

Chapter 10

Gender

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10.1 Introduction

This chapter is designed to guide those involved in poverty reduction strategies (PRSs) at the country level in identifying and implementing policies and programs that will benefit both men and women and maximize potential benefits for poor families.

Poverty is experienced differently by men and women. A full understanding of the gender dimensions of poverty can significantly change the definition of priority policy and program interventions supported by the PRS. Evidence is growing that gender-sensitive development strategies contribute significantly to economic growth as well as to equity objectives by ensuring that all groups of the poor share in program benefits. Yet differences between men’s and women’s needs are often not fully recognized in poverty analysis and participatory planning and are frequently not taken into consideration in the selection and design of PRSs. It is essential, then, to integrate gender analysis into poverty diagnosis and to ensure that participatory consultation and planning processes are specifically designed to give voice to all sectors of society—women and men as well as different age, ethnic, and cultural groups. One of the messages of this chapter is that conventional poverty research and analysis tools can address most gender issues, and when this is not the case, the problem lies mainly in a lack of recognition by policymakers and planners of the importance of gender as a key development issue. If the right questions are asked, conventional poverty research tools can provide most of the gender-related answers; but, as is often the case, if the right questions are not asked, poverty analysis will frequently ignore many of the important gender differences in the experience of poverty.

The chapter contains the four sections described below, in addition to the introduction:

- Section 10.2, “Rationale for Integrating Gender into PRS Processes,” provides a rationale in terms of the associated potential efficiency and equity benefits and a framework that describes the gender issues and the different dimensions of poverty.
- Section 10.3, “Integrating Gender Analysis into Poverty Diagnosis,” gives an overview of how to integrate gender analysis techniques for data collection and analysis into the poverty diagnosis on which the PRS is built.
- Section 10.4, “Using a Gender-Informed Poverty Analysis in Defining Priority Public Actions in the PRS,” offers a step-by-step approach for using a poverty diagnosis to identify key gender gaps and issues that need to be addressed in the PRS, and policy and program interventions that could be used in addressing these issues, along with checklists to use in selecting and designing gender-inclusive PRS programs.
- Section 10.5, “Integrating Gender into the PRS Monitoring and Evaluation,” suggests how to monitor differences in the ways men and women are involved in selecting, designing, and implementing PRS programs, and how to evaluate gender differences in the outcomes and impacts of these programs.

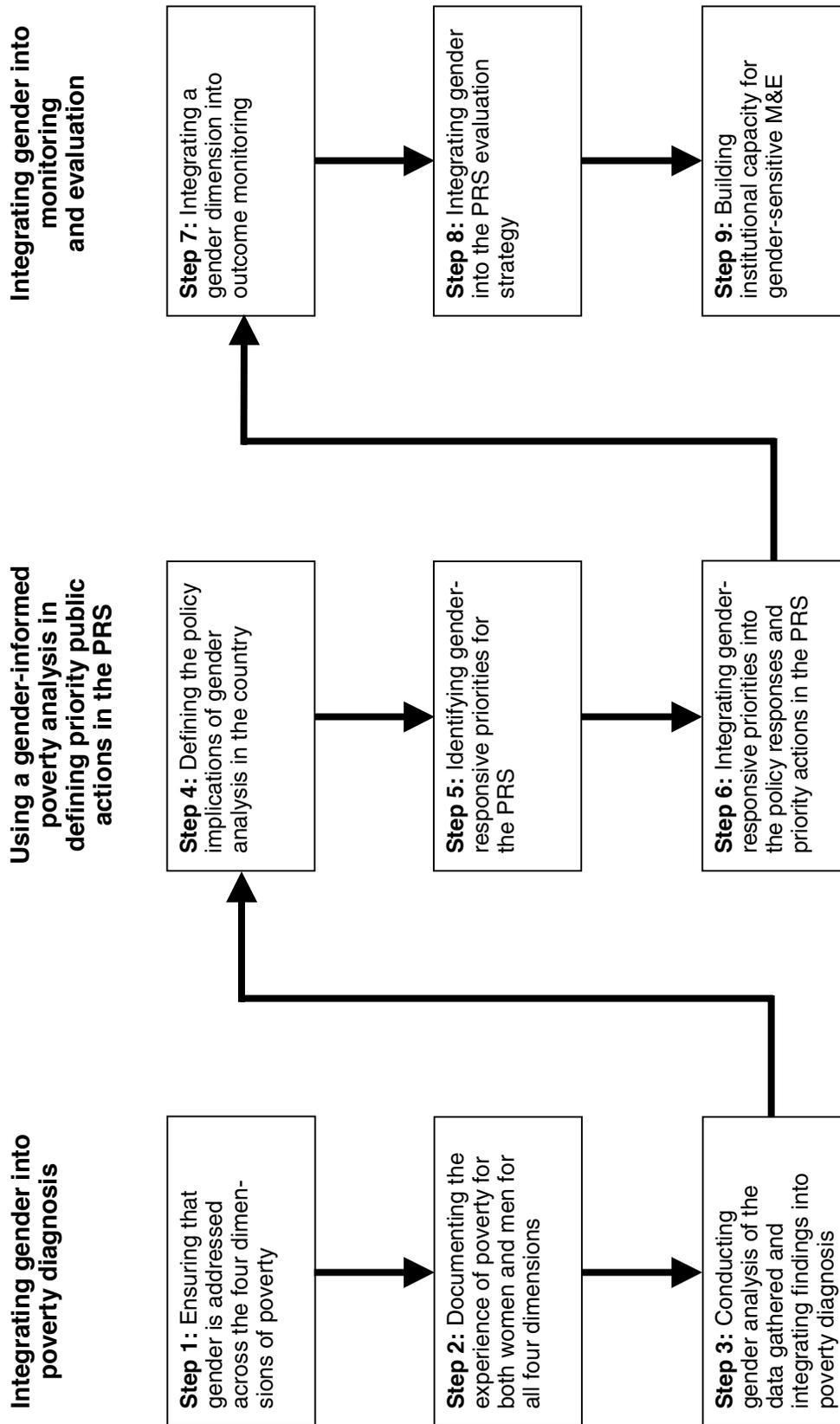
Table 10.1 summarizes the contributions of gender analysis and how this will improve outcomes during poverty diagnosis, identification of public policy responses, and design of the M&E indicators. Figure 10.1 describes the nine steps required to ensure that gender issues are fully integrated into the processes of poverty diagnosis, selection of priority interventions, and M&E. These steps are discussed in more detail in sections 10.2, 10.3, and 10.4.

Stakeholder participation is an essential element in each stage of the PRS to ensure that the views of all groups are reflected in poverty diagnosis, selection of public actions, and evaluation of outcomes and impacts, and to ensure commitment of all groups to the PRS process. However, in many cultures where men are the main decisionmakers, women either may not be invited to participate in the PRS consultations or their ability to contribute to the selection of priority poverty reduction interventions may be limited. Consequently, it is essential to ensure that all consultations are specifically designed to ensure the full participation of both sexes. Technical note I.1 provides more detailed guidelines for engendering participation.

Table 10.1. Integrating Gender into the Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP)

<i>The building blocks of the PRSP</i>	<i>Contribution of gender analysis to the PRSP</i>	<i>Tools and approaches for engendering the PRSP</i>	<i>Expected outcomes</i>
<p>Knowledge of poverty—poverty diagnosis underpinning the PRSP. Support to broader and more inclusive understanding of poverty and its components:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Capability • Opportunity • Security • Empowerment. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Nature, causes, and impacts of poverty are different for men and for women. • Specification of gender-based inequality in access to and control of economic, human, and social assets. • Tradeoffs and externalities between household and market economy integrated into the poverty analysis. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Country gender assessment (CGA) to address the nature of gender-based differences and disparities. • Sex disaggregation of data and indicators. • Gender empowerment measure (GEM) and gender-related development index (GDI) (U.N. data). • Gender analysis of survey and other poverty data. • Time budget analysis. • Gender balance in teams preparing the PRSP. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Country's understanding of poverty is informed by these gender-based differences and is more complete. • Multiple dimensions of poverty and inequality are addressed, including focus on household needs and links to market economy. • Implications of gender-based asset inequality for poverty reduction and growth strategy are identified and addressed.
<p>Participatory analysis and processes. Giving voice to poor women and men to capture the gendered nature of poverty and how it is experienced differently by men and by women.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender-inclusive participatory analysis. • Understanding the gendered nature of poverty. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender-inclusive mapping of stakeholders. • Gender-inclusive consultations with the poor. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Different issues raised in poverty analysis: vulnerability, violence, social capital, time-poverty, insecurity. • Opportunity for women and men to articulate expressed needs and priorities.
<p>Public policy responses and priority actions.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender as a criterion for prioritizing poverty reduction measures. • Gender-aware growth strategy. • Investment in the household economy, with a focus on labor-saving technology, water and sanitation, intermediate means of transport (IMT). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender as a criterion to prioritize, sequence, and reorient spending priorities—specifically supports country efforts to establish effective public action priorities with maximum poverty impact. • Gender budget initiatives and local-level audit of budget impact by gender. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender understanding of poverty informs public policy and investment choices and priority setting. • Different needs identified, including those in the household economy. • A different poverty agenda.
<p>Participatory analysis and process.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Assurance that the priorities of poor men and women are the actions retained in the PRSP. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Structured participatory process to elicit different needs, constraints, and priorities of women and men and to ensure these are effectively prioritized. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Participation frames this different agenda and the priorities for retention in the PRSP. • Responsive to different needs, constraints, and priorities of men and women.
<p>M&E—setting and tracking performance indicators.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prioritizing of indicators with higher gender impact. • Selecting indicators that capture cross-cutting benefits and externalities. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender-specific targets and performance criteria. • Focus on reducing tradeoffs in time allocation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Performance indicators retained or prioritized to reflect the different needs and constraints of men and women.
<p>Participatory process.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Responsiveness to the poor via reprioritization of monitoring indicators. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Different emphasis given to specific indicators, such as water access, time saving. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender-inclusive participatory monitoring of indicators. • Tracking of gender-differentiated impact of the PRSP.

Figure 10.1.1. The Nine Steps for Integrating Gender into the PRS Processes



10.1.1 Lessons from the analysis of the first PRSPs and Interim PRSPs

Table 10.2 summarizes the findings of an analysis of how gender issues were addressed in a sample of the Interim PRSPs (I-PRSPs) and four PRSPs completed up to February 2001. A total of 15 I-PRSPs and four PRSPs were analyzed to rate how gender issues were addressed in the poverty diagnosis, the selection of priority public actions, the definition of targets and indicators for M&E, and the discussion of participatory consultation processes. Each area, and subcategories within each area, was rated according to whether there was (a) no reference to gender, (b) a general reference to gender issues, or (c) a more detailed discussion of gender issues.

Table 10.2. Treatment of Gender Issues in the First 15 I-PRSPs and Four PRSPs

<i>Stage of the PRSP</i>	No reference to gender issues	A brief reference to gender issues	More detailed discussion of gender
Poverty diagnosis	4	7	8
• Gender differences in the incidence of poverty	4	7	8
• Labor markets, income, and employment	7	7	5
• Health	5	9	5
• Education	4	9	6
Priority public actions	3	10	6
• Safety nets	11	6	2
• Labor markets, income, and employment	9	8	2
• Health	3	11	5
• Education	5	8	6
Indicators, targets, M&E	6	11	2
Participation and the consultation process	10	5	4

The analysis shows that for all areas fewer than one-half of the documents included a detailed discussion of gender issues: 42 percent for poverty diagnosis, 31 percent for selection of priority public actions, 10 percent for M&E, and 21 percent for participatory consultations. A significant proportion of the documents contained no reference at all to gender for many areas.

The analysis found that most of the PRSPs principally focus on 11 areas described below. The following list orders these priority sectors according to the extent to which gender issues were discussed.

More detailed discussion of gender	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Education • Health
Some discussion of gender	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Labor markets, employment, and microenterprise development
Very limited discussion of gender	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Agriculture, land rights, and rural development • Environment and natural resource management • Safety nets and food security • Water supply and sanitation • Violence
No discussion of gender	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Urban development • Transport • Energy

The analysis shows that while most of the I-PRSPs and PRSPs identify gender issues as being important in at least some sectors, the discussion of how to integrate gender into the selection and design of priority public actions is quite limited, and there are many missed opportunities.

In view of these findings, the main objective of this chapter is to provide practical guidance on how to

- identify gender issues in the poverty diagnosis (section 10.2);
- translate the gender dimensions of poverty into the selection and design of priority public actions (section 10.3 and technical notes I.3 and I.4);
- design indicators to evaluate the effectiveness of the PRS programs in reaching and benefiting both women and men (section 10.4 and technical notes I.2 and I.3); and
- ensure that participatory consultations give voice to both women and men (technical note I.1).

10.2 Rationale for Integrating Gender into PRS Processes

Men and women experience poverty differently. As a result of their different constraints, options, incentives, and needs, women and men frequently have different priorities and are affected differently by many kinds of development interventions. For these reasons, a full understanding of the gender dimensions of poverty will significantly improve both the equity and efficiency of PRS efforts.

