

Leaf, 2

Gender-Sensitivity

Definition

Gender sensitivity is the act of being aware of the ways people think about gender, so that individuals rely less on assumptions about traditional and outdated views on the roles of men and women. It is about understanding and consideration of socio-cultural factors underlying sex-based discrimination. The term also applies to attitudes that socialize girls and boys into certain behaviors or opportunities, for example, pushing boys to play sports or not expecting girls to do well at sports. (IPS, 1996: 30). Gender-sensitive planning uses specific methods and tools to provide women and girls more opportunities for their participation in the development process and to measure the impact of planned activities on women and men.


Example

World Food Program Bolivia has prepared an Action Plan to promote and monitor the role of women in WFP's activities from 1997 to 2001. Work plans must include: a) design of a system for gender involvement by ^{3 months} trimester; b) definition of indicators to monitor follow up actions; c) creation of a gender analysis matrix to analyze activities undertaken; and d) revision of M&E forms to provide gender data and information on credit, training, food distribution and planning. Furthermore, the major part of the technical and administrative personnel will be women.

Following up on the Commitments to women made in Beijing in 1995, memoranda of understanding (MOU) on joint and individual responsibilities were signed with seven international partners in 1996. The MOUs define the following implementation and monitoring requirements: the application of a participatory mode of planning that considers the specific needs and potential of refugee and displaced women; the provision of appropriate and adequate food for women and children at risk; and measures taken to ensure that women hold key positions in the management of food aid. A gender-sensitive program addresses the differential losses of both women and men, and seeks to anticipate the balance of power in the interest of community survival.

What are Indicators?

Indicators are standards used to measure achievements of a project. They are pointers, numbers, facts, opinions or perceptions that look into and measure changes of specific conditions or situations. Indicators can be quantitative – measures of quantity such as the number of women users in telecentres. And qualitative – people's judgment or perception about a subject, for instance, self



confidence developed by women users from skills learned in telecentres that may help them get better employment. In other words, indicators provide a close look at the results of initiatives and actions. For this reason, they are front-line instruments in monitoring and evaluating development work.

Bauer (1966) described social indicators as "statistical series, and all other forms of evidence... (that enable us to assess where we stand and where we are going with respect to values and goals, and to evaluate specific programs and determine their impact)." This definition is useful because it recognizes the normative nature of indicators, in that a change in a particular direction can be interpreted as "good" or "bad". For example, a rising birth rate may be interpreted as good in one country but bad in another. It also recognizes that indicators can come from "all... forms of evidence", both quantitative and qualitative; and that indicators must measure changes over time. Because of their normative nature, care must be taken in defining the norm or bench-mark implicit in any indicator and against which change is measured. For example, in examining the status of women, is the norm the situation of men in a particular country, or is it women in other countries?

Indicators also provide a closer look at results of initiatives and actions. They are useful tools to assess positions and directions with respect to values and goals, and in evaluating specific programs and determining the impact of such programs. In traditional planning and evaluation methodologies, indicators are "specific (explicit) and objectively verifiable measures of changes or results brought about by an activity." The generally accepted criteria for good indicators are Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Realistic, and Timebound (SMART). Normally, indicators are defined or set by the objectives of a project. However, in reality, projects can bring about changes in communities or changes in the environment may lead to adjustments of projects. Indicators may therefore be refined once a project starts.

What are Gender-sensitive Indicators?

Gender-sensitive indicators, as the term suggests, are indicators that track gender related changes over time. Their value lies in measuring whether gender equality/equity is achieved through a number of ways. Gender-sensitive indicators have the special function of pointing out gender-related changes in society over time. Their usefulness lies in their ability to point to changes in the status and roles of women and men over time, and therefore to measure whether gender equity is being achieved. Because use of indicators and other relevant evaluation techniques will lead to a better understanding of how results can be achieved, using gender-sensitive indicators will also feed into more effective future planning and program delivery.

Gender sensitive indicators support the development and evaluation of policies and programs designed to achieve greater gender equity in the context of gender sensitive analysis and gender mainstreaming initiatives of policy/programs and budgets.

