GENDER MANUAL

Prepared to Facilitate Gender Mainstreaming for
Projects Financed by CSF

Prepared by the TAU with the assistance of Honey Hassen, Gender Consultant

February 2007
Addis Ababa
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<td>African, Caribbean and Pacific Group of States</td>
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<td>AIDS</td>
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<td>Country Strategy Paper</td>
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<td>Civil Society Organization</td>
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<td>GDP</td>
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<td>Harmful Traditional Practice</td>
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<td>International Food Policy Research Institute</td>
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<td>Logical Framework Approach</td>
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<td>Millennium Development Goal</td>
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<td>NAO</td>
<td>National Authorizing Officer</td>
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<td>NAP-GE</td>
<td>National Action Plan for Gender Equality</td>
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<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organization</td>
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<td>Non-State Actor</td>
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<td>Women In Development</td>
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1. INTRODUCTION

This gender manual is prepared in line with the European Commission Civil Society Fund Programme (CSF) aims and objectives. The CSF is a joint initiative of the European Union and the Government of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia, as part of the ACP-EU Cotonou Agreement. It operates through grant funding to non state actors (NSA) financed by the European Commission through the European Development Fund. The overall aim of the programme is to promote a stable and democratic political environment through the integration of all sections of society into the mainstream of political, economic and social life.

The purpose of the programme is to increase and improve NSA dialogue with their constituency, with the Ethiopian government and amongst themselves, and also to increase NSA’s capacity to play their role in the national development process.

The results of the programme are intended to be:

- Increased capacity of Ethiopian NSA to engage in the development and democratisation processes;
- Strengthened independence and self-sufficiency of NSA;
- Improved coordination and networking amongst NSA;
- More effective and efficient delivery of services in the governance area;
- Greater capacity to dialogue with government and the European Commission on the implementation of Country Support Strategy as part of a more extensive and productive dialogue between NSA and government authorities, between NSA and their constituencies.

The manual development was enriched by discussions at consultation workshops during June-August 2006, which were conducted throughout the country and which were attended by hundreds of different NSA. The workshops included a specific presentation on gender issues in development and served as a fertile ground for discussion of cultural, socio-economic and project implementation issues relating to gender.

This manual has been prepared with the intention of assisting non-state actors (NSA) with the process of gender mainstreaming throughout the project cycle and to assist them to incorporate the strategic gender concerns of the CSF in their proposals. The manual is currently a descriptive document to provide NSA with key information relating to gender mainstreaming and gender definitions. As CSF grantees implement their projects and lessons learned/best practices are identified this manual will be revised with the relevant information for the benefit of the entire NSA sector. The hope is to have a flexible manual that is updated based on real experiences with practical tools and information to support quality development work in Ethiopia.

In order to be positively considered by the CSF NSA applying under the Calls for Proposals:

- Should consider how gender issues are included in their proposals.

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1 The Cotonou Agreement is a frame-work of co-operation signed between the EU and ACP (African, Caribbean and Pacific) states, in Benin, June 2000, as a successor to the Lomé Conventions. With in the overall score of the Agreement, recognition is given to the role of NSA, in any effective campaign against poverty.
• Should encourage the promotion of women’s involvement at all levels of project implementation;
• Should include gender-disaggregated quantitative or qualitative indicators in the project.
• Should ensure that both women and men are included, benefit from and are empowered through the activities they propose to carry out.

The manual aims to support NSA in the above by:

• Sensitising CSOs through increasing their understanding of the concept/general ideas of gender; to show the ways in which gender discrimination keeps women from achievements on par with men at every social, economic and political level; and to show how gender becomes part of the socialization² of children whatever their religion, class or race;

• Explaining how social constructions influence gender roles (gender-divisions of labour), access to, and control over natural and human resources, and how they play a role in shaping the existing imbalance of power between women and men that in turn contributes to gender inequality;

• Presenting the different gender needs, in relation to women centred and gender focused development approaches, so as to create awareness on the alternative ways in which interventions can emphasise the achievement of power transformation between women and men;

• Familiarising NSA with some of the CSF gender concerns and show ways of addressing gender issues in all its focal areas, with the goal of enhancing gender equality;

• Highlighting key gender issues to be considered at each stage of the project cycle management, and the benefits of using a gender analysis framework as a practical tool; and

• Introducing some examples of gender-responsive indicators that should be considered in project planning, to be used as a measure during monitoring and evaluating project execution and results along gender lines.

The manual will attempt to cover the following key items, included in the table below:

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² Socialization means the way in which we learn to fit in with the people around us as we grow up – we are influenced by them to think and behave as they do.
2. GENDER AND THE EC CIVIL SOCIETY FUND

The European Community and its Member States have legally and politically committed themselves to the promotion of gender equality in all their actions, including in their development assistance. This is enshrined in various international agreements and declarations such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW 1979), the Cairo Programme of Action (1994), the Beijing Platform for Action (1995), and the Millennium Declaration (2000). In addition, the Paris Declaration on Aid Effectiveness in 2005 called for donor harmonisation of actions to promote gender equality. The EC, the Member States and most partner countries are signatories to these agreements.
In 1993, 45 years after the Universal Declaration of Human Rights was adopted, and eight years after CEDAW entered into force, the UN World Conference on Human Rights in Vienna confirmed that women’s rights were human rights. That this statement was even necessary is striking—and yet this was a step forward in recognizing the rightful claims of one half of humanity, in identifying neglect of women’s rights as a human rights violation and in drawing attention to the relationship between gender and human rights violations.

Human rights are universal and inalienable; indivisible; interdependent and interrelated. They are universal because everyone is born with and possesses the same rights, regardless of where they live, their gender or race, or their religious, cultural or ethnic background. Inalienable because people’s rights can never be taken away. Indivisible and interdependent because all rights—political, civil, social, cultural and economic—are equal in importance and none can be fully enjoyed without the others. They apply to all equally, and all have the right to participate in decisions that affect their lives. They are upheld by the rule of law and strengthened through legitimate claims for duty-bearers to be accountable to international standards.

It is important to note that the gender paradigm described throughout this manual is one drawn from the international human rights framework as described above, which is the model endorsed by the European Commission, the government of Ethiopia and the international community.