10.2.1 Attention to gender improves efficiency and equity

Although women and men share many of the burdens of poverty, in most societies women are also subject to socially imposed constraints that further limit their opportunities to improve their economic conditions or to enjoy equal access to public services and consumption goods (World Bank 2001). Poor women are also subject to heavy time burdens due to their need to balance the demands of their productive, social, reproduction, and community management roles. Poor men may also suffer the consequences of rapid economic and social change when, for example, they lose their traditional sources of livelihood or are forced to migrate to inhospitable cities or mines in search of employment. A recent report entitled *Engendering Development* (World Bank 2001) shows the ways in which gender inequality is costly to development. Poverty reduction strategies that are based on an understanding of the gendered

Box 10.1. Does Gender Matter in Sub-Saharan Africa? Evidence from Regional Case Studies

- **Women's triple responsibility—child bearing and rearing, household management, and productive activities—and the increasing pressures on their time and energy—have significant consequences for human resource development, agricultural productivity, and environmental sustainability. Efforts to intensify agriculture, conserve natural resources, and reduce population growth will have to focus primarily on reducing women's severe time constraints; lowering barriers to women's access to land, credit, and extension advice; introducing technologies usable by and beneficial to women; and upgrading women's educational standards and skills (Cleaver and Schreiber 1994).**
- **The time spent by an average household on domestic transport activities ranges from 1,150 to 1,490 hours per year, which translates into between one hour and two hours 20 minutes daily for the average adult female. Water, firewood, and crops for grinding are transported predominantly by women on foot, normally being carried on the head (Malmberg-Calvo 1994).**
- **Recognition that gender is a key dimension of economic structure in SSA, and that economic capacities and incentives are strongly differentiated by gender, has led to effective integration of gender concerns into designing and implementing economic reform measures (*Gender Issues at the SPA*. Synthesis Report, Ottawa, Canada, October 1–3, 1995).**
- **Macroeconomic- and microeconomic-level analyses of the links between gender inequality and growth reveal that gender-based asset inequality acts as a constraint to growth and poverty reduction in SSA. Gender inequality in education and in employment is estimated to have reduced SSA's per capita growth in the 1960–92 period by 0.8 percent per year (Blackden and Bhanu 1999).**
- **Female education is a critical pathway to promote social and economic development. Evidence from SSA indicates that although female participation has improved, girls' and women's access to education remains limited. Unless urgent action is taken to enhance female education, the ambitious goals set for education across the region will remain out of reach (Odaga and Heneveld 1995).**
- **A child's health is affected much more by the mother's than the father's schooling. Data for 13 African countries between 1975 and 1985 show that a 10 percent increase in female literacy rates reduced child mortality by 10 percent, whereas changes in male literacy had little influence (World Bank 1993b). Maternal mortality rates in Africa are higher than anywhere else in the world, and adolescent pregnancy rates are among the highest in the world. By age 18, more than 40 percent of girls give birth in Côte d'Ivoire, Nigeria, and Mauritania (World Bank 1994).**
- **In Nigeria, female farmers are often among the voiceless, particularly in influencing agricultural policies and projects. The Women in Agriculture program has created much greater awareness among policymakers about the needs of women farmers, led to a rise in the number of women extension agents, and resulted in a significant increase in the percentage of women reached by the extension system (World Bank 1996).**

nature of poverty will enhance both the efficiency and equity of PRS impacts. Box 10.1 documents the importance of gender for the promotion of economic and social development in Africa.

Improving efficiency of the PRS

Rigid gender roles are often barriers to poverty reduction and economic growth. There is no doubt that both women's and men's contributions to household income and production are crucially needed for reducing poverty (see box 10.2). Many families rely on women's production to keep them out of poverty or to keep them from falling deeper into poverty. In their efforts to increase family welfare, women face different constraints than men. For example:

- Women are often engaged in low-productivity agricultural tasks. They typically have much less access to agricultural extension than men, even though women are more likely than men to adopt the techniques introduced by agricultural extension agents.
- Female-owned enterprises are often undercapitalized. Female entrepreneurs often cannot access credit because they do not have collateral, such as titles to land. Landlessness is also a problem among men who find themselves forced out of agriculture.
- Where women farm their own plots, as in many parts of Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), the absence of secure land rights can reduce their agricultural productivity because they do not benefit from long-term improvements to land.
- The beneficial impacts of a woman's education on the family—in terms of fertility, decisions on the education and health of her children, and her future earnings—are well known. Yet in many countries, more girls than boys are still not attending school. In some cultures, boys are kept out of school to work on the family farm or care for animals or because the families are too poor to pay for their schooling. This issue is now emerging in projects that are providing scholarships to encourage poor girls, and sometimes boys, to stay in school.
- At the macroeconomic level, evidence suggests that absolute and relative levels of female education affect economic growth. Cross-country evidence on the impact of gender inequalities in education indicates that if countries in SSA, South Asia, and the Middle East and North Africa closed their gender gaps in average years of schooling at the rate achieved by East Asia from 1960 to 1990, gross national product (GNP) per capita in those regions could have grown by about one-half percentage point higher per year—equivalent to 30 to 45 percent increases. Recent evidence from India indicates that female literacy is also a key determinant of the extent to which growth reduces poverty (Klasen 1999).
- Where women work for wages, they generally earn less than men, even when women and men have the same education and work experience. Labor market segmentation frequently limits women to lower-paid occupations.
- Women's rights and participation in public life are associated with lower levels of corruption in business and government. Cross-country findings from several studies show that in countries where gender equality in public life is higher, the level of corruption is lower (Dollar and Gatti 1999; Swamy and others 1999). This holds true even when comparing countries with the same civil liberties, education, legal institutions, and gross domestic product (GDP).
- Evidence is growing that gender disparities are not only inequitable but also lead to economically inefficient outcomes, resulting in slower growth and lower levels of welfare—that is, higher poverty. Increasing evidence shows that growth and social development significantly determine poverty outcomes.

Box 10.2. Mongolia: Women Prevent the Poverty of Ultra-Poor Households from Worsening

In post-transition Mongolia, if women's contributions were ignored, the rural Gini and households' poverty gap ratios would be 0.63 and 32 percent, respectively. When women's income is counted, however, the ratios drop to 0.49 and 29 percent. This means that for ultra-poor households, women are crucial to preventing their poverty from worsening. Strategies that consider how best to enhance women's economic contribution can, in turn, enhance their potential for reducing household poverty.

Source: Subbarao and Ezemenari (1995).

- Macroeconomic-level studies also confirm that better-educated women contribute to the welfare of the next generation by reducing infant and child mortality, lowering fertility, and improving the nutritional status of children (Hill and King 1995; Klasen 1999; Smith and Haddad 2000).
- Additional evidence points to the significant negative impact of gender inequality in secondary education on economic growth: a 1 percentage point increase in the share of women in secondary school education is associated with a 0.3 percentage point increase in per capita income (Dollar and Gatti 1999).

Improving equity of the PRS

Different members of a household experience many aspects of poverty differently. Average household, or per capita, estimates of consumption and expenditure can underestimate poverty among certain household members, particularly women and girls.

Perhaps the most dramatic example of gender inequality is the excessively high female mortality rates in some countries.

- Evidence from many countries indicates that when both household and market work are considered, women work considerably longer hours than men. This gap is particularly pronounced in poor households.
- Women continue to be vastly underrepresented in political decisionmaking at the national and local levels. With few exceptions, progress has been minimal in most industrial and developing countries. At the same time, poor men, particularly in rural areas, may also have a limited voice.
- Evidence from many countries shows that disparities between women's and men's access to, and control over, resources are associated with systematically lower access to health and education facilities for women and less than optimal participation in economic activities (Elson 1991b; Anker 1998).

10.2.2 Engendering the poverty analysis framework

The *World Development Report 2000/2001: Attacking Poverty* (World Bank 2000b), *Engendering Development* (World Bank 2001), and the work of authors such as Sen (1993) identify four main dimensions of poverty:

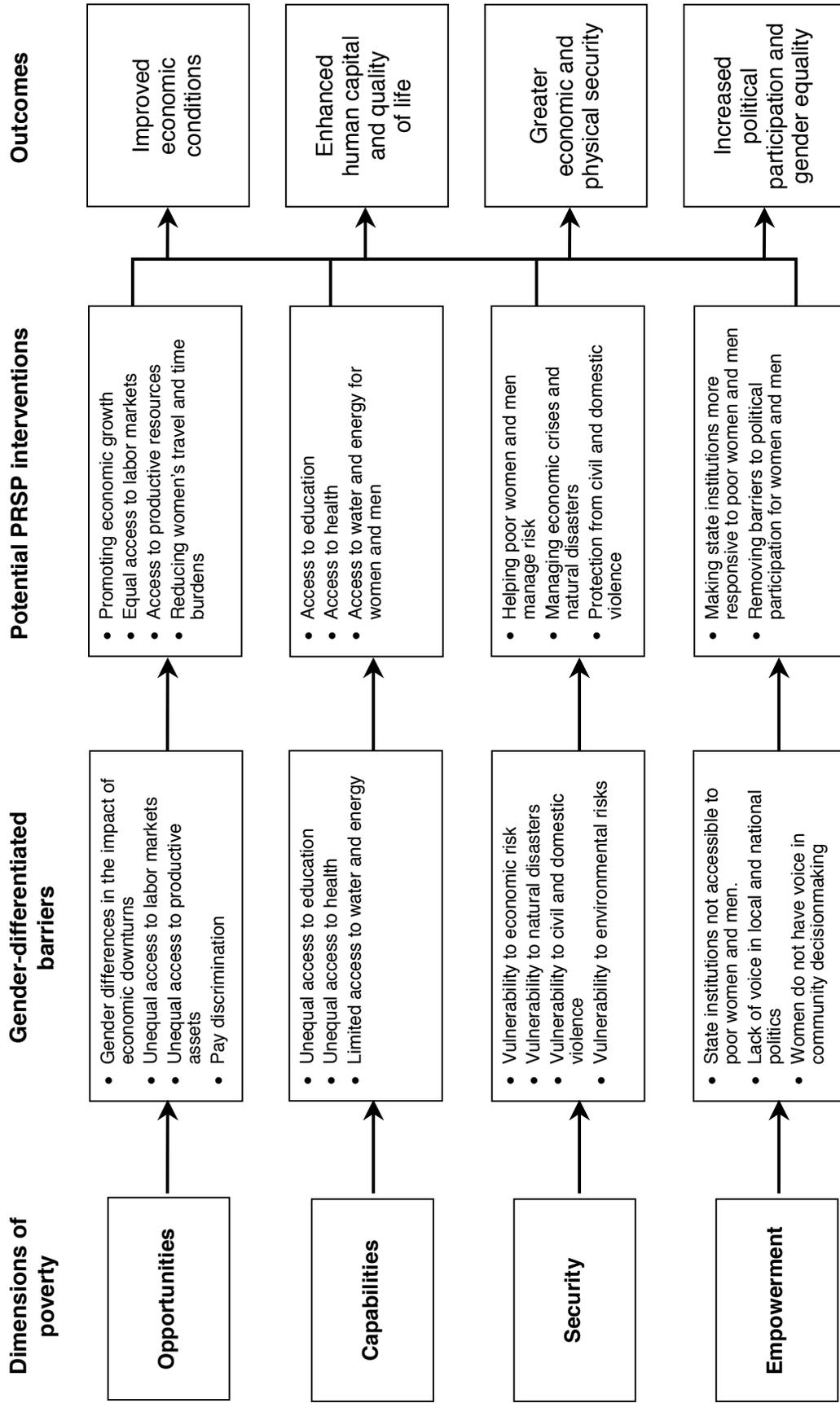
- **Opportunities.** Lack of access to labor markets and employment opportunities and to productive resources, constraints on mobility, and, particularly in the case of women, time burdens resulting from the need to combine domestic duties, productive activities, and management of community resources.
- **Capabilities.** Lack of access to public services such as education and health.
- **Security.** Vulnerability to economic risks and to civil and domestic violence.
- **Empowerment.** Being without voice and without power at the household, community, and national levels.

A PRS involves policies and program interventions to help the poor to overcome each of these dimensions. Figure 10.2 provides an overview of the constraints, areas of intervention, and benefits for each of these four dimensions.

Opportunities

Gender inequalities in access to credit and financial services are often exacerbated by women's limited ownership of land. In much of Sub-Saharan Africa, women obtain land rights through marriage, and these rights are secure only as long as the marriage remains intact (Due and Gladwin 1991). Recent household surveys from Bangladesh, Indonesia, Ethiopia, and South Africa show that women have substantially fewer assets than men (Quisumbing and Maluccio 1999). As a result, they do not have the collateral necessary to secure loans. It is estimated that in Africa, where as many women as men are

Figure 10.2. Gender Issues in the Four Dimensions of Poverty and Potential PRS Interventions



Box 10.3. Gender and the Labor Market

In many parts of the world the increasing participation of women in the labor force is driving employment trends. The labor force activity rates of males are declining while those of females are increasing. The structural transformation of economies, demographic change, informalization, and new notions of working time have redefined working and living conditions for both women and men. They have also modified gender roles in the labor market. While both men and women are affected by these trends, women are more vulnerable. The result is occupational segregation, with women finding themselves in the least-protected sectors of the economy. The growth of female-headed households due to migration, divorce, and abandonment also means that the insecurity of women's employment directly affects children and other dependents. Gender inequality is often built into labor institutions. Social security systems, for instance, frequently assume that the breadwinner of the family is male. Labor market segmentation along gender lines generates structural wage differences between men and women that are difficult to address through conventional labor market policy (ILO 1999).

