

Mainstreaming gender into project cycle management in the fisheries sector













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by M. C. Arenas and A. Lentisco

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Foreword

There is a global consensus on the importance of addressing gender in development. Yet this is often nealected when it comes to field project design and implementation.

Although the fisheries sector has long been considered a male domain, the involvement and contribution of women is far more significant than often assumed. This lack of understanding of the complexity of the gender dimension of fisheries can result in policies or programmes failing to create sustainable livelihoods.

To date, there is relatively little guidance or specific recommendations on how to effectively address gender in the context of small-scale fisheries development. FAO fully acknowledges the importance of addressing gender issues in development projects as a way to promote gender equity and improve fisheries livelihoods. Too often, there is insufficient attention paid to the gender issues that affect fishing communities. There is also a lack of tools and guidance on how gender issues in such communities can be addressed.

For this reason, the FAO Regional Fisheries Livelihoods Programme for South and Southeast Asia (RFLP) funded by Spain, has created this field guide to help practitioners incorporate a gender perspective into all phases of small-scale fisheries development projects.

I am confident this handbook will make an important contribution to help ensure gender concerns are explicitly recognized and addressed in project activities both in South and Southeast Asia and beyond.

Hiroyuki Konuma

Assistant Director-General and FAO Regional Representative for Asia and the Pacific

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The Regional Fisheries Livelihoods Programme for South and Southeast Asia (RFLP)

The Regional Fisheries Livelihoods Programme for South and Southeast Asia (RFLP) sets out to strengthen capacity among participating small-scale fishing communities and their supporting institutions in Cambodia, Indonesia, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, Timor-Leste and Viet Nam. By doing so the RFLP seeks to improve the livelihoods of fishers and their families while fostering more sustainable fisheries resources management practices.

The four-year (2009 - 2013) RFLP is funded by the Kingdom of Spain and implemented by the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) working in close collaboration with national authorities in participating countries.

The RFLP recognizes that it is necessary to pay attention to gender concerns throughout the entire project lifecycle, because this is crucial to the improvement of livelihoods and the reduction of vulnerability of fishing communities.

To support this recognition and to contribute to the regional sharing of knowledge on gender concerns in the fisheries sector at field level, the RFLP has developed this field handbook on mainstreaming gender in all phases of the project life cycle, thereby contributing to the promotion of gender equity and the improvement of fisheries livelihoods.

For more information on the RFLP see www.rflp.org

List of acronyms

ADB Asian Development Bank

AUSAID Australian Agency for International Development

CEDAW Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination against Women

EU European Union

FAO Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations

FWCW Fourth World Conference on Women ILO International Labour Organization

GAD Gender and Development

LFA Logical Framework Approach

MDGs Millennium Development Goals

NGOs Non-Governmental Organisations

OECD Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development

OVI Objectively Verifiable Indicators
PCM Project Cycle Management
PFA Beijing Platform of Action

RFLP Regional Fisheries Livelihoods Programme

SEAGA Socio-Economic and Gender Analysis Programme

SOV Source of Verification

UN United Nations

UNDP United Nations Development Programme

UNESCO United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

UNIFPA United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF United Nations Children's Fund

UNIFEM United Nations Development Fund for Women

WID Women in Development

About the handbook

This manual has been prepared to facilitate gender analysis and project planning in fisheries development projects. It is intended to be a toolkit to help project managers and implementing counterparts (such as extensionists, government and non-government field workers, and private- and public-sector development consultants, community organizers and leaders of local groups), to facilitate the integration of gender issues into the project cycle.

The handbook is structured as follows:

Chapter one: provides the rationale, concepts and approaches relative to mainstreaming gender equality into development cooperation.

Chapter two: presents an overview of the role of women in the fisheries sector in Southeast Asia, the problems they face and possible empowerment opportunities.

Chapter three: provides tools for gender analysis in fisheries development projects and guidance on gender sensitive indicators.

Chapter four: provides the link for mainstreaming gender at various stages of the project cycle. An overview of the Project Cycle Management is presented in section 4.1.

For further reading, a bibliography of relevant texts as well as website references are presented at the end of the document.

A work in progress...

The contents of this handbook have been developed with reference to a wide range of resources. The tools have been tested in the field and both the tools and handbook have received feedback from a number of practitioners and experts.

Nevertheless, the Regional Fisheries Livelihood Programme recognizes the importance of continually updating this publication to incorporate the experiences and suggestions of users. We would therefore like to encourage users to provide comments and feedback to Steve Needham, RFLP Information Officer at steve.needham@fao.org





Chapter 1:

Gender equality in development cooperation

Gender equality and the empowerment of women are human rights that lie at the heart of development. When women and men have relative equality, economies grow faster, children's health improves and there is less corruption. Gender equality helps reduce the root causes of poverty and vulnerability while contributing to sustainable growth and the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

The eight MDGs which were adopted by the international community in 2000 set a variety of development targets for 2015. All eight touch on essential aspects of women's well-being, and in turn, women's empowerment is critical for achieving the goals.

The third goal is specifically directed towards the promotion of gender equality and empowerment of women with the target to eliminate gender disparity in all levels of education no later than 2015. Meanwhile the fifth MDG focuses on maternal mortality and universal access to reproductive health.

Six out of ten of the world's poorest people are women and girls.

In 2003 the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) Human Development Report suggested that if rich and poor countries worked hand in hand they could lift millions out of severe poverty. However, the report acknowledged that unless women's capabilities were improved and gender equality increased, the MDGs would not be achieved.

Worldwide,
24 percent
of girls of primary
school age are
still not attending
school, compared
with 16 percent
of boys.

During recent years progress has been made in many areas, yet meeting the MDGs remains a considerable challenge.

In developing countries, the adult literacy rate for men is 84 percent and 70 percent for women.

The need therefore remains for the donor community and developing nations alike to place increased emphasis upon the promotion of gender equality and women's empowerment, including in the fisheries sector. Recognizing women as a key driver of development and focusing efforts upon them will ensure long lasting benefits for society at large.



1.1 Rationale

1.1.1 Poverty and gender

The primary and overarching objective of development cooperation is the eradication of poverty in the context of sustainable development. Poverty, however, is understood not simply as a lack of income and financial resources, but also as encompassing the notion of *inequalities* in access to and control over the material and non-material resources of any particular society. These material and non-material benefits include rights, political voice, employment, information, services, infrastructure and natural resources. An important determinant of inequality in access to and control over societal resources and benefits is *gender*.

1.1.2 Human rights and gender

Gender equality and non-discrimination on the basis of sex are fundamental human rights, recognised by a number of international legal instruments and declarations and enshrined in most national constitutions. However, often national laws, customary law or societal structures result in differential treatment of women and men or boys and girls. Most human rights instruments are 'gender-neutral' in that they guarantee that all citizens will be treated without discrimination by the State, but that guarantee alone is insufficient to address inequalities which already exist.

The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) moves beyond statements guaranteeing equality and sets out measures aimed at achieving substantive equality in all fields and across all sectors. CEDAW thus provides a universal framework for rights-based development'.¹

¹ See Kit on the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1979) prepared by UNICEF/UNIFEM (1995).

1.2 Key concepts

<u>Sex</u> refers to the biological and genetic differences between males and females which naturally can not be changed. It refers to physical attributes pertaining to a person's body contours, features, genitals, hormones, genes, and reproductive organs.

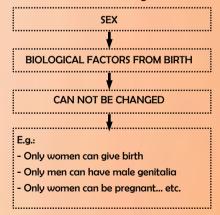
Biological differences between males and females:

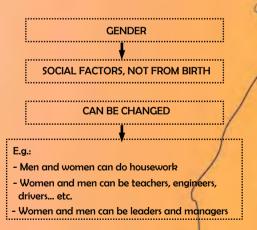
Female	Male
Has a uterus, can become pregant, can give	No uterus, cannot be pregnant,
birth	cannot give birth
Female genitalia	Male genitalia
Can breastfeed	Cannot breastfeed
No beard	Having beard

<u>Gender</u> has been defined as 'a concept that refers to the social differences, as opposed to the biological ones, between women and men, which have been learned, are changeable over time and have wide variations both within and between cultures'.²

Gender affects the relationship between women and men in the family and society. It relates to the distribution of power, position, class and responsibility. These are determined by society and can also be changed by society.

Differences between sex and gender³





One Hundred Words for Equality: A glossary of terms on equality between women and men (DG Employment and Social Affairs, 1998), http://europa.eu.int/comm/employment social/equ opp/glossary/glossary en.pdf

³ Taken from *Introductory Module: Gender Concept for Community Fisheries Management*. CBRMN. July 2009.

Gender roles are the roles both sexes are expected to fulfill in a society as defined by their virtue of being female or male. The role of a mother and father, for example, incorporates the right and the obligation to care for the children and to provide a living for the family.

Both sets of roles are shaped by a multiplicity of social, economic, political, cultural and other factors, and will change with changes in these formative influences. For example, if many of the male adults in a society are absent for war or for work for a long period of time the roles of women will inevitably change.

Changes in gender roles can be spontaneous or can result from planned policies and interventions, such as development programmes. As development programmes create changes (in one or several dimensions) they inevitably impact upon gender roles and relationships, whether or not that is their stated objective.

Differences of sex roles and gender roles':4

Sex roles	Gender roles
Same for all societies and universal	Differ from one society to another society
Can not be changed according to history	Can be changed according to history
Having only one role for each sex	Roles for both sexes
Biologically determined	Defined by culture and society - Not biologically determined

Gender relations have been described as 'the relationship and unequal power distribution between women and men which characterise any specific gender system'.⁵

Women's and men's respective gender roles are not only different, but are often also unequal in weight, power and value.

Gender inequality shows itself in many ways, but can be summarised as unequal access to and control over the various material and non-material resources and assets of their society. In most societies the woman's role is usually the inferior one in the relationship. Meanwhile women very rarely have equal access to power and decision-making structures. Inequality relates to lack of access to rights, assets and decision-making; and to lack of control over various facets of one's life.

⁴ Taken from Introductory Module: Gender Concept for Community Fisheries Management. CBRMN. July 2009.

⁵ One Hundred Words for Equality, op. cit

Gender equity refers to the process of fair and just treatment of women and men to reach gender equality. To ensure fairness and justice, measures must be put in place to compensate for the historical and social disadvantages that prevent women and men from sharing a level playing field. One example of measures is the provision of leadership training for women or establishing quotas for women in decision-making positions.

EOUITY LEADS TO EOUALITY

Equality of result can not be achieved without applying gender equity principles

Gender equality does not mean that women and men should be 'the same', or that there must be equal numbers of men and women or of girls and boys in all activities. It does mean that women and men enjoy the same status within a society, being free to develop their personal abilities, and make choices without the limitations set by strict gender roles'.⁶

It can be said that gender equality means equal treatment of women and men in laws and policies, and equal participation, access to resources and services (e.g. justice, education, health) within families, communities and society at large.



⁶ One Hundred Words for Equality. op. cit

Gender equality is defined in many different ways. One way to approach this concept is by breaking it down into five main components':⁷

- rights
- opportunities
- value
- situation and outcome
- agency

Rights

Gender equality means that both men and women should have the same rights, and be equal before the law. (This is known as "de jure," or formal gender equality). These rights are articulated in international conventions, such as the Convention to Eliminate All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), in national constitutions, and in legislation and other documents. Granting both men and women the same legal rights is the cornerstone of building a society in which men and women enjoy equality.

Opportunities

While the provision of equal rights can establish "de jure" (legal) equality between men and women, true gender equality requires more than legal guarantees. In order to ensure "de facto" (practical) equality between men and women, these laws need to be put into practice. In reality, many social, cultural, economic, and other barriers exist that prevent women, and men as well, from being able to fully enjoy their legal rights to equality.

⁷ UNDP. Gender Mainstreaming in Practice: A Toolkit. 2007.

For this reason, gender equality must also be about equality of opportunity. In other words, neither men nor women should face any barriers to learning, working, or participating in politics, the community or family simply because of their sex. Both sexes should have the same opportunities to access employment, resources, knowledge and information, and services, and to live healthy and happy lives. Men and women should likewise be in a position to be able to make genuine choices about their own work and welfare, and should have equal opportunities to make and influence decisions about themselves, their families, and their communities.

Even in cases where equal opportunities are formally ensured through law and policies, men and women may still encounter barriers to enjoying truly equal opportunities. The practical operation of institutions (ranging from the household to the state), attitudes and stereotypes about gender roles and relations as well as traditional and cultural practices all greatly influence the existence of these opportunities.

Value

Thirdly, gender equality also means that men's and women's contributions to the family, society, and community should be valued equally, even though those contributions may be different. These contributions include men's and women's work (paid and unpaid) and their contributions of non-monetized or immaterial resources such as time, care, skills, and knowledge. Attributing equal value to men's and women's resources can sometimes be achieved through law and policy, but it also requires that we shift our attitudes and actions.





Situation and outcome

Some critics of gender equality initiatives have pointed out that striving for equality of situation or outcome means that we are limiting men's and women's choices. Their argument states that even if men and women have the same rights and opportunities, they may not make the same choices, and therefore it is wrong to expect that the end result for men and women should be the same.

This criticism raises an important point: part of gender equality should be to increase the choices of men and women, and certainly not to constrain these choices in any way. And, yes, it is true that men and women can and do make different choices. However, what this criticism does not attend to is the way in which individual choices are overwhelmingly determined by the context in which these choices are made. In most cases, men and women cannot make the same choices because of the deeply engrained social, economic, cultural, and legal contexts in which they live and work.

For example, in societies where violence against women is implicitly or explicitly tolerated (which is unfortunately still too often the case all around the globe), women are not able to make real choices. The threat of violence will always constrain them.

