

Gender Technical Notes

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Technical Note 1: Engendering Participation

1. Ensuring the participation of both women and men in the PRSP participatory processes

Participatory consultations are an essential part of the PRSP methodology; and the participation chapter of the Sourcebook clearly demonstrates that consultation with intended beneficiaries and with other stakeholders is essential to the identification, design, implementation and evaluation of the PRSP actions. There are four levels of intensity of participation and citizen involvement:

1. Information sharing
2. Consultation
3. Collaboration
4. Empowerment

Although the need for beneficiary consultations is now widely acknowledged and is a required part of the preparation of every PRSP, experience has shown that socially and economically weak and voiceless groups will frequently be excluded from the consultation process. In societies where community councils and local political bodies are largely run by men, or where men are considered to speak for the whole family, it will frequently be the case that most women will have very little involvement in the selection, design or management of projects (Box 10). It should be emphasized, of course, that other vulnerable and voiceless groups such as ethnic or religious minorities, the landless, the poorest households, or people of either sex under a certain age; may also be excluded.

Despite the extensive evidence showing that women frequently are excluded from, or have very little voice in, community decision-making; very few of the PRSPs or I-PRSPs completed by January 2001, acknowledge the special problems affecting the participation of women, and even fewer referred to measures which had been taken to ensure the adequate representation of women.

Experience from the first 30 I-PRSPs and PRSPs shows that in order to ensure the active participation of women, it is essential to have a gender-sensitive participatory strategy, with specific measures to overcome the specific cultural, political, logistical and economic barriers to women's participation which exist in different countries. If such proactive measures are not taken, it is very likely that women will be largely excluded from the PRSP process, and consequently the poverty reduction strategies run the danger of ignoring the priorities of at least half of the target population.

Box 10 Barriers To Women's Participation And Voice

The following are examples of cultural, institutional and logistical barriers which constrain the participation of women in the PRSP consultation processes.

* Often only men are invited to meetings arranged by government authorities. In many cultures it is assumed that important visitors should meet only with community leaders and high-status officials, and it can be difficult for those planning the visit to understand why visitors might wish to meet with lower-status people of either sex.

* Women frequently do not attend or do not speak out in community meetings.

* Cultural traditions may limit the extent to which women can meet with outsiders. This is obviously more of a problem for male government officials and Bank staff, but foreign female visitors may also face similar (although more easily resolvable) difficulties.

* Meetings may be arranged at a time and place convenient for outside visitors and for male community members, but not convenient for women.

* Visitors may be told what it is assumed they want to hear. This means they only receive information that reinforces culturally acceptable stereotypes.

* In many countries, most extension workers are men, and during field visits they normally meet with male community members. They are often trained mainly in a project's technical aspects and see their role as "selling" technically sound projects to uninformed or reluctant villagers – rather than as listening to, and receiving feedback, from, the community.

Source: Bamberger and Blackden. 1997 Gender Issues in Participation

The Gambia I-PRSP [Box 11] illustrates some of the practical measures which countries can take to ensure the participation of women. A number of countries such as Cameroon and Tanzania also adopted measures such as quotas for women in the consultative processes, to ensure that women were represented.

Box 11: Engendering The Participatory Process: The Gambia I-PRSP

The following measures were taken to ensure the active participation of both men and women in the design and implementation of the I-PRSP:

- An operational principle of the PRSP was to use affirmative action to ensure the participation of women and youth.
- A study was commissioned to recommend ways to strengthen gender participation.
- Measures were taken to improve gender representation in local decision-making.
- Women's councils were involved in local decision making
- A stated goal of the 1999-2000 participation poverty assessment was to take into account gender dimensions.

For more information: see The Gambia I-PRSP November 27, 2000. Available at: www.worldbank.org/poverty

Guiding principles for gender sensitive participation in Poverty Reduction Strategies

The Participation chapter of the Sourcebook identifies seven guiding principles for participation in Poverty Reduction Strategies: country ownership, transparency, inclusion, feasibility, sustainability, continuous improvement and outcome orientation. Each of these principles requires attention to the gender dimension [Box 12]. Given the fact that participatory consultation is a new concept in many countries, which must still overcome many constraints, it is particularly important to ensure to strategies are in place to ensure that the participation of women is not overlooked.

Box 12 Guiding Principles Of Gender Sensitive Participation In Poverty Reduction Strategies

Country Ownership: Government commitment and leadership and broad country ownership are critical for effective formulation and implementation of poverty reduction strategies. ***Ensure that government agencies responsible for gender and women's affairs, and leading non-government women's organizations are also fully involved.***

Transparency: Transparency of the consultative process and in reporting outcomes at the national and local government levels builds trust, ownership, and support among civil society. ***Ensure that women's organizations are fully informed.***

Inclusion: The PRS process will be more effective if the knowledge and experience of a range of stakeholders, including the poor and vulnerable groups, ***especially women***, is tapped and their perspectives systematically incorporated into the design and implementation of the country's poverty reduction strategy.

Feasibility: Participatory processes ought to build as much as possible on existing governance and political systems. ***Special attention must be given to the representation of women in countries where their representation in the governance structure is weak.***

Sustainability: Participatory processes that build on existing mechanisms are more likely to be institutionalized and sustained over time. Similarly, policy reforms are more likely to be adopted if they are informed by, and consistent with, a widely shared understanding of poverty and its causes. ***Capacity building and organizational development may be required to strengthen women's organizations, and to gain acceptance for women's participation in community councils.***

Continuous improvement: The PRS is an iterative process of participation, feedback, planning, implementing and assessing against set targets and indicators. Regular participatory processes will play a key role in continuously improving the design and implementation of public actions to reduce poverty. ***Monitoring indicators must be developed and used to ensure the continued participation of women and other vulnerable groups.***

Outcome orientation: Participatory processes for the PRS can be designed and conducted with specific outcomes in mind (such as to fill critical information gaps, or to engage specific groups ***such as women and other vulnerable groups*** that have previously not been in a position to contribute). This will yield more focused information for planning and implementing poverty reduction strategies.

Source: Based on Box 2 of ***Participatory Processes in the Poverty Reduction Strategy*** with additional emphasis placed on gender issues concerning each principle.

Getting started

The components of the Participation chapter framework also provide guidelines for engendering the participatory process:

- Build-on and enhance existing processes of participation. With respect to gender this will often involve developing new ways to integrate both women and men into the existing processes. A strategic issue in many communities is whether to encourage or require the inclusion of women in previously male-dominated community councils and similar bodies, or to create parallel consultative mechanisms for women. While the latter option is often the most viable, it is essential to develop mechanisms for reconciling any differences in the priorities identified by women and men [see Box 14 for an example of a traditional community conflict resolution mechanism in Angola].
- Ensure that all key stakeholders are involved.
- Design a structured participation plan. This should spell out the strategy for ensuring that participatory approaches are built into all stages of the PRSP including: poverty diagnostics, identification of priority actions, resource allocation and budget preparation, implementation and monitoring [see Box 13].
- Address conflicting interests and develop trade-off strategies.
- Permit participation in implementation and monitoring of interventions to reduce poverty, not just their formulation.

Some of the first steps for integrating gender into the participation process include:

1. Identifying the key stakeholders and ensuring they will all be invited to participate in the consultations.
2. Assessing the current scope, level and quality of participation. To what extent are organizations representing both women and men involved, and what are the factors limiting their fuller participation?
3. Identifying and putting in place measures to strengthen the capacity of weak and vulnerable groups (including but not limited to) women, to participate.
4. Assessing the existing capacity of government and other agencies to organize participatory processes. Where necessary rapid capacity building activities such as training, study tours or technical assistance may be required to ensure that the capacity exists to manage the participatory processes.

