gender in Development Benchmarks: In 1993 Caroline Moser publishes *Gender Planning and Development: theory, practice and training* which has a profound in many areas. In 1994 Naila Kabeer publishes *Reversed Realities; gender hierarchies in development thought*, consolidating and setting out the “social relations” approach to development, which also had a wide influence. In 1995, the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing, defined the global consensus on women’s and gender concerns, and committed governments to a range of goals set out in the Beijing Declaration and *Beijing Platform for Action* (see Resource 22). Gender mainstreaming was confirmed as the methodology through which these goals were to be achieved. However, there remain major gaps in the actual implementation of policy, and applying all that has been learned about gender relations to more sustainable development interventions. A principal finding of the of the Special Session of the General Assembly to Review Progress since the Beijing Conference, which took place in the New York in June 2000, was that the knowledge and capacities for gender mainstreaming are now in place, or can be built. A remaining hurdle to the achievement of the Beijing Commitments is the accountability of management in the major development organisations for gender mainstreaming in their programmes, gender balance among their staff, and the absence of sexual harassment from their offices.
Men

“There has been a tendency to regard issues of women’s participation in development and equality as being a ‘women’s concern’, in which initiatives are largely pursued by and for women. With experience and the more widespread adoption of the concept of ‘gender’ there has been greater recognition of the need to consider men and their gender identities and to involve men in the pursuit of change. However, some confusion is frequently evident about how to think about men in relation to gender equality strategies.

- Some men (and women) have questioned the focus on women, saying that if the concern is ‘gender’, should not equal attention be paid to women and men. This perspective overlooks the reason why gender has been identified as an issue for development co-operation – the inequalities between women and men that result in women having less access to the development resources of a society and decision-making power at all levels of society. There is of course a need to consider the development needs of both women and men. Gender equality strategies exist to promote attention to the development needs of women that have largely been invisible, and to address the processes that continue to structure an unequal distribution of resources and opportunities to the disadvantage of women.

- However, a focus on women in isolation from their relationships with men can undermine strategies to achieve various development objectives, including the objective of reducing disparities between women and men. A gender analysis must consider not only differences between women and men, but inequalities in the relationship between them and what this means for the possibilities and action of different groups of women and men. For example, inequalities between women and men, and unequal relations between them, influence decision-making about fertility and sexuality. Thus men’s gender identities and behaviour must be taken into account in order to develop effective strategies.

- The gender identities of women and men are closely interlinked. One way this is evident is in the division of labour by gender. Certain tasks and responsibilities are allocated to women and others to men – the division of labour itself creates interdependence. Changes for women thus also mean changes for men. More broadly, equality between women and men cannot be achieved by changes in the roles and responsibilities carried by women. To date, too few men have been involved in considering what a more equal society would look like and in working as partners with women to define and pursue strategies for equality. In part, this can reflect resistance to the implications of change. However, it can also be argued that more efforts must be made by equality advocates to develop alliances with those men who support efforts to construct a more equal society.

- For some development workers, a measure of the success of gender equality strategies is that equal numbers of women and men participate in a programme or an initiative. Equal treatment and equal opportunities for women and men is an important objective. However, a lesson learned from experience is that equal participation at this level is not always the most relevant or
effective means of ensuring that a programme or initiative supports the achievement of equality between women and men. Equality strategies are incorporating this lesson in two related ways:

- focusing on impact rather than activities/inputs – looking at how the overall initiative will affect women and men and gender equality, either directly or indirectly;
- focusing on equality as an objective rather than on women as a target group – considering how to select and design initiatives that can support equality as an objective, which may include, for example, changes in institutional practices, legislation, and planning methodologies, and include both men and women.

On men and gender equality strategies in development co-operation

Why do gender strategies focus on women?

Development co-operation organisations and many partner countries have formulated gender equality policies and strategies precisely because gender equality does not exist. Since it is women who are now generally excluded or disadvantaged in relation to social and economic resources and decision-making, efforts to identify and redress imbalances have focused on women’s situation and women’s views. In addition, most of those working to change unequal gender relations are women. But it is increasingly recognised that strategies must focus on men as well as women, and on the relations between men and women, in order to achieve real change.

Don’t men have gender too?

Gender is often overlooked as an aspect of men’s social identity. This stems from a tendency to consider male characteristics and attributes as the norm, with those of women being a variation on the norm. But the lives and activities of men as well as women are strongly influenced by gender. In most societies, men tend to have broader options, more opportunities and greater access to society’s resources than women. This is the result of a framework of legislation, policies, and institutions that incorporate attitudes and practices about what is appropriate to being male and female in a given society.

Cultural norms and practices about ‘masculinity’ and expectations of men as leaders, husbands, sons and lovers – in other words, gender – are important in shaping the demands on men and their behaviour. In many societies, they mean that men are expected to bear arms and fight in defense of the nation or community. They shape the expectation that men will concentrate on the material needs of their families, rather than the nurturing and care relationship assigned to women. There are thus disadvantages and costs to men in patterns of gender difference.

What is the role of men in achieving gender equality?

The achievement of equality implies changes for both men and women. More equal relationships will need to be based on a redefinition of the rights and responsibilities of women and men in all spheres, including in the family, the workplace and society at large. One of the challenges in moving forward will be to motivate more men to participate as partners in the process of defining the visions and strategies for a more gender-equal society.”
Resource 19  Condition and Position


Critical Questions:

- How and to what extent do project/program activities and organisational policies contribute to improving the conditions of women and of men?
- How and to what extent do they contribute to improving women’s position in society?

“Development projects generally aim to improve the condition of people’s lives. From a gender and development perspective, a distinction is made between the day-to-day condition of women’s lives and their position in society.

**Condition** refers to women’s material state - their immediate sphere of experience. If you ask a woman to describe her life, most likely she would describe her ‘condition’: what kind of work she does, the needs she sees for her and her children (clean water, food, education…), where she lives, etc.

**Position** refers to women’s social and economic standing relative to men. It is measure, for example, by male/female disparities in wages and unemployment opportunities, participation in legislative bodies, vulnerability to poverty and violence, and so on.

