

Annex I

Gender: Technical Notes

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Technical Note I.1 Engendering Participation

Participatory consultations are an essential part of the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) methodology, and chapter 7, “Participation,” clearly demonstrates that consultation with intended beneficiaries and with other stakeholders is essential to the identification, design, implementation, and evaluation of the PRSP actions. There are four levels of intensity of participation and citizen involvement:

1. information sharing;
2. consultation;
3. collaboration; and
4. empowerment.

Although the need for beneficiary consultations is now widely acknowledged and is a required part of the preparation of every PRSP, experience has shown that socially and economically weak and voiceless groups will frequently be excluded from the consultation process. In societies where community councils and local political bodies are largely run by men, or where men are considered to speak for the

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Box I.1. Barriers to Women’s Participation and Voice

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

- Often only men are invited to meetings arranged by government authorities. In many cultures, it is assumed that important visitors should meet only with community leaders and high-status officials, and it can be difficult for those planning the visit to understand why visitors might wish to meet with lower-status people of either sex.
- Women frequently do not attend or do not speak out in community meetings.
- Cultural traditions may limit the extent to which women can meet with outsiders. This is obviously more of a problem for male government officials and World Bank staff, but foreign female visitors may also face similar (although more easily resolvable) difficulties.
- Meetings may be arranged at a time and place convenient for outside visitors and for male community members but not convenient for women.
- Visitors may be told what it is assumed they want to hear. This means they only receive information that reinforces culturally acceptable stereotypes.
- In many countries, most extension workers are men, and during field visits they normally meet with male community members. They are often trained mainly in a project’s technical aspects and see their role as selling technically sound projects to uninformed or reluctant villagers rather than as listening to, and receiving feedback from, the community.

Note: For more information, see the section on facilitating women’s participation in *World Bank Participation Sourcebook* (1996).

whole family, it will frequently be the case that most women will have little involvement in the selection, design, or management of projects. Box I.1 describes some of the cultural, logistical, and other barriers to the participation of women in community decisionmaking and in social and political activities inside and outside the community. It should be emphasized, of course, that other vulnerable and voiceless groups such as ethnic or religious minorities, the landless, the poorest households, or people of either sex under a certain age may also be excluded.

Despite the extensive evidence showing that women frequently are excluded from, or have very little voice in, community decisionmaking, few of the PRSPs or Interim Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (I-PRSPs) completed by January 2001 acknowledge the special problems affecting the participation of women, and even fewer refer to measures that had been taken to ensure the adequate representation of women.

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

The Gambia I-PRSP (box I.2) illustrates some of the practical measures that countries can take to ensure the participation of women. A number of countries, such as Cameroon and Tanzania, also adopted measures, such as quotas for women in the consultative processes, to ensure that women were represented.

Chapter 7, “Participation,” identifies seven guiding principles for participation in PRSPs: country ownership, transparency, inclusion, feasibility, sustainability, continuous improvement, and outcome orientation. Each of these principles requires attention to the gender dimension (box I.3). Given that participatory consultation is a new concept in many countries, which must still overcome many

Box I.2. Engendering the Participatory Process: The Gambia I-PRSP

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

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

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

Box I.3. Guiding Principles of Gender-Sensitive Participation in Poverty Reduction Strategies

Country ownership. Government commitment and leadership and broad country ownership are critical for effective formulation and implementation of PRSs. Ensure that government agencies responsible for gender and women's affairs, and leading nongovernment women's organizations, are also fully involved.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Source: Adapted from material in chapter 7, "Participation."

constraints, it is particularly important that strategies are in place to ensure that the participation of women is not overlooked.

Getting started

Chapter 7 also provides guidelines for engendering the participatory process:

- Build on and enhance existing processes of participation. With respect to gender, this will often involve developing new ways to integrate both women and men into the existing processes. A strategic issue in many communities is whether to encourage or require the inclusion of women in previously male-dominated community councils and similar bodies, or to create parallel consultative mechanisms for women. While the latter option is often the most viable, it is essential to develop mechanisms for reconciling any differences in the priorities identified by women and men. (See box I.4 for an example of a traditional community-conflict resolution mechanism in Angola.)
- Ensure that all key stakeholders are involved.
- Design a structured participation plan. This should spell out the strategy for ensuring that participatory approaches are built into all stages of the PRSP, including poverty diagnostics, identification of priority actions, resource allocation, and budget preparation, implementation, and monitoring (see box I.5).
- Address conflicting interests and develop tradeoff strategies.
- Permit participation in implementing and monitoring interventions, not just in their formulation, to reduce poverty.

Box I.4. Using Traditional Mechanisms for Reconciling Different Priorities of Men and Women: The Angola Social Fund

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

Box I.5. Common Elements of a Gender-Sensitive Participation Action Plan

- **Objectives** of the participatory process in the context of the PRS and the starting point in the country (for example, civic engagement nationally, understanding of the key public action choices, and enhancing the participation of both women and men).
- **Institutional arrangements** for coordinating and facilitating the formulation of the PRS—that is, location and composition of the coordinating committee and strategies for ensuring the representation of the interests of both sexes.
- **Key stakeholder groups** to be involved and the purpose of their participation. This will include an analysis of the key gender dimensions of the PRSP and the groups best qualified to address these issues. Particular attention will be given to ensuring the representation of the poorest and most vulnerable groups of women, men, and indigenous populations.
- **Participatory approaches**, including specific methods, to be used to involve stakeholders. This will include proposals for ensuring the representation of women in traditionally male-dominated sectors as well as conflict resolution strategies for reconciling different priorities identified by men and women.
- **Milestones** for assessing the progress of participatory processes. Recommendations must be included on how to monitor the level of participation of women. For example, it is insufficient to record the number of women attending meetings; it is also necessary to report on the extent to which they participated in the discussions and in the selection of priority PRSP actions.
- **Capacity development** is required for organizing and strengthening participatory processes. This must include an analysis of the special capacity-building needs of women and how they will be addressed.
- **Cost implications and any financing gaps.** The budget estimates must include any funding required to fill in data gaps with respect to sex disaggregation of key statistics and gender assessment studies to fill gaps in information on women's priorities.

