Guidelines on integrating gender in livestock projects and programs

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ILRI PROJECT REPORT

Guidelines on integrating gender in livestock projects and programs

Jemimah Njuki, Elizabeth Waithanji, Nabintu Bagalwa and Juliet Kariuki

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Acronyms

ABS TCM	African Breeders Services Total Cattle Management Limited
CVA	Capacities and Vulnerabilities Analysis
DFID	Department for International Development
EADD	East African Dairy Development Project
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
GAM	Gender Analysis Matrix
HIV/AIDS	Human immunodeficiency virus/acquired immunodeficiency syndrome
ICRAF	World Agroforestry Center
ILRI	International Livestock Research Institute
INGIA-VC	Integrating Gender in Agricultural Value Chains
KARI	Kenya Agricultural Research Institute
M & E	Monitoring and Evaluation
NGO	Non-governmental organizations
PID	Participatory Impact Diagram
PRA	Participatory Rural Appraisal
SMART	Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic and Time bound
SUA	Sokoine University of Agriculture
TOR	Terms of Reference
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WDR	World Development Report

Introduction

Gender inequality can be a significant constraint to economic growth and poverty reduction. New evidence demonstrates that when women and men are relatively equal, economies tend to grow faster, the poor move more quickly out of poverty, and the well-being of men, women, and children is enhanced (FAO 2011; World Bank 2012). Several aspects of gender relations—the gender-based division of labour, disparities between males and females in power and resources, and gender biases in rights and entitlements, such as education and extension—all act to undermine economic growth and reduce the well-being of men, women, and children. Gender-based divisions of labour and gender inequalities also contribute to poverty. In many societies, women are disadvantaged in gaining access to productive assets and resources, including land, the labour of other family members, the family's liquid assets, and financial services outside the household which leads to greatly reduced productivity. Livestock programs and projects must therefore integrate gender in order to address some of these disparities. Gender affects the three critical factors contributing to poverty risks: opportunity, security, and empowerment. Discriminatory practices; lack of access to land, credit, and other productive resources; and the heavy time burdens of poor women all lower their economic opportunities compared to men's opportunities.

Evidence from several African countries suggests that female farmers are as efficient as male farmers, but are less productive because they are denied equal access to productive inputs and human capital. If their access to these inputs were at par with men's access, total agricultural output in these countries could increase by up to 30% and increase agricultural output by up to 4%. In terms of income, evidence from such widely differing countries as Brazil, Côte d'Ivoire, and Bangladesh suggests that women are more likely than men to use their incomes to improve their children's nutrition, health care, and schooling, even when it is considered a man's responsibility to pay for his children's education.

Both men and women are agents of change. Integrating gender in programs, policies and projects, aims at reducing gender disparities and enhancing women's participation in the economic development and their empowerment.

The International Livestock Research Institute (ILRI) has developed a gender strategy to guide the integration of gender in its work. The purpose of this manual is to provide operational guidance to ILRI staff and partners on how to integrate gender into the project cycle in accordance with the gender strategy. The need for this manual arises both from the evidence that gender plays an important role in determining economic growth, poverty reduction, and development effectiveness, and from the less-than-systematic integration of gender concerns into livestock projects and programs.

The manual is organized into two main sections. The first section covers the key concepts of gender, the rationale for gender mainstreaming in livestock development projects and programs and raises the key issues in gender and livestock development. The second section covers the integration of gender into the project cycle, from problem and context analysis, project design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation.

This manual has been compiled using training material that ILRI has used for training staff and partners on integrating gender in livestock research and development programs.

While the authors of this manual recognize the special needs and circumstances of youth in agriculture, this manual does not go into how to address these. The tools and methods described in the manual can be, however, applied to this group of the population.

Understanding gender in the context of agriculture and livestock development

Gender concepts

An understanding of gender concepts is important to get everyone at the same level. Selected concepts central to gender are explained here. These are intended to help in the understanding of gender and its importance in research and development.

Gender

Gender refers to the socially constructed roles, responsibilities and status of women, men, girls and boys. Gender is determined by culturally specified characteristics that define the social behaviour of women, men, boys and girls, and the relationships between them. Gender roles, status and relations vary according to place (countries, regions, and villages), groups (class, ethnic, and religious), generations and stages of lifecycle of individuals. Gender is thus not about women, but about the relationship between women and men. In addition, gender relations, roles, responsibilities and the status of women change over time, sometimes to women's advantage.

Gender equity

Gender equity means fairness of treatment for women and men, of all ages, according to their respective needs. This may include equal treatment or treatment that is different—favouring the more disadvantaged gender– but considered equivalent in terms of rights, benefits, obligations and opportunities. In the development context, a gender equity goal often requires built-in measures to compensate for the historical and social disadvantages of women.

Gender equality

Gender equality entails the concepts that all human beings, both men and women, are free to develop their personal abilities and make choices without the limitations set by stereotypes like rigid gender roles, or prejudices. It means that the different behaviours, aspirations and needs of women and men are considered, valued and favoured equally. It recognizes that men and women have different physical capacities owing to their biological differences, but their rights, responsibilities and opportunities should not be determined by whether they are born male or female.

Gender analysis

Gender analysis uses a tool /set of tools to assist in strengthening development, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation, and make programs and projects more relevant. It helps to frame questions about women and men's roles and relations in order to avoid making assumptions about who does what and why and aims to formulate development interventions that are better targeted to meet both women's and men's needs and constraints. It can be used to establish gender differences in multiple relational aspects as shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Some key areas for gender analysis

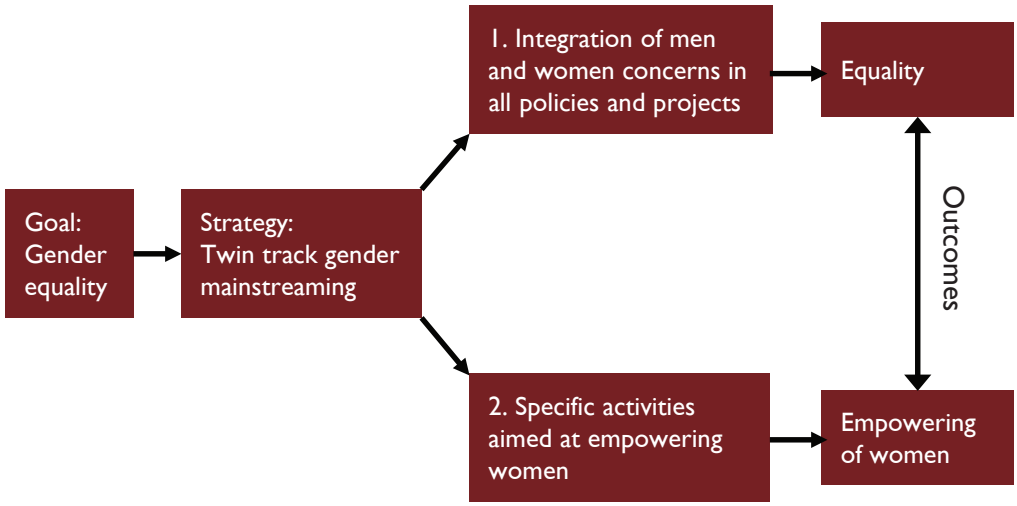
Empowerment

When people—both women and men—take control over their lives by setting their own agendas, gain skills (or have their own skills and knowledge recognized), increase their self-confidence, solve problems and develop self-reliance, they are considered empowered. Empowered women are able to make strategic life choices in a context where this ability was previously denied to them.

Gender mainstreaming

A strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension in the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programs in all political, economic and social spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not created and/or perpetuated. The ultimate goal of gender mainstreaming is to achieve gender equality (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Goals and outcomes of gender mainstreaming



Generic approaches for integrating gender in project implementation

A number of approaches can be used to integrate gender concerns into project implementation. The extent to which the gender context is understood and translated into program design and implementation, however, varies and can be represented along a scale from gender blind approaches to gender aware and gender transformative programs.

Projects whose implementers are not aware of the gender-related issues that may affect project outcomes are referred to as gender blind and may exploit gender relations to an extent that may reinforce current gender imbalances. For example, re-stocking programs are often gender exploitative in a negative way because they often donate cattle to rural homesteads to replace lost livestock—which including sheep, goats and chickens often owned by women—unaware that women spend hours managing the cattle now owned exclusively by men. Cattle alone donations in restocking, therefore, could increase women's workload and widen the gender livestock asset gap with the consequence of causing and reinforcing women's subservience to men in that community.

If implementers are aware of the gender issues about a project, they could design and implement the project so that it positively exploits, accommodates or transforms the gender context to attain the desired outcomes.

Gender accommodating projects accept existing gender relations while recognizing that inequalities exist. Rather than address the root cause of gender inequalities and inequities, or interfere with existing gender power imbalances, these projects are designed to relieve the burden of the disadvantaged gender—e.g. providing a well to a village to reduce women's drudgery in water collection.

Gender transformative approaches seek to transform gender imbalances by addressing the root cause of the imbalances. For example, targeting women in development projects that enhance women's access, control and ownership of resources, such as credit and land, may transform gender relations. Implementers of such projects must understand the underlying factors behind the gender inequalities and likely positive and negative consequences of their interventions. They must be careful not to leave women worse off owing to backlash.

Capacity building

Gender transformative development interventions have a high chance of being successful because they ultimately change the way people do things. They create opportunities, resources, relationships and services that develop new ways, or adapt old ways to address issues of inequity that lead to improvements in development. Often however, there is little know-how on the best way to ensure the integration of a gender transformative program. One effective approach to

better integrate women's concerns, needs and priorities into development planning and practice is capacity-building. The rationale behind capacity-building is that through gender training, awareness on gender inequalities in women's status, access and control over resources will be created among all research and development project stakeholders.

The main purpose for capacity building on gender should be to ensure that projects have an impact on gender relations and other gender-based constraints. One of the key approaches to meeting this objective is to link transformation through three levels; the personal, social and institutional. Transformative gender tools challenge the ideological, sociocultural, economic, political and institutional frameworks and structures that create, recreate and maintain gender inequalities. It is becoming increasingly clear that over-concentration on developing skills that integrate a gender perspective has led to the 'technicalization' and 'depoliticization' of gender training and capacity building efforts. The danger of treating gender as a technical issue is that gender does not entail a simple 'how to', rather a sustained effort to change attitudes that result in the socialization of boys and girls and eventually men and women, which determines the gender norms.