Within a household or community, women, men and children may share the same general conditions of poverty and disadvantage and the same need for improvements such as a safe water supply, adequate food and good health. However, women and men experience these conditions and the needs that arise from them differently. Given their work and responsibilities, the day to day condition of women’s lives may lead to priorities for a closer source of water and fuel, more income, and better health services. Men’s experience may shape priorities for more land, technology or farming inputs.

**Development projects/programs affect the condition of women and men’s lives differently.** A water supply project may significantly improve the condition of women’s lives, but make little impact on men’s. The situation may be reversed in agricultural projects with significantly negative impacts on women. For example, a project that introduces a new fertiliser may make women’s lives harder by increasing the labour of weeding (a traditionally female task).

**Development projects/programs affect the position of women** – negatively if existing areas of activity and control are eroded or eliminated; or positively if women are included as active change agents. Consider the impact on the position of women in a water supply project which involves women as pump caretakers, technicians, community water committee members and health educators compared to one in which women are mere users of new pumps.

Projects or programs targeted exclusively at women will not necessarily improve either their condition or position. This is especially likely if planners are unaware of the importance of gender relations.

**Development activities have tended to focus on women’s condition,** aiming to improve their ability to carry out traditional roles and responsibilities. Many sought to enhance women’s access to resources and benefits (especially income and education) without considering that lack of control over inputs, outputs and relevant processes would leave women without the means to sustain new
opportunities. Little attention has been paid to enhancing women’s position relative to men and promoting their ability to participate fully with men as agents of development and change.

Indicators of improvements in women’s position are usually less obvious than improvements in condition. Since they are more qualitative than quantitative, they are also harder to measure.

Some indicators are:

- increased acceptance by women and men of women as community decision-makers;
- greater personal and economic independence and self-confidence for women;
- increased women’s involvement in personal, family or community development;
- new, more visible, and more effective women’s organizations;
- more women in education and training programs;
- improved health of women and children;
- improvements in women’s legal status;
- a decline in violence against women;
- increased women’s control over their own fertility;
- reduced institutional discrimination and bias against women;
- increased public awareness of women’s issues.”
Implications for Policy and Strategy

1. Where women’s empowerment is stated as a policy goal it should be defined or explained.

“Because empowerment is a complex concept and arguably over-used term, it is necessary to use it with clarity and focus. The different understandings of power and their implications in terms of approach are useful in this context. Empowerment is a useful concept because it emphasises the idea of women as active agents in, rather than passive recipients of, development strategies. It also draws attention to the fact that the lives of poor and marginalised people, and the communities in which they live are shaped by political processes involving power, inequality and oppression. Empowerment should be used to bring these processes of power (and strategies to resist them) into focus, not to obscure as a vague slogan (Rowlands, 1995). Care is needed that the language of empowerment is not to be adopted instrumentally as a means to reach other goals.

2. Strategies for promoting women’s empowerment need to be integrated into development programmes

Policy definitions of empowerment should be translated into specific strategies in the context of development programmes. The Women’s Empowerment Framework adopted by UNICEF and other agencies may be helpful in the design, implementation, and assessment of programmes and projects aiming to promote women’s empowerment. However there is no quick “technical fix” to adopting women’s empowerment as a goal.

3. Empowerment is relevant to all programmes/projects and should not be confined to one area of development activity.

The multifaceted character of empowerment implies the need to examine its implications in all dimensions of women’s lives.

4. Different aspects of empowerment (e.g. political, economic, legal physical) should not be addressed in isolation.

Links between different aspects of empowerment need to be considered in programme planning and implementation.

5. The participation of women in planning at all stages is essential if development programmes are to be empowering.

More work is needed to devise means for wider and more meaningful participation by women in development planning. Participation fora may provide an opportunity for facilitating a process of a group or community’s own analysis of need and means for transformation. Attention should be given to including consciousness-raising aims as part of participatory techniques.

6. Since the context is crucial to understanding processes of empowerment, indicators of empowerment need to be devised specific to programmes.

This will be most useful if indicators are generated through a participatory process. Both qualitative and quantitative indicators are important and should in addition be underpinned by qualitative analysis.
7. Mainstreaming policies within agencies and policies/programmes to support empowerment in the work of agencies should be linked.

Internal agency adoption of gender mainstreaming is often described separately from agency gender policies promoting women’s empowerment. The links between strategies of gender mainstreaming and of women’s empowerment need further consideration. It may be particularly important to establish links with external organisations working specifically for women’s empowerment such as autonomous women’s organisations, when WID/gender is integrated throughout an agency.

8. Support for women’s organisations is a key strategy in promoting women’s empowerment.

Women must empower themselves, and women’s organisations are an important part of women’s individual and collective empowerment. More work is needed to establish what kind of women’s organisation are most effective for women’s empowerment and to look for ways for ways to support organisational development that empowers their members. Support for women’s organisations may be financial, but must also involve helping to create networks, and establish connections between autonomous women’s organisations and those in key positions of power. Funding mechanisms which minimise the bureaucracy in funding women’s initiatives need to be further developed.

9. Promoting empowerment also involves examining organisational culture, structures and processes and identifying where these may conflict with empowerment goals, e.g. in terms of accountability.

Efforts should be made to address these organisational issues, through, for example, retraining in participatory approaches, increasing the accountability of the organisation to beneficiaries, particularly poor women, increased flexibility in funding procedures and greater transparency in relationships with communities and organisations.”
Comparing Gender Frameworks

“When selecting a framework for your particular work, it is important to consider their main conceptual differences. In the following, we have listed the most useful questions to ask.

To what extent does the framework incorporate an analysis of social relations which goes beyond issues of gender?

Gender relations are context-specific; they vary considerably depending on the setting. They are shaped by other aspects of relationships between people, including economic status, race, ethnicity, or disability. All these social categories play a part in determining an individual’s power and status in their particular community. So, for instance, in any village gender relations will differ between the rich and the poorest community members.

How flexible are different gender frameworks?

Given time, gender roles and relations change naturally in any community. Sometimes, specific events such as conflict or economic crisis cause certain aspects to change rapidly or dramatically. In order to identify opportunities and constraints for working towards greater gender equity, development workers must be able to recognise both actual and potential changes in gender relations. No gender analysis can be static; it must recognise that change over time will occur, and examine how this will affect the society, and thus the project or programme. The Harvard Framework and the Longwe Framework in particular do not automatically include time as a variable; in contrast, the People-Oriented Planning (POP) Framework and the Social Relations Approach are centred on change over time.”(pp.22-23).