Source: Adapted from material in chapter 7, "Participation."

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

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

Ensuring the participation of both women and men in the PRSP participatory process

Where participatory consultation mechanisms are used, it is essential that they be designed to ensure the full participation of women (and other vulnerable and voiceless groups). Men and women contribute in different ways to poverty reduction and are affected differently by poverty reduction measures—consequently, the participatory processes for preparing and implementing the PRSP, for prioritizing key actions, and for defining and monitoring performance indicators needs to be explicitly gender inclusive so as to capture and act on these key differences.

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

- Assessment of existing consultative mechanisms to evaluate the extent to which different groups of women (single, married, and widowed; young and old; poor and less poor; and so forth) are represented. In many cultures, the most important kinds of consultation are face to face, so the assessment must capture the dynamics of traditional culture as well as observing what happens in formal meetings.
- Assessment of the barriers to women's participation. In some cases, the barriers may be cultural, but in many others, the reasons are more because meetings are held at times and places convenient to men, and the level of women's participation could be significantly increased simply by consulting them on when and where to hold the meeting.

- Assessment of the extent to which women feel that their views and priorities have been reflected in the choice of projects (even if they were not directly involved in the formal consultation process).
- Experimentation with, and evaluation of, different mechanisms to increase women’s participation.
- Holding meetings at a time and place convenient for women. In some cases, it may be necessary to provide or pay for transport so that women can attend. Childcare arrangements may also be required.

Listening to women

The importance of listening to and consulting with groups that may be affected by project activities has been documented by the Bank’s Southern Africa Department that explores the significance of, and methodology behind, “systematic client consultation.” The word “systematic” describes the need to consult and listen on a continual basis, and the term “client consultation” refers to open communication between the Bank and government agencies, service providers, and beneficiaries. Box I.6 presents additional evidence from a survey of women’s participation in 121 rural water supply projects in 49 developing countries in Africa, Asia, and Latin America, confirming the need to listen to women (Narayan 1995). According to the survey, only 17 projects achieved high levels of women’s involvement.

While the measures of women’s participation and overall participation were correlated, achieving high levels of beneficiary participation does not necessarily result in high levels of women’s participation, because the determinants of women’s participation are different. Women in most rural areas face many constraints to participating in development projects: unless women’s involvement was specifically targeted and resources invested, it did not happen. (Narayan 1995, p. 5.)

Barriers to listening

The participation learning project has amply documented the difficulties for government and international agencies in communicating with intended project beneficiaries and involving them in design and implementation. This technical note makes continual reference to additional cultural, political, administrative, and economic factors that can make it even more difficult to communicate with women (see box I.7).

Other approaches include

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

Box I.8 gives guidelines for listening to women, ensuring that their perspectives are understood, informing them about proposed projects, and involving them fully in project selection, design, and implementation.

Box I.6. The Need to Specifically Target Women with Strategies Developed for Their Empowerment

In most rural societies, poor women are more disadvantaged than poor men. Women work longer hours and have less free time; they have less income; they are more isolated; they receive less information; they have poorer nutrition; and they have less education and are more often illiterate than poor men. Women are rarely community leaders and do not participate in community decisionmaking bodies. Women are the primary carriers of water, but have limited power, access, and control over most resources. In this context, how can women possibly be reached without special support and investment in their development?

Source: Narayan (1995).

Box I.7. Getting Beyond the Cultural Stereotypes

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

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

The importance of women's groups

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

- In many cultures, women prefer to meet in women-only groups because they feel this gives them more freedom of expression (see box I.9 for an example from Malawi).
- In agriculture, women's groups provide a socially acceptable way for male agents to work with female agents.
- Groups provide a safe and familiar forum for women to express their concerns.
- Training, service delivery, and credit are often more readily accessible to groups.
- The rate of information sharing and dissemination is usually highest when new knowledge is presented to groups rather than to individuals.
- Women perform many of their multiple tasks, such as fetching water or fuelwood, in the company of others.

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

Box I.8. Checklist: Listening to Women and Facilitating Their Participation

Listening to women

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

Informing women

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

Involving women

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

Box I.9. Using Traditional Women’s Groups in Malawi

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

Source: Saito and Spurling (1994).

Gender and participation issues in the project cycle

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

Participation requires much greater flexibility in project preparation, resource use, implementation schedules, and even definition of objectives. These socially responsive approaches are variously known as process and participatory planning/management approaches. The following paragraphs illustrate some of the issues involved in promoting the participation of women during project identification and design. Table I.1 presents a checklist of gender and participation issues at each stage of the project cycle.

Gender and participation issues in project identification and preparation

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

Gender and participation issues in project planning and design

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

Table I.1. Gender Issues in Participatory Approaches to the Project Cycle

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

Technical Note I.2 Data Requirements for Gender-Responsive Policy Analysis and Monitoring and Evaluation

Sector	Indicator	Level of analysis				Period over which change can be measured		
		Macroeconomic	Sector	Project	Household	Short term (within 2 years)	Medium term (2-5 years)	Long term (5-10 years)
Opportunities								
	Time budget and time poverty: Comparison of time use by women and men.		X	X	X	X		
	<i>Source:</i> Sometimes available in poverty assessments of household surveys (such as Living Standards Measurement Surveys [LSMS]). The information can also be collected from rapid community surveys or through focus groups.		X	X	X			
	Employment and labor force participation: Comparison of male and female workers.	X	X			X	X	X
	<i>Source:</i> Basic information usually available from national labor statistics. Additional information may require firm-level surveys.	X	X			X	X	X
	Unemployment rates.					X	X	
	Labor force participation rates.					X	X	
	Gender segregation in the work place.					X	X	X
	Comparison of earnings by sex.					X	X	X
	Wage discrimination (gender comparison of wages for the same job, controlling for experience and education).						X	X
	Gender discrimination in labor legislation.		X				X	X
	Comparison of capital and assets owned by women and men.	X	X	X	X		X	X
	Changes in women and men's capital following different kinds of economic and other crises.		X	X	X		X	X
	Access to credit.		X	X	X		X	X
	Average size of loans to women and men.		X	X	X		X	X