The 1998 International Labour Organization (ILO) *Declaration on Fundamental Principles and Rights at Work* obliges member states to promote and realize core standards, including (a) the freedom of association, (b) the elimination of all forms of forced labor, (c) the effective abolition of child labor, and (d) the elimination of discrimination in employment and occupation.

farmers, women receive less than 10 percent of all credit going to small farmers and 1 percent of the total credit given to the agricultural sector. When female entrepreneurs do obtain credit, average loan sizes tend to be smaller than for males (UNDP 1995). Saito, Mekonnen, and Spurling (1994) reveal that, compared to men, women generally have limited social and business networks of the type that facilitate access to financial services.

There is also significant evidence of inefficient allocations of productive inputs within households by gender, which have significant costs to household output and income (Jones 1986; Udry 1996). Similarly, there is evidence that female enterprises are undercapitalized and that there are high returns from directing credit toward those enterprises.

Capabilities

Differential access to essential public services such as education and health may be determined by gender differences. For example, both by being stereotyped in school curricula or development assistance projects and because of family and community socialization, girls and women from poor households run a higher risk of dropping out of school or being trained for tasks that yield lower returns, such as sewing or basket weaving. Women in SSA have experienced the lowest average annual growth in total years of schooling between 1969 and 1990 of all regions, raising the average years of schooling of the adult female population over this period by a mere 1.2 years. Although women have different health needs and priorities than those of men, such as reproductive health or HIV/AIDS prevention needs, these services are not as accessible to them. This is seen in the enormous gender differential in Africa's sexual and reproductive burden of disease. Data for Uganda, for example, indicate that AIDS infection is six times greater among young girls aged 15–19 compared with boys of the same age (World Bank 2000b).

Security

Insecurity is an integral part of the experience of poverty. Gender-related security risks include economic and social changes such as death, divorce, or desertion of a spouse that erode the household as a social unit; the consequences of community and domestic violence and conflict; physical and cultural isolation and marginalization; ambiguity in legal status and rights; impact of environmental degradation; and precarious access to water. Participatory Poverty Assessments (PPAs) point to female-headed households, especially those with children who are too young to work or care for themselves, as being particularly vulnerable. PPAs also show that women and men respond differently to social, political, and economic dislocations. When men are no longer able to make an important economic contribution to the household budget, the stage is set for family conflict. Although domestic violence is a leading cause of injury and death to women worldwide, it is often ignored or even condoned by the state and society on the grounds that it is a private matter.

The PPA for South Africa mentions also that poor women need to undertake a number of dangerous and risky occupations, including prostitution. In many countries, women also complain of sexual harassment from co-workers and managers. Although many women organize, take action, and protest

against harassment, most poor women report remaining silent or using indirect ways of asserting or protecting themselves (Narayan and others 2000). Women in many countries are treated as legal minors in ownership of land and property.

Empowerment

A sense of not having a voice and power is another key dimension of poverty. Poor persons, especially women, are frequently excluded from social and political processes that affect their lives. These processes lack transparency, and the decisionmakers are not accountable to them. With few exceptions, poor women, even more than poor men, do not participate in decisionmaking in matters that directly affect their lives, whether these relate to public institutions or to civil society organizations. This pattern is also repeated in the household. Gender inequity and powerlessness are learned from early childhood in households around the world.

10.2.3 Engendering the participatory processes

As described in chapter 7, “Participation,” it is essential to use participatory processes in the design, implementation, and monitoring of the PRS. Although the need for beneficiary consultations is now widely acknowledged and is a required part of the preparation of every PRSP, experience has shown that socially and economically weak and voiceless groups will frequently be excluded from the consultation process. In societies where community councils and local political bodies are largely run by men, or where men are considered to speak for the whole family, it will frequently be the case that most women will have little involvement in the selection, design, or management of projects. 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.

Technical note I.1 builds on the methodology described in chapter 7 to present guidelines for ensuring that both women and men are fully represented in PRS participatory processes. Some of the first steps for integrating gender into the participation and consultation processes include

- Identifying the key stakeholders and ensuring all will be invited to participate in the consultations. Identifying all of these subgroups early in the process will ensure that the PRS will be as inclusive as possible.
- Consulting representatives of these identified subgroups, including both women and men, when planning any type of participatory event to determine the times and locations most convenient for their attendance.
- Assessing the current scope, level, and quality of participation. To what extent are groups representing both women and men involved, and what are the factors limiting the fuller participation of any groups that are underrepresented?
- Identifying and putting in place measures to strengthen the capacity to participate of weak and vulnerable groups (including but not limited to women). Make appropriate budget allocations to cover travel expenses and some form of financial compensation for participants, particularly women, who may need assistance 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.

Readers may also wish to review chapter 8, “Governance,” chapter 9, “Community-Driven Development,” and chapter 11, “Environment,” which discuss participatory issues from these different perspectives.

10.3 Integrating Gender Analysis into Poverty Diagnosis

This section describes three basic steps along a critical path to integrate gender into the poverty diagnostic stage of the PRS:

Step 1

Ensuring that gender is addressed across the four dimensions of poverty: opportunities, capabilities, security, and empowerment.

Step 2

For each of these dimensions, documenting the experiences of poverty.

Step 3

Undertaking gender analysis of the data gathered and integrating findings into the country's poverty diagnosis.

The three steps for integrating gender into the PRS (see shaded boxes in figure 10.3) aim to improve the quality of poverty analysis by examining the differences in how poverty affects men and women. The section also discusses the need to strengthen the gender database for future stages of the PRS (section 10.3.4) and recommended actions for PRS managers (section 10.3.5).

10.3.1 Addressing different dimensions of gender and poverty

The gender and poverty diagnosis should be structured around the four dimensions of poverty (opportunities, capabilities, security, and empowerment) described in section 10.2.2. This analysis will often require the use of different data collection methods to produce key indicators on the four dimensions of poverty. The indicators and data collection methods are described in table 10.3 (see technical note I.2 for further discussion of the indicators and chapter 1, “Poverty Measurement and Analysis,” for more information on data collection tools).

- *Opportunities* indicators reveal gender differences in access to the productive resources and opportunities needed to escape from poverty and to promote economic growth.
- *Capabilities* indicators can identify current gender gaps and monitor changes in the basic welfare indicators for women and men over time (see chapter 3, “Monitoring and Evaluation,” and technical note I.1). Some opportunities and capabilities indicators, such as employment and health and nutrition status, can change fairly rapidly and, therefore, can be used to measure the short-term impacts of interventions such as improved access to schools or health. Others, such as life expectancy, change much more slowly and are used to assess longer-term structural changes.
- *Security* indicators identify vulnerability to economic shocks, natural disasters, and violence. Although the *World Development Report 2000/2001* focuses mainly on economic risks and economic vulnerability, domestic, public, and conflict-related violence are also a major security concern for women.
- *Empowerment* indicators measure gender differences in participation and in access to decision-making in the political process at the national and local levels and in control over resources within the community and the household.

10.3.2 Documenting the gendered experiences of poverty

Special data collection issues for gender analysis

As indicated in section 10.5.2 below, all methods of data collection, whether quantitative or qualitative, participatory or nonparticipatory, can be gender sensitive—or not—depending on how they are applied. When gender issues are not addressed in, for example, poverty diagnostics, this is likely to be due as much to lack of awareness of the importance of gender as to the limitations of the data collection methods per se. However, table 10.2 above shows that gender issues are not adequately addressed in the majority of the PRSP poverty diagnoses. The same limited treatment of gender is found in most World Bank project design studies and many similar types of project planning and poverty research. Why is this? Table 10.4 suggests that data collection and analysis methods can be ranked along a continuum in terms of their adequacy for addressing gender issues.

At one extreme are the many studies using standard household survey instruments and sampling methods that include a full analysis of gender issues. Examples include the extensive literature on intrahousehold resource allocation (Quisumbing and Maluccio 1999), the differential gender impacts of

Figure 10.3. Steps for Integrating Gender into the Poverty Diagnosis

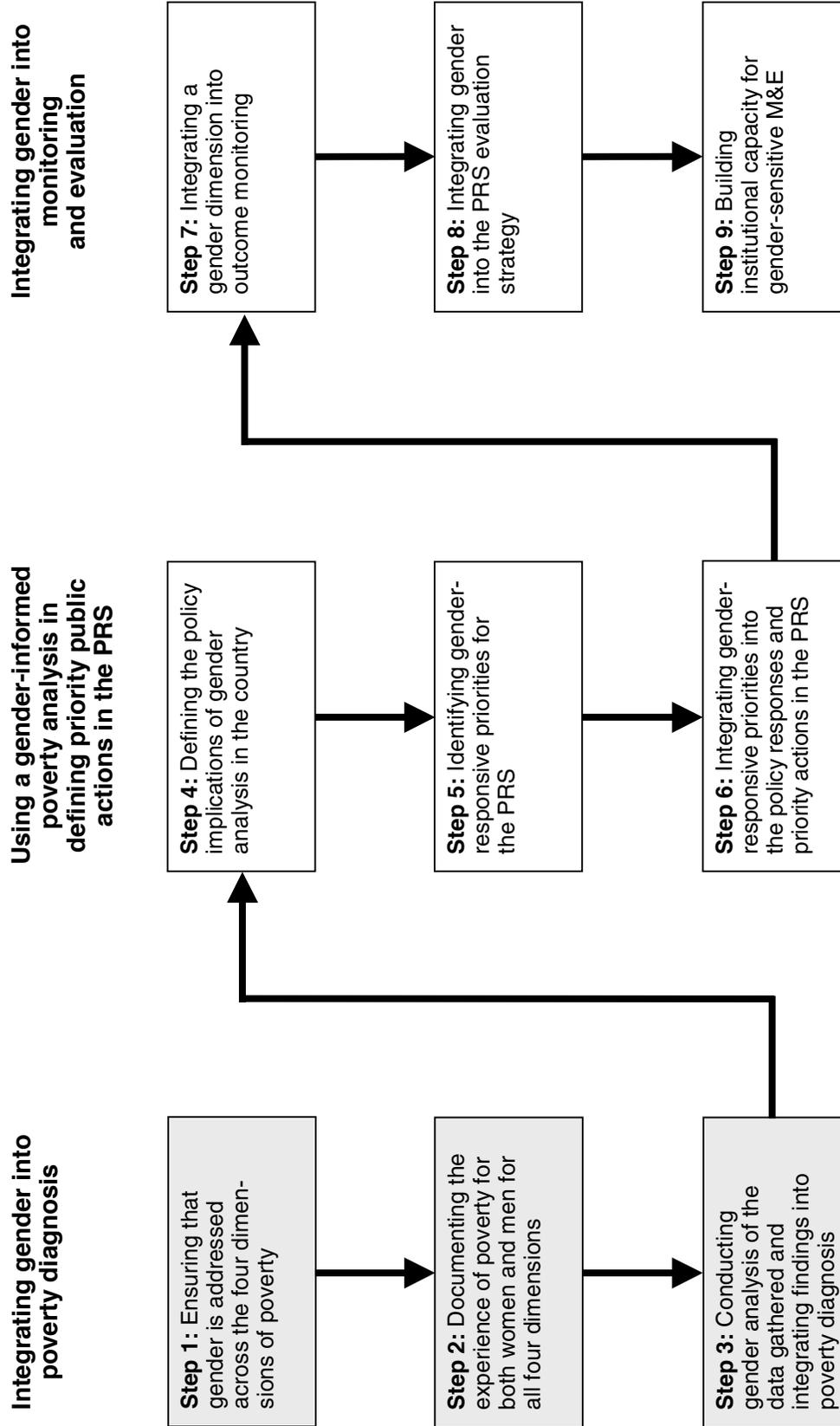


Table 10.3. Indicators of the Dimensions of Poverty and Their Measurement

<i>Dimension of poverty</i>	<i>Indicators</i>	<i>Measurement</i>
Opportunities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Time budgets and time poverty • Employment and labor force participation • Capital and assets 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Household surveys, focus groups, and direct observation • Household and labor market surveys, household surveys, records of credit, and finance institutions
Capabilities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demographic indicators (infant mortality, life expectancy, and so forth) • Education • Health and nutrition • Qualitative indicators of capabilities (culture, freedom, and autonomy) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Household and health surveys, clinic records, anthropometric studies, national and sectoral statistical records • Household surveys, school records • Household surveys, clinic records, participant observation, focus groups • Focus groups, participant observation, national quality of life surveys
Security	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Economic vulnerability • Exposure to violence • Social capital 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Household surveys, focus groups, Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) techniques such as timelines, and periods of stress, diaries • Focus groups, participant observation, case studies • Household surveys, interhousehold transfer studies
Empowerment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Political empowerment • Control over household resources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Voting records, key informants, participant observation • Household surveys, case studies, participant observation, key informants, focus groups

microcredit programs (Khandker 1998), and the impacts of female labor force participation on time use (Newman 2001).

