

**a curriculum  
for the**

**training of  
trainers  
in gender  
mainstreaming**



African Women's  
Development  
and Communication  
Network

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## Background to the Training Curriculum/Guide

This curriculum is prepared as a guide to FEMNET'S training of trainer's workshop. It is based on the Training of Trainers (TOT) on Gender Training workshop, which was organized for Anglophone countries of Uganda, Ghana and South Africa. A similar workshop is expected for the Francophone countries of Cameroon, Mali and Rwanda and Senegal.

The training programme targets civil society, governments and intergovernmental representatives involved in gender mainstreaming and/or in communicating this work to wider audiences. This training initiative seeks to re-build a team of gender trainers across the region.

Information in this guide is comprised of generic materials providing tools and skills for gender analysis and planning for gender responsive programmes. These materials have been tried and tested in

FEMNET's gender training activities in the region. Over the years FEMNET has trained NGOs, communities, government and UN agencies. Experience gained during these training activities has helped FEMNET to evolve a curriculum and a model for gender training in the region.

This package is designed as Training of Trainers Guide. Therefore it has regular gender training modules, as reflected in modules 1 to 4, while modules 5 and 6 are designed to offer practical training skills.

The training provides participants with information and skills to plan and develop gender responsive programmes and to mainstream gender in their programmes.

The curriculum should serve as a guide to gender trainers with extensive experience in gender training. It can also be useful to up-coming trainers.



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## FEMNET Gender Training of Trainers Curriculum - For Francophone Countries



### OVERVIEW OF TRAINING MODULES

|          |   |
|----------|---|
| Module 1 | Introductions                                   |
| Module 2 | Gender and Development Concepts                 |
| Module 3 | The Social Construction of Gender               |
| Module 4 | Gender Analysis Frameworks and Tools            |
| Module 5 | Mainstreaming Gender in Programmes and Projects |
| Module 6 | Practical Training Skills                       |
| Module 7 | Plans of Action/Follow-up Activities            |
| Module 8 | Workshop Evaluation                             |



### HOW TO USE THE CURRICULUM/GUIDE

The Curriculum is divided into eight (8) modules. Modules 1 to 5 form the regular gender training modules, while module 6 is designed to offer practical skills in gender training. Where applicable each module will have the following components:

**Title:**

Identifies the main topic of the module.

**Objective(s):**

This states what the module hopes to achieve overall. The objective should be clearly stated at the beginning of each session.

**Learner Objective(s):**

This indicates what participants will be able to do as a result of knowledge gained in the session.

**Time:**

This indicates the time it will take to deliver the session.

**Content:**

Shows the content that the session plans to cover.

**Materials:**

Lists materials needed to run the session

**Handouts:**

This shows the handouts that will be used in each session. Handouts are numbered according to the sessions. Trainers are encouraged to present any other material that they may think is appropriate.

**Methodology/Process:**

This contains instructions on how to run the session.

**Tasks:**

These appear in boxes and provide instructions on group assignments when applicable.

**Trainer's notes:**

Contains information for the trainer, i.e. key learning points of the session.

**Special preparations:**

Indicates preparations necessary prior to the session.

# Module 1

## Introduction

### Objectives:

By the end of this session participants will be able to

- Explain the objective of the training
- Share their expectations for the training

**Time:** 2 hours

### Session Overview:

- Opening

- Introductions
- Learning contract
- Participants expectations and workshop objectives
- Overview of the workshop time table

### Materials:

- Flipcharts
- VIPP cards
- Felt Pens

**Handout:** Workshop objectives

## Methodology/Process:

1. Official protocols are observed.
2. Presiding official welcomes group to the workshop.
3. Keynote speaker to deliver his/her address before the session is formally opened. Such a speech sets the tone for the rest of the workshop contextualizing it to the target group.
4. The facilitator invites the participants to introduce each other to the group through a participatory exercise. One way to do this is to pair off participants, each introducing the other. Introductions should include name, organization and two expectations for the workshop from each participant. A variation of this would be to add a gender-based introduction such as the partners sharing one thing they like or do not like about their gender.

5. The facilitator writes the expectations on a flip chart using transparency, which highlights the objectives of the workshop. The facilitator clarifies which expectations can be met by the workshop and which cannot. It is useful to provide reasons as to why certain expectations of a participant are outside of the scope of the workshop.
6. The facilitator leads the participants in developing ground rules for the workshop. These could include time keeping, participation among others, creating a space so that various perspectives can be presented, respect for different opinions and others as requested by the participants.

*NOTE: It is important to deal with the participants' expectations at this point. This will avoid frustrations for the participants as well as ensure common understanding of the workshop objectives.*

**Pre- Preparations:** Ensure that the guest speaker/ Programme Officials are at hand to deliver the opening speech/ceremony.

## HANDOUT 1.1

### OBJECTIVES

The workshop is designed so that by the end of the training participants would be able to:

- Explain the concepts of gender and development
- Explain and differentiate the different frame works of analysis.
- Provide information and knowledge on gender and how it impacts on development.
- Build and strengthen participant's skills in gender analysis and mainstreaming.
- Build Participants capacity to plan, conduct and evaluate gender training.
- Produce plans of action and mechanisms for follow-up in mainstreaming gender in programmes and projects.

# Module 2

## Gender and Development Concepts

### Objective:

Explain the concepts of gender and development and how it relates to the women in development and other development approaches.

### Learner Objective:

By the end of this session participants will have an understanding of the different concepts used in gender and development work.

**Time:** 2 ½ hours

### Content:

Concepts to be discussed can be many and varied but should include the following-

- Gender vs. Sex
- Equality vs. Equity
- Gender Relationships
- Women in Development (WID)
- Gender and Development (GAD)
- Practical Needs vs. Strategic Gender Interests
- Empowerment
- Development
- Historical Perspectives

### Materials:

- Handouts
- Transparencies

### Handouts:

There are seven handouts for the session

## Methodology/ Process:

- Buzz groups
  - Lecture
- 1) Divide participants into small buzz groups and ask them discuss and define the above concepts as they understand them.
  - 2) Have the groups present their definitions in the plenary.

- 3) The facilitator wraps the session by clarifying any misunderstandings of the concepts and ensures that there is a common understanding of concepts and terminology, as these will be used throughout the training session.
- 4) Below is a list of definitions for reference. Also see an expanded list of concepts in Handout 2.6 at the end of this module.

## Definition of Concepts

### Gender

This refers to the socially constructed roles and responsibilities assigned to men and women by society. These roles are learned; they vary between cultures and they change over time.

### Sex

This refers to biological attributes of Men and Women; these attributes are universal and cannot be changed.

#### SEX

Biological

Given by birth

(Therefore)

Can not be changed (e.g. man's ability to impregnate and woman's ability to give birth)

#### GENDER

Cultural

Learned through socialization

(Therefore)

Can be changed (e.g. women and men can work as Engineers, pilots, teachers, etc)

**Equality versus Equity**

Equality refers to similarity of treatment as it is legally, constitutionally and divinely given. It is a fundamental right.

Equity refers to a fair sharing of resources, opportunities and benefits according to a given framework. It is one of the measures of equality, but not the only one. Equity is measurable and manifested in parity. Experience illustrates that equity is used instead of equality within institutions. This means that equity often undermines equality as women enter institutions on male terms without the equality process being fully explored and utilized. Equity is often viewed as a favour, whereas equality is a fundamental right.

**Gender Relations**

Gender relations refer to how men and women relate to each other, resulting in manifestations of gender-based power. This arises from the roles men and women are expected to play and the impact of their interactions. The family is a good example, as men assume the earner and leader roles and women assume the domestic and childcare roles. These power relations are uneven because the male has more power in making legally influential decisions. Roles, assumed attributes and social systems lead to the creation of blueprints for behaviour. If we do not conform to these roles we are seen to be deviant by society. Power relations always result in one party being worse off than the other and create social imbalances.

**Development**

There are many definitions of development. However, it can be seen as a process and as an end. It can be seen as growth (physical increase), combined with qualitative change. In defining development, it is vital

to include the human element because structures alone have no meaning unless they transform the lives of the people who use or depend on them. Furthermore, when including the human element, gender must be analyzed in order to assess the particular needs of both men and women. In summary, development is the movement from a simple or worse situation to a sophisticated and better situation. It is both qualitative and quantitative and needs a gender perspective to be complete.

**Empowerment**

This can be seen as the process and end result of improvement in autonomy through various means such as access to knowledge, skills and training. The acquired improvement is then applied. The process and result of empowerment is a critical issue in development.

**Women in Development (WID)\***

This is an approach to development that focuses on women. The approach aims at ensuring that women are included in development. The approach does not address itself to the benefits of women's participation.

**Gender and Development Approach: (GAD) \***

This is an approach to development that advocates for a shift from focusing on women as a group to socially determined relations between men and women. This approach focuses on the social, economic, political and cultural forces that determine how women and men can best participate and benefit from a development project.

- Practical Needs versus Strategic Gender Interests
- Historical Perspectives

## HANDOUT 2.1

**Practical versus Strategic Gender Needs**

Although these concepts belong to the Caroline Moser framework, they can be clarified under the first session as they relate to the Gender and Development approach.

In undertaking gender analysis it is important to keep in mind that women and men have different gender roles and positions in society, resulting in different gender needs and interests.

Practical Gender Needs are defined as basic needs of survival not unique to women. They include food, shelter, clothing and water. They relate to material conditions of life, are short-term, can be met through direct material inputs and operate at welfare (availability) and access (means) levels.