The approaches that offer a long term commitment to capacity building and those that combine training with non-training strategies are likely to have a real impact on the development outcomes from agriculture. Gender trainings should be considered as a means to an end, an end which strives to meet structural and systematic transformation of the society.

Table 1. Differences between gender accommodative and gender transformative training

Accommodative Gender Training	Transformative Gender Training
Gender training is a stand-alone initiative	Gender training is part of institutional reform
Focus on gender roles	Focus on gender relations
Describe gender inequalities	Analyse gender inequalities
Gender mainstreaming is approached through increasing number of women within organization/ groups	Gender mainstreaming is approached through integration of gender equality concerns into the analyses and formulation of all policies, programs and project.
Greater focus on technical skill	Balance in focus on personal, political and technical aspects of gender training
Creates gender awareness and sensitivity through one off trainings	Gender training is a continuous and iterative process combining class room training with non-classroom training strategies
Does not demand accountability of institutions	Demands accountability of institutions
Better integration of women in the society	Structural and systematic transformation of the society.
Training as an end	Training as a means to an end
No impact assessment of training conducted	Impact assessment of training conducted

Targeting

Directing program efforts to a specific category of the community in order to reduce inequalities is referred to as targeting. Targeting approaches can, therefore, determine the extent of gender integration into project planning and implementation. Depending on the context (scope and scale) and the project objectives, targeting approaches can be applied at different levels. For example, in some cases, entire projects can be targeted towards transforming gender relationships, while in other instances, project components may be designed to address issues of women and men's inequalities. At a lower scale, need or circumstance may dictate the targeting of gendered activities in specific program activities.

Identifying and securing the commitment of the individuals or groups that will form the multiple stakeholders of a well-integrated gender project will bring greater accountability and a variety of experiences to the development outputs. Because different stakeholders in project design and implementation can contribute specific knowledge and skills, including line ministries, non-governmental organizations and community-based organizations, a systematic targeting approach can help to promote the achievement of key gender outputs and outcomes.

The main objective of targeting is to direct resources, activities or services to specific groups of individuals with anticipation of achieving changes in their 'situation' relative to others. Different levels of targeting exist, namely: whole projects; project components; activities; resources; assets; services etc. Some advantages to systematically targeting gender in project implementation plans include the following:

- Reduces inequalities in distribution of key resources and assets, otherwise known as positive discrimination
- Directs capacity processes to those that need, or can use it
- Matches intervention to needs therefore increasing the potential for higher impact.

A point of caution is that targeting, if not well done, can lead to more marginalization, such as backlash, withdrawal of other services or even hijacking of the project and/ or project benefits from the marginalized group by the privileged group. The need for targeting should be discussed with relevant stakeholders so that there is an understanding of why certain groups are targeted over others early in the project.

Group-based approaches/collective action

Another successful approach to integrating gender into development projects is that of collective action. Collective action is defined as the 'use of groups to improve rights and access to services, accumulation of assets, linkages to markets, and management of resources' and is a well-established means of social and economic empowerment. Various structures through which collective action can occur exist and include voluntary self-help groups and formal organizations.

The key gender issues in collective action include the following:

- Identify which gender demographics (e.g. women only or mixed men and women groups)are most appropriate for reaching women
- Understanding how gender norms influence women's and men's motivation and capacity to engage in, and benefit from collective action
- Understand how different collective action institutions impact gender equity (Pandolfelli et al. 2007).

For example, are women only groups more appropriate for reaching women than mixed-gender groups? What are the contextual issues around governance, leadership, women's voice and representation? Also, will collective action positively impact women more if new groups are formed, or through the use of existing ones? It is important to determine how representative members are and the role of the poor in collective action processes when using existing groups.

What is clear is that women's participation in groups is an important determinant of successful collective action (Molinas 1998; Meinzen-Dick and Zwarteveen 1998; Westermann et al. 2005) and that women's exclusion from collective action may reinforce gender inequalities in power relations (Agarwal 2001). On the other hand, women's only groups that fail to address men's involvement can undermine the potential of achieving transformative development processes (Cornwall 2000).

Participatory approaches

Participatory approaches originated from Participatory Rural Appraisals (PRA), which were developed in the 1980s from a combination of research disciplines that encouraged local people to share their experiences for future development planning and action purposes. Participatory approaches in development emphasize the involvement of local project participants as masters of their experiences and agents of change marking a drastic shift from conventional research approaches which tend to be rather top–down and extractive (Chambers and Conway 1991).

A gender sensitive participatory approach is one that acknowledges women's and men's participation as equally important while attempting to address limitations to participation by establishing systematic mechanisms to overcome underlying obstacles. The approaches are often used because of an increasing recognition that involving rural women in the design of technologies, products and services that are intended for their use; and in the planning of services that are intended to reach them can be an important step in addressing gender, and other related inequalities.

Many experiences have shown that the participatory approach, as it is usually utilized, is not always gender sensitive because women's participation in discussions and decision-making is usually limited. Although there is limited capacity to affect gender roles and power relations in the short term, mechanisms that create a favourable environment for women to access information, express their opinions, and be involved in decision-making processes could be put in place. Development practitioners adopting gender sensitive participatory approaches need to be constantly aware of the different experiences and perspectives that women and men may have. Knowledge of gender differences must be applied in participatory approaches to understand how these differences can affect the issue to be addressed and the outcomes of the planned intervention.

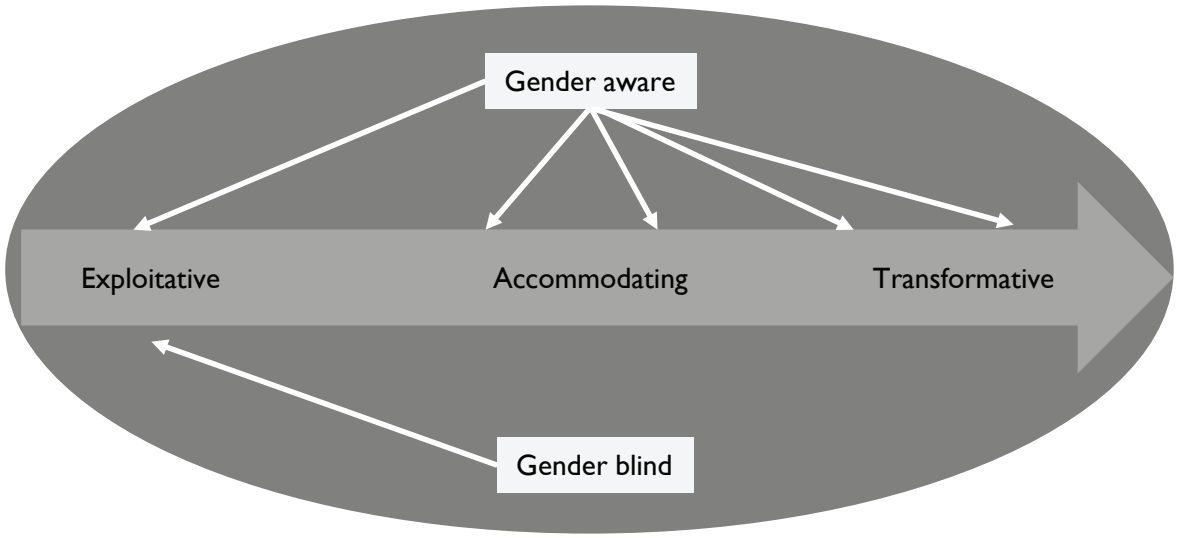
Table 2. Examples of how to ensure meaningful participation by women

Meaningful participation by women is possible when:
They have access to information
They are able to express their views
Their views are listened to and discussed
They are able to ask questions for clarification
They can influence decision-making
Decisions made integrate their concerns
Decisions addressing women's concerns are implemented.

Types of gender approaches

Gender approaches can be broadly classified as gender aware or gender blind. Most gender blind approaches end up being gender exploitative. Gender aware approaches are often gender accommodating and sometimes gender transformative. Some gender aware approaches can be gender exploitative. Gender exploitative approaches eventually work against the exploited gender (Figure 3).

Figure 3. Types of gender approaches



Note: Dotted line, undesired approaches, solid line, desired approaches

Gender exploitative programs:

- Take advantage of rigid gender norms and existing imbalances in power to achieve program objectives
- Expeditious in the short run but unlikely to be sustainable

- Can result in harmful consequences and undermine the program's intended objective.

Gender accommodating programs—work within the gender constraints without addressing their underlying causes:

- Acknowledge the role of gender norms and inequities and seek to develop actions that adjust to and often compensate for them
- No active strategy is used to seek to change the norms and inequities
- Focus on limiting any harmful impact on gender relations

Gender transformative programs:

- Actively examine, question, and change rigid gender norms and imbalance of power
- Encourage critical awareness among men and women of gender roles and norms
- Challenge and address the distribution of resources and power relationships between women and others in the community.