Box 13 Common Elements Of A Gender Sensitive Participation Action Plan

- **Objectives** of the participatory process in the context of the PRS and the starting point in the country (for example, civic engagement nationally, understanding of the key public action choices and enhancing the participation of both women and men).
- **Institutional arrangements** for coordinating and facilitating the formulation of the PRS –i.e. location and composition of the coordinating committee and strategies for ensuring the representation of the interests of both sexes.
- **Key stakeholder groups** to be involved and the purpose of their participation. This will include an analysis of the key gender dimensions of the PRSP and the groups best qualified to address these issues. Particular attention will be given to ensuring the representation of the poorest and most vulnerable groups of women, men and indigenous populations.
- **Participatory approaches**, including specific methods, to be used to involve stakeholders. This will include proposals for ensuring the representation of women in traditionally male-dominated sectors, as well as conflict-resolution strategies for reconciling different priorities identified by men and women.
- **Milestones** for assessing the progress of participatory processes. Recommendations must be included on how to monitor the level of participation of women. For example, it is not sufficient to record the number of women attending meetings, it is also necessary to report on the extent to which they participated in the discussions and in the selection of priority PRSP actions.
- **Capacity development** required for organizing and strengthening participatory processes. This must include an analysis of the special capacity building needs of women and how they will be addressed.
- **Cost implications and any financing gaps.** The budget estimates must include any funding required to fill in data gaps with respect to sex-disaggregation of key statistics, and gender assessment studies to fill gaps in information on women's priorities.

Source: Based on Box 8 of *Participatory Processes in the Poverty Reduction Strategy* with additional material added on gender dimensions.

2. Ensuring the participation of both women and men in the participatory process.

Where participatory consultation mechanisms are used, it is essential that they be designed to ensure the full participation of women (and other vulnerable and voiceless groups). Men and women contribute in different ways to poverty reduction, and are affected differently by poverty reduction measures—**consequently, the participatory** processes for preparing and implementing the PRSP, for prioritizing key actions, and for defining and monitoring performance indicators, need to be explicitly gender-inclusive so as to capture and act on these key differences. Box 10 described some of the cultural, logistical and other barriers to the participation of women in community decision-making and in social and political activities inside and outside the community.

Box 14 Using Traditional Mechanisms For Reconciling Different Priorities Of Men And Women: The Angola Social Fund

The Angola Social Fund [FAS] has developed mechanisms in cooperation with community leaders for reaching agreement on the choice of projects. In the Caponte Pequena community in South Angola, the majority of men indicated that the construction of a school was their top priority. However, most of the women favored a community wash-house, as women had to walk several kilometers to the river to wash clothes. The *soba* [traditional community leader] called both women and men to a meeting and listened to their arguments. He then indicated that the wash-house should be the first priority given the very considerable time-saving to women, and the indirect benefits to men as well. The community accepted this judgment and the lavanderia was constructed. The second project, which has now also been completed, was the school.

In some communities it may be necessary to have separate sessions for women and men, while in other cases special techniques must be used to ensure that women are actively involved. Some steps which can be taken to promote women's participation include:

- a. Assessment of existing consultative mechanisms to evaluate the extent to which different groups of women (single/married/widowed; young/old; poor/less poor etc). In many cultures the most important kinds of consultation are face-to-face so the assessment must capture the dynamics of traditional culture as well as observing what happens in formal meetings.
- b. Assessment of the barriers to women's participation. In some cases the barriers may be cultural , but in many others the reasons are more due to the fact that meetings are held at times and places convenient to men; and the level of women's participation could be significantly increased simply by consulting them on when and where to hold the meeting.
- c. Assessment of the extent to which women feel that their views and priorities have been reflected in the choice of projects (even if they were not directly involved in the formal consultation process).
- d. Experimentation with, and evaluation of, different mechanisms to increase women's participation.
- e. It is also important to hold meetings at a time and place convenient for women. In some cases it may be necessary to provide or pay for transport so that women can attend. Child-care arrangements may also be required.

3. Listening to Women

The importance of listening to and consulting with groups that may be affected by project activities has been documented in a draft report (World Bank 1994: *A Review...*) issued by the Bank's Southern Africa Department that explores the significance of, and methodology behind, "systematic client consultation." In that report, the word "systematic" describes the need to consult and listen on a continual basis, while the phrase "client consultation" refers to open communication between the Bank and government agencies, service providers and beneficiaries.

Box 15 presents additional evidence confirming the need to listen to women is presented in a survey of women's participation in 121 rural water supply projects in 49 different developing countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America (Narayan, 1994). According to the survey, only 17 projects achieved high levels of women's involvement. The reason was stated as follows:

While the measures of women's participation and overall participation were correlated, achieving high levels of beneficiary participation does not necessarily result in high levels of women's participation, because the determinants of women's participation are different. Women in most rural areas face many constraints to participating in development projects: unless women's involvement was specifically targeted and resources invested, it did not happen. (World Bank, A Review... p.5.)

Box 15 In Most Cultures, Unless Women Are Specifically Targeted and Strategies Developed for Their Empowerment, They Will Not Be Reached

In most rural societies, poor women are more disadvantaged than **poor** men. Women work longer hours and have less free time; they have less income; they are more isolated; they receive less information; they have poorer nutrition; and they have less education and are more often illiterate than poor men. Women are rarely community leaders and do not participate in community decisionmaking bodies. Women are the primary carriers of water, but have limited power, access and control over most resources. ***In this context, how can women possibly be reached without special support and investment in their development?*** **Source:** Deepa Narayan. 1994. *The Contribution Of People's Participation: 121 Rural Water Supply Projects*. Workshop on Participatory Development. May 17-20 1994. p. 120

Barriers to Listening

The participation learning project has amply documented the difficulties for government and international agencies in communicating with intended project beneficiaries and involving them in design and implementation. This paper makes continual reference to additional cultural, political, administrative and economic factors which can make it even more difficult to communicate with women. Here are some of these problems:

- Meetings arranged by government authorities are frequently with men only. Where women are included, they tend to be from higher economic groups. In many cultures it is assumed that important visitors should meet only with community leaders and high-status officials, and it can be difficult for those planning the visit to understand why visitors might wish to meet with lower-status people of either sex.
- Women frequently do not attend or do not speak out in many community organizations.
- Cultural traditions may limit the extent to which women can meet with outsiders. This is obviously more of a problem for male government officials and Bank staff, but female staff may also face similar (although more easily resolvable) difficulties.
- Meetings may be arranged at a time and place convenient for outside visitors and for male community members, but not convenient for women.
- Visitors may be told that the situation is what it is supposed to be, or given the report it is assumed they wish to hear. This means they get information that reinforces culturally acceptable stereotypes (see Box 16)

- In many countries, most extension workers are men, and during field visits they normally meet with men. They are often trained mainly in a project's technical aspects and see their role as "selling" technically sound projects to uninformed or reluctant villagers.

Other approaches include:

- Use of stakeholder analysis to ensure that all groups affected by the project are identified and contacted.
- Use of culturally appropriate participatory assessment methods that permit women and other economically and socially vulnerable groups to express opinions and concerns.
- Use of gender analysis to ensure that the needs, resources and constraints of different groups of women are understood and considered
- Understanding and use of women's communication networks.
- Ensuring that all communications are available in local languages.
- Working with and through NGOs and other local intermediary organizations.

Box 16 Getting beyond the cultural stereotypes

Visitors to communities and project sites are frequently misled by well-meaning people concerned about making a culturally proper impression. For example:

- In many cultures, parents do not wish their daughters to attend mixed schools or schools with male teachers. In some traditional cultures, parents may not wish their daughters to attend school at all after a certain age. Beneficiary-assessment studies have found situations where parents ask the school to record their daughter as attending (to comply with the law) while she is in fact kept at home.
- In Balochistan, Pakistan, on the other hand, large numbers of girls were attending boys' schools, the only ones available. However, the girls did not appear on school attendance records as it was assumed that education authorities would disapprove.
- In some cultures a stigma is attached to working women because it is assumed that the husband should support his wife or wives. Consequently a woman may tell outsiders that she is a housewife even though she works regularly at farming or other economic activities.

Box 17 gives guidelines for listening to women, ensuring that their perspectives are understood, informing them about proposed projects, and involving them fully in project selection, design and implementation.

Box 17 Checklist: Listening to women, and facilitating their participation

Listening to Women

- Do women have access to resources and benefits?
- What role do women play in the community or a given sector? Do they have separate needs and distinct constraints?
- Do women have the opportunity to voice their opinions freely?
- How is information on women's roles obtained (from women's groups, from interviews with village women and local women leaders, from extension workers, female staff resident in the project area, from NGOs working with women)?