Your attention is drawn to the European Commission gender homepage which is available at: [http://ec.europa.eu/europeaid/projects/gender/index_en.htm](http://ec.europa.eu/europeaid/projects/gender/index_en.htm)

As per the European Commission’s gender policy, and its commitment to accelerating gender equality, the CSF emphasises that the goal of gender equality can be best achieved if the development policy of NSA does not concentrate solely on improving the situation of women, but on changing the power relations between women and men. Thus, NSA are encouraged to mainstream gender throughout the lifespan of the projects that they propose to the CSF for funding, so that they can contribute to gender equality, essential for the attainment of sustainable development.

In line with the European Commission’s concerns and the focus of the international development instruments, the Civil Society Fund has therefore committed itself to:

- The mainstreaming of gender equality, good governance and children/youth rights;
- Promoting full participation and empowerment of women in programmes and ensuring that supported projects benefits men and women equally;
- Development of partnerships, facilitation of dialogue, increased women’s participation, strengthened capacity, etc., and
- Providing quality information and support to NSA through the Technical Assistance Unit

The Civil Society Fund in 2007 awarded grants to organisations that applied under two Calls for Proposals issued in 2006. Grant awards have been made to women’s empowerment projects and to projects which do not specifically target women but which have considered gender issues in their design. In time many lessons will be drawn from these two different types of projects and
information on the mainstreaming approaches in each will be documented. Indeed, it will be interesting to see the comparative impact that both project types have on the status of gender in Ethiopia.

3. GENDER CONTEXT IN ETHIOPIA

With an estimated population of 77.4 million in 2005 (38.8 million male and 38.6 million female), Ethiopia stands as the second most populous country in Sub-Saharan Africa. Poverty rates are high with 36% of the population (about 31 million people), living below the poverty line, and 6 to 13 million people at risk of starvation. 25% of Ethiopia’s population is headed by female households, making them particularly vulnerable to poverty. Gender inequalities in Ethiopia are simultaneously a cause and a reflection of Ethiopia’s poverty. The exceptionally low status of women and harmful traditional practices such as early marriage, abduction and female genital cutting exacerbate morbidity and mortality of women and girls. Female genital cutting, which is practiced in 73% of communities, declined from 80 percent among female aged 15-49 in 2000 to 74 percent in 2004. Gender disparity is evident with increasing levels of education. Net enrolment at primary level is 54% for girls while 59% for boys and in secondary level at 15% and 34% for girls and boys respectively (source PASDEP). Adult literacy is low at 33% for men and 11% for women. Conversely, maternal mortality is high at 871/100,000 live births, skilled attendance at birth is low at 6% and only 5% of babies born are delivered in health facilities. About 25,000 women die every year due to delivery complications while only 10% of mothers receive post-natal care. Abortions account for about 50 percent of total gynaecological and obstetric admissions in the country. Young people, especially women are most vulnerable to HIV/AIDS, sexually transmitted infections, teenage pregnancy and obstetric fistula.

In light of marked gender inequalities, the policy level commitment to promote gender equality is high with the formulation of National Gender Policy (1993) and the Ethiopian Constitution proclaiming equal rights and participation of women in the economic, social and political sphere. The National Gender Policy also addresses issues of women’s workload and customary practices that curtail women’s equal status in society. Other policy documents such as the National Population Policy, the National HIV/AIDS Strategy, and the Health Sector Development Programmes also make reference to gender inequality as impediments to the country’s development. Globally, Ethiopia is signatory to the CEDAW, CRC and party to commitments such as the ICPD, Beijing Platform of Action, etc. In the formulation of the PASDEP, the Ethiopian government recognised gender equality as one of the core aims, namely through the pillar on Unleashing the Potential of Women. Ethiopia has also recently launched the National Action Plan for Gender Equality (NAP-GE-2006-2010), the key strategy document for achieving gender equality.

4. CONCEPTUAL OVERVIEW

Key gender concepts are explained in this section, as without understanding the concepts of sex and gender, or how gender roles and gender-based divisions of labour between men and women is affected by, and in turn shape gender power relations, it would be impossible to undertake a gender analysis for the achievement of effective gender mainstreaming, in the process of sustainable development.
Sex and Gender

The distinction between sex and gender is the subject of much discussion. In the past, the words sex and gender were often used interchangeably. However, many academics and development experts have adopted more precise definitions of the two terms. The definitions given for the two expressions in gender and development approaches are summarised below.

**Sex** is a natural attribute helping us identify a person as male or female. Sex differences are biologically based categories and innate, concerned with the variations of men and women in their bodies and reproductive organs. Sexual disparities are the same throughout the human race, where only women bear and breastfeed children, while only men produce sperm.

**Gender** refers to a set of qualities, roles and modes of behaviours expected from females or males that are assigned to them by society and culture, as opposed to the fact of human biology (ie. Sex). Gender is a social attribute ascribing some characteristic, or norms and modes of behaviour, to the female and others to the male. Thus, our gender identity determines how we are perceived, and how we are expected to think and act as women or men, and it is the result of the interplay of cultural, religious, and historically defined identities, norms and societal influences. The differences between males and females brought about by socio-cultural factors are often mistaken for natural differences between the sexes or considered as God-given phenomena.

However, we acquire “sex-appropriate” preferences, skills, personality attributes, behaviour and self-concept through the process of Sex-typing. Parents (or other relatives) begin shaping the future of infants from the beginning by treating boys and girls differently: they influence children’s behaviour, their play activities including their belief in masculinity and femininity. As per the social learning theory, both gender identity and gender roles are developed through a learning process that involves modelling, imitation, and reinforcement. The theory rests on the assumption that boys learn to be masculine and girls to be feminine because ‘gender-role-appropriate’ behaviour is rewarded while ‘gender-role-inappropriate’ behaviour is punished or ignored. As a result, children learn which behaviour is gender-role appropriate by observing and imitating adult and peer models.

Attitudes towards gender are also influenced by stereotypes, which can be defined as ‘structured beliefs about the personal attributes of women and men.’ They are psychological features that people believe to be associated with women and men. Accordingly, men are thought to be more inclined towards self-interest, while women are considered to be more inclined towards communion and concern for others. In addition, women are thought to base their self image on their perception of their feelings and the quality of their relationships.