Agency (the power of individuals)

The final but equally important component of gender equality is agency. While the first four components for the most part consider the social, economic, cultural, legal and other contexts in which men and women live, they might leave the impression that gender equality is something that is simply "given" to us by the state or society. Although rights, opportunities, and value might be conferred through institutions and decision makers, we also need to stress that gender equality is something that men and women can claim through their actions and voice.

In summary: "Gender equality" is not a one-dimensional phenomenon. It is rather a complex constellation of rights, opportunities, value, situation, and agency. Each of these aspects is intimately connected to the others.



1.3 Gender mainstreaming

1.3.1 What is gender mainstreaming?

In 1997, the Economic and Social Council of the General Assembly (ECOSOC), adopted gender mainstreaming as the methodology by which the entire United Nations system would work towards the advancement of women and gender equality goals:

"Mainstreaming a gender perspective is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, 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 programmes in all political, economic and societal spheres so that women and men benefit equally and inequality is not perpetuated. The ultimate goal of mainstreaming is to achieve gender equality".

The key points to note are that:

- First, the interdependent or complementary roles of men and women are recognised, so that one cannot be changed without also affecting the other;
- Second, that gender issues are not confined to one sector but must be addressed across the board:
- Third, that gender issues are not confined to the population of programme "beneficiaries" but must be addressed also at macro (policy) and meso (institutional/delivery systems) levels;
- Fourth, that they must be addressed at every stage in the programme cycle, beginning with identification and formulation, and continuing through implementation, monitoring and evaluation phases.

Gender mainstreaming is not only a question of social iustice but is necessary for ensuring equitable and sustainable human development. The long-term outcome of gender mainstreamina will be the achievement of areater and more sustainable human development for all.

⁸ The Report of the Economic and Social Council for 1997. United Nations, 1997.



1.3.2 Approaches to mainstreaming gender equality

From Women in Development (WID) to Gender and Development (GAD)9

The current approach to gender and development has been evolving gradually since the 1970s. The UN International Year of Women (1975) and the International Women's Decade (1976-85) saw the establishment of women's ministries in many countries and the adoption of Women in Development (WID) policies by donor agencies, governments and NGOs. The main aim of WID was to integrate women into economic development by focusing on income-generating projects for women.

Most of these projects achieved little success as they ignored the underlying structural inequalities in such areas as land ownership, access to markets, credit and information.

The Gender and Development (GAD) approach originated among researchers and implementers in the mid 1970s and focused on the ways in which development affects existing gender relations between men and women and vice versa. GAD advocates criticised the WID approach for treating women as a homogeneous category, and emphasised the influence on development outcomes of differences in class, age, marital status, religion and ethnicity as well as gender. Proponents of GAD distinguished between practical gender needs i.e. needs for items which would improve women's lives within their existing roles (e.g. more efficient cooking stoves), and strategic gender needs which must be met if women are to be enabled to take on new roles and to become empowered (e.g. increased access to education and information, legislative changes, representation in decision-making bodies).

The Fourth World Conference on Women (FWCW), held in Beijing in September 1995, 'was groundbreaking in shifting the discourse from Women in Development (WID) to Gender and Development (GAD)'. The term 'gender mainstreaming' also came into widespread use with the adoption of the Beijing Platform for Action (PFA) at the close of that conference.

⁹ Adapted from Janet Henshall Momsen, Gender and Development, 2004.



Key steps in gender mainstreaming

In order to mainstream gender equality in development cooperation programmes and related activities a number of steps are essential:

- Statistics disaggregated by sex and qualitative information on the situation of women and men must be obtained for the population in question. This information is required not only at project/programme beneficiary level, but also at the macro and meso levels.
- A gender analysis should be conducted with regard to the gendered division of labour, access to and control over material and non-material resources, the legal basis for gender equality/inequality; political commitments with respect to gender equality; and the culture, attitudes and stereotypes which affect all preceding issues. Gender analysis should be conducted at the micro, meso and macro levels.
- Gender analysis of a programme or project concept should reveal whether gender equality
 objectives are articulated in the initial idea, whether or not the planned activity will
 contribute to or challenge existing inequalities and whether there are any gender issues
 that have not been addressed.
- During the identification and formulation phases, gender analysis contributes to the identification of entry points for actions that will be needed in order to meet gender equality objectives.
- A gender-sensitive monitoring and evaluation system should also be in place from the design phase onwards, including the establishment of indicators to measure the extent to which gender equality objectives are met and changes in gender relations achieved.



Gender analysis

Gender analysis is the systematic attempt to identify key issues contributing to gender inequalities so that they can be properly addressed. Gender analysis provides the basis for gender mainstreaming and is described as 'the study of differences in the conditions, needs, participation rates, access to resources and development, control of assets, decision-making powers, etc., between women and men in their assigned gender roles'.¹⁰

Gender analysis is also necessary to determine whether specific actions are needed for women or men, in addition to mainstreaming activities.

Gender analysis should be conducted at all levels, from the grass roots through intermediate levels such as service delivery systems to the highest political levels, and across all sectors and programmes of development cooperation.

A number of analytical frameworks and tools for gender analysis are included in Chapter Three.







Chapter 2:

Women in fisheries

2.1 The role of women in fisheries

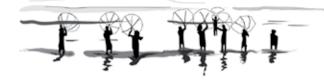
Fish and fish products are an integral part of the diet of many cultures and are an important economic enterprise. Women are active in both small-scale fisheries and commercial fishery sectors. Their activities range from shallow water fishing in artisnal fisheries to waged labour in the commercial fishery sector. In such a wide range of activities, women are important contributors to both national and household food security while their labour adds to the foreign earnings of the countries.

Even though women are usually not involved in active fishing (with exception of inland fisheries and lagoon fisheries), they contribute substantially in the pre and post-harvest operations. The diverse array of women's roles in the fishery sector apart from their activities as wives, mothers and homemakers (which engage them from dawn to dusk) includes: fisherwomen; selling fish; acting as auctioneers, agents or merchants; making and repairing nets; drying and salting fish; working as labourers for processing firms; and fish farming.

The fisheries sector in developing countries is recognized as one of the most economically depressed sectors in society. Women (wives or daughters) from fisher households in Southeast Asia, Africa and Latin America are often:

- Overworked, with their contribution unrecognized, unvalued or undervalued;
- Lowly-paid and exploited by employers;
- Illiterate;
- Undernourished and sickly, with poor productivity;
- Lacking opportunities for skills upgrading and access to training.

Although a substantial number of women are involved in the fishery sector, the number of women holding managerial posts with decision-making powers is insignificant. Many women in fisheries have low self-esteem, possibly reflecting social values that hold men superior.



In some countries, women do not enjoy basic rights (right to vote, choice of career and even how to dress), which many in developed countries take for granted. Article 14 of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) addresses the discrimination that women in rural areas face, and places a specific obligation on the State, at all levels, to adopt measures to eliminate all forms of discrimination against women. This has particular relevance for women in fishing communities, where often the discrimination is not immediately visible, and it rather appears to be women's choice not to get involved in certain aspects. This Article highlights women's right of access to training, credit and infrastructure.

2.2 Women in fisheries in Southeast Asia

The degree of participation of women in the fisheries sector is an overall reflection of the prevailing culture, the laws of a country and the priority given by the State to ensure gender equity. Generally, women in Southeast Asia, especially those from fisheries households, participate actively in many fisheries activities (especially in post-harvest and trading activities), including aquaculture. However, the lower status accorded to women in many Asian societies means that their contribution to fisheries is undervalued and unrecognized.

Main problems faced by women

Women from fisher households are involved in fish processing, aquaculture, small-scale fishing and fish selling, but less often in commercial fishing using bigger vessels. This may be due to a stereotype perception that women are physically weak and therefore unsuited to the physical demands of fishing. Lack of opportunities for women to hold managerial and decision-making posts are apparent. Often however the main obstacles appear to be a lack of confidence in their abilities to hold such positions as well as finding sufficient time to do so. Gender-disaggregated data, which is needed for in-depth gender analysis is largely lacking in most Southeast Asian countries. It is imperative that such data is collected, and gender research is conducted, so that appropriate interventions and policy changes are implemented. This will help to ensure that women are not left out of mainstream development, and are accorded the basic rights to which all humans are entitled.



In addition to the abovementioned problems, women in fisheries in Southeast Asia also face:

Poverty

In the fisheries sector, widespread poverty is among the most pressing issues, especially among traditional fishers trying to make a living from the paltry catches of over-exploited waters. Policy changes and better management are called for to change this condition. A range of problems, many with gender dimensions, accompany the poverty of many fishing families and communities'.¹

There are several indicators that suggest feminisation of poverty in the fisheries sector (in rural areas in general):

- Women are more likely than men to be seen as being economically inactive or to work as unpaid family workers. Even among women in paid employment, a higher proportion of women than men are concentrated in low wage jobs. Extensive studies also show that women producers have poorer access than men to all resources, from land to credit and technology. All these factors suggest that women are likely to comprise the majority of the poor and constitute a compelling case for accepting that the feminisation of poverty is a quantitative reality'.¹²
- Women are also likely to be impacted by factors and processes that do not affect men. Due to cultural factors, intra-household distribution of food and other resources is far from equal. For the distribution of food, women tend to give priority to their husbands and other adult males as well as to their children. In the context of poverty and food shortages, this results in higher levels of malnutrition, anemia and related health problems among poor women than among poor men. Although cultural norms require men to fulfil the role of breadwinner, the reality when men are unable to provide sufficient income is that it is the women who are ultimately responsible for ensuring the survival of their children. With or without the income that the husband is expected to provide, women are responsible for feeding, clothing, sheltering and educating their children.

Vulnerability to natural disasters and climate change¹³

Natural disasters in low-lying coastal areas kill more women than men. During the 2006 tsunami for example, in Indonesia and Sri Lanka, male survivors outnumbered female survivors by 3 or 4 to 1'. Women are less mobile and have less access to information. More women than men also work in the informal sector and in small

¹¹ Binkley 1995; FAO 1995a; Neis 1996; Williams and Awoyomi 1998

¹² Whitehead 2003

¹³ Courtesy of Minna Epps - Mangroves for the Future

¹⁴ Davis, et al. 2005



enterprises. These sectors are often the worst hit and least able to recover from the effects of disasters, due to lack of capital, and limited access to credit and information, among other obstacles. Both the reproductive and productive workload increases substantially after a disaster. Adaptation and vulnerability to disasters are social issues and risk of exposure to a particular hazard and the capacity to adapt depends on their human, social, natural, physical and financial capital as well as political and social factors which greatly differ between men and women.

CASE STUDY: Impacts of extreme weather events on women

The coastal community of Sorsogon (the Philippines) suffers from frequent typhoons, prolonged heavy rainfall and flooding. For the women, this mean periods of food insecurity that often leads to tension in relations not only within the family but in the community as well. Other impacts include loss of property due to damage caused by strong typhoons, reduced income because of dwindling fish catch and economic and social displacement as a result of resettlement in safe but far flung areas. As a result, people are pushed further into the margins of poverty with the possibility that climate change may increase the regularity and impact of such extreme weather events.

Source: National Workshop on Women in Fisheries and Climate Change. Philippines, 2010.

Division of household labour

Household labour studies have shown that women with dual working roles (as wage earner and caregiver) consistently spend two or three hours more than men every day in work-related activities'. Malnourishment and long working hours may have sociological, economic and health implications for women'. 16

¹⁵ Levine et al. 2001.

¹⁶ FAO 1990; FAO 1995b; IFPRI 1995; Tully 1990; Quisumbling et al. 1995.



Health

One of the greatest health challenges confronting the fishers and their families is HIV/AIDS. Fishers are particularly vulnerable due to the nature of their jobs where long periods away from home often leads to visits to commercial sex workers and drug use. Access to affordable treatment and education on safe sex is therefore imperative for both the fishers and their wives, and the latter must be aware of their rights to protect themselves.

Access to education

Access to general education is often denied children, from fishing families, as they make up a large proportion of the labour force in fisheries. Children work as crew on fishing boats, as fish sorters, in fish processing factories, in fish marketing and trading and in households with fisheries-based livelihoods. Boys often have better access to education than girls since they are given preference to attend school.

Other rights

Where laws or customs prevent women from owning land or other productive assets, from getting loans or credit, or from having the right to inheritance or to own their home, they have no assets to leverage for economic stability and cannot invest in their own or their children's futures. Other issues include violence, recognized as a key factor preventing women from exercising their rights'.⁷⁷

¹⁷ AusAID 1997.



Why are gender issues in fisheries important?18

In addition to the obvious concerns about fairness, equal opportunity and discrimination, there are good reasons why effective and efficient development of the Southeast Asia's fisheries must take the role of women in the sector into account.

- Women make significant contributions to fishery-related activities other than fishing.
 They play the major role in processing fish and fishery products, as well as in marketing.
 Although these roles are often very different to those of men, they are integral parts of the industry and ignoring these activities means ignoring a large portion of the sector.
- 2. The different work done by women generates different kinds of knowledge. So, for example, while men may know which grounds have the best fishing, women know the price these fish will fetch in the market. These kinds of knowledge are often complementary in this example knowing where to catch the highest value fish. Only with knowledge of both women's and men's opinions and expertise can we understand the fishery sector in its entirety, and manage its development appropriately.
- 3. The under-representation of women in decision making takes away a large portion of the available pool of expertise from both the government and the community.

2.3 Recommendations for empowering women in fisheries

Governments should introduce policies and programs that meet the needs of women in the fisheries sector, recognise and value the role they play and empower them at all decision-making levels - from the household to government.