Informing Women

- Where and when do women meet? Will they meet and discuss issues freely in the presence of men?
- How is information about meetings, projects and other community activities disseminated?
- Is it by word of mouth, newspaper, radio or non-traditional forms of information sharing? Or via males of the community?
- Are education and literacy levels barriers to women's participation? What is the most effective means for removing these barriers?

Involving women

- What influences the nature and extent of women's participation?
- Do women have special capacity building needs?
- Do community meetings consider women's schedules? Are meeting sites accessible to women? Is it safe to travel to meetings? Is transportation provided?
- Should separate meetings be organized for women or should they be encouraged to participate alongside men?

The Importance of Women's Groups

Women's groups play a significant role in promoting project participation by women as well as men in many traditional male-dominated societies, where women are inhibited from freely voicing their opinions.

- In many cultures women prefer to meet in women only groups as they feel this gives them more freedom of expression (see Box 18 for an example from Malawi).
- In agriculture, women's groups provide a socially acceptable way for male agents to work with female agents.
- Groups provide a safe and familiar forum for women to express their concerns.
- Training, service delivery and credit are often more readily accessible to groups.
- The rate of information-sharing and dissemination is usually highest when new knowledge is presented to groups rather than to individuals.
- Women perform many of their multiple tasks such as fetching water or fuelwood in the company of others.

Box 18 Using Traditional Women's Groups in Malawi

Women unanimously preferred meeting in women-only farmers' groups over mixed-sex groups in Malawi's Phalombe Rural Development Project. When meeting with extension agents, women felt freer to discuss and develop their ideas. In mixed-sex groups, the men delayed repayment and used the money for other businesses. Women, who have better repayment rates than men, preferred to obtain credit in women-only clubs.

Source: Saito and Spurling, 1992. Developing Agricultural Extension for Women Farmers. World Bank Discussion Paper No. 156.

In the Gambia's WID project, one method of promoting community participation has been to replicate *Save the Children's* use of traditional women's groups to identify high-risk pregnancies for referral to medical centers. Simple pictorial cards enable the women to assist traditional birth attendants in the identification. Because most of the women were illiterate, *Save the Children* training sessions incorporated formal training with traditional birthing and healing knowledge and were conducted in groups to encourage oral exchange of experience and information (Schmidt, 1994). As a result of this process, the task manager reported a significant increase in referrals.

5. Gender and participation issues in the project cycle

The project cycle concept was developed to ensure uniformity of approach and accountability, and to provide a rigorous procedure for project identification, appraisal and design. It has been called the "blueprint" approach, meaning that a high proportion of resources are invested in preparation for a project before it begins. Implementation then proceeds in a very structured manner with predetermined time schedules, objectives and indicators of performance.

Participation requires much greater flexibility in project preparation, resource use, implementation schedules and even definition of objectives. These socially responsive approaches are variously known as *process* and *participatory planning/management approaches*. The following paragraphs illustrate some of the issues involved in promoting the participation of women during project identification and design. Table 5 then presents a checklist of gender and participation issues at each stage of the project cycle..

Gender and Participation Issues in Project Identification and Preparation

- Has *stakeholder analysis* ensured that all groups of men and women potentially affected by the project have been identified?
- Have the needs and opportunities for increasing women's productivity been studied? What are the opportunities, and to what extent could and should they be incorporated into the project?
- Has an analysis been conducted of the needs and opportunities for *increasing women's access to and control of productive resources*? To what extent could and should these be incorporated into the project?
- How is the project likely to affect women's and men's property rights and access to natural resources?

- To what extent can available data be disaggregated and analyzed by sex? Has this been done? What are the major gaps and what could be done to fill them? Has available data been analyzed by gender?
- Has gender analysis been used to disaggregate the household group in order to understand the access of different household members (particularly women and girls) to resources and decision-making? Have time-use studies assessed the likely response of women to increased income-earning opportunities in agriculture or off-farm employment?
- Have gender-appropriate communication methods been used to ensure that all potentially affected and interested groups are aware of and understand the project? What are the main gaps and how could they be filled?
- How do women's and men's needs and opportunities relate to national development priorities?
- Have major women's and men's stakeholder groups been identified and consulted?

Gender and Participation Issues in Project Planning and Design

- Do designs specifically consider women's as well as men's roles, constraints and needs?
- Have potential negative impacts on women as well as men been identified and measures taken to overcome them?
- Has full advantage been taken of women's as well as men's indigenous knowledge?

Table 7 Gender Issues In Participatory Approaches To The Project Cycle	
Project Cycle Phase	Gender issues
Project Identification	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What needs and opportunities exist for increasing the productivity of both women and men?
Selection and Preparation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What might increase women's access to and control of resources? • Will full use be made of gender-disaggregated data? • Have gender-appropriate communication methods been used? • How do both women's and men's needs and opportunities relate to national development priorities? • Have major stakeholder groups representing both women and men been identified and consulted?
Appraisal and Negotiation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is social analysis built into conventional project analysis? • Are both women's and men's organizations, as well as NGOs involved in dialogue?
Planning, Design and Procurement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are process designs used instead of blueprint approaches? • Do designs specifically consider the roles, constraints and needs of both sexes? • Have potential negative impacts on both women and men been identified and measures taken to overcome them? • Is indigenous knowledge of both sexes seen as a resource and used fully? • Are flexible financial structures designed to be accessible to both sexes? • Are project designs simple with relatively short implementation periods?
Implementation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are community management structures established to ensure representation of both sexes? • Is the involvement of both sexes in community project monitoring assured?
Monitoring and evaluation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Are implementation processes as well as input/output fully monitored? • Does participatory monitoring specifically involve both sexes? • Are data disaggregated to project impacts on individual household members? • Are proper baseline studies built in to ensure that impacts on non-beneficiaries are also studied?
Operations management, ensuring sustainability and new project generation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Have agreements been reached at an early stage on responsibility for maintenance? • Are both women's and men's groups built up to ensure project sustainability and expansion?

Technical Note 2: Data Requirements For Gender-Responsive Policy Analysis And Monitoring And Evaluation

Sector	Indicator	Level of analysis				Period over which change can be measured		
		Macro	Sector	Project	Household	Short-term (within 2 years)	Medium-term (2-5 years)	Long-term (5-10 years)
Opportunities								
Time Budget and Time Poverty:– Comparison of time use by women and men. Source: Sometimes available in poverty assessments of household surveys (such as LSMS). The information can also be collected from rapid community surveys, or through focus groups.	Hours per day women spend collecting water and fuel and on reproductive and household management tasks.		X	X	X	X	X	
	Comparison of time women and men spend on different tasks and total hours per day on all tasks		X	X	X	X	X	
Employment and Labor Force Participation: Comparison of male and female workers Source: Basic information usually available from national labor statistics. Additional information may require firm-level surveys.	Unemployment rates	X	X			X	X	X
	Labor force participation rates	X	X			X	X	X
	Gender segregation in the work place	X	X				X	X
	Comparison of earnings by sex	X	X				X	X
	Wage discrimination (gender comparison of wages for the same job, controlling for experience and education)						X	X
	Gender discrimination in labor legislation	X	X				X	X

Capital and Assets: Comparison of male- and female-headed households and of individual males and females Source: <i>Sometimes available in Poverty Assessments and household surveys but will often require special surveys</i>	Comparison of capital and assets owned by women and men	X	X	X	X		X	X
	Changes in women and men's capital following different kinds of economic and other crises		X	X	X		X	X
	Access to credit		X	X	X	X	X	
	Average size of loans to women and men		X	X	X	X	X	
Capabilities and Human Capital								
Demographic: Comparison by sex Source: <i>Available from demographic statistics</i>	Infant mortality rate	X		X			X	
	Under 5 mortality rate	X		X				X
	Life expectancy at birth	X		X				X
	Maternal mortality rate	X		X			X	X
	Proportion of women in the over 50 population	X		X				X
	Proportion of widows	X						X
Education: Comparison by sex Source: <i>Ministry of Education</i>	Gross primary school enrollment rate		X	X		X	X	
	Gross secondary school enrollment rate		X	X		X	X	
	Progression to grade 5		X	X		X	X	
	Household expenditure on girls and boys education	X		X	X	X	X	
	Adult literacy	X	X	X			X	X