Strategic Gender Needs/Interests on the other hand, refer to socio-economic and political positions of women compared to men. They relate to structures and systems, which are embedded and therefore more difficult to deal with. In looking at strategic needs, focus is placed on factors such as:

- Marginalisation – exclusion in processes such as decision-making. This results in women’s inability to articulate their needs and interests.
- Discrimination – differential treatment based on factors over which an individual has no control, e.g. sex, tribe, nationality, race, etc.
- Objectification – assignment of less than human status and treatment to women.
- Infantilisation – categorizing women with children, i.e. having no legal decision making powers, voting rights or capacity to enter into contracts.
- Dispossession – through patriarchal systems of property inheritance.
- Value assignment – determining a woman’s value by the sex and number of children she bears.
- Violence – physical, mental and emotional abuse, which is culturally accepted as ‘correcting’ a wife or harmful practices such as female genital mutilation to subdue female sexual urge.
- Sub-ordination – assignment of an inferior position e.g. treatment as second-class citizens.

## HANDOUT 2.2

### Matrix - Practical Gender Needs and Strategic Gender Interests

#### A. Practical Needs

- Tend to be immediate and short-term
- Unique to particular women
- Relate to daily needs, food, housing, income, health, children, etc.
- Easily identifiable by women
- Can be addressed by provision of specific inputs such as food, hand pumps, clinics, etc.

#### B. Strategic Needs

- Tend to be long-term.
- Common to almost all women
- Relate to disadvantaged position, subordination, lack of resources and education, vulnerability to poverty and violence, etc.
- Basis of disadvantage and potential for change not always identifiable by women
- Can be addressed by consciousness-raising, increasing self-confidence, education, strengthening women’s organisations, political mobilisation, etc.

#### 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

## HANDOUT 2.3

### Women in Development versus Gender and Development

This section traces the historical approaches to women's development and the fundamental policy shifts. Following the first Women's Conference in Mexico in 1975, the UN decided to make the next ten years the Women's Decade. This strengthened earlier studies and activism that had already highlighted the demeaned status of women's contribution to development. At the end of the decade, assessment of progress made necessitated a shift to the Gender and Development approach. The two concepts are differentiated as follows.

#### 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.

#### Gender and Development (GAD)

The GAD or Gender and 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.

### From "Women in Development" (WID) to "Gender and Development" (GAD)

| WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT (WID)  | GENDER AND DEVELOPMENT (GAD)  |
|---|---|
| <b>The Approach:</b><br>An approach which views women as the center of a problem  | <b>The Approach:</b><br>An approach to the development of women and men   |
| <b>The Focus:</b><br>Women  | <b>The Focus:</b><br>Relations between women and men  |
| <b>The Problem:</b><br>The exclusion of women (half of the productive resources) from the development process   | <b>The Problem:</b><br>Unequal relations of power (rich/poor, women/men) that prevent equitable development and women's full participation.   |
| <b>The Goal:</b><br>More efficient, effective and just development  | <b>The Goal:</b><br>Equitable, sustainable development with women and men as decision-makers  |
| <b>The Solution:</b><br>Integrate women into the existing development process   | <b>The Solution:</b><br>Empower the disadvantaged and women and transform unequal relations   |
| <b>The Strategies:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Women's projects</li> <li>● Women's components</li> <li>● Integrated projects</li> <li>● Increase women's productivity</li> <li>● Increase women's ability to look after the household</li> </ul> | <b>The Strategies:</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Identify and address practical gender needs determined by men and women to improve their lives</li> <li>● Address women's and men's strategic gender needs</li> <li>● Address strategic interests of the poor through people-centred development</li> </ul> |

## HANDOUT 2.4

### Theoretical and Historical Approaches to Women/Gender and Development

These are various approaches that have been and continue to be used in women's development namely: welfare, efficiency, anti-poverty, equity, empowerment and mainstreaming. This is a tool used in Moser's framework. It can be used in discussions on the evolution of WID/GAD approaches. The details are captured below.

#### 1. From Welfare to Women In Development (WID)

|  | 1940s – 1960s  | 1970s  | 1980s/90s   |  |
|--|--|--|---|--|
| <b>Policy Approach to Development</b>  | Economic growth  | Distribution with growth (employment and basic needs)  | Economic efficiency and debt repayment (structural adjustment)  |  |
| <b>Policy Approach to Women/Gender</b> | Pre-WID Welfare  | WID Equity   | WID Anti-Poverty  | WID Efficiency   |
| <b>Period Most Popular</b>             | Still widely used  | During and after women's decade  | 1970s onwards, still popular  | Post 1980s, most popular approach  |
| <b>Origins</b>                         | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Residual model of social welfare under colonial administration</li> <li>Modernization/accelerated growth model</li> </ul>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Failure of modernization development policy</li> <li>Decade of women</li> </ul>   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Top-down equity approach</li> <li>Growth and basic needs</li> </ul>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Deterioration of world economy</li> <li>Politics of structural adjustment rely on women's economic contribution</li> </ul>  |
| <b>Purpose</b>                         | Women should become better mothers and family caretakers   | Development should lead to equity for women  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Increased productive role of the poor</li> <li>Income generation for women</li> </ul>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Development should ensure efficiency and effectiveness</li> <li>Women's economic participation leads to equity</li> </ul>   |
| <b>Gender Needs Met</b>                | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Focus on women's reproductive role</li> <li>Access to food aid, contraceptives, nutrition, health care</li> <li>Practical gender needs of women as wives and mothers</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Addresses reproductive, productive and community politics roles of women</li> <li>Access to and control over factors of production and decision making</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Addresses practical and strategic roles of women</li> <li>Access to land, credit, skills and contraceptives</li> <li>Practical gender needs: increased income</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Addresses <b>practical gender needs</b> of women, promotes access to employment and income and basic services in exchange for participation</li> <li>Demands "safety nets" for poor women</li> <li>Practical gender needs: social services declining</li> </ul> |
| <b>Gender Critique</b>                 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Focus on growth of industry/mechanized employment, male jobs</li> <li>Women are seen as wives and mothers</li> </ul>  | Focus on inequality between all women and men  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Focus on the poor</li> <li>Men seen as main bread-winners, women as contributors</li> </ul>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>No recognition of multiple roles of women and men</li> <li>No recognition of household structures</li> </ul>  |

## 2. From Women in Development to Gender and Development

|  | 1940s – 1960s  | 1970s   | 1980s/90s   |
|--|--|---|---|
| <b>Policy Approach To Development</b>  | State socialist development  | Economic self-reliance and political non-alignment  | Social sustainability with economic and political reforms (economic liberalization and institutional restructuring)   |
| <b>Policy Approach To Women/Gender</b> | Emancipation   | Empowerment   | GAD mainstreaming   |
| <b>Period Most Popular</b>             | In 50s and 70s   | 1975 until 80s, still quite popular   | 80s till present  |
| <b>Origins</b>                         | State socialism  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Arose out of failure of equity approach</li> <li>• Third World feminist and grassroots organizations</li> </ul>  | Most recent approach, shift from WID to GAD, reaction to marginalization of institutionalized WID activities  |
| <b>Purpose</b>                         | To increase women's political participation and harness their labour capacities to meet national development goals   | Development should empower women and men to greater self-reliance and assertion of own capabilities   | Integrate gender awareness & competence into "mainstream" development   |
| <b>Gender Needs Met</b>                | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Productive, reproductive &amp; community politics roles of women met</li> <li>• Access to employment and income, but not to factors of production</li> <li>• Access to social goods and services, but not policy</li> <li>• Access to legal system</li> </ul> <p>Practical gender needs: employment/income</p> <p>Strategic gender needs: political participation</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Productive, reproductive, community management &amp; community politics roles of women met</li> <li>• Access to factors of production/goods/ services</li> <li>• Access to and control over information</li> <li>• Enhancement of confidence-building, participation skills and decision-making</li> </ul> <p>Practical gender needs: bottom up mobilization</p> <p>Strategic gender needs: organization</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Productive, reproductive, community management and community politics roles of women and men met</li> <li>• Access to and control over resources in mainstream development (with specific components)</li> </ul> <p>Practical gender needs of women and men addressed</p> <p>Strategic gender needs of women and men pursued</p> |
| <b>Gender Critique</b>                 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women's issues are important but subordinated to national development goals</li> <li>• No challenge of gender relations</li> <li>• Hostility towards autonomous women's organizations</li> </ul>  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Recognizes gender relations with women organized autonomously in separate or mixed organizations</li> <li>• Focus on solidarity between "Third World" women and men, challenging western development models</li> </ul>   |   |

NB: Tables sourced from GTZ gender training manual

## HANDOUT 2.5

### Why Gender is a Development Issue

The rationale for considering gender can be made using the following statistics:\*

- Women form 50% of the world's population.
- Women perform 2/3 of the world's work.
- Women make up 2/3 of the world's illiterate population.
- Women earn 1/10 of the world's income.

- Women earn less than 1/100 of the world's property.
- Women constitute 70% of the world's poor living on less than \$1/per day.

Such inequities are a result of numerous factors such as women's lack of access to economic opportunities and resources, access to agricultural land, technology and credit, as well as, employment opportunities. Thus, addressing gender inequalities is not only a development goal, but also a means to sustainable development.

*\*The trainer should add statistics and examples to localize the perspective of gender issues in the area/region of the training.*

## HANDOUT 2.6

### Essential Concepts in Gender and Development

#### **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. Since 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. Furthermore, gender is also 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 rather 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 and women's position in a given society. They also 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.