Does the framework mainly analyse social roles or social relations?

“A gender analysis which focuses primarily on roles takes as its starting point the gender division of labour, and the gendered distribution of resources. A gender-roles analysis therefore sees a community mainly in terms of who does what, who has what, and so on. Alternatively, a gender analysis which focus on relations sees a community mainly in terms of how members relate to each other: that bargains they make, what bargaining power they have, what they get in return; when they act with self-interest, when they act altruistically, and so on. The Harvard Analytical Framework can be considered a method of gender-roles analysis, whereas the Social Relations Approach is a method of gender-relations analysis”.(23-24).

What is the ultimate goal of each framework? Is it focusing on efficiency or empowerment?

“Gender-analysis frameworks concentrate on certain factors in women’s and men’s lives. The chosen focus reflects a set of values and assumptions on part of the framework’s designers. When you use a framework, these values and assumptions will ultimately influence the type of development interventions you select. It is important, therefore, to be aware, as far as possible, of the thinking behind the gender frameworks.

The efficiency approach to women in development is based on the understanding that it is inefficient to ignore women in planning a distribution of resources. (This approach lies behind the Harvard and POP frameworks.) Although this approach seems very sensible, there are times when it can come into conflict with wider issues of justice or women’s empowerment. As a consequence, the efficiency approach has been heavily criticised as follows. First, it does not challenge existing
gender relations, and so tends to lead to gender-neutral or gender-specific policies or interventions. Because resources, not power, are seen as central, it can also further tip the balance of power in the favour of men. For example, further resources will be allocated to men if it is judged efficient, even if this is to the detriment of women. Similarly, if it does not make a project more efficient to involve women then, following the logic of the efficiency argument you should not do so, and ignore issues of justice. This approach can be particularly problematic in countries where women are involved in production outside the house” (p25)

“Other gender frameworks explicitly have the aim of empowerment. These emphasise the transformation of gender relations, through women’s self-empowerment. ‘Because there are risks and costs incurred in any process of change, such change must be believed in, initiated, and directed by those whose interests it is meant to serve. Empowerment cannot be given, it must be self-generated. All that a gender transformatory policy can hope to do is to provide women with the enabling resources which will allow them to take greater control of their own lives, to determine what kinds of gender relations they would want to live within, and to devise the strategies and alliances to help them get there’ (Kabeer, 1994;: 97). (For more detail on different policy aims of gender-focused projects and programmes, see the Moser Framework, p32).

Of course it is perfectly possible to use the gender frameworks (or parts of them) in a way to subvert their stated goals. For example, the Moser Framework could be used to design projects which address women’s practical gender needs only, with no attempt to support women’s self-empowerment.

**What is the role of the planner in the framework?**

Implicit in each framework is the planner’s own view of his or her role, which can range from benign top-down planner to the planner as facilitator only. One gender framework – the Social Relations Approach – explicitly requires the planners to examine their own institutions and understand how the institutions bring biases into the planning process.

**Which gender frameworks can also be used in work addressing male gender identity and roles?**

In practice, gender-analysis frameworks do not tend to be used to plan interventions which target men or boys. However, a gender analysis should take place for all interventions, because they all have a potential impact on gender relations, and therefore on both sexes.

Furthermore, understanding gender relations is critical to understanding possibilities and constraints for working with men only. It is particularly critical to understand the ‘gendered’ nature of men in societies where gender roles are changing rapidly. There is an increasing awareness that gender identity cross-cuts other identity issues, including race and class, to affect men’s and women’s roles in the gender division of labour. Development organisations need to address these issues in the context of work with ex-combatants, in areas of mass male unemployment, in anti-violence projects, among migrant workers, and so on.

Most of the gender frameworks – except the Women’s Empowerment (Longwe) Framework – do look at the gender roles and relations of both women and men, and so could be used for projects which target men. The Moser Framework looks at the strategic gender needs of women only, but the DPU’s adaptation (see, Appendix, p.123) includes men as well, and can also be used with projects which address male gender. Gender Analysis Matrix (GAM) includes men as one of its four categories of analysis and can therefore be used for projects which target men.
Making your choice

Gender analysis frameworks have been designed for different purposes. These purposes include range from helping you carry out your initial research, planning and monitoring an intervention, to evaluating what it has achieved.

**Context analysis:** Frameworks give you a way of thinking about the context which shapes the relationships and dynamics of any situation or group.

**Visualisation and planning:** The framework’s tools provide you with a way of representing key points in a simple manner, to aid decision-making.

**Communications:** The tools help you share information, train people or sensitise them to gender issues.

**Monitoring and evaluation:** Framework tools can highlight the strengths and weaknesses of a particular development intervention.

Gender frameworks have sometimes been designed for use in a particular context. For instance, if you are working in emergency situations, there are two gender frameworks specifically designed for this (the People Oriented Planning Framework and the Capacities and Vulnerabilities Framework). When deciding which framework to use for any particular situation, it is important to consider what aspects are appropriate to your work, and what purpose you are trying to achieve.”
Strategic Objectives and Actions

No. 4  Women and Poverty, paras 48- 52. pp. 38-39

Para 48. “In the past decade the number of women living in poverty has increased disproportionately to the number of men, particularly in the developing countries. The feminisation of poverty has also recently become a significant problem in the countries with economies in transition as a short-term consequence of the process of political, economic and social transformation. In addition to economic factors, the rigidity of socially ascribed gender roles and women’s limited access to power, education, training and productive resources as well as other emerging factors that may lead to insecurity for families are also responsible. The failure to adequately mainstream a gender perspective in all economic analysis and planning and to address the structural causes of poverty is also a contributing factor.”

Para 49. “Women contribute to the economy and to combating poverty through both remunerated and unremunerated work at home, in the community and in the workplace. The empowerment of women is a critical factor in the eradication of poverty.

