RESEARCH PROGRAM ON Livestock

CGIAR

Gender capacity development

Participants pack

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Acronyms and abbreviations

APF	AgriProFocus
AWID	Association for Women's Rights in Development
CIAT	International Center for Tropical Agriculture
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations
FGD	Focus group discussion
GAD	Gender and development
GALS	Gender action learning system
GEM	Gendered enterprise and markets
GVCA	Gendered value chain analysis
ICARDA	International Center for Agricultural Research in the Dry Areas
ICGW	Interagency Gender Working Group
ICRW	International Center for Research on Women
IDO	Intermediate development outcomes
ILO	International Labour Organization
ILRI	International Livestock Research Institute
M&E	Monitoring and evaluation
NGO	Non-governmental organization
NRP	National research partners
SNV	Netherlands Development Organisation
TI	Transition International
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme

USAID   United States Agency for International Development

VC   Value chain

WID   Women in development

Acknowledgements

Module 1: Gendered value chain analysis (GVCA)

1.1 Introduction

The participants' pack for Module 1 contains background information related to Module 1 on gendered value chain analysis (GVCA). It starts with arguments for doing gender analysis (1.2), a brief overview of gender analysis (1.3) and GVCA (1.4). It explains relevant concepts (1.5), tools that are used in the training workshop for this module (1.6) and some methodologies (1.7). It is developed for participants in the gender capacity development modules, both research and development partners.

1.2 Why gender analysis?

The analysis of gender dynamics which constrain women and men from participating in and benefiting from value chains is essential to the success of all agricultural value chain development projects and, therefore, is a core gender capacity for research and development partners in the CGIAR Research Program on Livestock. Gender-responsive agricultural research for development is able to better address the needs and constraints of women and men value chain actors, therefore contributing to improving efficiency of interventions and gender equality in benefit sharing.

Livestock program and policy designers and implementers should always start with a gender analysis to understand the specific constraints and opportunities that exist for men and women in the livestock sector in different contexts and how gender dynamics could affect the effectiveness of interventions. Interventions must address these constraints, reduce gender inequalities, and ensure equitable and sustainable benefits to men, women and other social groups (Njuki and Sanginga 2013).

Arguments for doing gender analysis (Njuki and Sanginga 2013):

While there is a growing body of research on rural women's roles in livestock keeping and the opportunities livestock-related interventions could offer them (Galiè et al. 2015; Mulema et al. 2018; Tavenner et al. 2020), the collection of sex-disaggregated data remains uncommon in most agricultural surveys. The lack of sex-disaggregated data in livestock research in particular has created knowledge gaps on ownership of livestock by women, gendered differences in access and control over other resources, decision-making and intra-household dynamics, division of labour and activities.

Different livestock species and livestock products have different significance for women. Identifying value chains that are important for women and increasing their value is critical to increasing women's benefits from livestock production and marketing. An analysis that identifies these points on the value chains and leads to the selection of interventions that have been used and can be used to increase the value and benefits of livestock and livestock products to women, is crucial.

Two-thirds of the world's more than 600 million poor livestock keepers are rural women (Thornton et al. 2003). The participation of men and women in agriculture research and development leads to more equitable decision outcomes and enhanced performance, creativity, and innovation.

Ensuring that both men and women are heard in research and policy processes through meaningful representation in decision-making and policy bodies, in management positions, in research and development is an important component of reducing gender inequalities.

1.3 Gender analysis

Gender analysis explores and highlights the relationships of women and men in society, and the inequalities in those relationships, by asking: Who does what? Who has what? Who decides? How? Who gains? Who loses? Gender analysis breaks down the divide between the private sphere (involving personal relationships) and the public sphere (which deals with relationships in wider society). It looks at how power relations within the household interrelate with those at the international, state, market, and community level (March et al. 1999).

A gender analysis looks at: (1) How will gender relations affect the achievement of sustainable results; and (2) How will the proposed results affect the relative status of men and women (USAID 2008).

Five of the commonly used gender analysis frameworks are (March et al. 1999):

1.   The Harvard Analytical Framework

2.   The Moser (Gender Planning) Framework

3.   The Gender Analysis Matrix (GAM) (Parker)

4.   The Women's Empowerment Framework (WEP) (Llongwe)

5.   The Social Relations Approach (Kabeer)

Details of these frameworks and their pros and cons are discussed in March et al. (1999), and in the Association for Women's Rights in Development (AWID) Monitoring and Evaluation Wiki.[1]

Gender analysis is most useful when it is applied routinely to all aspects of program and project planning, implementation and review (rather than as an after-thought or 'add-on'); when it is undertaken in a participatory manner; and when it is applied to program and project objectives, so that they are modified in response to the needs and interests of both women and men (Hunt 2004).

1.4 Gendered value chain analysis (GVCA)

GVCA is a methodology that describes existing gender relations in a particular environment and along a particular value chain, ranging from within households or firms to a larger scale of community, ethnic group, or nation, and organizes and interprets, in a systematic way, information about gender relations to clarify the importance of gender differences for achieving development objectives (Mutua et al. 2014).

All gendered value chain analyses should include three levels – intra-household, institutional and value chain. Gender dynamics in value chains play out along two main axes: first, that of scale, from individual interactions at the household level through clusters of horizontally linked households to the level of the value chain. Second, that of participation-related issues versus factors that govern levels of gains from participation. Not everyone can freely choose to participate in value chains and the extent to which participants gain from their involvement is governed

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1   http://awidme.pbworks.com/w/page/36050854/FrontPage

by a complex set of factors, many of which are gender related. Levels of participation and gains are shaped at the household level by gendered divisions of labour, time budgets, and decision-making; and at the value chain level by differential access chain to functions, services and resources, and by gender-related power disparities in chain management (Coles and Mitchells 2011).

The analysis of gender dynamics which provide constraints or opportunities for women's and men's participation in given value chains or in specific nodes of the value chain, and their gains from participation is essential to the success of all agricultural value chain development projects and, therefore, is a core gender capacity for CGIAR Research Program on Livestock research and development partners.

In-depth value chain analysis describes both the market system and social context around the core commodity and how they interweave. This type of analysis needs to detail who does what, receives what, uses what resources and makes what positions at different points in the system, as well as explain why any existing social hierarchies exist and persist (e.g. why are more women and men concentrated in particular nodes, serving particular end markets? How does this affect chain performance? How does it relate to community norms or values, and to household rules and responsibilities?). These explanations will illuminate the dynamics of power relations among value chain actors and how gender relations in the home, community and market intersect to affect women's and men's positions and outcomes in the chain (Kantor 2013).

The handbook by the International Labour Organization (Mayoux and Mackie 2009) provides tools and methods for incorporating gender concerns into the different stages of value chain analysis and strengthening the links essential for gender equality and promoting sustainable pro-poor growth and development strategies. Gender-sensitive value chain mapping (1.6.3) is based on this resource.

The United States Agency for International Development's (USAID) 'Promoting gender equitable opportunities in agricultural value chains: a handbook' (Rubin et al. 2009) provides a phased process for integrating gender into agricultural value chains. The handbook provides a five-phase approach for analysing and integrating gender into value chain analysis and development: mapping gender roles and relations along the value chain, moving from gender inequalities to gender-based constraints, assessing the consequences of gender-based constraints, taking actions to remove gender-based constraints and measuring the success of actions.

For further reading, ILRI has done a review of existing literature and tools on gender and value chain analysis (Mutua et al. 2014) and AgriProFocus has produced a practical toolkit for integrating a gender perspective in agricultural value chain development (AgriProFocus 2014) as well as e-modules on gendered value chain mapping, as part of its larger gender in value chains learning network and coaching track. The ILRI livestock and fish value chain toolkit (Baltenweck et al. 2019) includes a module on 'Producers and value chain actors: understanding choices and constraining gender norms' (see pages 34 and 35 in the toolkit).

1.5 Key gender concepts

1.5.1 Gender and sex

Sex is the biological difference between men and women. Sex differences are concerned with male and female bodies. Men produce sperm; women bear and breastfeed children. Sexual differences are the same throughout the human race.

The concept of gender is used to describe all the socially given attributes, roles, activities, behaviour, and responsibilities connected to being a male or a female in a given society. Our gender determines how we are

perceived, and how we are expected to think and act as women and men, because of the way society is organized (March et al. 1999). See Figure 1 below for a visual aid that differentiates sex and gender.[2]

Figure 1: Difference between sex vs gender roles
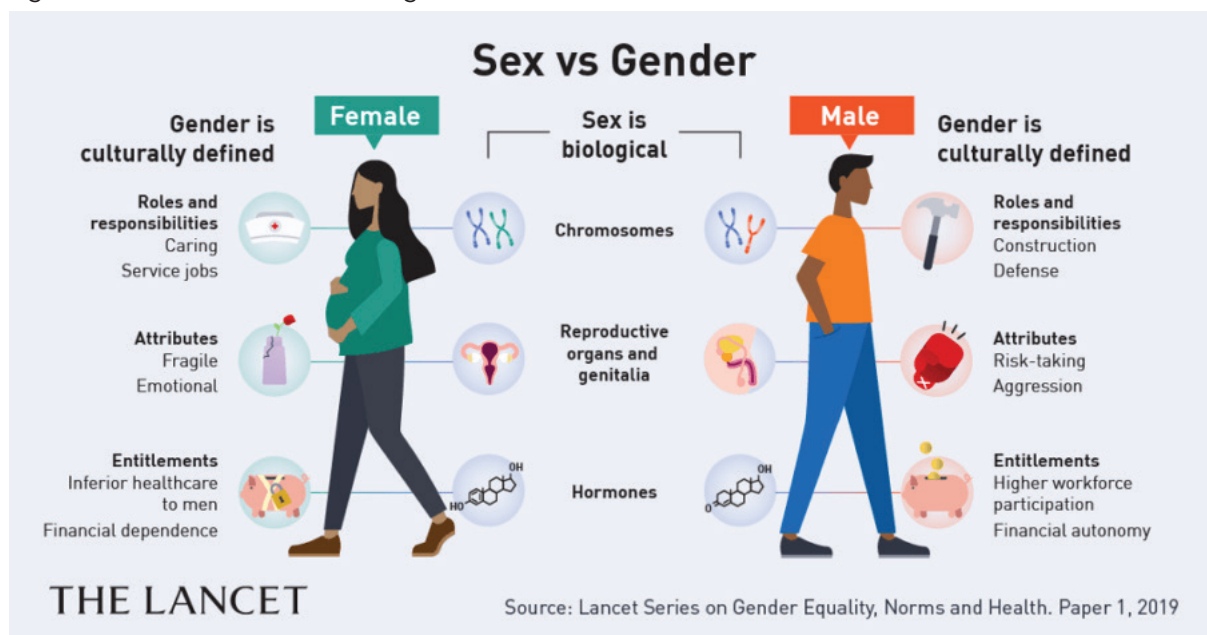
1.5.2 Gender division of labour

Gender division of labour refers to the tasks, activities and responsibilities assigned to women (feminine roles) and men (masculine roles). All human societies exhibit some degree of division of labour by gender. These divisions continue to exist even though participation in paid work has increased over time. Gender divisions occur between household tasks, between unpaid (reproductive) and paid (productive) work, and within paid work (Jacobsen 2008).

Productive work: this includes the production of goods and services for income or subsistence. This is the work that is mainly recognized and valued as work by individuals and societies, and which is most commonly included in national economic statistics. Both women and men perform productive work, but not all of this is valued or rewarded in the same way.

Reproduction: this encompasses the care and maintenance of the household and its members, such as cooking, washing, cleaning, nursing, bearing children and looking after them, building and maintaining shelter. This work is necessary, yet it is rarely considered of the same value as productive work. It is normally unpaid and is not counted in conventional economic statistics. It is mostly done by women (Jacobsen 2008).

Caroline Moser identifies a 'triple role' for women consisting of reproductive, productive, and community-managing activities. In contrast, men primarily undertake productive and community politics activities. Community-managing activities are undertaken primarily by women as an extension of their reproductive role. Such activities ensure the provision and maintenance of scarce resources which everyone uses, such as water, healthcare and education. This is voluntary unpaid work, carried out during women's 'free' time. Community politics are undertaken primarily by men, who take part in organized, formal politics, often within the framework of national politics. They are usually paid in cash for this work or benefit indirectly through improved status or power (March et al. 1999).

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2   Figure available online at: https://deliverforgood.org/delivering-gender-equality-and-health-the-lancet-series-on-gender-equality-norms-and-health/

1.5.3 Access and control

Gender differences influence access to and control over resources such as livestock, technologies, labour, land, water, financial resources, markets, information and services.

Access: is the opportunity to make use of a resource.

Control: is the power to decide how a resource is used and who has access to it and its benefits (March et al. 1999).

Examples: the gender division of labour does not lead to control over livestock. Women in a family farm businesses may provide a lot of labour for livestock keeping, but that does not mean that they have the power to decide the use of it. In general, women are more likely to control small livestock than large livestock showing a gender-imbalance in the way resources are distributed within households. In East Africa, only about thirty per cent of female-headed households own livestock. In cattle owning households, women own less than twenty per cent of the cattle (CGIAR 2013).

1.5.4 Gender differences in decision-making

Power relations between men and women maintain and reinforce the existing status quo, gender roles and other relations (Groverman and Kloosterman 2010). Gender power relations define who makes decisions about what.

1.5.5 Structure and agency

Agency is the capacity of individual humans to act independently and to make their own free choices.

Structure is the patterned social arrangements in a society, which limit or influence the opportunities that individuals have. Structure refers to both material and cultural arrangements, social institutions and relations (including gender, social class, religion, ethnicity, etc.) (AgriProFocus 2012 and Barker 2005). The issues of structure and agency are part of an old sociological debate: do social structures determine an individual's behaviour or does human agency?

1.5.6 Practical needs

Practical needs refer to what women (or men) perceive as immediate necessities such as water, shelter and food. If these were met, the lives of women (or men) would be improved without changing the existing gender division of labour or challenging women's subordinate position in society. Meeting practical interests/needs is a response to an immediate perceived necessity; interventions that address practical needs are typically concerned with inadequacies in living conditions such as water provision, healthcare and employment (March et al. 1999).

1.5.7 Strategic (gender) interests

Interventions addressing strategic gender interests focus on fundamental issues related to women's (or, less often, men's) subordination and gender inequities. Strategic gender interests are long-term, usually not material, and are often related to structural changes in society regarding women's status and equity. They include legislation for equal rights, reproductive choice, and increased participation in decision-making (UNESCO 2003).

1.5.8 Gender equity

Gender equity means being fair to women and men. To ensure fairness, measures are often needed to compensate for historical and social disadvantages that prevent women and men from otherwise operating as equals. Equity

leads to equality (Government of Canada 2020). See Figure 2 for a visual aid that differentiates equity and equality (Robert Wood Johnson Foundation 2017).

In the context of livestock value chains, interventions aimed at strengthening gender equity could include improving access to markets and assets, increasing women's decision-making power, and sharing incomes and labour responsibilities between women and men (Tavenner and Crane 2017). Social barriers to gender equity could include institutional inequalities, social inequalities, cultural inequalities or internalized sexism. Economic barriers to gender equity could include lack of financial capital, lack of social capital, lack of physical capital or lack of human capital.

1.5.9 Gender equality

Gender equality means that one's rights or opportunities do not depend on being male or female (Tavenner and Crane 2017).

Figure 2: Differences between equality and equity

1.6   Tools

Three tools are discussed here, with alternative tools and some pros and cons of each tool also provided. The main tools that will be practiced in this module are:

1.   Questionnaire for gender-sensitive value chain analysis

2.   Harvard Analytical Framework

3.   Gender-sensitive value chain mapping

1.6.1 Questionnaires and checklists

Tool 1: Questionnaire for gender-sensitive value chain analysis

A questionnaire or checklist is useful for having an overview of relevant gender and value chain topics, as a basis for data collection and to check whether all relevant issues have been considered. It is not GVCA in itself.

This questionnaire is adapted from the SNV Netherlands Development Organisation (SNV 2010); so that there is more focus on livestock and relevant issues for ILRI[3]. The main gender issues per flagship[4] have been integrated. An alternative checklist is the 'Sustainable livelihoods checklist for livestock initiatives' from the sourcebook on gender (World Bank et al. 2009) and key gender and livestock questions for the design of programs from the International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD) (see Table 1). The questionnaire can be used by researchers and value chain supporters, as a basis for data collection and to check whether all relevant issues have been considered.

A.   Gender roles

Looks at the gender division of labour within the chain: where in the chain are women and men active?

Table 1: Gender roles checklist

No	Question	Answer	More info needed?
1	What is the portion of men and women working in this specific value chain by activity/segment (such as feed resourcing and feeding, feed production, production, processing, transportation and trade)?		
2	Are women engaged as (animal health) services providers?		
3	Where (supply, feed resourcing and feeding, feed production, production, processing, transportation and trade) is actual income earned? Are women involved in activities/segments where added value is generated?		
4	What is the nature of women's work? Is it a temporary or permanent, formal or informal type of work?		
5	What is the visibility and value granted to women's role?		

B.   Gendered access to resources

Looks at how resources are shared/distributed according to laws/regulations as well as norms and values.

Table 2: Gendered access to resources

No	Question	Answer	More info needed?
6	Do women and men have equal access to livestock services (business development services, animal health services, breeding, financial services, vaccination campaigns, extension services etc.)? Do they make equal use of these services?		
7	Do women and men have equal access to information on markets and prices?		
8	Do women and men have equal access to land, forestry, genetic resources, technology, and other resources?		
9	If women do not have equal access, what are some of the main obstacles (e.g. knowledge, space and time constraints)?		

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3   It can be further adapted, or more detailed information can be added.

4   Annex 5 in TI (2015) Gender Capacity Assessment and Development Guide

C.   Gendered control over benefits

Looks at women's and men's roles in the management of the value chain and power dynamics.

Table 3: Gendered control over benefits

No	Question	Answer	More info needed?
10	Who (older man/older woman; younger woman/younger man) owns and takes the decisions over livestock? What about other resources in the household, land, etc.?		
11	What is the ability of producers (male/female) to influence the livestock or product price? What are their opportunities for negotiation? Who signs the contract for the sale of the product?		
12	Do women/men have control over income generated with feed and forage production and sales, livestock production, processing?		
13	Do women/men benefit equally at the household level? Who earns income? Who decides on the use of the income? Who decides on family budget allocation? What is women's decision-making power on spending of the household budget? Is income used for household food security?		

D.   Gendered influence on enabling factors

This determines how women and men can influence policymaking and legislation to promote their economic rights and make the overall context more conducive to gender equality.

Table 4: Gendered influence on enabling factors

No	Question	Answer	More info needed?
14	Are women in specific segments of this value chain organized in cooperatives, organizations, other groups?		
15	Are women members of producer groups? Do they take part in meetings? Do they (have the right to) voice their needs and vote? Are they part of the board of directors? In which type of positions?		
16	Are women producers involved in decision-making at national policy and planning levels, either individually or through their organizations? What is women's ability to influence decisions/ policies/ programs?		

Alternative checklist: sustainable livelihoods checklist for livestock initiatives

The checklist from the gender in agriculture sourcebook (World Bank et al. 2009) provides a number of issues that may be relevant to the design and implementation of livestock initiatives. It is also useful for informing a monitoring and evaluation (M&E) framework and developing appropriate gender-sensitive indicators to measure impact and results.

Livelihoods development context: livestock policies and institutions

- Examine the different policies and regulations that guide the livestock sector. Consider how the policies might support or constrain women producers and processors as compared to men. Consider sanitary measures and tariffs. Consider how relevant institutions address gender in their organizational and programming efforts. Look for a guiding gender policy, strategy or plan. Look at how policies translate into action in communities and with women producers and processors as compared to men.

- Consider that relevant institutions may have gender differential implications for the livestock sector; these include line ministries of agriculture, district veterinary and livestock extension offices, community customs and institutions, livestock research offices, and, on a more regional and global scale, the World Trade Organization and similar bodies and district and community customs and institutions.

Assets

- Examine the differences in women's and men's property rights around livestock, land and water. Consider how these might impact women's and men's capacity to improve their livestock-related activities and livelihoods.

- See women and men as important custodians of local knowledge for domestic animal diversity, disease prevention and control, processing and so on. Explore with them their roles and responsibilities and build on their custodianship.