Although, as indicated above, excellent studies of intrahousehold resource allocation have been based on household surveys, these surveys frequently have difficulties in analyzing how resources such as food, money, and productive resources are allocated and controlled within the household. Consequently, surveys may underestimate the level of malnutrition, lack of access to medical services, and so forth among girls and women that result from customary patterns determining resource allocation.

There are also many studies where the information is available to conduct gender analysis, but this was not done because gender was not considered an important issue by the researchers. A common example is the many cases in which sex-disaggregated data are available on, for example, school enrollment, labor force participation, and successful applications for loans. There are many other instances where sex-disaggregated data could have been used but was not, presumably because the researchers did not consider gender an important issue. Common examples in this category include transport user studies and the sexual division of labor at different stages of the agricultural production cycle.

There are other cases where gender-relevant questions are included in the survey, but the information is not collected from the right person or in the right way. In some cases, information about the needs, attitudes, time use, or consumption patterns of all household members is obtained from a single interview, usually with the so-called (usually male) household head. He will often not have the full information or may claim that all household members have the same opinion or priorities as himself. Men often underestimate, or undervalue, the multiple tasks that their wives must carry out and, consequently, put a low value on projects to save time and energy. In other cases, when women are asked about sensitive topics in the presence of other household members, they are unlikely to respond honestly and openly.

Another common situation is where the study should include (but does not) not only sex-disaggregated data on questions applicable to both sexes, but also additional questions reflecting the particular concerns of one sex or the other. For example, questions addressed to women might refer to domestic and other forms of violence, time burdens, and the problems of balancing multiple social and

Table 10.4. The Adequacy of Conventional Household Surveys for Gender Analysis

Adequacy for gender analysis	The extent to which gender issues are addressed in conventional household surveys and data collection methods	Examples
Fully adequate	1. Gender issues are fully analyzed.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Analysis of intrahousehold resource allocation (Quisumbing and Maluccio 1999). • Impact of employment in cut-flower industry on household division of domestic chores (Newman 2001).
	2. Information is available, but gender issues have not been addressed; or sex-disaggregated data have been collected but not analyzed.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Housing studies often do not examine differences in housing demand for male- and female-headed households. • Data on school enrollment, labor force participation, and use of health facilities are often collected on each household member, but sex-disaggregated data are not presented in analysis.
	3. Sex-disaggregated data could have been included in the survey but was not.	Data on consumption, employment, or household travel could have been collected on each household member, but this was not done.
	4. The survey instrument asks the right questions, but the information is only provided by one person (usually the "household head").	Information on needs, expenditures, and time budgets is often provided for all household members by only one person. The respondent (usually the husband) cannot respond correctly for all household members.
Inadequate	5. The data collection method is adequate, but additional gender-relevant questions should be included.	Surveys on education or labor force participation often do not include information on time use or cultural constraints on girls' or women's participation.
	6. The survey instrument is adequate, but certain people must be interviewed without the presence of other household members or neighbors.	Both women and men may be unwilling to respond to sensitive questions on topics such as domestic violence. In addition, women may not speak freely about their development priorities in the presence of male family members. Similarly, men may not give complete information on their earnings in the presence of their wives.
	7. The instrument and data collection methods are not appropriate for the purposes of the study.	Information on domestic violence cannot usually be obtained from household surveys because discussion of it is taboo in many cultures. Separate focus groups with women and men, interviews with a key informant, or participant observation may be required.

economic roles. Similarly, questions addressed to men might include the psychological, social, and economic stresses caused by unemployment, and the changing structure of the labor market.

Finally, there are cases where the household survey is not appropriate for collecting gender-relevant information. Examples include information on sensitive questions such as domestic violence and (in some cultures) contraceptive usage, or where the purpose is to observe household or group behavior when people may be unaware of, or unwilling to discuss, interpersonal behavior or leadership styles.

Some of the key gender issues to be addressed in data collection and analysis at the poverty diagnostic stage include

- Ensuring that household surveys collect information on the general social and economic conditions of the household combined with information on the constraints, opportunities, incentives, and needs of individual household members. This will often require administering special modules directly to subsamples of household members.
- Ensuring that both women and men are interviewed in a situation in which they are able to speak freely. This will often require interviewing women without male household members present, which can be quite difficult to arrange in many cultures.
- Ensuring that interview teams include both men and women and also interviewers who are fluent in the local language (men are often more fluent than women in the national language).

- Combining quantitative and qualitative methods at the individual and household level with data collection and analysis at the group and community levels.
- Combining quantitative and qualitative definitions of poverty to address the differences in the way that men and women experience and perceive poverty.

Box 10.4 presents examples of gender-sensitive indicators used in the Cambodia I-PRSP.

Selecting the right mix of data collection methods

Table 10.5 summarizes a range of data collection methods that can be used to address the gender dimensions of poverty. No single method can cover all of the issues, and it is important to combine quantitative and qualitative methods. The methodologies chosen should seek to ensure the participation of poor women and men in all stages of the PRS. In selecting a particular combination of methods, researchers need to consider how the information is to be used and by whom, as well as timing and budget implications. Table 10.5 also indicates the likely additional cost and time required to engender data collection with each method. In many cases, the information can be obtained simply by ensuring that it is requested on both men and women, but in other cases, it is necessary to conduct follow-up interviews with individual household members or to use special data collection methods such as focus groups or PRA methods. Additional data collection not only obtains information on women but also improves the understanding of the needs and attitudes of all sectors of the target population and all stakeholder groups.

The incremental costs and time will vary considerably between countries and between rural and urban areas, but the following are some possible methods and processes.

- Administration of special modules to subsamples of household members. If the modules are relatively short, and if women and other household members can be interviewed immediately following the household survey, the additional cost may be quite small. However, the cost will increase if follow-up interviews require the interviewers to return to the household. Even then, if individual interviews are conducted only on a subsample, the additional cost may be only 10–15 percent of the total interview cost, and an even smaller proportion of the total survey cost (as there will be little impact on the cost of data analysis).
- Depending on the purposes of the study, it will often be necessary to conduct interviews with at least six to eight focus groups (to ensure that all important population groups are covered). Each focus group may take one day to organize and conduct the interview and perhaps another day to analyze and write up. The cost is likely to be around four researcher days per focus group plus incidental costs such as travel, renting space (if required), and provision of refreshments and, possibly, payment to the respondents.
- The cost of a PRA can vary considerably, but a good estimate is to assume that a two-person research team, plus a team of two or three interviewers, would be required for one week (plus travel time) for data collection per community, plus an additional five days for analysis and report writing, making a total of approximately four person-weeks per community.

Box 10.4. Indicators of Women’s Insecurity and Vulnerability in the Cambodia I-PRSP

The following gender-responsive indicators of insecurity and vulnerability were included in the Cambodia I-PRSP:

- Unemployment rates were higher for women.
- A high proportion of women worked as unpaid family workers.
- There was no difference in poverty rates between male- and female-headed households. However, female-headed households were more likely to transmit poverty to the next generation.
- Women experienced poverty more intensely because of their multiple domestic and production tasks.
- There was a high proportion of women and children among the conflict-displaced population.
- The report includes several references to cultural and economic sex discrimination.
- There are important gender differences in exposure to, and impacts of, HIV/AIDS.

Source: Cambodia I-PRSP, January 18, 2001.

Available at <http://poverty.worldbank.org/files/Cambodia%20iprsp.pdf>

Table 10.5. Data Collection Methods and Applications in the Gender-Sensitive PRSP

<i>Method</i>	<i>Applications</i>	<i>Ease and cost of data collection and analysis</i>
Quantitative methods		
Household surveys	Household composition and household welfare.	Sex-disaggregated questions can be included at no cost. However, applying submodules to individual household members increases interview time and often requires a second visit.
Attitude studies	Analysis of attitudes toward different organizations or prioritization of needs and projects.	These can be included in the household survey, but they require additional time to administer.
Willingness and capacity to pay	Estimates of how much households are currently paying for services such as health, water, education, and transport and assessment of their willingness and capacity to pay for improved services for different household members (boys versus girls, and so forth).	Questions can be included in the household survey, but it is essential to interview both women and men. Qualitative methods such as direct observation may be required to check the reliability of the information.
Time use studies	Estimating the time women and men spend on collecting water and fuel, traveling to work, domestic activities, unpaid and paid productive activities.	Questions can be included in surveys, but, where possible, this should be combined with focus groups or direct observation. Household diaries can also be used.
Qualitative methods		
Stakeholder analysis	Identifying main groups affected by or affecting planned or actual policies and determining their interests, influence, and importance.	This requires individual interviews, but often with a relatively small number of respondents.
Institutional analysis	Evaluating the efficiency and client friendliness of the main public and private sector agencies providing services to the poor.	Some questions can be included in household surveys, but where possible, this should be combined with focus groups.
Focus groups and community forums	Seeking the opinion of community groups on their problems and priority needs and their experience with the projects and programs being provided—a valuable complement to household surveys.	Properly conducted focus groups require time to invite the right people and to write up the discussions. A team of two researchers is required. The sessions should be tape recorded, further increasing the analysis time.
Participatory Rural Appraisal and other participatory methods	These methods are used to understand the world of the poor and to listen to their concerns and priorities rather than asking them to respond to a set of survey questions prepared by outside agencies.	Several days and, ideally, at least one week should be allowed for each community studied. It is important to allow sufficient time to understand the community and to gain the trust of residents before the sessions begin.
Photographs and videos	Photographs provide a dramatic complement to written reports and an effective way to document physical and economic change over time (by taking photographs from the same location at different points in time).	Photographs are quick and easy to take. Videos are also an excellent way to present findings, but they are much more expensive to produce – particularly if editing is required.

For more information on data collection methods, see chapter 7, “Participation”; chapter 1, “Poverty Measurement and Analysis”; chapter 3, “Monitoring and Evaluation”; and Bamberger (2000).

10.3.3 Undertaking gender analysis of the data gathered

After collecting quantitative and qualitative data, the next step is to identify the practices that cause the observed gender differentials. For each of the gender dimensions of poverty (opportunities, capabilities, security, and empowerment [see figure 10.2]), there are a number of barriers that differentially affect men and women. Technical note I.2 recommends gender-sensitive indicators that should be collected during the poverty diagnosis phase on each of the four poverty dimensions.

Gender analysis needs to consider the imbalances in the gender division of labor—including rigidities in labor allocation—as well as the diversity of households and intrahousehold relationships, the gender-based differentials in productive resources, and the implications of the invisibility of women’s work in the system of national accounts (SNA). The analysis will inform policy choices and interventions and the M&E of outcomes and impacts.

Analyzing consequences and impacts of gender differences

An analysis of the impacts of gender differentials for poverty reduction should consider issues such as the following:

Time use

Country studies point to significant differences in how men, women, and children allocate time. As noted above, women’s multiple responsibilities subject them to increasing time constraints, and time poverty is a major factor in determining what choices are made at the household level. For example, in Uganda, women work longer hours than men, between 12 and 18 hours per day, with a mean of 15 hours, compared with an average male working day of approximately eight to 10 hours (World Bank 1993a). Reducing women’s time burden in the ways suggested in section 10.4.2 below and in technical note I.4 is a critical first step to promoting women’s economic opportunities and participation in community activities.

As shown in box 10.5, women in Kenya work 50 percent more hours than men on agricultural tasks. They work half as many hours again as men when agricultural and nonagricultural tasks are combined: 12.9 hours compared with 8.2 hours (Saito, Mekonnen, and Spurling 1994). In Tanzania, men have an average of 4.5 hours per day of leisure time, compared to an average of two hours per day for women. In economic activities, women’s labor input is 52 percent versus 42 percent for men. Women are involved in almost all activities on the farm as well as housework (in which men hardly participate). Women were found to make significant labor contributions, even in traditional male activities such as cash crop farming (Tibajjuka 1994).

Interdependence of household and market economies

Poor households face critical tradeoffs in allocation of scarce labor resources among economic production, bearing and rearing children, managing household and community responsibilities, and attending

Box 10.5. Kenya: Comparison by Gender of Work Hours in Agriculture (SNA)^a and Nonagriculture (Non-SNA)^b Activities (Shares of SNA/Non-SNA in Total Work)

	<i>Female</i>		<i>Male</i>		<i>Total</i>
	<i>Hr./day</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Hr./day</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>%</i>
SNA	5.7	42	6.3	76	56
Non-SNA	6.6	58	2.0	24	44
Total	11.3	100	8.3	100	100

a. SNA = included in the system of national accounts.

b. Non-SNA = Not included in the system of national accounts.

Source: Elson and Evers (1997).

school. These tradeoffs are further complicated by social rules that define the gender division of labor. Multiple demands on women’s time severely constrain their ability to respond to economic incentives and to participate in the market economy.

Consequently, a key challenge for PRS policies is to undertake complementary investments in the market and household economies that explicitly recognize these tradeoffs and build on positive externalities. This, in turn, has important implications for prioritizing poverty reducing interventions through which investment in the household economy will benefit the market economy in terms of improved efficiency, productivity, and growth. For example, the introduction of intermediate means of transport (IMT) such as bicycles or handcarts can enable households to market their agricultural produce while freeing up women’s time for other domestic or economic activities.