Gender indicators 'enable us to assess where we stand and where we are going with respect to values and goals, and to evaluate specific programs and their goals'

The usefulness of gender indicators 'lies in their ability to point to changes in the status and roles of women and men over time, and therefore to measure whether gender equity is being achieved' (Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) 1997)

Gender indicators take into account that gender roles exist and point to changes in the status and roles of women and men over time. They help illustrate the ways a project affects gender roles and confirms or disregards gender discrimination. Gender indicators should be drawn from identified gender issues within a specific context of a project or activity. Many indicators that look into gender such as measuring gender empowerment, human and development index, and gender development indices are useful tools in tracking gender equality/ equity. Many of these indicators are based on gender analytical models that have emanated from a feminist analysis of societies, relationships and development. On the other hand, a growing number of gender specialists believe that indicators themselves are insufficient to reflect and express women's experiences especially in areas such as women's empowerment or participation. They argue that policy-makers need to pay more attention to women's experiences towards which indicators can serve as pointers. Despite their differences however, the key question that these models and indicators attempts to answer in measuring the impact of any initiative is: "Is it life-changing?"

Why gender indicators are important

"Policies that do not recognize the different and unequal position of women in society tend to ^{perpetuate} and ^{worsen} exacerbate gender inequalities. Gender statistics and indicators have an essential role in the elimination of gender blindness in the formulation of policies. Statistics and indicators on the situation of women and men in all spheres of society are an important tool in promoting equality.

Gender statistics 'raise consciousness and provide an impetus for change, to provide a foundation for policies, programmes and projects and to monitor and evaluate such policies and measure their impact' (Hadman, Perucci and Sundström 1996: 9).

Governments that become aware of, and are publicly known for, a lack of gender equality in their countries, are more likely to carry out policies to reduce this inequality." (Dijkstra and Hanmer 2000: 62).

"The utilization of gender-sensitive indicators allows for effective monitoring and evaluation of project or program activities." (Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) 2001)

In the view of Dijkstra and Hanmer (2000:62), developing a measure of socio-economic gender inequality has three aims:

1. To identify the extent of inequality at a certain point in time;
2. To identify causes for inequality with a view to suggesting policies to reduce inequality; and
3. To monitor the impact of these policies over time.

Statistics Sweden (2002) have identified the purpose of gender disaggregated statistics/data as being to:

- Raise consciousness, persuade policy makers and promote changes
- Provide ideas
- Provide an unbiased basis for policies and measures
- Monitor and evaluate policies and measures.

About gender sensitive indicators

Gender-sensitive indicators demonstrate changes in gender relations in a given society over a period of time. They are used to assess progress in achieving gender equality by measuring changes in the status of women and men over a period of time. (Gender-sensitive indicators may be used as a tool to assess the progress of a particular development intervention towards achieving greater gender equality.)⁴

As a measure of social change and the performance/effectiveness of government policy, gender sensitive indicators can be described in terms of:

- (1) The derived quality to be reached;
- (2) The quantity of something to be achieved;
- (3) The target group who is affected by or benefits from the program or project; and,

expect/indicators
(4) the time frame envisaged for the achievement of the objectives (FAO 2001).

Political bias and indicator use

As tools for measuring social change, indicators are subject to political forces. It is important to recognize before using indicators that all indicators have their own political heritage and bias. This is important because certain types of indicators, particularly so-called quantitative indicators, receive legitimacy as they are considered 'objective'.

However, gender specialists have pointed out that the use of economic indicators, for example in relation to employment, has until quite recently been used in a way which has excluded women's work from analysis (Waring 1988). This serious omission has been seen as a consequence of the fact that most censuses and large scale surveys, particularly in developing countries, are organized and carried out by men and for male policy-makers. There have been two responses to this gender-bias. Firstly, gender specialists have promoted the collection of sex-disaggregated data which has been used to challenge gender bias in indicator use and to advocate for policy changes. Perhaps the best known example of this is the UN publication *The World's Women 1970-1990*, the preface of which states that its central concern is to (UN 1991: xi): "provide(s) concerned men and women with information they can use to inform people everywhere about how much women contribute to economic life, political life and family life and to support appeals to persuade public and private decision-makers to change policies that are unfair to women." The 1995 UNDP Human Development Report makes similar statements about the need to bring gender-sensitive indicators to the attention of policy-makers as a first step towards changing policies biased against women. Here, gender-sensitive indicators are not ends in themselves but a political tool to be used to challenge the status quo.