#### **Changes in gender identity and gender relations**

Gender roles and characteristics in almost all societies have gone through many recent adjustments and changes in response 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, particularly from cultural forces of tradition that benefit and maintain the status quo. An integral part of a project's gender strategy is to anticipate and prepare for the most likely forms of resistance in relation to change in activities or the

status and position of women. 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, either women or men typically undertake tasks and responsibilities. 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, including the circumstances under which the typical practices can be varied as well as the limitations of this variation. Change usually takes place when the society is under some form of stress, for example when family members migrate to find work, other members of their families must undertake their tasks. The sexual division of labour is perhaps the most significant social structure that governs gender relations.

### **Gender roles and responsibilities**

This is another term for the division of labour. It tends to be used most frequently in analytical frameworks, especially the Harvard Framework and its derivatives such as the People Orientated Planning (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 a form of non-monetary income. Both men and women contribute to family income with various forms of productive work. However, men predominate in productive work, especially at the higher echelons of remuneration. Historically, 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, i.e. those who undertake or will undertake the productive work. It includes childbearing 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 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 how to dispose of the resource, e.g. sell land. Gender analysis of a base-line data establishes whether there is any difference in men 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 practical and strategic gender interests/needs. Practical and strategic gender interests/needs should not be seen as separate, but rather as a continuum. Consultation with women on their practical gender interests/needs often serves as an entry point to address gender inequalities in the longer term so that strategic gender interests/needs can be met.

**Practical Gender Needs:** These are gender needs that women and men can easily identify, since they relate to daily living conditions. Women may identify safe water, food, health care, and 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 that 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 and 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. Since strategic gender interests/needs are not as easily identified as practical gender needs, women may need specific opportunities to critically analyze their situations in order to identify them.

### **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. For instance, providing safe water, credit and seeds can make improvements in women and men's condition. By addressing the condition of women, development organisations meet their 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 and vulnerability to violence refer to women's position vis-à-vis men. By addressing the position of women, development organisations can meet their 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 "transformation" 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, which applies 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 equal access to the resources they need to maximize 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 as well as changes in prevalent ideologies about the roles and responsibilities of men and women.

*\*Note:* Gender in Development (GID) and Gender and Development (GAD) are two very similar terms in current usage. There is no substantive difference in the meaning of these two terms, which may be used interchangeably. 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.

### **Equity and Sustainable Development**

Two types of equity are required for full human development to take place- 1) equity for human generations yet to come, whose interests are not represented by standard economic analyses or by market forces that discount the future 2) equity for people living now who do not have equal access to

natural resources or to social and economic “goods”. 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.

### **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.

### **Understanding Gender Equality**

Equality refers to similarity of treatment as it is legally, constitutionally and divinely given and is a fundamental human right. 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 United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), which was adopted in 1979 and is also known as the convention on women’s rights. CEDAW, 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 Nations Fourth World Conference for Women held in Beijing 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) as well as CEDAW. It is based on the principles of human rights and social justice and clearly recognises that gender equality and women’s empowerment are essential for addressing the central concerns of poverty and insecurity as well as for achieving sustainable, people-centred development.

### **Discrimination**

CEDAW 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, there are societies that believe that whatever happens within the household is the concern of household members only. As a result, the police force and judiciary organizations within the institution of the state routinely avoid addressing questions of domestic violence, leading to systemic discrimination against women who experience violence within the home.

### **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. The systematic barriers in a society can actually impede a woman’s access to resources that are supposed to be equal for men and women. 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.

Source: UNDP Information Pack

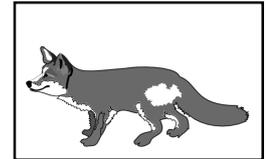


## HANDOUT 2.7

### Equality of Outcome ( Substantive Equality)



#### 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.*



# Module: 3

## The Social Construction of gender

### Objective:

- Explore the processes of construction of gender identities and how this is maintained.
- Examine the implications of the social construction in society.

### Learner Objectives:

By the end of this session, participants will increase their understanding of how gender is constructed and the implication of this in programmes and everyday situations.

**Time:** 2 hours

### Content:

Definition of relevant terms that should include concepts such as culture, society, ideology, patriarchy, matriarchy, etc.

### Materials:

- Hand outs
- Case study

### Handout:

One hand out on the social construction of gender

### Methodology/Process:

- Buzz groups
- Lecture
- Debate
- Group work
- Video\*

This module links up with module one on basic concepts. The facilitator, along with the participants, can revisit the definition of gender roles, attributes, behaviour, expectations of men and women, which are learnt, vary culturally and change over time. Through the exercises enumerated below, participants will have a chance to examine their perceptions and assumptions on masculine and feminine attributes.

## Part 1

1. Organize participants into small groups
2. Assign a concept to each group (see content above)
3. Groups discuss the concepts and prepare to report to plenary.
4. In plenary, groups share discussions.

## Part 2

Debate on a gender based motion

1. Select the motion, i.e. "If I had a chance to have only one child, I would prefer to have a girl."
2. To prepare for the debate, arbitrarily divide participants into two groups with one supporting and the other opposing the motion.
3. The groups engage in a debate for or against with each side making arguments for their side.

4. On a flipchart, the facilitator records the arguments for or against the statement.

Using the debate points, the facilitator should then proceed to bring in the aspects of how gender is systematically constructed, maintained, justified and perpetuated in accordance with the reigning ideology. (See Handout 3.1)

The points from the debate would normally highlight the expectations people have of boys and girls (hence men and women), which show gender construction. The facilitator can also choose a different topic that he/she finds more contextually appropriate in order to get the main points across.

### \*Facilitator's notes

The facilitator also has the option of showing an appropriate video during this module to illustrate the social construction of gender.

## HANDOUT 3.1

### THE SOCIAL CONSTRUCTION OF GENDER

Social construction of gender refers to the systematic processes and institutions which society uses to ascribe attributes, roles, responsibilities and expectations to males and females within the cultural context. Barriers to equality are a result of a complex array of ideological, cultural, religious influences, economic and historical factors, which can be changed. The following concepts can be examined in the context of the social construct of Gender.

#### **Culture:**

The way and pattern of life for a group of people, not only in the past but also as lived in the present.

#### **Society:**

A group of people living together and with shared traditions, history and aspirations. The culture of the people determines what they want and expect from the men and women in their society.

#### **Family/Home**

Manifestations of the reigning ideology, which defines the status and power relations between women and men as well as girls and boys, are evident in different structures and stages of life in the family. In patriarchal cultures, examples include:

- In many cultures there is an overt preference of boy children as sureties of lineage continuation; permanent residents of the homestead (the girl is referred to as an outsider); heir to property and family management; marital security for the mothers; source of prestige etc. The higher value bestowed on the male child is expressed in birth rituals and other social fora.
- Birth rituals and naming systems to signify the gender of the borne child determine immediately the future role of the child, e.g. girls as domestic worker is symbolized with a bundle of firewood next to her and boy as warrior is shown by placing a spear next to him. Naming systems differ but in some communities, the pattern is definitely modeled to give the patrilineal side first preference.
- Initiation practices and education emphasize to the males their positions of power and dominance and to the females their positions of powerlessness and servitude. Such rites of passage define the ultimate

#### **Ideologies:**

The system of thought and values which determine societal practice.

#### **Patriarchy:**

The ideology of male precedence and domination.

#### **Matriarchy:**

The ideology of female precedence and domination.

The next component of this handout looks at institutions that perpetuate the social construction of gender. These include, but are not limited to the following: -

- Family/community
- School
- Peer groups
- Religion
- Folklore
- Myths
- Media and government

goal in life for girls as wives and mothers and for boys as participants in imperialism, including sexual conquests later manifested in polygamous wedlock. Girls are henceforth chided for deviance that is often alleged to jeopardize their chances of marriage to any man.

- Marital practices such as courtship (in some cultures embellished with violence as a sign of love!), payment of bride price (which is romanticized for cementing familial bonds but in practice causes objectification of the woman and becomes a license for her subjugation through violence and muted decision making powers with regard to whether she should give birth, to how many children and of what sex; in many cultures, bride price is returnable hence defines a strictly contractual arrangement); movement of bride to spouse's abode; change of lineage and name for the woman (subsumption if not loss of her individual identity); polygamy as an expression of material and sexual power and a system of control by diffusion of power struggles between husband and wife to co-wife and co-wife; demeaning wedding practices for the women such as kneeling to serve the groom or spoon feeding him.
- Practices surrounding death, e.g. place of burial for unmarried sons and daughters, for men and

women and how the death of a patriarch is symbolized differently from that of a matriarch; widow inheritance, etc.

- Division of labour patterns among young children is often in duplication of what the mother and father do or what the older siblings of similar sex do. This exposure has implications on children and their socialization and interaction with the outer world from a very young age. It often also defines their importance in terms of the visibility and value assigned to their work and the prestige that goes with it.
- Decision making roles, e.g. who decides whether the family should acquire or dispose of land or what will be eaten for lunch. This also correlates strongly with expenditure patterns also, e.g. the wife's pay tends to go for consumables and the man's for physical assets. The residual value is only seen of the physical assets.

These few examples on the family might serve to illustrate the basis of what kind of men and women we make through the early socialization of boys and girls through implicit and explicit methods, including verbal instruction and imitation of practices.