Health and Nutrition Comparison by sex Source: <i>Ministry of Health Household expenditure, poverty assessments and household surveys. Follow-up household surveys may be required.</i>	Proportion of under-five population underweight	X	X			X	X	
	Proportion of under-five population stunted		X	X		X	X	
	Proportion of under-five population wasted	X		X		X	X	
	Adult HIV rates	X					X	X
	TB prevalence	X					X	X
	Household expenditure on girls and boys health	X		X	X	X	X	
	Proportion of women between certain ages who use contraceptives	X		X	X	X	X	
Security								
(Economic) Vulnerability: – Comparison of male- and female- headed households and of males and females. Source: <i>Sometimes available from household surveys. Participatory research may be required in a sample of communities. A number of qualitative survey methods, such as the Social Weather Surveys in the Philippines, have been developed for this purpose.</i>	Proportion of time below the poverty line during the previous month and year	X		X		X	X	X
	Likelihood of moving out of poverty	X		X		X	X	X
	Exposure to (gender-based) violence <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Incidence of domestic violence • Exposure to violence and sexual harassment in public • Exposure to violence in military conflict situations 	X		X		X	X	X
Social Capital: Comparison of male- and female-headed households and individual men and women. Source: <i>Transfer data included in some household surveys. Special surveys will often be required.</i>	Amount of income, goods, and services given and received through inter-household transfers	X			X	X	X	X
	Number of households or individuals with whom the household maintains an exchange network				X	X	X	
	Participation in formal and informal organizations				X	X	X	

Empowerment								
Political Empowerment: Qualitative examination of women's status and comparison with men for different elected and appointed offices. Source: <i>Information will often be available from women's organizations and legal associations. The Humana Institute has collected information on gender differences in rights for over 100 countries.</i>	Constitutional and legal guarantees on women's right to own property	X					X	X
	Gender discrimination in labor legislation	X					X	X
	Gender discrimination in marriage and family law	X					X	X
	Women's right to vote	X					X	X
	Proportion of women in parliament and other elected offices	X					X	X
	Number and proportion of women in the cabinet	X					X	X
	Number and proportion of women in community and local councils	X				X	X	
Control over household resources by sex. Source: <i>Some gender-disaggregated expenditure data is often available from household surveys such as LSMS. Special studies combining quantitative and qualitative methods may be needed to complement these surveys.</i>	Consumption by individual household members of food and other basic essentials	X		X	X	X	X	
	Role of individual household members in control over money and other household resources	X		X	X	X	X	
	Contribution of different household members to the household economy				X	X	X	
	Decision-making authority in key areas (household consumption expenditures, household capital expenditures, children's education)				X	X	X	

Technical Note 3: Using The Findings Of Poverty Diagnostic Studies To Identify Gender-Responsive Policy And Project Options For PRSP

OPTIONS	EXAMPLES
Opportunity	
Issue 1. Women's Time Burden	
Option 1. Provision of intermediate means of transport	<p>South Africa: AFRIBIKE Project. In 1998 the Institute for Transport and Development Policy (ITDP) joined with the Africa Cultural Center to launch a bike project that teaches self-employed women to ride, repair, and maintain bikes so they can improve their businesses. The women do not pay for the bikes, but the \$75 course fee covers the training, workshops, repairs, and the African instructor/mechanic's salary. When the course ends, each participant receives the bike she worked on, for free.</p> <p>Guinea and Senegal: Plans are underway for the replication of the AFRIBIKE experience in National Rural Infrastructure projects in Guinea and Senegal.</p>
Option 2. Bringing services closer to the community	<p>Morocco: A recent World Bank study found that the lack of adequate potable water figured as women's highest-ranking problem in many Moroccan villages. Fetching water is a woman's task and young girls often are expected to help out, which keeps them out of school. Based on the results of this study, the Morocco Rural Water Supply and Sanitation project placed its highest priority on infrastructure to improve access to drinking water. This intervention has already resulted in increased school attendance among girls.</p>
Option 3. Labor saving devices	<i>Examples to be added.</i>
Issue 2: Insecure property rights	
Option 1: Property rights legislation	<p>Tanzania: The Land Act of 1998 and the Village Land Act of 1998 included specific measures to protect women's access to land. The provisions included: (a) family land is protected by a presumption of co-occupancy; (b) married women must give their consent before their husbands can dispose of land, (c) women must be represented equitably on the National Land Advisory Council; (d) discrimination against women is prohibited whenever a village council reviews an application for a customary right of occupancy, (e) village councils are restricted from allowing land assignments that would defeat a woman's right to occupy land under a customary right of occupancy, and (f) any provision of customary law that supports discrimination against women is declared void and inoperative.</p>
Option 2. Legal literacy	<i>Examples to be added</i>
Issue 3: Gender wage gap	
Option 1. Labor legislation	<p>Philippines: The Labor Code is the primary legislation governing labor and employment relations in the Philippines. Since it took effect in 1975, amendatory and supplemental laws have been enacted, principally to respond to emerging trends and issues in employment relations. These affect sectors that employ a high proportion of women such as garments, footwear, and the textiles industry. The provisions affecting subcontracting and home-based work are of particular benefit to women. (ILO website)</p>

Option 2. Vocational training	<i>Examples to be added</i>
Issue 4: Lack of access to credit and other productive resources	
Option 1. Micro-credit programs	<p>Bangladesh: The Grameen Bank was established in 1976 to examine the possibility of designing a credit delivery system that would provide banking services targeted at the rural poor. It currently reaches over two million people, with cumulative lending of about \$2.1 billion. The Bank's main activity is making small loans (usually a few hundred dollars) to small enterprises in agriculture, distribution, crafts, trading, and similar activities. The participatory nature of the Bank's services and its emphasis on women entrepreneurs and employment creation have raised hopes of reducing poverty through this approach.</p> <p>India: The Self-Employed Women's Association (SEWA) is an organization of poor, self-employed women workers. SEWA's main goals are to organize women workers for full employment and self-reliance so they can obtain work security, income security, food security, and social security (health care, child care, and shelter). Many of the organizations within SEWA are savings and credit organizations formed by women in urban and rural areas who need banking and credit services. These women have formed their own savings groups, which in turn have formed their own district-level associations and include women workers of varied trades in many villages.</p> <p>Latin America: ACCION International is a nonprofit organization dedicated to reducing poverty by providing loans and other financial services to poor and low-income people who start their own small businesses. ACCION is an umbrella organization for a network of microfinance institutions in fourteen Latin American countries and ten U.S. cities. ACCION seeks to bring this opportunity to as many of Latin America's poor as possible by developing microcredit institutions that are financially self-sustaining and jointly capable of reaching millions of people.</p>
Option 2. Property rights reform	Tanzania: Described above
Option 3. Hiring and training female agricultural extension workers.	Gambia: In The Gambia, the percentage of female agricultural extension workers grew from five percent in 1989 to the present level of sixty to seventy percent as a direct result of the World Bank's multi-sectoral Women in Development (WID) project. The Gambia makes a special effort to encourage women's participation in small ruminant and poultry extension services.
Issue 5: Constraints on women's access to employment and income-earning opportunities	
Option 1. Public Works Programs	Lesotho: The Road Rehabilitation and Maintenance Project (RRMP) became effective in January 1997. During the course of project implementation it was discovered that more than 60 percent of all workers in the road sector are female. The Ministry of Works (MOW) is the implementing agency for IDA-financed road in Lesotho.. Female workers represent more than 60 per cent of the labor force. The Chief Engineer of the Labor Construction Unit of the Ministry of Works (MOW) is a woman, as are some MOW road engineers and contractors. There is strong evidence that the participation of women in Lesotho's road sector has a substantial social as well economic benefit in the longer term, because women are frequently promoted to supervisory positions. The women were found to be good gang-leaders in handling selection of workers, upkeep of the hand tools, and fair distribution of food. Therefore the women were promoted to supervisory positions.
Option 2. Micro-credit	See above