Para 50. “While poverty affects households as a whole, because of the gender division of labour and responsibilities for household welfare, women bear a disproportionate burden, attempting to manage household consumption and production under conditions of increasing scarcity. Poverty is particularly acute for women living in rural households.”

Para 51. Women’s poverty is directly related to the absence of economic opportunities and autonomy, lack of access to economic resources, including credit, land ownership and inheritance, lack of access to education and support services and their minimal participation in the decision-making process. Poverty can also force women into situations in which they are vulnerable to sexual exploitation.

Women and the Economy, Paras 155-156 pp. 95-98

Para 155. “Insufficient attention to gender analysis has meant that women’s contributions and concerns remain too often ignored in economic structures, such as financial markets and institutions, labour markets, economics as an academic discipline, economic and social infrastructure, taxation and social security systems, as well as in families and households. As a result, many policies and programmes may continue to contribute to inequalities between women and men. Where progress has been made in integrating gender perspectives, programme and policy effectiveness has also been enhanced.”

Para 155. “Although many women have advanced in economic structures, for the majority of women, particularly those who face additional barriers, continuing obstacles have hindered their ability to achieve economic autonomy and to ensure sustainable livelihoods for themselves and their dependents. Women are active in a variety of economic areas, which they often combine, ranging from wage labour and subsistence farming and fishing to the informal sector. However, legal and customary barriers to ownership of or access to land, natural resources, capital, credit, technology and other means of production, as well as wage differentials, contribute to impeding the economic progress of women. Women contribute to development not only through remunerated work. On the
one hand, women participate in the production of goods and services for the market and household consumption, in agriculture, food production or family enterprises.”

**Actions to be taken By Governments:**

**Para 165 (a)** Enact and enforce legislation to guarantee the rights of women and men to equal pay for equal work or work of equal value.

**(e)** Undertake legislation and administrative reforms to give women equal rights with men to economic resources, including access to ownership and control over land and other forms of property, credit, inheritance, natural resources and appropriate new technology.

**(h)** Review and amend laws governing the operation of financial institutions to ensure that they provide services to women and men on an equal basis.

**(j)** Revise and implement national policies that support the traditional savings, credit and lending mechanisms for women.

**(k)** Seek 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.
Background:
In XX, the Cabinet Submissions Format and Guidelines (December 1993) requested Ministries to explore the gender implications of each cabinet submission prepared by them, as follows:

“The impact of a policy option on women must be analyzed. The analysis should focus on the differential impact of various policy options on women and, where appropriate, on specific groups of women (such as older women, street vendors or women living in rural areas).

Furthermore, the analysis should consider whether the policy choice supports equality between women and men. The Ministry of Women’s Equality has developed an analytical framework tool – The Gender Lens - that may be of assistance to Ministries. Ministries are encouraged to consult with the Ministry of Women’s Equality in developing this component of the Cabinet Submission.”

The Gender Lens was prepared in response to this Government directive to assist Ministries to operationalise this directive.

To analyze the gender implications of any policy, staff must be able to answer the following two questions:

1. Does the policy discriminate against women in its outcomes?
2. Does it support full participation and equality for women?

In answering these questions, staff are requested to explore the following two areas of analysis:

- Self analysis

What we bring to our work; what knowledge, ways of working, information sources and methods, contacts and life experiences we use, and whether or not those methods, contacts and life experiences will help us to assess the implications.

- Factor analysis

The implications of the policy we are analyzing in terms of different factors. We have identified at least eight ways in which discrimination can occur or equality can be supported: legal, life experiences, systemic discrimination, economic equality, independence and dignity, violence against women, health and social issues, and equality.

1. Values Framework

- What personal and professional experiences, values and circumstances do I bring to this analysis

- How have I ensured that the diverse experiences, values and circumstances of individuals and groups who will be impacted by my policy issue are reflected in my document?
2. **Data and Information Sources**
   - Have I considered sources of information other than statistics/quantitative data?
   - What are my sources for statistics/quantitative data?
   - Do the statistics used in this analysis include information based on both women’s and men’s experiences? Are they disaggregated according to sex.
   - Is there literature or research material on this topic that I should read that presents women’s perspectives, experiences or voices?
   - Have I considered qualitative as well as quantitative data and information?

3. **Consultation and Language**
   - Have I consulted with women’s groups on my topic?
   - If I cannot consult women’s groups directly, how have I ensured that their concerns are known and reflected in my analysis?
   - Have I avoided using language that perpetuates stereotypes?
   - Is the language used in my document gender inclusive and respectful of all people?

4. **Differences and Diversity**
   - Have I considered how women from specific groups such as poor women, women with disabilities and indigenous would be affected by this policy?
   - Does this policy approach respect cultural and/or other differences?
   - Does this policy approach consider the needs of women indifferent regions? Rural and urban?

**Conclusion**

With these components as a framework, *The Gender Lens* can guide a gender-interested analysis of policy issues.
### Table To Illustrate The Distinction Between Sex-Disaggregated Statistics And Gender Data

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<td>60</td>
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<td>There are more boys than girls in the school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 of 40 are from poor households (25%)</td>
<td>35 of 60 are from poor households (55%)</td>
<td>Poor households make more effort to educate their sons.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Of the ten girls from poor households, 1 girl is from a Muslim family</td>
<td>Of the 35 boys from poor households, 22 are from Muslim families</td>
<td>Must be correlated with proportion of Muslim families in the population at large. Indicates that Muslim families place additional importance on boys’ rather than girls’ education. Special measures may need to be taken to educate parents about the value of girls’ education and support girls’ access to school.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls are absent from school when babies are born</td>
<td>Boys are absent from school in the dry season, to dig ditches</td>
<td>The dry season happens at the same time every year. Teachers can therefore plan the curriculum around those absences. Pregnancies and births are random, so girls are at a disadvantage, even if the total days absent are equivalent.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30% are malnourished</td>
<td>20% are malnourished</td>
<td>This tells us how girls are treated at home relative to boys. Nutritional level affect learning and retention. Boys and girls may both be able to attend school, but they cannot access the opportunity equally if girls are malnourished relative to boys.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic work 4 hrs before and after school, including water, firewood, cooking, cleaning, sibling child care, selected agricultural tasks</td>
<td>Domestic work 30 minutes after school, cattle</td>
<td>This has implications for homework. It has implications for discussion of entitlements, in relation to leisure time as a resource. Men’s privilege is often embedded in their position, invisible to the men who experience it. Making this privilege visible is a characteristic outcome of gender specific data and its use in development decision-making.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents not supportive of progress of girls on to high school (e.g. 38% of girl students’ parents interviewed responded positively)</td>
<td>Parents are determined sons will go to high school (e.g. 77% of boy students’ parents interviewed responded positively)</td>
<td>Without family support, social policy interventions or development project-specific inputs may not be long-term or yield lasting change. Work with parents is a possibility; so it work with village/community leaders. Multiple strategies are usually needed to make the necessary structural changes – building on the concept of social relations, the network of community relationships.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“Statistics are just people with the tears wiped off.” (Liv Uhlman.)