Sector	Indicator	Level of analysis				Period over which change can be measured		
		Macroeconomic	Sector	Project	Household	Short term (within 2 years)	Medium term (2-5 years)	Long term (5-10 years)
Capabilities and Human Capital								
Demographic: Comparison by sex. Source: Available from demographic statistics.	Infant mortality rate.	X		X			X	
	Under-five mortality rate.	X		X				X
	Life expectancy at birth.	X		X				X
	Maternal mortality rate.	X		X			X	X
	Proportion of women in the over-50 population.	X		X				X
	Proportion of widows.	X						X
Education: Comparison by sex. Source: Ministry of Education.	Gross primary school enrollment rate.		X	X		X	X	
	Gross secondary school enrollment rate.		X	X		X	X	
	Progression to grade 5.		X	X		X	X	
	Household expenditure on girls' and boys' education.	X		X	X		X	
	Adult literacy.	X	X	X			X	X
	Proportion of under-five population underweight.	X	X			X	X	
Health and nutrition comparison by sex. Source: Ministry of Health (household expenditure, poverty assessments, and household surveys; follow-up household surveys may be required).	Proportion of under-five population stunted.		X	X		X	X	
	Proportion of under-five population wasted.	X		X		X	X	
	Adult HIV rates.	X					X	X
	Prevalence of tuberculosis.	X					X	X
	Household expenditure on girls' and boys' health.	X		X	X		X	
	Proportion of women between certain ages who use contraceptives.	X		X	X		X	X

Sector	Indicator	Level of analysis			Period over which change can be measured		
		Macroeconomic	Sector	Project	Household	Short term (within 2 years)	Medium term (2-5 years)
Security							
	Economic vulnerability: Comparison of male- and female-headed households and of males and females.	X		X		X	X
	Source: Sometimes available from household surveys. Participatory research may be required in a sample of communities. A number of qualitative survey methods, such as the Social Weather Surveys in the Philippines, have been developed for this purpose.	X		X		X	X
	Likelihood of moving out of poverty.						
	Exposure to (gender-based) violence:						
	• Incidence of domestic violence						
	• Exposure to violence and sexual harassment in public	X	X	X		X	X
	• Exposure to violence in military conflict situations.						
	Amount of income, goods, and services given and received through interhousehold transfers.	X			X	X	X
	Number of households or individuals with whom the household maintains an exchange network.				X	X	
	Participation in formal and informal organizations.				X	X	
Empowerment							
	Constitutional and legal guarantees on women's right to own property.	X				X	X
	Gender discrimination in labor legislation.	X				X	X
	Gender discrimination in marriage and family law.	X				X	X
	Women's right to vote.	X				X	X
	Proportion of women in Parliament and other elected offices.	X				X	X
	Number and proportion of women in the cabinet.	X				X	X
	Number and proportion of women in community and local councils.	X				X	X

Sector	Indicator	Level of analysis			Period over which change can be measured		
		Macroeconomic	Sector	Project	Household	Short term (within 2 years)	Medium term (2-5 years)
Empowerment (continued)							
	Control over household resources by sex.	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Source: Some gender-disaggregated expenditure data is often available from household surveys such as LSMS. Special studies combining quantitative and qualitative methods may be needed to complement these surveys.	X	X	X	X	X	X
	Consumption by individual household members of food and other basic essentials.						
	Role of individual household members in control over money and other household resources.						
	Contribution of different household members to the household economy.						
	Decisionmaking authority in key areas (household consumption expenditures, household capital expenditures, children's education).						

Technical Note I.3 Using Poverty Diagnostics to Identify Gender-Responsive Policy and Project Options

Opportunities	
<i>Options</i>	<i>Examples</i>
Issue: Women’s time burden	
Option 1. Provision of intermediate means of transport	South Africa. AFRIBIKE Project: In 1998, the Institute for Transport and Development Policy (ITDP) joined with the Africa Cultural Center to launch a bike project that teaches self-employed women to ride, repair, and maintain bikes so they can improve their businesses. The women do not pay for the bikes, but the US\$75 course fee covers the training, workshops, repairs, and the African instructor’s and mechanic’s salaries. When the course ends, each participant receives the bike she worked on for free. Plans are under way for the replication of the AFRIBIKE experience in national rural infrastructure projects in Guinea and Senegal.
Option 2. Bringing services closer to the community	Morocco. A recent World Bank study found that the lack of adequate potable water figured as women’s highest-ranking problem in many Moroccan villages. Fetching water is a woman’s task, and young girls often are expected to help out, which keeps them out of school. Based on the results of this study, the Morocco Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Project placed its highest priority on infrastructure to improve access to drinking water. This intervention has resulted in increased school attendance among girls.
Option 3. Labor-saving devices	
Issue: Insecure property rights	
Option 1. Property rights legislation	Tanzania. The Land Act of 1998 and the Village Land Act of 1998 included specific measures to protect women’s access to land. The provisions included (a) family land is protected by a presumption of co-occupancy; (b) married women must give their consent before their husbands can dispose of land; (c) women must be represented equitably on the National Land Advisory Council; (d) discrimination against women is prohibited whenever a village council reviews an application for a customary right of occupancy; (e) village councils are restricted from allowing land assignments that would defeat a woman’s right to occupy land under a customary right of occupancy; and (f) any provision of customary law that supports discrimination against women is declared void and inoperative.
Option 2. Legal literacy	Eritrea. A new Community Development Project proposes to include a vocational training and microcredit program for women entrepreneurs. This may include legal literacy training for women, particularly with respect to rights affecting marriage, property, and employment.
Issue: Gender wage gap	
Option 1. Labor legislation	Philippines. The Labor Code is the primary legislation governing labor and employment relations in the Philippines. It affects sectors that employ a high proportion of women, such as the garment, footwear, and textile industries. The provisions affecting subcontracting and home-based work are of particular benefit to women (see http://www.ilo.org).
Option 2. Vocational training	India. The Vocational Training Project, World Bank, supports the long-term program of the Ministry of Labor to modernize and restructure the National Vocational Training System. A major component is modernizing craftsman and apprenticeship training through re-equipping selected Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) and developing related training systems, extending trade coverage of the National Apprenticeship Training Scheme, and increasing women’s access to training in modern sector and high-tech trades by constructing new ITIs for women and adding women’s wings to existing ITIs.