Other gender specialists, particularly from the disciplines of sociology and anthropology, have argued that indicators by themselves are insufficient to capture women's experience, for example in areas such as women's empowerment or participation (Reinharz 1992). They argue that policy-makers need to pay more attention to women's experience, towards which indicators can be a pointer. This Guide takes a stance that includes both of these positions, looking at how a wide range of indicators can measure changes in gender inequality and women's status over time. The political nature of indicator use must be kept in mind particularly in relation to qualitative indicators, because it is often claimed that such indicators are 'subjective' or unreliable and therefore of little worth. The truth is that such indicators are essential for promoting stakeholder participation in projects.

The evolution of indicator use can be summarized as follows:

The Evolution of Indicator use

i. Before the 1970s most attention was paid to economic indicators, particularly those relating to GNP and national accounts systems. This was due to the development focus of the time on economic growth and infrastructure development.

ii. As aid philosophies moved towards human-centered development and basic needs during the 1970s and early 1980s, an extensive literature developed on what were termed "social indicators", that is, indicators related to health, education, employment and population. Social indicators were developed to supplement economic indicators, with a specific purpose related to advocacy around social issues. However, little of this early literature was gender sensitive.

iii. From the mid-1980s there has been a stronger focus on indicators of empowerment and participation, and on gender-sensitive indicators, again mirroring a shift in development priorities. The redefinition of priorities and the recognition of women as stakeholders in development have established gender-sensitivity as a necessary condition of development efforts. Advocacy by women's organizations and the insights of WID specialists in development agencies have underscored the value of sex-disaggregated data. However, the development of gender-sensitive indicators is still at an experimental level (Beck 1994, Oakley 1991).

Recent Agency work on Gender-Sensitive indicators

The World Bank has recently explored the extension of the use of Key Performance Indicators at the project and sectoral levels as a part of Monitoring and Evaluation. It has, as part of its "Next Steps" indicator program, developed a series of sectoral indicators, including indicators of population, education, agriculture, poverty and housing, some of which are gender-sensitive (World Bank 1995). The section on indicators of poverty (also published separately as Carvalho and White 1994) is a good source for a general discussion of indicators.

USAID, under its Program Performance Information for Strategic Management (PPISM), has developed a methodology for gender-sensitive indicator use, giving some examples (USAID 1994b), but the approach is preliminary, there is some confusion about typologising indicators, and qualitative indicators are largely ignored. British ODA (1993a, b) has been developing a gendered Policy Information Marker System (PIMS) to evaluate project objectives, using a simple scoring system based on DAC requirements to evaluate how far the project has met WID objectives.

GTZ has developed the ZOPS (German acronym for "Objectives-oriented Project Planning"), which has involved some participatory development of indicators (World Bank 1994a).

UNDP has extended its work on the Human Development Index to include a country level index of gender development, and a country level index called the gender empowerment measure (UNDP 1995). The gender development index compares women's and men's life expectancy, educational attainment and income. The gender empowerment measure concentrates on gender differences in income, access to jobs classified as professional and technical and administrative and managerial, and the percentage of parliamentary seats held by women and men.

The Selection of Indicators

There is obviously no such thing as a set of universal indicators. Users must design and adapt indicators for their own purposes. The most important criteria to bear in mind are:

Criteria for the selection of indicators

- Indicators should be developed in a participatory fashion, including all stakeholders wherever possible.
- Indicators must be relevant to the needs of the user, and at a level that the user can understand.
- All indicators should be sex-disaggregated.
- Both qualitative and quantitative indicators should be used.
- Indicators should be easy to use and understand.
- Indicators must be clearly defined.
- The number chosen should be small. A rule of thumb is that up to six indicators can be chosen for each type of indicator (input - outcome).
- Indicators should be technically sound.
- Indicators should measure trends over time.
- The ultimate focus should be on outcome indicators.