### A Gender Critique of Concepts Used in Neoclassical Economic Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Neoclassical Economic Analysis</strong></th>
<th><strong>Gender Analysis</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fundamental Concepts/Assumptions</strong></td>
<td>The reason why neoclassical analysis does not count women’s unpaid reproductive work, nurturing activity, just as it does not count the use of natural “resources”, is the implicit assumption that nurture and nature are free goods: unlimited in supply, infinitely renewable, with unlimited assimilative capacity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Resources:</strong> There is a fundamental distinction between a free resource and an economic resource. A free resource (good) is unlimited in supply, and its use carries no cost in terms of an alternative use sacrificed. Only scarce goods (in relation to unlimited wants) fall within the definition and scope of economics</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>The economic problem:</strong> The economic problem is how to allocate scarce resources among infinite competing ends. While the above free (unlimited) resources are used, they do not have an influence on the price and quantity of economic goods, and therefore are irrelevant to economic analysis.</td>
<td>If this assumption is removed, and women’s time and energy is understood as not infinitely elastic, then there is an economic link between unpaid reproductive work and paid productive work. There are trade-offs, and women’s work becomes part of the economic problem. It is no longer a question of autonomous economic and social spheres.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Homo Oeconomicus 1.</strong> The individual economic agent is <em>free</em> to enter into market transactions in a wage economy.</td>
<td>Women generally have nurturing obligations, principal claims on their time and energy. Some economists consider it as a reproductive “tax”, affecting their entry into paid work and their ability to mobilise money and make economic decisions about how much paid work they can do, at what price they will sell their labour, and what jobs and career paths they can take.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Homo Oeconomicus 2.</strong> The individual economic agent is able to exchange assets (as an owner of his own labour, land, capital resources) for money income (wages, profit), and thereby achieve more command/purchasing power on goods and services (consumer spending, accumulation).</td>
<td>Women often do not have the ownership of, entitlement to, their own labour, and no independent right to work. The assumption that the individual economic agent is a private agent and does not depend on the state is untenable. If the state, through the rule of law, cannot guarantee independent property rights for women, to their own labour, or to land and capital, and indeed to the security and freedom of physical movement, they are <em>excluded</em> from the labour, capital and credit markets. This failure of governance is also a key economic issue of efficiency and equity. At the root of it again is the treatment of women as “natural” physical reproductive and nurturing beings, rather than legal and economic agents with rights.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Homo Oeconomicus 3.</strong> The individual economic agent is willing to and does reveal consumption preferences. As a self-interested rational individual, he seeks to maximise own utility, and is able to chose among well-defined preferences</td>
<td>Women may not be able to exercise choice over well-defined preferences because of the circumstances under which they live (their social position), and their socialisation as self-effacing nurturing beings rather than ego-centred agents.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Economic agents are gendered agents.** The choice-theoretic model of neoclassical economics in not gender-neutral. It is based on a male model of the economic agent, and the allocation of resources is likely to vary substantially by sex.

This table was developed by Diane Elson of the Department of Sociology, University of Essex, UK. See also the Reference Section of this Learning and Information Pack.
Indicators, like any other methodological tool, have their limitations. Recognising these limitations is necessary for understanding what can and cannot be achieved by using them.

The major limitation of gender-sensitive indicators is that they do not provide information on wider social patterns: they will usually tell the analyst little about why gender relations have been shaped in a particular way and how these relations can be changed. They point to key questions rather than provide answers. Indicator systems should therefore be complemented by gender analysis, which involves examining often at a micro-level, the social relations between women and men, and the structural features of society which reinforce gender inequality and inequity.

Another limitation concerns the accuracy of data. Most indicator systems are developed from national censuses. However, much of the data in national censuses is subject to various problems, including infrequent collection, sex bias, poor enumeration and imprecise definition of key terms. In addition, because of differences in definitions of terminology between nations, indicators are often not comparable internationally. Census data should therefore be considered a pointer towards a certain trend rather than definitive evidence of that trend.

A key element in the use of indicators is to interpret correctly the normative element that is inherent in their construction. The same indicator may be interpreted differently in different settings. For example, a falling birth rate may be considered a positive trend in a densely populated country, but a negative trend in a sparsely populated country.

Care must therefore be taken in defining the norm or benchmark implicit in any indicator and against which change is measured. For example, in examining the status of women, is the norm the situation of men in a particular country, or is it women in other countries? Care must also be taken to ensure that when using indicators to compare gender equity across countries, the indicators have been collected using similar definitions of, for example, economic activity or literacy.

A further problem can be a lack of participation and cross-cultural dimensions. Recommendations for indicator systems and data sets are often developed by specialists, with limited participation from governments, NGOs or the general population. Indicators may therefore reflect the interests of a few experts rather than a general consensus; for this reason, as widespread participation in the development of indicators as is feasible should be encouraged.

Given these problems, caution should be exercised when using and interpreting indicators, especially when drawing cross-country conclusions.
Problem-solving and decision-making skills are critical for gender mainstreaming. Perceptions guide people’s decision and behaviour patterns. Individuals act according to how they imagine a situation, which may correspond more or less closely with reality.

The kind of knowledge needed for efficient gender mainstreaming is not simply an accumulation of facts, nor merely scientific evidence, but rather the capacity to identify and consider the various possible courses of action, bearing in mind different sets of criteria according to the specific situation.