- Consider livestock-related roles and responsibilities along gender, age, caste and ethnicity lines as different age groups as well as different castes or classes may have different livestock knowledge, needs, interests and priorities. Avoid 'elite capture,' where resources are deflected into the hands of dominant community groups or other stakeholders.

- Identify and build on women's and men's different livestock interests, priorities and needs (such as food security, income generation and status).

- Consider the costs and benefits to women and men from proposed livestock interventions (for example, labour inputs and diversion from other activities, time, income generated, food security and social impacts).

Markets

- Consider how, and to what extent, women and men participate in and have decision-making power in:

  - Land designation mechanisms and markets.

  - Livestock and livestock product markets (such as dairy, hides and live animals).

  - Finance markets that support livestock production.

- Look at how these differences might impact women as compared to men in initiatives to strengthen livestock-related livelihood strategies. Explore whether other factors come into play, such as age, ethnicity, caste and socio-economic class.

If relevant (that is, beyond subsistence production), consider the distribution of risks and gains for women and men along a particular livestock value chain (such as dairy, poultry and eggs) as:

- Producers (for example, in terms of income generated and food security gained from livestock).

- Processors (for example, in access to processing technologies and information).

- Marketers (for example, access to transport, safe overnight accommodation, potential abuse and harassment from others at markets – women may expect demands for sexual transactions in exchange for buying a product).

- Economies of scale (for example, bringing women together to improve marketing position).

Risk and vulnerability

Different communities and the women and men therein may face different risks associated with livestock. Consider the following points and think about which may be relevant to the particular situation. Look at women's and men's different experiences in, and capacities for, responding to the following:

- Livestock sector trends (for example, policy biases and changes, 'supermarketization', lengthening livestock value chains and vertical integration).

- Regional shocks affecting livestock (for example, climate and ecosystem change, drought, flooding, political upheaval, conflict, animal disease and demographic shifts).

- Household shocks (for example, illness or death of family member, 'distress sales' of livestock to pay for medical treatment, and livestock confiscation upon the death of a husband).

Information and organization

Where relevant, consider women's and men's access to, participation in, decision-making in, and contributions to the following:

- Livestock extension, veterinary information services and artificial insemination services.

- Participating in developing livestock programs and policies (for example, vaccination, culling, compensation and restocking programs).

- Developing livestock and related technologies (for example, fodder, breeding, disease prevention, biosecurity and livelihood decision-making tools).

- Training and engagement as community animal health workers/paraveterinarians.

Consider how these differences might impact women as compared to men in initiatives to strengthen livestock-related livelihood strategies. Explore whether other factors come into play such as age, ethnicity, caste, socio-economic class and so on.

Alternative checklist: key gender and livestock questions for the design of programs (IFAD 2010)

- Which types of livestock do men and women own? And what does ownership mean in reality?

- How does women's access to livestock affect their decision-making power?

- Does owning land affect women's ability to own livestock?

- Which activities do men and women carry out, with which animals, and which products are they responsible for?

- What are the roles and responsibilities of men and women in the livestock system?

- Do women control the income generated by production and marketing of livestock products?

- Does access to livestock affect women's access to other resources (such as credit, pasture, water)?

- Do women have access to veterinary services?

Pros of using checklists

- A questionnaire or checklist is useful for having an overview of relevant gender and value chain topics, as a basis for data collection and to check whether all relevant issues have been considered.

- The pre-established topics and questions of a questionnaire allow for comparison of data within time (e.g. of baseline, mid-term and end-term moments of a program or strategy) and between societies or organizations.

- It is relatively easy to fill in thus requires limited time and money investments.

Cons of using checklists

- The pre-established topics and questions in a questionnaire limit the possibility of addressing new topics or questions that might come up in the process.

- The pre-established format does not allow for detailed explanation of answers. This might lead to oversimplifying the complex issues of gender relations.

- It is often filled in by one person alone thus reflecting only that person's view (e.g. it is not participatory).

- Requires other tools to cross-check information.

- Filling in the questionnaire during a workshop or within a training session might lead to the respondent forgetting important issues by not thinking of the full context.

- Questions might be understood differently by each respondent. As they are pre-established and filled in alone, there is no possibility of clarification when necessary.

1.6.2 Harvard Analytical Framework

Tool 2: Harvard Analytical Framework (Overholt et al.1999)

The Harvard Analytical Framework (or Gender Analysis Framework) was developed in 1985 by the Harvard Institute for International Development, in collaboration with USAID. It is based on the women in development (WID) efficiency approach and is one of the earliest gender analysis and planning frameworks. The Harvard Analytical Framework and its components are still widely used. The framework was designed to demonstrate that there is an economic case for investing in women as well as men. The framework aims to assist planners in designing more efficient projects and improve overall productivity. It does this by mapping work and resources of men and women in a community and highlighting the key differences.

The framework consists of sub-tools, matrices for collecting data at the micro (community and household) level. The matrices are normally filled in by value chain actors (mostly producers, but also processors, etc.), by men and women in separate groups. For each sub-tool, men and women prepare their answers separately and afterwards, the groups share their answers and possible differences in a facilitated discussion. Each sub-tool takes approximately two hours to complete and can be done in separate sessions. It has four interrelated components or tools:

- The activity profile, which answers the question 'Who does what?' (productive and reproductive work), including gender, age, time spent and location of the activity.

- The access and control profile, which identifies the resources used to carry out the work identified in the activity profile, and access to and control over their use, by gender.

- The analysis of influencing factors, which charts factors that influence gender differences in the above two profiles.

- The project cycle analysis, a series of questions to examine a project or intervention in light of gender-disaggregated information.

The framework also contains a series of checklists consisting of key questions to ask at each stage of the project cycle: identification, design, implementation and evaluation. The checklists are not included in this pack but are widely available (March et al. 1999).

Sub-tool 1: Activity profile

The first sub-tool identifies all relevant productive and reproductive tasks and answers the question: Who does what?

The following is one example of an activity profile for gender analysis, to be conducted with several producer households (men and women separately in a focus group discussion (FGD) – see 1.7), and it includes activities in and outside the value chain. Groups of women and men would normally identify activities by themselves, and then indicate who is doing what. Depending on the level of detail and scope, they should indicate who (men/women) is responsible for this activity, how many hours per day they spend on the activity, where (at home, in the field, etc.) it is performed and by whom exactly (age, other important distinctions including farm labourers etc.). The matrix can be adapted for the particular value chain and value chain actor, and can contain as much detail as needed:

Table 5: Activity profile

	Women/girls	Men/boys
Productive activities		
Agriculture		
Activity 1…		
Activity 2…		
Income generation		
Activity 1…		
Activity 2…		
Employment		
Activity 1…		
Activity 2…		
Other:		
Reproductive activities		
Water related		
Activity 1…		
Activity 2…		
Fuel related		
Activity 1…		
Activity 2…		
Food preparation		
Childcare		
Health related		
Cleaning and repairing		
Other:		

Sub-tool 2: Access and control profile

This sub-tool enables users to list what resources people use to carry out the tasks identified in the activity profile. It indicates whether women or men have access to resources, who controls their use, and who controls the benefits of these resources.

Table 6: Access and control profile

Resources:	Access		Control	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Land				
House				
Equipment/tools				
Livestock				
Medicine				
Credit				
Labour				
Cash				
Education/training				
Political power/prestige				
Other:				

First list all relevant resources needed to undertake the activities listed in Table 6. Indicate with an 'X' whether women or men have access to resources (makes use of the resource) and whether they control the resource or the benefits (makes the major decisions on how the resource is used including whether it can be sold).

Sub-tool 3: Influencing factors

This sub-tool helps to chart factors that influence the differences in gender division of labour, access and control. These factors must be considered because they present constraints and opportunities in the environment that can potentially influence gender-related development efforts in the area.

Table 7: Influencing factors in gender division of labour, access and control

Influencing factors	Constraints	Opportunities
Community norms and social hierarchy		
Demographic factors		
Institutional structures		
Economic factors		
Political factors		
Legal parameters		
Training		

After conducting each sub-tool with sex-disaggregated groups, each group can choose a representative and present their answers to the other group. A discussion should be facilitated on differences, whether these are related to gender or other issues, and why they occur.

Some alternatives for sub-tool 1 (activity profile) include the following:

Time calendar (24 hours)

This tool can also be used with men and women in separate groups. Respondents can be sampled from a beneficiary or research group such as producers in a livestock value chain. In a facilitated discussion, respondents fill in what a man and a woman typically does at a certain time of the day (e.g. what they did in the previous week).

Table 8: 24-hour time calendar

	Women/girls	Men/boys
6.00 am		
6.30 am		
…		
etc.		

It is also possible to add more details such as age categories, where the activity is carried out and amount of time spent / quantity of the activity in a certain time frame.

Additionally, for each task, the following information can be entered:

* Is it reproductive, productive, community politics or community managing?

* Is the task rewarded or not?

* Is the task routine or special?

* Is the task high or low status? (ILO 1998)

To take into account labour variations during the year, ask respondents whether these activities vary during the year and if yes, how. It may be difficult to capture how often an activity is done and how much time it takes relatively (for instance, firewood collection may be done three times per week) and who is to be included (if the household employs people, is polygamous or an extended household, etc.). More complex formats of the tool are therefore possible.

Activity mapping (AgriProFocus 2014)

This tool looks at value chain related activities, done by each actor (and possibly also service providers) in the value chain. It is therefore normally conducted with these various stakeholders, in separate groups.

Respondents first list all the activities they carry out and mark who is responsible and the degree of responsibility per gender (male and female; other categories such as youth can also be added). Use 'X': a little active; 'XX': active and 'XXX': very active. Collectively, the activities carried out by the different actors in the value chain, can be listed and analysed in one matrix.

Give a special colour to activities that generate value or bring in quality. These might be key to identifying opportunities for women empowerment in the value chain.

Table 9: Activity mapping for value chain activities

Value chain node	Description of activities	By men	By women
Input supply			
Production			
Processing			

Gender balance tree (Mayoux 2014)

There are also more creative methodologies to identify activities routinely performed by male and female producers in the (producer) household. For instance, both men and women in one household draw a tree in which the trunk represents the activities they perform in the household and family business (farm). One side of the trunk is activities done by men, the other by women and the middle by both. They can draw symbols for each activity. Full directions for the gender balance tree exercise are listed in Module 2, Tool 2.6.2 of the participant's pack.

Participatory exercise in gender analysis: task analysis by gender (ILO 1998)

Facilitate a discussion with community men and women, using cards depicting daily household and community tasks and ask the participants to sort the cards by categorizing them under three large drawings of a man, a woman, or both. Ask the group to analyse the workloads, both the relative amount of work involved in each task and the division of labour between men and women.

All these roles and activity matrixes aim to get insights in gender-based roles and time allocations and related time constraints for women and men. These can be used to enable efficient project planning and to raise awareness amongst community members.

Tool 2 (access and control profile) also can be done in different ways:

Resource mapping

Men and women work in separate groups and draw a map with the village / household and important resources, who invests time and money in the resources, who is in control and who is benefiting. This can be followed by a ranking exercise with men and women separately to explore the differences between them in preferences and priorities (for certain resources) and a joint discussion.

Developing a resources and benefits profile provides a starting point for deeper analysis such as on the value of resources owned by women and men (Njuki and Sanginga 2013) and value contribution through activities. When discussing livestock ownership, rather than assessing 'who owns what livestock', researchers need to ask more specific questions about who accesses and controls each resource, constraints and opportunities in resource management and benefit sharing (Galiè et al. 2015).

USAID (Rubin and Manfre 2014) has further developed a methodology for formulating gender-based constraints, that is more complex than Tool 3.

Pros and cons of the Harvard Analytical Framework (March et al. 1999; ILO 1998; Batliwala and Pittman 2010)

Pros:

- It is practical and hands-on.

- Once the data has been collected, it gives a clear picture of who does what, when and with what resources. It makes women's role and work visible.

- The visual mapping process is useful for getting diverse groups of stakeholders (producers, processors, service providers, men and women) on the same page.

- It distinguishes between access to and control over resources.

- It can be easily adapted to a variety of settings and situations.

- It is relatively non-threatening because it relies on 'facts' only.

Cons:

- It is based on the WID (efficiency) rationale, which aims at increasing project/program efficiency. It does not delineate power relations or decision-making processes. Therefore, the framework offers little guidance on how to change existing gender inequalities. It tends to result in gender-neutral or gender-specific interventions, rather than those that can transform existing gender relations.

- It tends to oversimplify complex issues because is based on a somewhat superficial, tick-the-boxes approach to data collection, ignoring complexities in the community. It may result in lost opportunities for change.

- It is basically a top-down planning tool, excluding women's and men's own analysis of their situation? Stakeholder participation in defining the analysis is not fully developed or encouraged, limiting grassroots' input.

- It ignores other underlying inequalities, such as class, race and ethnicity, encouraging an erroneous view of men and women as homogeneous categories.

- It emphasizes separation of activities and resources based on sex or age, ignoring connections and co-operative relations across these categories. This can result in projects that may misbehave or cannot tackle women's strategic gender needs.

- The profiles yield a somewhat static view of the community, without reference to changes over time in gender relations.

Responding to the still widely used Harvard Framework, Okali (2012) promotes the incorporation of a social relations approach (based on Kabeer) into agriculture and rural development policy, in which key gender understandings are included: gender relations are dynamic; women and men are heterogeneous social groupings with multiple identities (as spouses, siblings, co-workers and so on), women and men as household members have both separate and joint interests, social relations of different kinds (gender, class, age, marital status) and often act together in the production and reproduction of disadvantage, and 'gender issues' may not be women's most important concern.

1.6.3 Mapping

Tool 3: Gender-sensitive value chain mapping

Gender-sensitive value chain mapping (Mayoux and Mackie 2007 and World Bank et al. 2009) aims to get a global gender-sensitive picture of the value chain, the actors involved, their linkages and the percentages of men and women in each chain segment. It can help to identify opportunities for women to upgrade their position, constraints for women to participate in the value chain, as well as differences in power (positions) in the value chain governance.

Gender-sensitive value chain mapping uses more detailed versions of diagram tools for mapping (see also 1.7) that are often used in value chain analysis.

The first step is to do a preliminary mapping, followed by more in-depth research. Preliminary mapping is generally based on an initial meeting of some stakeholders and/or analysis of existing research and starts to map the different functions and activities in the chain and identify the main stakeholders who are likely to be involved in or affected by involved chain development interventions. Preliminary mapping could be done by researchers and value chain supporters (outsiders) alone, and it is meant to get a first overview before starting to engage communities. The next step is participatory mapping in which all stakeholders in the value chain, male and female, are involved. A stakeholder or actor mapping is part of the preparatory process and should be as inclusive as possible. The preliminary mapping could therefore be done in a classroom setting while the actual analysis, participatory mapping, takes more time (several days with various groups). It is strongly recommended to familiarize oneself well with the process and the various stages as described in the resources (Mayoux and Mackie 2007; World Bank et al. 2009), before conducting participatory mapping. There are different ways in which the preliminary mapping can be done. In some cases, all that may be possible is a very preliminary brainstorming by the expert development team, then the preliminary mapping is done with stakeholders during the research phase. If the preliminary mapping is done in a participatory manner in the field at the start, it is generally possible to get much more information.

Mapping uses diagram tools and therefore is best done using large sheets of paper, coloured cards, scissors and markers etc. Alternatively, diagram tool software can be used (an example is Inspiration Maps for Mac).[5]

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5   Available from: https://www.inspiration-at.com/inspiration-maps/

Figure 3. 'Invisible' women in the honey value chain in Ethiopia (Mayoux and Mackie 2007; World Bank et al. 2009)
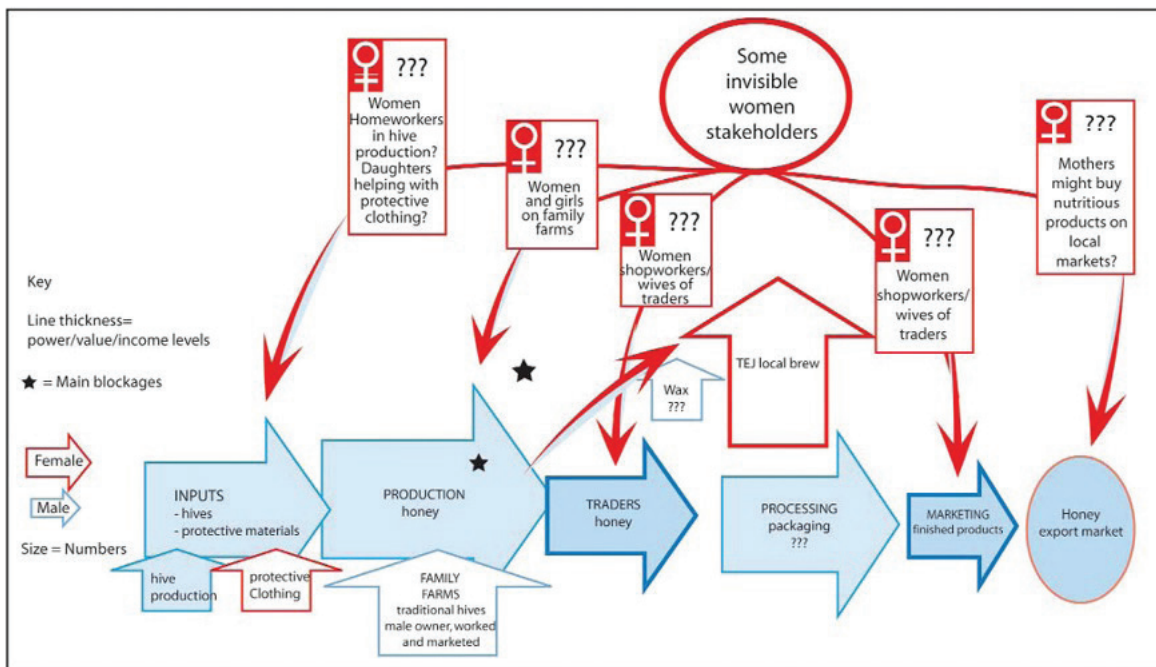
Steps for preliminary mapping:

- Map activities: What are the main functions or activities involved in the chain? (e.g. obtaining feeds, supply, production, marketing, processing, storage, transport, consumption etc.). Mark these as arrows with the different activities from left to right: input supply to consumption. Ensure the different products and markets are included (e.g. milk, meat, live animals, hides, manure, etc.).

- Map actors: add the different actors and their roles along the livestock value chain (e.g. farmers, abattoirs, markets, consumers, etc.). Actors deal directly with the products (i.e. produce, process, trade and own them). Mark these as circles underneath the relevant arrow. Try to differentiate actors according to different typologies, such as:

  - Ownership or legal status (individual, household business, informal business, registered enterprise, cooperative, government).

  - Size or scale (number of people involved, micro- small- or medium-sized enterprise). Adjust the size of the arrows or circles accordingly (the larger the arrow the greater the numbers of people involved, and relative share of value contributed and taken by actors at that stage). Use line thickness or style to indicate differences in power/value/income (the thicker the line, the greater the power).

Sketching preliminary information:

- Where along the chain are activities performing well? Mark these with a positive symbol. The size of the symbol could indicate level of performance.

- Where are the main blockages to upgrading? Mark these clearly with a negative symbol, again size of symbol could indicate degree of problem.

- Make the map gender-sensitive:

  - How many actors in each value chain node are men and how many are women? (NB: segments can be mixed, composed of men and women). Mark these with a colour (e.g. red, or a picture of a woman). Strength of the colour or size of woman could indicate degree of female participation. Be creative and as detailed as possible.

  - Have all female-specific or female-dominated products and markets been included? Have all female-specific or female-dominated activities been included?

- Make invisible women visible. These women are for example the wives or daughters in the family/ farm business and labourers; they are not considered owners of the business.

- Formulate hypothesis for further analysis:

  - What does the concentration of men and women and their participation and benefits indicate about the degree of power and income (i.e. are the arrows or circles with the thick lines large or small, how many thick line shapes are there?). What does it indicate about the blockages?

  - What does the analysis show about gender inequalities in participation and benefits? Are women concentrated in a few large shapes with thin lines, or are most shapes equally balanced, are the small thick arrows female? Are they concentrated in the positive symbol sections or the negative symbol sections?