Importance of considering gender roles

The economic roles of men and women need to be analyzed explicitly and integrated into PRS policies and key interventions to ensure appropriate, gender-inclusive targeting. In agriculture, for example, this would bring a different dimension to which agricultural technologies are developed, which crops and tasks are prioritized, which extension messages are developed and delivered, which research priorities are pursued, and, most important, how all of these activities will really reach both women and men. Box 10.6 provides an example of how traditional agricultural roles may need to be adapted to the requirements of new crop production.

For more examples on the relevance of gender when addressing poverty reduction interventions in Africa, see box 10.1.

10.3.4 Looking to the future: strengthening the gender database for the future stages of the PRS

During the preparation of the I-PRSP and the PRSP, many countries will not have access to much of the information required to conduct a satisfactory gender analysis, though much more data and information are available than are generally used in PRS preparation. Certain measures can be taken even in the accelerated timeframe of PRSP preparation, such as ensuring that participatory consultations are designed to capture the priorities and concerns of both women and men, drawing on available data and analysis that might otherwise be neglected (such as time budget surveys), systematically disaggregating data by sex where possible, and conducting gender analysis of these available sex-disaggregated datasets. Nonetheless, the time pressure under which the PRSP is prepared means that it is not usually possible to fill in the data gaps in time to incorporate a full gender analysis into the I-PRSP and PRSP.

The PRS is a long-term strategy that will evolve over time. Consequently, part of the preparation of the PRSP should be to define and implement a strategy for improving the gender database in order to provide a foundation for strengthening the relevance and quality of gender analysis in subsequent phases of the PRS. There are two main elements to this: integrating into the PRS a strategy for the collection and analysis of sex-disaggregated and gender-relevant data and information (using both quantitative and qualitative methodologies), and preparing a strategic synthesis of gender issues in the country to provide direction and structure to work in this area in the form of a country gender assessment (CGA).

Defining a strategy for collection and analysis of gender-responsive data

The creation of a gender-responsive database involves:

- Identification of data and studies that already exist. Often more data are available than had been expected.

Box 10.6. Gender Analysis Is Not a Zero-Sum Game: Introducing Pole Beans In Uganda
Pole beans have a higher yield than traditional runner beans but require two people to stake the beans. A local theater group was able to convince women and men to cooperate in bean staking by putting on a popular skit showing women and men working together and increasing total household production.

- Identification of databases that contain sex-disaggregated data that have not yet been analyzed and preparing a plan for the analysis of key information.
- Preparation of a list of major social and economic studies to be conducted over the next few years and meeting with the survey planners to agree on how gender-relevant information can be included and what changes, if any, may be required in the data collection methods.
- Identification of critical gaps in gender-relevant data, and where currently no surveys are planned, through which key missing data could be obtained. Preparation of proposals on the means of collecting the data and reaching agreement with PRS planners on the means for funding the studies.

The country gender assessment (CGA)

Once the strategy for data collection and analysis has been defined, it is important to turn the information into usable knowledge through the preparation of a policy-relevant and operationally focused CGA. The CGA provides 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. Technical note I.6 provides guidelines for preparing a CGA.

The CGA normally comprises:

- a country gender profile;
- a review of the country’s institutional and policy context and its gender implications; and
- a set of suggested policy and operational interventions.

The CGA may be a stand-alone document or part of the Poverty Assessment or other larger analytical product (for example, a country social or economic analysis). CGAs generally draw upon a combination of quantitative and qualitative analyses, including participatory approaches. The CGA may contain original analytical work produced either by the Bank or by other agencies (for example, governmental, international, or academic institutions).

10.3.5 Recommended actions for PRS managers

Listed below are some specific actions to be considered by PRS managers during the poverty diagnostics stage, along with a checklist of gender issues to address (box 10.7).

- If the surveys have not yet been conducted, commission exploratory gender studies to identify the key issues and concerns of women and men and to ensure that they are incorporated into the survey design. Use participatory processes to identify the major concerns of women and men for their visions of the future, the constraints they face in improving their economic and social conditions, and the kinds of assistance they would like to receive from government and development agencies.
- Promote studies on gender issues in key development areas such as labor markets, schools, environment, HIV/AIDS, and community management.
- Promote gender balance in teams and participants responsible for PRS development and implementation.
- Ensure that both male and female stakeholders are included in the PRS participatory process. Proactively involve both men and women in building and sustaining country ownership of the PRS processes.
- Review all data collection methods to assess how effectively they cover the gender indicators presented in technical notes I.2 and I.5. It may be necessary to contract with a gender specialist to assist with this task.
- Ensure that a forward-looking strategy is put into place to strengthen the gender database for the subsequent stages of the PRS and preparation of the CGA (if this does not already exist).

- Ensure that the poverty analysis combines quantitative and qualitative methods and that survey design and data collection methods adequately cover gender issues. Use the gender checklist in box 10.7 to assess how effectively gender issues have been addressed in the poverty diagnostics.

10.4 Using a Gender-Informed Poverty Analysis in Defining Priority Public Actions in the PRS

This section suggests how to integrate gender analysis in the policy and priority interventions stage of the PRS—steps 4, 5, and 6 (see shaded boxes in figure 10.4)—and concludes with recommended actions for PRS managers (section 10.4.4).

Step 4

Defining the policy implications of gender analysis in the country.

Step 5

Identifying priorities for the PRS.

Step 6

Integrating gender-responsive priorities into the policy responses and priority actions in the PRS.

10.4.1 Defining the policy implications of gender analysis

When results have been obtained from the gendered poverty diagnosis, the next task is to define the policy implications of this analysis for the poverty strategy to make more informed, gender-aware policy responses and action priorities that address the gender-differentiated experience of poverty.

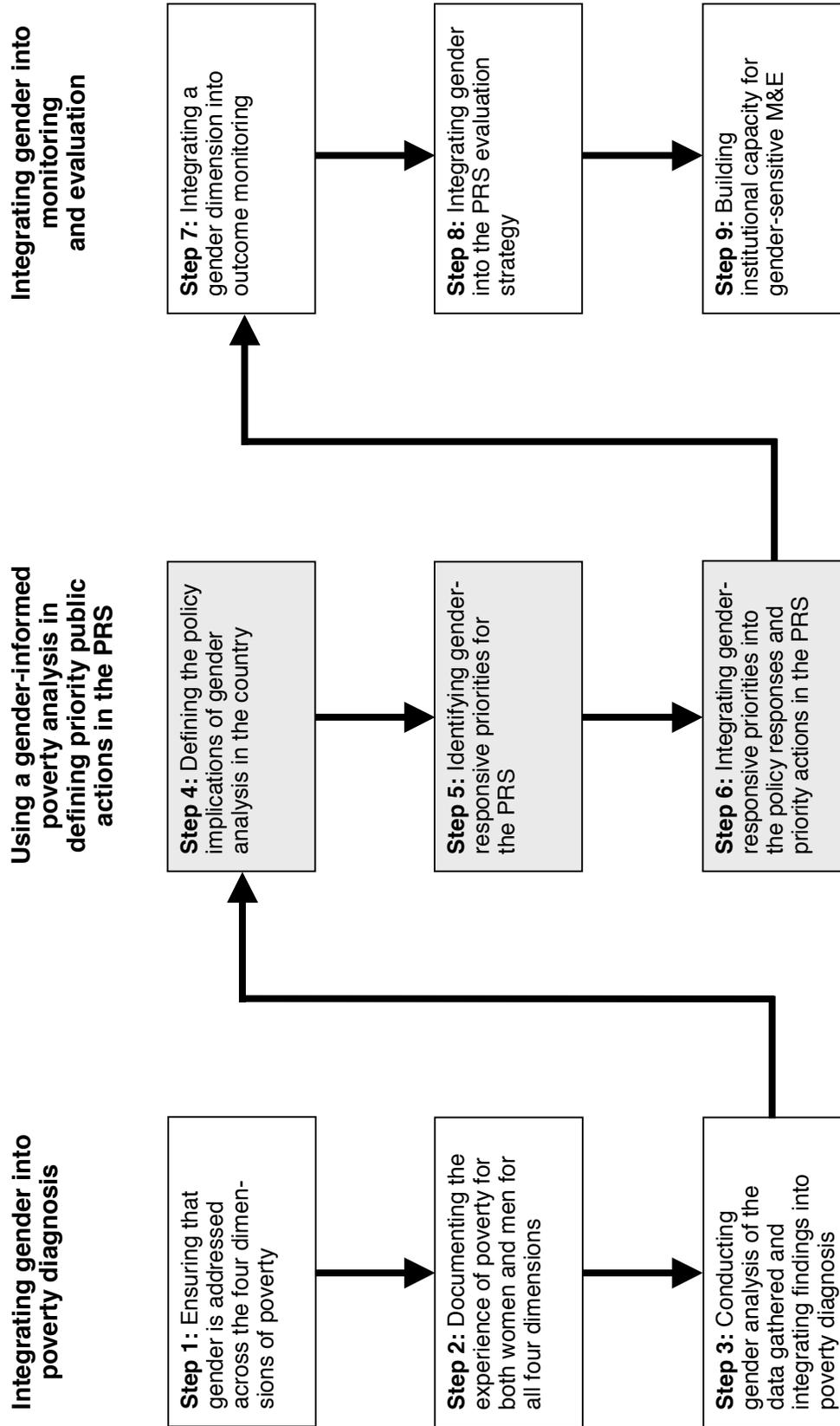
A gender-aware analysis of poverty contributes to a fuller understanding of the causes of poverty and indicates, in turn, different policy responses and investment priorities to reduce poverty. Analysis of the gender dimensions of poverty has four principal policy implications of relevance for the PRS. These are:

- Both men and women play important roles in economic activity (especially in Africa), but they are not equally distributed across the productive sectors, nor are they equally remunerated for their labor. This means that different sectoral growth and investment patterns make different demands on men’s and women’s labor and have different implications for the division of labor and the distribution of income.
- The market and the household economies coexist and are interdependent, as revealed in time allocation data showing the “double workday” of women. This means that short-term intersectoral and intergenerational tradeoffs (and positive externalities) may be very significant for asset- and labor-constrained individuals and households, that is, for the poor.
- Persistent gender inequality in access to and control of a wide range of human, economic, and social assets has direct and indirect costs for economic growth and development and diminishes the effectiveness of poverty reduction efforts.

Box 10.7. Gender Checklist for Poverty Diagnostics

- How many men and how many women are included in the team(s) preparing the PRS? How many men and how many women are involved in the different consultative processes for the PRS? What provisions are made for the participation of different stakeholders in the design, implementation, and monitoring of the PRS?
- How will the PRS process ensure that participation is conducted in ways that elicit information from both men and women about their respective constraints, opportunities, incentives, and needs?
- Do the PRS performance indicators reflect gender concerns? If not, how might they do so? How will both men and women be involved in the participatory monitoring of these indicators?
- What use is made of gender-responsive methods to collect and validate information on men’s and women’s different experience of poverty and analysis of gender dimensions of poverty?
- What methods are used to ensure that both women and men are able to participate actively in the process?
- Has a forward-looking strategy been initiated to strengthen the gender database for future stages of the PRS and to prepare the CGA?

Figure 10.4. Steps for Using Gender Analysis in Defining Public Actions in the PRSP



- The poor in general, and poor women in particular, have little or no voice in decisionmaking, and their different needs and constraints do not inform public policy choices and priorities. Therefore, proactive measures are needed to ensure inclusive participation in the PRS and in the formulation of inclusive policies and programs. In this respect, gender needs to be a criterion of inclusion in PRS participatory processes and a criterion of choice in prioritizing the PRS policy responses and interventions.

One of the key policy implications of gender-informed poverty analysis is that there are critical interrelationships and linkages among different sectors of activity, especially between the paid and unpaid economies (Barwell 1996; Cleaver and Schreiber 1994). Choices and tradeoffs are at the core of these interrelationships, as revealed in time use analysis. This is why it is so important for the poverty analysis underlying the PRS to include gender-based time budget analysis. Time constraints are in many instances severe; they affect women more than men, given the unequal division of labor; and they are especially acute for the poorest. Addressing these constraints can therefore be seen as one of the highest priorities for a PRS. Building on these interconnections can have positive multiplier effects by reducing the time burden of domestic work and raising labor productivity throughout the economy. To reduce domestic work, it is necessary to give the highest priority in the PRS to measures that save time (or improve the productivity of time use), such as improvements in accessibility and transport of wood and water, IMT, labor-saving technologies across the full range of household tasks (domestic and productive, which is especially critical for women) and promoting greater gender balance in undertaking domestic work.

10.4.2 Identifying gender-responsive priorities for the PRS

The next step builds on the policy implications of the gender analysis to prioritize policy responses and priority actions as the basis for developing PRS interventions. Readers who have particular sectoral interests are encouraged to review the respective chapters, especially chapter 15, “Rural Poverty”; chapter 16, “Urban Poverty”; chapter 17, “Social Protection”; chapter 18, “Health, Nutrition, and Population”; chapter 19, “Education”; chapter 22, “Transport”; and chapter 23, “Water and Sanitation.” Some areas that particularly warrant consideration from a gender perspective are described below.

