Gender Responsive Social Analysis: A Guidance Note
Incorporating Social Dimensions into Bank-Supported Projects
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Incorporating Social Dimensions into Bank-Supported Projects

SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT DEPARTMENT
The World Bank
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# Acronyms and Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AFR</td>
<td>Africa Region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APROFE</td>
<td>Association for the Benefit of the Ecuadorian Family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAS</td>
<td>Country Assistance Strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CEDAW</td>
<td>The Convention Eliminating All Forms of Discrimination Against Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CENTA</td>
<td>National Technology Center</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CGA</td>
<td>Country Gender Assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSA</td>
<td>Country Social Assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECA</td>
<td>Europe and Central Asia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GENFUND</td>
<td>Trust Fund for Gender Mainstream in the World Bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV/AIDS</td>
<td>Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IANWGE</td>
<td>United Nations Inter-Agency Network on Women and Gender Equality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and Communications Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IDS</td>
<td>Institute of Development Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMT</td>
<td>Intermediate Means of Transport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KDP</td>
<td>Kecamatan Development Project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LAC</td>
<td>Latin America and the Caribbean Region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MNA</td>
<td>Middle East and North Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MPA</td>
<td>Methodology for Participatory Assessments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OED</td>
<td>Operations Evaluation Department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRISA</td>
<td>Agriculture Sector Reform and Investment Project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRSP</td>
<td>Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RRMIMP II</td>
<td>Rural Roads and Markets Improvement and Maintenance Project II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAR</td>
<td>South Asia Region</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STD</td>
<td>Sexually Transmitted Disease</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOR</td>
<td>Terms of Reference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USAID</td>
<td>United States Agency for International Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WIDNET</td>
<td>Women in Development Network</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WSP-EAP</td>
<td>Water and Sanitation Program-East Asia and Pacific</td>
</tr>
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</table>
The World Bank is committed to improving the quality of social analysis and participatory processes in the projects it supports. This is reflected in the new business model for Social Development in the World Bank, “Empowering People by Transforming Institutions”, which presents three strategic priorities: Improved macro level processes; better projects; and better grounding through research and capacity building. Better projects mean “improved development effectiveness of investment lending through more comprehensive and efficient mainstreaming of social development into project-level processes and analyses as well as strengthening the social development thematic portfolio.”

In an attempt to help structure and systematize this process, the Social Development Department has in recent years worked on developing guidance to Bank staff and clients on the application of social analysis and the integration of social dimensions within Bank operations. One outcome of this has been the Social Analysis Sourcebook, published in 2003. The Sourcebook explains how Bank teams can assess the social context and shows how governments and other stakeholders can undertake Social Assessments for specific projects. By explicitly addressing issues such as social diversity and gender, institutional norms and behavior, stakeholder analysis and participation, and social risk, projects are more likely to contribute to equitable and sustainable development.

Social Analysis in the World Bank has grown over the years from focusing largely on adverse impacts and compliance with social safeguard policies (involuntary resettlement, and impacts on indigenous peoples), to a more comprehensive framework for Bank-supported projects and programs. The attention to avoiding and mitigating adverse impacts of development interventions remains as important as ever, but this is now incorporated into a broader focus on opportunities, constraints and risk to development that arise from the social context.

While the focus of the Social Analysis Sourcebook is on incorporating social development issues in a project cycle, frameworks and guidance have also been developed for more macro-level social analysis. This is done at the program and policy level through Poverty and Social Impact Analysis (PSIA), which analyzes distributional impacts and the role that informal institutions, social relations, and power structures play in the reform process. At the country level, Country Social Analysis (CSA) informs the Bank’s portfolio, and provides inputs to the Bank’s Country Assistance Strategies (CAS) as well as to client countries’ Poverty Reduction Strategies (PRS).

As a follow up to the Sourcebook, the Social Development Department is producing a series of sector- and theme-specific guidance notes for social analysis. The purpose is to ensure that advice related to social development issues is relevant and timely, addresses the key social concerns and opportunities in particular sectors, and is well integrated with the project cycle at all stages. The notes also discuss policy and institutional aspects of particular sectors. These aspects may in some cases be addressed through other instruments than projects, such as country-level policy dialogue, or Development Policy Loans.

Understanding the impact of gender on projects and programs of the World Bank is a central component of social analysis. Indeed, the framework for social analysis set out in the Social Analysis Sourcebook includes gender as a key entry point for understanding the social opportunities, constraints and risks associated with development efforts. Since it is well recognized
that good social analysis always includes the analysis of gender, the purpose of this guidance note, therefore, is to provide an overview of salient, cross-cutting or cross-sectoral gender issues, and to outline practical ways of applying “gender-responsive” or “gender-informed” social analysis in the design, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation of Bank-financed operations. The note may also inform meso- or macro-level social analysis, as noted above.

The guidance note on Gender-Responsive Social Analysis was developed, in collaboration with the Gender and Development Department of the World Bank, with several audiences in mind. It is addressed primarily to social scientists within and outside the Bank who are expected to assist our clients—Bank task managers and project authorities in borrowing countries—in integrating gender and social dimensions into Bank-financed operations. A second audience will be Bank task managers themselves, as well as other members of project teams, that work in and across sectors in which gender-responsive or informed social analysis is a necessary tool for ensuring quality in Bank projects. The guidance note will also support country managers and sector managers in ensuring that their task teams consider gender and social development dimensions adequately in the design and implementation of Bank-supported operations. Finally, the note is expected to be of use to governments, civil society and other stakeholders in considering how best to integrate attention to social issues in their development efforts.

As with all guidelines, the actual application of the framework and suggestions provided here will depend on the local context and available resources. This is not intended as a rigid blueprint, and judgment and flexibility are required in every situation. But we hope this guidance note will provide a good starting point and contribute to better project outcomes.
I. INTRODUCTION TO GENDER-RESPONSIVE SOCIAL ANALYSIS

The World Bank’s approach to gender issues, as that of other development organizations, has significantly changed over the past three decades. Initially, it was assumed that development was gender-neutral and would address the needs and preferences of both men and women. Subsequent recognition that development might actually benefit men more than women, or indeed have a negative impact on the status of women, led to efforts to ensure that women were included as project beneficiaries. More recently, the increasing recognition of women’s capabilities, resources and skills, and their significant ability to contribute to the value of development initiatives as full partners has encouraged the integration of women into leadership and consultative roles. The concept of assisting women evolved into that of investing in women. Most recently, the awareness that in some situations gender inequalities affect men as well as women, has led to interventions to improve boys’ and men’s condition, as well.

Understanding the impact of gender on projects and programs of the World Bank is a central component of social analysis, and social analysis is pivotal to the Bank’s operational principles of social development, which include inclusion, cohesion and accountability. According to the Bank’s social development strategy:\(^1\)

- **Inclusive institutions** promote equal access to opportunities, enabling everyone to contribute to social and economic progress and share in its rewards.

- **Cohesive societies** enable women and men to work together to address common needs, overcome constraints and consider diverse interest. They resolve differences in a civil, non-confrontational way, promoting peace and security.

- **Accountable institutions** are transparent and respond to the public interest in an effective, efficient and fair way.

Social analysis includes gender as a key entry point for understanding the social opportunities and risks associated with development efforts. In this document, the term “gender-responsive” or “gender-informed” social analysis is used as a way to emphasize the gendered perspective, since it is well recognized that good social analysis always includes the analysis of gender, and moreover, when such social analysis is done well, it increases the project’s value by enhancing the quality of the following dimensions of projects:

- **Assessment of project feasibility:** By revealing constraints and opportunities related to attainment of the social development objectives of a project, and identifying strategies to address both. For example, social analysis can be used to assess the likelihood of achieving specific social objectives in contexts such as conflict and post-conflict situations, gender-discriminatory legal provisions, or religious proscriptions of certain activities for women.

- **Understanding of the project environment:** By throwing light on relevant relationships between individuals, organizational arrangements and institutional structures, and on the dynamic processes involved. Focusing on gender reveals power relationships, conflict and

\(^1\) See World Bank (2005).
agency in both public and private relations, and draws attention to questions of equity and conciliation that are crucial to ensuring the social development outcomes of social inclusion and cohesion.

- **Project responsiveness to community needs**: By identifying the concerns, needs and priorities of women as well as men, poorer as well as better-off members of the community, enabling projects to better address issues of poverty reduction and gender equity. For example, by identifying target groups of the project community such as women-headed households, and ensuring that women from poorer households and minority groups are included in community planning, project capture by elites can be avoided and the interests of a wide range of community members taken into account.

- **Maximization of project benefits**: Via more effective targeting of project benefits, and by making best use of project resources. Research has shown, for example, that women tend to use family income differently than men, and are more likely to assign increased resources to family health and nutritional needs if the project is structured in ways that give them sufficient control of such resources. Similarly, some clinics originally targeted solely to women and children have been able to draw in men for health services in ways they perceive as non-threatening to their male identity, thus providing opportunities for education on sexual health, parenting and domestic relations, for example, and enhancing the effectiveness of contraceptive/HIV/AIDS programs.

- **Sensitivity to potential project-related risks**: These include impacts on indigenous or rural populations, and ways in which these risks can be avoided or mitigated. Gender-responsive social analysis can flag potential unintended consequences of projects before they occur, for example by anticipating shifts in gender relations such as increased control of family finances by women that may cause resentment or conflict and lead to an increase in domestic violence.

- **Efficiency of project implementation**: Analysis of gender-specific roles, responsibilities, time-use patterns and social norms can improve project planning and avoid potential problems. If joint meetings for men and women are considered unacceptable, for example, separate focus groups are likely to increase attendance and perhaps allow freer expression of opinions by women; times for community participation in project work can take into account both men’s and women’s work schedules.

- **Evaluation of project outcomes and impacts**: Evaluation of gender-specific project outcomes and impacts, and of project effects on gender relations can provide a more comprehensive and balanced assessment of the extent to which projects contribute to or constrain gender equity and poverty reduction. Evaluation of a project to improve rural roads, for example, can assess changes in both men’s and women’s patterns of participation in marketing and other forms of commerce.

\[2\] For examples of how targeting credit to women rather than men can increase project impacts at the household level, see World Bank (1998).
II. Key Cross-Cutting or Cross-Sector Gender Issues

Gender cuts across all sectors, and is a pivotal dimension of comprehensive social analysis. Cross-cutting gender issues include disparities in power, decision-making capacity, and the ability to influence others (including women’s empowerment); access to productive and human resources; time use and work burdens; and the gendered dimensions of poverty. These issues have relevance to all sectors of World Bank work, and while they may be more readily apparent in sectors such as education and health, gender issues are equally relevant to “technical” sectors such as transportation and energy. Similarly, some gender issues have multi-sector implications and cannot be addressed effectively within the framework of a single sector. It is implicit throughout this document (and in Annex 1) that gender analysis is not just about women, but addresses the needs of both men and women. Food security is a good example of the need for a multi-sector approach, since it includes issues of legal provisions and inheritance patterns that affect entitlement to land; clean water and sanitation; agriculture, nutrition, food processing and marketing; and income generation; all of which are areas of social organization that are likely to involve gender disparities of various kinds.