After the preliminary mapping has been done, further gender-sensitive analysis needs to be designed:

- Quantitative data, in order to identify where large numbers of people earn very little and/or few people earn a lot, differences in productivity and to investigate how value can be distributed more equitably:

  - Number of enterprises per node in the chain

  - The number of workers, their skills, and percentage of female workers per stage

  - Total sales, created value and earnings per stage in the chain

- Qualitative data – gender specific, to better understand why certain blockages occur and what are potential conflicts of interests and upgrading strategies:

  - Barriers to women's and men's entry into the livestock value chain (for example, women's lack of collateral to obtain credit or inputs, lack of access to transport and markets, and lack of market information).

  - Women's and men's different interests and power relations in the value chain (for example, socio-economic conditions influence ability to engage in the value chain, and men may have greater decision-making power along particular value chains, such as those related to the meat and live cattle trade).

  - Contextual factors explaining inequalities (based on gender, socio-economic status, caste and others) and inefficiencies and blockages in the livestock value chain.

  - Potential 'leverage' points for upgrading the chain as a whole and redistributing benefits in ways that benefit both men and women, particularly poorer smallholders based on the preceding analysis. (For example, consider things such as income and employment generation and spin-offs to promote empowerment of women in community decision-making).

The best and most cost-effective way of conducting much of this investigation is carefully designed participatory workshops with different stakeholders, men and women.

Additional mapping of service providers (AgriProFocus 2014)

- What are other important actors, related to the value chain? Value chain supporters can be various actors who never directly own or sell the product, but whose services add value to the product, for instance, transporters and financial service providers. Value chain influencers are the regulatory framework, policies, infrastructures, etc. at the local, national and international level.

- Which services do men and women get within the chain and how? Do women have access to market information?

Pros and cons of gender-sensitive value chain mapping

Pros:

- Gender-sensitive value chain mapping helps to get an overall gender-sensitive picture of the value chain and

gender differences in participation and benefits.

- It is a creative and visual tool that helps people to synthetize what is happening in the field and to show it in a simplified manner that is easy and quick to read.

- It is a participatory tool thus reflecting a representative picture of reality and not just one person's view.

- Diagram tools can be used in value chain development of all types and at all levels (policymakers to women who cannot read and write).

Cons:

- Requires gender expertise and participatory facilitation skills.

- Should be followed up with more in-depth gender analysis.

- Lengthy and time consuming.

1.7 Methods

Participatory (research) methods comprise a range of methodological approaches and techniques, all with the objective of handing power from the researcher to research participants, who are often community members or community-based organizations. In participatory research, participants have control over the research agenda, the process and actions. Most importantly, people themselves are the ones who analyse and reflect on the information generated, in order to obtain the findings and conclusions of the research process. Participatory research methods include focus groups and multistakeholder meetings, participatory inquiry, action research, oral testimonies and story collection as a foundation for collective analysis, photo and digital stories, photovoice, drawing and essay writing competitions, participatory video and immersions (Participate Initiative 2016).

The first set of participatory methods to emerge (from the work of Robert Chambers and the Participation, Power and Social Change (PPSC) group at the Institute of Development Studies at the University of Sussex in the UK) was rapid rural appraisal (RRA), which focused on how outsiders could quickly learn from local people about their realities and challenges. Reflections on RRA led to the development of participatory rural appraisal (PRA), which had a stronger focus on facilitation, empowerment, behaviour change, local knowledge and sustainable action. PRA, now used interchangeably with participatory learning and action (PLA), embraces reflection, learning and an understanding of power and relationships (Participate Initiative 2016). Some relevant concepts are optimal ignorance (not trying to find out more than needed and not trying to measure what does not need to be measured) and triangulation: three or more different methods, locations, interviewees, team members to improve accuracy.

Combining both participatory approaches and gender awareness requires an appreciation of the conflict of interests that may emerge not only between men and women but also amongst men and women (Guijt et al. 2001).

Maps are usually drawn by a group of people (producers, processors, etc. and men and women in separate groups), either on the ground using chalk or on a large sheet of paper. Value chain mapping is one such map. Other known maps are village resource maps (what natural resources are found in the community and how they are used) or institutional maps or diagrams (visual representations of the different groups and organizations within a community and their relationships and importance for decision-making). Maps often make use of diagram tools such as flow diagrams that are used for basic value chain mapping. Other examples of diagrams are road journeys or maps and circle diagrams (FAO 2001).

Interviews, whether formal or informal, unstructured or highly structured, with individuals or with groups, are useful means of eliciting responses from respondents. The information given by respondents cannot always be taken literally, and the relation between a (verbal) response and actual behaviour may be unclear. Therefore, responses

need to be carefully analysed (Barnard and Spencer 1998). The table below presents the basic characteristics of, and when to use the different types of interviews and questionnaires.

Table 10: Characteristics and different uses of interviews and questionnaires

Interview type	Characteristics	When to use
Informal interviews	Casual conversations, without use of a structured interview guide of any kind, researcher can jot down 'field notes' to help recall and inform writing about the conversation afterwards	During initial phase of data collection, casual conversations help build rapport and develop an understanding of a setting (participant observation)
Formal interviews	Researcher asks respondents the same series of questions (that are created prior to interview); can include open- and close- -ended questions; questioining is standardized and kept consistent across interviews	Semi-structured and/or structured interviewing can be used after the exploratory phase of qualitative data collection
Interview/questionnaire type	**Characteristics**	**When to use**
Unstructured interviews/ open-ended questionnaires	Free-form answers are possible; covers general topics researcher wishes to explore	Exploratory phase of data collection to develop an understanding around 'what', 'why' and 'how' questions; provides exploratory data
Semi-structured interviews and questionnaires	May include a 'loose guide' or list of topics to be covered and several key questions but is not exhaustive	When there is a baseline of knowledge around a topic, can be used to provide a mix of exploratory and comparative data
Structured interviews/ Close-ended questionnaires	Have a limited set of questions and possible answers that provides respondent with relevant and meaningful response categories for each question	Can follow the use of open-ended or semi-structured questionnaires, provides comparative data

While sensitive topics are often better addressed in interviews with individuals, other topics of more general concern are amenable to focus group discussions (FGDs). FGDs are interviews with small groups of relatively homogeneous people with similar background and experience. Participants are asked to reflect on the questions asked by the interviewers, provide their own comments, listen to what the rest of the group has to say and react to their observations. The main purpose is to elicit ideas, insights and experiences in a social context where people stimulate each other and consider their own views along with the views of others (World Bank 2016). During an FGD, it is quite common for some group members to feel hesitant to speak openly, especially women in a mixed gender group due to social norms that prioritize men's voices. This is one reason to conduct discussions with women and men separately.

Preparation and facilitation of focus group discussions

FGDs, as any other (semi) structured interview, need to be prepared well. Write down the questions and/or topics that need to be discussed, think about different types of questions (open-ended, etc.).

Invite the people that need to be invited: groups need to be relatively homogeneous, for example, consisting of processors or producers in a particular value chain. Homogeneity depends on the topic of inquiry. If for example, age is a key issue affecting the conversation (e.g. the opinion by age group is important in the study and younger men may not feel comfortable speaking in front of older men), then the facilitator should consider organizing groups based on age groups. Groups should consist of one gender, and ideally have 6-8 people, with a maximum of 12 people.

Record the discussion, preferably using a note taker. Important group opinions and decisions could be written down (or drawn) on a white board or sheet of paper, so that everyone in the group agrees on what has been said. It is important also to note down diverging opinions to appreciate heterogeneity within the group.

Time keeping is important: people's time is precious. Also ensure that people are comfortable and that the group can speak uninterrupted. Decide about incentives. Timing, date, place, are important factors and affect inclusiveness (see details below).

Start the discussion with an introduction, make sure that everyone understands what the objective is, what their level of anonymity is. It is good to establish ground rules first, such as, the right to talk and be listened to. A warm-up or trust building exercise could be done, or a snappy first question, to get everyone engaged and open. Conclude the discussion with a short summary and ask if anything has been missed.

One difficulty in conducting FGDs is that more powerful, or more outspoken people, speak more than others and can dominate the conversation. The facilitator should be aware of this and specifically ask more quiet persons for their opinion and use other methods to collect everyone's opinion. One such method is to do ranking (placing something in order) and scoring exercises, but also role-playing could be done. Also, individual interviews could be held with one or two sampled group members, immediately after the FGD or at another time. These interviews can give more detailed information.

The facilitator should instruct the note taker what needs to be recorded (overall themes, quotes, non-verbal issues, etc.) and is responsible for a FGD session report that can be used for the analysis and comparison of various groups. Analysis usually focuses on emerging themes and patterns (how often topics come up), as well as factors explaining differences, etc.

Selection of participants

In GVCA, different stakeholders can play various roles. Stakeholder analysis provides a basis for identifying stakeholders, who can be distinguished based on power differences, their roles in the value chain and the degree to which they are affected by value chain development: knowledgeable stakeholders, vulnerable stakeholders, implementing stakeholders, and powerful stakeholders. The idea is to include all stakeholders; the vulnerable (because the priority is pro-poor or inclusive development); the powerful and implementing stakeholders (because they can be strong supporters or opponents); and the knowledgeable stakeholders (to ensure the reliability of information). All stakeholders have valuable knowledge, and, in all categories, it is important to include women and have a gender balance. It is important that women are not all lumped together as one category. A useful diagram tool for stakeholder analysis is a gender disaggregated stakeholder circle map (Mayoux and Mackie 2007).

How to achieve (gender) balanced participation

Facilitators need to ensure that the most vulnerable, including women, are included in GVCA by ensuring they are not only present and consulted, but also heard and listened to. Key questions to ask are: are women's voices present? Which women's voices? Are women from different stakeholder categories and different parts of the chain present? Are women's voices speaking? Which women's voices? Are women's voices heard? Which women's voices? (Mayoux and Mackie 2007).

The meeting may need to be organized by a person with some authority in the village, possibly a woman and a man, to ensure that participation is somehow formalized and that both male and female participants feel entitled to participate.

Depending on the context, other social categories need to be identified and taken into consideration (e.g. age, ethnicity, etc.).

Women may not be available at certain times of day, and men may be less likely to be present at other times. It is important to choose both a time and place that is convenient for women, for individual and group interviews or participatory information-gathering exercises. Women and men may be less available during peak labour periods, such as harvesting, cooking or planting times (Hunt 2004). Spaces chosen for the meeting need to allow

participation of both women and men as some may not be appropriate for women to frequent (e.g. public coffee house, a religious building, an agricultural retailer shop depending on the context).

Gender issues in doing analysis/research

The research team also needs to be gender balanced and gender sensitive. Gender-sensitiveness includes understanding areas of sensitivity and vulnerability, such as gender-based violence; gender-sensitive questioning and applying gender-sensitive ethical guidelines. In general, where possible, male researchers should talk to men and women researchers to women, especially when gender issues are being explicitly discussed.

Module 2: Gender strategy development

2.1 Introduction

This second module on gender strategy development will further build upon the insights acquired in Modue 1. This module focuses on the development of gender-responsive approaches and how to embed these into gender mainstreaming strategies. Apart from using the outcomes of the first module on GVCA as an input, it will generate input for the third module on gender-responsive organizations and the fourth module on gender-responsive monitoring and documenting. Before the start of Modue 4, participants need to conduct a workshop with colleagues and management using both Modues 2 and 3 as inputs to develop a gender mainstreaming strategy for the organization. The final result will be the integration of gender mainstreaming strategies within the already existing strategic / business plan of the organization. In case the organization does not have one, a general gender strategy will be developed. In Modue 4 clearly defined indicators will be added to the strategy.

2.2 What is gender mainstreaming?

Most definitions of gender mainstreaming conform to the UN Economic and Social Council formally defined concept: 'Mainstreaming a gender perspective is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programs, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programs in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally, and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal is to achieve gender equality.' (UN 1997)

In 1985, at the Third World Conference on Women in Nairobi, Kenya, the concept of gender mainstreaming was first mentioned. The concept was formally used in 1995 at the Fourth World Conference on Women in Beijing, China when it was integrated into the Beijing Platform for Action.

In the 1995 Beijing Platform for Action, a dual approach to achieving gender equality and empowerment of women was proposed, in which on the one hand, specific measures must be taken that target women's empowerment and gender equality – the stand-alone track – and, on the other hand, the integration of gender equality as a cross-cutting issue into all policies and programs – the gender mainstreaming track. This second track was comparatively new at the time of the Beijing Declaration and received far more attention in the years that followed (CIDIN et al. 2010).

For value chain development, this means that it is not sufficient to integrate gender into existing policies and programs. Gender-sensitive value chain development requires additional empowerment-focused interventions in order to have a real empowerment effect (CIDIN et al. 2011). We also cannot simply add gender or women to a value chain development framework (AgriProFocus 2012) or implement 'quick wins' such as additional training for women. Organizations should carefully analyse gender relations and address the underlying structures that shape the gender

relations in and outside of the value chain, as a starting point to mainstream gender in value chain analysis and development (Laven and Verhart 2011).

The majority of gender mainstreaming policies of development organizations consists of (Moser and Moser 2005):

• gender analysis;

• a dual strategy of mainstreaming gender combined with targeted actions for gender equality;

• a combined approach to responsibilities, where all staff share responsibility, but are supported by gender specialists;

• gender training;

• support to women's decision-making and empowerment; and

• monitoring and evaluation.

Many development organizations have formulated gender objectives as part of their organizational policy statements. Practice, however, reveals that for most organizations, gender is not integrated into all policy areas and that gender is not integrally addressed at all levels. This is related to several issues, including with the internal organization, both formal and visible aspects (mechanisms, expert positions) as well as issues that are related to the fact that institutions themselves are not neutral, but inherently gendered: they involve and reproduce gender inequalities and bias, and entail power relations (CIDIN et al 2010). These internal organizational issues are dealt with in greater detail in Modue 3.

2.3 Other key gender concepts

2.3.1 Women's empowerment

Women's empowerment is about women taking control over their lives: setting their own agendas, gaining skills, building self-confidence, solving problems and developing self-reliance. No one can empower another: only the individual can empower themself to make choices on issues that affect their life and to speak out. However, institutions and organizations can support processes that can nurture self-empowerment of individuals or groups (UNESCO 2003). See Module 4 for an explanation on how women's empowerment in agriculture is operationalized, through the Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (WEAI).[6]

2.3.2 Affirmative action

In economic interventions, like those performed by ILRI partners, empowerment requires a series of affirmative actions that enable women to carry out their activities with greater autonomy and self-efficacy. Affirmative action is an action that aims to establish policies or practices that give a certain social group (women in this case) that historically has been excluded because of social injustices, preferential treatment in the access to and control of resources or services in order to improve the quality of life of those disadvantaged groups, compensate them for the discrimination they were victims of, and reduce the gaps that this has caused in relation to other social groups (men in this case). Examples are policies that promote property of land for women or scholarships targeted specifically at women (Kranich 2005).

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6   Available from: https://feedthefuture.gov/lp/womens-empowerment-agriculture-index

2.3.3 Women in development (WID)

The WID approach aims to integrate women into the existing development process by targeting them, often in women-specific activities. Women are usually passive recipients in WID projects, which often focus on making women more efficient producers and increasing their income. Although many WID projects have improved health, income or resources in the short term, a significant number have not been sustainable because they did not transform unequal relationships, which is necessary to maintain changes in the long run. A common shortcoming of WID projects is that they do not consider women's multiple roles or miscalculate the elasticity of women's time and labour. Another limitation is that such projects tend to be blind to men's roles and responsibilities in women's (dis) empowerment (UNESCO 2003).

2.3.4 Gender and development (GAD)

The GAD approach focuses on addressing unequal gender relations which prevent equitable development that often lock women out of full participation. GAD seeks to have both women and men participate, make decisions and share benefits. This approach often aims at meeting practical needs as well as promoting strategic gender interests. A successful GAD approach requires sustained long-term commitment (UNESCO 2003).

The biggest difference between GAD and WID approaches is that WID projects traditionally were not grounded in a comprehensive gender analysis, focusing narrowly on women. The GAD approach is informed by gender analysis (UNESCO 2003).

2.3.5 Gender budgeting

Gender budgeting is 'an application of gender mainstreaming strategy in the budgetary process. It means a gender-based assessment of budgets, incorporating a gender perspective at all levels of the budgetary process and restructuring revenues and expenditures in order to promote gender equality' (Quinn 2008: p. 5). Gender budgeting is based on a gender analysis and aimed at an equality-oriented distribution of resources. These resources can be financial but also time 'budgeted' in terms of paid and/or unpaid work. It is not sufficient to understand gender budgeting merely as a gender-differentiated use of certain funds. It also focuses on gender-related interactions of expenditures with other resources (Blickhäuser and Henning von Bargen 2007).

Gender budgeting:

1.   Refers to the process of conceiving, planning, approving, executing, monitoring, analysing and auditing budgets in a gender-sensitive way.

2.   Involves analysis of actual expenditure and revenue (of your organization) on women and girls as compared to expenditures on men and boys.

3.   Helps to decide how policies need to be made, adjusted and reprioritized.

4.   Is a tool for effective policy implementation where one can check if the allocations are in line with policy commitments and are having the desired impact.

The practical application of gender budgeting can be divided into three stages depicted in Figure 4 (Quinn 2008: p.17).

Figure 4: Three stages of gender budgeting
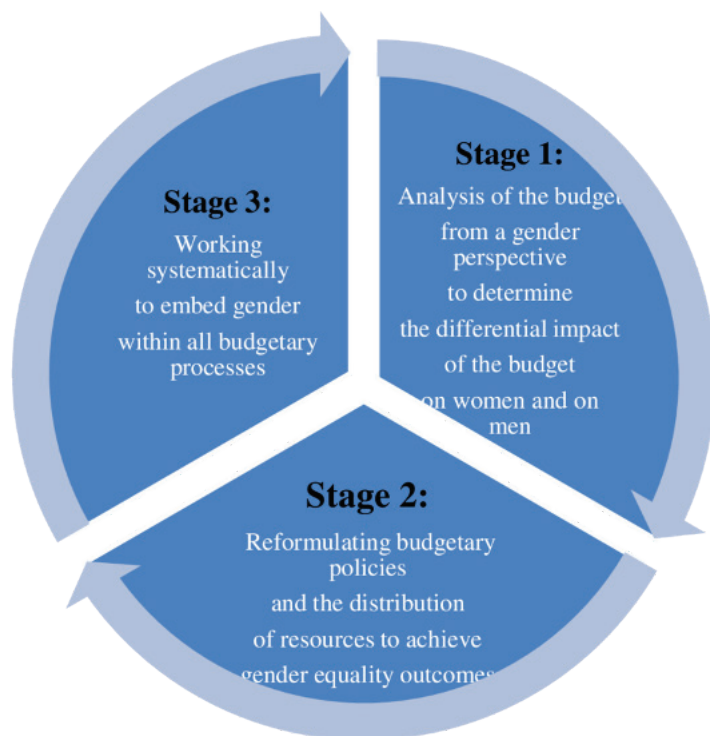
An example of a Stage 1 gender-specific analysis is given in the Table 11.

Table 11: Methodology for gender-specific budget analysis

Steps	Issues/examples
Data procurement	Functional breakdown of budgets covering several years according to department responsibilities (e.g. general administration, capacity building, research).
Classification of expenditure Items according to • Employment • Benefit • Unpaid female labour	• Does a department activity create more employment for men or women or equally among the sexes • Does a department activity benefit men more than women or vice versa, or do both sexes derive equal benefit? • Do measures to cut department spending result in more women engaging in unpaid labour?
Calculation of differences	Comparison of the cost-cutting period with a reference period: How have the individual items developed over the comparison period in relation to overall expenditure?
Policy relevance	The aim is to have gender equality taken seriously; department funds from which men have for long derived an above average benefit must be redistributed.

Adopted from Bauer Baumann 1996: 22ff cited in Quinn 2008, p.25.

The process of mainstreaming gender budgeting (stage 2) should eventually result in gender-responsive budgets (stage 3).[7] The height of this budget or the proportion of the overall organizational budget that should be allocated to gender activities depends on the strategy that each organization develops. Also, often budgets are interwoven, as not only gender specific activities will be developed but already existing/planned activities can be made more gender-responsive (e.g. by establishing a quota for women's participation).

There is an optional activity on gender-responsive budgeting listed in Appendix A of this participant's pack.