**Surveying the Field**

Most decisions are probably made by people with little or not direct awareness of the gender equality dimensions of the decision to be taken. They rely heavily on information provided by others through personal communication or the media. But effective decision-making should avoid reliance on images of reality produced by others. Whenever possible, decision-makers should survey the field for themselves and use a variety of sources of information.

**Remain open-ended**

Decision makers rarely obtain all the information that they need on social, economic environmental or other problems. Something is always missing. Furthermore, they unconsciously give priority to some details that exclude others. Decision-makers should be aware of the hidden “etcetera” attached to each piece of information they obtain, and make open-ended interpretations.

**Avoid over-generalising**

A person who says “women feel….” Or women need…” Is creating stereotypes by implying that all women have a single set of values or goals. This is clearly nonsense. When decision-makers consciously avoid all-inclusiveness, their perceptions will be close to reality.

**Describe issues in terms of degree**

Individuals have a strong tendency to categorise issues and people in extreme terms, as either wrong or right, polluted or unpolluted, equal or unequal, exploiter and exploited. However, the complexity of reality and respect for the rights and freedoms of all call for a focus on the exact position of an experience between extremes, on the degree of “grey area” that must be taken into account.

**Ponder different viewpoints**

Individuals cannot assimilate all the available information about an issue. Instead the select information, filtering reality according to their goals, intentions, personal limitations, history, attitudes, etc. When they interpret problems they are saying something not only about the facts, but also about themselves. Severe interpretive problems can occur when individuals fail to realise that the images they create are personal, and may or may not match those of others, or fit the facts accurately.

**Date events**

Linking information with its date is often overlooked, yet it is critical for interpretive skills. Dating means noting changes in information over time. Economic, social and environmental information is rarely stable: knowing when it has been gathered can make a big difference to one’s analysis.
Think politically

Human development problems are complex. They do not mean the same to different individuals or groups throughout the world, nor within countries or communities or even within the household. In order to find lasting commitments and solutions to often conflicting interest and viewpoints, it is important to understand that nobody – individuals, group or institutions – can dictate “the answer” to problems. Solving problems is a process where solutions are found through free and equitable negotiations and transactions among different people, within the framework of laws and rules to which everybody adheres, but which themselves were agreed at a particular point in history, and may need adjustment according to new perceptions and understandings.

Check locations

The information that individuals acquire and organise about economic, or social situations or problems has much to do with geographic, cultural and environmental contexts. To produce more complete images, individuals need to interpret environmental, economic or social information, not only in terms of their own regions, but also in terms of those of their information sources.

Think in complex ways

In reality, natural and socio-economic phenomena are connected in various ways. While on first analysis it may be convenient to study phenomena through specialised disciplines, lasting and effective solutions to complex problems must rely on a commitment to identifying interconnections and relationships.

Weighting the short and the long term, the practical and the strategic

Ensuring the present without compromising the future is a critical concern raised by short and long-term decision-making. Decisions on the short or long term require a delicate sense of balance, where the central conditions is the conviction that no livable future can be built on the ruins of the present, and that compromises to address practical or short term concerns can undermine strategic and longer term outcomes.

Working cooperatively

Most of today’s major concerns, such as poverty, environmental degradation, insecurity, absence of peace and violations of human rights, are interconnected. Handling them properly means developing a sense of solidarity that extends beyond neighbourhoods, communities and countries to embrace the whole world. Human development can only be attained through the co-operative effort of individuals and nations. Experts, decision-makers and citizens are all players in the quest for human development.
For information on the Web of Institutionalisation, developed by Caren Levy and her colleagues at the Development Planning Unit of University College, London, please visit http://www.ucl.ac.uk/DPU/geindex.htm or contact dpu@ucl.ac.uk
The Story of the Fox and the Crane
(equal treatment does not mean the same treatment)

The Fox invited the Crane to dinner. He served the food on a large flat dish. The Crane with her long, narrow beak could not eat.

The Crane invited the Fox to dinner. She served the food in a deep vase, and so the Fox with his short, wide face could not eat.

Both friends had an equal opportunity for nourishment, but each time one of them could not take advantage of this opportunity.

The development challenge in every case is to identify barriers to the opportunities that exist, and custom design the adjusted interventions that will lead to equality of outcome.
Exercise 1 Unconscious Gender Bias in a Development Organisation

One year, during the annual performance appraisal process, the Director of the Bureau for Resource Mobilisation at Dev-Fund noticed an anomaly. All the members of his staff who were promoted that year were men, and all the women who had applied for promotion had been turned down. He assumed that fundraising from male-dominated donor organisations was probably difficult for women, and inhibited their performance, and that they needed more training in the preparation of funding proposals, and especially in presentation skills for intimidating circumstances.

This preliminary diagnosis leapt from an assumed problem (poor staff performance) to the conclusion that one situational factor (assumed limited advocacy skills) was the cause. Being committed to gender balance in his staff, the Director was ready to discuss a training program with the Training Division.

Fortunately, he was persuaded to allow a more thorough diagnosis of the causes of the non-promotion of female staff. To his surprise, numerous factors were identified, not all of which were within his control:

- Dev-Fund had traditionally been “male” and “top down” in its orientation, and female staff found this an uncongenial environment in which to suggest innovations. Women were therefore perceived by their supervisors as less dynamic, less “assertive”, than many of the male staff.

- Women were unintentionally assigned to the “softer” donors, but as a result they could not prove their worth to their supervisors. If the woman succeeded, the performance was discounted as easy. If she did not do well, no further support was offered because she had fulfilled the expectation that the work was difficult for women.

- Female staff were less frequently invited to social events. In addition, several of the female staff had domestic responsibilities that limited their social activities after work. As a result, women on the whole they did not get to know the main decision-makers in the donor community, which had a negative influence on their ability to mobilise resources.

- Throughout the existence of the Bureau for Resource Mobilisation, its senior management had been male. The survey found that junior male staff had more professional contact with the Bureau’s senior managers than female staff. As a result, they had been more exposed to management experience.

- A review of the Bureau’s promotion record over 15 years revealed that no women had been promoted while serving on the Bureau staff, while approximately 60 percent of male staff had been promoted during the same period. In addition, of the 33 support staff that had served in the Bureau during the same period, only two had been men, and both of them had been promoted out of the Support Staff Category. None of the female staff had requested or received such promotion.