### **School/Education**

In the modern as well as in the traditional world, education reinforces societal ideals and values, some of which are already planted in the family. Since school-going children spend considerable amounts of their time away from home, school also plays an important part in the socialization of gender roles. Factors at play in the school, which construct and maintain gender include:

- Teachers serve as role models as well as sources of information and instruction for school-going children. Women's dominance in pre-school and lower-school teaching and men's dominance in science subjects and as principals/heads of schools further reinforce the social construction of gender. It thus becomes difficult for a young girl who has grown up seeing female teachers in lower and less prestigious roles to think otherwise of herself.
- The pictorial and textual images presented in textbooks also reinforce gender roles of males and females. Using the narratological method to analyse a textbook, one can discern unrealistic gender bias and stereotyping by observing the number of times males and females appear in pictures and text; the order of their appearance and in which they are mentioned; the activities they are associated with; how many times they are mentioned by name and by

pronoun; how many times generic pronouns/nouns are soon qualified with male names/figures; the language used to describe them and their actions and whether they are active or passive in the text, etc.

- School curriculums and career paths that are prescribed to girls and boys often differ and reinforce traditional gender roles. Attitudes that some subjects are too hard for females and others are inappropriate (soft) for males; reinforcement of this by lack of facilities for science subjects in girls' schools; disapproving social treatment of girls who deviate into the so-called male domains and vice versa for males; the role of teachers in reinforcing or transforming career stereotyping, e.g. through essays on "What I would like to be when I grow Up".
- Division of extra curriculum tasks among staff and students, e.g. which teachers are responsible for what clubs (males for home science clubs?); what games are available for girls and boys and what quantity and quality of facilities support them; what tasks are boys and girls assigned for their manual work sessions, etc.
- Young adolescents are heavily influenced by their peers on what "real boys" and "real girls" are supposed to behave like. This is also the period when most youth also form strong masculine and feminine identities based on gender roles.

### **Religion**

Since religious proclamations are taken to be sacred, it also becomes one of the most rigid systems of perpetuating patriarchy and gender disparities because scriptures are used unscrupulously to support partisan views and often not of the whole context. The following points demonstrate how religion also plays an important part in developing and maintaining gender roles.

- Myths of creation and interpretation of the gender roles in determining the destiny of humanity: who is to blame for humanity's calamity?
- Presentation of God as a gendered rather than an androgynous being.
- Representation of God on earth as mainly male through leaders of religious institutions and resistance for female leadership. For instance, majority of churchgoers and payers of tithe are women, but for the most part, they are still not accepted in church leadership.

### **Folklore**

The oral literature and tradition of a people encapsulates their ideology in the various genres (proverbs, riddles, narratives, etc.), which define the status, attitudes and opinions about gender. Such ideas are used to justify current gender power relations.

- In one African culture for instance, it is said that both men and women owned cattle. Then one day a bull was slaughtered in the community and all the women went scrambling for the meat and for got to restrain their cattle from wandering off. The end result was that the cattle strayed and disappeared into the wilderness and became the wild animals we have today. The “moral” of the story is that women are so petty and food-minded they cannot be entrusted with management of property. The best thing is to let them deal with what they are best at (food matters, except when it is cooking in a hotel!) and completely bar them from inheriting property (which they will surely lay to waste!).

These few points about how gender roles and characteristics are constructed are by no means exhaustive, but should help to stimulate us to think about how deeply rooted all forms of gender disparities are. An understanding of this helps us to appreciate the complexity of gender issues and the likely sources of resistance (culture is often cited as an inviolable dynamic in gender relations, but we know it is amenable). The questions to think of are: How do we deal with the processes of gender construction given that they are the bases of gender gaps? How do we deal with culture: by accommodating, challenging or confronting it? Is there a way of transforming it for better gender relations? At what point do we start: with the personal or the communal? What means are at our disposal to do this?

# Module 4

## Gender Analysis Frameworks and Tools

### Objective:

Explain and differentiate between the various gender analysis frameworks.

### Learner Objective:

By the end of this session, the participant will be able to apply tools of gender analysis to their work in sector and thematic areas.

**Time:** 1 ½ Days

### Content:

Currently there are several gender-analysis frameworks in use. The framework to use will depend on the type of programmes and projects an organisation is implementing. Most frameworks have some similarities in their approach to analysis; most of them will for example emphasise an analysis of productive and reproductive activities as well as issues of desegregation of data and information by sex. It is therefore important for gender trainers to understand the conceptual differences between the various frameworks in order for them to make the right choice of the framework. Below are some of the frameworks in use.

- Harvard Gender Analysis Framework
- Gender Planning in the Third World by Caroline Moser
- Gender Equality and Empowerment Framework by Sara H Longwe
- People Oriented Planning by UNHCR
- Social Economic of Gender Analysis (SEGA)
- ABC of gender analysis for text books and curriculum
- Gender Analysis Matrix (GAM )
- Social Relations Approach
- Capacities and Vulnerabilities Analysis framework

### Materials:

Handouts on the different frameworks

### Handouts:

There are nine handouts for the session, which include the some of the different gender analysis frameworks and information on how to select the appropriate one.

### Methodology:

- Brainstorming in Plenary
- Lecture
- Case Study
- Individual reading
- Group Work
- Case study

### Process:

The training session should aim at teaching at least two frameworks in depth.

For purposes of this TOT, FEMNET has used the Harvard Framework of Analysis.

The Gender Equality and Empowerment Framework, the Moser Framework and the Gender Analysis Framework have been summarized in the handouts. The trainer should familiarize her/himself with the different frameworks and use the one that is most appropriate.

1. Existing frameworks should be listed, and a short explanation given on the background and origins of the frameworks. (See Handout)
2. Where possible, handouts on the listed frameworks should be provided to participants for further scrutiny.
3. Participants should also be taken through a session on critiquing the different frameworks. This will allow the participants to judge for themselves the strengths and weaknesses of each framework.
4. After teaching each framework, participants should be taken through an appropriate case study, so as to illustrate and reinforce the major aspects of the framework.
5. Sample cases studies are included here as handouts.

## THE HARVARD FRAMEWORK OF ANALYSIS

### Background

The Harvard analytical framework is one of the early frameworks of analysis. It was developed by researchers in Harvard Institute for International Development in USA. Initial work on this research was funded by USAID.

The framework was developed at a time when development approaches were emphasizing integration of women in the development processes with a focus on efficiency.

### Aims of the Framework

The framework emphasizes that both men and women are involved in development as actors and as beneficiaries. As such there is economic sense in allocating resources to both. The framework helps planners to design projects that are more efficient and which improve overall productivity.

### The Framework

The framework sets out on the premises that women and men are affected by development differently, and that women and men affect development differently as well. The effect of development on women and men and vice versa occurs whether or not development had them in mind when planning. The framework emphasizes the role of data and information. Providing data and information starts to create the visibility of women and men in projects.

This framework consists of 4 interrelated components/ tools:

- 1) Activity profile
- 2) Access and control profile
- 3) Analysis of determinant factors
- 4) Project cycle analysis

### 1) Activity profile

This component categorizes the activities undertaken as either productive or reproductive and then outlines who does them, when and where. It has been adapted to reflect community activities and also to look at how and why the activities are done. This process helps to understand the gender division of labour and how it comes about. The structure of the activity profile is presented below.

#### Productive Activities

These are defined as those activities that produce goods and services which have an economic gain or monetary value. These could include, wage employment, trade, and marketing to mention just a few. Both men and women are involved in productive activities. *Women's productive work is often less valued.*

#### Reproductive Activities

These are activities done for generation and maintenance of human life. They include child bearing and rearing, household work, i.e. cooking, washing clothes utensils, etc.

This type of work is usually not recognized, nor is it accounted for in the GNP. To a large extent, women and girls are involved in carrying out reproductive work in most parts of this world.

**Activity Profile Chart**

| Type of Activity | Who (Gender/ Age) | When | How Often | Where | How | Why |
|------------------|-------------------|------|-----------|-------|-----|-----|
| Productive       |                   |      |           |       |     |     |
| Reproductive     |                   |      |           |       |     |     |
| Community        |                   |      |           |       |     |     |

**KEY:**

Who - Male Adult, Female Adult, Male Child, Female Child

What- Activities carried out

When- Time of the year/day

Where- Location of the activity, i.e. at home or away

How- Means of doing the activity, i.e. is it manual or technological

How often- Number of times it is done over a space of time

Why- What reason justifies the gender that does it

## 2) The Access and Control Profile

This component analyses what resources are available in the project and what benefit accrues from them being used. Furthermore, it also analyses which sex has (access) these resources and benefits from them as well as who has final decision making powers (control) over them, based on their gender roles. In gender analysis, it is often found that whereas women have wide access to resources and benefits the control of those resources largely rests with the men, thus shifting gender power relations in their favour.



**Access and Control Profile Chart**

|           | Who has Access | Who has Control |
|-----------|----------------|-----------------|
| Resources |                |                 |
| Benefits  |                |                 |

## 3) Influencing Factors

These are the factors that influence the pattern in the two profiles above (Tools 1 & 2) The tool allows you to analyse the differences in the gender division of labour, access and control. They include factors that shape social relations. Analyzing these factors can give an insight in the past and current influences and can guide in the planning and programming of development projects. It is important to identify influencing factors since they present opportunities and constraints in project and programme development. Understanding influencing factors helps to identify entry points for appropriate interventions and options for change. In programme terms, this can help in identifying appropriate inputs for different projects. Influencing factors can be many and broad. They include but are not limited to culture/tradition, education religion, politics, economics, environment, wars, legal, demographic trends, exposure, etc.