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7   Available from: www.wikigender.org/wiki/gender-budgeting

2.4 The continuum of gender-responsive approaches[8]

Figure 5 illustrates a continuum of approaches to gender integration. The continuum was originally developed by Geeta Rao Gupta from the International Center for Research on Women (ICRW) and used widely by many organizations including the Interagency Gender Working Group (ICGW)/USAID and ILRI in its Livestock and Fish program gender strategy. Programs should be gender-responsive and consider gender roles and relations, and respond to these, either through gender accommodating approaches or gender transformative approaches (TI and ILRI 2015). The continuum is useful to point out at which direction strategies are aimed and for deciding generally where they should be headed.

Figure 5: Relation between gender exploitative, accommodating, and transformative approaches
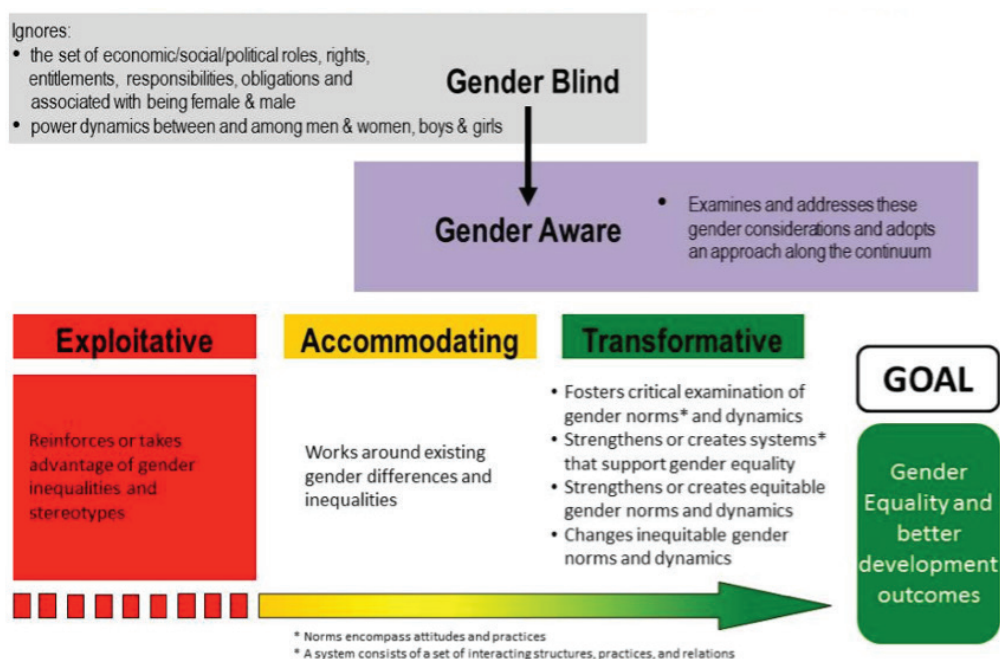
Source: IGWG/USAID 2013

Of particular interest are the accommodating and transformative approaches, both of which are informed by an awareness of the gendered context. They seek to use that knowledge not only to the advantage of the intervention, but to design interventions that, at minimum, do no harm to women and, at maximum, seek to facilitate movements toward a more gender equal society. Both gender accommodating and transformative approaches add value to interventions.

The former tends to focus on the micro level and filling identified gender gaps in access to resources, technologies, information and skills. Such actions are important, given the evidence backing the breadth and depth of these disparities, and may be easier to implement since they are less challenging to the status quo. However, they may only partially address the problem since they do not act on the underlying causes of the disparities—the systems, norms and attitudes making gender differences acceptable parts of everyday life (CGIAR 2013). For this reason, when possible, it is recommended to apply gender transformative approaches that purposefully address the characteristics of society that underlie gender inequality. In practice, an organization might aim to operate along the continuum from gender accommodating to gender transformative.

For more information on concepts, tools and examples of the gender strategies continuum see: www.igwg.org/training/ProgrammaticGuidance/GenderContinuum.aspx.

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8   Gender-responsive approaches is defined as approaches that are 'responsive to the needs and demands, constraints and opportunities of men and women alike' (CGIAR 2015).

2.4.1 Gender-blind versus gender-aware approach

An intervention is gender-blind if we cannot see who is doing what and lack information on women and men's roles, participation, access and control to resources, power relations between them, and other gender aspects. By contrast, a gender-aware intervention is conscious of these differences, which makes it possible to see where and how changes towards a more equal gender balance can be achieved (adapted from AgriProFocus, KIT and IIRR 2012).

2.4.2 Gender exploitative approach

Gender exploitative interventions are those that intentionally manipulate or misuse knowledge of existing gender inequalities and stereotypes in pursuit of economic outcomes. They reinforces unequal power in the relations between women and men and potentially deepens existing inequalities (USAID 2009; AgriProFocus 2014).

2.4.3 Gender accommodating approach

Gender accommodating approaches recognize and respond to the specific needs and realities of men and women based on their existing roles and responsibilities. They tend to use gender as an empirical category by comparing and contrasting women's and men's conditions as farmers, retailers, etc. (Petersen 2005; Okali 2012). Such approaches aim to enhance the availability of credit, technologies, information, and other resources to overcome gender differences, but do not tend to address women's ability to actually use them and control their benefits. They focus on integrating women into the existing social and economic context, but do not question the barriers put up by that context (Cornwall and Edwards 2010). For example, they would not address the customary beliefs and gender norms that reduce women's access to resources and decision-making power (World Bank 2001; FAO 2006; Porter 2006; Okali and Holvoet 2007; FAO 2011) that leaves women concentrated in low-value segments of a value chain. They tend to focus more on involving women than on engaging directly with men about gender. Many development interventions in the agriculture sector are gender accommodating, with this approach closer to a WID approach than a GAD approach to development, as it is more technically than politically focused (CGIAR 2013).

Gender accommodating approaches acknowledge inequities in gender relations and seek to develop actions that adjust to and often compensate for gender differences and inequities without addressing the underlying structures that perpetuate gender inequalities. While this approach considers the different roles and identities of women and men in the design of programs, it does not deliberately challenge unequal relations of power. In the process of achieving desired development objects, projects following this approach may miss opportunities for improving gender equality (USAID 2009; AgriProFocus 2014).

2.4.4 Gender transformative approach

A gender transformative approach explicitly engages both women and men to examine, question and change those institutions and norms that reinforce gender inequalities and, through that process, achieve both economic growth and gender equality objectives (adapted from AgriProFocus, KIT and IIRR 2012).

Gender transformative approaches focus on the empowerment of women, promoting women's rights and security, improving women's access and control over resources and technologies, etc. while explicitly aiming to change gender norms and relations in order to promote gender equality. Gender transformative approaches understand that gender is a social construct, which influences how women and men conceive of themselves; how women and men interact in face of expectations; how opportunities and resources are allocated; etc. (Risman 2004). Gender transformative approaches see the social context as not just something to understand and work within, but as something to act on (Kabeer 1994; Kabeer and Subrahmanian 1996). They, therefore, aim to address the causes of gender inequality and not just the symptoms (CGIAR 2013). The intervention can define strategies to strengthen

women's rights and empowerment while including men in ways that they find relevant, avoiding activities that only target women and may cause conflict.

Some examples of gender transformative interventions are: organizing women and creating awareness of their rights, increasing women's ownership of livestock and their ability to market livestock on their own terms, interventions at household level that improve intra-household decision-making on livestock management, including sales and distribution of income from sales.

2.4.5 Gender-accommodating versus gender-transformative approaches

Gender-accommodating interventions use the knowledge of gender differences in a given context to respond to the practical needs of women or men, but they still work within the existing gender division of resources and responsibilities. It is the gender-transformative (also called redistributive) interventions that transform existing distributions of power and resources to create a more balanced relationship between women and men, touching on strategic gender interests (March et al. 1999). Redistributive or transformational strategies address strategic gender interests like decision-making power, ownership, representation and so on in addition to practical gender needs (adapted from Agri-ProFocus, KIT and IIRR 2012). Table 12 explores the continuum of gender integration using practical development examples from the perspective of a potential livestock intervention.

Table 12: Continuum of gender integration and example of their use in livestock development

Continuum of gender integration	Definition	Practical development examples
Gender blind	Lack information on women and men's roles, participation, access and control to resources, power relations between them and other gender aspects	A livestock intervention rolled out without acknowledgement that men and women have different roles, knowledge and power depending on the livestock species (e.g. women may not benefit equally with men from high-value livestock such as cattle)
Gender aware	Deliberately examine and address anticipated gender-related outcomes during both design and implementation	A livestock intervention that acknowledges women and men have different roles, knowledge and levels of power and design the project accordingly by creating 'safeguards' in case the intervention will likely benefit men (e.g. promoting livestock intensification generally benefits men, but livestock diversification can benefit the whole family).
Gender exploitative	Intentionally or unintentionally reinforce or take advantage of gender inequalities and stereotypes in pursuit of project outcome, or whose approach exacerbates inequalities	A livestock intervention that intensifies dairy production increases women's workload but does not provide buffers or safeguards that offset the additional time needed to perform dairy tasks.
Gender accommodating	Acknowledges but works around gender differences and inequalities to achieve project objectives. May result in the short-term realization of benefits and outcomes for women but does not attempt to reduce gender inequality or address the gender systems that contribute to differences and inequalities.	A livestock intervention that holds extension meetings at a time of day when women can attend (e.g. after serving morning meals/domestic duties) but does not address whether women can benefit from the livestock on par with men.
Gender transformative	Seek to transform gender relations to promote gender equality by: i) fostering critical examination of inequalities and gender roles, norms and dynamics, ii) recognizing and strengthening positive norms that support equality and an enabling environment, iii) promoting the relative position of women, girls and marginalized groups, and transforming the underlying social structures, policies and broadly held social norms that perpetuate gender inequalities.	A livestock intervention that recognizes existing inequalities in the dairy cattle system (men prioritized in terms of ownership and women overburdened with workload for dairy cattle) and seeks to challenge and transform harmful norms at community level that may be locking women and men into positions of inequity (e.g. holding meetings with the entire family that questions how tasks, responsibilities, resources and knowledge can be more equitably shared in a household).

2.4.6 Value chain gender-responsive upgrading strategies

Interventions to improve the efficiency and equity of the value chain, and thereby maximize the benefits received by its participants, are termed 'upgrading strategies'. They are applied to chain actors and may be typified in different ways (e.g. process, product, functional, chain or enabling environment upgrading; horizontal or vertical coordination). (See Braun and Webb 1989; Bassett 2009; USAID 2006b; Walker 2001; Naved 2000; Raynolds 2002; USAID 2007 in Coles and Mitchell 2011.).

When applying a gender lens to value chain upgrading strategies, AgriProFocus, KIT and IIRR (2012), propose using the following gender-responsive upgrading strategies: (AgriProFocus, KIT and IIRR 2012: 45)

• *Upgrading as a chain actor*. This is not only about a farmer doing what they do better, but also about them being seen as a fully-fledged chain actor: it is about recognition of women's economic contributions to the value chain.

• *Upgrading as activity integrator*. This is not only about a farmer entering into activities further up the chain, but also about women making the choice to take up these activities themselves in light of their other responsibilities (e.g., reproductive, household duties). Women gain the skills required to participate fully in the value chain: they are capable and confident to do so.

• *Upgrading by developing chain partnerships*. This is not only about farmers building long-term alliances with buyers, but also about female farmers being recognized partners. Moreover, it is about removing constraints for female farmers to participate in decision-making: rules, regulations and policies become gender sensitive.

• *Upgrading by developing ownership over the chain*. This is not only about farmers becoming owners of chain enterprises, but also about female farmers having the capacity and support to take up leadership roles. Rules, regulations and policies support women's leadership.

AgriProFocus, KIT and IIRR (2012) propose different strategies to build gender into value chains. These go from mitigating resistance by transforming traditional gender roles and divisions; to changing the status quo by creating new opportunities and spaces for women; to interventions that help to achieve the envisioned changes; to implementation of women labels, standards and certification; or stimulating businesses to be gender responsible (see Figure 6).

Figure 6: Gender strategies explained in the AgriProFocus, KIT, IIRR 2012 publication

Box 9.1. Strategies to build gender into value chains

Mitigating resistance by building on tradition (Chapter 4)
• Professionalize women's traditional, informal activities
• Remove barriers to transform traditional responsibilities into new opportunities
• Create new roles for women in traditional activities
• Reframe 'caretaker' roles

Creating space for women (Chapter 5)
• Support women in male-dominated chains
• Promote female entrepreneurs

Organizing for change (Chapter 6)
• Capacity building
• Collective action
• Sensitize men
• Finance value chains for women

Standards, certification and labels (Chapter 7)
• Use women-only labels, seals and standards
• Piggyback on existing standards and certification infrastructure

Gender-responsible business (Chapter 8)
• Corporate social responsibility and shared value

2.5 Cases

There are various best practices in the Challenging chains to change publication (AgriProFocus, KIT and IIRR 2012), specifically the cases in chapters 5 to 7 which include gender transformative approaches. It is recommended to read these to understand the different types of gender integration strategies that are possible and to see if some could apply to your organization. During the workshop some of these cases will be discussed.

2.6 Tools

Three tools are discussed here. Other tools can be found in the Mainstreaming a gender justice approach manual from Oxfam Novib 2010 (see also Modue 3) and the Gender Action Learning System (GALS) toolkits developed by Mayoux and WEMAN/Oxfam (2010 and 2014).

2.6.1 Assessing gender mainstreaming in programs

To assess whether gender is mainstreamed into an organization's program at all levels, or to make sure that gender is mainstreamed within an organization's program, the following matrix can be used as a checklist. Try to fill in every cell with the gender issues that you encounter at every level of the program cycle.

Table 13: Gender mainstreaming checklist

Gender issues / Program cycle	Gender roles	Access to resources by men and women	Control over benefits by men and women	Integrating knowledge from men and women[9]	Decision making power by men and women	Gendered participation in organizations (as a member or director) and programs	Gendered influence on enabling environment
Assessment/ identification							
Formulation (is gender integrated in objectives, target groups, activities? Is female leadership promoted?)							
Implementation							
Follow-up/ monitoring							
Evaluation							

Sources: Authors' own elaboration based on fieldwork experience and the following sources: AgriProFocus 2014; SNV 2010; Oxfam Novib 2010; World Bank 2012.

After filling in the matrix, analyse where the main obstacles are and indicate those in red. Also indicate where the program is being favourable to gender issues. Those can be indicated in green. The neutral issues do not get a specific colour. Based on these obstructing and favourable issues, make a list of activities / strategies that you can follow in order to limit the first and take more advantage of the latter. These are important inputs for the development of the gender mainstreaming strategy for your organization (see 2.6.3).

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9   Integrating knowledge from men and women during the program cycle would entail ensuring that gender differentiated perspectives, opinions and worldviews are incorporated. This could be achieved by conducting interviews or FGDs with women and men in the program/organization at each of the five stages of the program cycle.

Other tools to assess an organization's program through a gender lens can be found in Oxfam Novib 2010: assignment 13 (page 75) and assignment 14 (page 79). Note that institutional or organizational mainstreaming (e.g. mainstreaming gender internally within an organization) is dealt with in Modue 3. A tool for assessing gender mainstreaming both at organizational and program levels is featured in Gurung et al. (2008). Another recommended reading on this topic is Sida (2015).

2.6.2 Gender balance tree

This tool is adapted from the Gender Action Tree of the Gender Action Learning System (Mayoux 2010 and 2014).

Objective: to define a gender equity vision and the objectives and actions towards achieving this.

Materials: flip charts, coloured cards, coloured markers, tape.

Activity: each group takes the following steps:

1)   Choose a case study to work on. This can be the project of one of the participants or your own when you replicate this exercise with your organization.

2) Draw a big tree on two or more flipcharts (see Photo 1). Put at the roots of the tree the key gender issues for your case. These are the key gender issues that were assessed during the GVCA (Module 1) and discussed at the start of the workshop when they were put as roots of a tree. Use only those that are relevant for your case.

3) Define a gender equity vision (or main goal) for your case. This vision will be placed in the centre of the trunk of the tree.

4) Define possible solutions (or specific objectives) that respond to the key gender issue (in the roots of the tree) to achieve your gender equity vision. These specific objectives are the branches of you tree.

5) Define specific actions to achieve your specific objectives. These are the fruits of the tree.

Photo 1: Taken by Marije van Lidth de Jeude during the development of a gender equity policy and action plan with ASDIR, Guatemala.

2.6.3 Developing a gender mainstreaming strategy

The objective of a gender mainstreaming strategy is to institutionalize a shared gender equity perspective as an effective mechanism for promoting gender equity at all levels of the organization internally and externally. This includes production processes, marketing, organizational structure, decision-making, access to and control over resources, knowledge generation and strengthening of capacities of men and women, both within the organization as within the target groups of your organization's interventions.

To develop a gender strategy for your organization you can follow the following steps:

Step 1: Organize the outcomes of the activities in Module 2 (e.g. the assessing gender mainstreaming in programs matrix; the gender balance tree; other activities that you developed) and Modue 3 (strengths and weaknesses of the organization).

Step 2: Internal workshop: Organize a work session of at least half a day but preferably a full day, with all staff and management of your organization (or department in case of big organizations, e.g. universities). It is important that everybody participates as a gender mainstreaming strategy affects everybody in the organization. Even though one person may be eventually assigned to monitor the implementation of the gender mainstreaming strategy, this person cannot be held accountable for the actual implementation.

Workshop activity 1: Revisit the key gender issues from the gender balance tree (Modue 2) and the strengths and weaknesses of the organization (Modue 3) with the group either by repeating some of the exercises or by giving a presentation of the outcomes of the workshops, followed by a discussion to get everybody on the same page.

If the organization has a strategic plan, business plan, or other tool that guides the organizations work, make sure you have some copies available and that all participants know the content.

Workshop activity 2: After the present situation is clear and shared by all, ask each participant to write down with a black or blue marker, two gender equity objectives they want the organization to achieve internally (regarding internal policies, the organizational structure, staff, mission/vision, etc.) and two objectives that are to be achieved externally (with program interventions or research, towards the target group, collaborators or other stakeholders). As internal issues will be dealt with in Modue 3, you can focus on the external issues for now. Write one objective on each card (two different colours to distinguish between internal and external objectives) in a simple but specific language. Make sure the objectives are related to the strategic / business plan of the organization.

> Workshop activity 2.1 Each participant reads what they have written on their cards out loud and makes sure everybody understands the objectives. After this, they place them on the wall. The cards are grouped per category (internal versus external) and grouped per theme. Double cards are put on top of each other.
>
> Workshop activity 2.2 After all the cards are placed on the wall, each participant can vote for four objectives (two internal, two external), marking the vote on the card (you can use red or green markers or small stickers). The objectives with most votes will be worked out in groups. Each group can take 2 to 4 objectives and develop the following table for each objective:

Table 14: Objectives of a gender mainstreaming strategy

Question	Answer
Objective (what do you want to achieve?)	
Level (internal or external)	
Activities (how do you plan to achieve the objective?)	
Target group (who is supposed to benefit from this? Include age, sex, ethnicity, etc.)	
Period (by when and for how long do you plan to achieve the objective?)	
Place (where do you want this to happen? E.g. in the office, a specific community or municipality, etc.)	
Responsible (who in the organization should have the responsibility to guide implementation, follow up and evaluation of the activities towards achieving the objective?)	
Sources of verification (how can we check if we achieved our objective?)	
Opportunities and threats (what opportunities and threats are there in the surrounding of the organization?)	

Sources of verification (how can we check if we achieved our objective?)

Step 3: Systematization of workshop outcomes: Integrate the outcomes into the already existing strategic/business plan. In case the organization does not have one, develop it into a general gender strategy with clearly defined indicators (see Module 4).