Opportunities (continued)	
<i>Options</i>	<i>Examples</i>
Issue: Lack of access to credit and other productive resources	
Option 1. Microcredit programs	<p>Bangladesh. The Grameen Bank was established in 1976 to examine the possibility of designing a credit delivery system that would provide banking services targeted at the rural poor. It currently reaches over 2 million people, with cumulative lending of about US\$2.1 billion. The bank's main activity is making small loans (usually a few hundred dollars) to small enterprises in agriculture, distribution, crafts, trading, and similar activities.</p> <p>India. The Self-Employed Women's Association (SEWA) is an organization of poor, self-employed women workers. SEWA's main goals are to organize women workers for full employment and self-reliance so they can obtain work security, income security, food security, and social security (health care, childcare, and shelter). Many of the organizations within SEWA are savings and credit organizations formed by women in urban and rural areas who need banking and credit services. These women have formed their own savings groups, which in turn have formed their own district-level associations and include women workers of varied trades in many villages.</p> <p>Latin America. ACCIÓN International is a nonprofit organization dedicated to reducing poverty by providing loans and other financial services to poor and low-income people who start their own small businesses. ACCIÓN is an umbrella organization for a network of microfinance institutions in 14 Latin American countries and 10 U.S. cities. ACCIÓN seeks to bring this opportunity to as many of Latin America's poor as possible by developing microcredit institutions that are financially self-sustaining and jointly capable of reaching millions of people.</p>
Option 2. Hiring and training female agricultural extension workers	<p>The Gambia. The percentage of female agricultural extension workers grew from 5 percent in 1989 to 60 to 70 percent in 2000 as a result of the World Bank's multisectoral WID project. The Gambia makes a special effort to encourage women's participation in small ruminant and poultry extension services.</p>
Option 3. Targeting resources and services to female as well as male producers	<p>Kenya. The Intensified Forestry Extension Project used an extension project to implement a reforestation program and develop microenterprises. Gender was given special importance in self-help groups and participatory processes because 40 percent of smallholder farmers were women. Women's groups were identified for delivering project inputs because women are increasingly taking up men's tasks. Rapid gender analysis, used to identify men's and women's roles and assess whether only men or only women should be involved in the project, revealed the following gender differences: (1) men decide where trees should be planted on the farm, and carry out silvicultural practices where they reside, while women look after on-farm tree nurseries; (2) trees often belong to men, women do not fell trees, and trees are rarely harvested; and (3) women weed trees as well as agricultural crops and handle men's responsibilities when men are away in off-farm activities.</p>
Issue: Constraints on women's access to employment and income-earning opportunities	
Option 1. Public works programs	<p>Lesotho. More than 60 percent of all workers in the road sector are female. The Ministry of Works (MOW) is the implementing agency for an International Development Agency-financed road in Lesotho. The chief engineer of the Labor Construction Unit of the MOW is a woman, as are some MOW road engineers and contractors. There is strong evidence that the participation of women in Lesotho's road sector has a substantial social as well as economic benefit in the longer term because women are frequently promoted to supervisory positions. The women were found to be good team leaders in handling selection of workers, upkeep of the hand tools, and fair distribution of food, and were promoted to supervisory positions.</p>

Opportunities (continued)	
<i>Options</i>	<i>Examples</i>
Option 2. Microcredit	Kenya. The Kenya Women Finance Trust (KWFT), an affiliate of Women’s World Banking, works toward strengthening women’s participation in the economic mainstream by focusing on women who have little access to formal credit, and has emerged as a reliable source of quick credit to rural women. KWFT initiatives include (a) the Biashara Scheme, a group-based model of intermediation similar to the Grameen Bank in Bangladesh, adopted by the Kenya Rural Enterprise Program; (b) the Uaminifu Scheme, which wholesales unit loans to existing groups for retail to their members; (c) the Small Enterprise Professional Service Organization (SEPSO), which provides training to bigger clients; and (d) the “best practice learning and market linkages” program, which supports successful women entrepreneurs in acting as mentors for other women.
Option 3. Apprenticeship programs	India. The Vocational Training Project, World Bank, is modernizing craftsman and apprenticeship training through re-equipping selected ITIs and developing related training systems, extending trade coverage of the National Apprenticeship Training Scheme, and increasing women’s access to training in modern sector and high-tech trades by constructing new ITIs for women and adding women’s wings to existing ITIs.

Capabilities and Human Capital	
<i>Options</i>	<i>Examples</i>

Issue: Lack of access to contraception

Option 1. Access to prenatal care	Argentina. PROMIN—Maternal and Child Health and Nutrition Project, World Bank. Argentina’s highly developed health system still faces significant problems, such as high rates of maternal and infant mortality. Because many of these problems could be prevented by access to good quality health care, PROMIN strategies and project components consist of (a) placing a high priority on lowering infant mortality and morbidity rates, (b) providing coverage in municipalities in which the poor represent at least 30 percent of the population, (c) improving primary service delivery, (d) modernizing and financing primary health care and improving hospital efficiency, (e) using integrated management of childhood illnesses, (f) improving equity in access to health care, (g) strengthening community participation, (h) establishing indicators to monitor the population covered by the program, (i) decreasing adverse outcomes related to poor prenatal care by increasing the number of checkups during pregnancy, and (j) providing nutrition interventions for the most vulnerable mothers and children.
Option 2. Girls’ education	Pakistan. Service rules were modified to allow women educators to take leadership positions at the central and district levels in Balochistan. In addition to senior policy-level positions within the Department of Services and General Administration, a position was created for a female district education officer (DEO) within each of Balochistan’s 26 districts, with full staff and resources. This expanded the number of female education administrators at the local level from two to 26. Additional positions for female administrators at the subdistrict level were created to closely manage and support rural and far-flung girls’ primary schools and teachers. Currently, one-half of the region’s 26 districts have fully operational female DEO offices.