Indeed, when Dev-Fund undertook a post-employment survey of departed staff, the survey revealed that many of female staff had moved to the private sector, and were performing successfully, including in demanding sales related positions. Thus, it was unlikely that lack of skills were the causes of perceived low performance of women, and their disillusionment with the organisation. It became clear that organisational culture (the roles, relationships, rewards, and rites) were inadvertently stacked against women who wanted to stay.

Questions
1. For the factors identified, discuss which relate more directly to practical needs and which to strategic interests of female staff.

   Or

2. Review the factors identified in the staff survey, and discuss the practical and strategic dimensions of each.

3. If you were a senior manager faced with the same situation, how would you approach it?

4. What conclusions and recommendations can you draw for the Office of Human Resources, which is monitoring gender balance in the organisation.
Facilitator’s Notes for Exercise 1
Unconscious Gender Bias in a Development Organisation

The following issues should emerge in a discussion of this exercise.

- Issues of training, and assignment to more advantageous experience relate to women’s practical gender needs to be as well equipped as possible to perform well as their given assignments.

- Issues related to the relationship between domestic and professional responsibilities, the facts of a male-dominated management and rates of promotion have to do with the way in which the society and the organisation within it is structured, and hence require attention to women’s strategic gender interests.

- There is a tension between assertion of women’s equal rights in the workplace, and the actual implementation of these rights, which may require quite fundamental restructuring of an organisation, and the attitudes of its management and staff.
Exercise 2  A Fish-smoking Project

In a fishing community it primarily men who catch fish and women who do the processing. Women smoke the fish and market it.

The women who have long experience of this activity have cultivated *kostamente* relationships with specific fishermen. These relationships are mutually beneficial. The men are assured of regular outlets for their fish, and the women obtain an established supply of fresh fish for their activities.

Both women and men invested a great deal of time, energy and resources in establishing and maintaining *kostamente* relationships.

A development agency started a project to enhance the productivity of women’s activities, based on a detailed analysis of women’s income-earning activities. Under this project, women were encouraged to use chorkor fish smoking ovens, which were capable of using fuel more efficiently, and producing a higher quality and quantity of smoked fish each day. The decision to introduce these ovens was taken following a gender analysis that established the division of labour in the community.

Despite the good intention of increasing women’s income, the project did not succeed in its objectives. The fishermen, perceiving women to be the beneficiaries of outside funds, raised their prices. This undermined the benefits that women gained from their increased productivity, and tended to push up fish prices for the community at large.

The project assumed that all women would take up the chorkor oven. However, many women continued to use traditional methods, and for them too fish prices rose, or they had to use the lower quality frozen fish rejected by the industrial fishing fleet. As more and more women turned to industrial fishing fleets as a source of supply, men started selling their fish directly to the fish processing plant.

Discussion

1. What lessons about gender analysis can be drawn from this project?
2. Did greater access to resources increase women’s control over their own lives (empower them)? What else would be needed to achieve this?
3. What alternative analytic approaches could have been taken, and with what likely outcome in changed project design.

Facilitator’s Notes.

This case study is based on an actual project. The project was designed following a Harvard analysis of the division of labour, but unfortunately the whole question of relationships and obligations between men and women was overlooked, as was the possibility of differences among groups of women. There is no indication of how far the women and men concerned participated in the design of the project, which actually had the effect of undermining long standing and mutually beneficial productive relationships between women and men.

Women had greater access to technological resources, but there is little if any evidence of increased control over their lives.

Other frameworks would have included analysis of community relations, and assessed the effect of the intervention on women’s empowerment. The social relations framework would have examined the sexual division labour in the context of the market for fish, which would have indicated the threat from industrial fishing.
Exercise 3  Bumpy Roads

The Government of this relatively rich country wanted to boost its coffee production to enhance exports and its balance of trade.

With the help of the World Bank, rural access roads were built through 80% of the uplands where coffee is produced. The intention was to facilitate the movement of extension officers around the district, and the transport of coffee to marketing centres, and thence to the port. The roads stimulated expanded coffee production, and the incomes of farmers increased significantly.

In the region in question, most of the agricultural work is done by women, whether on land owned by their husbands, or as day-labourers in the case of landless families. Men are chiefly responsible for cattle husbandry.

Income from the sale of major cash crops through marketing centres belongs to the landowner, while income generated from the sale of surplus crops grown for family consumption belongs to the women growing the crops. As a result of the expansion of coffee production, the amount of labour needed in the coffee groves has increased substantially.

Four years later an impact assessment of the project found that family incomes from coffee had increased, as had cattle, bicycle, tractor and radio ownership. There had been a general improvement in local trade, and the use of fertiliser and pesticide had expanded, stimulating secondary growth in agricultural industries. There had been a significant improvement in the country’s balance of payments thanks to increased coffee exports. The project was pronounced a success.

However, the incoming World Bank Country Director had recently been alerted to gender equality concerns, and requested a gender expert to review the project and the impact assessment findings. This expert examined data related to social reproduction as well as economic statistics, and issues such as control over the factors of production. He found that a serious level of malnutrition had emerged in the communities concerned, especially among children. There was a decline in school attendance generally, which was particularly marked among teenage girls. Paradoxically, survey results indicated that a majority of the wives of landowners identified themselves as worse off than five years previously, while a significant number of landless women identified themselves as better off over the same period.

**Question**

Using the Harvard Framework to analyse the division of labour and access to goods and resources in this agricultural community, discuss why and how these mixed results were achieved.
Bumpy Roads Facilitator’s Notes

The key social factors affecting this case study are that ownership of property is thoroughly gendered, and that men can control the labour of the women in their families. It is important also to be aware of class as well as gender differences.

The following three points should emerge in discussing the gender analysis.