Gender strategy

I. At external level

Table 15: Gender strategy at the external level

	Objective I.1: Offer training for women producers			
	Outcome indicator I.1: Within one year 40 women producers will know how to…			
Activities	Output indicators	Responsible	Budget (material and financial resources)	Verification sources
Training on…	40 women will have received 4 workshops on producing…			
	Objective I.2: ….			
	Outcome indicator I.2: …			
Activities	Output indicators	Responsible	Budget (material and financial resources)	Verification sources

II. At internal level (covered in Modue 3)

Table 16: Gender strategy at the internal level

	Objective II.1: Bring the participation of women in the organizations staff to 50%.			
	Outcome indicator 1: Within four years 50% of the staff will be women.			
Activities	Output indicators	Responsible	Budget (material and financial resources)	Verification sources
Include in the ToR of new job openings that women are specifically invited to apply	In the coming four years, all ToR of new job openings will have included a line that said that women are specifically invited to apply.			
	Objective II.2: ….			
	Outcome indicator II.2: …			
Activities	Output indicators	Responsible	Budget (material and financial resources)	Verification sources

Note that the person responsible for an activity is not necessarily the one who has to implement it by themself but rather the person who has to put the team together and overview if activities are actually done. For clarification purposes the full team can be mentioned, but still it is recommended to have the final responsibility assigned to one person.

Step 4: Financing the strategy: Make sure that apart from material and human resources, there is a budget available for the implementation of the full gender mainstreaming strategy, because without financial resources the strategy becomes nothing more than good intentions. Note that some of the activities might already have a budget allocated

to them and can simply be redirected to address gender issues and gaps in a better way (e.g. by establishing a quota for women's participation). Other activities might require additional funds. These can also include the contracting of human resources (e.g. a gender expert for research, training, advisory services, or other additional personnel).

Step 5: Presentation of the final strategy: Share the final product with all personnel of the organization, clarifying the roles of each of them and the support they can get during its implementation both financially and technically (e.g. from gender coordinators or other staff members).

Step 6: Implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the gender mainstreaming strategy (see Module 4).

Module 3: Gender-responsive organizations

3.1 Introduction

This section contains background information on gender-responsive organizations: concepts and tools. The participants in the gender capacity development (the gender focal points/gender team) should conduct one of the suggested tools (3.5) with their colleagues and management, in the week(s) preceding the workshop.

3.2 Why gender-responsive organizations?

Having more diverse teams improves performance. A study of over 500 US companies found a link between gender-balanced workforces and organizational performance using measures such as sales revenue and number of customers (Herring 2009). One factor may be that diverse teams bring together various perspectives and a more holistic analysis of issues. Also, organizations that achieve greater diversity are more likely to tap into the widest pool of talents available (Credit Suisse 2012). Diversity here refers to diversity in gender, but also in age, ethnicity, etc. The business case for gender has recently become more popular, with companies such as Facebook and McKinsey[10] collaborating in campaigning for gender equality in the workplace.

Being gender-responsive as an organization is also the right thing to do. Gender equality is enshrined in a broad range of international human rights frameworks and standards, including ILO's conventions pertaining to workers' rights. For example, the ILO Discrimination and Equal Remuneration Conventions include a non-discrimination clause regarding sex, as well as equal opportunities with regard to recruitment, remuneration, promotion, training, termination and pension. [11]

An organization cannot be seen as separate from its programs. They also operate in social and cultural contexts, which they influence and by which they are influenced (Mackay 2014 in Rao et al. 2015). All organizations are inherently gendered: they are structured according to gender relations and norms and (re)produce gender inequalities (Benschop and Verloo 2006). Gender mainstreaming should therefore take place at program and at internal organizational levels. Gender-responsive organizations are much better equipped for, and more effective in delivering, interventions with gender equitable outcomes.

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10   Available from: http://www.mckinsey.com/global-themes/women-matter, http://leanin.org/

11   ILO Equal Remuneration Convention, 1951 (No. 100) and Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention 1958 (No. 111))

3.3 What is a gender-responsive organization?

Definition of a gender-responsive organization

In TI and ILRI's framework for gender capacity assessment (TI and ILRI 2016), the core gender capacity 'gender at the workplace,' is defined as the capacity to promote a gender-responsive workplace with equal opportunities and benefits (outcomes) for women and men. Key parameters for this capacity are related to workplace policies, internal gender balance and leadership, and staff's knowledge, attitudes and practices towards gender equality at the workplace, which are strongly related to other parameters, such as the organization's mission and vision and organizational commitment to gender equality.

Organizations and their environments are dynamic and being gender-responsive is a constant process. There is not one single or simple definition of a gender-responsive organization.

Elements of a gender-responsive organization

Elements that could be found in a gender-responsive (or sensitive) organization are (Groverman and Kloosterman 2010):

- The vision or mission and mandate reflect a gender perspective.

- Gender infrastructure is in place.

- There is a gender analysis of the context in which the programs operate.

- Job descriptions include elements of gender expertise.

- Management and board take responsibility for gender policy development and implementation.

- Decisions are made on the basis of gender-responsive monitoring and evaluation.

- Space is provided to women and men to bring their views to the fore.

- Adequate infrastructure to enable female staff to carry out their work (e.g. in relation to safe working environment, toilet facilities, transport arrangement, working hours).

- The organization has a reputation of integrity and competence on gender issues.

- There is support for teamwork of women and men, including gender focal persons.

- Gender is mainstreamed in all programs and projects.

- No stereotyping and stigmatizing attitudes and behaviour towards people of different sexes, ethnicity, health or HIV status, class, sexual orientation and other diversities.

- These elements are context specific and organization specific.

3.4 How to develop a gender-responsive organization?

There is no single model to follow in order to mainstream gender in any organization or program. Organizations have different resources and options, different starting points, and varied missions and they work in different, continually changing contexts. The journey of gender mainstreaming is unique to each organization (Groverman and Kloosterman 2010).

Gender mainstreaming strategies used by organizations are varied and include (Benschop and Verloo 2011):

Equal opportunities/treatment strategies, that focus on the agency and capacity of women and equipping them with new capacities and skills, for example through mentoring and training, and treating them as equal so that they can be included in organizations, for example by developing equal pay and fair employment procedures for recruitment and promotion.

Equality of outcomes/equity strategies use more radical measures towards positive discrimination such as quotas and preferential treatment.

Diversity strategies celebrate gender differences, seeing them as a resource for organizations and for society. These strategies call for acknowledging the special contributions of feminine styles and qualities such as listening, collaborating, and communicating in organizations.[12] All these strategies can be criticized as they 'seek to give disadvantaged groups a boost up the ladder, while leaving the structure of that ladder and the disadvantage it entails just as before (Cockburn 1989 in Benschop and Verloo 2006).

(Structural) transformation strategies address and try to change gender as a structure, aim to transform organizational processes and practices by eliminating gender biases and see gender as a core organizing principle that shapes social structures, knowledge and identities.

Strategies can thus be developed along one of these lines, or they can be a combination of equal opportunities, positive action, and transformation. Specific interventions based on long-term visions and strategies are needed to transform the organization itself.

Actions towards a more gender-responsive organization can include the development and/or adjustments of workplace policies aimed at ending gender discrimination, sexual harassment and supporting work-life balance; bringing more women into the organization, including in leadership positions; mentoring women; consciousness raising amongst all staff, etc.

A key action is developing policies and procedures: organizational agreements that mandate organizations to be more gender equal. An example is a gender-sensitive workplace policy (see Tool 3.6.3).

The Mainstreaming a gender justice approach manual by Oxfam Novib provides a framework for understanding and assessing organizations and developing a strategy, which is explained in the next section.

3.4.1 Mainstreaming a gender justice approach (Groverman and Kloosterman 2010)

The Mainstreaming a gender justice approach manual is developed and implemented by Oxfam Novib. It forms part of Oxfam Novib's gender mainstreaming strategy (Gender Mainstreaming and Leadership Trajectory [GMLT]) and is aimed at mainstreaming gender in development organizations.

The mainstreaming a gender justice approach looks at the organization from the perspective of its basic characteristics: its mission and mandate, organizational structure, program work, and staff, and how these intersect with the technical, the political, and the cultural fields (based on the 12-boxes analytical framework by Noel Tichy).

Table 17: The 12-boxes framework for gender mainstreaming

	Mission and mandate	Structure	Program	Staff

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12   Barbara Annis and Associates - The Gender Equality Project. Available from: https://www.youtube.com/
watch?v=pTiJ5cnsW3Q

Technical	Policies and actions	Procedures, systems and responsibilities	Program design	Staff capacity and expertise
Political	Influences on policies and actions	Decision-making	Influences on program design	Room for maneuver
Cultural	Organizational culture	Cooperation and learning	Program work	Attitudes

The gender justice approach starts with a self-assessment, in which the organization's strengths and weaknesses are identified in the organization's mission and mandate, organizational structure, program work and human resources / staff. In the manual, several assignments are given that help complete such an assessment. Two of these assignments are described in the section tools (3.5).

The assessment leads to the formulation of an action plan, with a vision, clearly defined objectives and a timeline, budget, and defined responsibilities. The gender mainstreaming strategy from Modue 2 should be used as a base for developing this action plan. The actions can be prioritized according to their importance, urgency, and feasibility. Actions need to address various elements belonging to different boxes. Most of the time, changes in the technical fields are the easiest to make (e.g. setting up gender units). Changes at the political and especially the cultural field are much more difficult to make. For example, increasing the influence that women staff members have on decision-making processes (political), or changing existing sexist attitudes and behaviour that makes women feel unsafe at work (Rao and Kelleher 2002).

When actions are decided upon, it is important to make them specific and link each to key actors involved and a time schedule (what, who, when), objectives and indicators to measure progress.

Finally, to ensure implementation and follow up, the action plan needs to be on the organization's decision-making agenda, disseminated among all staff of the organization, and staff members are assigned to their tasks.

3.5 Obstacles

Quite often, gender teams in organizations are confronted with difficulties in actually implementing actions towards becoming a gender-sensitive organization.

Policy evaporation is very common (Longwe 1997). Quite often, organizations officially support gender equality and have formulated gender objectives as part of their organizational policy statements, but in reality, policies are delayed or ignored. This usually happens in an invisible or hidden way. For example, organizations have sexual harassment policies, but women will likely still be harassed even if an organization has an equal opportunities policy in place, but cannot find women candidates to fill positions.

Other organizations have many female staff, but management is all male. This dynamic can lead to informal networks of men that function as gatekeepers, or 'men's clubs' that are biased towards people dissimilar to them. These dynamics are entrenched in social norms held by women and men that view typical or ideal leaders as having masculine traits (such as being authoritative and firm, not showing emotions), delegitimizing women who do not have these qualities.

Many organizations lack attention to work-life balance. They have an office culture that strongly values certain behaviour like that of the 'time macho' [13] the pressure to arrive early, stay late and be always available. There is a need to travel constantly to succeed, the insistence that work be done in the office, scheduling meetings after office hours, etc. Women who are primary caretakers in their families are unable to combine these with the high demands at work. Both women and men internalize these factors, so they seem reasonable and 'normal'.

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13   Available from: http://www.theatlantic.com/magazine/archive/2012/07/why-women-still-cant-have-it-all/309020/

These obstacles indicate that more changes are needed beyond developing policies.

The following framework, developed by Gender at Work (Rao et al. 2015), can be used to get more insights into organizational processes, how organizational change happens, and why sometimes change is not happening or reversed.

3.5.1 The Gender at Work analytical framework[14]

A well-known collaborative working on the nexus of gender and employment is Gender at Work, founded in 2001 by AWID, CIVICUS, UN Women and the Women's Learning Partnership (WLP).

The Gender at Work analytical framework (see Figure 7) can be used as a tool for assessment, strategy development and mapping outcomes. It is based on two intersecting continuums or axes: from the individual to larger systems, and from informal to formal arrangements. These two axes then create four quadrants or domains of change that must be tackled for sustainable transformations in gender.

Figure 7: The Gender at Work analytical framework
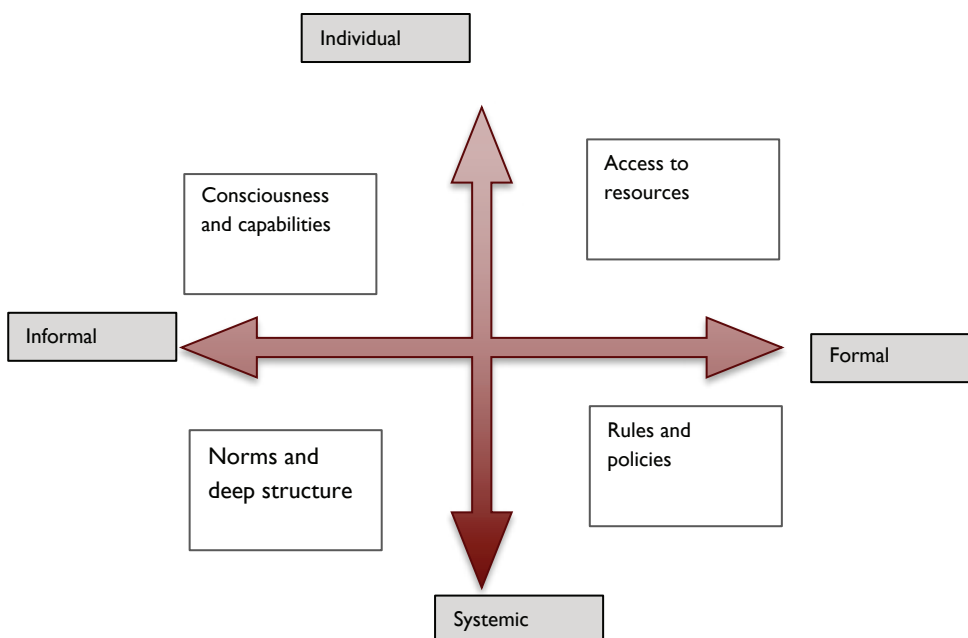
Gender at Work argues that change needs to take place in all the four quadrants and change in one quadrant can have important effect on others. Changes do not happen all at once and take time.

Individual consciousness and capabilities: an individual's knowledge of, and willingness and capacity to push for their own and other rights. This includes beliefs, perceptions, and values of individuals regarding gender equality. Consciousness is the collection of experience, value and knowledge that influence how we come to see gender relations. Some outcomes in this quadrant are:

- Staff knowledge and commitment to gender equality.

- Commitment of the leadership.

Access to resources: access to resources (staff, funds, training opportunities, meeting spaces and networks) is necessary but insufficient alone to support transformation, such as changes in attitudes. Typically, organizations may aim to bring in more women into their workforce and/or more women into leadership positions. In some cases,

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14   Ibid and http://www.genderatwork.org/OurWork/OurApproach/GWFramework.aspx

however, the work environment is very challenging for women or even hostile to them. Some outcomes in this quadrant are:

- Budget and other resources devoted to projects to advance equality.

- Number of women in leadership positions.

Formal rules and policies: the visible and documented policies, regulations, procedures and strategies that are agreed on as a way to mandate organizations to be more gender equal. Policy processes are much more than paperwork, and very strongly related to the other three quadrants. Often there is a huge gap between policy intents and outcomes. Organizational commitment and accountability, structures and mechanisms, and expertise are needed for policies to be actually implemented. Some outcomes in this quadrant are:

- Mission includes gender equality.

- Policies for anti-harassment, work-family arrangements, fair employment, etc.

- Accountability mechanisms that hold the organization accountable to its intentions.

Social norms and deep structure: the deep structure and social norms are manifestations of structural hierarchies and inequalities and are strongly influenced by the context. For example, the social norm of the 'male breadwinner' is built on a notion of a separation of productive/public and reproductive/private roles, with the first role seen as male and more valued than the second one, which is female. Such norms are often present within organizational rules, but they are not spoken about, and influence the fact that men receive higher salaries for the same work. The deep structure and discriminatory norms are often invisible and taken for granted; they are mutually reinforcing; they are constantly being reproduced; highly resilient and both unchanging and can change.

- Some outcomes in this quadrant are:

- Acceptance of women's leadership.

- Organizational ownership of gender issues.

- Acceptance of needed work-family adjustments.

- Women's issues firmly on the agenda.

The framework allows people to see the whole picture and the emphasis on certain efforts. Often, more efforts are invested in the formal side: providing resources and developing policies and regulations for gender equality, with accomplishments such as women's quotas. Changing the rules and developing gender policies is a key stage in the organizational change process. However, most organizations are unable to accomplish as much as they intend because of the more informal and invisible domains. Gender norms are hot-wired into the DNA of organizational systems and kept in place by both visible and invisible power dynamics. More attention therefore needs to be paid especially to the deep structures of organizations. According to Gender at Work's experience, when the social norms and deep structure are addressed, changes in the other quadrants are more likely to succeed and be sustainable.

Developing gender infrastructure (resources and policies, the formal side), together with organizational change (the deep structure) and developing gender-responsive programs is considered most effective (Rao and Kelleher 2002).

3.6 Tools

Two tools have been selected from the Mainstreaming a gender justice approach manual: (Groverman and Kloosterman 2010)

The first tool, assessment of an organization's gendered division of tasks, is more suitable for organizations that are relatively new to the topic, it can also help to start the conversation about gender issues in the organization. Any organization can conduct this tool, unless they are very small in size.

The second tool, exploring and unpacking the organization's culture, is a bit more difficult to use and needs more time. It is recommended only for gender teams that have already worked on gender issues in their organization, and for organizations that have at least some awareness of their gender issues.

Both tools only indicate one small part of the gender-responsiveness of an organization. For a holistic picture, a complete organizational assessment would be necessary. You can use the other tools from the Mainstreaming a gender justice approach manual from Oxfam Novib (2010) for this.

Third, a list of components for a gender-sensitive workplace policy is given. This can be used as a checklist for organizations or provide the basis for monitoring and the development of indicators.

3.6.1 Assessment of an organization's gendered division of tasks

This tool is adapted from the Mainstreaming a gender justice approach manual from Oxfam Novib (2010: 55, assignment 8). The tool looks into one of the 12 boxes: procedures, systems and responsibilities which is situated at the axes of organizational structure and the technical field of interaction (see page 30–31 for the framework). The tool helps assess the gendered division of tasks inside an organization.

The advantage of using the gendered division of tasks tool is that it provides observable data on the internal gender balance, which can be used to start a discussion. It is important to link the internal gender balance with other aspects of the gendered nature of an organization. The gendered division of tasks is one aspect that is mutually reinforcing to other gendered processes and structures of organizations (for example, in the Gender at Work analytical framework, this would be situated in the right top quadrant: access to resources). Often, organizations are balanced unequally, which could be an indication of deeper gender inequalities related to the organizations' context. Discussing these inequalities could be a starting point for change.

The exercise should be done by the gender team with their colleagues and management, in the week(s) preceding the workshop.

Step 1: Fill in Table 18 with a list of activities. This can be done with all participants together or in smaller groups, depending on how many people participate. The participants must fill in the prevalent situation in the appropriate column: How many women and how many men are involved in each task? If exact numbers are difficult to know, use an approximation. If that too is difficult, you can decide to only write down if a certain task or job has majority, equal or few persons of that gender. In the last column, indicate if this situation has existed for quite some time or if it is a recent practice.

Table 18: Gender division of tasks list of activities

Tasks	Women	Men	Long-standing practice or recent development
Top management of organization			
Leadership in program work			
Secretarial work			
Financial administration			
Human resource management			
Organizing celebrations and events			
Fieldwork or work outside the premises			
Extension (technical) work			
Social (assistance) work			
Doing research (if applicable)			
Cleaning			
Driving			
Other			

Optionally, you can also look at the gender division according to permanent vs flexible jobs, full-time vs part-time jobs, remuneration, or other relevant differences for which you can get sex-disaggregated data.

Step 2: Discuss the main observations from the table. Use the following questions:

1.   Does the table reflect a certain division of the tasks and responsibilities?

2.   Does the division of activities and responsibilities reflect the gender stereotypes held in your society?

3.   Which beliefs about roles and relations of men and women supply the basis for this division of activities?

4.   Do you observe tendencies towards change?

Step 3: Reporting back. Develop a report back to the group, using only one flip chart paper (no PowerPoint presentations are necessary). You do not need to report on exact numbers, but you can present some important observations related to the division of tasks in the organization, how it links to gender stereotypes and beliefs, and how the discussion went with your colleagues.

3.6.2 Exploring and unpacking the organization's culture

This tool is adapted from *the Mainstreaming a gender justice approach* manual from Oxfam Novib (2010: 49, assignment 5 and 6). The tool looks into one of the 12 boxes: organizational culture, and helps to reflect on an organization's beliefs, norms, and values about gender justice.

The exercise should be done by the gender team with their colleagues and management, in the week(s) preceding the workshop. If the participation of other colleagues is not possible, the gender team could do the exercise.