This could be achieved through:

Raising awareness, sharing knowledge

One of the first actions needed to redress gender inequities is to increase awareness of gender issues and to dispel perceptions that women are weak and helpless. Networking should focus on awareness-building through communication and exchange of ideas, experiences and approaches that improve the quality of life for women in fisheries, making their lives more productive and fulfilling.

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¹⁸ From Gender and Fisheries in the Lower Mekong Basis. Technical Advisory Body for Fisheries Management. Mekong River Commission. June 2006.



Gathering information, developing research programmes

The compilation of information on women in fisheries is one of the most important activities to be undertaken. There is an urgent need to do this work in a comprehensive and systematic manner so that policies can be formulated and projects to alleviate problems can be realized. Information is required to identify these problems and design appropriate programmes to meet gender needs.

Research programmes that systematically tackle gender issues and women's participation and integration in fisheries development should be set up. Moreover, sex disaggregated databases should be regularly collected to serve as a basis for more effective planning. The lack of unbiased gender data on the nature and role of men's and women's contributions, especially from developing countries, may hinder the actions taken to address critical problem areas identified in the Beijing Platform for Action. Other areas in which research and analysis should be undertaken include:¹⁹

- the conditions and contributions of women in small-scale and artisanal fisheries and fishing communities;
- the impact of development and conservation projects on the lives of men, women and children in fishing communities; and
- the impact of fisheries conservation and management measures on the lives and livelihoods of fishing communities.

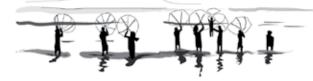
Enhancing sensitivity to gender issues

Sensitivity to gender issues is still low not only within households and within the community but also among extension personnel who work with fishers. Although concern for gender has entered into the rhetoric of development efforts of both governments and NGOs as well as into existing legislation, it is still a poorly appreciated issue.

Women's participation in income-generating activities and other development tasks are constrained by the burden of bearing and raising children. Unless provisions are made to lighten household responsibilities, such as by more equitable sharing of tasks with the spouse and children, or by providing community child care arrangements, sustained participation of women will not be realized.

Low educational attainment and socio-cultural constraints hamper full participation of women in development activities of the sector. This affects their ability to process, use and access available information.

¹⁹ Extracted from the workshop "Recasting the Net: Defining a Gender Agenda for Sustaining Life and Livelihoods in Fishing Communities" held in Mahabalipuram, India, during 7-10 July 2010.



Ensuring food security, developing marketing

Artisanal fishers provide vital nourishment for poor communities as fish is highly nutritious and serves as a valuable supplement in diets lacking essential vitamins and minerals (such as rice-based diets).

The importance of the role that women play determining and guaranteeing food security and well-being for the entire household is being increasingly recognised. However, further support is needed in different areas.

Improving women's access to markets and storage of fish through provision of ice will help keep fish within the reach of the poor. There is a need to develop appropriate and conducive marketing facilities in areas where women fishers have easy and unhindered access. Credit policy also needs to be revamped to give women access to micro finance without having to provide collateral.

The further reduction of post-harvest losses and improving fish processing beyond traditional drying and salting should be addressed. As women undertake the majority of fish processing their participation in this endeavour is crucial. Training and support for women should also be provided for the storage, packaging and distribution of fish as well as the management of enterprises.

Organizational culture

Development assistance agencies, research organizations, development projects and professional societies should incorporate gender dimensions into their strategies and work programmes. Workforce composition, internal culture, partnership and relationship management policies should also be reviewed through the gender lens.

Organizations in the fisheries sector must develop their own gender approaches and seek the best links to mainstream actors, such as in health to tackle the HIV/AIDS threat and in education, as well as concerning financial assistance, housing and sanitation. Moreover, family and community-based approaches rather than activities aimed solely at women are more likely to succeed.



Improving capabilities

By supporting entrepreneurship

Women need extra help to access assistance. Creative schemes are needed to allow women access to the means for their improvement, including capital, equipment and technology, credit and loans, training and education. Women's access to all of these enabling factors usually lags far behind those of men in fisheries in every society.

It is necessary to facilitate access to credit to improve women's capability to profit from their economic activities in the sector. Women can expand the enterprise of processing or marketing their husband's catch, possibly within a cooperative set-up, if they can obtain loans. However, access to credit for fishery-related processing is often only available through male-dominated fishery cooperatives, another barrier to women. Other actions to support entrepreneurship could include training on financial management, and subsidies for women's enterprises.

CASE STUDY: From survival to profitable businesses in Cambodia

Lack of access to financial resources to start and expand their micro-enterprises was a common challenge for many poor women in Kampong Tralach Village in Cambodia's Kep province. Taking loans from money lenders who treated them poorly was their only option. As a result, they had to pay very high interest rates and could also only sell their products to the money lenders at a low price.

With support from two ILO Projects, Women's Entrepreneurship Development and Gender Equality (WEDGE) and International Program on the Elimination of Child Labour (IPEC), women's Self Help Groups (SHG) were established.

Members were trained on business skills, on how to establish financial goals and how to manage separate budgets for household and business expenses. Gender equality issues are an integral part of these training materials and gender issues are raised throughout all enterprise-related training.

Helping these women gain access to financial resources not only helped them to improve their livelihoods, but also promoted positive attitudes in the community toward women in terms of their capacity and their contribution to economic and social development.

Courtesy of ILO (International Labour Organization)



By facilitating access to fish resources and decision making processes

Rights and access to and the means of control of resources are central to successful fisheries development. However women's entitlements are frequently ignored and this situation must be addressed explicitly in order for the full potential of women's contributions to be realized.

Women must also have a role in the management of resources and women targeted to play a role in fisheries resources management to ensure that it becomes more participatory and inclusive. The participation of women and women's groups in decision-making processes should therefore be encouraged at both community (by strengthening women's organizations) and government levels.

CASE STUDY: Promoting women's groups to encourage Community Based Fisheries Management (CBFM)

In the coastal region of Sihanoukville, Cambodia a fish refugia was created and a women's Blood Cockle Fishers Group (BCFG) established. In order to manage the reserve, self-regulatory measures were formulated, including: fishing rights, fishing methods, limitation of fishing season and fishing hours as well as minimum harvestable size. As a result of the initiative women gained understanding about the conservation and enforcement measures, the morale of members grew which benefited the community while blood cockle resources increased, helping improve the livelihoods of the community.

Courtesy of the Southeast Asian Fisheries Development Center (SEAFDEC/TD) Thailand.



To bear in mind...

A key factor contributing to both women's and men's vulnerability and poverty is that poor people tend to be excluded from decision-making processes. When people are better able to represent their own interests and needs, and to do so in a convincing manner, they are more likely to exert some influence on the State and service providers to provide the services that are needed in a way that is needed. This is particularly important for people and resources that still remain marginal to State development priorities.

Source: Mark Dubois; The WorldFish Center



By training

Appropriate technical assistance, training and extension should also be designed to target women.

in fisheries. Technology which responds to the nature of their participation in the sector should be developed, e.g. better preservation tools and storage facilities and improved modes of transporting catch that are sold by women.

It is important to ensure that training is accessible to women so that they can improve their productivity and the quality of their products. Courses should be structured and held in places that will not inconvenience women in their roles as mothers. Child-care services should be considered in order to attract women to attend such courses.

Fishery legislators and policy makers also need training on gender issues. This will raise their awareness about gender issues and help them formulate guidelines for their departments and ministries to follow.



To bear in mind...

The importance of research

- Know the social structures: generation, gender, class, etc. What are the symbolic lines that divide society?
 How is society organized? Every society divides its members in groups in different ways. Be careful not to generalize social systems and norms, as in most cases there is a degree of flexibility and change.
- Know the local customs and learn about local worldviews. How do they think? How do they understand reality?
- Know more about local practices.
- Make comparisons. Have things changed? Since when? Are things different than in surrounding areas?
 Through comparisons we can have a broader view of what we are analyzing.

Source: Enrique Alonso & M Jesús Pena





Chapter 3:

Tools for mainstreaming gender equality in development cooperation projects

3.1 General considerations

Mainstreaming gender equality in development cooperation programmes and projects is simply a case of taking into consideration, during the design, implementation and evaluation of these initiatives, that all societies assign identities, roles, responsibilities, value and resources to people on the basis of their sex and similarly that these assignments entail advantages and discrimination and, therefore, lead to differences in the powers and balance of power between women and men.

In order to weigh up and recognise these gender-based assignments of identities, roles, responsibilities, value and resources, we must conduct a number of analyses with a view to underscoring gender-related differences, which are not always obvious on first sight and can be very difficult to appreciate objectively on account of ideological considerations or the actual experiences of the people involved.

A detailed gender analysis makes visible:

- the different needs, priorities, capacities, experiences, interests, and views of women and men:
- who has access to and/or control of resources, opportunities and power;
- who does what, why, and when;
- who is likely to benefit and/or lose from new initiatives;
- gender differences in social relations:
- the different patterns and levels of involvement that women and men have in economic, political, social, and legal structures;
- that women's and men's lives are not all the same and often vary depending on factors other than their sex, such as age, ethnicity, race and economic status; and
- assumptions based on our own realities, sex, and gender roles.

The gender analysis enables us:

- to gauge the extent to which the needs and priorities of women and men are reflected in development-oriented action;
- to organise information in order to pinpoint gaps relating to gender inequalities and to access gender disaggregated information;

The gender analysis will map the differences socially assigned to men and women in the household, in the economy, in the political realm and within society.



- to identify what additional changes and initiatives are required so as to enable women to participate in, and benefit from a project;
- to determine the opportunities that exist to prevent or combat the gender imbalances arising from development-oriented action;
- to anticipate the potential impact of the action on the women and men involved.

The gender analysis must be an essential part of any diagnostic work before implementing the corresponding development initiatives. It can be conducted by cooperation officers, or by the very people involved in the project, who will eventually be the main members or beneficiaries thereof.

Gender analysis is conducted at three levels

- at the macro level socio-economic and gender issues are introduced into the policy process, usually at national level;
- the intermediate level or meso level focuses on institutions, structures and services which operationalise the links between macro and field levels;
- the field level or micro level focuses on individuals, households and communities.

In the fishery sector, some of the stakeholders identified are the following:

- macro: national fisheries associations, government ministries responsible for fisheries, fisheries research institutions
- intermediate: district administrations, village councils, input suppliers (boats, nets, Engines etc), marketing agents, wholesalers, exporters, health care service providers
- micro: fisherfolk (women, men and children), non-fishing families, Community Based Organisations.

This manual principally focuses on addressing field level issues.



To bear in mind...

Understanding different realities

Words, concepts and social categories are understood differently in every society. Gender, resource, benefit, cause, effect... are meaningful concepts for the researcher or facilitator but not necessarily for the community. Translating any assessment tool is more than a just a linguistic exercise; it is vital to make the concepts themselves understandable to the local way of thinking. Therefore questions must be formulated that are meaningful to the community while the researcher must seek to ensure that the local system of values are captured by the assessment tools.

Source: Mark Dubois; The WorldFish Center

How are these tools used?

As the tools guide social research and help to shape development interventions, they must be used in a participatory and open manner, giving importance to obtaining qualitative information.

In order to use the tools:

- direct contact is required with the beneficiary community or group of the intervention;
- we recommend conducting individual interviews with members of the community who best represent their peers;
- ensure that all individuals tagged as key for the intervention have been duly interviewed, or have otherwise played a direct role in securing the information or in utilising the analytical tools;
- the information can be verified through group discussions with the different parties involved;
- we recommend conducting the consultation process with both single-sex groups (both men and women) and mixed groups;
- it is important to involve a sufficient number of participants to reflect the considerable variety of socio-economic situations and identities that exist within a given community.





Note:

The tools should be used as a guide but not a methodology to be filled in by the community. Avoid trying to compile tables at the site, but rather carry out research and then fill them in later.

The use of tools needs to be part of a longer identification/research process. The longer you can spend getting to know a community the better your results will be.

3.2 Activity analysis

Women's labour is all too often it is invisible. Women work on farms and go fishing with their husbands, they produce food for the family, sell food in the market, generate income by sewing or doing laundry etc and also do the housework and look after children.

However, women receive little or no recognition for their efforts with these activities not even officially classified as being labour.

The Activity Analysis is a gender-based analytical tool capable of identifying the activities performed by men and women in their daily lives. It is based on the sexual division of labour and takes into account the frequency of the activity and the amount of time devoted to it.

Activity analysis explores who does what type of work, distinguishing between productive, household and community roles:

- productive work produces goods and services for home consumption and sale. This
 includes employment and self-employment in both the formal and informal sectors.
 Both women and men can be involved in productive work but their professions,
 activities and responsibilities often vary according to the gender division of labour.
- reproductive work involves the care and maintenance of the household and its
 members. Women tend to be most active in reproductive work, such as preparing
 food, collecting water and fuel, bearing and caring for children, caring for other household members and maintaining the house. Men may be responsible for constructing
 the home, household security and decision-making.
- community work involves the activities for the management and wellbeing of the community that are voluntary and unpaid.

The first step in gender analysis is to identify the activities performed by men and women in society to find out who does what, how and when.



How is an Activity Profile prepared?

Below is an example of an Activity Profile completed in the fishing community of Phu Loc Town (Viet Nam) on 19 August 2010 which can be used as a guide.