Although World Bank financial projects tend to be organized by sector, some projects such as rural water and sanitation infrastructure projects, may involve personnel from several sectors. At other times, however, it can be useful to focus more attentively on gender issues of particular relevance to a specific sector. Similarly, gender issues have relevance in all regions, but there may be regional or country differences in the specific types of gender issues that are considered most important, or most urgent. This section briefly discusses some key cross-cutting gender issues, and provides some examples of sector-specific and regionally prominent gender issues.

- Power relations. The unequal distribution of power between men and women (most often, in favor of men) in multiple areas of public and private life – at home, at work, in decision-making processes and institutions—lies at the heart of gender inequality, perpetuating gender inequities in legal and judicial rights, access to economic and social resources, and the ability to participate fully in development. In all regions, women are less likely than men to take part in political processes, or to occupy high-level positions within the social structures in which power and decision-making are concentrated. Their range of activity may be limited by legal and constitutional inequities, or by social prescriptions and proscriptions concerning appropriate gender roles. Consequently, their voice is less likely to be heard, their ability to influence others is diminished, and their capacity to participate in and benefit from development is limited. Similarly, at the household level, authority over family members and the power to make major decisions for the family as a whole are more likely to be vested in male members of the family. Earlier consensual development models did not see this as a problem, since they assumed individual family members would have common goals that would be pursued to the benefit of the entire family. There has been, however, increasing recognition of conflicts of interests and differences in priorities within the family unit, and specifically between male and female members.

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3 For discussions of many cross-sectoral gender issues, see World Bank (2001a).
4 For a good example of social analysis that illustrates the cross-sectoral gender dimensions of food security, see Africare (2001).
5 For a quick reference guide to sectors and issues for gender analysis, see World Bank (1999).
• **The empowerment of women** involves increasing the ability of women to “participate in, negotiate with, influence, control, and hold accountable those institutions that affect their lives. In its broadest sense, empowerment is the expansion of freedom of choice and action.”6 The adoption of the empowerment of women as a development goal is based both on considerations having to do with gender equity as an important aspect of social justice and human welfare, and on economic rationality – more gender-equitable rights, access to resources, and participation favor productivity and economic growth, poverty reduction, and better governance.7 This goal tends to encounter a considerable degree of resistance, due to men’s perception that women’s gain may be their loss, and to the fact that initiatives to promote women’s empowerment frequently have to be channeled via decision-making structures dominated by men.

• **Access to human and productive resources** such as education and occupational training, job opportunities in the formal sector, access to credit and land, also tends to reflect gender disparities that limit women’s capacity to contribute to and benefit from development initiatives and to contribute to higher living standards for their families. Issues of access have gained increasing importance in the light of the world-wide increase in the proportion of women-headed households, in which women may bear the major or total responsibility for the financial support of the household.

• **Time use and work burdens** are an essential aspect of gender studies, especially because women tend to have multiple roles (in reproduction, household maintenance, production, and community management), and must frequently manage these roles simultaneously; men, by contrast, are more likely to carry out a more limited range of roles that they can manage sequentially. These differences have implications for project design and implementation. If women and men are to participate in planning meetings, meetings must be timed to accommodate their different work schedules. Women may be unable to take part unless provisions for transportation, child care and provision of food are made. Similarly, numerous studies have shown that women work significantly longer hours than men overall.8

• **Poverty and vulnerability to poverty** studies indicate that women constitute a majority of the world’s poor, that women must work more hours than men to attain the same level of welfare, and that they are more likely to be chronically poor.9 Gender differences also tend to be greatest among the poor. The relative paucity of intra-household and individual-level research means that such findings are subject to question. Also, poverty measures have traditionally been based on income or consumption measures; recently, however, analysts have argued that re-conceptualizing poverty to include dimensions such as time poverty may be more useful in terms of analyzing gender relations.10 Furthermore, poverty is frequently experienced differently by men and women; therefore, an understanding of the gender dimensions of poverty is important for sound poverty policy and strategy development.11 Moreover, a

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7 See Malhotra et al (2002) for a discussion of concepts and measurement questions related to women’s empowerment.
number of structural reasons make it reasonable to posit women’s greater vulnerability to poverty. In many areas, women’s right to own land directly is limited and legal provisions mandating gender equality are not always enforced. Single women may have access to land only via their families of origin, and when women are divorced or widowed they frequently lose their access to land (and sometimes lose other types of property).

**Box 1: Examples of Sector-Specific Gender Issues**

**Transportation needs** are not usually gender-neutral; gender issues are relevant to both infrastructure and service development in the transport sector. In urban areas, men’s primary travel tends to be directly to and from their place of work. Women’s travel patterns, however, may be more complex: they frequently must reach not only their place of employment, but also the supermarket, a health clinic, their children’s school. Commercial bus companies, however, tend to provide better coverage in the form of a limited number of routes designed for relatively simple work-related travel; social analysis may, therefore, reveal the need to pay particular attention to developing varied routes that better provide for women’s multiple responsibilities.

**Rural water project priorities** are often different for men and women. Men may prioritize issues related to crop production, such as water pressure, or the allocation of limited water supply rights for irrigation, while women may be more concerned with issues such as time savings and reducing work burdens, and may therefore assign higher priority to the time of day at which water is available, or the location of water standpoints, to facilitate both productive and domestic tasks.

**Health risks** can vary between the sexes as the result of biological and/or social differences. Health services that accommodate these differences should increase accessibility of use. While both men and women are likely to be exposed to the risk of HIV/AIDS in many regions, the extent and type of risk may differ. Women are biologically more susceptible to contracting STD’s; they may also have more limited power to negotiate safe sex, or to refuse to engage in sexual relations, if they are dependent on male partners or on the sex trade for economic survival. On the other hand, male migrants who are separated from their families for extended periods of time are likely to engage in commercial sexual relations or with serial sexual partners, therefore increasing their risk of contracting STD. Similarly, in countries that have strong social or legal prohibitions against homosexual relationships, gay men may both be at high risk for contracting STDs, and deterred by fears of social disapproval or reprisals from seeking help for STD-related health problems.

**Forestry and natural resources management (NRM) project priorities** also frequently differ for men and women. In many developing societies men are in a dominant position with respect to NRM decision-making, regardless of the scale of a particular project. Yet this does not mean that they have a monopoly on the actual use of natural resources at the local level. In fact, in most rural areas it is the women who walk long distances to collect fuel, fodder, water, and building materials; manage livestock and home gardens for subsistence purposes; and fish in estuaries, rivers, and streams. In the forested regions of sub-Saharan Africa and other parts of the developing world, women also tend to accumulate more substantial knowledge on the use of trees, plants, and non-timber forest products. Men, on the other hand, are more likely to engage in hunting, sedentary farming, and offshore fishing. These differences are significant because they can lead to gender-specific priorities for resource allocation and conservation in a given area.

In each sector, however, gender differences that present themselves in needs and priorities in specific situations should not obscure the fact that such differences simply may not exist or may be relatively unimportant in comparison with men and women’s common goals and priorities for their families or communities.

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12 Chant (2003) provides a fairly comprehensive outline of the major methodological and conceptual challenges to understanding poverty from a gender perspective.

13 World Bank (Forthcoming).

14 Fong et al (1996) provide practical guidance on addressing gender issues in water and sanitation projects, and Wakeman et al (1996) address gender issues in the water and sanitation sector at the policy level.
• **Violence** is problematic for both women and men, but the nature of the violence they experience, and its impact, tend to differ. Gender-based violence against women and girls is endemic throughout the world, whether in the form of domestic violence by male partners, coerced sex, systematic rape and other forms of violence as tools of war, or other forms of physical, sexual, psychological or economic abuse.\(^{15}\) It is closely related to women’s subordinate status in society, and is frequently legitimized or ignored. Its costs are enormous and include damage to physical and mental health, loss of income and productivity, and negative impacts on individuals, families and socioeconomic development. By contrast, men in many countries are more likely than women to experience injury or premature death as a result of war, political violence, and street or gang violence.\(^{16}\)

• **Migration** is occurring in unprecedented numbers throughout the world. Globalization, together with political violence in many countries, has led to a large and sustained increase in migration. Today, roughly half of all international migrants (and many internal migrants) are women. Apart from the traditional female migration to follow families and spouses, increasing numbers of women migrate independently: in search of jobs or better social conditions; as refugees from wars or natural disasters; fleeing from violence or other human rights violations; as a result of forced resettlement; and as victims of trafficking for the sex trade or exploitative or forced labor. Migration can profoundly alter gender relations: if migration increases women’s participation in the labor market, for example, it may result in greater authority within the family and increased control over family resources; on the other hand, international migration for long periods of time can isolate women (and men) from family and community support.\(^{17}\)

• **Demographics** must consider a wide range of issues including women’s greater life expectancy and fewer resources, less access to social insurance because they are more likely to work in the informal sector. Each of these issues exposes women to greater vulnerability at later stages of life.

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\(^{16}\) For discussions about violence as an issue for international development, see Heise et al. (1994) and Moser and Shrader (1998).

\(^{17}\) A good source of information on gender and migration issues is the website of the Migration Policy Institute: [http://www.migrationinformation.org](http://www.migrationinformation.org). Select Migration Information Source and search for “gender and migration”.
III. Analytical Framework for Gender-Responsive Social Analysis

Gender-responsive social analysis contributes to sustainable development by examining the gendered dimensions of social systems relevant to project success in order to inform gender-responsive project design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. Bank social scientists use five “entry points” in their social analysis: social diversity and gender; institutions, rules and behavior; stakeholders; participation; and social risk. The following section discusses the relevance of gender to each of the five entry points.

Social Diversity and Gender\(^\text{18}\)

Gender identities are created and gender-specific roles assigned beginning early in life and in a variety of ways: via laws and institutional arrangements that differentiate between men and women, through less formal but equally important social norms and expectations.\(^\text{19}\) Formal and informal social arrangements and influences tend to be a primary determinant of access to human and productive resources, dictate domestic and community rights and responsibilities, and to have a major influence on individual behavior in private and public life. Gender as socially constructed is a key dimension of diversity, and of relationships between social groups, on a level with class, race, ethnicity and similar variables. It creates constraints and opportunities, affects power relations and decision-making patterns, and carries specific associated risks and benefits. This is particularly true in societies that have rigidly defined norms and expectations concerning roles and responsibilities.

If limited resources for education favor boys rather than girls, or if education is not considered appropriate for girls, for example, men will tend to have easier access to economic opportunities: to occupations and jobs that require more qualification and are correspondingly better compensated. If laws or inheritance and ownership of property are not gender-equitable, men are likely to have greater control of productive resources such as land.\(^\text{20}\) Conversely, if men are expected to be the sole financial providers for families, they may experience to a disproportionate degree the psychological stresses and increased health risks when this role is threatened by changing intra-household dynamics or household structure,\(^\text{21}\) or during periods of high male unemployment or underemployment.

Gender does not operate in isolation, but interacts with other variables such as age, life cycle, class, ethnicity, marital status, religion, and place of residence (rural or urban). The capabilities, priorities, and needs of subgroups of male and female stakeholders may vary widely. For instance, gender, life cycle stage, and place of residence can interact in ways that affect women’s legal, economic and social position.\(^\text{22}\)

\(^{18}\) For an overview of gender disparities and gender equality, see World Bank (2001a).