Option 3. Apprenticeship programs	India: The Vocational Training Project supports the long-term program of the Ministry of Labor (MOL) to modernize and restructure the National Vocational Training System (NVTS). One of the project's main components is modernizing craftsman and apprenticeship training through re-equipping selected Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) and developing related training systems, extending trade coverage of the National Apprenticeship Training Scheme, and increasing women's access to training in modern sector and high-tech trades by constructing new ITIs for women and adding women's wings to existing ITIs. .
Capability and Human Capital	
Issue 1: Lack of access to contraception	
Option 1. Access to pre-natal care	<i>Example to be added</i>
Option 2. Girl's education	Pakistan: Service rules were modified to allow women educators to take leadership positions at the central and district levels in Balochistan. In addition to senior policy-level positions within the Department of Services and General Administration a position was created for a female District Education Officer (DEO) within each of Balochistan's 26 districts, with full staff and resources. This expanded the number of female education administrators at the local level from two to 26. Additional positions for female administrators at the sub-district level were created to closely manage and support rural and far-flung girls' primary schools and teachers. Currently, half of the region's 26 districts have fully operational female DEO offices.
Issue 2: High female mortality rates	
Option 1. Maternal-child care	Argentina:-PROMIN-Maternal and Child Health and Nutrition Project , -World Bank. Argentina 's highly developed health system still faces significant problems, such as high rates of maternal and infant mortality .Because many of these problems could be prevented by access to good quality health care, PROMIN strategies and project components consist of: (a) placing a high priority on lowering infant mortality and morbidity rates, (b) providing coverage in municipalities in which the poor represent at least 30 percent of the population, (c) improving primary service delivery, (d) modernizing and financing primary health care and improving hospital efficiency, (e) using integrated management of childhood illnesses, (f) improving equity in access to health care, (g) strengthening community participation, (h) establishing indicators to monitor the population covered by the program, (i) decreasing adverse outcomes related to poor pre-natal care by increasing the number of check-ups during pregnancy, and (j) providing nutrition interventions for the most vulnerable mothers and children. Chad: Safe Motherhood Project. Maternal mortality in Chad is among the highest in the world. In response to this challenge, the government and donors developed a National Health Development Plan to increase access to quality basic services in health, nutrition, and family planning. The World Bank has provided financing for the complementary Health and Safe Motherhood Project, which is designed to (a) enhance capability at the central level to support regional health services, (b) ensure accessibility to low-cost essential drugs, and (c) improve access to basic health services in two specified regions. (See <i>Chad: The Safe Motherhood Project, Strengthening the Health System</i> , World Bank Findings 150, January 2000).
Issue 3. Girls not attending school	
Option 1: Toilets and separate washing facilities for girls.	Bangladesh: Female Secondary School Assistance Project (FSSAP) , World Bank. The FSSAP represents an integrated package approach incorporating multiple interventions. One component consists of building and improving toilets, tubewells, and water supply and sanitation programs at schools.

Option 2: Scholarship programs for girls.	Bangladesh: Female Secondary School Assistance Project (FSSAP) , World Bank. The specific economic, cultural, and religious environments in Bangladesh combine to depress demand for girls' education, so that girls either never enroll in school or withdraw earlier than boys. The situation becomes considerably worse at the post-primary level, as the direct costs of schooling rise. This project illustrates how monetary incentives can reduce the direct cost of schooling and encourage participation. A major component of the FSSAP is the provision of stipends for girls attending secondary schools. These stipends cover nearly half of a girl's annual direct educational costs, including tuition, textbooks, supplies, uniforms, and transportation. The project includes five additional components that address out-of-school and in-school constraints to enrolling girls in secondary education and promoting positive community values about educating girls. Since the project's inception, the number of girls enrolled in the program has increased each year.
Security	
Issue1. Insecure property rights	
Option 1: Property rights legislation:	See above
Issue 2. Violence against women	
Option 1: Community capacity building	Zimbabwe: The Mussassa Project works with local police and prosecutors to sensitize them to issues of domestic violence and rape. (For more information, see Shelagh Stewart. 1992. "Working the System: Sensitizing the Police to the Plight of Women." In Margaret Schuler, editor, <i>Freedom from Violence</i> . New York: UNIFEM.) Costa Rica: El Instituto Legal de las Naciones Unidas y Desarrollo (ILANUD) offers gender sensitivity training, emphasizing violence against women, to prosecutors, judges, lawyers, and other professionals. In 1992 the project conducted 32 workshops throughout Latin America. (Programa Mujer, Justicia y Género, ILANUD, San Jose, Costa Rica)
Option 2: Police reform	Latin America: Creation of women-only police stations , which have spread from Brazil to Colombia, Uruguay, Peru, and Costa Rica. Data from Brazil's special police stations show that women-only units have greatly facilitated the reporting of abuse. In Sao Paulo, for example, reported cases went from 67 in 1985 to 841 in 1990. These stations registered 79,000 of the 205,000 crimes against women reported nationally between July 1991 and August 1992. This suggests that the number of reported cases would be much higher if women's police stations were more widely available in other states. (For a list of programs in Latin America, see "Inventario de Programas de Atención y Prevención de la Violencia a Nivel Municipal" by Programa de Prevención de la Violencia de la División de Desarrollo Social, InterAmerican Development Bank, http://www.iadb.org/sds/document.cfm/546/ENGLISH/pub/1535).
Option 3: Safe transport	<i>Examples to be added</i>

Issue 3. Female headed households	
Option 1: Targeted transfers	Honduras: The “Bono Madre Jefe de Familia” program was targeted to female-headed households that met an income criteria and had children attending primary schools. Teachers determined who was eligible for food coupons. Recognizing that many women are in unions not legalized by formal marriage but in which the male contributes to the household welfare, or that not all legal husbands are present and contributing to the economic welfare of the household, the project considered “real” union status to be a more accurate reflection of poverty than “legal” union status . (Source: Grosh, Margaret E. Administering Targeted Social Programs in Latin America: From Platitudes to Practice. Washington, D.C.: World Bank).
Option 2: HIV/AIDS prevention programs	<i>Examples to be added</i>
Empowerment	
Issue 1. Lack of participation in decision-making.	
Option 1: Quotas for female council members	East Timor: Community Empowerment and Local Governance Project (CEP) , World Bank. This reconstruction program will deliver community grants directly to the sub-district level for projects proposed by individual villages and hamlets. The grants will have a special window targeting the most vulnerable social groups, including war widows, handicapped resistance veterans, and the elderly. In addition to these grants, the CEP will address the reconstruction of cultural heritage and civil society. Because the loss of so many male combatants created a large number of extremely vulnerable female-headed households and widows, the CEP includes a requirement that 50 percent of the elected hamlet representatives who will form the new local governance structure be female. To accomplish this unprecedented political gender equality goal, each citizen is granted two votes, one for each gender.
Option 2: Participatory planning to ensure the involvement of women.	Malawi: Malawi Social Action Fund Project (MASAF) , World Bank. MASAF funds the upgrading and construction of community infrastructure such as schools, health facilities, community water points, rural and urban markets, and granaries to help women gain better access to health and education facilities and employment opportunities. MASAF is designed to ensure that female-headed households (FHH), poor women, and other disadvantaged groups benefit fully from the project. Promotional activities focus on women’s priorities and needs and support women’s involvement in the design, implementation, and management of subprojects. Women’s representation in Community Project Committees (CPCs)—which are formed at the community level through public and democratic processes and are responsible for identifying community priorities and coordinating cooperative efforts for cash or in-kind contributions— is emphasized. As a result, an average of 30 percent of CPC members are women, and women often hold key positions within the committee. A MASAF monitoring and evaluation system will track the participation of women in community projects and will assess the impact of these projects on female beneficiaries, especially in areas and types of projects where opportunities to reach women have previously been missed.
Issue 2. Disempowerment of widows.	
Option 1: Reforming succession laws.	<i>Examples to be added</i>
Option 2: Awareness campaigns	<i>Examples to be added</i>

Technical Note 4. Checklists and Promising Approaches for Incorporating Gender in the Major Sectors

Most PRSPs have identified their priority investment sectors from among the ten economic and social sectors presented in this technical note. This Technical Note identifies potential gender issues in each of these sectors, and recommends some of the promising program approaches which have been used to address these issues. Using these approaches will help that the PRSP responds to the needs of both sexes, and that both women and men share in the program benefits.