Issue: High female mortality rates

Option 1. Maternal and child care	Argentina. PROMIN—Maternal and Child Health and Nutrition Project, World Bank. Argentina’s highly developed health system still faces significant problems, such as high rates of maternal and infant mortality. Because many problems could be prevented by access to good quality health care, PROMIN aims to (a) provide coverage in municipalities in which the poor represent at least 30 percent of the population, (b) improve primary service delivery, (c) modernize and adequately finance primary health care and improve hospital efficiency, (d) use integrated management of childhood illnesses, (e) improve equity in access to health care, (f) strengthen community participation, (g) establish indicators to monitor the population covered by the program, (h) decrease adverse outcomes related to poor prenatal care by increasing the number of checkups during pregnancy, and (i) provide nutrition interventions for the most vulnerable mothers and children.
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Capabilities and Human Capital (continued)

Options	Examples
<p>Option 1. Maternal and child care (continued)</p>	<p>Chad. Safe Motherhood Project. Maternal mortality in Chad is among the highest in the world. In response to this challenge, the government and donors developed a National Health Development Plan to increase access to quality basic services in health, nutrition, and family planning. The World Bank has provided financing for the complementary Health and Safe Motherhood Project, which is designed to (a) enhance capability at the central level to support regional health services, (b) ensure accessibility to low-cost essential drugs, and (c) improve access to basic health services in two specified regions.</p>
<p>Issue: Girls not attending school</p>	
<p>Option 1. Toilets and separate washing facilities for girls</p>	<p>Bangladesh. The Female Secondary School Assistance Project (FSSAP), World Bank, represents an integrated package approach incorporating multiple interventions. One component consists of building and improving toilets, tubewells, and water supply and sanitation programs at schools.</p>
<p>Option 2. Scholarship programs for girls</p>	<p>Bangladesh. The specific economic, cultural, and religious environments in Bangladesh combine to depress demand for girls' education, so that girls either never enroll in school or withdraw earlier than boys. The situation becomes considerably worse at the postprimary level as the direct costs of schooling rise. This project illustrates how monetary incentives can reduce the direct cost of schooling and encourage participation. A major component of a World Bank project is the provision of stipends for girls attending secondary schools. These stipends cover nearly half of a girl's annual direct educational costs, including tuition, textbooks, supplies, uniforms, and transportation. The project includes five additional components that address out-of-school and in-school constraints to enrolling girls in secondary education and promoting positive community values about educating girls. Since the project's inception, the number of girls enrolled in the program has increased each year.</p>

Security

Options	Examples
<p>Issue: Insecure property rights</p>	
<p>Option 1. Property rights legislation</p>	<p>Rwanda. Under an Economic Recovery Credit, World Bank, is designed to promote legal and institutional changes in the agricultural sector and labor market that will foster economic growth and reduce rural poverty, and support legislation to eliminate discrimination against women. Amendments to the civil code will give women the rights to inherit and own property, and a new land law will be adopted and implemented that will provide security of land tenure and equal rights of land ownership regardless of gender. The government also will adopt a comprehensive action plan to eliminate discrimination against women and enhance their access to social and economic opportunities. A nationwide campaign will sensitize the population to the changes in the law to ensure its effectiveness. See Tanzania. The Land Act of 1998 and the Village Land Act of 1988 above.</p>
<p>Issue: Violence against women</p>	
<p>Option 1. Community capacity building</p>	<p>Zimbabwe. The Muzassasa Project works with local police and prosecutors to sensitize them to issues of domestic violence and rape (for more information, see Stewart 1992).</p> <p>Costa Rica. El Instituto Legal de las Naciones Unidas y Desarrollo (ILANUD) offers gender sensitivity training, emphasizing violence against women, to prosecutors, judges, lawyers, and other professionals. In 1992, the project conducted 32 workshops throughout Latin America (Programa Mujer, Justicia y Género, ILANUD, San Jose, Costa Rica).</p>

Security (continued)

Options	Examples
Option 2. Police reform	Latin America. Creation of women-only police stations, which have spread from Brazil to Colombia, Uruguay, Peru, and Costa Rica. Data from Brazil's special police stations show that women-only units have greatly facilitated the reporting of abuse. In São Paulo, for example, reported cases went from 67 in 1985 to 841 in 1990. These stations registered 79,000 of the 205,000 crimes against women reported nationally between July 1991 and August 1992. This suggests that the number of reported cases would be much higher if women's police stations were more widely available in other states (for a list of programs in Latin America, see "Programa de Atención y Prevención de la Violencia Familiar y Promoción de la No Violencia" [InterAmerican Development Bank, available at http://www.tadb.org/sds/doc/2253spa.pdf]).
Option 3. Safe transport	Peru. An assessment of the microcredit component of the Lima Urban Transport Project, World Bank, identified the dangers of sexual harassment and robbery facing women cyclists. The study also documented the dangers to female passengers on public transport and recommended a pilot project to promote women-only taxis and minibuses. See www.worldbank.org/gender/transport (under "Grants and Pilots").
Issue: Female-headed households	
Option 1. Targeted transfers	Honduras. The Bono Madre Jefe de Familia Program was targeted to female-headed households that met an income criterion and had children attending primary schools. Teachers determined who was eligible for food coupons. Recognizing that many women are in unions not legalized by formal marriage but in which the male contributes to the household welfare, and that not all legal husbands are present and contributing to the economic welfare of the household, the project considered "real" union status to be a more accurate reflection of poverty than "legal" union status (<i>Source:</i> Grosh [1994])
Option 2. HIV/AIDS prevention programs	Argentina. The AIDS and Sexually Transmitted Diseases Control Project, World Bank, aims to reduce the number of HIV/AIDS cases (particularly mother-child transmissions of HIV) among high-risk and vulnerable males and females. While the incidence of HIV/AIDS has decreased among homosexual/bisexual men, it is steadily increasing among heterosexual individuals, including female sexual partners of infected drug users and their newborns. The project targets specific male and female focus groups, including at-risk pregnant women and commercial sex workers, with communication campaigns and expanded adoption of effective preventive measures, and enhances the diagnosis, treatment, and care provided to AIDS sufferers in the at-risk categories. Legislation will be introduced to include diagnosis and treatment of HIV for pregnant women in the government social insurance system and in prepaid health services. The project will pay special attention to the catastrophic economic impact of AIDS on lower-income families.