\(^{19}\) For an example of the early construction of gender identity, see Lindo-Fuentes and Salem (1999).

\(^{20}\) World Bank (2002b).

\(^{21}\) Chant (1997b).

\(^{22}\) Chen (1998), for example, shows how gender and life cycle stage intersect to exacerbate the vulnerability of rural Indian women who become widows. Similarly, the varying household roles formed by the interaction between gender and household composition, and their effect on labor force participation decisions, are examined in Katz and Correia eds. (2001).
Gender-responsive social analysis must also consider possible inter-gender differences between men and women in terms of priorities, capabilities and constraints associated with gender; and intra-gender differences associated with community status, ethnic identity, socioeconomic status and the like.

**Box 2: Good Practice Example – Rural Roads and Markets Improvement and Maintenance in Bangladesh**

The overall development objective of the Rural Roads and Markets Improvement and Maintenance Project II is to help increase rural employment and incomes and reduce rural poverty by establishing improved, sustainable rural transport and trading infrastructure. A Gender Dimension Study conducted for the project revealed an overall positive project impact on respondents, with clear benefits in the areas poverty and access to services. Women’s involvement in road maintenance was found to contribute to sustainability and lower costs of the project. The study also found that most women were not able to build their social capital through increased participation in groups and *samities* (community meetings). The majority discontinued their involvement in such groups because their daily tasks at home and in the work place left very little spare time for involvement. The study contributed to planning for future projects. Specific measures were suggested to increase participation of women in road construction and maintenance, to strengthen the role of women participants in the market, and to guide follow-up studies.


Gender roles that are socially assigned may vary over time and between societies, and most importantly, they are capable of changing. Analysis should identify roles that are traditionally gender-related, but also be sensitive to the fact that projects may provide unique opportunities for desirable changes in gender relations, especially if stakeholders perceive there are benefits associated with change. For example, in the cut-flower export industry in Ecuador women can earn as much as or in some cases more than men. One study found that in households where the wife worked in this industry, husbands increased the average time they spent on housework (Newman, 2001). Similarly, in Indonesia the enterprise of milking cows recently introduced to a village became increasingly profitable. Women milked the cows since they were deemed to be better than men at this activity, but told the men they could not do this and continued their traditional task of fetching water. In this case, men became the water collectors because the cows were so profitable (Brown, 2000).23

**Institutions, Rules and Behavior**

Social analysts use this entry point to examine the formal institutional and legal provisions that govern the relationships between the diverse social groups within a society; the organizational structures through which these formal provisions are carried out (or not); and the informal behaviors that mediate and modify the relationship between theory and practice in these areas. Gender-responsive social analysis of institutions, rules and behavior is vital to development work, since projects do not operate in a vacuum. While remaining aware of gender-related cultural sensitivities, analysts seek to identify ways in which programs or projects can increase gender equity either by modifying the institutional, organizational and social context or, if this is

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23 Note that changes in gender-based task assignment can have negative as well as positive results. For example, the introduction of new intermediate forms of transport can shift some women’s tasks to men, but may also reduce women’s income if men begin to take over marketing activities (Rao, 2002).

24 For sources of information on Gender and Governance, see Bell (2001).
problematic or inappropriate, by designing the project to more effectively interact with the existing context.  

In practice, many societies have assigned women to the private sphere (homemaking, child rearing, maintenance of family and kin relations, paid work that can be conducted within the home), and men to the public sphere (earning money outside the home, performing work duties that involve travel or marketing, participation in public structures, political action). To the extent that this occurs, women may have limited opportunities for developing socially and financially useful skills, capabilities and experience, such as learning the official national language (in the case of ethnic minorities), having access to a wider range of work opportunities, accumulating leadership experience, or gaining knowledge of current marketing opportunities.

**Box 3: Good Practice Example – Responding to the Different Needs of Male and Female Farmers in El Salvador**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adoption of gender-responsive social analysis practices by World Bank-financed Agriculture Sector Reform and Investment Project (PRISA) and its implementing agency resulted in provision of more client-relevant extension and research services that better respond to the needs of men and women farmers. Among the improvements are the training of extension agents to assess women's issues, the recruitment of female extension workers, and the introduction of implementation and monitoring indicators that tend to be divided by gender: female farmers are primarily responsible for fruit, vegetable and small livestock production, whereas men are primarily responsible for basic grains and large livestock. To change the culture of CENTA's original gender segregated extension system was challenging because they lacked female extension personnel to operate the “women's extension program”, which reflected the low priority accorded research on women and agricultural technology.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Source:</strong> World Bank (2003a).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Social norms have a profound impact in terms of gender-differentiated access to power, authority and decision-making structures and processes. In many societies, women have lower levels of participation in government at the national, regional and local levels, and constitute a small minority of high-level executives in private and public institutions. To the extent that this occurs, they have more limited opportunities to express their concerns and priorities and to guide public policies and initiatives in ways that facilitate women’s full integration of women as equal partners in social and economic development. Gender responsive analysis provides an opportunity to identify ways in which women’s participation in the formal structures and public processes of society can be enhanced.

Many countries have constitutional or legal provisions that formally mandate or regulate gender relations, or laws prohibiting gender-based discrimination in areas such as education and employment. However, gender analysts cannot assume that formal provisions are always honored in practice: there is frequently a gap between theory and practice. Social analysis should pinpoint discrepancies and assess the resulting deficiencies. In some countries, also, gender-based discrimination may be driven by customary law, rather than statutory law or formal legal

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25 For example, the project may not be able, at least in the short run, to change a local context in which women do not participate in public meetings. The project could, however, include mechanisms for separate meetings for women, in order to enable women to have a voice.

26 Indeed, as of June 2005, a total of 180 countries, representing over 90 percent of the members of the United Nations, are party to the Convention Eliminating all Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW).
provisions. In some circumstances, for example where poor or rural women have little recourse in practice to the formal legal or judicial system, customary law may provide a degree of protection to women. Gopal and Salim discuss these issues with reference to Eastern Africa.\textsuperscript{27}

Similarly, many organizations (such as women’s bureaus) are created specifically to address gender issues, but analysis should pay attention to ways in which they actually function. They may, for example, be somewhat isolated, having little influence on line ministries, limited access to high-level government officials, inadequate financial resources and/or trained personnel, and face bureaucratic resistance to gender mainstreaming. If this is the case, social analysis should explore possible improvements to existing structures, and/or alternatives for channeling gender-related development work.

**Box 4: Good Practice Example – Empowering Women to Access Institutions and Resources in India**

The Rural Women’s Development and Empowerment (\textit{Swa-Shakti}) Project in India, provides an example of attempts to improve the responsiveness of existing institutions to women’s particular needs and concerns.

The \textit{Swa-Shakti} project has helped form more than 17,000 Self-Help Groups benefiting more than 240,000 people throughout India. It works in innovative partnership arrangements with more than 700 local NGOs. With the exception of some minor assistance towards developing community assets, the project does not provide financial support to the members. Instead, it focuses on strengthening women’s capacity to leverage resources from existing institutions: financial institutions for access to credit; Government departments for improved services, particularly in health and education; and the private sector for better access to information and markets for locally produced products.

\textbf{Source:} The Rural Women’s Development and Empowerment Project.\textsuperscript{28}

It is particularly important to identify, and address the effects of societal norms, expectations, traditions and religious beliefs concerning gender roles that exist alongside formal provisions and organizations promoting gender equity, and that may limit their effectiveness and the success of development projects. Gender-responsive social analysis has traditionally been more sensitive to norms that constrain women’s participation (such as women not being allowed to travel); but rigid expectations can also constrain men, as when they are expected to be the sole financial support of their family.

**Stakeholders\textsuperscript{29}\**

Stakeholders, whether they are individuals, groups, or organizations, include all those who have a stake, or interest, in the outcomes of a project or program. The purpose of stakeholder analysis is to identify all significant stakeholders in a project, the specific nature of their interest, and their level of influence; to maximize project benefits for a wide range of stakeholders; to seek out possible ways to reconcile different or conflicting interests; and to identify stakeholders that may constitute valuable resources for project development (for example, NGOs working with women, grass-roots women’s groups).

\textsuperscript{27} Gopal and Salim (1998).
\textsuperscript{28} See also presentation by Varalakshmi Vemuru, the project’s Task Team Leader, available at \url{http://info.worldbank.org/etools/docs/voddocs/616/1210/hi.htm}.
\textsuperscript{29} For concepts and examples of stakeholder analysis, see “Tools and Methods” at: \url{http://www.worldbank.org/socialanalysis}.
Stakeholders may actively support the project, perceiving benefits to themselves or their community; this perceived “ownership” of the project can contribute significantly to the project’s success. Alternatively, they may oppose the project, believing that it threatens their interests or requires a level of investment of resources they consider disproportionate to the perceived benefits; in this case, the challenge for social analysis is to assess the feasibility of the project, given existing opposition; and to seek ways to reconcile the interests of specific stakeholders with the goals of the project.

In terms of gender, obvious categories of stakeholders are that of “men” and “women.” Stakeholder analysis needs to identify gender-differentiated project-related interests and priorities, costs of participation, benefits and risks – both actual and perceived. For example, transportation needs may differ by gender. Men may prioritize better roads connecting communities that enable them to reach commercial markets and sell agricultural produce; women may favor better paths around the community that make it easier for them to reach sources of water and fuel, reach subsistence plots, or bring livestock to pasture.

Mindful that the interests and capabilities of subgroups of men or women stakeholders may differ significantly, it is important for social analysis to identify varying priorities and potential conflicts. The women who have more resources in a community, for instance, may favor a water supply project that pipes water to individual houses. Poorer women, by contrast, may prefer public standpoints for taps that may be less convenient but also cost less. Similarly, social practices may have it that only male members of a particular ethnic group are able to be community leaders and attend community meetings; a special effort may be needed to sound out the interests of men and women, who are not usually part of the consultative process within the community.

**Box 5: Good Practice Example – Rural Transport Services and Gender in Ghana**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>A study of rural transport services and gender in Ghana examined gender differences in men and women’s use of available forms of transport and transport services. Findings illuminated gender differences in travel burdens, men’s control over means of transportation, and men and women’s preferences for Intermediate Means of Transport (IMT).</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Travel burdens:</strong> Travel and transport played an important role in the productive and reproductive roles of rural women. The burden of transport rests mostly on women, who spent an average of nearly 6 hours each day on essential travel (compared with 3 hours for men).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Access to resources:</strong> Men generally controlled available IMT (bicycle, bicycle with trailer, donkey and cart, push truck) and were reluctant to use them for “women’s work,” such as fetching water. Few women were willing to use their own financial resources to acquire IMT, since their money was generally spent on the wellbeing of their children.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social constraints:</strong> Many women in the study stated they would like to own a means of transport if they had the financial means, but they considered IMT as to be used mainly by men. The study recommended introduction and extension of IMT, especially for household travel and transport needs, as it would greatly reduce the time and effort involved in transport tasks of women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Source:</strong> Tengey et al (1999).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finally, an error of some gender analysis is to assume that male and female interests must differ and are necessarily in conflict with each other. Identifying commonalities as well as differences is important in planning successful projects. In many situations, both men and women may perceive that their interests coincide or overlap to a significant extent. For example, both may favor
agricultural initiatives that are perceived as having the potential to increase total family income, whether they are targeted directly to men or women.

