TOPIC GUIDE ON

GENDER

Ann Kangas, Huma Haider and Erika Fraser
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ABOUT THIS GUIDE
This guide introduces some of the best recent literature on a range of gender issues and highlights major critical debates. It is intended primarily as a reference for policymakers and highlights practical guidance, lessons learned and case studies. New publications and emerging issues will be regularly incorporated.

The guide was written by Ann Kangas, Huma Haider and Erika Fraser. It was commissioned and funded by the Australian Agency for International Development (AusAID).

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ABOUT THE GSDRC
The Governance and Social Development Resource Centre (GSDRC) provides cutting-edge knowledge services on demand and online. It aims to help reduce poverty by informing policy and practice in relation to governance, conflict and social development. The GSDRC receives core funding from the UK Department for International Development (DFID) and from the Australian Agency for International Development (AusAID).

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UNDERSTANDING GENDER

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- What is gender and why does it matter?
- Gender relations and status in the household
- Intersection of gender and other forms of discrimination
- Masculinities
- Gender analysis and mainstreaming

INTRODUCTION

Gender is an important consideration in development. It is a way of looking at how social norms and power structures impact on the lives and opportunities available to different groups of men and women. Globally, more women than men live in poverty. Women are also less likely than men to receive basic education and to be appointed to a political position nationally and internationally. Understanding that men and women, boys and girls experience poverty differently, and face different barriers in accessing services, economic resources and political opportunities, helps to target interventions.

WHAT IS GENDER AND WHY DOES IT MATTER?

Before undertaking a gender analysis, it is important to understand the concept of ‘gender’. The World Development Report (WDR) 2012 defines gender as socially constructed norms and ideologies which determine the behaviour and actions of men and women. Understanding these gender relations and the power dynamics behind them is a prerequisite for understanding individuals’ access to and distribution of resources, their ability to make decisions and the ways in which women and men, boys and girls are affected by political processes and social development.

Compared with men, women control fewer political and economic resources, including land, employment and traditional positions of authority. Acknowledging and incorporating these gender inequalities into programmes and analyses is therefore extremely important, both from a human rights perspective and to maximise impact and socioeconomic development. The WDR highlights the importance of directly targeting the persistent constraints and obstacles to women’s equality (especially in areas of economic empowerment, educational gaps, household/societal voice, and violence against women) in order to enhance productivity and improve longer-term development outcomes. Gender equality is also important for sustainable peace, and there is a growing body of empirical evidence suggesting that a higher level of gender inequality is associated with higher risks of internal conflict.
This report examines how greater gender equality can enhance productivity, improve development outcomes for the next generation, and make institutions more representative. Markets, institutions, and households play a role in reducing inequality, and globalisation can provide important opportunities. Domestic actors need to focus on reducing female mortality, narrowing education and earnings disparities, increasing women’s voice, and limiting gender inequality across generations. The international community needs to ensure consistent support, improve the availability of gender-disaggregated data, and extend partnerships beyond governments and development agencies.


**The development of gender on the international agenda**

The concept of gender emerged with Ester Boserup's influential work in the early 1970s which challenged the notion of women as passive beneficiaries of development. She called for a focus on Women in Development (WID), to acknowledge the contributions of women’s often invisible labour. Following frustration with the slow progress of WID, other approaches emerged that criticised the WID approach as being one of simply 'add women and stir'. The Women and Development (WAD) approach emphasised the need for structural changes in the global political economy.

The Gender and Development (GAD) approach followed, focusing on larger inequities and unequal relations. GAD advocates called for a deeper understanding of the socially constructed basis of gender differences and how this impacts on relationships between men and women. They argued for an improved understanding of power relations and the gendered nature of systems and institutions which impact on the lives of women and men. Rather than incorporating women into the current patriarchal system, GAD advocates argued for the transformation of the system into one characterised by gender equality.

Further, states have continued to call for progress towards gender equality through a number of international agreements, regional platforms and conferences. At the 1995 4th World Conference on Women in Beijing, the most influential conference to date, states committed themselves (in the Beijing Platform for Action) to establishing mechanisms to promote women’s rights –including national action plans, gender strategies and legal frameworks.

In 2000, states confirmed their commitment to reducing gender inequalities through the United Nations Millennium Declaration. This was articulated specifically in Millennium Development Goal (MDG) 3 which called for the promotion of gender equality and women’s empowerment. Three indicators were chosen to represent this goal: i) the ratios of girls to boys in primary, secondary and
tertiary education; ii) the share of women in wage employment in the non-agricultural sector; and iii) the proportion of seats held by women in national parliament. Gender equality is also essential in order to achieve the other seven MDGs.

While progress has been made to highlight women’s issues and experiences in development programmes, national laws and political decisions, attention to gender is often inconsistent. In addition, insufficient funds are allocated to ensure that gender equality is an important part of these programmes and policies. Many scholars and practitioners argue that the aim of the ‘gender agenda’ – the transformation of unequal, unjust power relations – has been largely ignored.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4262
This article examines how the term ‘gender’ found its way into development and explores the consequences of the transposition of an activist analytical category onto the world of aid. It points out the simplifications and slogans that have accompanied its ‘mainstreaming’ and challenges the assumptions on which these ideas have come to depend. It argues for a renewed focus on analysing and transforming unequal and unjust power relations.

See more information on the Beijing Platform for Action.

See more information on the MDGs.

Data on gender

While high quality data is generally difficult to come by in developing countries, it is even less common that high quality sex-disaggregated data is available. In particular, data related to women’s contributions in the informal economy, gender-based violence and harmful traditional practices is very rare. This makes it difficult to fully understand the experiences of women and men and to ensure that programmes are targeted where they can be most effective. Further, data disaggregated by age is also infrequently available, making it difficult to understand differences between women and girls, and men and boys. Some research and evaluations of development programmes have relied on qualitative data rather than quantitative data. This reliance is criticised by some groups as not being rigorous enough.

It is important to acknowledge, however, that gender- and age-disaggregation of data is only the first step. Data and analysis of the power differentials or underlying causes for these differences is also needed. Ideally, what is required is a mix of quantitative and qualitative data and analysis that presents evidence of what the differences are and why those differences exist.

For further discussion and resources on gender data, see the ‘Monitoring and evaluation’ chapter of this guide.
**Gender Relations and Status in the Household**

Gender relations are upheld by both informal (sometimes referred to as social) and formal institutions. Informal institutions are usually referred to as “long-lasting codes of conduct, norms, traditions […] that contribute to gender inequality in all spheres of life” (Branisa et al 2009, cited in Jones et al 2010). Formal institutions (economic, political, legal and social) include political systems and labour markets. These two spheres interact with local cultures to determine gender outcomes.

Social institutions that have been identified as particularly negative for women and girls include discriminatory family codes, son bias, physical insecurity, limited resource rights and entitlements, and cultural restrictions on women’s movement and other liberties (Jones et al 2010). Formal institutions can have both intended and unintended negative impacts on women. For example, laws, such as Shariah, which specifically state that a man’s and a woman’s witness are of different value have an intended discriminatory effect. A policy which requires land titles as a precondition for receiving agricultural credit may have the unintended effect of excluding women because land ownership is generally concentrated among male family members. Allowing for the placement of two names (a husband’s and wife’s) on land titles could help to address this problem.


http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3996

Do social institutions result in gender differences in the incidence of poverty? This paper finds that discriminatory family codes, son bias, limited resource entitlements, physical insecurity and restricted civil liberties play a role in chronic poverty, specifically that of young women. It is therefore important to: eliminate gender discrimination through legal provisions; support girls’ participation in decision-making; invest in child- and gender-sensitive social protection; extend services to hard-to-reach girls; strengthen girls’ resource access; and promote girls’ control over their bodies.

**Gender relations through the lifecycle**

Gender dynamics and relations change throughout the course of the lifecycle. Status in the household is often determined by age, marriage, number of children, disability, economic resources and educational level attained. Girls, including adolescent girls, often have the lowest status in the household, especially in societies where families need to pay bride price and where the daughters are sent to live with the husband’s family upon marriage. Recent research has identified adolescent girls as particularly vulnerable and susceptible to gender-based discrimination including sexual violence, forced and early marriage, dropping out of school and risk of death during childbirth. Early marriage and early pregnancy can have adverse affects on girls’ health, and may inhibit their ability to take advantage of educational and job opportunities.
Daughters-in-law and unmarried women are also considered to have low status in some cultures as they are seen as outsiders or burdens on the family. Widows and married women who have been abandoned by their husbands may also face stigma and lack of status.

Families often choose to invest in boys as the future earners and caretakers of the family. This enables boys to grow up having higher status in the household than girls and better income generating opportunities. While status generally increases according to age for both men and women, it increases disproportionally for men.


This report indicates that in spite of an overall slow increase in age of marriage around the world, there is nevertheless considerable evidence of the continued high prevalence of child marriage in some regions (South Asia and sub-Saharan Africa). It also suggests there is consensus among prominent international organisations that child marriage has significant negative impacts in terms of girls’ rights and health and education outcomes, and should therefore be a serious concern for development agencies.

For further discussion and resources on sexual and gender-based violence, see this guide’s chapter on ‘Gender-based violence’ and the ‘sexual violence’ section in the chapter on ‘Gender in fragile and conflict-affected environments’.

*Household roles*

Household status determines the roles of different family members. Men are often assumed to be the head of the household and responsible for providing financially for the family, while women and girls are responsible for household chores, such as caring for children, cleaning, fetching water and cooking. While women are now increasingly able to take up paid employment, this often does not lead to a reduction in their domestic responsibilities, leading to the ‘double burden’ of women’s domestic and productive roles. The time required to perform domestic chores also limits women’s access to paid employment and their participation in civil society and politics.

While investing in boys’ education is often viewed as a long-term strategy, the pressure on men to earn money can in some instances lead to boys being taken out of school to help support the family financially. Girls, on the other hand, are more likely to be taken out of school because the family is unable to afford their school fees and/or relies on girls to help with domestic chores and childcare.
Although it is often assumed that households are headed by males, this is not always the case. In situations of conflict, displacement, labour migration or abandonment, female-headed households may be more common. These are often among the poorest and most vulnerable households.


http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4255

Is the rise of women in the labour market changing the perception of their role in the home? This study explores how women and men are dealing with the feminisation of labour markets in the face of the prevalence of male breadwinner ideologies and the apparent threat to male authority represented by women's earnings. It shows that most working women continue to bear a disproportionate burden of domestic responsibility. Women may be using their newly acquired earning power to challenge the injustice of the double work burden, but policymakers are still failing to provide support for women's care responsibilities.


http://www.bridge.ids.ac.uk/reports/cep_care_or.pdf

**Control over resources and decision-making**

While not always the case, men are more commonly the heads of the household and the breadwinners of the family. This has often translated into men making the family’s financial and non-financial decisions – such as when daughters get married and to whom, whether the wife can work outside of the household, whether to use contraception and who gets most food. In agricultural societies where women often do most of the work, male family members often own the land and make the agricultural decisions. Because of women’s lower bargaining position in the household, their decision-making is often limited and can be confined to childrearing concerns and domestic tasks. Factors that exacerbate women’s low bargaining positions include large age gaps between husband and wife, which intensify already existing gender inequalities, cultural factors that devalue women’s unpaid work, lower levels of education and economic dependence.

Women have in some instances been able to find ways of negotiating control over resources and decision making. Women are frequently tasked with budgeting for the household either through resources provided by the husband or through petty trading and agricultural labour. In some cases, women are seen as household financial managers. In other cases, while women may not control the household income, they adopt various strategies to ensure they can access part of these resources. These may include hiding money and lying about expenditures, to ensure that they can pay for food and children’s schooling. Interventions aimed explicitly at strengthening women’s control over resources, such as conditional cash transfers, can be particularly beneficial.

Interventions aimed at improving women’s access to information and communication technologies (ICTs) can also be beneficial. Access to ICTs can have a large impact on women’s lives, empowering
them by introducing them to new ideas and opportunities. Access to mobile phones, for example, can give women more autonomy, greater access to information on economic activities, improved negotiation power within a household and greater control over spending decisions. Women and girls still face many barriers, however, to accessing new technologies.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4265
How does the gendered politics of farm household production affect women's livelihoods? This study focuses on livelihoods-based interests in farm land and non-violent conflict situations in northern Ghana. It argues that the social positioning of women and whether they work on the land or not are important determinants of their livelihood possibilities.


For further discussion on women’s access to ICTs, see ‘New Media and Citizenship’ in the Gender and Citizenship chapter of this guide.

**INTERSECTION OF GENDER AND OTHER FORMS OF DISCRIMINATION**

Unequal power relations do not fall only along gender lines. In addition to gender, individuals can be discriminated against for a number of reasons including ethnicity and race, religion, caste, age, disability, sexual orientation, socioeconomic status and geographic location. When gender intersects with other axes of marginalisation, women are more likely to experience multiple layers of discrimination. In some cases, these other forms of discrimination can be more intense than gender discrimination. An ethnic minority man can be less powerful and more discriminated against than a middle class woman from a majority ethnic group, although a female from this same ethnic minority group could face even more discrimination.

Intersectionality is a tool used to better understand how these discriminations materialise and intersect. It is based on an understanding that men and women have layered identities which have resulted from social relations, history and power structures. Through a deeper understanding of multiple identities and consequent patterns of discrimination, more effective responses can be tailored.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4260
This paper looks at the use of intersectionality in promoting women's rights. Intersectionality is a tool for analysis, advocacy and policy development that addresses multiple discriminations. It
increases understanding of the ways in which gender intersects with other identities and how these intersections contribute to unique experiences of oppression and privilege.


**MASULINITIES**

Gender analyses and programmes have often come to define gender as ‘women’, forgetting or ignoring the different ways in which men and boys are affected by gender power structures and systems and how this intersects with different axes of power. Like women, men play diverse roles in society, the economy and household. Men have multiple ‘masculinities’, some of which involve dominance and others subordination (Cornwall et al, 2011). Recent discussions of masculinity have emphasised the need to engage with the structures that sustain gender inequality.

Excluding boys and men from gender analysis reduces the impact interventions can have on gender inequality. Putting the pressure on women as the only agents of change can also be considered an ethical issue, given the number of other challenges that poor women are forced to confront.

Where men and boys are included in analysis, they are often framed as problems, rather than as positive actors. For example, unemployment and the structural exclusion of young men has been linked to an increased risk of engagement in violence. Young men in such instances are often perceived as a security threat. In many contexts, however, youth who suffer from exclusion do not get involved in violence and can be positive agents of change.

In addition, older men are often seen as barriers to women’s empowerment. While small-scale programmes that work with men and boys demonstrate some success towards more gender equitable attitudes, focusing on or including boys and men remains controversial. Some feminists fear that such a focus diverts both attention and resources away from women’s rights work.

It is becoming increasingly acknowledged that there is a need to better understand how the gendered identities of boys and men are formed and how they can be better mobilised as a force for gender equality. For example, Australia’s National Action Plan on Women, Peace and Security (2012-2018) highlights the importance of male champions in ensuring the security of women and girls. Men and boys can be powerful advocates for gender equality, helping to reduce and prevent violence against women and ensure that women’s needs are taken into account and included as crucial elements in peace negotiations and at international fora.
http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4296
This paper advocates an approach to gender issues that includes men and boys. It shows how applying a more sophisticated gender analysis to conflict and to HIV/AIDS increases understanding of how men and women, and boys and girls, are made vulnerable by rigid notions of manhood and gender hierarchies. The paper also finds that versions of manhood in Africa are socially constructed, fluid over time and in different settings, and plural. It includes lessons on fostering non-violent versions of manhood and more gender-equitable attitudes among young men.


http://www.zedbooks.co.uk/paperback/men-and-development
This book challenges the neglect of the structural dimensions of patriarchal power relations in current development policy and practice, and the failure to adequately engage with the effects of inequitable sex and gender orders on both men’s and women’s lives. It calls for renewed engagement in efforts to challenge and change stereotypes of men, to dismantle the structural barriers to gender equality, and to mobilise men to build new alliances with women’s movements and other movements for social and gender justice.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3436


For further resources, see the Masculinity section of Eldis.
GENDER ANALYSIS AND MAINSTREAMING

National governments and donors (such as CIDA, DFID and AusAID) have developed a number of strategies, tools and resources to ensure their development programmes take account of gender inequality. These strategies include organisational gender mainstreaming, conducting gender analysis, and gender assessments to determine impacts of programmes, strategies and laws. Progress in implementing these strategies and thus increasing gender awareness and gender equality has been slow and ad hoc. Reasons for this include a lack of commitment on behalf of stakeholders and insufficient resource allocation. Gaps in the collection, compilation and reporting of gender-sensitive data also present a significant challenge to effective gender analysis. While gender issues are often acknowledged as important, states and donors often give them lower priority, considering other aspects of development – such as democracy, poverty or conflict – more urgent.

AusAID, 2011, ‘AusAID’s Promoting Opportunities for All: Gender Equality and Women’s Empowerment’, AusAID, Canberra


Gender analysis and assessments

Gender analysis is the process of assessing the impact that a development programme may have on men and women and on gender relations in general (Hunt 2004). Gender analysis can be used for a number of reasons including: i) to ensure that men and women are not disadvantaged by any particular activities or strategies; ii) to identify priority areas for action to promote equality; iii) to assess gendered differences in participation or resource allocation; and iv) to build capacity and commitment to gender equality.

A number of tools have been developed to assess gender equality progress within organisations and programmes. These include: i) participatory gender audits, which aim to promote organisational learning on how to practically and effectively mainstream gender; ii) project toolkits such as checklists which are lists of questions to help programme staff remember gender differences and potential gendered impacts; and iii) scorecards which contain concrete performance indicators to assess progress. Most development organisations have developed their own gender analysis tools to suit their needs.
Gender mainstreaming is the process of ensuring that gender is considered at all times, both within agencies (institutionally) and programmes (operationally). As these are closely interlinked, gender mainstreaming must be implemented both institutionally and operationally to be successful. A donor agency unable to recognise the challenges faced by its own female staff, for example, would struggle to understand the gender impacts of its programmes.

Since committing to the Beijing Platform for Action, most donors, national governments and NGOs have put in place gender mainstreaming policies. Some donors have also incorporated other intersections of discriminations: UNHCR’s Age, Gender and Diversity Mainstreaming Strategy is considered an example of international best practice.

However, progress with gender mainstreaming remains inconsistent, and often suffers from insufficient commitment (usually from senior management), insufficient resource allocation and insufficient understanding of gender issues by staff at all levels. For example, an evaluation of gender mainstreaming in UNHABITAT found that while the agency has sought to mainstream gender into core areas of its work, these efforts are not uniform in strength across the agency. In addition, a key challenge of gender mainstreaming is the possibility that if gender is a concern to all staff (rather than a specific gender unit), there may be a tendency for no one to actually draw attention to gender issues and to take action.


http://www.unhcr.org/refworld/docid/4c21ac3a2.html

USAID, 2010, ‘Guide on How to Integrate Disability into Gender Assessments and Analyses’


Further resources

For further information on donor approaches to gender analysis and mainstreaming, see the ‘Donor approaches to gender’ section of this guide. See also:

Gender mainstreaming on Eldis

Women Living Under Muslim Laws

The Because I am a Girl series by Plan International

The World Bank website section on gender tools.
LEGAL FRAMEWORK FOR WOMEN’S RIGHTS AND ACCESS TO JUSTICE

Contents:

- Introduction
- International legal frameworks
- Other relevant international instruments
- Access to justice

INTRODUCTION

Women’s subordinate position in society is reflected in many national legal systems. Women and girls often face discrimination with regard to family law, property and inheritance rights and employment. Women also frequently face difficulties accessing justice institutions. Poverty is a considerable barrier for women, who are more likely than men to have limited access to resources and thus face higher levels of poverty. Women also face institutional barriers to access justice. Few women are represented in male-dominated judicial and security institutions. Male staff, including police officers, prosecutors and judges, can deter women from reporting disputes or crimes. Especially sensitive issues such as domestic violence and rape are likely to go unreported due to fear of shame and stigma.

Women are not a homogenous group. In addition to poverty and gender inequality, they are also subject to discrimination on the basis of age, ethnic group, religion and disability. This intersectionality of discrimination is important when looking at women’s access to rights. Facing multiple discriminations at any one time makes it more difficult for women and men to access their rights.

A number of international instruments exist to address the disproportionate discrimination faced by women and girls. The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) provides the overarching framework for these.

INTERNATIONAL LEGAL FRAMEWORKS

Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW)

CEDAW was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in 1979 and has since been ratified by 187 out of 194 countries. The convention requires states to take action ‘in all fields, in particular in the political, social, economic and cultural fields, all appropriate measures, including legislation, to ensure the full development and advancement of women, for the purpose of guaranteeing them the exercise and enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms on a basis of equality with men’ (article 3). State parties to CEDAW are required to submit a report to the CEDAW Committee every four years outlining progress and achievements. The Committee then provides recommendations. This implementation and review process ensures a constructive dialogue takes place to tailor the implementation of CEDAW according to local conditions.

CEDAW has been used worldwide by state actors to revise constitutions, change discriminatory laws and policies, support the creation of new legislation and influence court decisions. It has also been used by civil society, including women’s rights organisations, to advocate for change in legislation or policy, to raise awareness of issues of importance from the local to the global level, and to build the capacity of key actors to deliver on CEDAW’s standards. However, the implementation of CEDAW is complicated by a lack of political will, which has resulted in a number of reservations against its full implementation by ratifying states.

In 1999, the General Assembly adopted an Optional Protocol to CEDAW. This allows individuals of CEDAW ratified states to bring complaints directly to the CEDAW Committee. The Optional Protocol provides an avenue for the Committee to comment on individual cases and was instigated under the assumption that a complaints procedure would encourage states to implement CEDAW.

The full text of CEDAW can be found at: http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/cedaw.htm and the Optional Protocol is at: http://www2.ohchr.org/english/law/cedaw-one-about.htm.

The following two reports provide case studies on the implementation of CEDAW.

http://cedaw-seasia.org/resource_documents.html#time4action

http://musawah.org/cedaw-and-muslim-family-laws-search-common-ground-0
UN Security Council Resolution 1325

The United Nations Security Council Resolution (SCR) 1325 was the first resolution on women, peace and security adopted by the UN Security Council. It recognises the unique impact of armed conflict on women and acknowledges the contributions made by women to conflict resolution and peacebuilding.

Since its adoption in 2000, the SCR 1325 has been followed by a number of other supporting resolutions drawing attention to specific areas such as sexual violence in conflict (SCR 1820 and 1888) and increasing the number of women in peacebuilding and peacekeeping missions (1889).

Implementation of these SCRs has been inconsistent. The increase in uniformed female peacekeepers has challenged existing gender stereotypes in some contexts. The participation of women as voters and political candidates has also increased in post-conflict contexts. However, gender balance among peacekeeping personnel is widely off the target of 50 per cent women. Women’s roles in peace negotiations and peace agreements continue to be extremely marginal; senior female figures are rarely involved and female members of civil society are particularly marginalised. The deliberate strategy of using sexual violence in areas of conflict still occurs with impunity.

The full text of the SCR 1325, 1820, 1888 and 1889 can be found here.


For further discussion and resources on SCR 1325 and women’s roles in peace negotiations and peace agreements, see the chapter on ‘Gender, Statebuilding and Peacebuilding’.

Other Relevant International Instruments

  The CRC outlines specific protection for girls and boys under the age of 18. It is used more widely to ensure the protection of the girl child, who is more likely to have her rights violated through harmful traditional practices such as female genital mutilation/cutting (FGM/C) and early marriage. See more information on the CRC.

- International Labour Organization (ILO) conventions
  There are a number of ILO conventions which are particularly relevant to women’s employment, including:
  - C100 Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951
- C111 Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention, 1958
- C183 Maternity Protection Convention, 2000
- Abolition of Forced Labour Convention, 1957 (No. 105)
- Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182)
- The Domestic Workers Convention (No. 189) and Recommendation (No. 201), 2011

- **Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children**

- **International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR) (1966)**
  The ICCPR is a multilateral treaty adopted by the United Nations General Assembly. It commits states parties to the Covenant to respect the various civil and political rights of individuals, such as the right to life; freedom of religion, speech and assembly; and rights to due process and a fair trial. Article 2 requires that the rights are recognised without distinction of any kind, such as sex. Article 3 requires that men and women have equal right to the enjoyment of the rights set forth in the Covenant. See more on the ICCPR.