1. Agriculture, land rights and rural development

Checklist of issues:

- What are the differences in the food and cash crops grown by men and women?
- How do men's and women's distinctive roles in agriculture and livestock production contribute to development goals, such as improvement of household nutrition and welfare and internal and external growth of the agriculture and livestock sector?
- How have new investments and growth in agriculture and livestock production affected men's and women's labor supply and earnings?
- What agricultural technology services are available to male and female farmers? Do these services consider gender-differentiated roles and corollary agricultural technology needs in agriculture? Is information and advice on agricultural technology targeting the right gender?
- Do women and men work jointly or separately in agriculture and livestock production? What are the implications of these patterns for the type of agricultural technology services they require?
- Are men and women organized to increase their agricultural productivity and if so, how are they organized? What are the implications of men's and women's different forms of organization for providing agricultural technology services to them?
- What different constraints do women and men face in using services—for example, conflicts with other activities such as domestic chores)? How could services be provided to take into account these gender constraints—for example, timing and location of services and mechanisms for transmitting information?
- How would targeting of agriculture technology services to either men or women affect their productivity, earnings, and family welfare? How would that, in turn, alter decision-making and expenditure patterns in the household?

Land and Property Rights

- Are there gender differences in the constraints to land ownership?
- What is the relationship between men's and women's land ownership and agricultural production and productivity by gender?
- What is the interaction with land markets? What are the gender-differentiated barriers to participating in credit programs as they relate to land? Have provisions been made to allow spouses of household heads to use titles for credit purposes?
- How has land affected household bargaining power, intrahousehold resource allocation, and corollary household welfare?
- How have land programs affected men and women differently? What is the resulting impact on the household in bargaining power and household welfare and security? What are the implications for designing future land programs?

Promising approaches:

[see Technical Note 3 for examples of projects strengthening women's property rights. Opportunities section Issue 2]

- Strengthening the decision-making role of women farmers by working through traditional women's organizations—for example in Nigeria.
- Reforming land laws to remove discrimination against women and to permit women to use property as collateral for loans, for example in Tanzania. Experience has shown that these laws require rigorous implementation to raise legal literacy and to ensure that women's rights can be enforced.
- Micro-credit programs are an effective instrument for opening up new economic opportunities for women, but they need to be complemented by supporting extension and marketing services.
- Improving access to rural transport for farmers of either gender is an important way to remove a major constraint to the sale of agricultural produce.

2. Environment and natural resource management

Checklist of issues:

- Gender differences in responsibility for cutting and transporting fuel.
- Who is responsible for the management and maintenance of community water supply.
- Gender differences in responsibility for terracing, tree planting and other environmental protection measures.
- Gender differences in responsibility for grazing and watering cattle and for ensuring they do not damage drinking water or vegetation.

Promising approaches:

- Training both women and men for environmental management and using this as a source of income generation.
- Designing intermediate means of transport for women and men to transport fuel and water which save time and energy but do not damage footpaths and vegetation.

3. Education

Checklist of issues:

- What are the gender differences in literacy rates, educational enrollment and attainment (by career choice and number of years of schooling), dropout and retention rates, and reasons for school dropout?
- What are the implications of gender differences for programs designed to increase boys' and girls' educational achievement levels? Do programs need to be tailored to the needs and circumstances of boys or girls?
- Are gender stereotypes transmitted through teaching methods and materials?
- How do teaching methods and learning environments affect boys' and girls' educational achievement differently? What are the implications for teacher training programs?
- How do differences in educational achievement affect labor market opportunities for men and women? What is the effect of education interventions such as career guidance and peer programs?
- Do the type and quality of informal and formal training available to women and men differ?
- Does the household structure and income differentially affect boys' and girls' school attainment? Could education programs be designed to keep girls and boys in school target families by household structure and income?
- Do changes in household wealth affect boys' and girls' schooling differently?
- Is there a trade-off between school and market or home-based work for boys and girls?
- Does lack of child care differentially affect boys' and girls' school attendance? What are the implications of boys' and girls' market and home-based work on programs designed to increase educational attainment and achievement?

Promising approaches:

[see Technical Note 3 for examples of projects strengthening girls school enrolment and educational performance. Capabilities section Issue 3]

- Scholarship programs to encourage girls to continue, enter, or remain in secondary school have proved an effective way to reduce the family's opportunity cost of sending the girl to school. These programs can also be structured so that parents must agree that the girl will not be married.
- Access to transport through travel vouchers or through encouraging the private sector to provide transport services for girls has also been effective.
- The provision of culturally acceptable school environments—separate toilets, female teachers, and physical separation of female and male students—is often a constraint, particularly as it may increase the costs of providing education.

4. Health and Violence

Checklist of issues:

Gender differences in health risks and access to health services:

- What differences exist in the health risks faced by men and women? How do these differ in timing, severity (incapacitating or not), prevention, and treatment? What are the implications for health service delivery?
- What are the differing disease profiles for men and women at all stages of the life cycle?
- Does availability of and access to health services differ by gender? Does gender-based streaming within the medical and allied health professions affect male and female use of health services? Are men and women treated differently due to social perceptions?
- What are the gender-differentiated effects of health care reform?
- Within the family, does gender affect health care and nutrition levels?

Reproductive health and sexually transmitted diseases

- What are the reproductive health needs—such as family planning, prenatal care, diagnosis and treatment of sexually transmitted disease (STD), and infertility treatment—of women and men? Are reproductive services addressing these needs, and in what ways may they be different for women and men?
- How are men's and women's roles in reproduction changing? How do reproductive health programs take men's roles and needs into account?
- What is the incidence of induced abortion? What are the characteristics of women who have abortions? What is the incidence of mortality and morbidity due to post-abortion complications? What are the health costs involved?
- What is the incidence of adolescent pregnancy? What are the characteristics of those who do and do not become pregnant? In both instances, was sex education provided in school? What was the quality of the program offered?
- What is the incidence of AIDS and STDs by sex? What are the trends? How do AIDS and STD programs take gender into account?
- How do gender roles affect the ability to prevent adolescent and unplanned pregnancy and sexually transmitted diseases? Do information campaigns address gender differences?

Gender and violence

- How does gender violence affect reproductive health behavior and contraceptive decision-making?
- What is the prevalence and magnitude of different types of violence—for example, political, economic, and social violence—by gender?
- Who, by sex, are the perpetrators and victims of the violence types?

- What are the challenges associated with effectively measuring prevalence and magnitude of violence—for example, share of women and men reporting all incidence types? Do violence indicators appropriately measure gender impacts?
- What are the violence risk factors for men and women? Are men and women affected differently by certain types of violence perpetration and victimization?
- What are the links between violence types and gender roles, relations, and stereotypes?
- How do economic cycles and unemployment affect violence by gender?
- How might violence affect the implementation of a proposed project or policy? For example, does violence result in gender-differentiated access to and control of resources or project participation, and vice versa?
- How are issues of violence being addressed by the judicial, health, NGO, education, private business, and police or military sectors? Are gender differences in the perpetrators and victims of violence taken into account by these sectors?

Promising approaches:

[See Technical Note 3 for examples of projects providing access to contraception, maternal-child, and combating violence against women. Capability and Human Capital issues 1 and 2; and Security issue 1.]

- Health-sector budget planning should be based on a consultative process that considers the views of women and men, young and old. Due to biological differences, women and men have very different health needs, and it is essential to ensure that adequate resources are allocated in the budget to cover women's health needs. There are many cost-effective health-sector investments—such as STD and HIV/AIDS prevention, family planning, pre-natal and post-natal care—that can have a significant impact on women's health at a very low unit cost. It is essential to monitor the budget to ensure that these resources are actually allocated and used in an effective way.
- There are a number of cost-effective ways to improve women's health, including preventing unwanted pregnancies, supporting safe pregnancies and birth, providing good care for pregnant women, providing food support to people in weak positions, testing for breast cancer and cervix cancer, and preventing sexually transmitted diseases. Providing primary health facilities in close proximity to where people live is one of the most effective ways to make health services accessible to women.
- It is essential to ensure that enough women are trained as doctors and health specialists and that necessary provisions—such as adequate transport and housing allowances—are made to allow them to work in rural as well as urban areas.

5. Transport

Checklist of issues:

- What are the gender differences in the time and distance traveled?
- What are the main transport needs of men and women? How adequate are present travel and transport services for each of these needs?

- What are the main economic, time, and cultural constraints on men's and women's access to transport?
- Are both men and women involved in the selecting and designing transport projects? How effectively do projects respond to the needs of both sexes?
- Do men and women differ in their willingness to pay for transport? How does this affect the availability of services?