Types of Indicator

Risk Enabling	Measure the influence of external factors on the project or program (socio-economic, cultural, environmental etc)
Input:	Concern resources devoted to the project or program (funding, human, infrastructure and etc)

Process	Measure delivery activities of the resources devoted to a program or project. They monitor achievement during implementation, serving primarily to track progress towards the intended results (capacity development and institutional strengthening, etc).
Output	Identify intermediate results, for example at a point when donor involvement is close to complete (number of girls trained; opinions of teachers on training facilities provided, or number of facilities in operating condition).
Outcomes	Relate directly to the longer-term results of the project, and after donor involvement is complete (views of parents on the benefits of schooling; number of girls and boys employed from project schools; type of employment; or impact of employment on women's empowerment).

Examples

Risk/enabling indicators

- Government support gauged by analysis of official attitudes.
- Popular community support measured by attendance and analysis of comments at meetings.
- Elite support, gauged by focus group meetings and comments at meetings and interviews.

Input indicators

- Amount of project funding.
- Community perceptions of the feasibility of the project.
- Degree of community input to project planning, by socio-economic grouping and sex.

Process indicators

- Receipt of cash or in-kind payments by socio-economic grouping of household.
- Regular monthly meetings.
- Equal participation across socio-economic groups and by women and men.
- Parental views of benefits of schooling.
- Net and gross enrolment rates by socio-economic grouping and sex.
- Drop-out rates by socio-economic grouping and sex.

Output indicators

- More equitable employment of women and men teachers.

- Equitable school enrolment rates by socio-economic grouping and sex at end of donor involvement.
- Equitable school completion rates by socio-economic grouping and sex at end of donor involvement.
- Equitable literacy rates by sex and across socio-economic grouping at end of primary level.
- Improved perceived gender content in the curriculum (e.g. improved representation of women).

Outcome indicators

- Equitable school enrolment rates by socio-economic grouping and sex three years after end of donor involvement.
- Equitable school completion rates by socio-economic grouping and sex three years after end of donor involvement.
- Improvements in status of boys and girls from poorer groups, in terms of health and employment.
- Changes in community and parental perceptions of the desirability of having children from poorer households and girls educated.

CATEGORIES - QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE INDICATORS

Almost all of the agency literature on indicator methodology, including CIDA policy, stresses the need to use both quantitative and qualitative indicators for the measurement of gender equity (e.g. CIDA 1994c). However, there are sometimes disagreements about what constitutes "quantitative" and "qualitative" indicators.

In this Guide, we define quantitative and qualitative indicators in the following way:

While this definition is relatively simple, it hides some of the more complex ways in which these two types of indicators are used. For example, "quality of life" indicators, such as those that measure changes in a population's health, education or employment, are often confused with qualitative indicators, because both appear to refer to "quality". In fact, health, education or any other subject can be measured by either qualitative or quantitative indicators. Also, there is sometimes considerable overlap between quantitative and qualitative approaches, making it difficult to tell one from the other. Two ways of distinguishing between these two types of indicators is by their source of information and the way in which this information is interpreted and used. The basic strategy is

gender-sensitive indicators is one of using quantitative and qualitative methods in combination to measure gender-related changes in society over time.

Quantitative indicators can be defined as measures of quantity, such as the number of people who own sewing machines in a village.

Qualitative indicators can be defined as people's judgments and perceptions about a subject, such as the confidence those people have in sewing machines as instruments of financial independence.

Qualitative analysis

This would involve identifying and isolating the factors that caused specific indicators to be in place and why the project succeeded or failed. For example, it would involve analysing how, why and when members of the community participated, any constraints placed on the project by wealthier socio-economic groups and how these were overcome, and showing the links between increased education and higher status.

Examples of quantitative indicators of empowerment

Legal empowerment

- Enforcement of legislation related to the protection of human rights.
- Number of cases related to women's rights heard in local courts, and their results.
- Number of cases related to the legal rights of divorced and widowed women heard in local courts, and the results.
- The effect of the enforcement of legislation in terms of treatment of offenders against women.
- Increase/decrease in violence against women/men.
- Rate at which the number of local justices/ prosecutors/ lawyers who are women/men is increasing/decreasing.
- Rate at which the number of women /men in the local police force, by rank, is increasing or decreasing.

Political empowerment (Indicators should reflect changes over time)

- % of seats held by women in local councils/decision-making bodies.
- % of women in decision-making positions in local government.
- % of women in the local civil service.
- % of women/men registered as voters/% of eligible women/men who vote.