- **International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights (ICESR) (1966)**
  The ICESR is a multilateral treaty also adopted by the United Nations General Assembly. It commits states parties to the Covenant to respect the various economic, social and cultural rights of individuals, including labour rights; the right to health; the right to education; and the right to an adequate standard of living. It contains the same provisions in Article 2 and 3 as the ICCPR with respect to non-discrimination based on sex and equal enjoyment of rights by men and women. See more on the ICESCR.

- **Declaration of Basic Principles of Justice for Victims of Crime and Abuse of Power (1985)**
  See the full text of the Declaration.

**Regional Agreements and Conventions**

**Africa**
- African (Banjul) Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights
- Declaration on Gender Equality in Africa (ECA)

**Americas**
- Adoption and Implementation of the Inter-American Program on the Promotion of Women's Human Rights and Gender Equity and Equality
Asia and the Pacific

- Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific - 10-year Review of the Beijing Platform for Action (ESCAP)
- Revised Pacific Platform for Action on the Advancement of Women and Gender Equality (PPA) 2005-2015

Middle East

- Council of the League of Arab States, Arab Charter on Human Rights

Case studies and good practice

http://cedaw-seasia.org/docs/Aw_GEL_incover050609Feb10.pdf

For further discussion, see the OHCHR’s women’s rights and gender site.

ACCESS TO JUSTICE

Justice sector institutions, both formal and informal, are central to the legal protection and enforcement of human rights. Despite the recent expansion of women’s legal entitlements, women are being failed by discriminations and gender biases within the infrastructure of justice – the police, the courts and the judiciary. Structural inequalities also act as a barrier to justice, for example lack of time, confidence, literacy, and access to information.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4307
This report explores how justice systems can be made to work for women. Where laws and justice systems work well, they can provide an essential mechanism for women to realise their human rights. However, laws and justice systems that reinforce unequal power relations must be transformed in order to fulfil the potential they hold for accelerating progress towards gender equality. Women themselves, as legislators, lawyers, judges, paralegals and community activists are often at the forefront of transformation efforts.

http://www.peacewomen.org/assets/file/PWandUN/UNImplementation/ProgrammesAndFunds/UNIFEM/wps_progressworldswomen_unifem_2009.pdf

How can legal systems in the Asia-Pacific region be reformed to ensure that men and women receive equal treatment under the law? This report argues that despite the region’s success in legislating against gender discrimination, Asia-Pacific still lags behind in the many basic issues of gender equality. Reforms must address both the overt discrimination that characterises many legal systems and the unspoken norms that limit women’s rights and access to justice.

http://www.dcaf.ch/content/download/47645/710292/file/00_Complete_West%20Africa_gender_survey.pdf

Are security sector institutions providing adequate response to the different security and justice needs of men, women, boys and girls? What steps have been taken to create internally equitable, representative and non-discriminatory institutions? The report contains three main sections: an introduction, a summary and analysis of findings, and individual country profiles.

Gender and traditional justice

In many parts of the world, men and women rely on a variety of traditional, customary, religious and informal justice systems. These systems can be more relevant and accessible to poor people than state institutions. However, they tend to suffer from systemic gender biases, with local male elites dominating the decision-making processes. For example, research for the International Rescue Committee in Timor-Leste found that women used traditional justice systems because of their familiarity. This is despite findings that women have minimal and often superficial participation in justice hearings, and that rulings are often based on the biases and cultural beliefs of administrators of justice regarding women’s status in society (Swaine, 2003).


http://www.jlp.bham.ac.uk/volumes/52/farran-art.pdf

www.timapforjustice.org/file_download/16
The **World Bank’s Justice for the Poor programme** has produced a range of findings on gender and traditional justice:

http://go.worldbank.org/ZRKEPETO#Gender

For further discussion on issues of gender and justice, see the ‘transitional justice’ section in the chapter on ‘Gender, Statebuilding and Peacebuilding’ of this guide; and the Human rights, gender and social exclusion section of the Topic Guide on Justice.
INTRODUCTION

Gender, poverty and the delivery of basic services, such as healthcare, education and social protection, are closely interwoven. The delivery of public services is essential for helping women and men to reach their full potential and realise their human rights. Recent investments in human capital endowments have led to significant progress in improving health and education for both women and men. Although gender differences are gradually narrowing, much remains to be done to reduce inequalities in women and men’s well-being. Many of the gaps in progress towards achieving poverty- and service-related MDGs are gender gaps, with women and girls missing out on vital services.

Women are often more dependent on basic services, such as healthcare, education, water and sanitation, because of their domestic roles. However, gender-specific biases in the way services are designed and delivered are failing women in many countries. For example, a lack of separate toilets (or any toilet facilities) in schools can deter adolescent girls from attending school. Corruption in the provision of basic services such as health and education also has disproportionate negative consequences for women and girls. This is because women are usually the primary users of public services and may also have less access to financial resources to pay necessary bribes.

The 2012 World Development Report found that great progress had been made in reducing gender gaps in basic services where removing a single barrier – in markets, households or institutions – is required. However, progress has been slower either where multiple barriers need to be lifted at the same time or where a single point of entry produces bottlenecks.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3810
How can gender-sensitive indicators be used to improve the relevance and quality of basic services for women? This guide offers suggestions and tools to help in developing and using appropriate indicators for various contexts. Sex-disaggregated and gender-sensitive indicators are essential for delivering gender-sensitive services that recognise the different roles, needs and situations of women and men. Indicators can also be used to challenge and inspire others to change their thinking on gender issues.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4283

This paper investigates how corruption in the provision of basic services can increase gender inequalities. Corruption in health and education provision can have disproportionate and negative consequences for women and girls. It can compromise their access to quality schools and clinics, their own social and economic empowerment, and their country's prospects for economic and social development. Mainstreaming gender in anti-corruption work ensures that women are represented at all stages of service delivery and thus less vulnerable to corruption.


http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4200

This study notes that investments in health and education – human capital endowments – shape the ability of men and women to reach their full potential. It examines gender gaps in education and health, and progress in addressing them. It finds that great progress had been made in cases where removing a single barrier is required. However, progress has been slower either where multiple barriers need to be lifted at the same time or where a single point of entry produces bottlenecks.

Services and accountability

As one of the most direct measures of government accountability, gender-sensitive service delivery reflects a system of governance that is responsive to women. Women's efforts to address gender inequalities in service delivery and improve the accountability of public-service providers have ranged from 'voice'-based (demand) approaches that emphasise collective action, and representation of interests and the ability to demand change, to 'choice'-based (supply) approaches that promote changes in the supply of responsive public services or fair market practices (UNIFEM, 2009). Although both approaches can complement each other, women (and men) do not always have a 'choice' when purchasing power is limited.


http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4308

This chapter examines gender biases in the way services are resourced and designed, and shows how women's physical and social access to services is often constrained. Practical ways of improving accountability in service delivery include: gender-sensitive mandates that bring gender equality into the remit of every public service; incentives to reward responsive performance; sanctions for neglect of women's needs; performance measurements and monitoring to ensure that outputs benefit women.


http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3007
Overwhelmingly it is women who access and use public services to meet household needs. New Public Management (NPM) emphasises empowering end-users as agents of accountability, and has influenced public service delivery reforms. This article argues that the generic notion of end-users of public services found in NPM-inspired reforms is mistaken. It hides the constraints women face when accessing services, which can limit their efficacy as agents of accountability. Reformers need to consider gender power relations when designing service delivery reforms.

For further discussion and resources on service delivery, see the Service Delivery topic guide.

**Health Services**

Although life expectancy is higher for women than men in most countries, women’s longer lives are not necessarily healthy lives. Gender differences in health result partly from unequal access to information and basic healthcare. Broader failures in the coverage and quality of service delivery – water and sanitation, education, employment, electricity – can also impact negatively on girls and women’s health. Other gender-related constraints which reinforce health inequalities include the low value attached to girls’ and women’s wellbeing and limited powers of decision-making over resources at the household and community level. Gender-based violence can also have a severe impact on victims’ physical and mental health.


http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4306

What are women’s health needs? What is their contribution to the overall health of societies? This report takes stock of the health of women around the world and draws attention to the consequences and costs of failing to address health issues at appropriate points in women’s lives. Addressing women’s health is a necessary and effective approach to strengthening health systems overall – action that will benefit everyone. Consequently, there is an urgent need for more coherent political and institutional leadership, visibility and resources for women’s health.

**Masculinity and participation of males in gender-sensitive health services**

Social constructions of gender, notions of masculinity, and power hierarchies between men can also leave certain groups of men vulnerable to health problems. In many countries, higher rates of male mortality are linked to socially-acceptable ‘male’ behaviour that increases men’s health risks, for example, smoking, heavy drinking, and engaging in risky activities. Men also tend to be less likely to access health services, preferring to treat themselves for infections, which can have direct health implications for the well-being of women and children. Health programmes that seek to engage men and boys have shown promising results – changing attitudes and behaviour. However, most of these health interventions are small in scale and short in duration (Barker et al. 2007).

How do social constructions of masculinity affect health equity? What kinds of interventions can produce behavioural change in men and boys? This review assesses the effectiveness of programmes seeking to engage men and boys in achieving gender equality and equity in health. Gender norms influence how men interact with their partners, family and children on a wide range of health issues. Programmes that include gender-transformative elements, and those that are integrated with wider community outreach or mobilisation initiatives, are more effective in producing behavioural change.

For further information and resources on gender and GBV, see the ‘Gender-based violence’ chapter of this guide. For more information on gender and HIV/AIDS, see the section on HIV/AIDS in the ‘Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights’ chapter of this guide.

EDUCATION

Gender gaps in education have reduced considerably at all levels since the establishment of MDGs 2 and 3 on education and gender equality, and the Dakar World Education Forum (2000), when countries committed to eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005. According to the statistics from the 2011 UN MDG report, 96 girls were enrolled in primary and in secondary school for every 100 boys in 2009. This is a significant improvement since 1999, when the ratios were 91 and 88, respectively.

However, gender disparities persist in many parts of the world, due to deep-seated inequalities. Twenty-eight countries had not achieved gender parity in primary education access and inclusion in 2010 (UNESCO). Getting all girls into school will involve designing strategies to tackle household and community-level barriers, such as the direct costs (school fees, clothing, books etc.) and the indirect costs of schooling (such as loss of potential income). The traditional division of household labour often places girls at a disadvantage in terms of ‘opportunity costs’. Early marriage, the low status of women, and patriarchal norms often reduce the priority given to girls’ education.

At a school level, barriers to gender equality include harassment in schools, lack of gender-responsive school infrastructure (particularly sanitation facilities), curriculum content, and poor quality learning processes. Girls are often pushed into nonprofessional courses, and overlooked by teachers in classroom discussions.

While progress has been made in closing the gender gap at primary school level, the situation is worse for adolescent girls. In Africa, girls’ secondary school enrolments have fallen relative to boys’ since 2000. Although education for adolescent girls is important for reducing early pregnancies, lowering the risk of HIV/AIDS, and helping girls to meet their learning and developmental needs, relatively few programmes have been specifically designed for adolescent girls. The evidence suggests that adolescent girls require a range of educational opportunities, both formal and non-formal (Lloyd, 2009).
Further research should investigate educational quality and relevance at all levels, particularly aspects that may be beneficial to girls. These include curricular content and promoting opportunities for studying non-traditional subjects at secondary and tertiary level.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4298
How can education for adolescent girls be improved? This report draws on research on over 300 past and current programmes and projects. It provides new evidence on how proven practices, such as curricula relevant for adolescent girls, scholarships, and the recruitment and training of female teachers, can increase the number of adolescent girls attending school. It also outlines three developmental and learning phases during adolescence, with associated learning goals and preferred educational pathways for girls.

http://www.ungei.org/spanish/resources/files/Gender_as_Entry_Point_to_Address_Education_Disparities.pdf
This paper proposes that multiple disparities in education might be best addressed by working through gender. It provides an exploration of the gender disparities, pointing out links to the social and educational exclusion of marginalised groups. The discussion is structured around three main themes: identities, power and processes, and methodologies.

Further information on education and gender can be found in UNESCO’s annual Education for All Global Monitoring Reports.

SOCIAL PROTECTION

Women and men are affected by different risks and vulnerabilities. Gender-specific vulnerabilities often intersect with other forms of social exclusion. A gender lens is important when designing and implementing social protection programmes in order to tackle these complex and multiple vulnerabilities, some of which are specific to gender and others exacerbated by gender inequalities. Interventions need to be designed to harness opportunities for positive change – for women and men – and minimise negative consequences. Gender-sensitive social protection programmes are also thought to be more effective in reducing the intergenerational transmission of poverty (Barrientos and Scott, 2008). For example, cash transfers targeted at women are more likely to focus on children’s needs - improving children’s health, nutritional status and school attendance.

However, the evidence to date suggests that gender has been unevenly integrated into social protection approaches. While some programmes are designed explicitly with a primary objective of empowering women, others only include women as a target beneficiary group, and some programmes ignore gender dimensions altogether (Holmes and Jones, 2010).
Although targeting based on gender will help ensure that women receive benefits, it is important that the design and implementation of social protection programmes responds more broadly to different gender-specific risks and vulnerabilities. Such responses might involve improving access to social protection in the labour market and extending social insurance to the informal sector, where women are disproportionately represented. Formalising the informal can help increase the likelihood of reaching poor women. Assisting women in informal social protection, like caring for relatives, by strengthening informal household and community level protection mechanisms is also important. However, this should not increase the burden of work for women. Another strategy is to combine interventions, such as childcare and conditional transfers to benefit women. Gender-specific indicators are also needed to assess programmes’ gender differentiated impact (Luttrell and Moser, 2004).

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4292
This journal issue examines how social protection has been understood and implemented by the state, NGOs, and community organisations, and the impact of different initiatives on gender equality and women’s rights. It highlights the need for more women’s participation in the planning of social protection interventions, and for greater focus on transformative programmes that address structural barriers faced by women.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4015
To what extent is social protection programming reinforcing women's traditional roles and responsibilities, or helping to transform gender relations in economic and social spheres? How can policy and programme design and evaluations better address gender-specific risks and vulnerability? This paper synthesises multi-country research, finding that the integration of gender into social protection approaches has so far been uneven at best. However, all the programmes studied had both intended and unintended effects on women and gender relations. Attention to dynamics within the household can help to maximise positive programme impacts and reduce potentially negative ones. Relatively simple design changes and investment in more strategic implementation practices are needed.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3838
What effects may social transfers be expected to have on household-level growth in developing countries? This analysis of the available evidence finds very little to support concerns that social transfers have a negative impact on growth. Instead, there is some evidence to indicate that well-designed and well-implemented social transfers can facilitate micro-level growth by increasing the ability of poor households to invest in their productive capacity. Policymakers need to incorporate growth objectives into social transfer programmes to help build packages of interventions that
promote sustainable, long-term improvements in well-being.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=1763
This paper discusses the role of gender issues in social protection policies, programmes and strategies. Vulnerabilities to risk vary significantly by gender and shocks affect men and women differently. These differences need to be taken into account when developing social protection policies and programmes.

**Kabeer, N., 2008 ‘Mainstreaming Gender in Social Protection for the Informal Economy’,**
**Commonwealth Secretariat, London**
http://books.google.co.uk/books?id=seSMLollwY4C&printsec=frontcover&source=gbs_ge_summary_r&cad=0#v=onepage&q=false

Further discussion and resources can be found in the GSDRC’s Social Protection guide.
Sexual and Reproductive Health and Rights

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- Introduction
- Maternal health
- Gender and HIV/AIDS

Introduction

Sexual and reproductive health (SRH) is a human right, essential to human development and the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals. SRH issues include death and disability related to pregnancy, abortion and childbirth, sexually transmitted infections, HIV and AIDS, and reproductive tract cancers. SRH accounts for at least 20 per cent of the burden of global ill health for women of reproductive age, and 14 per cent for men.

Sexual and reproductive rights are essential for a variety of reasons. Access to safe, affordable and effective methods of contraception provides women with the opportunity to make informed decisions about their lives. Family planning information and services can contribute to improvements in maternal and infant health by helping prevent unintended or closely spaced pregnancies among women. Adolescent girls are particularly at risk of complications during pregnancies. Sexual and reproductive rights can also help prevent HIV and AIDS.

In developing countries, high fertility rates, early age at birth of first child, and high birth rates among adolescents are closely associated with the risk of HIV infection and cervical cancer. It is also estimated that close to 70,000 maternal deaths annually (13 per cent) are due to unsafe abortions.

In 1994, the International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD) agreed the goal of reproductive health for all by 2015. Although countries have turned ICPD commitments into policies and action, increased access to a range of family planning options, and in some countries reduced maternal deaths, further and faster progress is needed. In 2007, the target of universal access to reproductive health was added to MDG5.

Worldwide, more than 120 million women aged 15 to 49 who are married or in a union have an unmet need for family planning (UN, 2011). The unmet need for contraceptives remains particularly high in sub-Saharan Africa, where SRH programmes have developed slowly and failed to reach enough disadvantaged women and adolescent girls, who are more vulnerable to poor health outcomes. Where country policies, budgets and programmes have reflected the ICPD goals, there has been progress (UNFPA, 2008).


Sexual and reproductive health is a human right, essential to human development and the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals. This paper reviews achievements since the 1994 International Conference on Population and Development, and sets out DFID’s position on sexual and reproductive health and rights, and its view of the future. Important progress has been made, but much remains to be done to achieve universal access to reproductive health services by 2015.

Although the marriage of adolescent girls has been declining in many regions of the world, significant proportions are still marrying at a young age. Early marriage is most common in sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia and Central America. This report focuses on the relationship of age of marriage with: age of onset of sexual activity; timing of first pregnancy and spacing of births; use of contraception and the level of unintended pregnancies; and vulnerability to HIV and other STIs.

MATERNAL HEALTH

Improving maternal health is one of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). In developing regions as a whole, the maternal mortality ratio dropped by 34 per cent between 1990 and 2008, from 440 maternal deaths per 100,000 live births to 290 maternal deaths. However, the MDG target of reducing the maternal mortality ratio by three quarters between 1990 and 2015 is still far off, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa where the ratio has fallen by only 26 per cent (UN, 2011).

Most maternal deaths are caused by major complications, including: severe bleeding (mostly bleeding after childbirth); infections (usually after childbirth); high blood pressure during pregnancy (pre-eclampsia and eclampsia); obstructed labour; and unsafe abortion. Antenatal health problems such as poor nutrition, hypertension, anaemia and malaria also contribute significantly to the risk of neonatal death. Studies have shown that the likelihood of maternal death increases among women who have many children, are poorly educated, are either very young or old, and who are subjected to gender discrimination.

A large proportion of maternal deaths are preventable with access to antenatal care in pregnancy, skilled care during childbirth, and care and support in the weeks after childbirth. High maternal mortality rates can be attributed to failing health systems, the low status of women, and the systematic violation of their basic human rights (Hawkins and Newman, 2005).

During the United Nations MDG summit in September 2010, the UN Secretary-General launched the Global strategy for women’s and children’s health. The strategy sets out the key areas where action is urgently required, including: support for country-led health plans; integrated delivery of...
health services and life-saving interventions; stronger health systems, with sufficient skilled health workers at their core; innovative approaches to financing, product development and the efficient delivery of health services; and improved monitoring and evaluation to ensure the accountability of all actors for results.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=1548

Can a rights-based approach reduce maternal mortality? Can its focus on equity improve health outcomes for poor women? This review argues that rights-based approaches can add impetus to reducing maternal mortality. It argues that policy actors in government and civil society should find ways of addressing the economic, social, cultural and political forces that prevent poor women from asserting their right to maternal health.

http://www.who.int/pmnch/activities/jointactionplan/en/


GENDER AND HIV/AIDS

Women account for half of all people living with HIV worldwide. In sub-Saharan Africa, nearly 60 per cent of people living with HIV are women, and three out of four infected young people are female (UNFPA, 2009). Gender inequalities and norms relating to masculinity are a key driver of the HIV/AIDS epidemic, for example contributing to higher infection rates among young women by encouraging men to have more sexual partners and older men to have sexual relations with much younger women. Masculinity norms may also discourage men from using contraception and from seeking HIV services due to a fear of being perceived as ‘unmanly’.

Gender-based violence also increases vulnerability to HIV transmission in several ways. Women (and men) who fear violence may be less able to refuse unprotected sex. Forced sex involving tears and lacerations can also increase the risk of HIV transmission. In addition, fear of experiencing gender-based violence in response to being found HIV positive can be a deterrent to testing. Confidentiality of results can be essential.

Transactional sexual relationships, involving exchanges of material gifts or services for sex, have also been linked with an increased risk of HIV infection. Transactional sex typically involves multiple partners and large age differences (usually between older men and younger women or girls). Younger women (and men) generally have lower negotiating power to insist on condom use.
http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=1785
How should the international community respond to the HIV crisis confronting women? This joint report is a call to action to address the triple threat of gender inequality, poverty and HIV/AIDS. It reviews various aspects of a comprehensive response. It argues that stronger leadership is needed, more resources should be mobilised and women should be empowered to claim their own rights.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3200
This paper explores links between intimate-partner violence and sexual and reproductive health (SRH) rights in Nairobi. Significant gaps exist between formal legal rights and the realities experienced by individuals. Legal reform, improved services for affected women and better coordination among service providers are required.


UNFPA, 2009, ‘Fact Sheet: Poverty and AIDS’, UNFPA
http://www.unfpa.org/conversations/facts.html

For further resources on Gender and HIV/AIDS, see Eldis.

Further resources
Ipas and Guttmacher Institute websites on access to safe abortion and right to choose
Population Council on adolescent girls and SRHR issues
AIDS Alliance on HIV and AIDS and gender
Centre for Reproductive Rights
White Ribbon Alliance on safe motherhood
International Women’s Health Coalition
Maternal Health Task Force
Introduction

Gender based violence (GBV), often termed Violence against Women and Girls (VAWG), is violence targeted at individuals or groups on the basis of their gender. While research suggests that a significant proportion of women worldwide will at some point in their lives experience GBV, the extent to which men and boys are affected is unknown.

GBV is often divided into two interlinked categories, interpersonal and structural/institutional violence. Interpersonal violence refers to an act of economic, sexual, psychological or other violence perpetrated by an individual against another individual. Structural/institutional violence refers to ‘any form of structural inequality or institutional discrimination that maintains a woman in a subordinate position, whether physical or ideological, to other people within her family, household or community’ (Manjoo 2011). Both types involve the prioritisation of hegemonic masculinities above the rights of other gendered identities, including women’s.

GBV is manifested through a multitude of actions, including forced marriage of young girls, trafficking in persons, female genital mutilation/cutting (FGM/C), female infanticide, male rape, purdah, violence directed at lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender (LGBT) individuals, sexual violence, verbal abuse and laws and regulations that limit women’s and girls’ rights and access to services in relation to men’s. These practices are not only violations of the human rights of the individuals affected, but are also an instrumentalist approach to sustain the status quo and the hierarchy of gender identities. Women living in poverty are particularly vulnerable, as they face high levels of structural violence, including difficulty accessing health and legal services needed to address the effects of interpersonal GBV.

Programmatic responses to GBV cannot be considered in isolation from the context of individuals, households, communities or states: GBV is part of a continuum of violence and impacts the civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights of those affected. Approaches to address GBV have included justice-based approaches, health-based approaches and programmes that aim to change
social norms both for women and men. Experience shows that these interventions may be directly followed by increased levels of violence directed at women and girls. This must not be viewed as a failure of the intervention, but may signal that it has targeted the core of the power structure. In this context, male backlash is a reaction of patriarchal attitudes sensing a threat to their existing power.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4254
This report analyses the causes and consequences of multiple forms of discrimination as regards violence against women. It also considers inter-gender and intra-gender differences, arguing that a one-size-fits-all programmatic approach is insufficient for combating gender-based violence. A holistic approach is critical for addressing the interconnections between violence against women, its causes and consequences, and multiple and intersecting forms of discrimination.


**COSTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF GBV**

Gender-based violence has significant impact at the individual level, with victims suffering from physical and mental effects, loss of earnings and increased healthcare costs. It also has a wider societal impact, including lower productivity and thus reduced economic output and growth, and increased pressure on social and health services. Quantifying the cost of GBV in terms of human suffering and economic indicators is difficult: its hidden nature makes prevalence hard to establish. A number of methodologies have been developed, each of which offers both strengths and weaknesses, and these need to be assessed on a case by case basis.