Empowerment

Options	Examples
Issue: Lack of participation in decisionmaking	
Option 1. Quotas for female council members	East Timor. Community Empowerment and Local Governance Project (CEP), World Bank. This reconstruction program will deliver community grants directly to the subdistrict level for projects proposed by individual villages and hamlets. The grants will have a special window targeting the most vulnerable social groups, including war widows, handicapped resistance veterans, and the elderly. In addition to these grants, the CEP will address the reconstruction of cultural heritage and civil society. Because the loss of so many male combatants created a large number of extremely vulnerable female-headed households and widows, the CEP includes a requirement that 50 percent of the elected hamlet representatives who will form the new local governance structure be female. To accomplish this unprecedented political gender equality goal, each citizen is granted two votes, one for each gender.

Empowerment (continued)	
<i>Options</i>	<i>Examples</i>
<p>Option 2. Participatory planning to ensure the involvement of women</p>	<p>Malawi. The Social Action Fund Project (MASAF), World Bank, funds the upgrading and construction of community infrastructure such as schools, health facilities, community water points, rural and urban markets, and granaries to help women gain better access to health and education facilities and employment opportunities. MASAF is designed to ensure that female-headed households, poor women, and other disadvantaged groups benefit fully from the project. Promotional activities focus on women's priorities and needs and support women's involvement in the design, implementation, and management of subprojects. Women's representation in Community Project Committees (CPCs)—which are formed at the community level through public and democratic processes and are responsible for identifying community priorities and coordinating cooperative efforts for cash or in-kind contributions—is emphasized. As a result, an average of 30 percent of CPC members are women, and women often hold key positions within the committee. A MASAF monitoring and evaluation system will track the participation of women in community projects and will assess the impact of these projects on female beneficiaries, especially in areas and types of projects where opportunities to reach women have previously been missed.</p>
<p>Issue: Constraints in access to the legal system</p>	
<p>Option 1. Improving access to legal services</p>	<p>Ecuador. The Judicial Reform Project, World Bank, includes a Program for Law and Justice that provides small grants to groups in civil society, with emphasis on improving access to the judicial system. The majority of these activities serve women's legal needs, including four pilot legal services centers in urban areas that provide legal services for low-income women, many of whom have been underserved by the judicial system because of excessive delays in family law cases. Through mediation, the centers have been able to improve the efficiency of the court system as well as women's access to it. Child support cases that previously languished in the courts for several years are resolved in three to eight weeks, and child custody cases are usually decided within 48 hours. The centers also provide consultations on issues such as child support, domestic violence and sexual violence against children, land disputes, and inheritance.</p>
<p>Issue: Disempowerment of widows</p>	
<p>Option 1. Reforming succession laws.</p>	<p>Zimbabwe. Customary laws govern the bulk of personal relationships in Zimbabwe. Most marriages are not registered but are, rather, governed by customary rules. A married woman is assumed to work for her husband, and all property acquired in the marriage, apart from household property such as kitchen vessels, belongs to the husband. Upon termination of a marriage, division of property is dependent upon whether or not the marriage has been registered under the Matrimonial Causes Act, and most are not. The enactment of the Maintenance Amendment Act (No. 6/97) has been an important step in requiring a husband to maintain his ex-wife and her minor children in cases of divorce, and it supersedes customary law. The Administration of Estates Act has also introduced a measure of security for women by providing that the surviving spouse and children of the deceased have the right to inherit the deceased's property. Previously, customary law prevented a woman from inheriting her deceased husband's property. (Source: World Bank [1999]).</p>

Technical Note I.4 Checklists and Promising Approaches for Incorporating Gender

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

This technical note borrows extensively from “Key Questions in Gender Analysis: Sectoral Reference Guides,” produced by the World Bank, Latin America and Caribbean Region Gender Team, which can be found at www.worldbank.org/lacgender.

I.4.1 Agriculture, land rights, and rural development

Checklist of issues

- What are the differences in the food and cash crops grown by men and women?
- How do men’s and women’s distinctive roles in agriculture and livestock production contribute to development goals, such as improvement of household nutrition and welfare and internal and external growth of the agriculture and livestock sector?
- How have new investments and growth in agriculture and livestock production affected men’s and women’s labor supply and earnings?
- What agricultural technology services are available to male and female farmers? Do these services consider gender-differentiated roles and corollary agricultural technology needs in agriculture? Is information and advice on agricultural technology targeting the right gender?
- Do women and men work jointly or separately in agriculture and livestock production? What are the implications of these patterns for the type of agricultural technology services they require?
- Are men and women organized to increase their agricultural productivity, and if so, how are they organized? What are the implications of men’s and women’s different forms of organization for providing agricultural technology services to them?
- What different constraints do women and men face in using services—for example, conflicts with other activities such as domestic chores? How could services be provided to take into account these gender constraints—for example, timing and location of services and mechanisms for transmitting information?
- How would targeting of agriculture technology services to either men or women affect their productivity, earnings, and family welfare? How would that, in turn, alter decisionmaking and expenditure patterns in the household?
- Are there gender differences in the constraints to land ownership?
- What is the relationship between men’s and women’s land ownership and agricultural production and productivity by gender?
- What is the interaction with land markets? What are the gender-differentiated barriers to participating in credit programs as they relate to land? Have provisions been made to allow spouses of household heads to use titles for credit purposes?
- How has land affected household bargaining power, intrahousehold resource allocation, and corollary household welfare?
- How have land programs affected men and women differently? What is the resulting impact on the household in bargaining power and household welfare and security? What are the implications for designing future land programs?