Analysis of PRSPs to date suggests there are 10 priority sectors most frequently included in the country PRSs. The priority sectors include:

- agriculture, land rights, and rural development;
- environment and natural resource management;
- education;
- health and violence;
- transport;
- energy;
- water supply and sanitation;
- labor markets, employment, and microeconomic-enterprise development;
- safety nets and food security; and
- urban development.

For each of these sectors, technical note I.4 provides a checklist of gender questions and issues that should be addressed both in their contribution to the poverty diagnosis and in formulating sectoral policy responses and priority actions. Promising policy and operational approaches that could be used to address these issues are also identified. In most cases, examples are given of countries in which these policies and projects have been implemented.

Table 10.6 offers suggestions for using the findings of the poverty diagnostics to identify gender-sensitive policy, program, and project options for the PRS. The actions included in the PRS should reflect the priorities of poor men and women. What is relevant and appropriate will vary by country and by regions within countries. Priorities should be based on country circumstances.

Table 10.6. Using Poverty Diagnostics to Identify Gender-Responsive Policy, Program, and Project Options for the Poverty Reduction Strategy

<i>Principal sectoral components</i>	<i>Key gender dimensions from poverty analysis</i>	<i>Key policy responses and priority actions</i>
Opportunities: improving the productive assets of the poor		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Productive sectors, especially agriculture and rural development Financial services Labor (paid and unpaid employment; wage discrimination) Infrastructure (water and sanitation, transport [IMT], domestic energy, communications) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lack of collateral Property ownership Access to paid labor Control over product (income) Different transport tasks of men and women (especially around domestic tasks) and access to means of transport Domestic tasks and time constraints (tradeoffs and externalities) Gender imbalance in resource allocation decisionmaking Low priority given to water and sanitation investments, and to time-saving investments more generally 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Proactively enhance access of poor women and men to productive assets such as land, financial services, inputs, information, and other economic services In agriculture, prioritize the food (“nontraded”) sector with focus on food security at the household level (greater balance with export promotion/diversification efforts) Refocus agricultural research and extension, as well as other services, to meet the different and specific needs of male and female farmers Facilitate the access of poor women and men to production and other technology Gender-inclusive legal and regulatory reform with a focus on enhancing women’s land security and property rights Prioritize and sustain concurrent investment in the household economy through targeted investments to reduce the time burden of domestic work, minimize tradeoffs, and build on externalities with the market economy: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Water supply and sanitation Labor-saving technology Domestic energy IMT
Capabilities: strengthening the human capital assets of the poor		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Education Training and skill development Health Nutrition 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Bias in access to social services Different health needs and priorities Gender stereotyping in curriculum and in socialization Opportunity costs, including domestic tasks and time constraints (tradeoffs and externalities) Sociocultural constraints (attitudes and beliefs) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Prioritize and sustain investment in basic educational services focused on increasing enrollment and retention of girls Prioritize and sustain investment in basic health services, with a focus on accessible and appropriate reproductive health care Integrate gender-responsive HIV/AIDS prevention and community-level coping measures Prioritize and sustain concurrent investment in the household economy through targeted investments to reduce the time burden of domestic work, minimize tradeoffs, and build on externalities with the market economy: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Water supply and sanitation Labor-saving technology Domestic energy IMT
Security: economic, social, and natural capital assets of the poor		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conflict Law (including property rights) Isolation Environment: insecurity resulting from environmental factors (deforestation, rainfall, water, soil fertility) <p>See also the discussion of economic opportunity (above).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Household relations (decision-making, structure and composition of households) Domestic tasks and time constraints “Pooling” and “separate spheres” Gender effects of conflict Physical and cultural isolation and marginalization Impact of environmental degradation and precarious access to water <p>See also the discussion of economic opportunity (above).</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gender awareness raising and capacity building of policymakers and implementers Gender-inclusive reform of laws and regulatory frameworks, especially as concerns access to and control of financial services and property Gender inclusion in land allocation, ownership, and use Prioritize and sustain concurrent investment in the household economy, as indicated above <p>See also the discussion of economic opportunity (above).</p>
Empowerment: inclusion in decisionmaking at household, community, and national levels		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> National policy-making Community development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ambiguity in legal status and rights Barriers to participation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Political leadership and commitment to gender equality Implement “gender budget initiatives” along the lines of the South Africa and Tanzania models Capacity building: focus on literacy and skills development for community-based organizations

Articulating gendered priorities and responses

Technical note I.3 illustrates how the poverty dimensions framework can be used to identify priority policy and project interventions and gives examples of different options that have addressed each issue. For example, five issues are identified that constrain women's economic opportunities: (1) women's time burden, (2) insecure property rights, (3) gender wage gap, (4) lack of access to financial services and other productive resources, and (5) gender-based constraints on access to employment and income-earning opportunities. A number of options are given for addressing each issue. Possible options for alleviating women's time burden, for example, include provision of IMT accessible to women, bringing services such as water closer to home, and labor-saving devices such as fuel-efficient stoves, grain mills, and so forth.

A key challenge for public policy and project design is to undertake concurrent actions across a range of sectors that explicitly recognize and seek to minimize tradeoffs and raise labor productivity. An important policy and program area in low-income countries is support for rural livelihood strategies to raise the labor productivity of this sector. Therefore, concurrent actions should be considered to maximize the synergy of interventions. Examples include focusing on food security at the household level through agricultural research extension programs, facilitating the access of poor women and men to production technology and to appropriate financial services, and implementation of gender-inclusive land reform, with a focus on enhancing poor women's and men's land security and property rights.

Engendering the budget

Chapter 6, "Public Spending," emphasizes the key role of the national budget in ensuring that public expenditure priorities are consistent with development policies and that the overall budget framework is pro-poor (see sections 6.2 and 6.3 of chapter 6). It is necessary to go one step further and to engender the national budget to ensure that (a) both women and men are involved in the budget development process, (b) resources are allocated for priority investments that respond to the needs of both women and men, and (c) budget tracking processes certify that the impact of public spending benefits both men and women.

- To increase girls' enrollment in primary and secondary schools in rural areas, it is of course necessary to have appropriate buildings and equipment. But it may also be necessary to provide special accommodation or travel allowances so that women teachers are available to teach in the schools.
- Increasing women's use of rural health facilities may require hiring and training paramedical staff who speak the local language.
- Ensuring positive gender impacts of land reform may require major investments in legal literacy programs so that both women and men are aware of their new land rights and how to obtain them.

The success of a recent South African initiative of gender analysis of budgets has raised interest in this area. So far, the initiative has stressed reprioritizing rather than increasing the overall government spending.

Gender and the labor market

As indicated in box 10.3 in the section on opportunity, women's labor force participation rates in many parts of the world are increasing at the same time that male activity rates are declining. Both men and women are affected by these trends, and while women have sometimes succeeded in obtaining greater opportunities and economic autonomy, they are more vulnerable. The result is occupational segregation, with women finding themselves in the least-protected sectors of the economy. The growth of female-headed households due to migration, divorce, and abandonment means that the insecurity of women's employment directly affects children and other dependents. Gender inequality is often built into labor institutions. There are a number of potential areas for PRS interventions to promote gender equality in the labor market:

- labor legislation to enforce existing legislation affecting women;

- studies to identify factors affecting women’s access to and equality of opportunities in the labor market and the introduction of measures to address these constraints;
- improved transport facilities for getting to work; and
- financial services and technical assistance to help both female and male entrepreneurs.

10.4.3 Incorporating gender priorities into key poverty reduction measures

The final step involves integrating the gender-responsive priorities identified into the policy responses and priority actions retained in the PRS itself. This will also include integrating appropriate indicators and benchmarks (see section 10.5) to reflect differences in focus in the action agenda. Technical note I.3 provides examples of gender-sensitive policies and project interventions developed in Africa, Asia, and Latin America based on the findings of poverty diagnostics. It offers a synthesis of gender issues and promising approaches in major sectors, including agriculture, education, health and violence, transport, water supply and sanitation, and microenterprise development. Technical note I.4 identifies key gender issues in major sectors and promising gender-inclusive approaches to these issues. Technical note I.4 can be used in combination with table 10.6 as a checklist to prioritize gender-responsive interventions.

10.4.4 Recommended actions for PRS managers: gender-responsive policy interventions to address poverty

The following bullets indicate points that need to be addressed in selecting and designing PRS interventions to address poverty in its multiple dimensions. Box 10.8 describes how the Mozambique I-PRSP addressed some of the gender issues identified in the poverty diagnosis.

- Review the gender analysis of the data gathered in the poverty diagnosis to identify the major gender gaps and issues in each of the four areas of the poverty framework.
- Apply the poverty framework to these options to provide guidelines for selecting and designing policies, programs, and projects (see technical notes I.3 and I.4).
- Compare these options with the priority areas being defined for the overall PRS program and with feedback from participatory studies. Particular attention should be given to the concerns of the poor about intersectoral linkages (for example, the impacts of time spent collecting water and fuel on the ability of girls to attend school).
- Identify packages of interventions, or concurrent actions, that simultaneously address key issues, constraints, and opportunities in different sectors.
- Use the checklist in box 10.9 to assess the policy implications of the gender analysis.

Box 10.8. Gender-Responsive Interventions in the Mozambique I-PRSP

The Mozambique I-PRSP proposed the following measures to improve the gender responsiveness of the national PRSP:

- increase girls’ access to education;
- make parents and communities aware of the importance of girls’ education;
- free provision of school materials, uniforms, and other expenses;
- increase access to, and quality of, health care for women and children;
- provide sex education;
- reduce maternal mortality;
- protect child victims of prostitution;
- provide female immunization;
- distribute iodine;
- reduce prevalence of micronutritional deficiencies in women;
- promote microeconomic-income-generating projects for women; and
- generate 6,000 jobs for women.

Source: Mozambique I-PRSP, March 2, 2000.

Available at <http://poverty.worldbank.org/files/mozambique%20iprsp.pdf>

10.5 Integrating Gender into the PRS Monitoring and Evaluation

This section describes three basic steps for integrating gender into the PRS outcome monitoring and impact evaluation systems (see shaded boxes in figure 10.5). The approach adopts the framework of chapter 3, “Monitoring and Evaluation,” and by following the steps described in this section, gender analysis can easily be integrated into the M&E framework. The section concludes with recommended actions for PRS managers (section 10.5.4).

Step 7

Integrating a gender dimension into the outcome monitoring system.

Step 8

Integrating a gender dimension into the PRS evaluation strategy and using gender monitoring and impact evaluation results.

Step 9

Building institutional capacity for gender-responsive monitoring and evaluation.

Integrating a gender dimension into monitoring and evaluating the PRS contributes to a better understanding of poverty, enables better and more effective targeting of the poor and vulnerable, and maximizes stakeholder participation. Chapter 3, “Monitoring and Evaluation,” provides a comprehensive discussion of the M&E process and stages, and the resources and tools needed to carry it out successfully. Readers are also encouraged to review chapter 1, “Poverty Measurement and Analysis,” and chapter 5, “Strengthening Statistical Systems.”

The gender objectives of the M&E system are to document and assess how PRS policies and interventions respond to the needs of both women and men. Three design issues for integrating a gender dimension into the PRS M&E systems are:

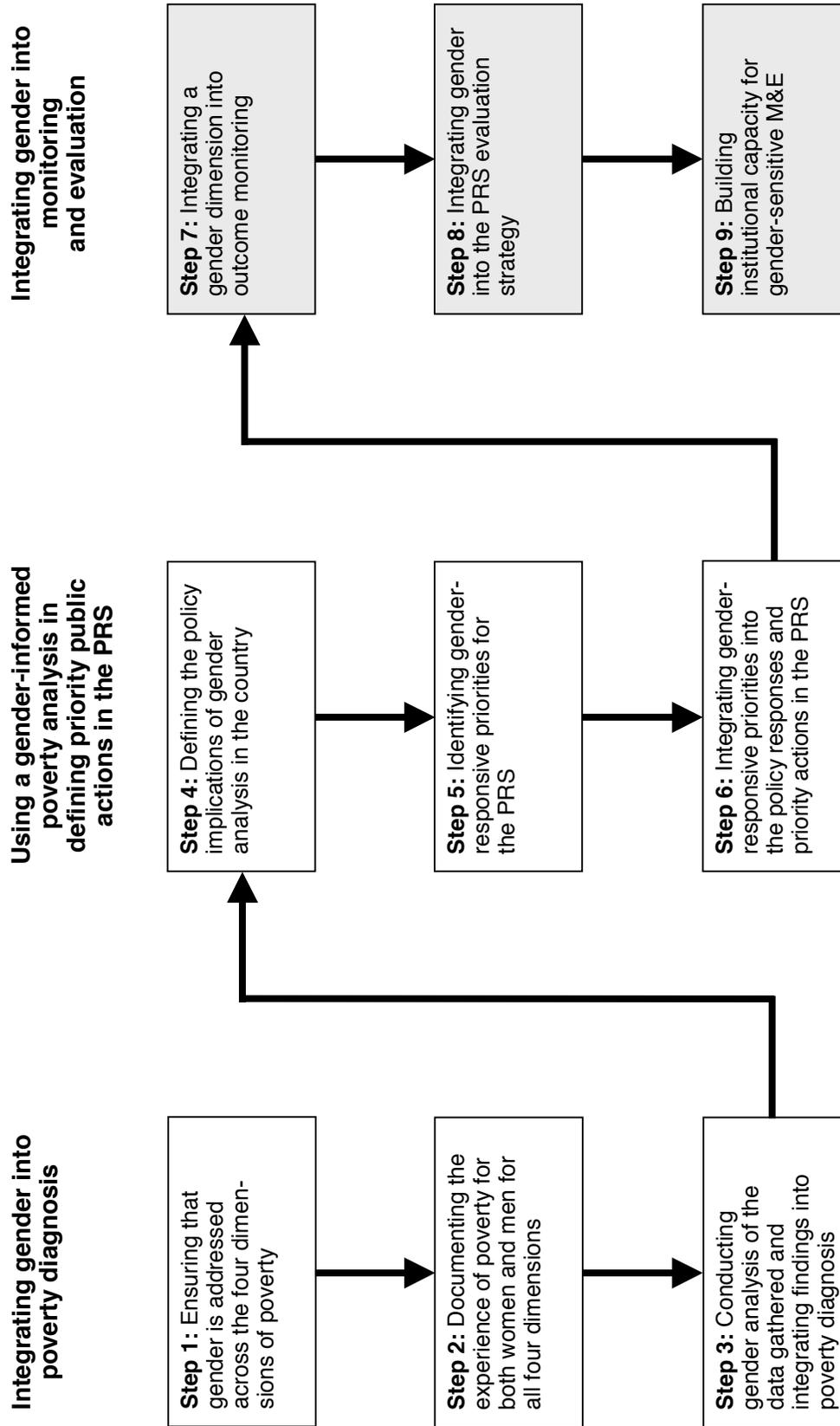
1. Ensuring that all of the information required for gender analysis is collected. This often requires simply collecting sex-disaggregated data (for example, on education, employment, income, time use, and consumption), rather than relying on household-level aggregate data. However, in some cases, different information must be collected on one or both sexes. Technical note I.2 provides a framework for identifying the required indicators.
2. Using gender-responsive data collection methods for gathering information that is difficult to obtain through conventional survey instruments. These methods may be required especially for sensitive topics such as domestic violence; where the male household head expects to provide information on all household members; or where women or girls are not able to speak freely.
3. Addressing the issue of available capacity for generating and collecting sex-disaggregated or gender-relevant data at the level of the national statistical offices and the sectoral agencies, because they may have very limited experience in gender-specific issues relating to data collection and analysis.

10.5.1 Integrating a gender dimension into the PRS outcome monitoring system

Monitoring in the PRSP context involves tracking the progress in achieving goals; for example, reductions in infant and maternal deaths, improvements in literacy rates and nutritional status of children, and reduction in the incidence of extreme poverty. Monitoring is carried out continuously, tracking changes in results over time and across groups, in areas such as inclusion and participation; access to and control of assets, resources, and services; and training and education outcomes for both men and women. (See chapter 3, “Monitoring and Evaluation.”)

The first steps in designing a gender outcome monitoring system are to agree on gender goals and targets and to identify and select the appropriate gender-relevant indicators (for guidelines on setting goals and targets, see section 3.2.2 of chapter 3). Box 10.9 contains a checklist of questions that could be asked to determine the extent to which critical gender goals and objectives have been met.

Figure 10.5. Steps for Integrating Gender into Monitoring and Evaluation of the PRSP



Box 10.9. Gender Checklist for Policy Implications of Gender Analysis

- Has the different impact on men and women of public spending been analyzed (“incidence analysis”)? Do public spending priorities respond to the different constraints and opportunities of poor men and women? Have tools to improve the gender responsiveness of public spending, such as with gender and women’s budget initiatives, been used in developing strategic budget priorities and orientation?
- Has there been an attempt to identify and minimize short-term tradeoffs between the market and the household economies or building on externalities?
- Does the growth strategy consider the fact that men and women have different structural roles in economic production and that different sectoral growth paths make different demands on men’s and women’s labor, with different implications for the division of labor and income? Are growth policies targeted to the sectors where poor men and women earn their living, such as food crops in agriculture and the urban informal sector?
- Are the needs and priorities of men and women integrated into the PRS priority actions, implementation plans, and performance indicators? To what extent have gender-specific targets, outputs, and performance criteria been integrated into the PRS and its implementation arrangements?
- Does the selection of public interventions fully reflect the different priorities, constraints, and opportunities of both men and women, as identified in the participatory consultations and poverty diagnosis?

The system for monitoring the outcomes for gender is part of a feedback mechanism that provides information to improve program interventions and make them more effective. As such, it should strive to achieve the following:

- Ensure that the gender effectiveness and quality of performance is monitored at each phase of the interventions.
- Provide rapid feedback to the poverty reduction team and the sectoral leaders when problems arise.
- Communicate the gender results of the M&E to project managers and policymakers so that actions can be taken in a timely way to correct problems or leverage what is going well.

Select sex-disaggregated and gender-specific indicators to reflect the poverty reduction action agenda and its outcomes for women and men

A practical and viable approach to monitoring for gender is to select a few critical goals and objectives from the PRS that have strong gender implications based on the gender analysis and priority selection. Assessing the PRS requires that performance be monitored and evaluated at the macroeconomic, sectoral, and project levels to ensure that it reflects the poverty reduction agenda. Consequently, indicators are needed to monitor progress and outcomes at each of these three levels. In some instances, the same indicators could be used at different levels.

By definition, gender indicators measure the situation of both women and men. Indicators that focus only on women are Women in Development (WID) measures, which do not allow for comparison between women and men.

Successful gender monitoring requires attention to the following issues in selecting and using indicators:

- Have gender M&E indicators been identified based on the gender policy objectives?
- Do the gender indicators reflect the poverty reduction action agenda?
- Have gender indicators been developed in a participatory way?
- Is an appropriate mix of quantitative and qualitative indicators being used?
- Are the indicators chosen
 - Relevant?
 - Disaggregated by sex? (not always necessary)
 - Available?

Data requirements and availability: collect data that reflect the outcomes and impacts of the critical goals on women and men

Data collection methods are determined by the kinds of information and data needed to monitor change and progress. Optimum results are obtained when traditional approaches are complemented by participatory approaches to M&E. Data from several sources should be used to monitor the outcomes and evaluate the impacts of policy interventions. Collecting appropriate data that reflect gender outcomes and impacts involves careful consideration to setting up gender-responsive tools and methods.

There are no “gender data collection methods” per se; rather, it is the manner in which they are applied that makes them responsive to gender. All methods of data collection—whether quantitative or qualitative, participatory or not—can be gender responsive if their application

- takes into account the gender context, that is, the reality of the relations between women and men and their differences in social, economic, and political terms in a particular country or situation;
- disaggregates all data collected for individuals, including, for example, infant mortality rates, land property registration, and bus passengers, noting whether they are male or female; and
- makes efforts to reach both women and men, separately where necessary, to get their views and assess their priorities and needs.

Constraints on women’s participation in public life in many cultures make it difficult to obtain certain kinds of information on women. Consequently, standard data collection and analysis methods sometimes must be complemented by qualitative methods such as PRA and focus groups. Gender-responsive data collection tools and methods need to consider the following questions:

- Have gender-relevant data been collected? How or what methods were used? From what sources?
- What is the timeframe within which outcomes are expected? (For example, which outcomes can be observed after one year, three years, and so forth?) Similarly, what are the time periods over which changes can be observed for the identified gender indicators?
- Have partnerships to collect and analyze data been established with such entities as local women’s organizations, research institutions, and universities?

In many cases, sex-disaggregated data have been collected in surveys and other socioeconomic studies but have not been analyzed. The existence and quality of sex-disaggregated data should be assessed before commissioning special surveys.

In addition to simple sex disaggregation, it is also useful to compare the poverty characteristics of different kinds of households, such as female-headed households and polygamous households. Additional questions can be built into future surveys, or some questions can be administered to women as well as to men. In some cases, this simply involves ensuring that the data are broken down by sex and possibly age. Special surveys can be conducted either by adding a module to another survey or by conducting a stand-alone survey.

Technical note I.2 presents a list of gender performance indicators that can be used to monitor progress and outcomes for women and men, and gender differences in impacts at the macroeconomic, sectoral, project, and household levels. Technical note I.2 also identifies indicators that can be used to track short-term impacts, occurring within less than two years; medium-term impacts, occurring within two to five years; and long-term impacts, occurring over a period of five to 10 years. Many of these indicators are already proposed in the PRS framework presented in the Overview to this book, but most are not sex disaggregated. Technical note I.5 discusses the use of gender monitoring indicators at the project level and illustrates how this model was applied to monitoring and evaluating the gender impacts of a village travel and transport project in Tanzania.

10.5.2 Integrating a gender dimension into the design of the PRS evaluation strategy

Evaluation in the PRS context refers mainly to *impact evaluation*. An impact evaluation assesses the changes in individuals’ well being that can be attributed to a particular program or policy. Designing an evaluation strategy involves deciding what policies and programs should be evaluated, defining the

expected outcomes and their timeframe, selecting an evaluation design, and obtaining the data needed. (See chapter 3, “Monitoring and Evaluation.”)

A gender impact evaluation strategy is an important complement to the gender outcome monitoring system. This strategy evaluates by gender the outcomes and impacts of select policies and programs to determine the extent to which improvements in gender outcomes are due to specific public actions. The information obtained through such an evaluation can be valuable in determining whether to expand, modify, or eliminate a policy intervention.

In contrast to monitoring, a strategy for impact evaluation is necessarily selective and assesses outcomes and impacts of strategic relevance to the PRS at key points in time for causal attribution. The impact evaluation strategy involves deciding what to evaluate, choosing an evaluation design and methodology, determining the data requirements and obtaining the data, and analyzing the data and reporting the findings. (See section 3.3 in chapter 3, “Monitoring and Evaluation.”)

Deciding what to evaluate

In deciding what outcomes to evaluate, the gender impact evaluation strategy is guided by these central questions:

- How do we assess the gender impacts or benefits of the PRS policies and interventions?
- How can we be certain these impacts are the result of the program and not other independent changes that might be taking place? (See chapter 3, “Monitoring and Evaluation.”)

Measuring the impacts of policies and programs

A successful gender impact evaluation will assess the contribution of policy interventions to the success of the PRS gender priorities and goals. This requires analyzing and assessing the data for their gender outcomes and impacts and distributing and using the findings to improve the PRS. (See chapter 3, “Monitoring and Evaluation.”)

The assessment should be conducted at two levels:

- ***Separate assessment of each policy and program intervention.*** This will evaluate the extent to which both women and men were involved in selecting, designing, and implementing each policy and program. The assessment will also evaluate how well the intended objectives were achieved, whether the intervention is sustainable, and, where this was a pilot project, whether it could be replicated on a larger scale.
- ***Overall assessment of the extent to which the combined PRS interventions contributed to the gender objectives.*** Include a table listing all of the objectives and rating the level and effectiveness of the PRS contribution to each of these. An analysis could then be presented to explain differences in the degree of contribution to each objective, along with recommendations on policies or programs that might be considered for future stages of the PRS to address other objectives.

Based on these two levels of analysis, an assessment report and recommendations could be prepared for PRS management. This could summarize the overall contribution of the PRS to achieving the national gender development objectives and could include recommendations on the most effective ways to address national gender objectives in the next phases of the PRS.

Whenever feasible, it is advisable to complement conventional M&E with participatory approaches to cross-check the findings and foster local-level commitment to action. The rationale for this twofold approach is that gender considerations tend to be absent or minimal in traditional M&E. A participatory evaluation of an agricultural development program, for example, might complement an evaluation survey assessing the economic and technical performance of that program by revealing how it is perceived by program staff and by the end users—the women and men engaged in agricultural activities.

Determining data requirements and obtaining data

Using data from several sources to monitor the outcomes and evaluate the impacts of policy interventions is recommended. Triangulation in data sources makes it possible to complement, extend, and validate results from one method with those from another. Focus groups with women and men can be used to explain survey results about the constraints to their access to credit, for example, or their lack of use of mass transport. This is particularly useful in areas where women’s and men’s activities are not usually recorded, such as unpaid household work or subsistence farming.

Analyzing the collected data and obtaining results

Important questions to consider when analyzing the results include

- How will the gender impact of the PRS interventions be assessed—by whom and at what intervals in time?
- Were the sex-disaggregated and other gender-relevant data analyzed? How? By whom? At what intervals of time?
- What do the data reflect?
- Have there been policy or program and project impacts on women and men?
- Are there plans for follow-up gender-relevant surveys and studies?

Using gender outcome monitoring and impact evaluation results

Gender outcome monitoring and impact evaluation results can be disseminated and used to assess overall progress on gender in poverty reduction efforts and decide on future courses of action. Important questions to consider when distributing the findings include

- Have the results and findings been disseminated? How? When?
- Have the gender findings been used to continue or modify existing policy interventions, or to identify new gender-responsive policy options?
- Will gender-responsive follow-up surveys and studies be conducted?