Step 1: Brainstorm in small groups on each of the following four organizational norms and values for about 10 minutes, followed by a discussion of another 15 minutes on how these norms relate to gender and the organizations' functioning:

The way we talk: make a list of about five expressions in the language that is used in the organization, for example expressions referring to race, class, sex, or other identities; reprimands; gossip; courtesy formulas; exaggerations; expressions of ridicule; jokes; sayings or proverbs. Write next to these expressions whether they refer to women, to men or both.

Discuss what these expressions could imply for the men or women they refer to. Do they help or hinder them to develop a positive self-image, to be a confident staff member, to generate good relations with others, to access opportunities to grow in the work? Do these expressions about male and female staff promote or hinder a good functioning of the organization?

A successful staff member: describe the characteristics a person should possess to be successful in their organization (for example, working extra hours to get the job done). Be specific and provide examples. Are other traits expected for successful women than for successful men? Who has the most chance of meeting such success criteria: men or women?

Discuss what implications such differences have for the personal and professional development of men and women in the organization? You can think of job appraisal, promotion, selection for training, and so on. What could be the implications for the organization: if policies make a distinction between male and female staff, would the organization gain or lose?

A good leader: describe what is considered to be a good leader in the organization. What kind of characteristics (for example, having a clear vision) does a good leader have and how does it show? Be specific and provide examples. Are other characteristics expected from a male leader than from a female leader?

Discuss the following questions: if there is a difference for men and women, in what aspects do they differ? What implications do these images of leadership have for the opportunities women and men have to become a leader? What are the implications for the organization?

Working together: when you do group work in your organization, what kinds of activities take place? Think of discussions, decision-taking, listening, taking notes, writing minutes, serving drinks, collecting work supplies, and the like. List these activities. Who performs these activities: female or male staff?

Discuss if there is a difference between female or male staff where it concerns frequency in speaking, duration of speaking time, issue addressed when speaking, dominance as common attitude, negotiation and conciliation as common attitudes, passive acceptance as common attitude, interrupting the meeting, leaving the meeting, or other behaviour you may observe. Does this have implications for the personal and professional development of men and women in the organization? Does the organization benefit or not from these differences in roles and behaviour?

Step 2: Read about 'Hofstede's Onion' (p 52) in the manual. Hofstede expresses an organization's culture as an onion with three different layers and a central part symbolizing the organization's core values. Peeling the onion starts with the first layer: symbols, continues with heroes, rituals, and ends with core values, which are the central part. The discussions on the four themes can help you in describing what symbols (visible words, pictures or objects) your organization uses, who its heroes (champions and leaders) are, what rituals it has, and finally, its core values (i.e. principles and qualities that are felt worthwhile and important to adhere to, because they are believed to be good, right and desirable).

Step 3: Discuss

1.   What are some core values of your organization?

2.   How are the organizational norms and values related to gender?

3.   How do they reflect existing gender stereotypes and relations?

4.   Do they promote or hinder opportunities for male and female staff?

Step 4: Develop a report back to the group, using only one flip chart paper (no PowerPoint presentations necessary). You can present some reflections about the organizational culture and how this relates to the positions of male and female staff, and how the discussion went with your colleagues.

3.6.3 Developing a gender-sensitive workplace policy

A gender-sensitive workplace policy should contain the following:

- a non-discrimination clause (explicit on gender, can also include marriage, pregnancy, parenthood);

- provides for equal opportunities with regard to recruitment, remuneration, promotion, training;

- allowance for maternity and paternity leave;

- flexible work hours are provided for;

- access to childcare;

- avail gender-sensitive facilities such as separate toilet and breast-feeding spaces;

- health and safety are provided for, including anti-sexual harassment policies.

A formal policy should be in place and implemented, and management should report on human resource issues including internal gender balance.

The Global Reporting Initiative (GRI) Sustainability Reporting Guidelines provide a practical guide that covers reporting on relevant gender indicators (GRI and IFC 2009). It is aimed at businesses and multinational corporations. Examples of such indicators are: ratio of remuneration, promotion of all employees and by gender, uptake rate of flexible work hours per gender, the number and percentage of management posts per gender.

3.7 Cases

The following cases can be used to understand and practice with the Gender at Work analytical framework.

3.7.1 SACCAWU (Rao et al. 2015)

The South African Commercial Catering and Allied Workers Union (SACCAWU) organizes workers in the service, commercial and catering industries. It is mainly women who work in these industries. In 2005, (Solidarity Centre 2013) SACCAWU, 65% of its members are women but they only constituted 35% of the leadership.

SACCAWU stood out from other unions because it employed a full-time gender coordinator and had created a gender department. SACCAWU also had gender equitable policies.

However, despite having an anti-sexual harassment policy and manual, women members felt unsafe from unwanted sexual advances. The union leadership constantly rejected a call for quotas for women's leaders, and it was reluctant to address everyday practices within the union (such as holding meetings at night) that (re)produced gender inequality.

There were deeply held cultural beliefs among union staff and members that reinforced men's power over women. Gender issues were often marginalized to be a concern of the gender coordinator and department, so, the structures that were created also worked against gender mainstreaming. This is how the SACCAWU situation looked at the start of the change process.

Table 19: The situation at SACCAWU at the start of the change process

Individual consciousness and capabilities	Access to resources
Lack of critical consciousness amongst women to work together and support each other	Lack of women union leaders

Social norms and deep structure	Formal rules and policies
Sexual harassment	Anti-sexual harassment policy not implemented
Aggressive male behaviour preventing women from decision-making and leadership	
Everyday practices that reproduce gender inequality	
Women's home and childcare responsibilities preventing them from attending union meetings	

The gender team, headed by the gender coordinator, started a process aimed at changing attitudes, knowledge, policies, programs, and practices within the union. They developed the leadership of women from their membership base, at local level. A second layer of women's leadership was built, and women learned to work together and support each other. The team also educated the members about sexual harassment. They used an organizational renewal process as an opportunity for including their ideas on gender equality and managed to get the problem of lack of women leaders into this process.

The outcomes that they achieved over the one year period between 2005 and 2006 (Solidarity Centre 2013) were:

Table 20: Outcomes of the change process at SACCAWU

Individual consciousness and capabilities	Access to resources
Changing women's critical consciousness to enable them to support each other	Women standing for election to committees
	Greater number of women in decision-making positions
Earning the support of the deputy general	Building networks of solidarity and support among women elected members

Social norms and deep structure	Formal rules and policies
Establishing childcare facilities for members	50/50 representation model accepted by union leadership at national level
Addressing aggressive male behaviour	

3.7.2 CIMMYT

The International Maize and Wheat Improvement Centre (CIMMYT) (Merrill-Sands et al. in Rao et al. 1999), a member of CGIAR, has a worldwide reputation for its research into increasing sustainable production of maize and wheat, which are staple food crops in developing countries.

In order to ensure that it could retain and attract the highest-quality scientists, CIMMYT made an explicit commitment in 1995 to increasing its recruitment of women and to providing a work environment equally hospitable to and supportive of men and women.

Attention to gender in both research and staffing has been part of its larger policy environment since the early 1990s when the CGIAR Gender Program was established. In 1997, women comprised 24% of all staff. They constituted only 16% of the internationally recruited professional and scientific staff. There were no women at the senior management level.

A key aim of the change process was a 'dual agenda' to create not only a more gender-equitable organization but also a more effective organization as a whole. The deputy director general decided to address gender-staffing issues

seriously and explicitly at CIMMYT. The explicit commitment of the donor community to strengthen attention to gender also provided a powerful incentive for CIMMYT to address gender staffing.

On the other hand, however, CIMMYT had had a long history of low female representation in the professional ranks, and only one woman in a senior management position. Moreover, the previous leadership did not consider gender equity to be a priority, thus there was a legacy of resistance to such issues in the organization.

An external action-research team was set up. The team developed an analysis that looked at the 'mental models' that drove the current work environment and strategic challenges facing CIMMYT, and the implications of these challenges for both gender equality and organizational effectiveness.

One of these mental models 'belief in individual achievement' had been built on beliefs about how good research is done, that fostering individual achievement was the best route to groundbreaking research. The assumption seemed to be that if CIMMYT hired the best and the brightest, gave them resources, autonomy, and latitude in defining the problems they wished to work on, they would produce, and scientific breakthroughs would be attained. One of the consequences of this mental model was that it led to a devaluation of all forms of support. Those who contributed in terms of strengthening collaborations, problem-solving, facilitating effective work processes, developing new methodologies or managing tended to believe that their contributions were invisible. Many, at all levels, spoke of this invisibility, but those in administrative, non-scientific positions, which include many national and female staff, particularly felt this. Because of gender segregation in the workforce, women tended to be overrepresented in formal support positions.

Another mental model 'default to hierarchy' related to the largely unquestioned assumption, rooted in CIMMYT's past success, that hierarchy was the best way to organize. Lines of authority and decision-making were vertical, there was a strong reliance on top-down information flow, and power and influence were concentrated at the top. The deeply entrenched hierarchical norms had gender implications as well. Because women were less well represented at higher levels of the hierarchy, their perspectives, skills and experience were not being accessed effectively, and their contribution to CIMMYT's overall mission was not being realized. As a result, many women felt unconnected and undervalued.

Another mental model was that of 'the ideal CIMMYT worker.' This was an image strongly rooted in CIMMYT's past. The ideal worker was instilled with missionary zeal, willing to sacrifice everything and endure hardship to get the job done. Despite some very positive aspects, this value of commitment and dedication had some unintended consequences for staff's ability to integrate work and personal life and for work structure and style. The image of the ideal worker as someone with a traditional family and stay-at-home spouse had clear gender equity implications. First, it privileges traditional families, while women working at CIMMYT were likely to be single or in dual-earner families. Second, it is still rare to find husbands whose primary role is to care for the family. Consequently, women were at a disadvantage in this respect as well.

The staff then developed a number of concrete action steps (experiments).

One was to use a 360° performance appraisal. A 360°, or multi-source performance appraisal system, supplements managers' assessment of staff performance with that of peers and direct reports. The goal of this experiment was to interrupt the norm of default to hierarchy by giving people an opportunity to provide input on managers' and supervisors' performance. Although seemingly gender neutral, this experiment had significant potential to affect gender equity. Not only does it provide a way of lessening managerial bias against or discomfort with providing feedback to women, but it also makes visible many of the work functions that women routinely provide, both formally and informally, such as facilitation, problem prevention, support and coordination. Staff, especially the women, felt the feedback was fairer and franker than the supervisor-only approach and that it was a more useful assessment of performance than focusing on work outputs alone. As a result of the pilot project, staff recommended that CIMMYT adopt 360° feedback as an integral part of the performance appraisal system.

Another action was to strengthen management-staff communications. Both men and women reported significant improvements in communications, but women perceived a more dramatic change. They have also benefited men and, arguably, CIMMYT's effectiveness as an organization.

Another action was related to the division of labour. This experiment was intended to challenge the mental model of the ideal worker and core assumptions of work, loyalty and commitment by redefining the roles and responsibilities of scientists and field workers to allow for more delegation. Initially, the experiment was designed to challenge norms of excessive travel. However, as the experiment moved through the design phase it became loaded with many other goals, particularly that of increasing equity between international and national staff. Yet, after two years, the experiment had still not been implemented. It is not surprising that this experiment has been slow to implement. It has been difficult to develop a constituency for it, because it challenges some of the most deeply held assumptions about workers who are valued and work styles that lead to success, and it involves changes in work practices and behaviours, rather than in management systems.

After two years, there was significant progress in improving the transparency, fairness and gender neutrality of the hiring system, improved communication, and improved quality of interaction in key project planning teams. Several issues remained unresolved, but significant steps had been taken.

A significant majority of the women felt that the work environment was more hospitable, making it easier for women as well as men to succeed and contribute. Equally important, men were not experiencing negative repercussions from the efforts aimed at strengthening gender equity.

Considerable change had occurred after one year, and continuing change was expected with the launching of the projects on 360° performance assessment and team-strengthening. The central concerns were the aggravated time shortage and that the need to improve work/personal life integration seemed to have fallen by the wayside. The team's assessment was that the factors creating the time famine at CIMMYT run deep in its organizational culture and were being aggravated by financial pressures.

Some lessons from the cases

Using the dual-agenda approach creates a broad constituency. However, it also makes gender vulnerable to being overshadowed by organizational performance objectives. Even with a strong internal liaison group, time and effort must continually be put into developing an internal constituency that can hold onto gender during implementation.

The CIMMYT experience underscores the importance of recognizing, valuing and building on 'small wins' in the long-term and complex change process. It is important to set milestones, to recognize when they have been reached and to communicate this progress widely.

The action-research team believes that there are two fundamental ways to challenge mental models that shape gender equity and organizational effectiveness. The first is by interrupting the discourse and developing new ways of understanding and talking about gender equity, norms and work practices in the organization. The second is by interrupting work practices that derive from and reinforce the mental models.

Module 4: Monitoring and documentation

4.1 Introduction

This section contains background information on gender-responsive monitoring and documenting: concepts, methodologies and tools. A case on poultry rearing is included, which will be used in the workshop.

4.2   Why gender-responsive monitoring?

Gender must be addressed in ongoing monitoring and during evaluations for the same reasons we address other issues: in assessing whether an activity is achieving its objectives, we can consider what has been accomplished and what can be learned and fed back into further efforts. Gender is a cross-cutting issue within the development policies of most international donors and national governments. If gender impacts are not evaluated, they are unlikely to be given any attention during the implementation of the project/program (World Bank et al. 2009).

Gender-sensitive M&E in a results-based framework reveals the extent to which a project has achieved improvements in the lives and overall social and economic well-being of women and men. It also helps to improve project performance during implementation, facilitates mid-term adjustments and helps to derive lessons for future projects (World Bank 2012), for example, by detecting and addressing gender-based constraints (IFAD 2012).

Impacts, such as benefits of value chain interventions for women, need to be demonstrated. Such data, if accurate, can be used to improve decision-making and policies in such a way that gender imbalances are overcome and development happens in an equitable way benefitting all genders, age groups, ethnicities, etc.

Assuming that women will automatically gain from generic value chain interventions can have unintended negative consequences. Accounts of backlash against women beneficiaries ranging from men turning violent against women to men taking over crops and livestock traditionally managed by women once they became profitable have been documented. Interventions to empower individuals within households without considering other household members and gender relations of power among these members can easily fail. There is a need for gender-responsive monitoring and evaluation to identify such unintended consequences and gender analysis to try to avoid them in the first place (Mutua et al. 2014). Additionally, gender-responsive monitoring identifies opportunities to empower women and identifies actions that contribute to women's empowerment (IFAD 2012).

Generally, in agricultural development programs M&E is given insufficient attention and gender-sensitive M&E even less. In cases where gender-sensitive indicators do exist, they are more commonly found at the output and short-term outcome level and only rarely at the impact level (World Bank et al. 2009). Much M&E has focused on measuring numbers and outputs, such as an increase of women's participation in training. However, little attention has been

given to the intensity and quality of their participation, let alone to actual benefits in terms of empowerment and reducing inequalities.

A particularly critical flaw in most available data is that it is aggregated by household, and thereby obscures gender differences within households regarding access to and control over assets and resources (Farnworth et al. 2013).

4.3 Concepts and methods

4.3.1 Monitoring and evaluation

Monitoring is the continuous assessment of project implementation in relation to agreed schedules and use of inputs, infrastructure and services by project beneficiaries; as well as the periodic assessment of the relevance, performance, efficiency and impact (expected and unexpected) of the project in relation to stated objectives (World Bank et al. 2009). In practice, monitoring systems generate information that will feed into longer-term program or project evaluations (Batliwala and Pittman 2010).

Evaluation aims to assess the overall impact of a social change intervention against an explicit set of goals and objectives. Evaluation involves the systematic collection and analysis of data to help us discover if, how, and why a particular intervention or set of interventions worked or did not. Evaluations are conducted less frequently than monitoring, as they are more comprehensive and aim to capture the big picture of impact at particular moments in time.[15] Many evaluations focus on specific Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Development Assistance Committee (DAC) criteria like relevance, effectiveness, efficiency, lessons learned and sustainability (OECD-DAC 2010).

From the *Gender in Agriculture Sourcebook (World Bank et al. 2009):*

Monitoring can be based on quantitative measures, such as data issued by statistics offices or specifically collected by project staff.

Qualitative monitoring can be done through tools such as interviews, observation and focus groups.

Participation of intended beneficiaries in monitoring is a means to ensure ownership and to ensure that an activity is truly benefiting the participants.

Participatory monitoring, on the other hand, is a means of involving stakeholders from the start in such tasks as identifying activities and indicators that should be monitored, carrying out the monitoring itself, and analysing the results for improving future processes.

External monitoring or evaluation provides independent, external feedback on progress and outcomes.

Impact evaluations determine whether a program had the desired effects and whether there were any unanticipated effects.

Gender audits are distinct from regular evaluations in that they are based on self-assessments by staff of a project, organization, or ministry of how gender issues are addressed in program portfolios and internal organizational processes. A gender audit is not an external evaluation. It should be used to facilitate change and develop action plans and monitoring systems.

Gender-responsive monitoring and evaluation aims at assessing the project's effects and impacts (intended or unintended) on gender relations and women's empowerment. It should track changes in the conditions and positions of women and men participating in the value chain, including women's and men's shares in employment

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15   Ibid.

and income across value chain nodes (Kantor 2013) and in gender relations such as in the gender division of labour and workload, differences in access and control over resources and information, decision-making and others, as well as women's and men's attitudes and perceptions. Gender-responsive M&E should not only collect gender data, but also analyse the reasons for gender differences and develop interventions (IFAD 2012). Gender-responsive M&E is central to documenting the outcomes of gender-responsive interventions and how these are achieved (Kantor 2013).

Others prefer using the term 'gender-sensitive.' We chose to use gender responsive as this is already used by ILRI (CGIAR 2013). Also, gender-sensitive monitoring takes gender roles and relations into account, whereas gender-responsive monitoring goes a step further as it also responds to these. In practice, however, the terms are used interchangeably by different actors.

M&E frameworks are the broad conceptual structures that attempt to pull together a set of ideas about how a change intervention should be tracked and how its effects should be measured or assessed. For instance, Causal Frameworks (Logical Framework and the Theory of Change approaches) or Contribution Frameworks (Outcome Mapping approaches) are conceptual structures that provide an overall framing or theory detailing the most appropriate ways of measuring change (Batliwala and Pittman 2010).

A tool is a specific assessment or measurement technique that is used within broader evaluation frameworks and approaches to generate concrete data or evidence about the results of an intervention or change process (Batliwala and Pittman 2010).

In any M&E process, different data collection methods are used, and are applied to any approach, making use of one or more tools. Quantitative methods, such as surveys, help generate statistical evidence, while qualitative methods like interviews, focus groups, mapping and so forth help gather richer, more nuanced information on individual and collective struggles, experiences and interpretations of the change process (Batliwala and Pittman 2010).

4.3.2 The design of a gender-responsive monitoring system

Gender should be included from the start of a program and in the design of a monitoring plan or system. If a monitoring framework (such as a Logical Framework) is already in place, it should be made gender-responsive, or 'engendered' by checking all indicators, results and data collection methods on their gender-responsiveness and adding gender-responsive indicators, results and methods if necessary (IFAD 2012). Ideally, this is done in an integrated manner, from the start of a program. If gender has not been considered at the program design stage, it may be forgotten during implementation. This engendering could be done with any monitoring framework, including Theory of Change or Impact Pathways. The Theory of Change approach makes assumptions or theories on why and how change happens explicitly, and therefore has great potential to include assumptions on gender issues (such as on the roles of women in the project). For an example, see CGIAR's lessons in Theory of Change: gender and inclusion (Jost et al. 2015).

A gender-responsive baseline study and/or gender (value chain) analysis at the design stage can provide relevant and vital information (World Bank et al. 2009).

The goals, purposes or objectives of the program or project should explicitly refer to gender or reflect women's and men's needs and priorities (World Bank et al. 2009). The monitoring and evaluation strategy for value chain interventions should specify expected gender outcomes. These can be formulated at various levels: individual, household, market and community and at policy and macro levels (Mayoux and Mackie 2007).

Indicators that are developed need to be gender-responsive as well (see 4.3.4).

During implementation, gender analysis is used to monitor outcomes of the interventions on men and women, gender relations and the position of women. It is recommended to measure benefits and adverse effects on men

and women separately whenever possible, and check whether the needs and interests of women and men are still considered during implementation (World Bank et al. 2009).