Promising approaches

See technical note I.3 for examples of projects strengthening women’s property rights (under “Opportunities”).

- The decisionmaking role of women farmers can be strengthened by working through traditional women’s organizations—for example, in Malawi.

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

I.4.2 Environment and natural resource management

Checklist of issues

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

Promising approaches

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

I.4.3 Education

Checklist of issues

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

Promising approaches

See technical note I.3 for examples of projects that strengthen girls’ school enrollment and educational performance (under “Capabilities and Human Capital”).

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

I.4.4 Health and violence

Checklist of issues

Gender differences in health risks and access to health services

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

Reproductive health and sexually transmitted diseases

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

Gender and violence

- How does gender violence affect reproductive health behavior and contraceptive decisionmaking?
- What is the prevalence and magnitude of different types of violence—for example, political, economic, and social violence—by gender?
- Who, by sex, are the perpetrators and victims of the violence types?
- What are the challenges associated with effectively measuring prevalence and magnitude of violence—for example, share of women and men reporting all incidence types? Do violence indicators appropriately measure gender impacts?
- What are the violence risk factors for men and women? Are men and women affected differently by certain types of violence perpetration and victimization?

- What are the links between violence types and gender roles, relations, and stereotypes?
- How do economic cycles and unemployment affect violence, by gender?
- How might violence affect the implementation of a proposed project or policy? For example, does violence result in gender-differentiated access to and control of resources or project participation and vice versa?
- How are issues of violence being addressed by the judicial, health, NGO, education, private business, and police or military sectors? Are gender differences in the perpetrators and victims of violence taken into account by these sectors?

Promising approaches

See technical note I.3 for examples of projects providing access to contraception, caring for maternal-child needs, and combating violence against women (under “Capabilities and Human Capital,” and “Security”).

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

I.4.5 Transport

Checklist of issues

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

Promising approaches

See technical note I.3 for examples of projects reducing women’s time burden, providing microcredit for acquiring transport facilities, and generating employment for women through road maintenance.

- In many rural and urban contexts, bicycles offer a cost-effective way to increase women’s access to employment, markets, and public services. Bicycles can also be modified for use as rural ambulances and for transporting goods and passengers.
- Microcredit programs can provide an effective means of helping both women and men to acquire bicycles and other intermediate means of transport.
- A number of model approaches have been developed for increasing women’s access to public transport. These include women-only buses, separate entrances for women, separate seats for women, and improving security at bus stops.

- Labor-intensive road construction is becoming a major source of employment for women in many countries in Africa and Asia.
- Community focus groups have proved an effective way to raise men’s awareness of the excessive time and energy burden that water and fuel collection impose on their wives and children. These discussions have often resulted in men assuming more responsibility for these activities.

I.4.6 Energy

Checklist of issues

- What are the gender differences in time and distance for collecting fuel?
- What are the gender differences in the mode of travel or transport used for collecting fuel?
- What are the health impacts of wood- or oil-burning stoves?
- What are the gender differences in demand for and uses of electricity?
- What are the gender differences in access to electricity?
- Who is responsible for the maintenance of off-grid electricity?

Promising approaches

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

I.4.7 Water supply and sanitation

Checklist of issues

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

Promising approaches

See technical note I.3 for examples of projects to bring water closer to the community (under “Opportunities”).

- Women are beginning to play an important role in managing and maintaining community water supply and are often getting their first experience in administering money.
- Community focus groups have proved to be an effective means of raising men’s awareness of the burdens imposed on their wives and children by the excessive time and energy required in water collection. These discussions have sometimes resulted in men assuming more responsibility for collecting water.
- Participatory planning methods are now available to ensure that both women and men are consulted in project selection and design. The significance of this is that when men only are consulted, they frequently give water a low priority.

I.4.8 Labor markets, employment, and microenterprise development

Checklist of issues

Labor markets

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

Earnings and employment conditions

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

Microenterprises

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

Promising approaches

See technical note I.3 for examples of microcredit programs for women (under “Opportunities”).

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

I.4.9 Safety nets and food security**Checklist of issues**

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

Promising approaches

See technical note I.3 for examples of public works programs providing employment and income during times of economic crisis (under “Opportunities”).

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

I.4.10 Urban development**Checklist of issues**

- What is the proportion of female-headed households in urban areas?
- What are the gender differences in formal and informal sector employment?
- What are the legal, cultural, and economic constraints on the ability of women to own property?
- What are the gender differences in access to credit in urban areas?
- What is the level of sexual harassment and violence against women?
- What are the gender differences in constraints on mobility in cities?

Promising approaches

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

Technical Note I.5 **Project-level Gender Indicators for Monitoring and Evaluation**