Why gender: The business case for gender mainstreaming

Some key gender gaps and their implications for agricultural growth and poverty reduction

- Consistent gender disparities in access to and benefits from technologies, services and inputs across developing countries exist: If women had the same resources as men, they could increase yields on their farms by 20–30%, raise agricultural output by 2.5–4% and reduce hungry people by 100–150 million (FAO 2011)
- Low mobility for women than men as many women cannot travel alone (culturally inappropriate), require husband's permission to leave home, cannot afford to pay travel fares and some perceive mobility as an opportunity cost that takes away time for reproductive work
- Low female participation in and benefits from markets, e.g. membership in agricultural marketing cooperatives, lack of access to important information on prices for marketing systems etc. Women' poor participation in markets and other activities can be attributed (in part) to their low literacy
- Employment opportunities are fewer for women than men owing to time constraints faced by women due to their reproductive work. Lower education of women, causes them to be confined to less skilled labour jobs, which often require no contract or short contracts without benefits
- Different impacts on men and women by technologies, interventions and emerging threats such as climate change, HIV/AIDS, emerging zoonotic diseases associated with gender roles such as cleaning out manure, milking etc. Women are slower than men to seek treatment partly because men control finances and are more likely to seek treatment for themselves first
- Control by women is more likely to improve family welfare: when women control income they spend up to 90% of their income on their families, while men spend 30–40% (Hausmann et al. 2009); strengthening women's marital bargaining power and 'voice' within household decision-making increases women's control (Agarwal 1997; Quisumbing and Pandolfelli 2008)
- Focus on gender can increase the productivity of agriculture and livestock systems, and improve food security and nutrition. Women's control of their time and labour is crucial to child nutrition as a child's nutrition is linked to the mother's availability to feed the child

- Focus on gender promotes household poverty reduction
- Meaningful representation of men and women in decision-making and policy bodies, in management positions and in research and development helps reduce gender inequalities
- Participation of men and women in agriculture research and development leads to better decision outcomes, performance, creativity and innovation (Pelled et al. 1999).

Key gender issues in livestock development

Women's roles in livestock production and marketing

Lack of productive capital such as land, and lack of control of income from sales of large livestock controlled by men who own the land have been associated with women preferring owning livestock that require no land ownership such as goats and chicken (Waithanji et al. forthcoming). In addition, the more traditional pattern for gender roles in agricultural production in Africa has women concentrated in the subsistence production sector and men in the commercial production sector. This pattern has been explained, in part, by the historical association of organizing marketing—and specifically cooperatives—to men (Jacobs 1983), and the cultural allocation to women of reproductive[1] responsibilities that often confine them to their homes (Brown 1970). Owing to the women's reproductive role of obtaining food and feeding the household, women control and allocate milk in non-commercial dairy production systems although they do not own the cows (Huss-Ashmore 1996). As part of their reproductive roles too, women often care (feed, water, milk and clean the environment) for cows.

Once commercialization of dairy production occurs, and it is often accompanied by market formalization, men take over control of milk and milk income from women and women continue to care for the milk animals (Thomas-Slayter and Bhatt 1994; Huss-Ashmore 1996; Mullins et al. 1996; Njuki et al. 2011a). This change in control has been resisted by some women (Huss-Ashmore 1996) and may result in a reduction in production efficiency because of a lack of commitment by the women because they are not owners, as has been demonstrated by Udry et al. (1995). With fair control of milk production, marketing and income by women, milk production efficiency may increase with an increase in household income and food security. When women control household income, it is more likely to be spent on food and children's needs than when men control it (World Bank 2012). Further, the feminization of rural agriculture, which is simply the increase in the gender gap in agricultural labour because men migrate more than women from rural areas and more men than women transition from agricultural to non-agricultural sectors (Agarwal 2003), is rendering women more relevant than men in the livestock and other agricultural production and marketing sectors.

Livestock as an asset and as a source of income

Livestock constitute the largest non-land asset in rural portfolios and are widely owned by rural households. They are a popular category of productive assets with high expected returns through offspring and product sale and/or consumption, as well as their use in farming systems, such as draught animals and a source of farm manure. Livestock can be accumulated (bought) in good times and depleted (sold) in bad times for the purpose of consumption smoothing (Bundervoet 2006). It is easier for women to acquire livestock as assets than it is for them to purchase land or other physical assets or to control other financial assets (Rubin et al. 2010). Women may acquire livestock through inheritance, markets or collective action processes. For the most part, however, women purchase the livestock they own (Njuki et al. 2011b). The common perception that women are more likely to own small stock, such as chickens, sheep and goats, than larger animals, such as cattle, water buffaloes and camels though more often true than not, is not always true as studies have shown' that the type of species owned by women varies by region and culture and

1. Reproductive activities include all the unpaid activities women conduct in order to be able to meet the needs of the family and community at large. Examples include caring for children; growing, weeding and harvesting crop foods for use at the household consumption.

can be dynamic (Heffernan et al. 2003; Yisehak 2008). For example, a livestock investment trajectory for women in Bangladesh, starting with poultry, then moving on to goats and eventually to milk cows has been demonstrated (Todd 1998).

Livestock, food security and nutrition

Food security describes the state of economic and physical access to food that meets the dietary needs for an active and healthy life. Key components for the achievement of food security, therefore, include availability, access, utilization and stability (Rossi and Lambrou 2008; Pinstrup-Anderson et al. 2009).

Livestock play multiple and significant roles in contributing to food security, namely:

- Enable direct access to animal source foods
- Provide cash income from sale of livestock and livestock products that can in turn be used to purchase food especially during times of food deficit
- Contribute to increased aggregate cereal supply as a result of improved productivity from use of manure and traction
- Lower price of livestock products when available and, therefore, increase access to animal products.

There are also important gender dimensions to food security. The gender gap in agriculture—demonstrated by women's limited access to productive resources, inputs, support services and education compared with men—contributes considerably to the state of food and agricultural production today. FAO (2011) estimate that addressing the constraints faced by women in agriculture may reduce the number of under nourished people in the world by as much as 100–150 million people. Therefore, adopting a gendered approach to development can help identify context and gender specific constraints in an effort to address key development challenges.

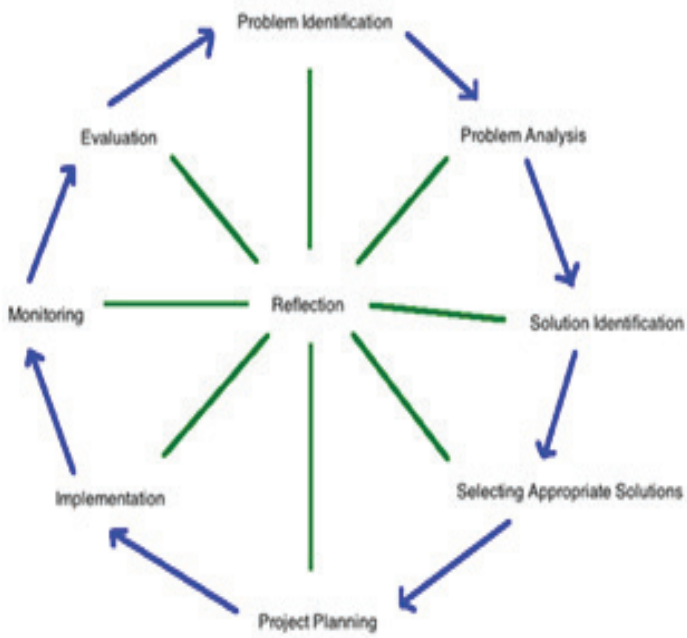
Important gender gaps in agriculture are often related to access and control over productive resources. These include:

- ownership and control over fertile land
- control over income gained from agriculture
- access to farm inputs (improved seed, fertilizers)
- use and control over credit and financial services
- access to education and extension services.

Integrating gender in the project cycle

The project cycle is a systematic representation of the process of formulating an intervention from inception to conclusion. The stages of the project cycle provide a structure that ensures that the problem analysis is thorough; stakeholders are clearly identified and monitored; quality assurance is built in; objectives are relevant to problems and clearly stated; outputs and objectives are logical and measurable; beneficiaries' strengths and weaknesses have been identified; assumptions are taken into account; monitoring concentrates on verifiable targets and outputs; evaluations identify 'lessons learnt' and integrate them into the cycle for similar succeeding projects; and sustainability is defined, not essentially by 'organizational continuity', but primarily by the continuous 'flow of benefits' (Local livelihoods).

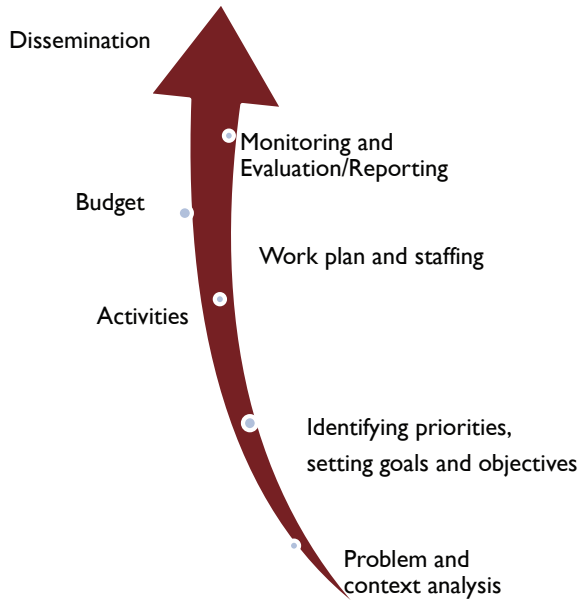
Figure 4. Schematic presentation of the project cycle



The first half of the project cycle diagram presented (see problem identification to project planning) constitutes the design phase of the project. Key to successful designing is developing a clear understanding of what the problems are and which ones need to be addressed most urgently.

In a gender integrated project, the agenda of the project would be to benefit women and men equally. Since women are often more disadvantaged than men, some projects may want to elevate the women's status to that of men by identifying specific interventions targeting only women. The decision on the extent of gender responsiveness of a project is made during the project design and is represented in the priorities identified, problem statements, objectives, activities and, of course, in the budget. A clear set of objectives to guide the project on what needs to be addressed and activities corresponding to each objective should be developed. These activities constitute the bulk of the work plan. The work plan should clearly indicate what will be done, by who, when, with what resources and where the resources will come from—the budget.

Figure 5. Key areas for integrating gender in the project cycle



Integrating gender in the problem and context analysis: Gender analysis

The first step in the project cycle is to identify a problem and the context in which it occurs. Then possible solutions to the problem within its context are identified and alternative ways of addressing them analysed—the most feasible solution is then developed further into a project. Regardless of the project field (e.g. agriculture, livestock environment, etc.) gender analysis is integral to the project identification process because it helps to describe the context or level of the identified problem. By understanding the level at which a problem originates, project planners are better able to define the problem and suggest possible solutions. This should provide a basis for further integration of gender in the subsequent stages of project design.