The early impact assessment failed to grasp the underlying situation because there was not analysis of differences within the family, and there was an assumption that improvements in the situation of the agriculture industry mean improvements for all. The increased ownership of commodities said to indicate increased well being referred in fact only to items that are typically owned by men. **The fact that in many societies family income is not regarded as a joint and shared resource is often overlooked by western analysts.**

It is clear from the story that coffee production had increased as a result of the roads, and that this had resulted in increased workload for those working in the coffee plantations. As this work was undertaken by women, it is not surprising that child nutrition had declined, and food preparation is exclusively a female responsibility. **It is likely that all children will be under greater pressure to work in the fields rather than go to school, but teenage girls are the most likely to succumb to that pressure.**

The central paradox exposed by this case is that the wives of plantation owners experienced themselves as worse off, while landless women felt better off. The key here is ownership of property, in this case income. The wives could be compelled to work longer hours in the plantations, with all the added income accruing to their husbands. This meant that they had less time to work on their own crops, and hence their income and well-being declined. For poor and extremely poor women who had no land on which to grow personal crops, any increase in family income is an improvement. **Richer women had to work harder with no additional reward, and at the expense of their own income, poorer women had more work, and the reward was more likely to come to them.**
Internet Resources

All sites tested and accessible as of September, 2000

UNDP Monograph on Men and Masculinities:
Research Methods: Bill Trochims Centre for Social Research Methods, http://trochim.human.cornell.edu/
Bridge, Institute of Development Studies http://www.ids.ac.uk/bridge/
Department of International Development http://www.dfid.gov.uk/
Development Planning Unit, University College, London http://www.ucl.ac.uk/DPU/geindex.htm
Eldis http://ntl.ids.ac.uk/eldis/gender/gender.htm
Great Network, Gender Research and Training http://www.uea.ac.uk/dev/greatnet/index.htm
OECD, Development Assistance Committee http://www.oecd.org/dac
UNDP Gender in Development Programme http://www.undp.org/gender
UNIFEM http://www.unifem.undp.org/
Women’s Net South Africa www.womensnet.org.za
Women Watch http://www.un.org/womenwatch/
Commonwealth Secretariat http://www.thecommonwealth.org/ an excellent source of documents on
gender mainstreaming, gender analysis, gender indicators and gender economics, among other
topics related to gender and development.
SEPED Conference Paper Series http://www.undp.org/seped/publications/conf_pub.htm #4,
Budgets As If People Mattered.
The UN Men's Group for Gender Equality http://www.undp.org/gender/programmes/men/men_ge.html

References, Books and Articles

DAWN’s Platform for the Fourth World Conference on Women


**Additional Gender Analysis Models**

(GLPAV) *Gender Lens, Policy Analysis Version* (Government of British Columbia, Canada – Ministry of Women’s Equality)

Exercise 3


**Gender Economics**


WHAT IS GENDER ANALYSIS?

• An intrinsic dimension of policy analysis

• Identifies specifically how public policy affects women and men differently

• Demonstrates that policy and implementation cannot be gender neutral in gendered societies

• Is supported by specific analytic tools
WHAT COMPETENCIES ARE REQUIRED TO UNDERTAKE GENDER ANALYSIS?

- Familiarity with main Gender Analysis Frameworks
- Ability to select the Framework most likely to yield solutions to the development problem to be addressed
- Able to interpret data
- Able to use strategic decision-making skills
TYPOLOGY OF PROJECTS TO ADDRESS WOMEN’S NEEDS AND INTERESTS

- Women Specific
- Women’s Component
- Integrated
- Mainstreamed
LINKING GENDER ANALYSIS WITH POLICY AND PROGRAMMES

- Decision-making
- SWOT Analysis
- Force Field Analysis
SUMMARY OF GENDER ANALYSIS ACTIVITIES

• What to Do

• What to Ask
“READING ANALYSIS”?

- Links between the document and the policy context
- Disaggregation
- Consistent reference to gender equality
- Use of gender expertise
GENDER INDICATORS

- Sex-disaggregated statistics
- Gender statistics
- Gender-sensitive indicators
GENDER ANALYSIS FRAMEWORKS

A. Harvard Analytical Framework

B. DPU\(^10\) Frameworks
   a.) Moser (triple roles) Framework
   b.) Levy (web of institutionalisation) Framework

C. Gender Analysis Matrix (GAM)

D. Equality and Empowerment Framework (Longwe)

E. Capacities and Vulnerabilities Framework (CVA)

F. People Oriented Framework (POP)

G. Social Relations Approach Framework (SRA)

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\(^{10}\) These frameworks were developed by Carolyn Moser and Caren Levy of the Development Planning Unit (DPU) of London University
TYPOLOGY OF POLICY AND ANALYTIC APPROACHES TO ADDRESS WOMEN’S NEEDS AND INTERESTS

- Welfare
- Equity
- Anti-poverty
- Efficiency
- Empowerment
GENDER ANALYSIS CONCEPTS (PART 1)

- Sex and Gender
- Gender Relations
- Changes in Gender Identity and Gender Relations
- Gender Division of Labour
- Gender Roles and Responsibilities
- Productive work
- Reproductive work
- Differential Access to and Control over Resources and Benefits
GENDER ANALYSIS CONCEPTS (PART 2)

- Practical Needs & and Strategic Gender Interests
- Condition and Position
- Transforming Gender Relations
- Transformatory Potential
- Empowerment
CONCEPTS USED IN GENDER ANALYSIS (PART 3)

- WID/GID
  - Women in Development (WID)
  - Gender in Development (GID)

- Equity
  - Equity and Sustainable Development
  - “Understanding Gender Equity”

- Equality
  - Gender Equality
  - Gender Equality as a Development Objective
  - Discrimination
  - Systemic Discrimination
  - Equality of Outcome (Substantive Equality)
SUMMARY OF A GENDER IN DEVELOPMENT (GID) APPROACH

The Community Situation

Development Strategies

Development Actions

Goal
**WHAT A GOOD ANALYSIS SHOULD PROVIDE**

- Gender Awareness - Understanding of Gender Relations and their Implications for Development Policy and Implementation

- Analysis of the Division of Labour - Activities, Access and Control

- A Review of Women’s Priorities: Restraining and Driving Forces

- Recommendations to Address Women’s Practical Needs and/or Strategic Interests
MEN AND MASCUlINITY IN GENDER ANALYSIS

- Biological Destiny
- Cultural construction
- Discourse(s) of Power