Promising approaches:

[See Technical Note 3 for examples of projects reducing women's time burden, providing microcredit for acquiring transport facilities, and generating employment for women through road maintenance. Opportunity issues 1, 4 and 5]

- In many rural and urban contexts, bicycles offer a cost-effective way to increase women's access to employment, markets, and public services. Bicycles can also be modified for use as rural ambulances and for transporting goods and passengers.
- Microcredit programs can provide an effective means of helping both women and men to acquire bicycles and other intermediate means of transport.
- A number of model approaches have been developed for increasing women's access to public transport. These include women-only buses, separate entrances for women, separate seats for women, and improving security at bus stops.
- Labor-intensive road construction is becoming a major source of employment for women in many countries in Africa and Asia.
- Community focus groups have proved an effective way to raise men's awareness of the excessive time and energy burden that water and fuel collection impose on their wives and children. These discussions have often resulted in men assuming more responsibility for these activities.

6. Energy

Checklist of issues:

- Gender differences in time and distance for collecting fuel.
- Gender differences in the mode of travel or transport used for collecting fuel.
- Health impacts of wood or oil burning stoves
- Gender differences in demand for, and uses of electricity.
- Gender differences in access to electricity
- Who is responsible for the maintenance of off-grid electricity.

Promising approaches.

- Introduction of intermediate means of transport to reduce the time and energy burden of fuel collection.
- Introduction of more fuel efficient stoves.
- Off-grid power generation (solar panels, wind pumps etc)

7. Water-supply and sanitation

Checklist of issues:

- What are the gender differences in the demand for, and use of, water and sanitation?
- How does the availability of water and sanitation affect men and women differently?
- In communities where piped water is not available, who is responsible for collecting water? How long does this take, and what impact does it have on ability to participate in income earning or other activities? If children miss school to help collect water, is it usually girls or boys who miss? What impact does this have on their education?.
- Do women and men differ in their willingness to pay for services? How does this affect the availability of the services?

Promising approaches:

[see Technical Note 3 Opportunity Issue 2--examples of projects to bring water closer to the community]

- Women are beginning to play an important role in managing and maintaining community water supply and are often getting their first experience in administering money.
- Community focus groups have proved an effective way to raise men's awareness of the excessive time and energy burden that water collection imposes on their wives and children. These discussions have sometimes resulted in men assuming more responsibility collecting water.
- Participatory planning methods are now available to ensure that both women and men are consulted in project selection and design. This is important because when men are consulted only, they frequently give water a low priority.

8. Labor markets, employment and micro-enterprise development

Checklist of issues:

Labor markets

- Are there gender differences in the legal or customary rights to: own land or other real property, to sign contracts, or to engage in independent financial transactions (obtain loans etc)?
- Is there a high degree of occupational gender segregation, i.e., most women and men are employed in different occupations and most occupations are heavily composed of workers of only one gender?
- Is there harassment or other sanctioning of workers who cross gender lines to work in occupations dominated by the opposite gender?
- Are wages lower in gender concentrated occupations than in less concentrated occupations—or is it only in the heavily female occupations that they are lower?

Earnings and employment conditions

- Are there gender differences in the legal or customary right to: own land or other real property, to sign contracts, or to engage in independent financial transactions (obtain loans, etc)?
- Are there gender differences in access to the Internet or other information sources?
- Is there protective labor legislation that contains gender-differentiated restrictions on formal sector employment (e.g., with respect to total hours, schedule, place of employment, type of work or requirements to provide special facilities or benefits to one gender, e.g., for maternal leave)?
- Are there gender differences in number of hours worked per day, week, month or year (both market and nonmarket work)?
- Are there gender differences in the proportion of individuals employed in the unpaid family or informal sectors?
- Within the formal sector, are there gender differences in employment in managerial and professional positions?
- Are there gender differences in the proportion of workers covered by (a) labor unions, (b) formal pension schemes, (c) other fringe benefits?
- Are there gender differences in the proportions working in public sector jobs?
- Are there gender differences in education- and experience-adjusted wages?
- Are there gender differences in unemployment rates?

Micro-enterprises

- What is the proportion of women and men who are self-employed or operate micro-enterprises?
- What are the different reasons men and women choose self-employment over wage work?
- How do men's and women's participation differ in scale, sector of operation, earnings, and risk aversion? What accounts for these differences—for instance, firm failure rates, expectations, gender roles within the household?
- Do gender differences exist in availability and use of credit by women and men, and in interest rates charged? What accounts for these differences?
- How do the characteristics of men's and women's micro-enterprises vary by rural and urban location?
- What is the prevalence of boys and girls working in a parent's micro-enterprise as a supplement to family income? Does their participation affect their educational attainment and achievement?
- What are the implications of men's and women's different micro-enterprise characteristics and credit demands for what type of credit is required and how credit services are provided?
- Are there gender differences in ownership of bank accounts, savings or access to credit?

Promising approaches:

[See Technical Note 3 for examples of micro-credit programs for women. Opportunity Issue 4]

- Micro-credit has proved one of the most effective ways to promote women's economic empowerment. Effective programs now exist in many countries, and training and technical assistance is widely available to agencies wishing to development micro-enterprise programs.
- Increasing access to transport, both motorized and intermediate means of transport (IMT), can greatly improve both women and men's ability to market their produce and to travel further to seek employment.
- Training programs for community groups and women entrepreneurs are now widely available. A recent development is the use of the Internet to market handicrafts and other products produced by women's cooperatives and individual enterprises.
- Small businesses often fail due to major illness or natural calamities, such as flooding, which exhaust of the businesswoman's resources. Many women's credit programs, such as the Grameen Bank in Bangladesh, and The Self-Employed Women's Association (SEWA) in India, now provide health insurance as well as emergency loans to help recover from natural calamities.

9 Safety nets and food security.

Checklist of issues:

- Do targeting mechanisms for food and other essential supplies reach both men and women, as well as boys and girls.
- Gender differences in access to food for work and other public employment schemes.
- How if food distributed among families members during times of crisis and famine.

Promising approaches:

[See Technical Note 3 for examples of public works program providing employment and income during times of economic crisis. Opportunity Issue 5]

- Gender-based quotas for employment in public works programs.
- Improved methods for targeting vulnerable groups.
- Distribution of food and emergency supplies through women [rather than through male household heads]

10. Urban development

Checklist of issues:

- Proportion of female headed households in urban areas
- Gender differences in formal and informal sector employment
- Legal, cultural and economic constraints on the ability of women to own property
- Gender differences in access to credit in urban areas
- The level of sexual harassment and violence against women
- Gender differences in constraints on mobility in cities

Promising approaches:

- Micro-credit programs designed to be accessible to both sexes.

- Self-help housing programs designed to be accessible to both sexes.
- Female staffed police posts and other measures to protect women from domestic and public violence.
- Women only buses and taxis and other measures to increase security on public transport.

For further information: The Technical Note borrows extensively from “Key Questions in Gender Analysis: Sectoral Reference Guides” produced by the World Bank Latin America Region Gender Team which can be found at www.worldbank.org/lacgender