Estimating all costs (including the intangible psychological costs) can help ensure that GBV is ranked equitably in terms of investment when it comes to resource allocation and priority-setting within countries. Quantifying the costs of GBV also validates victims’ experiences and shows that their suffering ‘counts for something’ in society.

FEMALE INFANCIDE

Female infanticide is an extreme form of GBV, encompassing actions such as the abortion of female foetuses and the killing of girl babies. This practice is particularly common in India and China, where millions of girls and women are now ‘missing’ (ActionAid and IDRC). Parents in these countries are under pressure to produce male heirs to guard the family line. Families tend to see their girl children as burdens, particularly if bride price is required, and as ‘belonging to’ their husbands’ family upon marriage.

Skewed sex ratios in India and China have led to an increased number of young men of marriageable age unable to find a female partner. This has resulted in an increase in the trade of brides both internally and internationally. It has also contributed to women being trafficked into these areas to act as wives.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4281
What is the impact of sex-selective abortion and discrimination against girls on sex ratios in India and what are the solutions? The prevalence of ultrasound technology, coupled with long-term problems of discrimination against girls, means that up to 35 million women are now ‘missing’ in India. Further, the number of girls born and surviving compared to boys under the age of six in Northern India is far below normally expected ratios and continues to slide. The Indian government needs to address underlying problems that lead Indian families, regardless of their class or caste standing, to prefer sons to daughters.

HARMFUL TRADITIONAL PRACTICES

Harmful traditional practices (HTPs), such as female genital mutilation/cutting, early and forced marriage, polygamy and purdah, are practised in many communities. These practices are primarily directed at girls and women. HTPs stem from deeply entrenched social, economic and political structures, and are tools used to control the lives of girls and women, limiting their independence and future opportunities. While associated with patriarchal norms, both women and men carry out HTPs. Women’s participation in these practices must be viewed within the social convention which dictates that these practices must be followed to be part of the community. Women and girls themselves may therefore opt for, or put their children through, these practices despite knowing the risks. Not doing so would mean a lifetime of stigma and rejection by the community.
HTPs, such as FGM/C and early and forced marriage, have grave consequences for girls who are subjected to them. They are practices to control girls’ and women’s sexuality. Large age gaps within marriage further contribute to abusive power dynamics and interpersonal violence. The age difference between young women and their male partners is also a significant HIV risk factor, partly due to biological reasons (immature cervixes are thought to increase vulnerability to HIV) and to older partners being more likely to have had a longer sexual history, increasing the risk of exposure to sexually transmitted diseases.

Initial approaches to addressing FGM/C emphasised the dangers that girls were exposed to by undergoing the procedure. One of the unintended consequences of this approach has been the increased medicalisation of the practice. While this has reduced the likelihood of girls contracting infections and dying of haemorrhaging, it has not changed the grave medical problems associated with the procedure later in life. Nor has it changed the underlying social norms that control the sexuality of girls and women. Approaches that target whole communities to promote human rights-based social norms have proved more successful, but have not completely eradicated HTPs.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display?type=Document&id=3607

How can research, advocacy, and legal reform reverse social acceptance of practices that violate the human rights of women and girls? This paper explores these issues through case studies from Bangladesh, Nepal and Sri Lanka. It finds that harmful practices have evolved from originally non-harmful colonial, religious and cultural traditions. Combating the entrenched social norms that promote these practices requires a comprehensive, human rights-based approach.

http://www.unicef-irc.org/publications/396

DOMESTIC VIOLENCE

Domestic violence is primarily thought to affect women and children, although men and boys are also victims. Forms of domestic violence can include physical violence, sexual violence, economic control, and psychological violence. Prevalence is difficult to assess because of significant underreporting both among male and female victims. Domestic violence is a tool to assert control in the household, but certain risk factors have been identified which increase the likelihood of victimisation. Children who grow up witnessing domestic abuse are more likely to become victims themselves (girls) or perpetrators (boys). There are also some links between low self-esteem among women, often related to low socioeconomic status, young age and low education levels, and victimisation. Male substance abuse has also been identified as a trigger factor for domestic
violence. In some societies, such as in South Asia, extreme cases of domestic violence include acid attacks, resulting in burns that can be fatal.

Legislation and services to address domestic violence have often been neglected by policymakers. Following obligations stemming from CEDAW, many countries now have laws in place which criminalise domestic violence against women and children. However, it is difficult to uphold the law in contexts where reporting rates are low. Further, in the face of a number of pressing development issues such as poverty and unemployment, domestic violence is often not considered a priority. Many individuals may also not be aware that there are laws explicitly criminalising domestic violence. Civil society monitoring and awareness raising is thus crucial to ensure that domestic violence laws are upheld, legislation is made more effective and the government is held to account.

**WHO/London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine, 2010, ‘Preventing Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence against Women – Taking action and Generating Evidence’, World Health Organisation: Geneva**

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4278

This report argues for a public health approach to intimate partner and sexual violence that emphasises primary prevention, where issues are tackled at the wider societal level and before they occur. While further research is required on effective public health strategies, it is only by taking action and generating evidence that intimate partner and sexual violence will be prevented.

**SEXUAL VIOLENCE**

Sexual violence is perpetrated by and against both men and women. It is a strategy used to assert power over the victim and to cause long-term suffering for the victim by turning an experience that should be associated with pleasure into one associated with harm. While research has shown that sexual violence against women perpetrated by men is widely practised, less is known about the prevalence of sexual violence perpetrated against men and women’s roles as perpetrators. Sexual violence is a broad term used to define violence of a sexual nature in all areas of life, including in the home, workplace and in the public sphere. It includes marital rape, ‘corrective rape’ aimed at ‘converting’ lesbian women, sexual harassment, commercial sexual exploitation (primarily of women and children), and sexual assault.

Sexual violence is often part of the strategy in violent conflicts, as acknowledged by the UNSCR 1325. The consequences for victims include undermined confidence, physical disabilities, stigma and shame. Sexual violence also puts women at increased risk of HIV/AIDS.

For further discussion and resources on sexual violence in situations of violent conflict, see ‘sexual violence’ in the section on the ‘Gendered impact of violent conflict’ and the sections on ‘Humanitarian interventions’ and ‘Peacekeeping and peace support operations’ in the chapter on ‘Gender and fragile and conflict-affected environments’.
**HUMAN TRAFFICKING**

Trafficking in persons is defined by the Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons as ‘the recruitment, transportation, transfer, harbouring or receipt of persons, by means of the threat or use of force or other forms of coercion, of abduction, of fraud, of deception, of the abuse of power or of a position of vulnerability or of the giving or receiving of payments or benefits to achieve the consent of a person having control over another person, for the purpose of exploitation’. Human trafficking is a gendered form of violence. It is estimated that 66% of victims are women and a further 13% girls, while men and boys make up 21% of victims, although patterns differ between regions (UNODC, 2009). Most trafficking is for sexual exploitation and prostitution, where women and girls are the main victims. Other forms of trafficking include forced labour, factory work, begging and forced marriage. Perpetrators of trafficking include both men and women, with studies showing that women dominate or play an important role in trafficking networks in some regions (Eastern Europe, Central Asia, and Nigeria).

Demand for sexual services and cheap labour are driving forces for trafficking, while poverty is a major factor in pushing individuals into situations where they are able to be exploited by traffickers. Despite high awareness of trafficking in many regions, individuals continue to migrate internally and internationally in search of better opportunities. Combating trafficking therefore needs to be linked to alternative livelihood strategies. To date, anti-trafficking programmes have focused on: i) prevention (awareness raising and alternative livelihoods); ii) victim support (psychosocial and livelihood); and iii) prosecution (developing legislation, training of judiciary, and legal help to victims).


**ADDRESSING GENDER-BASED VIOLENCE**

Addressing gender-based violence (GBV) is not only a human rights principle: states that have ratified CEDAW also have a legal responsibility to address GBV to the best of their capacities (referred to as the due diligence standard). To date, addressing GBV has taken multiple forms, including: legislative and criminal justice responses, measuring incidence and costing of GBV, awareness raising, women’s empowerment programmes, community-based social norm programmes, and health-based interventions. Initiatives to work with men and boys to change their perceptions around women and gender equality have also been tried. While initial evaluations suggest that including men and boys shows promising results, this continues to be a controversial issue among feminists, who fear that it will divert resources away from women and girls.

Multisectoral approaches involving the coordination of resources and initiatives across various sectors including security, justice, health and psychosocial services are required, as is the
engagement of both government institutions and civil society. Implementation of current laws addressing GBV has been inadequate. This can be attributed to: i) lack of resources; ii) lack of long-term government commitment; iii) gains that are often short lived and fragile; and iv) weak organisational capacity, both in governments and civil society. Given that addressing GBV is about addressing structural gender inequalities and harmful social norms, it will require significant resources and long-term commitment by all stakeholders.

Improved monitoring and evaluation of programmes addressing GBV is needed to ensure accountability of interventions for the targeted populations and continued learning from intended and unintended effects of interventions. Civil society organisations should be actively involved in the monitoring of government progress and should ensure the state is held accountable if straying off the due diligence standard.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4290
This paper draws on lessons from Brazil’s Maria da Penha legislation, passed in 2006, and from Bangladesh and Ghana. It argues that women’s organising is vital not only to get laws passed, but also in monitoring their implementation and holding governments to account. The effectiveness of domestic violence legislation depends on: the monitoring of policies by civil society organisations, appropriate training for all service providers, cross-agency coordination, public support, and adequate budgets at all levels of government.

AusAID, 2008, ‘Violence against Women in Melanesia and East Timor: Building on Global and Regional Promising Approaches’, AusAID: Canberra

Monitoring and evaluation


Guidance and tools


http://www.peacewomen.org/assets/file/Resources/UN/asc_genderviolencehumanitarian_0905.pdf

Further resources

Endvawnow: Virtual Knowledge Centre to End Violence against Women and Girls

National Online Resource Center on Violence against Women

Sexual Violence Research Initiative

Partners 4 Prevention

Health and Human Rights Info

Gender-based violence on Eldis
INTRODUCTION

The literature on gender and economic rights focuses almost exclusively on the link between women’s economic rights and women’s empowerment. It highlights women’s often invisible labour, emphasising contributing factors including women’s time use, social norms, lack of access to and control over resources and jobs, and gender inequitable laws. Access to economic resources, and microfinance in particular, has come to be seen as an important tool for women’s empowerment by providing economic resources that can improve their bargaining position in the household. By strengthening their bargaining position and building women’s confidence, it is assumed that women’s position in the community will be improved and their participation in community affairs and decision-making will increase.

Women’s participation in the labour market has increased significantly over the last twenty years. It varies significantly across regions from a high of 64% in East Asia and the Pacific to a low of 26% in the Middle East (WDR 2012). While gender patterns in labour markets are changing, women’s labour is still often confined to the informal sector or low wage industries. The increase in women’s employment in sectors previously dominated by men is in some cases referred to as the ‘feminisation of labour’. The term has also come to reflect the formalisation of paid work and the lower salaries, poor working conditions, and more ‘flexible’ working arrangements that can be offered to women in order to contribute to more competitive pricing among companies. The informal sector is generally unregulated and thus without standards for minimum wage, working conditions, insurance or social protection mechanisms to address illness or inability to continue work.

Women also contribute to economies through their work in caring for families. However, this is often not acknowledged or reflected in national economies, despite lobbying by women’s organisations.
Both push and pull factors have contributed to women increasingly taking up employment. In the Middle East for example, women’s employment has been actively encouraged by governments, in order to reduce reliance on international labour migrants. Women’s employment has also contributed to job creation, especially in the domestic sphere, including live-in domestic workers, nannies, and cleaners. The increased availability of (usually female) domestic workers has further freed up other women to take up employment outside the household, although in some cases this has led to migration away from their families.

This paper uses a combination of survey data and qualitative interviews to explore the impact of paid work on various indicators of women’s empowerment, ranging from shifts in intra-household decision-making processes to women’s participation in public life. It finds that forms of work that offer regular and relatively independent incomes hold the greatest transformative potential.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4224
This paper highlights the need for innovative approaches and partnerships to scale up women’s economic empowerment. Achieving women’s economic empowerment will take sound public policies, a holistic approach and long-term commitment from all development actors. It is important to 'start with women' by integrating gender-specific perspectives into policy and programme design. More equitable access to assets and services – land, water, infrastructure, technology, innovation and credit – will strengthen women’s rights, increase agricultural productivity and promote economic growth.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4289
This paper estimates the costs incurred by societies as a result of the social exclusion of adolescent girls. It explores the potential increases in national income that could be gained by addressing early school dropout, teenage pregnancy and joblessness. It finds that marginal investments in girls can have a substantial impact on GDP growth.

**PROPERTY RIGHTS AND ACCESS TO RESOURCES**

Access to resources and stable property rights is highly gendered in many parts of the world. Women and girls in particular suffer from inequitable land rights and experience restricted access to resources and inheritance. Boys and men can also be denied access, such as when the first son inherits more than the second or third son. Rights to resources may also affect ability to access other resources or services. For example, a woman’s lack of land ownership or rights may inhibit her
ability to access credit, as land is often used as collateral. Achieving more equitable access to resources offers significant opportunities both for economic growth and women’s empowerment.

Various programmes to increase access to financial services have been widely used to offer opportunities to poor women and men. While results are mixed in terms of success, evaluations of gendered targeting of micro-financial services have shown that male beneficiaries contribute less to household well-being and food security (Mayoux, and Hartl, 2009). While microcredit schemes have the potential to contribute to women’s small scale income generating activities and increased confidence, they can also contribute to indebtedness and further vulnerability.

While some studies have found that women who start their own business, gain employment, or own property or land experience a lower incidence of domestic violence, other studies show a higher incidence. This is particularly the case in culturally conservative settings, and reflects the impact of shifting power dynamics. Programmes aimed at empowering women economically, including microcredit schemes, therefore need to consider how best to mitigate negative impact, for example, by including violence prevention initiatives.

Women’s domestic roles often make them disproportionate users of natural resources. Wells set up far from homes can contribute to women’s and girls’ increased workload. Forest conservation projects can limit women’s access to forest products and impact negatively on their survival strategies. Donors need to ensure women’s participation in programme design.


http://www.idlo.int/publications/wp2monson.pdf


http://www.gsdrc.org/docs/open/HDO790.pdf

The link between women’s economic empowerment and violence against women and girls (VAWG) is a complex and nuanced one. While some studies have found that when women gain employment, own property or land they have a lower incidence of VAWG, other studies show a higher incidence or no difference. This paper reviews the evidence on the connection between economic empowerment of women and girls and violence.
Women and Agriculture

Women’s contribution to agriculture is often less visible than that of men. Men are more likely than women to own land, access credit and fertilisers to increase agricultural output, and to sell high value agricultural produce. Women, on the other hand, tend to provide high levels of unpaid labour and grow less profitable crops. Men’s more numerous options and more formal role in agriculture can be attributed to the social norms dictating formal work as men’s domain, which facilitates their access to information, credit and technologies. Because of these norms, female-headed households often face particular challenges in rural settings.

Despite these constraints, women contribute substantially to food production worldwide. They often grow the majority of staple crops for domestic consumption and petty trading, and raise chickens and other smaller animals. Ensuring women’s access to equal education and resources, such as agricultural extension, credit and technological inputs, could therefore unlock a huge potential for agricultural growth and effectiveness. Similarly, strengthening women’s opportunities and business skills to access agricultural markets is important. Recent research has particularly emphasised the potential for educating and empowering adolescent girls and the contribution that they make to agriculture and related domestic work.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4274
This report finds that women and girls living in rural areas of the developing world play a vital yet unrecognised role as agricultural producers and hold the potential to be agents of food and nutritional security and economic growth. It argues for a special focus on rural adolescent girls, integrated into a well-supported rural economic development strategy.


http://www.ifpri.org/sites/default/files/publications/nsspbp05.pdf
LABOUR MARKET PARTICIPATION

Men’s higher formal participation in the labour market, compared with that of women, can be explained through a combination of: i) differences in time use between men and women; ii) gendered differences in access to productive inputs; iii) different levels of education; (iv) gender stereotyping in vocational and skills training and mismatches with labour market demand; and v) gendered outcomes of institutional and market failures. Domestic responsibilities also act as a barrier to women’s equal participation in the labour force.

There are also gendered differences in jobs taken up by men and women. While men are more likely to be found in the construction industry and in managerial positions, women’s employment tends to be confined to traditionally feminine jobs such as care, low skilled manufacturing, and lower administrative positions. Women’s income earning activities are also often confined to the informal sector, including domestic work, petty trading and home-based work.

Globally, there has been a shift towards the ‘feminisation’ of the labour market. This suggests both an increase in women’s participation in paid employment, and the labour market becoming more ‘flexible’. This change has impacted on both men’s and women’s employment and employment conditions. Workers now face decreased job securities with subcontracting, home-based work and part-time work being increasingly on offer.

The global economy is characterised by high unemployment rates for both young men and women. While the percentage of unemployment is higher among young women, more young men are affected as their labour market participation is higher. The longer that young people are without employment, the more difficult it becomes to reintegrate into the labour force, and discouraged youth are in danger of feeling useless and alienated from society. In cultures where income earning is seen as a prerequisite for marriage, male unemployment can be particularly frustrating for individuals. In severe cases, the presence of high numbers of unemployed men can lead to political instability, conflict and the radicalisation of unemployed youth.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4279

This chapter looks beyond gender differences in labour market participation to gender differences in productivity and earnings across different sectors and jobs. It shows that, despite significant progress in female labour force participation over the past 25 years, pervasive and ongoing gender differences remain in productivity and earnings. It argues that the interaction of employment segregation by gender with gender differences in time use and access to inputs, and with market and institutional failures, traps women in low-paying jobs and low-productivity businesses. Breaking out of this productivity trap requires interventions that lift women’s time constraints, increase their access to productive inputs, and correct market and institutional failures.
GENDER AND THE CARE ECONOMY

Mainstream economics has traditionally centred on the monetised aspects of the economy, neglecting areas of ‘social reproduction’ or ‘unpaid work’, which includes subsistence production and unpaid care. Unpaid care work includes ‘housework (meal preparation, cleaning) and care of persons (bathing a child, watching over a frail elderly person) carried out in homes and communities’ (UNRISD, 2010, p. 1). Women carry out the vast majority of unpaid care work across all societies. Despite the economic and social value of such work and its contribution to well-being, it is not included in labour force surveys or in the calculation of GDP. It is estimated that the care economy could amount to between 10 per cent and 39 per cent of GDP (Budlender, 2008, cited in UNRISD, 2010). In some contexts, home-based care programmes have emerged where public health services have been inadequate to meet demand.

Policies need to acknowledge and address the care economy and provide support to care providers (whether paid or unpaid) to ensure that they have access to social rights and economic security. Given the predominance of women in this sector, they could help to improve gender equality and women’s economic and social security. In order to develop such policies, it is necessary to have an empirical foundation that can capture the extent of care work. Time use surveys, used increasingly in developing countries, can contribute to the gathering of such data.

WOMEN’S ENTREPRENEURSHIP

Entrepreneurship is an area where gender differences are substantial. Men dominate much of the investment and entrepreneurial activities, but regional variations exist. Women’s ownership of firms, for example, range from a high of 24% in Eastern Europe and Central Asia to a low of 3% in South Asia (Simavi et al 2010). Barriers faced by women include lower levels of education, social, cultural and religious constraints and norms, lack of capital, unequal legal status and less political influence. Even where the law and business procedures are gender neutral, in practice they may result in gender based outcomes to the detriment of women. For example, while the law may dictate that both women and men can register a business, cultural restrictions on women’s freedom of movement may restrict their ability to travel to the local government office to do so.

Women’s entrepreneurial activities are often confined to the informal sector, limiting expansion opportunities through restrictions on available credit. This also has the effect of underestimating women’s contributions to the economy, as these activities are not captured in formal statistics. While some argue that women’s entrepreneurship is likely to be a reaction to poverty and lack of formal employment opportunities, others argue that they offer great potential for poverty-reduction and national economic growth.


To what extent are women becoming entrepreneurs in Asian developing countries? This paper focuses on women entrepreneurs in small and medium enterprises (SMEs). It finds that the representation of women entrepreneurs is still relatively low, and most women entrepreneurs in SMEs are ‘forced entrepreneurs’ seeking better family incomes.


What lessons can be learned from the experience of entrepreneurship development in Vietnam? This report argues that providing support through women’s groups and other collaboration groups helps to create an enabling environment for business development. This enables women to learn and share good experiences, thereby building links among individuals and groups, and bringing both individual and collective benefits. Nevertheless, the approach still requires improvement.
THE GENDERED IMPACTS OF FINANCIAL AND FOOD CRISSES

Financial and food crises often have different effects on women and men, boys and girls, and can exacerbate existing inequalities even further. While different sections of society are impacted differently, the most vulnerable individuals tend to be found in the informal sector and in net food purchasing households (typically low-income urban households and resource-poor rural households).

Because of women’s high representation in households considered the poorest of the poor, they often spend a higher proportion of their income on food and are therefore especially vulnerable to fluctuations in food prices. Women are also particularly vulnerable to being laid off during times of hardship because of their concentration in low paid manufacturing and domestic work – industries often affected severely in global downturns.

The gendered effects of food price shocks on children and men are less well understood, although in some countries such as India higher malnutrition rates among girls have been recorded during crises. Men, as the breadwinners, are also less likely than women to lose their jobs, as it is assumed that this will have a more devastating impact on household wellbeing.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4270

This study argues that women are bearing a disproportionate share of the burden of the 2008 food price crisis, both as producers and consumers. The impacts of the crisis have changed and/or magnified pre-existing vulnerabilities and shaped the range of coping strategies available to men, women and children. International and national responses have not given sufficient consideration to gender dynamics. Greater attention needs to be paid to intra-household gender dynamics, women’s time poverty and strengthening opportunities for women’s voice and agency in food security policy debates.

http://www.inclusivecities.org/pdfs/GECStudy.pdf
GENDER AND MIGRATION

Both men and women have increasingly turned to internal and international migration to increase their economic opportunities. Labour migration is mainly taken up by low-skilled individuals in gender-specific jobs, such as domestic work, nursing and construction. Overseas migration offers many low-skilled individuals significant salary improvements for the same or lower-skilled jobs.

Labour migration has the potential to offer benefits in terms of women’s empowerment through the salaries women migrants receive and the improved confidence they can acquire. Remittances sent by overseas migrants also have the potential to contribute to improved economic opportunities for the household, for example children’s school fees, daily consumables and petty entrepreneurial activities.

Research to date indicates that women tend to remit a larger percentage of their salaries than men and are more likely to spend this money on the wellbeing of the children. However, evidence is weak on whether remittances lead to sustainable income generating activities and economic growth, or whether they simply foster dependence on foreign remittance flows.

Labour migration can also have far reaching adverse household and societal impacts, however, including the possibility of marriage breakdown and negative impact on children left behind who may feel abandoned. In addition, girls and boys may migrate at young ages to provide incomes for their families. Labour migration also poses significant risks for the individuals concerned, including trafficking, labour exploitation, and different types of abuse. Many of the jobs taken up by labour migrants offer limited workplace protection; live-in domestic workers have been identified as particularly vulnerable.


What impact do remittances from women migrant workers have on poverty reduction in Nepal? This article finds that remittances play an important role in poverty reduction but that female migration can also involve significant human costs. It argues that the Nepali state and international development agencies should pay greater attention to women’s migration and its links to trade and development. Private companies and governments should work to improve women’s access to financial services.

For further information and resources on trafficking, see the chapter on ‘Gender-based violence’.
Further resources

For more discussion and resources on empowerment, see the chapter on Social and Economic Empowerment in the GSDRC’s Empowerment and Accountability Topic Guide. See also:

Gender and empowerment on Eldis

Gender, work and employment on Eldis

Donor Committee for Enterprise Development

ILO resources on women’s entrepreneurship development

Indicators on laws and regulations affecting women’s prospects as entrepreneurs and employees, the World Bank

The Adolescent Girls Initiative, the World Bank


GENDER AND GOVERNANCE

Contents:

- Introduction
- Women’s formal participation and representation
- Leadership and participation
- Gender-responsive budgeting

INTRODUCTION

The participation of women and men in formal and informal decision-making structures varies greatly between countries, but is generally in favour of men. Institutional as well as cultural, economic and societal factors limit women’s opportunities and abilities to participate in decision-making. Women’s low political representation is therefore often used as an indicator of gender inequality. Specifically, the ‘proportion of seats held by women in national parliament’ was chosen as one of three indicators to measure progress on MDG 3 on gender equality and women’s empowerment.