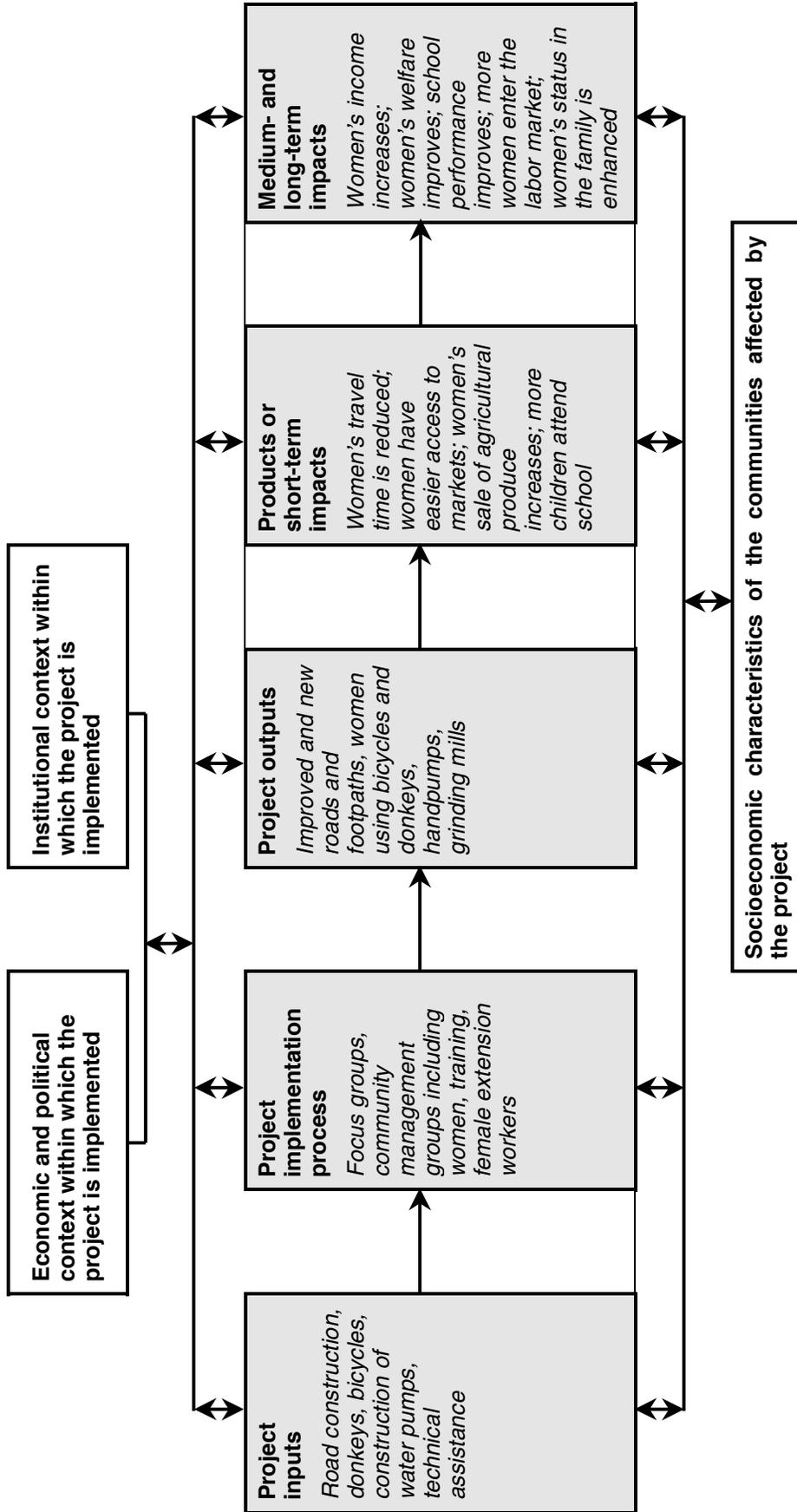
To carry out monitoring and evaluation at the project level, it is helpful to develop a model of the project implementation process, describing and specifying indicators for

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

Figure I.1 shows how this model was applied in evaluating the gender impacts of a village travel and transport project in Tanzania. This kind of model has several advantages for evaluating the social and gender impacts of projects:

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

Figure I.1 Applying the Gender Monitoring and Evaluation Framework to a Village Transport Project



Technical Note I.6 Country Gender Assessment (CGA) Guidelines

The CGA is a collaborative process by which the World Bank and borrowing countries (a) analyze the gender dimensions of development; and (b) identify gender-responsive policies and actions important for poverty reduction, economic growth, human well-being, and development effectiveness of the country.

CGAs provide a basis for integrating gender issues into policy dialogue with governments and into other elements of the Bank's country assistance program, including further analytical work, policy design, advisory services, partnerships, and project activities.

A CGA normally comprises: (a) a country gender profile; (b) a review of the country's institutional and policy context and its gender implications; and (c) a set of suggested policy and operational interventions.

CGAs include a *profile* of:

- the different socioeconomic roles of males and females, including their participation in both the market and household economies;
- gender disparities in access to, control over, and use of assets and productive resources;
- gender disparities in human development indicators;
- inequalities between males and females in the ability to participate in development decisionmaking at the local and national levels; and
- laws, institutional frameworks, norms, and other societal practice that lead (implicitly or explicitly) to gender discrimination and/or gender inequality.

Because gender issues cut across virtually all aspects of the economy and society, CGAs examine a range of substantive areas (for example, agriculture, education, energy, the environment, the financial sector, health, infrastructure, the labor market, social protection, the private sector, rural development, transport, and water and sanitation) to ensure that priority gender-related development issues are equally identified.

Although human development issues (for example, education, health, and nutrition) may be among the priority issues identified in many countries, gender and development issues vary tremendously across regions and countries. This makes analyzing a range of substantive areas beyond the human development sectors very important.

CGAs also examine gender issues across different socioeconomic groups (for example, across poor and nonpoor, ethnic groups, castes, and so on) to ensure that issues identified as priorities are inclusive and adequately focused on poverty reduction.

CGAs review the country's *institutional and policy context* with respect to gender, including discussion of:

- the country's policies, priorities, legal and regulatory framework for implementing its gender and development goals and commitments (for example, the Millennium Development Goals, CEDAW the Beijing Platform for Action, and national gender plans of action);
- the country's institutional arrangements for implementing its gender and development goals and commitments (for example, relevant ministries and agencies, government initiatives and cross-agency collaboration, partnerships with civil society and donors, and relevant budgetary resources);
- the effects of the country's broader institutional environment (for example, development policies, laws, and regulations) on gender (in)equality; and
- the country's recent progress and current and emerging challenges in implementing its gender and development goals and commitments.

CGAs include a set of *suggested priority policy and operational interventions* that the evidence in the gender profile and review of institutional and policy context indicates are important for poverty reduction and development effectiveness. These recommendations provide the basis for dialogue with government and other development partners, as well as for determining how to integrate gender into other aspects of the country assistance program.