Activity Profile				
Household tasks	Who does the work?		F	
Household tasks	women men		Frequency	
Cleaning	x		Daily: From 6 am -8 am	
Preparing lunch/breakfast	×		Daily: From 6 am -8 am	
Washing clothes	x		Daily: From 6 am -8 am	
Take care of children	×		Daily: From 9 am -12 am	
Bring children to school	×	×	Daily: From 6 am -8 am. Men only if transport is necessary	
Collecting water	x	×	Daily 7-8 am depends	
Shopping, food, clothes	x		Daily	
House construction and maintenance		×	When required	
Production of goods and services	Who does the work?		Frequency and time of activity	
	women	men		
Collect fish/shrimps	×	×	Daily: Men from 5 pm -6 am, women 6 pm - 4 am	
Fix gear	x	×	Daily: men 12 am- 4 pm, women from 9 am -12 am,	
Selling fish in the market	x		Daily: Women from 6 am -7 am	
Salting fish	x		Few times a week	
Extracting titanium		×	Occasionally	
Community Tasks	Who does the work?		Frequency and time of activity	
Community rusks	women	men	Trequency and time of activity	
Funeral preparation	×	×	Occasionally	
Wedding preparation	×	×	Occasionally	
Fishing day	x	×	Once a year	
Community day	x	×	Once a year	
Local community meetings	×	x	3 times a year	
Fishing associations meetings		x	Regularly: each 2 days	

Source: FAO-RFLP team

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HOURS	ACTIVITIES	
HOURS	women	man
5-7	Cleaning and washing Cooking breakfast Laundry Feed the animals (pigs, chickens, ducks) Prepare children to go to school Prepare food for husband to go fishing	Preparing food for the animals Feed the animals Cleaning the cages Preparing fishing gears
7-9	Work in the rice field Go fishing (2- 3 times/ week)	Sell fishing products to middleman Help women on the rice field or go fishing
9-11	Work in the rice field Cooking lunch & lunch break Feed the animals	Help women on the rice field or go fishing
11-13	Work in the rice field Go fishing (2- 3 times/ week)	Lunch break and rest
13-15	Sell fishing products to middleman Go to the market for food, clothes, etc Go fishing (2- 3 times/ week)	Rest
15-17	Bath the children Cooking dinner Feed the kids Prepare lunch for husband to go fishing	Rest (until 16.00 - 16.30) Prepare fishing gears
17-19	Prepare beds Socializing	Go fishing
19-21	Socializing	Fishing
21-24	Rest	Fishing
24-2	Rest	Collect fishing gear and return home
2-5	Rest	Rest

Source: FAO-RFLP team

With these techniques we can determine the time and use of family and outside labour and show critical periods of work and roles. This can also be used to demonstrate seasonal restrictions and opportunities.



Understanding and pinpointing gender-based inequalities is of paramount importance because:

- it allows us to expose a whole host of activities that are not generally treated as work in that they don't generate an exchange value, and which tend to be socially assigned to women, such as household tasks, caring for dependent people or community work;
- it helps us to detect the different consequences that the sexual division of labour entails for men and women, and helps them to identify the different problems and needs arising from their daily responsibilities and obligations;
- it highlights the interdependence and reciprocity between the work of women and men, the aim being to understand adjustments to the volume of daily work when faced with changes in the working or social environment (economic crises, migrations, etc.).

3.3. Access to and control over resources and benefits

Productive as well as reproductive and community work requires the use of resources. A gender perspective looks at the access people have to the resources they need for their work, the control they exercise over these resources in order to use them as they wish and access to the benefits generated by family and individual work.

Because of women's often subordinate position, their access to and control of resources and benefits may be restricted. In some circumstances they may have access to resources (opportunity to use them), but have no control over them (no opportunity to make decisions about their use and destination.)

The Framework for Access to and Control over Resources and Benefits explicitly maps the real access that men and women have to the resources and benefits.



How do we create a Framework for Access to and Control over Resources and Benefits?

Resources refer to a variety of assets required to cover needs, while benefits are the product of such resources.

All projects entail resources and seek to generate specific benefits for participants, whether male or female

Resources can include

- Economic: these encompass both productive resources, such as land, equipment, capital and other assets, cash, work and financing;
- Social: include mutual aid social networks, kinship networks, networks for organising reproductive work, etc.
- Political: resources here include political power, representative organisations and associations, local leadership, opportunities for communication, negotiation and consensus, assessments regarding social standing, status and credibility.
- Time: the availability and control over one's own time, whether hours of the day or
 periods of the year available for discretional use (leisure, learning, time for oneself,
 etc.), is a key resource for development.
- Mobility: mobility, as a resource, requires us to weigh up the extent to which physical
 movement is restricted by norms and customs, as well as the constraints on accessing
 certain forms of transport or locations.
- Information/education: these include resources and benefits such as education, or the opportunity to exchange opinions and information.
- Personal: these include, but are not limited to, self-esteem, self-confidence and the capacity to express one's own interests and opinions in private and in public.

Benefits can include:

Satisfaction of basic needs, such as food, clothing and shelter; cash and financial income; the possibility of owning property and of receiving an education and training; political power, prestige, and status; and opportunities for pursuing new interests.

This list is non-exhaustive and can be expanded with other kinds of resources relevant to each specific case. Likewise, there is no need to make express reference to each type of resource or benefit if it is deemed irrelevant.



Some of the questions guiding this exercise are as follows:

- Who is able to use the resource?
- Who is able to make decisions regarding the use thereof?
- Who is entitled to sell or freely dispose of it?

Note:

The resources to be identified are not limited to what men or women have access to. Rather, those resources which are found in their community.

Below is an example of the Access to and Control of Resources and Benefits tool showing the findings from the fishing community of Chumpu Khmao (Cambodia) on 24 August 2010.

Access to and Control of Resources					
RESOURCES	Who has access?		Who has control?		
	women	men	women	men	other
Mangrove forest	x	×	×	x	
Fishing resources	×	×	×	x	
Rice fields	House owner	House owner	House owner	House owner	
Household farm	x	×	×	x	
Boat	x	×	×	x	
Community fishing grounds	boat owner	boat owner	boat owner	boat owner	
Fishing gears	×	×		x	
Tractor		x		x	
Bicycle and motorbike	×	×	×	x	
Tuk tuck		×		x	
Clean water					
Electricity					
Toilets					
Firewood	x	×	×	x	
Primary education	Limited	×			
Secondary education					
Processing storage in the village	x	×	×		_
Access to credit	×	×	×	x	
Hospital or health services					
Time	x	x	×	x	
Self-confidence	x	×	x	x	

Source: FAO-RFLP team



Access to and Control of Resources					
BENEFITS	Who has access?		Who has control?		
	women	men	women	men	other
Fish for household use	×	×	×	×	
Meat and eggs for household use	x	×	×	×	
Income from fish sales	×	×	×		
Income from animals sales	×	×	×		
Knowledge from training	limited	×	×		
Labour	x	×	x	×	
Leisure time	x	×	x	×	

Source: FAO-RFLP team

Note:

By using different sizes of the cross for ticking the boxes on the chart, it can be indicated who has better access or control: women or men

The framework enables us to:

- identify and become familiar with gender-based differences in accessing and controlling a set of resources within the household or the community in general;
- plan and gauge the impact that an intervention could have on access to, and control
 over, specific resources and benefits and, therefore, the potential empowering effect
 this could lead to;
- move away from the idea that certain projects empower women within a society based simply on the fact that they are the beneficiaries of the project or take part in the planning thereof.

Lack of information about possibilities for access to and control over resources and benefits has led to erroneous notions about what women can achieve and how they can benefit from development initiatives.



The way resources are perceived and used has a great deal to do with age, social class and culture. Efforts are therefore needed to ensure these interrelations are taken into account with regards to a given society and context.

3.4. Gender needs

Women and men may well have different needs and interests, arising from the obligations, responsibilities and activities assigned to them in a given society, and also from unequal access to, and control over resources and benefits. These are essentially the gender needs.

How is the Gender Needs Framework devised?

A line must be drawn between practical and strategic needs:

- Practical needs: those intended to improve quality of life and which target people's basic needs.
- Strategic needs: those relating to questions of gender equality within a given society and which aim to bring about a more equitable distribution of the society's resources between men and women.

Gender needs are actually identified by the women involved in the interventions, either through discussion groups, or other participatory approaches enabling women to express their own interests. With this in mind, there must be associations and organisations that are able to raise awareness and exposure of such interests among women themselves. Furthermore, these organisations must be able to generate interaction with other actors from the community, from the government, or from the social environment.

Whether a need is labelled practical or strategic will depend on the culture and social context of each community or country. Genderbased needs are invariably culturally specific.

Practical experience would appear to suggest that in many cases it may well be better to identify gender needs through allfemale groups than with mixedgender groups, in which women tend to feel inhibited or let the males from the community speak instead.



Below is an example of a Gender Needs Framework completed in the fishing community of Loc Tri (Viet Nam) on 20 August 2010.

Gender Needs					
Pra	ctical	Strategic			
women	men	women	men		
 Loans for their career (approx 20-30 mil dong) Purchase net and more fishery equipment Want to know how to read and write Need fingerlings of fish and shrimp for fish & shrimp farming after re-arrangement of lagoon area Changing career from natural fish catching to fish and shrimp farming local authority will withdraw their lagoon area and they will have no lagoon plot anymore to produce natural fish and shrimp) Job opportunities: they want to be hired as a labourer by companies or factories 	Training on changing new careers, because local authority will withdraw their lagoon plot, they need more new techniques and knowledge of new careers More support on fuel for fishing boats to catch fish from the sea	- Enhanced political participation and leadership - Access to primary education: they want to know how to read and write - Access to credit loan schemes by local banks	- Access to loans from credit schemes to upgrade their houses, re-build their nets and buy new fishing equipment. Some fishers working on the sea are looking forward to bigger credit schemes to upgrade their fishing boats - Support from local authority on household economic and social benefits for their children		

When assessing the impact of a project, care must be taken to confirm, and even measure, the benefit (or harm) that the project in question has had on the situation of its female

beneficiaries.

Source: FAO-RFLP team

This information enables us to:

- expose women's specific needs and interests, which, on occasion, are incorrectly identified or associated with those of their husbands, with those of other members of the household (children, etc.), or with those of the community to which they belong;
- shape the project's strategy of intervention based on the specific situation of men and women:
- design projects that go beyond merely satisfying basic needs and actually foster empowerment;
- assess the different impacts that a project will have on the prevailing situation of both women and men.



Another interesting activity is to identify the aspirations of women and men as they relate to real possibilities for improving their lives and the conditions within their communities.

How?

By asking open questions to stimulate a discussion. An example could be, "What would you like to do to improve your life?" or "What is your dream for your community?"

3.5. Mapping the factors that influence gender dynamics

Influencing factors affecting gender relations are those variables that most directly affect the respective sets of rights, obligations, opportunities, activities and positions of women and men within a given society and which can, therefore, influence interventions geared towards development. These influencing factors may act at macro-level (general context of a country or sector), meso-level (related to institutions, structures and services) and or micro-level (pertaining to a specific area or group), and could constitute events, facts, values, rules, laws or customs.

An analysis of influencing factors will enable us to:

- chart the social structures, legal norms, processes and relations that have given rise to
 a disadvantaged position for certain groups within a society and which are therefore
 used to guide development-oriented action with a view to transforming such
 structures, processes and relations;
- expose those factors that have a transforming effect on the position and conditions of women and men and their mutual relations;
- assess the project's feasibility, based on external factors that could either undermine, or spur on the task of attaining the objectives of the intervention.



How do we conduct an analysis into the factors that influence gender relations? There are many different kinds of influencing factors capable of affecting gender dynamics:

- Legal-political factors: refer to the influence exerted by the State and its policies and legislation. Legislation and public policies, budgetary policies, structural adjustment policies and sector-wide policies have different effects on women and men. We must also analyse the extent to which women participate at State-level and within civil society, including the degree of commitment at these levels to defending the human rights of women.
- Socio-economic factors: take into account the different roles that men and women
 play in economic activities, both at macro-level (cuts in social spending, privatisations
 of public services, unemployment, etc.) and micro-level (levels of family income, access
 to borrowing, types of productive activities, types of family structures, etc.).
- Socio-cultural and religious factors: tend to have a hugely important bearing on gender relations and on women's position within society. Culture determines the identity and roles assigned to men and women in each society, and also the value attached to such roles within the family and within the community or society as a whole.
- Environmental factors: relations governing the holding, ownership and control of resources and products, and decision-making in relation to the environment have considerable ramifications on gender dynamics.
- Technological factors: address how technology can have different effects on the
 potential, productivity and capacities of women and men. These factors also
 encompass gender-related differences in accessing and acquiring training in new
 technologies.
- Linguistic and educational factors: in multilingual environments, it is often the case that women speak their mother tongue but are unfamiliar with the official languages of the country, or the most commonly used language in a given area. This restricts their access to information, to productive resources and to all the activities that are performed outside their immediate surroundings. A similar situation can arise as a result of the poor training received by women in many contexts and their typically high rates of illiteracy.
- Certain interpretations of traditions and customs can lead to women being excluded from citizenship and basic rights, while also imposing a status of permanent dependence and legal minority and even iustifvina violence and abuse towards women. thus dehumanising them as a secondrate social group.



Once the key influencing factors have been identified, we must evaluate how they affect gender dynamics in each specific case and whether they are factors that can help to usher in change or those resistant to change.

- Factors of change: those influencing factors that can help development-oriented action to promote or foster gender equality within a given community.
- Resistant factors: those influencing factors that drag back the positive effect that development-oriented action can have on the advancement of gender equality.

The following steps should be taken when conducting an analysis into influencing factors:

- pinpoint the influencing factors that represent factors of change in one column and associate them with one of the spheres of influence: the household, the community, the market or the state;
- enumerate the influencing factors that constitute resistant factors in another column and associate them with one of the spheres of influence: the household, the community, the market or the state:
- measure the intensity of each factor from 1 to 5, with 1 being the weakest and 5 the strongest;
- draw up a diagram to visualise the situation and match the situation to the suitable strategy.