Table 3. Some key gender questions to ask in analysis of the problem and the context

Key Gender Questions
What are the key gender issues in the particular context (from the gender and socio-economic analysis)?
How do the constraints /opportunities being addressed differ for men and women?
How are the potential impacts likely to differ for men, women and other groups?
Who does what for whom? (activities)
How (by what means)?
Who owns, who controls livestock-based resources? (animals, lands, crops, assets; control—Power)
Who decides what? (power)
Who is responsible for what? (obligations)
Who gains what? (income)
Who spends what? (expenses)
Who has rights to what? (rights, standards)
Who enjoys the benefits?
Who wins? Who loses out? (effects, impacts).

Types of analysis

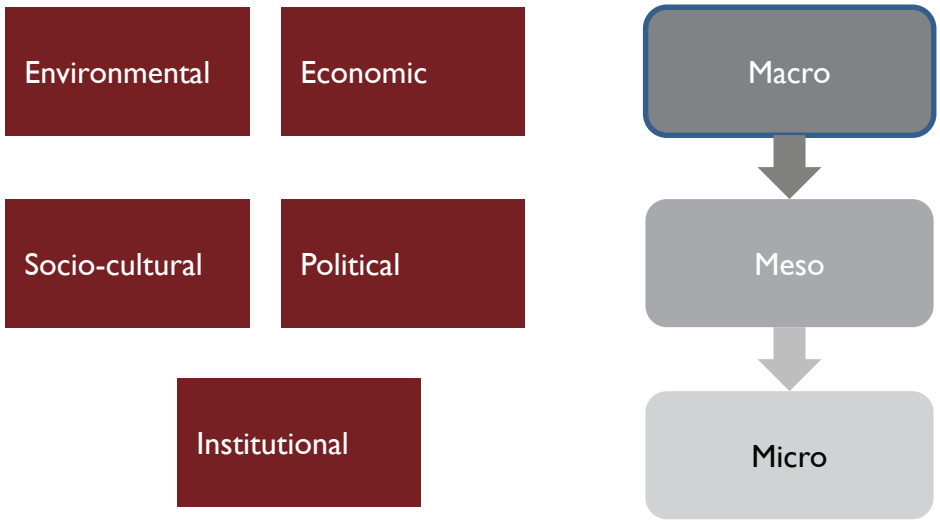
Three types of analysis are critical

Context analysis

In order to integrate gender in development projects, one must understand the context in which gender is being integrated. This is achieved through development context analysis. Gender relations do not exist in a vacuum, but take place within a context. A context is the setting or circumstances under which an event occurs. For example, gender relations take place in households, markets, organizations/institutions etc.

Livestock production and marketing are examples of livelihood strategies aimed at improving the socioeconomic well-being of the people practicing them. Livelihood strategies occur within different environmental, economic, sociocultural and political contexts spanning multiple scales. Scales span from the global to the local and can also be described as macro (global or regional), meso (national) and micro (household or community) scales. Gender issues change with changes in context and scale.

Figure 6. Levels and types of context analysis



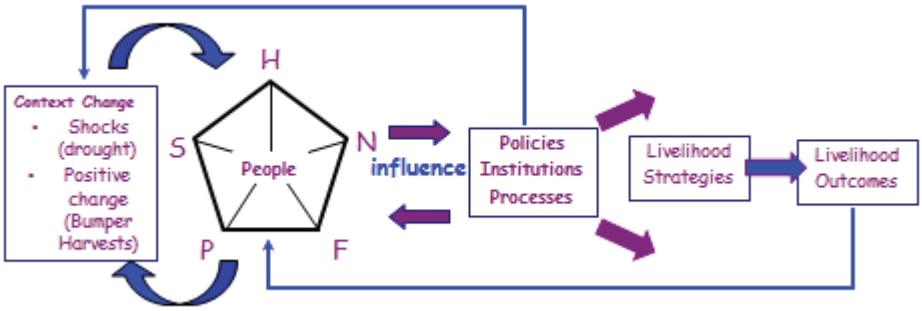
Livelihood analysis

A livelihood is deemed sustainable if it can cope and recover from negative events such as stresses and shocks. All people draw upon different capital capabilities, namely, human (H), financial (F), natural (N), physical (P) and social (S) capital as a fundamental livelihood strategy (Bebbington 1999). The sustainable livelihoods analysis framework is a tool that is used to explain the complexity of livelihoods by demonstrating how events and influences can affect livelihood strategies positively or negatively (Farrington et al. 1999). If the livelihood outcomes are characterized by wellbeing, in spite of the shocks, stresses and negative influences, then the livelihoods are sustainable. If the outcomes are negative, like food insecurity and increased vulnerability, then the livelihoods become unsustainable.

The sustainable livelihoods analysis framework demonstrates the factors that determine livelihood securities. Negative (stresses and shocks) or positive (trends, e.g. bumper harvest) events happen to all people, who draw on the five capital capabilities (H, F, N, P and S) for their livelihood security. The effects of these events may be enhanced or ameliorated by the structures (e.g. institutions and organizations) or processes (e.g. policies, cultures) in place, which will result in enhanced or destroyed livelihood strategies.

Enhanced livelihood strategies produce positive livelihood outcomes, which may include more income, increased wellbeing, reduced vulnerability, improved food security etc. The converse, that destroyed livelihood strategies will produce negative livelihood outcomes, is also true.

Figure 7. The sustainable livelihoods framework



Key: The five capital capabilities: H=human; F=financial; N=natural; P=physical and S=social

Gender analysis

Gender analyses explore the relationships of women and men in society. The aim of the analyses is to highlight the inequalities in those relationships by asking questions about roles (who does what?); ownership (who has what?); control (who decides?) (March et al. 1999). Gender Analysis Frameworks are practical tools designed to help their users integrate gender analysis into social research and planning. They facilitate the understanding of issues, facts and relationships that affect men's and women's lives in a given society. A practitioner may combine multiple analyses frameworks to create framework hybrids in whichever way s/he deems useful.

Gender analysis frameworks

The Harvard analytical framework

The Harvard analytical framework (Overholt et al. 1985) also called the gender roles framework, analyses social roles. The framework maps the work and resources available to women and men while highlighting the difference. The framework collects data at the micro level (community and household). It answers the question who does what in terms of productive and reproductive roles and who has access to and controls what resources. The framework also helps identify the factors that influence the gender relations and gendered opportunities and constraints. In addition, the framework enables the development of a checklist for project cycle analysis whereby sex disaggregated data is used to capture the different effects of social change between men and women.

Moser framework for gender analysis

The Moser framework (Moser 1993) is a gender planning framework aimed at emancipating women from their subordinate state, and their achieving of equality, equity and empowerment. At the heart of this framework are women's triple roles and practical and strategic gender needs. The triple roles include women's productive, reproductive and community responsibilities. Reproductive work involves the care and maintenance of the household and its members including bearing and caring for children. Productive roles involve production of goods and services for consumption and trade. Community roles include the collective organization of social events and services that benefit the community.

Gender needs assessments are classified into practical and strategic gender needs. Practical gender needs are those needs that if met would assist women in their current activities. Meeting practical gender needs does not affect the gender roles and responsibilities and neither does it alter the women's subordinate status in society. An example of addressing practical gender needs includes provision of water, healthcare and food distribution.

Strategic gender needs are those needs which, if they were met would enable women to reduce existing imbalances of power between women and men. Strategic gender needs exist because of women's subordinate status in society and vary with varying contexts. They relate to gender division of labour, power and control and may include issues such

as legal rights, domestic violence, equal wages and women's control over their own bodies. Meeting gender strategic needs helps women to achieve gender equality and challenges their subordinate position and their role in society. Examples of interventions that address strategic gender needs include the following: challenging the gender division of labour; alleviating the burden of domestic labour and childcare and taking measures against male violence.

Women empowerment or Longwe framework (Longwe 1991)

The Longwe framework demonstrates how development projects affect women's empowerment and equality. According to Longwe, women's empowerment is enabling women to take an equal place with men, and to participate equally in the development process in order to achieve control over the factors of production similar to men. Development for Longwe means enabling people to take charge of their own lives, and escape from poverty. Longwe sees poverty as oppression and exploitation rather than lack of production. Longwe measures development using five different levels of equality, namely; welfare, access, conscientization, participation and control. These levels, which are hierarchical, demonstrate the extent of women's empowerment. Welfare interventions do not empower women, but access does. Participation and decision-making in a project are, of course, more empowering than access, but having control is the ultimate level of empowerment.

Figure 8. The Longwe framework for gender analysis

The extent of a development organization's commitment to women empowerment can also be measured using the same levels of equality by demonstrating how each intervention in the program addresses each level of equality. A development intervention may have a neutral, positive or negative effect on each of the five levels of empowerment.

The social relations approach

The social relations approach (Kabeer 1994) analyses existing gender inequalities in the distribution of resources, responsibilities and power and for designing policies and programs that enable women to be agents of their own development. In the social relations approach, development is primarily about increasing human wellbeing. Human wellbeing concerns security, survival and autonomy, where autonomy means the ability to participate fully in the decisions that shape one's choices and one's life chances at both the personal and the collective level. Kabeer uses the term social relations to describe the structural relationships that create and reproduce systemic differences in the positioning of different groups of people. Social relations determine who we are, what our roles and responsibilities are and what claims we can make. They determine our rights and the control that we have over our lives and lives of others.

The Gender Analysis Matrix (GAM)

The Gender Analysis Matrix (GAM) (Parker 1993) helps determine the different impacts that development interventions have on women and men. It provides the community members an opportunity to identify and analyse whether men and women have benefited or not from an intervention.

Table 4. The gender analysis matrix (GAM)

	Labour	Time	Resource	Culture
Women				
Men				
Household				
Community				

Community members indicate with a plus (+) or minus (–) sign and some explanation beside the sign.

Capacities and vulnerabilities analysis (CVA) framework

For this framework, development is considered to be the process by which vulnerabilities are reduced and capacities are increased (Anderson and Woodrow 1989). Capacities describe the existing strengths of individuals and social groups. They depend on people's material and physical resources, social resources and benefits and attitudes. Capacities are built over time and determine people's ability to cope with, and recover from crises. Vulnerabilities are the long-term factors that weaken people's ability to cope with the sudden onset of disaster or drawn out emergencies. Vulnerabilities exist before the disasters, contribute to their severity, make effective disaster response harder and continue after the disaster. The CVA framework, therefore, measures if an emergency or development intervention is building on capacities for both women and men.