For proper targeting and strategizing, planners need to understand these factors and to what extent they are amenable.



**Influencing Factors Chart**

| Influencing factors | Impact | Constraints | Opportunities |
|---------------------|--------|-------------|---------------|
| Political           |        |             |               |
| Demographic         |        |             |               |
| Economic            |        |             |               |
| Cultural            |        |             |               |
| Educational         |        |             |               |
| Environmental       |        |             |               |
| Legal               |        |             |               |
| International       |        |             |               |
| Policies            |        |             |               |
| Other               |        |             |               |

## 4) Project Cycle Analysis

This last component takes the project in its entirety and applies the three foregoing components to determine how gender interacts with each project stage enumerated below.

(Module 4 on gender mainstreaming goes into more details on how to apply the project-cycle for gender responsive programming)

### Identification:

Needs assessment  
Objective formulation

### Design:

Anticipating implications to men and women  
Considering access and control issues

### Implementation:

Ensuring balance in participation

### Evaluation:

Assessing differential impact on women and men.

## HANDOUT 4.1

### Summary of the Women's Equality and Empowerment (Longwe) Framework

The Women's Equality and 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.

#### Tool 1: Levels of Equality

- Control
- Participation
- Conscientisation
- Access
- Welfare

## Application for the Gender Analytical Framework

To reinforce learning of the above framework, participants should be taken through a case study (see annex).

### Task

1. Divide participants into small groups.
2. Ask participants to read the case study individually.
3. In groups ask participants to respond to the following:
  - Identify the Activity profile
  - Access and Control profile
  - Influencing factors
  - Gender concerns arising from the analysis

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, which is a lower level (welfare). This approach takes the view that if equality is intrinsic 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 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.

#### **Tool 2: Level of Recognition of "Women's Issues"**

As well as assessing the level of women's empowerment that a development project 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 "woman'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).

The three levels of recognition of women's issues in project design are identified as:

**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 objects are positively concerned with women's issues and with improving women's position relative to men.

#### **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 a transformatory potential or not as well as to translate a commitment to women's empowerment into policy and plans. It can also be used for training and to encourage 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. However, Longwe moves beyond the notion of separate needs showing in the framework that development intervention can contain both.

## **HANDOUT 4.2**

### **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 characterizes 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 the gender division of labour visible. It can be carried out by mapping out all the activities of men and women (can include also girls and boys) in the household over a twenty-four hour period. Moser identifies the triple role for women as 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 or work:**

Women's community activities include provisioning and maintenance of resources, which are used by everyone, such as water, healthcare, and education. These activities are undertaken as an extension of their

reproductive role and are normally unpaid and carried out in their free time.

Politics and activities of such nature also fall under community work. However, in most parts of this world men are mainly involved in politics at the community level. Even though this work may be paid or unpaid, it definitely increases 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 and 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 and cash income, as immediate interests/needs that 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 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 provides entry points to address gender inequalities in the longer term so that strategic gender interests/needs can be created.

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

As mentioned above, men and women have differential access and benefits to several resources, both within and outside of the household. An analysis of intra-household resource allocation can be 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. This is also an important step in the gender analytical process so that equitable development projects and policies can be designed.

### 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

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 of women 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 recognizes the reproductive role of women and seeks to meet practical gender needs (PGNs) in that role through a top-down handout of food aid, measures against malnutrition and family planning. It does not do anything to challenge the status quo and is therefore still widely popular.

**Equity:** The original WID approach, emerged during the 1976-85 UN's Decade for Women, 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 recognizes 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 and is also criticized as western feminism, is considered threatening and is unpopular with governments.

**Anti-Poverty:** The second WID approach, a toned-down version of equity was 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 recognizes the productive role of women, and seeks 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 was 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 the (PGNs) of women, 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. This is also still a 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 recognizes the triple role and seeks to meet women's 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. The framework approaches development-planning challenges, unequal gender relations as well as 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 also alerts planners to the interrelationship between productive, reproductive and community roles.




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**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.**

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## HANDOUT 4.3

### WID/IGAD Policy Matrix

| ISSUES  | WELFARE   | EQUITY  | ANTI-POVERTY  | EFFICIENCY   | EMPOWERMENT  |
|---|---|---|---|--|--|
| <b>Origins</b>                                  | <p>Earliest approach:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>residual model of social welfare under colonial administration modern-sation/ accelerated growth economic development model</li> </ul> | <p>Original WID approach:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>failure of modernisation development</li> <li>policy-influence of Boserup and First World feminists on Percy Amendment.</li> <li>declaration of UN Decade for Women</li> </ul> | <p>2<sup>nd</sup> WID approach:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>toned down equity because of criticism</li> <li>linked to Economic Redistribution with Growth and Basic Needs</li> </ul> | <p>3<sup>rd</sup> and now predominant WID approach:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>deterioration in world economy</li> <li>policies of economic stabilisation and adjustment rely on women's economic contribution to development</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>arose out of failure of equity approach</li> <li>Women's feminist writing and grass-roots organizations</li> </ul>  |
| <b>Period most Popular</b>                      | 1950-70: but still widely used  | 1975-86: attempts to adopt it during and since Women's Decade   | 1970s onwards: still limited popularity   | Post 1980s: now most popular approach  | 1975 onwards: accelerated during 1980s, still limited popularity   |
| <b>Purpose</b>                                  | To bring women into development as better mothers: this is seen as their most important role in development   | To gain equity for women in the development process: women seen as active participants in development   | To ensure poor women increase their productivity: women's poverty seen as problem of under-development not of subordination   | To measure development is more efficient and more effective: women's economic participation seen as associated with equity   | To empower women through greater self-reliance: women's subordination not only seen as problem of men but also of colonial and neo-colonial oppression   |
| <b>Needs of women met and roles reorganized</b> | To meet PGN in reproductive role, relating particularly to food aid, malnutrition and family planning   | To meet SGN in terms of triple roles directly through state top-down intervention, giving political and economic autonomy by reducing inequality with men   | To meet PGN in productive role, to earn an income, particularly in small-scale income generating projects   | To meet PGN in context of declining social services by relying on triple roles of women and elasticity of women's time   | To reach SGN in terms of triple role-indirectly through bottom-up mobilisation around PGN as means to confront oppression  |
| <b>Comments</b>                                 | Women seen as passive beneficiaries of development, with focus on reproductive role; non-challenging, therefore still widely popular, especially with governments and traditional NGOs.                 | Identifying subordinate position of women in terms of relationship to men, challenging status quo; criticized as Western feminism, considered threatening and not popular with governments.   | 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.    | Women seen entirely in terms of delivery capacity and ability to extend working day; most popular approach both with governments and multilateral agencies.  | 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 under-financed voluntary organizations. |

Source: C. Moser (1993) Gender Planning and Development, Routledge

## HANDOUT 4.4

### Summary of the Gender Analysis Matrix (GAM) Framework

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 raising awareness about gender inequalities with development of practical skills. It includes men as a category and therefore can be used in interventions that target men.



## HANDOUT 4.5

### GENDER ANALYSIS MATRIX (GAM) Worksheet

#### Project Objectives:

|           | Labour | Time | Resources | Culture |
|-----------|--------|------|-----------|---------|
| Women     |        |      |           |         |
| Men       |        |      |           |         |
| Household |        |      |           |         |
| Community |        |      |           |         |

Source: March, C, Smyth, I. Mukhopadhyay, M. (1999) A Guide to Gender-Analysis Frameworks, Oxfam, Oxford

## Handout 4.6

### Comparing Gender Frameworks

When selecting a framework for your particular work, it is important to consider their main conceptual differences. 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 and 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. Thus for instance, in any village gender relations will differ between the richest 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 conflicts or economic crises 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 Framework and the Social Relations Approach are centred on change over time.

#### **Does the framework mainly analyse social roles or social relations?**

A gender analysis that focuses primarily on roles takes the gender division of labour, and the gendered distribution of resources as its starting point. 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 focuses 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.

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

Gender-analysis frameworks concentrate on certain factors in women 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 therefore important 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 criticized as follows. First, it does not challenge existing gender relations and as a result 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, ignoring issues of justice. This approach can be particularly problematic in countries where women are involved in production outside the house.

Other gender frameworks explicitly have the aim of empowerment. These emphasise the transformation of gender relations, through women's self-empowerment. Since 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. It is also 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 organizations 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 and the later ones include men as well and can also be used with projects that address male gender roles.

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 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 and 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.

*Extracts from: March, C., Smyth, I. And Mukhopadhyay, M. (1999) A Guide to Gender Frameworks, Oxfam, Oxford.*

## HANDOUT 4.7

### INFORMATION THAT A GOOD GENDER ANALYSIS SHOULD PROVIDE

#### Understanding of Gender Relations

It is important to realize that the experiences of women are distinct from and in relation to the experiences of men. Therefore understanding gender relations can help communities understand:

- 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.



## HANDOUTS 4.8

### INDICATORS OF POSITIVE CHANGES IN WOMEN'S CONDITION

- 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 programmes
- Improved health of women and children
- 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

## HANDOUT 4.9

### CASE STUDY FOR USE IN HARVARD FRAMEWORK

#### Community Forestry in East Kalimantan, Indonesia

##### Programme Background: Forestry in Indonesia

Conventional forestry projects (concerned with planting and maintaining or cutting forests) usually have two objectives: wood production for commercial use or tree growth for environmental protection. Commercial forestry in Indonesia involves the logging of timber, processing into saw logs, plywood and veneers for export and fuel wood, building material and non-timber forest products for trading and domestic use. Intensive building silviculture is done only in the teak forests of Java. Forests maintained for environmental objectives prevent soil erosion and control run-off and water supplies. Conventional forestry projects are the major activity of the Indonesian Ministry of Forestry, and are also undertaken through the State Forestry Management Company.