3.6 Gender Sensitive Indicators²⁰

Indicators are quantitative or qualitative benchmarks used for measuring or assessing the achievement of objectives or results. Indicators can assume the form of measurement, numbers, facts, opinions, or perceptions that illustrate a specific condition or situation measuring changes in that situation or condition over time.

Indicators measure the level of performance and can be described in terms of:

- quantity (how much) The quantity of something to be achieved;
- quality (how well) The derived quality to be reached;
- target group (who) The target group who is affected by or benefits from the programme or project;
- time/duration (when and for how long) The time frame envisaged for the achievement of the objectives;
- location (where).

All development projects and actions will attempt to find support from factors of change, while counteracting, insofar as possible, resistant factors through the strategies best suited to tackling them.

²⁰ Taken from *Gender sensitive indicators: A key tool for gender mainstreaming,* Kettel, B. FAO 2001.

There are various types of indicators, including:

- Input indicators describe what goes into the programme or project, such as the number of hours of training, the amount of money spent, the quantity of information material distributed etc.
- Output indicators describe the programme or project activities, such as the number of people trained, the number of policy makers at the briefing, the number of rural women and men reached etc.
- Impact indicators describe the actual change in conditions, such as changed attitudes
 as a result of training, changed practices as a result of a programme or project activity
 etc. This type of indicator is more difficult to measure.
- Criteria for selecting indicators

Various criteria may be used to help identify appropriate indicators:

- relevant to the needs and capabilities of the user;
- easy to collect, use and understand;
- clarity of definition, unambiguous, accurate and reliable;
- sensitive to record changes induced by the project;
- independent of each other;
- as few as possible, concentrating on measuring important project features whilst avoiding over aggregation.

Identification of indicators

- It is appropriate for stakeholders to participate in the process of identifying indicators, particularly when projects have a strong qualitative component. The community's perspective of an improvement in their quality of life may differ from that of an outsider's. It may also be relevant to distinguish between women and men's perspectives.
- <u>Gender-sensitive indicators</u> are indicators disaggregated by sex, age and socioeconomic background. They are designed to demonstrate changes in relations between women and men in a given society over a period of time. The indicators can be used to evaluate the outcomes of gender-focused and mainstream interventions and policies, assess challenges to success, and adjust programmes and activities to better achieve gender equality goals and reduce adverse impacts on women and men.



Indicators at the project level are needed in order to measure the following:

- Participation of women and men in project activities;
- Access to decision-making, project resources and projects services by women and men;
- Expected/unexpected project outcomes for women/men (compared with project objectives);
- Met/unmet practical and strategic needs of women and men (compared with expressed needs);
- Changes in project budget allocation towards gender;
- Changes in capacity to mainstream gender equality by project staff;
- Emergence of new gender issues in the project or as a result of the project.

Examples of gender-sensitive indicators are: Quantitative:

- Participation of all stakeholders in project identification and design meetings (attendance and level of participation/contribution by sex, age, and socio-economic bacekground).
- Degree of rural women and men's inputs into project activities, in terms of labour, tools, money, etc.
- Benefits (e.g. increased employment) going to women and men, by socio-economic background and age.

Qualitative:

- Level of participation as perceived by stakeholders through the different stages of the project cycle (by sex, age, and socio-economic background).
- Degree of participation of an adequate number of women in important decision making (adequacy to be mutually agreed by all stakeholders) - to be measured through stakeholder responses and by qualitative analysis of the impact of different decisions.

Socio-economic and gender dimensions of a project can be recorded through the use of gender sensitive indicators.

Although no number of targets and indicators can capture the rich diversity and complexity of women's lives, they help us to monitor the fulfilment of commitments to women's progress, as well as mobilise support for stronger efforts in this regard ... Assessing the progress of women against agreed targets reveals how much progress there has been - but also how much still remains to be done.

Noeleen Heyzer, Executive Director of the United Nations Development Fund for Women. (UNIFEM) 2001

How are gender equity indicators useful? 21

To make visible what is currently invisible: Indicators allow us to verify whether there is inequity or equity between men and women, where and how gender differences take place, and how they vary over time.

To compare results: Applying gender-sensitive indicators enable us to assess the gender equity situation of the community in relation to other communities, the province, the region or the country.

To find out if there is a tendency toward progress: Applying these indicators at different moments in time allows us to see if the gender equity situation has improved or worsened. In other words, they enable us to see trends toward change in a given situation.

To measure the impact of policies, programs or projects: Indicators help us determine whether or not the policies, programs or projects being implemented are contributing to gender equity in the community, the region, the nation or the world.

So how can we measure the gender related impact of the project?

Gender roles and relations are not static, they change over time. Projects in development may cause changes in gender relations (by chance or by intention) in a given community. The Log Frame should incorporate this dimension and promote a change that includes an equality component with specific targets. The M&E System could then include specific gender indicators and these can be monitored and evaluated during the life of the project. Needless to say that this targets and indicators should be determined by project stakeholders, especially in consultation with women and men from the community.

²¹ Adapted from Aguilar&Castaneda, 2001.



Some examples of gender sensitive indicators for fisheries and aquaculture:

- Increased number of women managing successful productive projects (i.e., marine farms, ponds, eco-shelters).
- Number of women that recognize themselves as "fisher-women".
- Level of community recognition regarding the fact that women and men posses the same capacities to undertake the same type of job.
- Women and men are paid equal salary for the same type of job and work shift (particularly
 in fish processing plants).
- Women and men are acquainted with adequate marketing and accounting techniques.
- Women and men participate actively in the conservation of marine-coastal resources.
- Number of women's organizations formally incorporated.
- Women trained to assume responsibilities in power or decision-making positions.
- Women actively participate in the decisions about the use of natural resources.
- Women and men participate in mixed organizations (i.e. fishing cooperatives/associations).
- Community members recognize that women are capable of making decisions.
- Men take over children's care.
- Men participate in household tasks.
- Boys and girls from fisher households attend school.
- Food is equally distributed among men and women in the household.
- Improved access to and control over key resources by women (e.g., fuel wood, craft supplies, shellfish).
- Number and type of formal tourism sector jobs held by women; not just the housecleaning and food jobs.
- Percentage of women obtaining fisheries-related accreditations.
- Number/percentage of women that own aquaculture ponds.





Chapter 4:

Mainstreaming gender in project cycle management

4.1 Project Cycle Management (PCM)

4.1.1 What is a project?

A project is a series of activities aimed at bringing about clearly specified objectives within a defined time-period and with a defined resources (material, financial, human).

A project should have:

- clearly identified stakeholders, including the primary target group and the final beneficiaries:
- clearly defined coordination, management and financing arrangements;
- a monitoring and evaluation system (to support performance management); and
- an appropriate level of financial and economic analysis, which indicates that the project's benefits will exceed its costs.

4.1.2 Project Cycle Management (PCM)

Project cycle management is a term used to describe the management activities and decision-making procedures used during the life-cycle of a project (including key tasks, roles and responsibilities, key documents and decision options).

PCM helps to ensure that:

- projects are supportive of overarching policy objectives of the donor agency and of development partners;
- projects are relevant to an agreed strategy and to the real problems of target groups/beneficiaries;



- projects are feasible, meaning that objectives can be realistically achieved within the constraints of the operating environment and capabilities of the implementing agencies; and;
- benefits generated by projects are likely to be sustainable.

To support the achievement of these aims, PCM:

- requires the active participation of key stakeholders and aims to promote local ownership;
- uses different tools to support a number of key assessments/analyses (including stakeholders, problems, objectives and strategies). The methodology presented in this handbook uses the Logical Framework Approach although other equally valid approaches exist;
- incorporates key quality assessment criteria into each stage of the project cycle; and
- requires the production of good-quality key document(s) in each phase (with commonly understood concepts and definitions), to support well-informed decisionmaking.

In practice, the duration and importance of each phase of the cycle will vary for different projects, depending on their scale and scope and on the specific operatina modalities under which they are set up. Nevertheless, ensurina that adequate time and resources are committed to project

identification and formulation is critical to supporting the design and effective

implementation of relevant and feasible projects.

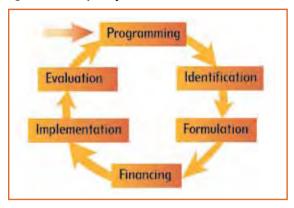
Phases in Project Cycle Management

There are four fundamental phases in the project cycle management:

- Identification
- Formulation
- Implementation and monitoring
- Evaluation

The phases are progressive, each phase leads to the next.

Figure 1: The Project Cycle



This cycle highlights three main principles:

- 1. Decision making criteria and procedures are defined at each phase (including key information requirements and quality assessment criteria);
- 2. The phases in the cycle are progressive each phase should be completed for the next to be tackled with success and;
- 3. New programming and project identification draws on the results of monitoring and evaluation as part of a structured process of feedback and institutional learning.

4.1.3 The Logical Framework Approach (LFA)

The LFA is an analytical process and a tool that has the power to communicate the essential elements of a complex project clearly and succinctly throughout the Project Cycle. It is used to develop the overall design of a project to improve project implementation, monitoring and to strengthen periodic project evaluation.

A crucial element of LFA is the participatory approach to project planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation involving all stakeholders affected by the project activities and /or decision-makers.



4.1.4 Merging PCM and the Logframe Approach

It is a common practice among international development agencies to use two inter-related frameworks for project management, the Project Cycle Management (PCM) and the Logical Framework Approach (LFA), since the two frameworks complement one another.

The stages of the project management resulting from this are:

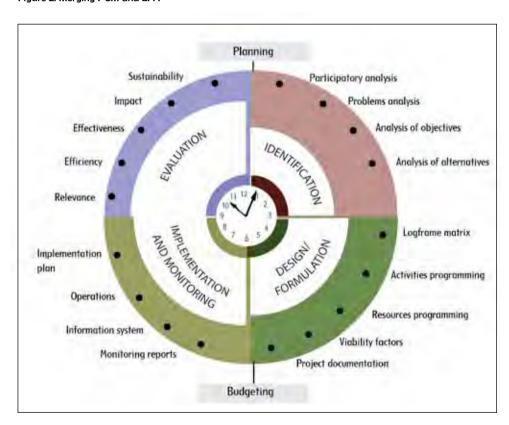


Figure 2: Merging PCM and LFA

4.1.5 Phases in project management resulting from merging PCM and LFA

A) Identification phase

The identification phase includes four stages:

- 1. Participation analysis
- 2. Problem analysis
- 3. Objective analysis
- 4. Alternative analysis
- Participation / stakeholders analysis: As a first step, a comprehensive picture of the stakeholders (interest groups, institutions, individuals, etc.) affected by the project/problem context is developed.

Any individuals, groups of people, institutions or firms that may have a relationship with the project are defined as stakeholders. In order to maximize the social and institutional benefits of the project and minimise its negative impacts, stakeholder analysis identifies all who are likely to be affected (either positively or negatively), and how.

To gain information, interview and discussion techniques are commonly used.

It is important that stakeholder analysis take place at an early stage in the identification and appraisal phases of a projects.



Figure 3: Example of stakeholder analysis

Stakeholder and basic characteristcs	Interests and how affected by the problem(s)	Capacity and motivation to bring about change	Possible actions to address stakeholder interests
Fishing families: c.20,000 families, low income earners, small scale family businesses, organised into informal cooperatives, women actively involved in fish processing and marketing	 Maintain and improve their means of livelihood Pollution is affecting volume and quality of catch Family health is suffering particularly children and mothers 	- Keen interest in pollution control measures - Limited political influence given weak organizational structure	- Support capacity to organize and lobby - Implement industry pollution control measures - Identify/develop alternative income sources for women and men

Source: EuropeAid Cooperation Office

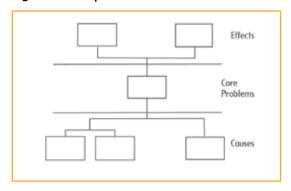
- 2. Problem analysis: Problem analysis identifies the negative aspects of an existing situation and establishes the 'cause and effect' relationships between the problems that exist. It involves three steps:
 - 1. Precise definition of the framework and subject of analysis;
 - Identification of the major problems faced by target groups and beneficiaries (What is / are the problem/s? Whose problems?);
 - 3. Visualisation of the problems in form of a diagram, called "problem tree" or "hierarchy of problems" to establish cause effect relationships.

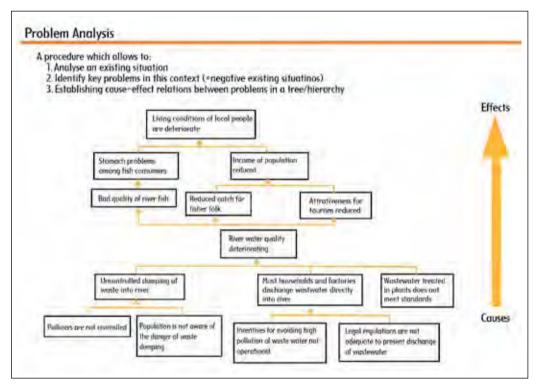
The analysis is presented in diagram form showing effects of a problem on top and its causes underneath. The analysis is aimed at identifying the real bottlenecks to which the stakeholders attach priority and seek to overcome.

Once the project tree is complete, a focal problem is selected, being the central problem to be addressed by the project or intervention.



Figure 4: Example of a Problem Tree





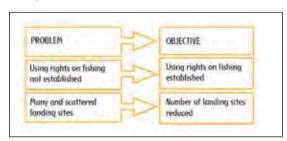
Source: EuropeAid Cooperation Office



3. Objective analysis: While problem analysis presents the negative aspects of an existing situation, analysis of objectives presents the positive aspects of a desired future situation. This involves the reformulation of problems into objectives and the development of an objective tree.

The objective tree can therefore be conceptualised as the positive mirror image of the problem tree. Example:

Once complete, the objective tree provides a comprehensive picture of the future desired situation.