**Participation**

Gender-equitable participation requires that both women and men are not only project beneficiaries, but also active agents in project identification, design, planning, implementation, and monitoring and evaluation. An effective social analysis should, therefore, address how both women and men can be enabled to participate in all stages of the project. This involves identifying relevant gender-related social patterns, and working in accordance with them to maximize the possibilities for participation.

In practical terms, gender-equitable participation involves a myriad of participatory processes, including community meetings, workshops and seminars, focus groups, awareness campaigns, training and capacity building, communication strategies, policy debates and advocacy. Participatory processes also should consider such issues as to when and where to hold meetings so that both women and men are able to attend. Provisions for transportation, food and childcare may also be necessary to enable mothers of children to attend.

The dynamics of gender-differentiated costs of project participation should also be considered. Men, for instance, may have to sacrifice income-earning opportunities in order to contribute the required time and labor to a self-help housing program, while women who are heads of household often pay a male relative or neighbor to do the construction work they feel unable, or lack the time, to do themselves, thus saving time for their multiple responsibilities but reducing the amount of money they can use for food and other household requirements.

**Box 6: Good Practice Example – Gender-Responsive Social Analysis in Project Planning in Indonesia**

Through the World Bank-supported Kecamatan Development Project (KDP), villagers receive grants for infrastructure projects that they have chosen after assessing the community’s needs. KDP developed several rules and processes to ensure that women’s voices are effective in determining village projects, thereby empowering them to influence local development actions.

KDP also helped liberate women from time-consuming tasks such as foot transport and water collection. In one village, a gravel road was built to the local rice paddies and created access for motorcycle taxis, making the transport of rice easier and reducing the time women spent traveling to and from the paddies. In a nearby village, a three kilometer-long water pipe was built through a dense forest and up the steep sides of a volcano to pipe water directly into the village, thereby reducing the time women spent collecting water.

During the three Kecamatan projects, women’s status has progressively improved. Where previously women’s roles were confined to the household, KDP has promoted women’s participation in community decision making and used women facilitators in council meetings; it also initiated a special planning stream for women’s groups, a competitive reward for promoting women’s participation, and a women engineers program. Women initiated 6,170 proposals (or 55 percent) of the 11,275 proposals funded across 23 provinces.

**Sources:** Mukherjee et al (2002); Gross et al (2001).

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Social analysis should include recommendations for ensuring the quality of participation, including the ability to voice opinions or to participate in voting. Sometimes women may have concerns that they are reluctant to voice in the presence of men; or, younger community members, male or female, may not feel able to step outside the age hierarchy dictated by social norms. Integrated male-female meetings may not be appropriate in such conditions. Instead, it may be necessary to hold separate meetings for men and women in order to overcome these constraints and encourage full participation by both. A good social analysis should identify ways to ensure that such subgroups of men or women are not excluded on the basis of class, ethnicity, and other categories of difference. In some societies, for instance, community leaders consist exclusively of men from a particular caste, and generally it is their views that will be voiced; social analysis needs to explore socially acceptable ways in which the opinions of men from other parts of the community can also be heard. Similarly, the poorer members of a community may live at a greater distance from community meeting places, or may have less leisure time in which to attend meetings. When this is the case, analysis should offer specific recommendations in order to enable and encourage poorer women and men of a community to make their project priorities known and to participate fully in project planning. Appropriate recommendations might include, for example, specifying non-traditional meeting locations, or techniques to ensure that all meeting participants are heard in turn.

Box 7: Good Practice Example – Gender-Responsive Social Analysis in Project Planning in Morocco

In Morocco, the government launched the National Program for Rural Water Supply and Sanitation in 1998 with World Bank support, constructing and rehabilitating water supply and sanitation facilities in 27 rural provinces. Before the project, only 20 percent of Morocco’s rural population had access to safe drinking water. Today, over 50 percent have clean water and adequate sanitation, an improvement that has dramatically diminished water-related diseases such as diarrhea.

To ensure women’s participation and to facilitate hygiene education, provisions were made to include at least one woman in each social mobilization team; each team helped beneficiaries establish water users’ associations to take over management of the schemes after undergoing training. By ensuring the provision of safe potable water from public taps less than 500 meters away from the homes of beneficiaries, the project reduced the time women and girls spent fetching water by 50 to 90 percent.

Saving time in water collection has meant more girls are able to attend school: during the past four years, rural primary school attendance for girls jumped from 30 to 51 percent in the project areas.

Source: National Program for Rural Water Supply and Sanitation, Morocco.

In many societies where hierarchical relations exist and men are more likely than women to play a visible role in community life, it is important to analyze the ways women interact through less visible or more informal means. For instance, if women’s only opportunity to socialize with other women is when collecting water at the village pump, they are likely to use this occasion to discuss problems and exchange problem-solving ideas. Whatever the social predicament between men and women, identifying socially acceptable ways to promote consensus-building between men and women and to encourage integrated male-female collaboration is highly desirable.

Social Risk

The analysis of social risk seeks to identify what potential problems may arise in a project, and what can be done to avoid or mitigate these identified risks. A more difficult question is whether

31 For information on social risk analysis as part of the social analysis process, please see http://www.worldbank.org/socialanalysissourcebook/5elements5.htm
the anticipated benefits of the project justify the perceived risks. In the case of analyzing gender issues, such social analysis asks whether women or men are more vulnerable to specific types of risk, and what measures can be taken to address these gender-specific risks.

There are five main types of social risk that the Bank uses to determine project vulnerability through social analysis:

**Vulnerability risk** involves increased exposure or susceptibility to endemic risks or external shocks. In terms of gender, social analysis would assess whether men or women are more subject to risk, and would identify the characteristics, needs, and concerns of women and men, respectively, that make them particularly prone to vulnerability or insecurity. Female-headed households, for instance, compared with male-headed households are frequently considered to be at greater risk of falling into poverty, since (among other differences) they tend to have fewer adult workers, and female heads typically have lower levels of education and training than male heads, and less time to devote to earning money due to their multiple responsibilities. Therefore, they are likely to have reduced earning power compared with male heads. Consequently, the total household income of female-headed households tends to be lower than that of male-headed households, rendering them more vulnerable to poverty.

**Country risks** involve situations such as political instability, ethnic or religious tensions, and violent conflict. These types of factors can expose women and men differentially to specific types of risk. In the context of the long-term civil unrest and conflict in Colombia, for example, men suffer significantly higher rates of injury and death than women as a direct result of guerrilla or government paramilitary action. As large numbers of both men and women are forced to flee their rural communities for the perceived greater safety of the city, women and girls appear to be more subject than men or boys to sexual or other violent assaults during the migration process. For both men and women, the concomitant strains on family and community life multiply the difficulties involved in planning and implementing development initiatives.

**Political economy risks** are those that may affect the project’s intended beneficiaries as an indirect result of the project itself, including the undermining of project goals by powerful stakeholders, and the capture of benefits by elite groups. Since the balance of power within society often (although not always) favors men rather than women, it is necessary to take particular care that male interests do not distort or divert project goals. Reluctance to pay attention to male issues in development work is often rooted in a perception that doing so is likely to divert limited resources away from women’s needs (frequently considered to be more pressing), and to vitiate women’s hard-won autonomy and control within the project context. Social analysis ought to explore the possible effects of the project, both positive and negative, on gender relations – likely changes in the balance of power or decision-making roles, and the potential both for more equitable intra-household relationships, and for increased conflict within families.
Box 8: Good Practice Example –
Integrating Men into Sexual and Reproductive Health Services in Ecuador

APROFE, the affiliate in Ecuador of the International Planned Parenthood Federation’s Western Hemisphere Region, made a concerted effort to involve men in its initiative to improve quality of health care and to promote gender equity throughout its national network of reproductive health clinics. Men’s utilization of sexual- and reproductive-health services created new challenges to maintaining a commitment to gender equity and users’ rights. Some of the issues included the pattern of male domination during clinic interviews and examinations of women, protection of both partners’ right to privacy, limited training and time availability of medical personnel to adequately address gender issues, and the need for great tact in addressing health problems without discouraging male participation. APROFE systematically incorporated the results of user focus groups and regular feedback from clinic personnel into its approach to health care. It incorporated gender and quality-of-care standards in its training, clinical protocols and supervision, and used gender frameworks in its standard practices. These processes have become an integral part of the way the organization does business, and therefore have a high potential for sustainability.


**Institutional risks** include weak governance, limited technical and administrative capacity, limited resources, and design complexity. In terms of gender, this may mean that organizational arrangements fail to provide equitable provisions for meeting the needs of men and women respectively. Where local councils and community organizations include few or no female representatives, for instance, women may have few opportunities to develop leadership skills, and may be inadequately prepared or unwilling to play appropriate roles in project planning and management, thus effectively ceding decisions concerning goals and procedures to men.

**Exogenous risks** such as regional conflict, macroeconomic changes, and physical events or environmental disasters (earthquakes, floods, drought, etc.) are also likely to affect social development outcomes, and are likely to have differential effects on men and women. Rural-to-urban migration in search of greater economic opportunities, for example, can sometimes have more negative effects for men than for women in terms of employment. In traditional rural communities, male capabilities and experience tend to be concentrated in crop-raising and livestock rearing, skills not easily transferable to work available in the urban context. Consequent high levels of male unemployment, in conjunction with the traditional pressure on men to provide financially for their families, frequently result in an increase in male health problems such as stress, alcoholism, and violence. Women’s traditional domestic skills, by contrast, enable them to more easily find urban employment as domestic workers or in the preparation and sale of food.
IV. INTEGRATING GENDER-RESPONSIVE SOCIAL ANALYSIS IN THE PROJECT CYCLE

Gender-responsive social analysis is an important element of each stage or level of World Bank operations: upstream/macro-social analysis (the national, regional or sector level), sociological appraisal conducted as an integral part of project selection and appraisal, and social assessment for a particular project conducted at different times during the project cycle. This section provides a brief overview of the principal purposes, sources of information (inputs), and products of analysis at each of the three levels, with particular reference to the gender dimension of social analysis.

Upstream/macro-level analysis at the country, regional or sector level is conducted by the Bank to assist in development of the Country Assistance Strategy (CAS), or to support policy formulation and sector strategies. Another important upstream analysis is the Country Gender Assessments (CGA), the principle means by which the Bank and borrowing countries participate in a collaborative process to analyze the gender dimension of development, and to identify gender-responsive policies and actions critical for poverty reduction, economic growth, human well-being, and development effectiveness in the country. A wide range of other data sources or inputs may also inform this level of analysis, including Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSPs), Country Social, Poverty or Environmental Assessments, Economic Sector Work (ESW), statistics from international data bases, existing client country documents and studies, and consultations with line ministries, NGOs and others. In order to inform analysis of gender, sources may include previous analytical work on gender at the country or sector levels, Women’s Bureaus (or similar agencies), NGOs that work with women, grass-roots community women’s groups and others.