"Forests for People", an Indonesian programme developed by the Ministry, has recognized that, especially in adjacent areas, forests should benefit the community as well as State and corporate interests. A different set of objectives, activities and management style from traditional forestry projects has evolved.

Community forestry may involve activities similar to those in conventional forestry, but most community forests are for consumption by rural people. Community forestry objectives may include production of fuel wood, animal fodder, poles and timber for building, food products (leaves, nuts, fruits, herbs) as well as environmental protection. As rural development activities, these projects may also aim to increase rural employment, raise the standard of living of the rural poor (through increasing forest output and income), and involve the rural community in local self-help activities. Institutional inputs may include extension, training, guidance, technical help, the provision of materials/tools and training.

In Indonesia, the community forestry approach has had good results. Since 1964, Gadjah Mada University has been involved in reforestation based in a participatory approach to community development. In West Java, Participatory Action Research has been used to involve the rural population in dealing with problems of soil erosion, increasing resource

management, and improving the livelihood of rural people. WAHL, a federation of 15 Indonesian environmental organizations, worked with the government and NGOs to promote tropical forest conservation, soil protection and community forestry.

##### The Pilot Project Area

In February 1983, the village of Biyasan (not its real name) was given approval for community forestry project, one of several villages in three neighbouring kecamatans targeted by government for community forestry programmes. The village, located in an upland area of East Kalimantan near the headwaters of a major river, is made up of 7 hamlets, scattered within walking distance. It covers 1,200 hectares of hilly terrain.

In 1989, Biyasan had a population of 3843, 1680 males and 2163 females, with an average of 5.9 people per household. Over the previous 15 years, the area had seen considerable population growth and then a decline. Population growth, at 1.6% per year was low due to migration. Most villagers (600 households) had been in the area for generations. Twelve years ago farmers from away (50 households) were resettled in Biyasan and given small (.5 ha) plots of land.

Though the soil was stony and shallow in places, there was good seasonal rainfall, and farmers harvested one crop of sawah rice each year. They also grew dry land crops. 38% of the land was in agricultural production, 12% home gardens, 7% private woodlots, 15% fallow and 33% unproductive due to the river, the slope of the land, previous clear cutting and poor soil. The main crops in the area included rice and palawija (cassava, corn and peanuts). The tree crops included cashew and coffee, and were primarily cash crops, as were peanuts.

Women and men both owned and inherited land. Men owned 68% of all productive land, women the remaining 32% -a result of traditional inheritance patterns. The average size of landholding per household was 7 hectares, with 6% holding more than 3.5 hectares. Women headed twenty per cent of households, and in ten per cent the men had migrated in search of waged employment.

Wealthy farmers might employ wage labour at harvest time, as well as using family labour. Many of them obtained credit for fertilizers and some had access to machinery for weeding and hulling. They were also converting fallow fields to cloves, chocolate and coffee

tree crops. Because of poor soil quality, steep slopes and soil erosion, wealthy farmers' fields expanded further from the village.

The poorer farmers had significantly poorer yields in recent years, and had not been able to benefit from commercial inputs. Few farmers, however, were landless sharecroppers. Seasonal agricultural labour was primarily unpaid family labour, and tologmenolong. For poor farmers, returns on family land were not usually enough to provide for a household and other income had to be earned.

In nearby timber estates, trees were and continue to be cut and saw logs shipped to urban areas. Depletion of the nearby forest because of widespread clear cutting resulted in problems. A number of necessary ingredients for natural medicine were becoming scarce. It was harder to find choice trees for wood forest products. Reforestation had provided employment for a number of men and women over the last 10 years, but at the time of the case study, these jobs had decreased because of concession holders' low priority on reforestation. Women's earnings traditionally came from making rattan products and other non-wood forest goods and trading in the market. During reforestation efforts, women were the main wage labourers in tree nurseries.

Wage labour accounted for 30% of male income, (down 10% in 5 years), and 17% of female income (down 15% in 5 years). The drop reflects a decline in local forestry employment, increased mechanization by wealthy farmers, and land use changes by large landholders – from increasingly unprofitable agriculture to private woodlots – which decreased the need for hired labour.

Farmers had not concerned themselves with planting and maintaining private woodlots, because there appeared to be abundant forests, which could be cut, with or without licenses. Their concern was food production. But clear cutting, the resulting soil and water losses, and a growing need for building material and fuel wood, made private woodlots desirable for those who could afford it. At the time of the case study, no income had been generated from private woodlots.

### Activities

Local men who had not migrated for work were involved in agriculture, either on family land or as hired labour. Men did field preparation, terrace

construction, and ploughing with oxen. They were also involved in animal care and feeding. Their daily work might also include some artisan craft production (making rattan furniture) and trading. From time to time, men raided the reforested area for building material, or additional space for home gardens. Families planted trees for fencing around their gardens, and for soil conservation; but more trees were needed for home construction and other building.

Women managed the households. They were involved in seasonal rice planting, transplanting, hoeing, weeding and harvesting, rice processing and storage, and work in their gardens. Many women worked as unpaid labourers alongside their husbands who were employed by the state forestry company. Some also worked seasonally for wages, picking and drying coffee and tobacco for wealthy farmers.

Year-round, women collected fuel wood and natural medicines, made non-wood forest products from rattan and traded at the market. They collect wood from the piles made when fields were cleared (often with their children), or walked further into the hills. As clearing moved further away from home, women walked greater distances for fuel wood. Sometimes they collected it from the reforestation area closer to home. As they returned home, they also collected leaves and fruit along the way. Women were active in traditional wedding and funeral activities, and find alternatives to institutional credit by raising money through participation in the local artisan.

Girls were involved in household work from an early age. At 7, they helped feed the animals, carry water, and gather fuel wood. By age 10, girls were helping plant and harvest rice. Boys were active in feeding and caring for the animals, and helping in their fathers' work. There was a primary school in the village, which both boys and girls attended, but as they got older, girls were needed to help at home for longer hours than boys. Girls, especially those whose mothers worked as labourers or traded in the market had to drop out of school.

Poverty in the area was a result of the complex relationship between high population density, poor quality soil, inequitable land tenure arrangements, and migration of men. The poorest people tended to be women and their families in single-headed households. Women traditionally did not benefit from credit and extension programmes for farmers as much as men. Women's income declined and because of a multitude of factors including lack of education, there were few employment opportunities for women.

# Module 5

## Mainstreaming Gender in Programmes and Projects

### Objective:

- Explain the concept of gender mainstreaming and its application in projects.
- To build and strengthen participants' skills in gender mainstreaming.

### Learner Objective:

By the end of this session, participants will be able to mainstream gender in their projects and programmes.

**Time:** 1 ½ Days

### Content:

- This module examines the concept of Mainstreaming; this will assist the participants to have a working definition of the concept as they go through the session.

- The next key content of the module is an understanding of the Project Cycle stages. The module uses the generic stages of the project cycle in project formulation to illustrate gender mainstreaming.

### Materials:

- Handouts on project cycle
- Project documents

**Handouts:** There are three handouts on gender mainstreaming, integration and equality as well as gender indicators.

### Methodology:

- Lecture
- Case study/analysis
- Group work

## The Concept of Gender Mainstreaming

Gender mainstreaming can be defined as the process of ensuring that gender is taken into account in all policies, processes and practices. UNDP defines it as an approach to achieving gender equality and supporting the advancement of women. Since the declaration of the decade for women in 1975, governments and international development agencies were called upon to promote integration of women in national development. In response to this call, governments established machineries such as the women bureaux, divisions and departments. The bureaux were placed as units or divisions in different ministries in the respective governments. These offices were then charged with the responsibilities of ensuring that women's development took place. The majority of the projects executed by the women's bureaux were small and basically focused on women using a WID approach.

During the mid decade evaluation of progress made in integrating women in development, it was reported that awareness had been created on the situation of women; but progress was slow in improving women's status and well-being. Projects implemented by the offices had often been small and tended to marginalize women and did not change gender inequalities. Due to the dissatisfaction with the

integration strategy, development activists suggested a shift both in approach and strategy, if the over all goal of equality was to be achieved. As a result GAD approaches were proposed to as opposed to WID approaches and mainstreaming as a strategy was also promoted.

Central to the process of mainstreaming and engendering projects, are issues of capacity and skills development for gender analysis, availability of data and information for planning purposes. Mainstreaming addresses the 'how' element of development in relation to gender issues. It addresses the need to equip people with knowledge, information and tools. Gender sensitisation is to be used as an entry point to mainstreaming.

After the above definition, the facilitator should take the participants through the various stages of project implementation and illustrate how to mainstream gender in the projects.

### The Project Cycle

In project terms, it means that gender must be reflected in all project cycle stages.

The gender analysis tools are use to achieve gender mainstreaming in projects, programmes and policies. These tools have been covered in Module 4 on Gender Analysis. These tools include but are not limited to the following gender analysis profiles:

- Activity profile, assessing labour
- Access and control profile, looking at access to resources and benefits
- Influencing factors, looking at the constraints and opportunities presented by the project
- Practical and strategic needs and interests
- Empowerment

The following is an example of incorporating gender in the project cycle.