Influenced by gendered relationships, studies and publications mostly concentrate on showing natural sex differences, rather than similarities. As a consequence, studies that show similarities tend to be forgotten, as people watch intently for differences, while studies that discover differences tend to be published more frequently in professional journals. Besides, studies reveal that there is typically a large overlap between women’s and men’s abilities because sex differences are generally small, and are unlikely to hold true for all kinds of people in all kinds of situations. Studies have exposed that women and men are similar in their general intelligence, learning ability, memory, concept formulation, reasoning, problem solving, and creativity.
Gender Roles

Gender roles refer to expected duties and responsibilities, rights and privileges of women and men that are shaped by society. Due to the differences in attitude towards sexes, different roles are assigned to women and men, and are learnt through the process of socialization. The roles are stereotyped and reflected in the different rights, activities, attitudes and behaviour of women and men that are influenced by religion, economy, cultural norms, and values as well as, political systems.

Gender roles are justified and normalized in different ways, internalised by children through the process of sex-typing, where children learn/adapt the skills they have to develop and the way they are expected to act. Due to the fact that children are born without knowing how the world works, the world is interpreted (explained) by the people with whom they live. This may be done deliberately, by telling them what people expect from them, or else they learn how to act simply by reacting to what is around them. Gender roles vary from one culture to another, in different ethnic groups and within society, according to age, social class and ethnic/religious affiliation. The way gender is interpreted and the roles people are expected to play are defined by the culture and values with which they live. The interplay of these factors determines what kind of clothing is appropriate for both females and males. It also decides on the amount of food necessary for each, the type of work they should perform, the time and the type of place they are supposed to be at, the type of groups they can join, etc.

In most cases, boys are supposed to be tough and physical games, while girls are encouraged to be quiet, sweet, gentle, and look pretty. Additionally, it is considered to be appropriate for women to eat less, slowly, and take a small bite at a time, while men are encouraged to eat more, faster and take big morsel at each go. Indeed, in rural areas of the country, mothers take it as their responsibility to feed their husband first, their sons second, their daughters next and themselves last. In resource-poor households, this may mean that females go without or have only little food. However, the gender roles or set of behaviours socially defined as appropriate for one’s sex are not static, but change over time. This is evident in that things considered inappropriate for men as well as women of earlier generations are accepted and practiced by both sexes these days.

2.2.1. Gender Based Division of Labour

Gender-based divisions of labour are sex-based divisions assigning some roles to women and others to men as designed through the socialization process. The division of labour varies from one society and culture to another. The gender-based division of labour that resulted from the socially ascribed gender roles have made women primarily responsible for tedious, repetitive, tiresome, time-consuming and economically un Rewarding activities. Moreover, women are made responsible for the activities of supporting and feeding those who go out to work, which consumes most of their time and ties them to the household and its immediate surroundings. This has limited the access of women to outside information that has in turn constrained their interaction with the external environment. Conversely, men benefited from this gender division of labour that has made them responsible for only some seasonal activities, allowing them to predominate in the public spheres, to perform activities which are economically rewarding and to maintain their dominance of gender relations.
Essentially, culture, religion, tradition and customs form the basis of people’s belief system that greatly influences gender relations\(^3\) in a society, which is also known as the analytical concept\(^4\) of gender. As gender power relations are skewed in favour of men in most societies, different values are ascribed to women’s tasks and men’s tasks. Due to women’s low status in a community, the activities they perform tend to be valued less than men’s, and in turn, women’s low status is perpetuated.

Generally, the gender based division of labour is not a mere assignment of tasks based on natural distinction between females and males, even though “the rationale” for the division seems to be the natural differences that exist between the two sexes. However, these differences are only unsubstantiated excuses, which are based on an imbalance of power between the sexes in any given society.

2.2.2. Triple Roles of Women

In all types of work done by women and men, distinction can be made between the visible aspects of the gender relations between them, which are included under the descriptive concept\(^5\) of gender. The tasks of women are divided into productive, reproductive and community activities.

2.2.2.1. Productive Activities

Productive activities include the production of goods and services for income or subsistence. Such activities are mainly recognised as work by individuals as well as societies and often merited for generating revenue or income, and which is most commonly included in national economic statistics – for example GDP or GNP. Such statistics are aggregated based on data on economic activities of formal organisations and usually obscure activities of small-scale initiatives of people. As such, they tend to under-value women’s contribution to society, as women’s activities are mostly undertaken in what is known as the informal sector and thus performances of women and men are not equally valued and rewarded in the same way.

In rural areas of Ethiopia, women are mostly engaged in different forms of farming activities - livestock rearing, bee keeping, production of coffee, poultry activities, etc. In urban centres, most of them are engaged in different activities employed as low-wage labourers (mostly in gender stereotyped tasks), and predominantly in the informal sector, undertaking activities such as petty trading, making and selling Enjera, bread, Tella etc. The view that men are ‘breadwinners’, while women are ‘homemakers’, hides the fact that women are taking part in productive activities along with their fellow men. Mostly, women’s involvement and contribution in this

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\(^3\) Gender relations refer to the social relationships between men and women, concerned with how power is distributed between the sexes.

\(^4\) Analytical concept of gender refers to the socially constructed power relationship between men and women in which women are subjugated to men.

\(^5\) Descriptive concept of gender refers to the socially ascribed differences between men and women, which are changeable and vary with class, caste, ethnicity, religion, age, and also with time. This includes the gender-based division of labour.
sphere is not given due recognition and is often invisible, due to a lack of importance attached to the type of activities women do undertake in the agriculture, or other related spheres.

2.2.2.2. Reproductive Activities

These are women’s domestic activities that encompass the burdens involved in caring for and maintenance of the household and its members, such as: bearing and rearing children, caring for sick family members, processing and preparing food, cleaning, fetching water, gathering firewood, milking, building and maintaining shelter, etc. These domestic tasks are regularly considered to be the ‘exclusive responsibility’ of females, and when mothers give birth to the new child, or during illness the female child or other female relatives take the responsibility. On the other hand, the fact that women take care of such activities creates the necessary condition for men to be involved in creative activities that are self-enhancing, more relaxing and materially rewarding.

Whilst these reproductive activities are very necessary for livelihood, they are rarely considered to have the same value as productive work. Again, they are normally unpaid and not counted in conventional economic statistics.

2.2.2.3. Community Activities

These include the type of activities required to hold social and cultural events. Examples of such activities include Idir, Equib, Dabo, Weddings, funerals as well as religious feasts that are mostly done by women, willingly. Though both women and men participate in such activities, women’s role relates mainly to catering, which is the continuation of their work at home.