Women are underrepresented not only in the political sphere but also in decision-making within the private sector, at the village level and in civil society. At the local level, men usually dominate positions of power, including as religious and traditional leaders, local politicians and village elders. Women’s representation and leadership tend to be confined to areas that are traditionally ‘feminine’ such as social welfare. Women’s representation in informal decision-making processes is often more common than their representation in formal positions and structures, but it tends to be hidden and therefore not as highly valued as it should be. In order to deepen democracy at the local, national and international level, it is important to ensure that women and men are able to participate on equal terms in both formal and informal decision-making structures.

Poor levels of participation and representation in decision-making bodies is exacerbated, for both men and women, by intersecting discriminations relating to ethnic group, socioeconomic status, religion, disability and sexual orientation.

WOMEN’S FORMAL PARTICIPATION AND REPRESENTATION

Gender differences in formal representation can be attributed in large part to both institutional and societal constraints. The latter encompasses the social norms that make it more difficult for women to leave their traditionally domestic roles for more public roles outside of the home. Institutional constraints include barriers such as political systems that operate through rigid schedules that do
not take into consideration women’s domestic responsibilities, and the type of electoral quotas used (if any).

There has been considerable international emphasis on ensuring a more equitable number of women and men in democratic institutions, through the introduction of quotas for women in many countries. There is increased acknowledgement, however, that quotas are not enough to ensure that women’s concerns are heard. Two reasons can be found for this. First, despite increased participation, women are still primarily a minority within patriarchal political systems, which means that it continues to be difficult for them to have their voices heard. Second, women politicians cannot be assumed to prioritise or even identify with the needs of other women. Class, race, religion, socioeconomic status, sexual orientation and disabilities are some of the many differences that can divide women.

Nonetheless, quotas can have an impact on society’s perceptions of women, with increasing acceptance of women as leaders reported in some instances (Beaman et al., 2009). There is growing recognition that combining quotas with skills development in leadership and capacity building can have a stronger impact and strengthen the opportunities for women’s voice.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=2017
Increasing numbers of women have gained entry to formal political spaces. To what extent has this translated into their political influence, or into gains in policies that redress gendered inequities and inequalities? This article explores the factors that affect and enable women’s political effectiveness in different democratic arenas. It argues that women’s political interests are not necessarily influenced by their sex, but by their “political apprenticeship”, or pathway into politics. To enhance the potential of women’s political participation, democracy itself must be democratised, including by building new pathways into politics.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4264
This paper finds that, in India, increasing female political representation increases the probability that an individual will attain primary education in urban areas, but not in rural areas, and not in the study sample as a whole. The difference between rural and urban areas may be explained by female politicians investing more in education where women can gain more benefit from it, or by educational investments being more visible to voters in urban areas.

http://qje.oxfordjournals.org/content/124/4/1497.short
Many countries have introduced gender quotas (or political reservations), in order to increase female participation in policy-making. This report surveys research on the effects of political quotas for women on (1) political processes; (2) service delivery; and (3) social processes. There is limited empirical evidence on these issues and the research that does exist has mixed findings.

**Barriers to women’s election**

Institutional, socioeconomic and cultural barriers limit women’s effective participation in democratic elections. Politics is often viewed, by both men and women, as a male domain where women will struggle to make a contribution. In addition, party politics tends to be dominated by men, making it more difficult for women to get on party lists for election. Women’s representation and leadership therefore tend to be more at the grassroots level and in social welfare positions.

Even where women have been able to secure office, they continue to face additional challenges compared to their male counterparts. These include both male and female opposition, inexperience of the political domain and low confidence. In addition, many women politicians find that it can be difficult to balance their public responsibilities with their domestic roles.

In order to get elected, many female candidates choose to downplay the fact that they are concerned with ‘women’s issues’, for fear this may alienate male voters. It has been argued that, in order to reverse this negative cycle, there must be a significant number of women in positions of power before these issues will feature on the agenda.

In some cases, particularly in fragile contexts, women may face intimidation or threats in running for office. This is primarily due to the fact that men or local customary authorities may feel that this threatens the traditional male hierarchy or patriarchal order.

**Huffer, E., 2006, ‘Chapter 1: Desk Review of the Factors Which Enable and Constrain the Advancement of Women’s Political Representation in Forum Island Countries’ in Pacific Islands Forum Secretariat (PIFS), A Woman’s Place is in the House - the House of Parliament: Research to Advance Women’s Political Representation in Forum Island Countries, PIFS, Fiji**

The Pacific Forum Island Countries have formally recognised that the participation of women in political decision-making needs to be enhanced. However, the political advancement of women remains constrained by both institutional and attitudinal factors. Addressing these problems requires regional and national approaches.
This paper presents the results of a survey (2006-2008) on how parliamentarians are working to attain gender equality in national politics. Respondents identified four factors as most influential in creating a more gender-sensitive parliament: 1) the support of the ruling party in parliament; 2) the work of parliamentary committees; 3) the work of cross-party networks of women; and 4) the rules that govern the functioning of parliament.

**Approaches to increasing women’s democratic participation**

A number of strategies have been popular among governments and donors to try to encourage more women into politics. These include training women for political candidacy, providing funding or capacity building on fundraising for women candidates, and including women as election monitors. Mobilising female voters is also considered important to get women elected into office and to deepen democracy. Gendered civic awareness and separate polling booths for women are some of the strategies that have been adopted.

Less than 19% of national parliamentarians are women (WDR). Quota systems have been used in a number of countries to advance the representation of women. These have taken various forms, including sandwiching of party lists and reserved seats. While this has increased the number of women in political positions, they remain a minority in most countries. There is mixed evidence that quotas have resulted in issues of concern to many women, such as childcare and health care, featuring more prominently on the agenda. More analysis is needed in this area.


http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4291

This paper draws on over eight country case studies to analyse the possibilities and limitations of mainstream approaches, such as quotas, to strengthening women’s access to political power. It finds that any quota law needs to be complemented by other interventions to ensure that it has a positive social transformative impact. Further, concepts of and support for women’s political empowerment need to be based more on women’s ongoing networks of support and influence and less on pre-election moments or international ‘blueprints’.
LEADERSHIP AND PARTICIPATION

Globally, women are underrepresented in decision-making, not only in the political sphere, but also within the private sector, at the village level and in civil society organisations. This low participation is due to social norms which dictate their domestic roles and often leave them with limited time. Leadership and participation, especially in the political sphere, is often viewed as a ‘dirty’ area, from which women need to be protected. It is also seen as an area where men have superior knowledge.

Traditional and religious leadership positions tend to be dominated by men. This is particularly problematic as these leaders are sometimes called upon by states to adjudicate disputes, especially in transitional justice situations, and can thus limit women’s access to justice if they adhere to gender inequitable social norms.

Women’s leadership positions tend to be confined to organisations set up by and for women. However, as recent DLP research on women’s coalitions in Jordan, Egypt and South Africa has shown, existing or prior networks can facilitate the emergence of coalitions around new issues, for or against change.

Women often have informal roles of influence, recognition and power within the community – as mothers, teachers, volunteers, entrepreneurs, as well as community leaders. Women’s informal leadership (known as ‘quiet leadership’ in the Pacific) often has a focus on community service, but these leadership skills can be harnessed and formalised to give women political and formal decision-making power.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display?type=Document&id=3249
How can accountability systems become more gender-responsive? This introductory chapter examines how women, including the most excluded women, are strengthening their capacity to identify accountability gaps and call for redress. The MDGs and other international commitments to women will only be met if gender-responsive accountability systems are put in place both nationally and internationally.


Civil society participation

Civil society is often forgotten as a gendered domain. This can be partly attributed to failure to incorporate the household as a unit of analysis, and consequently forgetting to acknowledge the domestic responsibilities of women which impact on their time and energy to engage outside of the household.

To understand participation in civil society it is important to look beyond a simple gender analysis and to incorporate an analysis of intersecting inequalities. Understanding which women and men are participating might reveal certain groups of men as being able to participate less than other groups of women. Actions can then be taken to particularly consult these hard-to-reach groups for programme interventions.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4276
This article suggests a framework for thinking about the gendered nature of civil society. The framework involves four sites of power – family, civil society, state, and market – that are infused and interconnected by a circuit of gender relations. This circuit comprises culturally specific roles, identities, norms and values that delineate men and women as socially distinct beings. Conceptualising gender relations as a circuit frees it from any essentially given location. The article argues that civil society and feminist theorists should engage in cross-border dialogue.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4273
This paper examines community forest institutions in India and Nepal to assess the impact of increasing women’s participation in local decision-making bodies. Its findings support popular assertions that women’s effectiveness in such forums depends on their numerical strength and that the proportion for such effectiveness is around a third. However, while women’s greater presence is critical, this is not enough. Other factors – such as the individual skill and attributes of decision-making members – help make that presence effective.

Women’s groups/organisations

Much of women’s activism has been channelled through women’s organisations, often mobilised around issues of particular concern to women. Women’s organisations which work against patriarchal domination are often termed women’s rights organisations. While women’s rights organisations have had significant impact on a number of occasions, such as the women’s peacebuilding movement in Liberia, women’s groups often struggle to access funding and their scope for action is therefore often limited. The competition for scarce resources is also often a barrier to women’s groups working cooperatively together.
http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4269

This article examines how three Bangladeshi women’s organisations mobilised individuals and negotiated with political parties, state bureaucracy and civil society allies to achieve gender justice goals. Findings highlight the importance of targeted engagement of supporters and allies (so as to mobilise individuals beyond the organisations’ own memberships), and of framing issues in a non-contentious way. The use of personal networks can open up new forums for advocacy, but relying on these networks is a risk to sustainability. Ineffective engagement with political parties can reduce organisations’ influence. Strategies for empowering women need to take account of the role played by such organisations and to support them more actively.

http://www.pathwaysofempowerment.org/Rights_and_Resources.pdf

**Gender-responsive Budgeting**

Interest in gender-responsive budgeting grew in the 1990s, alongside a more general interest in budget work within civil society (Budlender, 2005). It is driven by the premise that government policies, expenditure and revenue have different outcomes for women and men, girls and boys (and different groups of women and men, girls and boys). Such groups are distinct and have different needs and interests. Gender-responsive budget initiatives provide for assessment of the differing outcomes for different groups. The aim is not to establish separate budgets to address gender concerns, but to ensure that government budgets are allocated in an equitable way that satisfies the most pressing needs of individuals and groups (Budlender and Hewitt, 2003).

Gender-responsive budgeting is not an isolated event, but an important aspect of gender mainstreaming and more effective public financial management. It focuses not only on the content of budgets, but also on the underlying policy process, in particular inclusiveness, transparency and accountability. Participatory budgeting initiatives have become a relevant aid instrument for gender-responsive budgeting and for the more general participation of civil society in budgetary processes.

Gender-responsive budgeting requires a significant shift in thinking and practice in the way that budgets are designed and implemented. It involves ambitious initiatives such as opening up the budget process to a wider group of stakeholders, prioritising equality, and acknowledging the care economy.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=2299

The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) imposes obligations on governments with respect to gender equality and non-discrimination. What implications do these obligations have for government budgets? How can gender budget analysis help in monitoring compliance with CEDAW? This report from the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) establishes a framework for the analysis of budgets from a gender equality perspective. Taking a rights-based approach, it shows how budget analysis can help monitor CEDAW compliance and how CEDAW can establish criteria for gender equality in budgets.


How can gender budgeting contribute to more effective programme-based approaches? This paper discusses gender budgeting and its usefulness in the context of new aid instruments. It highlights how gender budgeting may be used by both partner countries and donors to make programme-based approaches more gender-sensitive, and how this can contribute to more effective and more efficient development and to greater gender equality.


http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=1399

Gender budget initiatives (GBIs) analyse the government’s budget in order to establish how commitment to gender equality translates into monetary terms. Can they assist in transforming the social, economic and political arrangements that leave women in a subordinated position to men? This report examines the problem of gender inequality and the potential of GBIs as a tool for advancing equity.


http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=1433

This paper attempts to bring some realism into the discussion, planning and assessment of these initiatives. The paper also stresses that different initiatives have different objectives and different outcomes – depending on context, who is involved, and many other factors.

Gender-responsive revenue generation

Much of the literature and work on gender-responsive budgeting focuses on the expenditure side (in particular, assessing the gender-specific effects of general government expenditure). The application of gender budgeting on the revenue side has been less defined. In order to get a full
understanding of the income and gender impacts of government fiscal policy, however, taxation must be analysed alongside expenditure to reveal and address gender biases. The goal of gender revenue analysis is to: ‘identify and monitor the flow of sufficient financial resources so that gender equity is achieved in revenue generation and women and men, and girls and boys, benefit equally from programmes and services’ (Barnett and Grown, 2004: 1).

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=1644
Efforts to integrate a gender perspective into public budgeting decisions have been taking place for almost 20 years, and analysts and activists are increasingly interested in using gender revenue analysis as a tool for advancing gender equality. What are the gendered impacts of government fiscal policy? Can gender concerns be adequately integrated into economic policy? This paper reviews the literature on the gender dimensions of taxation and the implications for tax policy in developing countries.

**Involvement of non-state actors**

The involvement of actors from outside the government executive in gender-responsive budgeting is important in supporting such work and in sustaining momentum for fiscal policy transformation and implementation. Gender budget work carried out within parliament and civil society can include research and efforts to influence the allocations of government money. This contributes to broader objectives of transparency, accountability and civic participation. Collaboration between civil society and parliament can also be effective in promoting support for and implementation of gender-responsive budgeting initiatives.

Further, gender-responsive budgeting can be adopted not only by government, but also by non-governmental organisations, foundations, and other private sector organisations.

What are the benefits of non-governmental involvement in gender budget initiatives? This paper argues that performing gender budget work outside government can contribute to broad objectives such as democratic governance, transparency, accountability and civic participation. Even if an NGO carries out gender budget work in isolation from government, which may contribute minimally to changes in budget allocations, such work can make a difference in other ways. In addition to undertaking gender budget work as a stand-alone activity, NGOs can incorporate gender budget analysis and advocacy as a tool in their existing programmes.
**Toolkits**

The handbook discusses a three-stage process in the mainstreaming of gender budgeting: analysis, restructuring of budgets to achieve gender equality outcomes, and working systematically to embed gender within all budgetary processes.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display/document/legacyid/1615  
How can national budgets be monitored to assess their contribution to fulfilling international gender and human rights commitments? As part of its work supporting the gender analysis of budgets in Southern Africa, UNIFEM designed a tool to support this process. It illustrates how various international instruments aimed at achieving gender equality can be used to evaluate gender responsive budgets.


**Schneider, K., 2006, ‘Manual for Training on Gender Responsive Budgeting’, Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ), formerly GTZ**  

http://egypt.unfpa.org/FCKIMages/file/gender_responsive_eng.pdf

**Case studies**

This workshop report provides case studies of gender budgeting from Uganda, South Africa and Austria. It also provides a general discussion on links between gender budgeting and good governance and (gender) democracy; and on challenges to implementing gender budgeting work.
See also Gender: Budgets and the economy on Eldis.

**Further resources**

The GSDRC Topic Guide on Political Systems: sections on Gender and participation, Women in parliament and Women in political parties.

National Democratic Institute

International Institute for Democracy and Electoral Assistance (International IDEA)

Pathways of Women's Empowerment RPC

ACE Electoral Knowledge Network

Governance and Political Participation on Eldis
**INTRODUCTION**

Media play important roles in society. They report on current events, provide frameworks for interpretation, mobilise citizens with regard to various issues, reproduce predominant culture and society, and entertain (Llanos and Nina, 2011). As such, the media can be an important actor in the promotion of gender equality, both within the working environment (in terms of employment and promotion of female staff at all levels) and in the representation of women and men (in terms of fair gender portrayal and the use of neutral and non-gender specific language).


How can journalists and other actors working in the media contribute to gender equality? This handbook aims to assist people working in the media to assess progress on gender equality, identify challenges, and contribute to debates and policy formulation. It urges those working in the media to do more to confront gender distortions in newsrooms and in unions.

**PARTICIPATION AND INFLUENCE OF WOMEN IN THE MEDIA**

Studies have found that although the number of women working in the media has been increasing globally, the top positions (producers, executives, chief editors and publishers) are still very male dominated (White, 2009). This disparity is particularly evident in Africa, where cultural impediments to women fulfilling the role of journalist remain (e.g. travelling away from home, evening work and covering issues such as politics and sports which are considered to fall within the masculine domain) (Myers, 2009). The Global Media Monitoring Project (GMMP) reports that throughout the world, female journalists are more likely to be assigned ‘soft’ subjects such as family, lifestyle, fashion and arts. The ‘hard’ news, politics and the economy, is much less likely to be written or covered by women.
The level of participation and influence of women in the media also has implications for media content: female media professionals are more likely to reflect other women’s needs and perspectives than their male colleagues. It is important to acknowledge, however, that not all women working in the media will be gender aware and prone to cover women’s needs and perspectives; and it is not impossible for men to effectively cover gender issues. Nonetheless, the presence of women on the radio, television and in print is more likely to provide positive role models for women and girls, to gain the confidence of women as sources and interviewees, and to attract a female audience.


What is the condition of gender equality in the global news media? This study presents findings from its analysis of news company behaviour in relation to gender equality in staffing, salaries and policies. It finds that men occupy the vast majority of governance and top management jobs and news-gathering positions in most nations included in the study.

Myers, M., 2009, ‘Radio, Convergence and Development in Africa: Gender as a Cross-Cutting Issue’ Paper submitted to International Development Research Centre (IDRC) and Carleton University, Roundtable Discussion on a Research Agenda, 10-13 September, Butare, Rwanda
http://www.genderit.org/sites/default/upload/Final_draft_Gender_and_Radio.pdf

How do gender issues play out in the media? Media professionals are subject to prevailing social, economic and cultural norms. Their views, outlook and output often reflect these norms. This paper highlights the cross-cutting nature of gender issues in media practice, production and consumption. When looking at media producers, the most striking gender issue is that the industry is dominated by men. Gender issues are also prevalent in media content, portrayals of men and women and stereotypes. The paper argues for the consideration of gender issues in all research on radio, convergence and development in Africa.

**MEDIA CONTENT AND PORTRAYAL OF MEN AND WOMEN IN THE MEDIA**

Fair gender portrayal in the media should be a professional and ethical aspiration, similar to respect for accuracy, fairness and honesty (White, 2009). Yet, unbalanced gender portrayal is widespread. The Global Media Monitoring Project finds that women are more likely than men to be featured as victims in news stories (with the exception of domestic and sexual violence, which receives little media coverage) and to be identified according to family status. Women are also far less likely than men to be featured in the world’s news headlines, and to be relied upon as ‘spokespeople’ or as ‘experts’. Certain categories of women, such as the poor, older women, or those belonging to ethnic minorities, are even less visible.

Stereotypes are also prevalent in every day media. Women are often portrayed solely as homemakers and carers of the family, dependent on men, or as objects of male attention. Stories by
female reporters are more likely to challenge stereotypes than those filed by male reporters (Gallagher et al., 2010). As such, there is a link between the participation of women in the media and improvements in the representation of women.

Men are also subjected to stereotyping in the media. They are typically characterised as powerful and dominant. There is little room for alternative visions of masculinity. The media tends to demean men in caring or domestic roles, or those who oppose violence. Such portrayals can influence perceptions in terms of what society may expect from men and women, but also what they may expect from themselves. They promote an unbalanced vision of the roles of women and men in society.

Attention needs to be paid to identifying and addressing these various gender imbalances and gaps in the media. The European Commission (2010) recommends, for example, that there should be a set expectation of gender parity on expert panels on television or radio and the creation of a thematic database of women to be interviewed and used as experts by media professionals. In addition, conscious efforts should be made to portray women and men in non-stereotypical situations.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4304
To what degree is the news media democratic, inclusive and participatory from a gender perspective? This report presents findings of a survey taken on one ‘ordinary’ news day to record the portrayal and representation of women and men in the news media. The results are compared with previous surveys, taken every four years since 1995, to illustrate longitudinal trends. Women are underrepresented in news coverage, resulting in an unbalanced representation of the world.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4263
This report highlights the gap between the reality of women’s and men’s lives in Europe and how they are portrayed in the media. It proposes measures for the promotion of: balanced and non-stereotyped perspectives; equal opportunities and working conditions in the media sector; and increased participation in and access to expression and decision-making for women in and throughout the media. It calls for an in-depth study of the public image of women generated by the media, including advertising.
Political representation

http://www.idea.int/publications/election_coverage_gender_perspective/index.cfm
How can the media contribute to gender equality in election campaigning? The media has in many instances become the principal forum where electoral competition is played out. Some studies reveal that the structural and institutional obstacles women face in political competition are compounded by the lower levels of media coverage of women candidates and their proposals. This publication aims to be a useful tool for promoting fair media coverage during election campaigns, generating an informational approach that includes all candidates’ points of view during election campaigns.

Toolkits

http://www.whomakesthenews.org/get_involved/advocacy_training_modules
This GMMP media toolkit is designed to train activists to build gender and media campaigns using the findings of GMMP studies. The toolkit explains how best to work with and through the media to put gender on the news agenda.

Participatory Community Media

Participatory community media initiatives aimed at increasing the involvement of women in the media perceive women as producers and contributors of media content and not solely as ‘consumers’. Such initiatives encourage the involvement of women in technical, decision-making, and agenda-setting activities. They have the potential to develop the capacities of women as socio-political actors. They also have the potential to promote a balanced and non-stereotyped portrayal of women in the media and to challenge the status quo. In Fiji, women who took part in a participatory video project presented themselves as active citizens who made significant contributions to their families and communities. These recorded images improved the status of women in the minds of government bureaucrats.

There are limitations to participatory community initiatives, however. If unaccompanied by changes in structural conditions, participation may not be sufficient to foster substantive social change. Baú (2009) explains that the establishment of a women’s radio station (run and managed by women) in Afghanistan faced constraints in that women engaged in self-censorship in order to avoid criticism from local male political and religious leaders.

Gender in the Information Society: Emerging Issues, Asia-Pacific Development Information Programme, UNDP and Elsevier, New Delhi, pp. 96-109
http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4266
To what extent do community media empower women? This study finds that community media initiatives perceive women as producers and contributors of media content and not just as consumers. Community media encourage greater involvement of women in technical, decision-making, and agenda-setting activities and have the potential to promote a balanced and non-stereotyped portrayal of women in the media.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4134
How can participatory media support empowerment, dialogue and community building? This study of a participatory video workshop involving rural women in Fiji found that women integrated local norms and practices in their video production. They used social capital – relationships and social networks – as a key element. Women presented themselves as active citizens who made significant contributions to their families and communities. The project highlighted the importance of encouraging multi-ethnic or heterogeneous social networks in Fiji.


CHANGING ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOURS

Communication for Development (C4D)

The approach to Communication for Development (C4D) has evolved over the years. Initially developed after World War II as a tool for diffusion of ideas, communication initiatives primarily involved a one-way transmission of information from the sender to the receiver. This includes large-scale media campaigns, social marketing, dissemination of printed materials, and ‘education-entertainment’.

Since then, C4D has broadened to incorporate interpersonal communication: face-to-face communication that can either be one-on-one or in small groups. This came alongside the general push for more participatory approaches to development and greater representation of voices from the South. The belief is that while mass media allows for the learning of new ideas, interpersonal networks encourage the shift from knowledge to continued practice.

Communication for development has thus come to be seen as a way to amplify voice, facilitate meaningful participation, and foster social change. The 2006 World Congress on Communication for Development defined C4D as ‘a social process based on dialogue using a broad range of tools and
methods. It is also about seeking change at different levels including listening, building trust, sharing knowledge and skills, building policies, debating and learning for sustained and meaningful change. Such two-way, horizontal approaches to communication include public hearings, debates, deliberations and stakeholder consultations, participatory radio and video, community-based theatre and story-telling, and web forums.