4. Alternative analysis: the purpose of the alternative analysis is to identify possible alternative options, assess the feasibility of these and to agree upon one project strategy.

Alternative analysis involves deciding what objectives will be included IN the project, and what objectives will remain OUT, and what the project purpose and overall objectives will be. This step requires:

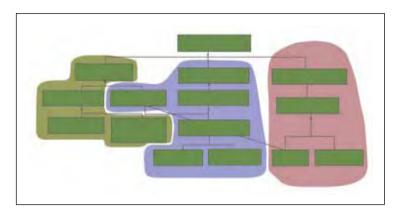
- clear criteria for making the choice of strategies; and
- the identification of the different possible strategies to achieve the objectives.

In the hierarchy of objectives, the different clusters of objectives of the same type are called strategies. One or more of them will be chosen as the strategy for future operation. The most relevant and feasible strategy is selected on the basis of a number of criteria to be agreed upon for each project individually. The following are possible criteria:

- Priorities of and attractiveness to target groups, including time perspective of benefits
- Resource availability: external funds, counterpart / partner institutions' funds, expertise required / available
- Existing potential and capacities (of target group/s)
- Relevance for contribution to overarching policy objectives
- Relationship and complementarity with other development initiatives
- Social acceptability
- Contribution to reduction of inequalities (e.g. gender)
- Urgency



Figure 5: Objectives dealing with a similar topic can be grouped together in clusters



B) Formulation phase

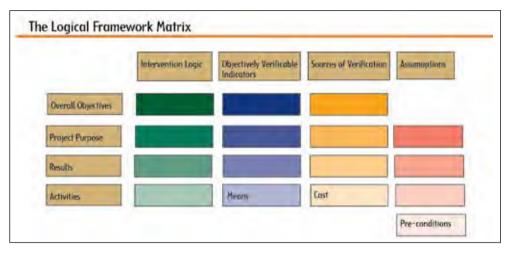
The formulation phase includes the preparation of the Logical Framework (Logframe) Matrix:

The results of the stakeholder, problem, objectives and strategy analysis are used as the basis for preparing the Logical Framework Matrix. The matrix should provide a summary of the project design, showing the interrelation of the four hierarchical levels - overall goal, objective, expected result, and activities - in a logical fashion. For each level, indicators, sources of verification and external factors have to be identified.

The Logical Framework Matrix presents 16 boxes which shows the most important aspects of a project, summarising:

- why a project is carried out (intervention logic)
- what the project is expected to achieve (intervention logic and indicators)
- how the project is going to achieve it (activities, means)
- which external factors are crucial for its success (assumptions)
- where to find the information required to assess the success of the project (sources
 of verification)
- which means are required (means)
- what the project will cost (cost)
- which pre-conditions have to be fulfilled before the project can start (preconditions)



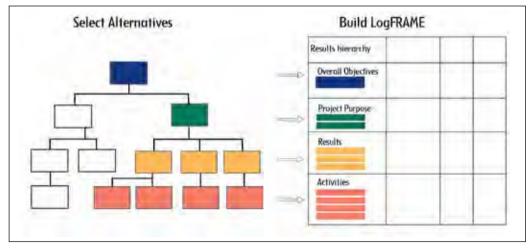


Source: World Bank

• First Column: intervention logic

The first column of the Logframe matrix summarises the 'means-end' logic of the proposed project (also known as the 'intervention logic').

The selected alternatives provide the casual logic for the first column of the Logframe.



Source: World Bank



• The overall objective

Should explain why the programme is important to society in terms of the longer-term benefits to beneficiaries.

• The project purpose

Should address the core problem and be defined in terms of the benefits to be received by the project beneficiaries or target group.

Results

Describe the services and/or goods to be delivered to the intended beneficiaries or target group.

Activities

How the project goods and services will be delivered.

• Fourth Column: assumptions

Assumptions are external factors that have the potential to influence (or even determine) the success of a project, but lie outside the direct control of project managers. They are the answer to the question: "What external factors may impact on project implementation and the long-term sustainability of benefits, but are outside project management's control?"

The assumptions are part of the vertical logic in the logframe. This works as follows:

e. g if activities are undertaken AND assumptions hold true, then results can be achieved, etc

Overall Objective

+ Assumptions

Activities
+ Assumptions

Pre-conditions-need to be met before resources are committed and activities initiated

Figure 6: Relationship between assumptions and objective hierarchy

Source: EuropeAid Cooperation Office



If adequate inputs/resources are provided, THEN activities can be undertaken.

If activities are undertaken AND assumptions hold true, THEN the results can be delivered.

If results are delivered AND assumptions hold true, THEN the project purpose will be achieved.

If the project purpose is achieved AND assumptions hold true, THEN the overall objective will be reached.

• Second and third columns: indicators / source of verification

Once the project description and assumptions have been drafted (columns 1 and 4 of the matrix), the next task is to identify indicators that might be used to measure and report on the achievement of objectives (column 2) and the sources of that information (column 3).

Indicators

Objectively Verifiable Indicators (OVIs) describe the project's objectives in operationally measurable terms (i.e. quantity, target group, place, quality, time). Specifying OVIs helps to check the feasibility of objectives and helps form the basis of the project's monitoring and evaluation system. They are formulated in response to the question "How would we know whether or not what has been planned is actually happening or happened? How do we verify success?"

OVIs should be measurable in a consistent way and at an acceptable cost.

Source of verification

The source of verification should be considered and specified at the same time as the formulation of indicators. This will help to test whether or not the indicators can be realistically measured at the expense of a reasonable amount of time, money and effort.



Sources of verification should specify:

- the format in which the information should be made available (progress report, project accounts, official statistic, etc)
- who should provide the information

C) Implementation and monitoring phase

Once a project has been planned and financial support been secured, implementation can start. The agreed resources are used to achieve the project purpose and to contribute to the wider, overall objectives. This usually involves contracts for studies, technical assistance, works or supplies.

It is very rare for any project to go exactly according to plan, in fact it is not uncommon for a project to take on a direction that was completely unanticipated during planning.

For that reason it is necessary to assess the progress to enable adjustment to changing circumstances. This is done by monitoring.

There are five steps in the design and specification of a monitoring system:

- Analyse project objectives Good monitoring depends on clearly stated objectives.
 The logframe approach helps to ensure that objectives are correctly written and that actions are designed to lead to outputs and objectives
- Review implementation procedures to determine information needs at the different levels of the project management structure. A review of implementation procedures involves a review of what activities will be undertaken and by whom. This should be done with reference to the activity schedule.
- Review indicators poorly specified indicators have frequently been cited as a major weakness in the design of monitoring and evaluation systemss
- Design report formats



 Prepare an implementation plan for the monitoring system, which specifies the necessary staff, skills and training required, and clearly allocates information collection and reporting responsibilities.

Reporting as an instrument for monitoring

The information collected must be communicated in the right form, to the right person, at the right time. Only then can timely and appropriate management decisions be made to address problems. Two important types of mechanism are: project progress reports and progress reviews.

D) Evaluation phase

Evaluation can be defined as a periodic (mid-term and completion) assessment of the relevance, efficiency, effectiveness, impact, economic and financial viability, and sustainability of a project in the context of its stated objectives.

The purpose of evaluation is to review the achievements of a project against planned expectations, and to use experience from the project to improve the design of future projects and programmes.

How?

By providing information that is credible and useful, enabling the incorporation of lessons learned into the decision-making process of both recipients and donors.

All evaluations should consider five main components: relevance, efficiency, effectiveness, impact and sustainability.



Evaluation criteria used by the European Commission			
Revelance	The appropriateness of project objectives to the problems that it was supposed to address, and to the physical and policy environment within which it operated. It should include an assessment of the quality of project preparation and designie. the logic and completeness of the project planning process, and the internal logic and coherence of the project design.		
Efficiency	The fact that the project results have been achieved at reasonable cost, i.e. how well inputs/means have been converted into Activities, in terms of quality, quantity and time, and quality of the results achieved. This generally requires comparing alternative approaches to achieving the same results, to see whether the most efficient process has been adopted.		
Effectiveness	An assessment of the contribution made by results to achievement of the Project Purpose, and how Assumptons have affected project achievements. This should include specific assessment of the benefits accruing to target groups, including women and men, and identified vulnerable groups such as children, the elderly and disabled.		
Impact	The effect of the project on its wider environment, and its contribution to the wider policy or sector objectives (as summarised in the project's Overall Objective).		
Sustainability	An assessment of the likelihood of benefits produced by the project to continue to flow after external funding has ended, and with particular reference to factors of ownership by beneficiaries, policy support, economic and financial factors, socio-cultural aspects, gender equality, appropriate technology, environmental aspects, and institutional and management capacity.		



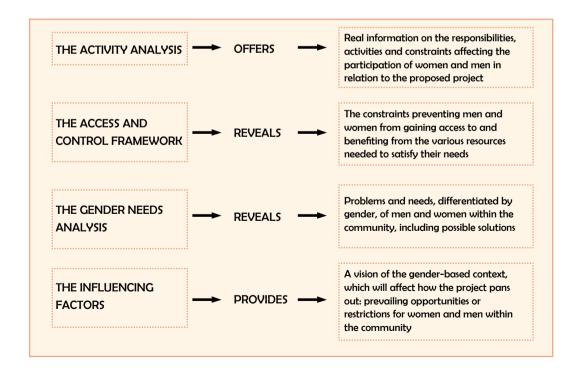
4.2 Assessing gender equality at all project stages

Despite many agencies' political and technical commitment to gender mainstreaming, actual implementation of the gender-based approach into project cycle management has been scant, with the approach still playing only a cameo role during the identification phase and at certain points of the formulation and monitoring phases, and an even smaller role during the evaluation phase.

To counter this trend, we need to link each phase of the project cycle with appropriate aender-based analysis tools.

4.2.1 Identification and formulation

This is the most important stage when it comes to integrating the gender dimension into the project. This stage requires us to compile all the information obtained from applying the gender-based analysis tools in order to plan ahead on the basis of real information and not pre-conceived scenarios or ideas concerning the lives of the male and female beneficiaries.



What happens if the project is not identified from a gender-related standpoint....?

In practice, many projects have failed to include any kind of gender analysis during the identification and formulation phases for a whole host of reasons, including:

- women are poorly represented in the target population, or there are hurdles preventing their participation (legal or cultural hurdles), and there is no consensus on how to tackle the problem;
- it is assumed that women will participate automatically in the project or otherwise benefit from it (leading to a presumption of mistaken "neutrality");
- the gender-based approach is considered an ancillary issue and, despite being included in the statement of project intent, does not translate into real and effective measures.

.... so what does this mean?

This does not mean that a gender-based analysis cannot be incorporated into the project cycle, since there are strategies to integrate the gender dimension into each of its component phases.

....such as?

For example, the following specific activities could be carried out to integrate gender into the implementation phase:

- apply new participatory methods to factor in the perspectives of women and gender dynamics;
- develop capacities and raise awareness of gender for the personnel involved in project implementation;
- create activities and responsibilities for men and women and organise them such that women are afforded the same chances to participate as men, etc.;
- include gender-based tools among the instruments used to monitor the projects.



4.2.1.1 Participation/stakeholder analysis

In order to ensure that the gender dimension is integrated into the participation analysis, we must systematically reflect existing differences between women and men, and heighten awareness and exposure of women's specific interests and needs, as well as their potential and the extent of their influence.

Some suggestions in this regard include:

- disaggregating by gender the groups involved, insofar as relevant;
- determining whether women constitute an involved group in itself, with common interests and needs, or whether it would be better to identify various sub-groups of women separately. Similarly, and when working with women's organisations, be sure to indicate the specific groups these organisations represent;
- reflect the non-existence of operative channels of participation in order to articulate gender related interests or women's own interests:
- ensure a balanced representation of the interests of women and men when deciding on the participants to attend the workshops and discussion groups planned to analyse participation;
- value the receptivity and awareness of every individual involved in relation to genderrelated issues. This information may help to identify possible actors with whom interaction
 would be useful in order to promote enhanced gender equality over the course of the
 project, as well as potentially conflictive actors, with whom greater work will be required to
 heighten their awareness of the issues in question.

when analysing participation would effectively mean neglecting their practical and strategic needs and excluding them as a relevant group to the project.

Failing to include

women explicitly

V

To bear in mind...

Techniques that can be used in the field

The better our knowledge of the society we are intending to study the better the capacity to design a proper methodology. In this task we should always take into account the lines that divide society. As an example, in a society where only certain old men have the right to speak in public, we should not mix them in a group discussion with young men or women. Their voice will be silenced. We can prepare personal interviews or focus groups with those that "can speak". Amongst the best known techniques are:

- Interviews with key informants
- Opened or semi-structured interviews
- Participant observation
- Informal conversations
- Discussion and focus groups

Participant observation should be deployed whenever we are in the field. We will learn more in one day joining women and men in their daily work and lives than asking them questions in group sessions. The same applies to informal conversations in which informants feel comfortable. The objective is getting quality information.

Source: Enrique Alonso & M Jesús Pena



4.2.1.2 Problems analysis

If the participation analysis was unable to reflect gender-based interests and needs, representing them on the problem tree will prove a tricky task. The upshot could well be that problems associated with women remain invisible. To sidestep this kind of situation, the following steps are proposed:

- Explain to the fullest possible extent the problems relating to the different ways in which men and women are affected by these problems.
- When defining a problem, from the standpoint of both women and men alike, the following basic questions should be raised, among others:
 - Who will be more directly affected by the problems unearthed?
 - How do women view such problems?
 - Why is it a problem for women?
- Increase the representation of women and their groups at workshops for the purpose of drawing up the problem tree, or even stage workshops exclusively with women.