Project-level social analysis is undertaken by the Bank in the context of overall project identification and appraisal, for the purpose of sociological appraisal of likely project opportunities, constraints and impacts, and to assess whether the project’s probable social development outcomes justify Bank support. Like macro-level analysis, it draws on a variety of sources, including upstream work, materials from partner agencies and in-country analysts, in order to evaluate the likely risks and benefits of a project, and whether the project offers scope to further the Bank’s project-level social development goals of social inclusion, empowerment and security.

Social assessment is undertaken by the Borrower for the purpose of obtaining the views of stakeholders in order to improve the design of the project and to establish a participatory process for implementation and monitoring. Through a social assessment, Borrowers weigh the likely social benefits and costs of proposed projects. In many projects, social assessment provides a framework for beneficiaries to participate in the project’s preparation, implementation and monitoring. Social assessments thus help involve and give voice to the poor. At the same time, they

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32 Chapter I of the World Bank Social Analysis Sourcebook addresses the various levels of social analysis in detail (World Bank, 2003b).

33 The terms “social analysis” and “social assessment” have conventionally been defined somewhat loosely, and have been assigned a variety of meanings by different actors. In accordance with the definitions used in the Social Analysis Sourcebook (World Bank, 2003b), this Guidance Note uses “social analysis” to refer to analysis conducted, at whatever level, to capture the social dimensions relevant to the wide range of investment operations supported by the Bank, and “social assessment” to refer specifically to the analysis that Bank borrowers undertake during project design to assess the social feasibility of the project.

34 The social assessment may be conducted directly by the Borrower itself, or by external consultants contracted by the Borrower.
ensure that project objectives are acceptable to the range of people that the project intends to benefit. Social assessment is normally conducted before appraisal.

### Project Identification and Design

The Project Concept Note (PCN) stage is a logical starting point for identifying gender issues related to a proposed project, since it must identify social issues related to the project area and propose steps that are critical for achieving the project’s social development outcomes. It must include indicators to monitor intended social benefits and development outcomes and risks. In addition, the Bank’s social scientists provide guidance for tailoring the project to achieve the social development outcomes during the process of PCN preparation and through the standardized PCN and safeguards review process.

A project team conducts a rapid social assessment to identify social and gender issues of the proposed project area, the potential impact in the project intervention on gender issues, and also works to develop monitoring indicators of such project impact. A rapid social assessment is a shorter and an upstream version of an extensive social assessment. It primarily involves a review of existing data sources, but it may also incorporate fieldwork, depending on time and budget availability.

**Table 1: A Rapid Social Assessment requires attention to the following gender issues in the proposed project**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social diversity and gender</th>
<th>Are there differences in gender relations between subgroups of the community (indigenous groups, religious or ethnic affiliation, socioeconomic strata)?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What is the proportion of households headed by women? Are these households significantly poorer than male-headed households?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Will the proposed project benefit both women and men differently?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What contributions do men’s and women’s activities make to development goals?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institutions, rules and behavior</td>
<td>What are formal and informal institutions that promote/perpetuate current gender relations in the project area?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Do women participate equitably in formal and informal institutions?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Are there any opportunities to promote gender equality through the formal and informal institutions that are present in the project area?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stakeholders</td>
<td>Who are the male and female stakeholders in the project? Do they support or oppose the project?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Does the project threaten the interests (actual or perceived) of either men or women?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What are the potential male-female conflicts that the project might induce?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation</td>
<td>Will both women and men participate in the project?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Is there a likelihood of elite capture (all-male community councils, better-off women whose priorities differ from those of poorer women in the community)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social risk</td>
<td>Are there any significant local, regional or national risks that are different for men and women? What measures can be taken to minimize or avoid these risks?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings of the rapid social assessment feed directly into the selection and structure of the PCN components. The rapid social assessment also assists in planning a more detailed social assessment at the project preparation stage.
Project Preparation and Appraisal Stage

Good baseline data on gender and social relations are essential both to identify gender issues and to assess the local “enabling environment” with respect to the project. Based on the social issues highlighted at the PCN stage, a detailed social assessment is conducted at the project preparation and appraisal stage. The borrower is normally responsible for the social assessment, although the analysis may be conducted either directly by or in consultation with the World Bank.

Table 2: A Social Assessment requires attention to the following gender issues:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social diversity and gender</th>
<th>Will the proposed project benefit both women and men? What are the specific benefits both will receive?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Does the project seek to identify and respond to needs and priorities of the various subgroups of the project community (the poorer members of the community, ethnic and religious minorities etc.)? Are there common community needs that can be used to reconcile differences of interest?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Will the project enhance the capacity of institutional and organizational structures to respond equitably to the needs of women and men?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How do local cultural traditions and social expectations define gender roles for women and men? In what ways do these roles differ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What differences exist between the daily activities and responsibilities of men and women? Are women as well as men involved in the different sectors of production, and in the various aspects and stages of productive activities (such as crop raising, processing and marketing)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Do gender-based disparities exist in areas such as power relations, decision-making and the ability to influence others?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What is the proportion of households headed by women? Are these households significantly poorer than male-headed households?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Are there differences in gender relations between subgroups of the community (indigenous groups, religious or ethnic affiliation, socioeconomic strata) that should influence project design?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What contributions do men’s and women’s activities make to development goals?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What are the implications of the identified gender differentials for project success, and for the contributions the project can be expected to make to social development goals such as social equity and cohesion?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institutions, rules and behavior</th>
<th>What institutional arrangements, organizational structures and social norms support or constrain the productive activities of men and women, particularly in sectors of production that will be involved in the project?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Do women participate equitably in leadership and decision-making processes in institutional and organizational social structures (such as legislative and governmental agencies at the national, regional and local levels)?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How can the project strengthen or modify existing social structures and processes, and utilize existing organizational resources (such as grass-roots women’s community organizations) to increase gender equity and project sustainability?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can the project provide opportunities to create new organizations that promote gender equity?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stakeholders</th>
<th>Who are the male and female stakeholders in the project? Do they support or oppose the project?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What degree of influence are they likely to have on the project?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation</td>
<td>Social risk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are there gender issues of specific relevance or importance to social subgroups (ethnic minorities, the extremely poor) that should be addressed?</td>
<td>Does the local, regional or national environment pose threats to project success in terms of addressing gender issues? (Such threats may include socioeconomic crises, physical disasters, civil conflict or unrest and so on). If they exist, how can gender issues specific to the crisis situation be addressed?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Does the project threaten the interests (actual or perceived) of either men or women?</td>
<td>Does the project pose potential threats to either women or men by altering gender relations (the balance of power or decision-making patterns within the family, access to resources etc.)? Can these changes lead to an increase in gender-based violence? What measures can be taken to minimize or avoid these risks?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How can the project avoid or minimize potential male-female conflicts of interest, and promote social cohesion?</td>
<td>In what ways is the project likely to alter gender relations within the community? Does it offer opportunities to create more equitable intra-household relationships, for example?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are there stakeholders (NGOs that work with women, all-male work unions) that might be expected to actively further or hinder the gender-related goals of the project? How can their contribution be secured?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation</td>
<td>Social risk</td>
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<tr>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What specific project components will ensure this?</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>How can “project capture” by elite subgroups (all-male community councils, better-off women whose priorities differ from those of poorer women in the community) be avoided?</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Are the costs of participation (forfeiting income-earning opportunities, increased workloads due to labor contributed to self-help projects) different for women than for men?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How can the project be designed to strengthen the individual capabilities of both men and women? (by providing experience in leadership roles, project management, opportunities to work with governmental and administrative bodies and community-based groups)</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Social Assessment Inputs to the Project: The results of the gender social assessment are discussed in section D.6 of the Project Appraisal Document (PAD) and summarized in one of its technical annexes. The possibility of conflict over resources, weak governance, etc. is discussed in section C.5 of the PAD on “Critical Risks” and “Possible Controversial Aspects.” If the appraisal stage does not involve a social assessment, then section E.6 of the PAD needs to state key social issues and how the project will address them.

The findings of the social assessment provide critical inputs to the Operational Manual (OM) of the project. The social scientist that implements the social assessment must participate in the preparation of the operational manual to ensure that the findings of the social analysis are incorporated in the OM.

Social Assessment Inputs to other Policy Dialogues: The gender issues that emerge from the social assessment can be reflected in policy dialogue between the borrower and the Bank. Combined with data on the project’s macro-social context, the results of a rigorous social
assessments can help to inform a stand-alone piece of ESW, or serve as an input into Country Assistance Strategy (CAS), or Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) exercises.

**Negotiations and Approval**
The project social scientist should participate in project negotiations, if possible, to ensure that the agreements concerning critical gender issues in the proposed project are reflected in its legal covenants. The social scientist also needs to ensure that the agreements related to the rules and procedures for addressing gender issues have been included in its operational manual.

**Effectiveness and Implementation**
Once a project becomes effective, the operational value and relevance of social analysis increases. There are multiple examples of project interventions that appeared to have sound designs, but were unsuccessful in achieving their social development objectives. A social assessment conducted during project supervision will capture vital information about the socio-cultural impacts at different stages of the project. This provides continuous feedback on the process and outcome indicators established for measuring project performance, based on which midstream adjustments can be made on the implementation arrangements.

**Supervision and Monitoring**
Gender-responsive social analysis is not, nor should it be, a one-time event in the life of a project. Analysis needs to be repeated at given intervals during the implementation phase in order to monitor the progress of gender-related project components and to verify whether the project continues to be responsive to the gender issues identified.

**Box 9: Key Organizational Considerations during Monitoring and Supervision**

- **Emphasize gender issues** in the Terms of Reference of supervision missions, and encourage borrower agencies to do the same for their project staff.
- **Assign budgetary and time resources for gender**.
- **Establish clear, explicit and manageable objectives** for gender actions within the project context. Specify the steps that must be taken to accomplish each objective.
- **Hold regular consultations with project staff** to keep gender issues visible and to coordinate gender-related project activities. Provide training for project staff on gender issues if necessary.
- **Involve project participants** in the process of gender monitoring and in developing indicators to assess implementation of gender objectives. Assess progress in accomplishing objectives on a regular basis.
- **Build in flexibility during the implementation phase**, so that project components can be modified to respond to gender issues. Flexibility also enables projects to test promising approaches and expand successful strategies.