Technical Note 5: Project-Level Gender Indicators for Monitoring & Evaluation

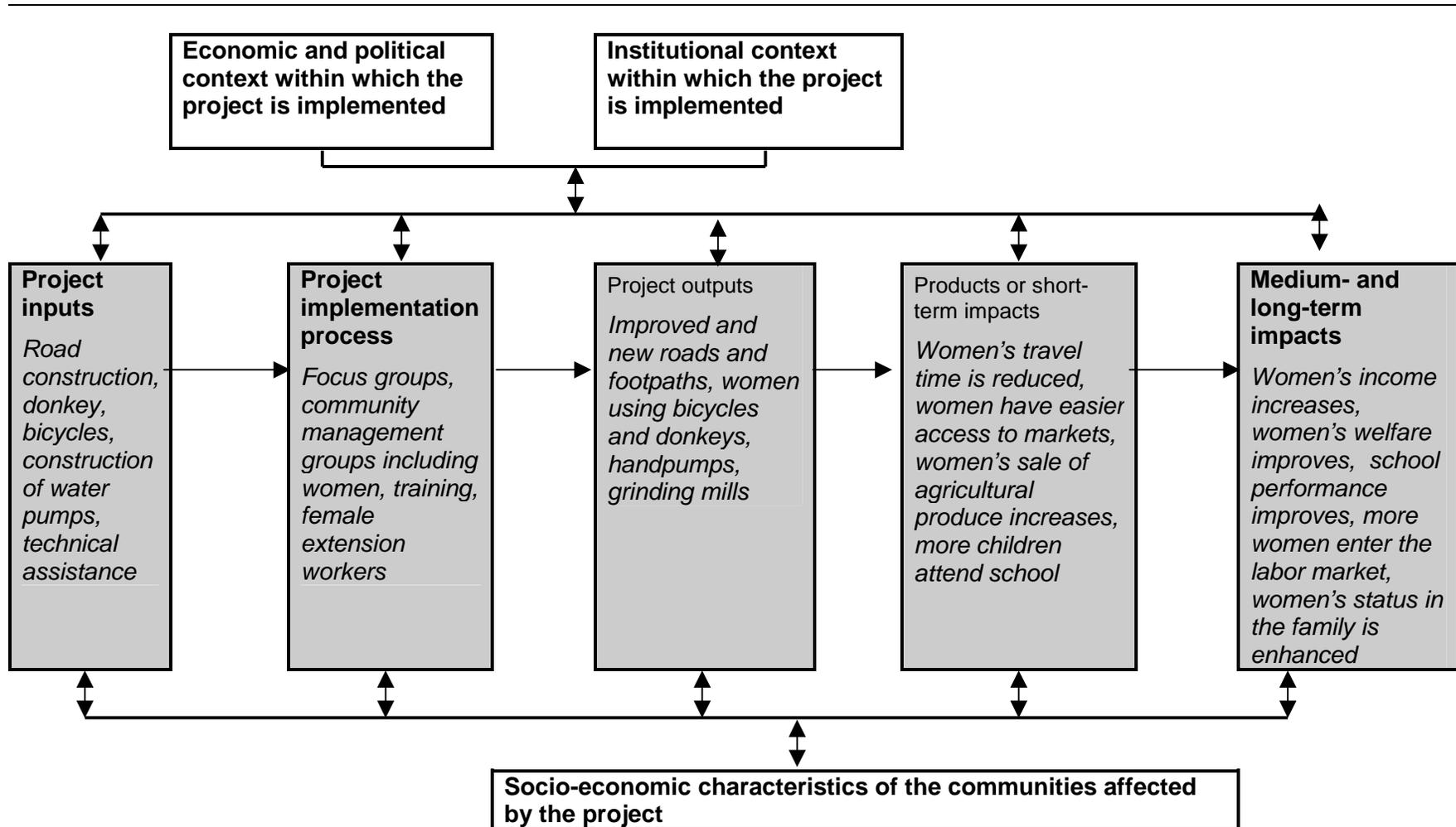
To carry out monitoring and evaluation at the project level, it is helpful to develop a model of the project implementation process describing and specifying indicators for:

- a. *Project selection and design.* What were the criteria on which the project was selected, who was involved in the selection process, to what extent were women involved?
- b. *Use of project inputs,* such as money, staff, vehicles, consultants, agricultural inputs. Were the resources used? Did they reach the intended target groups?
- c. *Project implementation.* How were the resources made available to the target groups? Did women have equal access? Were participatory processes used in which intended beneficiaries were involved?
- d. *Project outputs.* These are the immediate outputs, such as school construction, training delivery, credit approval, and road construction. The evaluation needs to check how outputs were distributed between women and men or girls and boys. Were there gender differences in such considerations as the number of farmers receiving loans, the number of farmers receiving agricultural extension services, and the number of male and female teachers hired?
- e. *Project impacts.* These are the short-, medium-, and long-term effects of the project. In most cases it is not possible to make precise estimates of the project impacts because a controlled experiment cannot be conducted. The best that can often be done is to estimate likely impacts.
- f. *Contextual factors.* The monitoring and evaluation model could include some of the community-specific contextual factors that can help explain differences in outcome among different communities. These factors can include:
 - Socio-economic characteristics of community households
 - Local economic conditions
 - Characteristics of local agencies involved in project implementation
 - Local political context

Figure 6 shows how this model was applied in evaluating the gender impacts of a village travel and transport project in Tanzania. This kind of model has several advantages for evaluating the social and gender impacts of projects:

- The simple, graphical format makes it easy to explain the evaluation design and findings to government policymakers and line ministries, many of whom are not research specialists and often are not familiar with econometrics.
- The model helps define exactly what indicators are needed at each stage of the project cycle and how they will be used.
- The model's simple structure makes it possible to pinpoint aspects of the project and its environment that have contributed to failure to achieve intended objectives or to unintended outcomes. This information can be useful in designing future projects.
- Perhaps most importantly, the model helps policymakers assess whether the failure to achieve some of the objectives suggests some fundamental weaknesses in the project assumptions, or whether the problems were due more to weaknesses in the way the project was implemented or to particular contextual factors, such as a local election or a down-turn in the economy.

Figure 6 Applying the Gender Monitoring and Evaluation Framework to a Village Transport Project



Technical Note 6: Matrix For A Country Gender Review

Principal Gender Issues	Key Policy Implications	Directions for Policy
I. Structural Economic Roles of Men and Women: Toward Economic Inclusion		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ men and women both have structural – and different – economically productive roles ◆ men and women are not evenly distributed across economic sectors ◆ cultural and social factors shape these roles more than strictly “economic” ones 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ “sectoral growth patterns make different demands on men’s and women’s labor and have different implications for the gender division of labor and income” (D. Elson) ◆ economic opportunity differs for men and for women ◆ gender inequality directly and indirectly limits economic growth 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ target sectors for growth and strengthening productivity where the poor (women) work, i.e., notably food agriculture and informal sector ◆ invest in directly productive assets for poor women and men: financial services, agricultural technology and inputs ◆ address sustainable land & property ownership/use rights for women in legal reform
II. Interdependence of Household and Market Economies: Minimizing Trade-Offs		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ the “market” and “household” economies co-exist and are interdependent, as time allocation data reveal ◆ “time” is a scarce factor of production, and “time” is a poverty issue, esp. for women ◆ labor productivity (especially of women) is very low in both the market and household economies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ “incomplete” picture of total productive activity masks dynamic interactions across sectors ◆ risk of short-term inter-sectoral and inter-generational trade-offs within poor asset- and labor-constrained households, e.g., between growth (raising incomes) and human development (investing in education) ◆ scope for raising labor productivity in HH and market. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ concurrent investment in both market and household economies to minimize trade-offs and maximize externalities, through priority to sectoral investments to raise (female) labor productivity: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ water supply/sanitation ◆ labor-saving technologies, esp. food processing/transformation ◆ intermediate means of transport ◆ domestic energy

Table continued

III. Persistent Gender-Based Asset Inequality: Linking Gender and Poverty Reduction		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ gender inequality persists in access to and control of human, economic, and social capital assets necessary for development ◆ core dimensions of poverty differ along gender lines: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ opportunity ◆ capability ◆ security ◆ empowerment ◆ data issues, including “invisibility” of much of women’s work, limit understanding of gender/ poverty interactions ◆ complexity of household structures and relations limits household-level analysis 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ gender dimensions of poverty, including women’s greater vulnerability and risk aversion ◆ women’s greater vulnerability to, and burden from, HIV/AIDS ◆ gender equality as a development issue in its own right ◆ importance of political commitment to gender equality ◆ opportunity, capability, security and empowerment (OCSE) differ for men and for women ◆ female-headed households (and larger households) are not necessarily poorer 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ pro-active gender inclusion decision-making at all levels, ◆ female education and literacy, skills training, reproductive health ◆ focus on HIV/AIDS, especially prevention and orphan care ◆ develop country-specific time budgets for men and women ◆ include non-SNA work in country analysis, and focus on informal sector ◆ benefit incidence analysis of public expenditures ◆ sex disaggregation of poverty data and gender analysis
IV. Country Policies: Prioritizing Gender Equality		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ gender as category of political, social, and economic exclusion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ persistence of inequalities and vulnerability ◆ political, economic, and social costs of gender exclusion ◆ missed development potential 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ◆ national policy on gender equality and inclusion ◆ develop gender budget initiatives (South Africa model) ◆ inclusive participatory processes for opportunity, capability, security and empowerment