Access to, and control over resources

When the gendered allocation of resources is considered, it is valuable to look at the existing difference relating to access, and control of resources between women and men. Access can be defined as the opportunity to use resources without having the authority to decide on the product/output and the exploitation methods. While control is the power or full authority to decide how resources and outputs of the resources are used, including who has access to them.

Inequality in resource distribution between men and women has both economic and social consequences, as women’s control of resources is determined by local customs and statutory laws, in addition to factors such as women’s access to labour markets, paid employment, and other productive activities. In Ethiopia, for example, the share of household assets (land and livestock) brought to the marriage by a woman is a key determinant of her share in the event of divorce, while contributing assets during marriage is not the role of women in most societies (Source: research finding – IFPRI6).

Practical and Strategic Gender Needs

The dual concept of practical and strategic gender interests of women or men was developed into a tool for planners by Caroline Moser, who looks at needs instead of interests.

6 IFPRI – International Food Policy Research Institute, Washington DC, U.S.A.
**Practical Gender Needs**

Practical gender needs in general refer to those needs related to the necessities of daily life. They tend to be basic, immediate or short-term needs, such as the needs for food, clothing, shelter, potable water, income, labour saving devices, health and educational facilities, which are shared by men and women of all age categories.

Addressing practical gender needs through the provision of specific inputs: food, seeds, hand-pumps, honeybees, tools, water, and the provision of improved cooking stoves, credit services and the construction of nearby health centres can improve the living conditions of women as well as men by involving them as beneficiaries or perhaps participants. Meeting such needs can be important for women but does not confront their subordinate position in society, alter their traditional roles or the imbalance of power between the sexes.

**Strategic Gender Needs**

Strategic gender needs are related to the disadvantaged position of women, such as subordination and lack of resources, power and control, access to social services and benefits, etc. These needs arise as a result of subordination of women by men, which is maintained and explained away by pointing out the physical differences concerning sexes. Such needs are common to all women and men and are long term needs having long lasting effect on life. Those needs identified by women include the right to land ownership and similar resources, legal rights, equal wages, women’s control over their bodies, human rights of physical movement, the right to equal voice in decision-making, shared responsibility of raising children, freedom from violence against women and girls, the abolishment of discrimination in employment, etc. Men also have strategic needs in transforming their gender roles, in order to be able to take part in child-care, to share other household chores, etc, free from any social influences.

Addressing such needs would improve the position of women in society by transforming the skewed imbalance of power. Above all, the transformation calls for gender sensitivity of people, families, community groups, social institutions (including civil society institutions) and government bodies, in addition to calls for an equally shared economy and a way of thinking that allows all people to strive towards well-being of the whole community. Development projects can deal with these needs by involving women and men as representatives and enabling women to become agents (who have the power or freedom to exercise choice in one’s actions, free from any social structure). This can be achieved through raising the consciousness of the community - to enable them to change, increasing women’s self-confidence, enhancing education facilities, promoting political mobilization, applying community dialogue strategies, promoting the realization of legal women’s rights, etc.

**Development Approaches to Gender**

There are primarily two policy perspectives in gender sensitive development approaches: WID (Women in Development) and GAD (Gender and Development).

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7 The term *condition* describes the immediate, material circumstances in which women and men live, related to their present workload and responsibilities.

8 The concept of *position* describes the place of women in society relative to men.
Women in Development (WID) Approach

The term ‘Women in Development’ was coined in the 1970s, when the United Nations (UN) included women’s issues in its agenda, with the aim to include women in development projects to make them more efficient. The WID approach assumes that women are socially, economically and politically disadvantaged; and aims to promote women by offering targeted assistance to help them attain equal rights and equal status, through “women’s empowerment”. WID employs strategies of integration targeted at providing skill training and education for women so that they can more effectively participate in the development; opening up opportunities for women to enter the market economy; and placing women in decision-making position in order to have them advocate policies for the advancement of women.

The WID approach arose from the realization that women’s contributions were being ignored and that this led to many failures in development. Thus, it focuses on the improvement of women’s livelihoods, through addressing the practical gender needs of immediate and material circumstances, through income improvement and skill enhancement. But, experiences have shown that by means of a strategy of women promotion alone, equal rights for both genders can never be attained, as it is impossible to alter the disparity of power between women and men.

Gender and Development (GAD) Approach

The Gender and Development approach emerged as a reaction to the failure of women-only programmes under the WID methodology that promotes separate development activities for women, and as such was seen as too piecemeal and tended to tackle the symptom rather than the roots of the problem. It was supported by the 4th International Conference on Women in 1995 that brought about a shift in emphasis from “Women empowerment” policies to a “Gender equality” concept. Accordingly, the focus shifted to helping women to influence the political decision-making processes and obtain equal access to central resources such as education, land and capital, as well as equal rights to use these. The approach focuses on the social, economic, political and cultural forces that determine how women and men might participate in, benefit from and control project resources and activities differently. Behind this, it mostly attempts to increase women’s power, bearing in mind that power exists in a limited quantity, if one has more the other will have less.

GAD seeks to address strategic gender needs and understand women’s subordination through analysis of gender relations within the frame work of important and relevant factors like social class, race and age, etc. This involves enhancing gender equality, by placing the issues of particular concern on the main agendas of those institutions which shape their relations. It rather promotes efficiency, as well as identifying opportunities for improving gender distribution and equity in development policies of programmes and projects. The attempt here is to integrate gender awareness and competence into “mainstreaming” development projects, through the policy of “gender equality” concept, focusing on provisions of equal rights, equal obligations, equal opportunities and equal power for both women and men.
5. GENDER MAINSTREAMING

Gender mainstreaming is a process which ensures that all of our work, and the way we do it, contributes to gender equality by transforming the unequal power relationship between women and men. It involves bringing gender perspectives into account – giving due consideration to what women and men do, the resources and decision-making processes they have access to, as well as the power connection existing among them. Moreover, it encourages application of gender-based data disaggregation; asking about different needs for women and men; and analysing of the outcomes of measures in a gender specific manner. This remains central to policy development, research, advocacy, and norms and standards of project management. Furthermore, the work to ensure gender equality should bring equal rights, equal obligations, equal opportunities, and equal power for women and men, as an indispensable element within the context of democracy, justice and solidarity. Therefore, development actors should concentrate on achievement of gender equality, as a means to attaining sustainable development by integrating gender concerns into every aspect of an organisation’s priorities and procedures. For that the gender approach places the structural causes of gender-specific discrimination at the centre of analysis and action, focusing on the social processes and institutions which cause and maintain inequality between men and women.