Social analysis serves to monitor progress in addressing gender issues identified during project planning; to monitor gender-equitable participation; to track gender-related project components and activities; to identify successful strategies or processes; to flag problems as they occur; and to make the necessary changes as the project develops.
### Table 3: The following indicators can be used to monitor the following dimensions of project program implementation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Monitoring implementation of gender-related project goals specified in the project design</th>
<th>Have resources (funds and personnel) been approved for gender training and capacity building, and for project components designed to accomplish gender-related objectives, actually assigned?</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have gender training programs for staff been implemented?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Do project component and activities correspond to gender-related goals included in project plans based on the expressed needs and priorities of men and women?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have responsibilities involved in carrying out gender-responsive activities been assigned to specific members of project staff?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitoring gender-equitable participation</td>
<td>Remember that gender-equitable participation does not necessarily imply participation by equal numbers of men and women, but that opportunities for participation are offered to both sexes depending on expressed need and priorities, and according to project plans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What proportion of women is involved in project management, including in key decision-making roles?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What proportion of beneficiaries are women?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Do participants (as managers, implementers and beneficiaries) include women and men from ethnic and religious minorities, and from the poorer sectors of the community?</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What proportion of focus group participants have been women? Have they actively participated in group discussions?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have women’s NGOs and women’s community-based organizations participated in project activities and management?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitoring gender-responsive strategies</td>
<td>Have arrangements been made to enable both women and men to attend project meetings and activities? (Work schedules accommodated; transport, child care and food provided as necessary)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have both male and female facilitators been used for focus groups and interviews? Have translators been provided for those from indigenous groups? Have separate groups been conducted for women and men?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have project components been made easily accessible and affordable to both women and men? For example, credit to enable participation in productive opportunities (by purchasing seed, livestock or alternative means of transport such as bicycles); compensation for lost earning opportunities as a result of providing labor for self-help construction projects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have project components included activities considered socially acceptable and permissible for women? Have separate services been provided for women and men when joint services would be considered inappropriate?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitoring and addressing problems encountered during implementation</td>
<td>What potential gender-specific social risks identified during project planning have actually been encountered during implementation? What unforeseen situations involving risk have occurred? What measures have been taken to mitigate these risks?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have project activities negatively affected gender relations in unexpected ways? What measures have been taken to adjust activities accordingly, or to resolve conflicts that have occurred?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Have necessary adjustments and changes been made to correct approaches and alter techniques, or to adapt project components, that were deemed unsuccessful or problematic by either women or men stakeholders?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Mid-Term Review (MTR)**

The mid-term review serves as an opportunity for project management teams to take a stock of project progress and assess the direction of the project intervention toward achieving its development objectives, including the social development objectives. Mid-term review involves two outputs: an independent evaluation and a MTR report.

**Implementation Completion Report (ICR)**

A comprehensive social analysis should be conducted at the time of project completion, in order to provide a full account of the implementation phase to evaluate project outcomes for men and women, and to summarize lessons learned for future gender-responsive social analyses.

Participatory processes are also appropriate for evaluation of gender-specific project outcomes. Outcome indicators measure these changes in activities, capacities, access to resources, and levels of social risk that result from project activities. Definitive attribution of changes to project interventions can be difficult, due to the simultaneous effects of an enormous number of social, political and economic influences that may also result in changed conditions in project communities during the period of project implementation. However, drawing upon the direct experience of men and women within the project community to assist in the definition and measurement of impacts can assess meaningful causalities and linkages.\(^{35}\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4: A gender responsive evaluation of the project outcomes requires attention to the following social dimensions of the project</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Evaluation of the implementation process</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The questions that were asked for analysis of the implementation stage of the project need to be revisited during the project completion to evaluate the extent to which plans to integrate gender into project activities and processes were successful, and to identify factors that promoted or hindered this goal. In particular, lessons learned from analysis of the implementation process contribute to policy dialogue and to planning for future projects. Note that recognizing problems and failures, and identifying what project processes and components did not work well, can make as valuable a contribution to process analysis as listing successful approaches.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Evaluation of project outcomes and impacts for men and women</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A comprehensive evaluation of gender-specific project outcomes and impacts need to be designed to address three major areas of interest: to what extent did the project promote the World Bank social development goals of social inclusion, cohesion and accountability; how effective was the project in addressing major cross-cutting gender issues; and what was the impact of the sector-specific gender-related project components.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have the intended project benefits been provided to both men and women, particularly to the poorer men and women within the community?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did the project increase community capacity to work together to achieve common goals and reconcile differences of interest between men and women?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did the project increase transparency, equity and responsiveness in institutional and organizational structures relevant to both men’s and women’s interests?</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

\(^{35}\) For a discussion of the challenges involved in evaluating gender impact, see World Bank (2000).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Evaluating project efficacy in addressing major cross-cutting gender issues</strong></th>
<th>How sustainable are the gender-related improvements likely to be after project completion? Were changes community-driven and supported, or motivated primarily by the project? What aspects of the local, regional or national environment are likely to increase or decrease the likelihood that these changes will be institutionalized within the project community?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Did the project alter gender relations or enhance gender equity? In what ways? What specific outcomes can be identified at the institutional, inter-household and intra-household level?</strong></td>
<td>Did gender disparities in access decrease as a result of the project? For example: was land made available equally to female- and male-headed households? Did female household heads avail themselves of this opportunity? Did the percentage of women receiving prenatal care increase after construction of local healthcare units?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Did the project reduce gender disparities in workloads?</strong></td>
<td>Did the project reduce gender disparities in workloads? Did the project increase the amount of time women have available for productive or income-earning activities? For example: did the installation of piped water to the community reduce the amount of time women spend collecting water for household use?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Did the project decrease gender disparities in income-earning ability? For example:</strong></td>
<td>Did the project decrease gender disparities in income-earning ability? For example: did projects providing educational grants to girls increase the percentage of girls completing high school education? Did both men and women farmers receive training in modern methods of crop production? Did crop yields increase after training?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Evaluating the impact of sector-specific gender-related project components</strong></td>
<td>Gender-specific project components will naturally vary according to sector. Sector modules currently being developed for the Social Analysis Sourcebook, as well as existing sector-specific workbooks and guidelines for gender-responsive social analysis can assist in the measurement of sector-specific outcomes. Annex 2 also lists sector-specific resources for evaluation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
References


Pyne, Hnin Hnin, Mariam Claeson and Maria Correia. 2002. Gender Dimensions of Alcohol Consumption and Alcohol-related problems in Latin America and the Caribbean. World Bank, Washington, DC.


ANNEX 1: PRIMER ON GENDER

What is gender?
Gender is both a biological and a social concept. At the biological level, it refers to whether a person is male or female, as determined at the birth of an individual. There is no choice about this – biological gender is an ascribed status. Gender, however, is also a cross-cutting social identity, created and recreated in the interactions between women and men that determine gender relations. It intersects with a variety of other identities, including class, race and ethnicity, age, religion and family structures, among others. Every society creates rules and expectations about rights and responsibilities based on gender, although these rules and expectations typically vary between societies and change over time.

Why is gender relevant to international development?
In every society, to a greater or lesser extent, men and women tend to play different social and economic roles, to be assigned differing responsibilities, and to differ in their access to human, social and productive resources. It follows that they may have different capabilities, needs, interests and priorities, and may bring different capabilities and contributions to development initiatives. In many countries, men have more rights and opportunities than women, and recognition of this fact has spurred the increasing priority given to gender equality and the empowerment of women as development goals. Research from around the world has shown that gender inequality tends to slow economic growth and hinder poverty alleviation. Tapping the capabilities and addressing the needs of both women and men promotes equity and enhances the efficacy, efficiency and sustainability of development initiatives.

How does the World Bank view gender?
The World Bank views the promotion of gender equality and the empowerment of women as an integral and necessary dimension of efforts to reduce poverty and enhance economic growth. Increasingly, gender responsive approaches to development are mainstreamed into social analysis and project planning within the Bank. It is worth noting that this approach includes the recognition that men as well as women are gendered beings, and that gender-responsive policies should take into account the gender-specific needs of men as well as women. For example, health care access and facilities tend to be geared toward the health needs of women and children rather than men, yet men also have gender-specific health problems including, higher rates of alcoholism and drug abuse, and premature death.

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For an overview of the theoretical underpinnings of the World Bank’s approach to gender, and of strategies for integrating this approach into development work, see World Bank (2001a) and World Bank (2002b) respectively. For an account of progress in implementing the Bank’s gender mainstreaming strategy, see World Bank (2004b).

37 For a discussion of both the rationale for addressing male gender issues, and of the reasons why some practitioners find doing so problematic, see Chant and Gutmann (2000).

What is gender analysis?

Men and women constitute two potentially different categories of stakeholders, with varying needs, capabilities, resources and preferences. In specific instances, male and female interests may coincide, but it is important to consider the social norms and expectations pertaining to men and women in any given society, and they matter for development purposes, in particular, how gender differentials and inequity affect development outcomes.

Gender analysis includes the following:

- **Intrahousehold dynamics** concern the different roles members in a family play, and their differing access to and control of household resources. Development interventions that affect any one member of the household will be likely to have either positive or negative effects on other members; gender analysis requires an understanding of the interdependent relationships between the men and women in a household, with particular attention to issues of power, decision-making roles, resource allocation, and conflict/consensus.

- **Interhousehold relations** concern how individuals, and households as units, belong to larger social and economic groups associated with their work, religion, politics or extended family. Gender analysis involves understanding the ways in which these relationships operate, and the gender differences in roles, functions, and access.

**Gender-responsive social analysis or stand-alone gender analysis?**

If an initial social analysis flags gender issues of particular concern in the context of development work, it may be appropriate to conduct a stand-alone gender study in order to focus more specifically on gender issues and explore potential problems and solutions in greater depth. The advantages of this type of approach, however, have to be weighed against its disadvantages. Isolating the analysis of gender from a comprehensive social analysis can lead to a type of “tunnel vision” that limits the ability to see the connections between gender relations and other dimensions of social relations that together create the overall social environment. Gender relations are affected by the wider historical, socioeconomic, cultural, religious and political climate of a particular society, and to address gender issues effectively this larger enabling environment needs to be taken into account.

For example, it may be assumed that gender is the key factor in situations such as social inequity, which may or may not be the case. Situating gender analysis within a wider framework should give a more valid assessment of the relative importance of different variables. As a case in point, the gender of the household head has often been cited as a key factor in poverty risk, since women-headed households are frequently poorer than their male-headed counterparts. In Sao Tome e Principe, however, while female-headed households are indeed poorer than male-headed households in both rural and urban areas, rural as opposed to urban residence is the primary factor placing households at risk of poverty, regardless of the gender of the head. In this case, gender is a contributory, but not the most important variable in determining susceptibility to poverty.

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39 Women-headed households are not a homogenous group. Whether they are poorer than other households or more vulnerable to poverty (and therefore should be specially targeted by anti-poverty programs) depends on a variety of factors, including legal, institutional and social structures and customs within particular countries and regions, marital status, life cycle stage, education and many others. For discussions of this subject that brings together data from a number of different countries, see Chant (1997a; 1997b).

40 World Bank (2004a).
In accordance with the most recent World Bank guidelines for social development, it is considered important to embed analysis of gender considerations within more comprehensive social analytical work such as Country Social Analyses, Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers or Social Assessments and project documents for individual projects. This is not to say that there is no longer a place for gender “modules” or other studies that focus on gender as a primary issue, but rather to recognize that gender essentially constitutes one interactive dimension of a more comprehensive socioeconomic environment, and should be considered as part of the whole complex of social relationships.

**When should gender-responsive social analysis be done?**

Gender-responsive social analysis should be:

- **Integrated into social analysis at all levels**, given its importance as a key social and economic variable, including upstream macro-level analysis, project appraisal, and social assessment during the project cycle.\(^{41}\)

- **Conducted for all sectors where social analysis is relevant**. In the past, gender analysis has been associated primarily with the “soft” sectors such as health and education, and is gaining greater attention by the “hard” sectors including the water, transport and ICT sectors, for which it is equally relevant.