How can the use of communication in international assistance programmes be promoted and improved? This report argues that the communication community needs to: articulate more clearly why communication is essential for meeting the MDGs, demonstrate positive impacts of communication on development initiatives, and conduct more effective evaluations. It aims to contribute to the promotion of communication in development by presenting evidence of positive impacts from a review of recent research in the field. It also discusses weak spots in the evidence and proposes areas of further research.

http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/09614520902866462

Citizens’ media and communication comprise social, cultural and political processes that have the potential to be transformative. These approaches and processes are often not well understood, however, by mainstream development policy and practice, resulting in weak implementation. This introductory article finds that citizens’ media and communication is about more than bringing diverse voices into pluralist politics: it contributes to processes of social and cultural construction, redefining exclusionary norms and power relations. Local participation, ownership and control can allow people to reshape the spaces in which their voices find expression.

Communication initiatives aimed at changing attitudes and behaviours

Communication initiatives aimed at changing attitudes and behaviours have increasingly been used in the health sector since the 1970s. Such initiatives – including television and radio shows, theatre, informational sessions and pamphlets – can and have affected social norms related to gender roles, since gender norms are linked to all facets of health behaviour. Initiatives that seek to affect gender norms and inequities as a goal in itself, however, are a relatively new phenomenon.

Community radio is considered to be an effective tool in promoting women’s empowerment and participation in governance structures. Radio is often the primary source of information for women. It is accessible to local communities, transcends literacy barriers and uses local languages. Afghan Women’s Hour, for example, aims to reach a large cross-section of women and offers a forum to discuss gender, social issues and women’s rights. It was found that female listeners demonstrated a
pronounced capacity to aspire, defined as the ‘capacity of groups to envision alternatives and aspire to different futures’ (Appadurai, cited in Bhanot et al., 2009, p. 13). Women developed specific aspirations in areas that had been recently covered by the programme segments. Their aspirations, however, were not particularly focused (Bhanot et al., 2009). Challenges with other community radio programme initiatives include women’s general under-representation and in some cases, the negative portrayal of women.

Participatory approaches are considered to be an effective tool in encouraging alternate discourses, norms and practices, and in empowering women. The use of sketches and photography in participatory workshops, for example, has encouraged women who have traditionally been reluctant to engage in public forums to express themselves.

In order for the empowerment of women to have a genuine impact, opportunity structures also need to be addressed, such as conservative and male opinion. Afghan Women’s Hour has a large male audience (research by BBC Media Action found that 39% of listeners were men), which provides a way to challenge male views on gender norms. Group educational activities, a common programme for men and boys, also have the potential to contribute to changes in attitudes on health issues and gender relations and, in some cases, changes in behaviour.

It is also important for communication initiatives to build on tradition and culture, not only because this can resonate better with communities, but because it can help to mute opposition from conservative segments of society. The involvement in projects of key community leaders such as teachers, cultural custodians and government officials is also important for greater impact and sustainable change.


In conflict and post-conflict settings, high levels of gender-based violence (GBV) can result from disruption of social structures, men’s loss of traditional roles, poverty, frustration, alcohol and drug abuse, and criminal impunity. Harmful traditional practices (HTP) also pose a threat to conflict-affected populations, and the incidence of HTP may increase in communities during and after conflict, as affected communities often respond by strengthening cultural traditions to deal with the loss experienced through the process of displacement. This review of development communication initiatives addressing GBV, HTP and related health concerns in crisis-affected settings finds a need to increase the number of genuinely participatory development communication programmes in conflict-affected areas where these concerns are pervasive.


http://www.gsdrc.org/docs/open/HD752.pdf
This report presents literature on communication interventions in developing countries designed to change attitudes and behaviours, particularly around gender relations. It looks at entertainment education, group education and various participatory approaches. Studies and evaluations of communication initiatives addressing gender issues have found positive outcomes. Key lessons include: conduct formative research when conceptualising communication strategies; adopt mixed methods of communication; build on tradition and popular culture; and reach out to community leaders.


**Case studies**

**Morna, C. L., Mpofu, T. and Glenwright, D. 2010, ‘Gender and Media Progress Study: Southern Africa**
Gender and Media Progress Study Southern Africa, Gender Links, Johannesburg

Eastern Africa Journalists Association (EAJA), Djibouti
http://africa.ifj.org/assets/docs/175/137/cb6f4af-8ab2089.pdf

**Further resources**

For discussion on gender and social media, see ‘New media and citizenship’ in the Gender and Citizenship section of this guide.

See the GSDRC’s Topic Guide on Communication and Governance for more information on communication for development; communication for governance reform; and communication for social change.

**Women Make the News (WMN)** is a global policy advocacy initiative aimed at promoting gender equality in the media.
GENDER AND CITIZENSHIP

Contents
- Introduction
- Grassroots citizenship
- New media and citizenship
- Citizenship, conflict, state-society relations and statebuilding
- Case studies

INTRODUCTION

Citizenship is about ‘membership of a group or community that confers rights and responsibilities as a result of such membership. It is both a status (or an identity) and a practice or process of relating to the social world through the exercise of rights/protections and the fulfilment of obligations’ (Meer and Sever, 2004: 2).

Citizenship should be **inclusive**, incorporating the interests and needs of all citizens. A gender perspective on citizenship begins with an assertion of the rights of all women and men to equal treatment. This needs to be enshrined in constitutions, laws and legal processes.

Applying equal standards to all citizens may be insufficient, however, if different groups of citizens face particular challenges and have distinct needs. Women and men may have distinct needs, and women of different ages, classes or ethnicities may also have varying needs that require specific attention. The focus on rights thus requires distinguishing between formal and substantive equality, highlighting outcomes for different groups of women, and tailoring rights construction to the needs of women who are most adversely affected by the lack of rights which the particular reforms target (Mukhopadhyay, 2007).

Citizenship should also be an **active** concept, beyond mere status and formal rights. Under such a view, citizenship is seen as a relationship that promotes participation and agency. The focus is on how individuals and groups, particularly marginalised groups, claim their rights and pursue social change. It is important to explore and promote forms of dialogue, association and collective action that can provide the space for women’s active participation and mobilisation.

Applying a gender perspective, citizenship goes beyond a relationship between the citizen and the state. It extends to a range of other social institutions, such as the family and the household, traditional systems, civil society organisations, economic and other institutions that affect women’s and men’s lives and opportunities. Although being a citizen allows women to make claims as a citizen in their own right, the identity ascribed to them is still in reality often in relation to a man, whether as a daughter, sister or wife. It is thus important to address not only state-level formal institutional arrangements but also informal institutions in order to improve and guarantee women’s entitlements as citizens.
http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=2768

How can an understanding of gender and citizenship inform development policy and empower women? This paper discusses gender and citizenship in the context of development debates and research. Development is largely inattentive to the dynamics of state-society relations – preferring instead to create new models of governance that leave untouched the political relationships that animate society and perpetuate inequality.


How can re-framing citizenship from a gender-equality perspective redress the exclusion and impoverishment of women? What policies would promote the expansion of citizenship rights in line with a gender approach? This paper critiques traditional conceptions of “universal” citizenship and argues that rights and participatory processes, which fail to acknowledge gender power imbalances, may preserve exclusionary practices. It examines case studies to identify changes in policy formulation, implementation and evaluation which will enable governments and civil society organisations to better serve women’s interests.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=2755

Why have efforts at law reform and progress in exposing gender biases in formal legal systems failed to bring about gender justice? This chapter links current thinking on gender justice to debates on citizenship, entitlements, rights, law and development. It argues that equal citizenship, whilst key to the struggle for gender justice, does not guarantee it. Often, rights are seen as accessed through personal relations rather than a contract between citizen and state. Efforts to promote gender justice must bridge the public-private divide in accountability systems.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13552074.2011.636591
**GRASSROOTS CITIZENSHIP**

Much of the literature on gender and citizenship discusses the structural constraints that women face in exercising citizenship rights, in terms of laws, policies and formal public institutions. Active citizenship can also be expressed, however, through micro-level, informal community life. The effective promotion of agency and rights-claiming by civil society actors through various initiatives can result in the shaping of active citizenship at the grassroots level. The formation of associations, in particular, has been successful in promoting agency. In some instances, women have facilitated community members’ access to services. They have also taken up leadership roles in religious and kin-based institutions. The persistence of male social advantage in more formalised spaces of public life, however, suggests that greater work is needed in order to challenge networks of exclusion.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4268

Can women’s participation in associations and civil society initiatives reduce gender inequality? This study assesses the extent to which social mobilisation and political empowerment initiatives led by NGOs have influenced gender dynamics in Kenya and Bangladesh. It focuses on gender dynamics in everyday expression of citizenship at community level. It concludes that the NGO initiatives studied have played a role in placing women in both formal and informal spaces of leadership and visibility. However, the persistence of male social advantage in the more formalised spaces of community public life still needs to be challenged.

Caiazza, A., 2005, ‘Called to Speak: Six Strategies That Encourage Women’s Political Activism’ Institute for Women’s Policy Research, Washington DC

**NEW MEDIA AND CITIZENSHIP**

The communication system of industrial societies was based on mass media, involving the distribution of a one-way message from one-to-many. The widespread diffusion of the Internet, mobile communication, digital media and a variety of social software tools throughout the world has transformed the communication system into interactive horizontal networks that connect the local and global. New forms of social media (also referred to as information and communication technologies – ICTs), such as SMS, blogs, social networking sites, podcasts and wikis, cater to the flow of messages from many-to-many. They have provided alternative, accessible media for citizen communication and participatory journalism. They have contributed to the transformation of citizenship practices of women, and other individuals and groups, who have been on the margins of political and civic life.
These social media have opened up the space for the emergence of previously unheard voices and for women to renegotiate their rights, exercise their citizenship and shape discourses of citizenship. It is uncertain, however, to what extent these new voices and discourses can lead to lasting changes in notions of gender and citizenship.

Women and girls still face many barriers to accessing new technologies and social media. These include inadequate education, lack of skills and knowledge and lack of confidence to access ICTs. English is often a requirement, which makes it difficult for women and girls with only basic literacy to access such technology. Time use is another barrier: girls’ domestic roles mean that they have less free time than boys to explore new technologies. They may also have less freedom to frequent internet cafes on their own. Women and girls may also have less financial resources to pay for a mobile phone and its upkeep or to access the internet (van der Gaag, 2010).


The CITIGEN research programme, launched in 2010, aims to explore the notion of marginalised women’s citizenship as a normative project or an aspiration for equitable social membership in the context of the information society and emerging new techno-social order. This report is based on a three-day review workshop of the programme.


For further discussion and resources on new media, see the social media section in the Communication and Governance topic guide.

CITIZENSHIP, CONFLICT, STATE-SOCIETY RELATIONS AND STATEBUILDING

For discussion on gender and citizenship in the context of post-conflict recovery and statebuilding, see ‘Citizenship and state-society relations’ in the ‘Gender, statebuilding and peacebuilding’ chapter.
CASE STUDIES

http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13552074.2011.625674
The article assesses the outcome of the tenth Young Women Leaders Conference. Its main objective was to inquire into the connections between thinking on citizenship and Filipino young women’s activism. The workshops revealed that young women continue to face traditional structural barriers that inhibit them from actively participating in political debate and public life. However, they have created new spaces for asserting varied (re)conceptions of citizenship and gender justice, often mediated by rapidly changing information and communication technologies. Likewise, they are increasingly on the move: the face of labour migration in the Philippines is that of a young woman. How then might migration change our understandings of citizenship?

http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13552074.2011.625642
‘Raising Her Voice’ (RHV) is a global programme from Oxfam GB to promote poor women’s rights and capacity to participate effectively in governance at every level: raising women voices, increasing their influence, and making decision-making institutions more accountable to women. This article is based on the findings of a case study of the Bolivian RHV project. The case study was developed using participatory methods to encourage a wide range of perspectives and deep, collective reflection on the challenges and achievements, to date, of the Cochabamba Platform of Women for Citizenship, and the contribution of RHV to these achievements.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13552074.2011.625639
This article focuses on agency and citizenship from the point of view of Bangladeshi immigrant women who have been living in UK for the last two generations. They have a transnational identity, living between two cultures, which often have contradictory elements. The article challenges the notions that immigrant women shaped by Bangladeshi culture are victims of patriarchal ideologies, and that Bangladeshi culture hinders women from development. It rather suggests that it is not Bangladeshi culture or religion that hinders women from exercising agency, but their identity as immigrants.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13552074.2011.625634
Social movements have an important role to play in shaping our understanding of the entitlements and human rights related to citizenship. Feminist movements, in particular, actively challenge and
reshape gendered perceptions of citizenship generated by the state. This article focuses on the ‘One in Nine Campaign’, which advocates for, among many things, legal changes in relation to gender-based violence in South Africa. Research into the campaign reveals the utility in legal mobilisation as a strategy for feminist organising. It also raises fundamental questions, however, about different understandings of citizenship and citizenship rights.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13510347.2011.625633
This article summarises the key findings of regional research on active citizenship, gender and social entitlements in Egypt, Lebanon and Palestine. It focuses on the role of the state and NGOs in channelling basic services to women and men. The article argues that women are often remote from the state, and have their rights mediated and decided by social institutions (including families and communities) that do not necessarily recognise women’s ‘right to have rights’. The result is the failure of public institutions to deliver and secure women’s entitlements.

This resource book explores some of the experiences of Southern practitioners and experts working in the field of gender, citizenship and governance. It provides four case studies that demonstrate citizen action to promote awareness of women’s entitlements, participation in government and accountability of governance institutions. They cover: India, Pakistan, South Africa, and Namibia. The book also provides an overview of the debates within development on citizenship and governance and how they relate to gender equality.

Further resources

Gender, Citizenship and migration on Eldis.
GENDER IN FRAGILE AND CONFLICT-AFFECTED ENVIRONMENTS

Contents:

- Introduction
- International engagement in fragile and conflict-affected environments
- Gender and violent conflict
- Gendered impact of violent conflict
- Humanitarian interventions
- Peacekeeping and peace support operations

INTRODUCTION

Fragility and conflict affect women, men, boys and girls differently. It is widely acknowledged that fragility most negatively affects the poorest and the most vulnerable groups in society, including women and children. This can be in terms of poverty, lack of access to justice and physical insecurity that often characterises fragile states. While state-society relations are weak in most fragile states, this is particularly pronounced for female citizens who have very limited access to state institutions.

It is also widely acknowledged that violent conflict affects men and women in different ways. The negative impact of conflict on gender relations and on women in particular has been well documented. Women and girls suffer disproportionately from violent conflict. They suffer not only from the by-products of war, but are also targeted as a strategy of war. Rape and sexual violence have been recognised as instruments of war, designed to weaken families and break down the social fabric of communities and societies. Women are also subjected to displacement, disrupted livelihoods, disrupted access to public services, additional workloads within and outside the home, and domestic violence.

Women are not only victims, however, in situations of conflict and fragility. Women and men can be combatants, victims, civilians, leaders and caretakers. Women may be active participants in the violence, directly as combatants, or indirectly, by facilitating violence through fundraising or inciting their male relatives to commit acts of violence. Women also often become heads of households during war; women and girls learn new skills and contribute to peacemaking and rebuilding local economies and communities.

These changes in gender relations, however, are usually short-lived and societies often revert back to traditional gender roles after conflict. The reduction of women to passive victims denies their agency and has resulted in the perpetuation of gender stereotypes that reinforces inequalities in fragile and post-conflict contexts. It has also resulted in the sidelining of women in peace talks and reconstruction processes, and as agents of change.
There has been growing recognition in recent years of the varying roles that women can play during and after violent conflict. There is also recognition that upheavals of conflict and fragility can provide new opportunities for transforming gender relations and promoting more inclusive, equitable social, economic and political structures and conditions.

In practice, however, issues related to women’s rights, participation and relationship to the state and society are often overlooked or inadequately addressed in processes of statebuilding and peacebuilding. This is due to lack of political will and in some cases insufficient knowledge among policymakers on how to integrate gender issues into statebuilding and peacebuilding strategies. It is also due to the perception that gender is a non-priority issue to address during, and in the aftermath of, conflict.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4309

There is so far little literature that directly addresses the link between gender (in)equality and fragility, or gender equality in fragile states. The literature on gender and fragile states tends to focus on conflict and post-conflict reconstruction and not on the gendered dimensions and characteristics of fragile states. A more thorough, gendered understanding of state fragility is needed. Studies in Africa suggest the importance of promoting women’s citizenship in fragile states through a women’s rights agenda based on legal reform and increased participation in decision-making.


Koch, J., 2008, ‘Does Gender Matter in Fragile States?’, DIIS Policy Brief, Danish Institute for International Studies, København, Denmark
http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3319

Does gender matter in fragile states? This brief looks at gender relations in conflict and post-conflict situations. It argues that gender relations often matter more in fragile state than in other states, but are all too often ignored by policymakers. While conflict affects women in different ways to men, reconstruction provides new opportunities for transforming gender relations in a positive direction.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3271

How do mass violent conflict and a fragile environment affect households? How do poor households cope with such an environment? This paper analyses the channels through which mass violent conflict and post-conflict fragility affect households. It highlights how a fragile environment impairs a
INTERNATIONAL ENGAGEMENT IN FRAGILE AND CONFLICT-affected ENVIRONMENTS

Several international agreements acknowledge the importance of protecting women in situations of conflict and fragility, and the role that they can and should play in conflict resolution and statebuilding to ensure sustained peace. In particular:


These resolutions have been an important step in bringing women’s rights and gender equality to the peace and security agenda. More than a decade after the endorsement of SCR 1325, the importance of women’s participation and leadership in conflict-affected countries has been increasingly acknowledged within sectors of the international community. Thus, the resolution has been successful in terms of norm-building. There has been much less success, however, in terms of implementation and impact on the ground. In most societies and regions, women remain disproportionately affected by armed conflict. They also remain drastically under-represented in peace processes, one of the least well-implemented elements of the women, peace and security agenda.

In terms of guidelines for situations of fragility, the DAC Principles for good international engagement in fragile states and situations (2007) call for the promotion of non-discrimination, in particular gender equality. The Accra Agenda for Action (2008) also commits donors and partners ‘to help ensure the protection and participation of women’ in post-conflict countries and situations of fragility.

The OECD (2010) reports, however, that such a focus on gender equality in fragile situations is implemented only to a limited extent. While donors have developed various tools to promote gender equality in other arenas, they have yet to develop strategies to systemically incorporate gender equality considerations in fragile contexts. The gender initiatives that donors have implemented in fragile and conflict-affected contexts often involve discrete ‘gender’ projects, rather than genuine mainstreaming. These have had a technical rather than political focus and have not been linked to the broader statebuilding agenda.
In order to improve international engagement with gender in fragile and conflict-affected contexts, donors need to understand gender as a political issue and to incorporate gender issues into political, conflict, security and economic analysis. Existing programming tools for gender equality in other domains could also be reviewed and drawn upon in developing strategies and tools in these contexts.


www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3280
To what extent is gender a strong thread running through donor thinking on fragile states? What opportunities exist to enhance the systematic integration of gender equality in donors’ thinking on state fragility? This paper looks at how gender issues are integrated into the emerging policy on state fragility of six donor agencies/bodies. It argues that donors are only beginning to bring their learning about gender equality into their emerging work on fragile states.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4112
What role do women play in statebuilding? How do statebuilding processes affect women’s participation? Support for statebuilding has become the dominant model for international engagement in post-conflict contexts, yet donor approaches lack substantial gender analysis and are missing opportunities to promote gender equality. This paper presents findings from a research project on the impact of post-conflict statebuilding on women’s citizenship. It argues that gender inequalities are linked to the underlying political settlement, and that donors must therefore address gender as a fundamentally political issue.

GENDER AND VIOLENT CONFLICT

*Links between gender inequality and violent conflict*

Gender inequality has been shown to be linked to violent conflict. Caprioli’s 2003 study found that extreme and systematic gender inequality is correlated with political violence, whereas higher levels of gender equality (measured by fertility rate) is associated with lower risks of intra-state conflict onset. A subsequent study by Melander (2005) supports this finding, demonstrating that gender equality (measured by the percentage women in parliament and the ratio of female-to-male higher education attainment) is associated with lower levels of armed conflict within a country. These studies provide a strong argument that addressing gender inequality could contribute to more stable societies.
Another implication of these studies is that various aspects of gender (in)equality and gender relations in a country could serve as an early warning of the risk of violent conflict. For example, reduction in women’s status, increased discrimination against women and violations of women’s human rights and virulent attacks on women may be direct precursors of further repression and violent conflict (Schmeidl and Piza-Lopez, 2002).


http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=2930

What is the link between gender equality and civil war? This paper reports on a study measuring gender inequality against the occurrence of intrastate conflict. Applying a number of theories on gender inequality and violence, the study tested the hypothesis that the higher the fertility rate, the greater the likelihood that a state will experience intrastate conflict. Results indicate that states with high fertility rates are twice as likely to experience internal conflict as states with low fertility rates.


This study builds on Caprioli’s 2003 study and explores the extent to which gender equality is associated with lower levels of intrastate armed conflict. The study relies on three indicators: (1) a dichotomous indicator of whether the highest leader of a state is a woman; (2) the percentage of women in parliament; and (3) the female-to-male higher education attainment ratio. It concludes that gender equality, measured as the percentage women in parliament and the ratio of female-to-male higher education attainment, is associated with lower levels of armed conflict within a country. Achieving equality between men and women would thus mean rectifying a grave social injustice and would directly improve the lives of most women and girls.


http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=381

Despite increasing awareness of gender issues in most aspects of conflict processes, it remains largely absent in the pre-conflict context. The limited, speculative research that does exist suggests that the modelling and analysis of conflict early warning practices would be improved if gender-based perspectives were included. In response, this paper presents an initial framework on how to ‘engender’ conflict early warning.

**Gender and conflict analysis**

Conflict analysis is an essential yet tremendously challenging process. The aim is to gain a comprehensive and shared understanding of potential or ongoing violent conflicts. This usually involves an assessment of key conflict factors (sources of tension and root causes of conflict, including links and synergies), actors (interests, potential spoilers, capacities for violence and peace, incentives required to promote peace), and dynamics (triggers for violence, local capacities for
peaceful and constructive conflict management, likely future scenarios). Analysis is undertaken at local, national, regional and international levels.

The inclusion of gender perspectives into conflict analysis can provide a more nuanced and effective understanding of conflict factors, actors and dynamics. In particular, it can identify the gendered nature of causes of conflict, the gendered impact of conflict and the gendered dimensions of peacebuilding. Gender variables are, however, often missing from conflict analysis and conflict assessment frameworks.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=2888
How can the use of gender analysis help improve post-conflict peace processes? This paper discusses the research methodology and results of the 2005 Peace and Conflict Gender Analysis conducted by UNIFEM in the Solomon Islands. The use of gender analysis to shape peace processes would help solidify women’s gains in status and contribute to economic and civil society development.


GENDERED IMPACT OF VIOLENT CONFLICT

Violent conflict affects men and women in different ways. As men comprise the majority of combatants, they suffer to a greater degree from direct violence, injuries and killings from combat. Many experience random arrests and forced recruitment into militias or state armies.

Women, however, suffer disproportionately from conflict through: systematic rape and sexual violence; greater levels of displacement and presence in refugee camps where mortality rates tend to be higher; and social and economic vulnerability, due in large part to loss of access to sources of livelihoods (in particular, agricultural systems) and to basic services. A study by Plümper and Neumayer (2005) also finds that armed conflict has a more adverse affect on women in terms of male relative to female life expectancy. Women tend to live longer than men in peacetime but conflict reduces the gap in life expectancy.
Plümper, T. and Neumayer, E., 2005, 'The Unequal Burden of War: The Effect of Armed Conflict on the Gender Gap in Life Expectancy,' Government Department, University of Essex
http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=1692

Does conflict reduce the gap in life expectancy between men and women? Most direct victims of armed conflict tend to be men, because most combatants are men. However, there are a range of indirect effects of conflict which may affect women more than men. This paper analyses the impact of armed conflict on male relative to female life expectancy. Women tend to live longer than men in peacetime but the paper finds that conflict reduces the gap in life expectancy, suggesting that women are more adversely affected by armed conflict than men.


http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3518

Why do large numbers of displaced women and girls continue to be abused, raped and exploited? This paper explores risks facing displaced women and how to address them. Women and girls must be involved in their own protection. Their communities, including the men, must be similarly engaged. Yet only individual assessment can adequately address women’s unique protection concerns. Women and girls are not just victims but also survivors, caretakers, leaders, peacemakers and providers.