### Project Identification and Preparation

| Steps for ordinary action  | Steps to incorporate gender   |
|--|---|
| <p><b>Conduct situation analysis</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● identify actors, interests, problems, opportunities, obstacles, etc.</li> <li>● collect information on the geography, demography, labour characteristics, economic resources, collaborating agencies and policy frameworks</li> <li>● prioritise problems and select necessary interventions/projects</li> <li>● establish goals and objectives</li> </ul> | <p><b>In conducting situation analysis:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● include women, men, boys and girls as sources of information</li> <li>● articulate the priority problems of each gender category and classify as either practical or strategic</li> <li>● disaggregate all information by gender, age and any other relevant factor</li> <li>● develop gender disaggregated activity and resource profiles</li> <li>● establish the existence and nature of gender policies among collaborating agencies and the government</li> <li>● ensure that interventions selected will address the interests of all stakeholders by gender, age, etc.</li> <li>● ensure that the objectives are specific on how the project intends to improve the lot of boys compared to girls and women compared to men.</li> </ul> |

### Project Design

| Steps for ordinary action  | Steps for incorporating gender  |
|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Select and formulate project strategy, e.g. community-based, participatory, labour intensive or capital intensive, top-down or bottom up, centralised or decentralised etc.</li> </ul> <p>Structural set-up</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● financial: budgets</li> <li>● organisational: departments</li> <li>● human resources: staffing and salaries</li> <li>● collaborative mechanisms: roles and responsibilities</li> </ul> <p>Elaborate project plan</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● objectives</li> <li>● inputs</li> <li>● expected outputs</li> <li>● indicators and methods of measurement- activities</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Ensure strategy has no potential to exclude stakeholders on the basis of gender or age</li> <li>● Consult different age and gender categories in choosing and designing project strategy</li> <li>● Allocate budget lines and resources for gender and training on gender</li> <li>● State gender equality as a staffing policy</li> <li>● Include gender responsive programming in the terms of reference of all staff</li> <li>● Confirm that all collaborative agencies have gender on their agenda</li> <li>● Objectives and outputs should indicate anticipated improvements by age and gender</li> <li>● Indicators should be gender-specific and be developed in a participatory manner to reflect age and gender perspectives.</li> <li>● Activities should be planned bearing in mind the gender workload distribution and potential contributions of different gender and age categories.</li> </ul> |



### Project Implementation, Monitoring and Reporting

| Steps for ordinary action   | Steps for incorporating gender   |
|---|--|
| <p>Elaborate plans of operations</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● annual targets, chronology, activities</li> <li>● technical package and delivery systems</li> <li>● allocate and time the activities</li> </ul> <p>Implement activities</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● staffing</li> <li>● participation of stakeholders</li> <li>● management</li> <li>● networking</li> </ul> <p>Monitoring and reporting</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● plan methods and frequency of monitoring</li> <li>● decide on data collection tools</li> <li>● develop monitoring indicators</li> <li>● monitor progress and bottlenecks</li> <li>● adjust accordingly and re-plan</li> <li>● compile and disseminate reports</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Targets should indicate intended improvements by gender and age</li> <li>● Technical package and delivery systems should not marginalise on the basis of gender and age</li> <li>● Ensure parity in numbers and positions of staff</li> <li>● Conduct gender awareness training for staff and other stakeholders</li> <li>● Use gender policy as reference for management decisions</li> <li>● Choose data collection methods which have scope for gender dis-aggregation of information</li> <li>● Disaggregate all data, quantitative and qualitative</li> <li>● Target both genders and different age categories as sources of information</li> <li>● Package the report in media that will reach all age and gender categories</li> </ul> |

### Indicators

In order to ensure that mainstreaming has taken place, and that there is no fading away of gender issues during the project implementation, it is important to formulate indicators for use in the monitoring and evaluation process. Indicators are defined as measures of progress and can be quantitative or qualitative, where the former are expressed numerically and the latter descriptively.

(For more on Indicators see Handout 5.3)

### Sample Gender Indicators

- Participation of women and men in activities
- Access to and control over inputs by men/women

- Use of gender expertise
- Training or other activities for women
- GAD/WID expertise
- Gender specific research and data collection
- Quantity and quality of outputs by gender
- Appropriateness of outputs for women/men
- Access to and control over outputs
- Changes by gender in division of labour, workload
- Access to and control over resources and benefits
- Decision-making and organization
- Problems and needs met by gender
- Changes in empowerment and self-determination
- Per cent in representation
- Per cent in participation
- Per cent trained

## HANDOUT 5.1

### Integration versus Mainstreaming

The overall aim of the Food and Agricultural Organisation (FAO) and the International Labour Organisation (ILO) is to integrate women's questions *fully* into the technical assistance programmes of their plans of action. There are two main strategies for fulfilling this objective. One is to give women the opportunity to participate and benefit from the technical assistance programme, as it appears today, what we will call *integration of women*. The other is to change the technical assistance programme so that it will benefit women as well as men. That means giving the programme a gender profile, or what we will call *mainstreaming* the technical assistance programme. *Integration* and *mainstreaming* are also terms that are used by the FAO and the ILO personnel, but it has been difficult to grasp how the organizations interpret them. The following is, therefore, *our* interpretation based on general WID documents and discussions with FAO, ILO and other UN personnel.

The point about *integration of women* is to include women on an equal footing with men in all projects. However, basic changes in the characteristics of the project will not occur. The technical assistance programme as such will remain largely unaltered, covering the same sectors as now, and with the same basic focus as now. However, efforts are made to increase women's participation in training courses as well as in employment and other activities. It is a question of numerical equality.

Integration of women implies that *all* staff members have to take women into consideration and start perceiving the target population as gendered. They must find ways to increase women's participation in their projects as well as find gender differences that

are relevant to their projects. Beyond that, there is no substantial discrepancy between the new and the old policy. On the other hand, this approach in itself involves changes large enough to cause conflicts and to encounter resistance from personnel because it represents additional work to an already heavy workload. It also implies a new way of working and thinking that the personnel are not used to; they don't know how to do it; they may find women's participation irrelevant; or they may be against women's increased participation for one reason or another.

*Mainstreaming* implies re-evaluation of current policy. Inquiries have to be made as to what types of projects will benefit women as well as men. The technical assistance policy has to be scrutinized with and critically analysed- what kind of development is it promoting; and does it respond to the wishes, needs and interests of women and men? It should not be taken for granted that women and men have common interests. Mainstreaming presupposes that any programme or any project is initiated with the awareness that we live in a gendered world, and that the concept of gender is relational, pointing at male-female relations in production and reproduction. This implies that changes for women will consequently require changes for men. The norm for gender mainstreaming planning is gender responsiveness, and should be performed by staff on a regular basis. In addition, gender must also become a constituent category in the implementation and evaluation of technical assistance.

Extracts from: Lotherington, A.T., M. Haug, and A.B. Flemmen. Implementation of Women-in-Development Policy. Forut, Oslo, 1991. (pages 55-56)

## HANDOUT 5.2

### MAINSTREAMING AND EQUALITY

The norms or conventional ways of a society are usually defined as the choices that are considered and decisions made that affect the economic, social and political options of large numbers of people. It is where the action is and where things happen. The institutions that make these decisions and choices is largely occupied and controlled by men. Men predominate in positions of political power; they hold more offices, sit on more legislative councils and direct more government agencies than women. Men also predominate in positions of economic power; they direct more companies, sit on more boards, have access to a broader spectrum of jobs and earn more income in every occupational level than women.

Thus, the idea of mainstreaming women is fundamentally about equality. It is about power as much as it is about projects; it is about policies as much as programmes.

In 1993, almost a decade after the term mainstreaming first entered the discussions on women and development, a clearer and more cohesive consensus about its meaning started to emerge. Whereas the

discussions about separation versus integration and integration versus agenda setting were couched in either/or terms, it is now more common to hear WID workers talk about inclusive strategies. Mainstreaming is now more often used to refer to a comprehensive strategy, involving both women-oriented programming and integrating women into existing programmes, both agenda-setting activities and activities to incorporate women into existing mainstream structures.

Behind this new consensus is the fact that attention has been refocused on the purpose of mainstreaming. This purpose is the achievement of both equality and development. It is no surprise that this was also the original goal of the WID movement. In fact, it was the failure of early WID efforts to achieve equality and development that promoted the concept of mainstreaming. It has become clear that mainstreaming is a process rather than a goal. Thus, although UNIFEM's mandate is to mainstream women, it is for the purpose of attaining equality and development.

Extracts from: Mary Anderson, *Focusing on Women: UNIFEM's Experience in Mainstreaming* (UNIFEM, 1993).

## HANDOUT 5.3

### GENDER INDICATORS

#### Gender Indicators

These 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.

The different types of gender indicators are:

- Sex-disaggregated statistics
- Gender statistics
- Gender-sensitive indicators

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. On the other hand, 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

These provide direct evidence of the status of women, relative to some agreed normative standard or explicit reference group. For example, 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.

Source - UNDP information Pack

# Module 6

## Practical Training Skills

### Objectives:

- To equip participants with skills to enable them plan, conduct and evaluate gender training using participatory methods.
- To identify and analyse methods appropriate for gender training, their advantages and disadvantages.
- To analyse typical problems that arise during gender training and identify possible solutions
- To provide participants with the opportunity to practice facilitation using participatory methods in conducting gender training and offer critiques for improvement.