The process of mainstreaming gender involves:

- Recognizing a rights-based gender analysis that demonstrates the links between poverty, discrimination against women and gender inequality.
- Assessing the different implications of development activities for women and men.
- Designing project objectives based on findings of gender analysis to strengthen women’s rights and gender equality.
- Devising strategies and systems to ensure that the different concerns, experiences and capacities of women and men fundamentally shape the way of planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating projects.
- Setting mechanisms for monitoring and evaluating progress on gender equality.
- Developing gender-sensitive policies, goals and strategies at organisational level for working towards gender equality.

Organizational policies and practices

As indicated above, the process of achieving sustainable development leads to the call for organizations to ‘mainstream’ gender, essential to ensure integration of gender concerns into every aspect of an organization’s priorities and procedures. Consequently, internal policies and practices of the organizations should reflect their commitment to accelerate gender equality, by changing organizational structures, cultures, and ways of planning and resource allocation. Organisations should base their work on a common understanding that gender equality is a key to overcoming poverty, human rights violations, and conflict. Hence, for organisational policies to be gender responsive they have to indicate how they impact on gender equality or how issues related to gender inequality affect them.
The CSF will not only examine the gender composition included in project proposals but will also examine the gender composition/sensitivity of the applicant organisation. For the purpose of facilitating successful mainstreaming of gender in a project, the implementing organisations should, where possible:

- Ensure existence of staff gender balance, especially at management or decision-making level.
- Apply organizational “employment-equity” policy through practicing gender-sensitive recruitment.
- Make the organizational position on gender clear to staff members, partners, and other stakeholders.
- Support and strengthen its gender approach through provision of effective staff training on gender sensitivity, in order to reinforce staff’s capacity on gender analysis and planning.
- Assign a gender focal person/unit to take responsibility for monitoring gender activities.
- Ensure gender balance of staff in the project monitoring and evaluation team, and inclusion of assessment of impact on gender relations on the evaluation ToR.
- Secure equal access for all staffs to career development opportunities, along with the practice of keeping organizational data disaggregated by sex.
- Ensure resources allocation to gender equality work, and facilitation of collaboration with like-minded external groups, especially women’s groups.

**Gender Analysis**

Gender Analysis is a practical instrument used to achieve gender mainstreaming. It refers to a systematic way of looking at the different impacts of development on women and men. The process of gender analysis requires separating data by sex, and understanding how labour is divided and valued. It is an effort to understand how gender issues relate to development processes, through the application of a set of questions and tools that are to be integrated in all steps of the project management cycle. Therefore, in development processes it is imperative to always ask how a particular activity, decisions or plan will affect women differently from men, as the analysis is based on the fact that women and men play different roles in society, connected with different problems, different needs and priorities. It is for this reason that gender analysis must be applied at all stages of the development process.

**Frameworks for Gender-Analysis**

The issue of mainstreaming gender into organizational culture, structures and activities requires the necessary planning principles and frameworks for assessing and promoting gender issues within the interventions. The gender-analysis frameworks are practical instruments designed to help users integrate a gender analysis into situation analysis, planning and monitoring an intervention, for evaluating achievements and conducting impact assessments. It is essential for NSA to clarify their gender-specific objectives and strategies, so as to explain the ‘why’ and ‘what’ the organization is trying to achieve, before they can make informed choice on the ‘how’, in terms of the frameworks they promote.
Hence, instead of opting to create new frameworks, it is suggested that organizations use existing tried and tested gender-analysis frameworks, to plan work that can be done to confront women’s subordination.

Examples of gender-analysis Frameworks are:

**The Harvard Analytical Framework**

Harvard Analytical Framework is regularly referred to as the Gender Roles Framework or Gender Analysis Framework. It was one of the Frameworks designed to demonstrate that there is an economic case for allocating resources to women and men, and aims to help planners design more efficient projects and improve overall productivity. It does this by mapping the work of men and women in a community and highlighting the key differences. Its shortcomings are that it doesn’t address the critical issue of gendered power relations.

The Harvard Analytical Framework has four interrelated components, these are:

1. **The Activity profile** identifies all relevant productive, reproductive as well as community tasks and gives a clear picture of the gender based division of labour by addressing the questions: Who does what? When? Where?
2. **The Access and Control profile** distinguishes the Resources used to carry out and the Benefits accrued from the work identified in the activity profile. It indicates who has access to resources and control over their use. Benefits realized from household (and community) production and use of resources are also identified and listed. The person who controls a resource is the one ultimately able to make decisions as to the use of the resource. While access simply means that you are able to use a resource without having an authority to make decision about how and who is to use the resources (e.g. Women’s access to land).
3. **The Influencing Factors** are factors which influence the relationship between women and men. The influencing factors analysis is made from secondary information or the factors which affect the gender-differentiation identified in the profiles. Different influencing factors have different impact on the gender arrangement, depending on the society in question. This tool helps to identify internal as well as external constraints and opportunities that need to be considered in planning development actions.
4. **Checklist for Project-Cycle Analysis** consists of sets of questions that are designed to examine an area of intervention from gender perspective, using gender-disaggregated data and capturing of the various effects of social change on women and men. The sets of questions are designed and presented in the gender checklist to be requested throughout the project management cycle.

**The Social Relations Framework**

This tool looks at power relationships between genders, and is used to identify women’s participation in decision making as well as their socio-political position compared to men’s. It looks at social division of labour and the power relations underlying that division. Its other strength is the institutional analysis and the analysis of existing gender inequalities in the distribution of resources, responsibilities and power.

**Gender-Disaggregated Data**

Gender-disaggregated data is sex-differentiated information gathered—via questionnaires, observations or other techniques that reveal the different roles and responsibilities of men and women. Having data differentiated by sex is extremely important to being able to assess the impact of a project on women separately from its impact on men.