The above analysis may lead to practical steps being taken such as;

- Appropriate and negotiated ways of strengthening women's involvement in decision-making need to be specified in planning documents included in the implementation of staff TORs and supported with necessary funding and capacity building
- Practical measures are needed to ensure that project information reaches women, and that they are able to attend meetings and that meetings provide a forum in which they can actively participate
- Women themselves will often have insights on the best way to work around male dominated power structures
- It may be necessary to follow up large meetings with smaller planning groups, including key women representatives, where women's roles, responsibilities, priorities and constraints can be elaborated in more detail
- Given the limitations on poor women's time, considerable outreach work and flexibility is required about when and where to meet
- Working with existing women's NGOs or community organizations is a way to involve women directly. However, such organizations tend to be monopolized by more affluent women with more free time, and may exclude poorer sections of the community.

Tools for gender and livelihood analysis

The tools for gender and livelihood analyses are numerous and can overwhelm even a well-meaning practitioner.

- What should one consider when selecting tools?
- The type of information needed
- The degree of participation of stakeholders in the design, collection, collation, analysis and dissemination of data and findings
- End use and user of the data (or for what purpose, relevance and information to different audiences)
- Level of data accuracy and reliability of findings, type and scale of analysis required
- Ease of application and requisites for implementation: does proper use of the tool require some training, special equipment, and special expertise?
- Scale of application/area coverage (hierarchical levels: plots, farms, micro-watershed, farmer/households, groups, communities)
- Frequency of monitoring and evaluation (time demand for data collection and analysis)

- Cost effectiveness (logistics, materials, equipment)
- Necessity to provide quick feedback to stakeholders.

Figure 9. An illustration of the tools that can be used for gender and livelihood analysis

There is need to disaggregate data by sex and to collect information from men and women separately and jointly. Even when the data being collected is not gender related, there is evidence that men and women may have different perceptions on issues, will have different indicators of change and will be affected by programs differently. Good practice should be to try and collect data and information separately and jointly, but this should also be guided by the resources a program has.

Data collection and analysis can be conducted using qualitative, quantitative, or both qualitative and quantitative approaches combined. Qualitative research, seeks to provide the narrative, the story that explains the perceptions of the population being studied. Quantitative research provides hard data that can be extrapolated to a larger population, using proven statistical techniques.

Qualitative approaches provide interpretive power; they explain the 'what' as well as the 'why' of a situation. The approaches are most useful for exploring topics less amenable to survey questions and expressing local voice and perceptions. The methods are effective at capturing these issues because the topics explored may require elaboration, several tries, and lengthy follow-up and probing in order to convey the questions and understand answers adequately. Additionally, people do not always tell the truth the first time, getting candid information often requires time, trust, rapport, triangulation and observation. During qualitative research, the discussions may reveal unanticipated issues and facilitators may solicit local solutions to problems.

Some myths and misconceptions surrounding qualitative approaches include:

- They are easy to do and cheap, and anyone can do it. 'If you can talk to farmers, you can use qualitative approaches and tools'
- With qualitative tools, all you need is to document the results. No analysis is needed—*'just write up the report, its basic stuff'*
- 'You don't need a research design! Just talk to a few farmers and do a few focus group discussions'
- A lack of understanding of the tools and approaches '*We are using a PRA tool'.*

Quantitative approaches enable the researcher to identify a stratification strategy for investigating the issues of interest. They enable characterization of the communities and households for sampling, while triangulating and confirming findings to eliminate contradictions. They determine the prevalence, and reveal the representation of, qualitative findings in the wider population.

Both qualitative and quantitative approaches use different tools for different types of research as is demonstrated in Table 5 below. The descriptions, strengths and weaknesses of these tools are given in Appendix 1.

Table 5. Examples of qualitative and quantitative tools for gender and livelihood analysis

Participatory impact diagrams
Diffusion Maps
Before and After resource /asset maps
Social network analysis
Transect Walks
Trend lines
Venn diagrams
Seasonal calendars
Focus Group Discussions
Community meetings
Ranking /Rating/Scoring
Community surveys
Semi-structured interviews
Unstructured interviews
Key informant interviews
Organizational assessment
Case studies
Innovation Histories
Life Histories
Personal diaries

Gender in project design: Identifying priorities, setting goals and objectives

Priority setting

A common shortcoming in projects is that issues of gender, poverty and environment are often included as an afterthought, or as separate and mutually exclusive categories. If gender issues are addressed from project identification, they can more easily be incorporated in the design, implementation, budget and evaluation. Projects that do not take into consideration the differing needs of men and women and their social, economic, cultural and linguistic realities during all their phases run the risk of being ineffective, inefficient and unsustainable.

After a clear identification of the livestock research development problem and analysis of the context, the research and development team need to identify and select priorities among several possible intervention pathways. The team should also clearly identify target group(s) and carefully consider different priorities and opportunities for the intended beneficiaries.

Differences and similarities in priorities between men and women could be identified through ranking, scoring, rating etc. Integrating gender in priority setting might mean working on livestock species, products, technologies and types of markets that men and women prefer and that have benefits to both men and women.

Integrating gender in project goal and objectives

The project goal and objectives need to be conscious of the gender context. For example, the desired outcomes for women may be different from those of men and different approaches may be needed to ensure that women and men learn about and participate in the project as planned. The priorities to select would be those that have greatest chance to succeed and to benefit men and women to improve gender equity and deliver on development objectives.

Define gender-responsive goals and objectives and state whether gender is a stand-alone research topic (i.e. strategic gender research) or a crosscutting thematic research area in which gender analysis is used to inform and deepen other research themes (i.e. gender mainstreaming).

The extent of gender integration in project goals and objectives varies with the gender priorities of the project. Gender equality and women's empowerment can be the principal goal or objective

Example of an objective that does not integrate gender:

> 'Develop vaccines for key diseases in Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania and Somalia.'

Example of an objective where gender is a significant component (the initiative seeks to address a specific gender-based constraint or opportunity):

> 'Develop, test and evaluate strategies for disseminating animal health information to women farmers in Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania and Somalia.'

Example of an objective where gender is a principal component (Initiatives where the promotion of gender equality or women's empowerment is important, but not the reasons for undertaking the initiative):

> 'Develop vaccines for major diseases that are suitable for use by smallholders, women and marginal farmers in Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania and Somalia.'

Gender in project implementation

Factors to consider during design and prior to implementation of a project

Activities and work plan

The activities should present a comprehensive analysis of the approaches to be used for addressing gender in implementation. They should be sufficient to address the gender constraints and exploit opportunities identified in the context and gender and livelihood analyses, and are able to address the gender goals and objectives.

There are two types of activities:

- Integrating gender into project components
    - Priority setting
    - Training activities

- Specific research and interventions on gender
    - Training of project staff on gender and gender analysis
    - Training men and women on gender relations to address underlying assumptions/cultural biases
    - Give women the opportunity/confidence to actively participate.

Considering the different responsibilities, needs, and interests of men and women when developing the project will enable the implementation team to develop activities that are responsive to the needs of intended beneficiaries. It will help ensure that proposed activities do not perpetuate existing stereotypes (such as women as caregivers and men as income earners), but that they seek to transform inequitable gender dynamics that limit outcomes for men and women. A project that incorporates an understanding of how men and women are differently engaged in and benefiting from the proposed intervention will help project officers ensure that project activities achieve their desired results.

The work plan is an argument. It is written to outline the activities over a given period of time in order to convince decision-makers to approve it and as a guiding document for the activities to be carried out during that period. Its main purpose is to provide a framework for planning the gender work and to guide activities during the period in question. It is also used by funding agencies and executing agencies as a document for justifying the release of money. Additionally, it can represent transparency if copies of the work plan are made available to people or organizations (stakeholders) who need, and have a right, to know what the project is doing, and why it is doing so, over the stated period.

Staffing and expertise

Does the project staff have sufficient gender skills and understanding to implement the project effectively? If required, training should be provided to both women and men at all levels of the organization to ensure they understand the gender implications of the particular issues addressed by the project.

Three levels of actors in a project need to be considered from a capacity perspective: Project team, partners and communities

Project team

Gender specialists who can help team members and partners learn to integrate gender issues into their development actions, and who can act as focal points for coordinating efforts such as to support gender mainstreaming. Such gender specialists are particularly important during the project design phase because as teams begin to incorporate gender in their project, they are still learning how to do so effectively. Even after the design stage, it will be important to maintain gender specialists to provide advice and support to team members. Projects should have a designated gender resource person. The effectiveness of the resource person in assisting the project team and partners can sometimes be enhanced by building the team's capacity in gender analysis rather than relying primarily on consultants.

Partners

Collaboration between the project and non-governmental organizations provides another way of enhancing gender mainstreaming. In many instances, civil society groups, e.g. non-governmental organizations involved in human rights and advocacy work, are in a better position than researchers to understand the critical gender issues in a project or community and to work effectively with the research team to identify gender-responsive actions that are culturally appropriate. Targeted partnerships with civil society groups can be highly effective in helping to enhance ownership of gender issues. Partnering with active women's advocacy groups or women's and gender studies units in research or educational institutions in analytical work or project design may enhance the quality of the work.

Communities

Direct and indirect beneficiary community members should constitute actors in the work plan as needed. Their capacity for gender awareness and for engaging in gender transformative approaches and activities should be enhanced as necessary, whenever possible.

Organizational structures

The structure of the organization can enhance or reduce gendered access to, ownership and control over material and nonmaterial resources. Does the organization have a structure that is conducive to the integration of gender in its activities? For example, for gender mainstreaming to occur, an organization's management has to be committed to and should facilitate the mainstreaming process. An individual's behaviour in an organizational structure may vary according to the position he or she holds in the organizational hierarchy (Kanter 1977; Fagenson 1990).