The following key gender equality considerations and questions²² should be included in each of the three steps in problem analysis (see point 4.1.1) as appropriate.

- Is it clear that problems are identified by both women and men (or men only, or women only)?
- Who is representing whom in terms of collectively vocalising problems? Are they acceptable to both women and men whom they represent?
- What are the different problems identified by women and men? How do they differ?
- Can women speak freely, or should they be interviewed separately?
- Which problems result from the gender-based division of labour or from inequitable access to resources?
- Which problems are shared by both women and men?
- Which problems are shared by all the different groups involved in the problem analysis steps?
- What are the different problems identified by different socioeconomic groups?

Even when a

problem can be

said to apply equally to men and women, the causes of the problem can vary, depending on gender.

²² Taken from EC Toolkit for Mainstreaming Gender Equality in EC Development Cooperation.



- Which problems result from poverty or discrimination?
- How are the problems related to one another?
- What are the causes of the problem? Do any relate to gender issues?
- Can you link the causes of the problem to policies, intermediaries (such as government agencies or other service providers), or cultural, economic, political and social factors at the community level?
- What are the <u>effects</u> of the problem? Do any relate to gender issues? If the problems relate to gender issues, have practical and strategic gender needs been identified.
- What are the <u>solutions proposed</u>? Which of them can be implemented by the local community? If so, by which members?
- Do the solutions proposed require a change in policies?
- Which solutions require external assistance?
- Are there gender-linked problems for which no solutions were identified?
- Is there any overlap of causes, effects or solutions for priority problems of different groups (including men and women)? Among the different groups?
- Was there consensus or disagreement (among women and men) in establishing a hierarchy of cause and effects of problems? Or the ranking of problems in order of importance?
- How can you feed the results of the gender-related analysis into the next stages of project formulation (objectives and strategy analysis, etc.)?

A problem rarely if ever has just one source or stems from one social or economic issue only. The nature of a problem can be reviewed at three levels. A problem may be caused by constraints at the macro level imposed, for example, by the legal system or the policy environment. Constraints may arise at the intermediate level; for example, through regulations restricting certain people's access to services.

Alternatively, constraints may exist at the household and community level; cultural norms may prevent specific members of a household from participating in decision making. Therefore a problem cannot be dealt with outside its global context. It must be examined at all levels (macro, intermediate and field) and should show how interdependent these levels are in terms of the stakeholders involved.



4.2.1.3 Analysis of objectives

If the specific problems facing women have been excluded from the problem tree, we will be hard pressed to come up with positive objectives in terms of gender equality. That said, a discussion on the objectives provides an ideal opportunity to reformulate some of the objectives so that they can lead to benefits and cover the needs of both men and women alike.

Some suggestions for achieving this:

- ensure that the beneficiary groups of the objectives are sufficiently specified on each card, thus enabling you to confirm, with relative accuracy, that the objectives target both women and men:
- reformulate some objective cards so that the improvements and benefits for men and women are stated separately when of a different nature or when attainment thereof responds to different strategies;
- ensure that the objective cards have been prepared in accordance with the divergent possibilities and circumstances of men and women.

4.2.1.4 Analysis of alternatives

It is essential when analysing alternatives to attach considerable weight to gender equality-related criteria, thus selecting those strategies that will have the greatest impact on gender.

4.2.1.5 The logframe matrix

As the logframe matrix clearly and succinctly displays and interrelates lead project elements and requirements, incorporating the gender-based analysis into each of the matrix's components is essential.



In this regard, the following suggestions can be made:

- the general objectives must cater to strategic gender-based needs and their contribution to empowering women must be expressly mentioned;
- the specific objective must be sufficiently defined in relation to both women and men;
- new findings and activities can be charted so as to ensure that women are actively involved in the project and that their practical needs are duly covered;
- the indicators must be gender-disaggregated in order to show how the results were produced and that the objectives of both women and men are met. It is also possible to identify gender indicators that measure the extent to which project objectives have helped to promote gender equality;
- external gender-related factors must be identified as an important part of the hypotheses affecting the project. Certain external gender-related factors can kill off any chance of accomplishing specific and general objectives and can even have a negative impact on gender equality. Similarly, some external factors can lead to different consequences for men and women;
- project resources must be accessible for both women and men alike. Be sure to analyse, as accurately as possible, which part of the project resources will benefit the women and which will benefit the men;
- resources intended to strengthen gender-related aspects must be suitably budgeted for;
- project inputs provided by women must be made sufficiently visible, as sometimes no value is attached to contributions made by women to the functioning of a project;
- the prerequisite conditions must also identify factors that could affect the development
 of gender-related aspects within the project, such as the sex of the project
 management staff, their gender-related capacities and skill at communicating with the
 women involved in the project.

All gender-analysis tools must be employed for the purpose of completing the logframe matrix. The following matrix features a series of guide questions to verify whether the logframe matrix reflects gender-related aspects.

	LOGIC BEHIND THE INTERVENTION	OBJECTIVELY VERIFIABLE INDICATORS (OVI)	SOURCES OF VERIFICATION	ASSUMPTIONS	
OVERALL OBJECTIVE (OO)	Do the OOs refer explicitly to men and women? Do the OOs include benefits for both women and men? Do the OOs reflect the strategic gender-based needs?	Are the indicators capable of measuring the progress of the OOs in relation to both men and women? Has any OVI been included to measure the gender-related impact of the OOs?	Are the data for verifying the Overall Objective sex- disaggregated and analysed in terms of gender? What gender analytical tools will be used?	What external factors are required to ensure that the positive gender-related impact of the Overall Objective is sustainable?	
PROJECT PURPOSE (PP)	Is the PP sufficiently defined (by addressing practical and strategic needs, gender mainstreaming issues, etc.) in relation to both men and women?	Are the indicators capable of measuring the progress of the PP in relation to both women and men? Has any OVI been included to measure the gender-related impact of the PP?	Are the data for verifying the Project Purpose sex- disaggregated and analysed in terms of gender? What gender analytical tools will be used?	What external factors are required to ensure that the positive gender-related impact of the specific objective is sustainable?	
RESULTS	Are gender-related roles and responsibilities being taken into account for the purpose of distributing the benefits? Do the results benefit men and women alike?	Are the indicators capable of measuring attainment of the results in relation to both men and women? Has any OVI been included to measure the gender-related impact of the results?	Are the data for verifying the project results sex- disaggregated and analysed in terms of gender? What gender analytical tools will be used?	What external factors are required to achieve projects results and to ensure that these results benefit women?	
ACTIVITIES	Are gender dynamics taken into account when planning the activities? Do women participate as sufficiently visible actors and decision-makers? Do activities reflect gender differences in roles and responsibilities (access to/control over material and non-material resources?	Resources and inputs Have the contributions of women and men to the project been made visible? Do the women have access to, and control of the project resources?	Budget Have strategies that foster the involvement of women and their equal access to project benefits been suitably budgeted for? Is it clear what percentage of the total budget will directly benefit women and men? Have you budgeted for the recruitment of personnel specialising in gender-related issues, or for the staging of activities to raise awareness or provide training in gender- related issues?	What external factors are required to achieve the activities and to ensure the continued engagement of women in the project?	



Key questions when assessing integration of the gender-based approach during the project identification and formulation phases

- Do the project objectives refer explicitly to men and women (do they include practical and strategic needs?)?
- Have gender equality issues relevant to the project been identified?
- Do the project documents describe the application of consultation and participation strategies?
- Are statistics used for project identification disaggregated by sex?
- Have you considered the prevailing sexual division of labour within the community in accordance with the application of the Activity Analysis?
- Does the problem analysis provide information on the problems specific to men and women, or common to men and women?
- What will be the likely impact of the project on workloads? Will it be necessary to take any remedial measures?
- Have you considered who has access to, and control over, community resources, including project resources?
- Have the project beneficiaries (male and female) been identified?
- Have you taken into account the numerous factors influencing the participation of women and men?
- What factors may inhibit women's full participation in the project? How may they be overcome?
- Does the counterparty agency have the capacity to carry out gender-based projects?
- Have you envisaged mechanisms (including indicators) to monitor the gender-related impact of the project?
- Are the project resources suitable for providing services and promoting opportunities for women and men (budget, participation strategies, schedule, experts in gender issues, etc.)?
- Will the project empower women?

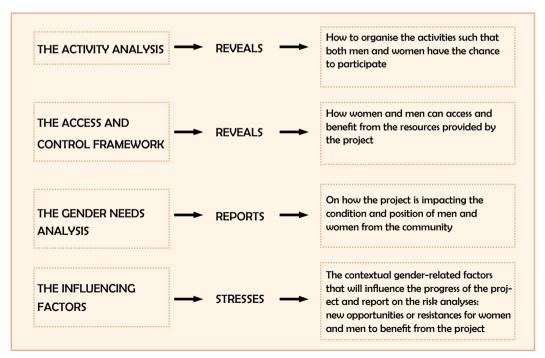


The gender implications of the project design may be classified in one of four categories:

- gender blind: the project fails to identify differences between women and men with regard to their activities, access and control of resources, access and control of benefits, and participation in decision making
- gender neutral: gender differences are noted but gender-specific solutions have not been identified
- gender aware: gender-specific solutions are included in the project activities but they focus on issues of efficiency and only address practical gender needs
- gender planning: project activities address both practical and strategic gender needs, thereby aiming to achieve gender equity and empowerment, as well as efficiency.

4.2.2 Implementation and monitoring

The purpose of applying gender-analysis tools during the project implementation phase is to find out how performance of the activities is affecting gender relations.



²³ Moser, 1993.



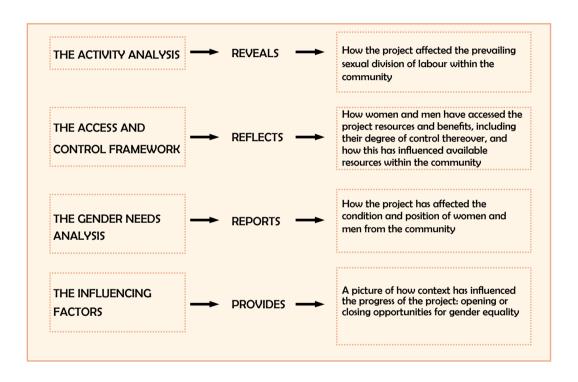
Key questions when assessing the integration of the gender-based approach during the projet implementation and monitoring phases

- Have you envisaged strategies and objectives to promote equal opportunities and benefits in the project design?
- Are there gender-oriented monitoring mechanisms in place and assigned to staff members (gender-disaggregated information, indicators, participatory processes, experts in gender issues)?
- Are both men and women involved in the project activities: how and in what capacity?
- Have any restrictions arisen during project implementation that have hindered the equal participation of men and women in the distribution of resources and benefits?
- Is the counterpart agency meeting its commitments to incorporate the gender-based approach into the project?
- Is the project having a different adverse effect on women or men?
- How is the participation of women affecting the relationships and roles of men and women?
- Are the presumptions and information regarding the characteristics, needs and interests of men and women still valid?
- Are the project resources suitable for providing services and promoting opportunities for women and men (budget, participation strategies, schedules, experts in gender issues, etc.)?



4.2.3 Evaluation

The purpose of applying gender-analysis tools during the project evaluation phase is to gauge the project's impact on gender dynamics and, essentially, its contribution to gender equality and the empowerment of women.





Key questions when assessing the integration of the gender-based approach during the project evaluation phases

- Has the project led to more equal opportunities for men and women?
- Did women suffer any detriment as a result of the project (division of labour, access and control of resources)?
- Has the position of women improved as a result of the project? Were practical or strategic needs addressed to enable women to make more decisions?
- Are men accepting the change of roles? Will the changes be sustainable?
- Has the counterpart agency strengthened its capacity to carry out gender-based projects? Explain how.
- Were gender-related resources (capacities, personnel, budget) suitable and sufficient for helping to factor gender into the project?
- Were there any hurdles when integrating women into the project? Were they identified during the project design and implementation phases?
- Were strategies and objectives mapped out to ensure that gender-related issues were effectively integrated into the project?
- Does the evaluation include recommendations on how to strengthen the participation of women in the fishing industry?
- Does the evaluation include recommendations on how to bring about a more equitable distribution of benefits in the fishing industry?





Appendix 1:

Step-by-step guide to carry out field work in a fishing community. Please note that this should be used as a guide rather than a fixed methodology.

A) Before the field work

Suggestions:

- A preliminary visit to the place, location or community to know who is who.
 Following the local formulas of courtesy we can start mapping the society;
- ensure a balanced representation of women when deciding on the participants to attend:
- ensure that all key people in the community are attending;
- disaggregating by gender the groups involved, insofar as relevant;
- determining whether women constitute an involved group in itself, with common interests and needs, or whether it would be better to identify various sub-groups of women separately. Similarly, and when working with women's organisations, be sure to indicate the specific groups these organisations represent.

B) During the field work

Once in the field

Open your eyes and listen. A good researcher always discovers new things when going to the field. Assumptions should be questioned and new hypothesis should be formed and tested during the research process.