Whether data collected and analysed is gender-disaggregated or not has a direct impact on project performance and the CSF will be strongly encouraging disaggregation in all projects it funds. For instance, in assessing the effect of public income transfers to households using a unitary household model\(^9\), the impact of the transfers on individual household members cannot be predicted. In contrast, through the use of collective household model, where information is disaggregated by sex, it can be seen that individuals within households have different preferences and do not necessarily pool resources. A collective model can therefore give a more realistic picture, where some household members will not, for instance receive enough food, even though the average household intake is above subsistence level.

**Gender and Project Management**

As previously mentioned, gender mainstreaming is about changing what we do and how we do it in order that all our work promotes gender equality. It is also important to consider the connection between gender mainstreaming in the substantive work of the organisations and the promotion of equal opportunities towards keeping gender balance within it. Basically, gender mainstreaming does not entail developing separate women’s projects, or even women’s components within existing activities in the work programmes, rather it requires that attention be given to gender perspectives as an integral part of all activities across all project management phases.

While gender equality is a basic human right, and closing the gender gap is a key to achieving development objectives, development practitioners and advocates concerned with achieving gender equality are often constrained by the lack of know how to ensure the integration of gender issues. As development programmes have actively sought to reach women, gender concern has a lot to do with what work we perform, how much time we have to do it, and how much money we have to allocate to it, integrating gender issues throughout the project life is therefore vital to achieve our goal of gender equality.

**3.3.1 Logical Framework Approach**

As a part of Project Cycle Management, the EC CSF advocates the use of Logical Framework Approach (LFA). LFA is a tool or rather an open set of tools – for project design and

\(^9\) This model assumes that the household has single decision maker and pools its resources.
management. The application of the LFA can contribute to improved project design, promote project performance, in addition to facilitating project management.

The LFA can help to achieve:

- **a structured project design**, it suggests a logical sequence, interlinking particular steps in the design process.
- **transparency** of reasons why a certain project is meant to be implemented, what problems to address and whose problems are they are laid open, including what a project expected to achieve and how?
- **participation** of the stakeholders involved in the project design and management, which is an essential prerequisite for the sustainability of a project.
- **a consistent project strategy** - provides tools to clearly link causes and effects. It recognizes external factors that are crucial for success of a project, so as to assess risks.
- **objectively verifiable indicators** are employed to describe objectives in measurable terms and provide the basis for performance measurement, project monitoring and evaluation.
- **flexibility** in adapting to changing conditions that are relevant for a project. The LFA establishes a framework that makes the basic assumptions transparent and helps to react to changes (e.g., revising the design).

While the LFA approach is not in itself a “gender-aware” tool – there are gender considerations that should be taken into account in the different stages of logical framework matrix development. The key gender issues to be considered in mainstreaming gender across the logical framework approach are described below.

**The Analysis Phase**

For successful achievement of development outcomes, it is important to emphasise gender when data is gathered and analysed during needs assessment and problem identification that also should include culture-specific information on gender roles and inequality. Whether through formal household surveys or qualitative assessments, information can be gathered on the following topics: wealth and assets of men and women, income and risk profiles, (individual or community) perceptions of problems and needs, time budgets and activities of men and women, crops or livestock grown by women and men, education and health services, community and political participation, and so on.

During the analysis phase the following gender indicative tools are applied in using the LFA for effective project design and management.

### Process

#### Stakeholder Analysis:

- Examine gender roles and relations in terms of the distribution of power and resources, and how these are affected by social factors such as age, disability, caste, class and ethnic differences.
- Ensure gender analysis is included in the analysis phase to determine the position of women in the project environment.
- Identify partners and counterparts who share gender concerns e.g. women’s groups, local gender specialists, existing gender studies.
- Identify the different perspectives of women and men on poverty issues and barriers to women’s development (e.g. unequal access to resources, opportunities and decision-making power).
- Collect and analyse information on the geography, demography, labour characteristics, economic resources, collaborating agencies and policy frameworks.
- Examine perceptions, potentials, realities and aspirations of both sexes by including women, men and boys and girls as sources of information through gender-disaggregated data collected and analysed by sex.
- Establish the existence and nature of gender policies among collaborating agencies and the government.

**Problem analysis:**

- Identify the different levels of poverty issues on women and men, including social, economical, political, and environmental factors constraining women from development and analyse.
- Ensure active involvement of women, men, girls and boys from diverse social groups in the identification and analysis of needs at household level, by avoiding unitary household modelling during analysis.
- Identify obstacles to women’s access to and control over natural, economic and basic social resources, and analyse the contributing factors (internal and external factors).
- Articulate the priority problems of each gender and classify them as practical or strategic gender needs.
- Secure inclusion of analysis of gender and imbalance of power relations between women and men, indicating the links between poverty and gender inequality.
- Disaggregate all information by gender, age and any other relevant factors to monitor sex-disaggregated information about male and female beneficiaries, including their different practical and strategic gender needs.
- Examine status of women in the project area, their ability to exercise their legal human rights in relation to the influencing factors.
- Ensure determining cause and effect relationship between levels of constraints of gender inequality.
- Examine the influencing factors to gender inequality in order to identify external constraints and opportunities that should be considered in planning the project.
- Identify women’s roles and contributions in economic development and management, along with constraints that hinder their economic empowerment.

**Analysis of Objectives:**

- Make sure that findings of the gender analysis form the bases for identification of potential solutions in the project objectives.
- Secure that objectives are set from the identified problems from gender perspective and the means are identified to end.
- 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.
- Examine solutions to the gender problems are assessed, and prioritised based on the constraints and needs already determined.
- Confirm objectives are set to address non-economic barriers to women’s livelihoods such as literacy, health, self-confidence, participation in decision-making, and protection from gender-based violence against women.
- Ensure the project has aim to increase women’s access to and control over resources (land, tools, technology, animals, seed, saving and credit, household income), and thereby address women’s economic roles and practices.

**Strategy Analysis:**

- Ensure findings of the gender analysis form the bases for identification of possible results and selection of strategies to be followed by the project.
- Ensure that interventions selected will address the interests of all stakeholders by gender, age etc.
- Examine the influencing factors determining gender inequality are analyzed to identify entry points and options for change.
- Ensure the gender concerns included in the analysis of problems, stakeholders and objectives make a base for selection of relevant strategies.
- Make sure that targeting of the proper intervention to address gender constraints is discussed at this stage.
- Consult different age and gender categories in choosing and designing project strategy and clarify prioritisation of problems to choose necessary intervention approach.