Conflict, natural disasters and displacement destroy livelihoods and force people to adopt new strategies to support themselves. Displaced women adopt new strategies to provide for themselves and their families. These new strategies often place them at risk of gender-based violence (GBV). This guidance outlines promising practices on designing safe economic programmes throughout the project cycle.

Sexual violence

The literature on sexual violence in armed conflict indicates that rape and violence against women and girls prior to, during and after conflict is extensive in scope and magnitude throughout the world. Sexual violence is defined by the Inter-Agency Standing Committee (IASC) Task Force on Gender and Humanitarian Assistance as “any sexual act, attempt to obtain a sexual act, unwanted sexual comments or advances, or acts to traffic a person’s sexuality, using coercion, threats of harm
or physical force, by any person regardless of relationship to the victim, in any setting, including but not limited to home and work”.

Sexual violence, particularly rape, is often used as a weapon of war to destabilise families, groups and communities; to carry out ethnic cleansing and genocide; to instil fear in populations in order to dampen resistance and/or incite flight; as a form of punishment and torture; and to affirm aggression. The destabilisation of families and communities can contribute to other forms of violence, including domestic violence.

Sexual exploitation, trafficking and sexual slavery tend to increase in armed conflict. Women and girls who are recruited, often by abduction, into combat are in many cases forced to provide sexual services and/or are subjected to forced marriages. Refugee and internally displaced women and girls, separated from family members and traditional support mechanisms, are also particularly vulnerable. Government officials, civilian authorities, peacekeepers and aid workers have been reported to demand sexual favours in exchange for necessities – safe passage, food and shelter. Limited monitoring of camp security also renders women and girls vulnerable to sexual violence and forced combat.

Although women are the primary targets of sexual violence and exploitation in conflict-affected situations, men and boys are also subjected to sexual violence during armed conflict, often during military conscription or abduction into paramilitary forces. This receives much less attention, however, in part because male victims are much less likely to report incidents, resulting in limited documentation and statistical data. Gender stereotyping and notions of masculinity suggest that men cannot be (potential) targets or victims of sexual abuse, only perpetrators. A sense of emasculation may deter males from reporting experiences of such violence.

A consequence of this lack of profile is that male victims are often neglected in gender-based violence programming. It is essential that male victims receive attention and are included in programming. In addition, consideration of the nature, scope and consequences of sexual violence against men and boys can contribute more generally to a better understanding of, and response to, sexual violence in conflict.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3583

What is the extent and impact of gender-based violence during and after war? Statistics show that the sexual violation and torture of women and girls has become rife in conflict settings. Data also show that gender-based violence (GBV) does not subside post-conflict; certain types of GBV may even increase. This paper argues that while international prevention and response efforts have increased in recent years, much more must be done. A multi-sectoral model which demands holistic inter-organisational and inter-agency efforts across health, social services, legal and security sectors offers the best approach for GBV prevention.
The literature on sexual violence in armed conflict indicates that rape and violence against women and girls prior to, during and after conflict seem to be extensive in scope and magnitude throughout the world – with reported incidents in conflicts in Africa, the Americas, Asia, Europe and the Middle East. While there is limited comparative analysis and understanding about where sexual violence may be more or less prevalent and why, it is widely recognised that sexual violence against women in conflict is usually reflective of pre-existing patterns in society. Generally speaking, rape and violence against women is a good proxy indicator of rising tensions and incipient conflict. Much of the literature also emphasises the persistence of violence and exploitation in the ‘post’-conflict, reconstruction phase.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4267
This article examines the extent and types of sexual violence committed against men in armed conflict. It notes that sexual violence against men involves dynamics of power, dominance and emasculation. Recognition of sexual violence against men has not translated into detailed consideration of the issue. In the longer term, things will only improve if definitions of rape are changed and all forms of sexual assault are more fully prosecuted.


http://www.essex.ac.uk/armedcon/story_id/sexualviolence_conflict_full%5B1%5D.pdf

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4233
This policy brief summarises key findings from a pilot study of conflict-related sexual violence in conflicts in 20 African countries, encompassing 177 armed conflict actors – state armies, militias, and rebel groups. The study finds that, in Africa, sexual violence is: mostly indiscriminate; committed only by some conflict actors; often committed by state armies; often committed in years with low levels of killings; and often committed post-conflict.
**Guidance and toolkits**

http://www.unifem.org/attachments/products/Analytical_Inventory_of_Peacekeeping_Practice_online.pdf

Responding to sexual violence as part of the challenges of conflict is an emerging field in peacekeeping. This report captures best practices for a more effective response by peacekeepers to women’s security concerns in conflict situations. From implementing firewood patrols in Darfur, to establishing market escorts, night patrols and early-warning systems in the Democratic Republic of Congo, the inventory catalogues direct and indirect efforts to combat sexual violence during and in the wake of war.


This handbook has been developed to support gender justice advocates and to bring to their attention the potential of international laws and policies in their efforts to seek justice and advance women’s rights during the peace-building process.


**Access to services**

Security issues hinder women’s and girl’s access to services as well. When schools are destroyed for example, and children have to travel long distances, girls are more likely to stay at home in order to avoid the increased risk of abduction, sexual violence and exploitation.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Helpdesk&id=499

The extent to which conflict restricts women’s freedom of movement depends on a number of factors including the stage of conflict, whether the women are displaced, whether they are directly or indirectly affected by the conflict, and the cultural norms of the conflict-affected area. Forced displacement, for example, may in some cases lead to greater mobility, where women assume additional responsibilities such as taking on the role of primary breadwinner. Nevertheless, it is generally accepted that the fear of violence usually restricts women’s freedom of movement. In times of political, economic and social uncertainty, there is a strong tendency to revert to traditional values which appear to offer protection for women and girls, but which restrict their mobility.
Disregarding reproductive health in situations of conflict or natural disaster has serious consequences, particularly for women and girls affected by the emergency. In an effort to protect the health and save the lives of women and girls in crises, international standards for five priority reproductive health activities that must be implemented at the onset of an emergency have been established for humanitarian actors: humanitarian coordination, prevention of and response to sexual violence, minimisation of HIV transmission, reduction of maternal and neonatal death and disability, and planning for comprehensive reproductive health services. Significant gaps in each of these areas exist in the context of refugees in Jordan fleeing the war in Iraq, particularly coordination, prevention of sexual violence, and care for survivors.

**Young women and girls as fighters**

Just as it is important to recognise that males are subjected to violence, it is also important to acknowledge that women can be fighters and perpetrators of violence. It is essential to consider the particular needs of women in disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration programmes. The issues associated with return and reintegration are often different for men and women. In addition, women who have remained in the community during war face specific challenges when combatants return. Reintegration programmes need to take such gender dynamics into consideration.

**Coulter, C., Persson, M., and Utas, M., 2008, ‘Young Female Fighters in African Wars: Conflict and Its Consequences’, Nordic Africa Institute, Uppsala**

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3543

What role do young women play in contemporary African wars? Mainstream thinking on war and conflict sees women as passive and peaceful and men as active and aggressive. This report calls for a broader understanding of women’s roles and participation in armed conflict in Africa. Programmes to disarm, demobilise and reintegrate former fighters need to be adapted to local contexts and designed to meet the needs of female ex-fighters.


http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=2999

Girls within armed groups have generally been neglected by scholars, governments and policymakers. This paper traces the experiences of girls in armed conflict in Angola, Sierra Leone, Mozambique and Uganda. It finds that girls in fighting forces are rendered invisible and marginalised during and after conflict, although they are fundamentally important to armed groups. They experience victimisation, perpetration and insecurity, but are also active agents and resisters.

How effectively have the needs of women and girls been addressed during rehabilitation, reintegration and post-conflict reconstruction in Uganda? This study looks at the reintegration experience of women and girls after the long war between the Ugandan government and the Lord’s Resistance Army. The study analyses the situation in the context of UN Security Council Resolution 1325, which calls on all actors to address the special needs of women and girls during rehabilitation, reintegration and post-conflict reconstruction. The study concludes that, since the female populations in northern Uganda still struggle with deprivation, want and exclusion, it is difficult to speak of meaningful and durable peace.

Hauge, W., 2007, ‘The Demobilisation and Political Participation of Female Fighters In Guatemala’, A report to the Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs, International Peace Research Institute, Oslo

This report focuses on how the female fighters of the Unidad Revolucionaria Nacional Guatemalteca (URNG) in Guatemala fared in the demobilisation and reintegration process that began in 1997, and to what degree the women became socially and politically active afterwards. The report concludes that three types of factors were particularly decisive in shaping female fighters’ capability and capacity for post-conflict social and political activity: women’s educational and skills background; duration of participation in the guerrilla force and the new skills they learnt during this period; and the character of the demobilisation and reintegration process itself (in terms of socioeconomic assistance, possibilities to acquire new skills, access to family and social networks; assistance to single mothers and mothers with sick or disabled children; and collective reintegration versus individual reintegration).


Masculinity

The term ‘gender’ is often used as another term for ‘women’. As such, gender analysis often fails to acknowledge that men also have gender identities. While the various roles of women in conflict and changes in gender relations are increasingly recognised, less attention has been given to the various roles of men and the implications of changes to these roles.

During extended periods of conflict, for example, men may lose their traditional roles as providers, which can result in a crisis of identity and threat of emasculation. This, in turn, could result in an increase in domestic violence and alcohol and drug abuse. In addition, the establishment of new social structures and authorities during conflict and the involvement of young men in fighting may establish new hierarchies, whereby young men brutally disempower older male authorities.
In order to engage in informed research strategies and more productive policy interventions, it is important to focus on both sides of the gender equation and to understand the relational quality and power dynamics between and among men and women. For example, post-conflict interventions should not reinforce stereotypical men’s roles as strong individuals and as providers, but should encourage flexible socioeconomic support and proper counselling mechanisms.

In addition, it is important to recognise that many ex-combatants, particularly male ex-combatants, were socialised with militaristic masculinity. Efforts need to be made to transform this masculine identity into a non-violent one, such that it does persist in the aftermath of violent conflict through domestic violence and sexual assaults.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4310

Gender analysis often fails to acknowledge that men also possess gender identities: the term gender encompasses social, cultural and economic considerations and (changing) power dynamics between and among men and women. This brief highlights that taking a more inclusive view of gender roles in conflict, and recognising that these roles are dynamic, can lead to more informed research strategies and more productive policy interventions.

http://www.xyonline.net/content/masculinity-and-civil-wars-africa-%E2%80%93-new-approaches-overcoming-sexual-violence-war

How is it possible to ensure that violent warlike activity and the related ideas of masculinity and femininity are not simply carried over into post-war daily life? This document discusses the dangers of such ideas persisting and provides potential approaches and practical instruments to challenge them. It argues that reorientation can strengthen and network men who, as ‘change agents,’ reject violent conflict resolution and define their masculinity through criteria such as commitment to human dignity, human rights, justice, social fatherhood, and partnership. Additional recommendations include: men who reject violence need support and a network, as they are often harassed by other young men as ‘effeminate’ and marginalised; men who form activist alliances with women’s organisations must be offered culturally appropriate forums in which to discuss violent models of masculinity, socialisation to violence, and new life patterns.
HUMANITARIAN INTERVENTIONS

When violent conflict erupts or a disaster strikes, humanitarian actors move quickly to save lives, meet basic needs and protect survivors. In such emergency contexts, attention to gender issues and gender mainstreaming is often considered a ‘luxury’ and unnecessary. However, ignoring the differential impact of crisis on women, men, boys and girls – and their varying needs and capacities – can have serious implications for the protection and survival of people in humanitarian crises. Understanding differences, gender relations and inequalities can help to identify needs, target assistance and ensure that the needs of the vulnerable are met. It can also highlight opportunities to draw on women and men as resources based on their particular capacities. This can improve the effectiveness of humanitarian assistance. Adopting a gender perspective in humanitarian assistance can also provide a link between such assistance and longer-term development goals.

This handbook aims to provide field-based actors with guidance on how to conduct gender analysis and to include gender issues in needs assessments; and how to engage in planning and actions to ensure that the needs, contributions and capacities of women, girls, boys and men are considered in all aspects of humanitarian response.

This report aims to identify identiﬁes lessons learned and good practices, based on a review of past and current policies and programme approaches for integrating gender into humanitarian interventions, including actions to prevent and respond to the incidence of sexual and gender based violence.

http://www.gsdrc.org/docs/open/HD787.pdf

Sexual and gender-based violence, displacement and protection

During times of emergencies, weakening community structures, disruptions in law and order, economic hardship, migration and over-crowded living conditions in refugee/displacement camps are all factors that increase the risk of sexual and gender-based violence. In addition, women are often separated from male family members, increasing their risk of being subjected to such violence. This includes the risk not only of rape, but also of early/forced marriage, forced prostitution and trafficking.
Sexual and gender-based violence remains the most widespread and serious protection problem facing displaced and returnee women and girls. Increasingly lengthy stays in refugee/displacement camps, which are often located in insecure areas and may be subject to cross-border attacks, lack of privacy and livelihood opportunities, and declining international attention and resources, lead to various protection risks for women and girls. In addition, there are many reports of women being attacked after leaving camps to gather firewood and water. It is thus essential to ensure the adequate delivery of firewood, water and food on site.

Female refugees, displaced persons and asylum seekers in urban areas often live in squalid conditions and lack access to basic services, such as education and health care. Lacking money to pay their rent, women risk sexual exploitation by landlords. Women and girls employed as domestic workers frequently face violence and exploitation at the hands of their employers.

There is a pressing need to improve methods for the collection of data on sexual and gender-based violence in emergency situations. Key challenges include overcoming the lack of coordination between service providers that leads to double counting of cases, and multiple systems for classifying forms of violence. It is also important for humanitarian actors involved in protection activities to focus not only on working with women but also on engaging the active participation of men.

This handbook provides comprehensive guidelines on how to establish coordination mechanisms to address gender-based violence in emergencies. Its purpose is to facilitate concrete action – from the earliest stages of humanitarian intervention – to safeguard survivors and protect those at risk, and to accelerate efforts aimed at ending gender-based violence.

These guidelines provide practical advice on how to ensure that humanitarian protection and assistance programmes for displaced populations are safe and do not directly or indirectly increase women’s and girls’ risk to sexual violence. They also outline what response services should be in place to meet the need of survivors/victims of sexual violence.

PEACEKEEPING AND PEACE SUPPORT OPERATIONS

Reports of peacekeeper involvement in sexual exploitation and abuse of local populations emerged in the 1990s. This resulted in the adoption of a zero-tolerance policy in UN peacekeeping operations.

It also confirmed the need for a greater female presence in peacekeeping forces, which has been recognised as desirable for several reasons. In addition to countering the incidences of exploitation and abuse, studies have shown that the presence of women in peacekeeping missions broadens the range of skills and styles available within the mission and improves access and support for local women.

Women in conflict/post-conflict environments are more comfortable approaching female officers to report and discuss incidents of sexual assault. Given the high levels of sexual violence in conflict, this access and support is essential. In addition, in more conservative societies such as Afghanistan and Sudan, the presence of female peacekeepers has been imperative, as women there may be reluctant to speak with male officers. The presence of female officers can also provide role models and incentives for other women to seek leadership positions.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=2592

Post-conflict conditions can create possibilities for the transformation of gender relations. This paper discusses the participation of women in post-conflict organisations. A comparison of the impact of women in peacekeeping missions in South Africa and the Democratic Republic of Congo illustrates that women help defuse post-conflict tensions and increase awareness of gender issues. The participation of women in peace processes indicates progress, but more transformative measures are needed to achieve gender equality.

http://www.fafo.no/pub/rapp/20078/20078.pdf

Is the zero-tolerance policy toward sexual exploitation and abuse having a positive impact on UN peacekeeping missions? This report reviews evidence from missions in Haiti and Liberia and concludes that the policy is yielding mixed results. It contends that the policy’s difficulties stem from implementation problems and contextual challenges that would be eased by better communication and clarity on the purposes of the zero-tolerance approach.


What are the economic or socio-cultural and political impacts of ‘peacekeeping economies’? This paper uses a gendered lens to explore some ramifications and lasting implications of peacekeeping economies, drawing on examples from four post-conflict countries with past or ongoing United
Nations peacekeeping missions: Bosnia-Herzegovina, Kosovo, Liberia, and Haiti. The paper is particularly concerned with the interplay between the peacekeeping economy and the sex industry. It suggests that the existence and potential long-term perpetuation of a highly gendered peacekeeping economy threatens to undermine the gender goals and objectives that are a component of most peace operations.

This study attempts to map the implementation of human rights and gender mandates in various UN and EU peace operations, such as the missions in El Salvador, Cambodia, Haiti and the Balkans.

Case studies

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3564
What are the causes and problems of militarised law enforcement in peace operations? How can these be addressed? This paper examines the role of the European Union Force (EUFOR) in Bosnia and Herzegovina. While the military can contribute to law enforcement, such involvement is generally hindered by fear of ‘mission creep’ and lack of preparedness. Preferable alternatives to military involvement (such as international civil police forces collaborating with local officials) are obstructed by lack of political will. Law enforcement should be addressed early and systematically by the deployment of robust forces that avoid excessive use of force.

http://www.cic.nyu.edu/staff/docs/bah/bad_sudan.pdf

http://www.crisisgroup.org/~/media/Files/asia/north-east-asia/166_chinas_growing_role_in_un_peacekeeping.ashx
GENDER, STATEBUILDING AND PEACEBUILDING

Contents
- Introduction
- Peace processes and political settlements
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INTRODUCTION

Key priorities for post-conflict statebuilding and peacebuilding include establishing political governance, ensuring security, justice and the rule of law, and building the administrative institutions of the state. Many argue that early attention needs to be given to gender equality and to increasing women’s voice in political, social, and economic development in fragile and post-conflict settings. State reconstruction can provide opportunities to shape new social, economic, and political dynamics that can break existing gender stereotypes. For example, recent research has shown how redrawing the boundaries of authority between the formal state and customary governance systems can provide new citizenship opportunities for women. Not focusing on gender early on can entrench systems that discriminate against women, which are much harder to challenge later.

At the operational level, however, gender is often not seen as a high priority by donors in the early stages of post-conflict statebuilding. Issues related to gender relations, women’s rights, participation and relationship to the state are often overlooked or inadequately addressed in the design of interventions. This can be attributed to lack of political will and insufficient knowledge among policymakers on how to integrate gender issues into statebuilding strategies. Donor approaches to statebuilding have not incorporated any substantial gender analysis that looks at how statebuilding processes impact women and men differently, the quality of women’s relationship to the state, or how women can participate in shaping the statebuilding agenda.

Research has also found that the needs of women and girls have often been neglected in post-conflict assistance programmes. For example, female combatants are often discriminated against in disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration programmes, and there is often a lack of provision of health services and trauma programmes for women and girls suffering from sexual violence. Despite commitments under UN Security Council Resolution 1325 for greater attention to gender issues and participation of women in peacebuilding processes, actual implementation and changes on the ground have been limited.

It is important to understand the links between gender and fragility, and gender and violent conflict – and the implications of failing to take gender into account. It is essential that gender not be seen
as a ‘soft’ topic of secondary importance to establishing security: gender is often at the core of creating sustainable peace and security. In many fragile states, for example, it is particular gender ideals of power that perpetuate a culture of violence in which client-patron relations, corruption and discrimination against and suppression of women and minorities can flourish. Alongside the promotion of greater involvement of women in statebuilding and peacebuilding processes, attention also needs to be paid to transforming the cultures and systems that reinforce gender power inequalities. This requires tackling both formal and informal patterns of power and resource allocation. Efforts to introduce gender concerns and to improve women’s participation require developing relationships within communities and garnering support from local leaders.

Where gender has been taken into consideration in statebuilding and peacebuilding processes and efforts have been made to challenge gender inequality, there is a shortage of rigorous evaluations on the impact of such programmes and whether they have affected gender relations.

What is gender-responsive peacebuilding and statebuilding and how can it be achieved? Gender equality is considered a fundamental right and a necessary condition for the achievement of the objectives of elimination of poverty, growth, employment, social cohesion and the promotion of peace and security. This brief argues that this will only be effective if the culture of power is simultaneously changed to one that supports gender equality and sustainable peacebuilding. Gender-responsive peace and statebuilding aims to contribute to change that culture of power, by creating (1) gender responsive decision-making structures in politics and society, and by creating (2) a sustainable national infrastructure for peace that allows societies and their governments to resolve conflicts internally and with their own skills, institutions and resources.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4112
What role do women play in statebuilding? How do statebuilding processes affect women’s participation? Support for statebuilding has become the dominant model for international engagement in post-conflict contexts, yet donor approaches lack substantial gender analysis and are missing opportunities to promote gender equality. This paper presents findings from a research project on the impact of post-conflict statebuilding on women's citizenship. It argues that gender inequalities are linked to the underlying political settlement, and that donors must therefore address gender as a fundamentally political issue.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4256
This article examines women’s political and economic empowerment and women and girls’ access to quality services in conflict-affected and fragile states. It finds that there has been some success in relation to women’s participation in elections and formal politics and engagement in small-scale economic enterprise. It argues, however, that inequitable gender power relations have not been considered or understood and so opportunities have been lost.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=2595
Why is it so difficult to translate an awareness of gender injustice into workable plans for post-conflict reconstruction? Evidence shows that while women are largely absent from formal peace negotiations, they do make a significant contribution at the grassroots level. Yet this gender awareness has not been incorporated into practice. This paper draws on African feminism to argue for a balanced position between cultural relativism and a ‘one size fits all’ solution to this problem.

Benard, C. et al., 2008, ‘Women and Nation-building’, RAND Corporation, Santa Monica, CA
http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4293
What role do women play in post-conflict nation-building? How do processes of nation-building affect the status and situation of women? A literature review and findings from Afghanistan indicate that greater stability and improved outcomes would be likely if there were: 1) a more genuine emphasis on the concept of human security; 2) a focus on establishing governance based on principles of equity and consistent rule of law from the start; and 3) economic inclusion of women in the earliest stages of reconstruction activities.

Women, peace and security


http://books.google.co.uk/books?id=JDDFA14OzEIC&printsec=frontcover&source=gbs_ge_summary_r&cad=0#v=onepage&q=&f=false

Disabled women internationally and in conflict environments face intersectional discrimination. In war-affected contexts, disabilities may not only be physical but also mental. This paper advocates better inclusion of women with disabilities in peace building and reconciliation processes. It also sets out a wider argument for greater recognition and integration of the issues women with disabilities face within UN entities and international procedures.

**Tools and guidance**


**Peace Processes and Political Settlements**

The political settlement can be understood as an ‘agreement (among elites principally) on the “rules of the game”, power distribution and the political processes through which state and society are connected’ (OECD, 2011). Peace agreements are formal agreements aimed at ending violent conflict and creating the conditions for durable peace. They include ceasefire agreements, interim or preliminary agreements, comprehensive and framework agreements, and implementation agreements. The political settlement sets the framework for statebuilding and peace agreements set the foundation for post-conflict recovery. In such contexts, there is a significant opportunity to radically transform political, economic and social structures in a way that will better meet the needs of male and female citizens and improve the likelihood of securing and sustaining the peace.

It is essential that negotiations and peace processes incorporate the active participation, perspectives and needs of both men and women. This requires particular attention to the inclusion and participation of women as negotiators, mediators, envoys and senior advisors. Their participation is essential not only because they have unique needs and important perspectives to contribute, but also as their participation early on can help to guarantee their subsequent...
participation in new decision-making institutions often designed during negotiations. It also recognises women as active and productive agents.

Donor approaches to the inclusion of women in negotiations has been somewhat contradictory. Donor statebuilding models accept that political settlements will often be negotiated initially by elites, while stressing the importance of subsequently making them more inclusive. In contrast, international commitments under UN Security Council Resolution 1325 require increased participation of women at decision-making levels throughout conflict resolution and peace processes (Castillejo, 2011).

External actors have, however, generally missed out on opportunities to push for more inclusive processes. Various studies and assessments have confirmed that women have largely remained sidelined in formal peace and political settlement processes, and in informal power negotiations. Although there is no consistent documentation of the numbers of women on delegations to peace talks, UNIFEM’s review of 24 major peace processes conducted since 1992 found that, on average, women comprised less than 8 percent of negotiating parties (see Goetz et al., 2010 in following section).