Organizations' gender mainstreaming efforts may fail when organizations spring from existing non-gender mainstreamed institutions. 'Gender-inequitable institutions produce gender-inequitable organizations, which produce gender-inequitable outcomes and a power base with a stake in defending those inequitable rules' (Rao and Kelleher 2002, 5). Women's subordinate position in society is maintained with explicit and implicit rules and values, which are normalized as part of the community's culture and religious tradition. The outcomes include normalized gendered division of labour, prohibitions on women owning land, restrictions on women's mobility, and most fundamentally the devaluation of reproductive work (Rao and Kelleher 2003). Resistance to change in gender roles by leaders within institutions and organizations may present itself as inertia, or covert or overt opposition. Often, leaders evoke cultural and/or religious reasons during such resistance. Changing gender roles, therefore, requires legal structures to be in place to enforce change in institutions and protect [often] women who [attempt to] enhance their agency and resist their current subordination from backlash from those oppressive individuals and institutions (ibid).

Budget

The budget of the project should allocate sufficient resources to carry out an effective gender analysis and to integrate gender in different stages of the project, namely: design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation, communication and dissemination. A gender sensitive budget specifies the costs associated with staffing and capacity building needed to conduct the gender activities proposed. If these are combined with other activities, ensure that there is clarity on what proportion of the budget is allocated to gender-related activities.

Gender strategy

The gender strategy should not just be a paragraph removed from the rest of the project but should be a summary highlighting the gender goals and objectives. It should contain a synthesis and highlight of the different parts of the proposal where gender is mainstreamed.

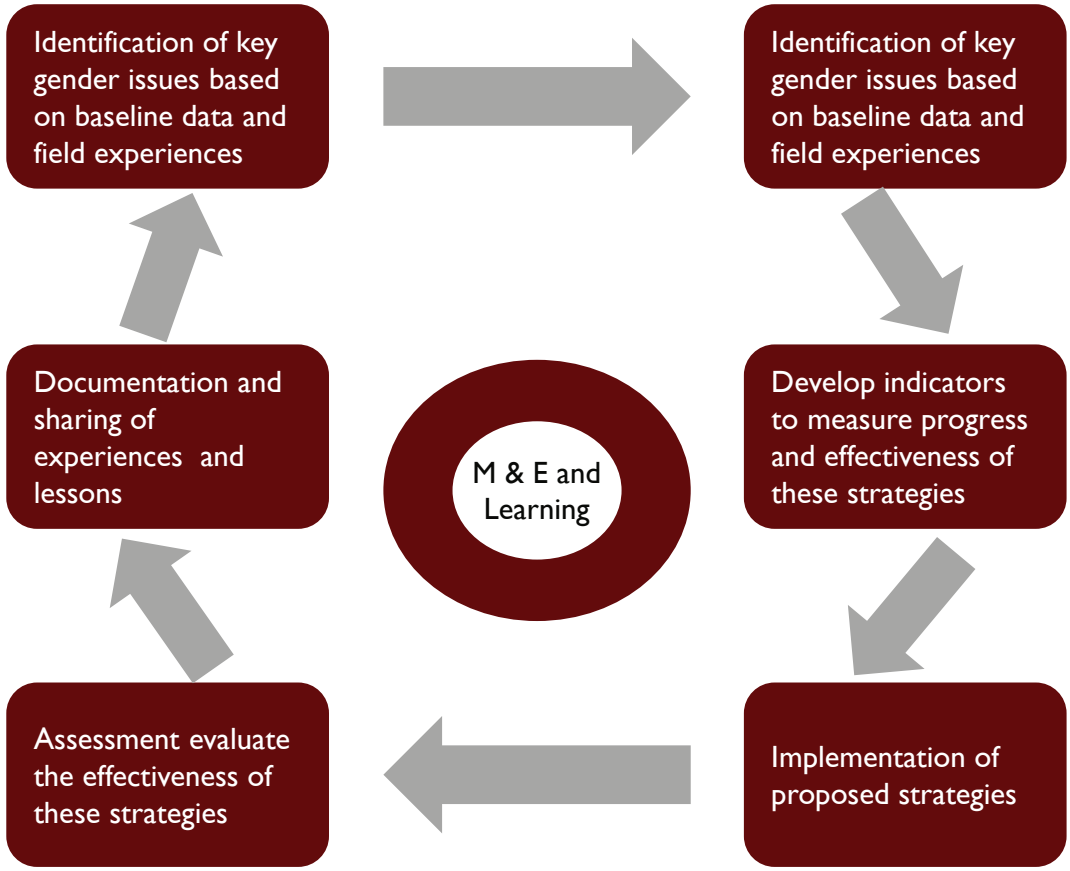
It should state the big picture goals and objectives of conducting gender analysis and research and how these contribute to the overall goals and objectives of the program. It should also summarize the key implementation strategies to be used.

Specific approaches and activities for addressing gender in project implementation

The approaches for addressing gender in project implementation can be made much more specific depending on what the key issues being addressed are. These specific activities and approaches can be very useful complements to the generic approaches described above. In order to make the activities more specific to addressing specific gender issues, prior information on what these issues are is required. This information maybe from:

- Past project experience/experiences from other organizations
- Stakeholder consultations on key issues and potential strategies
- Local knowledge of issues and context
- Use of gender and livelihoods analysis, baseline data and case studies.

Figure 10. Process for identifying and addressing specific gender issues during project implementation



Case study: East Africa Dairy Development Project

East Africa Dairy Development Project (EADD) is a regional dairy industry development program implemented by Heifer International and a consortium of partners including TechnoServe, ILRI, The World Agroforestry Center (ICRAF) and African Breeders Services Total Cattle Management Limited (ABS TCM). The project is funded by the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation as part of an agricultural development grant designed to boost the yields and incomes of millions of smallholder dairy farmers in Eastern Africa—Kenya, Uganda and Rwanda—so that they can lift themselves and their families out of hunger and poverty.

In an analysis of baseline data and key consultations by the project team, partners and communities, the project identified key gender constraints at different levels of the project implementation process. Since gender mainstreaming and integration were not components of the initial implementation course, a gender strategy was developed and a mid-course implementation of the strategy conducted.

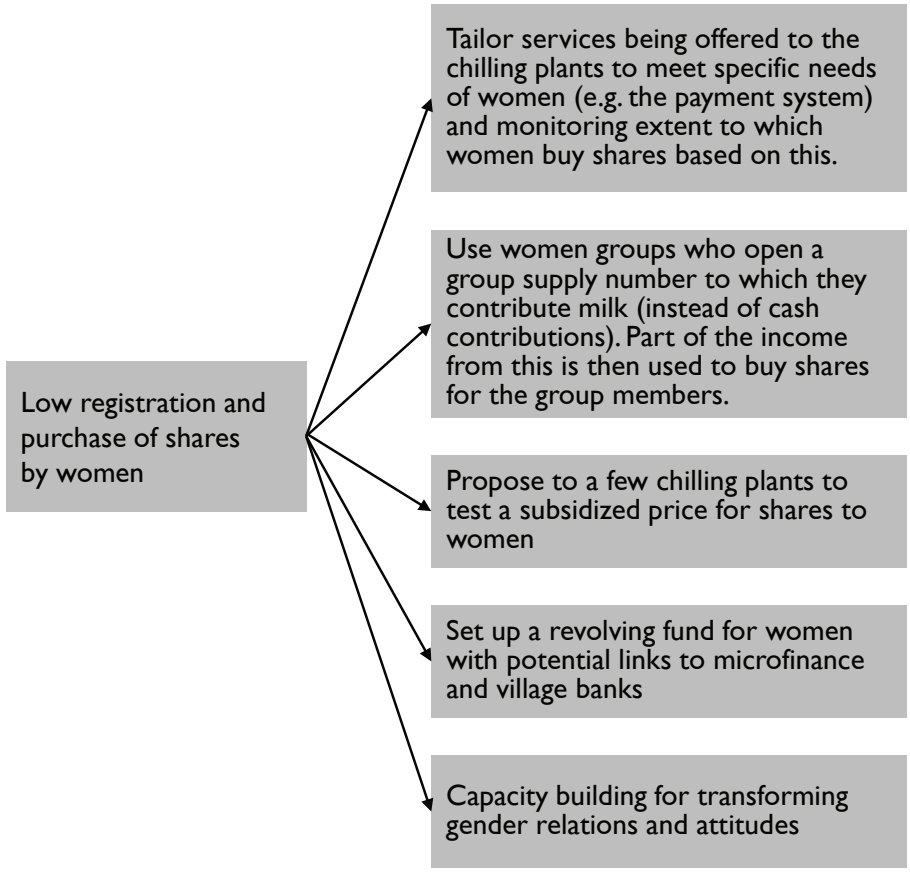
For each of the key issues identified, an analysis was carried out to determine the following:

- What the main causes were
- How the issue could be addressed
- How the project was deemed successful in addressing the issue.

Figure 11. Key gender constraints identified at different levels of project implementation

This then gave rise to specific activities to address the key gender constraints, often with multiple strategies identified to suit different situations including the political, geographical, social, and cultural context in which the project was implemented.

Figure 12. Example from EADD of activities to address specific gender constraints



Gender in monitoring, evaluation and impact assessment

Defining monitoring, evaluation and impact assessment

Monitoring

Monitoring considers the question 'are we doing the project correctly?' The purpose of monitoring is to alert management to any problems that arise during implementation.

- Monitoring entails observing, checking and recording activities and the context in which they are realized (including inputs and procedures)
- Monitoring ensures that inputs are used as intended and activities proceed according to plans (compare what happens with what was planned)
- Monitoring information is normally stored for use in evaluation and reporting.

Two forms of project monitoring exist and should both be addressed, process and impact monitoring.

Process monitoring reviews three main aspects of a program.

- The physical delivery of structures and services provided by the project (activities)
- The use of structures and services by the target population (outputs)
- The management of the financial resources.

Impact monitoring focuses on the progress of the project towards achieving the project purpose, and the impact of the project on different groups of people.

Evaluation

Evaluation focuses on issues of a project's impact, relevance, efficiency and coherence of the project design. Evaluation adopts a broader perspective than monitoring by challenging the original assumptions of the project design and considering whether 'we are doing the correct project.' Evaluations focus on progress towards realizing a project's purpose and goal.