In order to carry out gender-responsive monitoring and evaluation, sex-disaggregated data is required (World Bank 2012) and should be collected continuously. During the value chain analysis or baseline, data collection should already be disaggregated by gender (Njuki et al. 2011 in Mutua et al. 2014) (see 4.3.6). The collected data should then be analysed: outcomes and perceptions need to be differentiated for women and men, and the program or project should aim to understand any differences, explain them and formulate responses.

M&E should capture the complexities of gender and change taking place at different levels: policies, laws, the distribution of resources, social structures, culture, beliefs and practices (Batliwala and Pittman 2010). (Dulón 2009; Mutua et al. 2014) emphasizes the necessity of including the context in which the condition of women is improved and the temporal dynamics (e.g. if gender gaps have become smaller and to what extent empowerment processes have occurred over time). It is crucial to focus on different types of impacts including economic, social, cultural, political and psychological impacts (Mayoux and Mackie 2007).

M&E should also be participatory and involve women and men. Combining qualitative and quantitative data collection tools is useful for capturing different dimensions of impacts (World Bank 2005 in Mutua et al. 2014).

The report should address the gender-related findings, both the outcomes of gender integration in the overall context of the project, outcomes of project interventions on men and women and gender relations and lessons learned from implementation. Gender impacts should not be put in one separate section but discussed in each aspect of the report (IFAD 2012).

Institutional structures need to be in place: ensure that guidelines and structures are present to support good, gendered monitoring at national, local and project levels. Insist that project staff make specific and adequately detailed references to gender in supervision forms and project completion reports. Report any gender differences even when no mention was made of gender in project objectives. Ensure that staff members have capacities and obtain the training and tools to understand gender and the reasons for monitoring (World Bank et al. 2009). Gender experts should be involved in the M&E (IFAD 2012).

4.3.3 Researching and documenting gender-responsive approaches

Gender-responsive research pays attention to the similarities and differences between men and women's behaviour and perception, giving equal value to each. It does not change the scope of the research but provides new perspectives, raises new questions, and uses gender-sensitive data collection and analysis tools to create a more complete picture of the topic under investigation. As men and women have different roles, power and participation levels, their experiences and knowledge are different, thus providing other perspectives on a certain topic (ICIMOD 2009). Integrating a gender perspective into research can improve its relevance, coverage and quality (ADEA Working Group on Higher Education 2006 in ICIMOD 2009). For example, a study on the value chain of medicinal plants that includes a gender perspective would contribute not only to identifying who is doing what and what needs to be done to increase the producers' benefits, but also could contribute to identifying measures to ensure equitable benefits for producers and processors for both men and women, increasing its impact to reduce poverty (ICIMOD 2009).

A gender-responsive research methodology is usually more participatory and can contribute greatly to empowering people, notably women. It helps both men and women concerned by a problem to analyse an issue, understand its causes and find solutions. Engendering research means that the gender dimension is mainstreamed into every component of the research: identifying the problem, formulating the research question, selecting an equitable sample (unless the research is specifically focused on men or women), defining the conceptual and analytical framework, choosing the methodology and tools, defining places or times for conducting interviews or other

methods, deciding on mixed or separate sessions, analysing and interpreting the findings as well as disseminating the results (see ICOMOD 2009 for more details) (ICIMOD 2009).

Research, whether empirical or fundamental, is not neutral. The position of the researcher(s), their interests and values affect how and what research topics they chose, who they work with, and the perspective and method of research. Even the researcher's position in society (in term of gender, class, ethnicity and age) may influence the way in which the research is conducted, how the information is analysed and how the results are interpreted. Deciding what information is relevant is also not always an objective process: for example, local knowledge and information provided by marginalized groups is often given less value than information provided by decision makers, other scientists or like-minded people. In order to achieve objectivity in research, it is important to acknowledge our own bias, preferences, values and socio-cultural background, and to be constantly aware that these factors could influence the process of the research and its findings. Using mixed gender research teams is helpful in order to include different viewpoints (ICIMOD 2009).

Some specific issues to consider raised by ICIMOD 2009 include:

A problem often faced in research is the use of general concepts that 'hide' gender specific realities. When talking about 'farmers' we often assume that the farmers are men. However, women play an important role in farm production, but their work is different. In some contexts, women spend more hours than men in production work, but more importance is given to men's role as owners and income generators.

It is important to recognize the diversity of women's and men's experiences: do not judge who is a 'real' woman and who is most representative of men's role according to your own values.

In some contexts, women have very few opportunities to express their ideas. Consequently, their knowledge and opinions are often neglected, even by themselves. They are not used to talking in public or to being consulted. Thus, it is important to show interest in their roles and views, to value their experiences and to have patience when working with them.

Written materials are not appropriate when working with illiterate or people with a low level of education. Often there are more women than men in this condition.

Gender-responsive research uses and produces gender disaggregated data and gender analysis. Documenting differences based on gender does not provide comprehension of gender issues or explain why there are differences, inequities or inequalities. A gender analysis should explain the differences in experiences, viewpoints, and impacts related to gender roles and power relationships. These gender roles and power relations between men and women are not 'natural' or due to the intrinsic 'nature' of men or women; they are constructed in a particular socio-economic and cultural context. This is why the contextualization of the research is important: it should indicate where the research was conducted; who was involved; who is concerned with the topic; what are the beliefs and practices related to it and so forth (ICIMOD 2009).

A gender analysis should provide information about how men and women are related to, or affected by, the subject of the research (see also Modue 1).

Gender-responsive research should also identify the impacts of new practices or policies on men and women; who will benefit from these; who will be disadvantaged and the impacts on men and women's activities and relationships.

All of the above issues also apply when documenting gender-responsive approaches. Moreover, in addition to adhering to standard research ethics (e.g. ensuring anonymity of your respondents, objectivity in reporting, adequate sourcing, etc), it is important to use gender-sensitive language. Language itself is not neutral and, in most cultures, reflects the values of patriarchal society (ICIMOD 2009). An example is the Spanish language, which refers to a group in male terms as soon as there is one man in the group, even though there might be a hundred women. Generic terms should be used to translate generic situations and gender specific terms to make visible men's or

women's roles and perspectives. For tips on how to use gender-sensitive language see: www.mtu.edu/policy/development/how-to/19_Gender-Sensitive_Language.pdf.

For the Spanish language, the following control list can be used:

Lenguaje sensible al género[16]

A continuación se presenta una pequeña lista de control, para el uso de un lenguaje sensible al género [17]:

- *Deja de lado el genérico masculino como un formato pre-establecido (default):*

    - *Usa el género femenino para hacer a las mujeres visibles en tu texto.*

    - *Usa separaciones y paréntesis en casos prácticos específicos (las-los, las/los, etc.)*

    - *Usa nombres colectivos neutros antes que los masculinos (la gente versus los hombres).*

- *Haz siempre referencia a mujeres y hombres, excepto si específicamente te estás refiriendo a un solo género. En este caso, indícalo claramente.*

- *Cuando impliques a una población, mira cercanamente su composición según género, y, ajusta tu lenguaje según el caso.*

- *Usa oraciones afirmativas y activas cuando hagas referencia a las mujeres (por ej. "las mujeres consiguieron la formalización" en lugar de "se les dio la formalización a las mujeres".*

- *Estipula explícitamente el interés por la igualdad de género.*

- *Incluye ejemplos específicos de género (por ejemplo, con el uso de comillas o paréntesis en una oración).*

- *Haz referencia a fuentes legitimadas, para dar soporte a tus ideas de equidad de género.*

- *Lee de nuevo tu texto con "tus anteojos de género puestos" y mira si te sientes cómoda-o con el resultado.*

4.3.4 Gender-responsive communication

Biodiversity International (Elias and Hermanowicz 2016) identifies four facets for communicating research findings in a gender-responsive way:

1. Understand your audience: identify groups who will be using your findings and consult both women and men from these groups. Share your findings with different actors.

2. Showcase gender-relevant findings: analyse and represent sex-disaggregated data. When citing participants, indicate their gender. Be gender aware in your visuals and include both women and men in images and photos.

3. Use gender-responsive knowledge sharing channels: consider where your target audience, men and women, obtains information and use these channels. Explore whether men and women have access to different information technologies. Organize result sharing activities at times and places accessible to women and men. Use appropriate language that is matched to the level of (technical) understanding of your audience. Adopt diverse and mixed methods of communication. Leverage your findings through seminars, workshops etc.

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16   This section is only relevant for Spanish speakers and should be disregarded for English-speaking countries

17   Basado en Pait, Sara. Guía para la incorporación del enfoque de género en las propuestas institucionales de las asociadas de COPEME. COPEME y CRS, 2006. Adaptado de: Cavazza, Simonetta. Guidelines for gender-sensitive writing at the Turin Centre. ILO, rev. 8.3.2000

4.   Monitor your outreach strategy.

UNDP (2016) uses six principles for gender-sensitive communication:

1.   Ensure that women and men are represented in written and visual products and messages.

2.   Challenge gender stereotypes. Avoid the use of stereotypes, do not represent certain roles or vocations as typically male or female.

3.   Avoid exclusionary forms. Instead of using 'he' or 'his', one can use 'he/she' and 'his/hers' or 'they.'

4.   Use equal forms of address. Instead of addressing women by their marital status, use 'Ms.'

5.   Create a gender balance in the use of nouns and pronouns such as 'fatherland' and 'mankind.'

6.   Promote gender equity through titles: Use generic terms (example is the use of 'salesperson' for both women and men).

4.3.5 Relevant indicators

In order to ensure that indicators will be objectively verifiable the following questions can be asked:

Table 21: Guide questions for ensuring indicators are relevant and verifiable		
Quality	What	What do I want to achieve and measure?
Quantity	How much? How?	How much do I want to achieve? And how to measure this? (numbers, %, grades, levels, etc.)
Target group	Who?	Who do I want to benefit? Taking into account variables like sex, age and ethnicity.
Time / period	When?	When do I want to have achieved this and for how long?
Place	Where?	Where do I want to see the result? (place, space)

The above will also ensure that the indicators are SMART. This can additionally be checked with the following checklist:

Table 22: Checklist for SMART indicators	
Specific	They specify who, what, where, when and how much/often.
Measurable	They give an indication of quantity and quality.
Achievable	They are achievable at an acceptable cost (cost-effectiveness relationship).
Relevant	They are relevant with respect to the objective and theory of change of the intervention.
Time	They are achievable in the time of the intervention.

A gender-sensitive indicator can be defined as 'an indicator that captures gender-related changes in society over time' (Beck 2000 in World Bank 2012).

To be gender-sensitive, indicators need to (Hunt 2004):

•   require the collection of sex-disaggregated information wherever possible on who participates and benefits;

•   assess whether the program/project has different benefits and impacts for men and women and assist us to analyse why these differences between women and men occur;

- assess whether the program/project is bringing about a change in gender relations, and assist us to analyse how gender relations are changing (positively or negatively), and how these impact the achievement of overall program/project objectives; and

- involve both women and men in developing indicators, and in collecting and analysing information.

It is recommended to use indicators that measure movement in positions instead of counting numbers, and measure changes in levels of gender inequality by using, for example, the 'percentage change in proportion of women's membership' instead of the 'number of women who joined the producer association.'(Rubin et al. 2009 in Mutua, Njuki and Waithanji 2014)

When designing indicators, it needs to be clear how the indicator can be collected. This can be done through quantitative methods, such as surveys, or qualitative methods, such as interviews and FGDs.

Suggested indicators for monitoring progress towards the Livestock and Fish research program's gender strategy (impact level) include (CGIAR 2013):

- Change in women's share of income from livestock and fish enterprises.

- Participation of women and other vulnerable groups in the livestock and fish markets.

- Change in assets ownership by men and women.

- Change in control of livelihood assets by men and women.

- Change in consumption of animal-source foods (ASF) by men, women and children.

- Change in women's control of livestock and fish resources (e.g. decision-making power).

Suggested indicators from the FAO-ILRI workshop on integrating gender in livestock projects include (Njuki 2011):

- Access to and control over assets

- Access to and use of technologies

- Production and productivity

- Labour use in livestock production

- Contribution of livestock to cash/no cash income

- Food security

4.3.6 Gender specific indicators in the intermediate development outcomes (IDO) manual (CGIAR 2014)

This section lists only the gender specific indicators used by the Livestock and Fish research program. Some of the indicators are disaggregated by sex of household head, whereas they could have been disaggregated by sex (independent from position in the household). See also paragraph in 4.3.7 on 'the collection and use of sex-disaggregated data.' Also, an indicator such as 'total household income in value chain actors' households controlled by women' does not say much about gender if it is not compared with the income controlled by men.

IDO 1: Increased livestock and fish productivity in small-scale production systems for the target commodities.

1.1.1   Annual milk yield – disaggregated by sex of household head.

1.2.1   Adoption of new or improved technologies and management practices – disaggregated by sex of household head.

IDO 2: Increased quantity and improved quality of the target commodity supplied from the target small-scale production and marketing systems.

2.1.1   Quantity of target commodity supplied from small-scale producers – disaggregated by sex of household head.

IDO 3:   Increased employment and income for low-income actors in the target value chains, with an increased share of employment for, and income controlled by, low-income women.

3.1.1   Total household income (cash and non-cash) for low-income value chain participants – disaggregated by sex of household head.

3.1.2   Total household income in value chain actors' households controlled by women.

3.1.3   Employment in value chain actor households – disaggregated by gender.

3.2.1   Household income of value chain actor household from target commodity – disaggregated by sex of household head.

IDO 4:   Increased consumption of target commodity responsible for filling a larger share of the nutrient gap for the poor, particularly for nutritionally vulnerable populations (women of reproductive age and young children).

4.1.1   Indicator: Women's Dietary Diversity Score (WDDS).

4.1.2   Indicator: Consumption of target commodities by women of reproductive age.

IDO 5:   Lower environmental impacts per unit of commodity produced in the target value chains.

(No gender-sensitive indicator)

IDO 6: Policies (including investments) and development actors recognize and support the development of the small-scale production and marketing systems and seek to increase the participation of women within these value chains.

6.2.1   Indicator: Group actions supporting smallholder farmers by advocating for effective policies – with special attention to poor and women.

4.3.7 The collection and use of sex-disaggregated data

Sex/gender-disaggregated data are data related to individuals that are collected, analysed and presented separately for men and women. It is recommended to disaggregate further by age and in some cases by other variables (e.g. ethnicity, marital status, sexual identity, etc.). The terms 'gender' and 'sex' are both used, and while it could be argued that gender is a more correct reference since people do not always identify with, and/or present themselves according to their biological sex, we use the term sex-disaggregated data because ILRI is already using this term.

Collecting sex-disaggregated data can greatly inform livestock program initiatives, improve implementation (working with the most appropriate beneficiaries), and lead to a more effective monitoring and evaluation process (for example, defining gender-sensitive indicators to assess who is benefiting or not benefiting, how, and why) (World Bank et al. 2009).

The collection of sex-disaggregated data is not common in agricultural surveys. At most, comparisons of livestock ownership are made between male- and female-headed households (Njuki and Sanginga 2013). Comparing male- and female-headed households is not gender analysis. Differences between these diverse household types cannot necessarily be attributed to the sex of the household head (Doss and Kieran 2013). This type of analysis masks intra-household dynamics and decision-making processes that have important implications for women and for households.

Existing sex-disaggregated livestock data often does not describe information on the value of the livestock but mainly the incidence of ownership of different species and, in a few cases, the actual numbers of different species owned by men and women. Gender and intra-household dynamics may influence whether income from sale of livestock is used to meet food security needs or for other purposes, in which case it might compromise household food security.

The common, unitary model views the household as a single economic unit that works as a group for its own good and all members of the household contribute in an altruistic manner towards the benefit and functioning of the entire household (Katz 1996; Fortin and Lacroix 1997 in Njuki and Sanginga 2013). A valuable alternative to this model is the collective household model, which considers the fact that households consist of different members who go through an intra-household bargaining process in the allocation of resources and decision-making. There are two types of collective household models: cooperative and non-cooperative. In the non-cooperative model, each household member acts in order to maximize their own utility while in the cooperative model the households act as a unit to maximize the welfare of all members (Njuki and Sanginga 2013).

Sex-disaggregated data can be collected from men and women – randomly selected from different households – or from one man and one woman within one household (possibly disaggregated further between male and female headed).

A systematic process for collecting sex-disaggregated data should include framing gender questions as part of the design of the research, developing tools with sex disaggregation of the key indicators of interest, collecting information from both men and women, and analysing the data to understand gender differences and similarities (Njuki and Sanginga 2013).

Some common difficulties in collecting data include men sometimes being unwilling to allow their spouses to be interviewed, inconsistencies in response data between men and women (especially when the same questions are asked to men and women), 'joint management' could be a disguised male dominance. Solutions proposed by Njuki and Sanginga (Njuki and Sanginga 2013) include:

- the use of both male and female enumerators;

- men and women to be interviewed separately, simultaneously and privately;

- multiple visits to households for gaining confidence, follow-up discussions and comparison of data;

- thorough comparison of men and women's responses to similar questions. Data should be cross-checked or triangulated with other sources. Feedback on differences could be gathered from focus group discussions.

Also:

- Interviewing both men and women does not necessarily mean interviewing twice as many people or that men and women in the same household must be interviewed. For some research questions, it may be preferable to interview one person per household and randomly choose whether it is a man or woman (Doss and Kieran 2013).

- Women may not be available at certain times of day, and men may be less likely to be present at other times. Women might be more often available at home and prefer a private interview setting, while men might be more easily found on the farm or a more public area. It is important to choose both a time and place that is convenient for women, for individual and group interviews or participatory information-gathering exercises (e.g. the home, farm, community centre). Women and men may be less available during peak labour periods, such as harvesting

or planting times (Hunt 2004).

- Much of women's work is under-valued or 'invisible' to men and outsiders. Typically, men may not give accurate information about what women do, how long it takes to do it, where the work is done, or who benefits from different activities. Overlooking unpaid and subsistence work will result in under-reporting and misrepresentation of both women's and men's workload (Hunt 2004).

- Starting women's, but also men's, interviews with questions on domains that they have control over within the household such as food security and nutrition before moving on to more sensitive and complex questions of income and income management.

Men and women are not homogeneous groups, and it is important to recognize their diversity across class, ethnic, religious, and other lines, as well as individual preferences and abilities. These diversities should also be taken into consideration when collecting and analysing data, for example by disaggregating data further by different intersectional groups (e.g. comparing data between younger and older women and men).

The FAO has published a detailed guide on collecting and analysing sex/gender-disaggregated data for rural development programs (FAO 2003).

4.4 Tools

4.4.1 Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index

The Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index (or WEAI) [18] is the first index to capture women's empowerment and inclusion levels in the agricultural sector. Developed by USAID, the International Food Policy Research Institute (IFPRI) and the Oxford Poverty and Human Development Initiative, this innovative tool tracks women's engagement in agriculture in five domains:

1.   Production

2.   Resources

3.   Income

4.   Leadership

5.   Time use

The WEAI measures women's empowerment relative to men within their households, providing a more robust understanding of gender dynamics within households and communities. For further information see brochure and instructional guide (USAID et al. 2012; Alkire et al. 2013).

4.4.2 Alternative tools

The Gender, Agriculture and Assets (GAAP) project[19] is used by IFPRI and ILRI. It examines the impact of agricultural development interventions on men's and women's assets and gender asset inequality. Agricultural development projects both affect and are affected by the gendered distribution of assets. Whether men and women within a household own or control assets affects their take-up of agricultural interventions; these interventions in turn affect the distribution of assets within the household. The evaluation of the first phase of GAAP (GAAP 1), informed the development of the WEAI. Both frameworks look at the relative position of women versus men, and measure beyond output level.

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18   Available from: https://feedthefuture.gov/lp/womens-empowerment-agriculture-index

19   Available from: http://gaap.ifpri.info/

CARE, with the International Center for Research on Women (ICRW) uses the Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Framework (not to be confused with WEAI). It identifies five key levers of change for women's empowerment in the context of agriculture. They are:

1.   Land and property rights and contractual rights

2.   Gendered division of labour/time poverty

3.   Gendered control over labour and product of labour

4.   Access to and control of water

5.   Attention to gender equality by institutional systems[20]

Gender-sensitive value chain mapping (Mayoux and Mackie 2007 and World Bank et al. 200) used in Module 1, also provides a framework for M&E. Other frameworks and tools can be found on the Association for Women's Rights in Development (AWID) M&E wiki, Batliwala and Pittman (2010) and Mutua et al. (2014).