- % of women in senior/junior decision making positions within unions.
- % of union members who are women.
- Number of women who participate in public protests and political campaigning, as compared to the number of men.

Economic empowerment

- Changes in employment/unemployment rates of women and men.
- Changes in time-use in selected activities, particularly greater sharing by household members of unpaid housework and child-care.
- Salary/wage differentials between women and men.
- Changes in % of property owned and controlled by women and men (land, houses, livestock) across socio-economic and ethnic groups.
- Average household expenditure of female/male headed households on education/health.
- Ability to make small or large purchases independently.
- % of available credit, financial and technical support services going to women /men from government /non-government sources.

Social empowerment

- Numbers of women in local institutions (e.g. women's associations, consciousness raising, income generating groups, local churches, ethnic and kinship associations) relative to project area population, and numbers of women in positions of power in local organizations.
- Extent of training or networking among local women, as compared to men.

Examples of qualitative indicators of empowerment

Qualitative indicators of empowerment are particularly hard to agree upon, in part at least because empowerment itself is a concept that awaits a consensus around its definition. At the present stage of methodological debate perceptions of empowerment are more likely to be elicited by indicator questions of the following types rather than by the indicators implicit in the questions. The questions have to be reinforced by others that relate to qualitative analysis.

Indicator questions to assess empowerment

- To what degree are women aware of local politics, and their legal rights? Are women more or less aware than men? Does this differ by socio-economic grouping, age or ethnicity? Is this changing over time?
- Do women and men perceive that women are becoming more empowered? Why?
- Do women perceive that they now have greater self-respect? Why? How does this relate to men's perceptions?
- Do women/men perceive that they now have greater economic autonomy? Why?
- Are changes taking place in the way in which decisions are made in the household, and what is the perceived impact of this?
- Do women make decisions independently of men in their household? What sort of decisions are made independently?

Key questions for qualitative analysis

- How have changes in national/local legislation empowered or disempowered women as opposed to men (e.g. concerning control over resources such as land)?
- What is the role of local institutions (including women's institutions) in empowering/disempowering women/men?
- Are the part women, as compared to men, are playing in major decisions in the locality/household increasing or decreasing?
- Is there more acknowledgement of the importance of tasks customarily carried out by women, e.g. child care?
- How are women organizing to increase their empowerment, for example against violence?
- If employment and education for women are increasing, is this leading to greater empowerment?

SAMPLE PROJECT ON PARTICIPATION

The following Table gives two examples of (constructed) projects on empowerment/participation. The examples illustrate how indicators can be used for Type 1 and 2 objective statements, and how indicators can be used through the project cycle. Base-line studies would need to be carried out for the two projects to examine the bench-marks (e.g. number of women political representatives at the start of the project) against which success could be measured.

Objective	Risk/enabling indicators	Input indicators	Process indicators	Output indicators	Outcome indicators
a. Improve the status of women in project area through greater access of women to political power over a five year period	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> + Local population acceptance + Government acceptance + Women willing to stand for power + Women's political representation will lead to an improvement in the status of women 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> + leadership training for women of all socio-economic classes + Education programs for women of all socio-economic classes + Funds devoted to project 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> + Number of women trained + Number of women attending education programs + Women's views on training 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> + Short-term effects of training (women able to take greater role in decisionmaking locally, public speaking, increased number of women involved in politics) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> + Increase in political representation of women by 200% at end of 5 year period + Improvement in women's status (literacy, employment and health) as a result of greater political participation of women (as a direct result of certain legislation being passed because of greater involvement of women in politics) + 50% less violence against women + Women's view

<p>b. Increase in political representation of women in 300 rural councils in project area by 200% over ten year period.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local population acceptance of women politicians • Government acceptance • Women willing to stand for power • Stable political situation in country • Political system will remain pluralist 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Local community views of feasibility of the project • Funds devoted to project 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase in political representation of women by 100% over five year period • Degrees of training, education, etc. provided for women • Women and men's attitudes to training and change, by socio-economic group 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase in political representation of women by 200% at end of ten year period • Views of women and men of likely effects of increase • Number of key decision making positions held by women and men 	<p>on</p> <p>changes in status.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increase in political representation of women by 200%, maintained for one election after end of donor involvement in project • socioeconomic background of women political representatives
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