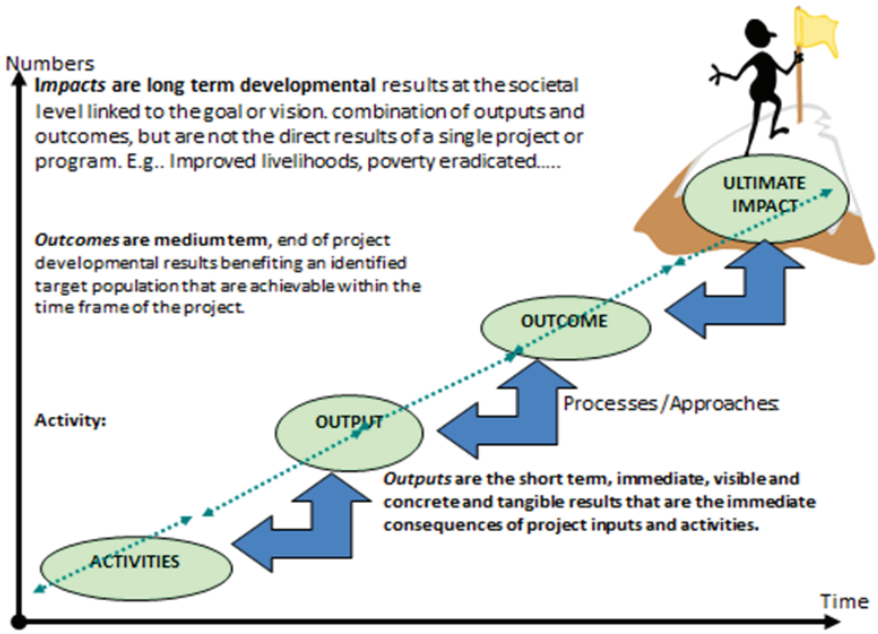
- Evaluation entails judging the value, merit, worth, quality, relevance and performance of an intervention
- Evaluation assesses changes as a result of the intervention
- Evaluation results inform major decisions for planning.

Evaluation may be conducted at various times during the project's life. It can be **mid-term, terminal** or **ex-post.** Mid-term evaluation provides feedback to management to guide the existing project; terminal evaluation provides guidance for the planning of new projects stemming from an existing one; and ex-post evaluation takes place several years after completion of a project.

Impact assessment

- Impact assessment is the systematic analysis of the lasting or significant changes—positive or negative, intended or not—in people's lives brought about by a given action or series of actions
- It is an evaluation of how, and to what extent, change has occurred.

Figure 13. An illustration of the results chain



Each of the steps/ components of the results chain should be gendered. So should the indicators and the tools used for monitoring, evaluation and impact assessment. There are, however, some critical areas for engendering the monitoring, evaluation and impact assessment process.

Integrating gender in monitoring, evaluation and impact assessment activities and approaches

The underlying assumption in gender integration in the project cycle—including monitoring, evaluation and impact assessment—is that men and women are not homogenous and are, therefore, involved in and affected by projects differently. When designing the project, gender specific indicators of each stage of the project cycle that will be used for monitoring, evaluation and impact assessment must be identified. A good indicator must be specific, measureable, achievable, realistic and time bound (i.e. will be realized by when).

Identifying gender outcomes and impacts

Once the gender specific or gender sensitive indicators are in place for each stage of the project cycle, gendered outcomes and impacts can be identified showing how the intervention has affected men and women and if there are any differences. Depending on the type and purpose of the intervention, the outcome and impacts may be the same for men and women, or better or worse for either men or women. Some outputs and outcomes may be intentional or unintentional. Outputs and outcomes are used to guide future project interventions.

Gender sensitive indicators

Indicators are measures used to monitor progress made towards the achievement of expected results over time in a specific intervention. Indicators show if the desired or anticipated targets have been met. Ideal indicators must be SMART (specific, measurable, achievable, realistic and time bound); can be qualitative or quantitative; should be applicable to the local context and scientifically sound; must be gendered. Gender sensitive indicators help disaggregate activities, outputs, outcomes and impacts by gender. Gender sensitive indicators enrich the assessment and evaluation because they enable the user to know if the intended impacts are being realized for both women and men in the targeted beneficiary category as desired by the project.

Table 6. Moving from objectives to indicators

Objective	Possible indicators
Develop vaccines for major diseases that are suitable for use by smallholders, women and marginal farmers in Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania and Somalia	Number of men and women farmers accessing and using vaccines
	Perception of men and women on the suitability of the vaccines
	Use of the vaccines on men and women owned livestock
	Change in productivity of women owned animals associated with the vaccine use
Develop, test and evaluate effective and sustainable strategies for disseminating animal health information to women farmers in Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania and Somalia	Number of women animal health workers providing animal health services
	Profitability of women owned animal health services
	Number of women reached with different animal health services
	Increase in capacity of women to use animal health services

Collecting sex disaggregated data

Both qualitative and quantitative tools can be used to collect sex disaggregated data. Data can be disaggregated by sex by asking women and men questions about themselves, e.g. in focus group discussions and case studies; asking questions about male and female headed households, and men and women in male headed households, in household surveys; and using symbols in maps to show who is mainly involved or affected by the issue being discussed.

Tools for gender sensitive M&E

All data collection tools, qualitative and quantitative, can be used for M&E as long as data collected is disaggregated by sex and the analysis uses gender as an analytical variable.

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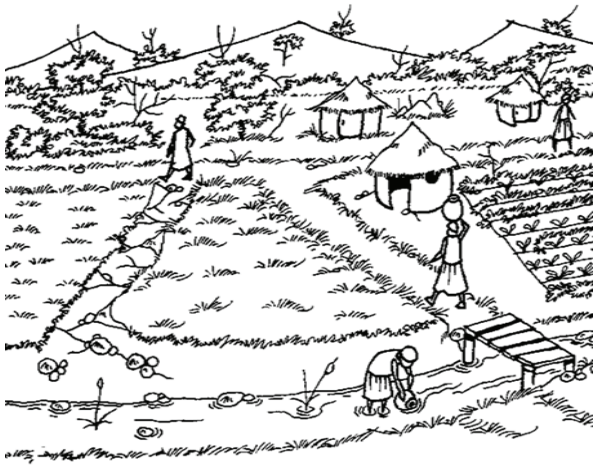
Appendix 1: Tools for gender and livelihood analysis

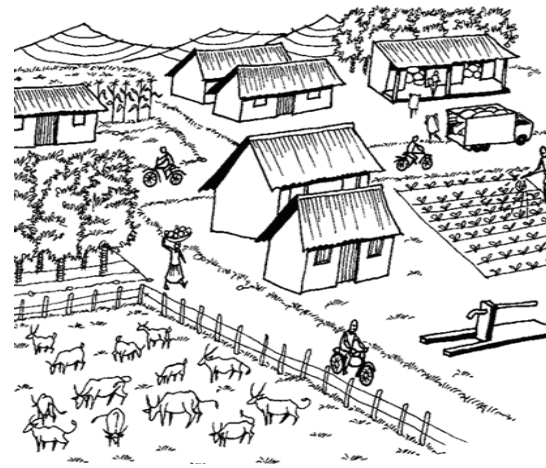
Visual tools

Mapping tools

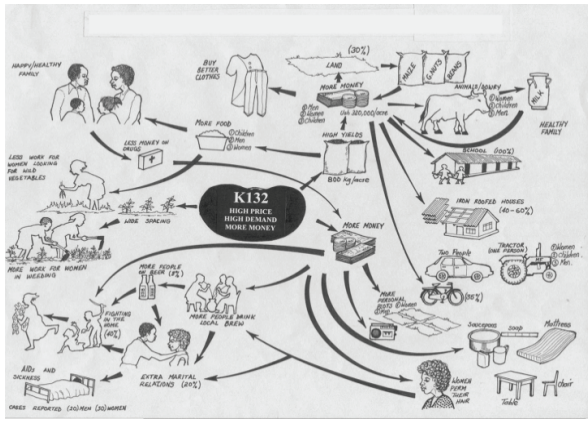
Mapping tools: Resource/asset maps; Participatory impact diagram and network analysis map



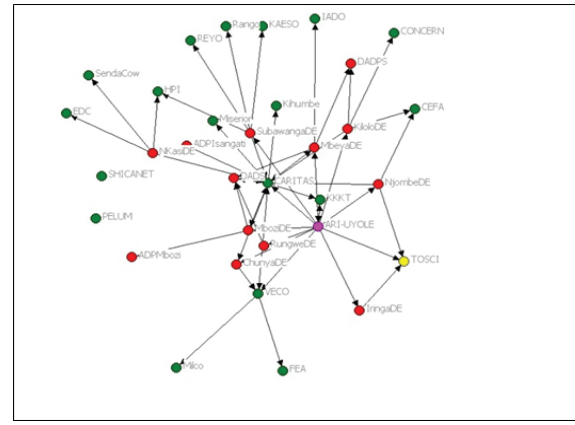
Resource/Asset Map – Before



Resource/Asset Map – After



Participatory Impact Diagram



Network Analysis Map

Gender can be integrated in maps in two ways. By drawing maps with men and women separately; and by using cards/ symbols to indicate what resources and technologies men and women have access to, ownership and control over. In impact diagrams, impacts felt by women and men can be shown by using the gender symbols (♀♂).

Some advantages of mapping tools include:

- The fact that they can be used by groups with low literacy levels because of their easy visual presentation
- They are very engaging and can provide much information, in narrative form and in numbers
- Maps can be drawn on paper or on the ground.

Among the disadvantages are:

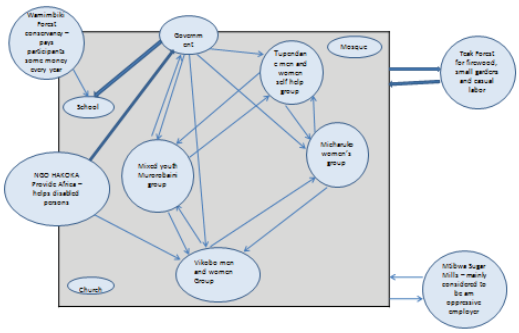
- They are time consuming
- They can be dominated by those who can write and, therefore, require close facilitation.