### Learner Objectives:

By the end of this session participants should be able to plan and execute gender-training activities.

**Time:** 3 to 4 days

**Content:** This module will cover the following content:

- The concept of communication
- Qualities of a good communicator/trainer
- Things to do before a training event
- Facilitation practice

### Materials:

- Handouts
- Group reports

### Methodology:

- Brainstorming
- Plenary
- Case studies
- Group Work
- Training assessment/critique

## The Concept of Communication

The facilitators might choose a variety of methodology to start off; one way of doing this is to ask participants to brainstorm on the definition of communication and the reasons for communicating and to identify various communication channels. Outcomes of such discussions can be listed on a flip chart or visualized on cards. The facilitator then wraps up the session by summarizing the key learning points.

### Qualities of a Good Communicator/Trainer

This session seeks to emphasize the importance of good communication skills for the trainers. Participants can enumerate what they consider to be good communication skills/characteristics. Facilitator wraps up the discussions by summarizing participants' views and brings in any points that the participants might have missed.

### Before a Training Event

Prior to the training event, a number of activities should be undertaken to ensure that the training is successful. These could include

- Training needs analysis
- Identifying/contacting, participant and resource people

- Setting objectives that are SMART (Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic and Time bound)
- Participants are oriented
- Be clear for the client's expectations
- What to train in the topics
- Designing the process
- Programming
- Choice of methodology
- Resource materials and their sources
- Means of evaluation and monitoring progress
- Certification, if necessary
- Official opening and closure
- Logistics
- Duration and timing
- Accommodation/food
- Transport
- Venue
- Finances: fees, allowances, etc.
- Stationary and other physical items e.g. boards, pens, flipcharts, etc.

### Facilitation Practice

Participants are divided into country/organization groups and are asked to plan a training event, bearing in mind the following.

- Possible target group for training
- Design a 30-minute session on a given topic

- Plan to use not more than 3 participatory methods
- Share facilitation, but nominate one group leader
- Conduct the session using the plenary as participants

The facilitator should inform the participants that their facilitation would be assessed based on:

- Subject mastery
- Appropriate use of methods
- Participation of the plenary
- Time management
- Overall achievement
- Suggestions for improvement

After the groups have made presentations on their training event, the facilitator should provide the groups with feedback, which can include:

- An assessment of capabilities and skills to plan and conduct gender-sensitisation and training using a variety of participatory methods
- Planning training activities
- Methodologies
- Materials
- Tips on module delivery
- Evaluation



## Module 7

### Plans of Action/ Follow-up Activities

**Objective:** To plan the follow-up to the training of trainers including the identification of opportunities, gaps, materials and methodologies that are most suitable for different groups.

Gender training, assesses this in terms of:

- What is happening
- What gaps exist?
- What opportunities exist?
- What are the needs for further action?

#### Plans of Action:

- Develop plans of action at country/programme level indicating possible follow up actions.
- Individual plans of actions should indicate what individuals hope to achieve after the training

## Module 8

### Workshop Evaluation

**Objective:** This module sets out to assess the value and applicability of the gender and development training to the participant's work and their capability as trainers.

Evaluation can take different formats as follows:

- Pre-workshop Evaluation
- Continuous Assessment
- Observation
- Critiques
- Mood Meter
- Daily Evaluation
- Final Evaluation
- Written assignments
- Post -workshop Evaluation

# ANNEXES

## Annex 1 Methods of Training

This component looks at the various methodologies recommended in the delivery of a training programme. The layout of this section looks at a definition of the method, steps in using the method, advantages of the method and disadvantages of the method. It is recommended that facilitators run through these before delivering a gender-training workshop.

### 1. Debate

Definition: A systematic oral discussion of a given issue by two or more groups or persons.

| Steps  | Advantages   | Disadvantages   |
|--|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Decide on a clear motion</li> <li>• Determine groups and their standpoint</li> <li>• Outline ground rules and method</li> <li>• Allocate time slots</li> <li>• Appoint moderator</li> <li>• Debate</li> <li>• Summary: tie loose ends together</li> <li>• Vote</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Fun</li> <li>• Spontaneous discussion activated</li> <li>• Broad issues explored</li> <li>• Challenges ideas</li> <li>• Oral and appropriate for all categories of participants</li> <li>• Learning from others made possible</li> <li>• Controversial issues explored</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Can get personal</li> <li>• Groups restricted to expressing one point of view</li> <li>• Time consuming</li> <li>• Can digress from original topic</li> <li>• Success dependent on issue and participants</li> <li>• Can be superficial</li> </ul> |

### 2. Lecture

Definition: Subject expert delivers information to an audience

| Steps  | Advantages  | Disadvantages   |
|--|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Research</li> <li>• Preparation of content and visual aids</li> <li>• Delivery</li> <li>• Participant observations</li> <li>• Facilitator response</li> <li>• Conclusion</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• One specialist can benefit many people</li> <li>• New ideas communicated</li> <li>• Useful for a big group</li> <li>• Good for an academic subject</li> <li>• Good for introducing new subjects</li> <li>• Good if time constraints exist</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Can be dull</li> <li>• Not participatory</li> <li>• Facilitator centred</li> <li>• Suffers from personal weaknesses of the lecturer</li> </ul> |

### 3. Group Work

Definition: Participants are divided into smaller groups where they share ideas and discuss a given topic freely under the facilitator's guidance.

| Steps   | Advantages  | Disadvantages  |
|---|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Brief on topic</li> <li>• Set time limit</li> <li>• Form groups</li> <li>• Choose leader and spokesperson within group</li> <li>• Facilitator monitors progress</li> <li>• Return to plenary</li> <li>• Presentation of report to plenary</li> <li>• Discussion</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Small units (max.8) increase concentration</li> <li>• Enables the less vocal to air their views</li> <li>• Interactive</li> <li>• Enables exchange of experience and information</li> <li>• Time saving</li> <li>• Relaxed</li> <li>• Breaks monotony</li> <li>• Contributes to team building</li> <li>• Breaks group tensions and conflicts</li> <li>• Enables in-depth exploration of topic</li> <li>• Allows expression and creativity</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Needs controlled time</li> <li>• Can lead to digression from issue</li> <li>• Time consuming</li> <li>• Not foolproof against domination</li> <li>• Blurs individual creativity</li> <li>• Can lead to exploitation of enthusiastic members by lazy ones</li> </ul> |

### 4. Case Study

Definition: An actual or fictional account, which presents a reality out of which relevant lessons can be drawn. The information can be presented verbally, in writing, pictorially, cinematically or in whichever form is possible.

| Steps  | Advantages  | Disadvantages   |
|--|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Facilitator to review and thoroughly understand material</li> <li>• Design study tasks</li> <li>• Present task to group</li> <li>• Give clear instructions</li> <li>• Allow time for study</li> <li>• Monitor progress</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Feedback session</li> <li>• Discussion</li> <li>• One can create own materials</li> <li>• Provides examples hence vivid</li> <li>• Realistic hence lesson-laden</li> <li>• Good for testing participants' comprehension of subject</li> <li>• Acts as a guide to deeper understanding</li> <li>• Useful to explore controversial issues</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It is difficult to identify or compile good case-studies</li> <li>• Risk of information over/under-load</li> <li>• Time consuming</li> <li>• Risk of hostility if participants adversely identify with case</li> </ul> |

### 5. Audio-Visuals: Video

Definition: Taped motion pictures, descriptions or analysis usually for re-emphasizing what has been taught in session.

| Steps   | Advantages   | Disadvantages   |
|---|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Choose video corresponding to session</li> <li>• Preview and thoroughly understand video</li> <li>• Design study tasks</li> <li>• Ensure video is of good quality</li> <li>• Set up equipment and pre-test</li> <li>• Introduce video and explain relevance to topic</li> <li>• Show</li> <li>• Discussion using study tasks in groups or plenary</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Illustrative of reality</li> <li>• Useful for reinforcing session</li> <li>• Breaks monotony</li> <li>• Enjoyable</li> <li>• Memorable</li> <li>• Appeals to both reason and emotion</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Expensive to produce</li> <li>• Can be seen as mere entertainment</li> <li>• Can be controversial</li> <li>• May present outdated information</li> </ul> |

### 6. Role-Plays

Definition: Participants assume real life situations and act them out in relation to training.

| Steps  | Advantages  | Disadvantages  |
|--|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Facilitator introduces role-play and issues instructions</li> <li>• Set time limits</li> <li>• Ensure for a well developed story line</li> <li>• Participants discuss concepts to role-play</li> <li>• Participants compose scripts</li> <li>• Participants assign and divide roles</li> <li>• Rehearsal</li> <li>• Dramatization in plenary</li> <li>• Discussion</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Informative</li> <li>• Entertaining</li> <li>• Participatory</li> <li>• Exploration of subtle and complicated issues</li> <li>• Memorable</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Time consuming</li> <li>• Tend to deviate from original issues</li> <li>• Stigmatization of those who play outstanding roles possible</li> <li>• May be seen as fun not learning</li> </ul> |

## ANNEX 2

### References:

- 1) Training of Trainers report for Uganda, Ghana, and South Africa.
- 2) Reports on Gender Training - FEMNET
- 3) UNDP Information Pack
- 4) Draft Gender training Manual - Nigeria

## ANNEX 3

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*Gender Training/Mainstreaming Workshop Reports*

A variety of workshop reports on gender training are available at the documentary center of FEMNET.