4.4.3 Documenting a case

The documentation format is inspired by Most Significant Change (Davies and Dart 2005) and Outcome Mapping/ Harvesting (Wilson-Grau and Britt 2013) methodologies. It focuses on results or outcomes (changes), and the process of change: what has been achieved, how, by whom and what has been the contribution of the intervention or action. Changes will be identified first by the organization that is implementing the gender-responsive intervention and these will be validated by other stakeholders who can identify more or different changes. Finally, all stakeholders have to agree with the identified changes, the contribution and their importance.

Each of the following steps has to be followed, starting with step 1. If, at step 2 or 3, more information is needed, step 1 and 2 can be repeated. Step 1 and 2 are aimed at gathering data, in step 3, the data is analysed and in step 4, it is written down or documented otherwise in a case description. The final product is a described case, in the format of an article, blog post, or otherwise (e.g. video).

Step 1: Identify changes (results)

Main question: Looking back over the past period [define time frame], what do you think is the most significant change with regard to how women participate in the value chain and benefit from the intervention(s)? More specifically, what are changes in women's and men's roles in the value chain? Their access to and control over resources? Decision-making and power?

•   Changes can be observed in behaviour, actions, relationships, policies and practices of an individual, a group of people and an organization.

•   Changes can include results that are planned and unplanned, positive and negative.

•   Changes are described from the perspective of the change actor (individual, group, organization that has changed).

Per identified change:

•   How did these changes happen? Which interventions or changes in organization's activities or strategies led to the identified change?

•   What is the contribution of the organization to the change? Are there other contributors?

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20   Available from: http://edu.care.org/Documents/A%20Place%20to%20Grow%20%20Reviewing%20Gender%20Eq-uity%20in%20CARE's%20Agriculture%20Projects/Places%20to%20Grow%20Toolkit/Overview%20of%20WEA%20framework.pdf.

- How significant or important is the change and why?

- Is there evidence of change? Policies or procedures?

- Which interventions have been most successful and why? Which ones less and why?

Suggested format to organize and validate changes (step 1 and 2) with an example

Main question: Looking back over the past period [define time frame], what do you think is the most significant change with regard to how women participate in the value chain and benefit from the intervention(s)? More specifically, what are changes in women's and men's roles in the value chain? Their access to and control over resources? Decision-making and power?

	Change description	Contribution	Significance	Source or evidence	Validation (step 2)
	Who changed? What was done differently; When and Where did this happen?	*How did the organization contribute?*	*Why is this change important?*	*Who first suggested the outcome / where was it found?*	*Who agrees with the change description? How accurate is the change description and which are suggestions for improvement?*
1	Women from marginal households now (2011) manage a small-scale poultry value chain through 20 cooperatives in rural India	PRADAN trained women self-help groups and organized them in poultry producer groups	The intervention has enabled women to overcome crucial constraints (power and self-esteem, mobility, prohibition on interaction with outer world).	Case description by the Inter Church Organization for Development (ICCO)	
2	(Female) coop-erative members received USD250 annual profit in 2011	PRADAN's train-ing has contrib-uted to adding value of the product	Although women traditionally rear poultry, they did not have sufficient skills in poultry produc-tion, economics and management	Case description by ICCO	
3	All members of the cooperatives, including its board, are women but almost all staff are men	Only women are trained and organized by PRADAN	Managing the cooperative is new for women. Women are still mainly involved in the rear-ing of chicken, and not in some activi-ties that are still the domain of men.	Case description by ICCO	
4					
5					
6					

Table 23: Guide for collecting and organizing data, with an example from PRADAN (more about the case in 4.5)

Step 2: Validate through cross-checking

In this step, various stakeholders can be requested to respond to the initial list of changes, asked for their validation and/or comments, and for new or other changes.

Potential stakeholders:

- The change agent (development or research organization)

- The actor (organization: management, gender focal person, employees)

- The change users / beneficiaries (male and female producers, processors, their organizations, etc.)

- Knowledgeable outsiders (partner organization, government)

Step 3: Analysis and interpretation

Classify changes in terms of importance, and relevance to the case documentation questions below. The changes can be organized in order of most importance, according to the stakeholders. Start with those that all stakeholders agree on and end with those that only one or a few agree on.

Step 4: Documentation/description

The results of the intervention are described or documented using the following guiding questions, organized by four aspects (a–d). The description (2–3 pages) should contain all four aspects but does not necessarily follow this order or answer all the questions.

a) Baseline situation / context description

- What was the position of women in the value chain at the start?

- What were some gender-based constraints/ gender inequalities?

- What was the gender situation before the intervention?

b) Documented and validated changes

- What have been observable changes in women's participation and position in the value chain?

- What have been observable changes in women's benefits from their participation and empowerment?

- What other changes are identified and validated?

- How significant or important are the changes?

- How sustainable are the changes?

- What is the biggest or most important social impact?

c) Strategies or interventions

- What gender strategies were followed?

- Which interventions took place?

- What has been the contribution of the gender capacity building? How important was the contribution?

- Which other contributors were there?

d) Learned lessons

- What has worked and what has not?

- Why has it worked? What were the key success factors?

- What were some challenges? How were they overcome?

- What is the lesson you learned?

- What are recommendations for future interventions? What should be done in the same manner and what differently?

4.5 Case: Poultry rearing in India – PRADAN/ICCO

This case is to be used in the training workshop. It was developed by the Inter Church Organization for Development (ICCO), a Dutch development organization (ICCO 2011).

The demand for chicken (broiler) meat in India is booming. Poultry is one of the fastest growing segments of the agriculture sector in India. Eggs and broiler meat are the major end products of the poultry sector in India. The rise in demand has stimulated the development of new production technologies in the poultry sector. From a traditional and simple backyard farming model the sector has evolved to include a considerable amount of larger-scale commercial firms. In the Indian context, the following three models for poultry rearing can be distinguished:

- Traditional backyard farming

- Integrated contract farming (by corporate and private vendors)

- Large-scale poultry farms that raise tens of thousands of chickens but employ relatively few labourers

How can a small-scale farmer take advantage of this rising demand? One answer is by raising several hundred birds in small poultry sheds, as a member of a producer-run cooperative. This cooperative helps by arranging contracts, supplying chicks and feed, and marketing the mature birds. This is the way poultry is promoted as a means of an alternative livelihood for resource poor households by the Professional Assistance for Development Action (PRADAN), a civil society organization operating in seven states of India.

This business model requires the efficient functioning of both the producers and the collective enterprise. The operational structure of most of the collective enterprises has been designed in such a way that it maximizes the benefits of scale of the cooperative, by working as an 'integrator' (or sub-contractor) of the member producers.

Key elements of PRADAN's approach (the Smallholder Poultry Enterprise Model) are:

1. Each producer raises 300–500 birds in their backyard.

2. The collective enterprise (co-op) trains producers, provides support and offers veterinary services.

3. Producers buy inputs and market birds as a group.

4. Instead of receiving a fixed fee, both producers and the paravets are rewarded for the results they achieve.

5. The co-op trains farmers as entrepreneurs to develop their business.

6. The co-op uses customized software for management and financial control.

Rearing poultry is particularly for poor women an interesting income generating activity. Women rear poultry because it is not capital intensive and labour requirements can easily be combined with other tasks in the rural households. Traditionally, poultry rearing was considered as a simple livelihood activity with limited economic return, which reduced the risk of men taking over. PRADAN took the initiative of creating a so-called 'women-centred' (women-only) poultry value chain.

The women-centred value chains supported by PRADAN are based on the Smallholder Poultry Enterprise Model as described above. Predominantly female self-help groups (SHG) are trained in poultry production, economics and management. According to the design of the model, only women SHG members from marginal households join the

activity. Even though the women were experienced in traditional backyard poultry activities, the broiler value chain intervention was totally new for the women producers.

The objectives and upgrading strategies of the interventions focus on the creation of sustainable livelihood opportunities and enhancing the position of women in the value chain. PRADAN supported the creation of an innovative organizational structure that enabled village women to receive poultry rearing training, production inputs, and market access on a sustainable basis. The structure is a network of women producers, the poultry producer groups, and is a technical resource base that supplies inputs and creates market opportunities. The collective enterprises develop forward and backward linkages: collectives are establishing feed manufacturing plants, while the state federation has taken the initiative to establish hatcheries (backward linkages). The forward integration is yet to be initiated. PRADAN supports 20 cooperatives with over 6,500 members to raise broilers. In 2010–2011, the co-ops sold over 15,000 tons of live birds, for a revenue of over Rs 1050 million (USD21 million) and a profit of Rs 70 million (USD1.4 million), around USD250 per member. This is a significant income in rural India.

The approach of the PRADAN program is as follows:

Day-old chickens (DoCs) are supplied to women members of the producer organization who rear them for about two months. Subsequently the birds are sold to the block-level cooperative, which sells them to wholesalers, who market them to retailers. The performance of each producer is measured on an efficiency index. So-called 'supervisors' help member producers in monitoring the production. Supervisors are selected from the village. Producers deploy supervisors to render services to them for which they pay. The supervisor is responsible for distribution of DoCs and feed and medicine to the producers; disease control and post-mortem of dead chickens; weighing at the time of sales to the trader and record keeping. Supervisors also handle the stock.

Some results

Women are mainly involved in production-level activities, in the actual rearing of the chicken, but not in supervisory and veterinary tasks, which require visiting production units frequently and sometimes at night. This is difficult for women due to workload in the home, lack of mobility and socio-cultural taboos. Pre- and post-production activities are the domain of men. Wholesaling and retailing of broilers are mainly men's activities. Women are involved in rural poultry management 2–4 hours throughout the day. Men are mostly involved in occasional activities.

All members of the cooperatives, including its board, are women. Being a member of a cooperative provides the women with negotiation power and self-efficacy. Some women develop leaderships skills. Every cooperative has employees and staff to carry out day-to-day activities and manage the business. Around 95% of the employed and salaried staff of the cooperatives are men.

Extensive training has increased the quality of execution of the operations and the expertise of women in terms of timeliness, sense of hygiene, feeding practices and other operations. This has contributed to adding value of the product increasing income of the women. Engagement in the program has helped women to earn a modest livelihood; their economic contribution to the household income has increased to around 25–40% of household income.

Traditionally, women were facing constraints like restrictions on mobility, prohibition on interaction with outer world, limited bargaining power and social norms. The poultry intervention has enabled women to partially overcome these constraints.

5. References

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Additional references

For more information on gender-responsive budgeting, see the PowerPoint presentation produced by the UK Women's Budget Group for Oxfam: http://policypractice.oxfam.org.uk/publications/rough-guide-to-gender-responsive-budgeting-620429

For an example of Oxfam's gender-responsive budgeting work in practice, see a case for gender-responsive budgeting in Myanmar: http://policypractice.oxfam.org.uk/publications/a-case-for-gender-responsive-budgeting-in-myanmar-603484.

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Useful Links

AWID Monitoring and evaluation wiki http://awidme.pbworks.com/w/page/36050854/FrontPage

Gender and Value Chains - USAID

https://www.marketlinks.org/good-practice-center/value-chain-wiki/analytical-tools-working-women

Gender and Value Chain Analysis – ILRI

https://livelihoods-gender.ilri.org/2014/06/11/new-ilri-gender-manual/

GALS toolkits, videos and songs

www.galsatscale.net/Resources.html#toolkits

Gender in Value Chains – Agriprofocus

http://agriprofocus.com/gender-in-value-chains

WEMAN and sustainable livelihoods

http://www.oxfamnovib.nl/value-chains-and-the-rural-economy-making-it-work-for-women-and-men-weman.html

Women's Empowerment in Agriculture Index. IFPRI.

https://www.ifpri.org/project/weai

IFAD, Gender-Sensitive Monitoring and Evaluation http://asia.ifad.org/documents/627927/627956/65+Gender-

Sensitive+M%26E.pdf?version=1.0

Gender at Work

http://www.genderatwork.org/

Gender mainstreaming resources:

http://standard.gendercop.com/

www.sida.se/contentassets/3a820dbd152f4fca98bacde8a8101e15/gender-tool-mainstreaming.pdf

http://web.undp.org/evaluation/documents/EO_GenderMainstreaming.pdf

www.fao.org/3/a-at227e.pdf

www.un.org/womenwatch/osagi/pdf/undppaper.PDF

www.iita.org/c/document_library/get_file?uuid=3de5cd90-981f-45d0-b4fd-7613f5237937&groupId=25357

Videos
Bukonzo coffee value chain

Part 1: www.youtube.com/watch?v=2ZWgm6ZYMUU&list=PLEFAE48597B4E4C2C

Part 2: www.youtube.com/watch?v=HcyGLZ8e1M0&list=PLEFAE48597B4E4C2C

Cattle value chain

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cwWBoGjgsjw

Challenge action tree

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=u9HoWvZ83Vg

Vision journey

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mf2QzpwVY9w

Appendix A

Optional activity on gender-responsive budgeting

The case study example and accompanying activity template are meant to achieve the following objectives:

To introduce the five-step framework for gender-responsive budgeting using a case study example and to facilitate a group activity on how participants can practically incorporate gender-responsive budgeting into their organization/ project/program.

Materials: Flip charts, coloured markers and tape.

Activity: Take the following steps:

1) Read the case study example of Sunandini's Women's Calf Rearing Scheme in India together as a group. Afterwards, ask the workshop trainers any questions regarding the steps taken by the scheme.

2) After having your questions addressed by the workshop trainers, break into smaller groups of 2-3 people from your organization or other similarities shared (e.g. work in the same value chain or thematic area).

3) Using the flip charts, draw a table listing each of the five steps of the framework alongside the guiding questions posed in the template below.

4) Select one of the projects or programs your small group is working on and fill out the table together using coloured markers.

5) Once the exercise is complete, tape your group's table to the wall and give a brief 2-3-minute explanation of the project/program addressed and your team's answers to the guiding questions.

Case: Women's Calf Rearing Scheme in India – Sunandini

This case is to be used in the training workshop. It is originally sourced from the National Institute of Agricultural Extension Management (an organization of the Ministry of Agriculture and Farmers Welfare, Government of India, Rajendranagar, Hyderabad) Capsule Module on Gender Budgeting. Available from: CapsuleModule.pdf (krishivistar.gov.in)

Background on the scheme: Keeping in view the decreasing number of calves in the state and subsequent reduction in milk production, the Government of Andhra Pradesh has taken up a women's calf rearing program called 'Sunandini'. A similar kind of program is under implementation in Karnataka, Odisha and other states in India. Under the Rashtriya Krishi Vikas Yojana 2013-14, this two-year long-term program was launched by the State Animal Husbandry Department of Andhra Pradesh. As the first few months of life is very crucial for the calves, problems

such as malnutrition due to improper colostrum feeding and improper livestock management are leading to various illnesses, including diarrhoea, toxemia and anemia due to parasites and pneumonia in calves at an early stage.

All these problems will lead to calf mortality and stunted growth, poor development of reproductive organs and delayed conception. The women's calf rearing scheme was launched to ensure the health, dietary needs and insurance of female calves born through artificial insemination (AI). Calf feed, health and insurance are the three main components in the Sunandini program, and the government would provide calf feed supply up to one year of age, health and insurance up to 24 months in the case of cross-breed (CB) calves and 28 months in the case of murrah and graded buffalo (GB) calves.

The objectives of the scheme are:

- To increase the number of productive milk animals and enhance milk production.

- To achieve timely puberty and conception rates in cross-breed calves.

- To support the rural poor in order to improve their livelihoods through dairying.

Step 1: Situational analysis

The results of an initial situational analysis yielded the following findings:

- Women were not having income of their own.

- Women did not have lands or assets in their name.

- Women were not involved in the local-level governance.

- There were no women self-help groups (SHGs).

- Women were not participating in village activities.

- The number of women beneficiaries in government schemes was less relative to that of men.

Step 2: Assessment of relevant programs and extent to which they address gender issues

The results of an assessment of relevant programs and the extent to which they addressed gender issues yielded the following results:

- The calf rearing scheme is the most relevant scheme to meet the economic needs of women as they are already involved in animal husbandry activities.

- Women can easily handle and feed calves.

- Women can take up this activity at home without affecting their routine activities and this will give them some additional income.

- Being involved in the scheme facilitates technical knowledge transfer regarding calf rearing under the scheme.

Step 3: Assessment of adequacy of budget

- Under the Sunandini program, the calf feed is supplied to the farmer at 75 % subsidy out of Rs.3900 (USD52.84) (260 kg) along with Rs. 500 (USD6.77) towards health care of each calf, insurance Rs.600 (USD8.13) and a total of Rs.4025 (USD 54.53) is given. The beneficiary contribution is Rs.975 (USD13.21). All family members are eligible to be covered under this program and stipulated norms for women beneficiaries will be followed. 30 % beneficiaries are women under the scheme.

Step 4: Monitoring

- As dairying is one of the main livelihoods for women particularly for landless, marginalized women, and women in dryland agriculture, the scheme has ensured the involvement of women of at least 30%. However, after going through the whole process of gender budgeting, it was felt that at least 50% of the budget should be allocated for the women farmers considering their involvement in the activity.

Step 5: Assessment of the impact

- As the scheme did not interfere with the daily routine activities identified in the situational analysis in step 1, it was acceptable to the women and was implemented successfully.

- As the calves were supported to become productive milk animals, the project provided a source of income for women through the sale of milk.

- The women became aware of the government schemes and started taking up other initiatives under government support.

- The women beneficiaries were able to come into contact with each other and formed a common interest group gaining experience by participating in a formal group.

After reading the case study, the participants are now ready to start reflecting on how they can consider using the five-step framework for gender-responsive budgeting in their own projects and programs by filling out the template below (adapted from the National Democratic Institute (NDI) Gender-responsive Budgeting Worksheet).

Activity: Break into smaller groups of 2-3 people from your organization or other similarities shared (e.g. work in the same value chain or thematic area). Using the flip charts, draw a table with each of the five steps of the framework:

Gender-responsive budgeting steps	Responses to guiding questions based on my project/program
Step 1 Situational analysis	1.
Step 2 Assessment of relevant programs and extent to which it addresses gender issues	2.
	3.
Step 3 Assessment of adequacy of budget	4.
	5.
Step 4: Monitoring	6.
	7.
Step 5: Assessment of impact	8.

Working through each of the questions below, fill out the table on your flip chart using coloured markers.

Step 1 Situational analysis: Analysis of the situation of women, men, girls, and boys in a given sector.

1.   What is the situation of different categories of men and women in terms of their needs and constraints in the sector/value chain you are working in?

Step 2 Assessment of relevant programs and extent to which it addresses gender issues: Assessment of the extent to which projects/programs/policies address the gendered situation described in the first step.

2.   Are the needs identified in step 1 being addressed by your project/program/policy?

3.   Have specific gender objectives been set, especially where gender gaps have been identified in step 1?

Step 3 Assessment of adequacy of budget: Assessment as to whether budget allocations are adequate to implement gender-responsive projects/programs/policies.

4.   What is the estimated cost of effectively implementing the project/program/policy?

5.   Have adequate funds and resources been allocated?

Step 4 Monitoring: Assessment of short-term outputs of expenditure, in order to evaluate how resources are actually spent, and policies and programs implemented.

6.   Are there any tracking mechanisms or indicators to assess how resources are actually spent?

7.   Are there any tracking mechanisms or indicators to assess how the project/program/policy is implemented?

Step 5 Assessment of impact: Assessment of the long-term outcomes or impact expenditures might have.

8.   What outcomes and impact expenditures would need to be assessed to evaluate the success of the project/ program/policy in terms of moving towards gender equality/equity?

Additional references

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- For an example of Oxfam's gender-responsive budgeting work in practice, see a case for gender-responsive budgeting in Myanmar: http://policypractice.oxfam.org.uk/publications/a-case-for-gender-responsive-budgeting-in-myanmar-603484.

Further reading

- Budlender, D. and G. Hewitt. 2003. Engendering budgets: A practitioners' guide to understanding and Implementing gender-responsive budgets. Commonwealth Secretariat. http://www.internationalbudget.org/wp-content/uploads/2011/01/Engendering_Budgets_final_doc.pdf

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