Gender issues have also been sidelined. Gender inequality is generally not considered a factor in security or power- or resource-sharing in political settlement negotiations. Bell and O’Rourke (2011) find that only 16 percent of peace agreements contain references to women.

There are some limited examples of greater involvement of women in formal processes and of positive impacts. In Somalia, for example, women activists formed a ‘Sixth Clan’ (comprised of the five main clans involved in negotiations) and were successful in gaining access to the negotiating table. Their representation and advocacy at the table in turn led to the inclusion of quotas for women in new governance structures. In Afghanistan, the participation of women at the Bonn negotiations had a profound impact on the post-conflict environment – with the inclusion of women’s rights in the Constitution and the inclusion of women in political decision-making roles.

Women have also in some cases managed to play a critical role in informal negotiation processes as well – often preparing the ground for negotiations and bridging divides. Women’s organisations and other international organisations and donors have implemented training and capacity building workshops for women – to impart conflict mediation and resolution skills, and the skills necessary for political participation.

Nevertheless, even in situations where women have played a greater role and where inclusive negotiations have resulted in the development of new formal, more equitable ‘rules of the game’, there is often no real shift in exclusionary power relations. In Guatemala, for example, new gender equality structures were politically sidelined and under-resourced. In many contexts, women have been unable to influence the informal ‘rules of the game’.
In order to have a greater effect, the involvement of women in formal peace processes should be linked to women’s movements and institutions outside of the formal process. In Aceh, the involvement of only one female representative in peace talks was considered to be a large constraint on attention to gender issues. Linking to other national bodies can help to overcome obstacles to women’s inclusion and voice. The national machinery for women in the Philippines, for example, has been effective in advancing women’s position in society.

Banaszak, K. et al., eds., 2005, 'Securing the Peace: Guiding the International Community towards Women’s Effective Participation throughout Peace Processes,' UNIFEM
http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=1760
How and why should women be involved in peace processes? This paper highlights the importance of involving women at every stage of peace negotiations and gives recommendations for how this might be achieved in practice. It argues that when approaching the task of ending war, the stakes are too high to neglect the resources that women have to offer.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4277
This paper argues that paying special attention to the different experiences of women and men is critical in designing successful conflict management and peacebuilding programmes. It examines the role women play and the obstacles they continue to face in post-conflict resolution and peacebuilding. Conflicts often force women to organise themselves to safeguard basic necessities and to carry out activities related to, for example, education and healthcare. These activities can contribute to ensuring lasting peace and governments must ensure women are included in key peace negotiations at all levels.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3438
How can women play a more effective role in peace initiatives? This research argues that it is important to improve understanding of how women’s and men’s perspectives on peace and violence vary, and whether there are policy implications for these differences. A full understanding of the role of women as actors during war and conflict and as victims of war is essential to ensure full participation of women at all levels of decision-making and implementation in peace processes.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4018
How can women’s representation in peace negotiations be improved? This report of a meeting with 40 women experts from across Asia and the Pacific notes that gender issues are sidelined as being ‘social’ or ‘welfare’ and their importance to hard security is overlooked. A broader perspective is needed, as women’s contributions outside of formal negotiations (to conflict resolution at local
level, to conflict prevention, and to influencing informal processes) have been significant. Women can forge common ground across conflict and party lines. Their inclusion can be enhanced through links with the women’s movement outside the formal peace process.

Fraser, E., 2009, 'The Impact of Conflict on Women’s Voice and Participation', Helpdesk Research Report, GSDRC, Birmingham

Although conflict can reduce the voice of less powerful groups (including women), there are also opportunities for these groups to contest well-established social structures and divisions, and for new, non-traditional leaders to emerge. Women assume varied roles during armed conflict, as victims, but also as perpetrators, as well as peace activists. There are sub-groups of women who may be particularly vulnerable as a result of conflict and are frequently invisible in post-conflict peace processes and community-driven development, for example: young women, female-headed households, widows, and women from marginalised groups. However, women are not necessarily the only, or even the most, excluded group in a given society. Furthermore, female participation does not necessarily lead to positive outcomes for women. Not all women have equal voices or the same vested interests; other issues of identity, such as ethnicity, religion, and age can be equally important.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4031

Content of peace agreements

http://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/66DCD0E7A5C750D6C12578460049502A-Full_Report.pdf

What effect has UN Security Council Resolution 1325 had on gendering the text of peace agreements? The inclusion of issues relating to the status of women in peace agreement texts is significant not just for the inclusion of women in peacebuilding strategies, but for their future inclusion in the domestic political and legal order itself. Comprehensive or framework peace agreements typically set out complex arrangements for new democratic institutions, human rights and minority protections, and reform or overhaul of security and justice sector institutions. They therefore operate as ‘power-maps’ for how power will be held and exercised between the body politic and its institutions. The study finds that only 16 per cent of peace agreements contain references to women, but that references to women have increased significantly since the passing of SCR 1325, from 11 to 27 per cent of agreements. This indicates that there is a long way to go before peace agreements systematically include references to women. In addition, the qualitative review of the nature of the peace agreement references indicates that many of these references are fairly unsubstantial.
**Guidance and tools**


http://reliefweb.int/sites/reliefweb.int/files/resources/Full_Report_262.pdf

This article proposes some basic steps that the crafters of agreements can take to address the lack of gendered peace agreement language (especially in Asian peace processes). It draws on examples to show how there could be simple and non-controversial ways to use gendered language to reflect the concerns of both men and women and to open up space for women and their specific conflict- and peace-related issues. It looks for ‘quick wins’ on the language front which should give the crafters of peace agreements who do not feel like ‘gender experts’ confidence to go further into more challenging subjects. It also suggests how the use of gendered perspectives could help peacemakers improve their practice with regards to inclusiveness in general.

**Case studies**


**Citizenship and State-Society Relations**

Research on citizenship has discussed the societal mechanisms and processes that constrain women from exercising agency and realising citizenship rights. There has been limited discussion however of these issues in relation to situations of conflict and fragility, which add additional layers of complexity.

Many scholars note that violent conflict can transform social structures in society, including gender relations. Some argue that the post-conflict period can thus offer new opportunities for women to participate in, and practise, citizenship. Statebuilding processes in conflict-affected and fragile contexts have the potential to transform state institutions and their relationship to women, improving social, economic and political inclusiveness and the nature of women’s citizenship. For
example, decentralisation processes and programmes supported by development partners in many conflict-affected and fragile states have introduced new spaces in which women can engage politically and act as citizens. In general, however, gender issues are often neglected in the statebuilding context, resulting in lost opportunities to strengthen women's citizenship. Women who try to get involved in political institutions without appropriate support and changes in societal structures and views can meet strong resistance.

It is essential to look at the intersections between gender, conflict and citizenship, particularly in the context of statebuilding and peacebuilding processes. Attention needs to be paid not only to the state institution side of the equation, but also the societal side and to how citizens re-engage with the state. It is important to recognise that legacies of violence and situations of chronic violence can result in frozen social interactions and lack of engagement in the public sphere. People may refrain from openly discussing or challenging certain issues relating to the conflict. Efforts to build up citizenship in such contexts can be particularly challenging. It is important to ask how a sense of citizenship develops for women, and how this may differ from that of men. Differences may also exist among women of differing social and ethnic backgrounds.

Progress towards gender equality and inclusive citizenship can take place in various areas and levels. These include constitutional and legal frameworks that enshrine gender equality and equity, inclusive and equitable political institutions, gender-sensitive and responsive economic and social policymaking, and transparent accountability mechanisms. These areas are mutually reinforcing. Civil society, including women's organisations and gender-aware media, also has an important role to play. In order for women to be able to take advantage of new opportunities to participate in, and practice, citizenship, it is also important that time and resources are invested to build their capacity.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13552074.2011.625650
How are perceptions and practices of citizenship experienced in the post-conflict situations? How does gender influence these perceptions and practices? Looking at the Acholi region in northern Uganda, this article discusses the intersection between gender, conflict and citizenship. It focuses on the lives and experiences of Acholi women during and after the conflict, and how their experiences shape their understanding and practices of citizenship in a context of recent conflict.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4256
This article examines women's political and economic empowerment and women and girls' access to quality services in conflict-affected and fragile states. It finds that there has been some success in relation to women's participation in elections and formal politics and engagement in small-scale economic enterprise. It argues, however, that inequitable gender power relations have not been considered or understood and so opportunities have been lost.
http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3185
How can women’s citizenship in developing countries be strengthened? In many African countries women have little contact with the formal state and their lives are governed by customary governance systems that seriously limit their rights and opportunities for political participation. This is particularly true for women in fragile states, where the formal state is weak and inaccessible. Based on field research in Sierra Leone, this paper examines how processes of post-conflict statebuilding have redrawn the boundaries of authority between the formal state and customary governance systems, and thereby provided new citizenship opportunities for women. The paper explores the changes that are taking place in women’s rights, women’s political participation and women’s mobilisation in Sierra Leone, in the context of statebuilding. It also makes recommendations on how donors can support the strengthening of women’s citizenship within their support for statebuilding in Africa.

http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/13552074.2011.625656
Despite human rights abuses, the ten-year conflict in Nepal brought aspects of empowerment to women, changing their role in the family and community: women became active outside the home, challenged the security forces, and began to assert their rights as citizens. This article finds that in the post-conflict environment, development organisations and agencies have continued to operate mostly without including the voices of women, and that women are disappointed by these non-participatory and top-down development models, which are leaving women’s status as second-class citizens unchallenged. Women are consequently exploring alternatives.

For further discussion and resources, see the topic guide supplement on State-society relations and citizenship in situations of conflict and fragility.

DEVELOPMENT AND RECONSTRUCTION INTERVENTIONS

Statebuilding and peacebuilding needs in fragile environments and in the aftermath of conflict are extensive. Development interventions and domestic reforms often target various sectors simultaneously. These include:

Legal frameworks
Constitutional and legal reforms in post-conflict contexts are often ideal for enshrining gender-equality and other basic human rights in the constitution and for formalising the representation and participation of women and men in governmental and societal decision-making structures. Nevertheless, although post-conflict contexts present opportunities for reform of legal frameworks, the institutional reforms required to effectively enforce these frameworks are far more contentious.
and gradual. Consequently, women continue to face risks of discrimination and worse when seeking access to justice through post-conflict legal institutions. It is also important that gender equality provisions extend to non-statutory and customary law in order to ensure effective implementation, but achieving such reforms can be challenging.

During periods of transition, efforts to re-establish rule of law and issues of justice and accountability are also significant. It is important that transitional justice and judicial mechanisms and processes pay attention to gender-specific issues, such as prosecution of sexual crimes and reparations for victims of such violence.

**Political governance**
Quota systems have often been implemented in the aftermath of conflict in order to improve the gender balance in political decision-making institutions. Such provisions may be adopted in the constitution and are usually aimed at increasing the representation of women. Types of quota systems include candidate lists and a minimum percentage of female representation in Parliament (e.g. 30 per cent in all countries in the Great Lakes Region). The representation of women needs to go beyond nominal presence, however. Women need to hold key positions to effectively influence decision-making and require technical and political support so that they can perform their tasks effectively.

**Economic governance and opportunities**
Wars often result in changes to gender relations in the economic realm. There are more female heads of household and women have to take over traditionally male duties. They have to become more active in formal and informal markets in order to provide for their families. Economic interventions in fragile and conflict-affected contexts, similar to peaceful situations, often seek to advance women’s economic empowerment through micro-enterprise support. It is important, however, that interventions are not restricted to this micro-level but also challenge men’s greater control over economic resources, such as agricultural land. An important area of reform is to remove the legal and informal restrictions on women’s ownership of and control over land.

Attention also needs to be paid to the impact of changes in gender relations on men. These changes, combined with continued displacement and post-conflict unemployment can undermine men’s sense of identity as providers. This in turn can contribute to anti-social behaviour and violence against women. It is also important, however, to ensure that efforts to reintegrate men into the employment sector do not translate into the loss of jobs for women. This can reverse gains made by women during conflict and reinforce gender stereotypes and disparities. Gender-sensitive policies that address families as economic units may be able to contribute to sharing of responsibilities, preserving women’s war-time economic experiences, while providing men with skills they lack.

**Social services**
Re-establishing basic public services, such as health and education, in fragile and conflict-affected environments is an important priority. This is not only because such services are essential. In
addition, their public provision can relieve some of the additional burdens that women often face in having to provide these services privately to family and community members. It is also necessary to ensure that services are gender-sensitive. This requires the collection of sex-disaggregated data, consultation with women and men separately in order to assess and cater to their specific needs, and ensuring that health and educational systems incorporate male and female professionals.

**Addressing trauma**

War-affected populations often suffer from the trauma of having experienced and/or observed extensive violence – killings, torture, rape, beatings. In some cases, such as in the Balkans and Bosnia, family members were frequently witness to the killing of male relatives and the rape of female relatives. It is important that reconstruction programmes incorporate measures to address trauma, in order to break the cycle of violence. Those who fought in the wars must learn to function in a non-violent culture and to handle their detachment and fears. Those who experienced sexual violence also often require counselling. Measures to address trauma must cater to the various experiences of men, women, boys and girls.

**Rebuilding trust and social relations**

In fragile contexts, lack of trust in state institutions is prevalent. In conflict-affected contexts, mass violence destroys not only physical structures, but also trust throughout society. Distrust and fear often persist in the aftermath, making it difficult to re-establish communities, societies and a sense of shared citizenship. Restoring trust is needed at all levels. It requires, in particular, a shift in focus to the people, to the grassroots and the development of a transformative agenda.

Some initiatives aimed at restoring trust and building social relations are focused on women, such as knitting groups and small business ventures that aim to bring women together across divides through income generation opportunities. In order to transform gender relations and promote gender equality, however, projects need to go beyond women-to-women activities, for example through the involvement of women and men of differing identity groups in local development institutions and structures for non-violent conflict-resolution. These can range from planning boards and community committees to local government.


http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3584

What role do gender dimensions play in post-conflict reconstruction (PCR)? Policymakers have largely been slow to employ gender analysis and focus. This paper proposes a framework of three interrelated gender dimensions to help develop more effective approaches to PCR: (i) women-focused activities, (ii) gender-aware programming, and (iii) strategic attention to transforming gender relations in order to heal trauma, build social capital and avoid further violence. Policies aimed at achieving gender equality may be instrumental for achieving sustainable peace.
What are the gender dimensions of intrastate conflict? This extensive review examines: the gender roles of women and men before, during, and after conflict; gender role changes throughout conflict; and challenges in sustaining positive gender role changes and mitigating negative effects. Policy suggestions relate to issues such as: considering women's more difficult social reintegration; targeting both men and women when addressing gender-based violence; building on skills acquired during conflict; gender-sensitising health and education systems; and adopting community-based approaches in reconstruction.


Case studies


http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3281

**DDR AND SECURITY SECTOR REFORM**

There are strong links between disarmament, demobilisation and reintegration (DDR) and security sector reform (SSR). The OECD DAC recommends that the two issues should be considered together as part of a comprehensive security and justice programme. It is essential that the needs of women, girls, men, and boys are taken into account in all areas.

There has been growing awareness that an emphasis on stereotypical gender roles has often resulted in failure to acknowledge the presence of female fighters and failure to provide them with access to DDR programmes. Even where DDR schemes are open to women and girls, women may fail to enrol due to various gender-related reasons, such as fear of safety in an environment with large numbers of male ex-combatants, and fear of social stigma from being identified as a fighter. Awareness campaigns have been adopted in some contexts, such as in Liberia, and have helped to encourage women and girls to participate in the DDR process.

Programmes that cater to male combatants have also paid insufficient attention to the ‘reintegration’ component and how women who remain in the communities to which male combatants are being reintegrated should be involved. For example, reintegration processes could focus on preparing men and women for positive household and community relations and for non-violent mechanisms of resolving differences. They could also involve women as allies in starting businesses and reviving agricultural activities. Receiving households and communities often require greater capacity to welcome back and reintegrate returnees.

In order for security services to be trusted, responsive and effective, they must be representative of diverse population groups. Security sector reform provides the opportunity to create more inclusive and less discriminatory security sector institutions, not only in terms of ethnicity but also in terms of gender. In most cases, however, post-conflict SSR processes are designed and implemented by men. This is due in large part to the comparative lack of participation of women in government security agencies and in leadership positions of defence and security committees.

The lack of meaningful civil society input in SSR processes further undermines the participation and representation of women. There is some growing awareness of the need to open up planning and implementation of SSR to broader participation through public hearings, media discussions, and civil society representatives in SSR bodies.

**Bastick, M., 2007, ‘Integrating Gender in Post-Conflict Security Sector Reform’, Centre for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces (DCAF), Geneva**

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4288

This paper argues that integrating gender into Security Sector Reform increases responsiveness to the security needs of all parts of the community, strengthens local ownership of reform and enhances security sector oversight. It finds that challenges to successfully integrating gender are similar to those that have hampered SSR in post-conflict contexts: an impatience to complete
programmes, leading to insufficient local ownership; and assumptions that models that have been used elsewhere can be replicated without due regard to context.

Bastick, M., 2011, ‘Gender Self-Assessment Guide for the Police, Armed Forces and Justice Sector’ Centre for the Democratic Control of Armed Forces (DCAF), Geneva
http://www.dcaf.ch/content/download/40997/605027/file/self_assessment_guide.pdf
Conducting a gender assessment can be a first step in transforming security sector institutions into gender-responsive institutions. This document provides guidance on how to conduct such an assessment. A gender-responsive security sector institution is one that both meets the distinct and different security and justice needs of men, women, boys and girls and promotes the full and equal participation of men and women.

Police reform

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=3092
What role can gender-sensitive police reform play in post-conflict situations? This paper argues that post-conflict contexts present important opportunities for law-enforcement reform. At the same time, the need for GSPR in practice is particularly acute during peacekeeping missions and the process of rebuilding state institutions. Key aspects of gender-sensitive police reform are discussed, drawing on findings from an inter-agency study and from programming in various countries undertaken by UNIFEM and UNDP.

Moser, A. et al., 2009, ‘Case Studies of Gender-Sensitive Police Reform in Rwanda and Timor-Leste’, UNIFEM and UNDP

Monitoring and Evaluation

Popovic, N., 2008, ‘Security Sector Reform Assessment, Monitoring and Evaluation and Gender’, Gender and SSR Toolkit, DCAF, OSCE/ODIHR, UN-INSTRAW

TRANSITIONAL JUSTICE

The United Nations defines transitional justice as the full range of processes and mechanisms associated with a society’s attempts to come to terms with a legacy of large-scale past abuses, in order to ensure accountability, serve justice and achieve reconciliation. These involve judicial and non-judicial mechanisms (with differing levels of international involvement, or none at all) that
include individual prosecutions, reparations, truth-seeking, institutional reform, vetting and dismissals, or a combination thereof.

The nature and consequences of large-scale past abuses differ significantly for men, women and children, and for different groups among them. Gendered dimensions in transitional justice are rarely addressed, however, in the literature or in practice. At a basic level, integrating a gender perspective into transitional justice processes calls for greater inclusion and participation of diverse perspectives. This requires addressing the prioritisation of male perspectives and the under-representation and lack of involvement of women in transitional justice.

In order to be gender inclusive, transitional justice processes and mechanisms also need to consider the multiple roles that men and women play in conflict and in the aftermath of conflict. The few studies on questions of gender in transitional justice that exist have focused primarily on women as victims of sexual violence. Not only does this neglect sexual violence against men, but it also contributes to persistent views and treatment of women solely as victims. The Liberian truth commission, for example, emphasised women’s suffering as victims of violent attacks, but failed to acknowledge that a large section of the combatant forces consisted of women (Buckley-Zistel and Zolkos, 2011).

Further, the focus on sexual crimes in transitional justice has tended to result in neglect of broader structural issues. In order to truly integrate gender issues into transitional justice, it is also important to recognise and address structural violence, such as exclusion, marginalisation and discrimination, and the consequences of unequal power relations. Redress cannot be limited to violations but also needs to cover measures that seek to address the underlying inequalities that have contributed to the context in which violations took place.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4287

Literature on gender in transitional justice (TJ) has tended to focus on women as victims of sexualised violence. But this study aims to contribute to more nuanced and inclusive analysis. Gender cannot be seen simply as a descriptive category of victims. The roles of men and women in the context of TJ are multifaceted and interrelated. Incorporating gender into analysis of TJ can act as a powerful critical tool.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4173

How can transitional justice processes serve women more effectively? Among the guiding principles of UN engagement in transitional justice activities is the need to 'strive to ensure women’s rights'. This report examines gender equality issues in relation to prosecutions, truth seeking, reparations, national consultations and institutional reforms. It argues that post-conflict transitions provide opportunities both to secure justice and to address the context of inequality that gives rise to
conflict. Normative, procedural and cultural aspects of transitional justice institutions require reform.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display?type=Document&id=3142
How do women's experiences of conflict and transition differ from those of men? What effect does this have on transitional justice mechanisms? This paper examines assumptions held within the field of transitional justice from a gendered perspective. There is a need to move beyond a focus on individual incidents of sexual violence in conflict to address the context of inequality that facilitates such violations and a continuum of violence.

http://ijtj.oxfordjournals.org/content/1/1/23.abstract
This essay surveys feminist scholarship and praxis on transitional justice, examining its ongoing contribution to the conceptualisation and design of transitional justice mechanisms. It proposes that feminist theory should focus on how transitional justice debates help or hinder broader projects of securing material gains for women through transition, rather than trying to fit a feminist notion of justice within transitional justice frameworks.

Truth commissions and reparations

Truth commissions, a key transitional justice mechanism, are established to research and report on massive human rights violations from armed conflict or under authoritarian regimes. The reports produced by these commissions often provide policy recommendations, including the provision of reparations. Reparations refer to various measures that aim to redress past wrongs and provide compensation, rehabilitation and satisfaction for victims. It is important to include a gender perspective in the work of truth commissions and in discussions of reparations. This would allow the documentation of the differing experiences of women in conflict, violence and repression, and could also promote an exploration of root causes of the conflict – including unequal power relations and gender inequality. It would allow reparations to be tailored to the needs of women and to address social and economic inequality linked to gender.

It is worth noting that a holistic understanding of transitional justice requires more than simply addressing the human rights abuses of previous regimes. There is a large body of literature on truth commissions, special criminal tribunals and other formal, ad hoc processes for addressing crimes committed during conflict as part of the broader post-conflict reckoning. However, these accounts often draw an unjustifiably clear distinction between redress for crimes committed during conflict and those committed in the lengthy period of lawlessness and impunity which invariably follows it, a period in which women remain exposed to significant risks of violence. Consequently, there has been significantly less written about ‘regular’ peacetime processes and institutions – for example,
conventional courts and the police – and the extent to which their handling of post-conflict violence can contribute to a more gendered conception of statebuilding and peacebuilding.

How have truth commissions (TCs) in societies emerging from conflict or repressive regimes incorporated a gender approach into their investigations of human right violations? What assistance could development actors, particularly the World Bank, provide to such an approach? This paper analyses the degree to which a gender-sensitive perspective was used in three TCs, in South Africa, Peru and Sierra Leone. It argues that a gender approach can enhance the effectiveness of reparations offered by TCs and prevent future conflicts, and that increased support from international actors might strengthen TCs’ engagement with such issues.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display?type=Document&id=2676
What happens to women whose lives are transformed by human rights violations? This volume explores gender and reparations policies in Guatemala, Peru, Rwanda, Sierra Leone, South Africa, and Timor-Leste. It argues for the systematic introduction of a gender dimension into reparations programmes as a way of acknowledging the rights of female victims.

Case studies

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display?type=Document&id=4286
How do transitional justice mechanisms perceive the role of women and men in conflict and post-conflict situations? How might a gendered approach to transitional justice apply to the situation of female combatants in Colombia? Transitional justice mechanisms fail to be gender inclusive when they neglect the multiple gendered roles that men and women play in conflict and post-conflict situations. Examining transitional justice from a gendered lens reveals crucial detail about the situation of women in conflict and provides opportunities to transform the gendered origins of conflict.


For more resources on transitional justice, see the GSDRC’s ‘Transitional Justice’ guide.