- **Considered an iterative and ongoing process**, carried out at appropriate intervals throughout a project, from the early planning stages through monitoring of implementation and post-project evaluation. Once a project is underway, there is a tendency for the gender dimension of social analysis to “fade” or vanish, for reasons to be discussed later in this Note, and particular attention should be paid to avoiding this.

\(^{41}\) For a comprehensive guide to the current World Bank approach to social analysis, see the Social Analysis Sourcebook (World Bank, 2003b).
ANNEX 2: REGIONAL GENDER ISSUES

Gender Issues in the Africa Region

- **Governance and women’s representation**: Both formal and customary legal systems tend to discriminate against women with respect to land title and property rights; women are poorly represented in local and national decision-making structures.

- **Access to productive resources**: Women play a greater productive role than men in agriculture, especially in food crop production, but their productive activities have limited recognition, and they have limited access to agricultural resources such as land, labor, equipment, transport, financial services and training.

- **Time poverty and work burden**: Poor women tend to work longer hours than men: Due to increasing scarcity and overuse of natural resources they spend long hours seeking and transporting fuel and water for domestic use; inadequate access to time- and labor-saving resources such as alternative means of transport, modern fuels, and energy-saving stoves unduly increases time spent on domestic chores; and young girls are frequently kept out of school to share household work burdens.

- **Education**: Gender gaps in school enrollment and attainment are large in many countries: girls are more likely to be kept at home to provide labor; cultural norms discourage female education; and girl students are vulnerable to predatory behavior both traveling to, and at, school.

- **Health**: Maternal and infant/child mortality and morbidity remain high; nutritional deficits have been found to be more likely in women than men in some countries. Child marriage practices have many health issues associated with them, especially related to child birth. Genital cutting and its health complications continues to be a controversial issue in some countries in Africa. Men must often leave their families and communities for long periods to work; they are exposed to hazardous work conditions, often excessive hours of labor, and social-related health risks, and normally have little access to health care.

- **HIV/AIDS**: The impact of HIV/AIDS on women may also be greater, especially in terms of coping and care. Social norms may limit men’s willingness to adopt responsible sexual behavior patterns or to seek appropriate health care. For both men and women, mother-to-child transmission, increasing numbers of AIDS orphans, inadequate health services and medicines, and concentration of deaths among younger men and women of working age, are extremely serious problems.

- **Socialization of male identity**: This is critical to the analysis of two of the most pressing social issues in Africa--conflict and violence, and sex and HIV/AIDS—are directly related to how masculinities are socially constructed. More attention must be given to gender hierarchies that subjugate some groups of men, particularly young men, in order to address the complex social problems of conflict and HIV/AIDS.42

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42 Barker and Ricardo (2005).
Gender Issues in the East Asia & the Pacific Region

- **Governance and women’s representation:** Particularly in developing countries in this region, women are poorly represented in governance, and their needs and interests tend not to be heard. All countries have formal gender equality policies but weak structures and processes for implementation limit their effectiveness.

- **Access to productive resources:** Rural women have limited access to productive resources and land title; in urban areas, women are less likely than men to find employment in the formal sector, and work conditions and pay often discriminate against women.

- **Time poverty and work burden:** Women increasingly experience double workloads as they move into the workforce while still carrying the burden of domestic chores and childrearing.

- **Education:** Some countries have greatly reduced gender gaps in literacy, while this is still a major issue in others.

- **Health:** Some individual countries have made great progress in improving women’s health; male health and HIV/AIDS are emerging issues in some countries.

- **Gender-based violence:** Domestic violence is a major issue; gender-differentiated impacts of conflict and post-conflict situations, and trafficking of women and children are increasing problems.

Gender Issues in the Europe & Central Asia Region

- **Governance and women’s representation:** Some forms of legal discrimination have re-emerged, and infrastructures that encouraged or enforced gender equality have been weakened.

- **Access to productive resources:** Women often have less access to labor and capital than men in emerging markets, and discrimination in the labor market has increased.

- **Time poverty and work burden.** State-provided family services such as child-care have eroded; as a result, women’s responsibility for family maintenance has become heavier, while men’s participation in household work has increased little; it has thus become harder for women to participate in the labor force.

- **Education:** Overall educational opportunities for both boys and girls have deteriorated, as State support has decreased; in Central Europe, more boys than girls now drop out of secondary education, while in Central Asia, female school enrollment has dropped more than that of boys.

- **Health:** Access to health care has decreased for both women and men, and reproductive health services have deteriorated in some countries. In Central Europe, men have experienced a greater increase in health problems than women during the transition period:
male unemployment has increased sharply, and men have higher unemployment levels than women; as a result, stress, alcoholism, drug use and suicide have increased among males, and male life expectancy has declined sharply. On the other hand, reduced pensions have exposed many elderly women to poverty and hardship, and young women are increasingly vulnerable to the growth in the sex industry and trafficking.

**Gender Issues in the Latin America & the Caribbean Region**

- **Governance and women’s representation:** In comparison with other regions, women are relatively well represented in decision-making processes, and in general, countries in this region have introduced legal provisions at the national level, and adopted international conventions, that provide for equal participation by women. In practice, weak enforcement mechanisms and traditional social norms have limited the extent of women’s representation.

- **Access to productive resources:** Some countries have made significant progress in increasing women’s access to agricultural resources such as land, credit and training, but progress has been uneven. Women are still discriminated against in the labor market, and are less likely to have access to jobs in the formal market; child care for poor women is scarce.

- **Time poverty and work burdens:** Women tend to have heavier workloads and longer work hours than men, since men contribute little time to childcare and domestic chores even as women increase their participation in labor markets. Increasing numbers of women-headed households also make female household heads vulnerable to work overloads.

- **Education:** In most countries, levels of school enrollment and completion are now similar for boys and girls; in some cases, girls now surpass boys, and male educational deficits are becoming a concern in some areas such as the Caribbean. Girls tend to drop out of school because of pregnancy or pressure to assist in domestic chores; boys because of pressure to enter the labor force. Boys are also vulnerable to becoming a part of the growing gang-related activities. However, males still have greater access to advanced education and occupational training, and returns to education (in terms of earned income and work conditions) are still greater for men than for women.

- **Health:** Many countries have made significant progress in providing maternal and infant healthcare, although in some cases, deteriorating socioeconomic conditions have eroded health services. Unplanned and adolescent pregnancies, maternal mortality and abortion-related health complications are major concerns. While health care for women has focused primarily on maternal health; little attention has been paid to the increasing need for information and services, such as cardiovascular health. In general, health care services are poorly organized to address male health issues: reproductive and sexual health programs frequently fail to include men, although male socialization patterns encourage risky behaviors, male exposure to HIV/AIDS and other STDs, and alcoholism – problems frequently exacerbated by high levels of male unemployment.
- **Violence**: Economic, social and political violence affect both men and women. Men tend to be impacted more directly by gang-related, street and political violence, while women encounter high levels of domestic violence. Access to justice and police protection, is inadequate, particularly among the poor, for both men and women.

**Gender Issues in the Middle East & North Africa Region**

- **Governance and women’s participation**: Women are often unaware of their legal and social rights as articulated in the respective constitutions; women’s participation in decision-making at community and national levels remains low, especially compared with other regions.

- **Access to productive resources and employment**: Particularly in rural areas, women lack access to productive resources and markets and face discrimination in the formal labor force; in some cases, agricultural reforms have adversely affected women’s employment in the sector.

- **Education**: Despite significant recent increases in gender equality in education, gender gaps in literacy levels and school enrollment are still an issue, especially in rural areas; girls have few opportunities for training in non-traditional issues; textbooks and other classroom materials contain negative gender stereotypes. Moreover, to a greater extent than in other regions, large investments in women’s education have not resulted in higher levels of female participation in the labor force.

- **Health**: Recent demographic trends show lower fertility levels and increased life expectancy among women. However, access to reproductive health services remains poor, especially in rural areas, and there are few female social workers to serve women clients; female nutrition tends to be poor; and health care for victims of violence, particularly for women, is largely lacking.

- **Gender roles**: Gender roles and intra household gender relations are still strongly influenced by a traditional gender paradigm that emphasizes the family rather than the individual, complementary rather than equal gender roles, definition of men as sole family breadwinners, a code of modesty that restricts interactions between men and women and women’s ability to work and travel, and an unequal balance of power in private life that is based in family laws.

**Gender Issues in the South Asia Region**

- **Governance and legal reform**: National constitutions prohibit discrimination against women, but legal systems still include discriminatory laws that hinder compliance. Systems of reservation in several countries enable women to be elected to local or higher-level governing bodies, but capacity building is needed to enable effective participation in governance by women. In some cases, regulations designed to protect women actually limit their opportunities in labor markets and their income-earning capabilities.
• **Access to productive resources and employment:** Women often have very limited access to productive resources and markets, and face discrimination in hiring and pay in the formal employment sector; women also are more likely to be unemployed than men.

• **Education:** Gender gaps in schooling and literacy remain high in many areas.

• **Health:** Domestic violence is a major issue, with increasing reports of burnings and “honor killings” in some areas. Local judicial and police structures provide little protection for women, and may sometimes exacerbate situations of violence against women.

• **An increasingly male-based sex ratio:** An indicator of gender disadvantage in this region, is associated with female infanticide or neglect of female babies and young girls, particularly among the poor; and increasingly, with the capacity for sex-selective pregnancy termination among the middle class.
ANNEX 3: CROSS-REGIONAL AND REGIONAL GENDER RESOURCES

A number of excellent websites now exist that provide useful resources for gender-responsive social analysis. Although they vary in the way they are organized, and in the extent and types of information they provide, they typically include material on key gender issues and initiatives at the national or regional level; sector-specific notes, toolkits and checklists; research and publications (including Country Gender Assessments); project-level good practices and examples of gendered analysis; links to related websites; and other sources of useful information or technical assistance.

While certain websites serve as useful resources for gender-responsive social analysis across regions, others are regionally specific. This Annex does not provide a comprehensive listing, but rather suggests useful “gateway” sites that serve as starting points in searching for both cross-regional and region-specific resources.

Similarly, although many gender issues have relevance across regions, certain dimensions of individual issues may be of particular concern in specific regions. This Annex highlights some of these region-specific concerns.

Websites Providing Multi-regional Information

- The World Bank Gender website: http://www.worldbank.org/gender provides extensive material on gender and development, and offers links to related World Bank sites, and to many external gender and development resources, including other international development agencies, women’s NGOs and other organizations.


- The USAID Women in Development website: http://www.usaid.gov/our_work/cross-cutting_programs/wid. Click on Resources for lists of resources and links to other websites, by region.


- The IDS-BRIDGE website: http://www.bridge.ids.ac.uk. BRIDGE is a specialized gender and development research and information service within the Institute of Development Studies (IDS) in the United Kingdom. Click on Country Studies for analysis of gender issues by country or region. This site also provides a direct link to SIYANDA, a useful IDS-supported site for data and other resources by country.

• The Women in Development Network (WIDNET) site: http://www.focusintl.com, for various resources and links, including a list of women’s organizations, including those that work in specific regions or countries.