Network analyses constitute a set of techniques that depict relations among actors and analyse the social structures that emerge from the recurrence of these relations. They are conducted by collecting rational data organized in matrix form. Actors are depicted as nodes and their relations as lines between pairs of nodes.

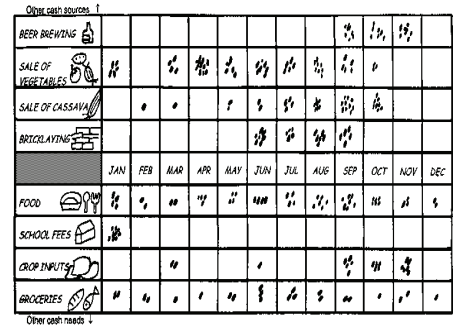
Participatory Impact Diagrams (PIDs) are used to assess impacts and can even be used before an intervention to discuss potential impacts/benefits.

Diffusion maps (not shown) are used to assess diffusion of information and technologies. Diffusion maps can be used in initial analysis to inform what dissemination approaches are most appropriate for different technologies or information.

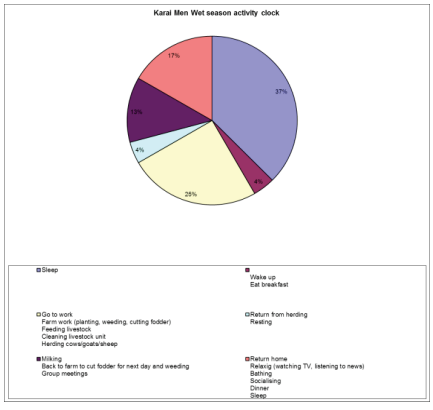
PRA Tools: Venn diagram; seasonal calendar; daily activity calendar; and ranking exercise



Venn Diagram



Seasonal Calendar



Daily Activity Clock/Calendar

Ranking

Gender can be integrated in PRA tools by men and women developing tools separately or by indicating with gender symbols (♀♂) who does what.

Venn diagrams are useful for stakeholder analysis because they map different stakeholders and their relationships. They can be used for both internal and external stakeholders. Internal stakeholders can be primary or secondary, for example, community groups and service providers, whereas external stakeholders mainly provide institutional or financial support, e.g. NGOs, government research and extension agents and donors. Primary stakeholders are the direct beneficiaries or target group of an intervention. Secondary stakeholders are the indirect beneficiaries of a project. Secondary stakeholders can be both important and influential and are often integral to the success of the intervention.

Seasonal calendars demonstrate seasonal activities. Men and women can draw different calendars, or activities conducted predominantly by men and by women can be indicated using the gender symbols. Seasonal calendars show periods when stakeholders are busy or less busy and can be used to plan interventions such as training when people have more free time.

Daily activity clocks/calendars are useful for showing daily time allocations for men and women. They show the roles of men and women in the household, farm and market.

Ranking gives the ordered preference (e.g. first, second and third); scoring gives a quantitative value to an attribute (e.g. 5 for most preferred and 1 for least preferred); and rating assigns a qualitative value of preference (e.g. good, better, best). Ranking/Scoring/and Rating exercises are useful for understanding key livelihood priorities. They can be used to compare preferences across groups, e.g. men and women and identifying important traits/criteria for organizing issues and items by preference. The exercises are used mainly for technology evaluation and ranking, while explaining priority options such as income sources and asset preferences.

The advantages of Ranking/Scoring/and Rating is that:

- they can be used with symbols and counters by groups with low literacy and
- they can be used by individuals or groups allowing adjustment during group discussions and can be easily quantified.

The disadvantage is that

- it takes time especially when communities identify their own lists and criteria for evaluation.

Non-visual tools

Focus group discussions (FGDs)

A focus group discussion consists of group discussion of approximately 6–12 persons, guided by a facilitator, and freely/ spontaneously talking about a certain topic. FGDs are conducted to obtain in-depth information of concepts, perceptions and ideas of a group and can be useful in the following ways:

- They focus research and development relevant research hypotheses by exploring the problem to be investigated and its possible causes in great depth;
- formulate appropriate questions for more structured and larger scale surveys;
- help understand and solve unexpected problems in interventions and
- explore controversial topics

The advantages of FGDs include:

- They are cost and time efficient
- They cover more than one person
- They can be a safe space for discussion of sensitive issues

- They make it possible to identify important issues early, and the discussions trigger ideas, recollections and opinions.

The main disadvantages of FGDs are:

- There is less time to explore and probe
- It is not possible to triangulate data on individuals/ households
- It is hard to moderate louder and quieter voices and control for peer pressure
- They are also not very appropriate for sensitive topics.

FGD results can be analysed using the QDA Miner, and identifying key and relational themes. The QDA Miner is an easy-to-use mixed methods qualitative data analysis software package for coding, annotating, retrieving and analysing small and large collections of documents and images. The software may be used to code interview or focus-group transcripts, legal documents, journal articles, even entire books, as well as drawing, pictures, paintings, and other types of visual documents.

An example of a key theme would be Factors that Influence Behaviour (FIB). When looking for FIBs it is important to keep in mind that many people within an FGD will repeat FIBs or make very similar statements about them; people from several FGDs will repeat them or make very similar statements about them; when someone in the group makes several statements about FIBs many people in the group demonstrate agreement either verbally or non-verbally (Dudley and Phillips, nd). A core relational theme provides a convenient summary for the relational harm or benefit that underlies each specific kind of emotion. Each emotion or emotion family is defined by a core relational theme. When the implications for individual well-being are appraised by a person, an action impulse, that is consistent with the core relational theme and the emotion that flows from it, is produced. Examples of emotions include anger, anxiety, guilt, fright, shame, hope, happiness, pride and relief (Lazarus, nd).

Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews are interviews conducted within an open framework whereby conversations are focused and two-way. They start with more general questions or topics, which are followed by more specific probing questions. Not all questions are designed and phrased ahead of time. The interviewer uses an interview guide rather than a set of fixed questions.

Semi-structured interviews are used to obtain specific quantitative and qualitative information from a sample of the population; obtain general information relevant to specific issues, (i.e. to probe for what is not known) and to gain a range of insights on specific issues.

The advantages of semi-structured interviews include the following:

- They are able to obtain depth and detail
- The interviewer and interviewee develop a rapport
- There is no peer pressure
- Owing to its analytic power, data collected can be compared to other data collected at individual, household, and community levels.

The main disadvantages are as follows:

- Conducting these interviews is more time consuming and costlier per interview than household survey and hence are only feasible for smaller sample sizes
- They lack the trigger and interaction effects experienced in group discussions.

Semi-structured interviews can be analysed at three stages: during and after the interview (follow your nose/ hunch); in the field and formally in the computer lab. The findings require technical expertise and appropriate language of communication.

Questionnaire surveys

There are two main types of questionnaire surveys: the household surveys and individual surveys. The surveys are used to collect more detailed data at household and individual level and the results are subjected to analytical rigor. They require strict sampling procedures, for randomness and representation.

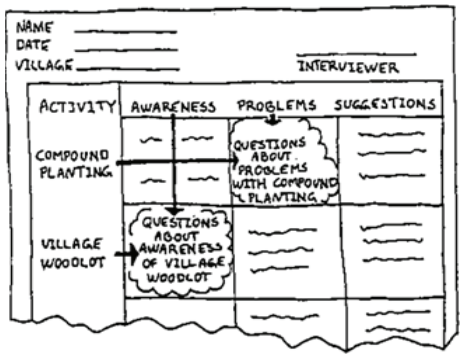
Disaggregating survey questions by gender should not only be by male and female headed households but also by men and women within male and female headed households. Both men and women in households should be asked the same questions, e.g. on assets, income and food security so that they can be compared.

Field implementation issues

It is important to think through the implementation of the research prior to going to the field. For example, data needs not to be collected from the entire population. An appropriate sized sample should represent the population adequately. When selecting a sample from a group, the sample should be stratified by key variables such as gender and socio-economic status.

Some do's and don'ts in field research: Interact with beneficiaries and communicate your agenda clearly

For semi-structured and case study interviews, key interest groups should be represented. Most qualitative tools are not enough by themselves and should be used with other tools for triangulation purposes. For group discussions, sitting arrangements and venues can influence discussion outcomes and should be selected with this in mind. Discussion/ interview guides for semi-structured or unstructured interviews should have specific key issues/questions. Good facilitation skills are required for qualitative data collection. Analytical and recording/documentation skills are also crucial.



Appendix 2: Other resources on integrating gender in project

Organization	Topic	Website
IFAD	Tools and guidelines on gender in agricultural development	http://www.ifad.org/gender/tools/index.htm
USAID	Integrating Gender in Agricultural Value Chains (INGIA-VC) in Tanzania	http://www.usaid.gov/our_work/cross-cutting_programs/wid/pubs/Gender_Agriculture_Value_Chain_Guide.pdf
World Bank	Toolkit on Gender in Agriculture	http://www-wds.worldbank.org/external/default/main?pagePK=64193027&piPK=64187937&theSitePK=523679&menuPK=64187510&searchMenuPK=64187283&siteName=WDS&entityID=000094946_99031910562625
African Development Bank	Gender in Agriculture Checklist	https://files.pbworks.com/download/lMY3XQRouY/compartnetwork-genderinvaluechains/23308518/Gender%20Checklist%20Agricultural%20Projects%20ADB.pdf?Id=1
Cordaid	Gender and Value Chains: Manual for Mainstreaming	http://www.genderinag.org/ginag/sites/genderinag.org/files/gender%20in%20value%20chains%20-%20manual%20for%20gender%20mainstreaming.pdf
DFID	The Gender Manual	http://www.uneca.org/daweca/gender_mainstreaming/dfid-gender-manual-2008.pdf
FAO	Project Cycle Management Technical Guide: Socio-Economic and Gender Analysis Programme (SEAGA)	http://www.fao.org/sd/SEAGA

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