10.5.3 Building institutional capacity for gender-responsive monitoring and evaluation***Building the gender analysis capacity of relevant agencies***

Building the gender analysis capacity of relevant agencies will often be a key determinant of success in achieving gender goals and in monitoring and evaluating progress. It may be advisable to conduct an institutional assessment of agencies responsible for project planning and implementation to determine their capacity for gender analysis and gender M&E. This assessment could include questions such as

- Do the planning and implementing agencies have access to gender specialists, either on their staff or as consultants, to conduct gender M&E?
- Have staff members received gender sensitivity or gender analysis training? Training to conduct gender M&E?
- Is there an incentive structure that would encourage or permit staff to address gender, including conducting gender M&E?
- Have funds been approved for gender-related capacity building, including capacity for gender M&E? If so, have these funds been assigned?
- Have guidelines for gender-related activities, including gender M&E, been developed and implemented?
- What other activities have been incorporated for building country capacity for quantitative and qualitative gender evaluation to ensure the efficiency of poverty reduction measures?

- What proportion of the professional staff are women?
- Have targets for recruiting female professionals been implemented?

Promoting gender-balanced participation in monitoring and evaluation

Promoting participation of both women and men in gender M&E is critical because it helps build consensus on what the country gender goals are and on what outcomes to monitor and what impacts to evaluate, and it enhances the sustainability of outcome monitoring and impact evaluation systems. Participatory M&E make it possible to identify problems early in the project implementation cycle, and give communities and implementing agencies the flexibility to respond to changing scenarios that may affect program work, such as sudden floods, severe droughts, or dramatic changes in earnings from crops. (For further details, see chapter 3, “Monitoring and Evaluation,” and World Bank [1998]).

10.5.4 Recommended actions for PRS managers

When selecting indicators, tools, and methods to reflect gender outcomes and impacts, consider the following:

- Select a few critical goals, outcomes, and indicators from the PRS for monitoring and evaluating gender outcomes and impacts.
- Ensure that data are collected that reflect the outcomes and impacts for critical gender-related goals.
- Ensure that the design and analysis of M&E systems are based on a clearly articulated, gender-inclusive PRS model.
- In selecting a particular combination of goals and indicators to assess, consider how the information is to be used and by whom and assess these needs in light of budgetary and time constraints.
- Data collection methods are determined by the kinds of information and data needed to monitor change and progress. Optimum results are obtained when traditional and participatory approaches to M&E are complementary.
- Collecting new data on gender is not always necessary. Assess the availability of gender-responsive data before considering the need to collect new data.
- Gender M&E is frequently done by disaggregating the data already being collected and using other available sources of information.
- Use the checklist in box 10.10 to ensure that key issues are addressed.

Box 10.10. Gender Checklist for Monitoring and Evaluation

- Have the needs and opportunities for increasing women’s and men’s productivity and production, access to and control of resources, and access to and control of benefits been identified? What are they?
- Have the gender dimensions of policy interventions been identified for their potential impact? Do the policy interventions address women’s and men’s needs?
- Were different groups and organizations representing women’s and men’s interests consulted through the process of goal setting?
- Do the PRS performance indicators reflect gender concerns? If not, how might they do so? Were or will both women and men be involved in the participatory monitoring of these indicators?
- Are measures being taken to build the gender analysis capacity of planning and implementing agencies?

Glossary

DALYs. Disability-adjusted life years.

FHH. Female-headed households.

GAD. Gender and development. An approach to development that focuses on the economic, social, and political relationships between women and men. It examines how the social definition of these roles can constrain the development and welfare of both sexes and of the low-income population in general. This is contrasted with the Women in Development approach, which focuses on the analysis and removal of constraints to women’s economic, social, and political participation.

GDI. Gender-related development index. A country-level index that compares women’s and men’s life expectancy, educational attainment, and income (UNDP 1995).

GEM. Gender Empowerment Measure. A country-level index. It concentrates on gender differences in income, access to jobs classified as professional, technical, administrative, and managerial, and the percentage of parliamentary seats held by women and men (UNDP 1995).

Gender analysis. Examines the access and control that men and women have over resources. This includes analyzing the sexual division of labor and the control women and men have over the inputs required for their labor and the outputs (benefits) of their labor. It also refers to a systematic way of determining men’s and women’s often differing development needs and preferences and the different impacts of development on women and men. It takes into account how class, race, ethnicity, or other factors interact with gender to produce discriminatory results.

Gender budget initiatives. See *gender/women’s budgets*.

Gender dimensions of poverty. Differences in the ways that men and women experience poverty.

Gender- (or sex-) disaggregated data. Statistical information that differentiates between men and women; for example, “number of women in the labor force” instead of “number of people in the labor force.” This allows one to see where there are gender gaps.

Gender division of labor. Refers to the allocation of different jobs or types of work to men and women, usually by tradition and custom.

Gender equality. An approach addressing the issues facing both men and women in sharing the benefits of development equally, which ensures against a disproportional burden of negative impacts.

Gender gap. The gap between men and women in such terms as how they benefit from education, employment, and services.

Gender goals and targets. Budget and operational targets that indicate how resources are to be allocated between men and women. This may also include quotas defining numbers of women who must be represented on planning or political bodies.

Gender indicators. These measure gender-related changes in society over time. They provide “direct evidence of the status of women, relative to some agreed normative standard or explicit reference group” (CIDA 1995).

Gender M&E. A management tool that provides policymakers, program evaluators, and implementation leaders with quick feedback on project effectiveness with regard to gender integration during implementation. In this participatory process, the perspectives and insights of all stakeholders—beneficiaries as well as project implementers—are considered. The stakeholders identify issues, conduct research, analyze findings, make recommendations, and take responsibility for necessary action.

Gender objectives. Objectives that clarify what gender problems will be addressed and what are the practical and strategic goals.

Gender strategy. Clear operational strategies that identify the incentives, budget, staff, training, and organizational strategies to achieve stated objectives.

Gender/women’s budgets, gender-sensitive budgets. This refers to a variety of processes and tools that attempt to assess the impact of government budgets, mainly at the national level, on different groups of men and women, through recognizing the ways in which gender relations underpin society and the economy. Gender or women’s budget initiatives are not separate budgets for women. They include analysis of gender-targeted allocations, such as special programs targeting women; they disaggregate by gender the impact of mainstream spending across all sectors and services; and they review equal opportunity policies and allocations within government services.

IMT. Intermediate means of transport. Types of transport, often nonmotorized, that are affordable by low-income groups and adapted to local terrain.

MHH. Male-headed households.

MMRs. Maternal mortality rates.

PPA. Participatory Poverty Assessment

Practical gender needs. These relate to women’s traditional gender roles and responsibilities and are derived from their concrete life experiences.

Sensitivity of gender issues. Gender issues tend to be highly sensitive. In some countries there may be political resistance to recognizing differences of interest within the population, such as those related to gender or ethnicity, since official government policy emphasizes that all members of the population are citizens and are therefore equal. Specific sectors, such as reproductive health, may be particularly sensitive, and related recommendations may therefore not be well received by national authorities.

SNA. System of national accounts.

SSA. Sub-Saharan Africa.

Strategic gender needs. These generally address issues of equity and empowerment of women. The focus is on systematic factors that discriminate against women. This includes measuring the access of women, as a group compared with men, to resources and benefits, including laws and policies.

WID. Women in Development. An approach that focuses on the analysis and removal of constraints on women’s economic, social, and political participation. This is frequently contrasted with gender and development approaches, which focus on the economic, social, and political relations between men and women.

Women’s triple roles and responsibility. In most societies, low-income women have a triple role: reproductive, productive, and community-managing activities. These responsibilities include

- **Reproductive role.** Childbearing and childrearing responsibilities and domestic tasks performed by women. These include not only biological reproduction but also the care and maintenance of the work force (male partner and working children) and the future work force (infants and school-age children).
- **Productive role.** Work done by women and men for pay in cash or in kind. It includes market production with an exchange value and subsistence or home-based production with actual use value as well as potential exchange value.
- **Community-managing role.** Activities undertaken primarily by women at the community level, as an extension of their reproductive role, to ensure the provision and maintenance of scarce resources of collective consumption, such as water, health care, and education.

Guide to Web Resources

Related World Bank Web sites

Gender

<http://www.worldbank.org/gender/>

Poverty

<http://www.worldbank.org/poverty/index.htm>

Social development

<http://wbIn0018.worldbank.org/essd/essd.nsf/e0a6beef25793a39852567f200651c5c/b01d3e9c4c0bc7eb8525682d00609d59?OpenDocument>

Education

<http://wbIn0018.worldbank.org/HDNet/HD.nsf/SectorPages/Education?Opendocument>

Health

<http://wbIn0018.worldbank.org/HDNet/HD.nsf/SectorPages/HNP?Opendocument>

Transport

<http://www.worldbank.org/html/fpd/transport/>

Rural development and agriculture

<http://wbIn0018.worldbank.org/essd/essd.nsf/rural+development/portal>

Law and justice

<http://www1.worldbank.org/legal/>

Environment

<http://www.worldbank.org/environment/>

Social protection and labor

<http://wbIn0018.worldbank.org/HDNet/HD.nsf/SectorPages/SP?Opendocument>

United Nations agencies

Women Watch (U.N. Internet gateway on the advancement and empowerment of women)

<http://www.un.org/womenwatch/about/index.html>

International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women (INSTRAW)

<http://www.un.org/instraw/>

U.N. Division for the Advancement of Women

<http://www.un.org/womenwatch/daw/>

U.N. Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM)

<http://www.unifem.undp.org/>

United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)

<http://www.unesco.org/women/index.htm>

U.N. Development Programme (UNDP)—Gender in Development home page

<http://www.undp.org/gender/>

Women and Habitat Programme

<http://www.unchs.org/unchs/english/women/womenbody.htm>

U.N. Population Fund (UNFPA)

<http://www.unfpa.org/tpd/gender/aboutgenderteam.htm>

U.N. Children’s Fund (UNICEF)

<http://www.unicef.org/> (search facility)

U.N. High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR)

<http://www.unhcr.ch/issues/women/women.htm>

U.N. Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean:

“Gender indicators for follow-up and evaluation of the Regional Programme of Action for the Women of Latin America and the Caribbean, 1995–2001, and the Beijing Platform for Action” (English version)

<http://www.eclac.org/English/research/women/indicators/genderind.htm>

“Indicadores de género para el seguimiento y la evaluación del Programa de Acción Regional para las Mujeres de América Latina y el Caribe, 1995-2001, y la Plataforma de Acción de Beijing” (Spanish version)

<http://www.eclac.org/espanol/investigacion/series/mujer/indicadores/indice.htm>

World Food Programme (WFP)

<http://www.wfp.org/genderweb/>

Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)

<http://www.fao.org/Gender/gender.htm>

<http://www.fao.org/sd/seaga/default.htm>

FAO Socioeconomic and Gender Analysis Programme

<http://www.fao.org/sd/WPdirect/default.htm>

Women and Population section of Sustainable Development Dimensions, a service of the Sustainable Development (SD) Department of the FAO International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD)

<http://www.ifad.org/pub/other/!broesch.pdf>

International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI)

<http://www.cgiar.org/ifpri/themes/mp17/gender/2gender.htm>

International Labour Organization (ILO) tools for mainstreaming gender concerns

<http://www.ilo.org/public/english/region/asro/mdtmanila/training/unit5/refsrurl.htm>

Multilateral organizations

Asian Development Bank (ADB)

http://www.adb.org/Work/Policies/Gender_Devt/

Commonwealth Secretariat

<http://www.thecommonwealth.org/>

<http://www.thecommonwealth.org/gender> (under construction)

Inter-American Development Bank (IDB)

<http://www.iadb.org/sds/wid/>

Pan-American Health Organization (PAHO)

<http://www.paho.org/english/hdp/hdwmuje.htm>

Bilateral organizations

U.S. Agency for International Development (USAID)

<http://www.genderreach.com/default2.htm>

Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA)

<http://www.jica.go.jp/E-info/E-earth/E-wid/Index.html>

Nongovernmental organizations

Women, Ink.

<http://www.womenink.org/>

WomenAction

<http://www.womenaction.org/>

Self Employed Women's Association (SEWA)

<http://www.sewa.org/>

ENERGIA International Network on Gender and Sustainable Energy

<http://www.energia.org/>

WIDNET

<http://www.focusintl.com/widnet.htm>

InterAction

<http://www.interaction.org/caw/index.htm>

Asia Foundation Global Women in Politics Program

<http://www.asiafoundation.com/programs/prog-area-wome.html>

Save the Children

<http://www.savethechildren.org/women.html>

International Center for Research on Women (ICRW)

<http://www.icrw.org/>

International Forum for Rural Transport and Development

<http://www.gn.apc.org/ifrtd/nletter/nleng64.htm>

Centre for Population and Development Activities (CEDPA)

<http://www.cedpa.org/>

Academia

Women in International Development at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

<http://server.ips.uiuc.edu/ips/wid/index.html>

Women's Human Rights Resources at the University of Toronto Faculty of Law

<http://www.law-lib.utoronto.ca/diana/>

Briefings on Development and Gender (BRIDGE) at the Institute of Development Studies, University of Sussex

<http://www.ids.ac.uk/bridge/index.html>

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