• Associations for Women’s Rights in Development: http://awid.org/

• Gender At Work: http://www.genderatwork.org/index.php

• UNIFEM is the women’s fund at the United Nations. It provides financial and technical assistance to innovative programs and strategies to foster women’s empowerment and gender equality. http://www.unifem.org/

**World Bank Websites Providing Information on Specific Regions**

• See also the preceding list of multi-regional websites with sections on specific regions and countries, of various development organizations

• **Africa:** http://www.worldbank.org/gender; click on “Regional and Thematic Gender Web Sites” / “Africa Region Site”. Note particularly the Country Gender Profiles for many individual countries, Country Gender Databases, and Data Resources and Contacts (country contacts for NGOs and others). Also note links to other organizations such as the African Development Bank: http://www.afdb.org; (click on Development Topics, Gender).

• **East Asia and the Pacific:** http://www.worldbank.org/gender; click on “Regional and Thematic Gender Web Sites” / “East Asia and the Pacific Region Site”.

• **Europe and Central Asia:** http://www.worldbank.org/gender; click on “Regional and Thematic Gender Web Sites” / “Europe and Central Asia Region Site”. Note particularly the country gender profiles for 7 countries.

• **Latin America and the Caribbean:** http://www.worldbank.org/gender; click on “Regional and Thematic Gender Web Sites” / “Latin America and the Caribbean Region Site”. Note sections on LAC Gender Database (statistics by country), Country Gender Assessments (under Publications), and Related Links (for example, to gender-related regional organizations, and to National Women’s Machineries in the LAC region.

• **Middle East and North Africa:** http://www.worldbank.org/gender; click on “Regional and Thematic Gender Web Sites” / “Middle East and North Africa Region Site”. Note the Work in Progress section that lists MENA ratification of international conventions on gender by country, the Gender in MNA Note, and Selected Gender Statistics by country.

• **South Asia Region:** at present, there is no specific World Bank Gender site for this region, but some insights on gender issues, for example the negative effects of tight business regulations designed to protect women, can be found at the World Bank South Asia Region website: http://www.worldbank.org/sar.
ANNEX 4: PARTICIPATORY SOCIAL ASSESSMENT TOOLS

Tools: A variety of participatory tools have been used at the district or village level with some success. Note that these tools can appropriately be used not only during the project identification and design process, but also during project implementation and for monitoring and evaluation purposes. Participatory tools include, but are by no means limited to, the following:

- **Work activity calendars**: Conducted on a daily, weekly or monthly basis, activity calendars are used to identify by gender the person responsible for productive and income-earning activities such as agricultural production, care of livestock, agro-processing, collection of fuel and water, marketing and hiring out as labor; for household maintenance tasks such as childcare, meal preparation and healthcare; and for community management activities such as maintenance of local water and sanitation infrastructures or participation in community kitchens for joint food purchases, preparation and distribution. They also provide information on gender differences in time spent on different activities.

- **Walking tours through the community**. Social scientists accompany community members who point out physical features of the village or district, and identify community resources or problems. It is useful to participate in separate walks with men and women, and with poorer individuals as well as community leaders, as they may consider different features to be of importance, and may interpret the same features in very different ways.

- **Spatial maps**. Community members indicate, by gender, on maps of fields or enterprises, who is responsible for productive activities, who provides labor, and who controls resources, outputs or benefits. Spatial maps provide clear pictures of access to productive resources – constraints, participants, and beneficiaries. They can also be used to map social networks, gender differences in use of community resources, and other patterns that throw light on social and gender relations.

- **Focus groups**. Small representative groups of community members gather to identify priorities and concerns, and to discuss in depth specific issues of relevance to the project, using a relatively loose structure and open-ended questions. It is often useful to conduct separate focus groups with men and women, perhaps followed by joint meetings that include both. Focus groups can also be held with subgroups within the community to explore particular areas of relevance such as agricultural production or healthcare resources.

- **Semi-structured individual interviews** allow for more individual expression of views, particularly by community members who, for whatever reason, are unable or unwilling to participate in joint discussions. They can also be used to tap the views and experience of organizations such as women’s NGOs concerning gender issues.

- **Ranking**. Community priorities, problems, and potential solutions identified during community planning sessions can then be evaluated, ranked and voted on by community members to aid in the selection of projects, project components, or aspects of project implementation.
• **Using visual materials.** Participatory tools such as those described above often benefit from the use of visual aids such as calendars, maps, cards and pictures constructed by the participants. They facilitate communication in situations where participants are illiterate or uncomfortable using written materials. If used appropriately, they provide relatively rapid and inexpensive ways of obtaining information that can be used to identify and clarify social issues for both the community and the social scientist.

• **Displaying in public places documents and visual aids produced by the community.** Whenever possible, it is useful to display project documents and the outputs of exercises using visual materials in an easily accessible public location within the community, to provide a record of community inputs and enhance transparency and accountability of project-related processes.

• **Creating community structures and organizations** such as permanent committees, to facilitate project sustainability and to institutionalize the role of women as well as men in local public life.
ANNEX 5: SAMPLE TERMS OF REFERENCE (TOR) FOR CONDUCTING GENDER-RESPONSIVE SOCIAL ASSESSMENT

Introduction, Background Information, Purpose and Objectives and Description of the Proposed Project to be supplied to the consultant.

Overall responsibilities. The consultant will conduct a gender-responsive Social Assessment, with reference to the Social Analysis Sourcebook and other related sectoral and cross-sectoral Guidance Notes as appropriate, to ensure that social and gender issues of relevance to the project are identified and integrated into the project design. The consultant will make recommendations for project components to be included, and for actions to be taken during project implementation to ensure that the gender issues identified are consistently addressed throughout the implementation phase. The consultant will develop a detailed plan to monitor the progress of gender-related project components and to evaluate project outcomes and impacts for both women and men. Social Assessment will be conducted at intervals throughout the project cycle, as necessary to ensure continuing attention to social and gender issues.

Project Identification and Design

This phase of the Social Assessment will be conducted prior to project commencement, and will include the following components:

Assessment of the Socio-Cultural, Institutional, Historical and Political Context. Conduct a rapid review of available sources of information concerning the social and gender dimensions of the overall context in which the project will operate, and identify the ways in which this context is likely to facilitate or constrain project implementation and outcomes for both women and men.

Review of Legislative and Regulatory Considerations. Identify national legislation and regulations relevant to the project and identify the extent to which they mandate social and gender-based equity or permit discrimination. Identify potential effects of local cultural traditions or other factors on the ways in which relevant legislation may be interpreted, and on the extent to which relevant regulations will be complied with.

Collection of baseline data on the activities, capabilities, needs and constraints of women and men in the project area. Collect gender-differentiated data on local definitions of productive, reproductive and community roles; the daily activities and responsibilities of men and women; deficiencies based on socioeconomic, gender or other status, in areas such as power relations, decision-making and the ability to influence others; differences in social and gender relations between subgroups of the community; and the contributions men’s and women’s activities make to development goals.

Identification of Key Social and Gender Issues. On the basis of the foregoing analysis, identify the gender-specific dimensions of key social and institutional issues in relation to project objectives, with particular focus on issues such as poverty reduction, equity and inclusion, strengthening of social capital and social cohesion, promotion of accountable and transparent governance, and potential risks and negative impacts of the project. The analysis should be structured around five key entry points:
• Social diversity, with particular focus on the poor and on gender differences

• Institutions, rules and behavior

• Identification of male and female stakeholders and their ability to influence the project’s outcomes

• Opportunities for and constraints on participation in the project by both men and women, particularly the poor and vulnerable

• Identification of potential gender-specific social risks, and of strategies to minimize or avoid such risks.

**Assessment of likely social and gender-related effects of differentials identified.** Assess the implications of the identified social differentials for project success, and the contributions the project can be expected to make to social development goals such as social equity and cohesion.

**Plans for implementation and evaluation.** In close consultation with the borrower and project implementation personnel, develop a plan for implementation of gender-specific project components to guide ongoing attention to social diversity and gender issues throughout the implementation phase. The plan should specify funds to be assigned for the purpose, strategies to be adopted, actions to be taken, and responsibilities. A system of monitoring and evaluation indicators should also be developed at this time.

**Methods and tools.** This stage of Social Assessment should draw both on existing information in the form of available studies and documents, and on data collected directly from the intended project community and other potential stakeholders, using participatory and inclusive approaches to the fullest possible extent. Quantitative data should be complemented by qualitative data as needed.

**Products.** 1. A comprehensive Social Assessment document for use by borrower agencies responsible for project implementation and by World Bank staff responsible for project supervision. 2. When appropriate, visual and other materials resulting from community participation in gender-responsive social analysis, to be kept and displayed in the project community for purposes of transparency and accountability.

**Project Implementation**

This phase of the Social Assessment will be repeated as needed during implementation, with the purpose of evaluating the extent to which continued attention is paid to gender and social diversity issues identified during the implementation phase, and to assess progress made in implementing planned actions to address these issues. It will include the following components:

**Collection and analysis of gender-differentiated implementation data,** either directly by the Consultant, or by implementation personnel, to monitor:
• Implementation of project components specified in the project design and intended to promote social and/or gender-based equity and cohesion.

• Gender-equitable project participation

• Use of gender-responsive strategies

• Problems encountered during implementation.

Regular consultations with project personnel concerning social and gender-related project components, to review the findings of gender-differentiated implementation data, discuss problems and necessary changes to plans, identify processes that facilitated or impeded implementation, and ensure ongoing attention to these issues.

Methods and tools. Gender-differentiated quantitative data will be collected on project participation (in planning and decision-making, implementation and as beneficiaries). Qualitative data will be gathered from members of the project community, implementation personnel and other stakeholders, concerning their perceptions of and attitudes towards the project during implementation. Tools will vary depending on the specific context, but should involve members of the community whenever possible, and may include observation, semi-structured interviews, focus groups and other methods.

Products. Consultations with members of the project community, implementation personnel and other stakeholders; periodic written reports on progress concerning implementation of social and gender-related project goals; input to project documents such as mid-term project documents.

Project Evaluation

This phase of the Social Assessment will be conducted at the time of project completion, in order to provide a full account of the implementation phase, to evaluate outcomes for both men and women, and for all socio-economic sections of the project community, and to summarize lessons learned to assist in the design of future gender-responsive social analyses. It will include the following components:

Evaluation of the implementation process, to assess the extent to which plans to integrate social diversity and gender into project activities and processes were successful, and of the variables that facilitated or impeded this goal.

Evaluation of project outcomes and impacts for men and women. This component should address:

• Project outcomes in terms of World Bank social development goals of social inclusion, cohesion and accountability

• Project outcomes in terms of major cross-cutting social and gender issues such as power, decision-making capacity and ability to influence others; access to human and productive resources; time use; and vulnerability to poverty

43 For more information on Program Impact Evaluation, see Bamberger (2004).
• Project outcomes in terms of sector-specific social and gender-related project components.

Methods and tools. Both quantitative and qualitative data will be collected, as appropriate, from men and women members of the project community, from implementation personnel, and from other stakeholders.

Products. 1. A comprehensive Social Assessment document for use by borrowers, and by World Bank project and evaluation personnel. 2. A presentation to the project community, with written and visual materials for community records, as appropriate.