See also the International Centre of Transitional Justice’s Gender Justice web pages.
GENDER AND CLIMATE CHANGE

Contents

• Introduction
• Gendered impacts of climate change
• Climate change mitigation
• Adaptation strategies
• Disaster preparedness and risk reduction

INTRODUCTION

The world’s poor are disproportionately affected by climate change and natural disasters. Climate change affects women and men differently. Women and girls face particular vulnerabilities resulting from cultural norms and their lower socioeconomic status in society. Women’s domestic roles often make them disproportionate users of natural resources such as water, firewood and forest products. As these resources become scarcer, women experience an increased work burden and may fall further into poverty as a result. Increasing population growth puts further pressure on resources.

Natural disasters also have gendered implications, killing more women than men. This trend is more pronounced the stronger the disaster (Neumayer and Plumper 2007). Despite the vulnerabilities experienced by women and girls, they are often unable to voice their specific needs. The exclusion of women’s voices also means that their extensive knowledge of the environment and resource conservation is untapped.

Women and men are not helpless victims of climate change, but use various methods and strategies to adapt to climate change. It is increasingly recognised that empowering women, children and other marginalised groups is beneficial not only as a policy in itself, but also as a means of strengthening the effectiveness of climate change measures. Often, strategies that are adopted are related to the social norms concerning what is acceptable for men and women.

There is evidence that since women in developing countries have primary responsibility of providing for their families, they are more reliant on natural resources and are thus more careful stewards of them and the environment. They have been engaging in various efforts that qualify as climate change mitigation and adaptation activities. While some argue that climate change worsens gender inequality as women and girls are more susceptible to the impacts of climate change, others argue that climate change offers opportunities to tap into women’s traditional roles as carers of natural resources and link them with paid employment.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4305
This report argues that gender transformation is both an important condition and a potential end goal of effective climate change responses and poverty reduction. It highlights the need to put people at the centre of climate change responses, and to pay particular attention to the challenges and opportunities that climate change presents in the struggle for gender equality.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4261
This article examines the vulnerability of girls and women to dying from natural disasters and their aftermath. Looking at the effects of natural disasters in 141 countries over the period 1981 to 2002, the study shows that in societies where the socioeconomic status of women is low, natural disasters kill more women than men, both directly and indirectly via related post-disaster events. They also kill women at a younger age than men. The reason for the difference in mortality lies largely in the socioeconomic status of women.

GENDERED IMPACTS OF CLIMATE CHANGE

Vulnerability to the impacts of climate change depends on a number of factors including gender, age, socioeconomic status, caste and disability. Poor individuals, those with disabilities and those belonging to particular caste groups are more vulnerable to climate change impacts as their coping strategies may be limited both by social norms and stigma, but also due to issues of mobility, knowledge and lack of money.

It is generally acknowledged that women and girls face a heavier burden of domestic work as a result of resource shortages (food, water and firewood) caused by climate change. They are made to walk longer distances to fetch these resources and may as a result face increased security issues including harassment and sexual violence. Increasing workloads may also result in families withdrawing daughters from schools to help out at home, reducing their future opportunities. Boys may also be taken out of school and sent to earn money to help the family deal with poverty resulting from climate change impacts.

In addition, crop failure as a result of sporadic rainfall may result in the selective malnourishment or starvation of girls and women, especially in cultures where men are used to eating before women and girls. Selective malnourishment of ‘less important’ members of the family can also be used as a strategy to ensure the family’s survival. Women also often face the most negative economic implications of crop failure as they usually have fewer economic resources to fall back on in times of crisis. This also has implications for the health of many women and girls, as malnourishment increases the risk of contracting infections. Further, women and girls’ lower socioeconomic status make it more difficult for them to access and pay for treatment.
The different experiences of men and women regarding climate change has led one analyst to argue that ‘gender transformation is both an important condition and a potential end goal of effective climate change responses and poverty reduction’ (Skinner 2011:13).

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4295
What impact does climate change have on adolescent girls? This report argues that the double jeopardy brought about by gender and age has been largely ignored in the global debate on climate change. It highlights girls’ need for: 1) greater access to quality education and skills in relation to climate change; 2) greater protection from violence exacerbated by climate shocks; and 3) greater participation in climate change adaptation decision-making and risk reduction activities. It is important to allocate adaptation funding to enable girls to be effective agents of change.

http://www.fao.org/docrep/013/i1721e/i1721e00.pdf

**CLIMATE CHANGE MITIGATION**

While climate change poses many challenges, there are also opportunities to be found in adaptation and mitigation. Women in particular are often known to be involved in traditional work that involve limited release of greenhouse gases or that captures emissions that have been released, such as reforestation and conservation of other natural resources. Women’s agency to mitigate climate change is thus still relatively unexplored and untapped. Research suggests that much of women’s work in conservation is not paid. As such, there are untapped avenues for promoting women’s economic participation while counteracting climate change in industries such as agroforestry, resource conservation and energy, in which women are often already engaged.

Bäthge, S., 2010, ‘Climate Change and Gender: Economic Empowerment of Women through Climate Mitigation and Adaptation?’, GTZ Working Papers, GTZ, Eschborn
http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4275
This paper argues that the economic empowerment of women through climate mitigation and adaptation fosters economic growth and socioeconomic development, reduces poverty, keeps environmental problems in check and increases the potential for adaptation. It requires an integrated approach and institutional and political measures to create the structural conditions necessary for broad-based and sustainable economic empowerment.

http://www.gsdrc.org/docs/open/HD750.pdf
There is limited but growing attention to the ways in which empowerment and climate change policy and interventions interact with and benefit each other. The vast majority of this literature focuses on the empowerment of women, and centres on climate change adaptation. While the links between gender and adaptation and gender perspectives on adaptation have been explored to some extent, the gender aspects of mitigation are still preliminary. There is also very limited discussion on concepts of accountability in climate change policy and interventions, outside of climate finance. As such, this report focuses on empowerment, particularly empowerment of women, and climate change adaptation and mitigation.

**Adaptation Strategies**

Adaptation strategies have traditionally centred on infrastructure-based interventions. However, there has now been a shift towards acknowledging the need for a more development-oriented approach which addresses the underlying causes of vulnerability, such as poverty, lack of education, and gender inequality.

At the individual level, women and men use a range of different strategies to adapt to climate change, many of which are highly gendered. For instance, while men may opt to migrate or travel to towns or cities to earn money, this option is rarely open to women because of the social norms that tie them to the home. Women may instead opt to increase day labouring in the nearby villages and towns or change the pattern of farming or crops.

In addition to looking at gender norms, there is a further need to look at socioeconomic status and underlying power relations to fully understand climate change impact and adaptation strategies. Understanding the layered identities of and discrimination faced by individuals provides a more complete picture of the limitations they face and the opportunities that are available to them. A focus on ‘power-laden social structures such as dependency, caste- and gender-unequal relations can potentially craft more holistic adaptive responses that tap into opportunities to improve the wellbeing of vulnerable peoples’ (Onta and Resurreccion 2011:356).


http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4282

This brief explains CARE’s approach to adaptation, which incorporates activities that challenge gender norms to increase people’s resilience to climate hazards. The ability of women to manage climate crises is constrained by an inequitable distribution of rights, resources and power. Women’s empowerment and climate adaptation can be mutually reinforcing: women are more risk averse than men, more open to advice and more willing to change strategies in response to new information.

This study analyses the situation of Dalit and Lama households in the Humla district of Nepal. Their livelihoods have been adversely affected by a shift in the monsoon season, a decrease in snowfall and longer dry periods. The study finds that Dalits are pushing caste boundaries, but that gender boundaries are remaining resilient even during crisis. Gendered, and caste-related, relations of dependency both enable and constrain capacities to adapt to climate change. By focusing on social structures such as dependency, caste- and gender-unequal relations, development actors can craft more holistic adaptive responses that maximise opportunities to improve the wellbeing of vulnerable peoples.

United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), 2010, ‘Gender, Climate Change and Community-Based Adaptation’, UNDP, New York

http://www.gsdrc.org/docs/open/HD750.pdf
Cited above

**DISASTER PREPAREDNESS AND RISK REDUCTION**

Related to the issue of climate change is the importance of disaster risk reduction (DRR). With increased weather volatility, individuals living in risk zones need to be prepared. DRR has suffered from insufficient gender mainstreaming, though this is now starting to change. While women used to be added as a component to DRR strategies, there is now an increasing acknowledgement that wider community participation, including women and men, young and old, poor and rich, must be ensured in DRR strategies.

The DRR industry has also closely followed other shifts in the climate change debate. While the strategic focus of disaster management has often been reactive in nature, it is increasingly coming to be seen as a more long-term process, where both gender and DRR are considered necessary to achieving sustainable development.

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4311
This chapter explores the extent to which the most vulnerable victims of natural hazards are, or can be, included in DRR and CCA decision-making and action. Drawing on case studies from the Maldives, Indonesia and India, it highlights the importance of including the most vulnerable, such as the poor in general and youth and women in particular. Obstacles to such participation include power relations within and across social systems, individual capacity levels, and lack of public awareness. Overcoming these challenges involves planning and working for equity within a community, planning for the needs of the most vulnerable at the local level and transferring knowledge from national to local level.


Monitoring and evaluation


Toolkits


UNFPA and WEDO, 2009, ‘Climate Change Connections: A Resource Kit on Climate, Population and Gender’, UNFPA and WEDO
http://www.unfpa.org/public/cache/offonce/publications/pid/4028;jsessionid=3736860EFD9F7B4C54ACD1D32DCBAECE

Further resources

Impact of Climate Change on Poverty and Vulnerability in the GSDRC’s Climate Change Topic Guide

Gender CC

Women’s Environment and Development Organisation

Global Gender and Climate Alliance

Gender and climate change in Eldis

119  GSDRC Topic Guide on Gender, 2012
MONITORING AND EVALUATION

Contents

- Introduction
- Gender indicators
- Global gender indices

INTRODUCTION

It is essential to monitor and evaluate the outcomes of both gender-focused and -mainstreamed development interventions and policies. This can provide crucial information for adjusting programmes and activities in order to better achieve gender equality related goals, and in order to know if and when such efforts have been successful. In order to assess and address differences in the impact of development interventions on women and men, monitoring and evaluation mechanisms need to be sensitive to gender. Mechanisms used to monitor and evaluate have however been largely gender blind.

Where interventions are specifically gender-focused, a key challenge is how to measure change in the context of gender relations. Linear frameworks (such as logframes) are a common tool to monitor whether particular goals were achieved. Results are often performance-based, documenting activities and outputs, such as the number of women trained. There are few M&E frameworks that seek to measure impact and change over time and to contribute to an understanding of how change happens or how gender relations have been altered. It is thus difficult to determine the most effective interventions for altering social power relations that mediate women’s access to resources and rights, security and autonomy. Monitoring of objectives rarely includes factors such as increases in women’s control over agricultural resources. In turn, donor support for initiatives aimed at promoting gender equality has often focused on initiatives, such as microfinance and political representation, which are considered easier to assess.

Batliwala and Pittman (2010) emphasise the importance of developing M&E frameworks and tools that focus on social change; that can capture the results of large-scale women’s empowerment processes, beyond single projects or interventions; and that can track and incorporate backlashes and unexpected change, common in women’s rights work. Such nuanced factors are however challenging to track with standard tools, and with financial and time constraints.

It is also important to acknowledge in the design of M&E frameworks and tools that efforts to empower women and transform gender relations are complex processes. Progress in these areas is non-linear and can take a long time. It is thus important to assess and value intermediate outcomes in addition to longer-term outcomes.
http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=4258
This study analyses current assumptions about monitoring and evaluation in the context of women’s rights, gender equality and women’s empowerment work. It assesses M&E tools and argues that donors and agencies need to work more closely with constituencies in building M&E systems to find creative ways of tracking the effects of interventions in the change process. Women’s rights organisations need to make internal learning systems a stronger part of their work.

Batliwala, S., 2011, ‘Strengthening Monitoring And Evaluation For Women’s Rights: Thirteen Insights For Women’s Organizations’, Association for Women’s Rights in Development (AWID), Toronto, Mexico City and Capetown
http://awid.org/Media/Files/MnE_Thirteen_Insights_Women_Orgs_ENG

http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Helpdesk&id=616
It appears that the majority of efforts to measure women’s economic empowerment programmes focuses on quantitative outcomes – such as increased access to credit or increased revenue – even where the stated objectives include broader empowerment goals. Whilst some evaluations include variables to show that women have not been disempowered, few succeed in showing that specific aspects of women’s power have actually increased.

**GENDER-SENSITIVE INDICATORS**

Gender-sensitive indicators are developed to measure gender-related changes over time. They can be quantitative, based on sex-disaggregated statistical data, such as the numbers of girls and boys enrolled in school, or the percentages of women and men in Parliament. They can also be qualitative, aimed at capturing people’s experiences, opinions, attitudes and feelings. This could include changes in attitudes about domestic violence, or women’s experiences of work and employment. Data for qualitative indicators may be collected through participatory methodologies, such as focus group discussions and interviews.

There are various challenges in deciding on indicators to measure change. Deciding what to measure can be a political process, with differing priorities between and within donors and partner countries. It is also often difficult to identify indicators that can measure complex aspects of gender equality, such as empowerment or gender mainstreaming. In addition, it can be difficult to determine why particular changes have happened. Multiple factors are often at play and it can be hard to attribute outcomes to a particular intervention.
Key lessons in relation to gender-sensitive indicators include:

- **Combine quantitative and qualitative indicators and methodologies.** While quantitative indicators can reveal what has changed, qualitative analyses can reveal the quality of change and help to determine why certain patterns have emerged. Qualitative indicators may also be necessary to effectively measure complex aspects, such as women’s empowerment.

- **Consult with local people and adopt a participatory approach in designing and selecting indicators.** This is necessary to understand what constitutes meaningful change for the people affected. For example, women and men from target groups may measure changes against important cultural or local elements.

**Data collection**

Data collection can be another challenging aspect of M&E. Indicator data is often based on census surveys, which are often collected by people with a lack of gender awareness, resulting in the risk of gender biases. Many developing countries have inadequate sex-disaggregated statistical data and lack of capacity in national statistical offices to handle such data. It may be necessary to improve local capacity and to stimulate the need for gender-sensitive data collection.

**Moser, A, 2007, 'Gender and Indicators: Overview Report', BRIDGE Development-Gender, Institute of Development Studies, Brighton**
http://www.gsdrc.org/go/display&type=Document&id=2917
This report examines conceptual and methodological approaches to gender and measurements of change. It focuses on current debates and good practice from the grassroots to the international level. It argues that measurement techniques and data remain limited and poorly utilised, making it difficult to know if efforts are on track to achieve gender equality goals and commitments.

This practice note focuses on the use of gender equality indicators as a way of measuring change. It asks: what are indicators, and why should we develop indicators to measure gender equality? It also addresses the often political issue of what we should be measuring, provides some broad principles that can be applied, and suggests some questions donors can ask when developing gender equality indicators. The brief also offers examples of existing indicators, while emphasising that they always need to be adapted to specific contexts.

**Danida, 2006, ‘Gender-Sensitive Monitoring and Indicators’, Technical Note, Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Denmark, Danida, Copenhagen**
http://docs.watsan.net/Downloaded_Files/PDF/Danida-2006-Gender.pdf
GLOBAL GENDER INDICES

Various country-level composite measures of gender inequality and women’s position have been developed over the past two decades. In recent years, several new indices have emerged. These include the Global Gender Gap Index introduced in 2006; and the Gender Inequality Index, the Social Institutions and Gender Index, the Women’s Economic Opportunities Index, and the Gender Equality Index – all launched in 2010. These indices are freely accessible online (some can be downloaded in a data file and some also provide the underlying indicators). They offer considerable potential for academic research, policy analysis, and monitoring and evaluation of policies (van Staveren, 2011).

The Gender Inequality Index

The 2010 Human Development Report introduced the Gender Inequality Index (GII). This measures inequality between women and men in three dimensions: reproductive health, empowerment and the labour market. It replaces the Gender Development Index (GDI) and the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM). The GII is concerned more with outcomes and incorporates methodological improvements to the GDI and GEM and alternative indicators. ‘The health dimension is measured by two indicators: maternal mortality ratio and the adolescent fertility rate. The empowerment dimension is also measured by two indicators: the share of parliamentary seats held by each sex and by secondary and higher education attainment levels. The labour dimension is measured by women’s participation in the work force’ (UNDP, 2011: 1).


Social Institutions and Gender Index

The Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI) was developed in 2009 by the OECD, based on the OECD’s Gender, Institutions and Development Database. SIGI focuses on critical societal norms and institutions which affect how women fare. It covers five categories: 1) discriminatory family code, 2) restricted physical integrity, 3) son bias, 4) restricted resources and entitlements, and 5) restricted civil liberties. Its indicators concern both formal institutions (e.g. rights and laws) and informal institutions (e.g. social and cultural practices).

Link to SIGI: http://my.genderindex.org/
Link to the Gender, Institutions and Development database:
http://www.oecd.org/document/0,0,3746,en_2649_33731_39323280_1_1_1_1,00.html

Global Gender Gap Index

The Global Gender Gap Index (GGGI), introduced in 2006 by the World Economic Forum, measures gaps in human development variables between men and women (measured as female/male ratios). It covers five dimensions of gender inequality: economic participation, economic opportunity, political empowerment, educational attainment and health and well being. These are measured using fourteen indicators.

http://www.weforum.org/issues/global-gender-gap
**Women’s Economic Opportunities Index**

The Women’s Economic Opportunities Index (WEOI), developed by the Economist Intelligence Unit, was first published in 2010. It has five dimensions – labour policy and practice; access to finance; education and training; women’s legal and social status; and general business environment – made up of 26 indicators. It considers laws, regulations, practices, customs and attitudes that affect women’s ability to participate in the workforce under conditions similar to men.


**Gender Equality Index**

The Gender Equality Index (GEI), drawn from the Indices of Social Development database, was first published in 2010. The index includes input measures (mainly resources and rights), outcome measures (functionings or wellbeing indicators) and attitudinal measures (social norms). It incorporates quantitative and qualitative measures. Two indicators (women’s economic rights and women’s social rights) are themselves composites.


**Comparison of the Five Indices**

Van Staveren (2011: 15-16) positions each of the five indices discussed in this section along the stages of a Capability Approach. This Approach is comprised of:

- **Resources**: real access to inputs like land, income and credit. This also includes wage variables for example, such as gender wage inequality, as well as access to particular services such as child care, road infrastructure and business support.
- **Institutions**: formal institutions such as laws and rights, and informal institutions such as social norms and cultural practices. Gendered institutions are asymmetric between men and women and often form unequal constraints for women for their capabilities and functionings. Examples are women’s lack of land rights and stereotype perceptions of working mothers as less deserving of jobs or as inadequate parents.
- **Capabilities**: directly enabling peoples’ doings and beings, such as education and health.
- **Functionings**: actual doings and beings that one has reason to value, such as being literate and having a long life expectancy’.

The five indices are focused on:

- **GEI**: overall human development index of gender equality
- **GII**: capability and functionings measure (outcome measure) of gender equality
- **SIGI**: institutional measure of gender equality
- **GGGI**: capability measure of gender equality
- **WEOI**: resources & institutions measure (input measure) of women’s development’
What are the key differences among contemporary gender indices? This paper examines five such indices: the Gender Equality Index, Gender Inequality Index, Social Institutions and Gender Index, Global Gender Gap Index, and Women’s Economic Opportunities Index. It compares the indices and explains the differences by their methodological and theoretical characteristics. The aim is to enable researchers and policy analysts to make informed choices when they want to use a composite measure of gender inequality in their analyses.


UNDP, 2011, ‘Frequently Asked Questions about the Gender Inequality Index’, UNDP
DONOR APPROACHES TO GENDER

Contents

- Bilateral donors
- Multilateral development banks

Donor agencies have developed policies, approaches and guidelines for addressing and monitoring gender issues in their development work. Below is a selection of key donor-published materials.

BILATERAL DONORS

AusAID


This document outlines four areas of focus for AusAID’s work on gender equality and women’s empowerment:

- Advancing equal access to gender-responsive health and education services
- Increasing women’s voice in decision-making, leadership, and peace-building
- Empowering women economically and improving their livelihood security
- Ending violence against women and girls at home, in their communities, and in disaster and conflict situations.

DFID


DFID’s strategic vision for girls and women is that girls’ and women’s lives are significantly improved and sustainably transformed. The vision is intended to be an enabling framework which supports a wide range of interventions under each of the following four pillars:

- Delay first pregnancy and support safe childbirth
- Get economic assets directly to girls and women
- Get girls through secondary school
- Prevent violence against girls and women.

It also emphasises the importance of the ‘enabling framework’ to support these pillars. The framework includes support for: processes of social change; women’s and girls’ participation in decision-making processes; and enabling legal frameworks and policies.

DFID, 2009, ‘Guidance Note on Gender Mainstreaming and Social Exclusion in Research’
Department for International Development, London
http://www.dfid.gov.uk/r4d/PDF/Publications/GuidanceNote_Gender&SE.pdf

_Sida_


The current gender policy and the Sida Gender Equality in Practice Manual (March 2009) describe the process of identifying a gender strategy as starting with gender analysis, which leads to the selection of one, or a mix of approaches (integration, targeting or dialogue), which in turn leads to implementation.

Sida’s 2005 gender policy prioritises two main strategic areas for support: (i) strengthening rights, and (ii) power structures and relations. The 2007 Budget Bill further identified four thematic priorities:

- The economic empowerment of women
- Sexual and reproductive health and rights
- The political participation of women
- Women’s security.


Sida’s gender equality work aims to prioritise women’s economic empowerment in land and user rights; agricultural and rural development; unpaid care work; and entrepreneurship and private sector development. This paper defines and promotes an approach to women’s economic empowerment in these four areas, in addition to labour markets and decent work, human capital, and social protection.

_USAID_


Under this gender policy, USAID investments aim to:
• Reduce gender disparities in access to, control over and benefit from resources, wealth, opportunities and services (economic, social, political, and cultural)
• Reduce gender-based violence and mitigate its harmful effects on individuals and communities
• Increase capability of women and girls to realise their rights, determine their life outcomes, and influence decision-making in households, communities, and societies.

MULTILATERAL DEVELOPMENT BANKS

World Bank

Gender Action Plan
Between 2007 and 2010, the World Bank Group Action Plan “Gender Equality as Smart Economics” (GAP) worked to advance women’s economic empowerment to promote gender equality and empowerment more generally. It focused on labour force participation, land and agriculture, private sector development and finance, and infrastructure markets.

The World Bank’s transition plan proposes to continue the focus on women’s economic empowerment, while also broadening the scope to support Bank efforts to provide safety nets in response to crises and to the stresses of demographic pressures. In these contexts, it seeks to assist vulnerable boys and men. It also emphasises maternal mortality and reproductive health – issues with great impact on the MDGs and on long term development prospects, especially for IDA clients.

Inter-American Development Bank

This policy identifies two lines of action:

• Proactive action, which actively promotes gender equality and the empowerment of women through all the Bank’s development interventions. Such action includes both direct investment in areas strategic to gender equality and mainstreaming the gender perspective in development interventions. The policy aims to pay particular attention to groups that experience multiple inequalities, such as where gender inequalities interact with other inequalities based on socio-economic, ethnic and racial factors.
• **Preventive action**, which introduces safeguards to identify and prevent or mitigate adverse impacts on women or men resulting from the Bank’s financial operations. It aims to include women and men in consultation processes, and will comply with applicable legislation relating to equality between men and women.

**Asian Development Bank**

ADB’s Policy on Gender and Development adopts mainstreaming as a key strategy in promoting gender equity. Gender considerations will be mainstreamed into all ADB activities, including macroeconomic and sector work, and lending and technical assistance (TA) operations. The key elements of ADB’s policy include gender sensitivity, gender analysis, gender planning, mainstreaming, and agenda setting. To operationalise the policy, ADB’s activities will include providing assistance to its developing member countries in the areas of policy support, capacity building, gender and development awareness, and formulation and implementation of policies and programmes directed at improving the status of women.


**African Development Bank**


This policy elaborates a set of guiding principles, which emphasise, among other things, the need to apply gender analysis to all Bank activities. It also recognises that the concept of gender implicitly embodies a culture which entails cooperation and interdependence between women and men. The use of the gender analytical framework is designed to enhance understanding of the culturally determined gender elements relevant to programme/project implementation. There are five priority areas: education, agriculture and rural development, women’s poverty, health and governance.