INTRODUCTION

Estimated Time: 15 minutes

STEPS

- 1. Welcome everybody and thank them for their time
- 2. Introduce yourself and the team
- 3. Present the project
- 4. Present the activity
- 5. Explain that the aim of the visit is to conduct a gender analysis
- 6. Explain what a gender analysis is

- 7. Highlight the importance of conducting a gender analysis
- 8. Explain that, in order to conduct a gender analysis in their community you need to collect info through using defined tools
- 9. Ask for the active participation of everyone
- 10. Start

FIRST SESSION: Activity profile

Estimated Time: 3-4 hours

STEPS

- 1. Explain the concepts of productive/reproductive/community work and give examples
- 2. Divide participants into two groups (men's group and women's group)
- 3. Ask participants to list all activities in their daily routine that they can think of even those that may not be very important to them
- 4. Facilitators guide the discussion and note down activities in table 1
- 5. Bring the groups together again for discuss the results
 - Check if the answers collected from both groups about the daily routine activities coincide
 - Identify those activities performed by men and women that are out of the daily routine (e.g. attending village meetings)
 - Let them express the social importance of the things, and tasks, and the places and practices. There can be practices or activities that we didn't consider in our template and are important for our informants. They should be included in the templates.
- After the session facilitators should record the results in Table 2

Table 1: Daily routine template

HOURS	ACTIVITIES		SEASON
110010	women	men	JEAJON

Table 2: Activity profile template

Activity profile					
Household tasks	Who does the work?		Frequency	Season	
	women	men	Trequency	Jeuson	
Household tasks	Who doe	Who does the work?		Season	
	women	men	Frequency	Jeason	
Household tasks	Who does the work?		Frequency	Season	
	women	men	Trequency	JC43011	





Working with the Activity Profile (men's and women's groups) in the fishing Commune of Loc Tri - Cambodia

SECOND SESSION: Access and control

Estimated Time: 2 hours

STEPS

- Explain the concepts of "resource" and "benefits"
- 2. Talk about the different types of resources
- 3. Give examples
- Ask participants to list all kinds of resources and benefits they can think of in their commune
- 5. Encourage participants to identify the differences of "access" and "control"
- Provide further explanation about what "access" means and what "control means"
- 7. Divide participants into two groups (men's group and women's group)
- 8. Ask each group to think about which resources women have access to and which resources men have access to. Then ask the groups to think about which resources women control over and which resources men control
- 9. Bring the groups back together and discuss the results
 - Identify difficulties for women to access resources
 - Assess any difference in decision making power between men and women over the resources

After the session facilitators should record theresults in Table 3

Table 3: Access and control of resources profile template

Access and Contro	l of Resources					
Resources	Who has acc	Who has access?		Who has control?		
	women	men	women	men	other	
Access and Contro	l of Benefits		•			
Benefits	Who does th	Who does the work?		Who has control?		
	women	men				

The templates guide us in the information gathering, but all the nuances, excetions and conditions of each practice should be gathered. For example, if we ask about the control over the fishing grounds, we can find that poor women can have access or even control over certain fishing grounds in some months during the annual cycle.





Working with the Access and Control Activity Profile (women's and men's groups) in the fishing Commune of Los Palos - Timor-Leste

THIRD SESSION: Gender problems and needs

Estimated Time: 2 hours

STEPS

- Encourage participants to identify problems in their community (if you notice they
 are reluctant to speak, then form groups and give them some cards to write down
 the problems). (An alternative might be to focus on dreams and aspirations.)
- 2. Discuss each problem with the questions: How does the problem affect men? How does the problem affect women?
- 3. Discuss the causes of any problems
- 4. Divide participants into two groups (men's group and women's group)

- 5. Ask each group to identify how gender relates to the problems identified (give examples but try not to lead the discussion)
- 6. Bring the groups together and discuss the results
- 7. After the session facilitators should record the results in Table 4

Table 4: Gender Needs Template

Gender Needs				
PRACTICAL		STRATEGIC		
women	men	women	me	



Working on gender problems and needs with a group of women in the community of Thuan An - Viet Nam

Appendix 2:

Glossary of gender and development terms²⁴

Affirmative (positive) action

Measures targeted at a particular group and intended to eliminate and prevent discrimination or to offset disadvantages arising from existing attitudes, behaviours and structures (sometimes referred to as positive discrimination). (European Commission, 1998)

Care economy

The part of human activity, both material and social, that is concerned with the process of caring for the present and future labour force, and the human population as a whole, including the domestic provisioning of food, clothing and shelter. Social reproduction is the provisioning of all such needs throughout the economy, whether part of the paid or unpaidcomponents. (Alexander, P. Baden, S., 2002)

Decision-making

A key aspect in changing gender relations at individual, household, group, village, and societal levels. (ILO, 2002)

Division of labour (by gender)

The division of paid and unpaid work between women and men in private and public sphere. (European Commission, 1998).

Empowerment

The process of gaining access and developing one's capacities with a view to participating actively in shaping one's own life and that of one's community in economic, social and political terms. (European Commission, 1998).

Equal opportunities for women and men

The absence of barriers to economic, political and social participation on the ground of sex. (European Commission, 1998).

Family responsibilities

Cover the care of and support for dependent children and other members of the immediate family who need help. National policies should aim at creating effective equality of opportunity and treatment for female and male workers, and for workers without family responsibilities (...) they should be free from restrictions based on family responsibilities when preparing for and entering, participating in or advancing in economic activity. (ILO, 2000a)

²⁴ Taken from European Commission. Toolkit on mainstreaming gender equality in EC development cooperation.

Feminisation of poverty

The increasing incidence and prevalence of poverty among women compared to men. (European Commission, 1998)

Gender

A concept that refers to the social differences between women and men that have been learned, are changeable over time and have wide variations both within and between cultures. (European Commission, 1998)

Gender analysis

The study of differences in the conditions needs, participation rates, access to resources and development, control of assets, decision making powers, etc. between women and men and their assigned gender roles. (European Commission, 1998)

Gender and Development (GAD)

Approach concentrating on the unequal relations between men and women due to "uneven playing fields". The term gender as an analytical tool arose, therefore, from an increasing awareness of inequalities due to institutional structures. It focuses not only on women as an isolated and homogeneous group, but on the roles and needs of both men and women. Given that women are usually in disadvantaged position as compared to men, promotion of gender equality implies an explicit attention to women's needs, interests and perspectives. The objective then is the advancement of the status of women in society, with gender equality as the ultimate goal. (ILO, 2000b)

Gender audit

The analysis and evaluation of policies, programmes and institutions in terms of how they apply gender-related criteria. (European Commission, 1998)

Gender blind

Ignoring/failing to address the gender dimension (as opposed to gender sensitive or gender neutral) (European Commission, 1998)

Gender budgeting

An application of gender mainstreaming 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. Gender budgeting involves examination of the gender distributional outcomes of budgetary allocations, that is, how these allocations affect the social and economic opportunities of men and women. Reallocations in revenue and expenditure and restructuring of the budgetary process may be necessary in order to promote gender equality. (ILO, 2004)

Gender equality

The concept meaning that all human beings are free to develop their personal abilities and make choices without the limitations set by strict gender roles; that the different behaviour, aspirations and needs of women and men are considered, valued and favoured equally. (European Commission, 1998)

Gender equity

Fairness in women's and men's access to socio-economic resources. Example: access to education, depending on whether the child is a boy or a girl. A condition in which women and men participate as equals and have equal access to socio-economic resources. (European Commission, 1998)

Gender gap

The gap in any area between women and men in terms of their levels of participation, access, rights, remuneration or benefits. (European Commission, 1998)

Gender impact assessment

Examining policy proposals to see whether they will affect women and men differently, with a view to adapting these proposals to make sure that discriminatory effects are neutralised and that gender equality is promoted. (European Commission, 2001)

Gender mainstreaming

concerns planning, (re) organisation, improvement and evaluation of policy processes so that a gender equality perspective is incorporated in all development policies, strategies and interventions, at all levels and at all stages by the actors normally involved therein. (European Parßliament and of the Council on Promoting Gender Equality in Development Co-operation, 2004)

Gender needs

The roles of men and women in existing societies and institutions are generally different. Thus, their needs vary accordingly. Two types of needs are usually identified: Practical needs arise from the actual conditions which women and men experience because of the gender roles assigned to them in society. They are often related to women as mothers, homemakers and such providers of basic needs, and are concerned with inadequacies in living and working conditions, as food, water, shelter, income, health care and employment. For women and men in the lower socioeconomic strata, these needs are often linked to survival strategies. Addressing them alone only perpetuates the factors which keep women in a disadvantaged position in their societies. It does not promote gender equality. Strategic needs are the needs required to overcome the subordinate position of women to men in society, and relate to the empowerment of women. They vary according to the particular social, economic and

political context in which they are formulated. Usually they concern equality issues such as enabling women to have equal access to job opportunities and training, equal pay for work of equal value, rights to land and other capital assets, prevention of sexual harassment at work and domestic violence, and freedom of choice over childbearing. Addressing them entails a slow transformation of the traditional customs and conventions of a society. (ILO, 2000b)

Gender neutral

Having no differential positive or negative impact for gender relations or equality between women and men. (European Commission, 1998)

Gender planning

An active approach to planning which takes gender as a key variable or criteria and which seeks to integrate an explicit gender dimension into policies or action. (European Commission, 2001)

Gender relations

The relation and unequal power distribution between women and men which characterise any specific gender system (see Gender contract). (European Commission, 1998)

Gender roles

A set of prescriptions for action and behaviour allocated to women and men respectively, and inculcated and maintained as described under 'Gender Contract'. (European Commission, 1998)

Gender sensitive

Addressing and taking into account the gender dimension. (European Commission, 1998)

Human development

Human development is about people, about expanding their choices to lead lives they value. Economic growth, increased international trade and investment, technological advance-all are very important. But they are means, not ends. Whether they contribute to human develop ment in the 21st century will depend on whether they expand people's choices, whether they help create an environment for people to develop their full potential and lead productive, creative lives. (UNDP, 2002)

Human rights of women

The rights of women and the girl child as inalienable, integral and indivisible part of universal human rights. (European Commission, 1998)

Informal economy/work

Unpaid economic activities done for the direct benefit of the household or of related and friends' households on a reciprocal basis, including everyday domestic work and a great variety of self provisioning activities and/or professional activity, whether as a sole or secondary occupation, exercised gainfully and not occasionally, on the limits of, or outside, statutory, regulatory or contractual obligations, but excluding informal activities which are also part of the criminal economy. (European Commission, 1998)

Participation rates

The rate of participation by defined group - example women, men, lone parents, etc. - as a percentage of overall participation, usually in employment (European Commission 1998)

Poverty

From a human rights perspective, poverty consists in the non-fulfilment of a person's human rights to a range of basic capabilities - to do and be the things he or she has reasons to value. Capability failure is thus the defining attribute of poverty (..) Only those capability failures should count as poverty that are deemed to be basic in some order of priority. As different societies may have different orders of priority, the list of basic capabilities may differ from one society to another (OHCHR, 2002)

Reproductive rights

The right of any individual or couple to decide freely and responsibly the number, spacing and timing of their children and to have the information and means to do so, and the right to attain the highest standard of sexual and reproductive health. (European Commission, 1998).

Sex

The biological characteristics which distinguish human beings as female or male. (European Commission, 1998).

Sex disaggregated statistics

The collection and separation of data and statistical information by sex to enable comparative analysis, sometime referred to as gender disaggregated statistics. (European Commission, 1998).

Sex discrimination - direct

Where a person is treated less favourably because of his or her sex. (European Commission, 1998)

Sex discrimination - indirect

Where a law, regulation, policy or practice, apparently neutral, has a disproportionate adverse impact on the members of one sex, unless the difference of treatment can be justified by objective factors (Council Directive 76/207 of 09/02/76, OJ L 39). (apud European Commission, 1998)

Stereotypes

A fixed idea that people have about what someone or something is like, especially an idea that is wrong. (Cambridge University Press, 2003)

Sustainable development

Sustainable development calls for improving the quality of life for all of the world's people without increasing the use of our natural resources beyond the earth's carrying capacity. While sustainable development may require different actions in every region of the world, the efforts to build a truly sustainable way of life require the integration of action in three key areas: economic growth and equity, conserving natural resources and the environment and social development. (United Nations, 2002).

Women in development (WID)

In the early 1970s, researchers began to focus on the division of labour based on sex, and the impact of development and modernization strategies on women. The WID concept, came into use in this period. The philosophy underlying this approach is that women are lagging behind in society and that the gap between men and women can be bridged by taking remedial measures within the existing structures. The WID approach started to recognise women as direct actors of social, political, cultural and working life. Criticism to the WID approach emerged later, underlying that women's issues tended to be increasingly relegated to marginalized programmes and isolated projects. The WID approach had not direct impact on development per se. (ILO, 2000b)

Women's triple role

Women's triple role refers to the reproductive, productive and community managing role. The way these forms are valued affects the way women and men set priorities in planning programs or projects. The taking or not taking into consideration of these forms can make or break women's chances of taking advantage of development opportunities. (Moser, C. 2003)

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RFLP Regional Fisheries Livelihoods Programme - gender pages http://www.rflp.org/gender

Guide to Gender Sensitive Indicators, CIDA: http://www.acdi-cida.gc.ca/inet/images.nsf/vLUImages/Policy/\$file/WID-GUID-E.pdf

Asian Fisheries Society - Gender in fisheries and aquaculture http://genderaquafish.org

Toolkit on Mainstreaming Gender Equality in EC Development Cooperation http://www.ec.europa.eu/comm/europeaid/projects/gender/toolkit_en.htm

Equality Tool UN and Status of Women http://www.un.org/Conferences/Women/

FAO Food and Agriculture Organization - gender pages http://www.fao.org/gender/en

ILO International Labour Organization - Gender Equality Tool http://www.ilo.org/dyn/gender/

UN Women (previously UNIFEM) http://www.unwomen.org

UNESCO, Women and Gender Equality http://www.unesco.org/women

UNDP Gender in Development http://www.undp.org/gender/

UNRISD-United Nations Research Institute for Social Development: Gender Justice, Development and Rights http://www.unrisd.org/

Development: Gender Justice, Development and Rights Worldbank GenderNet http://worldbank.org/gender/

UN and Status of Women http://www.un.org/Conferences/Women/

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