**The Planning Phase**

The planning phase is where the main outputs of the LFA or results of the Analysis Phase are presented on a format called logframe matrix. Thus, we have to ensure that gender findings in the analysis phase are presented in the planning and indicated in the project overall objectives formulated, and reflected in the activities and budgets scheduled.

Ideally, needs assessment and problem identification should influence project design, while omitting gender considerations in the project planning phase may lead to problems in implementation. In planning phase, solutions to the problems are identified, assessed, and prioritized based on the constraints and needs already determined and the resources available to the implementing agency. In this way, the components of the project are presented in the logical framework matrix and eventually constituted in preparation for implementation. Gender considerations affect such aspects as the relative priority given to the needs and solutions, the choice among different approaches to a particular problem, the gender balance of project staff, and the involvement of different stakeholders as participants.

**Process**

- Confirm that the outcomes of the situation/gender analysis are addressed in the project planning and representation of women in the process.

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● Confirm that the overall objective is formulated, activities are planned in gender specific manner and budget lines as well as resources are allocated and scheduled from gender perspective.

● Ensure the project objectives and strategies that addressed the gender issues that are identified in the situation analysis are properly presented in the logframe matrix.

● Ensure the representation and active participation of women and men from diverse and marginalized groups in the planning process, and check that their gendered interests are reflected in the decisions made.

● Make sure that strategies have no potential to exclude stakeholders on the basis of gender.

● Confirm that objectives and outputs have indicated improvements by gender and those indicators are gender specific and formulated in a participatory manner to reflect gender perspectives.

● Make sure that activities are planned bearing in mind the gender workload distribution and potential contributions of different gender and age categories.

● Ensure objectives and strategies are designed to ensure gender-equality.

● Identify whether the project aim to reduce discrimination against women, and it is planned to ensure equal right to women and men, and the intended activities are going to be monitored.

● Ensure gender responsive indicators are set for the project purpose, outputs and inputs are constructed from gender viewpoint.

Implementation

Effective project implementation is the test of good project design. At all levels of implementation, the project objectives must be linked to budgets, activities, and timelines, with clear identification of the persons responsible for the purposes of accountability. Throughout the process of implementation, ongoing monitoring and evaluation are critical to improving project performance as it is the most useful to tackle implementation. Monitoring of the project operation plan results in a revision of the plans to widen the “room for change” and can inform adjustments to the implementation. The process of conducting good monitoring can result in a redefinition of working objectives.

Process

● Ensure targets of the project are intended towards achieving improvements by gender and age.

● Ensure appropriate participation of both sexes in the project implementation and technical package and delivery systems should not marginalize on the basis of gender and age.

● Confirm female beneficiaries and partner organisation staff members are involved in the management of the project as actively as male counterparts, focusing on parity in numbers and positions.

● Make sure that men understand the reason why the project is increasing women participation in decision-making and support it, after changing their stereotyped attitude as well as prejudice towards women.
• Ensure female and male beneficiaries have equal access to information, resources and opportunities to carry out their responsibilities.

• Make sure that gender awareness trainings are conducted for staff members and other stakeholders, so as to raise consciousness about social construction of gender.

• Confirm that gender policy and the National Action Plan for Gender Equality (NAP-GE) are used as references for management decisions.

• Choose data collection methods, which have scope for gender disaggregated information.

• Confirm that women’s participation doesn’t merely increase their workload, but means their active involvement in decision-making in managing the project activities, in addition to having equal pay for work of equal value.

**Monitoring and Evaluation**

Monitoring, which can be defined as the ongoing or regular inspection of performances of project interventions, creates information that is the basis for explaining the condition of implementation. On the other hand, if monitoring is not properly prepared, it can limit itself into looking at what was planned and what was achieved with regard to physical activities only. In this case, the quantitative aspects of sums or figures seem to dominate rather than the qualitative aspects of social changes on gender related issues, as human benefits accruing from the implemented activities. Thus, monitoring should consider separate data on how female and male community members have fared in each intervention or activity (e.g. how many were involved, how they were involved, what options do they have on their involvement, etc.). It should also check and detect whether any of the interventions have had negative effects on women in comparison to men.

For monitoring and evaluation to be useful inputs to project implementation they must be treated as routine information gathering activities, through the reporting systems established for gathering sex-disaggregated data on a regular basis. Two key components of a good impact evaluation are the availability of accurate baseline information and a properly studied beneficiary group before and after the intervention. Therefore, there should be a monitoring and evaluation system in place, which will enable the implementing staff to identify the positive and negative impacts in terms of gender equality. In addition, comparing differences between the beneficiary group and non targeted group is necessary as a control for external factors that are likely to affect the evaluation results.

**Process**

• Ensure gender impact indicators are identified to monitor the project-planned activities, and data on project performances are collected or reported by gender.

• Evaluate the different impacts the project may have had on women and men, and on the imbalance of power relations between them.

• Ensure a gender balance of staff on evaluation team and that evaluating impact on gender equality is included in the evaluation terms of reference.

• Evaluate women’s and men’s equal participation in decision-making processes in private and public spheres.
- Ensure women and men’s equal access to and control over resources and access to basic social services.
- Assess the progress on women’s empowerment in terms of developing confidence, self-esteem, capacity for leadership and self-organisation, including changes in the understanding and commitment of men to supporting women’s empowerment (to be measured by women and men separately).
- Assess changes on gender stereotypes and discriminatory attitudes towards women and girls.
- Ensure the process of monitoring and evaluation has shown constraints on women’s and men’s economic and domestic roles, and reveals the positive and negative impacts of the intervention on men and women.

The CSF will also undertake monitoring of grantee projects and has a CSF-specific monitoring sheet that will be completed quarterly by all grant recipients that will request information on gender issues and social change. An overview of the status of gender in both women-targeted and non-women specific projects will thus be formed.

**Gender Responsive Indicators**

Indicators are parameters of change or of results, showing to what extent the project objectives have been achieved. They provide basis for performance measurement and project monitoring and evaluation, in addition to enabling us to know whether the project plans need adjusting. Ideally, indicators are defined at the start of a project, preferably with the participation of beneficiaries, according to the local culture and context. These gender indicators measure how far and in what ways development initiatives have met their gender objectives and achieved results related to gender equality. They should therefore fit project objectives, designed in each stage of an intervention, include both quantitative as well as qualitative indicators, and must be sex-disaggregated.

While quantitative indicators are often privileged because they are seen as ‘objective’ and able to convey the extent of a problem or rate of progress through ‘numbers’, ‘percentile ranking’ and other measures, the development and use of qualitative indicators are equally important. This is despite the fact that they are often seen as ‘subjective’ and biased; while an extensive survey would allow for generalizations to be made, a few case studies are capable of offering more information on socio-structural relations than a large survey which might fail to capture the nuances of every-day life. Because women’s subordination is rooted in socio-cultural norms and practices which filter through in both the private and public spheres, the use of qualitative indicators can help to derive contextual information on women’s experiences of situations. Such information together with sex-disaggregated statistics with baselines can be used to develop analysis which can be effectively fed into the policy environment within which change for women in terms of equality and equity is being sought and measured.

Gender-sensitive qualitative indicators aim to capture social processes with particular reference to gender-related social changes and explain why a situation that has been measured or assessed has occurred and also point to how it might be corrected, enhanced or changed. Gender-sensitive quantitative indicators are able to point to degrees of change in gender-related situations through the use of statistical indicators. Therefore the use of both quantitative and qualitative indicators
to examine a particular social situation can result in enhanced understanding of what change might mean to people.

The results obtained from these indicators must be measured from some baseline, or starting point, in order to measure how effective an action has been and how much, if any, change has been achieved. CSOs should, therefore ensure that they know exactly from where they are starting, so that the data obtained from the indicators means something. For example, the number of girls under ten that attend formal schooling in a particular area is quantified and recorded. At the termination of any action subsequent to the recording of this data, a new figure can be taken and the exact change that the action has brought about will be easily verifiable. Indicators must be consistent, relevant and measured against a standard. In this way, they are of great value in assessing change, not just in the context of gender, but in all contexts.

Through the process of strengthening gender equality, five broad dimensions of gender responsive indicators, in which change can potentially occur, are illustrated below. For each of these dimensions possible indicators are suggested. Consequently, the gender-sensitive indicators that are used to measure project impacts on gender equality include: changes in the balance of women’s and men’s access to resources and decision-making, incidence of gender-based violence, discrimination against women, women’s empowerment, and sensitisation of men and women to the need to strengthen gender equality.

**Women’s empowerment**

The process of women’s empowerment means that women acquire the power to think and act freely, exercise choice, and fulfil their potential as full and equal members of their society. It emphasises the notion of women as ‘active agents of change’ and of ‘women’s agency’, that is women’s ability to define their own goals and act upon them. Generally, empowerment implies ownership of economic resources; entitlement to social services (education and health); accessing knowledge and information; and being involved in leadership and decision-making.

This is not to necessarily encourage separate projects for women, but it is to improve the ability of both women and men to analyze and shape the socially constructed gender relations in order to transform the existing power relationships between them. In empowering women, it is essential to ensure equitable access to and control over public and private resources for both sexes, empowerment of men and women to overcome the obstacle of social constructions, in addition to securing equitable participation in household, community and national decision-making spheres.

**Examples of Indicators**

- Women’s self-esteem and self-confidence to influence social processes is increased.
- Women’s and men’s attitude in addressing social construction improved and this has enabled women to exercise their capacity for leadership.
- Women are increasingly organising to strengthen their voice and are advocating for legislation that ensures gender justice in economic, political and social spheres.
- Women’s capacity to engage in the elimination of VAW is increased.
• Women and men are equally involved in the elimination of gender discrimination and enabled to work towards shared responsibility of household work, reproductive health, and family planning.
• Gender stereotyping in women’s economic activities is reduced and women’s economic empowerment is enhanced.
• Women are empowered towards equitable business partnership with men, in technical, managerial, and entrepreneurial fields.
• Women are enabled to be organized to address gender discrimination and achieve their legal protection and promotion of their human rights.
• An increased number of women are active in decision-making bodies.

**Equal participation of women in decision-making**

Gender responsive indicators should measure the achievement of equal participation of women and men in decision-making concerning public and private spheres. It should also indicate their equal involvement in the process of project execution.

**Examples of Indicators**

- Women enjoy greater participation in the political processes of the community in situations where they were previously disenfranchised.
- The influence of women on decision-making in the project has increased in relation to that of their male counterparts.
- Women have greater decision-making capacity at household level.
- The traditional social barriers to equitable participation in community decision-making have been reduced.
- The active involvement of women in decision-makings has improved their position in society and contributed to their overall performance in the project area.

**Access to and control over resources**

In this area, the gender indicators should assess whether women and men have achieved more equal access to and control over economic and natural resources and basic social services.

**Examples of Indicators**

- Women’s access to and control over natural and economic resources (land, household finances, equipment, other assets) is increased.
- Women have greater access to paid work and they receive equal pay for equal work.
- Women share the workload more equally with men and have more recreational time for themselves.
- Women and girls have access to health services on an equal basis with men and boys, and according to their gender-specific needs (e.g. reproductive health).
- Girls enjoy increased access to education.
• The school environment has become safer for girls and the curriculum is less gender stereotyped.

**Gender-based violence against women**

The gender sensitive indicators should measure the incidence of gender-based violence against women and girls, and the percentage of women and girls suffering. The indicators should also measure whether the activity of assessing the practice of violence against women is implemented, monitored and documented through the programme cycle.

**Examples of Indicators**

• The project has lead to a decrease in violence against women.
• The number of women suffering personal incidents or threats of violence in the community or household has been reduced.
• Vulnerability of women and girls to harmful traditional practices, like FGM, abduction, and others has been reduced.
• More female victims of violence gain access to and protection from legal services.

**Gender stereotypes and discriminatory attitudes**

Here the gender indicators should assess whether gender stereotypes and discriminatory attitudes towards women and girls have been challenged and changed.

**Examples of Indicators**

• Men and women better understand how unequal power relations between them discriminate against women and keep them in poverty.
• Changes in the traditional gender division of labour have occurred, with men taking on more household and caring work.
• Greater value is attached to girls’ education.
• Where violence against women is the accepted norm, this is increasingly rejected by the public, especially by men themselves.
• More men are taking action to tackle discrimination against women.
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